The phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* and catarrhine ancestral morphotypes.

By

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ABSTRACT

There continues to be a lack of agreement concerning the precise phylogenetic placement of *Proconsul* despite a wealth of fossil material and extensive study. The difficulty in resolving the phylogenetic status of this important and well represented Miocene catarrhine is a consequence of its apparent basal position relative to crown catarrhines. This position complicates the inference of character polarities. This dissertation tests three previously proposed hypotheses concerning the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*: (1) *Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine; (2) *Proconsul* is a stem hominoid; and (3) *Proconsul* is a basal hominid, most closely related to extant great apes and humans. A phylogenetic analysis based on 816 characters drawn from the skull, forelimb, pelvis and foot and sampling a diversity of extant anthropoid taxa, offers compelling support for a hominoid clade that including *Proconsul*. The origination of the hominoid and cercopithecoid lineages is inferred to occur nearly simultaneous with the origination of the *Proconsul* hypodigm. Further exploration of the data, by combining inferred ancestral morphotypes with phenetic visualizations of character evolution, demonstrated that and *Proconsul* is inferred to be phenetically similar to the inferred catarrhine most recent common ancestor (MRCA), however does not approximate the hominoid MRCA as closely as some platyrrhine taxa *Epipliopithecus*. This explains the difficulty in resolving the phylogenetic position of this taxon. While *Proconsul* does possess enough synapomorphies to confidently place it within the hominoid clade, it retains many symplesiomorphies shared with the earliest crown catarrhines that phenetically make it fall morphologically nearer the crown catarrhine ancestral morph than the hominoid ancestral morph, which is inferred to possess more symplesiomorphic similarities to basal catarrhines and platyrrhines. In addition to helping clarify the long-running debate concerning the phylogenetic status of *Proconsul*, these results offer fresh

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insights into the early stages of hominoid evolution and demonstrate the importance of comprehensive phylogenetic analyses in helping to resolve the relationships of problematic stem taxa.

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INTRODUCTION

The early Miocene is a crucial time period for understanding the evolutionary events and adaptive changes that led to the divergence of modern catarrhines. This period sees the diversification of the early cercopithecoids and hominoids, with both groups well-documented by a wealth of fossil specimens from Africa (Harrison, 2010, 2013; Jablonski and Frost, 2010). Stem catarrhines, found living contemporaneously with early cercopithecoids and hominoids, exhibit a range of primitive anthropoid features and varying degrees of more derived cercopithecoid and hominoid traits. This has made it challenging for researchers to resolve their phylogenetic relationships and perhaps most significantly problematizes determination of character polarities and the subsequent inference of hominoid synapomorphies. Distinguishing between basal hominoids and stem catarrhines is therefore difficult, given that uncertainty regarding the affinities of the earliest hominoids. Central to resolving this debate is *Proconsul* (here including *Ugandapithecus* and *Ekembo*, see discussion below), which is the best known of the Miocene East African catarrhines. It occupies a key position in the catarrhine fossil record, exhibiting few derived features of crown catarrhines, but clearly more derived than the Oligocene catarrhines. The consensus of the paleoanthropological community has been to identify *Proconsul* as a stem hominoid and subsequently use the suite of morphological features exhibited by *Proconsul* as a model for the earliest hominoids. All studies of hominoid evolution, particularly those focusing on the early stages in the Miocene, therefore begin with *Proconsul* as defining the hominoid archetype or ancestral morphotypic condition. In this way, *Proconsul* roots the hominoid clade and is used as a default outgroup defining character polarities among hominoids. Despite the significance attached to *Proconsul* in catarrhine and hominoid evolution,

the evolutionary relationships of this taxon have not been critically tested by a comprehensive phylogenetic analysis. As a result, conclusions regarding later catarrhine and hominoid evolution may rest on an uncertain interpretive framework.

This dissertation critically reconsiders the phylogenetic status of *Proconsul*—including the newly proposed genera *Ugandapithecus* (Senut, 2000; Pickford et al., 2009) and *Ekembo* (McNulty et al., 2015), regarde here as junior synonyms. Specifically, it tests whether *Proconsul* is a hominoid, a hominid, or a stem catarrhine – the three main competing hypotheses that have been proposed for its relationships (Harrison, 1982, 1987, 2010; Andrews, 1985; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Walker and Teaford, 1989; Rae, 1993, 1997; Begun, 1997; Walker, 1997; McNulty, 2015). In order to test these hypotheses, this dissertation employs the largest data set yet compiled to address questions of catarrhine and hominoid phylogeny, applies the latest systematic methods for handling morphological data and includes a broad range of fossil and extant anthropoids. A number of recent advances in phylogenetic methods have not been widely employed in paleoanthropology and this project is the first to apply them to investigating the phylogenetic relationships of *Proconsul*. As such, this study presents the most comprehensive phylogenetic analysis of this genus and the findings have broad implications for understanding early catarrhine and hominoid evolutionary history.

Methods for analyzing morphological data in systematic analyses are rapidly improving and are expanding the range of evolutionary questions that can be addressed (Egge et al., 2009; Magallon et al., 2010; Wiens, 2010; Lopardo et al., 2011; Pyron et al., 2011; Ronquist et al., 2012; Wood et al., 2013; Gavruyshkina et al., 2014; Arcila et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015). In addition to providing the basis for inferring cladistic relationships, morphological data can be combined with molecular clock estimates to investigate the adaptive divergence between taxa

and their rates of morphological evolution (Magallon et al., 2010; Pyron et al., 2011; Ronquist et al., 2012). By adding inferred ancestral morphotypes (Pagel, 1997, 1999) to the best-supported phylogenies, one can infer how phenetically similar or divergent taxa are compared to the ancestral morphotypes of the major catarrhine clades. This offers insight into the broader evolutionary scenarios deduced from placement of individual taxa and clades, including morphological differences between ancestral morphotypes and rates of evolutionary change. In particular, it documents complex evolutionary pathways involving character reversals and homoplasy; phenomena known to be common in catarrhine and hominoid evolution (Harrison, 1993; Pilbeam, 1996; Collard and Wood, 2001; Lycett and Collard, 2005).

The goal of this dissertation is to evaluate the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* and to understand its significance in the broader picture of catarrhine evolutionary history. I attempt to achieve this goal first by sampling morphology across the cranium, pelvis, forelimb and foot. Comprehensive character sampling for included regions was prioritized in order to minimize bias. While this strategy limited the number of regions that could be practically included in the analysis, regions were chosen in order to cover multiple morphological complexes across the skeleton. A preliminary analysis was conducted summarizing the data set by portraying the phenetic distribution of variation among taxa (Chapter 3). I next test the three evolutionary hypotheses outlined above that have been proposed for the phylogenetic placement of *Proconsul* and infer rates of morphological change in catarrhine evolution (chapter 4). This section applies the phylogenetic methods that are the focus of this dissertation and the primary means of inferring the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*. The final analysis (chapter 5) further explores the data set, inferring ancestral morphotypes given that each hypothesis, and describing three distinct evolutionary scenarios. These scenarios expand on the results of the phylogenetic

analysis presented in the previous chapter, describing the broader implications of each hypothesis. Finally, given that the results of the phylogenetic analyses and subsequent exploration of ancestral morphotypes, I assess whether a single hypothesis is best supported. The phylogenetic analyses will determine whether the available data are sufficient to confidently identify a single preferred hypothesis, while the final set of analyses will allow for a more detailed consideration of synapomorphic morphology and evolutionary implications of results.

CHAPTER 1: Phylogenetic relationships of *Proconsul*

1.1 MIOCENE CATARRHINES

The Miocene fossil record holds the key to understanding the early evolution of catarrhines. From among a diversity of stem catarrhines in Africa, the two crown clades emerged during the late Oligocene: cercopithecoids and hominoids (Szalay and Delson, 1979; Bernor, 1983; Andrews et al., 1996; Gebo et al., 1997; Harrison and Gu, 1999; MacLatchy, 2004; Harrison, 2005, 2010; Seiffert, 2007; Nakatsukasa, 2008; Jablonski and Frost, 2010; Stevens et al., 2013). Distinguishing members of the extant catarrhine superfamilies morphologically is straightforward. Hominoids (apes and humans) are relatively large bodied tail-less primates with bunodont cheek teeth, 5-cusped lower molars, upper molars with a crista obliqua, a reduction in the size of the $m³$, an increase in size of the incisors relative to the molars, large brains, and postcranial adaptations for orthogrady, forelimb suspension and vertical climbing, with a broad thorax and a shortened thoraco-lumbar region (Schultz, 1930, 1936, 1938, 1960, 1961, 1969; Schultz and Straus, 1945; Evans and Krahl, 1945; Le Gros Clark, 1959; Napier and Davis, 1959; Ashton and Oxnard, 1963, 1964; Straus, 1963; Lewis, 1965, 1969, 1971, 1974; Lewis et al., 1970; Ankel, 1972; Groves, 1972; Corruccini, 1975, 1977, 1978; Corruccini et al., 1975, 1976; Delson and Andrews, 1975; Rose, 1975, 1983; Andrews and Groves, 1975; Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Harrison, 1982, 1987; Andrews, 1985). Cercopithecoids (Old World monkeys) are dedicated pronograde quadrupeds with tails (at least primitively), elongate bilophodont upper and lower molars, and modification of the joints of the appendicular limbs to emphasize movements in the parasagittal plane (Gregory, 1920; Wood-Jones, 1929; Le Gros Clark, 1934; Napier and Davis, 1959; Jolly, 1967, 1972; Delson, 1975;

Szalay and Delson 1979; Harrison, 1982, 1987; Fleagle, 1983; Rose, 1983; Strasser and Delson, 1987; Gebo, 1993; Miller et al., 2009; Jablonski and Frost, 2010). The detailed list of craniodental and postcranial autapomorphies distinguishing these superfamilies is extensive (Schultz, 1930, 1936; Napier and Napier, 1967; Rose, 1973, 1987, 1994; Tuttle and Basmajian, 1974; Washburn and Moore, 1974; Andrews and Groves, 1975; Benton, 1976; Tuttle, 1977; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Rollinson and Martin, 1981; Walker and Pickford, 1983; Cant, 1987; Gebo, 1989; Lewis, 1989; Ward et al., 1993; Ward, 2007). Historically, researchers assumed, invoking an imperfect *scala naturae* paradigm, that cercopithecoids were more primitive than hominoids (Le Gros Clark, 1959; Delson and Andrews, 1975; Corruccini et al., 1976; Andrews, 1981; Pickford, 1982; Temerin and Cant, 1983). However, the fossil record offered little or no support for cercopithecoid-like features among stem catarrhines (Szalay and Delson, 1979; Fleagle and Kay, 1983; Gebo, 1993; Rose, 1994; Leakey et al., 2003; Ward, 2007; Jablonski and Frost, 2010) and in many respects Old World monkeys represent a highly derived clade (Gregory, 1920; Wood-Jones, 1929; Le Gros Clark, 1934; Von Koenigswald, 1968, 1969; Corruccini et al., 1976; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Rose, 1983; Strasser and Delson, 1987; Gebo, 1989; Jablonski and Frost, 2010).

As catarrhine fossils were discovered, researchers relied heavily on dental characters to place taxa either within Hominoidea or Cercopithecoidea, resulting in many 'dental apes' being placed within Hominoidea, often linked to specific extant lineages (Hofmann, 1893; Keith, 1915; Pilgrim, 1915; Schlosser and von Zittel, 1923; Gregory and Hellman, 1926; Hopwood, 1933; Gregory et al., 1934, 1938; Le Gros Clark, 1950; Leakey, 1951; Hürzeler, 1954; Zapfe, 1960; Napier and Davis, 1959; Simons and Pilbeam, 1965; Simons, 1965, 1967, 1972; Walker and Rose, 1968; Pilbeam, 1969, 1972; Simons and Fleagle, 1973; Corruccini et al., 1976). Early

catarrhine taxa, including the pliopithecoids and propliopithecoid*s,* with their mix of primitive anthropoid cranial (Hürzeler, 1954; Zapfe, 1960; Delson and Andrews, 1975; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Kay et al., 1981; Simons, 1984, 1985, 1987; Harrison, 1987) and postcranial characters (Le Gros Clark and Leakey, 1951; Napier and Davis, 1959; Napier, 1964, 1967; Preuschoft, 1973; Tuttle, 1967) all with dental similarities to extant apes (Pilgrim, 1915; Hopwood, 1933; Gregory, 1922; Gregory and Hellman, 1926; Gregory et al., 1938) challenged a simple dichotomous portrayal of catarrhine evolution. As researchers learned more about the distribution of variation, they were able to move beyond phenetic comparisons and make inferences concerning plesiomorphic versus apomorphic character states. This led to the recognition that many features, particularly in the dentition, that phenetically linked fossils with extant hominoids were in fact catarrhine symplesiomorphies and that the cercopithecoid dentition was highly derived (Gregory, 1922; Von Koenigswald, 1968, 1969; Szalay and Delson, 1979). The term 'dental apes' was coined referring to the taxa that possessed many primitive features in their cranium and postcranial morphology, but looked ape-like based on a suite of dental features including: bunodont dentition, 4-cusped upper molars possessing a crista obliqua, 5-cusped lower molars possessing a hypoconulid and a 'Y' shaped fissure pattern (Gregory, 1922; Von Koenigswald, 1968, 1969). Some researchers considered Hominoidea a paraphyletic 'wastebasket' taxon (Corruccini et al., 1976; Fleagle and Kay, 1983) that included all noncercopithecoid catarrhines (i.e., stem catarrhines + hominoids). Other researchers accepted this pattern, referring all catarrhines to Hominoidea, with cercopithecoids nested within hominoids (Simons, 1965; Fleagle and Kay, 1983).

 This gradistic interpretation led to retention of the dichotomous terminology of the crown catarrhines. In addition to recognizing that the hominoid dentition was more primitive and the

cercopithecoid dentition more derived, researchers also identified morphology of the ectotympanic (Cartmill et al., 1981; Harrison, 1987, 2013) distinguishing crown from stem catarrhine taxa, and further identified morphology in the cercopithecoid postcranium distinguishing cercopithecoids from stem catarrhines (Le Gros Clark, 1934; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Fleagle and Kay, 1983; Gebo, 1993; Rose, 1994; Leakey et al., 2003; Ward, 2007; Jablonski and Frost, 2010). The form of the ectotympanic clearly distinguishes all crown catarrhines from more basal taxa. Crown catarrhines all possess a fully enclosed tubular ectotympanic, differing from the annular form in platyrrhines and strepsirrhines (Cartmill et al., 1981; Harrison, 1987, 2013). Stem catarrhines are variable in expression of this feature, with *Aegyptopithecus* and other propliopithecoids possessing the primitive annular form (Cartmill et al., 1981; Fleagle and Kay 1987; Harrison 1987, 2013; Seiffert et al. 2010). *Epipliopithecus* and *Pliobates* both possess a partially enclosed bony tube (Harrison, 1987, 2013; Alba, et al., 2015). *Proconsul*, however, unambiguously groups with crown catarrhines for this feature, possessing a fully enclosed bony tube (Le Gros Clark and Leakey, 1951; Napier and Davis, 1959; Harrison, 2010).

In the postcranial skeleton, the forelimb in particular has played a central role in resolving relationships between stem and crown catarrhines. Two characters unambiguously distinguish early stem catarrhines from later catarrhines: presence of an entepicondylar foramen and an epitrochlear fossa in the distal humerus. The entepicondylar foramen is a primitive eutherian character shared by many strepsirrhines, fossil anthropoids and ceboids, but is lost in all crown catarrhines (Fleagle et al., 1982). The dorsal epitrochlear fossa is also present among many stem catarrhines and platyrrhines, but is absent in cercopithecoids and hominoids (Conroy,

1976; Fleagle and Kay, 1987; Harrison, 1987, 2013). *Proconsul,* similar to the crown catarrhines, lacks both of these features (Napier and Davis, 1959; Harrison, 1987, 2010).

Other features of the postcranial skeleton more directly linked to locomotor behaviors portray a more complicated evolutionary scenario. While hominoids present the most mobile shoulder, elbow and wrist joints—with the ability to fully extend the arm above the head at the shoulder, full extension at the elbow, abduction/adduction at the wrist, and a greater ability to pronate/supinate the hand and radius around the ulna (Schultz, 1930, 1969; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Fleagle, 1983; Rose, 1983, 1996; Ward, 2007)—cercopithecoids in general have a much more limited range of joint motion (to a lesser degree among colobines than in cercopithecines), holding the forelimb in a habitually flexed position at the elbow, limiting extension of the forelimb to $\sim 90^\circ$ at the shoulder and a stable wrist (Jolly, 1967; Delson, 1975; Rose, 1983, 1996; Jablonski and Frost, 2010). Platyrrhines and early catarrhines exhibit a range of variation from a limited range of motion to those , such as *Ateles* and *Epipliopithecus*, approaching the hominoid condition (Rose, 1983, 1996; Larson, 1998; Ward, 2007; Youlatos and Meldrum, 2011). In the hind limb, there is a similar morphology, with hominoids exhibiting a mobile hip and ankle with greater range of extension at the hip and eversion at the ankle—associated with the ability to position the lower limb and foot around arboreal and particularly vertical supports (Rose, 1983, 1996; MacLatchy et al., 2000; Ward, 2007).

The *Epipliopithecus* skeleton exhibits mobile shoulder, hip and ankle joints, similar to the atelids and likely allowing for climbing, bridging and suspension in their locomotor repertoire (Zapfe, 1960; Ward, 2007). The presence of this morphology in stem catarrhines—with atelids also converging on this morphology—breaks down a dichotomous or gradistic interpretation of these features. Additionally, fossil hominoids exhibit adaptation to a range of locomotor modes,

not exclusively the derived climbing and suspensory adaptations indicative of extant hominoids (see chapter 2 discussion), but also variably expressing traits characteristic of arboreal quadrupeds (Sarmiento 1987; Rose, 1988, 1997; Pilbeam et al. 1990; Moyà-Solà and Kohler 1995; Begun et al. 1997; Richmond et al., 1998; Finarelli and Clyde 2004; Moyà-Solà et al. 2004; Larson, 2007; Ward, 2007; Alba et al., 2010, 2011, 2013; Rein et al., 2011).

 The breakdown of this dichotomous framework has allowed many catarrhine fossils to be more confidently placed within the catarrhine phylogenetic tree (as with the pliopithecoids and propliopithecoids). Where uncertainty remains, it may be due to the difficulty in distinguishing between stem anthropoids and stem catarrhines (Simons, 1962; Szalay, 1970; Gingerich, 1977; Fleagle and Kay 1987; Harrison 1987, 2013; Rasmussen and Simons, 1988; Simons, 1992, 2001; Simons and Rasmussen, 1996; Kay et al., 1997, 2004; Ross et al., 1998; Beard, 2002; Rasmussen, 2002; Seiffert et al., 2005, 2010) and between stem catarrhines and stem hominoids (Andrews, 1978, 1985, 1992; Rose, 1983, 1992, 1997; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Begun et al., 1997, 2001; Kelley, 1997; Rae, 1997, 1999; Rose, 1997; Walker, 1997; Ward, 1997; Ward et al., 1997; Fleagle, 1998; Singleton, 2000; Harrison and Gu, 1999; Harrison 2002, 2010, 2013; Ward and Duren, 2002; Pickford and Kunimatsu, 2005). The following chapter will discuss the morphology used to define catarrhine clades, with particular emphasis placed on characters used to distinguish stem catarrhines and hominoids. Much of the difficulty in identifying catthine synapomorphies depends on how researchers parse out postcranial variation that may distinguish between the derived locomotor modes of cercopithecoids and hominoids versus a more primitive and generalized pattern. As discussed above, inferring primitive adaptations to a range of locomotor styles, versus derived adaptations to hominoid-like climbing and suspension is not

straight-forward (Corruccini et al., 1976; Gebo, 1989; Rose, 1994, 1996; McCrossin et al., 1998; MacLatchy et al., 2000; Ward, 2007; Nakatsukasa, 2012).

1.2 SUMMARY OF ALTERNATE HYPOTHESES

Here I outline the three hypotheses being tested in this dissertation. In order to fully explore each hypothesis I begin by outlining the set of morphological characters that has been used to support each. Only morphological characters drawn from the regions included in this thesis (i.e., cranium, forelimb, pelvis, pes) will be covered. I conclude each overview with a discussion of the broader evolutionary implications for the hypothesis across catarrhine evolution, predicting ancestral morphotypes based on this review of the evidence.

1.2.1 H1: *Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine

In order to establish that *Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine, a member of a lineage emerging before the origination of the cercopithecoid and hominoid clades, there must be synapomorphies linking cercopithecoids and hominoids to the exclusion of *Proconsul,* with *Proconsul* also expressing catarrhine synapomorphies shared by both crown and stem catarrhines. Given that both cercopithecoids and hominoids are highly distinctive relative to each other (Szalay and Delson, 1979; Ward, 2007; Harrison, 2010; Jablonski and Frost, 2010; Seiffert et al., 2010), few synapomorphies have been identified to support this hypothesis. The hominoid synapomorphies that are absent in *Proconsul* are inconsequential to supporting this hypothesis, as they are not able to reject the hypothesis that these evolved prior to the appearance of the early basal hominoids but after *Proconsul* diverged. Debate has been more focused on reevaluating synapomorphies proposed to support alternate hypotheses and examining the ways in which

crown hominoids are similar to the primitive catarrhine morphotype. There may be few characters to support this hypothesis, even if it is the biological reality.

The presence of ischial callosities in hylobatids and cercopithecoids (Pocock, 1925; Schultz, 1936; Miller, 1945; Wilson, 1970; Rose, 1974; Ward et al., 1989; Walker and Teaford, 1989; McCrossin and Benefit, 1992) may be the best evidence for a synapomorphy supporting this hypothesis. It leads to the argument that this feature evolved in the crown catarrhine ancestor prior to the diversification of cercopithecoids and hominoids. The absence of this feature in hominids has led to inference that this feature was lost in the large bodied apes (Washburn, 1957; Delson and Andrews, 1975; Walker and Teaford, 1989; Ward et al., 1993; Harrison and Sanders, 1999). In this scenario, the absence of ischial callosities in *Proconsul* (Ward et al., 1993) is inferred to indicate the *Proconsul* lineage evolved prior to the appearance of ischial callosities in cercopithecoids and hylobatids (Harrison and Sanders, 1999). This could also, however, support H3, linking *Proconsul* with the hominids. It has further been suggested to be independently derived in hylobatids and cercopithecids (Groves, 1968; Ward et al., 1989; McCrossin and Benefit, 1992).

1.2.1.1 H1 evolutionary implications

Overall, this hypothesis infers that *Proconsul* is primitive, with a monkey-like skeleton and fits well into an evolutionary scenario in which basal catarrhines exhibit a generalized, arboreal quadrupedal skeletal morphology (Le Gros Clark and Leakey, 1951; Napier and Davis, 1959; Andrews, 1978; Walker and Pickford, 1983; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Harrison, 1987; Ward et al., 1993), specialized for varying degrees of climbing and bridging behaviors (Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Rose, 1987, 1994, 1996; Ward et al., 1991; Nakatsukasa et al., 2003; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). This pattern explains many of the similarities between *Proconsul* and extant hominoids as compared to the more specialized cercopithecoid skeleton. In this scenario, the crown catarrhine ancestral morphotype would be expected to be similar to *Proconsul* (Harrison, 1987), with the addition of limited crown catarrhine synapomorphies, such as possession of ischial callosities. The hominoid morphotype would appear either quite close to this crown catarrhine morphotype or be closer to the derived morphology of hominoids or even hominids, given that hylobatids likely represent a highly specialized lineage (Cartmill, 1985; Shea, 1986; Gebo, 1997; Young, 2003; Young and MacLatchy, 2004).

1.2.2 H2: *Proconsul* is a stem hominoid

Current consensus supports placing *Proconsul* as an early member of the Hominoidea (Andrews, 1985; Kelley and Pilbeam, 1986; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Begun, 1997; McNulty et al., 2015) and this hypothesis has been supported with many purported synapomorphies that *Proconsul* shares with hominoids. This character list has been reevaluated with the understanding that in order to support this hypothesis characters must be confidently established as derived for hominoids. Difficulties in distinguishing hominoid synapomorphies from catarrhine symplesiomorphies is a source of confusion in inferring the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*. Additionally, many characters discussed as supporting the position of *Proconsul* as a stem hominoid are the same characters that are similar between *Proconsul* and the hominids, working from the assumption that hylobatids do not express these traits due to being a highly derived lineage within Hominoidea. These features will be discussed under H3.

Few cranial characters have been advanced in support of this hypothesis. Andrews (1985) identified two cranial characters relevant to this study: a frontal bone wide at bregma and narrowing anteriorly forming a posteriorly convex frontal-parietal suture; and, a well-developed maxillary jugum. Harrison (1987) identified the frontal morphology as present in both

cercopithecoids and hominids suggesting it may be derived for catarrhines, though hylobatids retain the primitive condition. *Proconsul* and hominids express a higher degree of the posterior convexity described by this morphology (Harrison, 1987), however, possibly indicating a phylogenetically informative character polarity. The development of the maxillary jugum has been used as both a hominoid (Andrews, 1985; Zalmout, 2010) and hominid (Rae, 1999) synapomorphy. As hylobatids lack a well-developed maxillary jugum, it should be more accurately considered a hominid synapomorphy (Harrison, 1987) and is only considered a hominoid synapomorphy under the interpretative framework which excuses hylobatids as a derived lineage within the Hominoidea. Harrison (1987) further argued that the *Proconsul* maxillary jugum appears misleadingly large due to facial lengthening, but in fact, its maxillary jugum is more similar to the jugum of other stem catarrhines and platyrrhines than it is to the derived expression of the hominoids. Rae (1999) described the configuration of the premaxillary-nasal contact as a *Proconsul* + hominoid synapomorphy, indicating that in cercopithecoids the contact extends superiorly to the top of the nasals or even onto the frontal, whereas the hominoid and *Proconsul* premaxilla contacts the nasals inferiorly or not at all, terminating instead at the piriform aperture. Rae (1999) identifies the primitive catarrhine and platyrrhine condition as the premaxilla contacting the nasals near their midpoint. Rae (1999) goes on to suggest that the non-projecting nasals and inter-orbital region of hominoids is derived relative to the condition seen in cercopithecoids, stem catarrhines and platyrrhines, who all exhibit an anterior transverse arch between the orbits at the nasals. *Proconsul* shares a nonprojecting morphology with the hominoids.

Postcranially, the forelimb provides the most evidence supporting this hypothesis. In particular, similarities between the *Proconsul* elbow and those of extant hominoids have led

some to suggest that the earliest adaptive changes in the hominoid skeleton occurred in the elbow (Gebo, 1996, 2009; Kelley, 1997; Fleagle, 1998; Larson and Stern, 2006; Nakatsukasa, 2009). Overall, the hominoid wrist allows for axial rotational movement and a range of both abduction and adduction, along with an increased ability to extend and hyperextend at the elbow. Cercopithecoids and platyrrhines on the other hand have a less flexible, more stable wrist, with limited ability to pronate and supinate, as their forelimb is typically carried in a habitually pronated position (Napier and Davis, 1959; O'Connor and Rarey, 1979; Fleagle, 1983; Sarmiento, 1988; Rose, 1988, 1993; McCrossin, 1994; Benefit and McCrossin, 1995; Gebo, 1996; Fleagle, 1998; Larson, 1998, 2006). Platyrrhines, however, practice a type of quadrupedalism distinct from cercopithecoids and express greater axial rotational abilities at the elbow, with elbows pointing more laterally than posteriorly and holding the forelimb in a habitually semi-flexed position (Grand, 1968; Rose, 1992, 1994; Youlatos and Meldrum, 2011).

Proconsul, along with extant apes and many of the middle and late Miocene hominoids, possesses a globular capitulum, lacking the antero-posterior flattening typical of platyrrhines and cercopithecoids and also lacking a proximo-lateral extension forming a tail and increasing the range of rotatory motion at the humero-radial joint (Fleagle, 1983; Rose, 1988, 1993; Rae, 1999; Larson and stern, 2006; Nakatsukasa, 2007). The lateral epicondyle of *Proconsul* and extant hominoids projects laterally beyond the level of the capitulum (Senut, 1989; Rose, 1997). *Proconsul,* similar to the hominoids, possesses a broad trochlea, with well-developed medial and lateral trochlear keels (Napier and Davis, 1959; Andrews, 1985; Harrison, 1987; Rose, 1988; McCrossin, 1994; Benefit and McCrossin, 1995; Walker, 1997; Fleagle, 1998; Larson, 1998, 2006; Rae, 1999; Gebo, 2009). The combination of these traits in hominoids forms the characteristic trochleiform trochlear implicated in maintaining stability during forelimb

pronation and supination necessary for forelimb suspension (Rose, 1988, 1993). In *Proconsul,* the form of the trochlea and medial and lateral keels is intermediate between the cylindrical platyrrhine and spool-shaped hominoid morphs (Harrison, 1987; Rose, 1988, 1994; Zylstra, 1999). The medial keel is intermediate between hominoids and other anthropoids (Harrison, 1987; Zylstra, 1999; Gebo, 2009). Extant hominoids possess a deep and narrow zona conoidea whereas this feature is shallower and wider in cercopithecoids and Oligocene and early Miocene catarrhines (Rose, 1988, 1993). The *Proconsul* zona conoidea is intermediate, though showing greater similarity to the hominoid condition (Fleagle, 1983; Walker, 1997; Rae, 1999; Gebo, 2009). This morphology increases stability at the radio-ulnar joint during pronation and supination (Jenkins, 1973; Sarmiento, 1985; Rose, 1988). Beveling of the radial head has also been related to stability, as it articulates with a deep zona conoidea and is seen in *Proconsul* and extant hominoids (Rose, 1992, 1997; Rae, 1999; Gebo, 2009). Harrison (1987) suggested that both medial and lateral keel development is related to an increase in body size. The welldeveloped lateral trochlear keel is even more pronounced in *Proconsul* than in hominoids, it being larger than in stem catarrhines and other anthropoids, suggesting a unique morphology that cannot be accommodated in a model of simple linear evolution in which basal taxa would expected to be morphologically intermediate between primitive and derived conditions (Kelley, 1997; Larson and Stern, 2006). This trait may not be homologous in *Proconsul* and extant hominoids or may be an exaptation to the form seen in the later hominoids as it is unlikely *Proconsul* was practicing large amounts of forelimb suspension (Rose, 1988, 1993; Kelley, 1997; Larson and Stern, 2006). A possible explanation may be related to a change in balancing mechanisms for a tail-less above branch arboreal quadruped, in which forelimb pronator and supinator muscles exert force against a stable elbow joint as they work to maintain balance

(Kelley, 1997; Larson and Stern, 2006). Working from the assumption that *Proconsul* is tail-less, others have highlighted the importance of unique adaptations to maintaining balance during arboreal quadrupedal locomotion as being prime drivers of the mix of skeleton adaptations in *Proconsul* (Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Ward et al., 1991; Nakatsukasa et al., 2003, 2007, 2009; Daver, 2015).

The *Proconsul* carpus has been the focus of much discussion, with some researchers recognizing a hominoid-like wrist in the configuration of the carpo-ulnar articulation while others see a more intermediate morphology (Napier and Davis, 1959; Lewis, 1971, 1972, 1989; O'Connor, 1975; Beard et al., 1986; Harrison, 1987; Rose, 1994; Youlatos, 1996; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). In cercopithecoids, the ulna and carpus form a tight articulation with the ulnar styloid contacting the pisiform and triquetral. This articulation limits medio-lateral mobility and ulnar deviation in favor of stability at this weight-bearing joint (Lewis, 1971, 1972, 1974; Schon and Ziemer, 1973; Corruccini et at., 1975, 1976; Morbeck, 1975, 1977; O'Connor, 1975, 1976; Cartmill and Milton, 1977; O'Connor and Rarey, 1979; McHenry and Corruccini, 1983; Lewis, 1989; Sarmiento, 1995, 2002; Youlatos, 1996; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). Hominoids have greatly reduced the ulnar styloid and, subsequently, reduced articulation between the ulna and carpus. Instead of direct contact, an inter-articular meniscus is present between the styloid, pisiform and triquetral. This increases mobility, allowing for ulnar deviation and axial rotation (Lewis, 1965, 1971, 1972, 1974, 1989; Conroy and Fleagle, 1972; O'Connor, 1975; Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Mendel, 1979; Sarmiento, 1987, 1988, 1995, 2002; Youlatos, 1996; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). The degree of isolation between the ulna and carpus as measured by the extensiveness of the facet for the interarticular meniscus varies among hominoids. Hylobatids exhibit the least ulno-carpal contact, resulting in the greatest degree of

mobility, while the knuckle-walking apes must pass compressive force through this joint and as a result have a more extensive facet for the meniscus (Lewis, 1969, 1971; Corruccini, 1978). An additional trait limiting ulnar deviation in the cercopithecoid carpus is a ridge delimiting the facet for the ulnar styloid on the distal articular surface of the pisiform which is lacking in *Proconsul* and extant hominoids (O'Connor, 1975; Beard, 1986; Rae, 1999).

