Mapping genomic rearrangements in titi monkeys by chromosome flow sorting and multidirectional in-situ hybridization

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Abstract

We developed chromosome painting probes for *Callicebus pallescens* from flow-sorted chromosomes and used multidirectional chromosome painting to investigate the genomic rearrangements in C. cupreus and C. pallescens. Multidirectional painting provides information about chromosomal homologies at the subchromosomal level and rearrangement break points, allowing chromosomes to be used as cladistic markers. Chromosome paints of C. pallescens were hybridized to human metaphases and 43 signals were detected. Then, both human and C. pallescens probes were hybridized to the chromosomes of another titi monkey, C. cupreus. The human chromosome paints detected 45 segments in the haploid karyotype of C. cupreus. We found that all the syntenic associations proposed for the ancestral platyrrhine karyotype are present in C. cupreus and in C. pallescens. The rearrangements differentiating C. pallescens from C. cupreus are one inversion, one fission and three fusions (two tandem and one Robertsonian) that occurred on the C. cupreus lineage. Our results support the hypothesis that karyological evolution in titi monkeys has resulted in a reduction in diploid number and that species with higher diploid numbers (with less derived, more ancestral karyotypes) are localized in the centre of the geographic range of the genera, while more derived species appear to occupy the periphery.

Introduction

The diversity of living Platyrrhini (New World monkeys) is the result of an impressive adaptive radiation. This group displays a wide range of morphological and behavioural modifications, so that it is sometimes difficult to determine homologous morphological characteristics (Fleagle 1988). Sister species with almost identical morphology, but with marked genetic divergence, are not uncommon. Previously, marked differences in karyotypes have revealed sister species hidden in a single taxon such as Alouatta seniculus (Stanyon et al. 1995). The discovery of multiple species within single taxa is not surprising because the biogeography of Amazonian primates is far from well known (van Roosmalen et al. 2002). Many studies and classifications used morphological data collected from museum skins that are often without skulls and skeletons, so that even potentially discriminating descriptions of head and extremities are missing. These interpretative difficulties are reflected in the number of different phylogenetic trees based on different sets of morphological characteristics by different authors (Rosenberger 1981, Rosenberger & Coimbra-Filho 1984, Ford 1986, Kay 1990, Ford & Davis, 1992).

The continual revision of the number of species within the genus *Callicebus* and the relationships of titi monkeys with other New World primates is illustrative of these problems. Callicebus has been linked with Aotus for morphological behavioural characteristics and chromosomal data (Dutrillaux et al. 1986, Ford 1986, Kinzey 1992). Callicebus has been also considered as the most basal platyrrhine genus (Kay 1990). A different conclusion was reached by studies based on molecular data (Horovitz et al. 1998, Porter et al. 1999, von Dornum & Ruvolo 1999, Schneider 2000, Schneider et al. 2001) that included Callicebus in the family Pitheciidae, together with the tribe Pithecini (Pithecia, Cacajao and Chiropotes). If the phylogenetic position of Callicebus is far from clear, the internal taxonomy of the genus is not less controversial. Hershkovitz (1963) listed only two species (Callicebus moloch and C. torquatus), each with a number of subspecies. According to this classification, Callicebus cupreus and C. donacophilus were considered subspecies of C. moloch. In 1990, Hershkovitz revised the taxonomy of the genus Callicebus. He listed 13 species organized in four species groups: C. *modestus* group (only one species), C. donacophilus group (C. donacophilus, C. olallae, C. oenanthe), C. moloch group (C. cinerascens, C. moloch, C. hoffmannsi, C. brunneus, C. cupreus, C. caligatus, C. dubius, C. personatus) and C. torquatus group (only one species).

In 1995, Kobayashi published a new phylogeny of the genus Callicebus, based on morphometric data, where titi monkey species were arranged into five groups: C. torquatus, C. personatus, C. moloch, C. cupreus and C. donacophilus. The genus Callicebus was also divided into two branches, one including torquatus and personatus and another splitting in moloch and cupreus/donacophilus. Kobayashi & Langguth (1999) added a new species, C. coimbrai, to the C. personatus group. Groves (2001) agreed with Hershkovitz regarding the arrangement into four groups but changed the status of some taxa and included a new species, C. coimbrai, to the moloch group.

