6 How reliable are current estimates of fossil catarrhine phylogeny? An assessment using extant great apes and Old World monkeys

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Introduction

Cladistic analysis has been used for more than 20 years to reconstruct the phylogenetic relationships of fossil catarrhine species and genera (e.g. Delson & Andrews, 1975; Eldredge & Tattersall, 1975; Delson, 1977; Delson *et al.,* 1977; Tattersall & Eldredge, 1977; Andrews, 1978, 1992; Corruccini & McHenry, 1980; Harrison, 1982; Skelton & McHenry, 1986; Wood & Chamberlain, 1986, 1987; Andrews & Martin, 1987; Chamberlain & Wood, 1987; Strasser & Delson, 1987; Stringer, 1987; Wood, 1988, 1991, 1992; Skelton & McHenry, 1992; Lieberman *et al.,* 1996; Begun *et aI.,* 1997; Cameron, 1997; Rae, 1997; *Straitetal.,* 1997). However, it is now apparent that, in contrast to the situation with higher-level primate taxa (Harrison, 1993), few of the relationships supported by these analyses can be considered to be reliable. This is demonstrated by the small increases in length required to alter the topologies of the most parsimonious cladograms. For example, the addition of only one step converts the *Homo* monophyly seen in Wood's (1991) most parsimonious cladogram into *Homo* paraphyly, as well as altering the relationships of A. *africanus* (Wood, 1992). Likewise, the addition of two steps to the cladogram preferred by Strait *et al.* (1997) results in *Homo* paraphyly (Wood & Collard, 1999). These examples are taken from the hominin palaeontological literature, but they could easily have been taken from studies of Miocene hominoids, Eurasian pliopithecids, or fossil Old World monkeys (e.g. Harrison, 1993; Rae, 1997). The unreliability of the most parsimonious cladograms is also illustrated by the results of Corruccini's (1994) bootstrap re-analysis ofhominin data from Wood & Chamberlain (1986), Skelton *et ai.* (1986), Chamberlain & Wood (1987) and Skelton & McHenry (1992). He found the relationships of most of the species and genera to be ambiguous. The only statistically significant result he obtained was that *Paranthropus robustus* and *P. boisei* are more closely related to each other than they are to any other species.

Our inability to reliably reconstruct the phylogenetic relationships of fossil catarrhine species and genera has frequently been attributed to faulty alpha taxonomy, the choice of characters examined or to the way in which the cladistic methodology has been implemented (Chamberlain & Wood, 1987; Skelton & McHenry, 1992; Strait et al., 1997; Skelton & McHenry, 1998;

Strait & Grine, 1998). Recently, however, it has been suggested that the 119 problem may lie with the data on which we normally rely (Hartman, 1988; Lieberman, 1995, 1997, 1999; Lieberman *et al.,* 1996). Unlike the investigation of the relationships between living taxa, in which any available evidence, be it anatomical, biochemical, genetic or behavioural, can be used to establish relationships, studies involving fossil taxa are limited to those parts of the phenotype that are commonly preserved in the fossil record. As far as the fossil catarrhines are concerned, this means that cladistic studies are mostly based on evidence that can be gleaned from the various hard tissues that make up the bones and teeth. Thus, most studies have been based upon dental, cranial, mandibular and, to a lesser extent, postcranial characters. This is certainly so for the fossil hominins (e.g. Eldredge & Tattersall, 1975; Tattersall & Eldredge, 1977; Delson *etal.,* 1977; Corruccini & McHenry, 1980; Skelton *et al.,* 1986; Wood & Chamberlain, 1986, 1987; Chamberlain & Wood, 1987; Arsuaga et al., 1991; Wood, 1991, 1992; Skelton & McHenry, 1992; Lieberman *et aI.,* 1996; Strait *et aI.,* 1997), and perusal of published cladograms suggest that this is also the case for investigations of the evolutionary relationships of other fossil catarrhines (e.g. Harrison, 1982,1989; Andrews & Martin, 1987; Strasser& Delson, 1987; Andrews, 1992; Rose *et al.,* 1992; Benefit, 1993; Moya-Sola & Kohler, 1993, 1995; Kelley *et aI.,* 1995; Begun *et at.,* 1997; Cameron, 1997; McCrossin & Benefit, 1997; Rae, 1997).