Overall, *Proconsul* possesses an intermediate morphology, lacking the extensive weightbearing articulation of the cercopithecoids (Lewis, 1971, 1972; Beard, 1986), but with greater contact than is seen in the derived hominoid condition (Napier and Davis, 1959; Morbeck, 1972, 1977a; Schon and Ziemer, 1973; O'Connor, 1976; Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Harrison, 1982; Robertson, 1984; Beard et al., 1986; Beard, 1986, 1993; Harrison, 1987; Sarmiento, 1988, 1995, 2002; Lewis, 1989; Rose, 1994; Youlatos, 1996; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). Generally, the *Proconsul* carpus suggests palmigrade hand postures, most similar to arboreal quadrupeds with a higher degree of mobility than that seen in extant cercopithecoids, but not as mobile as the hominoid condition (Napier and Davis, 1959; Morbeck, 1972, 1975, 1977; Preuschoft, 1973; Schon and Ziemer, 1973; Corruccini et al., 1975; O'Connor, 1976; Harrison, 1982; McHenry and Corruccini, 1983; Robertson, 1984; Jouffroy et al., 1991; Ward, 1993; Rose, 1996; Zylstra, 1999; Richmond and Strait, 2000; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015).

In addition to the increased abduction/adduction abilities allowed by the presence of an intraarticular meniscus between the ulna and carpus, the radio-ulnar joint is also separated by an intraarticular meniscus in hominoids. This meniscus allows for a greater degree of rotation of the radius and hand around the ulna and is beneficial for both suspension and vertical climbing (Lewis, 1965, 1969; Sarmiento, 1987, 1988; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). Osteologically this is reflected in a more extensive radio-ulnar articulation among hominoids. Previously

researchers (Harrison, 1987; Walker et al., 1993) inferred *Proconsul* lacked the extensive articulation seen among hominoids, but this conclusion was based primarily on sub-adult material. Daver and Nakatsukasa (2015) reevaluated this morphology with adult material from the Kaswanga Primate Site (KPS) and found *Proconsul* did in fact possess the intraarticular meniscus at the distal radio-ulnar joint characteristic of the hominoids. A final carpal character involves the spiral articulation between the hamate and triquetral. The *Proconsul* hamate possesses a 'spiralized' triquetral facet (Lewis, 1972, 1989; Almecija et al, 2014) that is oriented proximodistally (Beard, 1986; Rae, 1999; Begun, 2004; Kivell, 2007) as it is in the hominoids.

The *Proconsul* hand is characterized by strong grasping abilities—indicated by broad phalangeal shafts, large palmar tubercles on the proximal phalanges, short intermediate phalanges and markings for strong pollical flexors—similar to hominoids (Walker and Pickford, 1983; Begun et al., 1994; Kelley, 1997; Nakatsukasa et al., 1998, 2002, 2003). Palmigrade arboreal quadrupeds, including many platyrrhines and cercopithecoids (Walker and Pickford, 1983; Kelley, 1997; Nakatsukasa et al., 1998, 2002, 2003) and particularly those practicing slow climbing and bridging behaviors (more common among certain platyrrhines) (Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Rose, 1983, 1992, 1996, 1997; Ward et al., 1991; Nakatsukasa et al., 2003; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015), also exhibit strong grasping abilities. The first metacarpo-phalangeal joint has been described as saddle shaped and more mobile in hominoids and *Proconsul* (Lewis, 1977; Rae, 1999), though others have described the *Proconsul* joint as being a cylindrical hinge, more similar to the non-catarrhine condition (Napier, 1961, 1962; Day and Napier, 1963). Beard (1984) sees a saddle shaped morph as a common pattern across primates and therefore does not consider this characterization useful for inferring phylogeny, recognizing instead a similarity between *Proconsul,* hominoids and ceboids in the orientation of this joint as distinct from a more derived cercopithecoid orientation. This is interpreted as an adaptation to compressive forces exerted during pad-to-pad gripping similar to the hominoids (Marzke, 1997; McHenry, 1983; Moyà-Solà, 1999). Begun et al. (1994) also suggested that long thumbs may be a synapomorphy linking *Proconsul* and crown hominoids.

Similar to the hand, the grasping abilities in the foot have been suggested to be synapomorphic for *Proconsul* and extant hominoids (Fleagle, 1983; Langdon, 1976; Preuschoft, 1973; Rose, 1983; Begun et al., 1994). The possession of a long, divergent hallux with powerful hallucal flexors, broad hallucal terminal phalanges and short intermediate phalanges in *Proconsul* all support this hypothesis. Begun et al. (1994) further identified morphology differentiating between manual and pedal phalanges, which foreshadows the differentiation in hominoid hand and foot postures during suspension and slow climbing (Begun et al., 1994). Torsion of the first and second metatarsal heads also is shared between *Proconsul* and the hominoids (Rose, 1993; Kelley, 1997; Ward, 1997). Morphology of the tarsus and particularly mid-tarsal joints have also been implicated as potential synapomorphies supporting this hypothesis (Sarmiento, 1983; Langdon, 1984; Szalay and Langdon, 1986; Rose, 1986; Ward, 1997); but, as this primarily indicates an affinity between *Proconsul* and the hominids it will be discussed under H3. While hominids may retain more of the primitive hominoid condition than hylobatids, synapomorphies linking *Proconsul* to hominids must be first evaluated as supporting the position of *Proconsul* among hominoids.

Proconsul possesses a relatively shallow acetabulum, a feature also present in hominoids that has been related to possessing a greater range of motion at the hip. In extant hominoids, a shallow acetabulum is accompanied by a lunate surface that may be expanded cranially and reduced dorsally, indicating increased cranial loading and reduced dorsal loading (Ward, 1991,
1993; MacLatchy and Bossert, 1996). *Proconsul* does not, however, share this configuration of the lunate surface (Ruff et al., 1989; Ward et al., 1992, 1993; Rose, 1993; MacLatchy and Bossert, 1996). While cercopithecoids are derived in generally having a deeper acetabulum, a shallow acetabulum is likely primitive for anthropoids as it is seen in both platyrrhines and hominoids (Ward et al., 1993). Configuration of the sacro-iliac joint is also similar between *Proconsul* and hominoids (Ward, 1991, 1993; Kelley, 1997). Non-hominoid anthropoids possess a sacro-iliac joint involving only two vertebrae, whereas three are involved in hominoids (Schultz, 1930, 1961, 1969; Ward, 1991). The height of the auricular surface and subsequent height of the sacro-iliac joint above the auricular surface differs between monkeys and hominoids, with *Proconsul* intermediate or hominoid-like (Ward, 1991).

1.2.2.1 H2 evolutionary implications

Proconsul is interpreted as possessing a wrist joint with an intermediate degree of abduction and adduction with a ulno-carpal articulation intermediate between the highly mobile hominoid condition and the more stable cercopithecoid morph (Lewis, 1972; Beard,1986; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015) and a hominoid-like ability to pronate-supinate its hand and radius around the ulna (Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). It possesses an elbow joint capable of full extension unlike cercopithecoids (Napier and Davis, 1959; Rose, 1983, Walker and Pickford, 1983, 1989; Andrews, 1985; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Gebo et al., 1988; Gebo, 1996, 2009; Kelley, 1997; Walker, 1997; Fleagle, 1998; Larson and Stern, 2006; Nakatsukasa and Kunimatsu, 2009), indicating a move towards incorporating more climbing behaviors resulting in preadaptation of the skeleton to the derived suspensory behaviors expressed in extant hominoids (Le Gros Clark, 1959; Schultz, 1961; Ashton and Oxnard, 1964; Oxnard, 1967, 1969; Groves, 1972; Corruccini, 1975; Ciochon and Corruccini, 1977; Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Larson,

1988; Gebo, 1996; Young, 2003, 2008). *Proconsul* is inferred to closely approximate the basal hominoid morphotype. However, this morphotype appears to be essentially unlike the crown hominoid morphotype (Rose, 1983, 1993; Ward, 1998; Nakatsukasa and Kunimatsu, 2009; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015), with many features related to orthograde and suspensory behaviors evolving later in the hominoid lineage (Young and MacLatchy, 2004; Ward, 2007).

1.2.3 H3: *Proconsul* is a basal hominid

This hypothesis has historically been established on many of the same characters used to support the position of *Proconsul* within Hominoidea. However, researchers have recognized that the similarity between *Proconsul* and hominids is due to the highly derived nature of hylobatids (Cartmill, 1985; Shea, 1986; Gebo, 1997; Young, 2003; Young and MacLatchy, 2004) as opposed to a closer relationship between *Proconsul* and the great apes. Under this framework it is assumed that the hominids are morphologically closer to the ancestral hominoid morphotype than hylobatids. As a result, H3 characters are often discussed primarily as synapomorphies supporting H2. A proponent of H3, however, would infer a more hylobatid-like hominoid ancestral morph and infer similarities between *Proconsul* and hominids indicate a closer evolutionary relationship (excluding hylobatids). This position is no longer prevalent in literature, though it remains a viable hypothesis. Recently, Rae (1993, 1998, 1999, 2004) has been the main proponent of this hypothesis and it relies heavily on cranio-facial characters.

Proconsul possesses a relatively deep, moderately prognathic face, with a well-developed maxillary jugum similar to the facial morphology of crown hominids (Andrews, 1985; Rae, 1993). This general characterization of similarity in facial morphology is compelling, though the diversity of facial morphs among fossil and extant catarrhines makes the inference of character polarities difficult to interpret. Inferring synapomorphic similarity between *Proconsul* and the

hominids is consistent with an ancestral catarrhine facial morphology characterized by the symplesiomorphic similarity of hylobatids and colobines, which both have short faces and lack the prognathism and maxillary morphology shared by *Proconsul* and the hominids (Vogel, 1966, 1968; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Harrison, 1987). However, as noted above, there is disagreement over the degree to which the hylobatid morphotype can be interpreted as primitive or derived for catarrhines and hominoids. Regarding the facial skeleton in particular, Benefit and McCrossin (1991) have suggested that the similarities between *Aegyptopithecus, Afropithecus* and *Victoriapithecus*, including a deep and prognathic face, are a better model for the primitive catarrhine condition, making the similarities between *Proconsul* and the great apes symplesiomorphic. Expanding on this, others have suggested that facial depth, prognathism and maxillary jugum development may be linked to allometric effects (Vogel 1968; Shea, 1983, 1984, 1985; Harrison, 1987).

Proconsul is similar to the hominids in having a broad anterior palate (Rae, 1999). While a narrower palate is symplesiomorphic for catarrhines (Andrews, 1985) others have interpreted the broad anterior palate as primitive for hominoids (Andrews, 1985; Zalmout, 2010) and not specific to the great apes. Another character that has received little attention in the literature is the height of the naso-alveolar (subnasal) clivus. Andrews (1985) identified a low clivus as primitive for catarrhines. Rae (1999) demonstrated that while hylobatids and cercopithecoids express a primitively short clivus, *Proconsul* and the hominids possess a taller clivus.

The lack of ischial callosities in *Proconsul* and the hominids may be synapomorphic (Walker and Teaford, 1989), though this character may also be interpreted as symplesiomorphically shared between *Proconsul* and stem catarrhines (Harrison and Sanders, 1999). The only other postcranial features that may support a close relationship between

Proconsul and the hominids are drawn from the hand and foot. The presence of a dorsal tubercle on the proximolateral margin of the trapezium-MC1 facet is present in both *Proconsul* and the hominids (Lewis, 1977; Beard, 1986; Rae, 1999). Beard (1986) argues, however, that the gracile, palmarly oriented tubercle in *Proconsul* differs significantly from the robust, laterally oriented morphology seen among hominids. *Proconsul* also possesses a metacarpo-capitate facet that is proximally directed and dorso-palmarly elongated similar to hominids (Rose, 1997; Moyà-Solà, 1999). *Proconsul* has a flexible, grasping foot with a mobile ankle and generally appears similar in its foot and ankle morphology to the primitive anthropoid pattern. However, the shallow navicular and slightly sellar naviculo-cuneiform facet is similar to that seen in the great apes (Sarmiento, 1983; Langdon, 1984; Szalay and Langdon, 1986; Rose, 1986; Ward, 1997). The talus of *Proconsul* also exhibits similarities to the hominid condition, with a deep, sharply defined trochlea and overall similarity in shape and degree of curvature (Langdon, 1984). The talo-calcaneal facets are large and antero-medially expanded in *Proconsul* and the great apes (Langdon, 1984). However, a similar suite of features can be seen in many Miocene catarrhines and Oligocene anthropoids, suggesting that this morphology may be a plesiomorphic adaptation among anthropoids associated with arboreal quadrupedalism (Gebo, 1989; Ward, 1993; Rose, 1994; Seiffert et al., 2001; Dunsworth, 2006). This morphology is distinct primarily when compared to the close-packed articulations of cercopithecoids (Harrison, 1982, 1989; Strasser, 1988; Gebo, 1993; Seiffert et al., 2001). Whether the *Proconsul* foot conforms to the primitive arboreal quadrupedal anthropoid pattern or shares greater mobility at the mid-tarsus with extant hominids rests on the degree to which researchers choose to interpret intermediate variation for which cercopithecoids and hominoids represent the extreme ends.

1.2.3.1 H3 evolutionary implications

Inferences concerning the stem catarrhine morphotype for this hypothesis do not differ from H2. The basal hominoid morphotype is again inferred to be similar to *Proconsul*. Hylobatids may approximate the basal hominoid condition or have acquired their unique adaptations to suspension and brachiation independently of the other hominoids (Gebo, 1997; Young and MacLatchy, 2004). *Proconsul* most closely approximates the ancestral hominid morphotype, possessing cranial synapomorphies (see above) linking it with extant hominids (Rae, 1993, 1999). Certain postcranial similarities including loss of the ischial callosities and adaptations related to mobility in the ankle and foot are synapomorphic for a clade including *Proconsul* and crown hominids.

1.3 PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSES

This dissertation approaches the problem of how to distinguish between stem catarrhines and stem hominoids by testing alternative hypotheses concerning the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul.* Perceived by most authorities as an archetypal stem hominoid, the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* is often assumed rather than tested. It most often appears in phylogenetic analyses as a de facto outgroup in analyses of hominoids (Moyà-Solà et al., 1995; Begun and Kordos, 1997; Cameron, 1997; Begun, 2002; Finarelli and Clyde, 2004). Few analyses (Rae, 1993, 1999; Rossie, 2008; Zalmout et al., 2010) have been conducted that address all three prevailing phylogenetic hypotheses tested in this dissertation: H1- *Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine, H2- *Proconsul* is a stem hominoid, and H3- *Proconsul* is a stem hominid. Here I review phylogenetic analyses that have included *Proconsul* as an ingroup taxon.

Begun and colleagues (1997) conducted a phylogenetic analysis including *Proconsul* and extant and Miocene hominoids. This analysis set the bar for Miocene hominoid systematics, with other researchers adding to this data set as new material was analyzed (Young and MacLatchy, 2004). The analysis included 240 characters drawn from across the skeleton. Begun et al. (1997) defined their outgroup by deducing primitive character states from observation of *Propliopithecus, Aegyptopitheucs, Epipliopithecus* and modern platyrrhines and cercopithecoids. *Proconsul* was inferred to be the sister taxon of all other extant and fossil taxa included in the analysis: *Pan, Gorilla, Pongo, Hylobates, Australopithecus, Dryopithecus, Sivapithecus, Lufengpithecus, Oreopithecus, Afropithecus* and *Kenyapithecus*. Begun et al. (1997) concluded that the results supported the position of *Proconsul* as a stem hominoid. However, by not including cercopithecoids in the ingroup, this analysis was not able to distinguish between stem hominoids and stem catarrhines. In this case, the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* is consistent with it being either a stem hominoid or a stem catarrhine.

Begun et al. (1997) did not discuss the significance of individual characters, but broadly argued that *Proconsul* shares with crown hominoids characters related to increased mobility of the limbs and greater manual and pedal grasping abilities. It has been well established that orthogrady and forelimb suspension, as exemplified by the extant hominoids, require a greater range of joint mobility in the limbs. This includes the ability to raise the forelimb above the head, increased extension possible at both shoulder and hip, a greater ability to abduct both hind and forelimb in the medio-lateral plane and a greater degree of rotation at the elbow and abduction and adduction at the wrist (Gomberg, 1981; Rose, 1987, 1994; Lewis, 1989; Ward et al., 1993). This mobility is accompanied by specializations of the hand for powerful grasping of arboreal supports (Rose, 1983, 1988; Walker and Pickford, 1983; Begun et al., 1994; Kelley, 1997; Nakatsukasa et al., 1998, 2002, 2003).

Young and MacLatchy (2004) extended the Begun et al. (1997) analysis by adding 13 postcranial characters and two fossil catarrhines: *Morotopithecus,* an early Miocene catarrhine from Uganda, and *Rudapithecus*, a late Miocene hominid from Hungary. They also ran phylogenetic analyses using the data sets of Moyà-Solà and Kohler (1995) and Cameron (1997), but these analyses did not include *Proconsul* in the ingroup so will not be discussed here. Young and MacLatchy's results placed *Proconsul* in a clade with *Afropithecus* and *Kenyapithecus* as a stem hominoid. Once again without inclusion of cercopithecoids these results cannot be used to distinguish between whether *Proconsul* is a stem hominoid or a more basal stem catarrhine. Additionally, disagreement concerning the phylogenetic position of *Afropithecus—*with some researchers placing it within Hominoidea (Gebo et al., 1997; MacLatchy, 2004) and others among stem catarrhines (Harrison, 2010)—means this result could be used to support H1*.* Each of the additional characters added to the Begun et al. (1997) data set either grouped *Proconsul* with cercopithecoids or linked *Proconsul* and hylobatids to the exclusion of other fossil and other extant apes.

More recently, Zalmout et al. (2010) included *Proconsul* in a phylogenetic analysis of the Oligocene catarrhine *Saadanius*. They included a sample of 36 cranial and postcranial characters for 19 taxa of Oligocene and Miocene stem catarrhines and hominoids, as well as one stem cercopithecoid, *Victoriapithecus* and two extant hominoids, *Pan* and *Hylobates. Aegyptopithecus* was used as the outgroup. Their final results placed Proconsulidae (including *Afropithecus, Heliopithecus, Morotopithecus, Turkanapithecus, Nyanzapithecus, Rangwapithecus, Nacholapithecus, Equatorius, P. heseloni* and *P. nyanzae*) as the sister group to extant

hominoids. They constrained this set of taxa as monophyletic despite their unconstrained analysis identifying Proconsulidae as paraphyletic. Eight synapomorphies were identified linking proconsulids to crown hominoids: increase in body size, broad anterior palate, pronounced alveolar prognathism, tail loss, a deep and narrow zona conoidea, deep olecranon fossa, absence of entepicondylar foramen and epitrochlear fossa. A surprising result from their unconstrained analysis placed *Victoriapithecus* closer to the base of the catarrhine tree than *Epipliopithecus*. This indicates their analysis was unable to parse out derived cercopithecoid and crown catarrhine characters. The inclusion of crown cercopithecoids may have helped resolve this issue by linking *Victoriapithecus* to the more derived morphology of extant cercopithecoids and thereby also better rooting the crown catarrhine morphotype.

It is useful to discuss each synapomorphy identified by Zalmout et al. (2010) in order to fully consider the implications of their results, as many of these characters are difficult to interpret. Even considering only extant taxa, there is a wide range of body sizes among extant apes. If one only considers the great apes, they can be clearly distinguished from the mostly small to medium sized cercopithecoids. However, the larger bodied papionins as well as *Nasalis* challenge this dichotomous characterization. *Proconsul* exhibits a range of body sizes, with the large bodied *P. major* estimated at 60-90 kg (Rafferty et al., 1995; Ruff, 2003), comparable in size to a female gorilla, while the smaller species, *P. heseloni* and *P. africanus,* are similar in body mass to siamangs with an estimate of 9-15 kg (Rafferty et al., 1995; Ruff, 2003). Many extant hylobatids are even smaller. Among Zalmout's constrained proconsulid clade, *Nyanzapithecus, Turkanapithecus*, *Rangwapithecus, Nacholapithecus and Equatorius* all may be

considered medium-sized catarrhines (Harrison, 2010). Zalmout et al. (2010) infer a large bodied

most recent common ancestor for proconsulids and hominoids, but if this is the case then it must accommodate many character reversals.

Among cranial characters, pronounced alveolar prognathism and a broad anterior palate were identified as proconsulid + hominoid synapomorphies. As discussed above, the wide diversity of facial morphs present among fossil catarrhines, with ambiguous or contradictory signals relative to extant clades, makes inferring character polarities for these features problematic. Some even suggest that in its degree of prognathism and facial orientation *Proconsul* is more similar to cercopithecines (Moyà-Solà, 2009).

Perhaps the most notable diagnostic character distinguishing extant hominoids and cercopithecoids is the absence of a tail (Ward and Walker, 1991; Ward, 1993; McCrossin, 1994; Harrison, 1998; Nakatsukasa et al., 2003, 2004; Larson and Stern, 2006). All extant New World monkeys and most Old World monkeys possess tails, suggesting the ancestral anthropoids and catarrhines also possessed tails. Caudal vertebrae have not been found for *Proconsul*, despite the wealth of fossil remains that have been recovered for this taxon, leading most researchers to infer that *Proconsul* did not have a tail (Ward and Walker, 1991; Ward, 1993; McCrossin, 1994; Nakatsukasa et al., 2003, 2004; Larson and stern, 2006). Harrison (1998) suggested that vertebrae recovered from Kaswanga Primate Site on Rusinga Island, Kenya were caudal vertebrae providing evidence of a tail. Ward and Walker (1991; Ward et al., 1999), however, suggested that these vertebrae were actually last sacral vertebrae whose morphology indicated that *Proconsul* did not have a tail. Further evidence for presence of a tail may be indicated by the size of the ischial spine (McCrossin and Benefit, 1992; McCrossin, 1994; Benefit and McCrossin, 1995). The ischial spine serves as the origin for tail abductor and depressor muscles. In apes these muscles are reorganized to support the pelvic viscera and the ischial spine is moved

more superiorly on the ischium. In *Proconsul*, the position of the ischial spine is more similar to that seen in primates with mobile tails than in the tail-less apes (McCrossin and Benefit, 1992; McCrossin, 1994; Benefit and McCrossin, 1995). Russo (2016) used sacral morphology to create a predictive framework for inferring tail morphology among fossils and inferred *Proconsul* was tail-less based on the degree of tapering of the last sacral vertebrae (following Ward et al., 1991), medio-lateral breadth of the transverse process and caudal articular surface shape. Other evidence from the fossil record comes not from *Proconsul,* but from *Nacholapithecus*, a contemporaneous Miocene catarrhine that Harrison (2010) places within the afropithecine proconsulids. This taxon has been definitively demonstrated to lack a tail through the presence of a coccyx and has led researchers to infer other members of the clade are also likely to have been tail-less (Nakatsukasa et al., 2003). Given this body of evidence (or lack of), it is likely *Proconsul* also lacked a tail, though there is evidence of multiple cases of tail loss among catarrhines questioning the significance of this character. Pig tailed macaques have undergone tail reduction—though not complete tail-loss--(Wilson, 1972; Larson and Stern, 2006) and while there have been various proposed adaptive explanations, none would explain the convergence between macaques and Miocene catarrhines.

Zalmout et al. (2010) identified two characters from the elbow—possession of a deep narrow zona conoidea and deep olecranon fossa—that form a subset of the suite of characters used by researchers to describe the hominoid-like affinities of the *Proconsul* elbow discussed in detail in the previous section. The final two characters –lack of an entepicondylar foramen and dorsal epitrochlear fossa—are commonly used to distinguish crown catarrhines from stem catarrhines (Harrison, 2013). The entepicondylar foramen is a primitive placental mammal character shared by many strepsirrhines, fossil anthropoids and ceboids, but is lost in crown

catarrhines (Fleagle et al., 1982). The dorsal epitrochlear fossa is also present among many stem catarrhines and platyrrhines, but is absent in both cercopithecoids and hominoids (Conroy, 1976; Fleagle and Kay, 1987; Harrison, 1987, 2013).

Rossie (2008) investigated the comparative morphology of the paranasal sinuses and tested the phylogenetic hypotheses of Harrison (1987), Begun et al., (1997) and Cameron (1997). Rossie (2008) assessed which was the most parsimonious scenario using the distribution of paranasal sinus anatomy in anthropoids. Based on the results, Rossie could not distinguish between the hypotheses, with each representing equally parsimonious possibilities.

Paranasal sinuses have been central in arguments linking *Proconsul* and other Miocene hominoids with extant lineages. The presence of a frontal sinus in particular has been used to argue that *Proconsul* is linked to extant great apes (Clark and Leakey, 1951; Walker and Pickford, 1983; Walker and Teaford, 1989; Andrews, 1992; Walker, 1997; Rae and Koppe, 2004). Enlargement of the paranasal and particularly the maxillary sinuses have been discussed as a hominoid trait (Andrews and Martin, 1987). Others contend that paranasal sinuses and particularly the frontal sinus are symplesiomorphic for anthropoids, given that they are present in many platyrrhines (Hershkovitz, 1977; Rae, 1999b, 2000; Rossie et al., 20002, 2005; Rae and Koppe, 2004). As researchers explored the complex morphology of the paranasal sinuses the evolutionary significance became even less clear. Maxillary sinuses are common across mammals and highly variable (Rossie, 2008). Among catarrhines, maxillary sinus morphology is variable, with loss of the maxillary sinus in most cercopithecoids (Rae, 1993; Rae et al., 2002; Rossie, 2008) and a range of variation in Miocene and extant hominoids (Andrews, 1978; Ward and Pilbeam, 1983; Teaford et al., 1988). The frontal sinus has been shown to be an expansion of the ethmoid sinuses in African apes and humans and appears to be a shared derived feature of

the clade. In hominines and *Proconsul* the ethmoid and frontal sinuses expand to form an ethmoid labyrinth (Rossie, 2005, 2008). Rossie et al. (2002) demonstrated that *Aegyptopithecus zeuxis*, a stem catarrhine, also possesses an ethmoidal labyrinth suggesting this morphology is probably primitive for catarrhines. Interpretation is further complicated, however, by the lack of an ethmoidal labyrinth in all platyrrhines, cercopithecoids and the Asian apes (Rossie, 2008). The frontal sinus is also difficult to interpret as it is widely distributed across anthropoids and its morphology is highly variable. Rossie (2005) argued that given that its taxonomic distribution it cannot be used as a hominine synapomorphy or to link Miocene taxa to crown lineages. Without a confident assessment of homology it cannot be evaluated for its phylogenetic signal (Rossie, 2008).

Rossie and MacLatchy (2006) performed one of the most comprehensive phylogenetic analyses of catarrhines to date. They included 191 craniodental and postcranial characters focused on resolving the phylogenetic position of *Lomorupithecus*. *Proconsul* was included in the ingroup and the platyrrhine taxa *Ateles, Saimiri and Cebus* comprised the outgroup clade. Cercopithecoids were included in the analysis. Their results placed *Lomorupithecus* with the pliopithecoids, but was unable to resolve the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*. *Proconsul* was placed in a clade including all catarrhine taxa except the pliopithecoids, *Aegyptopithecus* and *Catopithecus*. Extant cercopithecoids formed a clade, as did extant hominoids and nyanzapithecines, but the relationships between these clades, *Proconsul* and other catarrhines included in the analysis were unresolved.

Rae (1993, 1999) conducted a phylogenetic analysis focused on the position of *Proconsul*, which included both extant cercopithecoids and hominoids in the ingroup and platyrrhines as a chimeric outgroup. The analysis considered facial morphology independently

from the rest of the skeleton and, based on 12 facial characters, including four hominid synapomorphies, inferred that *Proconsul* was a hominid (Rae, 1993). A subsequent analysis (Rae, 1999) incorporated 79 additional postcranial characters, testing whether postcranial and facial characters exhibited differing phylogenetic signals. His results identified 13 hominoid + *Proconsul* synapomorphies in the postcranium, this time inferring *Proconsul* to be a stem hominoid (Rae, 1999). Rae (1999, 2004) concluded that hylobatids represent a derived lineage perhaps undergoing character reversals to the primitive condition, while hominids are a better model for the ancestral hominoid morphotype. This explains the seemingly contradictory results from facial and postcranial skeletons. Rae (1999, 2004) further argued that the incongruity between these data sets suggests that the changes in the hominoid facial skeleton preceded the locomotor adaptations considered characteristic of hominoids.

The four facial synapomorphies linking *Proconsul* with hominoids are: configuration of the premaxillo-nasal suture, nasals flat and non-projecting across the bridge of the nose, a wide anterior palate, a tall naso-alveolar clivus (see discussion from previous section). The thirteen postcranial synapomorphies include two characters describing beveling of the radial head as it relates to depth of the zona conoidea and stability across the radio-humeral joint. A majority of characters were drawn from the carpus, including: morphology of the trapezial tubercle, pisiform-ulnar articulation, pisiform-trapezium articular ridge and facet form and triquetral-ulnar articulation. The final characters were taken from vertebral morphology: caudal orientation of the neural spine, small anapophyses, six lumbar vertebrae and a narrow sacral canal. Loss or reduction of the anapophyses is likely related to a dorsally positioned transverse process (Ward, 1993; Nakatsukasa, 2007). Position of the transverse process reflects a reduction in the size of intrinsic muscles of the back as this position leaves less space for large back muscles (Ward,

1993; Nakatsukasa, 2007). Both features are present in hominoids, who do not have intrinsic back muscles as large as in the quadrupedal cercopithecoids or platyrrhines. During quadrupedal locomotion in non-hominoid anthropoids, flexion and extension of the spine, particularly in the lumbar region accompanies limb movements, increasing stride length (Jenkins, 1974; Preuschoft et al., 1979; Jungers, 1984; Shapiro, 1993; Ward, 1993; Sanders and Bodenbender, 1994; Johnson and Shapiro, 1998). During suspensory, bridging and vertical climbing behaviors, however, flexion and extension of the spine is limited to reduce the risk of buckling and to stabilize the spine (Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Jungers, 1984). A caudally oriented neural spine has also been linked to reduced lumbar mobility. This inference proceeds from convergence with non-primate climbing and suspensory mammals that possess more caudally oriented neural spines than their quadrupedal relatives (Lemellin, 1999; Argot, 2003; Nakatsukasa, 2007). Rae (1999) interprets *Proconsul* as falling on a linear trajectory of reduction in the number of lumbar vertebrae, identifying monkeys as having seven lumbar vertebrae, hylobatids and *Proconsul* having six and hominids having four to five. This is a simplification of the range of variation in lumbar vertebrae found among these groups (Ward, 1993; Williams and Russo, 2015). Considering the full range of variation, Ward (1993) argued that *Proconsul* is more similar to monkeys for this trait, though it is plausible that the intermediate morphology expressed by *Proconsul* may be indicative of an evolutionary trajectory leadings towards shortening of the lumbar region. Finally, sacral canal size and shape is linked to tail length (Ankel, 1972; Ward, 1991; Nakatsukasa, 2004; Russo, 2016) and a narrow V-shaped canal may be indicative of tail loss or reduction.

1.4 OVERVIEW

The Miocene fossil record is inconsistent with a linear progression of catarrhine evolution in which extant hominoids–with their skeletal adaptations to suspensory behaviors and orthograde body postures—become more derived over time relative to the quadrupedal cercopithecoids which more closely approximate the primitive catarrhine condition. Researchers have struggled with how best to resolve the position of fossil forms that may bear little resemblance to either the cercopithecoids or hominoids. This difficulty is further complicated by the great temporal and morphological divide between catarrhines and their closest living outgroup, the platyrrhines. The traditional view has historically been to place nearly all fossil non-cercopithecoid catarrhines within the hominoid clade. Reevaluation has led certain taxa to be removed, however, where there is little confidence or consensus many taxa remain referred to Hominoidea simply due to taxonomic convention with recognition that this placement results in a para- or polyphyletic hominoid clade.