Van Roosmalen et al. (2002), in the latest revision of this genus, recognized 28 species (and no subspecies) included in five species groups or clades: C. donacophilus group (including C. pallescens), C. moloch, C. cupreus, C. torquatus (including C . *lugens* that in previous classifications was always considered a C. torquatus subspecies) and C. personatus. Two new species, C. bernahardi and C. stephennashi, were added respectively to the moloch and to the cupreus groups.

As can be well appreciated, comparing data from different publications can be difficult due to the rapid increase in the number of recognized species and relative changes in nomenclature, but what remains noteworthy is the wide difference in chromosomal number and morphology. An interesting contrast arises from studies investigating divergence between biochemical and cytogenetic differences in the Callicebus moloch group (C. moloch, C. brunneus, C. cupreus) showing the presence of low values of genetic distance (Schneider et al. 1993). These authors also suggest that recent karyological rearrangements are possibly the major evolutionary mechanism at the origin of the speciation process in this group of Primates.

The karyological variability of genus Callicebus is clearly noteworthy, despite the fact that less than half of the species have been studied with chromosome banding (Table 1). Recent studies showed that the species *Callicebus lugens* has a diploid number $2n = 16$, the lowest found in primates (Bonvicino et al. 2003, Stanyon et al. 2003) while the highest diploid number found in the genus Callicebus is $2n = 50$ (de Boer 1974, Minezawa & Borda 1984, Stanyon et al. 2000, Rodrigues et al. 2001, Barros et al. 2003).

Platyrrhini are karyologically one of the most derived groups of Primates (Consigliere et al. 1996, Barros et al. 2000, de Oliveira et al. 2002, Garcia et al. 2002, Barros et al. 2003, Stanyon et al. 2003). We know that the rate of karyological evolution is high but the mechanisms that have facilitated such rapid genome evolution are still poorly understood. Nevertheless, molecular cytogenetic techniques are potentially an important tool in the understanding of Platyrrhini evolution since systems with high evolutionary rates are expected to provide high phylogenetic resolution. Yet there are only three

Species	2n	Method	References
C. pallescens I	50	M, B, F	Stanyon et al. 2000; this report
C. donacophilus I	50	M, B,	Minezawa & Borda 1984, de Boer 1974,
		M, B, F	Barros et al. 2003
C. hoffmannsi II	50	M, B	Rodrigues et al. 2001
$C.$ brunneus Π	48	M, B	Minezawa et al. 1989
$C.$ moloch Π	48	M, B	Pieczarka & Nagamachi 1988
$C.$ ornatus III	46	M, B	de Boer 1974
$C.$ cupreus III	46	M, B	Benirschke & Bogart 1976, de Boer 1974,
		M, B, F	this report
C discolor III	46	M, B	Schneider et al. 1993
C. personatus IV	44	M, B	Rodrigues et al. 2004
C. nigrifrons IV	42	M, B, F	Nagamachi et al. 2003
C. torquatus ssp. V	22	M, B	Barros et al. 2000
C. torquatus V	20	M, B, M	Egozcue et al. 1969, Benirschke & Bogart 1976
C. lugens V	16	M, B, F	Bonvicino et al. 2000, Stanyon et al. 2003

Table 1. Cytogenetic studies of titi monkeys.

On the left, the species with the Roman numeral which refers to the species group: $I =$ donacophilus group, $II =$ moloch group, $III =$ cupreus group, $IV = personatus$ group, $V = torquatus$ group. The cytogenetic methods used: M = morphology from classical staining, $B =$ chromosome banding, $F =$ Fluorescence *in-situ* hybridization (FISH). C. pallescens was previously reported in Stanyon et al. 2000 to be C. moloch (see text).

reports in titi monkeys using molecular cytogenetic methods (Stanyon et al. 2000, Barros et al. 2003, Stanyon et al. 2003). Here we used multidirectional chromosome painting to study the chromosomal variability in Callicebus cupreus and C. pallescens by developing a set of chromosomal probes for C. pallescens.

