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Abstract: This study explores the morphological differences between the enamel-dentine junction (EDJ) of maxillary and mandibular molars of Neanderthals (n = 150) and recent modern humans (n = 106), and between an earlier Neanderthal sample (consisting of Pre-Eemian and Eemian Neanderthals dating to before 115 ka) and a later Neanderthal sample (consisting of Post-Eemian Neanderthals dating to after 115 ka). The EDJ was visualised by segmenting microtomographic scans of each molar. A geometric morphometric methodology compared the positioning of the dentine horns, the shape of the marginal ridge between the dentine horns, and the shape of the cervix. We also examined the manifestation of non-metric traits at the EDJ including the crista obliqua, cusp 5, and post-paracone tubercle. Furthermore, we report on additional morphological features including centrally placed dentine horn tips and twinned dentine horns. Our results indicate that EDJ morphology can discriminate with a high degree of reliability between Neanderthals and recent modern humans at every molar position, and discriminate between the earlier and the later Neanderthal samples at every molar position, except for the M3 in shape space. The cervix in isolation can also discriminate between Neanderthals and recent modern humans, except at the M3 in form space and is effective at discriminating between the earlier and the later Neanderthal samples, except at the M2/M2 in form space. In addition to demonstrating the taxonomic valence of the EDJ, our analysis reveals unique manifestations of dental traits in Neanderthals and expanded levels of trait variation that have implications for trait definitions and scoring.

## Detailed Response to Reviewers

Dear Mike,

I just put this in as the revision required a 'response to review'. I have uploaded the new revision with the copy-edits.

Kind regards, Matt

## **The morphology of the enamel-dentine junction in Neanderthal molars: gross morphology, non-metric traits, and temporal trends**

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~~Keywords: Neanderthal, EDJ, molars, microCT, dental morphology, non-metric dental traits~~

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 This study explores the morphological differences between the enamel-dentine junction (EDJ) of  
3 maxillary and mandibular molars of Neanderthals ( $n = 150$ ) and recent modern humans ( $n = 106$ ),  
4 and between an earlier Neanderthal sample (consisting of Pre-Eemian and Eemian Neanderthals  
5 dating to before 115 ka) and a later Neanderthal sample (consisting of Post-Eemian Neanderthals  
6 dating to after 115 ka). The EDJ was visualised by segmenting microtomographic scans of each  
7 molar. A geometric morphometric methodology compared the positioning of the dentine horns, the  
8 shape of the marginal ridge between the dentine horns, and the shape of the cervix. We also  
9 examined the manifestation of non-metric traits at the EDJ including the crista obliqua, cusp 5, and  
10 post-paracone tubercle. Furthermore, we report on additional morphological features including  
11 centrally placed dentine horn tips and twinned dentine horns. Our results indicate that EDJ  
12 morphology can discriminate with a high degree of reliability between Neanderthals and recent  
13 modern humans at every molar position, and discriminate between the earlier and the later  
14 Neanderthal samples at every molar position, except for the  $M_3$  in shape space. The cervix in  
15 isolation can also discriminate between Neanderthals and recent modern humans, except at the  $M_3$   
16 in form space and is effective at discriminating between the earlier and the later Neanderthal  
17 samples, except at the  $M^2/M_2$  in form space. In addition to demonstrating the taxonomic valence of  
18 the EDJ, our analysis reveals unique manifestations of dental traits in Neanderthals and expanded  
19 levels of trait variation that have implications for trait definitions and scoring.

20  
21 [Keywords: Neanderthal; EDJ; molars; microCT; dental morphology; non-metric dental traits](#)

22

## 1 Introduction

2 Teeth carry a strong taxonomic and phylogenetic signal and serve an important role in  
3 making systematic inferences about fossil hominins (e.g., Weidenreich, 1937; Robinson, 1956;  
4 Trinkhaus, 1978; Johanson and White, 1979; Wolpoff, 1979; Wood and Abbott, 1983; Suwa et al.,  
5 1994; Bermúdez de Castro et al., 1999; Bailey, 2006; Martínón-Torres et al., 2012). This is due to the  
6 predominance of teeth in the hominin fossil record, the fact that teeth do not remodel (except  
7 through attrition or decay), and because tooth development responsible for cusp formation and  
8 positioning is tightly controlled by genetics (Jernvall and Jung, 2000; Thesleff, 2000, 2006). The  
9 dentition of *Homo neanderthalensis* (hereafter Neanderthals) and recent *Homo sapiens* (hereafter  
10 referred to as recent modern humans) has been studied extensively and has been central to  
11 hypotheses regarding the position of Neanderthals relative to other Middle Pleistocene hominins  
12 and differentiating them as a distinct species from recent modern humans (Tyrrell and Chamberlain,  
13 1998; Bermúdez de Castro et al., 1999; Bailey, 2002, 2004; Harvati et al., 2003; Bailey and Hublin,  
14 2006; Macchiarelli et al., 2006; Martínón-Torres et al., 2006, 2013; Benazzi et al., 2012; Gómez-  
15 Robles et al., 2012; Zanolli and Mazurier, 2013; Bailey et al., 2014). In this contribution, we expand  
16 on these previous studies by providing novel data on the internal structure of a large sample of  
17 Neanderthal and recent modern human maxillary and mandibular molars.

18 Previous studies of Neanderthal dental morphology have focused on a number of aspects of  
19 the outer enamel surface (OES), including analyses of non-metric traits and overall crown and cusp  
20 morphology (Wolpoff, 1979; Wolpoff et al., 1981; Smith et al., 1982; Bailey, 2002, 2004, 2006; Bailey  
21 and Lynch, 2005; Martínón-Torres et al., 2006, 2013; Gómez-Robles et al., 2007, 2008, 2012; Benazzi  
22 et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2012). For the most part, these studies have indicated that Neanderthals have a  
23 distinct and derived dental morphology, including a unique pattern of non-metric dental trait  
24 frequencies in comparison to contemporary and fossil modern humans. For example, two-  
25 dimensional geometric morphometric studies have found the  $M^1$  (Bailey, 2004; Gómez-Robles et al.,  
26 2007; Benazzi et al., 2011a) and the  $M_1$  (Benazzi et al., 2011a) of Neanderthals to be morphologically

1 distinct from recent modern humans. However, 2D geometric morphometric studies have also found  
2 that the shape of the OES does not effectively discriminate the M<sup>2</sup> and M<sup>3</sup> of Neanderthals when  
3 classified against recent modern humans and Middle Pleistocene European hominins (Gómez-Robles  
4 et al., 2012). Distinctive patterns of dental trait expression at the OES have been demonstrated for a  
5 number of tooth positions (Bailey, 2002, 2006).

6 A number of studies have noted temporal variation in the distribution and frequency of  
7 derived versus primitive skeletal features among the Late Middle and Upper Pleistocene western  
8 Eurasian hominins (e.g., Howell, 1960; Arsuaga et al., 1997; Hublin 1998) leading to the formulation  
9 of various evolutionary models (e.g., Rosas et al., 2006; Hublin, 2009; Dennell et al., 2011; Bermúdez  
10 de Castro and Martín-Torres, 2013). In particular these models diverge on the level of continuity  
11 and gradualism observed among these populations. While Rosas et al. (2006) support the succession  
12 of two morphologically stable paleospecies (*H. heidelbergensis* and *H. neanderthalensis*), Hublin  
13 (2009) supports a gradual change among the European populations with an increase in frequency of  
14 the derived Neanderthal conditions already starting in the middle of the Middle Pleistocene (so-  
15 called “accretion model”). Bermúdez de Castro and Martín-Torres (2013) argue for a succession of  
16 demes coming from an external geographical source and occasionally interbreeding. Recent genetic  
17 analyses indicate that the Sima de los Huesos fossils are already part of the Neanderthal lineage  
18 (Meyer et al., 2016). This result, together with the recent morphological reassessment of the Sima  
19 de los Huesos material (Arsuaga et al., 2014), supports the accretion model and provides a first  
20 appearance date for some Neanderthal specific morphology at approximately 430 ka. With the  
21 archaeological evidence from Gorham’s Cave, Gibraltar indicating a last appearance date of 28 ka  
22 (Finlayson et al., 2006; but see also Wood et al., 2013) the Neanderthal lineage spans approximately  
23 400 ky. Although we do not have access to the material from Sima de los Huesos, material from  
24 earlier Neanderthal sites such as Krapina, Abri Suard, and Abri Bourgeois-Delaunay allows us to  
25 examine whether there are temporal trends in maxillary and mandibular molar shape, which would  
26 support particular models of Neanderthal evolution. Furthermore, given recent genetic studies that

1 indicate that Neanderthals and recent modern humans interbred, raising the possibility for a genetic  
2 contribution from Neanderthals to recent modern human dental morphology (Green et al., 2010;  
3 Meyer et al., 2012, Prüfer et al., 2014; Fu et al., 2015), it is particularly timely to characterise in detail  
4 the morphology of Neanderthal molars relative to those of recent modern humans.

5         New imaging techniques have made it possible to study the internal structures of teeth in  
6 high resolution and extract novel morphological data that can be brought to bear on taxonomic and  
7 phylogenetic questions. One such structure, the enamel-dentine junction (EDJ), is the interface  
8 between the enamel cap and the coronal dentine (Butler, 1956, 1999). The EDJ approximates the  
9 inner enamel epithelium of the developing tooth germ and has been shown in previous analyses to  
10 provide unique information about the developmental processes underlying tooth crown growth  
11 (Kraus, 1952; Korenhof, 1961, 1982; Kraus and Jordan, 1965; Skinner and Gunz, 2010; Skinner et al.,  
12 2010), and taxonomic and phylogenetic information (Corruccini, 1987, 1998; Macchiarelli et al.,  
13 2006; Skinner et al., 2008a, 2008b, 2009a, 2010; Bailey et al., 2011). EDJ morphology has also been  
14 used to successfully discriminate closely related species of extant ape and fossil hominins, as well as  
15 differentiate between molar positions along the tooth row (Skinner et al., 2008a, 2008b, 2009a;  
16 Braga et al., 2010; Zanolli et al., 2012, 2014, 2015; Zanolli and Mazurier, 2013; Zanolli, 2015).  
17 Recently, a number of studies have examined the EDJ of Neanderthal teeth, focusing on non-metric  
18 trait expression (Macchiarelli et al., 2006; Skinner et al., 2008c; Bailey et al., 2011; Martínez de  
19 Pinillos et al., 2014; Martínón-Torres et al., 2014).

20         Non-metric traits are particularly useful for determining phylogenetic relationships  
21 (Robinson, 1956; Wood and Abbot, 1983; Aiello and Dean, 2002; Bailey 2002, 2006; Guatelli-  
22 Steinberg and Irish, 2005; Irish et al., 2013) and most studies of non-metric traits in Neanderthal  
23 molars have focused on the OES and have used human standards (e.g., ASUDAS, or the Arizona State  
24 University Dental Anthropology System) (Turner et al., 1991). Difficulties in applying human  
25 standards to the study of Neanderthal teeth have been noted in past studies because many traits  
26 that are rare or absent in recent modern humans, but present in Neanderthals, are excluded from



1 the standard scoring procedure in ASUDAS (Bailey, 2002, 2006). This problem is two-fold when  
2 studying the EDJ of Neanderthals, because ASUDAS was developed for the OES, and a standardised  
3 scoring system for non-metric traits at the EDJ has yet to be developed (Skinner et al., 2008c, 2009b;  
4 Ortiz et al., 2012). We hypothesise, based on the results of studies cited above, that examining the  
5 EDJ manifestation of non-metric traits in a large sample of Neanderthals will reveal previously  
6 unappreciated variation in trait morphology, elucidate trait development and provide critical  
7 evidence for the future application of trait scoring systems in the hominin clade.

8         The patterning cascade model (PCM) of development predicts that tooth development is an  
9 iterative process, where successive cusps form along the tooth using the same developmental  
10 pathway, and that while cusps form, there is a zone of inhibition that prevents more cusps from  
11 forming in close proximity, and any simultaneous cusp development would need to be initiated  
12 outside that zone of inhibition (Polly, 1998; Jernvall, 2000; Jernvall and Jung, 2000; Jernvall and  
13 Thesleff, 2000; Salazar-Ciudad and Jernvall, 2002, 2010; Kangas et al., 2004; Kassai et al., 2005). This  
14 means that the size and shape of the primary cusps will influence the formation of any secondary  
15 cusps. Observations of the EDJ in the mandibular molars of chimpanzees are consistent with the  
16 PCM of development (Skinner and Gunz, 2010). Thus, a focus of this study is to interpret variation in  
17 crown morphology and, in particular, the definition, presence, and degree of expression of non-  
18 metric traits at the EDJ with reference to the predictions of the PCM.

19         Using microtomography and 3D geometric morphometrics of the EDJ surface, this study  
20 addresses the following questions: 1) how distinct is mandibular and maxillary molar morphology  
21 between Neanderthals and recent modern humans, and between earlier and later Neanderthal  
22 samples; 2) does the frequency and/or expression of non-metric traits at the EDJ differ between  
23 Neanderthals and recent modern humans, and between earlier and later Neanderthal samples; and  
24 3) is the PCM of development consistent with the expression of non-metric traits at the Neanderthal  
25 EDJ?

26

## 1 **Materials**

2           The study sample is shown in Table 1. The sample consists of 256 maxillary and mandibular  
3 molars attributed to Neanderthals ( $n = 150$ ) and recent modern humans ( $n = 106$ ). The Neanderthal  
4 specimens were subdivided by published geochronological age into two samples: an earlier  
5 Neanderthal sample (consisting of Pre-Eemian and Eemian Neanderthals dating to before 115 ka)  
6 and a later Neanderthal sample (consisting of Post-Eemian Neanderthals dating to after 115 ka)  
7 (Dahl-Jensen et al., 2013). Approximately 79% of the earlier Neanderthal sample is derived from  
8 Krapina, Croatia, and approximately 25% of the later Neanderthal sample is derived from El Sidrón,  
9 Spain. The earlier Neanderthal sample covers a period from about 230 to 115 ka, and the later  
10 Neanderthal sample covers a period from about 115 to 40 ka. Sex is unknown for most of the fossil  
11 specimens, so the comparative sample of recent modern humans was not divided by sex. Molar  
12 position is critically important to this study and our basis for the inferred position of each molar is  
13 listed in the Supplementary Online Material (SOM) Table S1. For example, molars can derive directly  
14 from either a mandible or maxilla (basis = 1), molar position can be inferred from an associated  
15 dentition (basis = 2), or molar position can be inferred based on previous morphological analyses by  
16 other researchers (basis = 3). Finally, the EDJ of all molars were subject to an initial geometric  
17 morphometric analysis of shape (see below) to evaluate their positions and double-check molars  
18 whose position was inferred by previous researchers based only on morphology (i.e., basis 3). From  
19 this initial analysis, the positions of seven molars were reassigned and given a basis of 4. Of these  
20 seven, all but one specimen derive from Krapina, and while not stated explicitly, as far we can  
21 determine from the relevant publications (Wolpoff, 1979; Radovčić et al., 1988), the molar position  
22 for these specimens was based on morphological grounds only (and thus is uncertain). The seventh  
23 molar is Combe Grenal IX (assigned by us as an  $M^1$  rather than an  $M^2$  by Garralda and  
24 Vandermeersch [2000] based on morphological grounds only). Reassignment was only accepted if  
25 the molar in question classified consistently to a particular molar position (see Methods, Analysis of  
26 EDJ shape). Since this was the case for all seven molars, these were included in the study using their

1 reassigned molar positions. A list of these reassigned molars showing their old and new positions is  
2 shown in Table 2.

3

#### 4 **Methods**

##### 5 *Microtomography*

6 Microtomography was used to image the internal structures of the molars in the study  
7 sample. These scans were performed by the Department of Human Evolution, Max Planck Institute  
8 for Evolutionary Anthropology with either a BIR ACTIS 225/300 (kV, 100  $\mu$ A, 0.25 brass filter) or a  
9 SkyScan 1172 (100 kV, 94  $\mu$ A, 2.0 mm aluminium and copper filter) microtomographic scanner. The  
10 isometric voxel sizes resulting from these scans range between 15 and 50 micrometers ( $\mu$ m).

11

##### 12 *Image processing and surface model generation*

13 The complete image stacks of each tooth were filtered using a three-dimensional median  
14 filter with a kernel size of 1 or 3 followed by a mean of least variance filter with a kernel size of 1 or  
15 3. Filtering the image stacks improves grayscale homogeneity within a particular tissue, and  
16 facilitates the manual segmentation of a tooth into its enamel and dentine components (Wollny et  
17 al., 2013). Filtering has been previously shown to have a minimal effect on the morphology of dental  
18 structures present on the EDJ (Skinner, 2008). The filtered image stacks were imported into Avizo 6.3  
19 (www.vsg3D.com), where the enamel and dentine were segmented semi-automatically using the 3D  
20 voxel value histogram and grayscale values. In Avizo 6.3, using the unconstrained smoothing  
21 parameter, the EDJ was reconstructed from the segmentation as a triangle-based surface model in  
22 .ply format. As a result of dental wear, the tips of the dentine horns of some specimens were  
23 missing. In such cases, dentine horn tips were reconstructed in Geomagic Studio 2012  
24 (www.geomagic.com) relying on the preserved adjacent portions of the EDJ to estimate the original  
25 height and position of the dentine horn tip (all specimens with reconstructed dentine horns are  
26 listed in the SOM [Table S2](#)). We used our experience, anatomical knowledge, and preserved

1 morphology to decide when a dentine horn could be reconstructed but as a general rule it is not  
2 possible if more than  $\sim 1/3$  of the dentine horn appears to be missing. Heavily worn specimens (i.e.,  
3 specimens for which it was not possible to reconstruct missing dentine horns) were included in the  
4 cementum enamel junction (CEJ) analyses but excluded from the EDJ/CEJ analyses (see below).

