### New Fossil Materials of the Earliest New World Monkey, *Branisella boliviana*, and the Problem of Platyrrhine Origins

MASANARU TAKAI,  $^{1\ast}$  FEDERICO ANAYA,  $^2$  NOBUO SHIGEHARA,  $^1$  AND TAKESHI SETOGUCHI  $^3$ 

<sup>1</sup>Primate Research Institute, Kyoto University, Inuyama 484-8506, Japan <sup>2</sup>Museo Nacional de Historia Natural, Casilla 8706, La Paz, Bolivia <sup>3</sup>Department of Geology, Faculty of Science, Kyoto University, Kyoto 606, Japan

KEY WORDS Branisella; platyrrhine origins; Salla; Late Oligocene; Proteopithecus

Branisella boliviana, from the Late Oligocene of Salla, Bolivia, is the oldest fossil platyrrhine monkey discovered. To date, several fossil specimens of Branisella have been obtained, but most of them are fragmentary dentitions, so the animals craniodental morphology is still obscure. During the 1996 field season a pair of upper and lower jaw fragments and another nearly complete mandible were recovered. These new fossil materials reveal the following morphological features in Branisella: 1) P<sup>2</sup> is much smaller than P<sup>3,4</sup>, whereas P<sub>2</sub> is relatively small but probably sexually dimorphic; 2) the zygomatic arch protrudes smoothly posterolaterally from the maxillary bone, as in extant Callicebus; 3) the mandibular arcade is nearly V-shaped and the symphysial angle, which is formed by the horizontal plane and the anterior face of mandibular symphysis, is about 40°, i.e., it neither leans as far anteriorly as in callitrichines nor does it stand as vertically as Cebus; 4) upper and lower molars wore down rapidly in life, suggesting a herbivorous diet and the possibility of terrestriality; and 5) dental eruptive sequence is the same as in extant Aotus.

As a whole, the dentition of *Branisella* is very similar to that of *Proteopithecus* from the Late Eocene of Fayum, Egypt, except in the lower canine morphology, suggesting a close phyletic relationship between them. The origin and early diversification of platyrrhine monkeys might have occurred on the African continent before crossing the Atlantic Ocean. Am J Phys Anthropol 111:263–281, 2000. © 2000 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

Branisella boliviana is a Late Oligocene fossil platyrrhine, discovered in the Salla-Luribay basin of northwestern Bolivia (Fig. 1). The first specimen, a fragmentary maxilla, was recovered in the 1960s (Hoffstetter, 1969), and an additional mandibular specimen was described by Rosenberger (1981). After a long interval, several new specimens were recovered from the same Salla beds (e.g., Rosenberger, 1981; Wolff, 1984). All these specimens, however, are fragmentary jaws, most with well-worn teeth, and so the morphological characteristics of this species have not yet been established.

Some workers have emphasized *Branisella*'s morphological resemblance to living squirrel monkeys, *Saimiri* (Hoffstetter, 1969, 1974; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Gingerich, 1980; Orlosky, 1980; Wolff, 1984; Conroy, 1990), and others to omomyids or callitrichines (e.g., Gingerich 1980; McKenna, 1980;

Grant sponsor: Overseas Scientific Research Funds, Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, Japan; Grant number: 0741136.

<sup>\*</sup>Correspondence to: Masanaru Takai, Primate Research Institute, Kyoto University, Inuyama 484-8506, Japan. E-mail: takai@pri.kyoto-u.ac.jp

Received 15 February 1999; accepted 12 September 1999.

Fig. 1. Index map of Salla, indicating localities of new primate fossils and campsite for the Japanese expedition in 1996.

Rosenberger et al., 1991). Some researchers, moreover, reexamined these fossil Salla primates and concluded that they should be classified into two taxa, *B. boliviana* and "Szalatavus attricuspis," on the basis of several minute dental features (Rosenberger et al., 1990, 1991).

Recently, several paleontological excavations were carried out at Salla by Kyoto University and Duke University, respectively, in cooperation with the Museo Nacional de Historia Natural, Bolivia (MNHN). These excavations were successful in discovering many primate fossils (e.g., Kay and Williams, 1995; Takai and Anaya, 1996), and it was demonstrated that all fossil primates recovered from Salla belong to the same taxon, B. boliviana. Takai and Anaya (1996), moreover, advocated that Branisella is more closely related to extant callitrichines than to other noncallitrichine platyrrhines on the basis of dental morphology, though Rosenberger et al. (1990, 1991) had already suggested the possible relationships between callitrichines and "Szalatavus" (not including Branisella in their sense). The phyletic position of *Branisella* is still obscure, yet it appears to be not the ancestral species for all platyrrhines but rather for the callitrichine clade.

10968644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SICI)1096-8644(200002)111:2-263::AID-AJPA10-3.0.CO;2-6 by University Of Iowa, Wiley Online Library on [20/042023]. See the Terms

During the 1996 field season, several new specimens of *Branisella* were recovered by the Kyoto University-MNHN joint expedition team. The new specimens are two nearly complete mandibles, two mandibular fragments, and a fragmentary maxilla. Of these, the maxillary specimen is of the same individual as one mandible, so the exact occlusal pattern between upper and lower jaws can be observed.

### GEOLOGICAL SETTING AND THE MATERIALS

The new fossil specimens discussed in this paper are listed in Table 1. All these specimens were obtained from almost the same horizon, known as the *Branisella* zone of Unit 5 of the Salla beds (MacFadden et al., 1985; MacFadden, 1990; Kay et al., 1999). The Salla fauna is assigned to the Deseadan Land Mammal Age based on detailed comparisons of mammal faunas (MacFadden et

10968644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SIC))1096-8644(200002)111:2265::AID-AJPA10-3.0.CO,2-6 by University Of Iowa, Wiley Online Library on [20/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-

TABLE 1. List of new fossil specimens of Branisella boliviana

Specimen no., MNHN-Bol-V	Description
5310 (upper)	Left isolated upper canine and maxillae, with root of P <sup>2</sup> , P <sup>3</sup> –M <sup>3</sup>
5310 (lower)	A nearly complete mandible with right roots of right $I_{1,2}$ , $C$ (tip broken), $P_2$ – $M_1$ , and left root of $I_1$ , $I_2$ , and $C$ (tip broken), $P_{2-3}$ , $M_{1-3}$
5311	A nearly complete mandible with right roots of I <sub>1,2</sub> , badly worn C–P <sub>3</sub> , badly worn M <sub>1</sub> , and labial half of M <sub>2</sub> , left roots of I <sub>1</sub> –P <sub>3</sub> , and badly worn M <sub>1-3</sub>
5312	Left fragmentary mandible with $dP_4$ and $M_1$
5314	Left fragmentary mandible with M <sub>3</sub>

al., 1985). The results of the calculation of radioisotopic ages suggest a Late Oligocene to Early Miocene date for the Salla deposits, and the absolute age for the Branisella zone is estimated at about 25–26 Ma (MacFadden et al., 1985; Naeser et al., 1987; Hayashida and Danhara, 1985; McRae, 1990). Recently, Kay et al. (1998) revised the age of the Salla beds, concluding that the Branisella zone should be placed in the Chron C8 (25.82–27.02 Ma) of the Late Oligocene, and suggested that the geological age of the Salla beds might be slightly younger than that of the Deseadan beds in Patagonia.

MNHN-Bol-V 5310 is an isolated left upper canine, fragmentary left maxilla, and nearly complete mandible (Figs. 2a, 3, 4). Though the root of the upper canine is lost, one third of the crown (Fig. 4c) is preserved completely. The maxillary fragment preserves a root of P<sup>2</sup> and complete P<sup>3</sup>–M<sup>3</sup>. The anterior zygomatic root is well-preserved. The lingual half of M<sup>1</sup>, the protocone and hypocone, is strongly worn, whereas in M<sup>2</sup> the protocone is less worn. There is an obvious crack at the bone surface between M<sup>1</sup> and M<sup>2</sup>, but the overall morphology of the maxillozygomatic part seems to be well-preserved.

The almost complete mandible retains intact right  $P_2$ – $M_1$ , left  $P_{2-3}$  and  $M_{1-3}$ , damaged right and left canines and left  $I_2$ , and the roots of right  $I_{1-2}$  and left  $I_1$ .  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  of both sides are moderately worn. Though the ascending ramus is not preserved, the mandibular corpus is nearly complete, and so the mandibular arcade is in the natural condition.

These three fossil materials were collected together by Mr. Tarqui and other staff members of MNHN from the same spot, so they most probably belong to the same individual. The maxilla and mandible, in fact, occlude with each other, and their teeth are moderately worn in the same way.

