Spatio-temporal diversity of dietary preferences and stress sensibilities of early and middle

Miocene Rhinocerotidae from Eurasia: impact of climate changes

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Abstract

Major climatic and ecological changes are documented in terrestrial ecosystems during the Miocene

epoch. The Rhinocerotidae are a very interesting clade to investigate the impact of these changes on

ecology, as they are abundant and diverse in the fossil record throughout the Miocene. Here, we

explored the spatio-temporal evolution of rhinocerotids' paleoecology during the early and middle

Miocene in Europe and Pakistan. We studied the dental texture microwear (proxy for diet) and enamel

hypoplasia (stress indicator) of 19 species belonging to four sub-tribes and an unnamed clade of

Rhinocerotidae, and coming from nine Eurasian localities ranging from MN2 to MN7/8. Our results

suggest a clear niche partitioning based on diet at Kumbi 4 (MN2, Pakistan), Sansan (MN6, France),

and Villefranche d'Astarac (MN7/8, France), while dietary overlap and subtle variations are discussed

for Béon 1 (MN4, France) and Gračanica (MN5/6, Bosnia-Herzegovina). All rhinocerotids studied were

browsers or mixed-feeders, and none had a grazing nor frugivore diet. Regarding hypoplasia, the

prevalence was moderate (~ 10%) to high (> 20 %) at all localities but Kumbi 4 (~ 6 %), and

documented quite well the local conditions. Sansan and Devínska Nová Ves (MN6, Slovakia), both

dated to the MN6 (i.e., by the middle Miocene Climatic Transition, ca. 13.9 Mya), had moderate

hypoplasia prevalence. Besides locality, species and tooth locus were also important factors of

variation for the prevalence of hypoplasia. The very large hippo-like *Brachypotherium brachypus* was

one of the most affected species at all concerned localities (but Sansan), while early-diverging

elasmotheriines were very little affected.

Keywords: paleoecology, Miocene Climatic Optimum (MCO), microwear (DMTA), enamel hypoplasia

Introduction

The Miocene is a key period in Earth and rhinocerotid evolutionary histories. Climatic conditions in

Eurasia during the Miocene epoch are globally tropical and the typical habitat is forested (Cerling et

al., 1997; Zachos et al., 2001; Bruch et al., 2007; Westerhold et al., 2020). It is the last warm episode

of the Cenozoic era, although marked by great climatic changes prefiguring the setup of modern cold

conditions (Westerhold et al., 2020). During early Miocene times, temperatures increased until

reaching the Miocene Climatic Optimum (MCO) between ~17 to 14 Mya (corresponding to the late

Burdigalian + Langhian standard ages; Westerhold et al., 2020). This optimum is followed by an

abrupt cooling (the middle Miocene climatic transition [mMCT]; Westerhold et al., 2020) associated

with faunal turnovers in Eurasia (Böhme, 2003; Maridet et al., 2007). The middle Miocene is marked

by a relative aridity, associated with a global cooling (Bruch et al., 2007; Böhme et al., 2008).

Concerning rhinocerotids, Miocene times witness peaks in their alpha diversity about 22–18 Mya and

11–10 Mya (Antoine et al., 2010; Antoine and Becker, 2013; Antoine, in press). During the early and

middle Miocene in Eurasia, four sub-tribes of Rhinocerotidae are encountered – Rhinocerotina,

Teleoceratina and Aceratheriina (Rhinocerotinae), and Elasmotheriina (Elasmotheriinae) – and

species of which are often found associated in fossil-yielding localities (Antoine et al., 1997, 2010;

Heissig, 2012; Becker and Tissier, 2020; Antoine, 2002, in press). This abundance and the potential

cohabitation of such large herbivores question habitat capacity and competition for food resources.

However, the ecology of the rhinocerotids has rarely been explored or only been assumed based on

morphological adaptations (Prothero et al., 1989; Prothero, 2005; Giaourtsakis et al., 2006). If the

Rhinocerotina appear to be ecologically varied, the literature suggests a similar ecology for most

elasmotheriines on one hand, as open environment dwellers adapted to though vegetation (Iñigo and

Cerdeño, 1997; Antoine and Welcomme, 2000), and for the teleoceratines on another hand, as hippo-

like rhinoceroses inhabiting lake side or swamps and probably browsing on low vegetation or even

grazing (Prothero et al., 1989; Cerdeño, 1998).

In this article, we focused on the rhinocerotids from nine localities, covering wide temporal and

geographical ranges (from MN2 to MN7/8 and from southwestern France to Pakistan). We assessed

dietary preferences using dental microwear texture analysis, and stress sensibility via the study of

enamel hypoplasia.

Material and methods

We studied the rhinocerotid dental remains from nine early and middle Miocene localities from France

(Béon 1, Béon 2, Sansan, Simorre, and Villefranche d'Astarac), Germany (Steinheim am Albuch),

Bosnia-Herzegovina (Gračanica), Slovakia (Devínska Nová Ves Spalte), and Pakistan (Kumbi 4,

Balochistan), ranging from MN2 to MN7/8. The rhinocerotid assemblages are detailed in Table 1. The

specimens are curated at the Naturhistorisches Museum Wien (NHMW), the Muséum de Toulouse

(MHNT), and the Naturhistorisches Museum Basel (NHMB). For all details on the specimens included

in this study see Supplementary S1. The localization of the studied localities is given in Figure 1.

Further details on the localities are given in Supplementary S2.

Dental Microwear Texture Analyses (DMTA)

Dental Microwear Texture Analysis (DMTA) is a powerful approach to characterize dietary preferences

at a short time scale (days to weeks prior the death of the individual; Hoffman et al., 2015; Winkler et

al., 2020), widely used in paleontological and archeological studies (Grine, 1986; Rivals et al., 2012;

Jones and DeSantis, 2017; Berlioz et al., 2018). We studied dental microwear texture on one well-

preserved molar (germs and over-worn teeth excluded) per individual, preferentially the second molar

(first or third otherwise), either upper or lower, left or right.

After cleaning the tooth with acetone or ethanol, two silicone (Regular Body President, ref. 6015 - ISO

4823, medium consistency, polyvinylsiloxane addition type; Coltene Whaledent) molds were made on

a single enamel band, which shows two different facets acting as grinding and shearing (if present).

This shearing facet has a steep slope while the former is more horizontal and show several HSB band

on the very enamel surface. To combine both type of facets with different functions indeed improves

dietary reconstruction (Louail et al., 2021; Merceron et al., 2021). The enamel band on which we

identified those two facets is localized labially near the protocone on upper molars and distally to the

protoconid or hypoconid (if the protoconid is unavailable) on lower teeth (see supplementary S2).

Figure 1: Geographical position of the studied Eurasian Miocene localities.

Localization of all localities in Eurasia. Red square is a zoom on the southwestern French localities,

modified from Antoine and Duranthon (1997).

Color code by MN zones as detailed in A. Abbreviations from West to East: S- Steinheim am Albuch

(MN7/8; Germany), D- Devínska Nová Ves Spalte (MN6; Slovakia), G- Gračanica (MN5-6; Bosnia-

Herzegovina), K- Kumbi 4 (MN2; Pakistan).

