Endostructural morphology in hominoid mandibular third premolars: Discrete traits at the enamel-dentine junction

Thomas W. Daviesa,b,*, Lucas K. Delezeneč, Philipp Gunzb, Jean-Jacques Hublinb, Matthew M. Skinneera,b

a School of Anthropology and Conservation, University of Kent, Canterbury, CT2 7NZ, UK

b Department of Human Evolution, Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Deutscher Platz 6, 04103 Leipzig, Germany

c Department of Anthropology, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas, 72701 USA

*Corresponding author.

E-mail address: thomas_davies@eva.mpg.de (T.W. Davies)

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Abstract

The mandibular third premolar (P₃) exhibits substantial differences in size and shape among hominoid taxa, and displays a number of discrete traits that have proven to be useful in studies of hominin taxonomy and phylogeny. Discrete traits at the enamel-dentine junction (EDJ) can be accurately assessed on moderately worn specimens, and often appear sharper than at the outer-enamel surface (OES). Here we use microtomography to image the P₃ EDJ of a broad sample of extant apes, extinct hominins and modern humans (n = 100). We present typologies for three important premolar discrete traits at the EDJ (transverse crest, marginal ridge and buccal grooves), and score trait frequencies within our sample. We find that the transverse crest is variable in extant apes, while the majority of hominins display a transverse crest which runs directly between the two major premolar cusps. Some Neanderthals display a unique form in which the transverse crest fails to reach the protoconid. We find that mesial marginal ridge discontinuity is common in Australopithecus anamensis and Australopithecus afarensis while continuous marginal ridges largely characterize Australopithecus africanus and Paranthropus. Interrupted mesial and distal marginal ridges are again seen in Homo sapiens and Neanderthals. Premolar buccal grooves, previously identified at the OES as important for hominin systematics, are again found to show a number of taxon-specific patterns at the EDJ, including a clear difference between Australopithecus and Paranthropus specimens. However, their appearance may be dependent on the morphology of other parts of the crown such as the protoconid crest, and the presence of accessory dentine horns. Finally, we discuss rare variations in the form of dentine horns that underlie premolar cusps, and their potential homology to similar morphologies in other tooth positions.
1. Introduction

Teeth are an important component of the fossil record; as highly mineralized and compact tissues, they are well preserved and, therefore, common in fossil deposits. They are also a rich source of information regarding taxonomy, diet, and environment, among other factors (Walker et al., 1978; Sponheimer and Lee-Thorp, 1999; Richards et al., 2001; Lee-Thorp et al., 2003; Grine et al., 2012). Unlike bones, the external morphology of the tooth crown is not remodeled throughout life; once fully developed, it is only modified by external factors such as breakage or wear. Further, aspects of tooth morphology show high levels of heritability (Townsend and Martin, 1992; Dempsey and Townsend, 2001; Hlusko and Mahaney, 2003) and dental traits are considered particularly useful in studies of taxonomy and phylogeny (Wood and Abbott, 1983, Wood et al., 1983; Suwa et al., 1996; Irish and Guatelli-Steinberg, 2003).

Many previous studies of the hominin dentition have focused on molars, since they are the most morphologically complex teeth, while premolars are considered transitional teeth between the simple, single-cusped canines and the more complex, multi-cusped molars. Premolars are extremely variable, however, and can show a variety of morphologies even among hominoids (e.g., Davies et al., 2019). This is especially true of the mandibular third premolar (P3), which forms part of the catarrhine canine honing complex (e.g., Walker, 1984; Greenfield and Washburn, 1992; Delezene, 2015). As a result of substantial reduction in maxillary canine height, hominins are the only catarrhine clade in which the function of canine honing has been lost (e.g., Greenfield, 1990; Brunet et al., 2002; Haile-Selassie et al., 2004; Suwa et al., 2009). The loss of canine honing may have removed a functional constraint on P3 morphology that permitted the evolution of novel P3 forms among hominins.
Intraspecific $P_3$ variability was noted by Kraus and Furr (1953), who outlined 17 traits in modern humans that relate to the development and position of the major cusps, the form of major occlusal ridges, and the presence of features such as buccal grooves. Wood and Uytterschaut (1987) built upon these definitions to study mandibular premolar variation among Plio-Pleistocene hominins, noting for example that cusp number is effective in distinguishing between *Paranthropus* and other hominins, while the position of the lingual cusp can be used to distinguish eastern African *Homo*. Further, Suwa (1988) identified a number of $P_3$ features that distinguish *Paranthropus* from other hominins and Suwa et al. (1996) outlined derived $P_3$ features of early *Homo* and *Australopithecus africanus*, relative to *Australopithecus afarensis*, as well as those unique to early *Homo*. $P_3$ traits have also been utilized in studies of *Ardipithecus* (Haile-Selassie et al., 2004; Suwa et al., 2009), *Australopithecus anamensis*, *A. afarensis* (Leonard and Hegmon, 1987; Ward et al., 2001; Kimbel et al., 2006; Delezene and Kimbel, 2011) and *Homo naledi* (Irish et al., 2018).

Nonmetric features are typically assessed at the outer-enamel surface (OES); however, advances in microtomography allow the assessment of internal tooth structures. Of particular interest in studying discrete dental traits is the enamel-dentine junction (EDJ). The EDJ preserves the form of the basement layer of the inner-enamel epithelium, the morphology of which is determined during odontogenesis. Subsequently, enamel and dentine are deposited on either side of this epithelial layer, meaning that important OES dental features such as cusps and crests typically originate at the EDJ (Skinner et al., 2008 and references therein). The advantages of studying the morphology of the EDJ are twofold. Firstly, tooth wear can prevent assessment of discrete dental traits (Burnett et al., 2013); however, the EDJ is preserved in specimens with moderate wear, allowing assessment of specimens that would otherwise be excluded from analyses. Secondly, hominin teeth often have thick enamel (Beynon and Wood, 1986; Macho and Thackeray, 1992; Smith et al., 2012; Skinner et al.,
which may make the exact form and layout of crown features difficult to assess. In contrast, features at the EDJ appear much sharper, allowing for more accurate and precise trait assessment. As a result, although the OES and EDJ have a high level of correspondence (Nager, 1960; Skinner et al., 2010; Ortiz et al., 2012; Morita et al., 2014; Guy et al., 2015), trait-scoring systems developed for the OES may not always be applicable when studying the EDJ.

Various studies have investigated the expression of discrete molar traits at the EDJ (e.g., Korenhof, 1960; Corruccini, 1987; Skinner et al., 2008; Anemone et al., 2012; Zanolli and Mazurier, 2013; Martinón-Torres et al., 2014; Martínez de Pinillos et al., 2014; Zanolli, 2015; Martin et al., 2017; Liao et al., 2019), which help to understand the range of variation in the form of these traits. Studying the EDJ also allows us to better understand the development of dental traits so that we can accurately identify traits and their covariation with one another, or with other aspects of crown morphology, both of which can be important when using traits to make taxonomic arguments. Fewer studies have explored discrete premolar traits at the EDJ, although a number of studies have done so alongside molars (e.g., Braga et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2013; Zanolli et al., 2018). Sakai (1967) studied the modern human P3 using destructive techniques to view the EDJ and explore the expression of discrete traits such as buccal grooves and an indentation on the mesial marginal ridge termed a ‘trigonid notch’. The form of these traits was compared to the morphology of the OES, and discussed with reference to what was known about the expression of these traits at the OES of fossil hominins. Further, Krenn et al. (2019) studied modern human mandibular premolars at the EDJ and OES, scoring the variation in seven different qualitative traits including the form of the marginal ridges, the extension of the transverse crest, and the number of accessory crests present on the crown, finding inter-population differences in a number of traits. Despite advances in microtomography allowing the non-destructive imaging of internal tooth structures in fossils,
no study has yet explored the EDJ expression of $P_3$ discrete traits across the hominin clade.

Here we examine the $P_3$ EDJ of a broad sample of extant apes, modern humans and extinct hominins, focussing on three important discrete traits that are variable within this sample. We present scoring systems for these traits, and discuss the concordance (or lack thereof) with traits previously scored at the OES. We score trait frequencies within our sample to identify features that may have taxonomic significance, and discuss the developmental basis of a number of these traits.