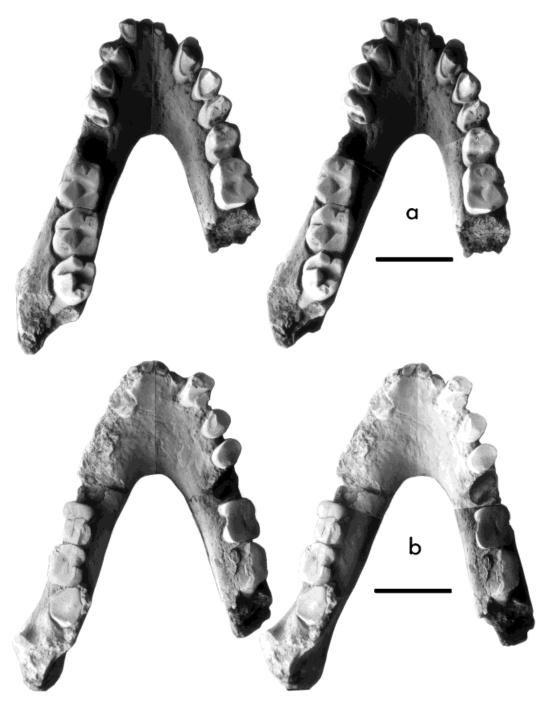
MNHN-Bol-V 5311 is also a nearly complete mandible with well-worn or badly damaged lower teeth (right  $C_1$ – $P_3$  and  $M_{1-2}$ , left  $M_{1-3}$ ) and with roots of the right and left incisors and left canine (Fig. 2b). This mandibular specimen was recovered by F.A. just near the campsite. As in MNHN-Bol-V 5310, the mandibular ramus is not preserved, but the nearly complete mandibular arcade seems to appear in its original shape. Judging from the degree of dental wear, this animal was a very old individual.

The specimens of extant platyrrhines used in this study for comparisons with *Branisella* are housed in the American Museum of Natural History (AMNH), Field Museum of Natural History (FMNH), Museo Nacional de Historia Natural, La Paz, Bolivia, and Primate Research Institute, Kyoto University, Japan.

# **DESCRIPTIONS AND COMPARISONS**Intraspecific variation in upper dentition

Morphological variation in the upper dentition of Branisella has been discussed by many researchers since the second specimens were discovered in the 1980s (Wolff, 1984; Rosenberger et al., 1991; Takai and Anaya, 1996). As mentioned, some authorities once divided the Salla primates into two taxa, Branisella boliviana and "Szalatavus attricuspis," mainly on the basis of the morphological differences in the upper molars (Rosenberger et al., 1991). Takai and Anaya (1996), however, argued that all the Salla primates should be classified into a single taxon, Branisella, explaining that the morphological differences between Branisella and "Szalatavus" are intraspecific variation due to the degree of development of the hypocone or distolingual cingulum.

The new specimen, MNHN-Bol-V 5310, also supports their conclusion (Fig. 4): M<sup>1</sup> and M<sup>2</sup> are nearly triangular in occlusal view, with a small but distinct hypocone on the distolingual cingulum. M<sup>3</sup> is basically



109-68644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://onlinetibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SICI)1096-8644(200002)111:2-263::AID-AJPA10-3.0.CQ.2-6 by University Of Iowa, Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Centure Commons. License 109-68644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://onlinetibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SICI)1096-8644(200002)111:2-263::AID-AJPA10-3.0.CQ.2-6 by University Of Iowa, Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Centure Commons. License

Fig. 2. Scanning electron micrographs (stereopair) of new specimens of Branisella boliviana: occlusal view of mandibular specimens, MNHN-Bol-V 5310 (a), and 5311 (b). Scale bar = 5 mm.

2. 263:-AID-AIP (10):-3. 2000. 2. Downloaded from https://oinlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library on [2004/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8642(SIC) II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8642(SIC) II: 2-

Fig. 3. Scanning electron micrographs of the mandibular specimen of Branisella, MNHN-Bol-V 5310. a: Right lateral view of the anterior part. b: Lingual view of anterior dentitions. The lower incisors are not procumbent anteriorly but rather are vertical. Scale bar = 1 mm.

bicuspid (paracone and protocone), with a well-developed lingual cingulum. Thus, the basic structure of upper molars in *Branisella* is not so discretely variable as to justify division into plural taxa. Though in *Branisella* there are some variations in the development of the hypocone and the distolingual cingulum on M<sup>1</sup> and M<sup>2</sup>, and in the development of the metacone on M<sup>3</sup>, such differences often occur in extant species as intraspecific variation (e.g., Natori, 1986a,b) (Tables 2 and 3).

Takai and Anaya (1996) also discussed the structural difference between the distolingual cingulum on P4 of the holotype and on P<sup>3</sup> of MNHN-Bol-V 3466: the former has a postprotocrista and a distolingual cingulum, which are completely separated from each other by a deep sulcus, while the latter has a distocrista without the distolingual cingulum. Takai and Anaya (1996) named the former structure as the E type and the latter as the B type. After comparing these teeth with the premolars of the extant platyrrhines, they predicted that the B type is likely the normal condition of Branisella upper premolars, and the E type of the holotype was an individual variation. In MNHN-Bol-V 5310, neither P<sup>3</sup> nor P<sup>4</sup> retain a postprotocrista, and a distocrista runs around the protocone lingually (Fig. 4a,b). This form is the B type of Takai and Anaya

The size and structure of  $P^2$  are also very interesting in Branisella. The root of  $P^2$ 

preserved in the type specimen and in MNHN-Bol-V 5310 suggests that in Branisella, P2 is very much smaller than the posterior premolars, P<sup>3</sup> and P<sup>4</sup>. Though Hershkovitz (1974, 1977) has already discussed that the tiny root of P<sup>2</sup> in the type specimen eliminates Branisella from the platyrrhine lineage, the later mandibular specimens demonstrated that Branisella actually belongs to platyrrhine monkeys. Kay and Williams (1995) reported an upper jaw specimen with an extremely small, unicusped P<sup>2</sup>, which is nearly half the size of P<sup>3</sup>. If the extremely small P<sup>2</sup> is the natural condition in Branisella, is it the primitive condition in platyrrhine phylogeny? Recent discoveries of primitive anthropoid fossils from the Late Eocene to Early Oligocene sediments of Fayum, Egypt, may provide the key to this question.

Among Fayum primates, parapithecids have been considered a possible ancestral group for platyrrhines, but at least two parapithecid taxa, *Parapithecus* and *Apidium*, have a large P<sup>2</sup> and more specialized cusp pattern, such as many accessory conules, in molars (Simons, 1995). *Proteopithecus*, however, one of the primitive anthropoids recently discovered in the Fayum, appears to retain an extremely small P<sup>2</sup> and a very primitive dentition (Miller and Simons, 1997; Simons, 1997).

Since the first specimen was described in 1989, *Proteopithecus* had been included in the Propliopithecidae, because they were

268

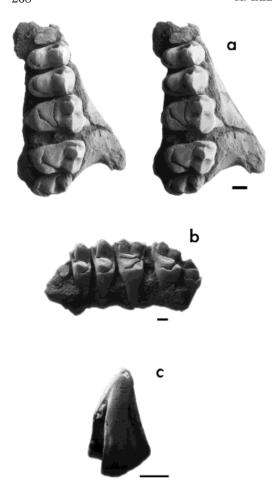


Fig. 4. Scanning electron micrographs of the new maxillary specimen of *Branisella*, MNHN-Bol-V 5310: occlusal (**a**, stereopair) and lingual (**b**) views of a left maxillary fragment with P<sup>3</sup>-M<sup>3</sup> and root of P<sup>2</sup>, and a lingual view (**c**) of an isolated left upper canine. Scale har = 1 mm

wrongly presumed to have only two premolars (Simons, 1989; Simons et al., 1994; Kay and Williams, 1995). A new maxillary specimen of *Proteopithecus*, however, has a small but distinct P<sup>2</sup>, which is about half the size of P<sup>3</sup> and P<sup>4</sup>, just as in *Branisella*, suggesting a possible phyletic relationship between them. The morphological similarity and possible relationship between *Proteopithecus* and *Branisella* will be further elaborated in the Discussion.