Table 1: List of rhinocerotid species found at each locality studied

	Kumbi 4	Béon 2	Béon 1	Gračanica	Sansan	Devínska Nová Ves Spalte	Steinheim am Albuch	Simorre	Villefranche d'Astarac
Rhinocerotinae									
Mesaceratherium welcommi	x								
Pleuroceros blanfordi	x								
Protaceratherium sp.	x								
Protaceratherium minutum		x							
Plesiaceratherium naricum	x								
Plesiaceratherium mirallesi		x	x						
Plesiaceratherium balkanicum				x		x			
Plesiaceratherium sp.			x						
Aceratheriina									
Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum					x				
Alicornops simorrense					x		x	x	x
Rhinocerotina									
Gaindatherium cf. *browni*	x								
Lartetotherium sansaniense				x	x		x		
Dicerorhinus steinheimensis						x	x		
Teleoceratina									
Brachypotherium brachypus				x	x		x	x	x
Brachypotherium gajense	x								
Diaceratherium fatehjangense	x								
Prosantorhinus douvillei		aff.	x						
Prosantorhinus shahbazi	x								
Elasmotheriinae									
Elasmotheriina									
Bugtirhinus praecursor	x								
Hispanotherium beonense			x						
Hispanotherium cf. *matritense*				x					
Total	9	3	5	4	4	2	4	2	2

In this article we followed a protocol adapted from Scott et al. (2005, 2006) with sensitive-scale fractal analyses. Molds were scanned with a Leica DCM8 confocal profilometer ("TRIDENT" profilometer housed at the PALEVOPRIM, CNRS, University of Poitiers) using white light confocal technology with a 100× objective (Leica Microsystems; Numerical aperture: 0.90; working distance: 0.9 mm). The

obtained scans (.plu files) were pre-treated with LeicaMap v.8.2. (Leica Microsystems) as follows: the

surface was inverted (as scans were made on negative replicas), missing points (i.e., non-measured,

less than 1%) were replaced by the mean of the neighboring points and aberrant peaks were removed

(see details in the supplementary Information in Merceron et al., 2016b). The surface was then

levelled, and we applied a polynomial of degree 8 removal of form to temper for Hunter-Schreger

bands reliefs in the DMTA parameters. Eventually, we selected a 200×200-µm area (1551 × 1551

pixels) within the surface, which we saved as a digital elevation model (.sur) and used to extract

DMTA parameters through Scale-Sensitive Fractal Analysis with SFrax (Surfract, www.surfract.com)

and LeicaMap.

Here we focused on five classical DMTA parameters: anisotropy (exact proportion of length-scale

anisotropy of relief; epLsar), complexity (area-scale fractal complexity; Asfc), heterogeneity of

complexity (heterogeneity of area-scale fractal complexity here at 3×3 and 9×9; HAsfc9 and HAsfc81),

and fine textural fill volume (here at 0.2 µm; FTfv). The description of theses parameters is available in

Scott et al. (2006).

To facilitate DMTA interpretation for fossil specimen, we used specimens of the five extant rhinocerotid

species. This extant dataset was modified from that of Hullot et al. (2019), as precised below, and

consists of 17 specimens of *Ceratotherium simum* (white rhinoceros), four of *Dicerorhinus sumatrensis*

(Sumatran rhinoceros), 21 of Diceros bicornis (black rhinoceros), 15 of *Rhinoceros sondaicus* (Javan

rhinoceros; one new specimen), and five of *Rhinoceros unicornis* (Indian rhinoceros; one new

specimen).

<u>Enamel hypoplasia</u>

Hypoplasia is a common defect of the enamel resulting from a stress or a combination of stresses

occurring during tooth development (Goodman and Rose, 1990). It is a permanent, sensitive, but non-

specific indicator of stresses either environmental (e.g., drought or nutritional stress; Skinner and

Pruetz, 2012; Upex and Dobney, 2012), physiological (e.g., disease or parasitism; Suckling et al.,

1986; Rothschild et al., 2001; Niven et al., 2004), and/or psychological (e.g., depression in primates;

Guatelli-Steinberg, 2001).

Enamel hypoplasia was studied with the naked eye and categorization of the defects followed the *Fédération Dentaire Internationale* (1982) as linear enamel hypoplasia (LEH), pitted hypoplasia, or aplasia. We studied all cheek teeth, both deciduous and permanent, but excluded 62 teeth to avoid false negative and uncalibrated defects, as enamel was obscured (e.g., tooth unerupted in bone, sediment occluding), broken or worn out, or as identification was impossible. This left 1401 teeth studied for the hypoplasia analysis – 294 milk molars and 1107 permanent premolars and molars – from the nine localities. In parallel, qualitative data (tooth locus affected, position of the defect on the crown, and severity) and caliper measurements (distance of the defect from enamel-dentine junction, width if applicable) were taken (details in Supplementary S3). Type of defects recorded, and caliper measurements are illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The three different types of hypoplasia considered in this study and the associated measurements

A- Lingual view of right M2 of the specimen MHNT.PAL.2004.0.58 (*Hispanotherium beonense*) displaying three types of hypoplasia

B- Interpretative drawing of the photo in A illustrating the hypoplastic defects: a- pitted hypoplasia, b- linear enamel hypoplasia, and c- aplasia

C- Interpretative drawing of the photo in A illustrating the measurements: 1- distance between the base of the defect and the enamel-dentin junction, 2- width of the defect (when applicable).

Figure from Hullot et al. (2021).

<u>Statistics and GLMMs</u>

Statistics were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2018: https://www.R-project.org/), equipped with the

following packages: reshape2 (Wickham, 2007), dplyr (Wickham et al., 2019), lme4 (Bates et al.,

2015), car (Fox et al., 2012), MASS (Venables and Ripley, 2002). According to the recent statement of

the American Statistical Association (ASA) on p-values (Wasserstein and Lazar, 2016; Wasserstein et

al., 2019), we avoided the use of the term "statistically significant" in this manuscript and the classical

thresholds as much as possible. Figures were done using R package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2011) as well

as Inkscape v.0.91.

General Linear Mixed Models (GLMM) on our data were constructed based on a R code modified from

Arman et al. (2019) and adapted to each tested response variable. An example of this code applied to

hypoplasia variable Hypo is given in Supplementary 4. DMTA response variables were the five DMTA

parameters (epLsar, Asfc, FTfv, HAsfc9, and HAsfc81) and we selected Gaussian family for the

GLMMs. Factors in the models were: specimen (number of the specimen; random factor), locality,

province, age (MN zones), genus, tooth (e.g., second molar, fourth milk molar), position (upper or

lower), side (left or right), cusp (protocone, protoconid, hypoconid), and facet (grinding or shearing).

For hypoplasia, response variables were Hypo (1 or 0 for presence or absence of hypoplasia,

respectively) for which we used Binomial family, Defect (e.g., LEH, Pits, Aplasia; converted to

numbers), Localization (position of the defect on the crown; mostly labial or lingual), Multiple (number

of defects), and Severity (0 to 4), modeled using Poisson family. The factors were: specimen (number

of the specimen; random factor), locality, province, age (MN zones), genus, tooth (e.g., first molar,

fourth premolar), position (upper or lower), side (left or right), and wear (low, average, high).

Additionally, for response variables Severity, Multiple, and Localization, defect was converted and

used as a factor.

The models were built with a bottom-up approach, starting with the only random factor of our dataset

alone (specimen) and adding factors incrementally for every set (e.g., 1|Specimen + Genus,

1|Specimen + Locality). New set was built has long as Akaike's Information Criterion score (AIC) kept

decreasing. Few interactions (e.g., Genus x Facet for microwear, Genus x Tooth for hypoplasia) were

considered in the models, as most factors were considered independent and to avoid unnecessarily

complex and rarely selected models (Arman et al., 2019). We selected the best candidate model as

the one with the lowest AIC and checked for over-dispersion (estimated through the ratio of deviance

and degrees of freedom). If needed, we corrected it through quasi-Poisson or quasi-Binomial laws

from the MASS package (Venables and Ripley, 2002) or by adjusting the coefficients table (multiply

type error by square root of the dispersion factor and recalculate Z and p values accordingly). In total,

340 models were compared across the 10 response variables (see electronic supplementary material,

S5, S6, and S7).