Researchers have been unable to confidently resolve the phylogenetic relationships of basal catarrhine taxa falling near the divergence of the hominoid and cercopithecoid clades. The results of prior analyses highlight the need for a comprehensive analysis to address the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul.* Appropriate taxonomic sampling is imperative to address the range of possible hypotheses and previous analyses have limited the evolutionary scenarios they evaluated due to the difficulties of extensive taxonomic sampling (Begun et al., 1997; Young and MacLatchy, 2004; Zalmout, 2010). In morphology, more problematic than taxonomic sampling is character sampling. Recent advances in systematics have emphasized the importance of extensive characters lists as the prime driver of confident phylogenetic inference (Huelsenbeck, 1991; Wheeler, 1992; Wiens, 1998, 2003a, 2005; Wiens and Moen, 2008;

Prevosti and Cheminquy, 2010; Wiens and Tiu, 2012). Previous analyses prioritized carefully curated character lists over extensive sampling and the shift in our understanding of these methods has not yet been fully addressed in the current literature.

This dissertation strives to apply current morphological systematic methods to critically assessing the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* by collecting an extensive character list from a broad sample of living and fossil anthropoids. It will be the first application of Bayesian systematics and of recent advances in parsimony methods to address the phylogenetic relationships of *Proconsul*. I will test the three alternative hypotheses described above and will explore the evolutionary trajectories and ancestral morphotypes inherent in each evolutionary scenario. Results from this dissertation provide evidence regarding the timing and morphological affinities of basal crown catarrhine nodes and the position of *Proconsul* relative to the dichotomy between cercopithecoids and hominoids. It is the goal of this dissertation to provide greater confidence in the assessment of the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* in order to allow the study of catarrhine and hominoid evolution to rest on a confidently resolved foundation.

CHAPTER 2: MATERIALS

2.1 TAXONOMIC SAMPLING

 Catarrhine, platyrrhine and anthropoid ancestral morphotypes are not well established and yet all analyses conducted in this thesis are necessarily built on a framework defined by the morphology at these basal nodes. Character polarities in phylogenetic analyses are dependent on the relationships between ingroup taxa and a definitional primitive taxon: the outgroup (Hennig, 1966; Hillis, 1996, 1998; Graybeal, 1998; Scotland et al., 2003). It is essential to carefully select one's outgroup based on the evolutionary questions one wishes to ask. An outgroup must be as indicative of primitive morphology for your ingroup as possible. It also will ideally be closely related to your ingroup in order to best approximate a primitive morphotype and limit the amount of time for character evolution between the outgroup and the most basal ingroup taxon. There also must not be any ambiguity concerning how the outgroup and ingroup are related as all analyses begin by asserting, as opposed to testing, the ingroup/outgroup relationship. Selection of an outgroup for analyses of crown catarrhine relationships is, as a result of these considerations, challenging and fulfilling all of these requirements is not always possible. As discussed in the previous chapter, many analyses have been hampered by inappropriate outgroup selection leading to potentially misleading results. By using cercopithecoids as an outgroup in an analysis of hominoid relationships, a researcher defines cercopithecoid morphology as primitive and uses it as the starting point from which all other morphological changes among hominoids proceed. In order to be confident in the ingroup/outgroup relationship extant taxa should be preferred. A platyrrhine is the nearest extant primate that may serve as an outgroup to catarrhines; however, there is not consensus as to which platyrrhine best approximates the

primitive platyrrhine morphotype and certainly they are all derived relative to the primitive condition. To best confront this issue, a wide sampling of extant platyrrhines are used as an outgroup clade. Given that extant platyrrhines are a distant outgroup, the confidently inferred (see discussion below) basal catarrhines *Epipliopithecus* and *Aegyptopithecus* are used as successive outgroups.

Taxonomic sampling within the ingroup can also bias results before analysis begins. Sampling must reflect the hypotheses being addressed. As was discussed in the introduction, a phylogenetic analysis inferring *Proconsul* forms a clade with extant hominoids to the exclusion of basal catarrhines where cercopithecoids are not included in the analysis, can only infer *Proconsul* is more closely related to crown catarrhines than basal catarrhines. One can only infer *Proconsul* is a hominoid if it is shown to diverge from the hominoid lineage after the origination of the cercopithecoids. Where cercopithecoids are left out of the ingroup there is no way to identify topographically the distinction between crown catarrhines and hominoids. The problem of incomplete taxonomic sampling leading to potentially misleading conclusions has hampered phylogenetic analyses of *Proconsul* in the past (see discussion above). By including a broad sampling of platyrrhine taxa as an outgroup clade, sampling widely within cercopithecoids and hominoids and including stem catarrhines as a successive outgroup, I am better positioned to evaluate the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* relative to each of these groups.

Inferring character polarities is particularly difficult in cases where there is little resolution in the evolutionary relationships near the root of the tree and when long branches separate major clades. Sampling stem taxa and fossils may help break up these long branches and provide valuable information concerning character polarities (Hillis and Wiens, 2000). Adding more taxa, however, also adds more variation, which has the potential to increase

ambiguity in the directionality of character changes (Kim, 1996; Graybeal, 1998; Poe, 1998; Rosenberg and Kumar, 2001; Hillis et al., 2003; Scotland et al., 2003). The difficulties of this increased ambiguity, however, do not outweigh the benefits from broad taxonomic sampling (Hillis and Wiens, 2000). Additionally, taxonomic sampling is essential to including the full spectrum of variation within clades. The case of *Proconsul* is particularly illustrative of this issue, as many characters previously thought synapomorphic for a clade including *Proconsul* within Hominoidea were questioned when the same variation was identified outside of Hominoidea (see chapter 1). As such, I have included representative taxa from each major extant catarrhine clade and fossils have been selected as stem representatives of major clades. Fossil taxa were selected as those with the best representation across the skeleton. The decision to limit sampling of fossil taxa to only those most complete specimens was made not only to ensure adequate sampling across the skeleton, but also to allow for direct focus on the taxon of interest: *Proconsul.* Limiting included fossil taxa to those with no disagreement in the literature regarding their phylogenetic inclusion within major clades was deemed essential to most confidently constraining extant clades and helping root character polarities. This meant some well sampled fossils such as *Nacholapithecus* and *Turkanapithecus* were not included. The wide range of morphological variation present among Miocene forms (Harrison, 1993, 2010; Begun, 2002) makes for a difficult phylogenetic problem. While other analyses have sampled more broadly and this is recognized as a valuable and often desirable sampling strategy, this dissertation chose another priority—to focus explicitly on *Proconsul* and eliminate the potential confounding effects of a wider range of variation (Kim, 1996, 1998; Rosenberg and Kumar, 2003; DeBry, 2005). Additionally, in order to accommodate the long branch separation between the platyrrhine outgroup and crown catarrhines, inclusion of a basal catarrhine was deemed

valuable. Unfortunately no individual taxon included all sampled characters making it necessary to include multiple fossil taxa, compromising one of the methodological choices of this dissertation to limit inclusion of fossil taxa that may hinder the success of phylogenetic analyses by introducing additional uncertainty into character polarity determination. *Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus* were deemed the most appropriate basal catarrhines to include in this successive outgroup as previous studies have placed them with reasonable confidence as successive sister taxa to all crown catarrhines and between them they cover the majority of sampled characters (Simons, 1987; Andrews et al., 1996; van der Made, 1999; Harrison, 2005; Seiffert, 2006; Zalmout et al., 2010).

Table 1. Taxonomy of extant and fossil species included in this study †Designates an extinct species

Order **Primates** Linnaeus, 1758 Semiorder **Haplorhini** Pocock, 1918 Suborder **Anthropoidea** Mivart, 1864 Infraorder **Platyrrhini** É. Geoffroy, 1812 Superfamily **Ceboidea** Simpson, 1931 Family **Pitheciidae** Mivart, 1865 Subfamily **Pitheciinae** Mivart, 1865 *Pithecia monachus* (Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, 1812) Family **Cebidae** Bonaparte, 1831 Subfamily **Cebinae** Bonaparte, 1831 *Cebus apella* **(**Linnaeus, 1758) Subfamily **Callitrichinae** Gray, 1821 *Saguinus oedipus* (Linnaeus, 1758) Subfamily **Saimiriinae** Miller, 1812 *Saimiri oerstedii* (Reinhardt, 1872) Family **Atelidae** Gray, 1825 Subfamily **Atelinae** Gray, 1825 Tribe **Atelini** Gray, 1825 *Ateles geoffroyi* Kuhl, 1820 Tribe **Alouattini** Trouessart, 1897 *Alouatta palliata* (Gray, 1848) Family **Aotidae** Poche, 1908 *Aotus azarae* (Humboldt, 1811) Infraorder **Catarrhini** É. Geoffroy, 1812 Superfamily **Propliopithecoidea** Straus, 1961 Family **Propliopithecidae** Straus, 1961

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Aegyptopithecus zeuxis Simons, 1965† 
Superfamily Pliopithecoidea Zapfe, 1960 
   Family Pliopithecidae Zapfe, 1960 
                 Epipliopithecus vindobonensis Zapfe & Hürzeler, 1957† 
Superfamily Proconsuloidea Leakey, 1963 
   Family Proconsulidae Leakey, 1963 
      Subfamily Proconsulinae Leakey, 1963 
                 Proconsul africanus Hopwood, 1933† 
                 Proconsul nyanzae Le Gros Clark & Leakey, 1950† 
                 Proconsul heseloni Walker et al., 1993† 
                 Proconsul major Le Gros Clark & Leakey, 1950† 
Superfamily Cercopithecoidea Gray, 1821 
   Family Cercopithecidae Gray, 1821 
      Subfamily Victoriapithecinae von Koenigswald, 1969 
                 Victoriapithecus macinnesi von Koenigswald, 1969† 
      Subfamily Cercopithecinae Gray, 1821
          Tribe Cercopithecini Gray, 1821 
                 Cercopithecus mitis Wolf, 1822 
                 Erythrocebus patas (Schreber, 1775) 
          Tribe Papionini Burnett, 1828 
                 Macaca nemestrina (Linnaeus, 1766) 
                 Papio cynocephalus (Linnaeus, 1766)
      Subfamily Colobinae Jerdon, 1867 
          Tribe Colobini Jerdon, 1867 
                 Colobus guereza Rüppell, 1835
          Tribe Presbytini Gray, 1825
                 Nasalis larvatus (Wurmb, 1787) 
                 Presbytis rubicundus (Müller, 1838)
Superfamily Hominoidea Gray, 1825 
   Family Hylobatidae Gray, 1870 
                 Hylobates lar (Linnaeus, 1771) 
                 Symphalangus syndactylus (Raffles, 1821) 
   Family Hominidae Gray, 1825 
      Subfamily Oreopithecinae Schwalbe, 1915 
                 Oreopithecus bambolii Gervais, 1872† 
      Subfamily Ponginae Elliot, 1913 
                 Pongo pygmaeus (Hoppius, 1760) 
      Subfamily Homininae Gray, 1825 
          Tribe Dryopithecini Gregory & Hellman, 1939 
                 Pierolapithecus catalaunicus Moyà-Solà et al., 2004† 
          Tribe Gorillini Frechkop, 1943 
                 Gorilla gorilla (Savage &Wyman, 1847) 
          Tribe Hominini Gray, 1825 
              Subtribe Panina Delson, 1977 
                 Pan troglodytes (Blumenbach, 1775)
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2.1.1 Samples of Extant Anthropoids

This study sampled seven platyrrhine taxa (table 1): *Pithecia, Saimiri, Cebus, Alouatta, Ateles, Saguinus* and *Aotus*. Within the ingroup, seven extant cercopithecoids (*Cercopithecus, Erythrocebus, Colobus, Papio, Presbytis, Nasalis and Macaca*) and five extant hominoids (*Hylobates, Symphalangus, Pongo, Gorilla* and *Pan*) were sampled. This broad taxonomic sampling, representing each of the major clades within Anthropoidea (i.e., Pitheciidae, Cebidae, Atelidae, Cercopithecinae, Colobinae, Hylobatidae, Hominidae), is necessary to represent morphological diversity within the suborder. The target sample size for extant species was 20 individuals, with 10 males and 10 females each.

While many of these taxa are derived and will significantly expand the range of variation encompassed within the extant sample, it is necessary to sample comprehensively across crown taxa in order not to make a priori decisions about what variation to include. This reasoning differs from that used to select fossil taxa as phylogenetic position is unambiguous for most extant taxa based on molecular studies (Purvis, 1995; Page and Goodman, 2001; Perelman et al., 2011).

absolute number of specimens for each region. Abbrevitions: MC- metacarpals, MT- metatarsals												
Genus	% complete	N	Cranial	Mandible	Pelvis	Radius	Ulna	Humerus	MC	Carpals	MT	Tarsals
All Proconsul	100.00	177	10	14	$\overline{2}$	5	$\overline{7}$	6	14	37	25	57
P. africanus	20.20	18	3	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	1	0	1	8	1	4
P. heseloni	89.60	109	6	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{4}$	3	13	24	19	33
P. nyanzae	42.29	37	1	8	1	0	1	$\overline{2}$	Ω	5	4	15
P. major	17.87	13	Ω	4	Ω	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$		Ω	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	5
Epipliopithecus	70.62	39	2	3	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	3	$\overline{2}$	6	7	7	5
Aegyptopithecus	35.25	40	13	16	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	6	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	3
Victoriapithecus	67.68	117	4	7	$\overline{2}$	0	11	13	5	27	$\overline{2}$	46
Oreopithecus	47.86	54	$\overline{2}$	1	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	3	4	6	15	20
Pierolapithecus	9.06	14	1	Ω	0	0	0	0	$\overline{2}$	7		3

Table 2. Fossil samples used in this study "% complete" refers to the percent of characters sampled for each taxon. All other numbers in the table are the

2.1.2 Samples of fossil catarrhines

Fossil taxa (Table 2) were chosen based on their representation in the fossil record. Particular emphasis was placed on choosing fossils that sampled across the skeleton, from each of the morphological regions included in this analysis. By including stem members of Hominoidea and Cercopithecoidea I am including additional data from other Miocene taxa, potentially breaking up branches separating *Proconsul* from extant catarrhines. This helps root character polarities at the base of the crown catarrhine lineage.

Two fossil catarrhines were included in this analysis that are widely considered to represent basal clades: Pliopithecidae and Propliopithecidae (Simons, 1987; Andrews et al., 1996; van der Made, 1999; Harrison, 2005; Seiffert, 2006; Zalmout et al., 2010). Their inclusion incorporates basal catarrhine outgroups—in addition to the platyrrhine outgroup—in order to break up the long branches separating platyrrhines from crown catarrhines. It will help establish the inferred ancestral character states for the anthropoid and catarrhine morphotypes. The lack of consensus concerning stem catarrhine relationships is a key component of the difficulty in inferring the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* that will be partially confronted by their addition*.*

2.1.2.1 *Aegyptopithecus zeuxis*

Aegyptopithecus is an Oligocene catarrhine known from the Fayum from 30-29 Ma (Seiffert, 2006). It belongs to Propliopithecoidea, a stem catarrhine group and the earlier of the two basal groups sampled in this analysis. *Aegyptopithecus* was selected as a well-represented fossil propliopithecid, known from numerous cranial and postcranial specimens. This taxon possesses a number of features (see below) that place it with reasonable confidence as a stem

catarrhine, falling within the catarrhine clade, but lacking the derived morphology of either crown catarrhine clade.

Phenetic similarities in facial morphology shared with *Victoriapithecus* and *Afropithecus* (Leakey & Leakey, 1986; Simons, 1987; Leakey et al.. 1988, 1991; Benefit & McCrossin, 1991, 1993)—including a relatively long snout, wide inter-orbital region and moderate face length have been argued to be indicative of the primitive catarrhine morphology (Benefit and McCrossin, 1993). Additionally, *Aegyptopithecus* possesses a suite of primitive catarrhine features lost in the crown catarrhines including a distal humerus that primitively retains an entepicondylar foramen and dorsal epitrochlear fossa, an annular ectotympanic, broad ascending wing of the premaxilla and an atrioturbinal in the nasal cavity (Seiffert et al., 2010; Harrison, 2013). *Aegyptopithecus* has served as a baseline for defining the ancestral catarrhine morphotype in both cladistic and phenetic discussions of later catarrhine morphology (Rose, 1983; Leakey et al., 1991; Rossie et al., 2002; Zalmout et al., 2010; Perez et al., 2012).

Data on *Aegyptopithecus* were collected from the Duke Primate Center (DPC) and included 40 specimens, with 10 partial crania, 16 partial mandibles, six distal humeri, one ulna, three tali and one 4th metatarsal (table 2). Data were also collected on casts of three partial crania of which the originals are housed at the Cairo Geological Museum: CGM40237, CGM42842, CGM85785. All specimens were from Localities I and M in the Jebel Qatrani Formation, Fayum Province, Egypt (Simons, 1965, 1967). Across all specimens of this genus, 35.25% of total number of characters evaluated in this study were sampled.

2.1.2.2 *Epipliopithecus vindobonensis*

Epipliopithecus vindobonensis is a pliopithecoid from the middle Miocene of Central Europe, dated to ~15 Ma (Zapfe & Hürzeler, 1957; Zapfe, 1958, 1960; Ginsburg, 1986; Andrews et al., 1996; Harrison and Gu, 1999; Begun, 2002; Alba et al., 2010). The pliopithecoids were the first catarrhine lineage to disperse out of Africa into Eurasia (Andrews et al., 1996; Rögl, 1999; van der Made, 1999; Harrison, 2005). The postcranial skeleton of *Epipliopithecus* is indicative of a generalized, above-branch quadruped (Zapfe 1960; Fleagle 1983; Rose 1983, 1993; Harrison, 2013). Mobile limb joints suggest climbing, bridging and suspensory behaviors were part of its locomotor repertoire (Zapfe, 1960; Scherf, 2007; Ward, 2007; Rein et al., 2011; Harrison, 2013). *Epipliopithecus* possesses an entepicondylar foramen in its distal humerus, similar to that of *Aegyptopithecu*s, but is more derived in possessing a short, partially enclosed ectotympanic tube differing from the platyrrhine annular morphology also exhibited by *Aegyptopithecus* and potentially approaching the derived extant catarrhine tube-like ectotympanic (Zapfe, 1960; Delson & Andrews, 1975; Szalay & Delson, 1979; Harrison, 1987; Begun, 2002; Harrison, 2005; Alba et al., 2010). *Epipliopithecus* has a relatively short snout and broad face, unlike *Aegyptopithecus*. The presence of both a long and short facial morph among these early catarrhine fossils makes inference of the primitive condition uncertain. Together, these features place this taxon along with *Aegyptopithecus* as basal to crown catarrhines. The differences in cranial and particularly facial morphology between *Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus* have led to disagreements in the literature over the primitive catarrhine morphotype (Leakey & Leakey, 1986; Simons, 1987; Leakey et al., 1988, 1991; Benefit & McCrossin, 1991, 1993). The facial morphology of the stem catarrhine *Saadanius* appears most similar to the *Aegyptopithecus* facial morphology (Zalmout et al., 2010) suggesting the long facial morph was common among stem catarrhines, though it does not resolve the difficulty to inferring character polarity caused by having both morphs represented in the stem catarrhine sample. While it is unreasonable to assume these two taxa represent the range of variation

present among the earliest catarrhines, they are the best representatives currently available and, by including both, incorporate some of the diversity present early in catarrhine evolution.

Data on *Epipliopithecus vindobonensis* were collected at the Naturhistorisches Museums in Vienna and Basel. Specimens included four individuals and sampled multiple anatomical elements across all regions. *Epipliopithecus* sampled 70.62% of characters (table 2).

2.1.2.3 *Victoriapithecus*

Victoriapithecus is the only stem cercopithecoid included in this analysis, as the best represented Miocene Old World monkey. *Victoriapithecus* is found in eastern Africa from 19.5- 12.5 mya (Gundling & Hill, 2000; Benefit and McCrossin, 2002; Miller et al., 2009; Gilbert et. al, 2010). It possesses derived features in its craniodental anatomy linking it with extant cercopithecoids, particularly their diagnostic bilophodont molars. *Victoriapithecus* lacks, however, the specialization in molar morphology that distinguishes extant colobines and cercopithecines and possesses a number of primitive features in its dentition not shared with extant cercopithecoids including: variable presence of the crista obliqua on the upper molars and small hypoconulids on the lower molars (Benefit, 1993, 1999; Miller et al., 2009). These features are shared by non-cercopithecoid primates and suggest this taxon is best positioned at the base of the cercopithecoid lineage. Additionally, it retains a number of primitive catarrhine features in the facial skeleton, appearing similar to *Aegyptopithecus*. These include: a long snout, wide palate, tall orbits, supra-orbital costae with a frontal trigone and deep malar region of the zygomatic (Szalay & Delson, 1979; Benefit and McCrossin, 1991, 1993, 1997, 2002; Benefit, 1999; Jablonski & Frost, 2010). When compared to extant cercopithecoids, *Victoriapithecus* generally exhibits more similarities with cercopithecines than with colobines due to postcranial features indicating at least semi-terrestriality and morphology of the snout and cranial vault

(Szalay & Delson, 1979; Harrison, 1989; Benefit, 1999; Benefit and McCrossin, 2002; Jablonski and Frost, 2010). Postcranially, the narrow distal humerus, stout phalanges and limited flexibility at the elbow, hip and ankle all suggest a degree of terrestrially similar to modern vervet monkeys (Von Koenigswald, 1969; Delson, 1975; Senut, 1986; Harrison, 1989; McCrossin & Benefit, 1992; Benefit and McCrossin, 1995, 2002; McCrossin et al., 1998)

Data were collected from 117 specimens representing each region except the radius, for which no specimens were available. All data were collected at the National Museum of Kenya in Nairobi. For *Victoriapithecus* 67.68% of characters were sampled (table 2).

2.1.3 Fossil hominoids

Two fossil hominoids were sampled in order to help root the stem hominoid node. *Oreopithecus* and *Pierolapithecus* were chosen as they each include partial skeletons and thus sample features across the skeleton. *Hispanopithecus* was not included as the available material included more than 80% missing data and did not include the characters utilized in controlling for allometric effects, meaning cranial and post-cranial elements could not have been included. The included taxa sample all regions in this analysis with the exception of the pelvis, as the preservation of the *Oreopithecus* pelvis did not allow for the pelvic characters included to be reliably collected (table 2). It was particularly important in selecting hominoid taxa that there is no disagreement in the literature regarding their inclusion within Hominoidea. This meant other well sampled fossils such as *Equatorius, Nacholapithecus* and *Turkanapithecus* were not included (Harrison, 2010). Fossil taxa falling further up the hominoid tree (e.g. *Dryopithecus, Sivapithecus*) were also not included as only those taxa deemed necessary to root major crown clades were included (See discussion above).

2.1.3.1 *Oreopithecus*

Oreopithecus bambolii is a late Miocene ape from Italy. It has been one of the more contentious fossils since it was first described (Gervais, 1872). This taxon has been suggested to be a cercopithecoid (Gervais, 1872; Gregory, 1922; Simons, 1972; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Riesenfeld, 1975; Rosenberger and Delson, 1985), stem hominid (Forsyth Major, 1880; Schwalbe, 1915; Harrison et al., 1991; Harrison, 1986; Sarmiento, 1987; Andrews et al., 1996; Cameron, 1997; Harrison & Rook, 1997; Begun, 2007) and basal hominin (Hürzeler, 1954, 1960; Strauss, 1963). It has been suggested to be similar to *Nyanzapithecus* (Harrison, 1986; Kunimatsu, 1992, 1997; McCrossin, 1992), which could also push it into the stem catarrhines (Gamarra et al., 2016). Despite a long history of contentious debate, consesnsus now rests on inclusion of *Oreopithecus* within Hominoidea (Harrison & Rook, 1997; Begun, 2002, 2007; Susman, 2005; Gamarra et al., 2016).

Oreopithecus possesses a long forelimb and short hind limb with a mobile hip and grasping foot well adapted to climbing and suspensory behaviors (Jungers, 1988, 1990; Sussman, 2005; Begun, 2007). Given that these postcranial similarities linking *Oreopithecus* to extant hominoids, recent researchers concur that this taxon should be included within Hominoidea (Stern and Jungers, 1985; Susman, 1985, 2005; Harrison, 1986, 1987, 1991; Harrison & Rook, 1997; Sarmiento, 1987, 1988; Rose, 1988, 1993; Fleagle, 1988; Senut, 1989; Martin, 1990; Begun, 2002, 2007). Craniodental morphology is more difficult to interpret with highly autapomorphic cranial features related to powerful chewing combined with cranial morphology including a small neurocranium that may be either primitive or autapomorphic (Harrison $\&$ Rook, 1997; Begun, 2007).

The *Oreopithecus* data were collected at the Naturhistorisches Museum in Basel and included 54 specimens from 26 individuals (table 2). All regions except the pelvis were

represented. The pelvis was excluded as its preservation did not allow for accurate collection of the characters included in this analysis. The final sample includes 52.14% missing data.

2.1.3.2 *Pierolapithecus*

Pierolapithecus catalaunicus is a middle Miocene ape from Spain. It possesses many features in its thorax and forelimb indicating it practiced suspensory behaviors and orthograde postures (Moyà-Solà et al., 2004; Almecija et al., 2009). Aspects of its facial anatomy align it with the hominids, suggesting it may either be a basal member of the Hominidae or fall closer to the root of the hominoid clade (Moyà-Solà et al., 2004; Perez de los Rios et al., 2012). Others point to cranio-dental characters that more closely align it with hominines (Begun et al., 1997; Begun and Ward, 2005; Begun et al., 2012). A mix of primitive hominoid and derived hominid characters across the skeleton make it a likely early member of the Hominidae (Moyà-Solà et al., 2004, 2009; Casanovas-Vilar et al., 2008, 2011).

Pierolapithecus material was studied at the Institut Catalá de Paleontologia. All material belonged to a single partial skeleton (IPS-21350). The sample comprised 14 specimens including: 1 partial cranium, 2 metacarpals, 7 carpals, 1 metatarsal and 3 tarsals (table 2). It included 90.94% missing data.

2.1.3.4 *Proconsul*

Proconsul includes as many as seven species: *P. africanus, P. heseloni, P. nyanzae, P. major, P. meswae, P. legetetensis* and *P. gitongai* (Pickford et al., 2009; McNulty et al., 2015; Harrison, 2010). However, some researchers prefer to allocate the latter four species to *Ugandapithecus* (Senut, 2000; Pickford et al., 2009), while others do not recognize *P. legetetensis* and propose *P. africanus* should also be included among these species, retaining *Proconsul* for this group and placing *P. heseloni* and *P. nyanzae* in the new genus *Ekembo*

(McNulty et al., 2015). This analysis will include *P. africanus*, *P. heseloni, P. nyanzae and P. major* from the early Miocene of Kenya and Uganda, because these are the best-represented taxa and allow inclusion of the most morphological characters. *P. africanus* is poorly sampled, but is included as the type species with 79.80% missing data.

Proconsul species are medium to large bodied catarrhines from the early and middle Miocene of Kenya and Uganda. *P. africanus*, the type species for the genus, was first described by Hopwood in 1933. This species, known from the early Miocene of western Kenya, is comparable in age to *P. major* at 19-20 Ma (Pickford, 1981). It is medium sized, ~9-15kg (Rafferty et al., 1995; Ruff, 2003), making it smaller than its contemporary *P. major* –the largest bodied *Proconsul* species, estimated at approximately 60-90kg (Harrison, 1982; Rafferty et al., 1995; Ruff, 2003). *P. major* is found at localities in eastern Uganda and western Kenya. The large body size and configuration of the proximal femur of *P. major* led researchers to suggest it may be different enough to be placed within its own genus (Senut et al., 2000; Pickford et al., 2009; McNulty et al., 2015). Further exploration of the *Proconsul* hypodigm identified dental synapomorphies shared by *P. major* with *P. gitongai, P. meswae* and *P. legetetensis*, leading some to suggest these taxa should be given that their own genus: *Ugandapithecus* (Senut et al., 2000; Pickford et al., 2009).

P. heseloni is well known, with multiple partial skeletons. This species may be younger than *P. africanus* and *P. major*, dating to 17.0-20 Ma (Peppe et al., 2009; McCollum et al., 2013; McNulty et al., 2015). It is similar in body size to *P. africanus* and smaller than the contemporaneous *P. nyanzae* (~20-50kg) (Rafferty et al., 1995; Ruff, 2003). Both *P. heseloni* and *P. nyanzae* are known from Rusinga and Mfwangano islands in Kenya (Drake et al., 1988). McNulty et al. (2015) combine these two taxa into the new genus *Ekembo* based on a suite of

dentognathic characters (Harrison, 2010) including: lacking the derived blade-like canine morphology present in other *Proconsul* taxa, molars that are more bunodont with inflated occlusal crests that contribute to the cusps themselves, reduced heteromorphy of the premolars and vertical inclination of the planum alveolare. Many of these characters were used by Senut and colleagues (2000) to distinguish between *Proconsul* and *Ugandapithecus—*though differing in the taxonomic designation of *P. africanus.*

Material was studied at the Kenya National Museum in Nairobi, with additional *P. major* material studied at the Uganda National Museum in Kampala and type specimen data collected from the British Natural History Museum in London. Data were collected from a total of 65 specimens and 177 individual elements (table 2). As only characters for which *Proconsul* data were present were included in the final data set, 100% of characters were sampled across all *Proconsul* species. *P. heseloni* is the best represented, with only 10.40% of characters missing.

Percentages refer to percent of the total sample. AlloOrdered characters are those characters that were influenced by allometric affect and were recoded into metric characters using the general allometric method

2.2 MORPHOLOGICAL DATA

Comprehensive, objective and unbiased character sampling must be a central tennet of a rigorous phylogenetic analysis. "Comprehensive" becomes a difficult value here and in any morphological analysis given how time intensive morphological sampling is. No analysis may

ever be able to be completely comprehensive in describing all morphological variation, leaving researchers to make choices in how they prioritize sampling. Sampling superficially across the entire skeleton is one manner of being comprehensive. This is the most applied mehod within paleoanthropology, though it requires prioritizing some characters over others within morphologic regions. Instead of choosing to limit sampling by some means of character selection within regions, this dissertation limits sampling by region only, striving to collect as much variation as possible within included regions as an alternate means of attempting to limit character selection bias. While both of these methods are ultimately vulnerable to character selection bias it is for different reasons. The method of character selection presented here is novel and suffers from different biases, but by approaching the problem of selection bias in a different manner it confronts the question of the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* with an entirely unique data set. This method does limit the regions of the skeleton that may be sampled and results must be considered in terms of what regions were the focus of analysis.