How can we assess the reliability of catarrhine craniodental evidence for reconstructing the phylogenetic relationships of species and genera? One approach is to analyse comparable evidence from closely-related extant taxa whose relationships have been established using molecular techniques and judge the resulting morphology-based hypotheses against the molecular phylogeny (Hartman, 1988). Congruence between the morphological and molecular phylogenies for the extant taxa indicates that the fossil evidence can be reasonably assumed to be reliable for phylogenetic reconstruction, whereas incongruence suggests the converse.

This approach, which assumes that molecular data are superior to morphological data for phylogenetic reconstruction, is rejected by some cladists, who deny that some classes of data are more reliable than others for the purposes of phylogenetic reconstruction, and argue that cladistic analyses should be based on all the available evidence (e.g. Smith, 1994; Kluge, 1998). We understandwhy these workers take this view, but believe they are mistaken. There are several reasons why, when a conflict occurs between molecular and hard tissue-based phylogenies, the former should be favoured, at least at the low taxonomic levels being considered here. First, phylogenetic relationships are genetic relationships. It is genes that are

Hominoid molecular relationships.

passed between generations, not morphological characters. Thus, in phylogenetics, morphology can never be more than a proxy for molecular data. Secondly, it is well documented that many reproductively-defined species are genetically distinct, but dentally and osteologically indistinguishable. Since speciation events create phylogenetic relationships, there is thus an a priori expectation that characters of the teeth and skeleton will be less useful for phylogeny estimation than genetical characters. Thirdly, because many osseous and other morphological characters are clearly influenced by epigenetic effects, such as the forces generated by chewing (Lieberman *et al.,* 1996; Lieberman & Wood, 1999), they can be expected to mislead us more frequently than molecular evidence. Lastly, some of the techniques of molecular phylogenetics have been successfully tested on laboratory taxa of known phylogeny (Fitch & Atchley, 1987; Atchley & Fitch, 1991; Hillis *et* al., 1992), whereas comparable analyses of morphological data have not been successful (Fitch & Atchley, 1987).

Within the primates, there are several examples of cladograms that are supported by multiple, independent, lines of biomolecular and karyological evidence. By any criteria, the molecular-based phylogeny for the living hominoids is well-established (Ruvolo, 1994, 1995, 1997), and we elected to use this as one test of the likely phylogenetic utility of fossil catarrhine craniodental data (Figure 6.1). Another group for which there is molecular data, albeit on a less comprehensive scale asthose for the living hominids, is the papionins (Disotell, 1994, 1996; Disotell *et al.*, 1992; Harris & Disotell, 1998), and we used this as the other test group (Figure 6.2).

papionin molecular relationships.

Materials

Morphology can be translated into character states for cladistic analysis in two main ways. The first breaks the phenotype up into anatomical components and expresses the variation within each component in terms of qualitative categories, or 'states'. Thus, an osseous prominence is 'strong'. 'reduced' or 'absent', a bony contour is described as 'arched' or'less-arched'. and a feature is categorised as 'not developed' or 'developed'. To date, the majority of cladistic analyses of the catarrhines have used this approach (e.g. Delson & Andrews, 1975; Eldredge & Tattersall, 1975; Delson *et ai.,* 1977; Skelton et al., 1986; Skelton & McHenry, 1992; Lieberman et al., 1996; Begun *et ai.,* 1997; Strait *et ai..* 1997). However, we are not persuaded that it is a desirable way to express morphological variation, since it is clear that the assessment of discrete character states is often a highly subjective exercise. This is demonstrated by a recent debate concerning the Miocene hominoid *Afropithecus turkanensis,* in which some researchers scored its inferior mandibular torus as 'weakly-developed', while others considered the torus to be 'well-developed' (Leakey & Leakey, 1986; Andrews & Martin, 1987; Conroy, 1994). It is also demonstrated by the difficulty encountered by Strait *et ai.* (1997) and Ahem (1998) in reproducing the scores used in previous analyses of the early hominins. Another reason for rejecting

122 qualitative character assessment is that it is difficult to counter the confounding effects of body size differences between taxa (Kappelman, 1996). This point is exemplified by the assessment of Wood *et al.* (1998) of the likelihood of association between OH 8 and OH 35, the *Homo habilis* left talus and distal left tibia from Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania. When Wood and co-workers did not correct for body size, they obtained the same result as had been obtained in earlier discrete character assessments: the talus and the tibia appeared to have belonged to the same individual. However, when they controlled for differences in body size, they found that it was questionable whether the two bones had come from animals belonging to the same species, let alone the same individual.