A second companion paper will use geometric morphometrics to quantitatively analyze hominoid $P_3$ EDJ morphology (Davies et al. 2019).

2. Methods

2.1 Study sample

The sample is summarized in Table 1 (a full list of specimens can be found in Supplementary Online Material [SOM] Table S1) and consists of 100 specimens, of which 93 are assigned to species rank. Two specimens are assigned to Homo sp., and five are considered indeterminate. The recent $H. sapiens$ sample is curated at the University of Leipzig Anatomical Collection (ULAC). Relatively little information is available on the provenance of this sample, but the available information is presented in SOM Table S2. The study sample is limited by the availability of microtomographic scans and the ability to extract the EDJ surface from those scans. The EDJ surface is more difficult to extract in some cases due to a lack of radiographic tissue contrast between enamel and dentine; this problem is more prevalent at eastern African sites (although the taphonomic processes that are likely causing this are not clear), and the sample sizes for taxa known mostly from these sites (e.g., $P._boisei$, $A. anamensis$, $A. afarensis$, and early Homo) are more limited. Further, the physical preservation of the fossils is important, and specimens that are heavily cracked,
eroded or otherwise broken often have to be excluded from analyses when digital reconstruction is not possible. Scan resolution is also important to consider: larger traits such as main cusps and crests remain visible at the entire range of scan resolutions used; however, smaller features such as accessory cusps can be difficult to identify at lower resolutions, particularly in poorer quality scans. Scan resolution is limited by a number of factors including the shape and size of the specimen, as this limits how closely the specimen can be placed to the X-ray source, as well as the time available for scanning. Nonetheless, the sample does capture a broad swath of the hominin clade, including modern humans, and includes representatives of all extant apes as comparative outgroups. Given sample size constraints, it is very likely that this study does not capture the full extent of P$_3$ variation in each taxon; however, the trait scoring systems outlined can be expanded as necessary.

2.2 Microtomography and segmentation

Microtomographic scans of P$_3$ sample were obtained using either a SkyScan 1173 at 100–130 kV and 90–130 µA, a BIR ACTIS 225/300 scanner at 130 kV and 100–120 µA, or a Diondo d3 at 100–140 kV and 100–140 µA, and reconstructed as 8-bit TIFF stacks (isometric voxel resolutions ranging from 13–45 µm). TIFF stacks were filtered using 3D median filter, followed by a mean of least variance filter (each with a kernel size of either one or three), implemented using MIA open source software (Wollny et al., 2013). Filtered image stacks were segmented using Avizo 6.3 (Visualization Sciences Group, 2010) to produce PLY format surface models of the EDJ. The EDJ of specimens with substantial cracks were realigned using Geomagic Studio 2014 (3D systems, Rock Hill) when possible.
2.3 Scoring procedures

The presence and form of four EDJ discrete traits were scored; the transverse crest, marginal ridge continuity, mesial buccal groove and distal buccal groove. While each of these traits has been previously described at the OES for hominoids, the extent of variation in these traits at the EDJ has not been previously described. These traits were chosen because initial investigations showed that they are variable within our sample, and are able to be scored in a way that is both precise and reproducible. Since traits were only scored at the EDJ, and not at the OES, discussion of the form of these traits refers to the EDJ, unless otherwise specified.

In addition to these four traits, unusual dentine horn morphologies were recorded when present and, although not formally scored, the presence of accessory cusps is noted.

Intraobserver error was assessed through the rescoring of the entire sample by the primary observer (T.W.D.) more than one month after the initial scoring. Interobserver error was assessed through a second observer (M.M.S.) scoring a subset of 25 specimens for each trait. Inter- and intraobserver agreement was high, and errors appear to be random as they are not limited to specific taxa or trait types; results of the observer error tests can be found in SOM Table S3.

Transverse crest A number of authors have considered aspects of premolar transverse crest form at the OES (Suwa, 1990; Leonard and Hegmon, 1987; Bailey, 2002; Delezene and Kimbel, 2011, Irish et al., 2018). Some focussed on the prominence of the transverse crest (Suwa, 1990; Bailey, 2002; Irish et al., 2018), while others preferred to score the orientation of the transverse crest (Delezene and Kimbel, 2011). Leonard and Hegmon (1987) previously scored a number of A. afarensis P3 specimens for ‘transverse ridge development’, using a five-point typology, which attempted to score both the form and prominence of the P3 transverse crest. In a modern humans, Krenn et al. (2019) scored whether or not the transverse
crest is bifurcated, as well as whether it runs continuously between the two cusps or is
interrupted.

When studying the hominoid transverse crest at the EDJ, it is apparent that the relationship
between this crest and other crown structures, particularly the main premolar cusps, is highly
variable. Therefore the typology used here focuses on the position of the transverse crest
relative to other crown structures, and is based on the range of variation observed within the
present sample. Unlike previous studies, the scoring system does not aim to characterize how
strongly developed the transverse crest is (beyond presence/absence) because this is difficult
to score objectively.

The scoring procedure consists of five discrete categories (although Types 1 and 1a are
related) as follows (Fig. 1): Type 0 = transverse crest is absent, or only small incipient crests
are present; Type 1 = transverse crest is present, and connects the protoconid to the metaconid
(or equivalent point on the marginal ridge, when a clear metaconid is not present); Type 1a =
transverse crest connects to the lingual margin of the tooth, but flattens to the level of the
surrounding occlusal basin before connecting to the protoconid; Type 2 = transverse crest
connects to the protoconid, but is either deflected distally or flattens to the level of the
occlusal basin before connecting to the marginal ridge on the lingual side of the tooth; Type 3
= transverse crest connects to the protoconid crest distal to the dentine horn tip and, as in
Type 2, is either deflected distally or flattens to the level of the surrounding occlusal basin
before connecting to the marginal ridge on the lingual side of the tooth.

In some specimens, particularly those with tall well-developed dentine horns, the
transverse crest may appear not to reach the dentine horn tip or adjacent crest, being flattened
to the level of the surrounding dentine such that the ridge is no longer visible. Here, the
transverse crest was considered associated to the dentine horn provided that the crest is visible
for at least two-thirds of the dentine horn height. Therefore, Type 1a is reserved for specimens
in which the transverse crest is flattened for more than one-third the height of the protoconid, as measured from the tip of the protoconid to the bottom of the occlusal basin. This distinction is illustrated in Figure 1 when comparing Neanderthal specimens KRP 51 (Type 1) with KRP D33 and KRP D114 (Type 1a). The distinction between Types 2 and 3, in the case of a partly flattened transverse crest, was made by judging whether the remaining portion of the crest is angled such that, were it to be present for the full length of the crown, it would make contact with the tip of the protoconid or with the adjacent crests. Specimens that have been digitally reconstructed due to tooth wear have been included in this analysis provided we could be confident of the form of the transverse crest, and provided the reconstructed portion makes up no more than 1/3 of the height of the dentine horn. The expression of any additional crests present in the occlusal basin of the tooth will also be discussed. It should be noted that although Type 1a is classed as a subtype of Type 1 (an explanation for this can be found in the discussion), we refer to these types separately, unless otherwise stated.

Marginal ridge continuity One difference between the P₃ of hominins and apes is that hominins typically have more strongly developed distal and mesial marginal ridges (Suwa, 1990). However, even among hominins the prominence and form of the marginal ridge varies; this variation has been considered by a number of authors (Suwa, 1990; Ward et al., 2001). In particular, it has been noted that the mesial marginal ridge is often poorly developed in early hominins; such specimens are described as having an ‘open mesial fovea’ (Kimbel et al., 2006; Delezene and Kimbel, 2011).