On the other hand, does the extremely small P<sup>2</sup> seen in *Proteopithecus* and *Branisella* suggest a successive loss of the sec-

ond premolar in their clades? In neither *Proteopithecus* nor *Branisella* does P<sub>2</sub> show any sign of reduction as marked as in P<sup>2</sup>. Though the detailed process of the loss of the second premolars in catarrhine monkeys has not yet been determined, it is presumed that the reduction and loss of the upper and lower second premolars occurred simultaneously in primitive catarrhines. The size discordance between P<sup>2</sup> and P<sub>2</sub> seen in *Proteopithecus* and *Branisella* suggests that the size reduction of their P<sup>2</sup> was not a preclude to the loss of the second premolars but a unique character which occurred in these two taxa.

### Structure of the maxilla and zygomatic arch

To date, seven maxillary fragments of *Branisella* have been discovered from the Salla deposits: the type specimen (Hoffstetter, 1969), UF 27887 (Wolff, 1984), two undescribed specimens (Kay and Williams, 1995), MNHN-Bol-V 3460, 3467 (Takai and Anaya, 1996), and the new material, MNHN-Bol-V 5310. Among these specimens, the newly discovered one is most informative because of the retention of five complete teeth (P³–M³), one root (P²), and an isolated canine (Fig. 4).

 $\rm M^2$  is located somewhat more lingually than  $\rm M^1$ , and  $\rm M^3$  is situated more lingually than  $\rm M^2$ , so the buccal margins of upper postcanine teeth form a slightly convex curve in the occlusal view, and the widest point of the upper dental arcade is located about  $\rm M^1$ . Therefore, though the complete upper dental arcade has not yet been reconstructed, we predict that in *Branisella* the upper dental arcade should be oval-like, with the posterior part curving lingually more acutely than does the anterior part.

Among living platyrrhines, this posteriorly acutely narrowing upper dental arcade is observed in callitrichines and mediumsized genera, *Aotus*, *Callicebus*, *Saimiri*, and *Cebus*, probably corresponding to the reduction of the third molars. In *Callicebus* and *Aotus*, however, M² is not so distorted as in *Branisella* but rather square in occlusal view. In *Saimiri*, the anterior tooth row is rather divergent, with the upper canine protruding laterally, so that the dental arcade forms an S-shape curve. In atelines, the

10968644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SIC))1096-8644(200002)111:2265::AID-AJPA10-3.0.CO,2-6 by University Of Iowa, Wiley Online Library on [20/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-

and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

Specimen no.,		(	C	P	2	F	<b>D</b> 3	I	<b>D</b> 4	N	$\mathbf{I}^1$	N	I <sup>2</sup>	N	$I_{3}$
MNHN-Bol-V	Side	MAX	MIN	MD	BL	MD	BL	MD	BL	MD	BL	$\overline{\mathrm{MD}}$	BL	MD	BL
5310	Left	(2.19)	(1.90)			1.92	3.26	2.19	3.61	2.92	4.36	2.6	4.13	1.72	3.18

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> MD, mesiodistal length (mm); BL, buccolingual width (mm); MAX, maximum diameter; MIN, minimum diameter; trd, trigonid width; tad, talonid width. Measurements in parentheses are unreliable because of being badly damaged or worn.

upper dental arcade is almost parabolic, with the posterior tooth row diverging laterally.

In *Branisella* the zygomatic arch smoothly protrudes posterolaterally from the maxillary body (Fig. 4a). The anterior margin of the arch begins smoothly from P<sup>4</sup>, and the posterior one begins from between M<sup>2</sup> and M<sup>3</sup>. Among small to medium-sized platyrrhines, *Aotus* and *Callicebus* have a similar smoothly protruding zygomatic arch, as in *Branisella*, whereas in *Saimiri* and *Cebus* the zygomatic arch stands more anteriorly and protrudes more perpendicularly from the maxilla than in *Branisella*. In callitrichines the zygomatic arch also protrudes at a more obtuse angle than in *Branisella*.

Although in all maxillary specimens of Branisella the zygomatic arch is broken off within 5 mm from the upper teeth, the cross section of the arch shows that it was rather thin and fragile (Fig. 4a, 5). In Saimiri and the callitrichines, the zygomatic arch is even more thin and fragile than in *Branisella*. In *Callicebus*, the root of the zygomatic arch is as thin as that of Branisella, but there is a prominent protuberance at the ventral margin of the anterior root of the zygomatic arch. In Cebus, the zygomatic arch is very robustly constructed. In MNHN-Bol-V 5310 there is no sign of enlargement of the orbit as seen in Aotus, though the dorsal part of this specimen is slightly eroded. In atelines a relatively thin zygomatic arch protrudes from a more posterior position than in Branisella. In pitheciines the angle between the zygomatic arch and the tooth row is more obtuse than in Branisella because the postcanine tooth rows of both sides are nearly parallel, and the zygomatic arch is much higher dorsoventrally than in *Branisella*.

As a whole, the structure of the zygomaticomaxillary part of *Branisella* is most similar to that of extant *Callicebus* in the ventral aspect, but they do not resemble each other in the lateral view because *Branisella* lacks a ventral protuberance at the base of zygomatic arch. Rosenberger (1979) argued that a robust zygomatic arch was probably the primitive state for primates and for anthropoids (and also for atelids in platyrrhines). The rather robust zygomatic arch in *Branisella* is likely to retain this primitive state for platyrrhines.

## Structure of lower premolars and sexual dimorphism in P<sub>2</sub>

As already reported in Takai and Anaya (1996), P<sub>2</sub> of *Branisella* (MNHN-Bol-V 3465; Figs. 6a, 8a) is unicusped with a complete lingual cingulum, which is a typical pattern seen in living callitrichines. The newly discovered P<sub>2</sub> specimen, MNHN-Bol-V 5310 (Fig. 6b), shows the same callitrichine characteristics as the previous specimen, but it is very notable that the P2 of the former is significantly smaller than that of the latter (Figs. 6–8), which suggests the existence of sexual dimorphism in Branisella. Size differences between the dentitions of MNHN-Bol-V 3460 and 5310, however, are also observed on other teeth, such as M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 8d,e), so the former is likely to have been a much larger individual than the latter. This size dimorphism can be interpreted in two ways: as intraspecific variation in body size, or as sexual dimorphism present in Branisella. At present we cannot resolve this problem because there are too few specimens known. However, compared with extant platyrrhines, the size difference in P<sub>2</sub> between MNHN-Bol-V 3460 and 5310 is as large as the interspecific variation observed in extant genera, but the sizevariation on the upper and lower molars of *Branisella* is not as large as that of extant genera. Therefore, it seems natural to interpret the size difference between the two Branisella P<sub>2</sub> specimens as evidence of sexual dimorphism in P2 (and probably also in the canine) in Branisella.

270

IABLE 3. Dental measurements of the lower dentition of the new Branisella specimens<sup>1</sup>

$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	3L MAX MIN MD BL MD BL	(2.46) (1.72) 1.92 1.65 1.69 2.02 2.91 2.58	2.60 2.68	(2.74)	(2.26) (1.56) (1.87) (1.73) (1.68) (2.06) (2.86) (2.24) (2.61)	9.89	10:1
ĬĽ.			(2.51)(1.7)		(2.26) (1.		
MD BL	; ;	(0.74) $(1.01)$			ht		12
MNHN-Bol-V Side New specimens	New specimens	5310 Left	5310 Righ	5311 Left	5311 Right	5312 Left	5314 Left

<sup>1</sup> MD, mesiodistal length (mm); BL, buccolingual width (mm); MAX, maximum diameter; MIN, minimum diameter; trd, trigonid width; tad, talonid width. Measurements in parentheses are unreliable because of being badly damaged or worn.

M. TAKAI ET AL.

Among extant platyrrhines, medium- to large-sized monkeys usually show a significant sexual dimorphism in upper and lower canines and even in P<sub>2</sub>, which occludes against the upper dimorphic canine. In smaller-sized marmosets, such sexual dimorphism is not as distinct, but in *Saimiri* it is clearly observed on upper and lower canines and P<sub>2</sub>. Miller and Simons (1997) reported sexual dimorphism in the lower canine of *Proteopithecus*, but did not mention P<sub>2</sub>.

Complete P3 and P4 of Branisella were discovered for the first time (Figs. 2a, 3a,b). Both are bicuspid (with a protoconid and metaconid), and have a distinct, lower talonid and a small precingulid. Among the lower premolars of MNHN-Bol-V 5310, possibly a female specimen, P2 is most projecting, P<sub>3</sub> is second, and P<sub>4</sub> is lowest in height, while in occlusal view  $P_4$  is largest and  $P_2$  is smallest. There is neither a buccal cingulum nor a distinct entoconid on P<sub>3</sub> or P<sub>4</sub>. On P<sub>3</sub>, the protoconid is much higher and more anteriorly located than the metaconid, so there is a mesiolingual slope at the trigonid, which is almost completely closed by the lingual cingulum. On P4, the protoconid and metaconid are almost the same size and stand side by side; thus, the trigonid is closed mesially by the anterior cingulum. The talonid is much larger and the precingulid is less developed than those of P<sub>3</sub>, and hence  $P_4$  is the more molarized tooth.