> The second way of expressing character state variation is to collect interlandmark distances, and then use one of a number of coding methods to break up the continuous distribution into discontinuous states. Opponents of this approach complain that measurements are unsuitable for cladistic analysis, that the coding methods break the spectrum of measurements into 'artificial' character states, and/or that cladistic analyses based on measurement data are no more than 'thinly-disguised' phenetic analyses (e.g. Pimentel & Riggins, 1987; Crisp & Weston, 1987; Cranston & Humphries, 1988; Crowe, 1994; Disotell, 1994; Moore, 1994). We contend, however, that none of these objections is valid. As Maddison *et al.* (1984), Felsenstein (1988), Swofford & Olsen (1990), Lieberman (1995) and, most especially, Rae (1998) have pointed out, there is no intrinsic difference between discrete and continuous characters as far as the cladistic methodologyis concerned. The only criterion a character must fulfil for use in a cladistic analysis is that its states are homologous, and measurement-based characters can meet this criterion as well as discrete characters (Rae, 1998). This is supported by the character conflict indices obtained in cladistic analyses of the early hominins. If the metrical method of capturing information for phylogenetic analysis really is unsuitable for cladistic analysis, one would expect there to be more character conflict in studies that used measurement-based characters than in those that employed non-metrical characters. Yet, the character conflict indices obtained by Chamberlain & Wood (1987) and Wood (1991, 1992) from quantitative data are comparable with those obtained by lieberman *et al.* (1996) and Strait *et al.* (1997) from qualitative data. The 'artificiality' argument is also easy to refute, for coding is no more 'artificial' than is the decision to break up into discontinuous states what is, with very few exceptions, such as tooth cusp and root number, continuously-distributed morphology. Moreover, a number of the methods that have been developed to convert continuously distributed characters into discrete character states are based on statistical tests, and are therefore, by convention, non-arbitrary

(e.g. Thorpe, 1984; Strait *et at.,* 1996). Lastly, it is difficult to understand the 123 argument that cladistic analyses based on measurement data are just phenetic analyses in disguise, because unlike phenetic analysis, metrical cladistics does not group taxa on the basis of overall similarity. In metrical cladistics, as in non-metrical cladistics, only those parts of the phenotype that are inferred to be shared-derived are used to group taxa into clades.

We accept that some measurements may be unsuitable because their termini span structures that have different embryonic origins, and perhaps therefore different phylogenetic histories. However, we contend that in many cases a combination of measurements can provide just as focused, but more objective, information about a structure than can an equivalent non-metrical description. It is noteworthy that few opponents complain about three other aspects of the metrical approach. First, it is quantitative, which is a desirable attribute in science. Secondly, given appropriate technical rigour, anyone can repeat the procedure and verify the observations. Thirdly, levels of intra- and interobserver error for most hominin, and presumably also other catarrhines, craniodental metrical data are low (Wood, 1991). It is for these reasons that we opted to rely principally on metrical data for our tests. In particular, we regard the requirement that the observations are replicable as paramount.