Further, Sakai (1967) noted the presence of a ‘trigonid notch’ in the P₃ EDJ of modern humans, defined as a clear indentation in the mesial marginal ridge, and Krenn et al. (2019) scored modern human premolars for missing or reduced marginal ridges at the EDJ and OES. In our sample, specimens may exhibit a morphology resembling the trigonid notch described by Sakai (1967), or they may show poorly developed, or absent, marginal ridges on the mesial
or distal side of the crown. Since the difference between a ‘notched’ marginal ridge and one that is poorly developed may be very slight, the grading system used here instead scores marginal ridge continuity (or discontinuity), where a discontinuous marginal ridge is one which is flattened to the level of the occlusal basin for some portion of its length. This system therefore does not distinguish between absent, poorly developed and notched marginal ridges. Marginal ridge continuity was scored on the mesial and distal marginal ridges, according to the following system (Fig. 2): C = continuous marginal ridges; the distal marginal ridge runs from the distal protoconid crest to the metaconid (or equivalent point on the crown), and the mesial marginal ridge runs from this point, to the mesial protoconid crest; M = the mesial marginal ridge is discontinuous; D = the distal marginal ridge is discontinuous; MD = the mesial and distal marginal ridges are both discontinuous.

Marginal ridges may appear to flatten to the level of the occlusal basin at the base of the metaconid dentine horn, but this was only counted as discontinuous if the flattened section clearly extended further into the mesial or distal fovea than the base of the metaconid. This analysis was only completed on hominin specimens, excluding the extant apes, since the mesial and distal marginal ridges are generally poorly developed in extant apes.

**Buccal grooves** Kraus and Furr (1953:562), in their description of the morphology of the modern human P3, described the occasional presence of “a ridge and accompanying shallow vertical groove” on both the mesial and distal margins of the buccal face, but specified that these features are more often absent than present. Typically termed ‘buccal grooves’, this feature is argued to be particularly common in *A. africanus* (Robinson, 1956; Wood and Uytterschaut, 1987; Suwa, 1990). Suwa (1990) scored the degree of expression of buccal grooves in the modern human P3 at the OES; distal buccal grooves were scored as ‘strong’, ‘moderate’ or ‘trace/lacking’, while a fourth category of ‘ill-defined but with a significant triangular depression’ was included for mesial buccal grooves. Similarly, Sakai (1967) scored
the presence of ‘buccal ridges’ at the EDJ in a sample of modern human $P_3$ using three
categories: ‘pronounced’, ‘weak’ or ‘no ridge’. Here specimens were scored using a similar
system to these two studies, although the fourth category used by Suwa (1990) for mesial
buccal grooves was not included such that specimens were scored using the same procedure
for both mesial and distal EDJ buccal grooves (Fig. 3): 0 = absent; the EDJ buccal face shows
no distinct grooves; there may be a slight vertical ridge on the mesial or distal margin of the
buccal face, but it is not associated with a clear concavity; 1 = minor; a vertical ridge is
present on the EDJ surface, and is associated with a small but distinct concavity; 2 = marked;
the EDJ buccal surface shows a clear extended vertical ridge associated with a marked
concavity.

It should be noted that buccal grooves are usually directly associated with either the
protoconid crest or marginal ridges (often the intersection between the two); although, in
some cases they are located closer to the cervix and may show little or no development higher
up on the crown. We made no distinction between these types, and instead scored only how
strongly developed the grooves are.

**Cusp form and frequency** The protoconid is universally present in the hominoid $P_3$ and, in the
majority of cases, consists of a single raised, conic dentine horn. However, there are a limited
number of cases in which the protoconid departs from this form, and these examples will be
discussed. The presence of accessory cusps will be discussed briefly; however, premolar
accessory cusps can often be very small at the EDJ, and for some specimens with a lower scan
resolution and/or poor contrast between tissue types in the scan, the presence of accessory
cusps at the EDJ is not always clear. The frequency of these cusps will therefore not be
formally scored.
3. Results

3.1 Transverse crest

The form of the transverse crest was assessed for 71 specimens using the typology outlined in Figure 2; the results are shown in Table 2 (full results can be found in SOM Table S1). The majority of these display a Type 1 transverse crest (65%; 46/71), however this type is rare among extant apes, where it is only seen in *Pongo*. *Hylobates* specimens uniformly have deflected transverse crests, with some connecting to the protoconid (Type 2) and others connecting to the distal protoconid crest (Type 3). The *Gorilla* $P_3$ also shows a deflected transverse crest, but connects to the protoconid (Type 2). All five *Pan* specimens display a deflected transverse crest (or one which otherwise fails to reach the lingual margin of the tooth); 4/5 of these are not angled towards the tip of the protoconid (Type 3). Type 3 is only present among the extant apes, and only one hominin specimen displays a Type 2 transverse crest. 78% (40/51) of hominin specimens display a transverse crest that runs from the protoconid to the metaconid (or the equivalent point on the marginal ridge; Type 1), and all hominin species represented here show a Type 1 transverse crest in at least one specimen. Type 1a, in which the transverse crest connects to the marginal ridge but does not reach the protoconid, is seen exclusively in Neanderthal specimens; 4/9 specimens display this type, while the remainder are Type 1.

A special case is the modern human specimen ULAC 790. This individual has poorly developed mesial and distal marginal ridges and no metaconid, making attribution to our typology difficult. In this specimen, the transverse crest extends lingually from the protoconid to meet a small ridge, which may or may not be a section of distal marginal ridge, but is very poorly developed (the main portion of the distal marginal ridge is situated on the distal edge of the crown, and does not connect to the transverse crest at any point).
A number of specimens display crests in addition to the main transverse crest (Fig. 4). For example, *A. africanus* and *P. robustus* frequently display small crests running distolingually towards the center of the distal fovea. These crests typically meet the transverse crest at the protoconid apex, although they may meet partway across the transverse crest and lingual to the protoconid (e.g., SK 100). Accessory crests are sometimes present on the lingual side of the tooth as well. For example, for DNH 46 a crest originates at the metaconid and runs towards the center of the distal fovea, while SK 62 displays a similar crest on the lingual side of the tooth that appears to originate at the distal marginal ridge. Moreover, Neanderthal specimens frequently display accessory crests, either mesial or distal to the main transverse crest, on the face of the tall protoconid crest (Fig. 4). These are variable in number, size and position, and are also seen, albeit less frequently, in modern humans.

### 3.2 Marginal ridge continuity

There were 69 hominin specimens for which the continuity of the marginal ridge was scored (Table 3; see full results in SOM Table S1). Of these, 70% (48/69) displayed a continuous marginal ridge (Fig. 2). With one exception, *A. anamensis*, all hominin species represented by three or more individuals have at least one specimen displaying a continuous marginal ridge. *Australopithecus anamensis* is unique among the hominin sample; all three specimens display a poorly developed mesial marginal ridge, scored as mesially discontinuous. Three *A. afarensis* specimens were scored, of which two (A.L. 266-1 and A.L. 333w-1c) displayed a discontinuous mesial marginal ridge, and one (A.L. 333-10) displayed an entirely continuous marginal ridge. KNM-WT 8556 and W8-978 also display continuous marginal ridges. *Australopithecus africanus* displays a range of marginal ridge forms, although the majority are continuous (nine continuous, two mesially discontinuous and one distally discontinuous).
STW 401 is the only example of an *Australopithecus* P$_3$ within this sample of a discontinuous distal marginal ridge. This specimen is also noteworthy because the form of this trait differs from that seen in later hominin specimens, and is different from that often seen on the mesial marginal ridge in *Australopithecus*. In the majority of cases discontinuities in the marginal ridge appear on either side of the metaconid; the marginal ridge lowers and flattens before reaching the dentine horn. In this case, however, there are two portions of the distal marginal ridge present that overlap one another, but do not meet. Continuous mesial and distal marginal ridges are seen in all specimens of *Paranthropus, H. naledi*, as well as the probable early *Homo* specimen SKX 21204 and are the most common form in *A. africanus*. In contrast, for *H. sapiens* (fossil and recent), half of the specimens in the sample display a discontinuous mesial and/or distal marginal ridge. None of the Neanderthal specimens in our sample show distal marginal ridge discontinuity, but 31% (4/13) show discontinuity in the mesial marginal ridge. The P$_3$ of the Mauer mandible also shows both mesial and distal discontinuity, while the Cave of Hearths P$_3$ shows mesial marginal ridge discontinuity. In some cases (e.g., ULAC 171; Fig. 1b), the marginal ridge is mostly absent, with only small lingual deflections from the mesial and distal protoconid crests. Finally, this trait is not always consistent between antimeres—ULAC 58 displays a discontinuous mesial marginal ridge on the left P$_3$, but not the right.

