Evidence of Dietary Differentiation Among Late Paleocene–Early Eocene Plesiadapids (Mammalia, Primates)

Doug M. Boyer,¹* Alistair R. Evans,² and Jukka Jernvall^{1,3,4}

¹Department of Ecology and Evolution, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY ²School of Biological Sciences, Monash University, Victoria 3800, Australia ³Interdepartmental Doctoral Program in Anthropological Sciences, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY ⁴Institute for Biotechnology, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland

KEY WORDS relief index; dental complexity; global climate change; folivore; omnivore

ABSTRACT Plesiadapis cookei is an extinct relative of extant euarchontans (primates, dermopterans; scandentians), which lived in North America during the late Paleocene. P. cookei body mass has been estimated to be ~ 2.2 kg, making it large compared with other species of its genus from North America, but similar to some from Europe. In particular, size as well as dental form similarities to P. russelli have been noted. However, it is thought that P. russelli evolved from P. tricuspidens, and into Platychoerops daubrei. Dental similarities among P. cookei, P. russelli, and P. daubrei have been hypothesized to reflect a more folivorous diet than utilized by P. tricuspidens. Here we test the hypothesis that P. cookei is more dietarily specialized than P. tricuspidens by quantifying functionally significant aspects of molar, premolar, and incisor

Cheek teeth, typically the molars and premolars, of mammals represent an appropriate system to study in order to address questions of dietary ecology in extinct taxa because they have a limited number of functional demands. Cheek teeth are predominately used to chew and fragment food in preparation for swallowing and further digestion. Therefore, diversity in functional demands on molar teeth is roughly equivalent to diversity in material properties of different food items processed (e.g., Kay, 1975; Lucas, 2004), the jaw movements used to process those items (e.g., Butler, 1972; Kay and Hiemae, 1974), and possibly energy requirements or life history (e.g., Lanyon and Sanson, 1986; Lucas, 2004; Veiberg et al., 2007). Variance in cheek tooth morphology does appear to have a strong functional basis as demonstrated by countless studies of extant and fossil forms (e.g., Simpson, 1936; Szalay, 1968; Gingerich, 1974; Kay, 1975; Lucas, 1979; Strait, 1993; Evans and Sanson, 2003; Evans et al., 2007a; Boyer, 2008). This is in contrast to incisor teeth (e.g., Rose, 1981a; Cuozzo and Yamashita, 2006) or canines (e.g., Leutenegger and Kelly, 1977) [but see the study by Ungar (1994)], which may also have functional demands related to grooming and/or social displays.

Gingerich (1976) provided an example of how morphology of cheek teeth can contribute evidence for a detailed reconstruction of diet and evolutionary diet change in the fossil record. He showed that qualitative changes in upper fourth premolar (P^4) morphology were consistent with an hypothesized incremental transition from a generalized omnivorous diet to a specialized folivorous diet in a lineage of European fossil primate relatives (e.g., forms. Casts of M_2 s and P_4 s of *P. tricuspidens*, *P. cookei*, and *P. daubrei* were microCT-scanned. We measured the relief index and/or the complexity from surface reconstructions of scans. Results show that *P. cookei* has higher M_2 relief and complexity than *P. tricuspidens*; *P. daubrei* exhibits the highest relief and complexity. Similarly, *P. cookei* has a more complex P_4 than *P. tricuspidens*, whereas that of *P. daubrei* exhibits the highest complexity. Finally, the I¹ of *P. cookei* resembles more the incisor of *P. daubrei* than that of *P. tricuspidens*. Because high relief and complexity of dentitions are related to fibrous plant diets in living mammals, these findings support the hypothesis that previously identified similarities among *P. cookei*, *P. russelli* and *P. daubrei* reflect a folivorous diet. Am J Phys Anthropol 142:194–210, 2010. \circ 2009 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

Bloch et al., 2007), going from late Paleocene *Plesiadapis* tricuspidens to earliest Eocene *P. russelli* to early Eocene *Platychoerops daubrei.*¹ Gingerich (1974, 1976) and other researchers (e.g., Jepsen, 1930; Russell et al., 1967) noted that the teeth of these taxa showed interspecific differences in the strength of development of enamel crests: in Gingerich's (1976) hypothesized lineage, the molar teeth exhibit a morphocline from bunodont (having blunt occlusal surfaces) in *P. tricuspidens* to a taller crown (due to pronounced crest development) in *P. daubrei*. Gingerich (1976) also described other points of incremental evolutionary morphological change in the incisors of this lineage in greater detail than had been

¹"... P. russelli ... links Platychoerops daubrei directly to the ancestral species Ples. tricuspidens." (Gingerich, 1976, p 40).

Received 15 April 2009; accepted 3 September 2009

DOI 10.1002/ajpa.21211

Published online 23 December 2009 in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com).

Grant sponsor: National Science Foundation; Grant numbers: EAR-0308902, BCS-0622544, BCS-0129601; Grant sponsors: Evolving Earth Foundation; American Society of Mammalogists; Academy of Finland.

^{*}Correspondence to: Doug M. Boyer, Department of Ecology and Evolution, Stony Brook University, Life Science Building, Stony Brook, NY 11794-5425. E-mail: douglasmb@gmail.com

done previously, but such changes are less easily linked to specific dietary changes.

As a component of his study of plesiadapid dental evolution, Gingerich (1976) hypothesized that *P. cookei*, a late Paleocene plesiadapid from North America, was more specialized for a folivorous diet than earlier occurring *P. tricuspidens*, but less specialized than other later occurring *P. daubrei*. This is the major hypothesis we test in this study. He described its upper fourth premolar morphology as representing an intermediate stage in the dietary transition he hypothesized for the European species. Gingerich (1976) also stated that *P. cookei* is dentally very similar to *P. russelli*, and even used this similarity as evidence for temporal correlation between European and North American localities preserving these two taxa.²

Because Gingerich (1976) focused mainly on the dietary significance of P^4 and because the molar changes he cited have never been quantified, his hypotheses of a dietary transition in which P. cookei represents an intermediate stage (i.e., in which it is more folivorous than P. tricuspidens) are susceptible to refutation by studies of other aspects of the dentition and quantitative analysis of molar shape. Specifically, Gingerich's dietary and phylogenetic hypotheses generate the prediction that P. cookei, like P. russelli, should be distinct from P. tricuspidens in the direction of P. daubrei in quantifiable tooth features reflecting dietary preference [i.e., relative size of the molars in proportion to body size-greater in folivores (Kay, 1975); development of shearing area on the molars-greater in folivores (e.g., Kay, 1975); complexity of molar and premolar teeth—greater in folivores and fibrous food eaters (Evans et al. 2007a)]. *P. russelli* is currently known from only two I¹s, one I², P³, P⁴, P₃, and two fragmentary M₃s; thus, there is not enough of a sample to statistically test whether it meets these predictions. However, samples for P. tricuspidens, P. cookei, and P. daubrei are better represented and can be used to evaluate some of the predictions of Gingerich's hypothesis. In this study, we test the hypotheses of Gingerich (1974, 1976) using various quantitative features of lower molars and premolars, new samples of lower premolars, and caliper-measured quantifications of incisor shape.

Even using cheek teeth, the dietary ecology of extinct mammals can be difficult to reconstruct. Determination of the relative size of teeth in proportion to body size is rarely accessible in fossils because their anatomy is typically too incompletely known; such determination requires generating a meaningful quantification of skull, skeleton, or postcranial element (e.g., femur) size that can be contrasted with the teeth (e.g., Gingerich and Gunnell, 2005). Furthermore, phylogenetically based morphologic disparity often drastically separates fossils from living forms, obscuring any relationship between form and function. For example, a quantification of total tooth crown shearing area may accurately reflect the relative reliance on leaf matter, compared with fruits, tubers, or seeds in one group of mammals but not in another (see discussion in Boyer, 2008).

This study overcomes these difficulties of inferring relative tooth size and inferring aspects of tooth function from tooth form. First, because of an unusual abundance of craniodental material (for a Paleogene mammal taxon), the tooth size relative to skull and dentary size can be confidently determined for two of the plesiadapid species studied here (P. tricuspidens and P. cookei). Second. we quantify tooth shape using digital tooth models. This facilitates examination of the aspects of shape that reflect how well teeth can fracture foods with different material properties, somewhat independent of the presence of phylogenetically unique features such as particular cusps and crests. Occlusal relief (M'Kirera and Ungar, 2003; Boyer, 2008) and complexity (Evans et al., 2007a) of teeth and tooth rows are potentially independent, functionally informative aspects of tooth form. We use these variables as well as others to assess the presence of functionally significant differences in molar teeth of plesiadapids.

If plesiadapids shifted their ecological niche substantially near or across the Paleocene–Eocene boundary, it would be useful to document quantitatively because such a shift may reflect a response to climatic changes and other environmental changes occurring at this time (Gingerich, 1976; Maas et al., 1988; Zachos et al., 2001). A better understanding of the nature of changes in plesiadapids could help explain modifications in other components of late Paleocene and early Eocene faunas as well (Gingerich, 1989).

Institutional and specimen number abbreviations

AMNH, American Museum of Natural History, New York; MNHN, Muséum Nationale d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris; UM, University of Michigan Museum of Paleontology, Ann Arbor; USNM, United States National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian, Washington D.C.; YPM-PU, Yale Peabody Museum–Princeton University collection, New Haven.

AL, catalogue number prefix indicating a specimen is part of the Lemoine's "Ageian" collection (Russell et al., 1967) now housed at the MNHN; Av, Avenay; Br, Berru; Cr, Cernay Les Reims.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Specimens

This study examines cranial, mandibular, and dental material attributable to *P. tricuspidens* from the Berru locality near the village of Cernay Les Reims, France; *P. cookei* from various localities in northwestern Wyoming (United States), and *Platychoerops daubrei* from French localities of Mutigny and Avenay, as well as from Lemoine's "Ageian" collection from various deposits near Reims (Gingerich, 1976). Some isolated *Plesiadapis* teeth from Berru were lacking species identifications. Those analyzed here were identified as *P. tricuspidens* by having length and width dimensions in the range of those measured by Gingerich (1976, table A-16).

