

1 **Spatio-temporal diversity of dietary preferences and stress sensibilities of early and middle**  
2 **Miocene Rhinocerotidae from Eurasia: impact of climate changes**

3

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10

11 **Abstract**

12

13 Major climatic and ecological changes are documented in terrestrial ecosystems during the Miocene  
14 epoch. The Rhinocerotidae are a very interesting clade to investigate the impact of these changes on  
15 ecology, as they are abundant and diverse in the fossil record throughout the Miocene. Here, we  
16 explored the spatio-temporal evolution of rhinocerotids' paleoecology during the early and middle  
17 Miocene of Europe and Pakistan. We studied the dental texture microwear (proxy for diet) and enamel  
18 hypoplasia (stress indicator) of 19 species belonging to four sub-tribes and an unnamed clade of  
19 Rhinocerotidae, and coming from nine Eurasian localities ranging from Mammal Neogene zone (MN) 2  
20 to MN7/8. Our results suggest a clear niche partitioning based on diet at Kumbi 4 (MN2, Pakistan),  
21 Sansan (MN6, France), and Villefranche d'Astarac (MN7/8, France), while overlap of the interpreted  
22 diets and subtle variations are discussed for Béon 1 (MN4, France) and Gračanica (MN5/6, Bosnia-  
23 Herzegovina). All rhinocerotids studied were interpreted as browsers or mixed-feeders, and none had  
24 a grazer nor frugivore diets. The prevalence of hypoplasias was moderate (~ 10 %) to high (> 20 %) at  
25 all localities but Kumbi 4 (6.06 %), and documented quite well the local conditions. For instance, the  
26 high prevalence at the close to Miocene Climatic Optimum locality of Béon 1 (25.96 %) has been  
27 correlated with periodical droughts, while the moderate ones (~ 10 %) at Sansan and Devínska Nová  
28 Ves (MN6, Slovakia) both dated from the MN6 (i.e., by the middle Miocene Climatic Transition, ca.  
29 13.9 Mya) were linked to the persistence of sub-tropical local conditions. Besides locality, species and  
30 tooth locus were also important factors of variation for the prevalence of hypoplasia. The very large

31 hippo-like *Brachypotherium brachypus* was one of the most affected species at all concerned localities  
32 (but Sansan), whereas early-diverging elasmotheriines were very little affected, suggesting an  
33 influence of phylogeny and/or diet in stress susceptibility.

34

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

36

## 37 **Introduction**

38

39 The Miocene is a key period in Earth and rhinocerotid evolutionary histories. Climatic conditions in  
40 Eurasia during the Miocene epoch are globally warm and the typical habitat is forested (Cerling et al.,  
41 1997; Zachos et al., 2001; Bruch et al., 2007; Westerhold et al., 2020). It is the last warm episode of  
42 the Cenozoic era, although marked by great climatic changes prefiguring the setup of modern cold  
43 conditions (Westerhold et al., 2020). During early Miocene times, temperatures increased until  
44 reaching the Miocene Climatic Optimum (MCO) between ~17 to 14 Mya (corresponding to the late  
45 Burdigalian + Langhian standard ages; Westerhold et al., 2020). This optimum is followed by an  
46 abrupt cooling (the middle Miocene climatic transition [mMCT]; Westerhold et al., 2020) associated  
47 with faunal turnovers in Eurasia (Böhme, 2003; Maridet et al., 2007). The middle Miocene is marked  
48 by a relative aridity, associated with a global cooling (Bruch et al., 2007; Böhme et al., 2008).

