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1 Microevolution of outer and inner structures of upper molars in Late Pleistocene and Early  
1 Holocene humans  
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5 *Microévolution des structures externe et interne des molaires supérieures chez les Hommes*  
6  
7 *de la fin du Pléistocène et du début de l'Holocène*  
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9

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23 ABSTRACT

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3 In this study, we investigate outer and inner variations of upper second molars (UM2) for Late  
4 Pleistocene and Early Holocene modern humans, at a key-period in our evolutionary history  
5 associated with major sociocultural, economic and environmental changes. Non-metric traits  
6 have been recorded on 89 UM2 of 66 Upper Paleolithic, Mesolithic and Neolithic individuals,  
7 and 40 UM2 have been microscanned to assess variations in enamel thickness (ET)  
8 distribution and enamel-dentine junction (EDJ) shape. Major changes are found between  
9 Mesolithic and Neolithic periods: a decrease of the metacone expression combined with an  
10 increase of the hypocone development; an increase of the heterogeneity of ET distribution  
11 between lingual and buccal cusps; and an increase of the development of the dentine horn tips  
12 corresponding to the hypocone and, to a lesser extent, to the metacone. These morphological  
13 modifications could be linked to the masticatory functional changes associated with the  
14 transition to agriculture.

25 RÉSUMÉ

26  
27 Dans cette étude, nous avons examiné les variations externes et internes des secondes  
28 molaires supérieures (UM2) d'Hommes de la fin du Pléistocène et du début de l'Holocène,  
29 période-clé de notre histoire évolutive associée à des changements socioculturels,  
30 économiques et environnementaux majeurs. Les variations non-métriques ont été enregistrées  
31 sur 89 UM2 de 66 individus paléolithiques, mésolithiques et néolithiques, et 40 UM2 ont été  
32 scannées par microtomographie pour évaluer les variations de distribution d'épaisseur de  
33 l'email (EE) et de forme de la jonction email-dentine (JED). Les changements majeurs sont  
34 trouvés entre le Mésolithique et le Néolithique: diminution de l'expression du métacône  
35 combinée à un hypocône plus développé; hétérogénéité accrue dans la distribution de l'EE  
36 entre les cuspides linguales et buccales; et augmentation de taille des cornes de dentine  
37 correspondant à l'hypocône et, dans une moindre mesure, au métacône. Ces modifications  
38 morphologiques peuvent être liées aux changements fonctionnels masticatoires associés à la  
39 transition vers l'agriculture.

54     **1. Introduction**

1         55  
2         56         Documented since the apparition of the genus *Homo*, a reduction in tooth size together  
3         57         with a morphological simplification have been reported (Brace, 1963, 1967; Frayer, 1977;  
4         58         Wolpoff, 1971). This phenomenon accelerated at the end of the Pleistocene, and particularly  
5         59         during the Upper Paleolithic (Brace et al., 1987; Calcagno, 1986; Frayer, 1977; Pinhasi and  
6         60         Meiklejohn 2011). Among the most evoked factors, cultural and dietary changes (Brace,  
7         61         1963), energetic demand (Jolly, 1970), competition during teeth development (Sofaer et al.,  
8         62         1971), resistance to pathology (Calcagno, 1986), and demographic and societal changes  
9         63         (Macchiarelli and Bondioli, 1986) have been proposed as having played an active role in  
10         64         affecting this phenomenon. Based only on outer assessment of teeth, these explanatory  
11         65         models are still discussed and no consensus has been reached on this dental structural  
12         66         reduction.

13         67         Outer and inner structures of human teeth provide a wealth of information that is crucial  
14         68         in both paleoanthropological and archaeological studies. Crown size and shape have been  
15         69         largely used to estimate phylogenetic relationships, biological affinities and kinship (e.g.,  
16         70         Bailey, 2000; Carter et al., 2014; Crubézy and Sellier, 1990a; Irish, 1997; Irish et al., 2014; Paul  
17         71         and Stojanowski, 2015). Enamel thickness and dental tissue proportions have been  
18         72         determinant to discuss taxonomy, phylogeny, developmental and dietary aspects (Bayle et al.,  
19         73         2010; Fornai et al., 2014; Le Luyer et al., 2014; Mahoney, 2013; Martin, 1985; Molnar and  
20         74         Gantt, 1977; Schwartz, 2000; Skinner et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2012; Zanolli, 2014). The  
21         75         enamel-dentine junction (EDJ) is the developmental precursor and the primary contributor of  
22         76         the outer enamel surface (OES) morphology (Guy et al., 2015; Morita et al., 2014; Skinner,  
23         77         2008; Skinner et al., 2008a, 2010). While the OES and enamel thickness have been related to  
24         78         dietary aspects and masticatory biomechanical constraints directly under selective pressures  
25         79         (Hlusko et al., 2004; Horvath et al., 2014; Kelley and Swanson, 2008; Le Luyer et al., 2014;  
26         80         Pampush et al., 2013), the EDJ has been considered as more conservative evolutionarily,  
27         81         providing essential information about the developmental processes underlying teeth crown  
28         82         growth and more reliable for assessing phylogenetic relationships (Braga et al., 2010;  
29         83         Korenhof, 1961; Olejniczak et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2016; Skinner, 2008; Skinner et al.,  
30         84         2008a). Thus, virtual dental anthropology brings highly relevant complementary evidences  
31         85         (Macchiarelli et al., 2008, 2013), and studies integrating both outer and inner aspects of teeth  
32         86         may provide greater opportunity to understand of human evolution.