Cranial specimens examined include the following:

- 1. MNHN Cr 125 is the first known and most complete skull of *P. tricuspidens* (Russell, 1959, 1964; Gingerich, 1976) from Berru. It represents an older individual with heavily worn teeth.
- 2. The Pellouin skull of *P. tricuspidens* resides in the private Berru locality collection of M. Pellouin. It is preserved in a manner similar to MNHN Cr 125, but appears slightly younger. It is less complete than MNHN

²"Moreover, in closely resembling the contemporaneous *Ples.* cookei from North America, the European *Ples.* russelli further demonstrates the very close relationship of the faunas of the two continents..." (Gingerich, 1976, p 40). New paleontologic and geochronologic evidence (Gradstein et al., 2004) now demonstrates that *P. cookei* is from older deposits than *P. russelli*.

Cr 125 in missing the nasal bones and premaxillae (Gingerich, 1975, 1976; MacPhee and Cartmill, 1986).

3. UM 87990 is a skull and skeleton of *P. cookei* from locality Sand Coulee-117 (sc-117) in the strata of the Willwood Formation, dated to the middle Clarkforkian (Cf) (late Paleocene biochron Cf-2) in the Clarks Fork Basin, Wyoming (Gingerich and Gunnell, 2005). The specimen has not yet been comprehensively described, but this work is in progress. Descriptions of cranial measurements are given in Table A1. Cranial measurements are given in Table A2.

Dentary specimens and measurements are given in Tables A3 and A4.

Tooth positions studied here include M_2 , P_4 , and I^1 . All M_2 and P_4 exhibit minimal wear. Tables A5 and A6 list M_2 and P_4 specimens available for this study, along with various measurements and calculated variables discussed below. These fossils were converted to digital surface models using the methods described by Boyer (2008). Briefly, fossil teeth were molded using a President Jet Polyvinylsiloxane dispenser gun loaded with light body molding material. Casts were made from these molds using EPO-TEK 301 epoxy, colored with gray pigment. Casts were ground using a dremel tool until only the tooth of interest remained. M_{2S} and P_{4S} were mounted on 36-mm discs and microCT-scanned at 18 μ m resolution using a Scanco Medical brand machine (model μ CT 40) set to between 55 and 70 keV, and 145 and 114 μ Amp.

Tooth scans were segmented using Scanco software and exported as DICOM image stacks. In the program Amira, tooth surface reconstructions were generated from DICOM image stacks of segmented tooth scans and were cropped in a standard way to eliminate surfaces that were not part of the tooth crown's enamel (e.g., tooth roots and dentary) as described and illustrated by Boyer (2008).

Table A7 is a list of *P. cookei* specimens that preserve P_4 . Table A8 is a list of $I^{1}s$ and various caliper measurements and indices. These metrics are described in Table A1.

Measurements and analysis

Data on skull size and dentary depth (as proxies for body size) were necessary to evaluate whether proportional differences in molar size exist among taxa and specimens sampled. Skull size in the available specimens was compared via 39 measurements of particular cranial bones (Fig. 1; Tables A1 and A2). These measurements were used in two different ways: 1) Overall skull size of P. cookei was expressed as the antilogged average of 39 natural log ratios of its cranial measurements to those of P. tricuspidens. In other words, its measurements are expressed as an average of 39 direct comparisons to measurements on *P. tricuspidens*. The overall skull size of *P. cookei* could then be given as a percentage of that of P. tricuspidens. 2) The geometric means of these 39 measurements for each specimen were also calculated and used to make a less direct comparison between the three fossil skulls.

Because of the small sample size of skulls (n = 1 for *P. cookei*), body size was also evaluated using dentary dorsoventral depth (DD) at M₂ (Fig. 1; Tables A3 and A4) following Gingerich (1976). Interspecific differences in natural log dentary depth were examined using Student's *t*-test and nonparametric Mann–Whitney *U* test. The program PAST was used for statistical analyses.



Fig. 1. Cranial measurements used to compare the size and shape of skulls of *Plesiadapis tricuspidens* (MNHN Cr 125, and the Pellouin skull) and *Plesiadapis cookei* (UM 87990). See Table A1 for description of numbered measurements. See Table A2 for values. See Table 1 for the results of proportional comparisons.

Three different dietarily relevant metrics were calculated from M_2 microCT scans and statistically compared between the three fossil species examined. Two of these metrics were also calculated on P_4 s. Interspecific differences in these metrics were examined using ANOVA and nonparametric Kruskal–Wallis test, followed by post-hoc comparisons of species' means using Tukey's honestly significant differences (HSD) method and Bonferronicorrected Mann–Whitney U test. The measurements are presented in Tables A5 and A6.

Metrics computed and compared include the following:

- 1. Two-dimensional M_2 and P_4 crown areas (2da) were calculated by exporting occlusal view silhouettes of surface scans from Amira to Sigma Scan Pro 5.0 and using area-measuring functions. These data were natural log transformed and compared between the three species to assess interspecific differences in tooth size.
- 2. 2da and three-dimensional tooth crown surface area (3da) measurements from M₂s were used to calculate relief indices (RFIs) as described by Boyer (2008). Briefly, surface reconstructions of teeth were smoothed using 100 iterations and defaults (Lambda = 0.6) in Amira. Three-dimensional surface area of the tooth crown was then calculated using functions in Amira. RFI then equals the following:

$$\operatorname{RFI} = \ln[(\sqrt{3}da)/(\sqrt{2}da)]$$

Boyer (2008) has shown that, across prosimian primates and nonprimate euarchontans, taxa that eat more leaves and less fruit have M_{2s} with significantly greater relief than taxa with more generalized or frugivorous proclivities. Teeth with higher RFI in these comparisons can be qualitatively described as more "cresty," or more hypsodont.

3. The complexity of the occlusal surfaces of M_2 and P_4 were represented via a metric called an orientation patch count (OPC) (Evans et al., 2007a). Unsmoothed tooth scans saved as Amira ".surf" files were loaded into the program Surfer Manipulator (http://users. monash.edu.au/~arevans/software.html). Functions available in the "File Converter" window were used to remove undercuts from the tooth surface image (i.e., transform the surface from full 3D to 2.5-D) and to "blank" the image. Blanking refers to the process of removing any elevation data from outside the margins of the tooth. The teeth were then interpolated into ".grid" files. Using features available in the "Surfer Functions" window, grid files were replotted at a standard resolution of 50 rows of points from the mesial to the distal end of each tooth (Evans et al., 2007a; Zohdy et al., 2008). GIS tools available in the "CSV viewer" window of Surfer Manipulator were then used to break the surface into patches that face the same direction for eight cardinal directions (e.g., North, Northeast, East) The number of patches (consisting of 3 or more pixels) needed to represent each tooth was then counted; the resulting count for each specimen is its OPC. Evans et al. (2007a) have shown that rodents and carnivorans with similar diets are similar in OPC of the occlusal surface of the entire cheek tooth row, and that taxa with more folivorous, fibrous diets have more complex teeth (or a higher OPC).

Molarization of premolars represents another way of increasing complexity of the overall tooth row. Gingerich (1976) noted incipient molarization of P^4 in *P. cookei*, but described P_4 as simple, like that of *P. tricuspidens*. It seems surprising that the upper premolar would exhibit molarization without any changes in the corresponding mandibular tooth. Therefore, we surveyed the morphology of previously studied and newly recovered P_4 specimens of *P. cookei* from the YPM and UM and noted whether there was any molarization via development of a trigonid basin, or paraconid cusp (Table A7).

Finally, although previous authors have argued convincingly that *P. cookei* has an upper central incisor that is more simplified and more similar to that of P. russelli and P. daubrei than to that of P. tricuspidens, no attempt has ever been made to quantify these differences. Therefore, we took a series of six measurements to quantify the previously discussed qualitative differences between these taxa (Tables A1 and A8). Gingerich (1976) described the posterocone as relatively reduced in P. cookei and P. daubrei when compared with P. tricuspidens. We quantified posterocone projection relative to the area of the incisor crown base (Tables A1 and A8, index 1). Two other apparent differences that we quantified are the incisor crown girth (Tables A1 and A8, index 2) and incisor crown length (or occlusal projection; Tables A1 and A8, index 3) relative to the crown base. Finally, Gingerich (1976) provided drawings illustrating a reduction in the laterocone relative to the anterocone in P. cookei when compared with P. tricuspidens. We quantified laterocone prominence as the ratio of the distance between the tips of the anterocone and laterocone to the distance between the anterocone and posterocone (Tables A1 and A8, index 4). P. daubrei completely lacks an laterocone and cannot be represented using index 4. These metrics are compared using the statistical tests discussed earlier.

RESULTS

Skull and dentary size as reflectors of body size

Though it is clear that both P. cookei and P. tricuspidens were absolutely large among plesiadapids generally, the relative body size in these two species has remained ambiguous. A more precise quantification of relative body size is important because it will help reveal whether the molar teeth are of proportionally similar or different sizes. Data from previous studies revealed that P. cookei has molar teeth with occlusal areas that are 140% (M^1), 127% (M^2), and 119% (M^3) larger than those of P. tricuspidens [data from Gingerich (1976, table A-16) for P. tricuspidens and from Rose (1981b, table 14) for P. cookei]. These data lead to the hypothesis that P. cookei was a bigger animal than P. tricuspidens (Fleagle, 1999). However, side-by-side comparison of the UM 87990 cranium and MNHN Cr 125 (as well as the Pellouin skull) in dorsal or ventral view shows that the P. tricuspidens specimens dwarf P. cookei, the opposite of what tooth size differences would lead one to predict (see Fig. 2).

