Provided for non-commercial research and education use. Not for reproduction, distribution or commercial use.



This article appeared in a journal published by Elsevier. The attached copy is furnished to the author for internal non-commercial research and education use, including for instruction at the authors institution and sharing with colleagues.

Other uses, including reproduction and distribution, or selling or licensing copies, or posting to personal, institutional or third party websites are prohibited.

In most cases authors are permitted to post their version of the article (e.g. in Word or Tex form) to their personal website or institutional repository. Authors requiring further information regarding Elsevier's archiving and manuscript policies are encouraged to visit:

http://www.elsevier.com/copyright

Journal of Human Evolution 58 (2010) 147-154

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

ELSEVIE



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jhevol



A hominoid distal tibia from the Miocene of Pakistan

Jeremy M. DeSilva^{a,*}, Michèle E. Morgan^b, John C. Barry^{b,c}, David Pilbeam^{b,c}

^a Department of Anthropology, 232 Bay State Road, Boston University, Boston, MA 02215, United States
 ^b Peabody Museum, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138, United States
 ^c Department of Human Evolutionary Biology, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138, United States

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 6 April 2009 Accepted 4 November 2009

Keywords: Sivapithecus Ankle Miocene ape Functional morphology

ABSTRACT

A distal tibia, YGSP 1656, from the early Late Miocene portion of the Chinji Formation in Pakistan is described. The fossil is 11.4 million years old and is one of only six postcranial elements now assigned to *Sivapithecus indicus*. Aspects of the articular surface are cercopithecoid-like, suggesting some pronograde locomotor activities. However, YGSP 1656 possesses an anteroposteriorly compressed metaphysis and a mediolaterally thick medial malleolus, ape-like features functionally related to orthograde body postures and vertical climbing. YGSP 1656 lacks specializations found in the ankle of terrestrial cerco-pithecoids and thus *Sivapithecus* may have been primarily arboreal. Nevertheless, the morphology of this tibia is unique, consistent with other interpretations of *Sivapithecus* postcranial functional morphology that suggest the locomotion of this ape lacks a modern analog. Based on the limited postcranial remains from *S. indicus*, we hypothesize that this taxon exhibited substantial body size dimorphism.

Published by Elsevier Ltd.

Introduction

This report focuses on the description of a recently recognized distal tibia, YGSP 1656, assignable to *Sivapithecus indicus*, from locality Y076 in the early Late Miocene of the Chinji Formation of the Siwalik Group in the Potwar Plateau, Pakistan (Pilbeam et al., 1979; Flynn et al., 1990; Kappelman et al., 1991). Two other hominoid specimens have been recovered from locality Y076: an undescribed right M³, YGSP 31557, and a left humeral shaft with distal epiphysis, YGSP 30730 (Pilbeam et al., 1990).

There are almost 38,000 mammalian fossils from the Potwar Plateau in the collections made in collaboration with the Geological Survey of Pakistan (GSP) and the Pakistan Museum of Natural History (PMNH). There are at least a dozen primate species recognized in our collections (Lydekker, 1879,1884; Pilgrim, 1910,1932; Lewis, 1933; Simons and Pilbeam, 1965; Gingerich and Sahni, 1979; Jacobs, 1981; MacPhee and Jacobs, 1986; Kelley, 1988; Flynn and Morgan, 2005); 75% of the primate fossils represent the hominoid *Sivapithecus*, within which Kelley (2005a) has tentatively identified three species. *Sivapithecus parvada* is found only at locality Y311 in the Nagri Formation (Kelley, 1988; Scott et al., 1999), dated at 10.1 Ma (Barry et al., 2002). *Sivapithecus indicus* and *S. sivalensis* are probable time-successive, ancestor-descendant species (Kelley, 2005a) exhibiting relatively minor differences in molar size and proportions, the former sampled from the Chinji Formation

0047-2484/\$ - see front matter Published by Elsevier Ltd. doi:10.1016/j.jhevol.2009.11.002

between 12.8 Ma and 11.4 Ma (Kappelman et al., 1991; Behrensmeyer et al., 1995; Willis and Behrensmeyer, 1995; Ogg and Smith, 2004), the latter from the Dhok Pathan Formation between 9.3 and 8.5 Ma (Barry et al., 2002; Nelson, 2007). Alternatively, *S. indicus* and *S. sivalensis* may not differ enough to be considered separate species (Kelley, 2005b). A few indeterminate specimens, either *S. indicus* or *S. sivalensis*, are sampled from the poorly fossiliferous intervening Nagri Formation.

The Harvard-GSP project has collected 22 *Sivapithecus indicus* specimens from the Chinji Formation, ranging in age between 12.8 Ma and 11.4 Ma. YGSP 1656, the first tibia recovered from the Potwar Plateau, is one of only six postcranial specimens from the Chinji Formation assignable to *S. indicus* (Raza et al., 1983; Rose, 1984,1989,1993; Pilbeam et al., 1990; Madar et al., 2002; see Table 4). Previously described postcranial remains of all three *Sivapithecus* species have been characterized as representing a generalized arboreal, predominantly pronograde quadruped, capable of some antipronograde or orthograde behaviors, including vertical climbing (see Rose, 1993; Madar et al., 2002). Both dental (Kelley, 2005a,b) and postcranial specimens (at least of *S. parvada*; Kelley, 1988) imply considerable size dimorphism.

Locality Y076 is classified as a simple floodplain channel with mixed lithologies (Behrensmeyer et al., 2005). The locality measures >50 m across and is approximately 5 m thick. Fossils derive from lenses of conglomerate and interbedded sand and red silty sand. More than 1500 fossil specimens have been cataloged from this locality, representing over 56 mammalian species from 10 orders. The fauna of Y076 is similar in taxonomic composition and

^{*} Corresponding author. E-mail address: jdesilva@bu.edu (J.M. DeSilva).

relative abundance to many other Chinji localities, with the addition of more rare taxa reflecting the high fossil productivity of this locality. Suids, anthracotheres, giraffids, bovids, tragulids, rhinocerotids, and proboscideans dominate the large mammal fauna while cricetids and rhizomyids are the most diverse and abundant small mammals (Flynn et al., 1995; Morgan et al., 1995). Dated to 11.4 Ma by correlations to the paleomagnetic timescale (Kappelman et al., 1991; Ogg and Smith, 2004), Y076 predates the first appearance of hipparionines in this sequence at 10.8 Ma (Pilbeam et al., 1996).

Materials and methods

We compared YGSP 1656 to distal tibiae of adult wild-shot anthropoid primates (Table 1), studied at the Cleveland Museum of Natural History, Harvard Museum of Comparative Zoology, American Museum of Natural History, National Museum of Natural History, Yale Peabody Museum, and Field Museum (Chicago). The platyrrhine taxa were chosen to test hypotheses that *Sivapithecus* may have moved like a modern howler or capuchin monkey (Rose, 1983,1989). Fossil tibiae from the Miocene were studied at the National Museum of Kenya and the Uganda National Museum. A high quality research cast of the *Hispanopithecus laietanus* tibia IPS-18800 (courtesy of S. Moyà-Solà) was measured at the Harvard Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology (PMAE).