33         87         Advanced virtual imaging techniques such as microtomography (microCT or  $\mu$ CT)

allow non-invasive quantitative and qualitative characterizations of inner structures. Although major sociocultural and economic changes occurred at the Pleistocene-Holocene boundary (Bonsall et al., 2004; Langlais et al., 2012; Marchand and Perrin, 2015; Pinhasi and Stock, 2011; Richards et al., 2003; Valdeyron, 2014), representatives of the first human societies have been poorly assessed by means of advanced virtual anthropology (but see Le Luyer, 2016; Le Luyer et al., 2014, 2016). This study aims to investigate outer and inner variations of modern humans upper second molars dated from Late Pleistocene and Early Holocene from a whole crown perspective, by assessing non-metric variation, enamel thickness and EDJ shape.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Samples

We analysed 89 second upper molars (UM2) of 66 adult and immature individuals (Table 1) from French sites (Fig. 1) dated from the Upper Paleolithic (Middle and Upper Magdalenian, Azilian/Laborian), the Mesolithic (Early and Late Mesolithic) and the Neolithic (Early and Middle Neolithic). All the selected teeth are fully formed UM2 crowns, free of damages or pathologies. From this sample, 40 unworn or slightly worn UM2 were microscanned ( $\mu$ CT, Table 1) for enamel thickness and EDJ analyses. UM2s have been selected for this study for two reasons: they are often less worn than the first molars, and their development is more stable than those of the third molars (Garn et al., 1962). Even if it was not the purpose of the study, we primarily tested differences linked to sexual dimorphism. When the hip bones were preserved, their morphology and morphometry were used to determine the sex of the adult individuals (Bruzek, 2002; Murail et al., 2005). For all the parameters assessed in this study, no significant differences were found between sexes.

### 2.2. Non-metric variations

Crown morphological variations were assessed by recording the number of cusps and their development. Five non-metric traits (metacone, hypocone, metaconule, parastyle, and Carabelli's trait) were scored using the Arizona State University Dental Anthropology System (ASUDAS, Scott and Turner, 1997; Turner et al., 1991). For each individual, observations were made on right and left antimeres if they were present. In case of asymmetry, the antimer exhibiting the greatest degree of trait expression was selected prior to calculated

122 frequencies (Turner and Scott, 1977). The metacone, the hypocone and the parastyle have  
123 been considered as present when their expression reached a fully formed cusp (i.e., score 3).  
124 According to standard ASUDAS rank-scale trait breakpoint from Scott and Turner (1997), the  
125 mecatonule has been recorded present from its first degree while the presence of the  
126 Carabelli's trait was determined from the score 5. *Fisher's* exact test was used to compare  
127 differences between adult and immature individuals, and between considered periods.

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129 *2.3. Microtomographic record*

130

131 To assess the inner structural variation, 40 UM2 have been imaged by using the  
132 Skyscan 1076 *in vivo* X-ray equipment set at the MRI platform (University Montpellier 2,  
133 France). Scans were realized according to the following parameters: 100 kV voltage, 100 µA  
134 current, 1.0 mm aluminum filter and 0.20° rotation step. Using Nrecon 1.6 (Skyscan), the  
135 final volumes were reconstructed with an isotropic voxel size ranging from 17.93 µm for  
136 isolated teeth to 36.18 µm for jaw fragments. A semi-automatic threshold-based segmentation  
137 (HMH, Coleman and Colbert, 2007; Spoor et al., 1993) was conducted using Avizo 9.0  
138 (VSG) with manual corrections (Bayle et al., 2009, 2010; Kono, 2004; Macchiarelli et al.,  
139 2006; Olejniczak et al., 2008a, b, c; Smith et al., 2005; Zanolli et al., 2010, 2014). Crowns  
140 were digitally isolated from roots (Olejniczak et al., 2008a) and 3D surface models of the  
141 OES and the EDJ were generated using a constrained smoothing algorithm (Kupczik and  
142 Hublin, 2010).

143

144 *2.4. Enamel thickness variations*

145

146 Average enamel thickness (AET) and relative enamel thickness (RET) were calculated  
147 in 2D and in 3D (Kono, 2004; Macchiarelli et al., 2006; Martin, 1985; Olejniczak et al.,  
148 2008c; Skinner et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2012). For all worn teeth, enamel loss was virtually  
149 reconstructed on the mesial sections prior to measure 2D enamel thicknesses (Smith et al.,  
150 2012). Mann-Whitney U-tests were performed to detect potential significant differences in  
151 enamel thickness between adult and immature individuals, and between periods. Three-  
152 dimensional cartographies of the distribution of enamel thickness were created by measuring  
153 the distance between the OES and EDJ (Macchiarelli et al., 2008). Also, using MPSAK v2.9  
154 (developed by L. Bondioli, available in Dean and Wood, 2003), the topographical variation of  
155 the standardized enamel thickness was measured from the cervix to the apex of the cusps, on

156 both lingual and buccal sides of the mesial sections (Le Luyer et al., 2014; Macchiarelli et al.,  
1  
157 2007). For the enamel thickness analyses, only unworn to slightly worn teeth (wear stage  
2  
158 inferior or equal to 4, Molnar, 1971) have been included. Two teeth (the Upper Magdalenian  
3  
159 of Le Morin and a Middle Neolithic one from Gurgy) exhibiting a wear stage of 5 (Molnar,  
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160 1971) are given separately for information purposes.  
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162 2.5. *Enamel-dentine junction shape*  
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164 Using the software Viewbox 4 (dHAL software) and a template specifically developed  
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165 to finely quantify variations at microevolutionary scale (Le Luyer et al., 2016), 114 landmarks  
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166 were digitized on the EDJ surface: five anatomical landmarks (four on the tip of the dentine  
11  
167 horn corresponding to protocone, paracone, metacone, hypocone and one on lowest point of  
12  
168 the occlusal basin), 52 curve semilandmarks, and 57 surface semilandmarks (Coquerelle et al.,  
13  
169 2011; Gunz and Mitteroecker, 2013; Gunz et al., 2005; Polychronis et al., 2013; Skinner et al.,  
14  
170 2008a, b). Extensively worn UM2 and those revealing homology issues (e.g., presence of  
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171 Carabelli's trait or a Hertwig's epithelial root sheath) were excluded for the EDJ analysis. For  
16  
172 five teeth exhibiting small dentine patches (stages 3 or 4, Molnar, 1971), reconstructions of  
17  
173 the apex of horn tips were made using Avizo 9.0 (VSG) and based on morphology observed  
18  
174 for preserved dentine horns. Using R software (R Development Core Team, 2016) and  
19  
175 packages Morpho (Schlager, 2016), shapes (Dryden, 2016) and scatterplot3d (Ligges and  
20  
176 Mächler, 2003), generalized procrustes analysis (GPA) and principal component analysis  
21  
177 (PCA) were carried out on the matrix of shape coordinates augmented by a column of the  
22  
178 natural logarithm of Centroid Size (LnCS), corresponding to a PCA in form space (Bookstein,  
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179 1996; Mitteroecker and Gunz, 2009; Mitteroecker et al., 2004; Rohlf and Slice, 1990).  
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181 3. Results  
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183 3.1. Outer morphology  
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185 Frequencies of non-metric traits are presented in Table 2. For all non-metric traits  
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186 considered, no significant differences were found between immature and adult individuals,  
31  
187 neither between the Upper Paleolithic, the Mesolithic and the Neolithic periods. The  
32  
188 metacone is always well-developed for the UM2 dated from the Middle Magdalenian to the  
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189 Late Mesolithic. The frequency of the metacone decreases with the Early Neolithic (Table 2),  
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190