MNHN-Bol-V 5310 retains the basal part of left  $I_2$  and the roots of other lower incisors (Fig. 3a,b). Judging from these fragmentary roots,  $I_2$  is obviously larger than  $I_1$ , but much smaller than the lower canine in mesiodistal and buccolingual dimensions.  $I_1$  is slightly more anteriorly located than  $I_2$  (Fig. 3a).  $I_2$  is not as compressed bilaterally nor does it protrude anteriorly as in *Soriacebus* (Early Miocene, Patagonia, Argentina; Fleagle et al., 1987; Fleagle, 1990), while  $I_1$  may be more compressed than  $I_2$ .  $I_2$  is not symmetrical and has a basal lingual cingulum.

The occlusal outline of the lower canine is almost oval, being mesiodistally compressed. There is a complete basal lingual cingulum, which continues until the distobuccal side of the canine (Fig. 3b). The distostylid is so prominent that there is a deep sulcus inside the lingual cingulum. It must be remembered that,

2. 263:-AID-AIP (10):-3. 2000. 2. Downloaded from https://oinlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library on [2004/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8642(SIC) II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8642(SIC) II: 2-

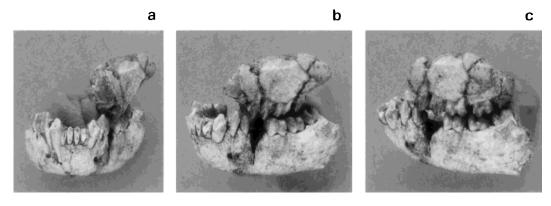


Fig. 5. Photographs of Branisella, with upper and lower jaws occluded (MNHN-Bol-V 5310), from frontal (a), frontolateral (b), and lateral (c) views. Scale bar = 10 mm.

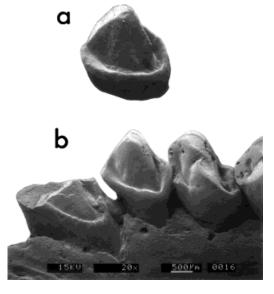


Fig. 6. Scanning electron micrographs of right  $P_2$  of MNHN-Bol-V 3465 (**a**, lingual view) and right  $C_1$ ,  $P_{2-3}$  of MNHN-Bol-V 5310 (**b**, lingual view). Note the morphological similarity and size difference between two specimens, suggesting a probable sexual dimorphism in  $P_2$ . Scale bar = 0.5 mm.

judging from  $P_2$  size, this specimen should be female, and so the lower canine should not protrude as far laterally as in the male.

### Mandibular arcade and symphysial fusion in *Branisella*

The mandibular arcade of two new mandibular specimens, MNHN-Bol-V 5310 and 5311, is nearly V-shaped (Fig. 2a,b). Among

extant and extinct platyrrhines, such a V-shaped mandible is seen in callitrichines only, especially in Cebuella, and in some Early Miocene forms from Patagonia, such as Homunculus and Soriacebus (Fleagle et al., 1987). Hershkovitz (1977, p. 188) regarded the most acute V-shaped mandible of Cebuella as the primitive condition, and the more arcuate or U-shaped arcade of Callithrix or Saguinus as the more derived condition in platyrrhine phylogeny. The V-shaped mandible of *Branisella*, the oldest fossil platyrrhine, seems to support his hypothesis superficially. However, much evidence obtained from morphology, molecular biology, and physiology suggests that Cebuella is the most derived form among extant callitrichines. Rosenberger (1979) has already argued this evolutionary polarity on the shape of the mandibular arcade, and concluded that U-shaped arcades are ancestral for platyrrhine monkeys. We agree with his conclusion: if the V-shaped mandibular arcade seen in Branisella or some Patagonian forms is the primitive condition, the mandible of Cebuella should have secondarily become V-shaped via the condition of a more arcuate arcade, as seen in extant Callithrix or Saguinus.

Only in the occlusal view are the mandibular arcades of *Cebuella* and *Branisella* very similar. Their mandibular corpora are very different from each other. Hershkovitz (1977, p. 190) calculated the mean values of the

3.0

2.5

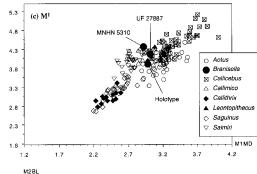
△ Callimico

◆ Callithrix
 ▲ Leontopith

Saguinus

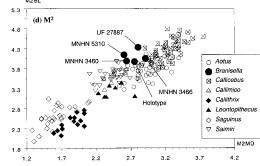
Saimiri

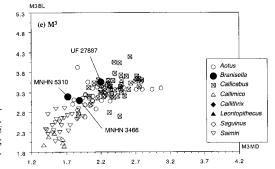
2.5 2.6



M. TAKAI ET AL.

M1BI





10968644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://olinnelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on <math>[20042023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [20042023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SIC)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [20042023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SIC)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SIC)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SIC)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SIC)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SIC)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203].

Fig. 7. Scatterplots of upper teeth of small to mediumsized platyrrhines. Data are from sex-pooled samples. Aotus, Callicebus, Leontopithecus, Saguinus, and Saimiri contain plural species. MD, mesiodistal length (mm); BL, buccolingual width (mm). a: P<sup>3</sup>. b: P<sup>4</sup>. c: M<sup>1</sup>. d: M<sup>2</sup>.

symphysial angle, which is formed by the horizontal plane and the anterior face of the symphysis, in several platyrrhines (Table 4): the symphysial angle of Cebuella is 28° (the mean value of 61 specimens), while that of two mandibles of *Branisella* is about 40°, which is very close to the symphysial angles of Callicebus and Leontopithecus. (The value of the symphysial angle in Branisella is not a strict one, because the posterior parts of fossil mandibles are broken and lost, and so they cannot be placed as accurately as the extant complete specimens.) That is, in Cebuella, the symphysial part leans much more anteriorly than in Branisella. In Homunculus and Soriacebus, the symphysis does not

lean as anteriorly as in *Cebuella*, but resembles that of *Branisella* in the symphysial angle (Hershkovitz, 1977; Fleagle et al., 1987; Fleagle, 1990). On the other hand, in *Branisella* the mandibular corpus is rather robust and wide and the ventral margin is flat or slightly convex inferiorly below M<sub>1</sub>, whereas in *Cebuella* the corpus is very gracile and the ventral margin is concave superiorly. The mandible of *Cebuella* is likely to have become reduced in conjunction with reduction of body size.

In *Branisella*, one large and some smaller mental foramina are present at about half the height of the mandible below  $P_2$  and  $P_3$ . The anterior margin of the ascending ramus

10968644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://olinnelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on <math>[20042023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [20042023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [20042023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/SICI)1096-8644(200002)11:2-263:AID-AJPA ID-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of lowa, Wiley Online Library on [2004203].

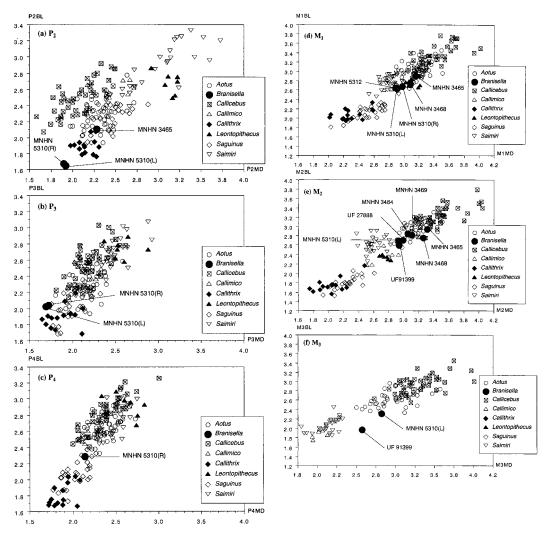


Fig. 8. Scatterplots of lower teeth of small to mediumsized platyrrhines. Data are from sex-pooled samples. Aotus, Callicebus, Leontopithecus, Saguinus, and Saimiri contain plural species. MD, mesiodistal length (mm); BL, buccolingual width (mm).  $\mathbf{a}$ :  $\mathbf{P}_2$ .  $\mathbf{b}$ :  $\mathbf{P}_3$ .  $\mathbf{c}$ :  $\mathbf{P}_4$ .  $\mathbf{d}$ :  $\mathbf{M}_1$ .  $\mathbf{e}$ :

 $\rm M_2$ . f:  $\rm M_3$ . Buccolingual width of the lower molars is taken as the maximum width. Note the small size of  $\rm P_2$  of MNHN-Bol-V 5310 (possible female), compared with that of MNHN-Bol-V 3465 (possible male) and other platyrrhines.

starts just posterolateral to M<sub>3</sub>, which is usually seen in most extant platyrrhines, while in *Homunculus*, an Early Miocene form from Patagonia, there is a large diastema between M<sub>3</sub> and the ascending ramus. The superior marginal line of the mandibular corpus rises posteriorly, so that posterior molars are situated higher than the anterior teeth.