### 3.3 Buccal grooves

Buccal grooves were scored for 95 specimens (Table 4; see full results in SOM Table S1). Of these, 66% (63/95) show some level of buccal groove expression (mesial and/or distal).

Buccal grooves are less common in the extant apes. In our sample, no extant ape specimen showed marked buccal grooves, mesial or distal; although all *Gorilla* and *Pan* specimens show minor distal buccal grooves (minor mesial buccal grooves are also present in half of
these specimens). Conversely, all 19 scorable *Australopithecus* specimens, as well as KNM-WT 8556 and W8-978, showed either minor or marked buccal grooves on both the distal and mesial sides. Further, in all *Australopithecus* specimens in which the mesial and distal buccal grooves are unequal, it is always the mesial buccal groove which is more strongly expressed. The opposite pattern is evident in *Paranthropus*, where the distal buccal grooves are generally better developed, and, in fact, mesial buccal grooves are absent in 86% (12/14) of *Paranthropus* specimens. In this respect, Omo specimen L427-7 is unusual for *Paranthropus*, as previously noted by Suwa (1990), as the P$_3$ displays marked mesial and distal buccal grooves. SXK 21204, a specimen attributed to early Homo (Grine, 1989), shows marked mesial and minor distal buccal grooves. *Homo naledi* specimens show minor or absent buccal grooves on both mesial and distal sides. Among modern humans and Neanderthals, buccal grooves are less common; no specimen showed marked mesial or distal buccal grooves. Neither the Mauer P$_3$ nor the Cave of Hearths P$_3$ show any buccal grooves, while 43% (6/14) Neanderthal and 86% (12/14) *H. sapiens* specimens exhibit no buccal grooves at all. Neanderthal specimens more often show minor buccal grooves on the mesial side (57%; 8/14) than on the distal side (21%; 3/14).

3.4 Protoconid form

The variation observed in the form of the protoconid is shown in Figure 5. The majority of specimens display a single, conic protoconid dentine horn tip, and as such, only the exceptions will be listed here (Fig. 5A). In Neanderthals and modern humans, the protoconid dentine horn tip may be less pronounced due to the presence of tall mesial and distal protoconid crests, and in one specimen, ULAC 790, there is no clearly differentiated protoconid tip, only a well-developed ridge (Fig. 5B). A small number of specimens display a protoconid with a longitudinally expanded tip (Fig. 5C). This feature is seen in two *H. naledi*
specimens, UW 101-144 and UW 101-889, and their probable antimeres (UW 101-506 and UW 101-377, respectively), as well as one Pan specimen, MPITC 11800. In some cases, such as UW 101-377, it is clear that the expanded dentine horn actually consists of two semidistinct tips. In other cases, the tip simply appears as a flattened ridge; however, since this structure is very small, it is possible that the resolution of the scans may be insufficient to discern two individual peaks. In one modern human, ULAC 58, the tip of the protoconid is transversely expanded (Fig. 5D). The protoconid crest meets the protoconid on the buccal side of the tip, while the transverse crest meets it on the lingual side of the tip, but these two points are not coincident, and are connected by a short ridge. This feature is present in both antimeres, but is not present in any other $P_3$ within our sample.

3.5 Accessory cusps

Poor tissue contrast in a number of specimens inhibits proper characterization of the frequency and detailed morphology of small accessory cusps. However, a number of general observations can be made. Many hominin specimens display small accessory cusps at multiple locations along the distal and mesial marginal ridges. There is commonly a small dentine horn at the distobuccal corner of the tooth, at the intersection between the distal marginal ridge and the distal protoconid crest. This cuspulid can be seen in most hominin species, although it appears to be less common in modern humans and Neanderthals (issues of scan tissue contrast are less problematic in these specimens). It may be related to the presence of distal buccal grooves since the tip of the dentine horn is often contiguous with a raised ridge of dentine on the buccal face, while the concavity seen on the buccal face, immediately mesial to this ridge, is somewhat contiguous with the base of the dentine horn on the protoconid crest. A particularly pronounced example of this can be seen in STW 213 (Fig. 3). Accessory cusps are also found along the distal and mesial marginal ridges, and in some
cases, they can be nearly as large as the metaconid, as seen in L427-7. Other specimens, such as STW 151, display multiple accessory cusps, in this case along the distal marginal ridge.

4. Discussion

4.1 Transverse crest form

In the majority of hominins (78%; 40/51), the P₃ transverse crest extends lingually from the protoconid to meet the metaconid or equivalent point on the marginal ridge (Type 1; Fig. 1). This is rare in extant apes. In Hylobates and Gorilla, the transverse crest does not typically reach the weakly developed marginal ridge, either ending mesial to the ridge, or deflecting distally. All Pan specimens studied here fit within Type 2 or 3, although the form of the transverse crest is quite variable in shape; some specimens have small associated accessory crests, while others are raised high above the crown basin or may have raised sections. Given the level of variability in even our small sample, further investigation is required. Such studies should also include other subspecies of Pan troglodytes, as well as Pan paniscus, as it is possible that the patterns observed here are specific to Pan troglodytes verus. Pongo is the exception among the apes; all specimens studied here display a Type 1 transverse crest, similar to the majority of hominins.

The earliest hominin in our sample, A. anamensis, displays a Type 1 transverse crest. Haile-Selassie et al. (2004:1505) suggested that this is also the case in an Ardipithecus kadabba P₃ from 5.6–5.8 Ma: “The transverse crest descends from the tip of the protoconid to the metaconid, which is hardly expressed as a distinct entity”. This would seem to indicate that that a Type 1 transverse crest is plesiomorphic for the hominin clade, and evolved independently in Pongo. However it is also possible that this state is plesiomorphic for hominids, but was lost in Pan and Gorilla. An analysis of the P₃ EDJ morphology in Miocene apes may help to shed further light on the evolutionary history of this trait. There is more
variation in the transverse crest in modern humans, where transverse crest absence is common (Type 0; 44%), and among our Neanderthal sample, in which Type 1a is relatively common (44%). In this form, the transverse crest flattens before reaching the protoconid tip. Here, it is possible that the relatively low transverse crest seen in Neanderthals is obscured due to the shape of the crown—in particular the tall, wide lingual face of the protoconid. If this were the case, then there would be no fundamental developmental difference between Types 1 and 1a; instead, the difference between the two would be due to a number of factors including the shape of the crown and the prominence of the transverse crest, which is why Type 1a may be best viewed as a subtype of Type 1. This would require further investigation, particularly concerning the developmental basis of the premolar transverse crest. Nonetheless, it appears that Type 1a, while not ubiquitous in Neanderthals, is an autapomorphy of this species.

Previous studies assessed the degree of transverse crest development at the OES (Suwa, 1990; Bailey, 2002; Irish et al., 2018). While we do not score the degree of development of the crest, presence/absence frequencies can be generated using our scoring system, allowing direct comparisons. For example, Irish et al. (2018) find all *A. africanus* and *H. naledi* specimens, as well as a third of *P. robustus* specimens, have no transverse crest. Using overlapping fossil samples, we instead find that transverse crests are ubiquitous in all three species (Table 2), suggesting that the appearance of this trait differs fundamentally between the OES and EDJ. At the OES, the premolar transverse crest is often incised by the longitudinal fissure, which runs between the two cusps along the mesiodistal axis of the tooth. A deep longitudinal fissure therefore relates to a weak transverse crest at the OES. However, a number of crown features such as the development and placement of the metaconid, and the thickness of the enamel, are likely to play a part in the development of the longitudinal fissure, and therefore influence the form of the transverse crest observed. The longitudinal fissure is an enamel feature, however, and as such has no EDJ equivalent. This means that at
the EDJ, the transverse crest form is less dependent on the appearance of other crown
features, which is advantageous when scoring multiple crown traits.