Four morphological regions were sampled in this analysis: the skull, forelimb, pelvis and foot. While sampling across the full skeleton would be ideal, given that the level of morphological detail and the broad sampling of taxa needed to generate statistically robust results, it was necessary for practical purposes to limit the regions sampled. Particular attention was paid to anatomical regions represented in *Proconsul*, with fewer characters included from other regions. These morphological regions were chosen as they have previously been found to be phylogenetically informative among catarrhine primates (Napier and Davis, 1959; Lewis, 1972; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Rose, 1983, 1992; Andrews, 1985; Beard, 1986; Szalay and Langdon, 1986; Ward, 1992, 1997, 2007; Dunsworth, 2006; Almecija et al., 2009) and because they are functionally disparate, representing four distinct structural-functional complexes (Table

3). The cranium and mandible are essential to include as this suite of morphology that plays a central role in species definitions, catarrhines exhibit a range of variation in their crania that is conducive to species designation (Begun, 1997; Young and MacLatchy, 2004; Rae, 1999, 2004; Zalmout, 2010). The forelimb has been central to debate concerning the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul,* with particular focus given that to the elbow (Napier and Davis, 1959; Andrews, 1985; Rose, 1988; Benefit and McCrossin, 1995; Rae, 1999; Gebo, 2009) and wrist (Lewis, 1972, 1989; O'Connor, 1975; Beard, 1986; Rose, 1992; Móya-Solá, 1999; Richmond, 2006). While the hindlimb is not as well represented for *Proconsul* as other anatomical regions, there are a number of specimens from the pes. The pelvis has also played an important role in the *Proconsul* debate, particularly concerning the evolution of ischial callosities (Ward, 1993; Harrison and Sanders, 1999) and is a region that may be easily added with few elements making data collection manageable. Certainly, there are other regions (notably the vertebral column) that have been implicated as being central to debate concerning the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* (especially loss of the tail) (Ward 1993; Sanders & Bodenbender, 1994), however incorporating additional anatomical regions would be impractical given the priority of comprehensive sampling within included regions. The vertebral column in particular could not be included along with the carpus and tarsus for this project to be completed in a timely fashion. Incorporating vertebral morphology in the future would be a priority. Dentition was excluded from the analysis for similar reasons related to time constraints and the priority not to cherry pick characters. Again, if it were possible to collect data from every morphological region, that would be preferable. The justification for excluding the dentition is additionally due to the recognition that hominoid dentition is symplesiomorphically similar to stem catarrhines in many ways (Gregory, 1922; Von Koenigswald, 1968, 1969) and as a result the dentition may not be as

informative as other regions (e.g. the forelimb, carpus, pelvis) concerning the three hypotheses being tested in this analysis. While lack of inclusion of dental characters may complicate placement of the fossil cercopithecoid *Victoriapithecus* in phylogenetic analyses any confounding effects may be avoided simply by constraining this taxon to fall within Cercopithecoidea based on the previous work that has been done incorporating the dentition (Szalay and Delson, 1979; Benefit, 1993, 1999; Miller et al., 2009). Cherry picking individual characters from other regions not included in the analysis simply because they have been inferred in the past to be phylogenetically informative conflicts with the methodological perspective taken in this dissertation.

If analyses reevaluate the same hypotheses without significantly changing character lists and recapitulate previous results, the question remains is it simply the same data telling the same story? For difficult phylogenetic questions, with low confidence in results, rerunning the same data sets may not be sufficient to improving on previous analyses. Particularly given a taxon such as *Proconsul* with a long history of debate concerning its phylogenetic position, the exercise of rerunning analyses must be sure that it is not simply inputting the same data into updated algorithms. There can be no surprise in such cases if results are consistent. In order for this dissertation to add to the literature, it is important to strive to consider the data in a different way. Analyzing only or a majority of characters that have previously been the focus of similar studies would not be as valuable. The character list considered here differs significantly from the characters more commonly used to address these questions. If analyses infer the same results, then it introduces new characters and greater confidence. If results differ it encourages further exploration of these hypotheses and provides insight as to the possible morphology driving conflicting results.

2.2.1 Measurement techniques

Two types of data were collected: metric and non-metric. Metric data were collected as linear measurements using sliding calipers. Measurements describing length along a curved surface were collected using waxed string and then measured flat. For non-metric characters, a range of character states was defined based on observed variation.

2.2.2 Character selection

Characters were selected for inclusion based on comparisons of extant anthropoid taxa. Characters for which differences were observed between taxa and which could be consistently measured were included in the analysis. Many metric characters recorded the same morphology (e.g., measurements from articulating facets). It is clear that many of these characters are nonindependent. However, at this stage, there was an attempt to minimize decision-making based on presumed integration. The character list was constructed recognizing there would be nonindependent characters that would need to be evaluated at a later stage (see chapter 5).

Both metric and non-metric characters are included in the character list, though where possible morphology was described using metric characters as they are subject to less individual decision making than non-metric characters. Non-metric characters were used when there was not a reliable way to capture the morphology with linear measurements. Non-metric data were collected systematically, and there was no attempt to limit the number of non-metric characters that could not be collected as metric.

The final character list (table 3) included 816 characters distributed as follows: 150 (18%) non-metric, 666 (82%) metric, 137 (16.79%) cranio-mandibular, 164 (20.1%) forelimb (without manus), 216 (26.47%) manus, 45 (5.15%) pelvis, 254 (31.13%) pes [See appendix A for descriptions of all characters].

Due to unequal sampling between regions, particularly driven by the large number of individual bony elements in the hand and the foot, making up 57.6% of the total character list, it is essential that regions be evaluated separately. The great number of characters drawn from these regions is a result of the complex morphology particularly of the carpus and tarsus, with many bones and articulating facets. Combined analyses must be evaluated for whether individual regions are driving results and, if results from regions differ, further evaluation may be necessary.

The unconventionality of this data set should be seen as a benefit to expanding the body of evidence commenting on the hypotheses addressed in this dissertation. No matter what morphological region is being considered it is unlikely to lack variation supporting or at least congruent with the evolutionary history of the species. There is not reason to expect a phylogenetic analysis of the hand to be less informative than analyses of the cranium or dentition. Each region shares the evolutionary history of the species and will reflect this in one way or another. It is not the intention of this dissertation to suggest morphological regions not included in this analysis will return the same result. Analyses presented here must be interpreted in the context of previous analyses and certainly a discussion of the morphological regions not present here will be essential to making any convincing argument supporting an optimal hypothesis.

2.2.3 Metric character handling

When dealing with metric data there are two main issues that must be overcome: (1) comparing the morphology of specimens that are not the same size; and (2) converting continuous metric data into discrete categorical data.
2.2.3.1 Allometry

The first issue is relatively easy to solve in complete data sets, where the geometric mean of all measures is the preferred method for accounting for size differences (Jungers et al., 1995). This is, however, rarely possible when dealing with the fossil record. In order to accommodate missing data (and therefore fossil taxa) and retain as many characters per taxon as possible, all metric characters (for both extant and fossil taxa) were divided into cranial and postcranial data sets. Species means for the cranial data set were divided by the species mean of orbit height, which has been shown to be strongly correlated with body size (Spocter and Manger, 2007). The postcranial data set species means were divided by the species mean for transverse width of the trochlea on the talus (Tsubamoto, 2014; Yapuncich et al., 2014, 2015). Dividing by these body size proxies standardizes the data set, but does not account for allometric effect. In order to remove allometric affect as much as possible metric characters must be further evaluated for correlation with a body size proxy. In order for this to be most effective, the chosen body size proxy should be the best available among extant taxa that does not reflect locomotor mode (Ruff, 2003) and ideally will be from a region not included in the analysis in order to limit removing characters that may be correlated with the character for reasons other than allometric affect. This test of allometric affect was only performed using extant taxa due to the difficulties of missing data among fossil taxa. Ruff (2003) demonstrated that the medio-lateral breadth of the tibial plateau is a good predictor of body mass regardless of locomotor adaptations, making it a suitable proxy for body size. Body size is known to have a phylogenetic signal, resulting in the possibility that characters may appear to be correlated with a body size proxy simply due to phylogenetic inertia (Clutton-Brock and Harvey, 1979; Garland and Huey, 1987; Pagel and Harvey, 1988, 1989; Harvey and Pagel, 1991; Ackerly & Donoghue 1998; Garland & Ives,

2000). This makes a simple correlation analysis problematic as it is unable to distinguish between allometric affect and body size as a phylogenetically informative character. To overcome this difficulty, it is necessary to incorporate phylogeny as a model into correlation analyses. Phylogenetic independent contrasts do just that. Instead of simply considering the correlation between body size and a continuous character, the difference between character states of sister taxa ("contrasts") are used, weighting differences between taxa by relatedness. These contrasts then reflect variation, but remove inherent non-independence due to phylogeny. Contrasts then may be used for statistical analyses, in this case determining correlation between characters and body size (Felstenstein, 1985; Harvey & Pagel, 1991; Garland et al., 1992).

Results from the phylogenetic independent contrasts analysis identified 183 characters that were strongly and significantly correlated with the body size proxy (medio-lateral breadth of the tibial plateau) (table 3). These size corrected characters were then recoded into discrete character states following the general allometric coding method (Gilbert et al., 2009). This method removes allometric effect by regressing each size standardized character against a measure of body size and then coding them as binary, falling either above (1) or below (0) a best fit line. This indicates whether the character is large or small relative to average body size for the species, therefore removing any residual allometric effect. Breadth of the tibial plateau was used for consistency with the previous PIC analysis as an initial step and was compared with regression against body size estimates taken from the literature (Rowe and Fleagle, 2013) for inclusion of fossil taxa lacking proximal tibia. Coding did not differ between body size measures. 2.2.3.2 Discretization and Continuous Characters

Discretizing metric data in a non-arbitrary way is problematic. Many methods have been proposed to discretize data (Mickevich and Johnson, 1976; Simon, 1983; Archie, 1985; Thiele,

1993), but all suffer from the problem that the categories produced may not be biologically meaningful. Particularly problematic is that these methods have a tendency to arbitrarily overweight character state changes based on the spread of variation across a group of taxa (Farris, 1990). Goloboff et al. (2006) implemented a method for treating continuous characters as additive and ordered, following Farris' (1970) original algorithm and avoiding many of these difficulties. Treating characters as additive and ordered (a reasonable assumption for continuous characters) simply assumes a character state measuring a length of 3, also encompasses that of 2 and 1, equaling the sum of these lesser character states. Farris' algorithm (1970) was designed to treat characters in intervals—the difference between values. Following with the example above, if taxon A has a character state of 3 and taxon B has a character state of 1, the algorithm would calculate an interval of 2 separating these taxa. Given only these data, a parsimony model of minimum evolution would infer a character state of 2 for the ancestral node, with an increase in length 1 along the branch leading to taxon A and a decrease in length 1 on the branch leading to taxon B (Farris, 1970; Goloboff, 2006). In this way, continuous traits are never divided into discrete character states and morphological evolution is modeled not in terms of 'is taxon A morphologically the same as B,' but instead considers the degree of difference between A and B (whether that's 5mm or 0.01mm), optimizing phylogenies that infer sister group relationships between taxa appearing the most similar to eachother. The only barrier to direct application of this method to continuous data sets was implementation, a problem solved with TNT: Tree analysis using new technology (Goloboff et al., 2003; Goloboff, 2006). This provides, arguably, the best method for dealing with continuous data as it avoids the problems of discretization, but may only be implemented applying the parsimony optimality criterion. Due to this limitation, continuous characters were also discretized using gap weighting for inclusion in the Bayesian

phylogenetic analysis (Thiele, 1993). All gap weighted characters were treated as ordered and divided into three character states as this is the modal number of character states for other ordered characters in the data set. This dual approach will allow for data to be analyzed using both Bayesian and parsimony optimality criteria. As it is still ideal to treat continuous characters as such (Goloboff, 2006), the parsimony analysis will apply this method, but will also run an analysis on the gap weighted data in order to evaluate whether discretization significantly alters results.

2.2.3.3 Missing data

Any analysis including fossils must take into account that data sets will not be complete. Missing data can have a serious impact on phenetic analyses, particularly principal component analyses, which rely on having complete data sets in order to summarize variation across all variables. Unlike phenetic analyses, phylogenetic analyses consider variation on a character by character basis. Missing data will mean that a taxon or specimen is silent regarding the missing character change and will adopt the optimal character state given its sister taxa. This may affect the degree of resolution, support and number of shortest trees (Gauthier, 1986; Nixon and Davis, 1991; Platnick et al., 1991; Nixon and Wheeler, 1992; Maddison, 1993; Wilkinson and Benton, 1995; Gao and Norell, 1998), but will not negatively affect results (Novacek, 1992; Wiens, 1998, 2003a,b, 2005, 2006; Wiens and Moen, 2008; Prevosti and Cheminquy, 2010). The exception is in cases where there are few characters to begin with. The effects of missing data are not related to how many missing data there are, but instead to how many characters there are in the analysis overall (Prevosti and Checmisquy, 2010). Extensive character sampling is therefore essential to any phylogenetic analysis incorporating fossil taxa with large amounts of missing data. Sampling as many morphological characters as can practically be collected should be the goal of

any morphological analysis aimed at inferring phylogenies, but sampling at this level is rarely if ever possible. Researchers must make decisions about what morphology to include and what must be left out. While some researchers carefully select characters and test their data sets in order to identify which characters may be best suited to their phylogenetic questions, winnowing character lists to a curated few (Pilbeam, 1996; Poe and Wiens, 2000; Zalmout et al., 2010; Worthington, 2012; Dembo et al., 2015), this analysis takes the opposite approach. Careful character selection has proven more of a hindrance than a help to inferring well-supported, fully resolved phylogenies (Novacek, 1992; Wiens, 1998, 2003a, 2006; Wiens and Moen, 2008; Prevosti and Cheminquy, 2010; Wiens and Tiu, 2012). This analysis takes those results as a driving principle and includes many characters from a limited number of regions in order to minimize the effects of missing data and avoid cherry-picking characters. While this reasoning could allow for broader taxonomic sampling as well, this analysis prioritizes focus on *Proconsul,* limiting the possibility of confounding variation from stem catarrhine taxa and only including Miocene crown taxa whose membership within Hominoidea or Cercopithecoidea is uncontested.

2.3 MOLECULAR DATA

Molecular data are included in this analysis in order to more confidently infer the phylogenetic relationships of extant taxa, infer divergence dates and incorporate as much available data as possible to more confidently address evolutionary questions. All molecular data were taken from Perelman et al. (2011). This data set includes 34,927 base pairs from 54 genes. Their alignment of the molecular data was used for the analysis (Perelman et al., 2011). Including molecular data in analyses focused on fossil specimens integrates both types of evidence in a data driven manner without applying a priori constraints.

Morphological data from fossils, often with substantial missing data, may be incorporated into analyses of morphological and molecular data from extant taxa, thereby integrating information from the fossil record into a substantial character list that will likely avoid the pitfalls of significant amounts of missing data (see discussion above). It is now commonplace for morphological phylogenetic analyses focused on fossil taxa to incorporate results from molecular phylogenies (Eernisse and Kluge, 1993; Shaffer, 1997; Kluge, 1998; Egge et al., 2009; Magallon et al., 2010; Wiens, 2010; Lopardo et al., 2011; Pyron et al., 2011; Ronquist et al., 2012; Wood et al., 2013; Arcila et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015), but true total evidence analyses remain uncommon in the primate literature. Including morphological data into molecular analyses, however, has been shown to potentially improve results, particularly in reconstructing crown groups with many extinct taxa. While the outcome of analyses incorporating a molecular backbone may not differ from results in which morphological and molecular data are analyzed in a single character matrix (Page, 1996: Rieppel, 2009), conducting the analysis including both character types allows for the possibility that morphological data may affect the molecular result and therefore considers a wider range of possible phylogenies. Given these potential benefits (Kluge, 1989; Kluge and Wolf, 1993; Eernisse and Kluge, 1993; Barrett el al., 1991; Shaffer, 1997) and the straight forward application of this more rigorous methodology, total evidence was deemed desirable to any other method for combining data types.

CHAPTER 3: PHENETIC ANALYSIS

As an initial step, this chapter will address the question: Where does *Proconsul* fall relative to other catarrhines using phenetic morphological similarity? While phenetic methods cannot explicitly test any of the phylogenetic hypotheses in this dissertation, the resulting visualizations of variation provide an initial exploration of the data set that will help with interpretation of the phylogenetic analyses. This will be accomplished through a series of principal component analyses.

3.1 METHODS

Principal component analyses summarize patterns of covariation in multivariate data sets by rotating and flattening data in order to reduce dimensionality (Sokal and Rohlf, 2012). As this dissertation is focused on the position of *Proconsul* among crown catarrhines, only extant crown catarrhine taxa were used to define axes of variation; fossils were projected into this space using the eigenvector matrix derived from extant taxa. As principal component analyses are unable to handle missing data, only those fossils with the least missing data were included: *Epipliopithecus*, *Victoriapithecus and P. heseloni*. Missing values cannot be included in principal component analyses, so where missing data were minimal enough to still include the taxon in the analysis (25% or less) values were taken from closely related taxa. As *Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus* are included in analyses as indicative of basal catarrhine morphology, where there were missing data in *Aegyptopithecus* the *Epipliopithecus* value was substituted in order to complete the data set; therefore, the position of this taxon should be judged as reflecting basal catarrhine morphology. The same logic was applied for missing

characters in *Victoriapithecus.* As *Victoriapithecus* is being included in order to root basal catarrhine morphology and not to evaluate the morphological affinities of this taxon missing values were replaced with the average across all cercopithecoids. Missing values in *P. heseloni* were taken from other *Proconsul* taxa. Only characters that were present in at least one *Proconsul* species were included in PCAs. Species means of size corrected data (see previous chapter) were used for all continuous characters and modes were used for discrete characters. Where males and females were not evenly sampled, mean values were calculated for each sex and then male and female means were averaged together for the final species mean. While species means may not reflect biological reality, there has been inadequate consideration of this issue across the phylognetetics literature. Researchers are only beginning to address this problematic and often ignored complication, with perhaps the best attempt at resolving this issue presented in Gilbert et al. (2009; Gilbert, 2013), where males and females were assigned separate characters that were then concatenated into a single character matrix. The high degree of sexual dimorphism in their sample made it an ideal test for this novel methodology and the systematics community should expand on it to become applicable to data sets (such as this) where sex determination of fossils is less straightforward. Certainly this is an issue that needs more careful consideration. It is likely that some data sets are more sensitive to issues of sex-averaging than others (Bjarnason et al., 2011). Therefore, as an initial approach to this complicated issue, cluster dendrograms were conducted using Euclidean distance analyses and a PCA was run across all characters using separate male and female means for each species. If results from this first analysis indicate males and females within a species are expressing morphology more similar to each other than to other taxonomic units, it will be deemed appropriate to apply the more conventionally supported methodology within the literature to use species means (Wiens, 2001;

Bjarnason et al., 2011); otherwise, additional steps must be taken to address sexual dimorphism in subsequent analyses.

All platyrrhines and fossil catarrhines were projected into the morphospace defined by extant crown catarrhines. Platyrrhines were excluded from this stage of analysis in order to ordinate a morphospace that was defined by differences between cercopithecoids and hominoids. Including platyrrhines in the initial analyses would ordinate axes around differences between platyrrhines and catarrhines, which would not address the questions that are the focus of this thesis. Appropriate taxonomic selection is just as important in PCAs as in phylogenetic analyses and must target the specific hypotheses being addressed (Reyment, 1991; Sokal and Rohlf, 2012). Fossil taxa were excluded for similar reasons. PCAs ordinate around the axes with the most variation (Sokal and Rohlf, 2012). Unique fossil taxa may end up driving all results as opposed to focusing on variation separating cercopithecoids and hominoids. Analyses were conducted using the correlation matrix to allow for inclusion of continuous and discrete characters and were run across the entire data set and by morphological complex: cranium, mandible, forelimb, manus, pelvis and pes. Euclidean distance matrices were calculated using the APE (Paradis et al., 2004) R package, indicating the proximity of all taxa to each other across all axes. Neighbor joining was applied on these distance matrices to visualize overall similarity using dendrograms. PCA projections were constructed in R using ggplot2 (Whickam, 2009). Regression analyses were run on the first three PCs to test for residual (allometric) correlations with body size. Medio-lateral breadth of the tibial plateau was used as a body size proxy. As only extant catarrhines were used to ordinate axes and because these taxa do not have issues with missing data, only extant catarrhines were used to test for correlation with body size.

3.2 RESULTS

3.2.1 All characters: sex separate

Principal component 1 through 3 account for 59.44% of variation (Fig. 4). PC1 alone accounts for 27.8% of variation. This PC was not significantly correlated with body size. Loadings for PCs are presented in appendix B and are comparable to results from the sexaveraged analysis and will be discussed in that section. PC2 accounted for 20.5% of variation. This axis is significantly correlated with body size with an R^2 of 0.87 (p<0.05). PC3 accounts for 11.2% of variation and is not significantly correlated with body size.

The distance matrix (Fig. 3, appendix C) indicates males and females within the same species are morphologically nearest to each other across all characters than they are to any other species of either sex. This is taken as support to justify sex-averaging as a defensible methodology for application in subsequent analyses presented in this dissertation.

Figure 3. Cluster diagram for all data, constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

3.2.2 All characters: sex averaged

Principal component 1 through 3 account for 61.2% of variation (Fig. 8). PC1 alone accounts for 29.4% of variation. This PC was not significantly correlated with body size. Loadings for PCs are presented in appendix B. Length of the radius was a prime driver of variation along PC1 (see appendix B for loadings). The ulna contributed a disproportionately large number of characters to the prime drivers of this axis. Morphology of the malar region also contributed substantially to this axis. PC1 primarily separates hylobatids from other catarrhines, with cercopithecoids falling closer to the platyrrhine distribution. The hominids fall intermediate between the hylobatids and cercopithecoids. *Proconsul* falls at the extreme end of the hominoid distribution.

Figure 5. PCA all characters- PC1 & PC2 Figure 6. PCA all characters- PC2 & PC3

PC2 accounts for 20.3% of variation. This axis is significantly correlated with body size with an R^2 of 0.89 (p<0.05). Length of the radius is again a prime driver of this axis, along with orientation of the navicular facet on the lateral cuneiform. Despite the steps taken to remove body size and allometric effects, the distribution of taxa corresponds closely to the distribution for body size with few exceptions (including *Aotus, Proconsul* and *Symphalangus*). PC2

separates catarrhines from platyrrhines, with *Aotus* falling among the catarrhines. The hylobatids fall closest to the platyrrhine distribution, with cercopithecoids intermediate between hylobatids and hominids. *Proconsul* falls at the upper limit of this axis above the hominids.

PC3 accounts for 11.4% of variation and is not significantly correlated with body size. The cranium accounts for most characters primarily driving variation along this axis, including characters from the face, temporal and occipital regions. PC3 separates platyrrhines from catarrhines, with the exception of *Cebus*, which falls among the catarrhines. *Proconsul* appears quite distinctive, defining the upper end of the axis, nearest *Papio*.

Figure 7. Cluster diagram for all data, constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

The distance matrix (Fig. 7, appendix C) accurately reconstructs hominoid relationships and places *Proconsul* as the sister to the hominoid cluster. Platyrrhines also cluster together, though the cercopithecoids are distributed across the dendrogram. Only *Cercopithecus* and *Erythrocebus* cluster together near the platyrrhines and *Colobus* and *Presbytis* also form a cluster. *Macaca, Papio and Nasalis* all group closer to the hominoids.

Figure 8. All data scree plot Figure 9. Cranium scree plot Showing contribution of PCs to percent of variation

3.2.3 Cranium

The first three principal components account for 59.5% of variation. PC 1 accounts for 24.5% of variation (Fig. 9). Influential characters are concentrated in the face. PC 1 identifies *Proconsul* as highly distinctive and separates hominoids and cercopithecoids. Platyrrhines are distributed across the extant hominoid and cercopithecoid range. *Victoriapithecus* falls at the high end of the axis on the cercopithecoid side of the distribution. *Aegyptopithecus* falls in the middle of the cercopithecoid distribution.

PC2 accounts for 18.8% of variation and is not significantly correlated with body size. Morphology of the malar region is again a prime driver of variation along this axis. It clearly distinguishes platyrrhines and catarrhines, with *Victoriapithecus* defining an upper limit to the catarrhine distribution and overlapping the platyrrhines. Hominids and colobines fall

Figure 10. PCA cranial characters- PC1 & PC2 Figure 11. PCA cranial characters- PC2 & PC3

towards this upper extent as well, with cercopithecines, hylobatids, *Proconsul* and *Aegyptopithecus* falling at the low end of the axis.

PC 3 accounts for 16.2% of variation and is weakly but significantly correlated with body size, with an R^2 of 0.40 (p<0.05). It is driven by the morphology of the temporal lines and occipital protuberance. All fossil taxa (*Proconsul, Victoriapithecus, Aegyptopithecus)* are distinguished from extant taxa, defining the low end of the axis. The correlation of body size with this axis predicts taxa at the low end of the axis should have the largest body size, which is not the case for the fossil sample.

The distance matrix (Fig. 12) groups *Proconsul* with the hylobatids among the hominoids. *Aegyptopithecus* and *Victoriapithecus* fall closest to each other among a cluster including all cercopithecoids except *Presbytis. Presbytis* falls within the platyrrhine cluster.

Figure 12. Cluster dendrogram cranial data, constructed as NJ tree run on distance matrix

3.2.4 Mandible

The first three principal components account for 74.3% of variation. PC 1 accounts for 40.1% of variation (Fig. 16) and is significantly correlated with body size with an R^2 of 0.40 (p<0.05). This axis is driven by morphology of the mandibular condyle and height and width of the corpus. Extant catarrhines cluster towards the middle of the plot, with platyrrhines distributed across the axis. Hominids are located at the lower end of the extant catarrhine distribution. *Epipliopithecus* is distinctive, falling at the extreme low end of the axis.

Aegyptopithecus and *Proconsul* fall above the upper limit of the extant catarrhine distribution at the opposite end of the axis from *Epipliopithecus*.

PC 2 accounts for 21.3% of variation and is not significantly correlated with body size. It is driven by variation in the mandibular condyle, coronoid process and mental foramen. Hominids form a distinct cluster, but otherwise clades are dispersed across the axis. *Epipliopithecus* and *Aegyptopithecus* again fall on opposite ends of the axis.

Figure 13. PCA mandible - PC1 & PC2 Figure 14. PCA mandible- PC2 & PC3

 PC 3 accounts for 12.9% of variation and is not correlated with body size. This axis is driven by width across the mandible and mandibular corpus height. Extant catarrhines cluster together with the exception of the hylobatids. Platyrrhines are distributed across the axis, with all taxa falling at the low end of the axis excepting *Aotus* and *Ateles,* which define its upper limit. *Epipliopithecus* and *Aegyptopithecus* both fall within the extant catarrhine distribution, though *Proconsul* falls at the extreme low end of the axis, nearest *Alouatta* and *Saguinus.*

The dendrogram also disperses clades. *Proconsul* groups with *Alouatta* and *Symphalangus*, while the hominids group with *Nasalis*. *Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus* both group with sets of platyrrhines.

Figure 15. Cluster dendrogram for mandibular data, constructed as NJ tree run on distance matrix

The first three principal components account for 77.6% of variation (Fig. 17). PC 1 account for 53.6% of variation and is not correlated with body size. This PC is primarily driven by length of the radius. It clearly distinguished between extant catarrhines and platyrrhines. The fossil catarrhines (*Epipliopithecus, Victoriapithecus* and *Proconsul*) fall intermediate between extant catarrhines and the platyrrhines. The hylobatids define the upper extent of the axis, with platyrrhines at the lower end.

Figure 18. PCA forelimb - PC1 & PC2 Figure 19. PCA forelimb - PC2 & PC3

PC 2 accounts for 15.5% of variation and is strongly correlated with body size ($p<0.05$, R^2 =0.85). Radial length again is a prime driver of this axis, along with depth of the coronoid and radial fossae on the humerus, morphology of the trochlear notch and distal ulna. Platyrrhines and catarrhines are separated on this axis in a manner not explained by body size alone.

Epipliopithecus and *Victoriapithecus* fall within the platyrrhine distribution in the high end of the axis, while *Proconsul* falls at the high end of the extant catarrhine distribution, with the cercopithecoids. Hominids define the low end of the axis, with hylobatids falling nearest the cercopithecoids.

Figure 20. Cluster dendrogram for forelimb data, constructed as NJ tree run on distance matrix

PC 3 accounts for 8.4% of variation and is not correlated with body size. This axis is strongly driven by depth of the coronoid and radial fossae of the humerus and the morphology of the supra-condylar ridge. Platyrrhines are spread across the axis, encompassing all variation among extant catarrhines. Only *Epipliopithecus* falls outside the platyrrhine distribution, defining the upper limit of the axis. The cercopithecoid distribution encompasses the hominoid

distribution, with *Proconsul* falling in the middle of both. The distance matrix (appendix C, fig. 20) places *Proconsul* nearest *Macaca*, in a cluster including the other hominoids and *Papio*. *Epipliopithecus* groups with the platyrrhines excluding *Cebus* and *Saimiri* who group with *Cercopithecus* and *Erythrocebus. Victoriapithecus* falls in the group including *Epipliopithecus*, the other platyrrhines and the colobines.

$3.2.6$ Manus

The first three principal components account for 73.6% of variation (Fig. 24). PC 1 accounts for 48% of variation and is not significantly correlated with body size. It is driven by shape of the hamate/triquetral facet and topography of the hamate and capitate metacarpal facets. It separates platyrrhines from extant catarrhines, with *Epipliopithecus* and *Victoriapithecus* grouping with the platyrrhines. It also separates hominoids from cercopithecoids, with cercopithecoids falling between hominoids and platyrrhines. *Proconsul* is intermediate between the cercopithecoid and hominoid distributions.

PC 2 accounts for 14.4% of variation and is significantly correlated with body size $(R^2=0.47, p=0.02)$. It is driven by topography of the pisiform/triquetral facet and length of MC2. Variation among platyrrhines encompasses all other taxa. All catarrhines fall towards the center of the axis. Hominids and hylobatids fall on either end of the catarrhine distribution, with the cercopithecoids in between. *Epipliopithecus* falls in the middle of the cercopithecoid distribution, with *Victoriapithecus* falling nearer the hylobatids at the lower end of the cercopithecoid distribution. *Proconsul* falls with the hominids.

Figure 23. Cluster dendrogram of manus data, constructed as NJ tree run on distance matrix

 PC 3 accounts for 11.2% of variation and is not correlated with body size. Variation along this axis is driven by topography of the hamate/MC facet, morphology of the MC2/MC3

facet and breadth of the triquetral/pisiform facet. Variation among platyrrhines covers nearly all of the axis, with only *Victoriapithecus* and *Papio* falling outside of the platyrrhine distribution. Cercopithecoids are also widely distributed, with hominoids occupying a more limited range towards the center of the plot. *Proconsul* falls towards the lower end of the axis, near *Cebus, Papio* and *Victoriapithecus. Epipliopithecus* falls near *Colobus* and the hylobatids.

The distance matrix (appendix C, Fig. 23) accurately reconstructs the hominoid phylogeny and groups *Proconsul* as the sister to hominoids. *Victoriapithecus, Cercopithecus* and *Papio* also fall close to the hominoid cluster. *Epipliopithecus* falls nearest *Alouatta* and otherwise cercopithecoids and platyrrhines are dispersed across the dendrogram.

3.2.7 Pelvis

The first three principal components account for 68.4% of the variation (Fig. 25). PC 1 accounts for 29.1% of variation and is not correlated with body size. It is driven primarily by prominence of the obturator crest. Platyrrhines fall on the upper half of the axis, while catarrhines fall on the lower half. There is substantial overlap in their distributions. The hylobatids, African apes and *Proconsul* all fall towards the center of the axis along with *Alouatta, Ateles, Cebus, Presbytis* and *Cercopithecus.*

Principal Components

PC 2 accounts for 25.7% of variation and is significantly correlated with body size $(R^2=0.41, p=0.04)$. This axis is driven by the shape of the obturator foramen, height of the ischial spine, prominence of the sciatic notch and presence of a tubercle on the superior pubis. This axis distinguishes between platyrrhines, cercopithecoids and hominoids. Platyrrhines fall on the lower end of the axis with the exception of *Saguinus*. Hominoids fall at the upper extent along with *Saguinus* and cercopithecoids are intermediate. *Proconsul* falls within the platyrrhine distribution.

PC 3 accounts for 13.6% of variation and is not correlated with body size. It is driven by length and height of the iliac blade, prominence of the lunate surface and prominence of the ischial spine. There is significant overlap among platyrrhines, cercopithecoids and hominoids. *Proconsul* falls towards the middle of the distribution nearest *Presbytis, Cebus* and *Gorilla.* Figure 26. PCA pelvis- PC1 & PC2 Figure 27. PCA pelvis- PC2 & PC3

Figure 28. Cluster dendrogram pelvis data, constructed as NJ tree run on distance matrix

 The distance matrix (appendix C, fig. 32) places *Proconsul* with the platyrrhines, nearest *Saimiri*. All platyrrhines group together. *Presbytis, Hylobates* and *Gorilla* also group with the platyrrhines. The other hominoids are distributed among the remaining cercopithecoids. 3.2.8 Pes

The first three principal components account for 63.0% of variation (Fig. 31). PC 1 accounts for 32.9% of variation and is strongly correlated with body size (\mathbb{R}^2 =0.75, p<0.00). Variation is strongly driven by the orientation of the navicular/lateral cuneiform facet. This axis separates platyrrhines from extant catarrhines and cercopithecoids from hominids. Hylobatids fall with cercopithecoids and *Proconsul* falls within the hominid distribution. *Epipliopithecus* and *Oreopithecus* group with platyrrhines.