5

#### 6 *Collection of landmarks*

7 Three sets of 3D landmarks were collected following a previously published methodology  
8 (Skinner, 2008; Skinner et al., 2008a, 2009a; Skinner and Gunz, 2010) that is described here in brief.  
9 The first two sets of landmarks, 'EDJ\_MAIN' and 'EDJ\_RIDGE', were collected in Avizo 6.3 on the EDJ  
10 surface models that were generated from the segmentations. The EDJ\_MAIN landmark set consists  
11 of four anatomical landmarks placed on the tips of the dentine horns of the four primary cusps of  
12 the mandibular (protoconid, metaconid, entoconid, and hypoconid) and maxillary (protocone,  
13 paracone, metacone, and hypocone) molars. In some cases the expression of the hypocone was  
14 diminutive. In these instances, the placement of the landmark was approximated based on the  
15 positions of these dentine horns on other specimens. Specimens in which cusp homology was  
16 uncertain were excluded from the sample. The only Neanderthal tooth available for study that was  
17 excluded from the EDJ analysis for this reason was El Sidrón SD406, an M<sub>3</sub>. In this specimen the  
18 buccal marginal ridge is abnormal and it is not possible, in our opinion, to identify the distal dentine  
19 horn as a hypoconid or hypoconulid). The EDJ\_RIDGE landmark set was collected by placing  
20 landmarks along the marginal ridge that connects the dentine horns. In the mandibular molars, the  
21 placement of the EDJ\_RIDGE landmarks begins at the tip of the protoconid dentine horn and  
22 continues in the mesial direction. In the maxillary molars, the placement of the EDJ\_RIDGE  
23 landmarks begins at the tip of the protocone dentine horn and continues in the mesial direction.  
24 Enough landmarks were placed to ensure that the variation along the marginal ridge of the EDJ was  
25 captured, and therefore this number varied between specimens. The third set of landmarks,  
26 'CEJ\_RIDGE', was collected on an isosurface rendered from the unfiltered TIFF image stacks of each

1 molar. In cases where a build-up of calculus prevented landmarking around the circumference of the  
2 CEJ, landmarks were placed directly on cross-sectional slices positioned appropriately within the 3D  
3 tomographic volume. For the mandibular molars, the initial CEJ landmark was placed on the  
4 mesiobuccal corner of the crown (beneath the protoconid) and continued mesially. In the maxillary  
5 molars, the initial landmark was placed on the middle part of the buccal face of the crown (between  
6 the paracone and metacone) and continued mesially. Enough landmarks were placed to ensure that  
7 the variation along the CEJ was captured. In some cases where parts of the CEJ were missing, the  
8 location was estimated. An illustration of the placement of these landmark sets is shown in Figure 1.

9

#### 10 *Derivation of homologous landmark sets*

11 For each specimen, geometrically homologous landmarks and semilandmarks (Bookstein,  
12 1997) were derived in Mathematica 8.0 ([www.wolfram.com](http://www.wolfram.com)) using a software routine developed by  
13 Philipp Gunz (Gunz et al., 2005; Skinner et al., 2008a; Gunz and Mitteroecker, 2013). A cubic-spline  
14 function was used to fit a smooth curve through the landmarks of the EDJ\_RIDGE and CEJ\_RIDGE  
15 landmark sets described above. In the case of the curve generated for the EDJ\_RIDGE landmark set,  
16 the EDJ\_MAIN landmarks were projected onto the curve, which divided the curve into four sections.  
17 A fixed number of equally spaced landmarks were determined on each section of the curve. In the  
18 case of the mandibular molars: 12 landmarks between the protoconid and metaconid; 12 landmarks  
19 between the metaconid and entoconid; 24 landmarks between the entoconid and hypoconid; 12  
20 landmarks between the hypoconid and protoconid; and 30 landmarks were derived along the  
21 CEJ\_RIDGE spline curve. In the case of the maxillary molars: 18 landmarks between the protocone  
22 and paracone; 15 landmarks between the paracone and metacone; 15 landmarks between the  
23 metacone and hypocone; 12 landmarks between the hypocone and protocone; and 30 landmarks  
24 were placed along the CEJ\_RIDGE spline curve. A generalised least squares Procrustes  
25 superimposition was performed on the landmarks to scale each landmark set to unit centroid size  
26 and to remove information about the orientation and location from the raw landmark data (Gower,

1 1975; Rohlf and Slice, 1990; Goodall, 1991; Dryden and Mardia, 1998). The only fixed landmarks  
2 were the EDJ\_MAIN landmarks while the EDJ\_RIDGE and CEJ\_RIDGE landmarks were treated as  
3 semilandmarks and were permitted to slide along their curves. Sliding semilandmarks along their  
4 curves is done in such a manner that minimises the bending energy of the thin-plate spline  
5 interpolation function calculated between the Procrustes average of the sample and each specimen,  
6 and is performed to prevent visualisation artefacts resulting from equal spacing (Gunz et al., 2005;  
7 Gunz and Mitteroecker, 2013). Procrustes superimposition was applied after each sliding event and  
8 the landmarks of each specimen were considered to be geometrically correspondent after the  
9 sliding function was applied twice.

10

#### 11 *Analysis of EDJ shape*

12 Analyses were conducted on two sets of landmarks, an EDJ/CEJ analysis, which included the  
13 curves along the marginal ridge of the EDJ and the CEJ, and a CEJ only analysis (Table 1 notes which  
14 specimens were included in each analysis). Analyses were carried out in both shape space and form  
15 space (the latter including the log of centroid size as a variable along with the Procrustes  
16 coordinates). A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the homologous Procrustes  
17 coordinates to examine EDJ/CEJ or CEJ shape variation in the sample (Bookstein, 1991). A canonical  
18 variate analysis (CVA) uses a linear combination of variables to maximise the ratio of between group  
19 variation to within group variation, and was used to classify molars by taxon for the purposes of  
20 assessing classification accuracy (Skinner et al., 2008a). The CVA used cross-validation to avoid over-  
21 fitting (Kovarovic et al., 2011). In a cross-validated CVA, each specimen is considered unknown  
22 before being classified against the remaining sample.

23 Typically in a CVA, the number of variables should be less than the number of specimens in  
24 the sample, but this is rarely possible when analysing fossil specimens, where the number of  
25 landmarks almost always exceeds the number of specimens (Hair et al., 1998; ~~Strauss, 2010~~). To  
26 circumvent this problem, the CVA was performed using principal components (PCs). As there is no

1 clear criteria for the number of PCs to include in a CVA analysis, and the classification of individual  
2 specimens can change depending on how many PCs are used, we used sets of PCs that ranged  
3 between five and the number of PCs required to explain 95% of the variation in the PCA of each  
4 molar position for each analysis. For example, the CVA was calculated using inclusive sets of PCs 1-5,  
5 1-6, 1-7, 1-8, 1-9, etc. A specimen was considered to have classified consistently if it classified at  
6 least 80% of the time to one taxon across each set of CVAs. The PCAs and CVAs were performed in R  
7 ([www.r-project.org](http://www.r-project.org)).

8

### 9 *Visualisation of EDJ shape variation*

10 Wire frames were generated in Mathematica 8.0 using a routine written by PG to show the  
11 mean landmark configuration (in this case the EDJ ridge and CEJ curves) of each tooth position of  
12 each taxon. These wire frames were superimposed to compare changes in EDJ morphology between  
13 taxa at each particular molar position and within taxa between molar positions.

14

### 15 *Molar size*

16 After the molars were grouped by tooth position and taxa, SPSS ([www.ibm.com](http://www.ibm.com)) was used to  
17 perform a Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952) to determine if  
18 there was a significant difference in the natural logarithm of the centroid size of molars between  
19 taxa at each molar position, and within taxa between molar positions. This analysis excluded  
20 specimens with only CEJ\_RIDGE landmarks.

21

### 22 *Non-metric traits*

23 Preliminary observations of EDJ morphology in the Neanderthal sample revealed a number  
24 of morphological features that cannot be presented within traditional descriptions of non-metric  
25 traits based on the outer enamel surface. Below we outline these features and present the  
26 methodology used to analyse their presence and degree of expression.

1

2 Centrally placed dentine horn tips Our examination of dentine horn tips revealed variation in their  
3 position relative to the marginal ridge, with some located on the marginal ridge running to and from  
4 the dentine horn and some located centrally and towards the occlusal basin of the tooth crown. This  
5 feature may be linked to ‘centrally placed cusps’ noted at the OES of Neanderthal molars by others  
6 (Tattersall and Schwartz, 1999; Bailey, 2004). The range of variation in this feature is illustrated in  
7 Figure 2 and was scored as present (i.e., centrally placed) if the dentine horn tip exhibited any  
8 degree of central positioning relative to the marginal ridge. For the purpose of statistical analyses,  
9 counts for each mandibular and maxillary dentine horn included all three molar positions. Using  
10 Fisher’s Exact Test (Fisher, 1922), the frequency of this trait for each dentine horn was compared  
11 between taxa (Neanderthals vs. recent modern humans and the earlier Neanderthal sample vs. the  
12 later Neanderthal sample). For obvious reasons, dentine horns that were reconstructed for the GM  
13 analysis were not included when evaluating this trait.

14

15 Post-paracone tubercle A number of maxillary molars present what we have decided to term a post-  
16 paracone tubercle. This manifests as a protuberance on the distal marginal ridge of the paracone.  
17 The degree of expression of this trait (Figure 3) was scored as absent, minor (ranging from a slight  
18 ‘shouldering’ of the ridge to a little less than a horizontal ridge feature), intermediate (a near  
19 horizontal ridge feature), or marked (a small dentine horn-like feature is present). A potentially  
20 developmentally similar feature was noted by Skinner et al. (2008c) on the distal marginal ridge of  
21 the metaconid dentine horn of mandibular molars and referred to at the OES in the cusp 7 ASUDAS  
22 description (Type 1A) as a post-metaconulid (Grine, 1981; Turner et al., 1991; Scott and Turner,  
23 1997). Hershkovitz (1971) refers to an eoconule that is positioned distal to the eocone (a.k.a.  
24 paracone) in early therian mammals. However, given a lack of certainty as to the developmental  
25 homology of an eoconule to the trait found on hominin teeth, and the fact that a ‘paraconule’, being



1 a conule associated with the paracone, can be located either mesial or distal to the paracone, we are  
2 of the opinion that the most appropriate term for this feature is a post-paracone tubercle.

3

4 Crista obliqua The crista obliqua is a crest that courses obliquely across the occlusal surface of the  
5 maxillary molars. In addition to absence of expression, Sakai and Hanamura (1971) describe two  
6 types of crista obliqua. Type I being a crest between the lingual marginal ridge and the metacone  
7 and Type II being a crest between the protocone and metacone. In this paper, we describe and  
8 report the frequency of six types of crista obliqua expression (Figure 4). These six types of crista  
9 obliqua expression are: 1) a crest between the lingual marginal ridge distal to the protocone and the  
10 metacone dentine horn tip (like Type I of Sakai and Hanamura), 2) a crest between the tip of the  
11 protocone and metacone dentine horns (like Type II of Sakai and Hanamura), 3) a crest between the  
12 lingual marginal ridge distal to the protocone and the distal marginal ridge between the metacone  
13 and hypocone, 4) a crest between the tip of the protocone dentine horn and the distal marginal  
14 ridge between the metacone and hypocone (note: a dentine horn can be present at this location on  
15 the distal marginal ridge although it cannot be confidently attributed to a cusp 5 in all cases), 5) a  
16 crest between the lingual marginal ridge distal to the protocone and the metacone dentine horn tip  
17 and an additional crest from this crest to the distal marginal ridge between the metacone and  
18 hypocone, and 6) a crest between the tip of the protocone and metacone dentine horns and an  
19 additional crest from this crest to the distal marginal ridge between the metacone and hypocone.

20

21 Dentine horn patterning on the distal marginal ridge There are a number of crown features that can  
22 contribute to the morphology of the distal maxillary molar crown including the metacone and  
23 hypocone cusps, the distal marginal ridge, crista obliqua, and a cusp 5. Based on our preliminary  
24 observations of the distal marginal ridge of the EDJ in our Neanderthal sample, it became clear that  
25 it would be impossible to classify the variation in these features using traditional cusp nomenclature  
26 and/or the ASUDAS cusp 5 trait. Thus, we report on morphological variation on the distal marginal

1 ridge of the EDJ including the relative contribution of these features and then discuss the  
2 implications of this variation for characterising traits on the distal margin of the maxillary molar  
3 crown.

4  
5 Twinned dentine horns A number of Neanderthal molars in the study sample exhibit EDJ dentine  
6 horns at the tip of which are not one, but two, small projections. To our knowledge this  
7 phenomenon has not been previously reported in the literature. We report on its prevalence in our  
8 Neanderthal sample and discuss how such features can be explained within current models of tooth  
9 cusp development.

10

## 11 **Results**

12 In the following section we report patterns of shape variation in EDJ ridge/CEJ ridge and CEJ  
13 ridge only analyses using PCAs and visualisations of shape differences between taxa (i.e.,  
14 Neanderthals vs recent modern humans and the earlier Neanderthal sample vs. the later  
15 Neanderthal sample) and within taxa along the molar row (metameric variation) using wire frame  
16 models of the EDJ and CEJ ridges.

17

### 18 *Mandibular first molar*

19 Figure 5 shows the PCA plots of the EDJ/CEJ and CEJ analysis of the mandibular molars in  
20 shape space. In the EDJ/CEJ shape analysis for the M<sub>1S</sub>, the earlier and the later Neanderthal samples  
21 are separate from the recent modern human sample, which exhibits relatively greater shape  
22 variation. There is greater overlap between taxa in the CEJ analysis with the later Neanderthal  
23 sample positioned between recent modern humans and the earlier Neanderthal sample.  
24 Examination of mean shape wire frame models highlights average EDJ/CEJ shape differences  
25 between recent modern humans and Neanderthals and between the earlier and the later  
26 Neanderthal sample (Figure 6). For example, comparing Neanderthals to the recent modern

1 humans, the metaconid is more centrally placed, the protoconid and hypoconid are closer together,  
2 the marginal ridge of the EDJ is larger relative to the CEJ, and the mesiobuccal corner of the CEJ is  
3 more centrally placed. In the later Neanderthal sample, compared to the earlier Neanderthal  
4 sample, the protoconid is shorter, the lingual marginal ridge of the EDJ has a shallow mandibular  
5 basin, and the entoconid is less centrally placed. The shape of the CEJ is similar between the two  
6 samples.

7

#### 8 *Mandibular second molar*

9 In the EDJ/CEJ shape PCA for the M<sub>2s</sub>, there is general separation between recent modern  
10 humans and early and late Neanderthals with the greatest variation exhibited by modern humans. In  
11 the CEJ analysis, there is separation between the earlier Neanderthal sample and the recent modern  
12 human sample with the later Neanderthal sample positioned intermediate. Comparing Neanderthals  
13 to recent modern humans, the metaconid is more centrally placed, the marginal ridge of the EDJ is  
14 mesiodistally stretched, and the CEJ is more rounded, which indents at the midpoints of the buccal  
15 and lingual faces in recent modern humans (Figure 6). In the later Neanderthal sample relative to the  
16 earlier Neanderthal sample, the entoconid and hypoconid are shorter and there are slight deviations  
17 in the mean shape of the cervix.

18

#### 19 *Mandibular third molar*

20 In the EDJ/CEJ shape PCA for the M<sub>3s</sub>, there is substantial overlap between the later  
21 Neanderthal sample and recent modern human sample and both overlap slightly with the earlier  
22 Neanderthal sample, which exhibits greater shape variation. In the CEJ analysis, there is considerable  
23 overlap between taxa indicating overall similarity in CEJ shape. Comparing Neanderthals to the  
24 recent modern humans, the metaconid and entoconid are more centrally placed, the protoconid is  
25 relatively tall, and the CEJ is more rounded, which indents at the midpoints of the buccal and lingual  
26 faces in recent modern humans (Figure 6). In the later Neanderthal sample relative to the earlier

1 Neanderthal sample, the positioning of each dentine horn is slightly different (particularly for the  
2 hypoconid) with earlier Neanderthals tending to have more centrally positioned dentine horn tips.  
3 The protoconid is relatively short in later Neanderthals and the distobuccal corner of the cervix is  
4 higher and less expanded.

5

#### 6 *Maxillary first molar*

7 Figure 7 shows the PCA plots of the EDJ/CEJ and CEJ analysis of the maxillary molars in shape  
8 space. In both the EDJ/CEJ and CEJ shape analysis for the M<sup>1</sup>s, taxa are well separated. Comparing  
9 Neanderthals to recent modern humans, the paracone is relatively short and more centrally placed,  
10 the hypocone is more centrally placed, and the distal marginal ridge is relatively low. The distolingual  
11 corner of the CEJ projects distolingually (Figure 8). Compared to the later Neanderthal sample, the  
12 earlier Neanderthal sample is distinguished by a less steeply sloping distal ridge of the paracone and  
13 a taller and more centrally positioned hypocone. The protocone and metacone are also closer  
14 together in the earlier Neanderthal sample, making the tooth more skewed in occlusal view. The  
15 distolingual corner of the CEJ projects slightly more in the earlier Neanderthal sample, and there is  
16 more of an indentation lingually.

17

#### 18 *Maxillary second molar*

19 In the EDJ/CEJ shape PCA for the M<sup>2</sup>s, there is overlap between all taxa, and the recent  
20 modern human sample exhibits considerable shape variation. In the CEJ analysis, there is greater  
21 overlap between taxa and more similar degrees of variation. Krapina D176 is an earlier Neanderthal  
22 and groups more closely with the recent modern humans due to a markedly reduced hypocone. It is  
23 excluded from the convex hull of the earlier Neanderthal sample to show that Neanderthals largely  
24 group on one end of PC1, while recent modern humans group on the other side (Figure 7).  
25 Comparing Neanderthals to recent modern humans, the protocone and metacone are closer  
26 together, and the paracone and hypocone are further apart, making the Neanderthal more skewed

1 (Figure 8). The CEJ of Neanderthals lacks the distal indentation seen in the CEJ of the recent modern  
2 humans. The protocone and paracone are closer together in the earlier Neanderthal sample relative  
3 to the later Neanderthal sample, making the earlier Neanderthal sample more skewed; and the CEJ  
4 is larger relative to the marginal ridge of the EDJ in the later Neanderthal sample than in the earlier  
5 Neanderthal sample.