revealing a lower expression of this cusp. For the hypocone, no clear trends were found when we considered the sample by different chronocultures. When we combined the samples by periods, an increase of the frequencies is shown for the hypocone, with 60.00% of presence for the Upper Paleolithic, 66.67% for the Mesolithic and 82.93% for the Neolithic. This signal reveals a high expression of the hypocone for Neolithic individuals. The metaconule also exhibits various frequencies and is the most common in the Middle Neolithic molars, if the only Late Mesolithic UM2 is put aside. The parastyle and Carabelli's trait are absent from the whole sample (except the parastyle for one Early Neolithic molar). Indeed, their recorded degrees of expression were too small to be considered as present. As a whole, even if no significant differences were found between periods, the results of the study of non-metric traits show a decrease in the frequencies of the metacone development combined with an increase of the hypocone development from the Middle Magdalenian to the Neolithic, with main differences observed between the Mesolithic and the Neolithic.

### 3.2. Inner morphology

**Enamel thickness.** Values of 2D and 3D average (AET) and relative (RET) enamel thickness are presented for each chronoculture in Table 3. On the whole sample, all the values are significantly higher for immature individuals compared to adult ones. However, this is directly linked to the more pronounced degrees of occlusal wear for adults, and the immature/adult ratios are comparable between periods ( $\chi^2=2.447$ ;  $df=2$ ;  $p=0.294$ ). No significant differences were found between the considered periods, except for the RET2D which is significantly lower for Early Mesolithic molars than for Early Neolithic ones ( $p=0.036$ ). A high range of variation is shown for the Middle Neolithic UM2s, which corresponds to the larger sample ( $N=30$ ). The Middle Magdalenian tooth shows thick enamel, both in 2D and in 3D, and is situated in the high range of variation measured for the Neolithic molars. The 2D values of the Upper Magdalenian tooth are higher than the mean observed for Mesolithic and Neolithic samples (Table 3). On average, the Mesolithic teeth exhibit the thinnest enamel, and all the indices show an increase of enamel thickness from Early Mesolithic to Middle Neolithic.

When considering the distribution of enamel thickness on the whole crown for unworn UM2s, thicker enamel is found on the lingual cusps for all the specimens whatever their chronocultural context is (Fig. 2). The distribution is more homogeneous for the Upper Paleolithic and the Early Mesolithic teeth, while for the Neolithic, the enamel is particularly

224 thicker on the hypocone. Indeed, the heterogeneity of enamel thickness between buccal and  
1 225 lingual cusps is accentuated for both Early and Middle Neolithic unworn UM2s.

226 Profiles of topographical variation of enamel thickness on the mesial sections show less  
2 227 variability on the buccal side (Fig. 3, top) than on the lingual one (Fig. 3, bottom). The Upper  
3 228 Paleolithic tooth exhibits the same pattern of thick enamel on both lingual and buccal aspects.  
4 229 Enamel thicknesses are generally similar between Early Mesolithic and Neolithic UM2s on  
5 230 the buccal side, while for the lingual side, the Neolithic molars have thicker enamel than  
6 231 Mesolithic one. Indeed, the heterogeneity between lingual and buccal sides is pronounced for  
7 232 the Neolithic teeth, and particularly for the Middle Neolithic UM2s.  
8 233

233 Enamel-dentine junction shape. The EDJ shape has been assessed for 34 UM2 dated  
1 234 from the Middle Magdalenian (La Marche), the Early Mesolithic (La Vergne and Les Perrats),  
2 235 the Early Neolithic (Germignac, Les Brégières) and the Middle Neolithic (Gurgy, Auneau,  
3 236 La Lède du Gorp, Mykolas). The results of the PCA on form space (Fig. 4) show that the first  
4 237 component (PC1) captures overall size variation as well as size-related shape variation  
5 238 (allometry), whereas the other components (PC2 and PC3) contain residual, non-allometric,  
6 239 shape variation. Along PC1 axis (which represents 29.51% of the overall variation), the  
7 240 negative values correspond to a large EDJ with an important height of dentine horns, while  
8 241 the positive values represent EDJ with a small size and a low height of dentine horns. Along  
9 242 PC2 axis (15.87% of overall variation), the positive values show EDJ with high dentine horns  
10 243 associated with large secondary basin, EDJ with low dentine horn tips and small secondary  
11 244 basin are found in PC2 negative values. Along PC3 axis (12.50% of overall variation), the  
12 245 negative values correspond to EDJ with an important height between cervical line and dentine  
13 246 horn tips, while positive values for PC3 represent low height of EDJ associated to a  
14 247 mesiodistal strengthening. A high variability is shown for the size and shape of EDJ, and  
15 248 particularly for the Middle Neolithic molars (Fig. 4). The Upper Magdalenian and the Early  
16 249 Mesolithic UM2s show relatively bigger EDJ with small dentine horn tips. As shown for  
17 250 outer morphology on the larger sample, they exhibit lower development of the distolingual  
18 251 horn tip. Even if there is no clear separation between the periods from this small EDJ sample  
19 252 size, the oldest molars present an EDJ with the lowest development of dentin horns, and  
20 253 particularly those corresponding to the hypocone.

254

255 **4. Discussion and conclusions**

256

257        The Late Pleistocene and Early Holocene periods were marked by major environmental,  
1 258        cultural and biological changes (e.g., Brace, 1962, 1967; Greene et al., 1967; Langlais et al.,  
2 259        2012; Marchand and Perrin, 2015; Pinhasi and Stock, 2011). A size reduction and a  
3 260        morphological simplification of the teeth have been observed for these periods, and mainly  
4 261        linked with cultural and dietary changes associated with the transition to agriculture (Brace,  
5 262        1962; Brace et al., 1987; Calcagno, 1986; Frayer, 1977; Greene et al., 1967; Jolly, 1970;  
6 263        Macchiarelli and Bondioli, 1986). Based on outer structures only, these dental modifications  
7 264        have not been assessed for the inner structures neither from a whole crown perspective.  
8

9 265        The crown morphology is determined by a morphodynamic interaction between  
10 266        developmental genes and cusp morphogenesis (for a review, see Paul et al., 2016). The  
11 267        patterning cascade model (Jernvall, 2000) predicts the future cusp number, size and shape,  
12 268        and tooth sizes along the row, and minor changes during the developmental trajectory can  
13 269        alter these features (Evans et al., 2016; Jernvall, 2000; Salazar-Ciudad and Jernvall, 2002).