It is possible that MNHN Cr 125 represents an exceptionally large individual for its species, whereas UM 87990 represents an exceptionally small individual. However, the teeth preserved in the maxillae of these two specimens suggest against this possibility. The only teeth preserved in MNHN Cr 125 are M^3 s. Measurements of this tooth position reveal that it is 4.17 mm in mesiodistal length, shorter than the average of 4.83 mm in the Br sample of *P. tricuspidens* M^3 s measured by



Fig. 2. Skulls of plesiadapids in ventral view at the same scale. *Plesiadapis cookei* (UM 87990) on left; *Plesiadapis tricuspidens* on right (MNHN Cr 125). The apparently drastic size difference between the two is mainly an artifact of different modes of brittle distortion. The geometric mean of 39 measurements of the cranium (see Fig. 1) is 10.7 for *P. cookei*, and 10.6 for *P. tricuspidens*.

Gingerich (1976, table A-16). Furthermore, the M^1 and M^2 of UM 87990 are 5.11 and 5.27 mm in length, respectively—much greater than the maximum of 4.70 and 5.10 mm measured by Gingerich (1976, table A-16) for these teeth in the sample of *P. tricuspidens*. Thus the teeth of these two individuals suggest the same pattern of size differences as locality samples of teeth.

Close inspection reveals that the contradiction between skulls and teeth is partly due to differential patterns of deformation among the different skulls. UM 87990 is compressed anteroposteriorly and mediolaterally, so that it is now smaller in these dimensions than it was in life, whereas the *P. tricuspidens* specimens are compressed dorsoventrally, so that they probably still retain their transverse plane dimensions. The deformation of these skulls appears to have been largely a brittle process. Therefore, the degree to which size differences have been accentuated is revealed by a series of 39 measurements on undeformed parts of individual cranial bones (Table 1; Fig. 1; Tables A1 and A2). This

exercise shows that the skulls of P. cookei and P. tricuspidens are almost identical in the size of almost every feature measured except for the glenoid fossae, which are distinctly larger in the two P. tricuspidens specimens. Specifically, measurements from all regions of the P. cookei skull (UM 87990) are, on average, 99% the size of those of the skulls of P. tricuspidens (MNHN Cr 125 and the Pellouin skull). As discussed in the Methods section, the value "99%" is literally the antilogged average of 39 natural log ratios of P. cookei to P. tricuspidens cranial measurements. In other words, it is an average of 39 direct comparisons. A less direct comparison using a geometric mean of these 39 measurements vields a slightly different but comparable result. The geometric mean of the P. cookei measurements is 10.7, and that of MNHN Cr 125 is 10.6, suggesting that, instead, the P. tricuspidens skull is 99% the size of that of P. cookei (Table 2).

Unfortunately, no statistical significance can be assigned to results of skull comparisons as they involve

EVIDENCE OF PLESIADAPID DIETARY DIFFERENCES

(1) Reference specimen	(2) Comparison specimen	N	Mean ratio of (2):(1)	Cranial length est. for (1)				
P. cookei UM 87990	P. tricuspidens A	39	1.005	$105.8 \text{ mm}^{\mathrm{a}}$				
P. tricuspidens B	P. tricuspidens A	30	0.995	$106.9 \text{ mm}^{\mathrm{a}}$				
P. tricuspidens A	P. cookei UM 87990	39	0.995	$106.5 \text{ mm}^{\mathrm{b}}$				
P. tricuspidens B	P. cookei UM 87990	30	0.994	$106.3 \text{ mm}^{\mathrm{b}}$				

TABLE 1. Size comparison among plesiadapid skulls

est., estimate; N, number of measurements compared between two specimens; P. tricuspidens A, MNHN Cr 125; P. tricuspidens B, Pelluoin skull.

^a Cranial estimates based on a measured length of 106.36 mm for MNHN Cr 125.

^b Cranial estimates based on a estimated length of 105.83 mm for UM 87990.

	TABLE 2. Summary measurements							
Measurement	Taxon	N	x	R	SD	CV		
Craniomandibular								
Skull geomean	P. tricuspidens	2	10.44	10.28 - 10.60	na	na		
	P. cookei	1	10.71	na	na	na		
	P. daubrei	na	na	na	na	na		
Dentary depth	P. tricuspidens	37	15.89	12.35 - 20.32	1.97	12.00		
	P. cookei	17	16.50	13.25 - 19.70	1.97	12.00		
	P. daubrei	3	12.89	11.77 - 14.38	1.34	10.00		
Second mandibular mol	lar							
M_2 2da	P. tricuspidens	15	17.75	15.81 - 22.97	1.97	11.12		
	P. cookei	20	29.32	23.38 - 34.53	3.16	10.77		
	P. daubrei	9	19.76	15.57 - 22.74	2.29	11.58		
M_2 3da	P. tricuspidens	15	44.13	38.66 - 59.73	5.48	12.15		
	P. cookei	20	77.93	61.26-94.08	7.59	9.74		
	P. daubrei	9	56.68	42.56 - 70.12	8.26	14.57		
$M_2 RFI$	P. tricuspidens	15	0.47	0.40 - 0.50	0.02	na		
-	P. cookei	20	0.49	0.47 - 0.53	0.02	na		
	P. daubrei	9	0.52	0.50 - 0.56	0.02	na		
M_{2} OPC	P. tricuspidens	15	56.52	45.13 - 66.6	6.51	11.52		
2	P. cookei	20	63.42	53.38 - 74.13	5.33	8.41		
	P. daubrei	9	73.08	68.00-88.00	4.91	6.72		
Fourth mandibular pres	molar							
P₄ 2da	P. tricuspidens	5	11.10	10.09 - 12.08	0.92	8.29		
- 4	P. cookei	5	16.28	14.24–19.05	2.15	13.19		
	P. daubrei	4	17.83	15.22 - 19.91	1.96	11.01		
P ₄ OPC	P tricuspidens	5	30.15	23, 13-34, 75	4.82	16.00		
14010	P cookei	5	38 58	33 63-42 75	3 70	9.58		
	P daubrei	4	62.25	57 85-67 50	4 53	7 28		
Premaxillary central ind	risor	-	01.10	01.00 01.00	1.00	1.20		
I ¹ 2da	P tricuspidens	7	15.98	11 69-21 57	3 33	20.81		
1 200	P cookei	6	29.09	26 50-32 53	2.92	10.04		
	P daubrei	5	25.59	19 00-30 15	4 27	16.67		
I^1 index 1	P tricuenidane	6	1 56	1 46-1 62	0.06	10.07		
1 muex 1	P cookei	6	1.00	1.40-1.02 1.96-1.52	0.00	na		
	P daubrai	5	1.17	1 11 1 99	0.10	na		
I ¹ index 9	D trieuenidene	6	1.17	0.78 0.08	0.05	na		
1 muex 2	P. apphaens	7	1.04	0.76 - 0.36	0.07	na		
	T. COOKEL D. day havi	1	1.04	0.94-1.14	0.00	na		
I ¹ index 2	F. dauorei D. triouonidono	3	1.02	0.95 - 1.07	0.04	na		
1 muex 5	F. tricuspidens	4	1.00	1.00-1.70	0.09	na		
	F. COOKEL D. day brai	4	2.07	1.00-2.00	0.20	118		
This days 4	P. aauorei	9 F	1.90	1.81-2.00	0.09	na		
1 index 4	P. tricuspiaens	Ð	0.32	0.28-0.35	0.04	na		
	P. COOREL	4	0.25	0.24-0.27	0.02	na		
	P. daubrei	na	na	na	na	na		

N, sample size; x, mean; R, range; SD, standard deviation; CV, coefficient of variation; na, not available or not applicable.

just three specimens. Therefore, a comparison of 17 dentaries of *P. cookei* and 37 dentaries of *P. tricuspidens* was made (Table 2; Fig. 3). The two samples are not significantly different (*t*-test: t = 1.08, P = 0.28; Mann-Whitney U = 272, P = 0.28). On the other hand, three *P. daubrei* dentaries (not included in the statistical analysis because of small sample size) are smaller than the average of both *Plesiadapis* samples (Table 2; Fig. 3; Tables A3 and A4). Similarity in absolute sizes of the skulls and dentaries is taken as strong evidence that *P. cookei* and *P. tricuspidens* are of equivalent body size, despite differences in tooth sizes.

Molar size revisited

 M_2 occlusal areas are summarized in Table 2: comparisons among species using Kruskal–Wallis test and ANOVA reconfirm the finding of previous authors that



Fig. 3. Box plots of natural log dentary depth at level of M_2 (bottom) and M_2 2da (top). Heavy horizontal lines in boxes are positioned at median value. Boxes encompass 50% of data points; wiskers encompass 95%. Data points outside of the 95% brackets are shown as single point outliers. Numbers to the lower right of each box are sample sizes. Note that dentary sizes of *P. tricuspidens* and *P. cookei* are roughly the same, but *P. cookei* has significantly larger M_2 area. *P. daubrei* may have had a smaller dentary than *P. tricuspidens*, but it also has a larger M_2 area. Thus both *P. cookei* and *P. daubrei* appear to have larger M_2 areas for their dentary depth than *P. tricuspidens*. See Table 2 for measurement summaries and Table 3 for statistical tests. Taxon abbreviations: *Pc, Plesiadapis cookei*; *Pd, Platychoerops daubrei*; *Pt, Plesiadapis tricuspidens*.

different species analyzed here have significantly differently sized lower molar teeth (Table 3; Fig. 3). Furthermore, *P. cookei* has absolutely larger teeth than both *P. tricuspidens* and *P. daubrei* according to posthoc, pairwise Mann–Whitney *U* and Tukey's HSD comparisons (Table 3; Fig. 3). However, *P. daubrei* has significantly larger teeth than the *P. tricuspidens* sample. The ratio of square root M_2 two-dimensional area (2da) to dentary depth (calculated from Table 2 means) is lower for *P. tricuspidens* at 0.26 and higher for *P. cookei* at 0.33. Gingerich (1976) measured more *P. daubrei* mandibles than were available for this study. Using his average value for dentary depth (15.00 mm) yields a ratio of 0.29. This indicates that *P. tricuspidens* has teeth that are proportionally smallest among the different species studied here, whereas *P. cookei* has the largest, and *P. daubrei* is intermediate.

