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1 **Dental caries in wild primates: interproximal cavities on anterior teeth**

2 **Running Head:** Primate caries

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Abstract

22 Dental caries has been reported in a variety of primates, although it is still considered rare in
23 wild populations. In this study, 11 catarrhine primate taxa (n=339 individuals; 7946 teeth)
24 were studied for the presence of caries. A differential diagnosis of lesions in interproximal
25 regions of anterior teeth was undertaken, since they had been previously described as both
26 carious and non-carious in origin. Each permanent tooth was examined macroscopically, with
27 severity and position of lesions recorded. Two specimens were examined further, using micro-
28 CT scans to assess demineralization. The differential diagnosis confirmed the cariogenic
29 nature of interproximal cavities on anterior teeth (ICATs). Overall results show 3.3% of all
30 teeth (i.e., anterior and posterior teeth combined) are carious (n=262), with prevalence
31 varying among species from 0% to >7% of teeth affected. Those with the highest prevalence
32 of ICATs include *Pan troglodytes verus* (9.8% of anterior teeth), *Gorilla gorilla gorilla* (2.6%),
33 *Cercopithecus denti* (22.4%), *Presbytis femoralis* (19.5%), and *Cercopithecus mitis* (18.3%).
34 ICATs make up 87.9% of carious lesions on anterior teeth. These results likely reflect dietary
35 and food processing differences among species, but also between the sexes (e.g., 9.3% of all
36 female *P. troglodytes verus* teeth were carious vs. 1.8% in males). Processing cariogenic fruits
37 and seeds with the anterior dentition (e.g., wadging) likely contributes to ICAT formation.
38 Further research is needed in living primate populations to ascertain behavioral/dietary
39 influences on caries occurrence. Given the constancy of ICATs in frugivorous primates, their
40 presence in archaeological and paleontological specimens may shed light on diet and food
41 processing behaviors in fossil primates.

42 **Key words:** tooth cavities; food processing; dental caries; frugivory

43

44 Introduction

45 Tooth decay, also known as dental caries, is common in human populations throughout the
46 world today. Caries formation is influenced by dietary, behavioral, environmental, and genetic
47 factors (Kotecha et al., 2012; Slade et al., 2013). However, such lesions ultimately form from
48 acids produced by cariogenic bacteria metabolizing sugars and starches, leading to
49 demineralization of dental hard tissues (Byun et al., 2004; Larsen et al., 1991). Several
50 microorganisms have been implicated in this process, including *Streptococcus sobrinus* and *S.*
51 *mutans* (Nishikawara et al., 2007). The composition of the oral biofilm is a key component in
52 caries formation (Cornejo et al., 2013); however, the same bacteria are often a normal part
53 of the oral microbiome (Aas et al., 2008; Simón-Soro and Mira, 2015). Therefore, most
54 primates likely have the potential for caries if enough cariogenic foods are consumed
55 (Sheiham and James, 2015).

56 Caries research has historically focused on humans, with high prevalence of lesions
57 often associated with an agriculturalist lifestyle or hunter-gatherer populations that consume
58 specific cariogenic foods (Caglar et al., 2007; Lanfranco & Eggers, 2012; Esclassan et al., 2009;
59 Novak, 2015; Slaus et al., 2011; Srejjic, 2001; Varrela, 1991; Watt et al., 1997; Walker and
60 Hewlett, 1990; Sealy et al., 1992; Humphrey et al., 2014; Nelson et al., 1999). In non-
61 agricultural hominins, typically less than 5% of teeth are carious (Towle et al., 2021; Turner,
62 1979; Lacy, 2014; Kelley et al., 1991; Larsen et al., 1991). Foods containing high levels of
63 carbohydrates are implicated in caries formation, whereas tough and fibrous foods are often
64 linked with low caries rates because of high wear rates and increased saliva production
65 (Clarkson et al., 1987; Moynihan, 2000; Novak, 2015; Prowse et al., 2008; Rohnbogner &
66 Lewis, 2016). Diets rich in fruits, seeds, and nuts are often associated with high caries rates,

67 with varying susceptibility depending on the type of foods and how they are orally processed
68 (Humphrey et al., 2014; Novak, 2015). A variety of other factors can affect the likelihood of
69 caries, including the extent and type of crown wear and other pathologies/defects, such as
70 enamel hypoplasia and periodontal disease (Hillson, 2008; Calcagno and Gibson, 1991; Towle
71 and Irish, 2019; Towle and Irish, 2020). In humans, posterior teeth (molars and premolars) are
72 most affected.