14 270        Non-metric dental traits are under multiple controls, influenced by genetic, epigenetic and  
15 271        environmental factors (overview in Hughes and Townsend, 2013; Townsend et al., 2012).  
16 272        While the expression of the dental traits shows a high variability in modern humans (e.g.,  
17 273        Hanihara et al., 2003; Irish, 1997; Scott and Turner, 1997), they are reliable markers for  
18 274        estimate biological relationships between populations and kinship (Coppa et al., 2007;  
19 275        Crubézy and Sellier, 1990a, b; Delgado-Burbano, 2007; Desideri, 2003; Irish, 1997, 2006,  
20 276        2014; Turner, 1987; Ullinger et al., 2005).

21 277        Besides its relevance to discuss phylogenetic and taxonomic affinities, the inner tooth  
22 278        structure, and particularly enamel thickness, has been of considerable interest to study dietary  
23 279        regime and tooth function (Beynon and Wood, 1986; Lucas et al., 2008a, b; Martin, 1985;  
24 280        Molnar and Gantt, 1977; Schwartz, 2000). It has been shown that the thickness of enamel is  
25 281        selectively responsive to functionally-related dietary changes and occlusal wear (Hlusko et al.,  
26 282        2004; Horvath et al., 2014; Kelley and Swanson, 2008; Le Luyer et al., 2014; Pampush et al.,  
27 283        2013), and that, in hominoids, a thick enamel is a homoplastic trait (Horvath et al., 2014;  
28 284        Pampush et al., 2013). Thus, the occlusal topographic features (grooves, crest, cusp  
29 285        sharpness) might be more relevant than enamel thickness only to discuss biomechanical  
30 286        implications (Benazzi et al., 2013; Berthaume, 2014).

31 287        Studies on EDJ have shown that, while differences in dentine horn height, crown height,  
32 288        as well as in cervix shape, are more important between adjacent molars of the same taxon than  
33 289        for the same molar between taxa (Skinner et al., 2008a), its morphology successfully  
34 290        discriminate taxonomic and phylogenetic relationships (e.g., Bailey et al., 2011; Olejniczak et  
35

291 al., 2007; Skinner et al., 2008a, b, 2009a, b). Recently explored at a microevolutionary scale  
1 292 in a Middle Neolithic sample (Le Luyer et al., 2016), the EDJ shape has been suggesting as a  
2 293 reliable proxy to track individuals sharing similar cultural and burial practices.  
3 294

4 295 In this study, even though it should be noted that our results could be affected by a bias  
5 296 due to a small sample, particularly for the inner structure, and the heterogeneity of the sample  
6 297 size between the periods, the upper molars from Late Pleistocene to Early Holocene human  
7 298 individuals tend to show a reduction of the metacone combined with a more developed  
8 299 hypocone, and even if no statistically significant difference has been found, this tendency is  
9 300 particularly marked since the beginning of the Neolithic. Even if an overlap is shown for the  
10 301 samples from all the periods, the EDJ morphology shows an increase of the height of the  
11 302 dentine horn tips from Magdalenian to Middle Neolithic, and particularly for those  
12 303 corresponding to the hypocone cusp. Thus, this EDJ signal is consistent with the data we  
13 304 obtained from the study of non-metric variations on a larger sample, and allow to quantify  
14 305 these morphological changes. Average and relative enamel thicknesses have been found to be  
15 306 higher in Upper Paleolithic teeth and smaller in Early Mesolithic teeth, then increasing from  
16 307 Mesolithic to Middle Neolithic individuals. Whatever period is considered, systematically,  
17 308 enamel thickness distribution is asymmetric between the functional and the non-functional  
18 309 cusps of the UM2s, with thicker enamel on the lingual cusps. While the distribution of enamel  
19 310 is more homogeneous for the Upper Paleolithic and the Mesolithic teeth in our sample, it is  
20 311 noteworthy that the Neolithic individuals show an increase of the heterogeneity of enamel  
21 312 thickness distribution.  
22 313

23 314 Major changes in outer and inner structural morphology from Late Pleistocene to Early  
24 315 Holocene human individuals are found for the functional cusps (e.g., Kay and Hiiemae, 1974;  
25 316 Macho and Berner, 1994), and particularly the hypocone. These results are consistent with  
26 317 previous studies showing that mesial cusps of upper molars are more stable in modern human  
27 318 populations (Macho and Moggi-Cecchi, 1992) while distal cusps are more plastic to  
28 319 environmental stress (e.g., Riga et al., 2014; Scott and Turner, 1997). According to the  
29 320 patterning cascade model of development (Salazar-Ciudad and Jernvall, 2002), initial  
30 321 differences (even small) during development will have cumulative effects on the later-forming  
31 322 cusps, reducing or deleted them (Jernvall and Jung, 2000; Paul et al., 2016; Skinner and Gunz,  
32 323 2010). However, the complete or near-complete loss of the hypocone (three-cusped UM2s)  
33 324 occurs in relatively low frequencies (0-33.7%) in all recent human populations (Scott and  
34 325 Turner, 1997; Irish, 2016). The study of Bailey (2000) reported the lowest hypocone  
35 326 frequency for Upper Paleolithic Central European specimens. While no complete loss of the  
36 327  
37 328

325 hypocone was found in later fossil *Homo*, Bailey and Hublin (2013) observed four Upper  
1 326 Paleolithic UM2s with a hypocone reduced to the point of a small cuspule. This is consistent  
2 327 with the results of our study of the Magdalenian specimens at outer and inner levels.  
3 328