49

50 Regarding rhinocerotids, Miocene times witness peaks in their alpha diversity about 22–18 Mya and  
51 11–10 Mya (Antoine et al., 2010; Antoine and Becker, 2013; Antoine, in press.). During the early and  
52 middle Miocene in Eurasia, four sub-tribes of Rhinocerotidae are encountered – Rhinocerotina,  
53 Teleoceratina and Aceratheriina (Rhinocerotinae), and Elasmotheriina (Elasmotheriinae) – and  
54 species of which are often found associated in fossil-yielding localities (Antoine et al., 1997, 2010;  
55 Heissig, 2012; Becker and Tissier, 2020; Antoine, 2002, in press.). This abundance and the potential  
56 cohabitation of such large herbivores question habitat capacity and competition for food resources.  
57 However, the ecology of the rhinocerotids has rarely been explored (e.g., Mhlbachler et al., 2018;  
58 Wang and Secord, 2019; Rivals et al., 2020; Stefaniak et al., 2020) or only been assumed based on  
59 morphological adaptations (as criticized by Prothero et al., 1989; Prothero, 2005; Giaourtsakis et al.,  
60 2006). If the Rhinocerotina appear to be ecologically varied, the literature suggests a similar ecology

61 for most representatives of certain tribes. For instance, the elasmotheriines are considered as open  
62 environment dwellers adapted to tough vegetation (Iñigo and Cerdeño, 1997; Antoine and  
63 Welcomme, 2000), whereas the teleoceratines are reconstructed as hippo-like rhinoceroses inhabiting  
64 lake side or swamps and probably browsing on low vegetation or even grazing (Prothero et al., 1989;  
65 Cerdeño, 1998), although this last hypothesis is debated (e.g., Clementz, 2012).

66

67 With this article, we wanted to assess if the great diversity of Miocene Rhinocerotidae was associated  
68 to an ecological disparity and to explore paleoecological differences associated with climate changes  
69 between the studied species, regions, and periods. To do so, we focused on the rhinocerotids from  
70 nine localities, covering wide temporal and geographical ranges (from early to middle Miocene,  
71 Mammal Neogene zone [MN] 2 to MN7/8, and from southwestern France to Pakistan). We coupled  
72 dental microwear texture analysis (short-term diet proxy) and enamel hypoplasia (i.e., enamel defect  
73 resulting from a stress stopping tooth development) to infer dietary preferences and stress sensibility.  
74 Eventually, we compared the results of both approaches, which has the potential to detect stressful  
75 shifts in the diet (competition, punctual shortage event) or accentuated susceptibility due to a  
76 specialized diet, and put them into phylogenetic and environmental contexts.

77

## 78 **Material and methods**

79

80 We studied the rhinocerotid dental remains from nine early and middle Miocene localities from France  
81 (Béon 1, Béon 2, Sansan, Simorre, and Villefranche d'Astarac), Germany (Steinheim am Albuch),  
82 Bosnia-Herzegovina (Gračanica), Slovakia (Devínska Nová Ves Spalte), and Pakistan (Kumbi 4,  
83 Balochistan), ranging from MN2 to MN7/8. The rhinocerotid assemblages are detailed in Table 1. The  
84 specimens are curated at the Naturhistorisches Museum Wien (NHMW), the Muséum de Toulouse  
85 (MHNT), and the Naturhistorisches Museum Basel (NHMB). For all details on the specimens included  
86 in this study see Supplementary S1. The localization of the studied localities is given in Figure 1.  
87 Further details on the localities are given in Supplementary S2.

88

89 **Table 1: List of rhinocerotid species found at each locality studied along with the number of**  
 90 **specimens included for each method.**