73 Non-human primates also develop caries, particularly in captivity, and lesions have
74 been described in extant and extinct wild populations (e.g., Cohen and Goldman, 1960;
75 Colyer, 1936; Fuss et al., 2018; Lovell, 1990; Miles & Grigson, 2003; Schultz, 1935; 1956; Smith
76 et al., 1977; Stoner, 1995). In captivity, non-human primates often follow the human pattern
77 of higher caries rates in posterior teeth (Anderson & Arnim, 1937; Bowen, 1968; Cohen &
78 Bowen, 1966; Colyer, 1936). However, in wild primates, anterior teeth seem to be more
79 affected (Colyer, 1931). Typically, lesions on anterior teeth form in interproximal regions of
80 incisors (Schultz, 1935; Smith et al., 1977; Stoner, 1995; Lovell, 1990). The foods consumed
81 and how they are orally processed have been implicated in the formation of these lesions,
82 but an in-depth study on why these lesions commonly form has not been conducted. These
83 interproximal cavities on anterior teeth (ICATs) have not always been regarded as carious, or
84 otherwise have been overlooked. For example, in Kilgore (1989) ICATs are described as being
85 caused by attrition.

86 Therefore, although ICATs have been previously reported, a study of their occurrence
87 in a wide range of primate species is required. In this exploratory study, we use micro-CT scans
88 to assess dental tissue demineralization, and consider other potential etiologies that may
89 have led to ICAT formation, evaluating the likelihood of each. The influence of sex, age, and

90 certain pathologies (e.g., abscesses and periodontal disease) on the formation of carious
91 lesions was also considered. A total of 11 catarrhine species were selected for this survey,
92 including species that vary in the degree to which they consume (potentially cariogenic) fruits.
93 We hypothesize that species known to regularly process sugary fruits with their anterior
94 dentition, including behaviors such as ‘wadging’ (see below), will display ICATs, while those
95 with a more varied diet will have a lower incidence.

96 **Methods**

97 All samples studied here are curated at the Primate Research Institute, Kyoto University,
98 Japan (PRI), and the Powell-Cotton Museum, UK (PCM). The 11 catarrhine species include:
99 Western chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes verus*), Western lowland gorilla (*Gorilla gorilla gorilla*),
100 Kloss's gibbon (*Hylobates klossii*), hamadryas baboon (*Papio hamadryas*), pig-tailed langur
101 (*Simias concolor*), Japanese macaque (*Macaca fuscata*), Dent's mona monkey (*Cercopithecus*
102 *denti*), blue monkey (*Cercopithecus mitis*), mandrill (*Mandrillus* sp.), raffles' banded langur
103 (*Presbytis femoralis*), and Mentawai langur (*Presbytis potenziani*). All were wild, and lived and
104 died in their natural habitat (Buck et al., 2018; Guatelli-Steinberg and Skinner, 2000;
105 Kamaluddin et al., 2019; Lukacs, 2001). The specimen numbers are presented in the
106 supplementary material. All permanent teeth retained within the jaws of each specimen were
107 examined macroscopically. Those with substantial postmortem damage were excluded from
108 analysis.

109 Caries prevalence by species was calculated as the percentage of affected teeth
110 among all permanent teeth analyzed, including antimeres. Comparisons were made for all
111 teeth, as well as between the posterior (molars and premolars) and anterior dentition
112 (canines and incisors). Color changes on the dental tissues were not considered diagnostic,

113 but were recorded when in association with antemortem cavitation. Cavity severity and
114 position on the crown were also recorded. Severity was scored on a scale of 1 to 4 (Connell
115 and Rauxloh, 2003): (1) enamel destruction; (2) compromised dentine but pulp chamber not
116 exposed; (3) destruction of dentine with pulp exposure; (4) gross destruction with crown
117 mostly destroyed. Location was recorded as buccal, occlusal, distal, lingual and mesial. If it
118 was not possible to determine location due to severity, the lesion was recorded as 'gross'.
119 Due to difficulty in ascertaining if certain lesions would be best described as affecting the
120 crown or root, teeth are not divided into these categories; however, potential differences are
121 discussed.