4 329 Considering enamel thickness, our Late Pleistocene/Early Holocene specimens show  
5 330 substantial differences with the mean enamel thicknesses reported for 46 extant humans  
6 331 (African, Asian, European, and Northern Americans) that range from 1.27 mm to 1.40 mm for  
7 332 AET2D, and from 20.00 to 21.64 for RET2D (Grine, 2005; Kono, 2004; Smith et al., 2012;  
8 333 Olejniczak et al., 2008a, b). Notably, the Magdalenian specimens exhibit thicker enamel  
9 334 while the Mesolithic individuals have particularly thinner enamel compared to the extant  
10 335 human conditions. The increase of the heterogeneity in its distribution, combined with higher  
11 336 EDJ horn tips for the thickest cusps, could reveal differences in masticatory biomechanical  
12 337 constraints. Indeed, significant functional links have been found between enamel thickness,  
13 338 tooth form and diet (Lucas et al., 2008a, b; Mahoney, 2013; Molnar and Gantt, 1977; Molnar  
14 339 and Ward, 1977; Schwartz, 2000). Also, thick enamel exhibited on the lingual cusps could be  
15 340 an adaptation to increase resistance and attritional longevity in response to abrasive diet (Le  
16 341 Luyer et al., 2014; Lucas et al., 2008b). This suggestion is strengthened by the occlusal wear  
17 342 differences that have been reported between these populations (Le Luyer, 2016): while Upper  
18 343 Paleolithic and Mesolithic individuals show a flatter wear associated with a homogenous  
19 344 distribution of the enamel thickness, the Neolithic molars present an oblique wear direction  
20 345 combined with a heterogeneous enamel thickness distribution (see also Le Luyer et al., 2014).  
21 346 This ubiquitous oblique wear direction has been linked to more refined and grinded foodstuffs  
22 347 with a more abrasive impact (Brace, 1962; Greene et al., 1967; Smith, 1984). Thus, the outer  
23 348 and inner dental modifications that we observed between these Late Pleistocene and Early  
24 349 Holocene populations are probably primarily linked with the functional constraints of the  
25 350 mastication of different dietary items, as major changes in subsistence strategies occurred  
26 351 between these periods (Bonsall et al., 2004, 2009; Drucker and Henry-Gambier, 2005;  
27 352 Richards et al., 2003; Schulting and Richards, 2001).

28 353 Even if environmental and/or developmental aspects may have played a role in the  
29 354 morphological changes observed in these Late Pleistocene and Early Holocene human molars,  
30 355 we suggest that the development of the hypocone combined with a reinforcement of its  
31 356 enamel thickness is a functionally-related adaptive modification, linked to dietary changes  
32 357 associated with the transition to agriculture. Furthermore, considering recent study combining  
33 358 outer and inner crown assessment on a larger sample of both deciduous and permanent teeth  
34 359 (Le Luyer, 2016), discontinuities found between Late Pleistocene and Early Holocene human  
35 360

359 groups suggest that environmentally-driven modifications beginning at the Holocene had a  
1 major impact on dental size reduction, while Neolithic cultural changes had mostly affected  
2 enamel distribution (Le Luyer, 2016). Explanatory models proposed and discussed so far do  
3 not explain all the inner modifications, but some models can help to interpret some  
4 differences. Thus, a reappraisal in a whole crown perspective is needed for the interpretation  
5 of the time-related trend of dental structural reduction. Further studies on a larger sample will  
6 track the underlying factors and the microevolutionary mechanisms having affected dental  
7 evolution, notably across the key-period of the Pleistocene-Holocene transition.  
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806      **Captions**

807      **Table 1**

808      List of specimens and number of teeth used in this study for outer (N) and inner ( $\mu$ CT)  
809      aspects.

810      **Tableau 1**

811      Liste des spécimens et nombre de dents utilisées dans cette étude pour les aspects externes  
812      (N) et internes ( $\mu$ CT).

813      **Table 2**

814      Results of the study for outer morphology and frequencies of non-metric dental variations.

815      **Tableau 2**

816      Résultats de l'étude morphologique externe et fréquences des variations non-métriques  
817      dentaires.

818      **Table 3**

819      Descriptive statistics for 2D and 3D average (AET) and relative (RET) enamel thickness  
820      values. sd = standard deviation; min = minimum; max = maximum.

821      **Tableau 3**

822      Statistiques descriptives pour les valeurs 2D et 3D d'épaisseurs moyenne (AET) et relative  
823      (RET) de l'émail. sd = déviation standard; min = minimum; max = maximum.

824      **Fig. 1.** Map showing the location of the sites studied.

825      **Fig. 1.** Carte montrant la localisation des sites étudiés.

826      **Fig. 2.** Comparative cartographies of the distribution of enamel thickness for unworn upper  
827      second molars. All teeth are shown as left, in occlusal (O), mesial (M), distal (D), buccal (B)  
828      and lingual (L) views. The pseudo-colour scale (in mm), ranging from dark blue (thin enamel)  
829      to red (thick enamel), is specific to each tooth (see right).

830      **Fig. 2.** Cartographies comparatives de la distribution de l'épaisseur de l'émail pour les  
831      secondes molaires supérieures non usées. Toutes les dents sont montrées comme étant des  
832      gauches, en vues occlusale (O), mésiale (M), distale (D), buccale (B) et linguale (L).  
833      L'échelle colorimétrique (en mm), allant du bleu foncé (émail fin) au rouge (émail épais), est  
834      spécifique à chaque dent (voir à droite).

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1   841 **Fig. 3.** Topographical variation of standardized enamel thickness measured on the buccal  
2   842 (top) and lingual (bottom) sides of the mesial sections. sd = standard deviation.  
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4   844 **Fig. 3.** Variation topographique de l'épaisseur standardisée de l'émail mesurée sur les côtés  
5   845 buccal (en haut) et lingual (en bas) des sections mésiales. sd = déviation standard.  
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11   846 **Fig. 4.** Results of PCA on the EDJ shape on form space according to the chronocultural  
12   847 periods and EJD shape variation (in occlusal view, top right) along the first three principal  
13   848 components (PC).  
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16   849 **Fig. 4.** Résultats de l'ACP en espace de forme pour la JED des UM2 selon les différentes  
17   850 périodes chronoculturelles et variation de la JED (en vue occlusale, en haut à droite) le long  
18   851 des trois premières composantes principales (PC).  
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## List of specimens and number of teeth used in this study