While hominins display relatively little variation in the form of the transverse crest, there is
more variation in the expression of accessory crests (Fig. 4). These crests form in the occlusal
basin either mesial or distal to the main transverse crest, and may connect to the protoconid
crest, marginal ridge, either of the main cusps, or to other accessory crests. In hominin lower
molars, multiple crests may form between the protoconid and metaconid; a variable feature
called trigonid crest patterning (Wu and Turner, 1993; Skinner et al., 2008; Bailey et al.,
2011; Martinez de Pinillos et al., 2014). Given the location of these crests, it is possible that
these features have similar developmental origins to the transverse crest (and accessory crests)
discussed here for hominin P3. Trigonid crests are particularly common in Neanderthal lower
molars (Bailey, 2002, 2006), which is interesting given the high frequency of accessory crests
found here (and previously noted by Bailey, 2006) for the Neanderthal P3. Martinez de
Pinillos et al. (2014) found substantial molar trigonid crest variation in the Sima de los
Huesos population at the EDJ, broadly equivalent to that of Neanderthals. Interestingly,
Martinón-Torres et al. (2012) reported that a high proportion of Sima de los Huesos P3
specimens show distal accessory crests at the OES, as well as pronounced transverse crests,
when compared with modern humans. This could suggest that the same pattern may exist in
the Sima de los Huesos population as we have found here for Neanderthals, although this
would require comparing the EDJ morphologies of the two samples.

In the P3, accessory crests are frequently found in large, otherwise empty, areas of the EDJ
occlusal basin, suggesting that the formation of accessory crests could be dependent on the
space available on the crown. The P3 in Neanderthals usually display a tall protoconid crest,
which creates a steep, almost vertical, lingual-facing surface running from the protoconid
crest to the bottom of the occlusal basin of the tooth. Accessory crests are frequently present
on this face in Neanderthals. *Australopithecus africanus* and *P. robustus* far more often show accessory crests that connect to the main dentine horns, which are often particularly large, or to the transverse crest itself, which is also well developed. Moreover, Kraus and Furr (1953) suggested that accessory crests are also found in the P₃ of modern humans. Given the level of variation seen in premolar accessory crests, as well as molar trigonid crests, it seems likely that these traits are not individually determined, but are instead the result of upstream developmental processes. There are a number of ways in which this could operate. Firstly, the formation of these crests could be genetically determined, but could be only able to form where there is sufficient space for them within the occlusal basin. In this case, accessory crests could develop through some of the same developmental processes as other crests and ridges on the tooth crown (such as the protoconid crest, transverse crest, and marginal ridges in premolars), but would presumably form later in development than the main crests, which would explain their variability as they would be dependent on a number of earlier forming features. This process would be analogous to the patterning cascade model of cusp development in which cusps form where there is space for them on the crown, and are prevented from forming too closely to each other by the presence of inhibitor proteins (Polly, 1998; Jernvall, 2000; Kassai et al., 2005), with later forming cusps generally smaller and more variable than earlier forming cusps (Kondo and Townsend, 2006; Skinner and Gunz, 2010). Crests are different from cusps in that they are often found in association with other crests. In fact, the accessory cusps identified here were invariably found to be associated with other crests or cusps on the tooth crown. However, these features appear to be common in the relatively large distal fovea of *A. africanus* and *P. robustus*, as well as along the tall protoconid crest of *H. neanderthalensis*, suggesting that the available space on the crown is important.
Alternatively, these crests could arise as the result of biomechanical forces during the
development of the tooth crown. The EDJ preserves the form of the basement membrane of
the inner enamel epithelium, the morphology of which is determined by folding driven by
differential cell division in structures called enamel knots (Jernvall et al., 1994). Since the
accessory crests are most common on relatively tall crown structures (dentine horns of P.
robustus, and the protoconid crest of Neanderthals), it is possible that during the formation of
these structures, the process of differential cell division creates small buckles and folds in the
inner enamel epithelium as enamel knots do not proliferate themselves, but direct the cell
proliferation of adjacent regions of the developing tooth. These small buckles and folds
created could then go on to become the accessory ridges we see (see discussion of similar
features in molars in Skinner et al, 2010). It is important to note that we did not find any
accessory crests running parallel to the protoconid crest or the dentine horn tip; all run broadly
towards the crest/ridge. In this case accessory crests may be developmentally distinct from the
main crests and ridges of the tooth crown, which are far less variable within species.

4.2 Marginal ridge continuity

In line with other studies that have considered the mesial marginal ridge at the OES
(Leonard and Hegmon, 1987; Suwa et al., 1996; Ward et al., 2001; Kimbel et al., 2006;
Delezene and Kimbel, 2011), the morphology of the EDJ supports a transformation series
where a weak mesial marginal ridge, as in extant African apes and A. anamensis, is the
primitive state for hominins and a strong mesial marginal ridge, as in A. africanus and
Paranthropus, is derived. In A. afarensis Kimbel et al. (2004) highlighted ‘phylogenetic
polymorphisms’, which refers to the observation that some character states are variable in A.
afarensis but are fixed in the plesiomorphic condition in older hominins, like A. anamensis
and Ardipithecus ramidus, and fixed in the apomorphic condition in younger hominins. The
form of the mesial marginal ridge observed at the EDJ in this study, and at the OES in other
studies (Delezene and Kimbel, 2011), is congruent with such phylogenetic polymorphism.

Differences between our results and those from previous studies of the OES in early
hominins are relatively minor. For example, while Suwa (1990) found that all *A. africanus*
specimens show development of the lingual segment of the mesial marginal ridge, we found
that two *A. africanus* specimens (STW 213 and Taung) have discontinuous P$_3$ mesial
marginal ridges. However, this may be due to differences in scoring procedures, or in the
fossil samples used, in the two studies (the Taung P$_3$, for example, is unerupted and therefore
would not have been included in previous studies), rather than fundamental differences
between the EDJ and OES. The benefit of studying the EDJ is clearer in specimens that
display marginal ridges that are mostly well developed but interrupted; they are flattened at
some point along their length. This is most common in modern human and Neanderthal
specimens where it is likely associated with the secondary reduction of the metaconid, and
may reflect changing masticatory demands of the P$_3$ in these taxa.

Sakai (1967) recorded the presence of a ‘trigonid notch’ when looking at the EDJ of
modern human P$_3$, a feature which is equivalent to the mesial marginal ridge interruption
noted here. They found the feature in roughly a quarter of specimens in their sample, but did
not discuss any presence of a similar feature on the distal marginal ridge (although this feature
is less common in our sample). This trait is much clearer at the EDJ than at the OES as the
interruptions can be small, and are often located immediately next to the metaconid where the
enamel of the cusp may obscure visibility of the interruption at the OES. In fact, Sakai (1967)
only found the trigonid notch at the EDJ, and stated that the feature was entirely absent at the
OES in all specimens. In some cases, the marginal ridge interruptions are often large enough
that they are difficult to distinguish from the marginal ridge being entirely absent. Ultimately,
we need a better understanding of the developmental processes that contribute to marginal
ridge formation in order to test whether these categories represent distinct traits, or the same
trait with differing levels of expression. It does appear, however, that the interruption and
absence of marginal ridges seen in modern humans and Neanderthals appears to represent a
secondary loss and is not homologous with the minimal expression of the mesial marginal
ridge in early *Australopithecus* and extant apes. Further, the frequent presence of interruptions
in the distal, as well as mesial, marginal ridges suggests that this may be distinct from the
character state we find in earlier taxa.

*Australopithecus africanus* specimen STW 401 is the only example within this sample of
an interrupted distal marginal ridge in an *Australopithecus* P₃, and is particularly interesting
because the form of this trait appears to be different to that seen in later hominin specimens,
and different to that often seen in the mesial marginal ridge in *Australopithecus*. In most
cases, interruptions to the marginal ridge appear either side of the metaconid; the marginal
ridge lowers and flattens before reaching the dentine horn. In this case, however, two portions
of the distal marginal ridge overlap one another and do not meet. This appears to be a
defective form of the marginal ridge in which extensions from the metaconid and protoconid
crest have failed to meet and become continuous, possibly providing insights into the
underlying developmental processes responsible for this structure around the occlusal basin.

4.3 **Buccal grooves**

The grading system used here for buccal grooves (absent, minor, marked) is comparable to
those used by previous authors at the OES (Suwa, 1990) and the EDJ (Sakai, 1967), and can
also be compared to studies using presence/absence scores (Wood and Uytterschaut, 1987).
Our results are largely consistent with those of the OES; while there are some differences,
these may be due to the samples utilized in each case, which overlap but are not identical.
However, it is also possible that enamel deposition affects the OES expression of buccal grooves in some cases.