122 Caries can directly contribute to antemortem tooth loss, which has led to correction
123 methods (e.g., Duyar and Erdal, 2003; Kelley et al., 1991; Lukacs, 1995). The most likely causes
124 of antemortem tooth loss in extant primates are severe attrition, fractures, and periodontal
125 disease. Therefore, following other studies (e.g., Larsen et al., 1991; Meiri et al., 2010), no
126 correction methods were implemented. Data on abscesses and periodontal disease were
127 collected following Dias and Tayles (1997) and Ogden (2007), to assess if these pathologies
128 were associated with caries. Each individual was recorded as having caries, periodontal
129 disease, and abscesses (see Supplementary file). For abscesses and caries, the individual
130 needed to show at least one lesion in the dentition to be recorded as affected. For periodontal
131 disease, the individual needed to exhibit general resorption (rather than just pockets) in the
132 mandible and/or maxilla.

133 Species were also divided by sex to explore differences in caries occurrence. Wear was
134 scored following Scott (1979) for molars, and Smith (1984) for all other teeth, to assess the

135 impact of age (using tooth wear as a proxy) on caries prevalence. For sex difference analyses,
136 a Chi-square test with alpha level of 0.05 was used.

137 Two teeth were subsequently removed for micro-CT scanning to ascertain
138 enamel/dentine demineralization, and to visualize lesion progression (Boca et al., 2017; Rossi
139 et al., 2004; Swain & Xue, 2009). Scans were performed at the Primate Research Institute,
140 Kyoto University, using a SkyScan1275 Micro-CT scanner. The two teeth belonged to different
141 Dent's mona monkeys, one with a cavity on the mesial surface (upper right central incisor; PRI
142 11580) and the other displaying only coloration changes in the same location (PRI 11578;
143 lower left central incisor).

144 X-rays were generated at 100 kV, 100 μ A and 10W, with a 1mm copper filter placed in
145 the beam path. Resolution was set at 15 μ m voxels, and rotation was set to 0.2-degree for
146 both teeth. Images were reconstructed using the Skyscan NRecon software (NRecon, version
147 1.4.4, Skyscan) with standardized settings (smoothing: 3; ring artifact correction: 10; beam
148 hardening: 30%). Resin-hydroxyapatite phantoms were used to calibrate greyscales and
149 mineral densities in each specimen (Schwass et al. 2009). The calibration followed Schwass et
150 al. (2009) and Loch et al. (2013). Data collection from the scans was undertaken using ImageJ.
151 After calibration with phantoms, mineral concentration and total effective density was
152 calculated for four locations in each tooth (buccal, lingual, distal and mesial). For the site with
153 the potential carious lesion (mesial), three readings (oval ROI: 0.15mm diameter) were taken
154 in 10 slices (total 30 measurements), with the slice interval based on the extent of the lesion.
155 The individual ROI's were chosen at random within a distance of 0.5mm of the interproximal
156 surface of the dentine (i.e., directly adjacent to the cavity in PRI 11580 and beneath the area
157 of coloration change in PRI 11578). The same data were collected for the other three locations

158 (buccal, lingual and distal), on the same slices, with random ROI's selected within 0.5mm of
159 the dentine edge.

160 **Results**

161 Caries frequency was low (<1.5% of teeth) in over half the species (*G. gorilla gorilla*,
162 *M. fuscata*, *P. hamadryas*, *S. concolor*, *H. klossii*, *P. potenziani*). Posterior tooth caries was
163 particularly rare (0 - 3.4%, Table 1) while the prevalence in the anterior teeth was more
164 variable (0-22.4%, Table 1). Nearly 88% of all lesions on anterior teeth were interproximal,
165 with mesial surfaces mostly affected (Table 2). These ICATs were only present in *P. troglodytes*
166 *verus*, *G. gorilla gorilla*, *C. denti*, *C. mitis*, and *P. femoralis*. Most anterior lesions were small
167 (severity 1), although *P. troglodytes verus* and *G. gorilla gorilla* samples showed higher
168 frequencies of larger lesions (Table 3).

169 Micro-CT scans of the two abovementioned teeth revealed that dentine was
170 substantially demineralized beneath both the cavitation and color change areas (Figure 1). In
171 both cases, a much lower mineral concentration and total effective density was evident
172 compared to other areas of the tooth (Table 4). The range and standard deviation of the
173 dentine mineral concentration within the carious locations was also much greater than in
174 sound dentine, adding further support for demineralization caused by caries. Below the cavity
175 in specimen PRI 11580, demineralization reached a maximum of approximately 0.5mm into
176 the dentine before tissue returned to normal density (i.e., over 1.6g/cm³).