Results

<u>Microwear</u>

MANOVA (Species x Facet x Age x Locality) on all five main DMTA parameters (epLsar, Asfc, FTfv,

HAsfc9, HAsfc81) revealed low p-values for Species (df = 14; p-value = 8.6×10^{-4}), Facet (df = 1; p-

value = 6.5×10^{-4}), and Locality (df = 4; p-value = 0.014). The ANOVAs for each parameter,

highlighted at least a marked influence of Species (all parameters; p-values between 7.3×10^{-4} and

0.027), Facet (Asfc, p-value = 0.028; FTfv, p-value = 6.22×10^{-6}), Age (Asfc, p-value = 7.57×10^{-3}), or

Locality (epLsar, p-value = 0.01; Asfc, p-value = 1.7×10^{-4}). To precise the differences for Species and

Locality (factors with more than two states) we ran post hocs, results of which are detailed in Table 2

and Table 3. The more conservative post hoc (Tukey's honestly significant difference; HSD) revealed

very few noticeable differences in the microwear textures of the studied rhinocerotid specimens by

Species or Locality (low p-values relatively to other pairs; Table 2). The DMT of *Hoploaceratherium*

tetradactylum appears quite distinct from that of *Plesiaceratherium* spp. (epLsar, Asfc, HAsfc9 and

HAfsc81). Concerning Locality, Gračanica specimens stood out with very low values of complexity

compared to Sansan (p-value = 0.047), Simorre (p-value = 0.028), and Villefranche d'Astarac (p-value

= 0.032).

The least conservative post hoc (Fischer's least significant difference; LSD) highlighted more

differences in the DMTA patterns of the specimens regarding Species and Locality (Table 3).

Alicornops simorrense and *P. mirallesi* cluster together with higher anisotropy than *P. douvillei*, *B.*

brachypus, *B. gajense*, *M. welcommi*, *D. steinheimensis*, *H. tetradactylum*, and *L. sansaniense* (Table

3; p-value < 0.05). Concerning complexity, *B. gajense* and *H. tetradactylum* stood out for having

higher complexities compared to all other species besides *M. welcommi* and *G.* cf. *browni*. Moreover,

G. cf. *browni* was different from *B. brachypus*, both *Plesiaceratherium* species, and both

Hispanotherium species regarding complexity and HAsfc81 (Table 3). For both DMTA parameters in

which Locality had a noticeable effect (epLsar and Asfc), we found a cluster between Béon 1 and

Gračanica opposed to one containing at least Simorre and Sansan (for Asfc: also Kumbi 4 and

Villefranche d'Astarac; Table 3).

Table 2: Pairs (Species or Locality) with noticeable p-values after Tukey's honestly significant

difference (HSD) by DMTA parameters.

FTfv not precised as it yielded p-values above 0.1 only

DMTA parameter	Pair (Species or Locality) with differences		p-value
Anisotropy			
	Plesiaceratherium mirallesi	*Brachypotherium brachypus*	0.066
		Lartetotherium sansaniense	0.054
		Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum	0.09
Complexity			
	Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum	*Hispanotherium beonense*	0.008
		Prosantorhinus douvillei	0.01
		Plesiaceratherium mirallesi	6.3×10^{-4}
		Plesiaceratherium balkanicum	0.051
	Gračanica	Sansan	0.047
		Simorre	0.028
		Villefranche d'Astarac	0.032
HAsfc9			
	Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum	*Plesiaceratherium balkanicum*	0.059
		Plesiaceratherium mirallesi	0.024
HAsfc81			
	Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum	*Plesiaceratherium balkanicum*	0.096
		Plesiaceratherium mirallesi	0.072

Table 3: Fischer's least significant difference (LSD) post hoc results by DMTA parameters

Groups (a, ab, abc, b, bc, and c) are indicated with a p-value threshold of 0.05, for the sake of clarity.

		a	ab	abc	b	bc	c
epLsar	**Species**	*A. simorrense* *P. mirallesi*	*G.* cf. *browni* *H. beonense* *H.* cf. *matritense* *P. balkanicum* *P. blanfordi*	-	*P. douvillei* *B. brachypus* *B. gajense* *M. welcommi* *D. steinheimensis* *L. sansaniense* *H. tetradactylum*	-	-
	Locality	Gračanica Béon 1	Villefranche d'Astarac Devínska Nová Ves Kumbi 4	-	Sansan Simorre	-	-
Asfc	**Species**	*B. gajense* *H. tetradactylum*	*G.* cf. *browni*	*M. welcommi*	-	*B. brachypus* *P. blanfordi* *A. simorrense* *D. steinheimensis* *L. sansaniense*	*P. douvillei* *P. balkanicum* *P. mirallesi* *H. beonense* *H.* cf. *matritense*
	Locality	Simorre Sansan Kumbi 4 Villefranche d'Astarac	Devínska Nová Ves	-	-	Béon 1	Gračanica
FTfv	**Species**	*H.* cf. *matritense* *B. gajense*	*P. blanfordi* *M. welcommi* *G.* cf. *browni* *D. steinheimensis* *H. tetradactylum* *P. douvillei* *H. beonense*	-	*B. brachypus* *A. simorrense* *P. balkanicum* *P. mirallesi* *L. sansaniense*	-	-
HAsfc9	**Species**	*G.* cf. *browni* *L. sansaniense* *H. tetradactylum*	*P. blanfordi* *B. gajense* *B. brachypus* *P. douvillei* *M. welcommi* *A. simorrense* *D. steinheimensis* *H. beonense*	-	*P. balkanicum* *P. mirallesi* *H.* cf. *matritense*	-	-
HAsfc81	**Species**	*G.* cf. *browni*	*B. gajense* *H. tetradactylum* *L. sansaniense*	*P. blanfordi* *P. douvillei* *M. welcommi* *A. simorrense* *D. steinheimensis*	-	*B. brachypus* *H. beonense*	*P. balkanicum* *P. mirallesi* *H.* cf. *matritense*

Besides at Béon 1, the microwear sampling was very restricted (n < 5), either due to low numbers of

exploitable teeth available, or to the lack of well-preserved microwear texture on molars. In order to

facilitate the understanding, the results are presented by locality (chronologically) and by species. At

Kumbi 4, four species were considered for DMTA: *Pleuroceros blanfordi*, *Mesaceratherium welcommi*,

Gaindatherium cf. *browni* (grinding only), and *Brachypotherium gajense* (grinding only). Figure 3

shows that Kumbi rhinocerotids display a great variety of microwear patterns. Only one specimen,

belonging to *G.* cf. *browni*, is above the high anisotropy threshold of 5 x 10^{-3}, while all specimens of *B.*

gajense and *G.* cf. *browni* but none of *P. blanfordi* display values above the high complexity cutpoint of

2. *Gaindatherium* cf. *browni* and *P. blanfordi* have large variations in anisotropy, from low values (~ 1 x

10^{-3}) to high (about 5 x 10^{-3}), but consistent values of complexity (around 3 and 1.4 respectively). Such

a pattern associated with moderate (*P. blanfordi*) to high (*G.* cf. *browsi*) values of HAsfc (Figure 4)

point towards mixed-feeding diets, probably with the inclusion of harder objects for *G.* cf. *browsi*. The

signature for *B. gajense* is suggestive of browsing with low mean anisotropy (1.82 x 10^{-3}), but high

means of complexity (4.58), FTfv (7.89 x10^{4}), and HAsfc (HAsfc9 = 0.36; HAsfc81 = 1). Eventually, *M.*

welcommi presents low to moderate anisotropy values (< 4 x 10^{-3}), a moderate complexity (~ 1.5) and

HAsfc, but high FTfv (> 4 x 10^{4}) on both facets (Figure 4), which denotes browsing or mixed-feeding

habits.