6

### 7 *Maxillary third molar*

8 In both the EDJ/CEJ and CEJ shape PCAs for the M<sup>3</sup>s, there is general separation between  
9 taxa. The Neanderthal M<sup>3</sup> appears more skewed than in recent modern humans, but this is due  
10 more to the mesial marginal ridge projecting mesially near the paracone than to the placement of  
11 the tips of the dentine horns (Figure 8). However, the metacone is still placed mesiolingually, and the  
12 hypocone is placed distolingually relative to recent modern humans. The CEJ of Neanderthals is  
13 relatively larger and is buccolingually longer relative to that of recent modern humans. Within the  
14 Neanderthal sample, both the paracone and hypocone are relatively short in the later Neanderthal  
15 sample relative to the earlier Neanderthal sample, while the metacone is relatively tall and more  
16 mesially placed. Also, the distolingual corner and the mesiobuccal corner of the EDJ are further apart  
17 in the later Neanderthal sample, making the CEJ more skewed.

18

### 19 *Metameric variation*

20 Metameric variation of EDJ/CEJ shape along the mandibular and maxillary molar rows can be  
21 assessed in each species through visual comparison of the mean shape at each molar position  
22 (Figure 9). In Neanderthal mandibular molars, there is a reduction in dentine horn height from M<sub>1</sub> to  
23 M<sub>3</sub> for each cusp. This reduction is most pronounced in the entoconid, hypoconid and hypoconulid.  
24 The dentine horn tips also become more centrally placed, being most pronounced in the protoconid  
25 and entoconid. This coincides with a general contraction of the EDJ marginal ridge relative to the  
26 cervix when viewed occlusally (not shown). Relative to the M<sub>2</sub> and M<sub>3</sub>, the lingual margin of the M<sub>1</sub>

1 cervix is slightly invaginated. Recent modern human mandibular molars exhibit a similar reduction in  
2 dentine horn height along the molar row. The most variable dentine horn in terms of relative height  
3 and placement is the hypoconid. The hypoconid is more distally placed but only slightly reduced in  
4 the  $M_2$ , and more mesially placed and markedly reduced in the  $M_3$ . Although not as marked as in  
5 Neanderthals, there is a trend towards more centrally placed dentine horns and contraction of the  
6 marginal ridge when moving distally from  $M_1$  to  $M_3$ . The CEJ of the  $M_3$  is superior to the  $M_2$  and  $M_1$   
7 on the buccal side and the invagination of the CEJ outline on the buccal and lingual margins becomes  
8 less pronounced from  $M_1$  to  $M_3$ .

9 For the maxillary molars of Neanderthals, the dentine horn height decreases from  $M^1$  to  $M^3$ ;  
10 particularly for the metacone and hypocone. Moving distally along the molar row, the marginal ridge  
11 of the EDJ become mesiodistally shorter, the shape of the tooth becomes less skewed as the  
12 paracone moves lingually, and the distolingual corner of the CEJ moves mesiobuccally. In recent  
13 modern humans, the dentine horns are shorter in the  $M^2$  and  $M^3$  relative to the  $M^1$ . In the  $M^3$   
14 (particularly for the metacone and hypocone), the marginal ridge between the metacone and  
15 hypocone is tall, relative to the  $M^1$  and  $M^2$ . The shape of the molar also appears to become less  
16 skewed and the marginal ridge of the EDJ becomes mesiodistally shorter from  $M^1$  to  $M^3$ . The CEJ  
17 become larger relative to the marginal ridge of the EDJ and more rounded moving down the molar  
18 gradient from the  $M^1$  to the  $M^3$ .

19

#### 20 *CVA classification accuracy*

21 The classification accuracies from the CVA of the mandibular molars are shown in Table 3  
22 (recent modern humans and Neanderthals) and Table 4 (Neanderthals split into earlier and later  
23 samples). Neanderthals can be effectively discriminated from recent modern humans in both shape  
24 space and form space at both the CEJ and at the EDJ and CEJ combined at every molar position (with  
25 the exception of the CEJ in form space of the  $M_3$ , where Neanderthal specimens are correctly  
26 classified as Neanderthals only 78% of the time). When the Neanderthal specimens are split into

1 earlier and later Neanderthal samples overall classification success remains high, with accuracy  
2 falling below 80% in the earlier Neanderthal sample in shape space at the EDJ/CEJ of the  $M_3$ , and in  
3 form space at the CEJ of the  $M_2$ . The classification accuracy falls below 80% in the later Neanderthal  
4 sample in form space at the CEJ of the  $M_2$ .

5 The classification accuracies from the CVA of maxillary molars are shown in Table 5 (recent  
6 modern humans and Neanderthals) and Table 6 (Neanderthals split into earlier and later samples).  
7 Neanderthal maxillary molars can be effectively discriminated from recent modern human maxillary  
8 molars in both shape space and form space at both the CEJ and at the EDJ and CEJ combined at  
9 every molar position. When the Neanderthal specimens are split into earlier and later samples,  
10 accuracy falls below 80% in the later Neanderthal sample in form space at the CEJ of the  $M^2$ . Overall,  
11 these high classifications indicate a strong taxonomic signal in EDJ ridge and cervix shape.

12

### 13 *Molar size*

14 A boxplot showing the natural logarithm of molar centroid size with the sample divided by  
15 molar position and taxon is presented in Figure 10. Between group pairwise comparisons of centroid  
16 size are shown in Table 7 and within group pairwise comparisons are shown in Table 8. At each  
17 position, Neanderthal molars are significantly larger than the recent modern human molars, but  
18 there is not a significant difference in the size of the molars between the earlier and the later  
19 Neanderthal samples. Down the molar gradient, Neanderthal  $M^1/M_1$ s and Neanderthal  $M^2/M_2$ s  
20 (respectively) do not differ significantly in size, but both Neanderthal  $M^1/M_1$ s and Neanderthal  
21  $M^2/M_2$ s are significantly larger than Neanderthal  $M^3/M_3$ s, respectively. In this analysis, recent  
22 modern human  $M_1$ s are significantly larger than recent modern human  $M_3$ s, but recent modern  
23 human  $M_2$ s are not significantly different in size to either  $M_1$ s or  $M_3$ s. Recent modern human  $M^1$ s are  
24 significantly larger than recent modern human  $M^2$ s and recent modern human  $M^3$ s, but recent  
25 modern human  $M^2$ s and recent modern human  $M^3$ s do not significantly differ in size. In recent  
26 modern human molars, the  $M^1/M_1$  is always largest, followed by the  $M^2/M_2$  and  $M^3/M_3$ . In both

1 Neanderthal samples, the molar size gradient tends to be  $M_1 < M_2 > M_3$ . In the maxillary molars, the  
2 earlier Neanderthal sample shares the recent modern human pattern  $M^1 > M^2 > M^3$ , while the later  
3 Neanderthal sample pattern is  $M^1 < M^2 > M^3$ .

4  
5 *Non-metric traits*

6 Centrally placed dentine horns The frequency of centrally placed dentine horns by cusp is listed for  
7 the mandibular and maxillary molars in Table 9 and illustrated in Figure 11. On the mandibular  
8 molars, Neanderthals have significantly more centrally placed dentine horns on the metaconid ( $p <$   
9  $0.001$ ) and entoconid ( $p < 0.01$ ) than recent modern humans. There is a significant difference in the  
10 frequency of centrally placed dentine horns between the earlier and the later Neanderthal samples  
11 on the protoconid ( $p < 0.05$ ). On the maxillary molars, there is not a significant difference in the  
12 frequency of centrally placed dentine horns between Neanderthals and recent modern humans.  
13 However, the earlier Neanderthal sample specimens have more centrally placed dentine horns on  
14 the metacone than the later Neanderthal sample specimens ( $p < 0.001$ ).

15  
16 Post-paracone tubercle All Neanderthal maxillary molars (and many of the recent modern humans)  
17 included in this study exhibit at least some degree of expression of a post-paracone tubercle (Table  
18 10). In Neanderthals, the trait tends to be more pronounced in the  $M^1$ s, with a majority of teeth  
19 expressing an intermediate form of the tubercle, compared to either the  $M^2$ s or the  $M^3$ s (whose  
20 predominant expression is minor). Although the sample size is small, the opposite pattern is present  
21 in the recent modern human sample with the  $M^3$ s expressing cases of intermediate and marked  
22 expression and the  $M^2$ s and  $M^1$ s dominated by minor expression.

23  
24 Crista obliqua Variation in the patterning of the crista obliqua of the maxillary molars is shown in  
25 Figure 4 and frequencies of crista obliqua expression by type, taxa, and molar position are listed in  
26 Table 11. In Neanderthals, the  $M^1$ s typically exhibit the crista obliqua between the metacone and the



1 lingual marginal ridge (Type I), the M<sup>2</sup>s typically between the protocone and metacone pattern (Type  
2 II), and the M<sup>3</sup>s typically between the lingual marginal ridge and the distal marginal ridge (Type III).  
3 The other crista obliqua types occurred much more rarely. The recent modern human M<sup>1</sup> sample is  
4 dominated by Type I, while the M<sup>2</sup> sample is variable with three-quarters of the specimens  
5 expressing Type I or Type II, but also cases of absent expression and some cases of Type V and VI.  
6 The M<sup>3</sup> sample contains seven specimens, three of which have no crista obliqua expression, with one  
7 each of Types II and IV, and two of Type III.

8

9 Distal cusp patterning Neanderthal maxillary molars were observed to be highly variable in the  
10 patterning of their distal cusps, particularly in the M<sup>3</sup>s, where there are nearly as many variants as  
11 there are specimens (Figure 12). For example, Krapina D97 M<sup>3</sup> exhibits a very reduced hypocone  
12 dentine horn and no marginal ridge running from the hypocone to either the crista obliqua or  
13 protocone. Krapina D173 M<sup>3</sup> exhibits a dentine horn distal to the metacone as well as a potential  
14 incipient dentine horn directly distal on the marginal ridge and a small dentine horn at the junction  
15 between the distal hypocone ridge and distal ridge (or crista obliqua). This is in addition to a  
16 diminutive hypocone with crests running towards the protocone and towards the distal marginal  
17 ridge. Similarly, Abri Bourgeois-Delaunay BD8 M<sup>3</sup> exhibits a hypocone similar to that in Krapina D97  
18 M<sup>3</sup> (although with a more prominent dentine horn) and a similar dentine horn on the crista obliqua  
19 (at the point where a small crest joins from the hypocone). El Sidrón SD1164 M<sup>3</sup> has a large  
20 hypocone and exhibits a prominent dentine horn in the middle of the distal marginal ridge (notably  
21 there is a separate crista obliqua on this specimen) as well as an additional dentine horn distal to the  
22 metacone. El Sidrón SD621 exhibits a dentine horn distal to the metacone but with a distal ridge that  
23 does not join the distal marginal ridge (ending distally in a furrow). Mesial to this is a dentine horn at  
24 the end of what might be classified as either a crista obliqua or distal marginal ridge, and there is an  
25 additional dentine horn buccal to the hypocone on the distal hypocone ridge. Scladina 4A-3 M<sup>2</sup>

1 exhibits a prominent dentine horn distobuccally to the hypocone. The interpretation of this variation  
2 with respect to the cusp 5 trait of the ASUDAS is discussed below.

3 In two Neanderthal mandibular second molars (one from the earlier Neanderthal sample  
4 and one from the later Neanderthal sample), there are examples of dentine horns between the  
5 hypoconid and hypoconulid. In both cases, there is no clear expression of this trait on the OES.  
6 However, the apparent absence of this trait at the OES could be the result of considerable enamel  
7 wear in both specimens. This trait was not observed in any of the recent modern human molars in  
8 the sample and this feature cannot be currently classified under the ASUDAS and is discussed further  
9 below.

10

11 Twinned dentine horns In the Neanderthal sample, both maxillary and mandibular molars can  
12 exhibit what we have termed twinned dentine horns (Figure 13 and SOM ). In most cases, the two  
13 dentine horns are similar in size and shape and are present near the apex of the dentine horn and in  
14 line with the marginal ridge. In some specimens, two clearly protruding and isolated dentine horns  
15 are not present, but the unusually wide shape of the hypoconid dentine horn could indicate a  
16 diminutive form of this trait. In the mandibular molars of the earlier Neanderthal sample, the  
17 twinned dentine horn trait occurred on the hypoconid of the  $M_1$  in five specimens. In the mandibular  
18 molars of the later Neanderthal sample, the twinned dentine horn trait occurred on the hypoconulid  
19 of the  $M_1$  in one specimen. In the maxillary molars of the earlier Neanderthal sample, the twinned  
20 dentine horn trait occurred on the protocone of the  $M^1$  in one specimen, on the metacone of the  $M^1$   
21 in one specimen, on the hypocone of the  $M^1$  in three specimens, and on the fifth cusp of the  $M^3$  in  
22 one specimen. In the maxillary molars of the later Neanderthal sample, the twinned dentine horn  
23 trait occurred on the metacone of the  $M^1$  in one specimen, on the hypocone of the  $M^1$  in one  
24 specimen, and on the metacone of the  $M^3$  in one specimen.

25

26 **Discussion**

1 *Neanderthals compared to recent modern humans*

2           The results of this study show that the shape of the EDJ marginal ridge and the cervix of  
3 molars contain information helpful for discriminating Neanderthals from recent modern humans.  
4 These results are consistent with (and exceed in terms of classification accuracy) previous  
5 morphometric studies (Bailey, 2004; Gómez-Robles et al., 2007, 2012; Benazzi et al., 2011a), and  
6 studies focusing on the frequency and expression of non-metric traits (Bailey, 2002, 2006), which  
7 have shown Neanderthal permanent dental morphology to be distinct from recent modern humans.  
8 Previous geometric morphometric studies of the Neanderthal M<sup>2</sup> and the Neanderthal M<sup>3</sup> have  
9 yielded weak classification accuracy (Gómez-Robles et al., 2012), whereas the results of this study  
10 indicated very reliable classification accuracy in both form space and shape space for both the M<sup>2</sup>  
11 and the M<sup>3</sup> (see Table 5). Our results are also consistent with those of Benazzi et al. (2011a) in terms  
12 of classification accuracy of M<sup>1</sup>/M<sub>1</sub> based on the cervix, suggesting that heavily worn molars can still  
13 have a reliable chance of accurate classification. The increased classification accuracy using EDJ/CEJ  
14 morphology found in this study compared to those based on the enamel surface is likely due to the  
15 inclusion of the vertical dimension (compared to 2D studies), which contributes taxonomically  
16 relevant shape information of relative dentine horn height and crown height.

17           With regard to crown shape differences between Neanderthals and recent modern humans,  
18 previous geometric morphometric studies of Neanderthal permanent molars have largely focused on  
19 the maxillary molars (Bailey, 2004; Gómez-Robles et al., 2007, 2012; Benazzi et al., 2011a). The M<sup>1</sup> of  
20 Neanderthals has previously been described as being markedly skewed relative to recent modern  
21 humans, having a narrower distal segment of the occlusal polygon in comparison to the mesial  
22 segment, a significantly larger hypocone, a significantly smaller metacone, and a smaller occlusal  
23 polygon, which reflects their centrally placed cusps (Bailey, 2004). This study focused on the EDJ, and  
24 did not examine relative cusp size, but the mean shape wireframe depicts a distolingual extension of  
25 the distolingual corner of the CEJ that would be consistent with an enlarged hypocone on the M<sup>1</sup>,  
26 and our observations of centrally placed dentine horns is consistent with previous findings that

1 Neanderthals have centrally placed cusps and a smaller occlusal surface than recent modern humans  
2 (Tattersall and Schwartz, 1999; Bailey, 2004). The M<sup>2</sup> and M<sup>3</sup> of Neanderthals can both be described  
3 as more skewed than those of recent modern humans, but less dramatically than at the M<sup>1</sup>. There is  
4 some degree of variation in hypocone development in the Neanderthal M<sup>2</sup>s and M<sup>3</sup>s and this may  
5 explain why such an 'elaborated' hypocone is not immediately obvious in the comparison of the  
6 Neanderthal and recent modern human mean models. Moving down the tooth row from the M<sup>1</sup> to  
7 the M<sup>3</sup> the distolingual extension of the distolingual corner of the CEJ becomes less pronounced,  
8 consistent with previous observations that the hypocone decreases in size down the molar gradient  
9 (Gómez-Robles et al., 2012).

10 The recent modern human sample used in this study presents two limitations for fully  
11 characterising the degree of distinctiveness of Neanderthal molars. First, our recent modern human  
12 sample is geographically limited (predominantly consisting of Europeans), and second, we do not  
13 include any fossil modern humans in this study. Future studies of EDJ morphology should include  
14 fossil *Homo sapiens* (e.g., Bailey, 2006) in order to determine whether particular aspects of  
15 Neanderthal crown size and shape, as well as the presence and degree of expression of particular  
16 dental traits, are derived or rather reflective of marked recent temporal changes in recent modern  
17 human molars. Similarly, given evidence for Neanderthal introgression into Upper Palaeolithic  
18 modern human samples (e.g., Fu et al., 2016), future analysis of such samples would require  
19 acknowledgment of the possibility that dental characteristics of Neanderthals may be present in a  
20 subsample of fossil modern human samples.