The molars may also be compared with the premolars using the ratio of 2da for P₄ to M₂ (as computed from means in Table 2). In *P. tricuspidens* the ratio is 0.68, whereas in *P. cookei* it is only 0.56 and in *P. daubrei* it is 0.91. However, because premolar size is not known to be correlated with body size, such a comparison does not reveal whether the molars are large relative to body size. It may, however, indicate the degree to which the premolars are important for processing food (see below).

Occlusal relief

The Kruskal-Wallis test and ANOVA comparing RFIs of a sample of $M_{2}s$ of *P. cookei*, *P. tricuspidens*, and *P.* daubrei show significant among-taxon variance (Tables 2 and 3; Fig. 4). Furthermore, Mann–Whitney U test and Tukey's HSD pairwise comparisons show P. cookei to have significantly greater relief than P. tricuspidens, but significantly lower relief than P. daubrei (Table 3; Fig. 4). A detailed qualitative comparison of morphology in M₂s among the taxa reveals that the greater relief is likely accomplished by four features typically associated with greater reliance on leaves (Figs. 4 and 5). P. cookei has a more distolingually expanded entoconid, a more buccolingually expanded (or a more "open") trigonid, a higher trigonid relative to the talonid, and a more distolingually positioned metaconid (when compared with the protoconid). All of these differences should increase the shearing area present on P. cookei molars compared with those of P. tricuspidens. P. daubrei is more similar to P. cookei, differing even more drastically from P. tricuspidens in some of these same respects.

OPC (complexity)

As for RFI, Kruskal–Wallis test and ANOVA of OPC of M_2 reveal a significant added variance component among species groups (Tables 2 and 3; Fig. 4). Mann–Whitney U test and Tukey's HSD pairwise comparisons show P. cookei to have a significantly higher OPC than P. tricuspidens, but a significantly lower OPC than P. daubrei (Table 3; Fig. 4)

A similar pattern of results were obtained for OPC of P_4 . One difference between the patterns is that, although still of intermediate complexity, the P_4 of *P. cookei* is much more similar to that of *P. tricuspidens* than to *P. daubrei*. A further difference is that pairwise comparisons of species groups with Mann–Whitney *U* tests using a Bonferroni-corrected critical value (following Kruskal–Wallis) fail to reveal significant differences (Table 3; Fig. 4B). The fact that *P. cookei* and *P. tricuspidens* differ at all is a surprising result given previous descriptions (e.g., Rose, 1981b). The explicit morphological explanation for these differences is given below.

Lower premolar molarization

Examination of *P. cookei* specimens housed at UM, YPM, and AMNH reveals that they have a more molarized P_4 than previously described, which is substantially more molariform than the condition seen in *P. tricuspidens* (Figs. 4 and 5). This explains the finding that *P. cookei* has a higher OPC than *P. tricuspidens*. Table A7 presents a qualitative scoring of P_4 morphology. Eleven out of 18 specimens examined have some development of

					iour reore		
			Kruskal–Wa	allis and Bonfe	rroni-corrected Mann	–Whitney U	
Metric	N(Pt, Pc, Pd)	H	Hc	Р	P (Pt vs. Pc)	P (Pt vs. Pd)	P(Pc vs. Pd)
M_2 2da	(15, 20, 9)	33.32	33.36	$\ll 0.0001$	$\ll 0.0001$	0.120	$\ll 0.0001$
$M_2 RFI$	(15, 20, 9)	21.90	21.90	$\ll 0.0001$	0.020	0.0002	0.003
M_2 OPC	(15, 20, 9)	24.70	24.80	$\ll 0.0001$	0.010	0.0002	0.0004
P ₄ 2da	(5, 5, 4)	9.41	9.41	< 0.01	0.04	0.06	1.00
P_4 OPC	(5, 5, 4)	10.52	10.52	< 0.01	0.11	0.06	0.06
I ¹ Index 1	(6, 6, 5)	13.35	13.36	0.001	0.04	0.02	0.02
I ¹ Index 2	(6, 7, 5)	10.00	10.04	0.006	0.02	0.04	0.9
I ¹ Index 3	(4, 4, 5)	8.50	8.50	0.01	0.09	0.06	0.8
				ANOVA a	nd Tukey's HSD		
Metric	$N\left(Pt,Pc,Pd ight)$	df	F	Р	Q, P (Pt vs. Pc)	Q, P (Pt vs. Pd)	Q, P (Pc vs. Pd)
M_2 2da	(15, 20, 9)	2	102.50	$\ll 0.0001$	16.9, 0.0001	3.6, 0.041	13.3, 0.0001
M_2 RFI	(15, 20, 9)	2	21.30	$\ll 0.0001$	4.0, 0.020	10.0, 0.0001	6.0, 0.0005
M_2 OPC	(15, 20, 9)	2	23.70	$\ll 0.0001$	4.4, 0.009	10.5, 0.0001	6.1, 0.0004
P ₄ 2da	(5, 5, 4)	2	24.03	$\ll 0.0001$	7.4, 0.0008	9.1, 0.0003	1.7, 0.46
$P_4 OPC$	(5, 5, 4)	2	63.13	$\ll 0.0001$	4.2, 0.034	15.8, 0.0002	11.7, 0.0002

TABLE 3. Statistical tests

Pc, Plesiadapis cookei; Pd, Platychoerops daubrei; Pt, Plesiadapis tricuspidens; H and Hc, Kruskal–Wallis test chi-square statistics; F, ANOVA test statistic; P, probability of identity; Q, Tukey's HSD statistic. See Methods section and Table 1 for further description of measurements and statistical tests.

a trigonid basin on the mesial aspect of the protoconid. Six out of 18 have development of a paraconid. Most of the specimens with substantial development of a trigonid were not available to previous studies of *P. cookei* (Gingerich, 1976; Rose, 1981b).

Incisor form

Gingerich (1976) noted similarities between the upper incisors of P. cookei, P. russelli, and P. daubrei, to the exclusion of P. tricuspidens. His points are reiterated here: the posterocone is generally reduced in P. cookei. and the apical morphology is simplified compared with that of P. tricuspidens. P. tricuspidens has a large anterocone and laterocone and retains a distinctive mediocone and centroconule, whereas *P. cookei* typically has a reduced laterocone and lacks the mediocone and centroconule. The differences in prominence and/or presence of cusps on central upper incisors between P. cookei and P. tricuspidens are markedly evident in a qualitative sideby-side comparison of the two taxa (see Fig. 6). In the figure, the central incisors of these two taxa and P. daubrei are shown at the same scale. Despite the fact that the crown of I¹ is much larger in P. cookei, the anterocone, laterocone, and posterocone of this specimen are the same size or smaller than those in the otherwise much smaller specimen of a P. tricuspidens central incisor from Berru, France. The comparison can be followed to the incisor of *P. daubrei* which actually lacks the laterocone and has only a crest-like posterocone.

Shape indices of the incisors (Table 2; Fig. 7) exhibit significant variance among species (Table 3). Specifically, there is significant variance in posterocone projection, with *P. tricuspidens* having a proportionally larger posterocone than *P. cookei* and *P. daubrei* (Tables 2 and 3, index 1; Fig. 7). There is significant variance in the girth of the crown, with *P. tricuspidens* having a proportionally narrower crown than *P. cookei* and *P. daubrei* (Tables 2 and 3, index 2; Fig. 7). There is significant variance in the proportional length, or occlusal projection, of the crown, with *P. tricuspidens* having a proportionally shorter crown than *P. cookei* and *P. daubrei* (Tables 2 and 3, index 3; Fig. 7). However, small sample sizes render Bonferroni-corrected pairwise Mann–Whitney *U* comparisons nonsignificant for index 3. Finally, the proportional distance between the anterocone and laterocone (index 4) is significantly greater in *P. tricuspidens* than *P. cookei* (*t*-test: t = -3.55, P = 0.01; Mann–Whitney U = 0, P = 0.02). *P. daubrei* completely lacks an laterocone (e.g., Gingerich, 1976).

DISCUSSION

Ecological significance of molar size

The fact that the skull and dentaries of *P. tricuspidens* and *P. cookei* are not significantly different in absolute dimensions has implications for the observation that the M_2 and other molars of *P. cookei* are significantly larger than those of *P. tricuspidens*. It means that the dentition of *P. cookei* is probably larger relative to body size. Because proportionally larger teeth distinguish extant primate folivores from more omnivorous and frugivorous primates (Kay, 1975), the demonstration of larger teeth in *P. cookei* (and probably *P. daubrei* as well) supports Gingerich's (1976) hypothesis that it had a more specialized folivorous diet than *P. tricuspidens*.

Ecological significance of molar surface shape

Occlusal relief (RFI) and complexity (OPC) of the M_2 distinguish the three species analyzed here, with *P. tricuspidens* being lower than *P. cookei*, which in turn is lower than *P. daubrei*. Previous studies have shown these metrics to differentiate (even distantly related) taxa by dietary preference (M'Kirera and Ungar, 2003; Evans et al., 2007a; Boyer, 2008) and that high values of both RFI and OPC strongly correlate with a fibrous and structural carbohydrate-dominated diet. These results therefore support the hypothesis that *P. cookei* is more folivorous than *P. tricuspidens*.

A. Molar Relief



Fig. 4. Relief index in plesiadapid M_{2s} (**A**), orientation patch count in plesiadapid M_{2s} (**B**), and in P_{4s} (**C**). These values were calculated from the digital surface models of teeth. See Figure 3 for description of box plots and taxon abbreviations. Numbers in parentheses following taxon abbreviations are sample sizes. All taxa are significantly different for each set of comparisons (Table 3). In (A), an example of a digital model for each taxon is given in oblique buccal view to give a sense of differences in cusp and crest relief. In (B) and (C), a digital model is shown in occlusal view to give a sense of differences in complexity of this surface among taxa. Lower values of *P. tricuspidens* are consistent with the hypothesis of Gingerich (1974, 1976) that it is an omnivore. The high values of *P. daubrei* are consistent with the hypothesis that it is a committed folivore. The intermediate values of *P. cookei* are consistent with the hypothesis that it is more specialized toward folivory than *P. tricuspidens*, but more generalized than *P. daubrei* (Russell et al., 1967; Gingerich, 1976).