	Microwear		Hypoplasia
	Gr	Sh	
<b>Kumbi 4</b>	9	4	99
<i>Mesaceratherium welcommi</i>	3	3	19
<i>Pleuroceros blanfordi</i>	2	1	42
<i>Protaceratherium</i> sp.	0	0	0
<i>Plesiaceratherium naricum</i>	0	0	4
<i>Gaindatherium</i> cf. <i>browni</i>	2	0	14
<i>Brachypotherium fatehjangense</i>	0	0	12
<i>Diaceratherium gajense</i>	2	0	4
<i>Prosantorhinus shahbazi</i>	0	0	0
<i>Bugtirhinus praecursor</i>	0	0	4
<b>Béon 2</b>	0	0	13
<i>Protaceratherium minutum</i>	0	0	2
<i>Plesiaceratherium mirallesi</i>	0	0	0
<i>Prosantorhinus</i> aff. <i>douvillei</i>	0	0	11
<b>Béon 1</b>	41	24	837
<i>Plesiaceratherium mirallesi</i>	13	12	340
<i>Plesiaceratherium</i> sp.	0	0	0
<i>Brachypotherium brachypus</i>	7	5	46
<i>Prosantorhinus douvillei</i>	15	4	359
<i>Hispanotherium beonense</i>	6	3	92
<b>Gračanica</b>	9	5	31
<i>Plesiaceratherium balkanicum</i>	4	2	12
<i>Lartetotherium sansaniense</i>	1	1	2
<i>Brachypotherium brachypus</i>	3	2	11
<i>Hispanotherium</i> cf. <i>matritense</i>	1	0	6
<b>Sansan</b>	13	7	123
<i>Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum</i>	7	1	89
<i>Alicornops simorreense</i>	2	2	9
<i>Lartetotherium sansaniense</i>	2	2	12
<i>Brachypotherium brachypus</i>	2	2	13
<b>Devínska Nová Ves Spalte</b>	4	1	48
<i>Plesiaceratherium balkanicum</i>	2	0	1
<i>Dicerorhinus steinheimensis</i>	2	1	47