We used measurements of the cranium, mandible and dentition that have been used in hominin cladistic analyses to compile two quantitative data sets, one for the ape and human superfamily, Hominoidea, and one for the extant baboon, macaque and mangabey tribe, Papionini. The hominoid data set comprised values for 129 measurements recorded on mixed sex samples of *Gorilla, Homo, Pan, Pongo* and an outgroup. The measurements are listed in Table 6.1. Seventy-seven of the measurements were recorded on 37 *Gorilla gorilla* (20 males, 17 females), 75 *Homo sapiens* (40 males, 35 females), 35 *Pan troglodytes* (13 males, 22 females), 41 *Pango pygmaeus* (20 males, 21 females) and 24 *Colobus guereza* (12 males, 12 females). These data were taken from Wood *et al.* (1991). The other 52 measurements were recorded on 20 G. *gorilla* (10 males, 10 females), 20 H. *sapiens* (10 males, 10 females), 20 *Pan troglodytes* (10 males, 10 females), 20 *Pongo pygmaeus* (10 males, 10 females) and 20 C. *guereza* (10 males, 10 females). These data were taken from Chamberlain (1987).

The papionin data set consisted of values for 62 measurements recorded on mixed sex samples of *Cercocebus, Lophocebus, Macaca, Mandrillus, Papio, Theropithecus* and several outgroups. The measurements are given in Table 6.2. The 62 measurements were recorded on 26 *Cercocebus galeritus/ torquatus* (13 males, 13 females), 40 *Lophocebus albigena/atterimus (20* males, 20 females), 40 *Macaca fascicularis/mulatta* (20 males, 20 females),

124 Table 6.1. *Hominoid metric variables*

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Table 6.1. *(cont.)* 125

62 Mandrillus leucopheus/sphinx (42 males, 20 females), 39 *Papio anubis/ cynocephalus* (20 males, 19 females), 44 *Theropithecus gelada* (22 males, 22 females), 10 *Cercopithecus aethiops* (five males, five females), 7 *Colobus badius* (three males, four females), 10 *Erythrocebus patas* (five males, five females) and 17 *Pan troglodytes* (10 males, seven females). These data were taken from Collard (1998). Fifty-five of the measurements were recorded on a further 14 *Cercocebus torquatus* (seven males, seven females). 14 *Colobus badius* (seven males, seven females) and 12 *P. troglodytes* (five males, seven females). These data were taken from Chamberlain *et al.* (unpublished data). No consistent differences were found between the data from Collard (1998) and Chamberlain *etaI.* (unpublished data) using Student'stwo-tailed t-test.

To relate our study to as many published cladistic analyses of the fossil catarrhines as possible, we also generated a hominoid qualitative data matrix from published data. This consisted of the states of 96 cranial and '- dental characters recorded on specimens of *Gorilla, Homo, Hylobates, Pan,* Pongo and an outgroup. The characters were obtained from several sources. Sixty-two were characters used by Shoshani *et aI.* (1996) that are wholly craniodental and which vary among the hominoids. Two characters were

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126 Table 6.2. *Papionin metric variables*

taken from Braga (1995), six from Andrews (1987), four from Schwartz (1984) and two from Delson & Andrews (1975). The other 20 characters were the craniodental characters in Groves (1986) that were neglected, without explanation, by Shoshani et al. (1996). The characters and states are listed in Appendix 6.1.

Methods

A character state data matrix was derived from each metric data set. The confounding effects of the body-size differences between the taxa were minimised by dividing each value by the geometric mean of all the valuesfor the appropriate specimen Gungers *et al.,* 1995). Allometry-based sizeadjustment methods were not employed as recent phylogenetic analyses have indicated that isometric and allometric methods give similar results when applied to primate craniodental data (Creel, 1986; M. Singleton, 1996, unpublished data). The size-adjusted datawere then converted into discrete character states using divergence coding (Thorpe, 1984). In divergence coding, the mean values for the taxa are calculated, and the differences between them tested for statistical significance. The means are then ranked in ascending order, and a taxon-by-taxon matrix compiled. Each cell in the top row of the matrix is filled with a taxon name such that the rank of the taxa decreases from left to right. The cells of the first column of the matrix are also filled with the names of the taxa on the basis of their rank, with the highest ranked taxon being placed in the top cell and the lowest ranked taxon in the bottom cell. Thereafter, each column of the matrix is filled with -1 s, $+1$ s and 0s. A cell is filled with a -1 if the mean of the taxon in the column is greater than the mean of the taxon in the row and the difference between the means is significant. A cell is filled with $a + 1$ if the mean of the column taxon is significantly lower than the mean of the row taxon. If the difference between the means of the column and row taxa is not significant, the cell is filled with O. Once the matrix is completely filled, the total of Os, - Is and + Is for each column is calculated. Lastly, an integer (in this case 10) is added to each taxon total to make them positive figures, and therefore suitable for use in computer-based phylogenetics programmes. It should be noted that divergence coding is just one of several coding methods that have been described in recent years. It should also be noted that, at the moment, there is no consensus regarding the relative effectiveness of these methods. We elected to use divergence coding because it appears to be one of the most robust of the methods that are appropriate for analysing fossil taxa. The quantitative matrices are reproduced in Appendices 6.2 and 6.3.