At **Béon 1**, the DMT of the four rhinocerotids overlap contrary to that of Kumbi 4 rhinocerotids (Figure

3). The DMTA results are already detailed in Hullot et al. (2021). They suggest a mixed-feeding

behavior for *H. beonense* with moderate anisotropy values (mostly < 4 x 10^{-3}), variable values of

complexity (low-medium), moderate-high FTfv (around 4 x 10^{4}), and moderate HAsfc on both facets

(Figure 4). *Plesiaceratherium mirallesi* is considered as a folivore due to low complexity (~ 1) and

HAsfc values but relatively high anisotropy (above 5 x 10^{-3}), indicating an abrasive but not diversified

diet. Concerning the teleoceratines, they display similar microwear textures (Figure 3; Figure 4),

though *B. brachypus* has lower values of anisotropy (< 2 x 10^{-3}). This suggests that *B. brachypus* was

probably a browser or a mixed-feeder, while *Pr. douvillei* was a browser favoring leaves.

Figure 3: Dental microwear results of early and middle Miocene rhinocerotids plotted as mean

and standard deviation of anisotropy against that of complexity by facet, locality and species

271   Localities organized chronologically. Steinheim am Albuch not shown as only one specimen was

272   studied. Color code by species as indicated in the figure.

Figure 4: Dental microwear results of early and middle Miocene rhinocerotids plotted as

boxplots of each DMTA parameter by facet and species.

Time flows from left to right. DNV: Devínska Nová Ves, St: Steinheim am Albuch, Si: Simorre, V:

Villefranche d'Astarac. Color code by species as indicated in the figure and consistent with Figure 3.

At **Gračanica**, we also observe a great overlapping in the DMT. The complexity is very low for all

rhinocerotids studied (mostly below 1) suggesting soft food items. Anisotropy varies greatly but

HAsfc81 is consistently low (< 0.5) for all species (Figure 4). This points towards soft browsing or

folivory for all rhinocerotids at Gračanica.

At **Sansan**, the DMTA signatures of the rhinocerotids are more diversified and less overlapping,

similarly to Kumbi 4 (Figure 3). *Lartetotherium sansaniense* and *H. tetradactylum* have low values of

anisotropy (< 2.5 x 10^{-3}) and moderate (1-2; *L. sansaniense*) to high (> 2; *H. tetradactylum*) values of

complexity, recalling browsers. The high values of HAsfc (Figure 4) for both species are compatible

with a browsing diet. The other two species, *B. brachypus* and *A. simorrense*, are in the range of

mixed-feeders (Figure 3), and have compatible moderate to high values of HAsfc.

At **Devínska Nová Ves**, our restricted sample suggest browsing habits for both species *P. balkanicum*

and *D. steinheimensis*, with moderate values of both anisotropy (~ 2.5 x 10^{-3}) and complexity (mostly

between 1 and 1.5). FTfv is high on both facets (> 4 x 10^4) and HAsfc moderate (Figure 3; Figure 4).

At **Simorre**, *B. brachypus* specimens display low values of anisotropy (< 2.5 x 10^{-3} except two

specimens), and high values of complexity (> 2) and FTfv (> 4 x 10^4) on both facets. Values of HAsfc9

are high (> 0.3) on both facets, while that of HAsfc81 are moderate on the grinding facet (median =

0.45) and high on the shearing one (median = 0.7). These DMTA results suggest browsing

preferences with the inclusion of hard objects, probably fruits.

At **Villefranche d'Astarac**, *B. brachypus* and *A. simorrense* present well-distinguished DMT (Figure

3). *Brachypotherium brachypus* has low anisotropy values (< 2.5 x 10^{-3}) and high complexity ones (>

2.5) corresponding to a browsing signal, while the opposite is true for *A. simorrense*. The moderate

values of HAsfc for *A. simorrense* suggest that folivory is more likely than mixed-feeding for these

specimens and the corresponding individuals.

Eventually the specimen of *A. simorrense* from **Steinheim am Albuch** has a moderate anisotropy

(Grinding: 3.56 x 10^{-3}; Shearing: 2.27 x 10^{-3}), low (Shearing: 0.41) to moderate (Gringing: 1.6)

complexity, a high FTfv on the grinding facet (8.35×10^4) but low on the shearing one (0.63×10^4), and

low HAsfc on the shearing facet but moderate-high on the grinding one (Figure 4). This pattern is

consistent with browsing or mixed-feeding habits.

GLMM: For all response variables (epLsar, Asfc, FTfv, HAsfc9, and HAsfc81), model support

increased (i.e., lower AIC) when intraspecific factors (e.g., Facet, Genus, Locality) were included. The

final models contained three to seven factors, including Specimen, the random factor, by default in all

models. Facet was in the final models of epLsar and FTfv, Locality and Age were found in the final

models of Asfc and both HAsfc. Details and comparison of all models can be seen in electronic

supplementary material S5 and S6. Differences by Locality were also observed. Béon 1 had a lower

complexity than Kumbi 4, Sansan, Simorre, and Villefranche (df = 119, α = 0.05, |t-values| > 1.7),

while Tukey's contrasts highlighted lower values of Asfc for Gračanica than for Kumbi (p-value <

0.004), Simorre (p-value = 0.027), and Villefranche (p-value < 0.001). Moreover, Béon 1 had lower

HAsfc9 and HAsfc81 values than Kumbi 4 and Sansan (df = 119, α = 0.05, |t-values| > 1.7). Tukey's

contrasts also showed that Sansan had higher HAsfc9 and HAsfc81 than Gračanica (p-value ≤ 0.001).

The sampling site (tooth locus, position, side) had sometimes a confounding effect. For instance, M2

had higher epLsar values than M3 (df = 119, α = 0.05, t-value = -1.95).

GLMM - Comparison to extant dataset: When compared to the extant dataset (see S8 for all

details), we noticed that all fossil species had lower anisotropy values than the extant grazer

Ceratotherium simum (white rhinoceros) and the folivore *Dicerorhinus sumatrensis* (Sumatran

rhinoceros), although the classic t-value threshold was not reached for a few species (*P. blanfordi*, *G.*

cf. *browsi*, *B. gajense* [only regarding *C. simum*], *P. mirallesi*, and *A. simorrense*; α = 0.95, |t-values| ≤

1.7). On the contrary, *P. mirallesi* displayed higher values of anisotropy than the extant browsers

Diceros bicornis (black rhinoceros; t-value = 1.93) and *Rhinoceros sondaicus* (Javan rhinoceros; t-

value = 2.66). Regarding complexity, *C. simum* and *D. sumatrensis* had lower values than *B. gajense*

and *H. tetradactylum*, while the extant browsers had higher values than *P. balkanicum*, *P. douvillei*, *P.*

mirallesi, and *H. beonense* (α = 0.95, |t-values| > 1.7). All other DMTA parameters showed less

differences between the extant and fossil datasets: *C. simum* and *R. sondaicus* had higher FTfv,

HAsfc9, and HAsfc81 than *B. brachypus*, *P. balkanicum*, and *P. mirallesi* (α = 0.95, |t-values| > 1.7).