Suwa (1990) suggested that strong distal buccal grooves at the OES are a derived condition for hominins; this is supported by our finding that extant apes show absent or minor EDJ distal buccal grooves, while marked grooves are found in a number of *Australopithecus* specimens, including one specimen of *A. anamensis*, the earliest hominin in our sample.

Further, ASK-VP-3/403, a P₃ of *Ar. kadabba* from 5.6–5.8 Ma, is also described as showing a distinct distal buccal groove at the OES (Haile-Selassie et al., 2004, 2009). On the mesial side, Suwa (1990) found that *A. afarensis* was variable, but suggested an increase in well-developed OES buccal grooves in the earliest hominins compared to apes. Our results are consistent with this suggestion, finding marked mesial buccal grooves in 5/6 *A. anamensis* and *A. afarensis* specimens, but not in any of our extant ape specimens. The variability in *A. afarensis* cannot be assessed here however due to the small available sample. In order to further test these suggestions, the EDJ morphology of fossil apes should also be investigated.

*Paranthropus* is derived among hominins in showing a high level of mesial buccal groove absence as noted previously (Wood and Uytterschaut, 1987; Suwa, 1990). However, we find more variability in the distal buccal groove expression than Suwa (1990). In modern humans, absence of mesial and distal buccal grooves is the most common form, while in Neanderthals, no specimens show marked buccal grooves, and 79% (11/14) show absent distal buccal grooves. However, Sakai (1967) found a higher proportion of modern human specimens with buccal grooves at the EDJ, particularly on the mesial side. This could be due to a difference in scoring procedure; however, it is also possible that buccal grooves are more common in the Japanese sample used by Sakai (1967) than in the sample used here. This would suggest that there is more variation in buccal groove expression in modern humans than is captured here, and should be explored further. The majority of *H. naledi* specimens show minor buccal
grooves on the mesial and distal sides, and only one specimen (U.W. 101-144) shows an absent distal buccal groove as suggested to be typical of early Homo at the OES (Wood and Uytterschaut, 1987; Suwa, 1990). The *H. naledi* expression of minor EDJ mesial buccal grooves could be interpreted as derived relative to the *Australopithecus/early Homo* state of strongly expressed mesial buccal grooves, particularly considering the weaker expression observed in modern humans and Neanderthals.

Although there are a number of species-specific patterns in buccal groove expression as outlined above, there is also a large amount of variation. Within our sample, it appears that buccal grooves are more common in specimens showing straight protoconid crests (in occlusal view). In such a configuration, there is a more angled intersection between the protoconid crests and the mesial/distal marginal ridge, often marked by a small accessory cusp. The buccal ridge is visible as a vertical crest on the buccal surface, as well as a slight concavity next to the ridge (towards the center of the crown), which could be considered an extension of the marginal ridge on the buccal surface. In this case, the expression of buccal grooves would depend on a number of aspects of crown morphology such as the overall shape of the crown, and the configuration of major occlusal crests, which may explain the variability in this trait. This should be explored further as it would affect our understanding of the independence of buccal grooves from other crown traits.

It is also important to consider potential serial homologies (de Beer, 1971; Roth, 1994) with similar traits on other tooth positions. Based on their analysis of the EDJ of mandibular molars, Skinner et al. (2009) suggested that crest features along the entire buccal face should be considered part of the expression of the protostylid; it is possible that these crests on the molar buccal face are developmentally linked to P₃ buccal grooves (note that the name buccal ‘groove’ may be misleading; in most cases at the EDJ the buccal groove consists of a ridge/crest with an associated concavity). The pattern noted here in which *A. africanus*
618 specimens show stronger mesial buccal grooves than *P. robustus* is somewhat mirrored in
619 Skinner et al.’s (2009) study of molar protostylid patterning. They found that *A. africanus*
620 molars expressed a protostylid crest that extends mesially, whereas the crests in *P. robustus*
621 specimens were mostly restricted to the area between the protoconid and hypoconid. Further,
622 we find that STW 213 (Fig. 3, bottom image) exhibits strong buccal grooves in addition to
623 protostylid-like crests running diagonally across the buccal face. In this case, the buccal
624 groove and possible protostylid appear to be distinct features; however, it is interesting to note
625 that STW 213 has the most well defined buccal grooves of any specimen within the sample.
626 Ultimately, further investigation is required to assess the developmental basis of both of these
627 traits.

628

629 4.4 Protoconid form

630 The transversely expanded dentine horn seen in ULAC 58 (Fig. 5D) may be related to the
631 ‘internally placed cusps’ identified at the OES of Neanderthal molars (Tattersall and
632 Schwartz, 1999; Bailey, 2004). Further, Martin et al. (2017) discussed the presence of
633 ‘centrally placed dentine horn tips’ at the EDJ of Neanderthal and modern human molars, and
634 the protoconid dentine horn form in the P3 of ULAC 58 appears to fit within their typology. In
635 fact, the molars of the ULAC 58 mandible were also included in the sample for Martin et al.
636 (2017), where they found that the M1 and M3 displayed a centrally placed entoconid dentine
637 horn. Martin et al. (2017) suggested that centrally located dentine horns were particularly
638 common in Neanderthals. Although we did not find any Neanderthal specimens for which the
639 protoconid was similar in form to that found in ULAC 58, we did find that the apex of the
640 protoconid crest and the tip of the protoconid are frequently angled lingually, resulting in a
641 more centrally located protoconid. Gómez-Robles et al. (2008) suggested that this feature is
642 distinctive of the P3 in Neanderthals and *H. heidelbergensis*. Unfortunately, the Mauer P3
included here (and its antimere) is too worn to assess if this specimen displays the same morphology.

Another trait discussed here, the longitudinally expanded dentine horn (Fig. 5C), also relates to a feature discussed by Martin et al. (2017): twinned dentine horns. We did not find this trait in any modern human or Neanderthal specimens, but it was found in several *H. naledi* specimens, as well as a single *Pan* specimen. In some cases, the *H. naledi* P₃ protoconid appears simply to be expanded, rather than twinned, although it is possible that the separate apices of the twinned dentine horns are too small to be visible in the scans. Martin et al. (2017) also found specimens that showed ‘unusually wide’ dentine horns, and suggested this may be a diminutive form of the twinned dentine horn trait. These traits are particularly interesting since they are difficult to reconcile with the currently well-accepted patterning cascade model of cuspal development (Polly, 1998; Jernvall, 2000; Kondo and Townsend, 2006; Skinner and Gunz, 2010), in which cusps develop iteratively across the crown, and that a zone of inhibition during crown development prevents the formation of cusps in close proximity to one another. Neither of the protoconid traits described here were seen on P₃ metaconids, although this may be due a combination of the rarity of the features, and the reduced number of specimens displaying a well-developed metaconid. Although more investigation is warranted before strong conclusions can be made, the twinned protoconid dentine horns of *H. naledi* represent a potential autapomorphy of this species.

5. **Taxonomic implications**

These traits can have a bearing on the taxonomic affiliation of important specimens. For example, two specimens included here, KNM-WT 8556 and W8-978, have not been definitively assigned to species rank, but have been suggested to belong to *A. afarensis* (Leonard and Hegmon, 1987; Suwa, 1990; Brown et al., 2001). Our results are consistent with
this suggestion; both specimens show fully continuous marginal ridges, a morphology that first appears in *A. afarensis*, and the buccal groove forms are typical of *Australopithecus* in general. However, these specimens are also roughly coeval with *Kenyanthropus platyops* and *Australopithecus deyiremeda*, neither of which are included here. In fact, KNM-WT 8556 is found in the same Lomekwi locality as *K. platyops*, and the P₄ and M₃ are suggested to show a derived morphology, relative to *A. afarensis* (Leakey et al., 2001). Ultimately however, additional fossil material of *K. platyops* is required in order to make direct comparisons to mandibular specimens.