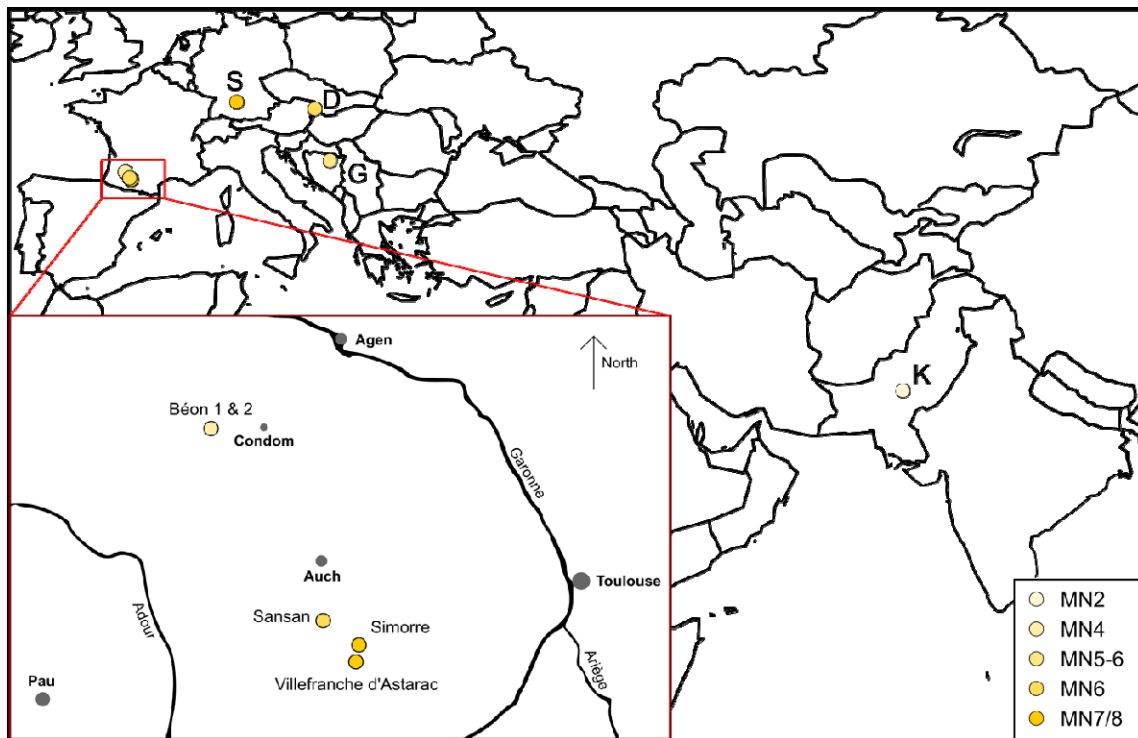
91

92 Table 1 continuation

	Microwear		Hypoplasia
	Gr	Sh	
<b>Simorre</b>	4	2	71
<i>Alicornops simorreense</i>	0	0	35
<i>Brachypotherium brachypus</i>	4	2	36
<b>Villefranche d'Astarac</b>	4	7	134
<i>Alicornops simorreense</i>	2	3	76
<i>Brachypotherium brachypus</i>	2	4	58
<b>Steinheim am Albuch</b>	1	1	36
<i>Alicornops simorreense</i>	1	1	6
<i>Lartetotherium sansaniense</i>	0	0	8
<i>Dicerorhinus steinheimensis</i>	0	0	12
<i>Brachypotherium</i> sp.	0	0	10

93

94



95

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

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

98 modified from Antoine and Duranthon (1997).

99 Color code by MN zones as detailed in A. Abbreviations from West to East: S- Steinheim am Albuch  
100 (MN7/8; Germany), D- Devínska Nová Ves Spalte (MN6; Slovakia), G- Gračanica (MN5-6; Bosnia-  
101 Herzegovina), K- Kumbi 4 (MN2; Pakistan).

102

### 103 Dental Microwear Texture Analyses (DMTA)

104 Dental Microwear Texture Analysis (DMTA) allows for the characterization of dietary preferences at a  
105 short time scale (days to weeks prior the death of the individual; Hoffman et al., 2015; Winkler et al.,  
106 2020). This method has been widely used in paleontological and archeological studies to infer diet  
107 (e.g., Grine, 1986; Rivals et al., 2012; Jones and DeSantis, 2017; Berlioz et al., 2018). Here, we  
108 studied dental microwear texture on one well-preserved molar (germs and over-worn teeth excluded)  
109 per individual, preferentially the second molar (first or third otherwise), either upper or lower, left or  
110 right.

111

112 After cleaning the tooth with acetone or ethanol, two silicone (Regular Body President, ref. 6015 - ISO  
113 4823, medium consistency, polyvinylsiloxane addition type; Coltene Whaledent) molds were made on  
114 a single enamel band, which shows two different facets acting as grinding and shearing (if present).  
115 The grinding facet shows several Hunter-Schreger bands on the very enamel surface and is more  
116 horizontal than the shearing facet which has a steep slope towards the labial side. To combine both  
117 type of facets with different functions indeed improves dietary reconstruction (Louail et al., 2021;  
118 Merceron et al., 2021). The enamel band on which we identified those two facets is localized labially  
119 near the protocone on upper molars and distally to the protoconid or hypoconid (if the protoconid is  
120 unavailable) on lower teeth (for an illustration see supplementary S2).

121

122 In this article we followed a protocol adapted from Scott et al. (2005, 2006) with sensitive-scale fractal  
123 analyses. Molds were scanned with a Leica DCM8 confocal profilometer ("TRIDENT" profilometer  
124 housed at the PALEVOPRIM, CNRS, University of Poitiers) using white light confocal technology with  
125 a 100x objective (Leica Microsystems; Numerical aperture: 0.90; working distance: 0.9 mm). The  
126 obtained scans (.plu files) were pre-treated with LeicaMap v.8.2. (Leica Microsystems) as follows: the  
127 surface was inverted (as scans were made on negative replicas), missing points (i.e., non-measured,  
128 less than 1%) were replaced by the mean of the neighboring points and aberrant peaks were removed

129 (see details in the supplementary Information in Merceron et al., 2016). The surface was then levelled,  
130 and we applied a polynomial of degree 8 removal of form to temper for Hunter-Schreger bands reliefs  
131 in the DMTA parameters. Eventually, we selected a 200×200- $\mu\text{m}$  area (1551 × 1551 pixels) within the  
132 surface, which we saved as a digital elevation model (.sur) and used to extract DMTA parameters  
133 through Scale-Sensitive Fractal Analysis with SFrax (Surfract, [www.surfract.com](http://www.surfract.com)) and LeicaMap.