Hypoplasia

The overall prevalence of hypoplasia on rhinocerotid teeth from the early and middle Miocene

localities studied is high, with 302 teeth affected out of 1401, corresponding to over 20 % (21.56 %).

There are, however, marked discrepancies between species, localities, and tooth loci (Figure 5). The

most affected genera were *Plesiaceratherium* (104/357; 29.13 %), *Prosantorhinus* (97/370; 26.22 %),

and *Brachypotherium* (46/178; 25.84 %), but this resulted mostly from the dominance of Béon 1

specimens in our sample. *Brachypotherium brachypus* was often one of the most affected species at

all sites where the species was found, except Sansan (1/13; 7.69 %), contrary to *A. simorrense* often

found associated with the latter species and relatively spared by hypoplasia (maximum 4/35 = 11.43 %

of teeth affected at Simorre; Figure 6).

The prevalence was above 10 % for all localities except Kumbi 4, for which the overall prevalence is

low (6/99; 6.06 %; Table 4). Hypoplasia defects are quite rare at Kumbi 4 for all species studied, and

even null for the teleoceratine species (*D. fatehjangense* and *B. gajense*), *Bugtirhinus praecursor*, and

Plesiaceratherium naricum (Figure 6). Only *Pleuroceros blanfordi* appears a little more affected (4/42;

9.52 %), totaling four of the six hypoplasias observed at the locality. Hypoplasia was also relatively

limited at Sansan (14/132; 10.61 %) and Devínska Nová Ves (5/48; 10.42 %), with only *B. brachypus*

and *H. tetradactylum* affected at Sansan, and *D. steinheimensis* from the latter (Table 4 ; Figure 6). On

the contrary, the rhinocerotids from Béon 1, Béon 2, and Gračanica are very affected, with more than

25 % of the teeth presenting at least one hypoplasia at Béon 1 (216/832; 25.96 %) and Béon 2 (5/18;

27.78 %), and nearly 50 % at Gračanica (15/31; 48.39 %; Table 4). At these sites, the prevalence of

hypoplasia is high for all species but the elasmotheriines (Figure 6). Indeed, the elasmotheriines of all

sites were relatively spared (*H. beonense* at Béon 1: 13.04 %) or even not affected by hypoplasia (*B.*

praecursor at Kumbi 4 and *H.* cf. *matritense* at Gračanica).

Figure 5: Number (A) and Frequence (B) of hypoplasia by Locality and Species

Numbers on barplot A indicate the number of hypoplastic teeth (dark colors) versus unaffected ones

(light colors). Frequencies are calculated as the ratio of hypoplastic teeth on the total number of teeth

(hypoplastic and normal). Sub-tribes colored in blue: Teleoceratina, in green: Rhinocerotina; in yellow:

Aceratheriina, in pink: stem Rhinocerotinae, and in orange: Elasmotheriina

Abbreviations: DNV: Devínska Nová Ves, Sim: Simorre, Vil: Villefranche d'Astarac

Df: *Diaceratherium fatehjangense*, *Bg*: *Brachypotherium gajense*, *Bp*: *Bugtirhinus praecursor*, *Gb*:

Gaindatherium cf. *browni*, *Mw*: *Mesaceratherium welcommi*, *Pbl*: *Pleuroceros blanfordi*, *Pn*:

Plesiaceratherium naricum, *Pmin*: *Protaceratherium minutum*, *Pd*: *Prosantorhinus douvillei* (*P.* aff.

douvillei at Béon 2), *Bb*: *Brachypotherium brachypus*, *Hb*: *Hispanotherium beonense*, *Pmir*:

Plesiaceratherium mirallesi, *Hm*: *Hispanotherium* cf. *matritense*, *Ls*: *Lartetotherium sansaniense*, *Pba*:

Plesiaceratherium balkanicum, *As*: *Alicornops simorrense*, *Ht*: *Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum*, *Ds*:

Dicerorhinus steinheimensis, *B*: *Brachypotherium* sp.

Figure 6: Prevalence of hypoplasia by locality, species and tooth locus plotted against

phylogeny

Phylogenetic relationships follow formal parsimony analyses (Antoine, 2002; Antoine et al., 2010;

Becker et al., 2013; Tissier et al., 2020).

388   **Table 4: Prevalence of hypoplasia by locality (number of specimens/percentages)**

	Hypoplastic	Normal	Percentage of hypoplasia
Kumbi 4	93	6	6.06
Béon 2	13	5	27.78
Béon 1	616	216	25.96
Gračanica	16	15	48.39
Devínska Nová Ves	43	5	10.42
Sansan	118	14	10.61
Simorre	60	11	15.49
Villefranche d'Astarac	111	23	17.16
Steinheim	29	7	19.44

Concerning the loci, milk teeth (47/294; 15.99 %) were overall less affected by hypoplasia than

permanent ones (255/1107; 23.04 %; Table 5). Indeed, besides at Béon 1, very few milk molars are

hypoplastic (one D1/d1 at Gračanica and Steinheim, two D1 at Simorre, two D2 and 1 d4 at Sansan, 4

D4/d4 at Villefranche d'Astarac). Upper and lower teeth were equally affected (Kruskal-Wallis, df = 1,

p-value = 0.11), with respectively 19.86 % (144/725) and 23.37 % (158/676) of teeth bearing

hypoplasia. The most affected locus was the fourth milk molar with 38.24 % (26/68), while the least

affected were second and third milk molars with around 4 % affected (3/68 and 3/72 respectively;

Table 5). Other loci particularly affected were fourth premolars (60/200; 30 %), third molars (50/188;

26.60 %), and second molars (49/202; 24.26 %; Table 5). Once again, these findings mostly result

from the dominance of Béon 1 specimens in the sample, and great differences in the hypoplasia

pattern are observed by locality (Figure 6). Indeed, if virtually all tooth loci are likely to be affected for

Béon 1 rhinocerotids, the pattern is less varied at other localities although it seemingly diversifies with

sample size (e.g., *H. tetradactylum* from Sansan and Villefranche d'Astarac). For instance, hypoplastic

teeth are nearly exclusively molars at Kumbi 4 (with only one defect on a p3), and permanent teeth at

Gračanica (only one defect on a D1; Figure 6).

Table 5: Prevalence of hypoplasia by tooth locus, regardless of provenance and taxon

Upper and lower teeth merged as they have a similar timing of development

	Hypoplastic	Normal	Percentage of hypoplasia
D1	71	15	17.44
D2	65	3	4.41
D3	69	3	4.17
D4	42	26	38.24
Total decidual teeth	47	247	15.99
P2	130	26	16.67
P3	138	33	19.30
P4	140	60	30.00
M1	153	37	19.47
M2	153	49	24.26
M3	138	50	26.60
Total permanent teeth	255	852	23.04

GLMM: For all response variables (Hypo, Defect, Multiple, Localization, and Severity), model support increased (i.e., lower AIC) when intraspecific factors (e.g., Tooth Loci, Genus, Locality) were included. When Genus was not forced into the models, the final models contained three to six factors, including Specimen, the random factor, by default in all models. Defect (converted to a factor) was in the final models of all concerned variables (Multiple, Localization, and Severity). Genus was in the final models of all variables but Localization. Position was in the final models of Hypo, Defect, and Localization, while Tooth, and Wear were in that of Hypo and Defect. Details and comparison of all models can be seen in electronic supplementary material S5 and S7.