EVIDENCE OF PLESIADAPID DIETARY DIFFERENCES



Fig. 5. Mandibular teeth of selected Plesiadapidae. M_{28} (top) and P_{48} (bottom) of (**A**, **D**) *P. tricuspidens* (unnumbered specimen from MNHN Berru collection, MNHN R 129), (**B**, **E**) *P. cookei* (UM 66719, UM 69265), and (**C**, **F**) *P. daubrei* [MNHN AL-5164, MNHN AL-J in occlusal, lingual and buccal views (top to bottom within each frame). Molars are scaled to the buccolingual width of talonid. Premolars are scaled to the molar of the same taxon. Note that the M_{28} of *P. cookei* and *P. daubrei* are relatively longer than those of *P. tricuspidens*, have more buccolingually expanded trigonids, and are larger, better-developed entoconids. Note that P_{48} of all three taxa are virtually unworn, but only that of *P. tricuspidens* lacks a trigonid basin, even though it has metaconid. Furthermore, the P_4 of *P. cookei* has the beginnings of a paraconid, visible in occlusal view. All scales represent 2 mm.

Although RFI and OPC covary in this study, they are not metrically dependent because OPC does not take into account the steepness of each slope. For example, a bladelike tooth has high occlusal relief, but low complexity. On the other hand, a tooth with low relief could have many small scale crenulations and have a high OPC. A benefit



Fig. 6. I^1 s of *P. tricuspidens* (unnumbered specimen from MNHN Berru collection, top row), *P. cookei* (UM 66725, middle row), and *P. daubrei* (MNHN MUT 17158) in (A) anterior, (B) posterior, (C) lateral, and (D) medial views. Note that despite being smaller overall, *P. tricuspidens* has a posterocone (Pc) that is larger, and an anterocone (Ac) and laterocone (Lc) that are the same sizes as those in *P. cookei*. Furthermore, *P. cookei* lacks the mediocone (Mc) and centroconule crest (Cc) of *P. tricuspidens*. The small cusps and simplified form of the *P. cookei* I^1 make it very similar to that of *Platychoerops* which is interpreted to have lost the Lc (Gingerich, 1976). See Figure 7 for quantification of these features.

of using such metrics over more traditional measures of tooth functionality such as shearing-crest lengths and relative crushing areas (e.g., Kay, 1975; Gunnell, 1989; Anthony and Kay, 1993) is that they require fewer inferences regarding homology of tooth surface features, and patterns of occlusion and jaw movement. Furthermore, because these metrics do not rely on landmark identification, natural wear of tooth surfaces does not substantially degrade measurement accuracy. These metrics change with wear, but such variance likely corresponds to real variance of functionality (King et al., 2005).

The full functional significance of the RFI and OPC measures is still being ascertained (M'Kirera and Ungar, 2003; Evans et al., 2007a; Veiberg et al., 2007; Boyer, 2008). We can see two possible reasons to increase RFI: 1) to improve the ability of tooth surfaces to fracture foods, such as by increasing cusp height or crest length

Measurements



Fig. 7. Plots of shape indices of plesiadapid I^1 s using illustrated measurements. See Figure 3 for description of box plots, and taxon abbreviations. Note that posterocone projection decreases from *P. tricuspidens* to *P. cookei* to *P. daubrei*, but girth (index 2) and length (index 1) of the crown distal to the posterocone are relatively larger in the latter two taxa compared with the former. These three indices are all standardized to the crown-base dimensions and so are not interdependent. They are independent with respect to crown base dimensions. See Table A1 for description of numbered measurements.

(Evans and Sanson, 1998), and 2) to increase resistance to wear by providing a greater amount of dental material to be worn, i.e. increasing tooth height or hypsodonty. M'Kirera and Ungar (2003) analogized occlual relief with relative shearing area, traditionally captured using a shearing quotient (e.g., Anthony and Kay, 1993, Kirk and Simons, 2001). This falls into the first category, where it is presumed that a greater crest length will improve tooth function. M'Kirera and Ungar (2003) measured occlusal relief for only the occlusal surface above the bottom of the lowest basin; so they did not include a measure of total crown height, but only the height of features on the crown. RFI, as measured by Boyer (2008) and in this study, quantifies whole tooth relief using the surface area of the entire crown, and so it includes an indication of increased resistance to wear and crown height (hypsodonty) as well as crown feature height.

Primates with a high shearing crest length and initially high RFI have been demonstrated to have diets consisting of large amounts of structural carbohydrate (Kirk and Simons, 2001; M'Kirera and Ungar, 2003; Boyer, 2008). However, it has been demonstrated that the lengths of shearing crests on a tooth are maintained and sometimes increase even as the crown wears away when it is expected that RFI would be decreasing (King et al., 2005). Like shearing crest length, OPC is also apparently maintained and may even increase as the crown wears down and relief decreases as in Propithecus (Evans et al., 2007a,b; King et al., 2008). Because crest length and OPC appear to be less affected by wear than relief values, they may be more direct measures of functionality of teeth in animals with fibrous diets, such as folivores.

The second advantage of increasing RFI is that it should increase the duration of tooth functionality: the greater the initial RFI of a tooth, the more chewing cycles it should sustain before the tooth's cusps and crests are worn down to the bottom of its enamel basins. When this happens, all of the enamel is quickly eroded from the occlusal surface of the tooth. As a consequence, shearing crest length and OPC are also reduced drastically (Lanyon and Sanson, 1986; King et al., 2005, 2008). This interpretation is consistent with the observation that lifespan and unworn molar crown heights covary among species of deer (Veiberg et al., 2007).

Ecological significance of premolar form

Molarization of premolars is a known correlate of specialization for a more folivorous diet (Osborn, 1907; Gingerich, 1976; Van Valen, 1982; Jernvall et al., 2008). In fact, a molariform P_4 is one of the features cited as reflecting a leafy diet for *P. daubrei* (Gingerich, 1976). Why this should be the case can be explained by the correlation between tooth row OPC and herbivory discussed earlier and demonstrated by Evans et al. (2007a): as demonstrated in Tables 2 and 3, a more molariform P_4 adds more to the complexity of the tooth row and is thus beneficial to an herbivore. Analyses of tooth-row OPC of the taxa examined in this study might be predicted to be even more distinct than the M_2 and P_4 alone. The incipient trigonid of *P. cookei* and the better-developed one of *P. daubrei* appear similar in form. The molarization of P_4 seems likely to have initiated and progressed in a similar way in the lineages leading to *P. cookei* and *P. daubrei*.

Given that more complex premolars have increased importance for chewing relative to simple ones, it is interesting to note that the extremely molarized premolars of *P. daubrei* are also proportionally much larger than those of *P. cookei* and *P. tricuspidens*.

Ecological significance of incisor form

Gingerich (1976) argued that the apical cusps of the central incisor formed a structure analogous to a "seed cup" of certain bird bills. Therefore, the demonstrated reduction in the laterocone of P. cookei relative to that of P. tricuspidens (index 4) and the previously discussed lack of mediocone and centroconule (Gingerich, 1976) of P. cookei may indicate that it did not use its incisors to harvest small seeds. The reduction of the postercone projection and increased crown girth (indices 1 and 2) demonstrated to distinguish both P. cookei and P. daubrei from P. tricuspidens appears functionally significant. Both differences reflect a reduction in the relative size of the notch formed between the apex of the I^1 and its posterocone. In P. tricuspidens, and other plesiadapids with a similar I¹, distinct transverse wear striations develop in the apex of this notch, but the tip of the posterocone remains intact throughout a large range of progressive wear. On the other hand, several P. cookei specimens do not have substantial wear focused in this notch even though the tip of the posterocone is worn away (e.g., YPM-PU 13293, UM 88183). Furthermore, no available specimens of P. daubrei exhibit wear in this area, including those with wear developed on more distal parts of the crown. Thus the reduction of the posterocone may reflect a change in occlusal pattern in which the posterocone was not important for providing a shearing (Gingerich, 1976) or guiding surface for the lower incisor. What this means explicitly in terms of dietary changes is not immediately straightforward, but it is consistent with other data presented here suggesting that P. cookei and P. daubrei were similarly specialized toward a diet unlike that utilized by *P. tricuspidens*.

Paleoenvironmental significance of evolution of folivorous plesiadapids

Gingerich (1976) hypothesized that evolutionary changes in the inferred plesiadapid diets may reflect a response to changing climate and available herbaceous resources. Maas et al. (1988) presented evidence consistent with the hypothesis that the eventual extinction of plesiadapids was a result of competition with rodents, but competitive pressures could also have selected for new dietary specializations among plesiadapids.

Plant macrofossils (Wilf, 2000) and stable isotope records from marine cores and the terrestrial realm (e.g., Zachos et al., 2001) indicate moderate warming and aridification from the middle of the late Paleocene to the end of the epoch. Corresponding environmental changes may have selected for more dietarily specialized plesiadapids like P. cookei in North America and P. russelli in Europe, as contrasted with earlier large forms like *P. tricuspidens*. The rapid climate change at the beginning of the Eocene epoch (e.g., Bowen et al., 2001; Zachos et al., 2001; Wing et al., 2005) resulted in commensurate changes in flora (Wing et al., 2005). Keeping pace with climate change, more rapid environmental changes may have increased selective pressures and the rate of evolution of dietary specialization in plesiadapids, yielding forms like P. daubrei. If such a scenario is true then ultimately a consistent and congruent pattern of associations between reconstructed climate, environment, and plesiadapid dietary specialization should be discernable in North America and Europe in the late Paleocene and early Eocene. If competitive interactions with rodents and other taxa substantially influenced patterns of plesiadapid evolution, such associations will be more difficult to elucidate.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In summary, P. cookei is found to be essentially intermediate between P. tricuspidens and P. daubrei in a number of dietarily significant features of the molar, premolar, and incisor dentition. Specifically, P. cookei is intermediate in M_2 relief (RFI), M_2 complexity (OPC), P_4 complexity (OPC), and I¹ posterocone relative size. These findings support the hypothesis of Gingerich (1976) that P. cookei was less omnivorous and more specialized to a folivorous diet than P. tricuspidens. On the other hand, P. cookei shows greater molar enlargement relative to its skull, dentary, and P_4 than other taxa studied here, and it is indistinguishable from *P. daubrei* in I¹ crown relative girth and length. These features suggest that P. cookei is not a perfect intermediate on an ecological or evolutionary spectrum leading from P. tricuspidens to P. daubrei. Furthermore, skull and dentary measurements demonstrate P. cookei and P. tricuspidens to have been the same absolute sizes (despite differences in molar tooth sizes), where as P. daubrei was probably slightly smaller (on the basis of tooth and dentary measurements). Changes in dietary adaptations focused around the end of the Paleocene and the Paleocene-Eocene boundary may reflect evolutionary responses to environmental changes beginning at these times.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors are grateful to P. Gingerich for access to *P. cookei* specimens at UM and for encouragement to pursue this project. C. Norris, D. Brinkman, and M. Fox provided access to *P. cookei* specimens at the YPM. M. Godinot, P. Tassy, and C. Sagne of MNHN, and M. Pellouin provided access to important comparative specimens of *Plesiadapis tricuspidens* and *Platychoerops*. S. Judex and C. Rubin provided HRxCT scans at the Center for Biotechnology of the Department of Biomedical Engineering at Stony Brook University. This research was enhanced by discussions with J. Bloch, R. Fox, P. Gingerich, M. Godinot, J. Perry, M. Silcox, R. Secord, and many other researchers.