Multidirectional painting provides information about chromosome homologies at the subchromosomal level and rearrangement break points that allow chromosomes to be used as cladistic markers. A more precise knowledge of chromosome evolution in these primates will contribute to a better understanding of New World monkey phylogeny, taxonomy and conservation. These monkeys are also considered important bio/medical models for many diseases. The considerable chromosomal variability in New World monkeys also provides an opportunity to better understand the mechanisms and causes of genome evolution and eventually its relationship with cytogenetic changes seen in disease (Bailey et al. 2002, 2004).

Materials and methods

Sodium citrate/dextrose-treated blood samples of 79 Callicebus cupreus individuals (49 males, 30

females) were kindly provided by California Regional Primate Research Center, University of California, Davis. The founders of the colony were obtained in the early 1970s from Iquitos (Peru). Other animals from the same location were added in the early 1990s.

Chromosome spreads from Concavalin-A (CON-A)-stimulated peripheral blood lymphocytes were prepared according to standard methods (Small et al. 1985). Brie£y, 0.3 ml of blood was added to 10 ml of RPMI 1640 enriched with 15% FBS and $50 \mu g/ml$ CON-A. Cultures were harvested for 72-96 h.

A fibroblast cell line from a single male, was obtained from the Coriell Institute for Medical Research and described in the catalogue as Callicebus moloch pallescens (paraguayan titi), repository number AG06115. This cell line was studied previously in Stanyon et al. 2000 and reported as Callicebus moloch. Further information on this cell line was obtained from Coriell and, according to the taxonomic revisions of Groves 2001 and van Roosmalen et al. 2002, this cell line belongs to the species Callicebus pallescens. For this and other titi monkeys, we followed the nomenclature of van Roosmalen et al. (2002) for genus and species names (the classification of van Roosmalen does not include any splitting into subspecies)

regardless of the designations in the original publications.

Standard tissue culture and chromosome preparation techniques were followed. To facilitate chromosome identification, sequential G-banding before in-situ hybridization on most chromosome preparations was performed as previously described (Klever et al. 1991).

Flow sorting and in-situ hybridization

Both human and C. pallescens chromosomespecific probes were made by degenerate oligonucleotide primed PCR (DOP-PCR) from flowsorted chromosomes using PCR primers amplification and labelling conditions as previously described (Telenius et al. 1992, Wienberg & Stanyon 1997). Chromosome sorting was performed using a dual laser cell sorter (FACSDiVa). This system allowed a bivariate analysis of the chromosomes by size and base-pair composition. About five hundred chromosomes were sorted from each peak in the flow karyotype. Chromosomes were sorted directly into PCR tubes containing $30 \mu l$ of distilled water. The same 6MW primer (5'-ccgactcgagnnnnnnatgtgg-3') was used in the primary reaction and to label the chromosomal DNA with biotin-dUTP or digoxigenindUTP in a secondary PCR for indirect detection. Direct labelling was with Rodamine 110-dUTP (Perkin-Elmer) for green, Spectrum Orange (Vysis) for red and Cy5-dUTP (Amersham) for infrared as previously described (Muller et al. 1999). In-situ hybridization and probe detection were carried out following common FISH procedures. About 300–400 ng of each PCR product per probe, together with 10 mg of human Cot-1 (Gibco BRL) were precipitated and then dissolved in $14 \mu l$ hybridization buffer. After hybridization and washing of the slides, biotinylated DNA probes were detected with avidin coupled with fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC, Vector, Burlingame, CA). Digoxigenin-labelled probes were detected with antidigoxigenin antibodies conjugated with Rhodamine (Roche, Eugene, Oregon).

Digital images were taken using a cooled Photometrics CCD camera coupled to the microscope. Imaging software was SmartCapture (Digital Scientific, Cambridge, UK).