134

135 Here we focused on five classical DMTA parameters: anisotropy (exact proportion of length-scale  
136 anisotropy of relief; epLsar), complexity (area-scale fractal complexity; Asfc), heterogeneity of  
137 complexity (heterogeneity of area-scale fractal complexity here at 3×3 and 9×9; HAsfc9 and HAsfc81),  
138 and fine textural fill volume (here at 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$ ; FTfv). The description of these parameters is available in  
139 Scott et al. (2006).

140

141 To facilitate DMTA interpretation for fossil specimen, we used the values and thresholds proposed in  
142 extant species by Scott (2012) and Hullot et al. (2019). For the latter dataset, two new specimens were  
143 added, as specified below, and consists of 17 specimens of *Ceratotherium simum* (white rhinoceros),  
144 four of *Dicerorhinus sumatrensis* (Sumatran rhinoceros), 21 of *Diceros bicornis* (black rhinoceros), 15  
145 of *Rhinoceros sondaicus* (Javan rhinoceros; one new specimen), and five of *Rhinoceros unicornis*  
146 (Indian rhinoceros; one new specimen).

147

#### 148 Enamel hypoplasia

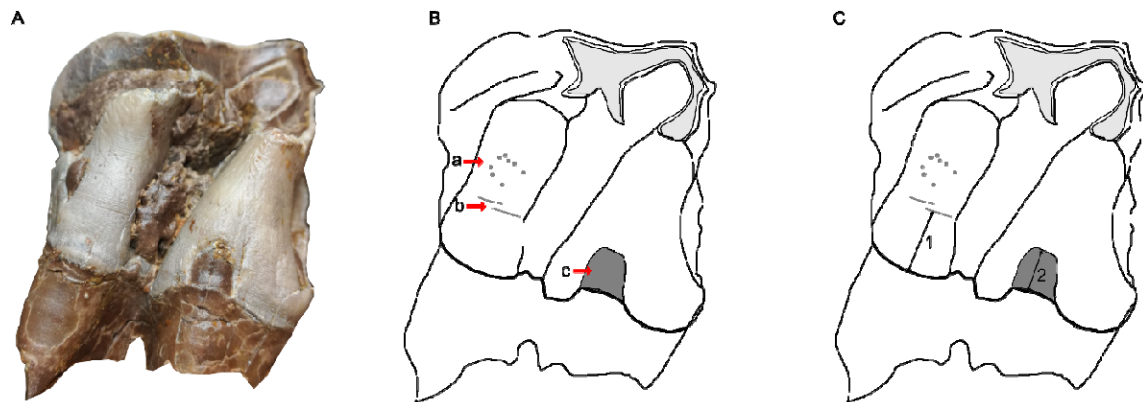
149 Hypoplasia is a common defect of the enamel resulting from a stress or a combination of stresses  
150 occurring during tooth development (Goodman and Rose, 1990). It is a permanent, sensitive, but non-  
151 specific indicator of stresses either environmental (e.g., drought or nutritional stress; Skinner and  
152 Pruetz, 2012; Upex and Dobney, 2012), physiological (e.g., disease or parasitism; Suckling et al.,  
153 1986; Rothschild et al., 2001; Niven et al., 2004), and/or psychological (e.g., depression in primates;  
154 Guatelli-Steinberg, 2001).