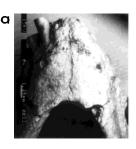
An enigmatic feature among the new mandibular specimens is the presence of a "suture line" at the symphysis in MNHN-Bol-V 5311 (Fig. 9a; Takai et al., 1998). This vertical line on the anterior face of the symphysis is so straight and located just at the sagittal line as to be presumed a real "suture line," but there is no line observed at the posterior face of the symphysis (Fig. 9b). Moreover, an X-ray photograph shows complete synostosis of right and left mandibles, suggesting a symphysial fusion in MNHN-Bol-V 5311. The other mandibular specimen, MNHN-

274 M. TAKAI ET AL.

TABLE 4. Symphysial angle of extant platyrrhines and Branisella

Genus (n)1	Symphysia angle
Cebuella (61)	28°
Callithrix (80)	36°
Branisella (2)	40°
Callicebus	41°
Leontopithecus (7)	42°
Saguinus (255)	49°
Callimico (10)	55°
Aotus	56°
Cebus	57°
Saimiri	69°

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>n, sample number.





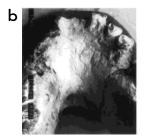




Fig. 9. Scanning electron micrographs (stereopair) of MNHN-Bol-V 5310. Surface of mandibular symphysial region from anterior (a) and posterior (b) views. Note that there is a straight "suture line" at the anterior surface of the symphysis, but not at the posterior surface.

Bol-V 5310, does not retain such a "suture line" at either the anterior or posterior face. At present, therefore, this "suture line" seen in MNHN-Bol-V 5311 may be only a lineal crack, which has occurred only at the anterior surface of the mandibular symphysis during fossilization.

At the posterior side of the mandibular symphysis there is a well-developed superior transverse torus, and a genioglossal fossa present below it. There is no obvious inferior transverse torus. The sagittal section of the mandibular symphysis of *Branisella* is very similar to that of *Apidium*, an Early Oligocene form from Fayum, Egypt (Fig. 14.3 in Fleagle, 1998).

#### DISCUSSION

#### Diet and positional behavior

One of the most notable features of *Branisella* dentition is that most upper and lower molars show a tendency towards heavy wear. In all M<sup>1,2</sup> specimens, the lingual half, the protocone and hypocone, are so worn as to form a flat plane, while in the lower molars, such as MNHN-Bol-V 3469, 5311, and UF 27888, all cusps are heavily worn, exposing a flat dentine surface. The combination of these excessively worn upper and lower molars suggests that *Branisella* fed on very abrasive food.

Based on the size and bunodonty of the teeth, many researchers have considered Branisella a frugivorous (e.g., Fleagle, 1998; Conroy, 1990) or an unspecialized omnivorous animal (Takai and Anaya, 1996). Among extant platyrrhines, heavily-worn, flat molars are sometimes seen in Callicebus and Aotus, both of which feed mainly on fruits, and supplementally eat flowers, young leaves, and insects (e.g., Wright, 1994). However, these frugivorous platyrrhines do not have such high-crowned molars as Branisella. In general, the high-crowned lower teeth in Branisella are considered an adaptation to the diet of abrasive foods, such as silica-rich leaves or grasses.

The suite of high-crowned lower molars and heavily worn teeth suggests that the diet of *Branisella* was not simply frugivory but included more abrasive foods, such as grasses on the ground, pointing to terrestrial behavior rather than strict arboreality. It is also notable that the mandible of *Branisella* is not so gracile as in extant callitrichines but is rather robustly constructed, suggesting more powerful masticatory movements of the mandible.

However, as is well-known, all living platyrrhines are arboreal quadrupeds, and hypothetical ancestral platyrrhines have also been regarded by many researchers as arboreal quadrupeds (e.g., Ford, 1988; Fleagle, 1998). The hypothetical terrestriality of *Bra*nisella argues against this traditional view,

10968644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SIC))1096-8644(200002)111:2265::AID-AJPA10-3.0.CO,2-6 by University Of Iowa, Wiley Online Library on [20/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-

but no postcranial fossils have been discovered so far which would demonstrate their locomotor pattern directly. Notably, however, MacFadden (1990) pointed out that the dominant environment at Salla was not humid, dense forest but a semiarid environment. Paleontological data, for example, the presence of many high-crowned, grazing mammals, such as notoungulates and rodents, and sedimentological data, such as the presence of the pedogenic carbonate nodules at the Branisella zone, suggest a semiarid or arid environment of deposition. Kay et al. (in press) also concluded that Branisella is a terrestrial animal by demonstrating a correlation between the high molar crowns, heavy tooth wear, and terrestriality in primates.

#### **Dental eruption sequence**

The wear pattern in the lower dentition of MNHN-Bol-V 5311 provides us with several interesting clues about the sequence of dental eruption in Branisella. In this specimen all lower molars, including  $M_3$ , are strongly worn and  $P_2$  is obviously less worn than the posterior premolars,  $P_{3,4}$ , which suggests that  $P_3$  and  $P_4$  erupted much earlier than  $P_2$ , and that  $M_3$  also erupted relatively early, probably earlier than did the premolars.

The sequence of dental eruption in extant platyrrhine monkeys has been studied by several researchers (e.g., Serra, 1952; Swindler, 1976; Byrd, 1981). According to Swindler (1976), among middle- to large-sized extant platyrrhines, only in *Aotus* and *Brachyteles* does P3 erupt earlier than P2, and especially in *Aotus* M3 erupts much earlier than in other platyrrhine monkeys. The dental eruption sequence in *Branisella* may have been the same as in *Aotus*. Interestingly, Serra (1952) regards this *Aotus* pattern as the primitive condition in platyrrhines.

In small-sized platyrrhines, the callitrichines, the dental eruptive sequence is more complex than in larger monkeys. Serra (1952) reports that  $P_2$  erupts earlier than  $P_3$  in Saguinus and Leontopithecus, but in Callithrix the reverse is true. Byrd (1981) supports his results in Saguinus and Leontopithecus, but pointed out variation in Callithrix. In C. jacchus and C. argentata,  $P_2$ 

erupts later than  $P_3$ , whereas in *C. humeralifer*,  $P_2$  erupts earlier than  $P_3$  and  $P_4$ .

Therefore, in the sequence of dental eruption Branisella is not similar to extant callitrichines, but exhibits a hypothetical primitive condition as seen in extant Aotus, i.e., the third molar erupts relatively early and  $P_2$  erupts later than other premolars.

### Comparison with *Proteopithecus* from Fayum

As already mentioned, *Branisella* has several intriguing resemblances to *Proteopithecus*, one of the oldest fossil anthropoids discovered from the Late Eocene of Fayum, Africa. The first specimen of *Proteopithecus*, a left maxillary fragment, was discovered in 1987 and originally regarded as a member of the Oligopithecinae, Propliopithecidae (Simons, 1989; Simons et al., 1994). In 1997, however, it was redescribed on the basis of new materials, including mandibles, and was moved to a new, as yet unnamed family (Miller and Simons, 1997).

Simons (1997) and Miller and Simon (1997) described *Proteopithecus* as differing substantially from propliopithecids and oligopithecids, both Fayum primates, in having three premolars. This suggests that *Proteopithecus* is more primitive than these other two families. *Proteopithecus* also differs from parapithecids, another Fayum primate with three premolars, in having much better defined trigon/ids and talon/talonid, which are far less bulbous, and in displaying little occlusal elaboration in the form of extra conules/ids and styles/ids other than the occurrence of a prominent metaconule on M¹ (Miller and Simons, 1997; Simons, 1997).