Table 1

Chronoculture	Site	Excavation reference	Specimen(s)	Age of specimen(s)	UM2	$\mu$ CT
Middle Magdalenian	Saint-Germain-la-Rivière	Lepront and Mirande, 1933	STG1	$15780 \pm 200$ BP (GifA-95456) <sup>a</sup>	2	
	Lafaye	Brun, 1867	LF24	$15290 \pm 150$ BP (GifA-95047) <sup>a</sup>	1	
	La Marche	Péricard and Lwoff, 1940	LMR5, LMR6, LMR7	* $14685 \pm 75$ BP (OxA-30980) <sup>b</sup>	3	1
Upper Magdalenian	Le Morin	Deffarge, 1956	A4	$12275 \pm 60$ (OxA-28122) <sup>b</sup>	1	1
Azilian/Laborian	Roc de Cave	Blanchard, 1934	1	$11210 \pm 140$ BP (GifA-95047) <sup>a</sup>	1	
	Rochereil	Jude, 1960	R1	not available	2	
	Pont d'Ambon	Célérier et al., 1997	n°4-I9	not available	1	
Early Mesolithic	Houleau 2	Lenoir, 1983	H2-R19	* $9250 \pm 80$ BP (Ly-173/ OxA-5683) <sup>c</sup>	1	
	La Vergne	Courtaud and Duday, 1995	LV87-St7	$9070 \pm 70$ BP (Ly-369/OxA-6699) <sup>d</sup>	1	1
	Culoz sous Balme	Vilain, 1961	2	$8640 \pm 380$ BP (Ly-1668) <sup>e</sup>	2	
	Les Perrats	Gomez de Soto and Boulestin, 1996	PER-C20, PER08-3021	$8175 \pm 40$ BP (Ly-5194/GrA) <sup>f</sup> $8100 \pm 90$ BP (Gif-95476) <sup>f</sup>	2	2
Late Mesolithic	Cuzoul de Gramat	Lacam et al., 1944	1	not available	2	
	Téviec	Péquart and Péquart, 1929	T3, T4	not available	4	
Early Neolithic	Pendimoun	Barral, 1958	H2, F1	H2: $6450 \pm 40$ BP (GrA-32061) <sup>g</sup> F1: $6445 \pm 40$ BP (GrA-26893) <sup>g</sup>	4	2
	Les Bréguières	Provost, 2013	BRE7, 3218, 3269, 3354, 3404, 3479, 3428, 6302, 6303, 6305, 6306, 6307, 6364	*between $6151 \pm 45$ BP (LTL-13784) <sup>h</sup> and $5581 \pm 45$ BP (LTL-13783A) <sup>h</sup>	24	2
	Germignac	Gaillard et al., 1984	GRM1	$6090 \pm 70$ BP (GifA-96770) <sup>i</sup>	2	1
	Baume Bourbon	Coste et al., 1987	SIII-A	not available	2	
	Gurgy	Rottier et al., 2005	201, 202, 206, 213, 215A, 215B, 223, 229, 243B, 245B, 248, 252, 253, 257, 264, 277, 289B, 291, 292, 294, 300, 301, 308	between $6070 \pm 45$ BP (Ly-5872) <sup>j</sup> and $4975 \pm 35$ BP (Ly-4675) <sup>j</sup>	23	23
Middle Neolithic	Grotte Mykolas	Chancerel et al., 2007	LBGM09, 10, 10-5, 12	*between $5210 \pm 35$ BP (Ly-6225) <sup>k</sup> and $4990 \pm 40$ BP (Poz-14917) <sup>k</sup>	4	4
	La Lède du Gurb	Roussot-Larroque, 1977	LdG1	not available	1	1
	Auneau	Dubois et al., 1986	AUN-1, 2, 4, 5	AUN-2: $4865 \pm 100$ BP (Ly-4729) <sup>l</sup>	6	2
			Total		89	40

<sup>a</sup> Gambier et al., 2000; <sup>b</sup> Barshay-Szmidt et al., 2016; <sup>c</sup> Hedges et al., 1997; <sup>d</sup> Duday et al., 1998; <sup>e</sup> Evin and Pachiaudi, 1979; <sup>f</sup> Boulestin, 1999;  
<sup>g</sup> Binder and Sénépart, 2010; <sup>h</sup> Provost et al., 2014; <sup>i</sup> Laporte and Gomez de Soto, 2001; <sup>j</sup> Rivollat et al., 2015; <sup>k</sup> Chancerel et al., 2011; <sup>l</sup> Verjux, 1999.

\* Isolated remains or collective burials, not possible to be attributed to one individual.

\* *Restes isolés ou sépultures collectives, impossibles à attribuer à un individu particulier.*

## Results of the study for outer morphology and frequencies

Table 2

Trait	Scores	Middle Magdalenian	Upper Magdalenian	Azilian/ Laborian	Early Mesolithic	Late Mesolithic	Early Neolithic	Middle Neolithic
Metacone	3-5	100.00 (4/4)	100.00 (1/1)	100.00 (2/2)	100.00 (4/4)	100.00 (3/3)	91.67 (11/12)	93.10 (27/29)
Hypocone	3-5	33.33 (1/3)	-	100.00 (2/2)	75.00 (3/4)	50.00 (1/2)	91.67 (11/12)	79.31 (23/29)
Metaconule	1-5	33.33 (1/3)	-	0.00 (0/2)	0.00 (0/3)	100.00 (1/1)	25.00 (2/8)	57.69 (15/26)
Parastyle	3-5	0.00 (0/3)	0.00 (1/1)	-	0.00 (0/4)	0.00 (0/2)	7.69 (1/13)	0.00 (0/32)
Carabelli's trait	5-7	0.00 (0/4)	-	0.00 (0/2)	0.00 (0/4)	0.00 (0/3)	0.00 (0/13)	0.00 (0/28)

In parentheses: number of specimens for which the traits were present/number of specimens for which the traits were observable.