D.M. BOYER ET AL.

APPENDIX

Cranial measure	ments (Fig. 1)
1	Nasal: Maximum mediolateral width of anterior end
2	Nasal: Maximum andreoposterior length
3 1	Nasa: Maximum mediolateral which of posterior end (along frontal suture)
4	1 remaining the of 1^2
5	Premaxilla: Distance to anterior margin of I^2 , for a measured from anterior margin of bone
6	Premaxilla: Distance between I^1 and I^2 alveoli
7	Premaxilla/frontal: length of suture on dorsum of skull
8	Maxilla: Anteroposterior length in palate with measurement starting at anterior margin of suture with
0	palatine
9	Maxilla: Unilateral mediolateral width in palate at level of 1 ² alveolus Maxilla: Unilateral mediolateral width in palate at evel of 1 ² alveolus
10	Maxilla: Unitateral mediolateral width in palate at anterior margin of P or P alveolus Maxilla: Longth of tooth row from P^3 to M^3
12	Maxilla: Distance between I^2 and P^3
13	Maxilla/palatine: Unilateral mediolateral width of palate at level of M^3
14	Maxilla: Unilateral mediolateral width of maxilla at level of M ³ , measurement starts at midline
	(not palatomaxillary suture) and ends at lateral edge of alveolar process
15	Maxilla: maximum unilateral mediolateral width due to projection of maxillary zygomatic process
16	Maxilla: on zygomatic process, anteroposterior distance of expansion of maxilla for attachment of
17	masseter
17	Maxilla/Zygomatic: Length of sutture on datterior surface of maxima Maxilla/Erontal: Length of sutture on dorsum of skull
19	Frontal: Maximum unilateral mediolateral width from metopic suture to most lateral point of contact
10	with lacrimal and maxilla
20	Frontal: Maximum anteroposterior length along midline from nasal contact to parietal contact
21	Parietal: Unilateral mediolateral width at posterior contact with squamosal along nuchal crest
22	Parietal: Length of sagittal crest
23	Parietal: Maximum bilateral mediolateral width at postorbital constriction
24	Squamosal: Mediolateral width of glenoid
25	Squamosal: Anteroposterior length of glenoid, measured along medial margin, slightly obliquely going from postglonoid forement to most aptrain region and
26	Suramosal: Dorsoventral projection of post-of-point or general
27	Palatine: Anteroposterior length from anterior suture with maxilla to postpalatine torus
28	Palatine: Unilateral mediolateral distance to outer margin of postpalatine torus
29	Basioccipital: Bilateral mediolateral width at anteriormost point (spheno-occipital synchondrosis)
30	Basioccipital: Maximum anteroposterior length
31	Exoccipital: Bilateral mediolateral distance between hypoglossal foramina
32	Exoccipital: Bilateral mediolateral width at posterior margin of skull (between tips of jugular processes)
33	Exoccipital: Unilateral mediolateral distance from midline to outer margin of occipital condyle
54	forsmen magnum
35	Exoccipital: Dorsoventral height of occipital condyle, not including anteromedial projection of facet
36	Zygomatic: Dorsoventral depth at lateral margin of excavation for orbits
37	Zygomatic: Distance from anterior zygomatic/maxilla contact to lateral margin of excavation for orbits
	on zygomatic
38	Orbits: Unilateral mediolateral distance between midline and lateral edge of excavation for orbit on
30	zygomatic Besignation: Distance from anterelatoral margin of estatumpanic hone to stylomasteid foremen
40	Exoccinital: Mediolateral width of foramen magning
41	External auditory meatures mediolateral length, measured from lateral tip to medial margin of annular
	component of ectotympanic bone
42	External auditory meatus anteroposterior length, measured posterior to postglenoid foramen.
GM	Geometric mean of all measurements except 7, 41–42 (number of measurements available for
	calculation)
Upper central in	cisor measurements (Fig. 7)
1	Mesiodistal length of root at base of crown
2	Mediolateral width of root at base of crown
3	Mesiodistal length of crown at posterocone
4	Mesiodistal length of crown immediately distal to posterocone
0 6	Distance between anterocone tip and beterocone tip
0	Distance between anterocone up and laterocone up (not applicable to <i>Platychoerops</i>)
Index 1	Ratio of measurement 3 to square root of product of measurements 1 and 2
Index 2	Ratio of measurement 4 to square root of product of measurements 1 and 2
Index J	Ratio of measurement 6 to 5
IIIUCA T	

Specimen	MNHN CR 125	Pellouin skull	UM 87990
Taxon	P. tricuspidens	P. tricuspidens	P. cookei
	Berru, Paris	Berru, Paris	sc-117, Bighorn
	Basin,	Basin,	Basin,
Locality	France	France	Wyoming
Measures			
1	4.30	-	4.84
2	30.69	-	31.35
3	1.51	2.0	4.57
4	7.68	-	8.61
5	16.25	-	15.93
6	5.50	-	3.87
7	9.60	-	_
8	35.78	30.36	29.37
9	4.44	5.75	5.53
10	6.89	8.02	7.71
11	21.16	20.8	22.16
12	15.14	12.37	14.04
13	6.66	6.84	6.8
14	13.89	13.26	15.12
15	27.99	24.76	26.1
16	3.79	3.47	2.33
17	15.01	17.70	18.44
18	8.38	-	8.84
19	14.15	-	15.11
20	20.68	19.69	21.02
21	10.09	8.63	10.82
22	41.88	38.52	41.00
23	11.31	10.85	11.66
24	13.54	14.02	10.12
25	13.98	13.52	11.52
26	4.01	4.54	3.69
27	13.83	11.16	12.57
28	4.26	3.74	4.45
29	6.37	6.94	6.00
30	14.82	14.4	14.42
31	10.94	10.54	10.59
32	24.97	25.00	26.00
33	8.30	8.50	8.60
34	4.39	4.05	4.38
35	6.48	5.06	5.36
36	8.97	9.78	7.86
37	16.69	-	16.55
38	27.21	-	24.00
39	11.95	12.45	10.8
40	8.95	6.88	8.71
41	11.60	11.50	4.80
42	6.80	6.60	12.00
$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{M}$	10.6 (39)	10.28 (30)	10.71(39)

TABLE A2. Cranial me	asurements of	^c pi	lesiadapio	ls^a
----------------------	---------------	-----------------	------------	--------

TABLE A3. (Continued) Dentary Tooth wear Specimen depth at M₂ (relative age) UM 65720 17.00Moderate wear UM 82364 13.96Slight wear UM 69913 16.55Slight wear UM 73653 15.70 Slight wear UM 73704 17.83Heavy wear UM 69265 13.25Unworn Light moderate wear Light moderate wear UM 66919 16.12UM 66701 18.1314.02Moderate wear UM 65049 UM 87990 14.04Unworn UM 71764 16.20_ M ean16.50

TABLE A4. Dentary data on P. tricuspidens and P. daubrei

Specimen	Taxon	Dentary depth at M_2
MNHN R 420	P. tricuspidens	16.06
MNHN Br L S1	P. tricuspidens	14.82
MNHN R 129	P. tricuspidens	15.24
MNHN R 132	P. tricuspidens	14.61
MNHN Br 12505	P. tricuspidens	17.50
MNHN Br 12502	P. tricuspidens	19.52
MNHN Br 12500	P. tricuspidens	14.84
MNHN Br 12504	P. tricuspidens	12.82
MNHN Br 12506	P. tricuspidens	16.25
MNHN Br 12507	P. tricuspidens	15.91
MNHN Br 12498	P. tricuspidens	16.03
MNHN Br 12499	P. tricuspidens	16.62
MNHN Br 14062	P. tricuspidens	17.61
MNHN Br 14053	P. tricuspidens	15.84
MNHN R 422	P. tricuspidens	17.63
MNHN R 421	P. tricuspidens	18.44
MNHN Br 14616	P. tricuspidens	15.41
MNHN R 424	P. tricuspidens	20.32
MNHN Berru L-S2	P. tricuspidens	18.96
MNHN Berru L-S3	P. tricuspidens	17.17
MNHN R 432	P. tricuspidens	17.62
MNHN R 433	P. tricuspidens	12.69
MNHN Br 13881	P. tricuspidens	13.26
MNHN Br 10181	P. tricuspidens	14.51
MNHN Br 10198	P. tricuspidens	15.58
MNHN Br 10119	P. tricuspidens	17.90
MNHN R 423	P. tricuspidens	15.54
Berru Divers A	P. tricuspidens	12.82
Berru Divers C	P. tricuspidens	12.35
Berru Divers D	P. tricuspidens	14.03
Berru Divers E	P. tricuspidens	14.75
MNHN R 403	P. tricuspidens	14.60
MNHN R 431	P. tricuspidens	15.24
MNHN Br 14054	P. tricuspidens	15.01
MNHN Br 11832	P. tricuspidens	14.76
MNHN R 402	P. tricuspidens	18.46
MNHN R 401	P. tricuspidens	17.27
Mean	P. tricuspidens	15.89
MNHN AL-5156	P. daubrei	14.38
MNHN Mu 12301	P. daubrei	11.77
MNHN Mu 12302	P. daubrei	12.53
Mean	P. daubrei	12.89

^a See Table A1 for descriptions.