21

#### 22 *Temporal trends in Neanderthal molar morphology*

23 The results of this study demonstrate that EDJ shape (including the cervix) effectively  
24 distinguishes between the earlier and the later Neanderthal samples at all molar positions, except  
25 the M<sup>3</sup>, where classification accuracy falls to 71%. The cervix in isolation is less effective at  
26 discriminating between the earlier and the later Neanderthal samples but classification still remains

1 high with most analysis correctly classifying specimens >80% of the time. The reduced reliability of  
2 classification of the more distal molars is likely linked to their high variability and in particular to the  
3 variation in dentine horn patterning on the distal margin of the M<sup>3</sup>. These findings are consistent  
4 with previous analyses of Neanderthal dental remains that found metric differences (particularly in  
5 the relative size of anterior and posterior teeth) between earlier and later samples (Wolpoff, 1979).  
6 These findings are also consistent with evolutionary models that incorporate temporal changes in  
7 Neanderthal morphology (e.g., Hublin, 2009; Bermúdez de Castro and Martínón-Torres, 2013). An  
8 important limitation to this study is that the earlier Neanderthal sample is dominated by specimens  
9 from Krapina, Croatia, with 23/30 mandibular molars and 33/36 maxillary molars EDJ/CEJ analyses  
10 coming from this site. The Scladina specimens, which are the oldest of the later Neanderthal sample  
11 (dating to MIS5c), classify to the later Neanderthal sample; however, a determination that it is not  
12 simply the distinctiveness of the Krapina population that is driving this result would be strengthened  
13 by the inclusion of additional pre-MIS5e samples. For example, the Neanderthal material from Sima  
14 de los Huesos would be ideal for providing information about whether the traits observed in the  
15 earlier Neanderthal sample are primitive relative to the later Neanderthal sample. As deduced by  
16 Weaver et al. (2007) from craniometric analysis, morphological changes within Neanderthal groups  
17 over time might have been largely driven by drift and one should highlight that ancestral change  
18 within modern humans witnessed similar changes (Vandermeersch 1981; Weaver et al., 2007; Bailey  
19 et al., in press). Interestingly, paleogenetic data indicate a last common ancestor of the last  
20 Neanderthals within MIS6 after a strong demographic reduction between 400 and 150 ka (Kuhlwilm  
21 et al., 2016) and without subsequent separation of Eastern and Western groups (Rougier et al.,  
22 2016; contra Fabre et al., 2009).

23

#### 24 *CVA classification accuracy*

25 Generally speaking, inclusion of the shape of the EDJ ridge improves classification accuracy  
26 over just using the cervix. Exceptions to this general rule were found in this study. However, these

1 can be attributed to small samples sizes (e.g., Neanderthal  $M^3/M_3s$ ) and/or the highly variable distal  
2 ridge of Neanderthal third molars (particularly the maxillary molars as presented in Figure 12). There  
3 is not a substantial difference in the classification accuracy between the mandibular and maxillary  
4 molars. It is usually in the CEJ ridge analyses that we see a greater difference in classification  
5 accuracy between mandibular and maxillary molars, and there is no consistency with regard to  
6 either the mandibular or maxillary molars classifying better than the other. Including size does not  
7 seem to improve classification accuracy in any consistent manner either. It is usually in the CEJ ridge  
8 analyses that we see a greater difference in classification accuracy between form space and shape  
9 space, and there is no consistency as to whether form space or shape space is providing greater  
10 classification accuracy. Classification accuracy tends to be higher in the  $M^1/M_1$ , than in the  $M^2/M_2$   
11 and  $M^3/M_3$ . This becomes more apparent when the Neanderthal sample is split into the earlier and  
12 the later Neanderthal samples. This is consistent with previous observations that have found  $M^1$ 's to  
13 be more stable in their morphology than the other permanent molar types (Butler, 1963), thus  $M^1$ 's  
14 should be expected to be more effective at discriminating between the earlier and the later  
15 Neanderthal samples than the  $M^2$  or  $M^3$ . This pattern also holds for the mandibular molars.

16

#### 17 *Non-metric traits*

18 Dental traits have served an important role in the study of taxonomy and phylogeny of other  
19 primates, both extant (Johanson, 1974; Uchida, 1998; Pilbrow, 2003) and extinct (Rosenberger and  
20 Delson, 1985; Gingerich et al., 1991; Pilbrow, 2006), and extinct hominins (Weidenreich, 1937;  
21 Robinson, 1956; Johanson and White, 1979; Wood and Abbott, 1983; Skelton and McHenry, 1986;  
22 Suwa et al., 1994; Bailey, 2002, 2006; Hlusko, 2004; Bailey and Lynch, 2005; Martín-Torres et al.,  
23 2007; Irish et al., 2013). The ASUDAS system has standardised these traits for recent modern  
24 humans (Turner et al., 1991) and has been demonstrated to be effective in studying fossil hominins  
25 (Stringer et al., 1997; Irish, 1998; Tyrrell and Chamberlain, 1998; Bailey, 2000, 2002; Martín-Torres  
26 et al., 2007; Irish et al., 2013). Examination of EDJ expression of dental traits elucidates their

1 development, improves the partitioning of their expression into morphological grades, and clarifies  
2 their presence and degree of expression in partially worn tooth crowns that can be used in the  
3 taxonomic assessment of fossil teeth (Skinner, 2008; Skinner et al., 2008c, 2009b; Bailey et al., 2011,  
4 Ortiz et al., 2012).

5         The EDJ expression of dental traits studied in our Neanderthal sample has highlighted  
6 considerable variation, with implications for understanding the developmental basis of these traits,  
7 as well as necessitating re-examination of how they might be studied under an ASUDAS-like system.  
8 For example, the post-paracone tubercle trait observed at the EDJ is not included in ASUDAS, and to  
9 our knowledge has never been explicitly described. A similar feature was noted distal to the  
10 metaconid at the EDJ of mandibular molars by Skinner et al. (2008c), who suggested that it is not  
11 homologous with a cusp 7 forming between the metaconid and entoconid. Developmentally, the  
12 presence of a dentine horn would suggest the presence of a secondary enamel knot during the  
13 development of the crown. The presence of similar dentine horns on the distal shoulder of the  
14 mesiolingual cusp of maxillary and mandibular molars would suggest that this trait should not be  
15 classified as a 'metaconulid-type' cusp 7 (contra Skinner et al., 2008c) but should be named for the  
16 maxillary and mandibular molars as a post-paracone tubercle and a post-metaconid tubercle,  
17 respectively. The marked degree of expression present in El Sidrón SD1164 might relate to the  
18 relatively long distal ridge of the paracone in this specimen (indicative of a location on the ridge far-  
19 removed from the paracone dentine horn where an additional enamel knot could be initiated). In  
20 addition to the influence of dentine horn spacing, future studies should examine the influence of the  
21 size of the paracone on the presence and degree of expression of the post-paracone tubercle,  
22 because both factors seem to be related to the expression of a cusp 6 in chimpanzees (Skinner and  
23 Gunz, 2010).

24         The crista obliqua is not included as a trait in ASUDAS and this study found considerable  
25 variation in this feature suggesting 1) that it could be useful as a non-metric dental trait for hominin  
26 systematics, and 2) that it will require its own definition and grading system. The main source of

1 variation in this feature seems to be whether a ridge running centrally from the metacone dentine  
2 horn tip is present in addition to a distal ridge from the metacone that normally contributes to the  
3 distal marginal ridge. This metacone central ridge can run directly to the paracone dentine horn tip  
4 or meet a ridge running distally from the paracone dentine horn. Complexity also arises from this  
5 distal ridge of the paracone as it can 1) meet a ridge running from the metacone, 2) run distally to  
6 the distal marginal ridge, and or 3) run adjacent to a second (more lingual) ridge running from the  
7 distal paracone towards the hypocone. It is also unclear to what extent accessory dentine horns  
8 along the distal crown (see below) influence this variation in the presence and branching  
9 combinations of these ridges. Hershkovitz (1971) identifies the plagiocnule as a cusp that is present  
10 on the crista obliqua in primitive therian mammals and it has been illustrated at the EDJ in  
11 *Notharctus* (Anemone et al., 2012). However, given the considerable variation of dentine horn  
12 presence in association with the crista obliqua, hypocone, and metacone in this study, and our view  
13 that this variation could be caused by somewhat random perturbations in the development of the  
14 tooth germ, we are hesitant at the moment to assume homology between cuspsules on primitive  
15 mammal crowns and those identified in our Neanderthal sample.

16 Cusp 5 is a well-established trait in ASUDAS, being a cusp that is situated along the distal  
17 marginal ridge between the metacone and hypocone (Scott and Turner, 1997). Unfortunately, its  
18 current definition is not useful for scoring variation observed on the distal margin of the EDJ of  
19 Neanderthal maxillary molars. In cases when a single dentine horn is present between the metacone  
20 and hypocone it can variably appear 1) adjacent and seemingly developmentally linked to the  
21 metacone, 2) adjacent and seemingly developmentally linked to the hypocone, or 3) in association  
22 with a ridge running distally from the protocone. There are also a number of specimens that present  
23 at least two (and even three) dentine horns between the metacone and the hypocone. This  
24 phenomenon of accessory dentine horns being preferentially associated with particular primary  
25 dentine horns has been noted for examination of cusp 6 on mandibular molars (Skinner et al., 2008c;  
26 Skinner and Gunz, 2010) and the iterative formation of dentine horns (explaining the presence of 1-3



1 accessory dentine horns) is consistent with the PCM of cusp development (see below). Thus, the  
2 homologous status of accessory dentine horns on the distal margin of upper molars is questionable  
3 and will require careful classification in order to be used in an ASUDAS-like system.

4 Our results indicate that centrally placed dentine horn tips are common in Neanderthals and  
5 are likely related to previous observations of centrally placed cusps at the outer enamel surface that  
6 have been previously described in both the mandibular (Tattersall and Schwartz, 1999) and maxillary  
7 molars (Bailey, 2004) of Neanderthals. This trait is very common in Neanderthals occurring  
8 predominantly on the metaconid and entoconid of the mandibular molars (the lingual side), and on  
9 the paracone and metacone of the maxillary molars (the buccal side). This trait would have an effect  
10 on a variety of standard measurements taken from molars such as cusp angles and the area of the  
11 occlusal polygon. The manifestation of this trait at the EDJ demonstrates that a dentine horn tip can  
12 be centrally placed independently from the marginal ridge. The observations in this study show that  
13 dentine horns (and their tips) are not simple conical structures. This is demonstrated by variation  
14 observed in the manifestation of centrally placed dentine horns shown in Figure 2, and the  
15 observation of twinned dentine horns shown in Figure 13. Further examination of this morphology  
16 could elucidate the processes underlying cell proliferation at secondary enamel knots.

17

#### 18 *Patterning cascade model of development*

19 As mentioned above, the variation in the expression of the post-paracone tubercle could be  
20 interpreted within a PCM framework with degree of expression being influenced by the height of the  
21 paracone and length of the distal ridge. There is also a very high variability in the number and  
22 location of dentine horns on the distal margin of the  $M^2$  and  $M^3$ . This could be related to the  
23 decrease in the size of the metacone and hypocone (and their inferred zones of secondary enamel  
24 knot suppression) along the maxillary molar tooth row in Neanderthals (Gómez-Robles et al., 2007,  
25 2012). The EDJ of the  $M^1$ , which has a relatively large metacone and hypocone, did not display any  
26 dentine horn formation along its distal marginal ridge. This pattern has also been observed at the

1 OES (Gómez-Robles et al., 2012) and is consistent with the findings of C6 variation in chimpanzees  
2 (Skinner and Gunz, 2010) in which the lack of a C6 tends to be associated with large and relatively  
3 closely spaced hypoconulid and entoconid dentine horns. However, some observations in this study  
4 are difficult to explain within the PCM of development, particularly the observation in the  
5 Neanderthal sample of twinned dentine horns. These occurred on the hypoconulid and hypoconid in  
6 a few mandibular molars, and on the hypocone, protocone, and metacone in a few maxillary molars.  
7 It is difficult to conceptualise how this phenomenon could occur under the PCM of development,  
8 because one of the dentine horn tips should inhibit the development of the other. There were also  
9 two cases of an accessory dentine horn appearing between the hypoconid and hypoconulid in the  
10 Neanderthals. This phenomenon is also difficult to explain under a PCM because zones of inhibition  
11 from the hypoconid and hypoconulid should prevent this dentine horn from developing.

12

### 13 **Conclusion**

14 The results of this study confirm that Neanderthals differ significantly from recent modern  
15 humans in their molar morphology, and that earlier Neanderthal molars (albeit predominately  
16 represented by Krapina) can be distinguished from later Neanderthal molars based on morphology.  
17 This study also explored a variety of non-metric traits, such as centrally placed dentine horns, the  
18 crista obliqua, cusp 5, and the post-paracone tubercle. Our Neanderthal sample has a higher  
19 frequency of centrally placed dentine horns than our recent modern human sample at the  
20 metaconid and entoconid of the lower molars. Based on our sample, the crista obliqua appears to be  
21 useful in determining molar position in Neanderthals, with the Type I variant being more commonly  
22 expressed in the M<sup>1</sup>, the Type II variant being more commonly expressed in the M<sup>2</sup>, and the Type III  
23 being more commonly expressed in the M<sup>3</sup>. Cusp 5 was shown to be especially variable in the  
24 Neanderthal M<sup>3</sup>. The post-paracone tubercle tends to be more prominently expressed in the M<sup>1</sup> of  
25 the Neanderthal sample than in in the M<sup>2</sup> or M<sup>3</sup>, while the opposite pattern is present in the recent  
26 modern human sample with the trait being more prominently expressed in the M<sup>3</sup> than in the M<sup>2</sup> or

1 M<sup>1</sup>. Observations of dentine horn patterning largely fit within the PCM of development. However,  
2 some features, such as the twinned dentine horn, and the accessory cusp between the hypoconid  
3 and hypoconulid are difficult to explain, and could indicate that tooth development is more  
4 complicated than previously thought. Further analyses of the changes of molar morphology in  
5 Neanderthals following the Eemian interglacial period demonstrated in this study would benefit  
6 from the inclusion of older Middle Pleistocene hominin specimens to assess the polarity of the  
7 different features (i.e., which features are primitive and which features are derived) between the  
8 earlier and the later Neanderthal samples.

9

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**Comment [A1]:** We do not have page numbers yet as it is in press

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## 1 FIGURE CAPTIONS

2 **Figure 1** Landmarking protocol for mandibular and maxillary molars. The EDJ\_MAIN landmarks (in  
3 red) are placed on the tips of the four primary dentine horns (mandibular molars: 1 = protoconid, 2 =  
4 metaconid, 3 = entoconid, 4 = hypoconid; maxillary molars: 1 = protocone, 2 = paracone, 3 =  
5 metacone, 4 = hypocone). The EDJ\_RIDGE landmarks (in orange) are placed along the marginal ridge  
6 of the EDJ. The CEJ\_RIDGE landmarks (in blue) are placed along the CEJ. The numbers of landmarks  
7 placed along each section of the marginal ridge of the EDJ and along the CEJ are in brackets.

8 **Figure 2** Examples of varying degrees of expression of centrally placed dentine horns. Although there  
9 is considerable variation in this trait it is scored as either absent (top) or present (bottom four  
10 images).

11 **Figure 3** Post-paracone tubercle. (a) Absent, (b) Minor, (c) Intermediate, (d) Marked. The OES is in  
12 the top left corner of each panel. Abbreviations: Pr - protocone, Pa - paracone, Me - metacone, Hy -  
13 hypocone.

14 **Figure 4** Crista obliqua type. (a) Absent, (b) Between the metacone and the lingual marginal ridge (or  
15 Type I), (c) Between the protocone and metacone (or Type II), (d) Between the lingual marginal ridge  
16 and the distal marginal ridge (Type III), (e) Between the protocone and the distal marginal ridge  
17 (Type IV), (f) Between the lingual marginal ridge and the metacone and the distal marginal ridge  
18 (Type V), (g) Between the protocone and the metacone and the distal marginal ridge (Type VI). The  
19 OES is in the top left corner of each panel. Abbreviations: Pr - protocone, Pa - paracone, Me -  
20 metacone, Hy - hypocone.

21 **Figure 5** PCA plots of EDJ/CEJ shape and CEJ shape of the mandibular molars. Abbreviations: ENS -  
22 earlier Neanderthal sample, LNS - later Neanderthal sample, Hs - recent modern human sample.

23 **Figure 6** Between taxa comparisons of mean EDJ shape of mandibular molars. Abbreviations: Prd -  
24 protoconid, Med - metaconid, End - entoconid, Hyd - hypoconulid, Hyp - hypoconid, Pr - protocone,  
25 Pa - paracone, Me - metacone, Hy - hypocone.

26 **Figure 7** PCA plots of EDJ/CEJ shape and CEJ shape of the maxillary molars. ENS indicates the earlier  
27 Neanderthal sample, LNS indicates the later Neanderthal sample, and Hs indicates the recent  
28 modern human sample. Krapina D176 is an earlier Neanderthal sample member M<sup>2</sup> with a reduced  
29 hypocone, and therefore groups more closely with the recent modern humans. It is excluded from  
30 the convex hull of the earlier Neanderthal sample to show that Neanderthals largely group on one  
31 end of PC1, while recent modern humans group on the other side.

32 **Figure 8** Between taxa comparison of mean EDJ shape of maxillary molars. Abbreviations: Prd -  
33 protoconid, Med - metaconid, End - entoconid, Hyd - hypoconulid, Hyp - hypoconid, Pr - protocone,  
34 Pa - paracone, Me - metacone, Hy - hypocone.

35 **Figure 9** Metameric variation of mean EDJ shape of Neanderthals and recent modern human  
36 mandibular and maxillary incisors. Abbreviations: Prd - protoconid, Med - metaconid, End -  
37 entoconid, Hyd - hypoconulid, Hyp - hypoconid, Pr - protocone, Pa - paracone, Me - metacone, Hy -  
38 hypocone.

39 **Figure 10** Boxplot of the natural logarithm of centroid size by molar type. Three stars indicate  $p \leq$   
40 0.001, two stars indicate  $p \leq 0.01$ , one star indicates  $p \leq 0.05$ , and N.S. indicates  $p > 0.05$ .

41 **Figure 11** Frequency of centrally placed dentine horns on the mandibular and maxillary molars.

1 **Figure 12** Variation in distal cusp patterning on the maxillary molars (a-f), and the presence of an  
2 accessory cusp between the hypoconid and hypoconulid on the mandibular molars (g and h). The  
3 OES is in the top left corner of each panel. Abbreviations: Prd - protoconid, Med - metaconid, End -  
4 entoconid, Hyd - hypoconulid, Hyp - hypoconid, Pr - protocone, Pa - paracone, Me - metacone, Hy -  
5 hypocone.

6 **Figure 13** Examples of twinned dentine horns. The OES is in the top left corner of each panel.  
7 Abbreviations: Prd - protoconid, Med - metaconid, End - entoconid, Hyd - hypoconulid, Hyp -  
8 hypoconid, Pr - protocone, Pa - paracone, Me - metacone, Hy - hypocone.