Six measurements were taken on the articular surface of the distal tibia: the maximum mediolateral width of the anterior, posterior, and midpoint aspects of the articular surface, and the maximum anteroposterior length of the most medial, lateral, and midpoint aspects of the articular surface (Fig. 2). Measurement error, assessed by repeating these measures on 40 specimens a month after the original measurements were taken, was within 5%. The geometric mean (GM) of these six measures was calculated by taking the product of all six and then the (1/6)th root of the product. Each raw measure was then divided by the GM, following the size-adjustment protocol established by Darroch and Mosimann (1985). This approach has been used in previous paleoan-thropological studies including a study of the primate ankle (Seiffert and Simons, 2001) and a study on *Sivapithecus* postcranial remains (Madar et al., 2002).

The mediolateral width of the tibial metaphysis was measured as the maximum mediolateral dimension taken at the point when the medial malleolus begins to curve medially, just superior to the distal articular surface, so as to not include the medial malleolus in the measurement. The anteroposterior dimension was the maximum dimension perpendicular to the mediolateral width. The thickness of the medial malleolus was taken at the midpoint of the malleolus at its most superior junction with the articular surface of

Table 1

Distal tibial measurements^a

the distal tibia. The thickness of the malleolus is reported here relative to the anteroposterior length of the medial malleolus, which was measured as the maximum anteroposterior length perpendicular to the medial malleolar width. The relative thickness of the medial malleolus is measured to assess loading of the joint in inversion, an important joint motion during orthograde climbing bouts in hominoids (Wunderlich, 1999; DeSilva, 2008). The similarity between YGSP 1656 and extant taxa was statistically evaluated using a single observation with the mean test (Sokal and Rohlf, 1995; 228–229).

A non-stepwise discriminant function analysis was performed on the size-adjusted measures of the distal tibia using SPSS 16.0. Included in this analysis were the dimensions of the metaphysis, the six dimensions of the articular surface of the distal tibia and also three dimensions of the medial malleolus: the maximum anteroposterior length, maximum mediolateral width, and maximum superoinferior height. The GM of these eleven measurements was calculated and each raw value divided by the GM and entered into the discriminant function. The fossil tibiae from the Miocene were entered as separate groups.

Description

YGSP 1656 is the distal \sim 30 mm of a well preserved, male-*Nasalis*-sized left tibia which we assign to *Sivapithecus indicus*; its epiphysis has a maximum mediolateral width of 24.1 mm and an anteroposterior length of 18.6 mm (Fig. 1). The tibia was found in January of 1975, prepared and identified in April of 2007, and is currently curated at the PMAE, on loan from the PMNH.

YGSP 1656 possesses a mediolaterally broad (21.9 mm) and anteroposteriorly compressed (15.3 mm) metaphysis (Fig. 1). The tibial shaft, as exposed in cross section, is pear shaped, with its mediolateral axis parallel to the epiphyseal surface. At the break, the cortical bone is exposed allowing the thickness to be estimated: 4.5 mm lateral, 2.7 mm medial, 2.4 mm posterior, 2.9 mm anterior. The medial surface of the shaft is flat. The anterior and posterior surfaces are convex and taper laterally to a sharp interosseous crest, which anchored the anterior tibiofibular ligament. This crest divides \sim 12 mm superior to the articular surface to form a triangular fibular notch, its anterior margin being sharp and posterior margin very gently rounded, terminating in a projection for the posterior tibiofibular and the transverse tibiofibular ligaments. The slightly concave distal margin of the notch is ~10 mm long anteroposteriorly. There is a very small facet for the fibula located in the most anterior and inferior aspect of this notch. Inferiorly the anterior rim of the distal tibia has a very slightly projecting lip of bone; posteriorly, the tibial edge is essentially flat. There is a small

Species/Specimen	n	Metaphyseal	dimensions	Articular s	urface of dist	al tibia				Medial Ma	alleolus	
		Mediolateral	Anteroposterior	AP Lateral	AP Midpoint	AP Medial	ML Anterior	ML Midpoint	ML Posterior	SI	AP	ML
YGSP 1656	1	21.9	15.3	15.8	13.0	12.5	16.9	14.0	12.7	9.1	13.7	8.7
Pan troglodytes	49	$\textbf{30.6} \pm \textbf{3.1}$	21.8 ± 1.8	19.2 ± 1.6	$\textbf{20.8} \pm \textbf{1.9}$	$\textbf{18.7} \pm \textbf{1.7}$	$\textbf{27.3} \pm \textbf{2.1}$	21.4 ± 1.5	17.7 ± 1.7	13.3 ± 1.4	18.7 ± 1.7	13.5 ± 1.3
Gorilla gorilla gorilla	44	44.1 ± 7.0	$\textbf{28.0} \pm \textbf{4.6}$	24.7 ± 3.1	$\textbf{27.7} \pm \textbf{3.7}$	26.4 ± 3.3	$\textbf{38.7} \pm \textbf{4.5}$	$\textbf{29.0} \pm \textbf{3.8}$	$\textbf{21.6} \pm \textbf{3.3}$	15.0 ± 2.2	$\textbf{26.9} \pm \textbf{3.6}$	18.4 ± 2.6
Pongo pygmaeus	35	26.5 ± 4.3	16.0 ± 2.9	17.1 ± 2.3	$\textbf{20.0} \pm \textbf{2.5}$	15.2 ± 2.7	24.7 ± 3.4	21.4 ± 2.8	$\textbf{18.2} \pm \textbf{2.6}$	$\textbf{8.1}\pm\textbf{1.4}$	15.0 ± 2.1	12.0 ± 1.6
Hylobates lar	40	12.2 ± 1.2	10.5 ± 0.8	$\textbf{9.4}\pm\textbf{0.8}$	10.3 ± 0.6	$\textbf{8.9}\pm\textbf{0.6}$	11.3 ± 0.7	$\textbf{9.2}\pm\textbf{0.8}$	$\textbf{7.4} \pm \textbf{0.6}$	$\textbf{6.0}\pm\textbf{0.6}$	$\textbf{9.3}\pm\textbf{0.7}$	$\textbf{5.6} \pm \textbf{0.5}$
Symphalangus syndactylus	12	15.5 ± 1.2	10.3 ± 1.0	10.7 ± 0.9	11.5 ± 0.9	9.1 ± 0.6	13.4 ± 0.9	10.5 ± 0.4	$\textbf{9.4}\pm\textbf{1.0}$	$\textbf{6.9}\pm\textbf{0.5}$	9.3 ± 0.7	$\textbf{7.1} \pm \textbf{0.7}$
Papio spp.	35	19.7 ± 2.6	16.8 ± 2.2	14.5 ± 2.2	15.7 ± 2.0	13.8 ± 2.4	17.8 ± 2.2	15.6 ± 2.0	13.7 ± 1.7	10.2 ± 1.3	15.6 ± 1.8	$\textbf{7.6} \pm \textbf{1.0}$
Mandrillus sphinx	12	18.6 ± 2.6	16.1 ± 2.3	12.8 ± 2.1	14.4 ± 2.0	12.0 ± 1.9	16.7 ± 2.6	14.2 ± 2.0	13.3 ± 2.6	$\textbf{9.3}\pm\textbf{1.1}$	13.3 ± 1.6	$\textbf{7.3} \pm \textbf{1.3}$
Nasalis larvatus	37	18.0 ± 2.6	14.8 ± 2.0	12.0 ± 1.4	14.6 ± 1.5	12.6 ± 1.3	15.4 ± 1.5	13.6 ± 1.5	11.6 ± 1.4	$\textbf{7.9} \pm \textbf{1.1}$	12.6 ± 1.5	$\textbf{6.6} \pm \textbf{1.0}$
Alouatta palliata	30	13.5 ± 1.3	$\textbf{8.8}\pm\textbf{0.9}$	$\textbf{8.7}\pm\textbf{0.8}$	$\textbf{9.7} \pm \textbf{0.8}$	$\textbf{7.4} \pm \textbf{0.8}$	12.4 ± 1.1	10.4 ± 1.2	$\textbf{9.3}\pm\textbf{1.1}$	5.3 ± 1.0	7.1 ± 0.7	$\textbf{6.0} \pm \textbf{0.6}$
Cebus capucinus	20	9.6 ± 0.7	$\textbf{7.6} \pm \textbf{0.5}$	$\textbf{7.6} \pm \textbf{0.7}$	$\textbf{8.4}\pm\textbf{0.8}$	$\textbf{7.2}\pm\textbf{0.7}$	$\textbf{9.0}\pm\textbf{0.7}$	$\textbf{8.9}\pm\textbf{0.8}$	$\textbf{7.9}\pm\textbf{0.7}$	$\textbf{5.3}\pm\textbf{0.8}$	$\textbf{7.3}\pm\textbf{0.7}$	$\textbf{3.7}\pm\textbf{0.3}$

