A SHORT HISTORY OF DINOSAURIAN OSTEOCYTES.

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ABSRACT

A recent supposed discovery of dinosaurian osteocytes by Fukuda and Obata (1993) ignored earlier records from more than 20 dinosaurs, dating back 150 years. Some of the bodies they identified as osteocytes are also more likely to represent chondrocytes.

KEYWORDS: Bone histology, osteocytes.

INTRODUCTION

In a recent paper, Fukuda and Obata (1993) claimed the discovery of dinosaurian osteocytes, in the form of mineral casts of their lacunae and canaliculi seen in hadrosaurid bones, and stated that, despite recent histological studies, "... there is no information on osteocytes in dinosaur bone tissues" (p. 99, para. 1). At that date, however, earlier studies outlined here contained records from more than 20 dinosaurs, dating back 150 years (Quelett 1849), and even electron microscope photographs had been in print since 1966 (Pawlicki, Korbel & Kubiak 1966). This note reviews a range of relevant references, for readers not familiar with them, and also shows that some bodies identified as osteocytes by Fukuda and Obata in the articular surface of a dinosaur limb bone, are more likely to represent chondrocytes.

Historical outline

First, under the old name "bone cells", the presence of osteocyte lacunae was recorded from bones of the ornithopod Iguanodon by Quekett (1849) and of the sauropod Pelorosaurus by Mantell (1850). These are the oldest ornithischian and saurischian records respectively. Strictly, Quekett (p. 57) only stated that bones of Iguanodon do not differ from those of modern lizards in minute structure; but his numerous figures of lacunae and canaliculi from modern forms (plates 5-8) and from a pterosaur (plate 8, Figure 2) leave no doubt of what he meant. Subsequently Hasse (1878) recorded osteocyte lacunae in a vertebra ascribed to the prosauropod Thecodontosaurus, contrasting spindleshaped examples from periosteal bone with stellate forms seen in a nothosaur (p. 499), and giving a figure which shows their presence in endochondral bone (Figure 24b). Their presence is seen readily in some of Seitz's (1907) photographic figures e.g. Figure 57, Megalosaurus; Figures 59-61, Iguanodon; Figure 76, "Trachodon" (Anatosaurus); and his text, in which he called them "bone corpuscles" (Knochenkörperchen), contains records of their presence and arrangement in bones of Plateosaurus (p. 265), Megalosaurus (p. 288)

Brontosaurus (pp. 302, 303), Diplodocus (pp. 304, 306), Camarasaurus (p. 311, as "Morosaurus" pp. 322, 324), Haplocanthosaurus (pp.313, 314), Allosaurus (pp. 315, 316), Stegosaurus (p. 321) Iguanodon (pp. 326-328), Dryptosaurus (p. 344), Triceratops (p. 346), and Anatosaurus (pp. 348-350), as "Trachodon". Osteocyte Stegosaurus lacunae recorded as from Zanclodon (p. 262), which is now considered indeterminate, are probably from a prosauropod (c.f. Benton 1986, pp. 295-297). A preserved canalicular network was noted in Brontosaurus (p. 302), though not illustrated, and lacunae affected by fungal enlargement, mineral infilling, loss of canaliculae or complete obliteration were reported from various genera. Records from prosauropods, sauropods, theropods, ornithopods, a stegosaur and a ceratopsian have thus been in print for most of this century; and Seitz's (1970) study contains more such records than any other single paper.

In later work, Moodie (1928) reported the presence of lacunae and canaliculae in Haversian bone from "ossified tendons" of Anatosaurus (as "Trachodon") and Ankylosaurus (p.2), and that of lucunae is obvious in some of his "Trachodon" figures (Figures 2b, 6a & 6b). Bacterial enlargement of lacunae was also reported (p.2 and Figure 6a). Nopcsa and Heidsieck (1933) found lacunae and canaliculae in periosteal and Haversian bone from a half-grown Hypacrosaurus, and in fibro-lamellar tissue from a juvenile Procheneosaurus (as "Tetragonosaurus"), reporting round and polygonal lacunae as having diameters between 3-7µ, and spindle-shaped examples short diameters between 2-4µ (pp. 222, 224, 225). In the juvenile, the presence of lacunae is obvious in their figure (Figure 2); and they reported canaliculae connecting them as forming a network with meshes "about 4µ" wide (p. 225). Gross (1934, pp. 755-759) reported the presence and arrangement of lacunae in bone from Plateosaurus, Brachiosaurus and Iguanodon, calling them "bone cells" (Knochenzellen) or simply "cells" (Zellen), and gave figures showing obvious examples in Brachiosaurus tissues