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Results

Flow sorting of C. pallescens

The bivariate flow karyotype of C. pallescens was resolved into 24 peaks (Figure 1). The flow karyotype is numbered according to Stanyon et al. (2000). The karyotype was organized in two groups: chromosomes 1–12 are submeta- or metacentric , while chromosomes 13–24 are acrocentric. Within each group, chromosomes were then ordered by size. Flow sorting and DOP-PCR provided chromosome paints from each peak. These paints were then hybridized to C. pallescens metaphases to identify the chromosome content of each peak of the flow karyotype. All but two peaks contained single chromosomes. All peaks provided exceptional chromosome paints.

Chromosomes 2 and 3 were sorted in a single peak and chromosomes 14 and 15 were also contained in one peak. In reciprocal hybridizations, this fact does not usually represent a problem. It is

Figure 1. The density plot of the bivariate flow karyotype of Callicebus pallescens is shown. The bivariate flow karyotype of C. pallescens was resolved into 24 peaks. All but two peaks contained single chromosomes. Chromosomes 2 and 3 sorted together in a single peak. Also chromosomes 14 and 15 sorted together in one peak. Chromosome 6 was present in two different peaks. Numbers of chromosomes are according to G-banded karyotype of Callicebus pallescens by Stanyon et al. 2000. Chromosomes 1–12 are biarmed chromosomes while chromosomes 13–24 are acrocentrics. Therefore, the numbering in the flow karyotype does not reflect the size of the chromosomes contained in different peaks.

possible to integrate the new data with those already available from hybridizations of human probes on the same monkey species (Stanyon et al. 2000) and assign the hybridization signals to specific monkey chromosome.

Chromosome 6 was present in two different peaks. The most likely explanation is that these two chromosomes differ in the amount of repetitive DNA, but we have no further data. It is interesting to note that these two chromosomes 6 also differ for an inversion, but inversions do not cause a change in genome size and therefore it does not explain the presence of chromosome 6 in two different peaks.

Hybridization of C. pallescens paints on human metaphases

Paints of C. pallescens chromosomes were used to hybridize human metaphases (Figure 2d–h) and 43 clear signals were detected on the human karyotype (Figure 3). Eleven human chromosomes (HSA 4, 6, 9, 11, 14, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22 and X) were entirely painted by titi monkey chromosome paints. However, the titi chromosome paints that hybridized to human chromosomes 11, 14, 17, 18, 21 and 22 hybridized also to other human chromosomes. Ten human chromosomes (HSA 2, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 19) were each hybridized by two titi monkey chromosome paints and two human chromosomes (HSA 1 and 3) were each hybridized by three titi monkey paints.

Hybridization of human chromosome paints on C. pallescens metaphases

In a previous publication (Stanyon et al. 2000), we mapped the chromosomal homology of C. pallescens by hybridizing human chromosome paints on C. pallescens metaphases. The vast majority of previous results were confirmed by the reciprocal painting of C. pallescens paints on human metaphases. Additionally, we determined the subchromosomal homology of human chromosomes, which are found fragmented in the C. pallescens genome.

By hybridization of human chromosomes probes on the C. pallescens, we confirmed the previous results, but we could also add on to the map other small segments that were not detected in the previous publication where the same titi monkey cell line was used for FISH analysis (Stanyon et al. 2000). One small segment of human paint 19 was detected on the bottom of C. pallescens chromosome 10 in association with human paint 12. Two small segments of human paint 7 were found in association with human paint 5 on C. pallescens chromosome 14. The titi chromosome 7 was split into four segments by human paints 10 and 16. Finally, on the titi chromosome 18, we found a proximal band painted by human probe 13 in association with human probe 17 and a small proximal segment of human paint 17 in association with human paint 20 on titi chromosome 18. The number of hybridization signals on titi monkey autosomes changed, therefore, from 36 (Stanyon *et al.* 2000) to a total of 44. We also found a polymorphism in C. pallescens chromosome 6 due to an inversion.