PC 2 accounts for 18.6% of variation and is not correlated with body size. No individual variable or set of variables primarily drive variation along this axis. This axis primarily indicates the distinctiveness of *Epipliopithecus* and *Proconsul*. *Oreopithecus* falls with the hylobatids. All three genera fall nearest the other fossil taxa.

PC 3 accounts for 11.5% of variation and is not correlated with body size. No individual or set of variables are responsible for driving variation along this axis. All extant catarrhines fall towards the center of the axis, with platyrrhines distributed across the entire axis. *Epipliopithecus* Figure 29. PCA pes characters- PC1 & PC2 Figure 30. PCA pes characters- PC2 & PC3

Oreopithecus falls at the upper end of the axis with the platyrrhines. *Proconsul* falls at the lower end, appearing distinctive relative to other catarrhines and similar to Cebus.

The distance matrix (appendix C, fig. 32) groups all platyrrhines together in a cluster that also includes *Epipliopithecus* and *Oreopithecus*. *Proconsul* groups with *Nasalis* and *Macaca*.

Figure 32. Cluster dendrogram pes data, constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

defines the upper limit of the catarrhine distribution. Figure 31. Pes scree plot

3.3 DISCUSSION

This chapter presented an analysis of the phenetic position of *Proconsul* relative to crown catarrhine taxa and evaluates whether use of a sex-averaged data set is defensible. The initial analysis observing the effects of sexual dimorphism within this data set indicated that males and females within a species were consistently more similar to each other than to males or females of any other species. This suggests that while sex-averaging may still not be ideal, given the focus of this dissertation and results of the sex-separate analysis it is deemed appropriate to conduct phylogenetic analyses with sex-averaged data. While this chapter did not address specific hypotheses concerning the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*, it implemented an initial exploration of the data set that will be used to further test phylogenetic relationships among catarrhines. Its goal was to visualize morphological distance between taxa and groups. Results were often able to reconstruct crown clades and distance matrices were able to correctly reconstruct phylogenetic relationships, particularly within Hominoidea. This suggests this data set will be useful in inferring phylogenetic relationships. It also provided an initial exploration that identified certain characters as being particularly useful in separating groups.

3.3.1 Extant taxa

Across all data, platyrrhines were shown to be highly variable for the set of characters best describing variation among catarrhines. This does not comment on the overall phonetic variation within these groups as is discussed elsewhere in the literature (see Fleagle et al., 2010), but rather results from platyrrhines not being included in the ordination of axes. This only further emphasizes, however, the greater variability among platyrrhines for the set of characters that

ordinate cercopithecoid and hominoid variation. In many cases variation among platyrrhines encompassed all variation among catarrhines.

The hominids form a tight cluster with limited variation relative to the cercopithecoids (the pelvis data set is the only exception). Hylobatids always cluster together and expand this range of variation. The distance matrices for the pes, manus and cranial data sets are all able to reconstruct the known hominoid phylogeny. The cranial data set reconstructs distinct platyrrhine, hominoid, and cercopithecoid groups, with the exception of *Presbytis*, which groups with the platyrrhines. The entire data set again recreates the phylogenetic relationships of the hominoids and isolates a platyrrhine group as well. The pelvis and mandibular data sets—those with the fewest characters—perform worst at recreating known phylogenetic relationship.

3.3.2 Fossil taxa

Across all data, *Proconsul* groups with the hominoids. *Proconsul* also groups with the hominoids for the cranium, manus and forelimb data sets. The forelimb is complicated, however, as *Macaca* and *Papio* also fall within the hominoid group, with *Proconsul* actually falling nearest *Macaca*. In each of these cases (though less so in the forelimb data set) *Proconsul* is separated from the other hominoids by long branches. This explains why in the PCA plots, *Proconsul* only appears similar to the hominoids in the manus data set and most often appears quite distinctive. This distinctiveness may be an additional difficulty in resolving the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul.*

Epipliopithecus consistently groups with the platyrrhines in all analyses for which it is present. *Aegyptopithecus* also groups with the platyrrhines in the mandibular data set, but in the cranial data set falls nears *Victoriapithecus* within the cercopithecoid cluster. *Victoriapithecus* falls nearest the colobines in the forelimb data set, but nearest *Cercopithecus* in the manus data

set. The manus data set also places *Victoriapithecus* and *Cercopithecus* within the cluster including hominoids and *Proconsul*. *Oreopithecus* is only present in the pes data set, but groups with the platyrrhines and *Epipliopithecus,* nearest *Epipliopithecus* and *Saguinus*.

3.4 CONCLUSIONS

The most important findings from this chapter can be summarized as follows: 1) *Proconsul* is distinctive relative to extant and fossil taxa, 2) *Proconsul* consistently appears phenetically most similar to the hominoids, 3) there is a wider range of variation among platyrrhines than catarrhines, 4) fossil taxa extend the range of variation for crown clades. The results do raise the question whether phylogenetic analyses will be able to extract enough synapomorphies to overcome this pattern of variation. Phenetically *Proconsul* most often falls nearest the hominoids, but it is also quite distinctive relative all other taxa. Long branches are often problematic for phylogenetic analyses, but will be particularly difficult when assessing a potential stem taxon relative to derived clades (i.e., the cercopithecoids and hominoids). This may be a particularly significant issue given the more limited range of variation they express relative to the outgroup clade. Properly rooted character polarities are essential to any phylogenetic analysis and rely on the outgroup to define morphology at the root of the tree. This analysis may struggle with confidently rooting character polarities due to the wide range of variation in the outgroup. Inclusion of the successive basal catarrhine outrgroup is meant to address this issue, but is complicated by the fact that *Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus* also express a range of variation and may suffer from the same issue.

CHAPTER 4: Phylogenetic Analyses

This chapter presents the results from total evidence phylogenetic analyses run using parsimony and Bayesian methods. Bayesian methods have only recently been applied to morphological data sets and provide a new toolkit for addressing questions of morphological evolution (Nylander et al., 2004; Ronquist, 2004; Dembo et al., 2015). The analyses described below include the largest character set yet assembled concerning the inferred phylogenetic position of *Proconsul.* Chapter 5 will deal with exploration of the results.

4.1 PARSIMONY

4.1.1 Methods

Parsimony analyses were run in TNT (Goloboff et al., 2003) treating continuous characters as such in one analysis (Goloboff, 2006) and discretizing data using gap coding in another (Thiele, 1993; Wiens, 2001) (see chapter 2 for full discretion of the benefits of these coding methods). Molecular data taken from Perelman et al. (2011) were included in order to root phylogenetic relationships of extant taxa. All analyses constrained cercopithecoid and hominoid clades (including *Victoriapithecus* among the cercopithecoids and *Pierolapithecus* and *Oreopithecus* among the hominoids), with platyrrhines, *Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus* constrained as stem catarrhines, outside a clade including all other catarrhine taxa. Despite these constraints where there was no support for constrained ingroup clades, results collapse relationships indicating this lack of support (see figs. 37, 38, 41, 45). Only *Proconsul* was unconstrained, allowed to fall at any position within the catarrhine ingroup. A series of phylogenetic analyses was conducted in order to explore the relationships of crown and fossil

taxa and test the alternative hypotheses about the phylogenetic status of *Proconsul*. All analyses applied TNT's new technologies search (Goloboff et al., 2003) using 10 initial replications, with 27 rounds of drifting and 7 rounds of fusing. Bootstrap support values were calculated for all clades (1000 replicates) and homoplasy scores were recorded for all characters on both constrained and unconstrained trees.

Analysis 1: Continuous. This analysis included undiscretized morphological data and molecular data.

Analysis 2: Discretized. This analysis included morphological data that were gap weighted (Thiele, 1993) with 3 character states. Molecular data were included in this analysis. Analysis 3: Morphological regions. This series of analyses ran each morphological region separately, inferring the phylogenetic signal of each. No molecular data were included. The data set was broken into six regions: cranium, mandible, forelimb without manus, manus, pelvis, and pes.

Analysis 4: H1- stem catarrhine. This analysis employed undiscretized morphological data in order to observe the phylogenetic signal of morphology alone, without the influence of molecular data. These hypothesis specific analyses do not test the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* as this is constrained, but instead are used to infer specific morphological synapomorphies for each hypothesis. As such, molecular data is not necessary to inferring synapomorphies on these constrained trees and therefore no molecular data were included. All phylogenetic relationships were constrained according to the H1 phylogeny (fig. 33), inferring *Proconsul* to be a stem catarrhine.

Figure 35. H3 constraint tree

Analysis 5: H2- hominoid. This analysis employed undiscretized morphological data. No molecular data were included. All phylogenetic relationships were constrained according to H2 (Fig. 34)—*Proconsul* is inferred to be a hominoid.

Analysis 6: H3-hominid. This analysis employed undiscretized morphological data. No molecular data were included. All phylogenetic relationships were constrained according to the H3 phylogeny (fig. 35), inferring *Proconsul* to be a hominid.

Analysis 7: Unconstrained. A final analysis removed all catarrhine constraints, only constraining platyrrhines as the outgroup. Continuous morphological data were used along with no molecular data.

4.1.2 Results

4.1.2.1 Analysis 1: Continuous.

Two most parsimonious trees were found after examining 180,491 rearrangements (fig. 36). They differ in the position of *Pierolapithecus*, falling either as a basal hominoid or basal hominid. This analysis supported H2: *Proconsul* is a stem hominoid. *Proconsul* is inferred to be sister to a clade comprising extant and fossil hominoids. Bootstrap support for the *Proconsul* + hominoid clade is 84. The analysis identified 125 synapomorphies supporting the inclusion of *Proconsul* within Hominoidea. The forelimb, manus and pes contributed the most synapomorphies (96 characters), which is predictable given the overwhelming number of characters are drawn from these regions. Only the forelimb, mandible and pelvis contributed more synapomorphies than expected if synapomorphies were evenly sampled across the data set. The manus and pes contributed fewer synapomorphies than expected (4% and 2% less respectively); while the forelimb contributes 6% more synapomorphies than expected and the pelvis and mandible each contribute 3% more than expected. The cranium and manus each

contributed the least given the distribution of characters, each contributing 4% fewer synapomorphies than expected. This distribution of synapomorphies clearly indicates that unequal sampling within character list is resulting in the forelimb, manus and pes driving results of these analyses. This makes evaluation of each morphological region separately particularly important to evaluating the signicance of results from the combined analysis.

Figure 36. Strict consensus of two most parsimonious trees from analysis of all characters treated as continuous. Numbers refer to bootstrap support for unconstrained clades.

Average homoplasy across the tree was 2.32, with homoplasy across synapomorphies being 1.94. The manus and pes synapomorphies were overall the most reliable, with the lowest homoplasy (0.71 and 0.75 respectively). Cranial synapomorphies had the highest homoplasy (4), while the forelimb and pelvis had homoplasy scores of 1.56 and 1.44 respectively. These homplasy scores could be effected by unequal sampling and perhaps more significantly, by the relative numbers of discrete and continuous characters. Homoplasy for continuous characters were lower than that of discrete characters, with the highest homoplasy found among characters coded via the general allometric method. The cranium possessed the most characters coded in this manner, suggesting discretization may be the prime driver of this difference in homoplasy scores.

4.1.2.2 Analysis 2: Discretized.

Three most parsimonious trees were identified and a strict consensus tree was calculated (fig. 37). Results were unable to resolve whether *Aegyptopithecus* or *Epipliopithecus* were more basal within the catarrhine clade and also could not distinguish between placing *Proconsul* as sister taxon to the hylobatids or more basally within Hominoidea. All optimal trees support H2, placing *Proconsul* within the hominoid clade, with a bootstrap support of 66. They differ in the phylogenetic position of *Victoriapithecus*. The continuous data set infers *Victoriapithecus* falls as sister to the cercopithecine clade, while the discretized analysis places *Victoriapithecus* as sister to the papionins*.* The discretized analysis resolved the position of *Pierolapithecus* within the hominid clade, whereas the continuous analysis found it equally parsimonious to fall sister to all extant hominoids. The discretized analysis inferred only 48 synapomorphies, fewer than half as many as the continuous data set.
Figure 37. Strict consensus of the three most parsimonious trees inferred from discretized data. Node values indicate bootstrap support for unconstrained clades.

4.1.2.3 Analysis 3: Morphological regions

Three of the six regions (forelimb, manus, pelvis) supported the findings of the previous analyses, inferring *Proconsul* to be a hominoid. The cranium, mandible and pes data sets, however, place *Proconsul* within Cercopithecoidea. None of the morphological regions support either H1—*Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine, or H2—*Proconsul* is a hominid.

Two most parsimonious trees were inferred for the cranial data set (fig. 38). Both optimal trees placed *Proconsul* with the cercopithecoids, sister taxon to a clade including all other fossil and extant cercopithecoids. Bootstrap support for the clade including *Proconsul* and cercopithecoids was only 4. Five synapomorphies support this phylogenetic position: facial

Figure 38. Strict consensus of two optimal trees inferred from cranial data with bootstrap support

height, palate topography, infraorbital foramen shape, width behind orbits, and width of the ectotympanic tube.

A single most parsimonious tree was inferred for the mandible data set (fig. 39). *Proconsul* was again placed within Cercopithecoidea, with a bootstrap support of 23. Only one synapomorphy supports this position: degree of flare at the gonial angle. Inclusion of dental characters in this or the cranial data set would certainly move *Proconsul* out of the cercopithecoid clade given the distinctive derived morphology of that clade (Gregory, 1922; Von Koenigswald, 1968, 1969; Szalay and Delson, 1979).

Figure 39. Single most parsimonious tree for mandibular data with bootstrap support

The forelimb analysis returned a single most parsimonious tree (fig. 40). *Proconsul* was placed within Hominoidea, sister to all other extant and fossil hominoids. Bootstrap support for inclusion within Hominoidea was 42 and was supported by 25 synapomorphies. *Oreopithecus* was inferred as sister to *Gorilla*.

The manus data set inferred two equally parsimonious trees (Fig 41). In both optimal trees *Proconsul* was placed as sister taxon to all other hominoids, with a bootstrap support of 60. *Oreopithecus* and *Pierolapithecus* are also inferred to be basal hominoids. Twelve synapomorphies support a clade including *Proconsul* and all other hominoids.

Figure 40. Single most parsimonious tree for forelimb data with bootstrap support

The pelvis analysis produced a single most parsimonious tree (Fig. 42). *Proconsul* was inferred to be a basal member of the hominoid clade with a bootstrap support of 67. The position was inferred from seven synapomorphies. The pes data set inferred a single most parsimonious tree (fig. 43). *Proconsul* was placed within Cercopithecoidea with a bootstrap support of 43 and inferred with 48 synapomorphies.

Figure 41. Strict consensus of two optimal tree for manus data with bootstrap support.

Figure 42. Single most parsimonious tree for pelvis data with bootstrap support.

Figure 43. Single most parsimonious tree for pes data with bootstrap support.

Figure 44. Most parsimonious H1 tree with 4.1.2.4 Analysis 4: H1- stem catarrhine bootstrap support

This analysis identified 37 synapomorphies supporting the hypothesis that *Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine (fig. 44). The tree cost was 11081.814. Synapomorphies are drawn from each region except the mandible, with a majority of characters in the forelimb (10 synapomorphies) and pes (11 synapomorphies). Only the forelimb and pelvis included more synapomorphies than expected if they were sampled was equally

Figure 45. Most parsimonious H2 tree across characters. The average homoplasy score for these synapomorphies was 1.41.

4.1.2.5 Analysis 5: H2- stem hominoid.

These results are the same as the optimal tree from analysis 1 (fig.36, fig. 44). One-hundred and twenty-five synapomorphies were identified supporting a *Proconsul* + hominoid clade. This analysis had the lowest tree cost of the final three analyses, 11069.863 and the most synapomorphies. Synapomorphies range across all regions except the pelvis, with most

Figure 46. Most parsimonious H3 tree synapomorphies drawn from the forelimb (32 synapomorphies), manus (28 synapomorphies) and pes (36 synapomorphies). The forelimb, pelvis and mandible each exhibited more synapomorphies than expected. The average homoplasy score for these synapomorphies was 1.94, with the manus exhibiting the least homoplasy and the cranium the most.

> 4.1.2.6 Analysis 6: H3- stem hominid. The final analysis identified 37 synapomorphies supporting a *Proconsul* +

hominid clade (fig. 46). The optimal tree cost 11093.992, making it the least supported of the three hypotheses. The majority of synapomorphies were from the forelimb (15 synapomorphies). Only the forelimb had more synapomorphies than expected. The average homoplasy score across all synapomorphies was 2.2.

Figure 47. Most parsimonious unconstrained tree 4.1.2.7 Analysis 7: Unconstrained. with bootstrap support

The unconstrained analysis inferred a single most parsimonious tree (fig. 47). *Proconsul* was again inferred to be a hominoid, sister to a clade including extant hominoids and *Pierolapithecus*. Bootstrap support for this position is only 1. *Oreopithecus* is inferred to be the most basal catarrhine taxon, with a clade including *Presbytis* and *Epipliopithecus* inferred as sister to the remaining catarrhine taxa. *Aegyptopithecus* groups with *Papio* and *Macaca,* sister taxon to the hominoids, with *Victoriapithecus* diverging prior to this clade*.* Clearly this

result is demonstrative of the regions sampled in this analysis, with dental characters conspicuously absent and likely able to infer the cercopithecoid clade, resolving many of the incongrueties between this and established phylogenies. It does, however, support the stance taken by this dissertation that dental characters are not necessary to infer the phylogenetic

position of *Proconsul* as falling among the hominoid clade and not within the Hominidae or more basally among the stem catarrhines.

4.1.3 Discussion

These analyses place *Proconsul* within Hominoidea, sister to a clade including all fossil and extant hominoids included in the analysis. Results from the unconstrained analysis emphasize the distinctiveness of hominoids relative to cercopithecoids in this data set. *Oreopithecus* is a notable exception to this pattern—While the unconstrained analysis was unable to identify synapomorphies supporting a monophyletic cercopithecoid clade, it did infer a monophyletic extant hominoid clade. *Aegyptopithecus, Victoriapithecus, Macaca* and *Papio* are inferred to fall nearer the hominoid clade than other cercopithecoids, and *Oreopithecus* is pushed to the base of the catarrhine clade—perhaps unsurprising given the problematic nature of this taxon (Gervais, 1872; Schwalbe, 1915; Gregory, 1922; Hürzeler, 1954, 1960; Strauss, 1963; Simons, 1972; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Riesenfeld, 1975; Forsyth Major, 1880; Rosenberger and Delson, 1985; Harrison, 1986; Sarmiento, 1987; Harrison et al., 1991; Andrews et al., 1996; Cameron, 1997; Harrison & Rook, 1997; Begun, 2007).

The full analysis of all characters supports H2—*Proconsul* is a stem hominoid—but the distribution of synapomorphies, driven primarily by the forelimb, manus and pes, indicated that sampling bias was driving results. Consideration of each morphological region in isolation is then necessary to address the applicability of this inference. Each morphological region, however, confirmed the result from the full character list either supporting H2 or placing *Proconsul* among the cercopithecoids (as in the pes, madible and cranium) and thus supporting none of the three proposed hypotheses. These mandible and cranium suffered from the lack of dental characters, which would have easily distinguished between the *Proconsul* and the

cercopithecoid morphology. As placing *Proconsul* within Cercopithecoidea is not a viable hypothesis given a wealth of contraio- dental characters that were not included in this analysis, it is likely these characters are reflecting symplesiomorphic similarity between *Proconsul* and the cercopithecoids in regions for which hominoids are more derived.

The overall congruence between regions in supporting H2 suggests that unequal sampling across the skeleton in this data set (with the notable exception of excluding dental characters) is not impacting the inferred phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*. The breakdown of synapomorphies by region supporting H2 indicates the forelimb and pelvis are primary regions driving similarity between *Proconsul* and crown hominoids, though each hypothesis identifies the forelimb as a region with many potential synapomorphies. Across all hypotheses the cranium, the mandible and the pes were the most problematic, identifying more similarities between *Proconsul* and cercopithecoids than either between *Proconsul* and hominoids or among crown catarrhines. The mandible, however, still inferred 9 synapomorphies supporting H2 (3% more than expected given equal sampling).

 Across all regions, homoplasy is likely reflecting the proportion of discretized characters as TNT calculates homoplasy for continuous characters in terms of intervals (see discussion above) that can be as small as 0.001, while descritized homoplasy is calculate only in full steps (Goloboff, 2000). Regions that possess large numbers of discretized characters (such as the cranium) possess the highest homoplasy score. The number of discretized characters is also reflected in the degree of resolution, with the cranial data set unable to resolve relationships among hominoids. The forelimb, manus and pes contributed the most synapomorphies across all regions, with the forelimb, pelvis and mandible contributing more synapomorphies than expected given equal sampling. The manus and pelvis were able to accurately infer the phylogenetic

relationships of all extant taxa. The mandible and pes both struggled with inferring a hylobatid clade, though were able to infer accurate relationships among the great apes. *Oreopithecus* was inferred to fall at the base of the hominoid clade and was even inferred to be more basal than *Proconsul* for the manus data set (a result that was also present in the analysis of all characters). This result is surprising given the derived suspensory adaptations possessed by this taxon (Harrison, 1991), and—given the consensus in the literature that it is likely a basal hominid (Sarmiento, 1987; Harrison, 1991; Begun et al., 1997; Harrison and Rook, 1997; Begun, 2001) or even hominan (Hürzeler, 1958; Straus, 1963; Williams, 2008)—could be indicative of primitive features shared with the pliopithecoids and dendropithecoids; taxa which express a greater degree of suspensory abilities than the cercopithecoids (Leakey and Leakey, 1987; Rose, 1983. 1993; Harrison, 2010, 2013). Only the forelimb data set places this taxon within the Hominidae, as sister to *Gorilla*—a similarity discussed early in its study by Gervais (1872). These results further complicate interpretation of this fossil, suggesting its inclusion within the Hominidae should be reconsidered. *Pierolapithecus* could only be included in the pes data set, which was unable to distinguish between placing this taxon within Hominidae or as a stem hominoid. The pelvis, forelimb and the mandible all support a clade including *P. heseloni* and *P. nyanze*, potentially adding further support for *Ekembo* (McNulty et al., 2015), with no region supporting *Ugandapithecus* (*P. africanus* + *P. major*) as a valid clade (Senut, 2000; Pickford et al., 2009).

4.2 BAYESIAN

4.2.1 Methods

Bayesian MCMC (multi-chain Monte-Carlo) methods can be applied to morphological data by using Lewis' (2001) mk (Markov) model. Bayesian analyses were run using Beast2

(Bouckaert et al., 2014), which allows for the inclusion of missing data. Characters were discretized into three character states using gap weighting (Thiele, 1993). Maximum sum of clade credibilities trees were used across all analyses, as opposed to clade Bayes. While clade Bayes optimizes posterior probabilities for individual clades and builds trees by assembling optimal clades, it may support sub-optimal trees across the entire typology (Wheeler and Pickett, 2008). Maximum sum of clade credibilities trees do not suffer from this problem as the method only considers the sum of posterior probabilities across the entire tree typology and not within isolated clades. Three runs of each analysis were performed in order to assess convergence on the same solution. RWTY (Warren et al., 2016) was used to test for convergence in order to ensure enough tree space was explored. This is an essential step in any Bayesian analysis as optimal solutions may be found before analyses reach stationarity, the point at which the optimal solution is consistently supported, no longer fluctuating between multiple optimal solutions. Testing for convergence requires running analyses multiple times (here all analyses were run three times) and comparing results from the separate runs. Topological autorrelation plots (Penny and Hendy, 1985; Nylander et al., 2008, Warren et al., 2016) were used to assess convergence between runs. This summarizes the average distance between trees across runs. If a trend is apparent throughout the plot it indicates that trees that are close to each other in the chain are more similar than those in other chains or at different points within the chain, indicating insufficient mixing. Where plots are flat adequate mixing has been achieved.

I incorporate mode and tempo of evolutionary changes by integrating a dating analysis following Ronquist et al. (2012) tip dating method into all analyses. Morphological evolution is calibrated to molecular evolutionary rates allowing inferences concerning divergence dates between fossil lineages that lack molecular information. Instead of simply inferring tree

topology, analyses simultaneously infer timing of cladogenic events based on dated fossils, molecular clocks and morphological evolution. This allows alternative hypotheses to be tested concerning the timing of evolutionary events and rates of morphological change (Magallon et al., 2010; Pyron et al., 2011; Ronquist et al., 2012; Wood et al., 2013). With these methods, incorporating dating results into phylogenetic analyses is becoming commonplace (Pyron et al., 2011; Ronquist et al., 2012; Wood et al., 2013; Gavruyshkina et al., 2014; Arcila et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015). A further advantage of these methods is avoiding using arbitrary and often overlapping calibration priors in order to estimate earliest appearance dates for each fossil separately (Heath et al. 2014). Calibration priors place all dating inferences on the framework of an arbitrary prior that does not take into account information from the fossil record. The fossilized birth-death model (FBD) applied here uses a single model with only four parameters to calibrate phylogenies: speciation rate, extinction rate, fossilization rate and proportion of sampled extant species (Heath et al., 2014). By using a single model across the phylogeny and not using separate priors for calibration nodes and full tree calibration, the FBD model assumes fossils and extant taxa are all evolving as a result of the same macroevolutionary processes. These methods have been shown to accurately infer ancestral ages with simulated data (Heath et al., 2014) and real data sets (Gavryushkina et al., 2014; Arcila et al., 2015; Grimm et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015).

Analysis 1: Combined total evidence analysis This analysis combined both morphological and molecular data. All data were linked to infer a single tree. Each morphological and molecular site was allowed to evolve on separate site models. Morphological sites in this case are defined by one of six morphological regions (i.e., cranium, mandible, forelimb, manus, pelvis and pes) and further divided by the number of character states, with characters within the same

region and having the same number of characters states treated as a single site. All morphological data employed a Lewis MK model of character evolution, estimating substitution rate and shape parameters. Rate variation was modeled using the gamma distribution with 4 rate categories. Molecular data were handled following the methods presented in the Perelman (2011) analysis: GTR+I+G with four rate categories. FBD models were employed in order to infer node ages using tip dating (see above). Fossil ages were included as tip dates and all data were linked under a single relaxed clock model. Cercopithecoids were constrained as monophyletic, with basal catarrhines (*Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus*) and platyrrhines constrained as successive outgroups. *Proconsul* species were constrained as monophyletic. Three separate MCMC analyses were run for 75,000,000 iterations sampling every 1000 generations.

Analysis 2: Morphological regions. While systematic methods require large amounts of data sampling across morphological regions (Huelsenbeck, 1991; Wheeler, 1992; Wiens, 1998, 2003a, 2005; Wiens and Moen, 2008; Prevosti and Cheminquy, 2010; Wiens and Tiu, 2012), individual anatomical regions are often discussed in isolation. This is useful for interpreting evolutionary change in specific regions, but it is often simply a necessity when dealing with incomplete fossils. Researchers should not assume that an individual structural-functional complex will provide robust support for phylogenies, but observing the phylogenetic signal of individual complexes can portray a more detailed picture of the evolving skeleton and provide additional information when it comes to interpreting results.

This analysis did not include molecular data in order to observe the phylogenetic relationships inferred from morphology alone. Morphological regions were consistent with the previous analyses described in previous chapters: the cranium, mandible, forelimb, manus, pelvis

and pes. A Lewis MK model of character evolution was applied to all data, estimating substitution rate and shape parameters. Rate variation was modeled using the gamma distribution with a category count of 4. Separate regions evolved under their own unlinked model. Fossilized birth-death models were employed in order to infer node ages using tip dating. Fossil ages were included as tip dates and each region evolved under its own unlinked relaxed clock model. Cercopithecoids were constrained as monophyletic, with platyrrhines and stem catarrhines (*Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus*) constrained as successive outgroups. *Proconsul* species were constrained as monophyletic. An MCMC analysis was run for 75,000,000 iterations sampling every 1000 generations. Three runs were performed for each region.

Analysis 3: Unconstrained. A final analysis removed all constraints, only constraining platyrrhines as the outgroup and run with only morphological data. Otherwise, the methods were the same as in Analysis 1.

4.2.2 Results

4.2.2.1 Analysis 1: Combined total evidence

The sum of clade credibilities tree (fig. 48) places *Proconsul* within Hominoidea, as sister to all other hominoid taxa. The hominoid node including *Proconsul* is strongly supported with a posterior probability of 0.90. This posterior is significantly higher than the alternate hypotheses. A clade including crown catarrhines and excluding *Proconsul* (fig. 49) has a posterior probability of 0.01, while the posterior probability of a hominid + *Proconsul* clade is 0.00. The inferred most recent common ancestor (MRCA) age is also inconsistent with the hominid hypothesis as the hominoid MRCA is inferred to be younger than the *Proconsul* + hominid MRCA age. The optimal tree (supporting H2) infers *Proconsul* would be morphologically similar to the ancestral

Figure 48. Analysis 1: Optimal bayes tree

Node values denote posterior probability of clades. Color indicates evolutionary rate, with yellow indicating rapid evolution and blue indicating slow evolution.

crown catarrhine morphotype, with the origination of the *Proconsul* lineage occurring nearly simultaneously with the divergence of the hominoid and cercopithecoid lineages. *Proconsul* is separated from the other hominoids by a long branch, along which much of the morphology associated with extant hominoids evolved. A crown hominoid clade excluding *Proconsul* is strongly supported, with a posterior probability of 0.81. The hylobatids are inferred to diverge

from the other hominoids early in the evolution of crown hominoids and separated from them by a long branch. The hylobatids are inferred to be the sister taxon to a clade including *Oreopithecus, Pierolapithecus* and the extant hominids, though this clade is only weakly supported (pp=0.19).

A long branch separates *Aegyptopithecus* from *Epipliopithecus*, whose divergence occurs near the diversification of crown catarrhines. *Victoriapithecus* is inferred to be a basal cercopithecoid, sister taxon to all extant cercopithecoids, supported with a posterior probability of 0.99. Evolutionary rates do not differ between analyses, with rapid evolution occurring at the root of the anthropoid tree.

Figure 49. Analysis 1: H1- stem catarrhine tree Figure 50. Analysis 1: H3- stem hominid tree Node values denote posterior probability of clades. Color indicates evolutionary rate, with yellow indicating rapid evolution and blue indicating slow evolution.

Table 4. MRCA age estimates by hypothesis and molecular dates from Perelman et al., (2011) Values in parentheses are 95% HPD intervals

Node age estimates are similar between H1, H2, with the exception of the hominoid date. Under H2 the hominoid date is older and falls outside the 95% HPD (highest posterior density) range from Perelman (2011) , though agrees with the updated age estimate from the fossil record of Stevens (2013). This updated estimate incorporates fossil material from the newly described taxon *Rukwapithecus*, which possesses potential Figure. 51. RWTY: Autocorrelation plot

trend is apparent. Colors indicate separate runs. Summarizes the average distance between trees across runs indicating convergence if no clear

dental synapomorphies with the hominoids and appears similar to the nyanzapithecine *Rangwapithecus* (Stevens et al., 2013). Under H3, hominid and hominoid ancestral age estimates are significantly older than expected in order to accommodate placing *Proconsul* within Hominidae. The inferred origin of the catarrhine MRCA is comparable across analyses and is consistently older than Perelman's estimate. Other inferred ages fall in 95% HPD from Perelman (2011).

Convergence analyses (figs. 51) demonstrate convergence was reached, with no apparent trend over the runs, demonstrating adequate mixing among chains, indicating chains are sampling the same treespace.

4.2.2.2 Analysis 2: Morphological regions

 Each region except the mandible supports H2, placing *Proconsul* at the base of the hominoid tree (figs.52-58). The mandible supports H1, inferring *Proconsul* is sister taxon to crown catarrhines. The crown catarrhine node without *Proconsul* is weakly supported with a posterior probability of 0.35. The pes data set most strongly supports placing *Proconsul* within Hominoidea, with a posterior probability approaching 1. This is surprising given that results from the parsimony analysis of pes data place *Proconsul* as sister to the cercopithecoids. However, evolutionary rates for the pes are slow across the catarrhine tree, suggesting there may be little support for either hypothesis as differences between crown and stem taxa may be limited. Alternately it could result from differences between the discretized and continuous data sets. If discretization method is the source of the discrepancy, the continuous result would be preferred as it is least likely to be biased through additional manipulation (Felsenstein, 1988, 2002; Goloboff, 2006; Worthington, 2012). The forelimb data set also strongly supports a *Proconsul* + hominoid clade (pp=0.80). The manus and pelvis weakly support this placement with posterior probabilities of 0.49 and 0.48 respectively. The pelvis data set infers rapid evolutionary changes across the anthropoid tree. The cranium provides moderate support with a posterior probability of a hominoid + *Proconsul* clade of 0.63.

 evolution and blue indicating slow evolution. Node values denote posterior probability of clades. Color indicates evolutionary rate, with yellow indicating rapid

Figure 52. Cranium optimal Bayes tree Figure 53. Manidble optimal Bayes tree

Figure 54. Forelimb optimal Bayes tree Figure 55. Manus optimal Bayes tree Node values denote posterior probability of clades. Color indicates evolutionary rate, with yellow indicating rapid evolution and blue indicating slow evolution.