(Figures 19 and 20), also noting contrasting arrangements in different parts of secondary osteons (Figure 20). De Lapparent (1947), Figure 6 and Plate 6, figures 1-4, 6) figured bone showing lacunae and canaliculae in Rhabdodon, with a drawn figure showing the canalicular network (figure 6c); and Pawlicki, Korbel & Kubiak (1966, Figures 1 and 3) used transmission EM photographs to illustrate these features as seen in an unnamed Gobi dinosaur. Later, Pawlicki (1977) reported concentration of mucopolysaccharide traces around lucunae and canaliculae in Tarbosaurus; used optical, transmission EM and SEM photographs (1978, Figures 1-6) to illustrate their form in this genus, also noting two types of fusiform lacunae with differently arranged canaliculae; and discussed (1984) the metabolic significance of dinosaurian lacunae and canaliculae. Reid (1984a, Figure 1) figured mineral filled lacunae and canaliculae from Iguanodon, mentioned Mantell's Pelorosaurus record (p. 629), and pointed out lacunae shown in Seitz's Anatosaurus figure (Reid 1985, p. 141), besides figuring bone with obvious lacunae from Cetiosaurus, Valdosaurus, Aristosuchus (1984a, Figures 2, 3 and 15; 1985, Figures 3, 4 and 8) and Hypsilophodon (1984b, Figure 1j). Besides lacunae, canaliculi can be seen in the 1985 Aristosuchus Figure; and Chinsamy (1990, p. 78) reported strongly branched examples from Syntarsus.

DISCUSSION

As noted at the start of this study, Fukuda and Oblata's (1993) paper involves two distinct problems. First, it is clear that they were wrong to suppose that nothing was known of dinosaurian osteocytes; and why they should have thought so is puzzling, when so much had been known for so long. Genera cited above, from which preserved lacunae were then known, total two (three?) prosauropods, seven sauropods, six theropods, five ornithopods, including three hadrosaurs, a stegosaur, an ankylosaur and a ceratopsian. The persistence of lacunae in dinosaurian bones had been known for 144 years (Quekett 1848); many details of their form, arrangement and preservation in over a dozen dinosaurs for 86 years (Seitz 1907); and their dimentions in two hadrosaurs, including a juvenile, for 60 years (Nopcsa & Heidsieck 1933). A transmission EM photograph had been in print for 27 years (Pawlicki, Korbel & Kubiak 1966), and scanning EM photographs for 15 years (Pawlicki 1978). Some of the relevant publications are probably not widely known (e.g. Hasse 1878); but Nature, in which the first EM photograph appeared, is not an obscure journal, and Seitz's classic "Vergleichende Studien" (1907) is required basic reading for anyone working on fossil bone. Perhaps, however, the answer is that osteocytes have not been involved in the controversy over dinosaurian physiology, except indirectly as secondary markers of different types of bone at fibrillar level (e.g. de Ricglès 1975, p. 59 and Figure 1), and have hence received little or no attention in papers concerned with that topic (e.g. de Ricgles 1980; Reid 1987). Persons not familiar with studies of bone histology could thus get a false impression that nothing was known about them. Hopefully, this note will make how much we know more widely known.