Karyotype of Callicebus cupreus

The karyotype has a diploid number of $2n = 46$ and autosomal $FN = 33$ confirming previous results (de Boer 1974, Benirschke & Bogart 1976). We found eleven pairs of meta/submetacentric autosomes and eleven pairs of acrocentric ones (Figure 4). The sex-chromosome system is XX/XY. The X chromosome is a submetacentric, typical for most mammals and Y is a very small acrocentric. No differences in G-banding pattern were noted in the 79 individuals studied; therefore the two groups of monkeys that formed the colony between the early 1970s and the 1990s must have had the same karyotype.

Hybridization of human chromosome probes on C. cupreus

With the exception of the Y-chromosome probe, every human probe gave a bright hybridization signal on the C. cupreus chromosomes (Figure 2 a–c). The human chromosome paints detected 44 segments on the C. cupreus haploid set of autosomes. Figure 4 summarizes the hybridization results of human chromosome-specific paints on Callicebus cupreus banded chromosomes.

The synteny of only one human autosome (HSA 6) was found intact as this human probe 90 F. Dumas et al.

Figure 3. The idiogram of human chromosome numbered below with the hybridization pattern of C. pallescens chromosome paints to the right.

hybridized completely one pair of C. cupreus chromosomes. All the other human paints were found fragmented on the C. cupreus karyotype. Paints specific for human chromosomes 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16 and 17 gave signals on two different couples of C. cupreus chromosomes. Among these, the probe for human chromosome 4 hybridized completely C. cupreus chromosomes 18 and 20. The paint for human chromosomes 1 hybridized completely C. cupreus chromosomes

11, 13 and 22. Human probes 2, 3, 7 and 10 were found split into three segments and the human probe 16 into four segments. The paint for human chromosome 3 covered completely C. cupreus chromosomes 15 and 21 and was found also on C. cupreus chromosome 7 in association with human probes 21 and 13. The paint for human chromosome 17 was found on C. cupreus chromosome 17 in association with a segment of probe for human chromosome 13 and on chromosome 19 in association with probe 20. The following 15 associations of human chromosome paints were found on C. cupreus chromosomes: 2/16, 2/22, 3/21, 5/7, 5/10, 7/9, 7/15, 8/ 18, 10/11, 10/16, 12/19, 13/17, 13/21, 14/15 and

Hybridization of C. pallescens chromosome probes on C. cupreus

All C. pallescens probes gave bright signals on C. cupreus chromosomes (Figure 2i–m). C. pallescens chromosome 1 paint was split in two segments that covered C. cupreus chromosomes 18 and 20. The probes for C. pallescens chromosomes 3 and 19 were present on the same C. cupreus chromosome 1. The probes for C. pallescens chromosomes 21, 24 and the probes for C. pallescens chromosomes 14, 15, painted segments on the same C. cupreus chromosomes, respectively C. cupreus 7 and 12.

Discussion

17/20.

The most recent hypothesis about the ancestral New World monkey karyotype proposed a diploid number of $2n = 54$ (Stanyon *et al.* 2003). According to this hypothesis, ten human syntenic groups are still conserved (4, 6, 9, 11, 12, 13, 17, 19, 20, 22). Human syntenic groups 1 and 3 are fragmented into three segments and six human syntenies (2, 7, 8, 10, 15 and 16) are found fragmented in two segments. The hypothetical karyotype shows the following six associations: 2/16, 3/21, 5/7, 8/18, 10/16 and 14/15. We found that all the associations proposed for the ancestral New World monkey karyotype are present in Callicebus cupreus and in C. pallescens. In C. cupreus, we detected an additional

Figure 4. The G-banded karyotype of *Callicebus cupreus* (male). The chromosomes are numbered below. Homology with the human chromosomes is shown on the right.