## TABLES AND FIGURES

**Table 1.** Study composition and chronological data

Taxa	Chronological attribution	Source for chronology	Locality	EDJ/CEJ sample size	CEJ sample size
<b>Earlier Neanderthal sample</b>	MIS 7	Blackwell and Schwarcz, 1986; Schüler, 2003	Ehringsdorf, Germany	1	6
	MIS 6	Teilhol, 2001	Abri Suard, France	6	6
	MIS 5e	Schvoerer et al., 1979; Schwarcz and Debenath, 1979; Blackwell et al., 1983; Condemi, 2001	Abri Bourgeois-Delaunay, France	3	6
		Rink et al., 1995	Krapina, Croatia	54	69
<b>Later Neanderthal sample</b>	MIS 5c	Ellwood et al., 2004; Pirson et al., 2014	Scladina, Belgium	6	6
	MIS 5c-4	Vandermeersch and Trinkaus, 1995; Delpech, 1996; Turq et al., 2008; Cavanhié, 2010; Bruno Maureille, personal communication	Regourdou, France	2	3
	MIS 5a-4	Guadelli and Laville, 1990	Combe-Grenal, France	5	5
	MIS 4	Valladas et al., 1987; Valladas and Valladas, 1991	Kebara, Israel	0	3
		Guérin et al., 2012	Roc de Marsal, France	2	2
	MIS 4-3	Mercier, 1992; Mercier and Valladas, 1998; Martin, 1920	La Quina France	4	5
	MIS 3	Delson et al., 2000; Valladas et al., 1999; Suzuki, 1970	Amud Cave, Israel	0	3
		Rosas et al., 2006; de Torres et al., 2010	El Sidrón, Spain	13	16
		Valladas et al., 1986; Mellars and Grün, 1991	Le Moustier, France	5	6
		Mercier et al., 1991; Hublin et al., 2012	Saint Césaire, France	3	6
Wild et al., 2001		Vindija Cave, Croatia	2	8	
<b>Recent modern human<sup>1</sup></b>	MIS 1	Archaeological sites in Belgium	15	15	
		Anatomical collections	36	36	
		Clinical extractions	55	55	

MIS stands for Marine Isotopic Stage. 1. Details about the sample are in SOM Table S1.

**Table 2.** Neanderthal molars reclassified based on GM analysis of EDJ shape

Specimen	Old identification	Reference	New identification
Combe Grenal IX	M <sup>2</sup>	Garralda and Vandermeersch, 2000	M <sup>1</sup>
Krapina D101	M <sup>1</sup>	Radovčić et al., 1988	M <sup>2</sup>
Krapina D104	M <sub>2</sub>	Radovčić et al., 1988	M <sub>3</sub>
Krapina D105	M <sub>1</sub>	Wolpoff, 1979	M <sub>2</sub>
Krapina D109	M <sup>3</sup>	Wolpoff, 1979	M <sup>2</sup>
Krapina D80	M <sub>1</sub>	Wolpoff, 1979	M <sub>2</sub>
Krapina D9	M <sub>3</sub>	Wolpoff, 1979	M <sub>2</sub>

**Table 3.** Classification accuracy of Neanderthal and recent modern human mandibular molars

Molar	Landmarks	Shape/Form	Neanderthal	Human	PCs for CVA
M <sub>1</sub>	CEJ	Shape	93.8% (30/32)	95.7% (22/23)	5-19
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (17/17)	100% (23/23)	5-21
	CEJ	Form	100% (32/32)	91.3% (21/23)	5-12
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (17/17)	100% (23/23)	5-16
M <sub>2</sub>	CEJ	Shape	100% (19/19)	95.7% (22/23)	5-16
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (20/20)	100% (23/23)	5-19
	CEJ	Form	100% (19/19)	100% (23/23)	5-10
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (20/20)	95.7% (22/23)	5-14
M <sub>3</sub>	CEJ	Shape	100% (27/27)	100% (17/17)	5-14
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	93.3% (14/15)	100% (17/17)	5-17
	CEJ	Form	<b>77.8% (21/27)</b>	88.2% (15/17)	5-10
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	93.3% (14/15)	100% (17/17)	5-14

Note: Classification accuracies <80% are in bold. The number of PCs used for each CVA is determined as the number of PCs that explain at least 95% of the total variation.

**Table 4.** Classification accuracy of the earlier ~~and later~~ Neanderthal ~~mandibular molar sample, the later Neanderthal sample, and the recent modern human mandibular molars~~

Molar	Landmarks	Shape/Form	Earlier Neanderthal	Later Neanderthal	PCs for CVA
M <sub>1</sub>	CEJ	Shape	87.5% (14/16)	81.2% (13/16)	5-15
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (10/10)	100% (7/7)	5-12
	CEJ	Form	81.2% (13/16)	81.2% (13/16)	5-11
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	80.0% (8/10)	100% (7/7)	5-11
M <sub>2</sub>	CEJ	Shape	84.2% (16/19)	83.3% (10/12)	5-13
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (13/13)	100% (7/7)	5-13
	CEJ	Form	<b>78.9% (15/19)</b>	<b>50.0% (6/12)</b>	5-10
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (13/13)	100% (7/7)	5-10
M <sub>3</sub>	CEJ	Shape	100% (15/15)	91.7% (11/12)	5-11
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	<b>71.4% (5/7)</b>	100% (8/8)	5-10
	CEJ	Form	93.3% (14/15)	83.3% (10/12)	5-7
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	85.7% (6/7)	100% (8/8)	5-9

Note: Classification accuracies <80% are in bold. The number of PCs used for each CVA is determined as the number of PCs that explain at least 95% of the total variation.



**Table 5.** Classification accuracy of Neanderthal and recent modern human maxillary molars

Molar	Landmarks	Shape/Form	Neanderthal	Human	PCs for CVA
M <sup>1</sup>	CEJ	Shape	100% (22/22)	100% (12/12)	5-11
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (19/19)	100% (12/12)	5-16
	CEJ	Form	100% (22/22)	100% (12/12)	5-7
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (19/19)	100% (12/12)	5-11
M <sup>2</sup>	CEJ	Shape	80.0% (20/25)	83.3% (20/24)	5-14
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (23/23)	100% (24/24)	5-18
	CEJ	Form	92.0% (23/25)	87.5% (21/24)	5-9
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (23/23)	100% (24/24)	5-14
M <sup>3</sup>	CEJ	Shape	92.3% (12/13)	100% (7/7)	5-9
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (12/12)	100% (7/7)	5-12
	CEJ	Form	100% (13/13)	100% (7/7)	5-7
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (12/12)	100% (7/7)	5-10

Note: Classification accuracies <80% are in bold. The number of PCs used for each CVA is determined as the number of PCs that explain at least 95% of the total variation.

**Table 6.** Classification accuracy of the earlier and later Neanderthal maxillary molar samples

Molar	Landmarks	Shape/Form	Earlier Neanderthal	Later Neanderthal	PCs for CVA
M <sup>1</sup>	CEJ	Shape	100% (13/13)	100% (9/9)	5-11
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (12/12)	100% (7/7)	5-12
	CEJ	Form	100% (13/13)	100% (9/9)	5-8
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (12/12)	100% (7/7)	5-9
M <sup>2</sup>	CEJ	Shape	100% (17/17)	100% (8/8)	5-10
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (16/16)	100% (7/7)	5-12
	CEJ	Form	88.2% (15/17)	<b>62.5% (5/8)</b>	5-8
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (16/16)	85.7% (6/7)	5-12
M <sup>3</sup>	CEJ	Shape	85.7% (6/7)	83.3% (5/6)	5-8
	EDJ/CEJ	Shape	100% (6/6)	83.3% (5/6)	5-8
	CEJ	Form	85.7% (6/7)	100% (6/6)	5-6
	EDJ/CEJ	Form	100% (6/6)	83.3% (5/6)	5-8

Note: Classification accuracies <80% are in bold. The number of PCs used for each CVA is determined as the number of PCs that explain at least 95% of the total variation.

**Table 7.** Between group pairwise comparisons of molar size (centroid size)

Comparison	M <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>3</sub>	M <sup>1</sup>	M <sup>2</sup>	M <sup>3</sup>
Neanderthal vs. modern human	<b>0.001</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	<b>0.002</b>	<b>0.001</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	<b>0.031</b>
Earlier vs. later Neanderthal	0.900	0.797	0.327	0.215	0.414	0.711
Earlier Neanderthal vs. modern human	<b>0.005</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	0.075	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	0.099
Later Neanderthal vs. modern human	<b>0.009</b>	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.002</b>	0.069	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	<b>0.042</b>

Note: *p*-values were calculated using a Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test

**Table 8.** Within group pairwise comparisons of molar<sup>1</sup> size (centroid size)

		M1	M2	M3
Neanderthals	M1		0.158	< <b>0.001</b>
	M2	0.919		<b>0.003</b>
	M3	<b>0.028</b>	<b>0.017</b>	
		M1	M2	M3
Recent modern humans	M1		<b>0.024</b>	<b>0.006</b>
	M2	0.139		0.246
	M3	<b>0.018</b>	0.322	
		M1	M2	M3
Earlier Neanderthal	M1		0.106	< <b>0.001</b>
	M2	0.809		<b>0.011</b>
	M3	<b>0.039</b>	<b>0.017</b>	
		M1	M2	M3
Later Neanderthal	M1		0.778	0.065
	M2	0.879		0.115
	M3	0.244	0.316	

Note: 1. *p*-values for maxillary molar comparisons in maxillary right quadrant and mandibular molar comparisons in mandibular left quadrant. *p*-values were calculated using a Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test.

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**Table 9.** Frequency of centrally placed dentine horn tips on mandibular and maxillary molars

Group	Protoconid	Metaconid	Entoconid	Hypoconulid	Hypoconid
Earlier Neanderthal	0/24 (0%)	24/28 (85.7%)	17/24 (70.8%)	0/21 (0%)	0/10 (0%)
Later Neanderthal	3/13 (23.1%)	19/20 (95.0%)	10/16 (62.5%)	1/21 (4.8%)	0/19 (0%)
Recent modern human	1/44 (2.3%)	20/56 (35.7%)	21/60 (35.0%)	2/48 (4.2%)	0/60 (0%)

Group	Protocone	Paracone	Metacone	Hypocone
Earlier Neanderthal	1/27 (3.7%)	6/30 (20.0%)	14/32 (43.8%)	0/32 (0%)
Later Neanderthal	2/17 (11.8%)	5/17 (29.4%)	0/19 (0%)	0/19 (0%)
Recent modern human	0/43 (0%)	11/40 (27.5%)	6/43 (14.0%)	1/43 (2.3%)

**Table 10.** Frequency of the post-paracone tubercle

Group	Molar	<i>n</i>	Absent	Minor	Intermediate	Marked
Earlier Neanderthal	M <sup>1</sup>	12		25%	58%	17%
	M <sup>2</sup>	16		81%	19%	
	M <sup>3</sup>	6		83%	17%	
Later Neanderthal	M <sup>1</sup>	7		29%	43%	28%
	M <sup>2</sup>	7		86%	14%	
	M <sup>3</sup>	6		83%		17%
Recent modern human	M <sup>1</sup>	12	8%	92%		
	M <sup>2</sup>	24	21%	75%	4%	
	M <sup>3</sup>	7		57%	29%	14%

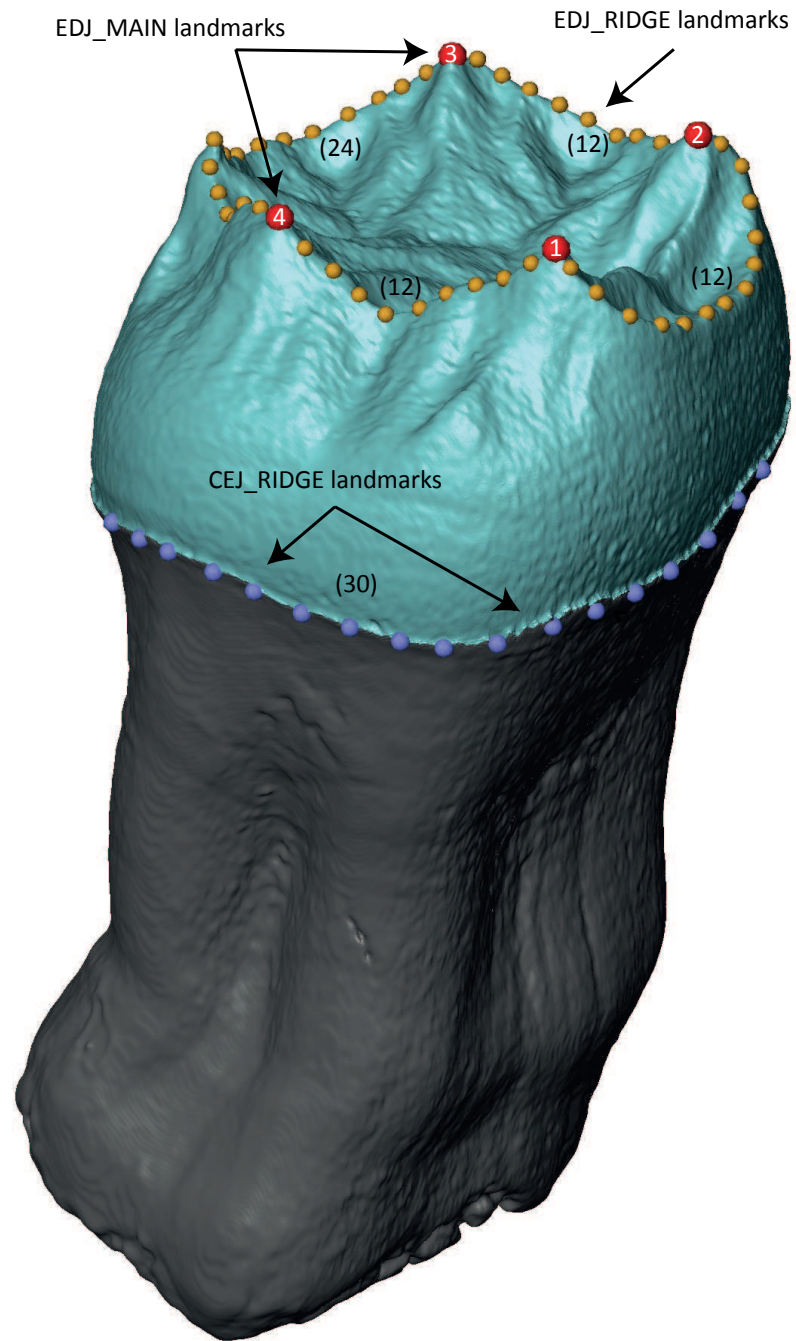
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**Table 11.** Frequency of crista obliqua type

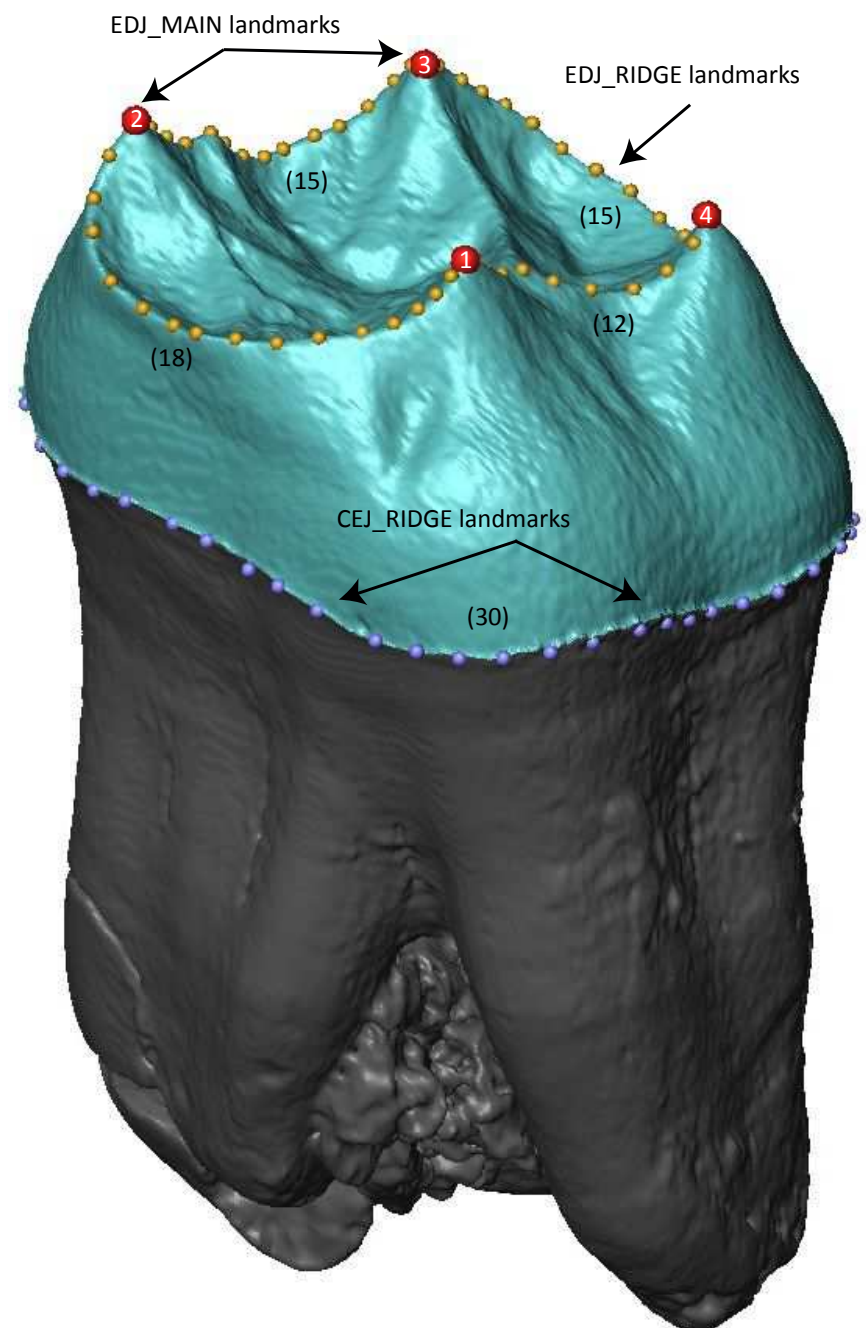
<b>Group</b>	<b>Molar</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>Absent</b>	<b>I</b>	<b>II</b>	<b>III</b>	<b>IV</b>	<b>V</b>	<b>VI</b>
Earlier Neanderthal	M <sup>1</sup>	12		100%					
	M <sup>2</sup>	16	6%	6%	88%				
	M <sup>3</sup>	6				83%		17%	
Later Neanderthal	M <sup>1</sup>	7		71%	29%				
	M <sup>2</sup>	7		14%	72%	14%			
	M <sup>3</sup>	6		17%		33%	33%		17%
Recent modern human	M <sup>1</sup>	12		92%	8%				
	M <sup>2</sup>	24	13%	50%	25%			8%	4%
	M <sup>3</sup>	7	43%		14%	29%	14%		