177

178 **[Table 1 here]**

179 **[Figure 1 here]**

180 [Table 2 here]

181 [Table 3 here]

182 [Table 4 here]

183 ICATs in the five species that displayed them were similar in shape and crown position,
184 with relatively circular lesions near the cementum-enamel junction (CEJ) on the interproximal
185 surfaces of anterior teeth (Figure 2a). In more severe cases, much of the crown was destroyed
186 (Figure 2b). In individuals with mild to moderate severity, lesions were limited to the CEJ
187 region, and often only affected the crown; however, in some cases, lesions had initiated on
188 the root and followed the CEJ boundary, giving them a more oval appearance. In many cases
189 it was not possible to ascertain if the lesion initially involved the crown or root, as the cavity
190 covered both regions. Many individuals showed a dark coloration in these interproximal
191 regions, but no cavitation (Figure 3). Along with the micro-CT scan data, this feature suggests
192 these areas were early carious lesions.

193 [Figure 2 here]

194 Periodontal disease and extensive occlusal/interproximal wear were sometimes
195 associated with caries formation (Figs. 1 and 2). However, species with high caries levels do
196 not seem to have an overall increase in periodontal disease, with both carious and non-
197 carious individuals' similarly affected (Supplementary file).

198 [Figure 3 here]

199 Only *P. troglodytes verus* displayed a significant difference in caries prevalence
200 between males and females (Supplementary Table 2). This analysis was hindered by small
201 sample sizes for Cercopithecidae. However, when pooled together, there was little difference

202 in caries frequency by sex (Cercopithecidae species combined; males: 25.49%; females:
203 17.57%; $\chi^2= 1.150$, 1 df, $p= 0.28$). While a slightly higher percent of male *G. gorilla gorilla* have
204 caries, this difference is not statistically significant (males: 11.43%; females: 6.52%; $\chi^2= 0.606$,
205 1 df, $p= 0.44$). In contrast, female *P. troglodytes verus* had significantly more caries than males
206 (males: 17.07%; females: 40%; $\chi^2= 6.164$, 1 df, $p= 0.01$).

207 When sex differences in caries occurrence were compared in terms of number of teeth
208 affected, female *P. troglodytes verus* also had more caries ($\chi^2= 20.890$, 1 df, $p= 0.00$), with five
209 times the number of teeth affected. This difference does not appear to relate to age, based
210 on crown wear (Table 5). Although most female *P. troglodytes verus* exhibited more crown
211 wear, this difference in caries frequency remained stable once teeth were split into wear
212 categories. Females with low and medium levels of wear (combined wear score under 64 for
213 all four first molars; following Scott, 1979) displayed more carious teeth, with five times the
214 rate of males in the same wear category.

215 **[Table 5 here]**

216 **Discussion**

217 The results of this study suggest caries frequency was relatively low in the primates studied
218 (0-7.4% of teeth; Table 1). Anterior teeth had a higher frequency than posterior teeth, and
219 lesions were similar among species in terms of position and physical characteristics. In
220 particular, ICATs appear to be relatively common in frugivorous and seed eating
221 Cercopithecidae and Hominoidea, likely related to the way dietary items are orally processed.

222 Although Kilgore (1989) suggested ICATs may relate to severe enamel attrition from
223 stripping foods, demineralization visible deep into the dentine on the micro-CT scans is

224 strongly suggestive of caries. Attrition-related behavior could contribute to lesion formation,
225 by exposing the underlying dentine in interproximal areas. However, the present micro-CT
226 scan results, radiographs in Kilgore (1989), and thin sections in Miles and Grigson (2003),
227 seem to confirm that caries is the predominate factor for tissue loss in ICATs. Furthermore,
228 coloration changes in these regions are suggestive of early-stage demineralization associated
229 with caries; thus, the true rate and effects of caries are likely much higher than the present
230 findings suggest, due to the conservative approach adopted to record lesions. A study of a
231 large number of lesions showing only discoloration is required before these can be confidently
232 included in caries frequencies, and such study requires care since taphonomic processes can
233 lead to similar coloration changes. Additional processes, such as attrition or non-bacterial
234 erosion, are unlikely to yield localized deep cavities and coloration change visible in ICATs.