155

156 Enamel hypoplasia was studied with the naked eye and categorization of the defects followed the  
157 *Fédération Dentaire Internationale* (1982) as linear enamel hypoplasia (LEH), pitted hypoplasia, or  
158 aplasia. We studied all cheek teeth, both deciduous and permanent, but excluded 62 teeth to avoid

159 false negative and uncalibrated defects, as enamel was obscured (e.g., tooth unerupted in bone,  
160 sediment occluding), broken or worn out, or as identification of the locus was impossible. This left  
161 1401 teeth studied for the hypoplasia analysis – 294 milk molars and 1107 permanent premolars and  
162 molars – from the nine localities. In parallel, qualitative data (tooth locus affected, position of the defect  
163 on the crown, and severity) and caliper measurements (distance of the defect from enamel-dentine  
164 junction, width if applicable) were taken (details in Supplementary S3). This data may give insights into  
165 the age at which the defect occurred (locus affected, position on the crown, distance to enamel-  
166 dentine junction), and to duration and intensity of the stress (width of the defect), which can in turn  
167 help us propose causes (e.g., birth for a defect near the base of the crown on a D4). Type of defects  
168 recorded, and caliper measurements are illustrated in Figure 2.

169



170

171

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

174 A- Lingual view of right M2 of the specimen MHNT.PAL.2004.0.58 (*Hispanotherium beonense*)

175 displaying three types of hypoplasia

176 B- Interpretative drawing of the photo in A illustrating the hypoplastic defects: a- pitted hypoplasia, b-

177 linear enamel hypoplasia, and c- aplasia

178 C- Interpretative drawing of the photo in A illustrating the measurements: 1- distance between the

179 base of the defect and the enamel-dentin junction, 2- width of the defect (when applicable).

180 Figure from Hullot et al. (2021).

181

182



183 Statistics and GLMMs

184 Statistics were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2018: <https://www.R-project.org/>), equipped with the  
185 following packages: reshape2 (Wickham, 2007), dplyr (Wickham et al., 2019), lme4 (Bates et al.,  
186 2015), car (Fox et al., 2012), MASS (Venables and Ripley, 2002). According to the recent statement of  
187 the American Statistical Association (ASA) on p-values (Wasserstein and Lazar, 2016; Wasserstein et  
188 al., 2019), we avoided the use of the term “statistically significant” associated to the classical  
189 thresholds as much as possible in this manuscript. Figures were done using R package ggplot2  
190 (Wickham, 2011) as well as Inkscape v.0.91.

191

192 General Linear Mixed Models (GLMM) on our data were constructed based on a R code modified from  
193 Arman et al. (2019) and adapted to each tested response variable. An example of this code applied to  
194 hypoplasia variable Hypo is given in Supplementary 4. DMTA response variables were the five DMTA  
195 parameters (epLsar, Asfc, FTfv, HASfc9, and HASfc81) and we selected Gaussian family for the  
196 GLMMs. Factors in the models were: specimen (number of the specimen; random factor), locality,  
197 province, age (MN zones), genus, tooth (e.g., second molar, fourth milk molar), position (upper or  
198 lower), side (left or right), cusp (protocone, protoconid, hypoconid), and facet (grinding or shearing).  
199 For hypoplasia, response variables were Hypo (1 or 0 for presence or absence of hypoplasia,  
200 respectively) for which we used Binomial family, Defect (e.g., LEH, Pits, Aplasia; converted to  
201 numbers), Localization (position of the defect on the crown; mostly labial or lingual), Multiple (number  
202 of defects), and Severity (0 to 4), modeled using Poisson family. The factors were: specimen (number  
203 of the specimen; random factor), locality, province, age (MN zones), genus, tooth (e.g., first molar,  
204 fourth premolar), position (upper or lower), side (left or right), and wear (low, average, high).  
205 Additionally, for response variables Severity, Multiple, and Localization, defect was converted and  
206 used as a factor.