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Figure1



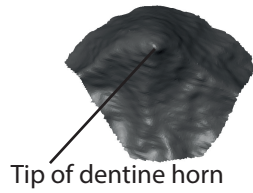
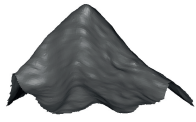
Mandibular molar



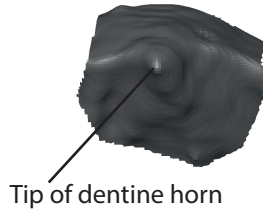
Maxillary molar

Figure2

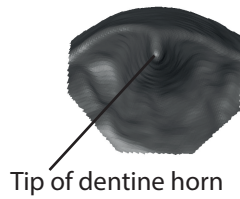
Outward View    Marginal View    Occlusal View



Absent

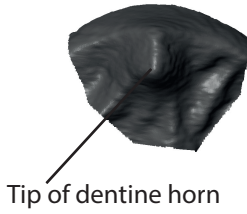
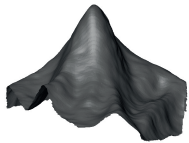


Tip of dentine horn

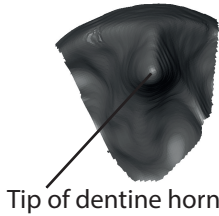
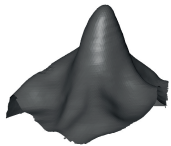


Tip of dentine horn

Present

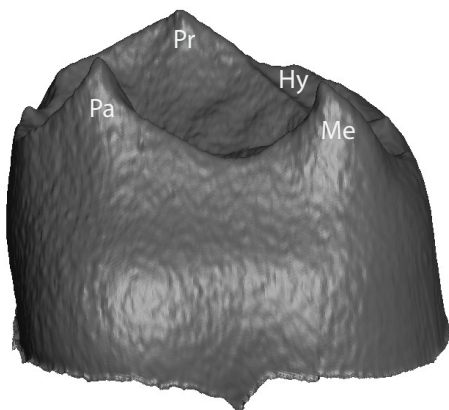


Tip of dentine horn

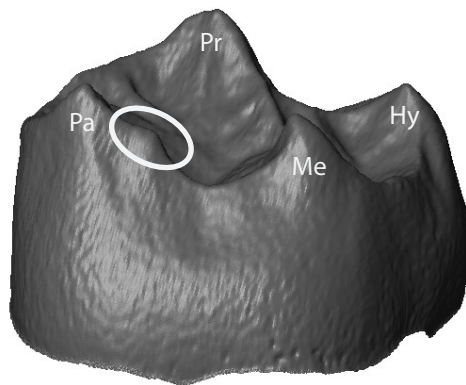


Tip of dentine horn

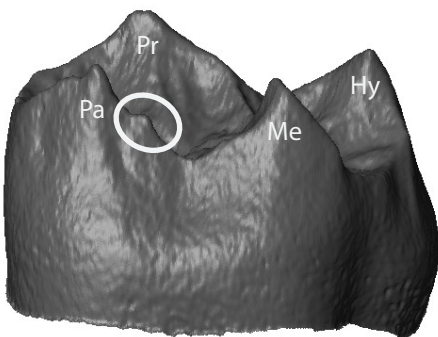
Figure3



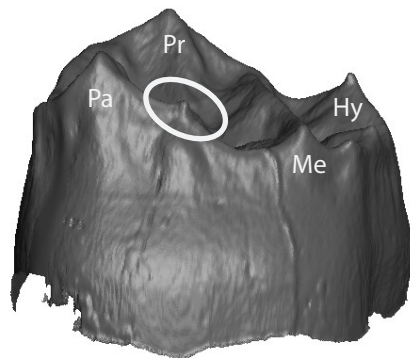
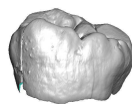
(a) ABSENT - MPI M189 M<sup>2</sup>Left (mirrored)



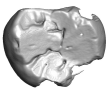
(b) MINOR - Krapina D98 M<sup>2</sup>Right



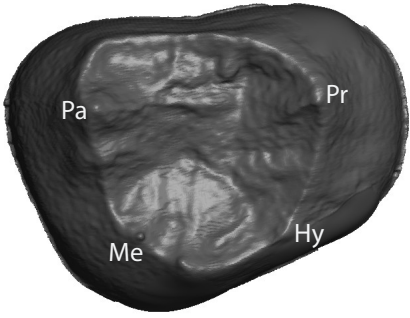
(c) INTERMEDIATE - Krapina D171 M<sup>1</sup>Right



(d) MARKED - El Sidrón SD1164 M<sup>3</sup>Right



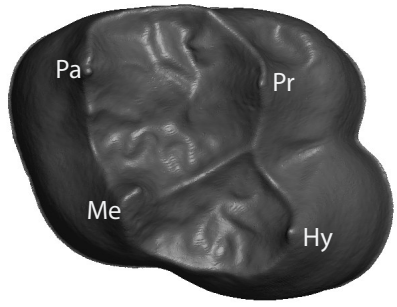
Absent



(a) Krapina D176 M<sup>2</sup> Left (mirrored)



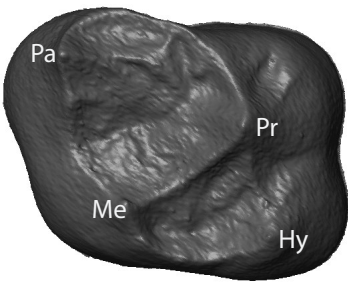
Type I



(b) Krapina 45 M<sup>1</sup> Left (mirrored)



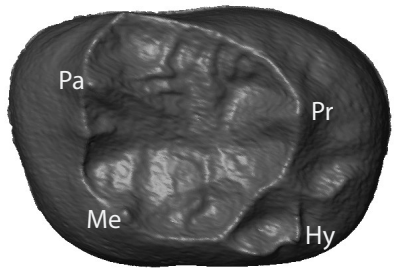
Type II



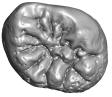
(c) Krapina D169 M<sup>2</sup> Right



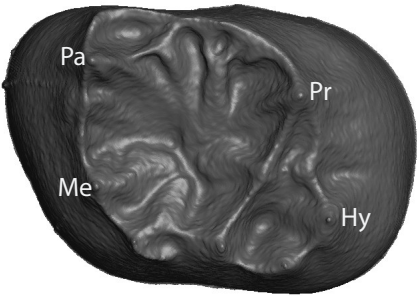
Type III



(d) Krapina D163 M<sup>3</sup> Right



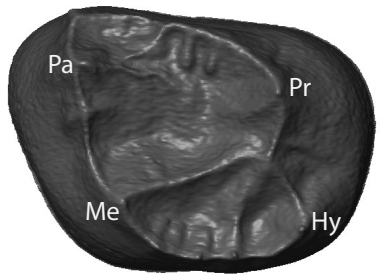
Type IV



(e) El Sidrón SD621 M<sup>3</sup> Right



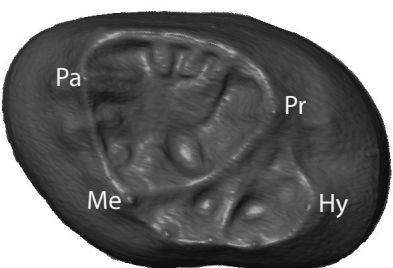
Type V



(f) Krapina D170 M<sup>3</sup> Right

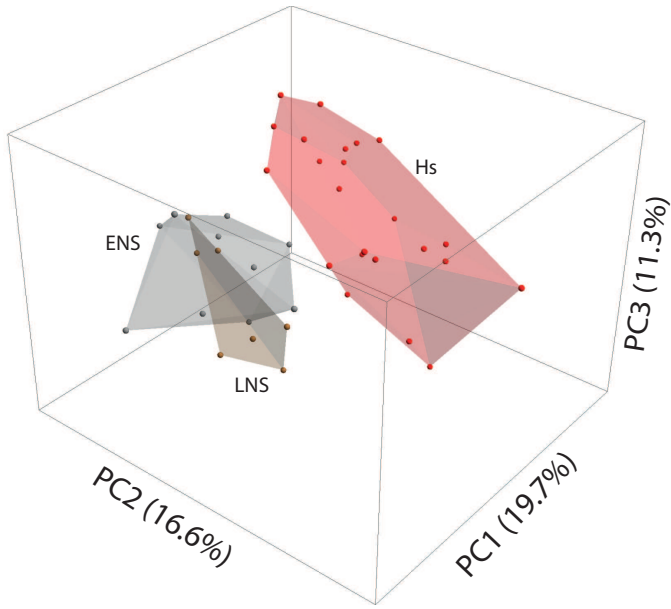


Type VI

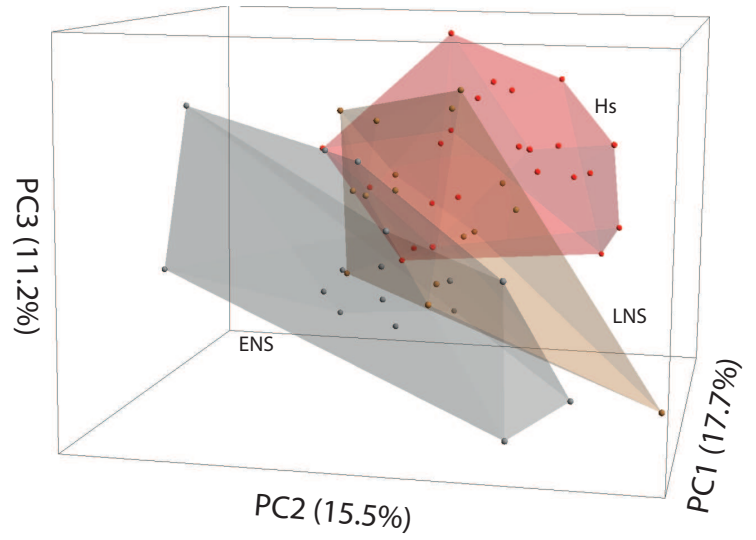


(g) El Sidrón SD332 M<sup>3</sup> Left (mirrored)

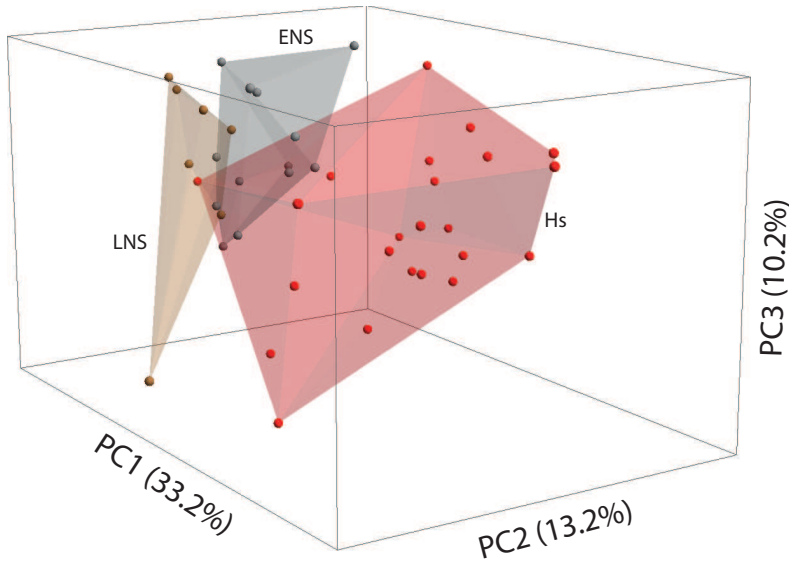
M<sub>1</sub> - EDJ/CEJ shape



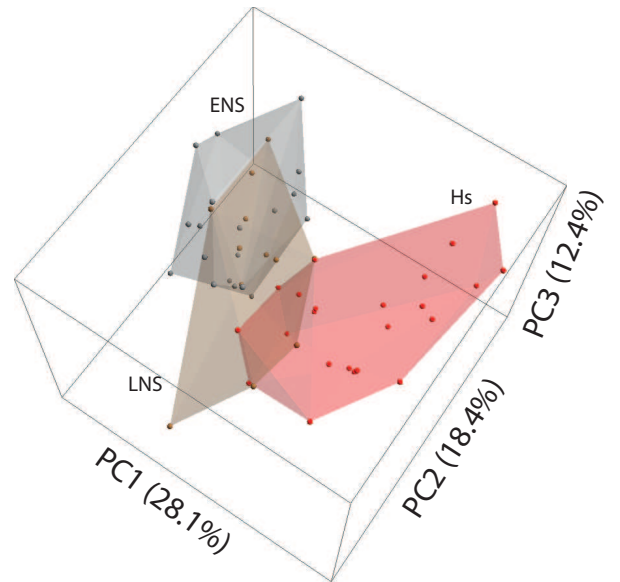
M<sub>1</sub> - CEJ shape



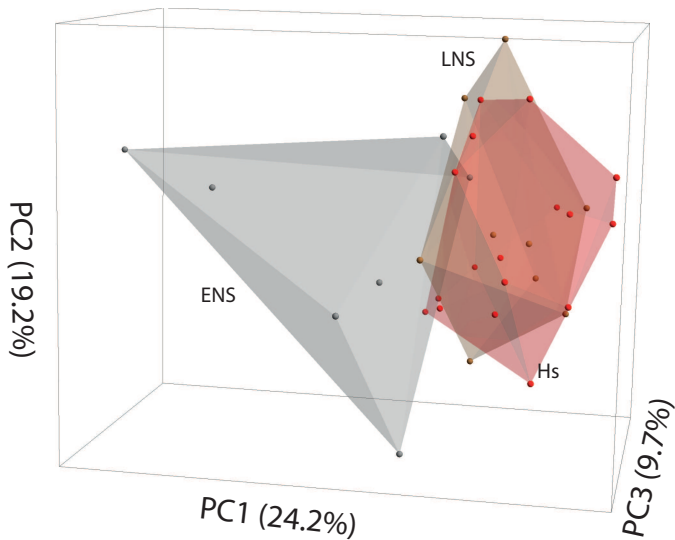
M<sub>2</sub> - EDJ/CEJ shape



M<sub>2</sub> - CEJ shape



M<sub>3</sub> - EDJ/CEJ shape



M<sub>3</sub> - CEJ shape

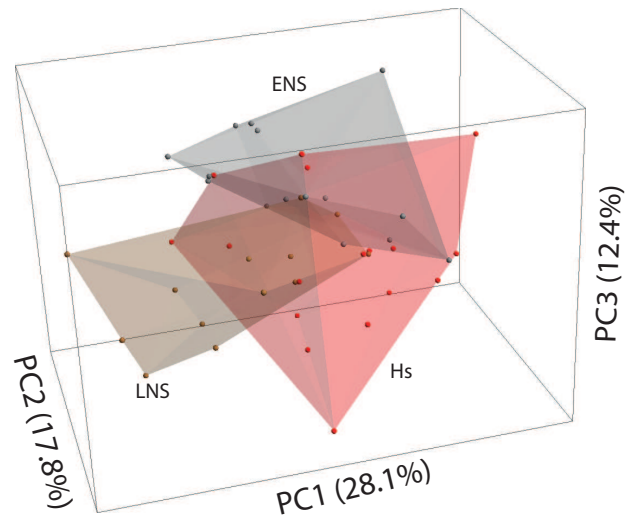
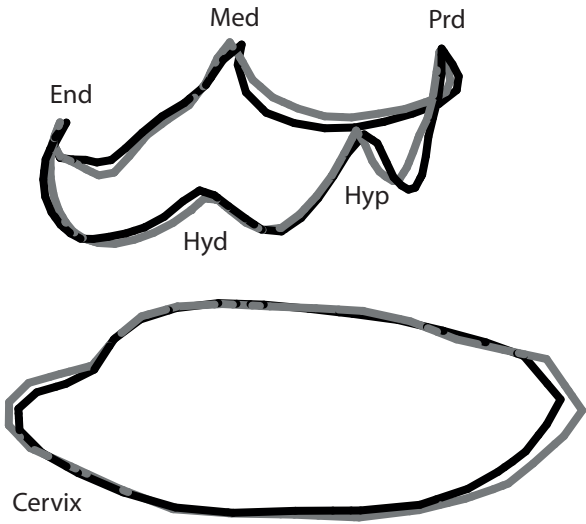