The quantitative and qualitative matrices were used to perform two tests of the hypothesis that conventional craniodental characters are reliable for reconstructing the phylogenetic relationships of fossil catarrhine species and genera. The first was based on parsimony analysis, which identifies the c1adogram that requires the smallest number of *ad hoc* hypotheses of homoplasy to account for the observed distribution of character states. Each matrix was subjected to parsimony analysis using the branch-and-bound 128 search routine of PAUP 3.0s (Swofford, 1991). Because the states of the metrical characters can be assumed to have evolved serially, the characters were treated as freely-reversing, linearly-ordered variables (Chamberlain & Wood, 1987; Wood, 1991, 1992; Slowinski, 1993; Rae, 1997). Some of the qualitative characterswere also consideredto be ordered characters, but the majority were treated as unordered variables (see Appendix 6.3 for details). Lastly, the most parsimonious cladogram or $-$ if several equally parsimonious cladograms were favoured - the strict consensus cladogram was compared to the appropriate consensus molecular cladogram (Figures. 6.1 and 6.2). The hypothesis was considered to be supported if an analysis favoured a fully-resolved cladogram matching the molecular cladogram, or a partially-resolved cladogram comprising only molecular clades. The hypothesis was also considered supported if a strict consensus of several equally-parsimonious cladograms comprised only clades that were compatible with the molecular cladogram. These criteria were stipulated because in parsimony analysis it is not legitimate to accept some clades of a cladogram and reject others.

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The second test employed the phylogenetic bootstrap, which is a resampling procedure that assigns a confidence interval to the clades that comprise the most parsimonious cladogram (Felsenstein, 1985). Using PAUP, 10000 matrices were derived from each quantitative matrix by sampling with replacement. The bootstrap matrices were subjected to parsimony analysis, and a consensus of the most parsimonious cladograms was computed using a confidence region of 70% (Hillis & Bull, 1993). Thereafter, the clades of the consensus cladogram were compared with the appropriate molecular cladogram. The hypothesis was judged to be supported if all the clades of the consensus cladogram were compatible with the molecular cladogram.

Results

The hypothesis that catarrhine craniodental data are reliable for reconstructing the phylogenetic relationships of species and genera was not supported by the parsimony analyses. None of the matrices yielded a cladogram that was completely compatible with the group's molecular cladogram. The hominoid metric cladogram (informative characters=118, length = 1093, consistency index $[CI] = 0.77$) suggested that *Homo* was the sister taxon of a (Gorilla, Pan, Pongo) clade, and that Pan was the sister taxon of a (Gorilla, Pongo) clade. The papionin metric cladogram (informative characters = 61, length = 923, $CI = 0.69$) suggested that *Lophocebus* is the sister of the other papionins; that *Cercocebus* is the sister of the baboons and

macaques; that *Macaca* is the sister of the baboons; and that *Theropithecus* is the sister of*Mandrillus* and *Papio.* Two equally parsimonious cladograms were derived from the hominoid qualitative matrix (informative characters = 64 , length = 135, CI = 0.66). The first agreed with the hominoid molecular cladogram in locating *Hylobates* as the basal hominoid. However, it differed from the molecular cladogram in positing a sister group relationship between *Pan* and *Gorilla,* and another between *Homo* and *Pongo.* The second cladogram was wholly incompatible with the molecular cladogram. Itsuggested that *Homo* is the sister of a clade comprising *Gorilla, Hylobates, Pan* and *Pongo;* that *Pongo* is the sister of *Gorilla, Hylobates* and *Pan;* and that *Hylobates* is the sister of *Gorilla* and *Pan.*