KNM-ER 5431 has been previously assigned to *A. afarensis* (Leonard and Hegmon, 1987), while other authors have suggested the presence of *Homo*-like traits (Suwa, 1990; Wood, 1991). The P₃ included here, KNM-ER 5431E (Fig 1i), is found to display continuous marginal ridges, which are common in a number of hominin taxa, while the buccal groove form was not able to be assessed here due to poor tissue contrast in the cervical region of the crown (although clear buccal grooves are evident at the OES). The transverse crest form of this specimen (Type 2) is not seen in any other hominin P₃ in our sample; the crest is deflected before reaching the metaconid. It is unclear whether this is an apomorphic character state for a species not included in this sample, or whether this type is simply an uncommon developmental variant. Since the transverse crest in this specimen is weakly expressed, this may be difficult to assess from the OES, underlining the importance of trait assessment at the EDJ as well as the OES.

STW 151 has been suggested to display a number of derived features relative to Sterkfontein *A. africanus* by Moggi-Cecchi et al. (1998). However, the P₃ was not suggested to show any derived *Homo* discrete traits at the OES, which is supported in our EDJ results. In general, we did not find clear differences between *A. africanus* and our small sample of early *Homo* specimens, except for the absence of a distal buccal groove in KNM-ER 806E, which
was not seen in any *Australopithecus* specimen. SKX 21204 is assigned to *Homo*, but has no specific attribution (Grine, 1989). Unfortunately, the small early *Homo* sample here prevents a detailed assessment of the P₃ of this specimen.

The Cave of Hearths mandible has not been assigned to a species, but the original description and later analyses drew comparisons with the morphology seen in Neanderthals, and recently Berger et al. (2017) suggested the need for comparisons with *H. naledi*. Although the Cave of Hearths mandible is poorly dated, it is suggested to antedate the *H. naledi* sample included here (McNabb et al., 2009; Dirks et al., 2017). We find that the discontinuous mesial marginal ridge and absence of buccal grooves distinguishes the Cave of Hearths P₃ from *H. naledi*. However, the absent buccal grooves and marginal ridge discontinuity of the P₃ are common in modern humans and Neanderthals, and are also found in the Mauer P₃. This, combined with the overall EDJ shape of the P₃ (Davies et al., 2019), suggests that the Cave of Hearths specimen is more closely associated with modern humans, Neanderthals and specimens attributed to *H. heidelbergensis*, while *H. naledi*, despite its Middle Pleistocene age, displays a morphology which is more primitive. This is also supported by differences between *H. naledi* and the Cave of Hearths mandible in occlusal topography of the M₂ (Berthaume et al., 2018) and M₁ root morphology (Kupczik et al., 2019).

### 6. Conclusions

We have identified several discrete P₃ traits evident at the EDJ that are variable in hominoids. In some cases, the form of these traits is largely similar to that of the OES, such as in buccal grooves, but in other cases, such as the transverse crest, additional morphological information is evident at the EDJ that may be obscured at the OES by adjacent crown features and thick enamel. A number of trends are evident in the expression of these traits. For example, the transverse crest is variable in extant apes, but the majority of hominins show a
single crest connecting the protoconid to the metaconid. Absence of this crest is seen in some
specimens of *P. boisei* and *H. sapiens*, while some Neanderthals show a derived form in
which the crest flattens before reaching the protoconid cusp tip. The mesial marginal ridge
undergoes a transformation series early in hominin evolution, from the poorly developed
ancestral state seen in *A. anamensis*, through the polymorphic condition in *A. afarensis*
(Kimbel et al., 2004; Delezene and Kimbel, 2011), to the well-developed marginal ridges seen
in *A. africanus* and *P. robustus*. A number of modern humans and Neanderthal specimens
show a secondary reduction in marginal ridge development, although this is confined to the
mesial marginal ridge in Neanderthals. Buccal grooves are variable throughout hominoids,
with some taxon-specific patterns, but which may be dependent on other aspects of crown
morphology.

Our understanding of the development of discrete dental traits is very limited. This is
important when using these traits in phylogenetic studies since the traits used should ideally
be genetically independent, and care must be taken to avoid suggesting that traits that are
superficially similar, but developmentally distinct, can be considered as identical (i.e.,
versions of the same trait) for cladistics analysis. Further, patterning cascade models to
explain variation in dental form have mostly focused on the morphology of the molars.
Similar homologous mechanisms presumably underlie the differences in premolar form;
however, certain traits (i.e., twinned dentine horns) observed in this study are hard to explain
with such a model and highlight the need for investigation of premolar form within an
evolutionary-developmental framework. As shown here, studying the EDJ provides valuable
insights into the development of these traits, and this will be further improved through
inclusion of broader primate samples, and the study of other tooth positions at the EDJ.
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Figure captions

Figure 1. Transverse crest variation. Illustration of the 5 main transverse crest forms seen in hominoid P₃, as well as examples of each type. Schematic diagrams represent a left sided tooth in occlusal view. Filled black circle indicates the protoconid, dashed circle indicates the metaconid (or equivalent point on the crown, when a metaconid is not present). Example EDJs are chosen to illustrate the range of variation encompassed within each type (some are reversed such that all specimens appear left-sided): a) ULAC 797 (H. sapiens, reversed); b) ULAC 171 (H. sapiens); c) SK 100 (P. robustus, reversed); d) ZMB 38607 (Pongo, reversed); e) KRP 51 (H. neanderthalensis, reversed); f) KRP D33 (H. neanderthalensis); g) KRP D114 (H. neanderthalensis); h) ZMB 7826 (Hylobates); i) KNM-ER 5431E (Hominidae gen. et sp. indet.); j) ZMB 31435 (Gorilla, reversed); k) MPITC 11776 (Pan); l) ZMB 7814 (Hylobates).

Abbreviations: B = buccal; L = lingual; M = mesial; D = distal.

Figure 2. Marginal ridge continuity. Specimens are presented in lingual view at the OES (left) and EDJ (right), illustrating continuous and three types of discontinuous marginal ridges (indicated by white arrows). Specimens used, top to bottom: DNH 107 (P. robustus), KRP 54 (H. neanderthalensis), ULAC 801 (H. sapiens), and ULAC 806 (H. sapiens). Abbreviations: M = mesial; D = distal.

Figure 3. Buccal groove variation. Three specimens in buccal view at the OES (left) and EDJ (right), illustrating the range in buccal groove expression, and the scoring system used. Buccal
grooves are indicated by white arrows. Examples used are those which display the same
buccal groove score mesially and distally. Top: KRP 54 (*H. neanderthalensis*). Middle:
UW101 889 (*H. naledi*). Bottom: STW 213 (*A. africanus*, reversed). Abbreviations: M =
mesial; D = distal.

**Figure 4.** Accessory crest examples. A selection of P$_3$ specimens displaying accessory crests,
marked with white arrows. Top row in oblique view, bottom row in lingual view. The images
of SK 100, DNH 46 and Combe-Grenal I have been flipped such that all specimens appear
left sided. Abbreviations: B = buccal; L = lingual; M = mesial; D = distal.

**Figure 5.** Protoconid variation. Four specimens showing variation in protoconid form are
displayed. A) ‘Standard’ simple conic dentine horn in SK 100 (*P. robustus*). B) Flat ridge in
Transversely expanded dentine horn in ULAC 58 (*H. sapiens*). A–C presented as right sided
in lingual view, D left sided in distal view. Abbreviations: B = buccal; L = lingual; M =
mesial; D = distal.
Continuous (C) — Continuous (C)

Mesially discontinuous (M) — Mesially discontinuous (M)

Distally discontinuous (D) — Distally discontinuous (D)

Mesially and distally discontinuous (MD) — Mesially and distally discontinuous (MD)
STW 104  A. africanus
SK 100  P. robustus
DNH 46  P. robustus
SK 62  P. robustus

Combe-Grenal I  H. neanderthalensis
KRP 52  H. neanderthalensis
KRP 54  H. neanderthalensis
KRP D33  H. neanderthalensis
### Table 1