 $^a\,$ All measurements reported as mean $\pm\,1$ standard deviation.



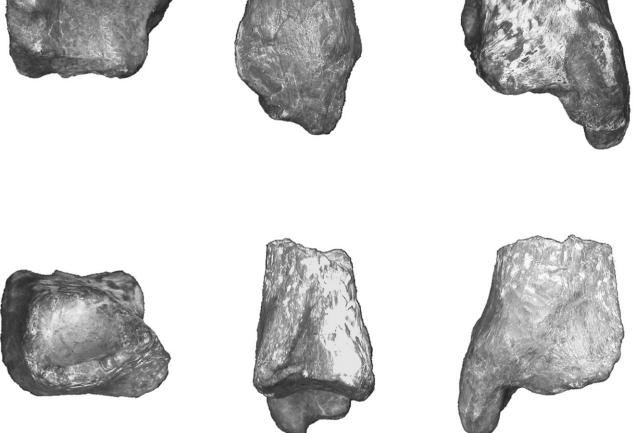


Fig. 1. *Sivapithecus indicus* distal tibia YGSP 1656 in (top left to right) inferior, medial, and posterior view and (bottom left to right) superior, lateral, and anterior view. Scale bar = 1 cm.

stop facet along the anterior rim that measures 3.9 mm mediolaterally and 3.3 mm superoinferiorly.

The malleolus is robust, 13.7 mm anteroposteriorly, 8.7 mm mediolaterally, and 9.1 mm superoinferiorly; it projects more anteriorly than posteriorly and possesses a moderately developed intercollicular groove for the attachment of the posterior tibiotalar ligament. Its articular anterolateral surface is continuous with the lateral surface of the malleolus and with the trochlear surface, and is delimited by a marked anterior crest which is continuous with the crest at the anterior margin of the medial half of the trochlear surface. Posteriorly, the groove for the tibialis posterior runs inferiorly from the tibial shaft onto the posterior half of the malleolus and is demarcated by clear margins on either side, especially medially; it is 4 mm wide and slightly less than 1 mm deep. Lateral to the malleolar groove, there is a slight indentation demarcating the path of the flexor hallucis longus tendon.

The trochlear surface is trapezoid shaped, with a wider anterior aspect (16.9 mm) and a narrower posterior surface (12.7 mm). The medial half of the trochlear surface is perpendicular to the tibial long axis, while the lateral part slopes superolaterally at an angle of 27.5 degrees relative to the articular surface of the medial portion, producing an inferior talar facet angle of 102.5 degrees relative to

the long axis of the tibia. The medial and lateral parts of the joint surface are separated by a gently rounded median keel that equally divides the medial and lateral surfaces. The keel is more strongly projecting anteriorly and tapers posteriorly.

Comparative anatomy and functional interpretation

The morphology of YGSP 1656 suggests that *S. indicus* had a mobile ankle, adapted for generalized pronograde arboreal quadrupedalism and some ape-like, antipronograde positional behaviors such as vertical climbing.

Using a single observation with the mean test (Sokal and Rohlf, 1995: 228–229), the shape of the metaphysis of YGSP 1656 (Fig. 3) is most similar to the morphology found in modern chimpanzees (t = 0.20, p = 0.85), siamangs (t = 0.66, p = 0.53), and gorillas (t = 1.23, p = 0.23). The shape is quite unlike the square morphology of the metaphysis in baboons (t = 2.99, p = 0.005) and *Nasalis* (t = 2.29, p = 0.03). This ape-like anteroposteriorly compressed metaphysis of YGSP 1656 would have facilitated a wide range of motion at the ankle joint, in contrast to a cercopithecoid-like anteroposteriorly broad metaphysis, in which the anterior lip of the distal tibia reaches the neck of the talus at the more reduced angle of dorsiflexion of only 15–25° (Hirasaki et al., 1993; DeSilva,

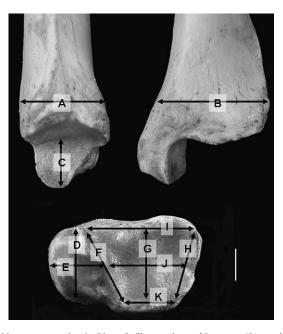


Fig. 2. Measurements taken in this study illustrated on a chimpanzee (*Pan troglodytes*) distal tibia (PMAE 22-2-50/60353.0) in lateral (upper left), anterior (upper right), and inferior (bottom) views (scale bar = 1 cm). The measurements taken are as follows: A: Anteroposterior (AP) length of metaphysis; B: Mediolateral (ML) width of metaphysis; C: Superoinferior (SI) height of medial malleolus; D: AP length of medial malleolus; E: ML width of medial malleolus; F: AP length of medial articular surface; G: AP length of articular surface; H: AP length of lateral articular surface; I: ML width of anterior articular surface; J: ML width of midpoint of articular surface; J: ML width of midpoint of articular surface; K: ML width of posterior articular surface. Copyright 2009 President and Fellows of Harvard College.