TABLE A3. Dentary data on P. cookei

10.28 (30)

10.71 (39)

Specimen	Dentary depth at M_2	Tooth wear (relative age)
YPM-PU 18097	18.12	_
YPM-PU 21589	19.48	_
YPM-PU 19551	19.36	_
YPM-PU 13292	15.94	Moderate wear
YPM-PU 18312	15.83	Slight wear
YPM-PU 17973	19.70	_
UM 67187	15.76	Moderate-heavy wear

0	n	O
4	υ	о

D.M. BOYER ET AL.

TABLE A5. Tooth measurements of P. cookei

					,						
Specimen	Tooth	Taxon	Region	Basin	Locality	RA	Age	2da	3da	RFI	OPC
UM 80720	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-19	Cf-2	56.4	29.39	78.05	0.488	64
UM 82364	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-19	Cf-2	56.4	25.72	71.79	0.513	67
UM 65050	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-20	Cf-2	56.4	26.20	71.59	0.503	67
UM 69913	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-136	Cf-2	56.4	32.49	94.08	0.532	63
UM 65720	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-62	Cf-2	56.4	27.73	75.46	0.501	62
UM 71764	$\overline{M_2}$	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-62	Cf-2	56.4	32.01	85.59	0.492	67
UM 79636	$\overline{M_2}$	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-116	Cf-2	56.4	25.04	67.03	0.492	60
UM 69995	$\overline{M_2}$	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-220	Cf-2	56.4	27.68	75.76	0.503	61
UM 87990 (L)	$\overline{M_2}$	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-117	Cf-2	56.4	23.38	61.26	0.482	53
UM 8801	$\overline{M_2}$	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-117	Cf-2	56.4	29.79	78.26	0.483	68
YPM-PU 18097	$\overline{M_2}$	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc	Cf-2	56.4	30.89	81.97	0.488	68
YPM-PU 17937	$\overline{M_2}$	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-143	Cf-2	56.4	34.10	85.2	0.458	59
YPM-PU 17939	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-143	Cf-2	56.4	34.54	86.39	0.458	55
YPM-PU 13293 (L)	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	\mathbf{Sc}	Cf-2	56.4	28.03	74.35	0.488	62
AMNH 16895	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	BH	Cf-2	56.4	33.92	86.52	0.468	74
AMNH 86795	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	TP	\mathbf{ML}	Cf-2	56.4	31.83	81.97	0.473	65
AMNH 88126	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	TP	TL	Cf-2	56.4	27.82	78.37	0.518	67
AMNH 88158	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	TP	L7	Cf-2	56.4	30.16	76.78	0.467	70
YPM-PU 18312	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc	Cf-2	56.4	26.98	71.31	0.486	55
YPM-PU 13293 (R)	M_2	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc	Cf-2	56.4	28.66	76.86	0.493	61
UM 87990 (L)	P_4	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-117	Cf-2	56.4	14.25	nm	nm	36
YPM-PU 13293	P_4	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc	Cf-2	56.4	17.95	nm	nm	33
YPM-PU 17490	P_4	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-143	Cf-2	56.4	19.05	nm	nm	39
UM 82364	P_4	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-19	Cf-2	56.4	14.40	nm	nm	42
UM 87990 (R)	P_4	P. cookei	Wyoming	Clark's Fork	sc-117	Cf-2	56.4	15.73	nm	nm	41

BH, Buckman hollow; Cf, Clarkforkian; E, Europe; ML, main locality; MP, mammalian palaeogene reference levels; NA, North America; nm, not measureable; PE, palaeogene European biozones; RA, relative age; sc, Sand Coulee; TL, Taeniodont locality; TP, Togwotee Pass area.

TABLE A6. Tooth measurements of P. tricuspidens and P. daubrei

Specimen	Tooth	Taxon	Region	Basin	Locality	RA	Age	2da	3da	RFI	OPC
MNHN Av 5762	M_2	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Avenay	MP 9 (PE V)	54.8	22.68	62.10	0.504	84
MNHN AL-J	$\tilde{M_2}$	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Reims	Eocene	$<\!55.8$	20.67	60.43	0.536	70
MNHN Mu 5578	$\tilde{M_2}$	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	15.57	42.56	0.503	68
MNHN Mu 5939	$\tilde{M_2}$	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	19.58	56.28	0.528	76
MNHN Mu 5560	M_2	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	22.74	70.12	0.563	76
MNHN Mu 6184	M_2	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	18.72	50.95	0.501	72
MNHN Mu 6275	M_2	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	18.22	49.61	0.501	70
MNHN Mu 12302	M_2	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	20.99	62.82	0.548	70
MNHN Mu 12301	M_2	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	18.70	55.22	0.541	71
MNHN AL-5164	P_4	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Reims	Eocene	$<\!55.8$	19.91	nm	nm	65
MNHN MUT-17147	P_4	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	18.48	nm	nm	58
MNHN Mu 12302	P_4	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	17.72	nm	nm	68
MNHN Mu 12301	P_4	P. daubrei	France	Paris	Mutigny	MP 8 (PE III)	54.8	15.22	nm	nm	59
MNHN Br 12493	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	16.80	42.95	0.469	60
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	17.42	43.79	0.461	55
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	18.82	48.28	0.471	59
MNHN Berru L-51	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	22.97	59.73	0.478	62
MNHN Cr 14363	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	16.23	40.68	0.459	61
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	18.72	47.65	0.467	51
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	16.81	40.93	0.445	61
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	17.22	38.66	0.404	47
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	15.81	40.77	0.474	65
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	20.95	51.55	0.450	45
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	17.86	45.99	0.473	67
MNHN R 424	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	17.37	46.13	0.488	50
MNHN R 129	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	17.43	47.34	0.499	55
MNHN Cr 14355	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	15.84	39.15	0.452	52
MNHN Berru "nn"	M_2	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	16.06	43.31	0.496	59
MNHN Br 14062	P_4	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	10.14	nm	nm	23
MNHN R 132	P_4	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	11.48	nm	nm	35
MNHN R 129	P_4	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	10.09	nm	nm	35
MNHN Berru L-S1	P_4	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	11.70	nm	nm	30
MNHN R 424	P_4	P. tricuspidens	France	Paris	Berru	MP 6-7 (PE I)	57.2	12.08	nm	nm	28

nm, not measureable; nn, no catalogue number.

EVIDENCE OF PLESIADAPID DIETARY DIFFERENCES

Specimen	P_4 trigonid Basin	P_4 paraconid
YPM-PU 17940	Slit-like trigonid basin	No
YPM-PU 17939	No trigonid basin	No
YPM-PU 21009	No trigonid basin	Yes
YPM-PU 17937	No trigonid basin	? – Worn
YPM-PU 13292	No trigonid basin	Yes
UM 67187	Dimple-like trigonid basin	Yes
UM 65720	Slit-like trigonid basin	No
UM 82364	Slit-like trigonid basin	No
UM 73653	No trigonid basin	No
UM 73704	Slit-like trigonid basin	? – Worn
UM 69265	Expansive trigonid basin	No
UM 87990	Expansive, trigonid basin	No
UM 69995	Slit-like trigonid basin	Yes
UM 65031	No trigonid basin	No
UM 88001	No trigonid basin	No
UM 80270	Expansive, trigonid basin	No
UM 71764	No trigonid basin	Yes

TABLE A7. P_4 morphology in P. cookei

TABLE A8. Incisor measurements and shape variables for plesiadapids

Specimen	Taxon	Locality	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6	CA^*	Ind-1	Ind-2	Ind-3	Ind-4
YPM-PU 17977	P. cookei	CF, sc	7.46	4.36	8.69	5.78	11.58	2.73	5.70	1.52	1.01	2.03	0.24
YPM-PU 18118	P. cookei	CF, sc	6.76	3.92	_	5.44	10.80	2.67	5.15	_	1.06	2.10	0.25
YPM-PU 13293	P. cookei	CF, sc	6.85	4.48	6.97	5.79	12.90	3.10	5.54	1.26	1.05	2.33	0.24
UM 66725	P. cookei	sc-117	6.72	4.28	7.30	5.45	9.83	2.69	5.36	1.36	1.02	1.83	0.27
UM 88183	P. cookei	sc-117	6.66	3.93	7.04	5.57	_	_	5.12	1.38	1.09	-	_
UM 65049	P. cookei	sc-20	7.13	3.68	7.76	4.83	_	2.14	5.12	1.51	0.94	-	_
UM 69265	P. cookei	sc-201	7.12	4.60	8.00	6.52	_	2.19	5.72	1.40	1.14	-	_
UM 69995 (L)	P. cookei	sc-220	-	-	_	_	_	3.07	_	-	-	-	_
UM 69995 (R)	P. cookei	sc-220	-	-	_	_	_	3.22	_	-	-	-	_
MNHN Cr 14359	P. tricuspidens	Berru	4.38	2.67	5.53	3.34	5.93	2.06	3.42	1.62	0.98	1.73	0.35
MNHN Cr 14369	P. tricuspidens	Berru	-	-	5.44	3.37	7.30	2.04	_	-	-	-	0.28
MNHN Br "nn"	P. tricuspidens	Berru	4.83	3.22	5.74	3.70	_	_	3.94	1.46	0.94	-	_
MNHN Br "nn"	P. tricuspidens	Berru	5.13	3.14	6.21	3.14	6.23	2.21	4.01	1.55	0.78	1.55	0.35
MNHN Br "nn"	P. tricuspidens	Berru	4.70	2.96	6.02	3.38	6.52	2.12	3.73	1.61	0.91	1.75	0.33
MNHN Br "nn"	P. tricuspidens	Berru	5.40	3.16	6.47	3.68	6.99	1.96	4.13	1.57	0.89	1.69	0.28
MNHN Br "nn"	P. tricuspidens	Berru	6.06	3.56	7.18	3.95	_	_	4.64	1.55	0.85	-	na
MNHN MUT 17158	P. daubrei	Mutigny	6.29	4.51	6.36	5.70	10.56	na	5.33	1.19	1.07	1.98	na
MNHN Mu 17076	P. daubrei	Mutigny	_	_	5.90	4.89	9.56	na	_	_	-	-	na
MNHN AL-5173A	P. daubrei	Reims	6.09	4.05	6.13	5.05	8.98	na	4.97	1.23	1.02	1.81	na
MNHN AL-5173B	P. daubrei	Reims	-	-	5.59	4.49	_	na	_	-	-	-	na
MNHN Mu 5555	P. daubrei	Mutigny	5.91	4.36	5.64	5.18	9.76	na	5.08	1.11	1.02	1.92	na
MNHN Mu 6502	P. daubrei	Mutigny	5.41	-	5.29	4.36	7.96	na	_	-	-	-	na
MNHN Mu 6447	P. daubrei	Mutigny	5.04	3.77	5.05	4.15	8.54	na	4.36	1.16	0.95	1.96	na
MNHN AL-5172	P. daubrei	Reims	6.67	4.52	6.40	5.70	11.30	na	5.49	1.17	1.04	2.06	na