eight associations: 2/22, 5/10, 7/9, 7/15, 10/11, 12/19, 13/17 and 13/21. All C. cupreus associations, with the exception of 5/10, 7/9 and 13/21, are also found in C. pallescens. We did not detect any other new association of human chromosomes in *C. pallescens* that is not present in *C.* cupreus. The differences in associations can be linked to the differences in diploid number, C. cupreus $2n = 46$ and C. pallescens $2n = 50$. The rearrangements differentiating C. pallescens from C. cupreus are the result of one inversion, one fission and three fusions (two tandem and one Robertsonian) that occurred on the C. cupreus lineage. However, it is possible that other small inversions are present but went undetected. The one inversion identified explains the different morphology of the homologue C. cupreus chromosome 13 (acrocentric) and C. pallescens chromosome 8 (submetacentric), both hybridized by a segment of HSA1. The hybridization of human probe 4 on C. cupreus chromosomes 2 and 18 can be explained as a result of the one fission event we found. Finally, three fusions created C. cupreus chromosome 1 (association of human probes 5/10/11), chromosome 7 (association 3/21/13) and chromosome 12 (association $5/7/9$).

Comparison with C. donacophilus

Despite the nomenclature, the sample of C. pallescens studied here and those studied by Barros et al. (2003) do not have the same karyotype. On the contrary, the C. pallescens karyotype by Barros et al. seems closer to C. cupreus. The comparison between hybridization data on our two species of Callicebus shows that C. cupreus is more derived, while C. pallescens is relatively conserved. The karyotype of C. (donacophilus) pallescens by Barros et al. (2003) seems to represent an intermediate stage, sharing the fusion between human segments 9 with $7/5/7/5$ and the fission of human chromosome 4 with C. cupreus, but lacking the fusion of human segments 13 with 21/3. We found two associations, $13/17$ and $17/20$, in C. cupreus that

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previously went undetected in C. pallescens, thanks to reciprocal hybridization, superior chromosome paints and improved imaging now available. Barros et al. (2003) did not report these associations in C. donacophilus. It is probable that these associations are present but went undetected. Surprisingly, the associations 13/17 and 17/20(both found in cupreus and pallescens) have been previously found in the Callithricidae species S. oedipus, C. pygmaea, C. argentata and C. jacchus (Neusser et al. 2001) and therefore, according to most studies, in taxa not closely related to Callicebus.

Comparison with C. lugens the primate with the lowest diploid number

We already underlined the wide range of diploid numbers present in the karyotypes of Callicebus species and in particular the recent report on C. lugens, the primate species with the lowest diploid number known ($2n = 16$). Due to multiple fusions, there are 34 associations not found in humans. Despite dramatic differences in the diploid number, many elements forming the C. pallescens and C. cupreus karyotypes are also present in C. lugens chromosomes. For example, a number of derived associations present in C. pallescens and C. cupreus are also present in C. lugens (10/11, 2/22/, 15/7, 17/20). We can propose that the associations 10/11, 2/22 and 15/7 were present in the ancestor of all three species. The hybridization pattern shows that three derived inversions are also held in common (16/2/16/2, 16/10/16/10, 22/2/22).

Chromosome fissions

Another possible phylogenetic link between species is the fission of homologues to various human chromosomes (i.e. the number of signals for each human probe on different Callicebus species). Comparing the number of signals obtained with the hypothetical New World monkey karyotype, human probes 2 (split in three segments on *Callicebus* species), 10 (three or more segments), 16 (four segments), 19 (two segments) and 22 (two segments) are a common feature for the studied species of Callicebus (Table 2). The species group internally on this basis: C. cupreus, C. pallescens and C. donacophilus share the same number of segments revealed by human probes 5 (three segments), 7 (three segments) and 12 (two segments). Finally, C. cupreus and C. donacophilus may be phylogenetically linked by a fission of the homologue to human chromosome 4.

As already indicated, the problem of the different number of segments regarding human probe 13 and 17 in Callicebus species and others can be explained with convergence or as an ancestral trait that was lost or finally and more probably, just with the very small size of the segments involved and subsequent difficulties in the detection process.