On the other hand, Miller and Simons (1997) suggested that *Proteopithecus* resembles several living platyrrhines, especially *Saimiri*, *Saguinus*, and *Callimico*, in having a large P<sub>2</sub> and a much smaller P<sup>2</sup> than P<sup>3</sup>, and in the occlusal morphology of upper molars. (All these characters are also observed in *Branisella*.) They also pointed out the following morphological differences between *Proteopithecus* and living platyrrhines: 1) in living platyrrhines, P<sup>2</sup> is not so reduced as in *Proteopithecus*; 2) in platyrrhines, premolars and molars are not so transversely expanded as in *Proteopithecus*;

276 M. TAKAI ET AL.

TABLE 5. List of morphological similarities and differences seen in Proteopithecus and Branisella, with a comparison to extant callitrichines<sup>1</sup>

	Proteopithecus	Branisella	Callitrichines
Similarities			
Dental formula	2.1.3.3	2.1.3.3	2.1.3.2(3)
C <sup>1</sup> mesial groove	Distinct	Very deep	Very shallow
$\mathrm{P}^2$	Unicusped	Unicusped	Unicusped
$\mathrm{P}^2$ and $\mathrm{P}^3$	$P^2 \ll P^3$	$P^2 \ll P^3$	$\mathrm{P}^2 < \mathrm{P}^3$
$\mathrm{P}^{3,4}$ outline	Oval	Oval	Rather waisted
$\mathrm{M}^{1,2}$ outline	Triangular	Triangular	Triangular
$\mathrm{M}^{1,2}$ hypocone	Crestiform	Crestiform	Absent/vestigial
$\mathbf{M}^3$	Bicusped	Bicusped	Lost
$\mathrm{M}^{1,2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^3$	$\mathrm{M}^{1,2}\gg\mathrm{M}^3$	$\mathrm{M}^{1,2}\gg\mathrm{M}^3$	$M^3$ lost
$C_1$ sexual dimorphism	Present	Present	Absent/very weak
${ m M}_{1,2}$ outline	Square	Square	Waisted
Differences			
P <sup>4</sup> –M <sup>3</sup> buccal cingulum	Complete	Vestigial	Absent/vestigial
$\mathrm{M}^{1,2}$ protocone	Not inflated	Inflated*	Not inflated
$C_1$ outline	Almond-like	Oval	Rather oval
$C_1$ long axis	Mesiodistal	Oblique	Oblique
$P_2$ and $P_3$	$\mathrm{P}_2 > \mathrm{P}_3 ^{**}$	$P_2 < P_3$ in female	$P_2 = P_3$
P <sub>4</sub> –M <sub>2</sub> buccal cingulid	Indistinct	Only buccal conules	Undeveloped
$M_1$ paraconid	Present	Absent	Absent
$M_{1,2}$ hypoconulid	Small but present	Absent	Absent
$ m M_3$ width	Narrower	Broader	$M_3$ lost
$M_3$ talonid	Protrudes distally	Not so long	$M_3$ lost

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The features with one or more asterisks are somewhat doubtful, and are discussed in detail in the text.

\* Not inflated? See text.

\*\* Male sample? See text.

and 3) the long axis of the lower canine in *Proteopithecus* is oriented to the cheek tooth row rather than being set obliquely as in extant platyrrhines (Miller and Simons, 1997). Among these three discriminating characters, the first two are not seen in *Branisella*. The last one, the lower canine orientation and morphology, will be discussed below in more detail.

Miller and Simons (1997) compared Proteopithecus with Branisella, pointing out that *Proteopithecus* has broader upper molars and lacks an inflated protocone. However, a direct comparison of the specimens of these two genera reveals that upper molars of Proteopithecus are not much broader than those of Branisella, and the protocone of Branisella is not significantly inflated. In contrast to earlier deductions, there are many morphological similarities in the dentition of these two genera: 1) the dental formula is 2 (?)/2.1/1.3/3.3/3; 2) P2 is basically unicusped and much smaller than bicusped P<sup>3,4</sup>; 3) M<sup>1</sup> and M<sup>2</sup> are rather wide buccolingually and triangular in occlusal outline, with a moderately large, crestiform hypocone on the distolingual cingulum; 4) the metaconule often occurs on M<sup>1</sup>; 5) M<sup>3</sup> is bicusped, with a lingual cingulum and much

smaller than  $M^{1,2}$ ; 6) the upper canine has a distinct mesial vertical groove; 7) sexual dimorphism is present in the lower canine (and probably on  $P_2$ ); and 8) on  $M_{1,2}$  the occlusal outline is basically square.

Thus, Branisella and Proteopithecus closely resemble each other in the basic structure of the upper dentition (Table 5). Their only substantial difference in the upper dentition occurs in the buccal cingulum. Proteopithecus retains a complete buccal cingulum, whereas in Branisella there are only vestigial ones at the mesial and distal buccal corners. Nevertheless, a complete buccal cingulum/cingulid is generally regarded as a primitive character usually seen in fossil prosimians. The presence of the complete lingual cingulum in Proteopithecus, which is geochronologically much older than Branisella, does not negate the possibility of the phyletic relationship between Proteopithecus and Branisella. Moreover, the following shared features of both taxa, such as a distinctly small P2, oval outline of P3 and P<sup>4</sup>, and buccolingually wide, triangular M<sup>1</sup> and M<sup>2</sup> with a crestiform hypocone on the distolingual cingulum, can be a synapomorphy among them. The combination of these features is not seen in other Fayum

2. 263:-AID-AIP (10):-3. 2000. 2. Downloaded from https://oinlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library on [2004/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8644(200002)] II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8642(SIC) II: 2-263:-AID-AIP (10):-3.0 CQ2-6 by University Of low, Wiley Online library.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1096-8642(SIC) II: 2-

In the lower dentition, however, these two genera are not as similar as in the upper one (Table 5): in *Proteopithecus*, 1) an occlusal outline of the lower canine is almond-like, being bilaterally compressed, while in Branisella it is oval-like, being mesiodistally compressed; 2) P2 is larger than P3 (Miller and Simons, 1997), whereas in Branisella, P<sub>2</sub> is slightly smaller than P<sub>3</sub> in MNHN-Bol-V 5310, which is probably a female specimen; 3) P<sub>4</sub> and M<sub>1,2</sub> have an indistinct buccal cingulum, but in *Branisella*, a buccal conule is occasionally present; 4) M<sub>1</sub> has a paraconid; 5) M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> often have a small hypoconulid twinning with the entoconid; and 6) M<sub>3</sub> is much narrower buccolingually and its talonid protrudes more distally than in Branisella.

By these morphological differences, *Branisella* and *Proteopithecus* can be easily distinguished from each other taxonomically, but are these features sufficient to negate the possibility of a phyletic relationship between them? Can features seen in *Proteopithecus*, such as the occurrence of the buccal cingulum, paracone, hypoconulid-entoconid twinning, and tapering of the M<sub>3</sub> talonid, be regarded as primitive characters in anthropoid evolution? As in the upper dental characters, most of these features suggest the primitiveness of *Proteopithecus*, with the exception of two characters: P<sub>2</sub>/P<sub>3</sub> size ratio and lower canine morphology.

In one new specimen of Branisella (MNHN-Bol-V 5310), P<sub>2</sub> projects further but is slightly smaller in occlusal view than P<sub>3</sub> (Figs. 2a, 6b), but in another specimen (MNHN-Bol-V 3465) the size of P<sub>2</sub> (unfortunately, P<sub>3,4</sub> were not discovered) is much larger than the P<sub>3</sub> of MNHN-Bol-V 5310 (Fig. 6a,b). As already mentioned, if MNHN-Bol-V 5310 is a female and 3465 is a male specimen, then a male individual P<sub>2</sub> should not be smaller than  $P_3$ . On the other hand, although in *Proteopithecus* P<sub>2</sub> is larger and more projecting than P<sub>3</sub>, as shown in a stereopair photograph of CGM 42209 (Miller and Simons, 1997), sexual dimorphism in the canine is reported by the same authors. Therefore, if CGM 42209 (whose P<sub>2</sub> is larger than P<sub>3</sub>) is a male specimen, a female specimen of Proteopithecus might have a smaller  $P_2$  than  $P_3$ . In short, MNHN-Bol-V 5310 may be a female Branisella, and CGM 42209 be a male Proteopithecus, and so the direct comparison of  $P_2$  morphology may be meaningless at present. Only more detailed analysis of sexual dimorphism in Branisella and Proteopithecus will resolve this problem.

The morphology of the lower canine is more enigmatic. Such a bilaterally compressed canine as seen in *Proteopithecus* is never seen in either extant or extinct platyrrhines. In platyrrhine monkeys, the lower canine is generally compressed mesiodistally with the distolingual heel protruding posteriorly, so that the occlusal outline is nearly oval-like. If the shape of the lower canine of *Proteopithecus* is really almondlike as in the photograph of CGM 42209 (its lower canine was reversed from a micrograph of another specimen, DPC 15416), it is very strange feature, unique to *Proteopithecus*.