235 Other researchers have reported ICATs as carious lesions (e.g., Colyer, 1936; Schultz,
236 1956). They also observed high caries rates in chimpanzees, with incisors commonly affected.
237 Colyer (1931) reported that in wild monkeys, anterior teeth were more commonly affected
238 than posterior teeth (66.2% vs. 33.80%), with interproximal surfaces presenting most lesions
239 (94.2%). When compared to previous photographs in the literature, caries in anterior teeth
240 appear similar to those described here (e.g., Figure 15 in Schultz, 1935; Figure 5 in Smith et
241 al., 1977; Figure 4 in Stoner, 1995; Figure 5 in Lovell, 1990). Therefore, in addition to the
242 present species studied, other frugivorous primates (including platyrrhines and catarrhines)
243 seem to display ICATs (see Colyer, 1936; Lovell, 1990; Schultz, 1935; 1956; Smith et al., 1977;
244 Stoner, 1995).

245 In contrast, ICATs seem rare in captive primates, with posterior teeth commonly
246 displaying carious lesions (Anderson & Arnim, 1937; Bowen, 1968; Cohen & Bowen, 1966;
247 Colyer, 1936). Such primates are often fed a cariogenic diet but have higher caries rates in the

248 posterior teeth (Anderson and Arnim, 1937; Bowen, 1968; Cohen and Bowen, 1966). For
249 example, Colyer (1936) found that almost 90% of carious teeth in captive monkeys were
250 molars. These observations suggest the way in which foods are processed can contribute to
251 the generation of incisor lesions. In the present study, most ICATs were associated with
252 significant attrition/abrasion on the occlusal and interproximal surfaces. Tooth wear, along
253 with periodontal disease and continuous eruption of teeth, may create excessive space for
254 food and bacteria to accumulate below the crown between incisors. Additionally, heavy wear
255 can be associated with root surface exposure, through continuous tooth eruption or
256 periodontal disease, facilitating root caries formation (Hillson, 2008). Many sugary fruits are
257 also highly acidic, which might create a microenvironment that facilitates the proliferation of
258 cariogenic bacteria. Although salivary pH will counteract this acidity, certain dental locations
259 may be more prone to acid effects (Poole et al., 1981; Pollard, 1995; Ungar, 1995; Cuzzo et
260 al., 2008).

261 Support for this multifactorial hypothesis is found in behavioral observations of wild
262 chimpanzees. They tend to use their lips in tandem with large broad spatulate incisors to
263 process fruits and plants (Hylander, 1975; Lambert, 1999; McGrew, 1999; Suzuki, 1969;
264 Ungar, 1994; van Casteren et al., 2018). Figs are commonly consumed by many primates
265 including most chimpanzees (e.g., Basabose, 2002; Matthews et al., 2019; Nishida and
266 Uehara, 1983; Potts et al., 2011; Tweheyo, and Lye, 2003; Watts et al., 2012). However
267 chimpanzees often process figs differently than other primates using a behavior called
268 'wadging', which involves holding a large mass of chewed fruits in the anterior part of the
269 mouth (Lambert, 1999; Nishida et al., 1999). Chimpanzees then suck the sugary liquids from
270 the wedge, much of which will sieve through interproximal surfaces of anterior teeth (Figure
271 4). Importantly, wadging is more common with figs that have higher concentrations of sugars

272 (i.e. *Ficus sur/capensis*, *Ficus mucoso*; Danish et al., 2006; Wrangham et al., 1993). Other
273 sugary foods are also wadged, including honeycomb (Nishida et al., 1999), which likely creates
274 a cariogenic environment in the interproximal surfaces to explain the high prevalence of
275 lesions there.

276 **[Figure 4 here]**

277 In this study, although *G. gorilla gorilla* has lower ICAT rates than *P. troglodytes verus*,
278 they still showed these characteristic lesions. Gorillas also regularly eat fruits, many of which
279 are high in soluble sugars (Remis et al., 2001). The cercopithecoid species with ICATs (*C. denti*,
280 *C. mitis*, and *P. femoralis*) are all frugivores that process foods high in fermentable
281 carbohydrates using their anterior dentition. However, the specific food types that contribute
282 to lesion formation likely vary. Caries in *P. femoralis* may relate to a diet of seeds high in
283 carbohydrates (i.e., starch), processed using incisors (Davies and Bennett, 1988). This process
284 could have led to not only high caries rates in the anterior dentition, but to high rates of tooth
285 chipping (Towle and Loch, 2021). *Cercopithecus denti* and *C. mitis* also eat substantial
286 quantities of different fruits (Olaleru, 2017; Takahashi et al., 2019). Further research is needed
287 to ascertain which foods may contribute to ICATs in these species. For example, *C. mitis* show
288 substantial variation in feeding ecology across their range (Tsfaye et al., 2013), meaning that
289 a study of caries in populations with detailed dietary and behavioral record is important to
290 elucidate the processes leading to ICAT formation.