2008). Additionally, the mediolaterally wide metaphysis of YGSP 1656 implies loading of the ankle joint in positions outside of the parasagittal plane and therefore suggests a greater range of foot and ankle mobility than is present in modern cercopithecoids.

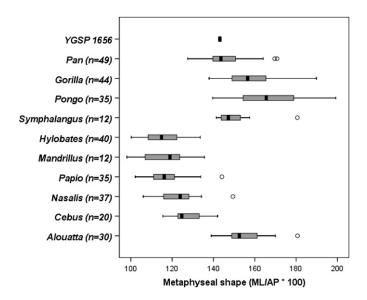


Fig. 3. Dimensions of the tibial metaphysis in YGSP 1656 compared to modern anthropoid primates. The *Hylobates*, cercopithecoids, and *Cebus* have square-shaped metaphyses whereas those of *Symphalangus*, the great apes, and *Alouatta* are more rectangular. This cross-sectional shape in the apes and ateline monkeys increases the possible range of dorsiflexion in the ankle and also implies mediolateral loading of the ankle joint. YGSP 1656 is quite unlike the cercopithecoids and instead has a shape closest to the modern African apes and *Symphalangus*. Figures 3–5 show the medial (black bar), interquartile range (box), and overall range (whiskers) of the data. Outliers, defined as 1.5 times the interquartile range, are shown as circles.

Cercopithecoids possess a bulbous medial malleous, which articulates with a cup-shaped cotylar fossa of the talus and is thought to stabilize the medial ankle joint during rapid flexion and extension (Harrison, 1989). YGSP 1656 does not have this morphology, and instead possesses a flatter, more ape-like medial malleolus. Terrestrial cercopithecoids have a strongly keeled talar facet, which stabilizes the ankle joint in the parasagittal plane (Harrison, 1989). The YGSP 1656 tibia has a more gently sloped keel, suggestive of increased foot and ankle mobility, perhaps in an arboreal environment.

The pronounced anterior interosseous crest on YGSP 1656 indicates mobility between the tibia and the fibula during positions of ankle dorsiflexion, which is a characteristic of apes rather than cercopithecoids (Barnett and Napier, 1953). Furthermore, because the flexor hallucis longus muscle originates on the fibula, increased fibular mobility suggests a strong hallucial grasping capacity in *Sivapithecus*. YGSP 1656 possesses a noticeable groove just lateral to the medial malleolus for the tendon of flexor hallucis longus, implying an important role of this muscle in the foot of *Sivapithecus*. This anatomy and functional interpretation is consistent with an analysis of a robust terminal hallucial phalanx from *S. parvada* (Madar et al., 2002), and the robust *S. sivalensis* hallux, YGSP 14046 (Pilbeam et al., 1980). However, the relatively small fibular facet on the YGSP 1656 tibia may indicate slightly less mobility at the tibiofibular joint than is found in modern hominoids.

The mediolateral thickness of the malleolus in YGSP 1656 (Fig. 4) is more similar to the average medial malleolus thickness in *Hylobates* (t = 0.67, t = 0.51) and *Gorilla* (t = 0.92, p = 0.36) than to the distinctly different morphology of the medial malleolus in both *Nasalis* (t = 2.55, p = 0.02) and *Papio* (t = 3.91, p < 0.001). This thickness suggests that *Sivapithecus* loaded its foot in positions of inversion and climbed in a more hominoid-like than cercopithecoid-like manner. During climbing bouts, modern hominoids load the medial side of the foot, whereas cercopithecoids load the lateral aspect of the foot (Wunderlich, 1999). A skeletal correlate of medial midfoot loading and foot inversion is reflected at the ankle joint in the form of a mediolaterally thick medial malleolus (Fig. 4), as is seen in the YGSP 1656 tibia. YGSP 1656 also has a strong lateral tilt to the

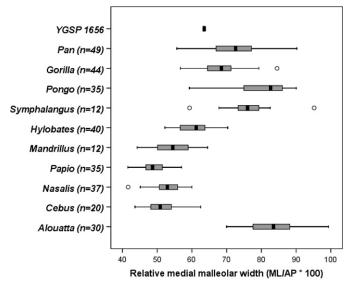


Fig. 4. Relative thickness of the tibial medial malleolus in YGSP 1656 compared to modern anthropoid primates. The hominoids and *Alouatta* have relatively thick medial malleoli, suggesting loading of the ankle joint in positions of inversion. Cercopithecoid monkeys and *Cebus* have significantly thinner medial malleoli. YGSP 1656 has malleolar morphology most like *Hylobates* and *Gorilla* suggesting that *Sivapithecus* loaded its ankle more like a modern ape than a modern cercopithecoid.

distal tibia, which is more characteristic of arboreal catarrhines like *Nasalis* than terrestrial catarrhines like *Papio*. This morphology places the foot in a more inverted position as in the arboreal cercopithecoids, whereas the morphology of the terrestrial cercopithecoids places the tibia closer to a parasagittal plane (Meldrum, 1991). The attachment for the posterior tibiotalar ligament (PTTL) on YGSP 1656 is unlike that found on *Pongo* tibiae which have little or no attachment, and unlike the terrestrial cercopithecoids, which have a significantly more excavated region for this ligament (DeSilva, 2008, 2009). The PTTL attachment is similar to that found in the hylobatids, African apes, and the arboreal cercopithecoids. This morphology may indicate that the PTTL helped to stabilize the ankle during extreme dorsiflexion in *Sivapithecus*.

The anterior aspect of the tibial plafond is mediolaterally broad in hominoids (Fig. 5). This morphology is functionally linked to loading the talocrural joint in extreme dorsiflexion, an important joint motion during orthograde vertical climbing in most hominoids (DeSilva, 2008, 2009). In contrast, cercopithecoids have a mediolaterally shortened anterior aspect of the distal tibia. The distribution of bone on the inferior aspect of YGSP 1656 is unlike the condition found in modern great apes, *Symphalangus*, or platyrrhine monkeys, and is instead most similar to *Hylobates* (t = 0.18, p = 0.86) and cercopithecoids (t = 0.40, p = 0.69).

Because the anterior aspect of the articular surface is not mediolaterally broad, *S. indicus* probably did not engage in orthograde vertical climbing bouts as often as do modern great apes. Instead, the morphology of the articular surface of the YGSP 1656 tibia suggests that *Sivapithecus* loaded its ankle in positions of both dorsiflexion and plantarflexion, reflecting a varied positional and locomotor repertoire. The articular surface of YGSP 1656 is suggestive of a generalized locomotor strategy in *Sivapithecus*, including arboreal quadrupedalism and other pronograde positional behaviors, but the thick medial malleolus and anteroposteriorly compressed metaphysis are consistent with antipronograde behaviors common to all apes, such as vertical climbing, clambering, and bridging.