In conclusion, *Proteopithecus* and *Branisella* show more similarity to each other in dental morphology, except for the lower canine, than to any other extinct or extant primates, and, moreover, the former obviously shows a more primitive condition than the latter (Table 5). Therefore, it is very natural to hypothesize a phyletic relationship between them, i.e., *Proteopithecus* may be a member of the ancestral group for *Branisella*.

### Where and when did platyrrhine monkeys originate?

The problem of platyrrhine origins has been debated for a long time by many researchers. During this decade, the African origin hypothesis has been favored over the North American one on the basis of paleontological evidence, such as fossil records of primates and rodents (Hoffstetter, 1980; Lavocat, 1980). One of the candidates for a hypothetical African ancestral stock for living South American monkeys was the parapithecid group from the Early Oligocene of Fayum, Egypt (e.g., Hoffstetter, 1980). However, the phyletic position of parapithecids is currently regarded as "a specialized sidebranch of anthropoid evolution which split

278 M. TAKAI ET AL.

off from the combined platyrrhine/catarrhine stem" (Fleagle and Kay, 1987).

The dental morphology of parapithecids is actually too specialized to be a model for the ancestral condition of the platvrrhine dentition, whereas the dentition of *Proteopithecus* is basically more primitive than that of the platyrrhines. Miller and Simons (1997) and Simons (1997) suggested the phyletic relationships between Proteopithecus and platyrrhines. Kay and Williams (1995) and Fleagle (1998) also pointed out the morphological suitability of Proteopithecus as an example of the platyrrhine ancestral condition in dental, cranial, and postcranial features. The morphological similarity between Proteopithecus and Branisella supports the idea that Proteopithecus is the ancestral taxon for platyrrhines.

If there is some phyletic relationship between Proteopithecus and Branisella, can they qualify as ancestral stock for all platyrrhine monkeys? Rosenberger et al. (1990, 1991) have already argued for callitrichine ancestry in Salla primates, on the basis of upper molar similarities, though they classified the Salla primates into the two taxa Branisella and "Szalatavus." They concluded that upper molar similarities between "Szalatavus" (not including Branisella in their sense) and callitrichines are unlikely to be homology (Rosenberger et al., 1991). On the other hand, Takai and Anaya (1996) suggested that Branisella is likely to be a morphotype, not for all platyrrhines, but only for the callitrichine clade. Other nonmarmoset platyrrhines, pitheciines and atelines, exhibit much larger body-size, quadricusped, square-outlined upper molars, more robustly constructed canines, and narrow spatulate, protruding incisors (pitheciines), or wide spoon-like incisors (atelines). Neither Branisella nor Proteopithecus shares these derived characters with pitheciines and atelines. On the contrary, Soriacebus and Carlocebus, both Early Miocene primates from Patagonia, share these derived features with nonmarmosets (Fleagle et al., 1987; Fleagle, 1990). Chilecebus from the Early Miocene of Central Chile also retains quadricusped, square-outlined upper molars, and does not show any special resemblance to Branisella (Flynn et al., 1995).

The hypothetical Proteopithecus-Branisella clade never shows nonmarmoset features but indicates an initial evolution towards the marmoset group. Moreover, other slightly younger fossil taxa from the Early Miocene of Southern South America, such as Soriacebus, Carlocebus, and Chilecebus, show nonmarmoset features. Thus, the initial diversification of platyrrhine monkeys, such as the marmoset/nonmarmoset dichotomy, might have begun much earlier than ever presumed, i.e., during the Late Eocene or Early Oligocene on the African continent. The ocean drifting and invasion of several land mammals, at least rodents and primates, from the African continent to South America might have been a more inevitable event than imagined by many researchers. During the Middle Oligocene, when the sea level was lowest during the Paleogene, there should have been island connections with ideal currents from Africa to South America. There seems no compelling reason to assume that only a single primate taxon was successful in crossing the Oligocene (?) Atlantic Ocean. A hypothetical Proteopithecus-Branisella clade suggests the possibility and probability of the invasion of South America by other groups that were ancestral to nonmarmoset monkeys (Fig. 10b).

Recently, on the other hand, several molecular or immunological studies provide divergence times among the platyrrhine lineages. Schneider et al. (1993) and Porter et al. (1997) calculated the divergence dates between Cebidae (including callitrichines, Cebus, Saimiri, and Aotus in their sense) and Atelidae (including atelines, pitheciines, and Callicebus in their sense) at 20.1 million years ago (Ma) or 21.3 Ma, respectively, using sequences of the  $\epsilon$ -globin gene. Both of these papers adopted 35 Ma for the platyrrhine-catarrhine split of the primate fossil record set by Fleagle (in 1988, which was revised in 1998) as the basis of the calculation, and they discussed that the presence of Branisella, the oldest platyrrhine fossil (26 Ma), is compatible with their estimation of the cebid-atelia divergence time (20.1 or 21.3 Ma). As mentioned above, however, Branisella is unlikely to be a basal ancestor of all platyrrhines. About 20 mil-

19968644, 2000, 2, Downloaded from https://oininelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002(SIC))1996-8644(200002)111:2-263:AID-AJPA1D-3.0.CO2-6 by University Of Iowa, Wiley Online Library on [20/04/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/etruss

and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles

Fig. 10. Schematic diagram of two hypotheses of platyrrhine origins. a: Traditional view. b: The early diversification hypothesis of this paper. Early platyrrhines may have diversified on the African continent before invading South America. Dotted areas mean the continents.

lion years ago there were at least two other fossil platyrrhines: Chilecebus, which retains far more quadrate upper molars and moderate-size P2 (Flynn et al., 1995), and unnamed primates from Gran Barranca (Kay et al., 1999). It is very unlikely that Branisella produced Chilecebus and other Early Miocene Patagonian platyrrhines, such as Soriacebus or Carlocebus (Fleagle et al., 1987; Fleagle, 1990). Therefore, if these divergence times estimated by  $\epsilon$ -globin gene sequences are correct and Branisella is not a basal ancestor for all platyrrhines, Branisella should be a side branch of the extant platyrrhines, and there must have been another ancestral taxon for Branisella and all later extinct/extant platvrrhines before 25 Ma. If this evolutionary scenario is correct, the morphological similarities observed among Proteopithecus, Branisella, and living callitrichines should be convergence.

Bauer and Schreiber (1997), however, in contrast to Fleagle (1998), estimated the platyrrhine divergent data as 52.5 Ma based on the comparative determinant analysis (CDA) of serum proteins of several anthropoids. Their data indicate double invasions

of ancestral platyrrhines to South America, and a platyrrhine paraphyly. Though their serum samples for platyrrhines are only of Cebus and Lagothrix and their assumption for primate origin is too old (80 Ma), it should be noted that their estimation of platyrrhine origins is much older than ever presumed by many authors. Supposing that 65 Ma were adopted for the emergence of primates, their estimation of platyrrhine divergence would be 42.7 Ma, which is still far older than other estimates, such as by Schneider et al. (1993) and Porter et al. (1997). As Bauer and Schreiber (1997) insist, it is not necessary to assume that platyrrhine monkeys originated on the South American continent. It may be more natural to infer that the earliest platyrrhines arose and diverged on the African continent during the Eocene or Early Oligocene, and some of them successfully cross the Atlantic Ocean to a new paradise, a neotropical forest, which provided an adequate habitat for them.

Our "early diversification hypothesis," however, does not mean a platyrrhine paraphyly as Bauer and Schreiber (1997) said. Our hypothesis is a preliminary proposal on

280

the origin and evolution of early platyrrhine monkeys, which rests only upon morphological similarity in dentition between *Proteopi*thecus and Branisella. In order to examine this hypothesis, we need more complete fossil specimens of these taxa. Fortunately, the new findings in Africa and South America have stimulated us to examine the possibility of the early diversification and multiple invasions of ancestral platyrrhine monkeys into South America without preconceptions.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS** 

The authors are grateful to all staff at the Department of Paleontology of the Museo Nacional de Historia Natural de La Paz, Bolivia, and especially Mr. Ruben Andrade, Mr. Bernardino Mamani, and Mr. Juan Tarqui for their cooperation in the field and laboratory. We also thank Dr. Richard Kay of Duke University and Dr. Elwyn Simons of Duke University Primate Center for their kindly showing us the fossil specimens of Salla and Fayum. For access to specimens of New World monkeys under their care, we thank Drs. Bruce Patterson and Bill Stanley of the Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, and Guy Musser and Wolfgang Fuchs of the American Museum of Natural History, New York. We also thank Dr. Alfred L. Rosenberger and other two reviewers for perceptive comments on the manuscript. This research was supported by the Overseas Scientific Research Funds from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, Japan, in 1995, 1996, and 1997 (grant 0741136).