The bootstrap analyses also failed to uphold the hypothesis. None of the clades supported by 70% or more of the bootstrap samples was compatible with the consensus molecular cladograms. The hominoid quantitative analysis supported a *(Gorilla, Pan, Pongo)* clade at 95%, and a *(Gorilla, Pongo)* clade at 73%. The papionin quantitative analysis supported a *(Cercocebus, Macaca,* baboon) clade at 98%; a *(Macaca,* baboon) clade at 78%; a baboon clade at 97%; and a *(Mandrillus, Papio)* clade at 73%. The analysis of the hominoid qualitative data yielded one clade, which incorrectly linked *Gorilla* and *Pan* to the exclusion of the other taxa (92%).

Discussion

The results of the parsimony and bootstrap tests suggest that cladistic analyses based on catarrhine craniodental morphology cannot be relied on to recover phylogenetic relationships. Indeed, the outcomes of the tests show that the methods can generate results that are positively misleading. For example, in a number of the parsimony analyses of the quantitative data, the 'true' cladograms were less parsimonious than a substantial number of 'false' cladograms. Likewise, the bootstrap-based tests indicate that craniodental data can return impressive levels of statistical support for patterns of phylogenetic relationship that are most likely incorrect. For instance, in the hominoid analyses, the 'false' *(Gorilla, Pan, Pongo)* clade was identified in more than 70% of the bootstrap cladograms. Likewise, the 'false' *(Mandrillus, Papio)* clade was supported by more than 70% of the bootstrap cladograms in several of the papionin analyses. In other words, cladistic analyses of catarrhine gross craniodental morphology may yield not only 'false-positive' results, but 'false-positive' results that, by a substantial margin, pass the statistical test favoured by many researchers. These results are in line with those of Hartman (1988) and Harrison (1993). The

130 former found that hominoid molar morphology was uninformative for cladistic analysis, while the latter concluded that his attempts to use cladistics to resolve the inferred relationships among closely related fossil primates, such as the early Miocene catarrhines from East Africa or the Eurasian pliopithecids, had been 'largely unsuccessful'. Our results are also in line with Pilbeam's (1996) conclusion thatwe currently knowlittle about the phylogenetic relationships of the Miocene hominoids.

> The implication of our results, and those described by Hartman (1988), Harrison (1993) and Pilbeam (1996), is that phylogenetic hypotheses for fossil hominins and other fossil catarrhines that are based solely on craniodental evidence may not be reliable. Most likely, these hypotheses reflect a mixture of the 'true' phylogeny and the phylogenetically-misleading effects of convergence, parallelism, reversal and/or behaviourally-induced morphogenesis. If anything, the results of the present study are likely to have over-estimated the reliability of fossil phylogenetic hypotheses, since our study did not account for two other factors that routinely complicate analyses of the hominin and hominid fossil records, namely contentious alpha taxonomy and intraspecific morphological change through time. In addition, as part of another study we have applied the same logic to two other groups of living primates, the platyrrhines and strepsirhines (Collard & Wood, unpublished data). These groups have less well supported molecular phylogenies than is the case for the hominoids and papionins, but the conclusions are similar. Primate craniodental data perform poorly in attempts to use them to recover the relevant phylogenetic history generated from molecular evidence.

> How can the reliability of fossil catarrhine phylogenetic hypotheses be improved? One strategy is to devise techniques for characterising catarrhine craniodental morphology that are more sensitive to any phylogenetic signal than the methods presently in use (Rae, 1999). Recent studies suggest that such techniques may include the construction of metavariables using discriminant function analysis and principal component analysis (Aiello *et al.,* 1999; Collard, unpublished data). Since exogenetic stimuli can be expected to confound phylogenetic reconstruction (Lieberman, 1995, 1997, 1999), another approach is to focus on characters that are known to be minimally affected by such stimuli, for example, dental enamel and the structures of the middle and inner ear (Masali, 1968; Rak & Clarke, 1979a,b; Beynon *et al.,* 1998; Spoor & Zonneveld, 1998; Collard & Moggi-Cecchi, unpublished data). Athird strategy is to develop rigorous comparative methods for discriminating between phylogenetically-informative and phylogenetically-misleading craniodental similarities. For example, the pursuit of detailed information about the ontogeny of characters may help identify convergences, parallel