*Entre parenthèses: nombre de spécimens pour lesquels les caractères sont présents/nombre de spécimens pour lesquels les caractères sont observables.*

# Descriptive statistics for 2D and 3D AET and RET values

Table 3

	<b>Wear stage<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>AET2D</b>	<b>RET2D</b>	<b>AET3D</b>	<b>RET3D</b>
<b>Middle Magdalenian</b>	1	1.54	28.78	1.61	26.75
<b>Upper Magdalenian</b>	5*	1.49	21.44	0.81*	12.90*
<b>Early Mesolithic</b>	mean ± sd	2 (mean)	1.05 ± 0.07	17.13 ± 0.93	1.04 ± 0.10
	min-max	2-3	1.01-1.14	16.49-18.19	0.95-1.14
<b>Early Neolithic</b>	mean ± sd	3 (mean)	1.17 ± 0.14	20.25 ± 1.71	1.09 ± 0.27
	min-max	1-4	0.96-1.33	18.52-22.98	0.75-1.36
<b>Middle Neolithic</b>	mean ± sd	2 (mean)	1.22 ± 0.16	20.31 ± 3.56	1.25 ± 0.23
	min-max	1-4	0.90-1.56	14.87-29.66	0.74-1.68
		5*	1.10	17.82	0.62*
					11.57*

<sup>1</sup> Molnar (1971)

\* moderately worn crown, values given for information purposes.

\* couronne modérément usée, valeurs données à titre indicatif.