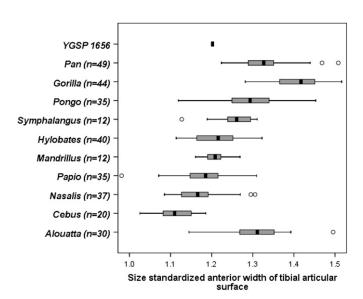


Fig. 5. Size-standardized width of the anterior aspect of the distal tibial articular surface in YGSP 1656 compared to modern anthropoid primates. The great apes and atelines have mediolaterally wide anterior aspects of the distal tibia resulting in a trapezoid-shaped articular surface. Cercopithecoids and *Hylobates* tend to have a square-shaped articular surface. YGSP 1656 falls between these two extremes, with an articular morphology similar to that found in modern gibbons, though not unlike some cercopithecoid monkeys.

Multivariate analysis

Figure 6 and Tables 2 and 3 summarize the results of a multivariate analysis of YGSP 1656 and a suite of extant and fossil primates. Along function 1, YGSP 1656 is in the general morphospace between the great apes (to the right) and the cercopithecoids (to the left), and is within the lower limits of Pan and Symphalangus, and the upper limits of Cebus and Nasalis. Function 2 has less resolving power. Although YGSP 1656 clusters primarily with Hylobates and Pan, it falls within the range of variation found in Papio, Mandrillus, Symphalangus, Gorilla, and Pongo. Based on Mahalanobis Distances (Table 3), the probabilities of group membership are highest in Pan (p = 0.51), and Symphalangus p = 0.46). For all other taxa, the probability of group membership is ≤0.02. Hypotheses that locomotion in *Sivapithecus* may have been similar to that found in modern platyrrhines Cebus and Alouatta (Rose, 1983, 1989) are not supported by this analysis of the S. indicus ankle. The ankle of Sivapithecus is also strikingly different from that of Pongo. All of the other Miocene catarrhine distal tibiae included in this analysis cluster with the cercopithecoids and Hylobates (but not Symphalangus) with the exception of the Proconsul major tibia NAP I'58 (Rafferty et al., 1995) and the Hispanopithecus laietanus tibia from the IPS-18800 skeleton (Moyà-Solà and Köhler, 1996), both of which are more like modern apes. A thorough comparative analysis of Miocene catarrhine distal tibiae appears elsewhere (DeSilva, 2008, in prep).

Discussion

This *S. indicus* distal tibia provides the first evidence for the functional morphology of the ankle joint in this Middle and Late

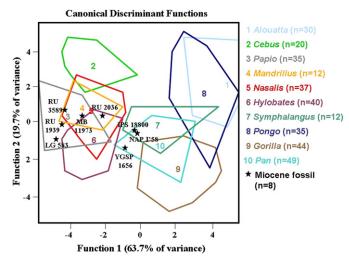


Fig. 6. Plot of scores on Functions 1 and 2 of a canonical discriminant analysis, with convex shapes showing ranges of modern taxa. This graph should be read in conjunction with Table 2. The first discriminant function explains 63.7% of the variance and is dominated by the mediolateral width of the medial malleolus and the mediolateral width of the anterior aspect of the distal tibial articular surface (Table 2). Along this function, there is a continuum from the cercopithecoids and Cebus to the large bodied orthograde hominoids and Alouatta. The second discriminant function explains 19.7% of the variance and is dominated by the mediolaterally elongated posterior and midpoint dimensions of the tibial articular surface (Table 2). Based on Mahalanobis Distances, YGSP 1656 is most like Pan and Symphalangus. Miocene catarrhine tibia are from Proconsul major (NAP I'58), P. nyanzae (KNM-RU 1939), P. heseloni (KNM-RU 2036, KNM-RU 3589), Dendropithecus or P. africanus (KNM-LG 583), Victoriapithecus macinnesi (KNM-MB 11973), and Hispanopithecus laietanus (IPS 18800). Most Miocene catarrhine tibiae are cercopithecoid-like, except for those belonging to P. major and H. lajetanus, both of which are Pan-like. Species identification of fossil tibiae from Harrison (1989), Rafferty et al. (1995), and Moyà-Solà and Köhler (1996).

Table 2
Structure matrix for discriminant function analysis ^a

Variable	Function (% of variance) ^b			
	1 (63.7%)	2 (19.7%)	3 (7.4%)	
Metaphyseal width (ML)	0.282	-0.270	0.109	
Metaphyseal length (AP)	0.348	-0.170	-0.012	
Malleolar width (ML)	0.482	-0.353	-0.240	
Malleolar height (SI)	0.297	-0.025	-0.557	
Malleolar length (AP)	-0.393	-0.341	0.553	
Articular anterior width (ML)	0.455	-0.223	0.174	
Articular midpoint width (ML)	0.220	0.474	0.357	
Articular posterior width (ML)	0.113	- 0.704	-0.059	
Articular lateral length (AP)	-0.049	0.147	-0.145	
Articular medial length (AP)	-0.160	-0.205	0.339	
Articular midpoint length (AP)	-0.029	0.328	0.185	

^a Pooled within-group correlations between variables and first three discriminant functions.

b The largest two correlations.

Miocene hominoid. As with other aspects of Sivapithecus postcranial anatomy, the combination of features present on YGSP 1656 is unlike any modern anthropoid and suggests a generalized locomotor repertoire without a close modern analog.

For nearly every measure, the shape of this fossil is located in the morphospace between the extant hominoids and cercopithecoids. Of the modern species, YGSP 1656 is most similar to Pan troglodytes and Symphalangus syndactylus based on Mahalanobis Distances (Table 3). However, this does not imply that Sivapithecus used its feet precisely like a chimpanzee or siamang, and unlike these modern taxa there is little evidence from the forelimb that S. indicus was capable of significant suspensory behaviors (Pilbeam et al., 1990; Madar et al., 2002). Instead, the foot of Sivapithecus was probably adapted for pronograde positions of arboreal quadrupedalism, and mobile foot positions during orthograde climbing and bridging. Finally, the morphology of YGSP 1656 suggests that Sivapithecus was adapted for arboreality. Although this analysis does not rule out the possibility that Sivapithecus also used terrestrial substrates, it is consistent with other functional analyses that suggest Sivapithecus was primarily an arboreal ape (Rose, 1984, 1989; Madar et al., 2002). YGSP 1656 is most similar to tibiae of the arboreally adapted apes Pan and Symphalangus, and more closely resembles those of the primarily arboreal Nasalis than the more terrestrial Papio, particularly in regards to ligament attachments and bony joint stability.