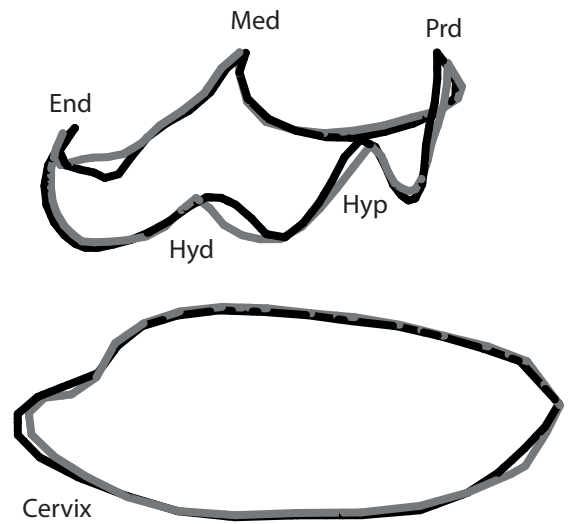


Figure 6

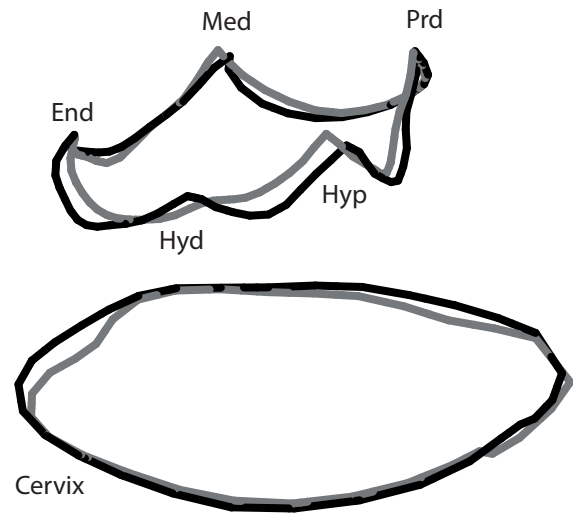
M<sub>1</sub> - Neanderthal vs. recent modern human



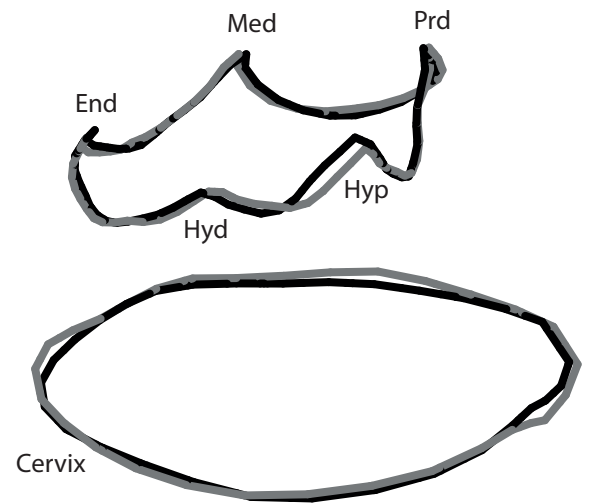
M<sub>1</sub> - Earlier vs. later Neanderthal



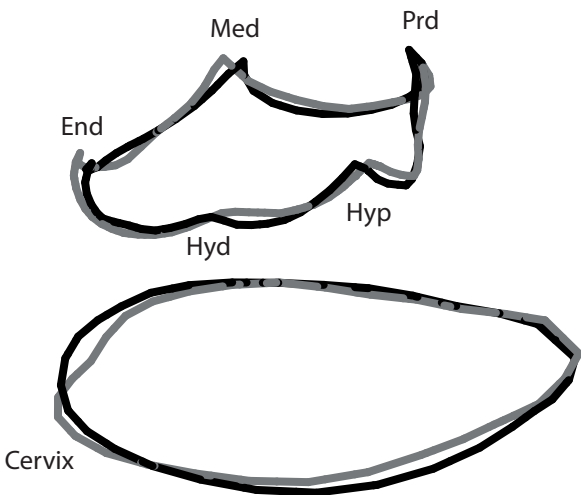
M<sub>2</sub> - Neanderthal vs. recent modern human



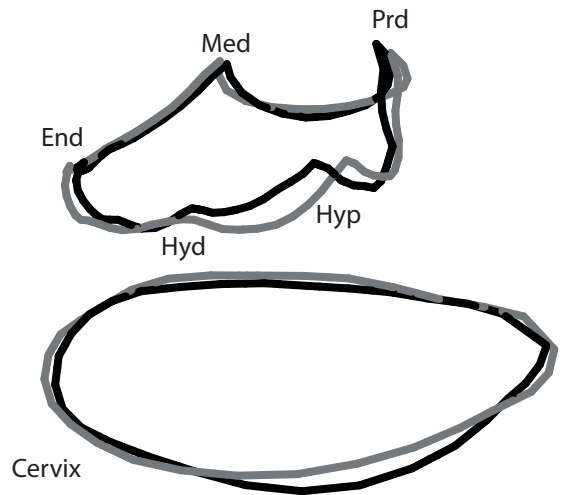
M<sub>2</sub> - Earlier vs. later Neanderthal



M<sub>3</sub> - Neanderthal vs. recent modern human



M<sub>3</sub> - Earlier vs. later Neanderthal

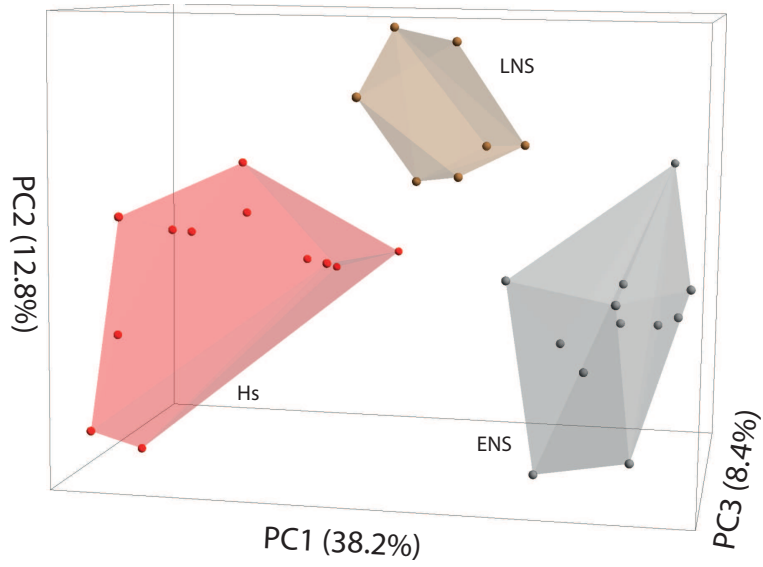


■ Neanderthals  
■ Recent modern humans

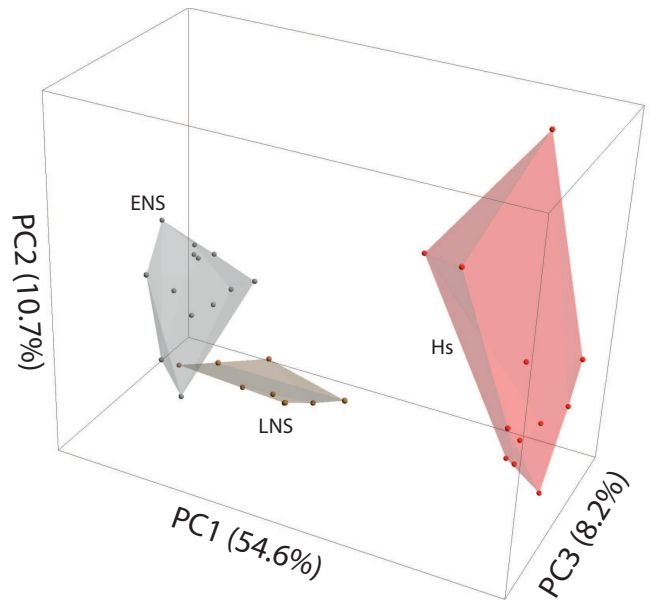
■ Earlier Neanderthal sample  
■ Later Neanderthal sample

Figure 7

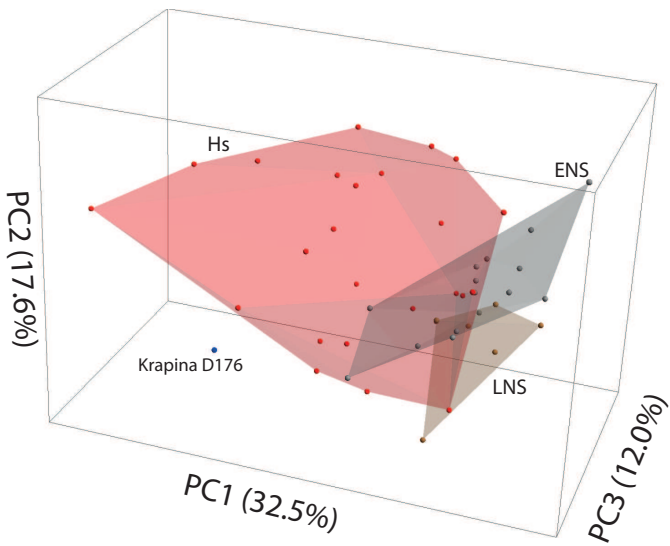
M<sup>1</sup> - EDJ/CEJ shape



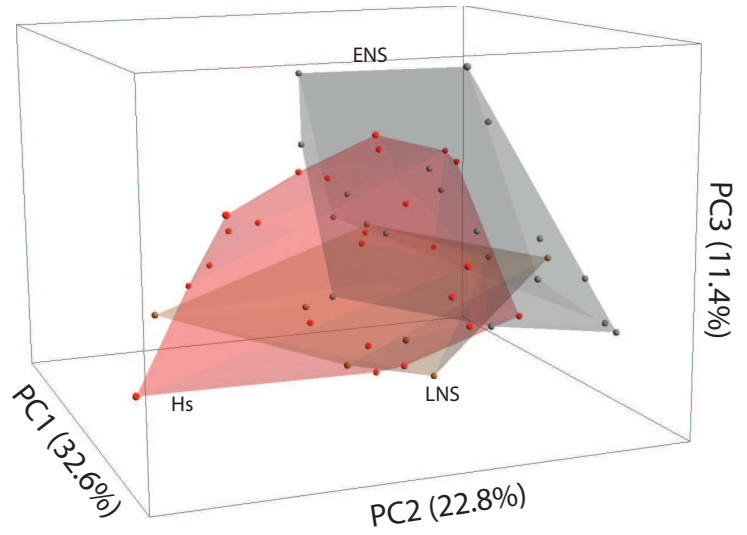
M<sup>1</sup> - CEJ shape



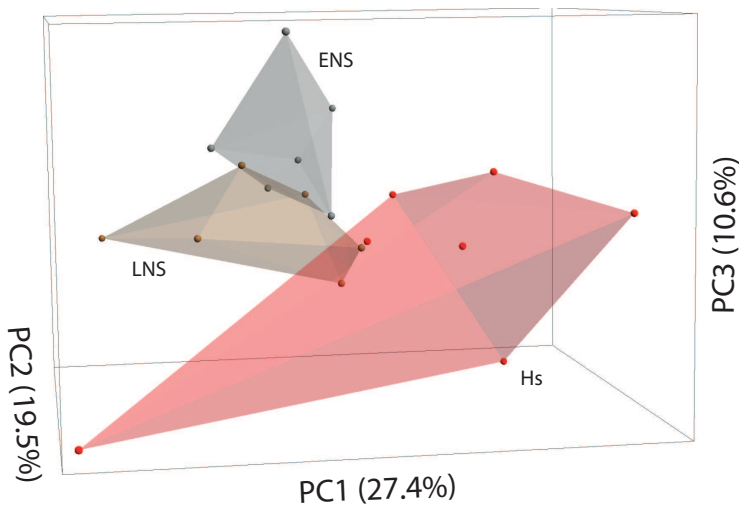
M<sup>2</sup> - EDJ/CEJ shape



M<sup>2</sup> - CEJ shape



M<sup>3</sup> - EDJ/CEJ shape



M<sup>3</sup> - CEJ shape

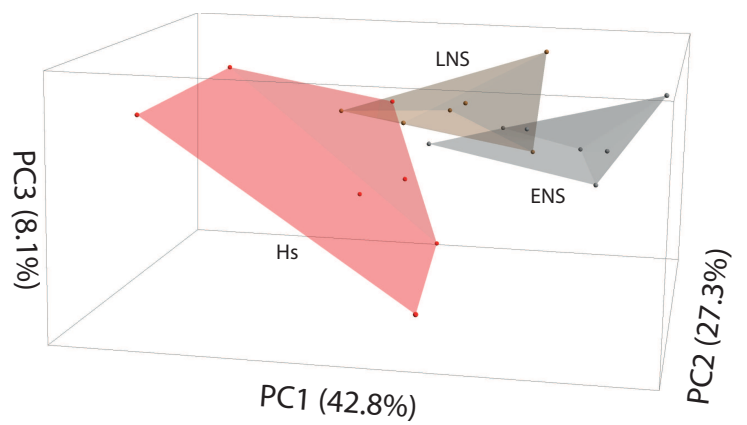
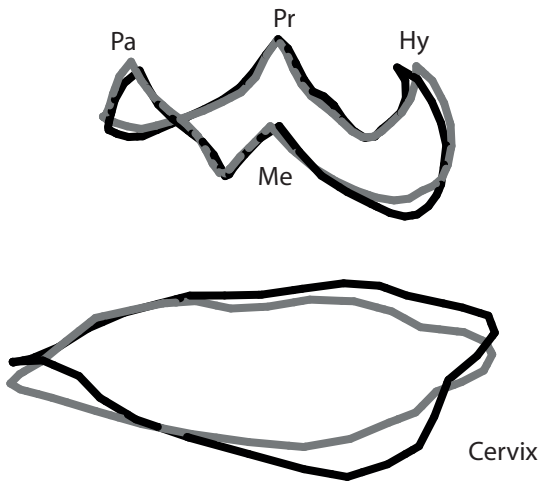
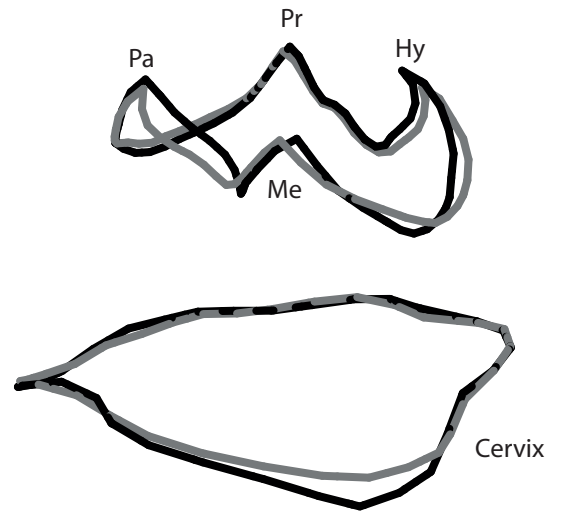


Figure 8

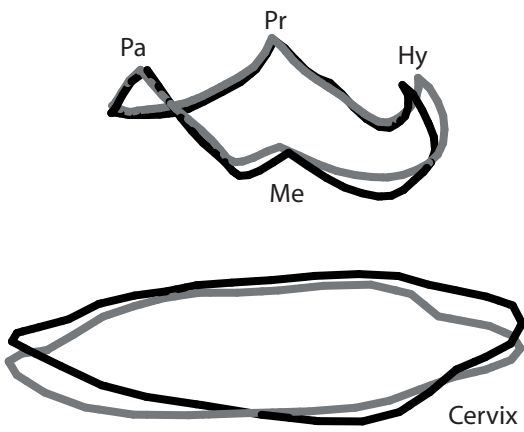
M<sup>1</sup> - Neanderthal vs. recent modern human



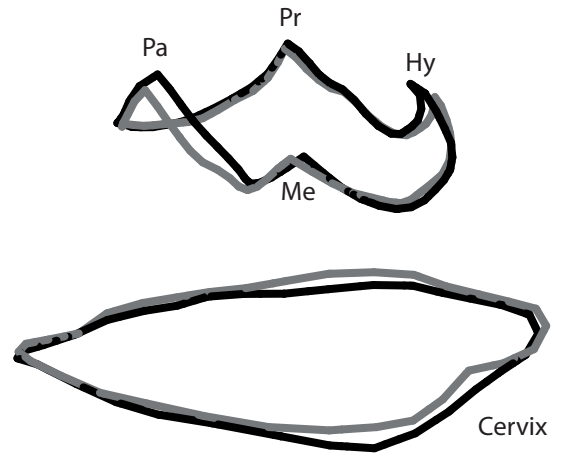
M<sup>1</sup> - Earlier vs. later Neanderthal



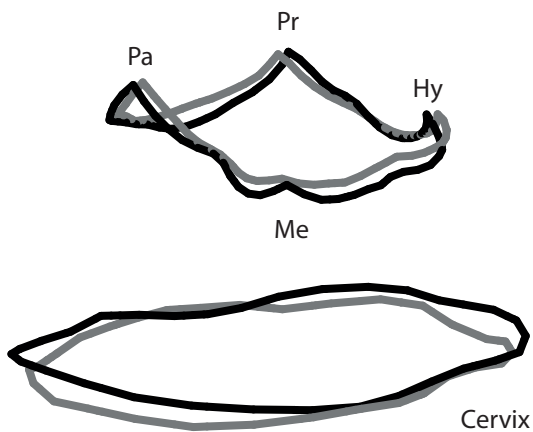
M<sup>2</sup> - Neanderthal vs. recent modern human



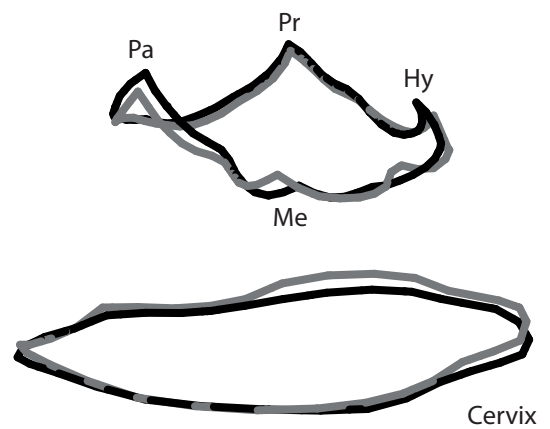
M<sup>2</sup> - Earlier vs. later Neanderthal