Based on GLMMs results, we can assess the influence of Genus, Locality, and Tooth on the hypoplasia pattern. *Alicornops* was less affected than *Brachypotherium* (p-value = 0.015), while *Plesiaceratherium* was more prone to hypoplasia than *Hispanotherium* (p-value = 0.02). GLMMs revealed differences in the patterns of hypoplasia (i.e., type of defects and their frequencies) between *Brachypotherium* and the following taxa: *Dicerorhinus* (p-value = 0.0046), *Alicornops* (p-value < 0.001), and *Protaceratherium* (p-value = 0.034). Tukey's contrasts also revealed the lowest p-values between *Alicornops* and the following taxa: *Hispanotherium* (p-value = 0.064), *Plesiaceratherium* (p-value < 0.01), *Prosantorhinus* (p-value < 0.01), *Protaceratherium* (p-value = 0.05). Eventually

Dicerorhinus had a different hypoplasia pattern than *Plesiaceratherium* (p-value = 0.034) and

Prosantorhinus (p-value = 0.071).

Concerning tooth loci, all teeth but fourth premolars and third molars are less affected than fourth milk

molars (p-values < 0.05). The results further suggested that the most commonly affected loci were

third molars, fourth premolars and fourth milk molars, while the least affected were all milk molars but

the fourth. Concerning localities, Gračanica teeth were significantly more touched than Béon 1 and

Sansan specimens (p-values ≈ 0.01). Middle Miocene rhinocerotids present a hypoplasia pattern

distinct from that of early Miocene ones (p-value = 0.019). Similarly to GLMMs for DMTA, we observed

confounding effects. Slightly-worn teeth had less hypoplasia than average worn (p-value = 0.005) and

very worn teeth (p-value = 0.026).

Discussion

<u>Dietary preferences and niche partitioning of the rhinocerotids studied</u>

The comparison of the fossil specimens DMT to that of extant ones highlighted important differences.

This suggests that the dietary spectrum of extinct rhinocerotids might have been very distinct from that

observed in the living species (Hullot et al., 2019). However, the microwear textures of the fossils are

critically distinct from that of the only extant strict grazer *Ceratotherium simum*, banning such dietary

preferences for the studied fossil specimens. This finding is not surprising as grasses and associated

grazing ungulates expended only during latest Miocene in Eurasia (Janis, 2008). The reconstructed

dietary preferences based on DMTA are presented in Table 6 by locality and by species.

The DMTA results of fossil specimens on both facets (Figure 3; Figure 4) suggest a clear niche

partitioning based on feeding preferences for the rhinocerotid specimens studied at Kumbi 4, Sansan,

and Villefranche d'Astarac. Although DMT could only be explored in four out of the nine rhinocerotid

species present at Kumbi 4, the patterns observed indicate clear differences in the feeding behaviors,

even if leaf consumption seems to be a major component for all rhinocerotids studied but *B. gajense*.

Taxon	Kumbi 4	Béon 2	Béon 1	Gračanica	Sansan	Devínska Nová Ves Spalte	Simorre	Villefranche d' Astarac	Steinheim am Albuch
Rhinocerotinae									
Mesaceratherium welcommi	M								
Pleuroceros blanfordi	M								
Protaceratherium sp.	x								
Protaceratherium minutum		x							
Plesiaceratherium naricum	x								
Plesiaceratherium mirallesi		x	F						
Plesiaceratherium balkanicum				F		B			
Plesiaceratherium sp.									
Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum					B				
Alicornops simorrense					M		x	F	M
Gaindatherium cf. *browni*	M								
Lartetotherium sansaniense				B	B				x
Dicerorhinus steinheimensis						B			x
Diaceratherium fatehjangense	x								
Brachypotherium gajense	B								
Brachypotherium brachypus				M	F	M	B	B	
Brachypotherium sp.									x
Prosantorhinus shahbazi	x								
Prosantorhinus douvillei			aff.	B					
Elasmotheriinae									
Bugtirhinus praecursor	x								
Hispanotherium beonense				M					
Hispanotherium cf. *matritense*					M				

This finding is in line with the inferred lush vegetation under warm and moist climatic conditions

proposed for this locality, providing abundant and diverse feeding resources for the many large

herbivores present (Antoine et al., 2010, 2013; Martin et al., 2011). The dietary preferences

reconstructed for Sansan rhinocerotids suggest the co-occurrence of two browsers (*L. sansaniense*

and *H. tetradactylum*, the latter including harder items in its diet) and two mixed-feeders (*A.*

simorrense and *B. brachypus*), coherent with the (sub-)tropical forested environment reconstructed for

that locality (Costeur et al., 2012), but at odds with the recent-like Miocene coolhouse as depicted by

Westerhold et al. (2020; ~415 parts per million CO_2). This niche partitioning is probably accentuated

by different habitat preferences: *H. tetradactylum* is mostly found in swamp or fluvial sediments

indicating wet habitat preferences contrary to *A. simorrense*, while *B. brachypus* seems intermediate

and *L. sansaniense* generalist (Heissig, 2012). Eventually, we observed obvious differences in the

dietary preferences for *A. simorrense* (folivore or mixed-feeder favoring leaves) and *B. brachypus*

(browser including hard objects) at Villefranche d'Astarac, where a humid forested environment is

hypothesized (Bentaleb et al., 2006).

On the contrary, an overlap of microwear textures, especially for the grinding facet, is observed for the

localities of Béon 1 and Gračanica. Besides diet, different habitats and feeding heights might result in

niche partitioning (Hutchinson, 1959; Arsenault and Owen-Smith, 2008). Concerning Béon 1, a partial

niche partitioning due to habitat differences has been hypothesized for the rhinocerotids – swamps for

both teleoceratines *B. brachypus* and *P. douvillei*, open woodland for *P. mirallesi*, and savannah-like

open environments for *H. beonense* (Bentaleb et al., 2006) – and subtle dietary differences are

discussed in Hullot et al. (2021) in the light of the combination of molar mesowear and dental

microwear texture analysis. At Gračanica, 2D microwear and mesowear score already revealed an

overlap in the dietary preferences of *Pl. balkanicum* and *B. brachypus* as two browsing species,

although the latter is labelled as "dirty browsing", a dietary category (not defined by comparative

datasets on intensively studied extant species with known diets) including species assumed to browse

and incorporate soil particles. (Xafis et al., 2020). Although microwear sampling is restricted and

includes premolars for the other two rhinocerotids (*L. sansaniense* and *H.* cf. *matritense*), it points

towards different mixed-feeding behaviors, most likely with a dominance of grass in the diet of *H.* cf.

matritense (Xafis et al., 2020). The very low values of complexity for all Gračanica rhinocerotids in our

sample, combined to relatively high values of anisotropy (Figure 3; Figure 4), could suggest an

important consumption of leaves for all species, as well as a very low amount of lignified tissues that

would have required more grinding to get access to cell content. Interestingly, the reconstructed

environment at this locality (based on mammal assemblage and flora) is a lowland swamp surrounded

by a closed canopy-like environment (Butzmann et al., 2020; Xafis et al., 2020), meaning that leaves

would have been an abundant resource. This recalls the feeding preferences and microwear textures

of the extant *Dicerorhinus sumatrensis* (Sumatran rhino; Hullot et al., 2019). Eventually, the restricted

DMTA samples from Devínska Nová Ves Spalte, Steinheim am Albuch, and Simorre suggest browsing

or mixed-feeding habits for all specimens studied, but did not allow to conclude on potential

competition for food resources.