The results of the functional analysis of the distal tibia reported here are consistent with functional interpretations of S. indicus based on previous descriptions of a navicular, lateral cuneiform, and calcaneus from the Chinji Formation (Table 4). From the navicular (YGSP 46459), the S. indicus foot was reconstructed as one that could produce a powerful grip and load the foot in positions of inversion (Madar et al., 2002). This capacity would enable Sivapithecus to navigate large diameter substrates both in pronograde and orthograde positions. Additionally, a lateral cuneiform (YGSP 17118) is most similar to that found in modern chimpanzees and is functionally consistent with arboreal quadrupedalism and climbing (Rose, 1984). The calcaneus from the Chinji Formation (YGSP 28230) has been reconstructed as one belonging to a foot capable of strong grasping, well adapted for arboreal climbing and quadrupedal locomotion (Rose, 1989). The humerus (YGSP 30730) and capitate (YGSP 17119) are interpreted as representing a generalized arboreal quadruped, capable of palmigrade quadrupedalism, climbing, and some suspension (Raza et al., 1983; Pilbeam et al., 1990). Based on these data from the forelimb, foot, and ankle, S. indicus can be reconstructed as a hominoid with a mosaic locomotor repertoire that combines arboreal quadrupedalism with antipronograde activities such as vertical climbing, clambering, and bridging. Postcranial remains of S. parvada and S. sivalensis indicate a very similar repertoire (see Pilbeam et al., 1980; Madar et al., 2002). It remains of interest that in some facial features S. sivalensis resembles Pongo, whereas postcranially all three Sivapithecus species differ from all extant apes, and in particular from Pongo.

The reconstruction of Sivapithecus as an arboreally adapted ape is consistent with habitat reconstruction based on carbon isotope data and ecomorphological studies of bovid lower limbs (Scott et al., 1999). Stable carbon isotope values (δ^{13} C) from 11 mammalian herbivore species average -11.4 ± 0.9 % (n=14) and indicate pure C_3 vegetation. $\delta^{13}C$ values of paleosol carbonates at this stratigraphic level range between -9.3 and -10.7 % (n = 5; Quade and Cerling, 1995), implying plant biomass values near -24 to -27 ‰ consistent with C₃ forest habitats (Cerling et al., 2004). The ecomorphological inferences of Scott et al. (1999), including seven bovid specimens from Y076, also suggest predominantly forested habitats at this locality. Two *S. indicus* teeth yield δ^{13} C values of -11.9 and -11.7 % again indicating forest, although not entirely closed canopy forest (Nelson, 2007). The arboreal adaptations of the *Sivapithecus* ankle are thus compatible with a forested habitat (although we recognize that semi-terrestrial primates can be found in modern equatorial forests).

Finally, this distal tibia allows us to better estimate body mass dimorphism in S. indicus. Based on qualitative assessments of YGSP 1656 (Table 4), this individual was between 16-24 kg, roughly the size of a male Nasalis larvatus. The humerus, YGSP 30730, also from the Y076 locality, is from an individual with a similar estimated body mass (Table 4). The Sivapithecus M³ from Y076, YGSP 31557, has a molar occlusal area (length \times breadth) around 110 mm², which would make it one of the smallest inferred female S. indicus (Kelley, 2005a). Although it is tempting to suggest that these three specimens may belong to the same individual, given the complex nature of this locality it is not possible to associate any of these

Mahalanobis	distance	matrix	from	discriminant	function	analysis

	Alouatta	Cebus	Papio	Mandrillus	Nasalis	Hylobates	Symphalangus	Pongo	Gorilla	Pan
Alouatta	_									
Cebus	40.1	-								
Papio	62.7	22.4	-							
Mandrillus	47.4	24.4	*14.2	-						
Nasalis	51.7	*19.6	*17.7	*18.2	-					
Hylobates	51.2	30.4	21.1	20.7	*18.6	-				
Symphalangus	19.9	35.9	35.4	32.6	30.8	28.6	-			
Pongo	*16.2	52.6	63.2	63.2	59.0	61.0	27.8	-		
Gorilla	28.3	58.0	43.7	50.7	36.6	36.6	29.5	29.8	-	
Pan	21.4	36.5	26.8	29.8	28.7	25.4	*16.4	28.6	*17.6	-
YGSP 1656	49.2	43.2	28.5	35.3	30.2	22.4	*10.8	63.2	33.1	*10.2

^a Probabilities of group membership >0.05 signified with *

152

Table 4			
Sivapithecus indicus	postcranial specimen	s and body weigh	nt estimates ^a

_		marcus po	••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	iens and body weight estimates
	Specimen number	Locality, Age (Ma)	Element	Qualitative estimate (kg)
	YGSP	Y076,	Left distal	Most similar in size to male Nasalis
	1656	11.4	tibia	larvatus, MCZ 41563, recorded body weight 21 kg.
	YGSP	Y076,	Left humerus	Most similar in size to male Papio doguera
	30730	11.4		neumani (Papio anubis), MCZ 8304. (Larger
				than largest male <i>Nasalis larvatus</i> at MCZ) Size estimate is ~ 24 kg. ^b
	YGSP	Y495,	Left	Most similar in size to small male Pan
	17118	11.6	ectocuneiform	troglodytes troglodytes, MCZ 20041. Much larger than <i>Papio</i> and <i>Nasalis</i> males. Size estimate is \sim 45–50 kg. ^c
	YGSP	Y499,	Partial right	Most similar in size to male Nasalis
	28230	12.1	calcaneus	larvatus, MCZ 41557, recorded body weight 20 kg.
	YGSP	Y499,	Left navicular	Intermediate in size between two male
	46459	12.1		Nasalis larvatus, MCZ 37328, recorded
				body weight 19 kg, and MCZ 41563,
				recorded body weight 21 kg. Size estimate
				is ~20 kg.
	YGSP	Y500,	Right capitate	
	17119	12.1		Pan paniscus, MCZ 38019 and MCZ 38018.
				Much larger than <i>Papio</i> and <i>Nasalis</i> males. Size estimate is \sim 30–40 kg. ^c
				Size estimate is \sim 50–40 kg.

We made qualitative body mass assessments, comparing individual elements to homologs in living species, or in some cases, specimens of known body weight, Given that Sivapithecus is inferred to be a pronograde quadruped, capable of some orthograde postures and locomotion, for comparisons we concentrated on pronograde quadrupedal cercopithecoids, particularly *Nasalis* and *Papio*, and species of *Pan*.

The MCZ specimen was collected in Kenya. Size estimate based on live wild weight of 24.2 +/- 2.4 kg for male Papio anubis from Kenya as reported by Smuts (1985).