207

208 The models were built with a bottom-up approach, starting with the only random factor of our dataset  
209 alone (specimen) and adding factors incrementally for every set (e.g., 1|Specimen + Genus,  
210 1|Specimen + Locality). New set was built as long as Akaike's Information Criterion score (AIC) kept  
211 decreasing. Few interactions (e.g., Genus x Facet for microwear, Genus x Tooth for hypoplasia) were  
212 considered in the models, as most factors were considered independent and to avoid unnecessarily

213 complex and rarely selected models (Arman et al., 2019). We selected the best candidate model as  
214 the one with the lowest AIC and checked for over-dispersion (estimated through the ratio of deviance  
215 and degrees of freedom). If needed, we corrected it through quasi-Poisson or quasi-Binomial laws  
216 from the MASS package (Venables and Ripley, 2002) or by adjusting the coefficients table (multiply  
217 type error by square root of the dispersion factor and recalculate Z and p values accordingly). In total,  
218 340 models were compared across the 10 response variables (see electronic supplementary material,  
219 S5, S6, and S7).

220

## 221 **Results**

222

### 223 Microwear

224 MANOVA (Species x Facet x Age x Locality) on all five main DMTA parameters (epLsar, Asfc, FTfv,  
225 HASfc9, HASfc81) revealed low p-values for Species (df = 14; p-value =  $8.6 \times 10^{-4}$ ), Facet (df = 1; p-  
226 value =  $6.5 \times 10^{-4}$ ), and Locality (df = 4; p-value = 0.014). However, when we separated our sample by  
227 facet, most of these differences were only found in the shearing facet subsample (n = 51), while very  
228 few were observed for the grinding facet subsample (n = 85).

229

230 ANOVAs (Species x Age x Locality) were conducted for each parameter in each microwear facet  
231 subsample. In the grinding subsample, we found only a potential influence of Species (p-value =  
232 0.0165) and Age (p-value = 0.0426) in Asfc. For the shearing subsamples, Species had an impact for  
233 epLsar (p-value = 0.034) and HASfc 9 (p-value = 0.0477), while Age had an impact for Asfc (p-value =  
234  $4.31 \times 10^{-4}$ ) and FTfv (p-value = 0.035).

235

236 As the different factors (Species and Age) had more than two states, we conducted post hoc tests to  
237 precise the highlighted differences, results of which are detailed in Table 2 and Table 3. The more  
238 conservative post hoc (Tukey's honestly significant difference; HSD) revealed very few noticeable  
239 differences in the microwear textures of the studied rhinocerotid specimens (Table 2). On the shearing  
240 facet *Plesiaceratherium mirallesi* (n = 12) had higher values of epLsar than *Brachypotherium*  
241 *brachypus* (n = 15; p-value =  $8.81 \times 10^{-3}$ ), *Mesaceratherium welcommi* (n = 3; p-value = 0.040), and  
242 *Lartetotherium sansaniense* (n = 3; p-value = 0.016). The shearing facet of the rhinocerotids from the