#### LITERATURE CITED

Bauer K, Schreiber A. 1997. Double invasion of Tertiary island South America by ancestral New World monkeys? Bio J Linnean Soc 60:1-20.

Byrd KE. 1981. Sequences of dental ontogeny and callitrichid taxonomy. Primates 22:103-118.

Conroy GC. 1990. Primate evolution. New York, London:

W.W. Norton & Co. Fleagle JG. 1990. New fossil platyrrhines from the Pinturas Formation, southern Argentina. J Hum Evol 19:61-85

Fleagle JG. 1998. Primate adaptation and evolution. San Diego: Academic Press.

Fleagle JG, Kay RF. 1987. The phyletic position of the Parapithecidae. J Hum Evol 16:483-532

Fleagle JG, Powers DW, Conroy GC, Watters JP. 1987. New fossil platyrrhines from Santa Cruz Province, Argentina. Folia Primatol (Basel) 48:65–77.

Flynn JJ, Wyss AR, Charrier R, Swisher C. 1995. An

Ford SM. 1988. Postcranial adaptations of the earliest

platyrrhine. J Hum Evol 17:155-192.

Gingerich PD. 1980. Eocene Adapidae, paleobiogeography, and the origin of South American Platyrrhini. In: Ciochon RF, Chiarelli AB, editors. Evolutionary biology of New World monkeys and continental drift. New York: Plenum Press. p 123–138. Hayashida A, Danhara T. 1985. Fission-track dating of

the volcanic ash layers in continental deposits at Salla, Bolivia: re-examinations. Kyoto Univ Overseas Res Rep New World Monkeys 5:39-42.

Hershkovitz P. 1974. A new genus of Late Oligocene monkey (Cebidae, Platyrrhini) with notes on postorbital closure and platyrrhine evolution. Folia Prima-

tol (Basel) 21:1-35.

Hershkovitz P. 1977. Living New World monkeys (Platyrrhini), with an introduction to the primates, volume 1. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

Hoffstetter MR. 1969. Un primate de l'Oligocène inférieur sudamericain: Branisella boliviana gen. et sp. nov. C R Acad Sci Paris Ser. D 269:434-437.

Hoffstetter MR. 1974. Phylogeny and geographical deployment of the primates. J Hum Evol 3:327-350.

Hoffstetter MR. 1980. Origin and deployment of New World monkeys emphasizing the southern continents route. In: Ciochon RF, Chiarelli AB, editors. Evolutionary biology of New World monkeys and continental drift. New York: Plenum Press. p 103-122.

Kay RF, Williams BA. 1995. Recent finds of monkeys from the Oligocene/Miocene of Salla, Bolivia. Am J

Phys Anthropol [Suppl] 20:124.

Kay RF, MacFadden BJ, Madden RH, Mazzoni M, Vucetich MG, Re G, Heizler M, Sandeman H. 1999. The oldest Argentine primates: first age determinations for the Colhuapian South American Land Mammal "Age." Am J Phys Anthropol [Suppl] 28:166. Kay RF, Williams BA, Anaya F. In press. The adapta-

tions of Branisella boliviana, the earliest South American monkey. In: Plavcan JM, Kay RF, Jungers W, Schaik CV, editors. Reconstructing behavior in the primate fossil record. New York: Plenum Press.

Lavocat R. 1980. The implication of rodent paleontology and biogeography to the geographical sources and origin of platyrrhine primates. In: Ciochon RF, Chiarelli AB, editors. Evolutionary biology of New World monkeys and continental drift. New York: Plenum Press. p 93-102.

MacFadden BJ. 1990. Chronology of Cenozoic primate localities in South America. J Hum Evol 19:7-21.

MacFadden BJ, Campbell KE Jr, Cifelli RL, Siles O, Johnson NM, Naeser CW, Zeitler PK. 1985. Magnetic polarity stratigraphy and mammalian fauna of the Deseadan (Late Oligocene–Early Miocene) Salla beds of northern Bolivia. J Geol 93:223-250.

McKenna MC. 1980. Early history and biogeography of South America's extinct land mammals. In: Ciochon RF, Chiarelli AB, editors. Evolutionary biology of New World monkeys and continental drift. New York:

Plenum Press. p 43–77.

McRae LE. 1990. Paleomagnetic isochrons, unsteadiness and uniformity of sedimentation in Miocene intermontane basin sediments at Salla, eastern Andean Cordillera, Bolivia. J Geol 98:479-500.

Miller ER, Simons EL. 1997. Dentition of Proteopithecus sylviae, an archaic anthropoid from the Fayum, Egypt. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 94:13760-13764.

Naeser CW, McKee EH, Johnson NM, MacFadden BJ. 1987. Confirmation of a Late Oligocene-Early Miocene age of the Deseadan Salla beds of Bolivia. J Geol 95:825-828

Natori M. 1986a. Morphological characteristics of upper

- molars of squirrel monkeys (Saimiri) and their individual variation. In: Taub DM, King FA, editors. Current perspectives in primate biology. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company. p 193–200.
- Natori M. 1986b. Interspecific relationships of *Callithrix* based on the dental characters. Primates 27:321–336
- Orlosky FJ. 1980. Dental evolutionary trends of relevance to the origin and dispersion of the platyrrhine monkeys. In: Ciochon RF, Chiarelli AB, editors. Evolutionary biology of New World monkeys and continental drift. New York: Plenum Press. p 189–217.
- Porter CA, Page SL, Czelusniak J, Schneider H, Schneider MPC, Sampaio I, Goodman M. 1997. Phylogeny and evolution of selected primates as determined by sequences of the ε-globin locus and 5' flanking regions. Int J Primatol 18:261–295.
- Rosenberger AL. 1979. Phylogeny, evolution, and classification of New World monkeys. PhD dissertation. City University of New York.
- Rosenberger AL. 1981. A mandible of *Branisella boliviana* (Platyrrhini, Primates) from the Oligocene of South America. Int J Primatel 2:1–7.
- Rosenberger AL, Setoguchi T, Shigehara N. 1990. The fossil records of callitrichine primates. J Hum Evol 19:209–236.
- Rosenberger AL, Hartwig WC, Wolff RG. 1991. Szalatavus attricuspis, an early platyrrhine primate. Folia Primatol (Basel) 56:225–233.
- Schneider H, Schneider MPC, Sampaio I, Harada ML, Stanhope M, Czelusniak, Goodman M. 1993. Molecular phylogeny of the New World monkeys (Platyrrhini, Primates). Mol Phylogenet Evol 2:225–242.
- Serra OD. 1952. A sequencia dos dentes definitivos nos

- símios Platyrrhina e sua interpretação filogenéica. Anais Fac Farm Odont Univ Sao Paulo 10:215–296.
- Simons EL. 1989. Description of two genera and species of Late Eocene Anthropoidea from Egypt. Proc Natl Sci USA 86:9956–9960.
- Simons EL. 1995. Egyptian Oligocene primates: a review. Yrbk Phys Anthropol 38:199–238.
- Simons EL. 1997. Preliminary description of the cranium of *Proteopithecus sylviae*, an Egyptian Late Eocene anthropoidean primate. Proc Natl Sci USA 94:14970–14975.
- Simons EL, Rusmussen DT, Bown TM, Chatrath PS. 1994. The Eocene origin of anthropoid primates: adaptation, evolution, and diversity. In: Fleagle JG, Kay RF, editors. Anthropoid origins. New York: Plenum Press. p 179–201.
- Swindler DR. 1976. Dentition of living primates. London: Academic Press.
- Szalay FS, Delson E. 1979. Evolutionary history of the primates. New York: Academic Press.
- Takai M, Anaya F. 1996. New specimens of the oldest fossil platyrrhine, Branisella boliviana, from Salla, Bolivia. Am J Phys Anthropol 99:301–317.
- Takai M, Anaya F, Shigehara N, Setoguchi T. 1998. New fossil specimens of *Branisella boliviana*: evidence for a primitive platyrrhine. Am J Phys Anthropol [Suppl] 26:215
- Wright PC. 1994. The behavior and ecology of the owl monkey. In: Baer JF, Weller RE, Kakoma I, editors. *Aotus*: the owl monkey. San Diego: Academic Press. p 97–112.
- Wolff R. 1984. New specimens of the primate Branisella boliviana from the Early Oligocene of Salla, Bolivia. J Vert Paleontol 4:570–574.