291 Sex differences in caries prevalence are also important, since differences have been
292 observed in humans and other great apes and are linked to a variety of social, behavioral and
293 physiological differences (Lanfranco and Eggers, 2012; Lukacs and Largaespada, 2006; Lukacs,
294 2011; Stoner, 1995). Dietary and behavioral differences are known between male and female

295 chimpanzees (Gilby et al., 2017; Nakamura et al., 2015; Wrangham and Smuts, 1980).
296 Pregnancy and differences in oral pH, saliva, physiology, life history, and microbiome between
297 the sexes may also be predisposing factors (e.g., Fuss et al., 2018; Lukacs and Largaespada,
298 2006; Stoner, 1995). The results of the present study support other research suggesting sex
299 differences in caries rates among the great apes, although the present sample showed no
300 differences between male and female *G. gorilla gorilla*.

301 Recent literature has shown that caries is not as rare as previously thought in fossil
302 hominin and extant great apes (e.g., Arnaud et al., 2016; Lacy, 2014; Lacy et al., 2012;
303 Lanfranco & Eggers, 2012; Liu et al., 2015; Margvelashvili et al., 2016; Miles & Grigson, 2003;
304 Stoner, 1995; Towle et al., 2019; Towle et al., 2021; Trinkaus et al., 2000). There is also
305 growing evidence that caries was common in other extinct primates (e.g., Fuss et al., 2018;
306 Han and Zhao, 2002; Selig and Silcox, 2021). This study adds further evidence that caries was
307 likely relatively common in some primate lineages. ICATs are the result of bacterial/chemical
308 demineralization of the dental tissues, and this study shows they are linked to feeding
309 behaviors, with the lesions rare in captive primates. Therefore, their position in the dentition
310 may offer insights into diet and behavior of extinct species, based on comparisons with extant
311 primates. In particular, because of ICATs' uniform appearance in multiple frugivore species,
312 these may be useful for behavioral interpretations. Given the difference in female and male
313 *P. troglodytes verus*, caries prevalence may also shed light on sexually dimorphic feeding
314 behaviors and physiology in past primate populations.

315

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324

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574

575 **Figure legends**

576

577 **Figure 1.** Carious lesions on the mesial surface of an upper right central incisor in a Dent's mona
578 monkey (*Cercopithecus denti*; PRI 11580) individual. A) carious lesion (black arrow) showing the
579 relationship to the adjacent left central incisor; B) close up of the lesion (white arrow), scale bar
580 5mm; C) Micro-CT slice of the same lesion, showing demineralization deep into the dentine (white
581 arrow). Color ramp: total effective density; Scale bar 1mm.

582 **Figure 2.** Interproximal caries in chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes verus*): A) M60: carious lesions on
583 mandibular left lateral incisor and both central incisors (indicated by white arrows); B) M155: carious
584 lesions in maxillary right central and lateral incisors (indicated by white arrows). Both specimens
585 curated at PCM. Both scale bars are 5mm.

586 **Figure 3.** Raffles' banded langur (*Presbytis femoralis*; PRI 4565) lower incisors displaying potential
587 periodontal disease and early stages of caries in the interproximal areas, but no clear evidence of
588 cavitation. Scale bar 5mm.

589 **Figure 4.** An adult female chimpanzee in Kibale National Park, Uganda, eating figs (*Ficus*
590 *sur/capensis*) by creating a wedge against the anterior dentition.

591

592

593 **Table 1.** Caries prevalence for permanent teeth for each species studied, split by anterior and
 594 posterior teeth. Figure in parenthesis is the percentage of ICAT teeth (i.e., anterior teeth with mesial
 595 and/or distal carious lesions).