Figure 56. Pelvis optimal Bayes tree Figure 57. Pes optimal Bayes tree Node values denote posterior probability of clades. Color indicates evolutionary rate, with yellow indicating rapid evolution and blue indicating slow evolution.

Figure. 58. RWTY: Autocorrelation plot. Colors in the separate chains and regions are expected as \mathbb{R}^n .

Summarizes the average distance between trees across runs indicating convergence if no clear trend is apparent. Colors indicate separate regions and runs

Topological autocorrelation plot

4.2.2.3 Analysis 3: Unconstrained.

The unconstrained analysis did not reach convergence after 75 million generations, but is nevertheless interesting to discuss in terms of the distribution of taxa in the optimal typology. *Proconsul* is pushed to the base of the catarrhine tree, forming a clade with *Aegyptopithecus* that is sister to all other catarrhines. Extant hominids are inferred to be monophyletic, though *Victoriapithecus* is inferred to fall within the hominoid clade, likely clustering with hominoids due to shared primitive characteristics that other cercopithecoids lack. *Macaca* and *Papio* are also pulled out of the cercopithecoid clade and placed with the hominoids, perhaps due to

Figure 59. Unconstrained Bayes tree Node values denote posterior probability of clades. Color indicates evolutionary rate, with yellow indicating rapid evolution and blue indicating slow evolution.

similarities with *Victoriapithecus*.

Epipliopithecus falls as sister to a colobine clade. As in the unconstrained parsimony analysis, the inability of these data to infer a cercopithecoid clade is due to the absence of dental characters. 4.2.3 Discussion

Similar to results from the parsimony analyses, *Proconsul* is inferred to fall within Hominoidea and thus H2 is supported. Confidence in this result is high, with a high posterior probability (0.90) supporting a hominoid + *Proconsul* clade and very low posterior probabilities supporting key clades for both H1 (0.01) and H3 (pp<0.01).

Ancestral age estimates are broadly consistent with estimates from molecular analyses with the exception of the inferred age of the catarrhine MRCA and hominid and hominoid ages under H3 (Poux and Douzery, 2004; Matsui et al., 2009; Perelman et al., 2011). This provides an additional piece of evidence suggesting H3 is unlikely to be the optimal hypothesis. Further, age estimates for the hominoid MRCA on the optimal tree push into the Oligocene, supporting findings by Stevens (2013) that the potential hominoid *Rukwapithecus* dated to 25.2 mya could indicate the hominoids radiation originated before the Miocene.

The unconstrained analysis differs from the parsimony result in inferring *Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine. The two analyses are similar, however, in the position of *Victoriapithecus* within Hominoidea, likely indicating a symplesiomorphic similarity to the basal catarrhine morphotype that has been lost in extant cercopithecoids.

4.3 CONCLUSION

Both parsimony and Bayesian analyses strongly support H2—*Proconsul* is a hominoid. This result—employing a robust data set, rigorous phylogenetic methods and validation by multiple methods—provides robust support for acceptance of a hominoid clade including *Proconsul. Proconsul* is identified as falling near the divergence of cercopithecoid and hominoid lineages and is morphologically closer to the ancestral crown catarrhine morphotype than the extant hominoid

Figure 60. RWTY: Autocorrelation plot for unconstrained analysis Summarizes the average distance between trees across runs indicating convergence if no clear trend is apparent. Colors indicate separate runs.

ancestral morph. This elucidates the difficulty researchers have had in resolving the phylogenetic position of this taxon. However, enough synapomorphies were identified to justify inclusion of *Proconsul* within Hominoidea. Synapomorphies were drawn from across the skeleton, but a majority were identified in the forelimb. The cranium, manus and pes contributed fewer synapomorphies than expected given character sampling in this analysis, while the forelimb, pelvis and mandible contributed more.

These results corroborate results from the previous chapter in which *Proconsul* consistently appeared phenetically most similar to the hominoids. *Proconsul* is also identified as being morphologically distinct relative to extant taxa, separated from other taxa and ancestral nodes by long branches. Other fossil taxa were also shown to extend the range of variation exhibited by extant taxa. *Oreopithecus* in particular was identified as being problematic and often pushed to the base of clades. *Victoriapithecus* was demonstrated within the unconstrained analyses to be symplesiomorphically similar to the hominoids.

In order to better understand morphologically what is happening at the base of the catarrhine and hominoid clades the next chapter will use the synapomorphies identified here to infer ancestral morphotypes and explore morphological evolution among catarrhines. Further analysis, outside of a strict cladistic framework, is necessary to develop a comprehensive model of catarrhine morphological evolution.

CHAPTER 5: CHARACTER EVOLUTION

The phylogenetic analyses in this thesis have confidently rejected H1 and H3, supporting H2—*Proconsul* is a hominoid—as the optimal hypothesis. This chapter further explores the broader assumptions concerning catarrhine evolution associated with this result. Synapomorphies are taken from the previous analyses and further evaluated for which hypothesis they optimally support. Those that optimally support H2 are discussed in detail and compared to character lists from the literature as outlined in chapter 1. Finally, ancestral morphotypes are inferred for the full list of H2 synapomorphies and projected into a morphospace defined by these synapomorphies. This visualizes the evolutionary trajectories—moving from ancestral morphotypes to fossil taxa to extant taxa—associated with placing *Proconsul* within Hominoidea.

Simply inferring that *Proconsul* falls within Hominoidea does not elucidate the trajectory of catarrhine morphological evolution. Further exploration is needed in order to infer how the earliest crown catarrhines are different from basal catarrhines and to determine the affinities between the earliest cercopithecoids and hominoids both to each other and to the stem catarrhine morphotype. Results from phylogenetic analyses alone cannot be used to address the morphology of the earliest catarrhines, crown catarrhines or even the degree of similarity between *Proconsul* and the first hominoids.

As discussed in chapter 1, paleoanthropologists often rely on lists of carefully selected and tested characters which they deem most significant for inferring the phylogenetic relationships of a tax on (e.g. Rae, 1993, 1999; Begun et al., 1997; Young and MacLatchy, 2004; Rossie and MacLatchy, 2006; Rossie, 2008; Zalmout, 2010). They use these selected character

lists to infer phylogenies. This analysis adopted a different approach, using as much morphological data as could be reasonably collected within the confines of this project in order to limit character selection bias. While this meant certain traditionally favored characters were excluded from the analysis, it also allowed for the possibility of identifying new characters in neglected regions and not simply relying on established lists, which may simply recreate prior results (Bjarnason et al., 2011). This resulted in a data set including the most comprehensive character list for addressing the question of where *Proconsul* falls on the catarrhine tree. While this methodology is ideal for applying cladistic methods, it is unable to evaluate key characters to the same extent as studies prioritizing character selection. In this final analysis I combine the two methodologies by using the list of H2 synapomorphies to phenetically explore evolution of this key set of characters. In this way I achieve the aim of compiling a more limited character list that allows for discussion of specific morphological changes across the catarrhine tree.

This analysis includes three stages: compiling synapomorphies, inferring ancestral morphotypes at relevant nodes, and visualizing results in cluster dendrograms and PCAs. Finally, a detailed discussion of the significance of these synapomorphies (supporting H2) follows. By inferring ancestral morphotypes for the synapomorphies one can infer the evolutionary trajectories leading to each lineage and explore the implications of these trajectories to our understanding of catarrhine evolution.

5.1 METHODS

The 125 synapomorphies (appendix D) supporting H2 inferred using TNT (treating continuous character as such) in the previous chapter comprise the character list for this analysis. Phylogenetic analyses are able to deal with the problem of significant amounts of missing data,

but it introduces unnecessary error when inferring ancestral morphotypes and particularly in plotting PCAs. It is necessary, therefore, to limit missing data for these analyses and any characters or taxa with extensive missing data were removed.

5.1.1 Bayesian-Ancestral Morphotype Reconstruction

Bayesian analysis was used to infer ancestral character states for platyrrhines, catarrhines, crown catarrhines, hominoids and hominids using all characters inferred as synapomorphic even where they did not optimally support H2 (appendix D). Any remaining missing data were also inferred in these analyses. BayesTraits (Pagel and Meade, 2011) was used to conduct MCMC analyses on character lists. Metric characters were treated as continuous, using a non-directional, random walk model (Pagel, 1997, 1999). This allows characters to vary along phylogenetic trees where branch lengths are used to inform transition rates for characters. The tree with branch lengths was taken from the combined total evidence Bayes analysis (see chapter 4). Separate analyses were run for each region. A single analysis across all regions was not possible given that current limitations of the program, which cannot handle large numbers of characters. Analyses were run in two stages, first running an MCMC analysis to create a model of character evolution and then a second run applying that model to infer ancestral morphotypes. Each analysis ran for 75,000,000 iterations.

5.1.2 Phylo-morphospace analysis

Phylo-morphospace analyses combine results from phonetic and phylogenetic analyses into a single visualization. Often these visualizations are simply PCAs with phylogenetic trees linking taxa across the phonetic distribution. This analysis does not include phylogenetic results into phenetic analyses by superimposing phylogenetic trees, but instead maps results from the

ancestral morphotype reconstructions onto PCAs ordinated using extant catarrhine morphology. This allows for visualization of evolutionary trajectories of key synapomorphies. Euclidean distances between taxa were calculated across all key synapomorphies and visualized in cluster dendrograms using the neighbor joining method. This directly visualizes the phenetic morphological disparity between taxa for each data set.

As the position of *Proconsul* and ancestral morphotypes relative to catarrhine clades is the focus of this analysis, principal component analyses (PCAs) were constructed using only extant cercopithecoids and hominoids to define PCs. Platyrrhines, fossil taxa and ancestral morphotypes inferred under each of the hypotheses were then mapped onto current PCs. These data did not define axes of variation. In this way *Proconsul,* ancestral morphotypes and platyrrhine morphology are observed relative to a morphospace defined by the differences between cercopithecoids and hominoids. PCAs were constructed for each region, with a final PCA including all synapomorphies.

5.2 RESULTS

5.2.1 Synapomorphies

One-hundred and twenty-five synapomorphies were identified supporting a clade including *Proconsul* and extant and fossil hominoids. Of all 125 synapomorphies, only 20 optimally supported H2 and a *Proconsul* + hominoid clade (table 5). Ten synapomorphies were equally parsimonious for H1 and H3 and the remaining were equally parsimonious across each hypothesis. Only the 20 key synapomorphies for which H2 is optimal (possessing the lowest homoplasy score) will be discussed here, though the full 125 are used in the subsequent phylomorphospace analysis.

Table 5. Key synapomorphies Table 5. Key synapomorphies

All regions except the cranium are represented among the key synapomorphies (table 5). Six characters are drawn from the elbow and another seven from the wrist and hand. Five key synapomorphies are present in the ankle and there is a single pelvic and single mandibular character. This distribution of key synapomorphies again reflects the sampling strategy taken by this dissertation, emphasizing the forelimb, manus and pes. This novel sampling provides additional support to results from more conventional data sets and emphasizes the utility of these regions to addressing phylogenetic questions of catarrhine evolution. The mandibular character is breadth across the incisors. Broad incisors are present among hominoids reflecting a reliance on foods (particularly fruit) which require incisal processing (Ungar, 1996; Teaford and Ungar, 2007). *Epipliopithecus* and the platyrrhines (with the exception of *Alouatta)* have narrower incisal breadth, while *Pan* and *Pongo* have the broadest incisors. The narrow incisors of *Aegyptopithecus* and *Dendropithecus* (Simons, 1987; Simons and Seiffert, 2007; Pickford et al., 2010; Harrison, 2013) further suggest that narrow incisors are primitive for catarrhines. *Proconsul* falls between *Symphalangus* and *Gorilla*, well within the hominoid range, but not approaching the derived condition seen in *Pongo* and *Pan*, which rely more heavily on a more frugivorous diet (Kay and Highlander, 1978; Ungar, 1995; Goodall, 1996; Teaford and Ungar, 2007). This result is consistent with previous studies of *Proconsul* dentition and incisal morphology suggesting it may have had a frugivorous diet similar to *Pan* (Kay, 1977; Kelley, 1986; Kay and Ungar, 1997; Deane, 2009).

All six of the key synapomorphies drawn from the elbow are located on the distal humerus. Three characters describe the width of the distal humeral articular surface. This analysis infers that a wide distal humerus—particularly a wide capitulum—is derived for hominoids and *Proconsul.* Cercopithecoids and platyrrhines have narrower distal humeri. Hominoids and *Proconsul* also have a pronounced median trochlear keel. *Epipliopithecus* and the platyrrhines have narrower keels, while *Proconsul* and the hominoids have broad keels. *Victoriapithecus* and other cercopithecoids are intermediate. This distribution of variation suggests the earliest catarrhines had narrow median keels with all crown catarrhines evolving slightly broader keels that broaden further with the earliest hominoids including *Proconsul*.

Two of the remaining humeral synapomorphies involve the size of the medial and lateral trochlear keels. Hominoids including *Proconsul* also have large, projecting, medial and lateral trochlear keels. While there is extensive overlap between groups for these features (particularly in medial trochlear keel projection), this analysis recognized a trend towards larger more projecting keels in hominoids and *Proconsul* as the most parsimonious scenario. All crown catarrhines have taller keels than platyrrhines, with *Proconsul* and the Asian apes possessing the tallest lateral trochlear keels. The hominines are not as pronounced in this feature, suggesting a character reversal. *Victoriapithecus* and the cercopithecines approach the condition seen in the Asian apes, with the colobines having smaller keels more similar to the platyrrhines. Length of the medial trochlear keel more clearly separates the extant hominoids as having the largest keels, however the platyrrhines and cercopithecoids occupy the same range and *Proconsul* is intermediate. *Proconsul,* along with the cercopithecines, approaches the hominoid condition, however this analysis does suggest the similarity between *Proconsul* and the other hominoids is synapomorphic*.* The weak keels of the dendropithecoids further support this character polarity (Harrison, 2010, 2013).

The final key synapomorphy from the elbow is the width of the coronoid fossa. Cercopithecoids have a narrow or intermediate coronoid fossa, while *Proconsul* and the hominoids have a wide coronoid fossa. *Epipliopithecus* has a narrow fossa and platyrrhines are

intermediate. Variation in the morphology and development of the coronoid fossa has been widely discussed as a trait seen among Miocene catarrhines, possibly distinguishing early and late Miocene forms (Ward et al., 1999; Nakatsukasa et al., 2007; McNulty et al., 2015), but is not well understood functionally. Here a wide coronoid fossa is inferred to be synapomorphic for hominoids.

Six key synapomorphies are drawn from the wrist: one each from the radius, ulna, trapezoid, trapezium, pisiform and hamate. The radial character involves breadth of the radiocarpal articular facet. Hominoids, particularly hominids, have a broad radio-carpal articulation. *Epipliopithecus*, the colobines, and certain platyrrhines (*Alouatta, Ateles and Aotus*) all have a narrow radio-carpal articulation. Cercopithecines and the remainder of the platyrrhines are intermediate. *Proconsul* has a wide radio-carpal articulation similar to *Pan*, with only *Pongo* expressing a wider morph. The basal catarrhine morphotype is inferred to be narrow, with all crown catarrhines derived in having slightly wider radio-carpal articulations. The earliest hominoids + *Proconsul* have an even broader articulation. Functionally, there is a relationship between a broad radio-carpal articulation allowing for a greater range of motion during suspension and vertical climbing (Sarmiento, 1988; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015).

Hominoids and *Proconsul* also have a large distal radio-ulnar articular facet, suggesting a broader hand than dendropithecoids (Leakey and Leakey 1987; Rose et al. 1992; Rose 1993; Harrison, 2010). Hominoids are unique among primates in possessing an intra-articular meniscus between the radius and ulna, allowing a greater degree of rotation of the radius and hand around the ulna and resulting in a more extensive articular facet (Lewis, 1965, 1969; Harrison, 1987; Sarmiento, 1988; Dave and Nakatsukasa, 2015). The catarrhine MRCA radioulnar articulation is inferred to be small to moderate, an inference supported by the narrow hand

of *Simiolus* (Leakey and Leakey 1987; Rose et al. 1992; Rose 1993; Harrison, 2010). This articulation is inferred to increase in size in the earliest hominoids + *Proconsul* and decrease in size with the earliest cercopithecoids. A second increase in size occurs with the last common ancestor of extant hominoids.

The trapezoid is broad medio-laterally, possessing a broad MCII facet. This character is difficult to interpret as there is extensive overlap among hominoid, cercopithecoid and platyrrhine ranges. H2 is only 0.01 fewer steps than the alternate hypotheses (appendix D). Platyrrhines tend to have narrower trapezoids, with *Saimiri* and *Ateles* having the narrowest of all sampled taxa. Hominoids fall on the upper end of the spectrum and cercopithecoids cover the full range of variation. *Proconsul* has a wide trapezoid, along with *Papio* and *Macaca.* Hylobatids also have a wide trapezoid. This analysis infers the earliest catarrhines had a wide trapezoid, which was then reduced with the earliest hominoids and cercopithecoids.

The Asian apes and *Proconsul* possess a trapezium that is dorso-palmarly deep with a long MCII facet. The platyrrhines are variable, but most often have a shallow trapezium and this is inferred to be the primitive platyrrhine morphotype. *Victoriapithecus* has a shallow trapezium, but extant cercopithecoids are variable, overlapping the platyrrhine range, and approaching the Asian apes. The basal catarrhine morphotype is inferred to be intermediate, with a decrease inferred for the earliest cercopithecoids and an increase in depth with the earliest hominoids. Hominines are inferred to reverse this trend as *Pan* and *Gorilla* have an intermediate and shallow trapezium respectively.

One character from the pisiform is synapomorphic: length of the triquetral facet. The hominoids and *Ateles* possess a smaller pisiform-triquetral facet. The colobines, *Saimiri, Saguinus,* and *Proconsul* are intermediate in this feature. The catarrhine MRCA morphotype is

also inferred to be intermediate. While the intermediate morph present in *Proconsul* makes interpretation difficult, this analysis leads to the inference that *Proconsul* synapomorphically approaches the derived hominoid morphotype. Pisiform morphology has been central to discussion concerning the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* related to ulnar deviation of the wrist related to vertical climbing and suspension (Lewis, 1965, 1972, 1989; Conroy and Fleagle, 1972; O'Connor, 1975; Youlatos, 1996; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015).

Width of the hamulus on the hamate is inferred to be a key synapomorphy, with *Proconsul* and the hominoids possessing a wide hamulus. *Epipliopithecus* possesses a narrow hamulus and the cercopithecoids are intermediate. The platyrrhines exhibit the full range of variation, with *Aotus* and *Saimiri* falling within the hominoid range. *Gorilla* possesses the widest hamulus, while *Proconsul* falls within the narrower end of the hominoid range near *Pongo* and *Symphalangus*. This feature may be related to powerful flexion during full extension of the wrist as the flexor carpi ulnaris acts on the hamulus via the piso-hamate ligament (O'Connor, 1975; Lewis, 1977; Sarmiento, 1988; Almecija et al., 2014).

The only key synapomorphy identified from the hand, not part of the carpus, is the width of the fifth metacarpal shaft. All the hominoids, including *Proconsul,* have a robust fifth metacarpal. The hylobatids fall at the bottom of this range, while *Proconsul* and *Pongo* possess the widest MC5. *Epipliopithecus* and the platyrrhines all possess a gracile MC5 and cercopithecoids are intermediate. Enlargement of the MC5 shaft has been associated with increased importance of the power grip, which is used to grasp vertical supports (Napier, 1960, 1964; Marzke et al., 1992) and could also be reflecting a general increase in breadth of the hand.

A single pelvic synapomorphy places *Proconsul* within Hominoidea: cranio-caudal diameter of the acetabulum. This may reflect cranial expansion of the lunate surface that has

been related to cranial loading of the hip joint in vertical body postures (Latimer, 1987; Ward, 1991, 1993; MacLatchy and Bossert, 1996). There is not a good separation between extant clades for this character, though hominoids consistently have a tall acetabulum. *Papio* and *Colobus* also possess a tall acetabulum, while *Presbytis* and *Ateles* have the shortest acetabula. *Proconsul* appears most similar to *Macaca* for this feature and is intermediate. Basal catarrhines and platyrrhines are inferred to have short acetabula, with the earliest crown catarrhines having taller acetabula, with the earliest hominids having the tallest acetabula. While *Proconsul* falls within both the hominoid and cercopithecoid ranges and is similar to the inferred crown catarrhine MRCA for this feature. This analysis leads to the placement of *Proconsul* within Hominoidea and requires the least homoplasy (though only by 0.01 steps).

Five key synapomorphies are present in the ankle. All except one are from the navicular: planto-dorsal depth of the sustentaculum on the calcaneus. The Asian apes (along with most platyrrhines) have a shallow sustentaculum, while the hominines have a robust sustentaculum. *Victoriapithecus, Aotus,* and *Cebus* also have a robust sustentaculum, though not as robust as in *Pan* and *Gorilla.* Extant cercopithecoids are intermediate. *Epipliopithecus* has a shallow sustentaculum and *Proconsul* is intermediate, approaching the hominine range. This analysis leads to an inference that a shallow sustentaculum is primitive for anthropoids, catarrhines and hominoids. The earliest cercopithecoids are inferred to evolve a more robust sustentaculum that is paralleled in the hominines. This synapomorphy is only 0.007 steps shorter for H2 than either of the other two hypotheses.

The final four key synapomorphies include length of the navicular tubercle and three characters describing dorso-plantar height of the navicular. Hominids and *Proconsul* exhibit a short navicular tubercle. It is less straight forward distinguishing among clades of other taxa.

Platyrrhines and cercopithecoids exhibit a range of variation from intermediate to long. Hylobatids possess long navicular tubercles. *Victoriapithecus* is intermediate for this character. The primitive catarrhine and hominoid ancestral morphs are inferred to be intermediate, with hominids evolving shorter tubercles and cercopithecoids evolving longer tubercles. Dorsoplantar navicular height is similarly difficult to interpret as variation within clades is broadly distributed. *Victoriapithecus* has the deepest navicular, f ollowed by *Presbytis* and *Pongo. Saguinus* and *Ateles* have the shallowest navicular. *Proconsul* is intermediate, most similar to *Symphalangus* and *Cebus.* The basal platyrrhine morph is inferred to be shallow, while the basal catarrhine morph is inferred to be tall. The basal cercopithecoid morph is inferred to be tall and the hominoid morph is inferred to be intermediate.

Figure 61. All synapomorphies scree plot

5.2.2 Phylo-morphospace analyses

5.2.2.1 All key synapomorphies

 PC1 accounts for 43.3% of variation (fig. 61) and is not significantly correlated with body size. This axis is primarily driven by the distinctiveness of hominids relative to other catarrhines. *Ateles, Aotus, Alouatta* and *Saimiri* all fall towards the hominid end

of the axis, with *Aotus* and *Ateles* appearing distinctive and widely separated from all other taxa. Platyrrhines cover the full range of variation across this axis, with *Cebus* and *Saguinus* falling nearest *Victoriapithecus* at the high end of the cercopithecoid distribution. The hylobatids are intermediate between cercopithecoids and hominids. The hominids form a tight cluster towards the center of the axis, with *Epipliopithecus* falling between the hominids and *Aotus* on the lower
half of the axis. All other taxa are distributed across the upper half of the axis with *Proconsul* falling near *Cebus* and *Victoriapithecus*. All ancestral morphotypes are also inferred to fall in the upper half of the axis, with the exception of the hominid MRCA, which falls in the lower half between *Aotus* and *Ateles.* The cercopithecoid MRCA falls at the opposite end of the spectrum, defining the upper limit of the axis. Both the hominoid and catarrhine MRCA morphs fall near *Proconsul.* Cranio-mandibular characters drive variation along this axis (appendix E).

PC2 accounts for 13.7% of variation and is not significantly correlated with body size. This axis also emphasizes the distinctiveness of *Aotus* and *Ateles*, but also *Epipliopithecus. Epipliopithecus* defines the lower bound of the range of variation (falling nearest *Aotus*) and *Proconsul* defines the upper bound. All other taxa fall between these two divergent fossils. Figure 62. PCA of all H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes

Cercopithecoids cluster towards the middle of the axis and hominoids towards *Proconsul* and the upper half of the axis. There is extensive overlap between their distributions, with the hominines falling within the cercopithecoid range. Despite *Epipliopithecus* falling at the bottom of the axis, the catarrhine MRCA is inferred to fall near *Proconsul* and the hominoids. The cercopithecoid MRCA falls towards the center of the axis near *Victoriapithecus.* This axis is again driven by cranio-mandibular characters, particularly those relating to facial height and breadth.

 PC3 accounts for 11.6% of variation and is not correlated with body size. *Epipliopithecus, Proconsul* and the ancetral morphotypes occupy the upper half of the axis, along with *Alouatta* and *Presbytis*, with all other taxa falling on the lower half of the axis. Platyrrhines occupy a limited range of the axis—with the exception of *Alouatta*—while cercopithecoids and hominoids are distributed across the lower half. This axis is primarily driven by prominence of the temporal lines and further by pelvic and cranio-mandibular characters (appendix E).

The distance matrix (appendix F, fig. 63) places *Proconsul* in a cluster with the catarrhine and hominoid MRCA morphs, nearest *Pithecia* in a cluster with the platyrrhines—except *Aotus* and *Ateles.* These taxa fall near the hominids, which form their own cluster with the inferred hominid MRCA. *Nasalis, Presbytis* and *Epipliopithecus* also fall in a cluster with the hominids, the hylobatids join the cluster more distantly. The remaining cercopithecoids form two distinct clusters, one falling near the platyrrhines (*Victoriapithecus, Macaca, Papio*) and the other forming its own cluster (*Cercopithecus, Erythrocebus, Colobus*).

Figure 63. Dendrogram of all H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

5.2.2.2 Cranial synapomorphies

PC1 accounts for 51.2% of variation (figs. 64-65) and is not correlated with body size. Given that cranial characters were prime drivers of variation in the PCA including all key synapomorphies, it is unsurprising that this PC

Figure 64. Cranial synapomorphies scree plot

(fig. 65) is similar to PC1 from that analysis (fig. 61). *Ateles* and *Aotus* appear quite distinctive and define the upper end of the axis. The hominids and *Epipliopithecus* cluster towards the center of the axis and all other taxa (with the exception of *Alouatta*) fall on the lower half of the axis. *Victoriapithecus* defines the lower limit of the axis of variation. *Proconsul* falls nearest *Pithecia, Saimiri* and *Hylobates*. The hominid MRCA again falls far from extant hominids, and nearer to *Aotus* and *Ateles*. This axis is driven by palate length and width across the incisors (appendix E).

Figure 65. PCA of cranial H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes

 PC2 accounts for 17.6% of variation (figs. 64-65) and is not correlated with body size. Again there are similarities between this PC (fig. 65) and PC2 from the PCA including all key synapomorphies. The ancestral morphs occupy the lower half of the plot along with *Alouatta*

and *Victoriapithecus*. *Epipliopithecus* falls towards the middle of the axis along with *Presbytis, Papio* and *Macaca*. The hominoids occupy a limited range within the upper half of the axis, while extant cercopithecoids are distributed across this half of the axis. *Proconsul* falls just below the hominoids distribution, nearest *Pithecia, Cebus* and *Gorilla.* This axis is driven almost entirely by prominence of the temporal lines and to a lesser extent by palate width (appendix E).

PC3 accounts for 12.0% of variation (figs. 64-65) and is not driven by body size. The hominoids cluster on the upper half of the axis, while cercopithecoids (with the exception of *Colobus)* fall in the lower half of the axis. Their ranges overlap, particularly given that *Colobus* defines the upper limit of the axis. All platyrrhines—with the exception of *Alouatta* and *Saimiri*—form a tight cluster between *Pongo* and *Pan* on the upper half of the axis. *Proconsul* falls among the hominoids and platyrrhines, nearest *Pithecia, Saguinus, Symphalangus and Pongo.* The catarrhine, hominoid and hominid MRCA morphs are inferred to fall towards the middle of the axis, where the cercopithecoid and hominoid ranges overlap. The cercopithecoid MRCA falls with *Victoriapithecus* on the lower half of the axis, near *Epipliopithecus*. This axis is driven by facial height and supra-orbital morphology (appendix E).

The distance matrix (appendix F, fig.66) again emphasizes the similarity between *Pithecia* and *Proconsul*, with both taxa clustering with the hominoid and catarrhine MRCAs. *Aotus* and *Ateles* again cluster with the hominids. *Epipliopithecus* falls nearest the hominids, followed by *Presbytis* and *Nasalis*. The hylobatids do not cluster with the hominoids and fall far from the hominoid MRCA. The cercopithecoid MRCA falls far from the catarrhine MRCA, clustering with *Victoriapithecus, Macaca* and *Papio.*

Figure 66. Dendrogram of cranial H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

Figure 67. Mandibular synapomorphies scree plot 5.2.2.3 Mandible synapomorphies

 PC1 accounts for 65.2% of variation and is not correlated with body size (figs. 67-68). The platyrrhine, catarrhine and hominoid MRCAs—along with *Proconsul*—all fall at the upper end of the axis, while the hominid ancestral morph and *Epipliopithecus—*along with *Aotus* and *Ateles*—fall at

the lower end of the axis. All other platyrrhines cluster near the platyrrhine MRCA, except *Saimiri,* which falls nearer *Aotus* and *Ateles.* All other taxa are distributed between these two extremes. The hominids, particularly the hominines (joined by *Nasalis* and *Presbytis*), approach the hominid MRCA, while the hylobatids fall more towards the middle of the plot with the other cercopithecoids. This axis is driven by corpus width and height and width across the mandible (appendix E).

PC2 accounts for 21.2% of variation (figs. 67-68) and is not significantly correlated with body size. This PC is primarily driven by anterior mandibular corpus height (appendix E). Most taxa cluster towards the center of the axis, with *Saimiri* defining the lower bound and *Colobus, Cercopithecus* and *Erythrocebus* defining the upper bound. *Hylobates* and *Pongo* appear distinctive, falling near *Saimiri. Victoriapithecus* approaches the upper limit and all other taxa are intermediate.

Figure 68. PCA of mandibular H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes

 PC3 accounts for 7.7% of variation (figs. 67-68) and is not significantly correlated with body size. This axis primarily separates *Victoriapithecus, Cercopithecus* and *Hylobates* from all other taxa. *Hylobates* falls near *Cercopithecus* and both define the lower limit of the axis. *Proconsul* falls nearest *Symphalangus,* towards the upper extent of the axis. *Epipliopithecus* falls near *Aotus*, both at the lower range of the distribution of all taxa except the three distinctive forms. The cercopithecoid MRCA falls with *Victoriapithecus*. All other MRCA morphs cluster towards the center of the distribution of all other taxa at the upper end of the axis. This axis is driven by width across the mandible and corpus width (appendix E).

Figure 69. Dendrogram of mandibular H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

The distance matrix (appendix F, fig 69) separates a single cluster from all other taxa. The presence of the platyrrhine, catarrhine and hominoid MRCA morphs falling outside this cluster, along with a majority of platyrrhines, *Proconsul* and *Symphalangus,* suggests this distinctive cluster exhibits traits associated with primitive catarrhine morphology. The presence of platyrrhines (*Saimiri, Ateles, Aotus*) within this cluster emphasizes the finding from chapter 3: platyrrhines encompass the range of variation exhibitted by catarrhines. *Epipliopithecus* also falls within the catarrhine cluster, nearest *Aotus*, in a cluster incluging *Ateles, Nasalis, Presbytis*, the hominines and the hominid MRCA.