Jungers and Susman (1984) provide average weight and weight ranges for Pan paniscus (female 33.2 kg, 27-38 kg; male 45 kg, 37-61 kg) and Pan troglodytes troglodytes (female 33.4 kg, 42.3-50 kg; male 40.9 kg, 50-70 kg). YGSP 17119 is difficult to match to a living primate because its morphology is unlike any living primate.

hominoid remains with one another. The S. indicus navicular (YGSP 46459) and calcaneus (YGSP 29230) yield similar body size estimates (Table 4). The ectocuneiform (YGSP 17118) and capitate (YGSP 17119) are from larger individuals, estimated at between 30 and 50 kg in mass. There are now six postcranial body weight estimates for S. indicus. Four cluster between 20 and 24 kg, the other two are between 30 and 50 kg. (We are more confident about the 45-50 kg estimate for the YGSP 17118 ectocuneiform than the 30–40 kg estimate for the YGSP 17119 capitate. See notes to Table 4). We interpret this distribution as implying a high degree of body mass dimorphism; Kelley (1988) inferred similar dimorphism for S. parvada. Thus the presumed males were between the size of an average male and female chimpanzee, whereas the females were about the size of an average male Nasalis or Papio. This degree of body size dimorphism, in which the males are around twice as large as the females, is comparable to that found in extant primates such as Nasalis larvatus, Papio hamadryas, Pongo pygmaeus, and Gorilla gorilla (Smith and Jungers, 1997; Delson et al., 2000).

Conclusions

YGSP 1656 is the first tibial fragment known from the Miocene genus Sivapithecus. The functional morphology of this bone is consistent with interpretations of other postcranial remains of Sivapithecus, indicating that it was primarily arboreal and had a varied locomotor repertoire consisting of both pronograde quadrupedalism and occasional antipronograde activities such as vertical climbing. YGSP 1656 is probably that of a female about the size of a modern male Nasalis, giving further support to the hypothesis of considerable body size dimorphism in Sivapithecus.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank the Directors General of the Geological Survey of Pakistan, S.M. Ibrahim Shah, S. M. Raza, and the late Grant E. Meyer. We thank Salvador Moyà-Solà for permission to study a cast of the IPS-18800 tibia, and are grateful to E. Westwig (AMNH), L. Gordon (NMNH), K. Zyskowski (Yale Peabody), B. Stanley and M. Schulenberg (Field Museum), J. Chupasko (Harvard MCZ), and L. Jellema and Y. Haile-Selassie (CMNH) for permission to study primate specimens in their care. Miocene tibiae were studied thanks to the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology and R. Mwanja and E. Musiime at the Uganda National Museum, and the Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and I.O. Farah and E. Mbua at the National Museum of Kenya. Hominin cast and primate skeletal collections at the Harvard PMAE also contributed to this study. Past support was received from the National Science Foundation, Leakey Foundation, Smithsonian Foreign Currency Program, and current support from The American School of Prehistoric Research. This paper was greatly improved by the insightful comments and suggestions of the anonymous reviewers and Associate Editor Eric Delson.

References

- Barnett, C.H., Napier, I.R., 1953. The rotatory mobility of the fibula in eutherian mammals. J. Anat. 87, 11-21.
- Barry, J., Morgan, M., Flynn, L., Pilbeam, D., Behrensmeyer, A., Raza, S., Khan, I., Badgley, C., Hicks, J., Kelley, J., 2002. Faunal and environmental change in the Late Miocene Siwaliks of Northern Pakistan. Paleobiol. Mem. 3, 1-72. Suppl. 28(2).
- Behrensmeyer, A.K., Badgley, C., Barry, J.C., Morgan, M.E., Raza, S.M., 2005. The paleoenvironmental context of Siwalik Miocene vertebrate localities. In: Lieberman, D.E., Smith, R.H., Kelley, J. (Eds.), Interpreting the Past: Essays on Human, Primate, and Mammal Evolution. Brill, Boston, pp. 47-62.
- Behrensmeyer, A.K., Willis, B.J., Quade, J., 1995. Floodplains and paleosols of Pakistan Neogene and Wyoming Paleogene deposits: a comparative study. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol. 115, 37-60.
- Cerling, T.E., Hart, J.A., Hart, T.B., 2004. Stable isotope ecology in the Ituri forest. Oecologia 138, 5–12.
- Darroch, J.N., Mosimann, J.E., 1985. Canonical and principal components of shape. Biometrika 72, 241-252.
- Delson, E., Terranova, C.J., Jungers, W.L., Sargis, E.J., Jablonski, N.G., Dechow, P.C., 2000. Body mass in cercopithecidae (Primates, Mammalia): estimation and scaling in extinct and extant taxa. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. Anthropol. Pap. 83, 1–159.
- DeSilva, J.M., 2008. Vertical Climbing Adaptations in the Anthropoid Ankle and Midfoot: Implications for Locomotion in Miocene Catarrhines and Plio-Pleistocene Hominins. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Michigan.
- DeSilva, J.M., 2009. Functional morphology of the ankle and the likelihood of climbing in early hominins. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 106, 6567-6572

- DeSilva, J.M., in prep. The evolution of the ape ankle. Flynn, L.J., Barry, J.C., Morgan, M.E., Pilbeam, D., Jacobs, L.L., Lindsay, L.H., 1995. Neogene Siwalik mammalian lineages: species longevities, rates of change, and modes of speciation. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol. 115, 249-264.
- Flynn, L.J., Morgan, M.E., 2005. New lower primates from the Miocene Siwaliks of Pakistan. In: Lieberman, D.E., Smith, R.H., Kelley, J. (Eds.), Interpreting the Past: Essays on Human, Primate, and Mammal Evolution. Brill, Boston, pp. 81-101.
- Flynn, LJ., Pilbeam, D., Jacobs, LL., Barry, J.C., Behrensmeyer, A.K., Kappelman, J., 1990. The Siwaliks of Pakistan: time and faunas in a Miocene terrestrial setting. J. Geol. 98, 589-604.
- Gingerich, P.D., Sahni, A., 1979. Indraloris and Sivaladapis: Miocene adapted primates from the Siwaliks of India and Pakistan. Nature 279, 415-416.
- Harrison, T., 1989. New postcranial remains of Victoriapithecus from the Middle Miocene of Kenya. J. Hum. Evol. 18, 3–54.
- Hirasaki, E., Kumakura, H., Matano, S., 1993. Kinesiological characteristics of vertical climbing in Ateles geoffroyi and Macaca fuscata. Folia. Primatol. 61, 148-156.
- Jacobs, L.L., 1981. Miocene lorisid primates from the Pakistan Siwaliks. Nature 289, 585-587
- Jungers, W.L., Susman, R.L., 1984. Body size and skeletal allometry in African apes. In: Susman, R.L. (Ed.), Pygmy Chimpanzee: Evolutionary Biology and Behavior. Plenum Press, New York, pp. 131-177.
- Kappelman, J., Kelley, J., Pilbeam, D., Sheikh, K.A., Ward, S., Anwar, M., Barry, J.C., Brown, B., Hake, P., Johnson, N.M., Raza, S.M., Shah, S.M.I., 1991. The earliest occurrence of Sivapithecus from the Middle Miocene Chinji Formation of Pakistan. J. Hum. Evol. 21, 61-73.
- Kelley, J., 1988. A new large species of Sivapithecus from the Siwaliks of Pakistan. J. Hum. Evol. 17, 305-324.