596

Species	Common name	Individuals (m, f, unk)	All teeth			Anterior teeth			Posterior teeth		
			# Teet h	carious teeth	%	# Teet h	carious teeth	%	# Teet h	carious teeth	%
<i>Pan troglodytes</i>	Chimpanzee	109 (41, 65,3)	2498	165	6.6	914	112	12.3 (9.8)	1584	53	3.4
<i>Gorilla gorilla</i>	Western lowland gorilla	83 (35, 46, 2)	2090	20	1.1	779	20	2.6 (2.6)	1311	0	0
<i>Macaca fuscata</i>	Japanese macaque	48 (18, 22, 8)	1011	12	1.2	298	0	0	713	12	1.7
<i>Papio hamadryas</i>	Hamadryas baboon	20 (2, 7, 11)	518	6	1.2	182	0	0	336	6	1.8
<i>Simias concolor</i>	Pig-tailed langur	20 (9, 11)	409	0	0	132	0	0	277	0	0
<i>Hylobates klossii</i>	Kloss's gibbon	15 (0, 0, 15)	316	4	1.3	84	0	0	232	4	1.7
<i>Cercopithecus denti</i>	Dent's mona monkey	10 (5, 5)	265	19	7.2	85	19	22.4 (22.4)	180	0	0
<i>Mandrillus sp.</i>	Mandrill	10 (6, 2, 2)	128	2	1.6	20	0	0	108	2	1.9
<i>Cercopithecus mitis</i>	Blue monkey	8 (3, 5)	242	16	6.6	82	15	18.3 (18.3)	160	1	0.6
<i>Presbytis femoralis</i>	Raffles' banded langur	8 (5, 5)	242	18	7.4	82	16	19.5 (19.5)	160	2	1.3
<i>Presbytis potenziani</i>	Mentawai langur	8 (5, 3)	227	0	0	69	0	0	158	0	0
All species combined		339	7946	262	3.3	2727	182	6.7	5219	80	1.5

597

598 **Table 2.** Percentage of carious lesions recorded for each surface on anterior teeth for the
 599 five species with anterior tooth lesions. Note greatest prevalence occurs in mesial region for
 600 all taxa.

Species	Buccal	Mesial	Lingual	Distal	Gross	Occlusal
<i>Pan troglodytes verus</i>	8.1	68.5	2.7	11.7	9	0
<i>Gorilla gorilla gorilla</i>	0	70	0	30	0	0
<i>Cercopithecus denti</i>	0	69.2	0	30.8	0	0
<i>Cercopithecus mitis</i>	0	81.3	0	18.8	0	0
<i>Presbytis femoralis</i>	0	63.2	5.3	31.6	0	0

601

602

603

604 **Table 3.** Percentage of carious lesions recorded for each severity grade on anterior teeth of
 605 species with interproximal lesions.

Species	Severity 1	Severity 2	Severity 3	Severity 4
<i>Pan troglodytes verus</i>	55.4	33.9	4.5	6.3
<i>Gorilla gorilla gorilla</i>	65	35	0	0
<i>Cercopithecus denti</i>	79.2	16.7	4.2	0
<i>Cercopithecus mitis</i>	76.5	23.5	0	0
<i>Presbytis femoralis</i>	100	0	0	0

606

607 **Table 4.** Average mineral concentration and total effective density (g/cm^3) for each dentine position
 608 studied, along with standard deviation (\pm) and minimum and maximum values (in parenthesis), for a
 609 tooth with a large cavity (PRI 11580) and a tooth showing coloration changes but no cavitation (PRI
 610 11578).

	Average Mineral Concentration	Average Total Effective Density
PRI 11580		
Mesial (lesion)	0.60 ± 0.12 (0.43-0.85)	1.43 ± 0.05 (1.36-1.52)
Buccal	1.29 ± 0.06 (1.17-1.43)	1.70 ± 0.02 (1.65-1.75)
Distal	1.18 ± 0.03 (1.10-1.23)	1.65 ± 0.01 (1.62-1.67)
Lingual	1.17 ± 0.04 (1.10-1.24)	1.65 ± 0.02 (1.62-1.68)
PRI 11578		
Mesial (lesion)	0.84 ± 0.08 (0.73-1.02)	1.52 ± 0.03 (1.48-1.59)
Buccal	1.20 ± 0.03 (1.13-1.26)	1.66 ± 0.01 (1.63-1.69)
Distal	1.20 ± 0.01 (1.17-1.23)	1.66 ± 0.01 (1.65-1.68)
Lingual	1.24 ± 0.03 (1.17-1.30)	1.68 ± 0.01 (1.65-1.70)

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613 **Table 5.** Caries prevalence for male and female *Pan troglodytes verus*. Displayed for all teeth,
 614 unworn/little-worn teeth removed, and with heavily worn teeth excluded. I: incisors; C: canines; PM:
 615 premolars.