Second, Fukuda and Obata's sample from a juvenile Maiasaura was stated to be compact bone from the upper articular surface of a limb bone (pp. 99-101), and was found to contain casts of lacunae which did not emit canaliculi (p. 101 and Figure 6). This they ascribed to "retardation of bone calcification in the juvenile" and taphonomic damage (pp. 101 and 102). But the articular faces of dinosaurian limb bones are not formed from compact bone, whose presence there would block growth in length, but from calcified cartilage, representing the deep parts of the growth plates under which new endochondral bone was formed (e.g. Reid 1984a, pp. 645 and 646 and Figures 24-27, Iguanodon; Reid 1996, Figures 38 and 39, Allosaurus; Figures 41 and 81, Camptosaurus); and a characteristic of cartilage is that the lacunae occupied by its chondrocytes do not emit canaliculi. Hence it seems likely that the tissue called compact bone was really calcified cartilage; and this would fit the style of calcification which their Figure 6 shows. The preservation of calcified cartilage in dinosaurian bones is again no new discovery, having first been figured by Hasse (1878, Figure 24a) from Thecodontosaurus.

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nce (Jacobset al. 1996), our knowledge of Cremecous drivan dinostur fauna's is still rather poor. In the drivan dinostur assemblages of Cretaceous age dropods predominate. Thus, the Early Cretaceous succeeds of Africa include diplodocoids, titanosaurids, rathiosaurids and probable camaresaurids (Lavocat 954; Lappurent 1960; Jacobs et al. 1993; Seropo et al. 954; Wilson pers. comm.), although the supposed unmessurid. Reblac historical probably belongs ther to the Diplodocoidea (Calvo & Salgado 1995).

The Line Cretaceous sauropod faunt of Africa cents to be less diverse, but is also even less well known has that of the Early Cretaceous. Transsaurids are researen all African dimessur-bearing localities of this ise, e.g. the Cenomanian of Egypt (Stromer 1932) and other (Wemer 1994; Ranhut 1995), the Turomanlationism of Kenya (Arambourg & Wolff 1969; Jacobs et al. 1996; Harris & Russell, unpublicata), the oniscian Santomian of Niger (Broin et al. 1974), the oniscian Santomian of Niger (Broin et al. 1974), the oniscian of South Africa (Kennedy et al. 1987; Infferant 1988) and the Maastrichtian of Niger (deigert et al. 1954; Taquet 1976). In addition, oniscian of Egypt and Sudan (Stromer 1932; Ranhat 2005). For a review of dimesaur occurrences in Africa et also Jacobs et al. (1996).

Another Islanosaurid is known from the Campunian of Indagascar (Deperet 1896), but as the breakup of Indagascar started in the Callovian (Luger et al. 1994), specimen from Madavascar is not truly African

Here we report on a sauropod femus from the Isostrichtian part of the Ammonite Hill Member of The Dakhla Formation courses not only in the Dahkla Oasis, but in vast areas all over southern Egypt. This Late Cretaceous to Early Tertiary sequence inclutes transgreasive/regressive cycles with distinct regional factes differentiation. The Ammonite Hill Member, introduced by Barthel & Herrmann-Degen (1981: 157), is geographically restricted to the westermnost margin of the Dahkla Basin. It is characterised by the interfingering of distal alluviat to deltate shallow marine rediments (Berthel & Herrmann-Degen 1981). In the westermnost outcrops, the Ammonite Hill Member consists of highly fossiliferous allistones, sandstones and limestones (Barthel & Herrmann-Degen 1981). The record of a dimosaur tome in the Ammonite Hill Member reflects terrestrial influence within a shallow marine environment (Figure 1).

In SW Egypt the Dabkie Formation is Middle Campanian to Middle Paleocene in age. The Ammonite Hill Meinber, representing the westammost exposures of the Dakhie Formation, is subdivided into a lower Manufechtian part and an upper Paleocene part (Barthel & Hermann-Degen 1981). The lower part is dated at Manufechtian on the basis of the occurrence of the ammonite Libyrocenes inmostis and shed loads of the oyster Eugine overwegt. Above the last occurrence of Ecogore overwegt, the appearance of the very soundant gastropod Turritello defines the Cretaceous Tertilery boundary. Vortebrates, including the sauropod femur, were found in the Maastrichtian part of the Ammonite Hill Member (Barthel & Hermann-Degen 1981).