Comparison with chromosome painting data in other New World monkeys

To assess the phylogenetic weight of the number of segments present in each species, we need to know if the fission breakpoints involved in producing the fragments are the same (i.e. homologous). Reciprocal painting, when chromosome paints produced from another species are painted back onto human metaphases, provides a good estimate of breakpoint location. Counting the present paper, there are now four reports on reciprocal painting between humans and New World monkeys: Lagothrix lagotricha (Stanyon et al. 2001), Saguinus oedipus (Muller et al. 2001), Aotus nancymae (Stanyon et al. 2004) and Callicebus pallescens (this report). The great majority of breakpoints in these three species is apparently equivalent (Table 3) and shows that the fragmentation of these chromosomal syntenies occurred in a common ancestor.

The breakpoint analysis shows that the additional fissions of homologues to human chromosome 5 and 7 are different in the titi and the woolly monkey and provides no phylogenetic link between these species as proposed in some molecular studies (Horovitz et al. 1998, Porter et al. 1999). A fission of chromosome 13 is found in both the titi monkey and the tamarin. Apparently, also, these breakpoints are different and provide no link between these species. However, since the breakpoints are very close (q12.3 vs. q13) and near the chromosome painting limits of assignment, they merit further investigation. Indeed, since the associations 13/17 and 17/20 found in Callicebus

Species Chromosome CDO CPA CCU CLU 1 3 3 3 3 3 2 3 33 3 3 3 33 3 4 2 1 2 1 5 3 3 3 1 6 1 1 1 2 7 3 33 2 8 2 2 2 2 9 1 1 1 1 1 10 3 3 3 4 1 1 1 2 12 2 2 1 13 1 2 2 1 14 1 1 1 1 1 15 2 2 2 2 16 4 4 4 4 17 1 2 2 1 18 1 1 1 1 1 19 2 2 2 2 20 1 1 1 1 21 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2

Table 2. Number of segments of homologues to each human chromosome found in four species of titi monkeys.

pallescens are also found in Callitrichidae (Neusser et al. 2001), it would be of value to have further data on the breakpoints in these and other New World monkeys to determine if they are homologous or not. Intriguingly, Kay (1990) proposes that Callicebus is basal to all New World monkeys.

A number of recent studies link Callicebus with the Pitheciini. Groves (2001) goes so far as to say that this conclusion is one of the few consistent simplifications to emerge from recent revisions of platyrrhine phylogeny.

Recent molecular cytogenetic data (Stanyon et al. in press) revealed karyological features which could be interpreted to provide support for diverse phylogenetic arrangements of Callicebus. An association of human 10 and 11 suggests a link between Callicebus and Aotus while an inversion between homologues to segments of human chromosome 10 and 16 in both Callicebus and Chiropotes suggests a link between these two genera.

Early karyological studies on Callicebus species already hypothesized that the direction of karyotypic evolution followed a reduction in number of chromosomes from $2n = 50$ to lower diploid numbers (de Boer 1974, Benirschke & Bogart 1976) and that Robertsonian translocation mechanisms played an important role. Recent results seem to support the hypothesis of reduction in diploid number because the ancestral platyrrhine karyotype is thought to have had $2n = 54$. Our data indicate that Robertsonian fissions are an important mechanism in transforming the karyotype, but that fissions, inversions and non-Robertsonian translocations are also important mechanisms of genome rearrangement in Callicebus and other New World primates. Many breakpoints seem to be located at the G-/Rband boundary. The resolution of whole chromosome paints is not sufficient to test this hypothesis. Other smaller sized probes, such as BACs, are more suitable for more precisely mapping breakpoints and would be a first step toward testing hypotheses about the location of rearrangement breakpoints.

It is probable, given what we now know about titi monkey cytogenetics, that we can expect to find other intermediate diploid numbers as more

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species are studied. Another important aspect to investigate is the correlation between karyotypes and geographical distribution. It is now clear that rivers form the borders between many titi monkey species. There is some indication that species with a higher diploid number (with less-derived more ancestral karyotypes) are localized in the centre of the geographical range of the genera, while more derived species appear to occupy the periphery. This hypothesis needs to be tested and awaits fuller explanation. However, molecular cytogenetics has the potential to test these and other hypotheses of New World phylogeny and evolution given that a sufficient number of samples of known geographical origin are studied with ever more refined molecular methods.

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