5.2.2.4 Forelimb key synapomorphies

PC1 accounts for 59.8% of variation (figs. 70-71) and is not significantly correlated with body size. The hominoids and *Proconsul* fall on the lower half of the axis, while *Epipliopithecus* and the platyrrhines cluster at the upper end of the axis. Cercopithecoids are intermediate, Figure 70. Forelimb synapomorphies scree plot though there is extensive overlap between the

cercopithecoid and platyrrhine ranges. The catarrhine and hominoid MRCA morphs fall near each other at the middle of the axis between the cercopithecoid and hominoid ranges. The hominid MRCA morph defines the lower bound of the axis. This axis is driven by ulnar morphology, particularly the morphology of the olecranon process and

 PC2 accounts for 22.8% of variation (figs. 70-71) and is not significantly correlated with body size. *Ateles* appears quite distinctive and defines the upper limit of the axis (fig. 32). *Proconsul* and the hylobatids, along with *Macaca* and *Saguinus* fall at the lower limit of the axis. *Epipliopithecus* falls towards the middle of the axis, between the catarrhine and hominoid MRCA morphs. There is extensive overlap between hominoid, cercopithecoid and platyrrhine ranges of variation. This axis is again driven by the morphology of the trochlear notch and additionally by articular morphology of the distal ulna and width of the distal humerus (appendix E).

Figure 71. PCA of forelimb H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes

PC3 accounts for 8% of variation (figs. 70-71) and is not significantly correlated with body size. *Epipliopithecus* is distinctive along this axis and defines the lower bound. *Ateles* falls nearest *Epipliopithecus* along this axis, with *Presbytis* also falling low on the axis. The remaining taxa are distributed across the upper half of the axis. *Papio* defines the upper bound. *Proconsul* also falls towards the upper limit, near *Victoriapithecus* and *Erythrocebus*. The hominoids are broadly distributed across the middle of the axis. There is extensive overlap between platyrrhine, cercopithecoid and hominoid ranges. This axis is also driven by morphology of the ulnar trochlear notch (appendix E).

The distance matrix (appendix F, fig. 72) identifies a distinct hominoid cluster.

Proconsul falls at the base of this cluster. Further out, the hominoid and catarrhine MRCA morphs also cluster with the hominoids, as does *Nasalis* (though overall, *Nasalis* is nearest *Pithecia,* followed by *Colobus* and *Cercopithecus*). *Epipliopithecus* falls nearest *Saguinus,* followed by *Macaca*. The cercopithecines (except *Macaca*) form a distinct cluster with *Victoriapithecus* and the cercopithecoid MRCA. Platyrrhines are variable, distributed across the dendrogram. Figure 73. Manus synapomorphies scree plot

5.2.2.5 Manus synapomorphies

 PC1 accounts for 50.9% of variation (figs. 73-74) and is not significantly correlated with body size. Hominoids occupy a distinct range on the low end of the axis, with hominids defining the lower bound and hylobatids more towards the center. *Ateles* approaches the hominoid range. The remainder of the platyrrhines

occupy a limited range in the upper half of the axis. The cercopithecoids are more variable than the platyrrhines and also occupy the upper half of the axis. *Victoriapithecus* falls towards the middle of the cercopithecoid range. *Epipliopithecus* falls towards the middle of the axis at the low end of the platyrrhines and cercopithecoid ranges. *Proconsul* falls within the platyrrhine and cercopithecoid range, nearest *Alouatta, Pithecia* and *Victoriapithecus*. The hominid, hominoid and catarrhine MRCA morphs fall between the hominoid and cercopithecoid ranges. This axis is driven by morphology of the pisiform (appendix E).

 PC2 accounts for 15.6% of variation and is not significantly correlated with body size. This axis primarily distinguishes *Pongo* from all other taxa. This axis is driven by pisiform length and morphology of the MC5 tubercle. The platyrrhines and other hominoids occupy the same range along this axis. The cercopithecoid range is larger and encompasses the hominine, hylobatid and platyrrhine ranges. All ancestral morphs fell on the lower half of the axis.

 PC3 accounts for 13.9% of variation (figs. 73-74) and is not significantly correlated with body size. The platyrrhines are limited to the upper half of the axis. *Proconsul*, *Pan, Victoriapithecus, Macaca* and *Papio* all fall on the lower half of the axis. The remaining taxa are in the upper half. The catarrhine, cercopithecoid and hominoid MRCA morphs all fall at the middle of the axis. The hominid MRCA falls on the lower half near *Pan* and the hylobatids. This axis is driven by pisiform length and robusticity of the $2nd$ metacarpal (appendix E). Figure 74. PCA of manus H2 key synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes

Figure 75. Dendrogram of manus H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

 The distance matrix (appendix F, fig. 75) clusters all hominoids with the homind MRCA. *Proconsul* falls in a cluster with *Macaca, Papio, Victoriapithecus* and the catarrhine, hominoid and cercopithecoid MRCA morphs. Overall, *Proconsul* falls nearest *Papio*. One cluster includes all catarrhines except *Colobus, Cercopithecus* and *Erythrocebus*.

Figure 76. Pelvis synapomorphies scree plot 5.2.2.6 Pelvis synapomorphies

 PC1 accounts for 52.8% of variation (figs. 76-77) and is not significantly correlated with body size. This axis separates platyrrhines from cercopithecoids. The hominids are intermediate and overlap the ranges of both. The hylobatids fall within the cercopithecoid range. *Proconsul* falls

nearest *Symphalangus* and *Nasalis*. *Epipliopithecus* falls within the hominoid and cercopithecoid ranges. *Victoriapithecus* falls with the platyrrhines, though many of these character states were estimated as there is little pelvic material for this taxon. This axis is driven by iliac blade height and morphology of the ischial tuberosity (appendix E).

Figure 77. PCA of pelvis H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes Pelvis

 PC2 accounts for 25.9% of variation (figs. 76-77) and is not significantly correlated with body size. The hominoids occupy the lower half of the axis, with the hominids falling further towards the bottom than the hylobatids. *Presbytis* and *Nasalis* fall with the hylobatids, whereas the rest of the extant cercopithecoids fall at the bottom and define the lower bound of the range of variation. *Cebus* and *Aotus* fall with the hominids, while the other platyrrhines fall at the upper end of the axis. *Epipliopithecus* falls with the platyrrhines in the upper half of the axis. *Proconsul* falls towards the bottom of the axis nearest *Erythrocebus, Colobus and* the homind

MRCA. The catarrhine, cercopithecoid and hominoid MRCA morphs all fall towards the center of the axis between *Epipliopithecus* and *Hylobates*. This axis is driven by iliac height (appendix E).

Figure 78. Dendrogram of pelvis H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

PC3 accounts for 7.9% of variation (figs. 76-77) and is not significantly correlated with body size. The cercopithecoids occupy the lower half the axis, while the platyrrhines and hominoids occupy the upper half. There is overlap between their ranges. *Proconsul* falls in the middle of the axis within both ranges, between *Pongo* and *Nasalis*. *Epipliopithecus* defines the lower bound of the axis, falling with the cercopithecoids, nearest *Victoriapithecus*. The

catarrhine, hominoid and cercopithecoid MRCA morphs all fall in the middle of the axis near *Proconsul*. This axis is driven by iliac blade height and width of the ischial tuberosity (appendix E).

 The distance matrix (appendix F, fig. 78) indicates that *Proconsul* is distinctive, falling far from all other taxa, but nearest *Macaca*. The catarrhine and hominoid MRCA morphs fall nearest each other, in a cluster with *Nasalis* and *Symphalangus*. *Epipliopithecus* falls nearest *Hylobates*. These data do not recreate major clades in the cluster dendrogram.

5.2.2.7 Pes key synapomorphies

PC1 accounts for 86.5% of variation (figs. 79-80) and is not significantly correlated with body size. The platyrrhines fall at the upper end of the axis, with the hominoids falling towards the lower end. Cercopithecoids are intermediate, however *Papio* falls with the hominids. *Proconsul, Epipliopithecus* and *Victoriapithecus* all fall at the upper end of the axis with the Figure 79. Pes synapomorphies scree plot platyrrhines. The catarrhine, hominoid and

cercopithecoid MRCA morphs all fall near each other, nearest to *Epipliopithecus*. This axis is driven by the angle of the navicular-lateral cuneiform facet (appendix E).

 PC2 accounts for 9.6% of variation (figs. 79- 80) and is not significantly correlated with body size. Taxa are divided into two clusters; one includes the

hominines, hylobatids, *Proconsul, Epipliopithecus, Aotus, Saimiri, Papio and Macaca;* the other includes all other taxa. *Victoriapithecus* falls nearest *Ateles* and *Pithecia* and the platyrrhine and cercopithecoid MRCA morphs. This axis is driven by the size of the MT1 head (appendix E).

Figure 80. PCA of pes H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes

Figure 81. Dendrogram of pes H2 synapomorphies with inferred ancestral morphotypes constructed as NJ tree run on Euclidean distance matrix

 PC3 accounts for 1.6% of variation (figs.79-80) and is not significantly correlated with body size. The cercopithecines and *Victoriapithecus* fall on the upper half of the axis, all other taxa fall on the lower half. *Proconsul, Epipliopithecus* and all the catarrhine MRCA morphs fall towards the middle of the axis. This axis is driven by size of the $4th$ and $5th$ tarso-metatarsal facets and prominence of the astragular tubercles (appendix E).

 The distance matrix (appendix F, fig. 81) again indicates *Proconsul* falls nearest *Macaca*. The hominoids cluster together, along with *Epipliopithecus, Papio* and the catarrhine and hominoid MRCA morphs. *Victoriapithecus* falls nearest *Cercopithecus,* in a cluster with the colobines.

5.3 DISCUSSION

A phenetic description of the spread of variation among anthropoids (see chapter 3) identified four main patterns of variation: 1) *Proconsul* is distinctive relative to extant and fossil taxa, 2) *Proconsul* consistently appears phenetically most similar to the hominoids, 3) there is a wider range of variation among platyrrhines than catarrhines for the set of characters distinguishing hominoids and cercopithecoids, 4) fossil taxa extend the range of variation for crown clades. Of these, all except the similarity of *Proconsul* to hominoids could have been problematic for phylogenetic analyses. Results from the previous chapter demonstrated that they did not, however, prevent inference of a well supported result. This chapter returned to phenetic depictions of variation—using only those characters inferred as synapomorphic in the previous chapter—in order to explore character evolution outside of a strictly phylogenetic framework. The spread of variation among taxa were used to infer ancestral morphotypes for extant clades allowing a more thorough investigation of catarrhine evolutionary history. *Victoriapithecus,*

Epipliopithecus and *Proconsul* were key to inferring these ancestral morphotypes. The great disparity in the morphology exhibited by these taxa illustrates the difficulty researchers have in inferring character polarities among fossil catarrhines. In particular, *Epipliopithecus* and *Proconsul—*the two more primitive taxa—often define opposite ends of axes of variation. If it were possible to include *Aegyptopithecus, Saadanius* or the dendropithecoids as well it is likely to further expand the area of morphospace covered by these primitive catarrhines. This corroborates the conclusion from chapter 3 that fossil taxa expand the range of variation exhibited by extant clades and furthers it by indicating that the range of variation among fossil catarrhines may encompass that of extant catarrhines.

Results from these analyses again emphasize the difficulty in inferring a simple evolutionary trajectory across catarrhine evolution and focusing on the origination of the hominoid and cercopithecoid clades. Among catarrhines, *Proconsul* appears phenetically most similar to the cercopithecoids (often the cercopithecines) across all regions except the mandible. While *Proconsul* is commonly used as a model for the earliest hominoids, among these PCAs it is never the nearest taxon to the inferred hominoid MRCA morph. For the analysis including all synapomorphies, however, *Proconsul* is the nearest taxon to the catarrhine MRCA. Despite not being the nearest taxon, *Proconsul* consistently falls near both the hominoid and catarrhine MRCA morphs.

Epipliopithecus consistently falls nearest the colobines and hylobatids across all regions and for the pes is the nearest taxon to the hominoid MRCA morph. This result suggests *Epipliopithecus* (among taxa included in this analysis) may be a better model for the morphology of the last common ancestor of extant hominoids than *Proconsul*. Adding the dendropithecoids to this analysis would be an interesting next step as it is likely they would also fall nearer

Epipliopithecus and the ancestral hominoid morph given the greater similarity of each of these taxa to the suspensory atelids than to *Proconsul* (Gebo, 1989, 2009; Rose et al., 1992; Rose, 1997; Harrison, 2010, 2013). The representation of these suspensory adaptations across the early catarrhine fossil record complicates interpretation of their phylogenetic significance and further problematizes inferring character polarities within Hominoidea given *Proconsul* is likely sister to all other hominoids and does not possess many of these features. This suggests that stem catarrhines exhibited morphology shared with extant hominoids and that cercopithecoids are derived away from this condition. This scenario, however, does not accommodate the greater similarity between *Proconsul* and the cercopithecoids. *Victoriapithecus* is an important taxon in testing this scenario.

Victoriapithecus most often falls nearest the cercopithecines; however, in its pelvic morphology it is nearest *Hylobates* and is nearest *Colobus* in its mandibular morphology. The fact that both *Victoriapithecus* and *Proconsul* often resemble cercopithecines among these characters, suggests that this morphology is primitive for crown catarrhines. The catarrhine ancestral morph is consistently inferred to be more similar to the hominoid ancestral morph than the cercopithecoid ancestral morph. In combination with *Proconsul* falling nearer the catarrhine MRCA than *Epipliopithecus* and the reduced similarity between *Aegyptopithecus* and the hominoids, this may suggest that *Epipliopithecus* functionally converges on the hominoid morphology. This is corroborated by a literature that notes the similarity in inferred locomotor repertoire between *Epipliopithecus,* the atelids and the hominoids ((Zapfe, 1960; Ward, 2007), a repertoire likely shared by the other potential stem catarrhines and hominoids such as the dendropipthecoids and nyanzapithecines (Rose, 1983, 1993; Harrison, 2013; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). This further suggests that stem catarrhines and basal members of the

hominoid and cercopithecoid lineages were experimenting with a range of locomotor modes that did not resemble either the committed quadrupedalism of cercopithecines or the derived suspensory behaviors seen in extant hominoids.

CHAPTER 6: Discussion and Conclusions

6.1 DISCUSSION

This thesis set out to clarify the phylogenetic position of the Miocene African catarrhines belonging to the *Proconsul* hypodigm (including the newly proposed genera *Ugandapithecus* and *Ekembo*). While this taxon is well represented in the fossil record and has a long history of paleontological research, its phylogenetic position had not the focus of a comprehensive phylogenetic analysis. The consensus in the literature places *Proconsul* as the earliest hominoid and is often used to define the earliest hominoid morphotype (Andrews, 1985; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Begun, 1997). The *Proconsul* primitive, arboreal quadrupedal skeletal morphology differs significantly from the suite of features related to suspension and climbing that define extant hominoids (Le Gros Clark and Leakey, 1951; Napier and Davis, 1959; Cartmill and Milton, 1977; Andrews, 1978; Walker and Pickford, 1983; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Harrison, 1987; Rose, 1987, 1994, 1996; Ward et al., 1991, 1993; Nakatsukasa et al., 2003; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015), resembling instead the mix of quadrupedal adaptations with limited adaptations to susepnsion and climbing seen among stem catarrhines such as the pliopithecoids and dendropithecoids (Rose, 1983, 1993; Harrison, 2013). While this does not preclude *Proconsul* from inclusion within Hominoidea, its phylogenetic position does significantly alter inferences concerning hominoid character polarities. In order to interpret evolutionary events among hominoids, including within the hominin lineage, researchers must have confidence in the inferences on which these character polarities rest. The phylogenetic placement of *Proconsul* is central to defining these character polarities, particularly given that its current identification as one of the earliest hominoids.

Three possible phylogenetic hypotheses have been proposed in the literature: H1) *Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine, H2) *Proconsul* is a stem hominoid, H3) *Proconsul* is a stem hominid. The evidence used to support these hypotheses in previous analyses was reviewed. H2 is the hypothesis that is currently most widely supported in the literature, based on a suite of features primarily drawn from the postcranial skeleton that are shared by *Proconsul* and extant hominoids. Proponents of H3 rely more heavily on cranial characters shared by *Proconsul* and the hominids. H1 relies on the identification of synapomorphies supporting a clade including cercopithecoids and hominoids to the exclusion of *Proconsul.* The wide range of diversity within each of these clades along with each possessing an extensive suite of features separating them makes it unlikely there will be many crown catarrhine synapomorphies. Emphasis is placed on the similarities between the flexible quadrupedalism of *Proconsul*—including varying degrees of suspensory or climbing adaptiations—and that of stem catarrhines such as the pliopithecoids and dendropithecoids (Zapfe, 1960; Fleagle, 1983; Rose, 1983, 1993; Gebo, 1989, 2009; Ward, 2007; Harrison, 2010, 2013). H1 would also be supported however if there are no synapomorphies identified linking *Proconsul* to either hominoids or hominids, as H1 is the most conservative hypothesis.

This thesis improved on previous phylogenetic analyses of *Proconsul* by compiling the largest data set ever compiled for this purpose. This was achieved through extensive sampling of extant taxa and constructing a large character list sampling across a number of structuralfunctional complexes. A character list of 816 characters was compiled sampling from the cranium, forelimb, pelvis and foot for 17 ingroup taxa, in addition to the *Proconsul* material. These data were explored in three ways: 1) an initial phenetic exploration of the data set depicted patterns of variation among extant catarrhines, observing where fossil taxa and the outgroup

platyrrhines fall relative to this range of variation; 2) phylogenetic analyses inferred the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* among catarrhines; 3) the spread of variation across synapomorphies were explored in a phylo-morphospace analysis.

The initial phenetic analysis employed principal component analyses and identified four main patterns of variation: 1) *Proconsul* is distinctive relative to extant and fossil taxa, 2) *Proconsul* consistently appears phenetically most similar to the hominoids, 3) there is a wider range of variation among platyrrhines than catarrhines for the set of characters that distinguish hominoids from cercopithecoids, 4) fossil taxa extend the range of variation for crown clades. Distance between taxa often reflected phylogenetic distance, clustering hominoids, cercopithecoids and platyrrhines separately. *Proconsul* consistently grouped with hominoids. This was the first line of evidence suggesting that *Proconsul* is a hominoid. This interpretation was complicated, however, by the fact that *Proconsul* was shown to be distinctive, falling far from all other taxa. The wide range of variation among platyrrhines relative to catarrhines also complicated interpretation as it was not possible in these analyses to distinguish between primitive and derived character states. It also suggested that phylogenetic analyses might struggle with rooting character polarities at the base of the anthropoid tree.

Where it was possible to include both basal catarrhine fossils (*Aegyptopithecus* and *Epipliopithecus*) in analyses, they exhibited divergent morphology. This again made assuming primitive versus derived ranges of variation impossible in phenetic analyses, where either taxon could more closely approximate the primitive condition. It also suggests the inference of the basal catarrhine morphology in phylogenetic analyses may be inaccurate.

 The primary test of the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul* was conducted in a series of phylogenetic analyses applying both parsimony and Bayesian optimality criteria. Both methods

were able to identify H2—*Proconsul* is a hominoid—as the optimal hypothesis with a lower cost and greater support for a clade including *Proconsul* and extant and fossil hominoid taxa than in alternate hypotheses.

 The phylo-morphospace analysis employed a novel combination of phylogenetic and phenetic methods to further explore morphological evolution across the catarrhine clade. This method is useful in exploring character evolution focused on stem taxa. This final set of analyses began by using results from phylogenetic analyses to identify the specific set of synapomorphies supporting the position of *Proconsul* within Hominoidea. While many of these synapomorphies have been discussed extensively in the literature, nine new characters were identified that have not previously been used to test the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*: coronoid fossa width, radio-carpal facet width, robusticity of MC5, the hamulus of the hamate and the calcaneal sustentaculum and four characters describing dimensions of the navicular.

Synapomorphies were drawn from all regions except the cranium. In order to evaluate the evolution of these characters, all H2 synapomorphies (including those that were not optimal for this hypothesis) were then used to infer ancestral morphotypes. Principal component analyses depicted relationships between ancestral morphotypes and taxa in order to visualize patterns of morphological evolution. These results emphasized the importance of fossil taxa to inferring ancestral morphotypes and character polarities for crown catarrhine clades. Interestingly *Proconsul* may morphologically be more similar to the catarrhine MRCA than to the hominoid MRCA for these characters, while *Epipliopithecus* expresses a greater phenetic similarity to the hominoid MRCA.

A number of the characters reviewed in chapter 1 as possible synapomorphies were not identified as synapomorphic. Neither of the following characters exhibited synapomorphies

grouping *Proconsul* with hominoids: morphology of the premaxillary-nasal contact (Rae, 1999), projection of the inter-orbital region (Rae, 1999). Rae (1999) identified *Proconsul* and extant hominoids as having a premaxilla that contacts the nasals inferiorly, while in cercopithecoids the contact extends superiorly to the top of the nasals. He inferred the primitive catarrhine condition was intermediate, with the premaxilla contacting the nasals at their midpoint. This analysis found many platyrrhines also exhibit the more inferior premaxilla-nasal contact suggesting this is the primitive condition. Rae (1999) also suggested a non-projecting inter-orbital region is derived for *Proconsul* and Hominoids. This analysis found that while hominoids and *Proconsul* did consistently express a non-projecting inter-orbital region, it also identified more variation among cercopithecoids and platyrrhines. *Alouatta*, *Nasalis*, and *Erythrocebus* also variably expressed non-projecting inter-orbital regions and therefore this character was not identified as synapomorphic.

A number of characters were identified supporting previously proposed synapomorphies. These involved morphology of the distal humerus and ulnar trochlear notch (Napier and Davis, 1959; Fleagle, 1983; Andrews, 1985; Harrison, 1987; Rose, 1988; McCrossin, 1994; Benefit and McCrossin, 1995; Walker, 1997; Fleagle, 1998; Larson, 1998, 2006; Rae, 1999; Gebo, 2009), morphology of the hamate and pisiform (Lewis, 1972, 1989; Conroy and Fleagle, 1972; O'Connor, 1975; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015), cranial expansion of the acetabulum (Zykstra, 1999) and the sacro-iliac contact (Ward, 1991, 1993; Kelley, 1997) . *Proconsul* and extant hominoids share a broad trochlea with well-developed medial and lateral trochlear keels, a globular capitulum and an extensive trochlear notch. This analysis identified two further key synapomorphies from the forelimb: width of the radio-carpal facet and width of the coronoid

fossa. Additionally width across the incisors was also identified as a new synapomorphy along with morphology of the calcaneal sustentaculum and dimensions of the navicular.

Many of the characters drawn from the forelimb and manus reflect greater joint mobility across the forelimb, abduction/adduction at the wrist, radio-ulnar rotation, extension-flexion at the elbow, and greater robusticity of regions of the hand associated with gripping vertical supports. These characters distinguish *Proconsul* from committed quadrupeds (including crown cercopithecoids and some platyrrhines) and suggest vertical climbing, bridging and perhaps limited suspensory behaviors may have been incorporated into its locomotor repertoire (Napier and Davis, 1959; Rose, 1983, Walker and Pickford, 1983; 1989; Andrews, 1985; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Gebo et al., 1988; Andrews, 1985; Gebo, 1996; Kelley, 1997; Walker, 1997; Fleagle, 1998; Larson and Stern, 2006; Gebo, 2009; Nakatsukasa and Kunimatsu, 2009). Given results from these analyses, the presence of these synapomorphies in *Proconsul—*despite lacking the full suite of characters suggesting extant hominoid suspensory behaviors*—*likely indicates pre-adaptation to suspension and not symplesiomorphic similarity to stem catarrhines. It may further suggest that the dendropithecoids, expressing similar post-cranial adaptations (Fleagle, 1983; Rose, 1983, 1993; Gebo, 1989, 2009; Ward, 2007; Harrison, 2010, 2013) perhaps should also be placed within Hominoidea, though confident inference would require including them within a rigorous phylogenetic analysis. While many features in the forelimb and manus are synapomorphic for hominoids + *Proconsul,* there are also a number of other features drawn from the mandible, pelvis and pes that are less closely tied to the suite of suspensory and climbing behavior associated with the hominoids.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

Results from this dissertation lead to the rejection of H1 (*Proconsul* is a stem catarrhine) and H3 (*Proconsul* is a hominid), identifying H2 (*Proconsul* is a hominoid) as the optimal hypothesis. A broader consideration of the distribution of morphology supporting this hypothesis elucidates the difficulty in inferring character polarities for the early stages of catarrhine and crown catarrhine evolution. A potential strength of this dissertation is the fact that while it recapitulated results from prior analyses, it did so with a novel character list that did not incorporate many of the characters and regions that have often held a central place in the discussion of catarrhine evolution and the phylogenetic position of *Proconsul*. This lends additional to support to the inference that *Proconsul* is a hominoid as this data set is clearly not simply rerunning the same data from previous analyses.

Proconsul primarily exhibits evidence for a pronograde arboreal quadrupedal locomotor style, expressing a greater range of motion across its forelimb than is seen in extant arboreal cercopithecoids and is more similar in this regard to platyrrhines (Szalay and Delson, 1979; Andrews, 1985; Andrews and Martin, 1987; Rose, 1987, 1994; Ward et al., 1993; Walker, 1997; Nakatsukasa, 2003, 2004, 2007, 2009; Dunsworth, 2006; Daver and Nakatsukasa, 2015). Results from the phylo-morphospace analysis show *Proconsul* falling nearest the platyrrhines (particularly *Pithecia*) across all anthropoids and to the cercopithecines among catarrhines. *Victoriapithecus* closely approximates the cercopithecoid MRCA morphotype and also is most similar to the cercopithecines among catarrhines, though often exhibiting greater morphological similarity to the platyrrhines. The Miocene basal catarrhine *Epipliopithecus* also exhibited forelimb morphology most similar to platyrrhines, a pattern also exhibited by the dendropithecoids (Gebo, 1989, 2009; Rose et al., 1992; Rose, 1997; Harrison, 2010, 2013). In

this analysis, *Epipliopithecus* expressed even more evidence for suspensory behaviors than *Proconsul*, appearing most similar to the atelids (Rose, 1994) and appearing closer morphologically to the hominoid MRCA than *Proconsul*. In this context, the committed quadrupedalism of cercopithecoids is likely more derived than the seemingly unique locomotion of the hominoids (Wood-Jones, 1929; Le Gros Clark, 1934; Von Koenigswald, 1968, 1969; Szalay and Delson, 1979; Fleagle, 1983; Harrison, 1987, 1993; Rose, 1988, 1994; Gebo, 1993; Benefit, 1999; Leakey et al., 2003; Elton, 2007; Jablonski and Frost, 2010), though this simplification is challenged by similarities between *Proconsul, Victoriapithecus* and the cercopithecines. Given this distribution of variation, *Proconsul* may be characterized as primarily monkey-like, possessing many crown catarrhine synapomorphies making it appear similar to *Victoriapithecus* and the cercopithecines, but also possessing hominoid synapomorphies for which it does not yet exhibit a fully derived morph, instead indicating preadaptations to the more derived morphology exhibited by more derived fossil and extant hominoids. Interestingly, *Proconsul* appears more primitive in its post-cranial adaptations than another middle Miocene ape *Kenyapithecus* (Pickford et al., 2006; Harrison, 2010). While this taxon also exhibits adaptations to quadrupedal locomotion, its elbow is more derived towards the hominoid condition (McCrossin and Benefit, 1994; Rose, 1997), suggesting a more complex scenario than *Proconsul* simply being the first and thus most primitive taxon. The potential that *Morotopithecus* and nyanzapithecines are also hominoids (Gebo, 1997; Kunimatsu 1997; MacLatchy et al. 2000; Young and MacLatchy 2004; Pickford and Kunimatsu, 2005) as opposed to stem catarrhines (Harrison, 2010, 2013) —a likely scenario given results from this dissertation, given the similarity between *Proconsul* and these taxa (Leakey and Leakey, 1986; Kunimatsu 1997; Pickford and Kunimatsu, 2005; Harrison, 2010)—could push the originiation

of the hominoid clade into the Oligocene (Gebo, 1997; Stevens et al., 2013). This result is confirmed by the dating analysis conducted here, which infers the MRCA of all hominoids, including *Proconsul*, to occur in the Oligocene, not long after the MRCA of all crown catarrhines.

Ultimately, the catarrhine, hominoid and cercopithecoid MRCA morphotypes are quite similar to each other morphologically for the set of synapomorphies placing *Proconsul* within Hominoidea. This result is confirmed in the literature by discussions of other basal catarrhine taxa, such as *Saadanius* and the dendropithecoids (Leakey and Leakey 1987; Gebo, 1989, 2009; Rose et al., 1992; Rose, 1997; Harrison, 2010, 2013; Zalmout et al., 2010), and demonstrates how little morphological variation there is distinguishing stem catarrhines from crown catarrhines. *Proconsul, Saadanius* and the dendropithecoids are the fossil taxa that fall nearest the divergence of crown catarrhines, with only *Saadanius* uncontested in the literature as falling before the divergence of cercopithecoids and hominoids (Zalmout et al., 2010). The range of variation expressed by these three taxa exemplifies the continued difficulty facing research into the early divergence of the hominoids.

Appendix A. Complete character list

			Metric/	
Code	Region	Element	Ordered	Description
01	Cranium	Frontal	O	supraorbital notch morphology
				Absent (0) reduced (1) present (2) displaced laterally (3) foramen (4)
о2	Cranium	Orbit	O	location of highest point in orbital aperture
				Medial (0) middle (1) lateral (2)
о3	Cranium	Orbit	O	location of lowest point in orbital aperture
				Medial (0) middle (1) lateral (2)
о4	Cranium	Orbit	O	orbit width
				midline (0) diagonal (1) lateral (2) medial (3)
о5	Cranium	Orbit	O	orbits square or round
				square (0) or round (1)
о6	Cranium	Frontal	\circ	supra-orbital region undifferentiated from forehead
				No (0) yes (1)
				height of superior border of zygomatic at
о7	Cranium	Orbit	O	zygomatic root
				Below orbital margin (0) even with (1) above orbital margin (2)
ο8	Cranium	Orbit	O	length of posterior lacrimal crest
				No (0) yes (1)
				presence of tubercle at termination of
о9	Cranium	Orbit	O	posterior lacrimal
				No (0) yes (1)
o10	Cranium	Orbit	O	prominence of lacrimal crest
				Rounded hangs over (0) flat (1) notched (2) nasals project into (3)
o11	Cranium	Lacrimal	\circ	lacrimal fossa position within orbit
				covered (1) uncovered (0)
o12	Cranium	Zygomatic	O	presence of zygomatico-facial foramina on frontal process of zygomatic
				Absent (0) single (1) more than one (2) at least one very large (3)
013	Cranium	Zygomatic	O	presence of infero-lateral orbital notch.
				Absent (0) present (1)
o14	Cranium	Frontal	O	presence of supero-lateral orbital notch.
				Absent (0) present (1)
o15	Cranium	Facial	0	presence of foramina near fronto-zygomatic suture.