<u>Interactions with co-occurring herbivores</u>

Besides other rhinocerotid species, the individuals studied co-occurred with many other herbivore

mammals. Although co-occurrence is not necessarily a good proxy for ecological interactions

(Blanchet et al., 2020), it is possible that some of these herbivores were competing for or partitioning

food resources with the rhinocerotids. Unfortunately, very little has been studied concerning the dietary

preferences of the fauna at most of the studied localities with the notable exceptions of Gračanica and

Sansan.

Indeed, recent studies on dental wear (micro- and meso- wear) or stable isotopy, suggested frugivory

for some associated species such as tragulids (*Dorcatherium* spp. at all localities but Simorre and

Villefranche; Aiglstorfer et al., 2014; Xafis et al., 2020), the middle Miocene Moschidae (*Micromeryx*

spp. found at Sansan, Simorre and Steinheim am Albuch; Aiglstorfer and Semprebon, 2019) or the

chalicothere *Metaschizotherium fraasi* (found at Steinheim am Albuch; Semprebon et al., 2011).

Interestingly, no rhinocerotid specimens studied here seemingly favored fruits. Similarly, the lophodont

suid *Listriodon splendens*, found at Gračanica, Devínska Nová Ves, and Simorre, might have favored

grasses (Van der Made, 2003; Xafis et al., 2020), a resource not exploited by the rhinocerotids either.

Otherwise, the vast majority of herbivore species were probably browsers or mixed-feeders, in good

agreement with the statement by Eronen and Rössner (2007) that these forms were dominant

between MN4 and MN9. This is for instance the case of the associated perissodactyl species

Anisodon grande (Chalicotheriidae), which 2D microwear signal at Devínska Nová Ves suggests

folivory (Semprebon et al., 2011), and *Anchitherium* spp. (Equidae) ranging from generalists to "dirty

browsers" (Kaiser, 2009; Xafis et al., 2020).

Within browsers and mixed-feeders, resources partitioning is still possible (e.g., consumption of

different plant parts or species) but might be difficult to detect in fossil communities. Moreover, other

strategies can lead to niche partitioning, such as different habitat, different body mass, or different

feeding height (Hutchinson, 1959; Schoener, 1974; Arsenault and Owen-Smith, 2008). Regarding

body mass, most rhinocerotids studied are megaherbivores *sensu* Owen-Smith (1988; terrestrial

herbivores weighting more than 1000 kg), which implies specific feeding strategies and metabolic

requirements. Megaherbivores are often treated as a separate herbivore guild, mostly disturbing that

of mesoherbivores (4–450 kg ; Fritz et al., 2002; Calandra et al., 2008; Landman et al., 2013). Within

megaherbivores, proboscideans frequently co-occurred with rhinocerotids at the studied localities and

were mostly browsers or mixed-feeders, placing them as direct competitors for rhinocerotids. Indeed,

the mesowear and 2D microwear suggest that *Prodeinotherium bavaricum* and *Gomphotherium*

angustidens were browsers at Gračanica (Xafis et al. 2020), while the mesowear angle categorizes *P.*

bavaricum from Sansan, *D. giganteum* from Villefranche d'Astarac and *G. angustidens* from Simorre

as browsers, but *G. angustidens* from Sansan and Villefranche d'Astarac as mixed-feeders (Loponen,

2020). Such overlapping in the diet of proboscideans and rhinocerotids is observed nowadays

between African elephants and black rhinoceroses (Landman et al., 2013). Interestingly, this

competition is detrimental to the rhinoceros, whose individuals shift towards the inclusion of more

grasses in presence of elephants (on a seasonal basis). Another possibility, as postulated by Xafis et

al. (2020) for *Deinotherium* spp. and *Plesiaceratherium balkanicum* at Gračanica, would be different

feeding heights between proboscideans and rhinocerotids, as the first ones were most likely feeding at

the top of trees due to their larger size (some of the biggest Neogene mammals; Larramendi, 2015).

<u>Hypoplasia prevalence and environmental conditions</u>

We found that the hypoplasia prevalence and pattern (i.e., tooth loci affected) were very different

depending on the locality and the species concerned. Except for Kumbi 4, the prevalence was

relatively high (> 10 %) at all sites of our early-middle Miocene sample. Even though nine species of

rhinocerotids are found at Kumbi 4, such a low prevalence is in agreement with previous results in the

region over the Cenozoic (Roohi et al., 2015), and coherent with the very favorable, low-stress context

hypothesized at this locality, that is a rich vegetation under a warm and humid climate (Antoine et al.,

2013).

The prevalence of hypoplasia is high at Béon 1 (>25 %) for all rhinocerotids except *H. beonense*, with

molars being particularly affected with respect to other dental loci. Second and third molars are the last

teeth to develop and erupt in rhinocerotids (Hitchins, 1978; Hillman-Smith et al., 1986; Böhmer et al.,

2016), and stresses on these late-developed teeth have been correlated with environmental, seasonal

stresses in sheep (Upex and Dobney, 2012). Although subtropical wet conditions are reconstructed at

Béon 1 (just prior to the MCO), periodic droughts are also reported in the area at that time (Duranthon

et al., 1999; Hullot and Antoine, 2020). Interestingly, the least affected species is the elasmotheriine *H.*

beonense, an early representative of a clade adapted to relatively open and arid environments

(Cerdeño and Nieto, 1995; Iñigo and Cerdeño, 1997), and which displays a mixed-feeding diet (Figure

4). On the contrary, both teleoceratine species, often considered swamp dwellers, display a high

prevalence of hypoplasia (Figure 5).

We found a very high prevalence of hypoplasia at Gračanica, with nearly 50 % of the teeth bearing at

least one hypoplastic defect. The proposed age for the locality ranges between 14.8 and 13.8 Ma

(Göhlich and Mandic, 2020), which is an interval of great climatic changes. Indeed, though included in

the MCO, the interval from 14.7 to 14.5 Ma present an increased seasonality in precipitations, with

prolonged dry periods (Böhme, 2003). On the other hand, an abrupt cooling occurred between 14 and

13.5 Ma, correlating with the Mi-3 event (Zachos et al., 2001; Böhme, 2003; Holbourn et al., 2014;

mMCT of Westerhold et al., 2020). Besides this challenging environmental context for the

rhinocerotids, our DMTA results suggest a potential competition for food resources (Figure 3), that

could have generated stressful conditions.

At Sansan, the prevalence of hypoplasia is overall moderate (~ 10 %) and defects are only found in

two species out of four: *H. tetradactylum* and *B. brachypus* (only one M1). The pattern of hypoplasia

for *H. tetradactylum*, with various loci affected, suggests different stresses and timing, from *in utero*

(D2) to post-weaning (M3). It is quite remarkable, as the proximity of the MCO peak (Maridet and Sen,

2012) leading to seasonal warm and moist conditions (Costeur et al., 2012), would seemingly

constitute relatively low stress conditions for the concerned rhinocerotids.