isms and reversals (Wood, 1988; Bromage, 1989; Lieberman *et al.,* 1996), 131 while functional analyses may enable researchers to predict where resemblances resulting from behaviourally-induced morphogenesis are likely to occur in the hominid cranium (Lieberman, 1995, 1997, 1999; Lieberman *et al.,* 1996). A fourth approach is to develop techniques for assigning postcranial specimens to taxa in the absence of associated skeletons, thereby overcoming the taphonomy-imposed focus on craniodental morphology and enabling hominin cladistic analyses to be based on a wider sample of the phenotype (e.g. Aiello & Wood, 1994; Wood *et al.,* 1998). We also suggest that more attention should be paid to non-morphological lines of evidence that may have a bearing on the phylogenetic relationships of fossil catarrhines, such as biogeography, stratigraphy and behavioural indicators (e.g. Turner & Wood, 1993; Augustí *et al.*, 1996; Collard *et al.*, 1999). Lastly, it is worth noting that. even if craniodental data prove to be inadequate by themselves for phylogenetic reconstruction, this does not mean that they cannot be used to recover information about evolutionary history. To adapt a phrase used in connection with the punctuated equilibrium model of evolution, homoplasies are data. The presence of homoplasies suggests that different clades responded in similar ways to biotic influences, and, providing we can eventually obtain a reliable phylogeny for the fossil catarrhines, craniodental homoplasies promise to be a rich source of information about the history of catarrhine adaptations.

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¹³² Appendix 6.1. Characters for hominoid qualitative analysis

Unless otherwise indicated, the character state descriptions in the following are taken verbatim from the references for the characters.

1. Depth of subarcuate fossa

2. Morphology of the mandibular symphysis

Dist.: Notes: *Homo* 3; *Pan* 2; *Gorilla* 1; *Pongo* 2; *Hylobates* 2; *Colobus* 1. Treated as unordered because it was not clear that the states formed a straight-forward additive sequence.

3. Distinctiveness of angular process of mandible

4. Direction of incisive (anterior palatine) foramen

Ref.: Shoshani et *al.* (1996) #36.

States: (0) opening is directed dorsoventrally as in most mammals and the observer can see through the foramen; (1) foramen is directed diagonally, from anterior-ventral to posterior-dorsal, leads to a tube-like structure, and one cannot see through the foramina.

Dist.: *Homo* 1; *Pan* 1; *Gorilla* 1; *Pongo* 1; *Hylobates* 0; *Colobus* O.

5. Carotid canal morphologywhen viewed from ventral side of cranium

Ref.: Shoshaniet*al.* (1996) #40.

States: (0) canal perforates buiIa away from basicranium and is clearlywithin it, opening of canal is directed medially, ventrally or ventro-medially, but the imaginary lines (one from each side) which emerge from these openings do not cross at the foramen magnum, or cross at its anterior border at the level of the occipital condyles; (1) canal perforates bulla away from basicranium and is clearly within it, opening is directed postero-medially and the imaginary lines which emerge from these openings cross the foramen magnum posterior to the occipital condyles, or caudal to the foramen magnum itself.

6. Size of upper first incisor relative to upper second incisor

7. Honing in males (back of upper canine sharpens against third lower premolar).

8. Interorbital pillar width.

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9. Depth of middle ear

10. Axis of ear bones

11. Area of inner ear

134 12. Klinorhynchy (a deep foreshortened facial skeleton which bends downward with respect to the cranial base)

13. Frontozygomatic suture

14. Relative height of upper face

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15. Facial index (upper face height as a percentage of facial breadth)

16. Height of mandibular symphysis relative to length of the lower toothrow

Ref.: Shoshani *et al.* (1996) #110.

States: (0) low, its height about 60% of toothrow length; (1) deepened, at least 75% of tooth row length.

Dist.: *Homo* 0; *Pan* 1; *Gorilla* 1; *Pongo* 1; *Hylobates* 0; *Colobus* 1.