Sample	Females	Males
Totals (%)		
Total teeth	1301	334
Cariou teeth	121	6
Cariou teeth %	9.3	1.8
% of individuals with caries	44.9	8.3
Mean I, C and PM wear**	3.9	2.6
Mean molar wear**	16.4	10.8
Wear score 1 taken out		
Total teeth	1192	255
Cariou teeth	121	6
Mean I, C and PM wear**	4.31	3.5
Mean molar wear**	16.76	11.6
% caries teeth	10.2	2.4
Medium to low wear*		
Total teeth	511	227
Cariou teeth	50	5
Mean I, C and PM wear**	3.5	3.6
Mean molar wear**	13.2	11.2
% carious teeth	9.8	2.2

616 *Individuals with a combined wear score of under 64 for all four first molars. Teeth with a wear
 617 score of 1 are excluded

618 **Molar wear is calculated using Scott (1979) and all other teeth following Smith (1984)

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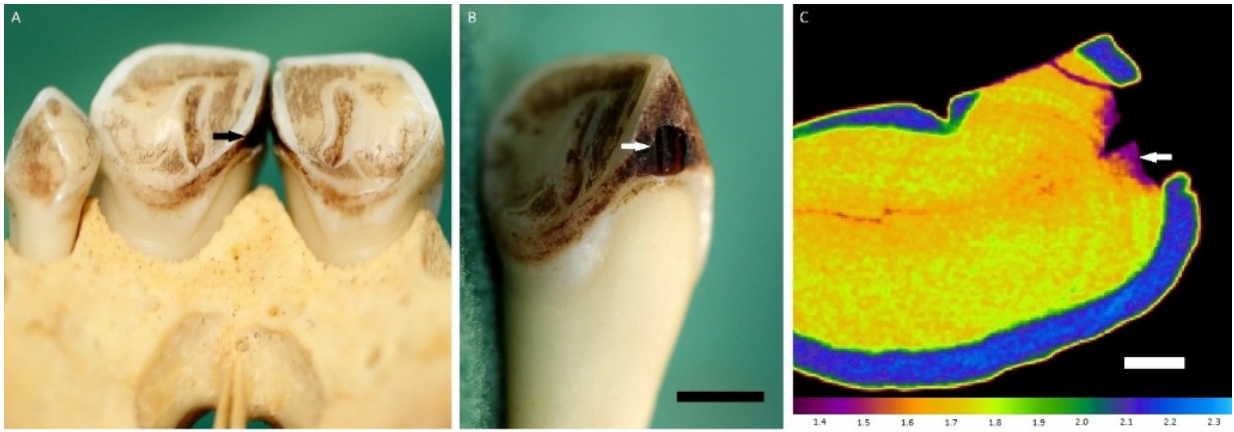
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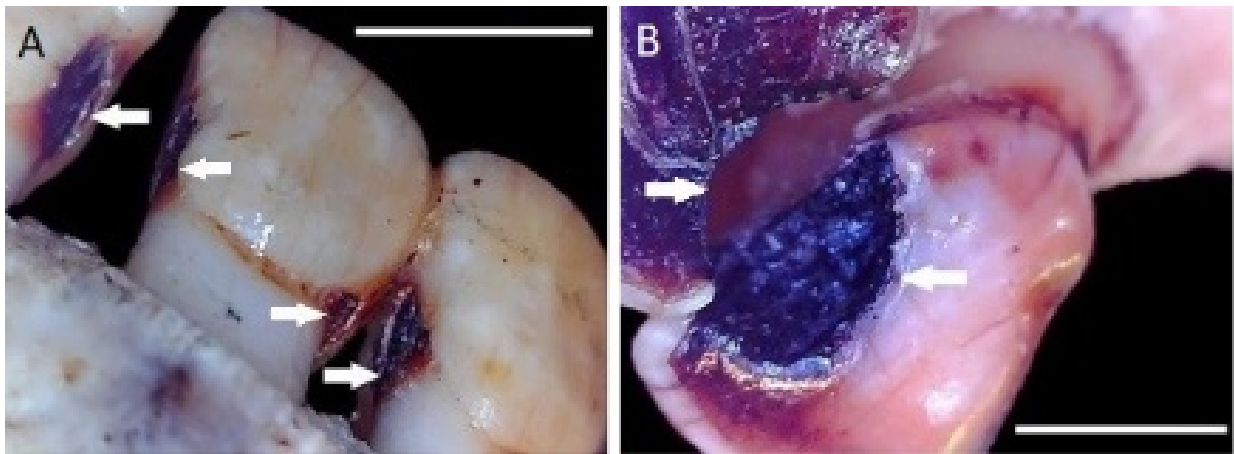
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631 Figure 1.

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635 Figure 2.