Appendix C: Chapter 3 distance matrices. Appendix C: Chapter 3 distance matrices.
Separate sexes Separate sexes

Separate sexes Separate sexes

All characters distance matrix
Corilla para poppara All characters distance matrix

Cranial distance matrix

Mandible distance matrix

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Ępiolop 9.03 8.09 9.55 12.33 11.83 7.01 6.03 6.64 6.11 8.11 8.47 6.39 4.79 5.23 5.41 7.29 5.68 7.50 5.76 6.34

222

Pelvis distance matrix Pelvis distance matrix

224

All synapomorphies distance matrix All synapomorphies distance matrix Appendix F: Chapter 5 distance matrices Appendix F: Chapter 5 distance matrices

Gorilla Hylob Symph Pongeo Qolobi Macaa Nasali Papio Presb, Érythr Victor Phesse Platyr Catarr Cerco, Homir Holloni Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saimir Pithec Epiplic 3.55 4.03 3.45 4.72 3.25 3.26 3.88 3.78 Cerco Colobi Macar Nasali Papio Presbi Erythr Victor Phese Platyr Catarr Cerco Homir Homir Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saguir Saimir Pither Epipli 3.55 3.81 3.42 3.73 3.78 3.75 2.52 3.91 2.68 3.36 3.58 4.79 3.9 3.28 4.22 \circ Gorilia O 3.47 4.3 2.1 2.15 4.21 3.93 4.67 3.16 4.32 2.89 3.87 4.15 4.28 3.84 3.84 3.94 3.95 3.95 4.86 2.78 2.86 5.23 4.68 4.35 4.09 3.55 1,Hylob, 3.47 3.43 3.31 2.97 3.29 3.22 3.22 3.23 3.04 3.21 3.44 4.75 3.07 2.83 3.23 3.42 4.87 3.72 3.84 4.87 3.75 3.81 3.41 3.55 Symph 4.3 2.53 3.53 3.31 2.57 2.53 3.57 2.59 3.98 3.09 3.57 3.04 4.57 2.65 2.62 2.65 3.92 4.87 4.42 4.42 4.25 3.69 4.16 3.54 4 Pongc 2.1 3.43 4.19 4 19 10 2.72 3.93 4.11 4.73 3.64 3.64 4.26 4.26 4.24 4.24 4.24 4.26 2.48 4.81 3.09 3.11 4.98 4.32 4.1 3.81 Pan 2.15 3.31 3.87 2.72 0 3.81 3.6 4.33 2.76 4.2 2.69 3.5 4.45 3.73 4.44 3.81 3.98 3.69 1.9 4.59 2.16 2.96 4.48 4.55 3.83 3.93 Čerco 4.21 2.97 3.31 3.31 3.31 3.22 3.13 3.14 3.04 3.51 4.65 3.57 4.65 3.6 3.04 3.73 4.16 4.79 3.6 4.11 3.96 3.4 3.81 3.28 3.73 Čolobi 3.93 3.57 4.11 3.6 2.62 0 2.58 3.51 2.39 3.33 2.48 3.1 4.28 2.77 2.54 2.96 3.73 4.48 3.6 4.3 4.04 3.24 4.12 3.21 3.78 Nacac 4.67 3.32 2.63 4.73 4.33 3.18 2.58 0 3.66 1.29 3.96 2.63 2.95 3 4.35 2.21 2.71 4.37 4.64 4.45 5.2 4.01 3.37 4.14 3.59 3.75 Nasali 3.16 3.57 3.54 3.54 3.51 3.51 3.56 0 3.6 2.52 2.72 3.65 4 4.91 3.64 3.64 2.81 4.91 3.02 3.43 4.86 4.18 3.62 3.62 3.52 Papio 4.32 3.23 2.59 4.35 4.2 3.04 2.39 1.29 3.6 0 3.86 2.43 2.67 2.88 4.19 2.58 4.05 4.05 4.45 4.45 5.05 3.92 3.39 3.45 3.91 Presb, 2.89 3.23 3.98 3.64 2.69 3.81 3.33 3.96 2.52 3.86 0 3.54 4.05 4.2 3.47 3.3 3.33 2.83 4.07 4.07 4.18 4.19 4.19 3.58 3.6 2.68 Erythr 3.87 3.04 3.09 3.96 3.5 1.76 2.48 2.63 2.72 2.43 3.29 0 3.12 3.44 4.59 3.24 2.61 3.39 3.62 4.84 3.45 4.27 4.12 3.63 3.65 3.64 3.36 ادُ 1.15 3.21 3.57 4.26 4.45 3.23 3.09 2.95 3.65 2.67 3.54 3.12 0 3.73 4.09 3.05 1.6 3.13 4.14 4.14 4.14 4.23 4.16 2.95 3.14 3.58 4.61 Phese 4.28 3.44 3.04 4.28 3.57 3.57 3.1 3 4 2.88 4.05 3.44 3.73 2.12 3.2 1.23 3.96 4.33 3.86 4.7 3.24 3.57 4.01 2.74 4.61 Platyr 4.88 4.75 4.57 4.85 4.44 4.65 4.28 4.39 4.39 4.29 4.29 4.29 3.72 4.08 4.08 4.08 4.09 4.09 4.13 2.23 3.69 3.02 2.77 4.79 Catarr 3.84 3.07 2.65 4.14 3.81 3.6 2.77 2.53 3.49 2.38 3.47 3.24 3.26 2.12 3.76 0 2.38 1.02 3.57 4.29 3.39 4.32 3.18 4.11 2.39 3.9 Čerco 3.05 2.62 4.24 3.98 3.04 2.54 2.54 2.21 3.3 2.61 1.6 3.2 4.08 2.38 0 2.57 3.78 4.32 3.99 4.42 4.05 3.25 3.6 3.24 3.28 Homir 3.97 3.23 2.85 4.26 3.09 3.73 2.96 2.71 3.64 2.58 3.33 3.39 3.19 1.85 2.99 1.02 2.57 0 3.71 3.64 3.78 4.21 3.23 3.32 3.7 2.15 4.03 Homir 1.23 3.42 3.92 2.48 1.9 4.16 3.73 4.37 2.81 4.05 2.83 3.62 4.31 3.96 4.97 3.57 3.78 3.71 0 5.11 2.76 3.43 5.17 4.85 4.43 4.24 3.45 Àlloua 4.86 4.87 4.81 4.89 4.79 4.48 4.64 4.91 4.45 4.84 4.16 4.33 1.72 4.29 4.32 3.64 5.11 0 4.21 3.95 2.98 3.78 3.22 3.18 4.72 Aotus 2.78 3.72 4.42 3.09 2.16 3.6 3.6 4.45 3.02 4.3 2.6 3.45 4.04 3.86 4.03 3.78 2.76 4.21 0 2.48 4.06 3.94 3.26 3.45 3.25 Ateles 2.86 3.98 4.94 3.11 2.96 4.11 4.3 5.2 3.43 5.05 2.75 4.27 4.23 4.13 4.32 4.42 4.21 3.43 3.98 2.48 0 4.64 4.03 3.64 3.34 3.26 Čebus 5.23 4.57 4.25 4.98 4.48 3.96 4.04 4.01 4.01 4.48 4.12 4.16 3.24 2.23 3.24 5.24 5.27 2.28 4.05 4.06 4.64 0 4.12 3.21 2.89 5.21 Saguir 4.68 3.75 3.69 4.32 4.35 3.24 3.24 3.37 4.18 3.39 4.19 3.57 3.59 3.18 3.25 3.25 3.28 3.28 3.28 4.03 4.12 0 3.44 2.67 3.88 Salmir 4.35 3.81 4.16 4.16 4.1 3.83 3.81 4.12 4.14 3.62 3.58 3.59 4.01 3.02 4.11 3.6 3.7 4.43 3.22 3.26 3.64 3.21 3.44 0 3.35 3.78 Pithec 4.09 3.41 3.54 3.59 3.28 3.21 3.59 3.59 3.45 3.64 3.14 2.74 2.77 2.39 3.24 2.15 4.24 3.18 3.45 3.34 2.89 2.67 3.35 0 4.22 Ępiplic 3.55 3.55 4 3.54 3.42 3.73 3.78 3.75 2.52 3.91 2.68 3.58 4.61 4.79 3.28 4.03 4.403 4.72 4.72 3.25 3.26 5 3.88 3.78 4.22 0 4.09 3.28 3.95 3.45 3.14 2.15 3.18 3.45 3.35 3.41 3.54 3.99 3.9 3.21 3.59 3.6 3.64 2.74 2.77 2.39 3.24 4.24 3.34 2.89 2.67 \circ 4.22 4.35 3.58 3.65 3.59 4.43 3.22 3.26 3.21 3.44 \circ 3.35 3.78 3.96 3.6 3.7 3.81 4.16 4.1 3.83 3.81 4.12 4.14 3.62 4.01 3.02 4.11 3.64 4.68 4.55 4.18 3.39 4.19 3.63 2.95 3.69 3.18 3.25 3.32 4.85 3.78 3.94 4.03 4.12 \circ 3.44 2.67 3.88 3.75 3.69 4.32 3.4 3.24 3.37 3.57 3.21 4.86 4.16 3.96 \circ 4.12 2.89 5.23 4.25 4.98 4.48 4.48 4.12 4.05 3.23 5.17 2.98 4.06 4.64 $\sqrt{ }$ 4.57 3.96 4.04 4.01 3.92 3.24 2.23 2.86 3.64 4.23 3.43 \circ 4.64 4.03 3.98 4.94 3.11 2.96 4.11 $4.\overline{3}$ 5.2 3.43 5.05 2.75 4.27 4.13 4.32 4.42 4.21 3.95 2.48 3.34 3.26 4.7 2.78 3.09 2.16 3.6 4.3 2.6 3.45 4.04 3.93 3.78 2.76 \circ 2.48 4.06 3.94 3.26 3.45 3.72 4.42 3.6 4.45 3.02 3.86 4.03 3.99 4.21 3.25 4.86 4.87 4.59 4.79 4.16 4.33 4.29 4.32 3.64 5.11 3.95 2.98 3.78 3.22 3.18 4.72 4.87 4.81 4.48 4.64 4.91 4.45 4.07 4.84 1.72 \circ 4.21 1.23 3.42 3.57 2.76 3.43 5.17 3.45 3.92 2.48 1.9 4.16 3.73 2.81 4.05 2.83 3.62 4.31 3.96 4.97 3.78 3.71 \circ 5.11 4.85 4.43 4.24 4.37 3.97 3.73 3.64 3.19 2.57 3.64 3.78 2.15 2.85 4.26 2.96 2.71 2.58 3.33 3.39 1.85 2.99 1.02 \circ 3.71 4.21 3.23 3.32 4.03 3.23 3.69 3.7 3.96 2.38 3.78 2.83 2.62 4.24 3.98 3.04 2.54 2.21 3.04 \sim $3.\overline{3}$ 2.61 1.6 3.2 4.08 \circ 2.57 4.32 3.99 4.42 4.05 3.25 3.6 3.24 3.28 3.84 3.07 2.65 4.14 3.6 2.77 2.53 3.49 2.38 3.47 3.24 3.05 2.12 3.76 \circ 2.38 1.02 3.57 4.29 3.93 4.32 3.96 3.18 4.11 2.39 3.81 3.9 4.88 2.99 4.75 4.57 4.85 4.44 4.65 4.28 4.35 4.91 4.19 4.2 4.59 4.09 3.72 3.76 4.08 4.97 1.72 4.03 4.13 2.23 3.69 3.02 2.77 4.79 \circ 4.28 2.12 3.96 3.44 3.04 2.88 4.05 3.44 3.73 3.72 3.2 1.85 4.33 3.24 4.28 3.73 3.57 3.1 ∞ 4 \circ 3.86 4.7 3.57 4.01 2.74 4.61 4.15 3.54 3.12 3.05 3.19 3.14 3.21 3.57 4.26 4.45 3.23 3.09 2.95 3.65 2.67 \circ 3.73 4.09 1.6 4.31 4.16 4.04 4.23 4.16 2.95 3.59 3.58 3.87 3.04 3.09 3.96 1.76 2.48 2.63 2.72 2.43 3.29 3.12 3.44 4.59 3.24 2.61 3.39 3.45 4.12 3.63 3.65 3.64 3.36 3.5 \circ 3.62 4.84 4.27 2.89 3.23 2.52 3.29 3.54 3.98 3.64 2.69 3.81 3.33 3.86 \circ 4.05 $3.\overline{3}$ 3.33 2.83 2.6 4.48 4.19 3.58 3.6 2.68 3.96 4.2 3.47 4.07 2.75 4.32 3.22 3.86 2.43 2.67 2.58 2.59 3.04 2.39 2.38 4.05 3.92 3.39 4.35 4.2 1.29 3.6 \circ 2.88 4.19 \sim 4.45 4.3 5.05 3.96 3.45 3.91 3.16 3.57 3.14 2.52 2.72 3.65 3.49 3.04 3.64 4.86 4.18 3.62 3.02 3.64 3.51 3.66 \circ 3.6 \overline{a} 2.81 3.43 3.95 2.52 2.76 4.91 3.02 4.91 4.67 3.96 3.32 2.63 4.73 4.33 3.18 2.58 \circ 3.66 1.29 2.63 2.95 4.35 2.53 2.71 4.37 4.45 4.14 3.59 3.75 2.21 4.64 5.2 4.01 3.37 3.93 3.29 2.58 2.39 3.33 2.48 3.09 2.96 2.57 4.11 3.6 2.62 \circ 3.51 4.28 2.77 2.54 3.73 4.48 3.6 4.3 4.12 3.78 3.1 4.04 3.24 3.21 4.21 2.97 3.31 3.93 3.81 \circ 2.62 3.18 3.14 3.04 3.81 1.76 3.23 4.65 3.6 3.04 3.73 4.16 4.79 3.96 3.81 3.28 3.73 3.6 3.4 3.57 4.11 2.15 2.72 3.31 3.87 \circ 3.81 3.6 4.33 2.76 4.2 2.69 $3.\overline{5}$ 4.45 3.73 4.44 3.81 3.98 3.69 $\frac{0}{1}$ 4.59 2.16 2.96 4.48 4.55 3.83 3.9 3.42 Gorilla Hylob: Sympl Pongo Pan 2.1 3.43 4.19 \circ 2.72 3.93 4.73 3.64 3.64 4.26 4.28 4.14 4.24 4.26 3.09 3.11 4.98 4.32 3.99 3.81 4.11 4.35 3.96 4.85 2.48 4.81 4.1 2.53 4.3 \circ 4.19 3.87 3.31 2.63 2.59 3.98 3.09 3.57 3.04 2.65 2.62 2.85 3.92 4.42 4.25 3.69 4.16 3.54 $\overline{}$ 2.57 3.57 4.57 4.87 4.94 \circ 2.53 3.43 3.31 2.97 3.23 3.23 3.47 3.29 3.32 3.02 3.22 3.04 3.21 3.44 4.75 3.07 2.83 3.42 4.87 3.72 3.98 4.57 3.75 3.81 3.41 3.55 \circ 3.47 4.3 2.1 2.15 4.21 3.93 3.16 4.32 2.89 3.87 4.15 4.28 4.88 3.84 3.96 3.97 4.86 5.23 4.68 4.35 4.09 3.55 1.23 2.78 2.86 4.67 Hylob. Macac Alloua Ateles Saguir Pithec Gorilla Pongo Colobi Presby Erythr Victor Phese Catarr Cerco Homir Cebus Saimir Epiplic Sympt Cerco Nasali Papio Platyr Homir Aotus Pan

Cranial synapomorphies Cranial synapomorphies

Gorilla Hylob Symph Pongo Colobi Macaa Nasali Papio Presb, Erythr Victor Phesse Platyr Catarr Cerco, Homir Hohin Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saiguir Saimir Pithec Epiplic 2.45 2.45 2.45 3.46 2.45 3.29 3.95 4.38 2.68 3.46 Cerco Colobi Macar Nasali Papio Presbi Erythr Victor Phese Platyr Catarr Cerco Homir Homir Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saguir Saimir Pithec Epipli $\frac{9}{1}$ 2.45 1.9 2.45 3.1 2.68 2.45 1.9 2.45 2.19 4.24 3.1 1.9 2.45 2.45 3.1 Gorilla: 0 2.68 3.1 1.55 1.55 3.63 2.9 3.1 2.19 3.1 3.1 3.1 2.3 4.1 2.45 3.1 2.68 0 4.1 1.55 1.55 4.52 2.9 3.63 2.9 1.9 1,Job 2.68 7.68 2.68 1.9 1.9 2.19 2.19 2.19 2.19 2.15 2.15 2.15 2.45 2.15 2.15 2.15 2.15 2.15 2.45 2.15 2.45 2 Symph 3.1 1.55 0 2.68 3.1 1.9 1.1 1.55 2.68 1.55 2.9 1.55 1.55 2.45 4.1 2.45 1.55 2.68 3.1 4.1 3.1 3.1 3.63 1.9 2.9 2.45 2.45 Pongc 1.55 2.68 2.68 0 1.55 2.9 2.45 3.1 2.45 3.1 2.68 3.1 2.9 4.1 2.9 3.1 3.1 1.55 4.1 1.55 4.24 2.45 3.29 2.9 1.9 Pan 1.55 2.68 3.1 1.55 0 3.29 2.9 3.46 2.19 3.46 3.46 2.45 3.46 2.9 3.46 2.68 1.55 3.46 0 0 3.63 2.9 2.45 2.45 Čercoq 3.63 1.9 1.9 2.9 0 2.19 2.45 2.45 2.45 3.45 3.45 2.45 2.68 4.52 3.1 2.45 3.29 3.63 4.52 3.29 3.29 3.19 2.19 3.1 2.68 3.1 Čolobi 2.9 1.1 2.45 2.9 2.19 0 1.9 2.9 1.9 2.68 1.9 2.19 3.19 3.19 3.19 3.19 2.45 2.9 3.95 2.9 3.79 1.55 3.1 2.19 2.68 DAAGA 1.1 2.19 1.55 3.146 2.45 1.9 0 2.68 0 2.55 0 2.45 3.79 1.9 0 2.19 3.19 3.19 3.46 3.46 3.46 3.63 1.9 2.45 2.45 EĂƐĂůŝ Ϯ͘ϭϵ Ϯ͘ϭϵ Ϯ͘ϲϴ Ϯ͘ϭϵ Ϯ͘ϭϵ Ϯ͘ϰϱ Ϯ͘ϵ Ϯ͘ϲϴ Ϭ Ϯ͘ϲϴ Ϯ͘ϰϱ Ϯ͘ϭϵ Ϯ͘ϲϴ Ϯ͘ϵ ϰ͘ϯϴ Ϯ͘ϵ Ϯ͘ϲϴ ϯ͘ϭ Ϯ͘ϭϵ ϰ͘ϭ Ϯ͘ϭϵ Ϯ͘ϭϵ ϰ͘Ϯϰ Ϯ͘ϰϱ Ϯ͘ϵ Ϯ͘ϵ ϭ͘ϵ Papio 3.1 2.19 1.55 3.1 3.45 2.45 1.9 0 2.68 0 2.45 3.79 1.9 0 2.19 1.9 0 2.19 3.19 3.46 3.46 3.46 3.63 1.9 2.45 2.45 Presb, 1.9 2.45 2.9 2.45 1.9 3.46 2.68 2.9 2.9 0 2.9 2.68 3.63 2.68 3.63 2.68 2.45 1.9 3.29 1.9 3.19 3.19 3.1 2.68 2.19 EryChr 3.1 1.55 1.55 2.68 3.1 1.1 1.9 1.55 2.19 1.55 2.45 2.45 4.1 2.45 1.55 2.68 3.1 4.1 3.1 3.63 1.9 2.9 2.45 2.45 كادُ 1.1 1.219 1.55 1.56 مِنْ 1.96 (2.45 0 1.56 0 1.55 0 1.55 0 1.45 1.79 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.46 1.46 1.46 1.9 1.45 Phese 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1.9 3.46 2.45 3.46 2.68 1.55 3.46 0 0 0 3.63 2.9 2.45 2.45 Čebus 4.52 3.95 3.63 4.24 3.63 3.79 3.79 3.63 4.24 3.63 3.63 2.68 1.9 3.79 3.63 2.9 4.52 2.45 3.63 3.63 0 3.79 2.19 2.68 4.38 Šāguir 2.9 2.45 1.9 2.45 2.9 2.19 1.55 1.9 2.45 1.9 3.1 1.9 2.19 3.63 2.19 1.9 2.45 2.9 3.63 2.19 3.79 0 2.68 2.19 2.68 Saimir 3.63 3.29 2.9 3.29 2.9 3.1 2.9 2.9 2.9 2.9 2.9 2.68 2.45 3.45 2.9 3.63 2.45 2.45 2.9 2.9 2.19 2.68 0 2.68 3.1 Pithec 2.9 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.68 2.19 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.55 2.45 1.1 2.9 3.29 2.45 2.45 2.68 2.19 2.68 0 3.46 Epiplic 1.9 2.45 2.45 1.9 2.45 3.1 2.68 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.45 3.46 4.24 3.1 2.45 3.29 1.9 3.5 2.45 4.38 2.68 3.1 3.46 0 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.45 2.19 2.45 2.68 \circ 2.45 3.29 2.45 2.45 2.68 2.19 \circ 2.9 2.45 2.9 2.68 2.9 2.9 1.55 1.1 2.9 2.68 3.46 2.9 2.9 2.68 3.63 2.45 2.9 2.19 2.68 2.68 3.29 2.9 3.29 3.1 3.1 2.9 2.9 3.1 2.9 2.45 2.9 2.9 2.9 \circ 3.1 3.63 2.9 3.46 2.9 2.45 1.55 2.19 3.63 2.45 2.9 3.63 3.79 \circ 2.68 2.19 2.68 1.9 2.45 2.9 2.19 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Mandibular synapomorphies Mandibular synapomorphies

Gorilla Hylob Symph Pongo Colobi Macaa Nasali Papio Presb, Erythr Victor Phesse Platyr Catarr Cerco, Homir Hohin Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saiguir Saimir Pithec Epiplic 2.38 0.38 1.18 2.37 Cerco Colobi Macar Nasali Papio Presbi Erythr Victor Phese Platyr Catarr Cerco Homir Homir Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saguir Saimir Pithec Epipli 0.36 1.68 2.38 1.27 0.53 1.68 2.06 2.41 0.16 2.43 0.13 1.21 1.68 2.39 2.37 2.38 1.69 2.37 0.14 2.37 2.37 \circ Gorilla: 0 1.69 2.37 1.19 0.17 1.69 2.05 2.37 0.2 2.37 0.23 1.19 1.68 2.37 2.38 2.37 1.68 2.37 0.30 2.37 0.30 0.37 0.22 2.38 2.38 1.24 2.37 0.36 ,LJůŽďĂ ϭ͘ϲϵ Ϭ ϭ͘ϲϴ ϭ͘Ϯϯ ϭ͘ϳϮ ϭ͘ϲϳ Ϯ͘Ϭϱ ϭ͘ϳ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϳϯ ϭ͘ϲϳ Ϯ͘Ϭϱ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϲϴ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϲϴ ϭ͘ϲϴ ϭ͘ϲϴ ϭ͘ϲϵ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϲϴ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϭϵ ϭ͘ϲϳ ϭ͘ϲϴ Symph 2.37 1.68 0 2.06 2.38 1.68 1.68 1.18 0.17 2.37 0.29 2.37 2.05 0.03 0.16 0.03 0.03 0.03 2.37 0.07 2.38 2.37 0.16 0.16 2.07 0.1 2.38 Pongc 1.19 1.23 2.06 0 1.18 2.08 2.08 2.05 1.22 2.05 1.23 1.69 2.07 2.06 2.06 2.06 2.06 1.09 2.07 1.28 1.23 2.08 0.49 2.07 1.27 Pan 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Pongo Colobi Erythr Phese Homir Alloua Ateles Cebus Saguir Pithec Sympt Nasali Presby Cerco Homir Epiplic Cerco Maca Papio Victor Platyr Catarr Aotus Saimir Pan
Forelimb synapomorphies Forelimb synapomorphies

Gorilla Hylob Symph Pongo Colobi Macaa Nasali Papio Presb, Erythr Victor Phese Platyr Catarr Cerco, Homir Honir Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saigur Saimir Pithec Epiplic 2.52 1.46 Cerco Colobi Macar Nasali Papio Presbi Erythr Victor Phese Platyr Catarr Cerco Homir Homir Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saguir Saimir Pither Epiplio 2.16 2.75 1.86 1.45 1.27 1.35 1.32 1.73 $1.\overline{3}$ 1.6 1.58 1.96 1.33 1.37 1.54 1.4 2.54 1.34 1.36 1.45 1.1 1.67 1.26 \circ Gorilla O 1.48 1.27 0.74 1.17 1.77 1.77 1.55 1.55 1.81 1.89 1.92 1.93 1.91 1.47 1.71 1.52 0.45 1.8 1.92 1.92 1.87 2.67 2.14 1.71 2.52 ,LJůŽďĂ ϭ͘ϰϴ Ϭ Ϭ͘ϱϵ ϭ͘ϰϱ Ϭ͘ϵϯ ϭ͘ϰϱ ϭ͘ϳϰ ϭ͘ϲϰ ϭ͘ϯϱ ϭ͘ϰϯ ϭ͘ϳϮ ϭ͘ϱϭ ϭ͘ϱϱ ϭ͘ϰϯ ϭ͘ϳϲ ϭ͘Ϯϱ ϭ͘ϯϭ ϭ͘Ϯϰ ϭ͘ϰ ϭ͘ϳϴ ϭ͘ϳϲ Ϯ͘Ϯϭ ϭ͘ϳϯ Ϯ͘Ϭϯ ϭ͘ϳ ϭ͘ϲϰ Ϯ͘ϭϲ Symph 1.27 0.59 0.64 1.45 1.45 1.65 1.71 1.27 1.43 1.63 1.61 1.24 1.68 1.07 1.3 1.09 1.15 1.56 1.71 2.02 1.68 1.71 1.55 2. Pongc 0.74 1.45 0 1.25 0 1.29 2 2.1 2.64 1.8 2 2.05 2.09 2.11 1.78 2.15 1.64 1.87 1.66 0.51 2.12 2.13 2.13 2.15 2.15 2.81 2.28 2.01 2.75 Pan (1.17 0.64 1.29 (0 1.41 1.47 1.73 1.17 1.41 1.41 1.45 1.57 1.34 1.62 1.01 1.29 1.06 1.15 1.55 1.66 1.8 1.67 1.81 1.43 1.43 1.86 1.81 1.43 1.43 Čerco| 1.77 1.45 2 1.45 2 1.41 0 0.58 1.17 0.52 0.76 0.48 0.44 1.4 0.64 0.71 0.46 0.71 1.75 0.74 0.66 1.41 0.7 1.35 0.88 0.63 1.45 Čolobi 1.77 1.65 2.1 1.65 2.1 1.47 0.58 0.58 0.62 0.52 0.61 0.61 0.61 0.61 0.83 0.83 0.83 0.88 0.88 0.88 0.88 0.82 0.42 1.15 0.39 1.27 DĂĐĂĐ Ϯ͘ϱϳ ϭ͘ϲϰ ϭ͘ϳϭ Ϯ͘ϲϰ ϭ͘ϳϯ ϭ͘ϭϳ ϭ͘ϰϰ Ϭ ϭ͘ϯ ϭ͘ϭϵ ϭ͘ϱϱ ϭ͘ϭϴ ϭ͘ϭϵ ϭ͘ϲϮ ϭ͘ϰϮ ϭ͘ϯϮ ϭ͘ϭϯ ϭ͘Ϯϵ Ϯ͘ϱ ϭ͘ϱϳ ϭ͘ϰϭ Ϯ͘ϭϮ ϭ͘ϯϱ ϭ͘ϭ ϭ͘ϰϰ ϭ͘ϰϳ ϭ͘ϯϱ Nasali 1.55 1.35 1.27 1.8 1.17 0.52 0.52 1.3 1.3 0.59 0.59 0.75 0.75 0.75 0.53 0.61 0.59 1.54 0.76 1.22 0.79 1.44 1.15 0.51 1.32 WĂƉŝŽ ϭ͘ϴϵ ϭ͘ϰϯ ϭ͘ϰϯ Ϯ ϭ͘ϰϭ Ϭ͘ϳϮ ϭ͘Ϭϱ ϭ͘ϭϵ Ϭ͘ϵϮ Ϭ ϭ͘Ϯϵ Ϭ͘ϰϵ Ϭ͘ϲϱ ϭ͘Ϯϭ Ϭ͘ϴϲ Ϭ͘ϴϱ Ϭ͘ϱϮ Ϭ͘ϴ ϭ͘ϳϵ ϭ͘Ϭϵ Ϭ͘ϵϮ ϭ͘ϴϰ Ϭ͘ϵϰ ϭ͘ϯϵ Ϭ͘ϵϱ ϭ͘ϭ ϭ͘ϳϯ Presb 1.71 1.72 1.63 2.05 1.45 0.76 0.45 1.55 0.55 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Manus synapomorphies Manus synapomorphies

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O.36 O.36 O.36 O.36 O.36 O.38 O.38 O.38 O.31 O.44 O.36 O.62 O.56 ,ŽŵŝŶ Ϭ͘ϰϰ Ϭ͘ϯϲ Ϭ͘ϰϯ Ϭ͘ϯϱ Ϭ͘ϯϲ Ϭ͘ϰϰ Ϭ͘ϯϳ Ϭ͘ϰϵ Ϭ͘ϯ Ϭ͘ϰϯ Ϭ͘ϯϲ Ϭ͘ϯϴ Ϭ͘ϱϳ Ϭ͘ϯϯ Ϭ͘ϱϴ Ϭ͘ϰϲ Ϭ͘ϯϲ Ϭ͘ϯϵ Ϭ͘ϯϲ Ϭ͘ϰϭ Ϭ͘ϬϮ Ϭ͘ϭϯ Ϭ Ϭ͘ϰ Ϭ͘ϯϵ Ϭ͘ϲϱ Ϭ͘ϱϲ Homir 0.33 0.37 0.36 0.21 0.37 0.21 0.46 0.28 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.48 0.45 0.45 0.45 0.45 0.45 0.45 0.40 0.41 0.44 0.44 0.44 0.44 0.45 0.66 Àlloua O.51 O.32 O.32 O.32 O.5 O.5 O.5 O.56 O.56 O.36 O.36 O.36 O.36 O.38 O.38 O.38 O.34 O.43 O.39 O.36 O.36 O.36 O.41 O.51 O.55 Ãotus O.64 O.36 O.58 O.58 O.5 O.6 O.5 O.6 O.5 O.5 O.46 O.46 O.63 O.37 O.51 O.61 O.45 O.64 O.64 O.64 O.65 O.45 O.41 O O.75 O.67 ƚĞůĞƐ Ϭ͘ϰϵ Ϭ͘ϱϵ Ϭ͘ϱϵ Ϭ͘ϲ Ϭ͘ϳϭ Ϭ͘ϲϰ Ϭ͘ϱϳ Ϭ͘ϲϱ Ϭ͘ϰϲ Ϭ͘ϳϴ Ϭ͘ϱϯ Ϭ͘ϰϮ Ϭ͘ϰ Ϭ͘ϱϱ Ϭ͘ϱϰ Ϭ͘ϱϲ Ϭ͘ϳϴ Ϭ͘ϲϯ Ϭ͘ϳϵ Ϭ͘ϰϱ Ϭ͘ϱϱ Ϭ͘ϱϲ Ϭ͘ϱϲ Ϭ͘ϲϲ Ϭ͘ϱϱ Ϭ͘ϳϱ Ϭ 0.78 0.51 0.38 0.37 0.46 0.62 0.35 0.64 0.62 0.65 0.45 0.41 \circ 0.64 0.41 0.36 0.58 0.5 0.6 0.6 0.5 0.5 0.46 0.63 0.37 0.61 0.75 0.36 0.39 0.41 0.48 0.48 0.39 0.36 0.39 0.41 0.41 0.55 0.51 0.41 $0.\overline{3}$ 0.2 0.21 0.21 \circ 0.18 0.22 0.32 0.5 0.58 0.5 0.26 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Pelvis synapomorphies Pelvis synapomorphies

Gorilla Hylob Symph Pongo Colobi Macaa Nasali Papio Presb, Erythr Victor Phese Platyr Catarr Cerco, Homir Honir Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saigur Saimir Pithec Epiplic 1.69 2.02 1.66 1.43 Cerco Colobı Macar Nasali Papio Presb Erythr Victor Phese Platyr Catarr Cerco Homir Alloua Aotus Ateles Cebus Saguir Saimir Pithec Epipli 1.85 1.06 1.81 1.86 1.78 1.33 1.91 1.77 1.22 1.78 1.1 1.66 1.6 1.95 1.4 Ξ 1.13 1.07 1.9 1.96 1.93 1.69 \circ Gorilia: 0 1.41 2.3 0.82 1.18 1.08 1.49 1.79 1.94 1.57 1.57 1.57 1.55 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.43 1.43 1.74 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.42 1.58 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.62 1.74 1.74 1.758 1.85 hylob 1.41 1.41 68 1.42 1.58 1.42 1.59 1.46 1.55 1.13 1.44 0.73 1.14 1.15 1.167 1.167 1.167 1.167 0.88 0.88 0.88 1.62 1.68 1.68 1.69 1.69 1.47 1.47 1.06 Symph 2.3 1.48 0 2.79 1.58 2.05 1.48 1.44 0.96 1.62 1.51 1.5 2.45 1.62 1.62 1.03 1.05 0.85 1.44 2.79 2.19 3.11 2.12 2.72 2.01 2.43 1.81 Pongc 0.81 1.68 2.79 0 1.66 1.13 1.37 2.21 2.36 2.02 1.83 1.43 2.32 1.42 2.23 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