17. Presence/absence of frontal sinus

18. Pyriform aperture

19. Position of infraorbital foramina relative to zygomaxillary suture

Ref.: Shoshani *et al.* (1996) #113. States: (0) close to suture; (1) further from suture.

20. Orientation of zygomatic bone 135

21. Frontal bone

22. Glabella prominence

23. Number of incisive foramina

24. Maxillary sinus

25. Supraorbital development

26. Supraorbital contour

27. Orbits

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136 28. Supraorbital trigon

29. Nasal width

30. Length of nasals

31. Size of zygomatic foramina

32. Position of zygomatic foramina

33. Size of incisive foramina

34. Size and shape of palatine foramina

35. Premaxillary suture in adult

36. Foramen lacerum medium 137

37. Posterior convergence of temporal lines

38. Mesial groove on male canine

39. Relative height of male canine

40. Upper 12 occlusal edge

41. Robusticity of canines

42. Basal keel of lower canines

138 43. Basal area of paracone of upper premolars


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Dist.: Homo 0; Pan 0; Gorilla 0; Pongo 1; Hylobates 1; Colobus 1.
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44. Molar cingulum

45. Protoconid apex on lower dP3

46. Metaconid of lower dP3

47. Protocristid of lower dP3

48. Talonid basin of lower dP3

49. Metaconid of lower dP4

50. Crista obliqua on lower dP4

51. Talonid basin on lower dP4

52. Protocone of upper dP3, in crown view

53. Preprotocrista of upper dP4

54. Postprotocrista of upper dP4

55. Protocristid grooves of molars

. 56. Ungual marginal ridges ofmolars

57. Thickness of molar enamel

58. Proportion of Pattern 3 enamel

59. Insertion of genioglossus

140 60. Insertion of genlohyoideus

61. Insertion of digastric

62. **Encephallzation**

63. **Retroarticular** canal

64. **Condylar canal**

65. **Incisive fossa**

66. **Molar dentine homs**

67. Molar enamel wrinkling

68. Postorbital sulcus

69. Ethmold-Iacrymal contact

70. Fronto-maxillary contact In orbits

71. Nasal floor morphology

72. Palatine fenestrae reduced in size

73. Cheek tooth height

74. Lower M3 smaller than lower M2

75. Number of zygomatic foramina

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142 76. Post talonid basin

77. Relative depth of mandible

78. Mandibular shape

79. Ethmo-sphenoid contact

80. Zygomatic bone

81. Relative face height

82. Canine length as percentage of upper MI (male)

84. Canine length as percentage of upper P4 (male)

85. Canine length as percentage of upper P4 (female)

86. Angle between tooth rows

87. Eruption after upper I2

88. Emption after lower 12

89. Upper 11 lingual crenulatlons

90. Upper 11 cingulum tubercle

91. Number of upper II ridges

144 92. Canine sexual dimorphism

93. Canine elongation

94. Lower P3 metaconid

95. Trigonid basin

96. Sulcus obliqus

Appendix 6.2. Quantitative character state data matrix used in hominoid analyses

Characters PI P2 P3 P4 P5 P6 P7 P8 P9 PI0 Pll PI2 PI3 P14 PI5 PI6 P17 P18 P19 P20 P2I P22 P23 P24 P25 P26 P27 P28 P29 P30 P3I M1 M2 M3 M4 M5 M6 M7 M8 M9 MI0 Mll M12 M13 M14 MI5 M16 M17 M18 M19 M20 M21 M22 M23 M24 M25 M26 M27 M28 M29 M30 M3I M32 M33 M34 M35 M36 M37 M38 M39 M40 F1 F2 F3 F4 F5 F6 F7 F8 F9 FlO Fll F12 F13 F14 F15 F16 F17 F18 FI9 F20 F2I F22 F23 F24 C1 C2 C3 C4 C5 C6 C7 C8 C9 C10 Cll C12 C13 C14 C15 C16 Cl7 C18 C19 C20 C21 C22 C23 C24 C25 C26 C27 C28 C29 C30 C31 C32 C33 C34

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Appendix 6.3. Quantitative character state data matrix used in papionin analyses

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