The prevalence of hypoplasia at Devínska Nová Ves Spalte is also moderate (5/48; 10.42 %) and

restricted to *D. steinheimensis* (P3, M1, M2 only; Figure 6), although the locality dates from the

mMCT. However, despite this transitional climatic system, pollen data from the Vienna Basin, to which

the locality belongs, indicate that regional conditions remained tropical with few precipitation variations

(Sabol and Kováč, 2006), coherent with the absence of hypoplasia on third molars, that can be

correlated with seasonal stresses. The paleogeographic context seems to have played a major role,

as the taxonomic differences with Sansan are partly explained by different paleoenvironments:

Devínska Nová Ves Spalte was a forested area near the shoreline of the transgressive late Langhian

sea (Sabol and Kováč, 2006).

The rhinocerotids from the localities of the MN7/8 (Simorre, Villefranche d'Astarac, and Steinheim am

Albuch), a time of sea-level drop and comparatively dry climate (Legendre et al., 2005; Böhme et al.,

2011; Heissig, 2012; Westerhold et al., 2020), present higher prevalences but contrasted patterns

depending on the species and locality (Figure 5; Figure 6). However, contrary to what we could have

been expected regarding the environmental conditions, the most affected loci (P2, P3, D1) document

mostly early-life stresses (e.g., birth, juvenile disease), rather than environmental or seasonal stresses

(Niven et al., 2004; Upex and Dobney, 2012). At Steinheim, only *L. sansaniense* has hypoplasia on

other teeth than second and third premolars, suggesting mostly early life stresses. At Simorre, more

loci are affected (D1, P2-P3, P4, and M1) and the pattern is relatively similar for both co-occurring

species i.e., *B. brachypus* and *A. simorrense*. Hypoplasia on D1, that develops mostly *in utero*

synchronously with D4, could indicate birth-related stresses (Hillman-Smith et al., 1986; Mead, 1999;

Böhmer et al., 2016). Similarly, the M1 starts its development relatively early, attested by the presence

of a neonatal line in some rhinocerotid teeth (Tafforeau et al., 2007), revealing particularly stressful

conditions around birth. Eventually, the rhinocerotids from Villefranche d'Astarac document later-life

stresses, with hypoplasia recorded from D4 to M2 (not P2-P3 for *A. simorrense*). The fourth premolars

are particularly affected in *B. brachypus*, which could indicate harsh weaning or cow-calf separation

conditions.

<u>Paleoecologic implications and changes</u>

Several species or genera are retrieved in various localities overtime, but *B. brachypus* clearly has the

longest range (from Béon 1 [MN4] to Simorre + Villefranche d'Astarac [MN7/8], with Gračanica [MN5-

6] and Sansan [MN6] in the meantime). We observe a clear shift in the DMT of *B. brachypus* over time

from a mixed-feeding behavior at Béon 1, Gračanica, and Sansan to a clear browsing signal with the

ingestion of harder items (fruits, seeds, or even soil) at Simorre and Villefranche d'Astarac (Figure 3;

Figure 4). This result could be due to a change in the regional climatic conditions, from warm and

humid pre-MCO to cooler, more seasonal and arid post-MCO (Zachos et al., 2001; Böhme, 2003;

Holbourn et al., 2014), perhaps leading to behavioral changes in this species (Cerdeño and Nieto,

1995), and/or to changes in local conditions.

Contrastingly, the DMT of *A. simorrense* remains quite similar from Sansan (MN6) to Steinheim

(MN7/8; Figure 3; Figure 4). Interestingly, there are clear differences in the hypoplasia prevalence of

these two species, *B. brachypus* being one of the most affected species in our sample. Such

differences in the hypoplasia prevalence could reveal the existence of a competition for food and/or

water resources. The pattern of hypoplasia at Simorre (D1, P2-P3) and Villefranche d'Astarac (D4-M1,

P4-M2) suggests early life stresses for both rhinocerotids (Figure 6), mostly before weaning (Mead,

1999).

Concerning other species found at more than one locality (*L. sansaniense*, *D. steinheimhensis*, and

Plesiaceratherium spp.), the hypoplasia patterns seem to be different at each locality, denoting a

greater effect of local conditions than species-related sensitivities. Only the *Plesiaceratherium* species

from Béon 1 and Gračanica exhibit comparable patterns (Figure 6), although it could be related to the

high prevalence of stresses for individuals belonging to the concerned taxa at these localities. Overall,

the elasmotheriines (*Bugtirhinus* and *Hispanotherium*) were seemingly spared by hypoplasia. Indeed,

no tooth was hypoplastic at Kumbi 4 (*B. praecursor*; 0/4) and Gračanica (*H.* cf. *matritense*; 0/6). At

Béon 1, for which a greater sample is available, *H. beonense* is the least affected species with 13.04

% (12/92) of hypoplastic teeth, nearly exclusively permanent (only one hypoplasia on a D4). If this

result was not surprising at Kumbi 4, where low-stress conditions were inferred and very little

hypoplasia recorded for all studied species, the difference to other associated species was particularly

striking at Béon 1 and Gračanica. The microwear study of elasmotheriines is restricted in the literature,

but it suggests the inclusion of a non-negligible part of browse resources in the diet, at least

seasonally (Rivals et al., 2020; Xafis et al., 2020). This finding is in line with our DMTA results for

Hispanotherium species (Béon 1 and Gračanica) suggesting mixed-feeding preferences (Figure 3;

Figure 4). The increasing crown height observed in this clade over time could allow for

accommodating to a greater variety of food items (Semprebon and Rivals, 2007; Damuth and Janis,

2011; Tütken et al., 2013), thus limiting nutritional stress, as observed in hipparionine equids, with

respect to anchitheriine equids (MacFadden, 1992; Janis, 2008; Mihlbachler et al., 2011). The classic

view of elasmotheriines as obligate open-environment rhinocerotids adapted to grazing – notably

based on representatives from the arid Iberic Peninsula (Iñigo and Cerdeño, 1997) – is thus somehow

challenged. This could mean that hypsodonty in this clade might counterbalance significant grit load

induced by feeding low in open environments, thus reflecting more the habitat rather than the diet, an

hypothesis that has already been proposed to explain hypsodonty evolution (Janis, 1988; Jardine et

al., 2012; Semprebon et al., 2019).

Conclusions

The study of the paleoecology of rhinocerotids from the early and middle Miocene of Eurasia revealed

clear differences over time and space between or within species. Though, DMTA results suggested

only browsers and mixed-feeders (no grazers nor frugivores) in the studied rhinocerotid sample, they

unraveled clear niche partitioning through food resources at several diachronous localities (Kumbi 4,

Sansan, and Villefranche d'Astarac). At other localities (Béon 1, Gračanica), a significant overlap of

microwear textures was observed, and more subtle differences in food preferences and other niche

partitioning strategies (habitat, feeding height) may have existed. Regarding enamel hypoplasia, which

is quite prevalent in the studied sample (except in the oldest and only South Asian locality, Kumbi 4), it

revealed clear disparities between localities, species, and dental loci. While the effects of climate

changes were not immediately obvious, we discussed more specific, local conditions that may explain

the observed stresses. Regarding a potential phylogenetic effect, we were able to highlight very

different sensitivities: while *B. brachypus* is highly affected by hypoplasia regardless of locality and

conditions, elasmotheriines (*Bugtirhinus praecursor* at Kumbi 4, *Hispanotherium beonense* at Béon 1

and *H.* cf. *matritense* at Gračanica) are pretty spared in contrast. Over time and depending on the

conditions, differences in DMT and/or prevalence of hypoplasia were observed for some species found

in several localities. This is notably the case for the feeding preferences of *B. brachypus*, oscillating

between browser and mixed feeder, or for the hypoplasia profiles of *L. sansaniense* and *D.*

steinheimensis denoting different stress periods and local conditions.

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