CA, square root of cross-sectional area of incisor root = $(M \ 1) \times (M \ 2)$; CF, Clark's Fork Basin; Ind, index; M, measurement; na, not available or not applicable; nn, no catalogue number; TP, Togwotee Pass. See Table A1 and Figure 7 for descriptions and illustrations of measurements and indices.

LITERATURE CITED

- Anthony MRL, Kay RF. 1993. Tooth form and diet in ateline and alouattine primates: reflections on the comparative method. Am J Sci 293A:356–382.
- Bloch JI, Silcox MT, Boyer DM, Sargis EJ. 2007. New Paleocene skeletons and the relationship of plesiadapiforms to crown-clade primates. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 104:1159–1164.
- Bowen GJ, Koch PL, Gingerich PD, Norris RD, Bains S, Corfield RM. 2001. Refined isotope stratigraphy across the continental Paleocene-Eocene boundary on Polecat Bench in the northern Bighorn Basin. In: Gingerich PD, editor. Paleocene-Eocene stratigraphy and biotic change in the Bighorn and Clarks Fork basins, Wyoming. Univ Michigan Pap Paleontol 33:73–88.
- Boyer DM. 2008. Relief index of second mandibular molars is a correlate of diet among prosimian primates and other euarchontan mammals. J Hum Evol 55:1118–1137.

- Butler PM. 1972. Some functional aspects of molar evolution. Evolution 26:474–483.
- Cuozzo F, Yamashita N. 2006. Impact of ecology on the teeth of extant lemurs: a review of dental adaptations, function, and life history. In: Gould L, Sauther ML, editors. Lemurs: ecology and adaptation. New York: Springer. p 67–96.
- Evans AR, Sanson GD. 1998. The effect of tooth shape on the breakdown of insects. J Zool 246:391–400.
- Evans AR, Sanson GD. 2003. The tooth of perfection: functional and spatial constraint on mammalian tooth shape. Biol J Linn Soc 78:173–191.
- Evans AR, Wilson GP, Fortelius M, Jernvall J. 2007a. High-level similarity of dentitions in carnivorans and rodents. Nature 445:78–81.
- Evans A, Fortelius M, and Jernvall J. 2007b. How does tooth wear affect dental complexity? Implications for tooth function and dietary reconstruction. J Vert Paleontol 27:72A.
- Fleagle JG. 1999. Primate adaptation and evolution. New York: Academic Press.

- Gingerich PD. 1974. Dental function in the Paleocene primate *Plesiadapis*. In: Martin RD, Doyle GA, Walker AC, editors. Prosimian biology. London: Duckworth. p 531-541.
- Gingerich PD. 1975. Systematic position of *Plesiadapis*. Nature 253:111-113.
- Gingerich PD. 1976. Cranial anatomy and evolution of Early Tertiary Plesiadapidae (Mammalia, Primates). Univ Michigan Pap Paleontol 15:1–141.
- Gingerich PD. 1989. New earliest Wasatchian mammalian fauna from the Eocene of northwestern Wyoming: composition and diversity in a rarely sampled high-floodplain assemblage. Univ Michigan Pap Paleontol 28:1–97.
- Gingerich PD, Gunnell GF. 2005. Brain of *Plesiadapis cookei* (Mammalia, Proprimates): surface morphology and encephalization compared to those of Primates and Dermoptera. Univ Michigan Pap Paleontol 31:185–195.
- Gradstein FM, Ogg JG, Smith AG. 2004. A geologic time scale 2004. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gunnell GF. 1989. Evolutionary history of Microsyopoidea (Mammalia, Primates) and the relationship between Plesiadapiformes and Primates. Univ Michigan Pap Paleontol 27:1– 157.
- Jepsen GL. 1930. Stratigraphy and paleontology of the Paleocene of northeastern Park County, Wyoming. Proc Am Phil Soc 69:463-528.
- Jernvall J, Gilbert CC, Wright PC. 2008. Peculiar tooth homologies of the greater bamboo lemur (*Prolemur = Hapalemur simus*): when is a paracone not a paracone? In: Fleagle JG, Gilbert CC, editors. Elwyn Simons: a search for origins. New York: Springer. p 335–342.
- Kay RF. 1975. The functional adaptations of primate molar teeth. Am J Phys Anthropol 43:195–216.
- Kay RF, Hiemae KM. 1974. Jaw movement and tooth use in recent a fossil primates. Am J Phys Anthropol 40:227–256.
- King SJ, Arrigo-Nelson SJ, Pochron ST, Semprebon GM, Godrey LR, Wright PC, Jernvall J. 2005. Dental senescence in a longlived primate links infant survival to rainfall. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 102:16579–16583.
- King SJ, Zohdy S, Evans AR, Godfrey LR, Jernvall J, Wright PC. 2008. Senescence in wild lemurs: does it happen? Am J Phys Anthropol 135(s46):130A.
- Kirk EC, Simons EL. 2001. Diets of fossil primates from the Fayum depression of Egypt: a quantitative analysis of molar shearing. J Hum Evol 40:203-229.
- Lanyon JM, Sanson GD. 1986. Koala (*Phascolarctos cinereus*) dentition and nutrition. II. Implications of tooth wear in nutrition. J Zool London Ser A 209:169–181.
- Leutenegger W, Kelly JT. 1977. Relationship of sexual dimorphism in canine size and body size to social, behavioral, and ecological correlates in anthropoid primates. Primates 18:117-136.
- Lucas PW. 1979. The dental-dietary adaptations of mammals. N Jb Geol Palaontol Mh 8:486-512.

- Lucas PW. 2004. Dental functional morphology: how teeth work. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 355 p.
- Maas MC, Krause DW, Strait SG. 1988. The decline and extinction of Plesiadapiformes (Mammalia, Primates) in North America: displacement or replacement? Paleobiology 14:410– 431.
- MacPhee RDE, Cartmill M. 1986. Basicranial structures and primate systematics. In: Swisher DR, Erwin J, editors. Comparative primate biology, Vol. 1: systematics, evolution, and anatomy. New York: Alan R. Liss, Inc. p 219–275.
- M'Kirera F, Ungar PS. 2003. Occlusal relief changes with molar wear in *Pan troglodytes troglodytes* and *Gorilla gorilla gorilla*. Am J Primatol 60:31–41.
- Osborn HF. 1907. Evolution of mammalian molar teeth. In: Gregory WK, editor. New York: The Macmillan Company. 250 p.
- Rose KD. 1981a. Function of the mandibular tooth comb in living and extinct mammals. Nature 289:583-585.
- Rose KD. 1981b. The Clarkforkian land-mammal age and mammalian faunal composition across the Paleocene-Eocene boundary. Univ Michigan Pap Paleontol 26:1–197.
- Russell DE. 1959. Le crâne de *Plesiadapis*. Bull Soc Géol Fr 1:312-314.
- Russell DE. 1964. Les Mammiferes Paléocènes D'Europe. Mém Mus Natl Hist Nat Sér C 13:1–324.
- Russell DE, Louis P, Savage DE. 1967. Primates of the French early Eocene. Univ Calif Publ Geol Sci 73:1–46.
- Simpson GG. 1936. Studies of the earliest mammalian dentitions. Dent Cosmos 1936:1-24.
- Strait SG. 1993. Differences in occlusal morphology and molar size in frugivores and faunivores. J Hum Evol 25:471–484.
- Szalay FS. 1968. The beginnings of primates. Evolution 22:19–36.
- Ungar PS. 1994. Patterns of ingestive behavior and anterior tooth use differences in sympatric anthropoid primates. Am J Phys Anthopol 95:197-219.
- Van Valen L. 1982. Homology and causes. J Morphol 173:305–312.
- Veiberg V, Mysterud A, Gaillarg J-M, Delorme D, Van Laere G, Klein F. 2007. Bigger teeth for longer life? Longevity and molar height in two roe deer populations. Biol Lett 3:268–270.
- Wilf P. 2000. Late Paleocene-early Eocene climate changes in southwestern Wyoming: paleobotanical analysis. Geol Soc Am Bull 112:292–307.
- Wing SL, Harrington GJ, Smith FA, Bloch JI, Boyer DM, Freeman KH. 2005. Transient floral change and rapid global warming at the Paleocene-Eocene boundary. Science 310:993– 996.
- Zachos J, Pagani M, Sloan L, Thomas E, Billups K. 2001. Trends, rhythms, and aberrations in global climate 65 Ma to present. Science 292:686–693.
- Zohdy S, Evans A, Wright PC, Jernvall J. 2008. Roughing it: what it takes for *Hapalemur*, bears and rodents to chew bamboo. Am J Phys Anthopol 135:228.