Figure 1

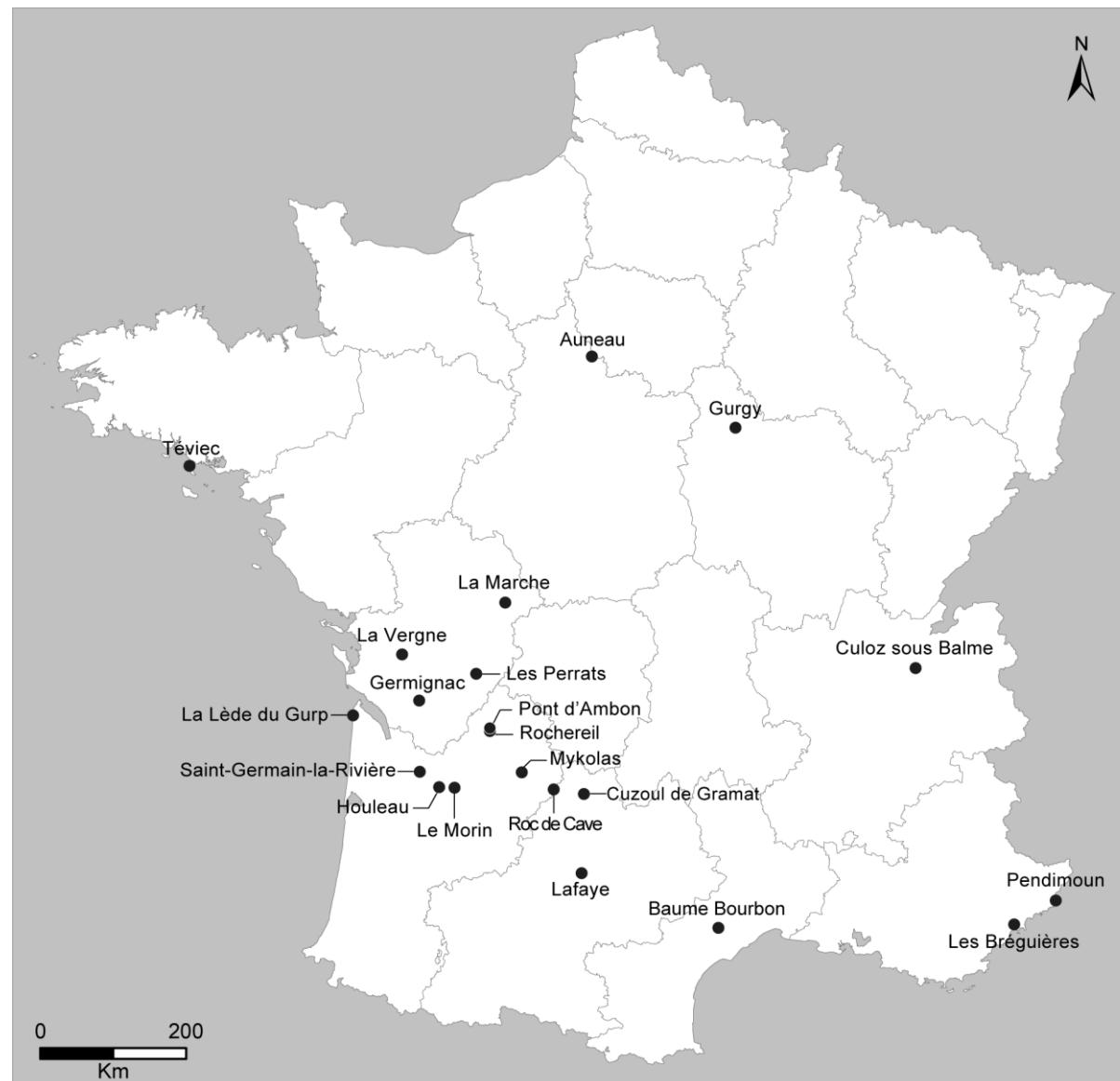


Figure 2

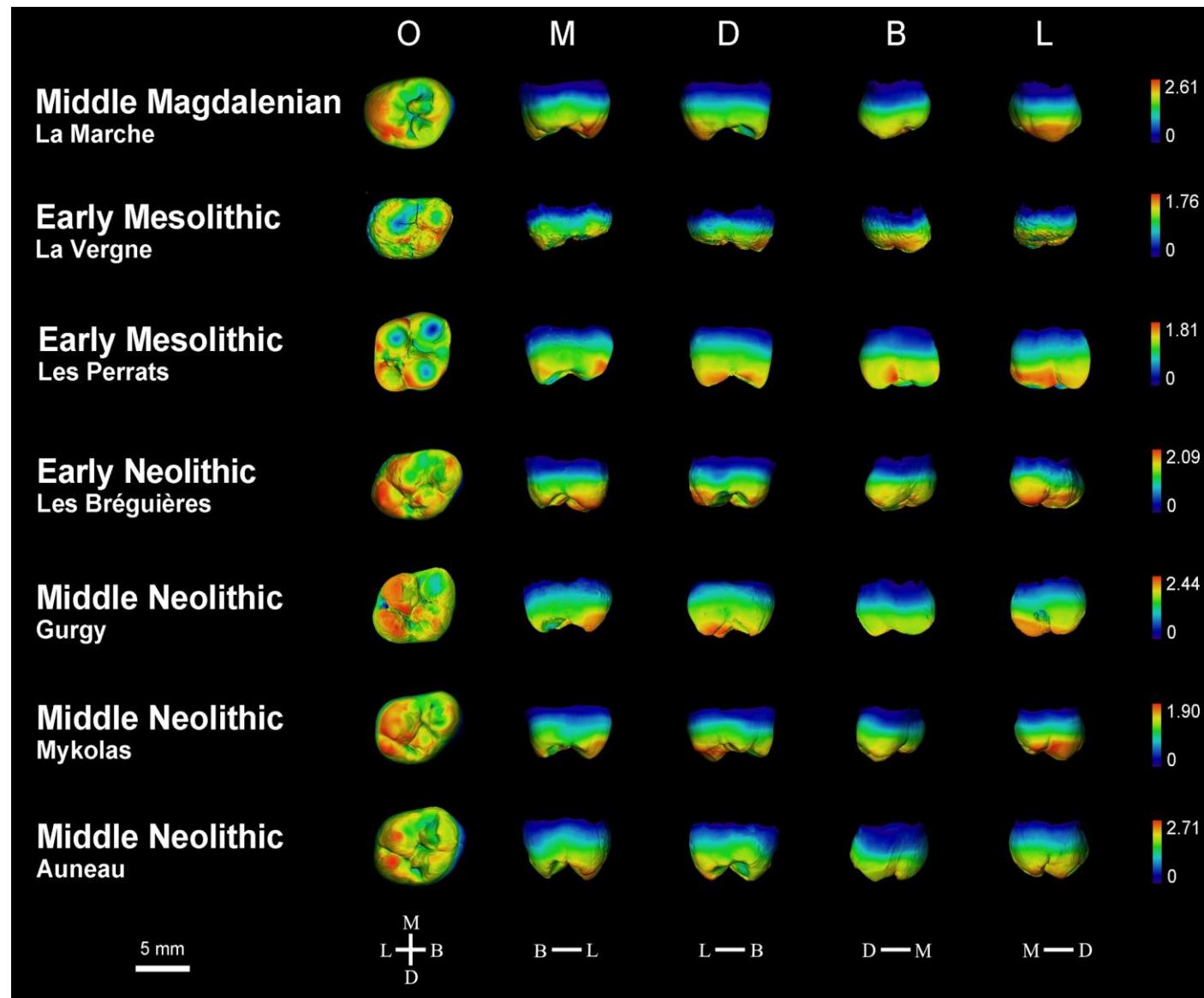


Figure 3

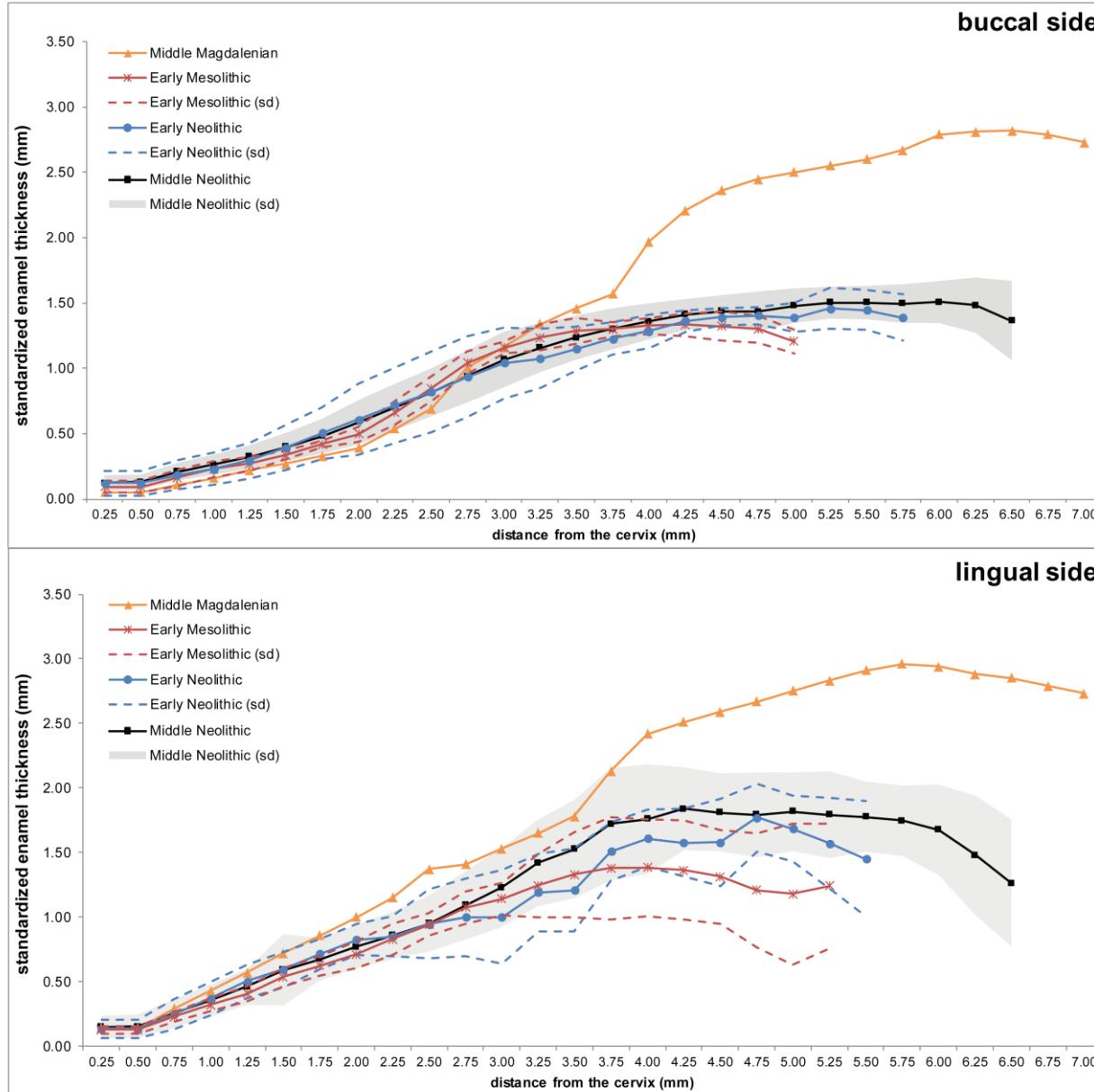


Figure 4