M<sup>3</sup> - Neanderthal vs. recent modern human



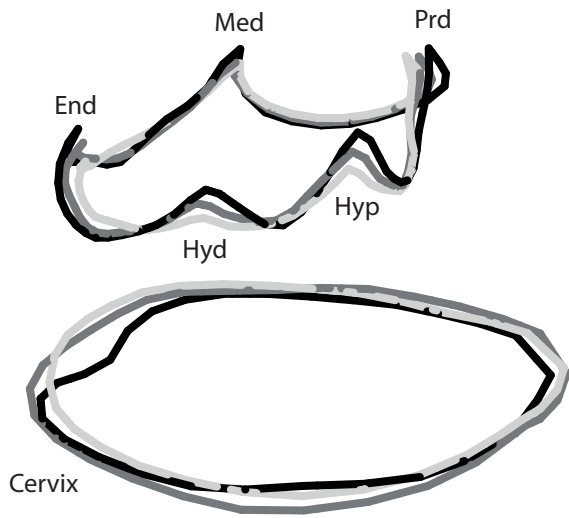
M<sup>3</sup> - Earlier vs. later Neanderthal



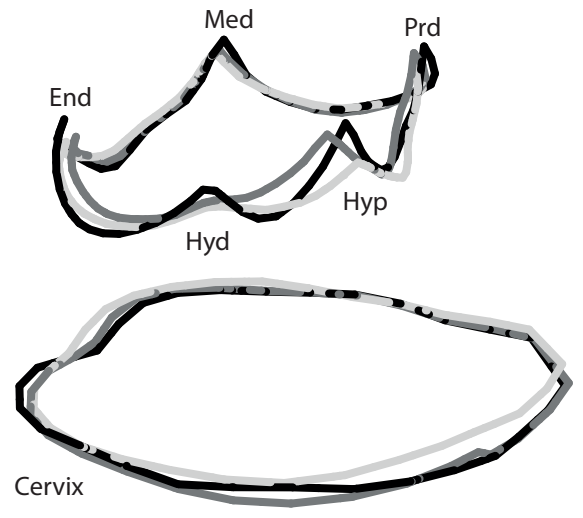
■ Neanderthals  
■ Recent modern humans

■ Earlier Neanderthal sample  
■ Later Neanderthal sample

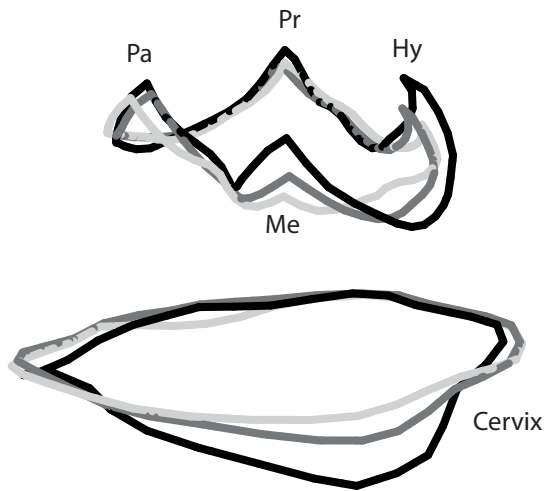
M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>, M<sub>3</sub> - Neanderthal



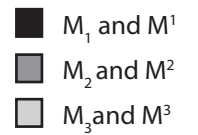
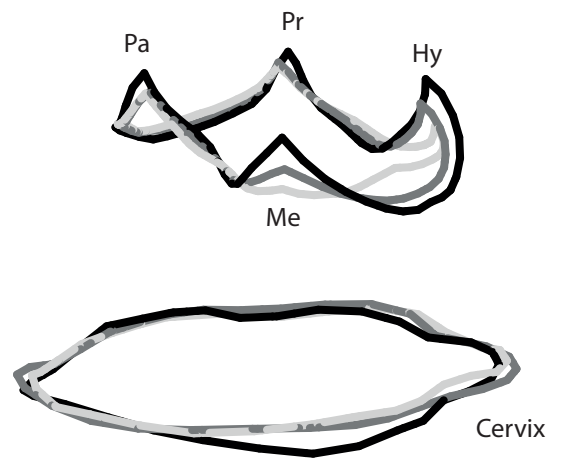
M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>, M<sub>3</sub> - Recent modern human

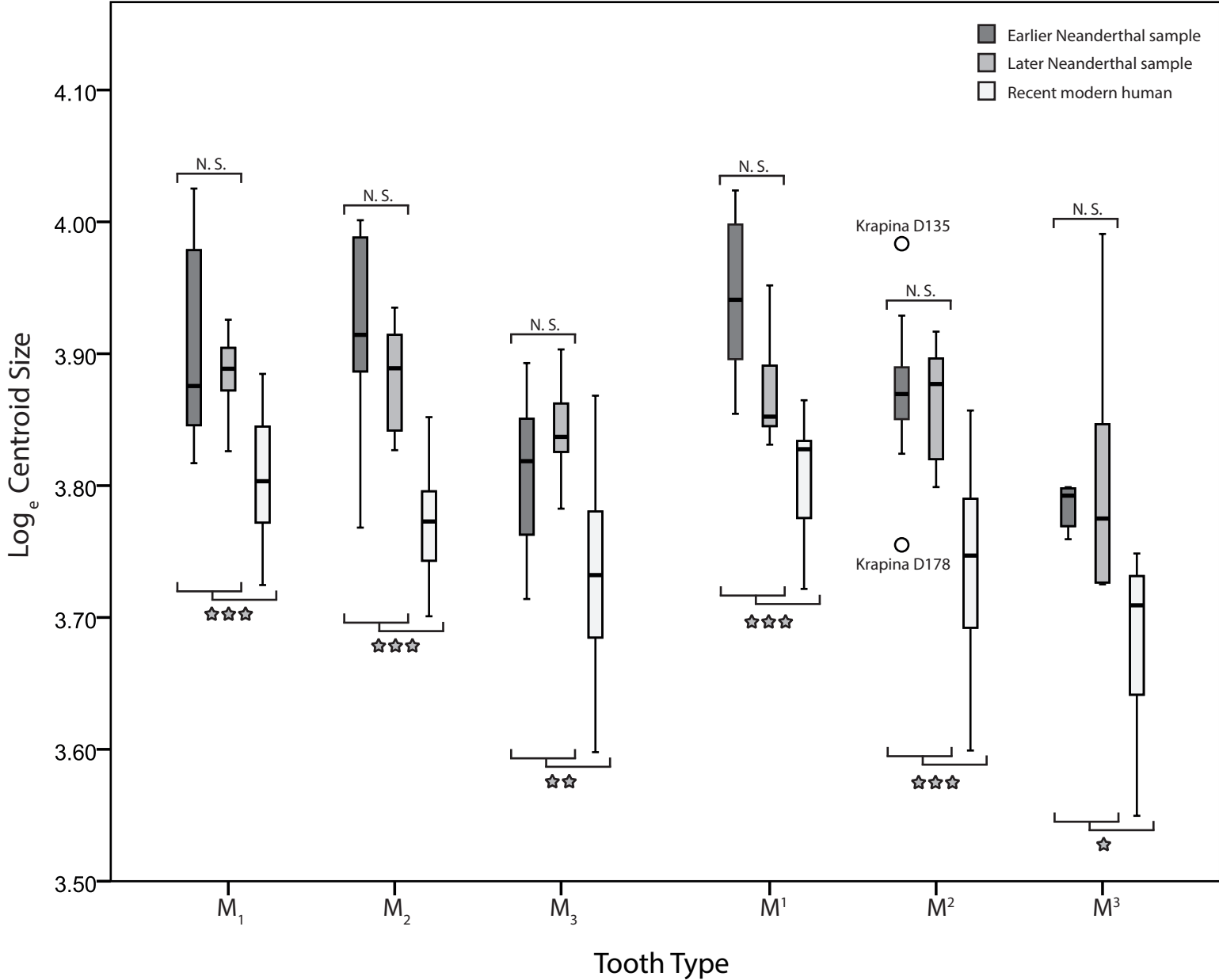


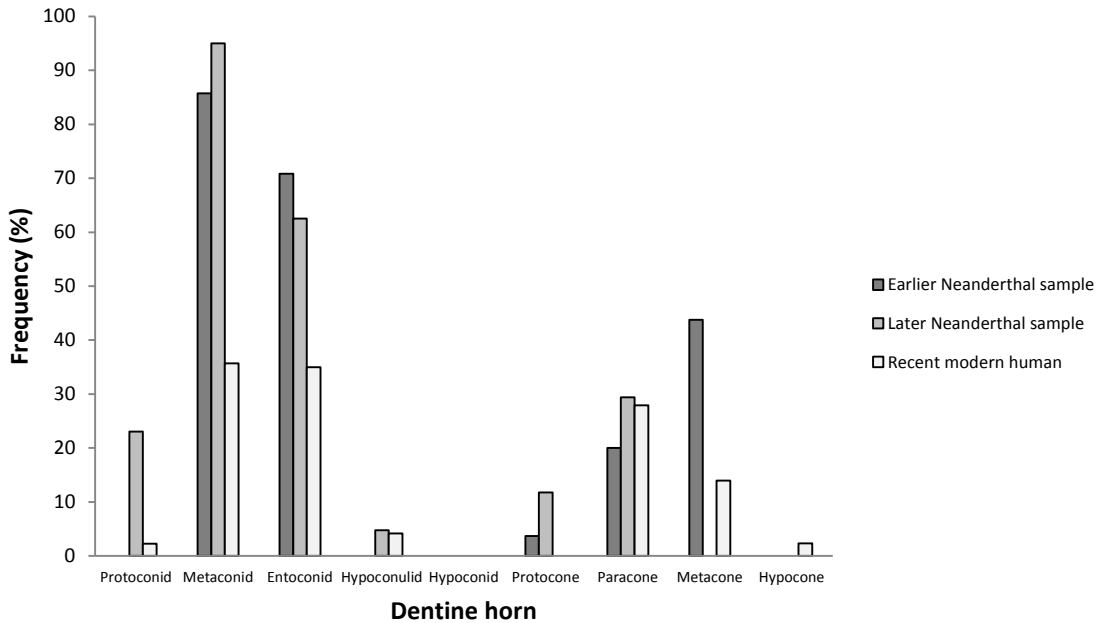
M<sup>1</sup>, M<sup>2</sup>, M<sup>3</sup> - Neanderthal

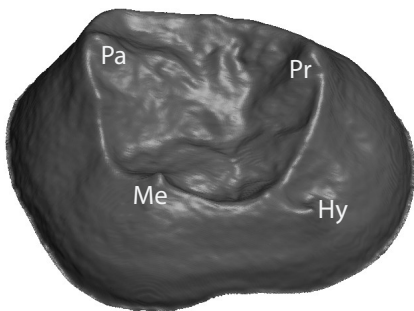
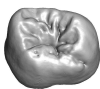


M<sup>1</sup>, M<sup>2</sup>, M<sup>3</sup> - Recent modern human

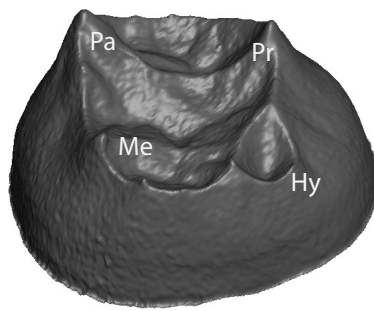
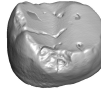




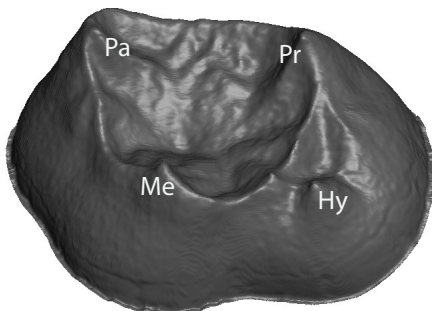
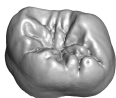




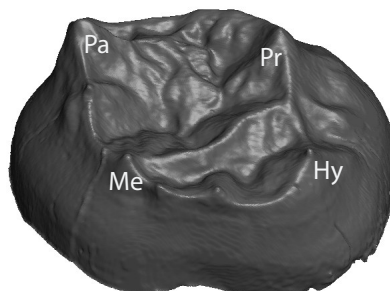
(a) Krapina D97 M<sup>3</sup> Right



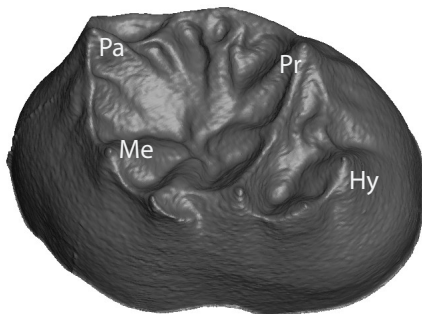
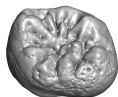
(b) Krapina D173 M<sup>3</sup> Right



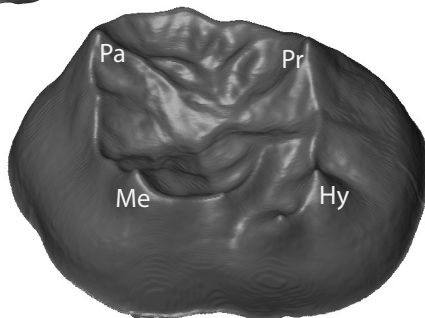
(c) Abri Bourgeois-Delaunay BD8 M<sup>3</sup> Left (mirrored)



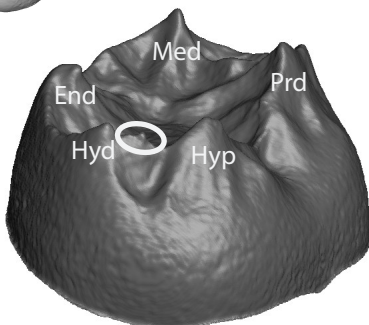
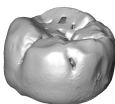
(d) El Sidrón SD1164 M<sup>3</sup> Right



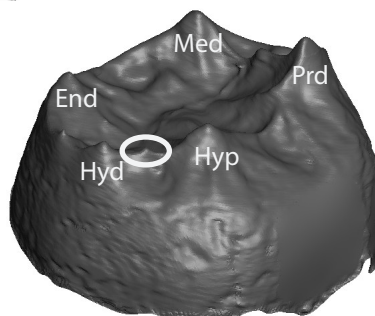
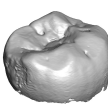
(e) El Sidrón SD621 M<sup>3</sup> Right



(f) Scladina 4A\_3 M<sup>2</sup> Right

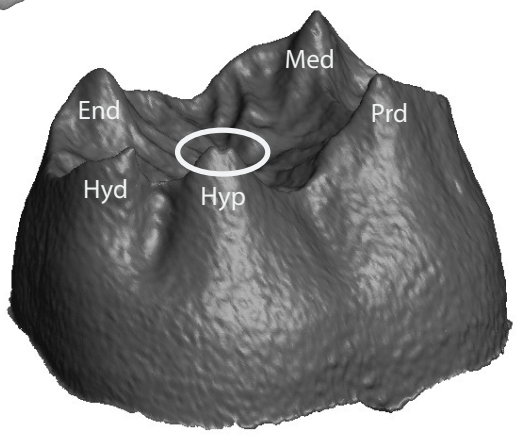
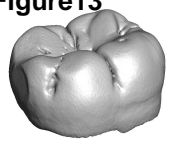


(g) Abri Suard S36 M<sub>2</sub> Left (mirrored)

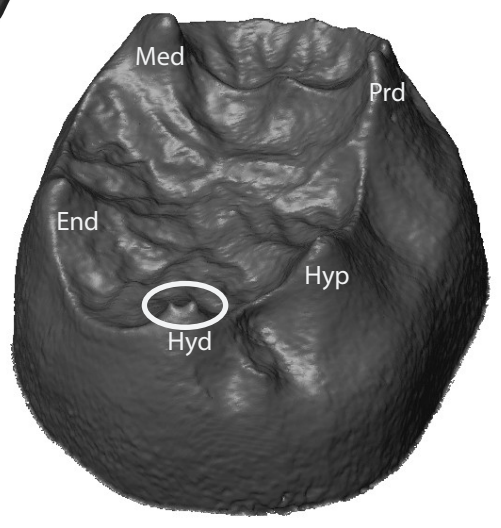
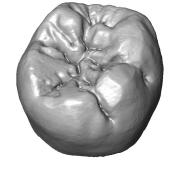


(h) La Quina Q760\_H9 M<sub>2</sub> Left (mirrored)

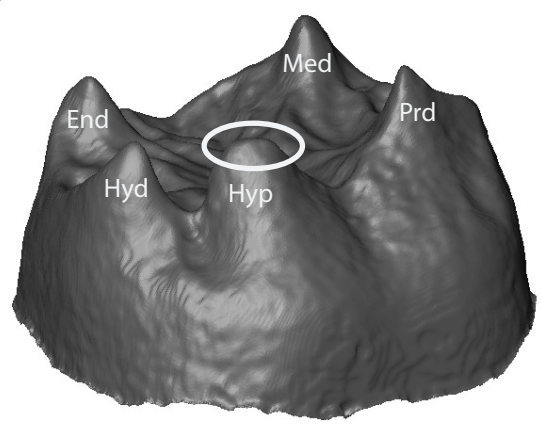
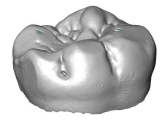
Figure13



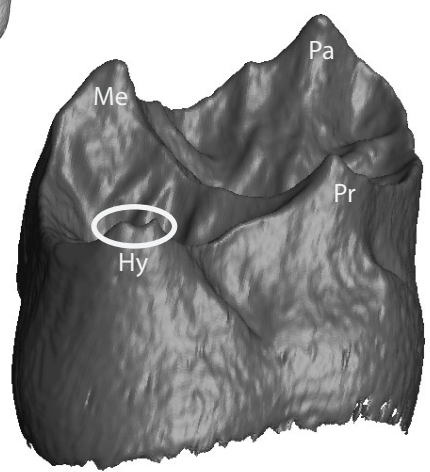
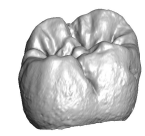
(a) Krapina 54 M<sub>1</sub> Left (mirrored)



(b) Combe-Grenal I M<sub>1</sub> Right



(c) Krapina D79 M<sub>1</sub> Right



(d) Roc de Marsal M<sup>1</sup> Left (mirrored)



**Supplementary Material**

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