- Kelley, J., 2005a. Twenty-five years contemplating Sivapithecus taxonomy. In: Lieberman, D.E., Smith, R.H., Kelley, J. (Eds.), Interpreting the Past: Essays on Human, Primate, and Mammal Evolution. Brill, Boston, pp. 123-143.
- Kelley, J., 2005b. Misconceptions arising from the misassignment of non-hominoid teeth to the Miocene hominoid Sivapithecus. Palaeontol. Electronica. 8, 1-9. Lewis, G.E., 1933. Preliminary notice of a new genus of lemuroid from the Siwaliks.
- Am. J. Sci. 26, 134-138.
- Lydekker, R., 1879. Further notices of Siwalik mammals. Rec. Geol. Surv. India 12, 33-52.
- Lydekker, R., 1884. Siwalik and Narbada bunodont Suina. Pal. Indica X III (2), 35-104.
- MacPhee, R.D.E., Jacobs, L.L., 1986. Nycticeboides simpsoni and the morphology, adaptations, and relationships of Miocene Siwalik Lorisidae. Contributions to Geology, University of Wyoming, Special Paper 3, pp. 131–161. Madar, S.I., Rose, M.D., Kelley, J., MacLatchy, L., Pilbeam, D., 2002. New *Sivapithecus*
- postcranial specimens from the Siwaliks of Pakistan. J. Hum. Evol. 42, 705-752.
- Meldrum, D.J., 1991. Kinematics of the cercopithecine foot on arboreal and terrestrial substrates with implications for the interpretation of hominin terrestrial adaptations. Am. J. Phys. Anthropol. 84, 273–289.
- Morgan, M.E., Badgley, C., Gunnell, G.F., Gingerich, P.D., Kappelman, J.W., Maas, M.C., 1995. Comparative paleoecology of Paleogene and Neogene mammalian faunas: body-size structure. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol. 115, 287-317.
- Moyà-Solà, S., Köhler, M., 1996. A Dryopithecus skeleton and the origins of great-ape locomotion. Nature 379, 156-159.
- Nelson, S.V., 2007. Isotopic reconstructions of habitat change surrounding the extinction of Sivapithecus, a Miocene hominoid, in the Siwalik Group of Pakistan. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol. 243, 204–222.
- Ogg, J.G., Smith, A.G., 2004. The geomagnetic polarity time scale. In: Gradstein, F.M., Ogg, J.G., Smith, A.G. (Eds.), A Geological Time Scale 2004. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 63-86.
- Pilbeam, D.R., Behrensmeyer, A.K., Barry, J.C., Shah, S.M.I., 1979. Miocene sediments
- and faunas of Pakistan. Postilla 179, 3–44.
 Pilbeam, D., Morgan, M., Barry, J.C., Flynn, L., 1996. European MN units and the Siwalik faunal sequence of Pakistan. In: Bernor, R.L., Fahlbusch, V., Mittmann, H.-W. (Eds.), The Evolution of Western Eurasian Neogene Mammal Faunas. Columbia University Press, New York, pp. 96-105.
- Pilbeam, D.R., Rose, M.D., Badgley, C., Lipschutz, B., 1980. Miocene hominoids from Pakistan, Postilla 181, 1-94.
- Pilbeam, D., Rose, M.D., Barry, J.C., Shah, S.M.I., 1990. New Sivapithecus humeri from Pakistan and the relationship of Sivapithecus and Pongo. Nature 348, 237-239.

- Pilgrim, G.E., 1910. Preliminary notes on a revised classification of the Tertiary freshwater deposits of India. Geol. Surv. India Rec. 43, 185-205.
- Pilgrim, G.E., 1932. The fossil Carnivora of India. Mem. Geol. Surv. India 18, 1-232. Quade, J., Cerling, T.C., 1995. Expansion of C4 grasses in the Late Miocene of northern Pakistan: evidence from stables isotopes in paleosols. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol. 115, 91–116. Rafferty, K.L., Walker, A., Ruff, C.B., Rose, M.D., Andrews, P.J., 1995. Postcranial
- estimates of body weight in Proconsul, with a note on a distal tibia from Napak, Uganda. Am. J. Phys. Anthropol. 97, 391–402.
- Raza, S.M., Barry, J.C., Pilbeam, D., Rose, M.D., Shah, S.M.I., Ward, S., 1983. New hominoid primates from the Middle Miocene Chinji Formation, Potwar Plateau, Pakistan, Nature 306, 52-54.
- Rose, M.D., 1983. Miocene hominoid postcranial morphology: monkey-like, apelike, neither, or both? In: Ciochon, R.L., Corruccini, R.S. (Eds.), New Interpretations of Ape and Human Ancestry. Plenum Press, New York, pp. 405–417.
- Rose, M.D., 1984. Hominoid postcranial specimens from the Middle Miocene Chinji Formation, Pakistan. J. Hum. Evol. 13, 503-516.
- Rose, M.D., 1989. New postcranial specimens of catarrhines from the Middle Miocene Chinji Formation, Pakistan: descriptions and a discussion of proximal humeral functional morphology in anthropoids. J. Hum. Evol. 18, 131-162.
- Rose, M.D., 1993. Locomotor anatomy of Miocene hominoids. In: Gebo, D.L. (Ed.), Postcranial Adaptation on Nonhuman Primates. Northern Illinois University Press, DeKalb, pp. 252-272.
- Scott, R.S., Kappelman, J., Kelley, J., 1999. The paleoenvironment of *Sivapithecus parvada*. J. Hum. Evol. 36, 245–274.
 Seiffert, E.R., Simons, E.L., 2001. Astragalar morphology of Late Eocene anthropoids
- from the Fayum Depression (Egypt) and the origin of catarrhine primates. J. Hum. Evol. 41, 577-606.
- Simons, E.L., Pilbeam, D.R., 1965. Preliminary revision of the Dryopithecinae (Pongidae, Anthropoidea). Folia. Primatol. 3, 82-152.
- Smith, R.J., Jungers, W.L., 1997. Body mass in comparative primatology. J. Hum. Evol. 32, 523–559.
- Smuts, B.B., 1985. Sex and Friendship in Baboons. Aldine Publishing Company, New York.
- Sokal, R.R., Rohlf, F.J., 1995. Biometry. W.H. Freeman and Co., New York Willis, B.J., Behrensmeyer, A.K., 1995. Fluvial systems in the Siwalik Miocene and
- Wyoming Paleogene. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol. 115, 13-36. Wunderlich, R., 1999. Pedal Form and Plantar Pressure Distribution in Anthropoid
- Primates. Ph.D. Dissertation, State University of New York at Stony Brook.