P₃ study sample summary. The extant and fossil taxa included in the sample are listed, along with their locality, and the sample size for each of the discrete traits scored. Full specimen list can be found in SOM Table S1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon</th>
<th>Locality</th>
<th>Transverse crest</th>
<th>Marginal ridge</th>
<th>Buccal grooves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hylobates</td>
<td>South East Asia (Hy. muelleri and Hy. agilis)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pongo</td>
<td>Borneo; Sumatra (Po. pygmaeus and Po. abelii)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gorilla</td>
<td>Cameroon; Congo (G. gorilla)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pan</td>
<td>Côte d'Ivoire (Pa. troglodytes verus)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. anamensis</td>
<td>Kanapoi, Kenya</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. afarensis</td>
<td>Hadar and Omo, Ethiopia</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. africanus</td>
<td>Sterkfontein and Taung, South Africa</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. robustus</td>
<td>Drimolen and Swartkrans, South Africa</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. boisei</td>
<td>Koobi Fora and West Turkana, Kenya; Omo, Ethiopia</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homo sp.</td>
<td>Koobi Fora, Kenya; Swartkrans, South Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. naledi</td>
<td>Rising Star cave system, South Africa</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. heidelbergensis</td>
<td>Mauer, Germany</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. neanderthalensis</td>
<td>Combe Grenal, France; Krapina, Croatia; Scladina, Belgium</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. sapiens</td>
<td>Qafzeh, Israel; Anatomical collection, various localities</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ᵃ Specimens not included in these taxon groups are Cave of Hearths, KNM-ER 5431E, KNM-WT 8556, Mauer, STW 151 and W8-978.
Table 2

Transverse crest (TC) variation by taxon. The percentage of specimens displaying each transverse crest type is shown for each taxon (sample sizes in parentheses). See main text and Figure 2 for full details of the typology. For results by specimen, see SOM Table S1.a

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon</th>
<th>TC type (%)</th>
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<td><strong>Hylobates</strong> (4)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pongo (6)</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>Gorilla (5)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pan (5)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. anamensis (2)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. afarensis (4)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. africanus (7)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. robustus (7)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. boisei (4)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homo sp. (1)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. naledi (4)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. neanderthalensis (9)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. sapiens (9)</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extant ape total (20)</strong></td>
<td><strong>0</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hominin total (51)</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Specimens which could not be assigned to taxon groups (transverse crest type in parentheses): Cave of Hearths (1), KNM-ER 5431E (2), KNM-WT 8556 (1), STW 151 (1).
Table 3

Marginal ridge (MR) variation. The percentage of specimens displaying each marginal ridge type is shown for each taxon (sample sizes in parentheses). See main text and Figure 3 for full details of the typology. For results by specimen, see SOM Table S1.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Taxon (n)</th>
<th>MR type (%)</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>A. afarensis (3)</td>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. africanus (12)</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. robustus (9)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. boisei (3)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homo sp. (1)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. naledi (5)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. heidelbergensis (1)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. neanderthalensis (13)</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. sapiens (14)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hominin total (69)</td>
<td>70</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: C = continuous; M = mesially discontinuous; D = distally discontinuous; MD = mesially and distally discontinuous

*a Specimens which could not be assigned to taxon groups (marginal ridge type in parentheses): Cave of Hearths (M), KNM-ER 5431E (C), KNM-WT 8556 (C), STW 151 (C), W8-978 (C).
Table 4

Buccal groove variation. The percentage of specimens displaying each mesial and distal buccal groove type is shown for each taxon (sample sizes in parentheses). See main text and Figure 4 for full details of the typology. For results by specimen, see SOM Table S1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon (n)</th>
<th>MBG type (%)</th>
<th>DBG type (%)</th>
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</thead>
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<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hylobates (4)</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pongo (6)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gorilla (5)</td>
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<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pan (5)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. anamensis (3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. afarensis (3)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. africanus (13)</td>
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<td>P. robustus (11)</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
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<td>P. boisei (3)</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>Homo sp. (2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>H. naledi (7)</td>
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<td>86</td>
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<tr>
<td>H. heidelbergensis (1)</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>H. neanderthalensis (14)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. sapiens (14)</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extant ape total (20)</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hominin total (75)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25</td>
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Abbreviations: MBG = mesial buccal groove; DBG = distal buccal groove.
Specimens which could not be assigned to taxon groups (buccal groove types in parentheses in the form MBG:DBG): Cave of Hearths (0:0), KNM-WT 8556 (2:1), STW 151 (2:2), W8-978 (2:1).

MBG and DBG states: 0 = absent; 1 = minor; 2 = marked.
Endostructural morphology in hominoid mandibular third premolars: Discrete traits at the enamel-dentine junction

Thomas W. Davies\textsuperscript{a,b,*}, Lucas K. Delezene\textsuperscript{c}, Philipp Gunz\textsuperscript{b}, Jean-Jacques Hublin\textsuperscript{b}, Matthew M. Skinner\textsuperscript{a,b}

\textsuperscript{a} School of Anthropology and Conservation, University of Kent, Canterbury, CT2 7NZ, UK
\textsuperscript{b} Department of Human Evolution, Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Deutscher Platz 6, 04103 Leipzig, Germany
\textsuperscript{c} Department of Anthropology, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas, 72701 USA

*Corresponding author.
E-mail address: thomas_davies@eva.mpg.de (T.W. Davies)
**SOM Figure S1.** EDJ surface for selected specimens discussed in the main text. A) ULAC 790 (reversed) in lingual view, arrow indicates transverse crest. B) STW 401 in occlusal view, arrow indicates discontinuous distal marginal ridge. C) STW 151 in distal view, arrows indicate possible accessory cusps. D) L427-7 in distal view, arrow indicates accessory cusp.
### SOM Table S1. Detailed study sample, including which analyses each specimen is included in.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specimen</th>
<th>Side</th>
<th>Site/Origin</th>
<th>Taxonomy</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Position basis</th>
<th>Position source</th>
<th>TC</th>
<th>MR</th>
<th>MBG</th>
<th>DBG</th>
<th>Recon</th>
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<td>M</td>
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<td>Johanson et al., 1982</td>
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<td>—</td>
<td>C</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

*Note: R = Right, L = Left, U.W. = Upper West, KRP = Krapina Rockshelter, ULAC = University of the Witwatersrand, Africa, Qafzeh = Qafzeh, Israel, Mauer = Mauer, Germany, Combe-Grenal = Combe-Grenal, France.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ULAC 790</th>
<th>L</th>
<th>Anatomical collection</th>
<th>Homo sapiens</th>
<th>ULAC records</th>
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<th>ULAC records</th>
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<td>Homo sapiens</td>
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<td>ULAC 801</td>
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<td>Anatomical collection</td>
<td>Homo sapiens</td>
<td>ULAC records</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>D</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>MD</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: TC = transverse crest form; see main text for typology (* = EDJ preserved but transverse crest form could not be determined—see main text for details); MR = marginal ridge (C = continuous; M = mesially discontinuous; D = distally discontinuous; MD = mesially and distally discontinuous); MBG = mesial buccal groove (0 = absent; 1 = minor; 2 = marked; for description of these character states, see main text); DBG = distal buccal groove (character states as for MBG); Recon? = specimens with reconstructed dentine horns (Prd = protoconid reconstructed; Med = metaconid reconstructed).

a Position basis: 1 = in jaw; 2 = associated dentition; 3 = based on morphology.

b Antimere specimens that are not included in analyses, but are discussed in the main text.
**SOM Table S2**
Additional information on the modern human sample, as listed in the records of the Anatomical Collection of the University of Leipzig

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specimen number</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_1</td>
<td>Germany/Rheinland</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_58</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_66</td>
<td>Norway/Sweden</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_74</td>
<td>Italy (Etruscan, Tarquinii)</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_171</td>
<td>Italy (Etruscan, Tarquinii)</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_522</td>
<td>Egypt (Thebes)</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_536</td>
<td>Egypt (Thebes)</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_607</td>
<td>Egypt (Thebes)</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULAC_790</td>
<td>Africa (Americans/New Orleans)</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>ULAC_797</td>
<td>Africa (Americans/New Orleans)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ULAC_801</td>
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<td>ULAC_806</td>
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### SOM Table S3
Results of the inter- and intra-observer error tests for the four P4 discrete traits scored.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Inter-observer agreement (%)</th>
<th>Intra-observer agreement (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transverse crest</td>
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<td>98</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marginal ridge</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>99</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mesial buccal groove</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>89</td>
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<tr>
<td>Distal buccal groove</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>93</td>
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</table>
SOM References