243 MN5 (i.e., Gračanica, n = 5) had lower values of Asfc than that from the MN6 (Sansan and Devínska  
 244 Nová Ves, n = 8; p-value = 0.058) and MN7/8 (Simorre, Villefranche and Steinheim, n = 10; p-value =  
 245 0.056). The least conservative post hoc (Fischer's least significant difference; LSD) highlighted more  
 246 differences in the DMTA patterns of the specimens regarding Species and Age (Table 3, p-values <  
 247 0.05). Concerning Species, *P. mirallesi* (n = 12) and *A. simorreense* (n = 5) had higher values of epLsar  
 248 on their shearing facet compared to *B. brachypus* (n = 15), *P. balkanicum* (n = 2), *P. douvillei* (n = 4),  
 249 *H. tetradactylum* (n = 1), *L. sansaniense* (n = 3), *D. steinheimensis* (n = 1), and *M. welcommi* (n = 3).  
 250 Regarding Asfc, *D. gajense* (n = 2), *G. cf. browni* (n = 2) and *H. tetradactylum* (n = 7) had higher  
 251 values compared to *P. douvillei* (n = 15), *A. simorreense* (n = 4), *H. beonense* (n = 6), *P. mirallesi* (n =  
 252 13), *H. cf. matritense* (n = 1). However, with the p-value threshold of 0.05 selected for LSD tests, no  
 253 differences in HAsfc9 were found by Species. Concerning Age, MN4 (Béon 1) and MN5 (Gračanica)  
 254 rhinocerotids had lower complexity values than that from MN6 (Sansan and Devínska Nová Ves) and  
 255 MN7/8 (Simorre, Villefranche and Steinheim) on both facets, and MN2 (Kumbi 4) for the grinding facet  
 256 only. The FTfv was also different on the shearing facet of rhinocerotids from MN2 (n = 4) and that from  
 257 MN4 (n = 24), MN5 (n = 5) and MN6 (n = 8), and between the rhinocerotids from the MN5 and the  
 258 MN7/8 (n = 10).

259

260 **Table 2: Pairs (Species or Age) with noticeable p-values after Tukey's honestly significant**  
 261 **difference (HSD) by DMTA parameters.**

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

DMTA parameter	Facet	Pair (Species or Age) with differences		p-value
Asfc	Grinding	<i>Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum</i>	<i>Plesiaceratherium mirallesi</i>	0.034
			<i>Prosantorhinus douvillei</i>	0.055
	Shearing	MN5	MN6	0.058
			MN7/8	0.056
epLsar	Shearing	<i>Plesiaceratherium mirallesi</i>	<i>Brachypotherium brachypus</i>	0.009
			<i>Lartetotherium sansaniense</i>	0.016
			<i>Mesaceratherium welcommi</i>	0.040

263

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

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

266 Gr. and Sh. stands respectively for grinding and shearing facets. No post hocs conducted for HAfc81.

	a	ab	abc	abcd	ac	b	bc	bcd	c	cd	d
<b>Asfc</b>											
Gr.	<i>D. gajense</i>	<i>G. cf. browni</i> <i>H. tetradactylum</i>	<i>B. brachypus</i>	<i>L. sansaniense</i> <i>M. welcommi</i> <i>P. blanfordi</i>	-	-	-	<i>P. balkanicum</i> <i>D. steinheimensis</i>	-	<i>P. douvillei</i> <i>A. simorreense</i> <i>H. beonense</i>	<i>P. mirallesi</i> <i>H. cf. matritense</i>
Gr.	MN2 MN6 MN7/8	-	-	-	-	MN4 MN5	-	-	-	-	-
Sh.	MN6 MN7/8	MN2	-	-	-	-	MN4	-	MN5	-	-
<b>epLsar</b>											
Sh.	<i>P. mirallesi</i> <i>A. simorreense</i>	<i>H. beonense</i> <i>P. blanfordi</i>	-	-	-	<i>B. brachypus</i> <i>P. balkanicum</i> <i>P. douvillei</i> <i>H. tetradactylum</i> <i>L. sansaniense</i> <i>D. steinheimensis</i> <i>M. welcommi</i>	-	-	-	-	-
FTfv	Sh. MN2	MN7/8	-	-	-	-	MN4 MN6	-	MN5	-	-
HAfc9	Sh. <i>D. steinheimensis</i> <i>L. sansaniense</i>	<i>M. welcommi</i> <i>A. simorreense</i> <i>B. brachypus</i>	<i>H. tetradactylum</i> <i>P. blanfordi</i> <i>H. beonense</i> <i>P. balkanicum</i> <i>P. douvillei</i>	-	<i>P. mirallesi</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-

267

268 Except at Béon 1, the specific microwear sampling at each locality was very restricted ( $n < 5$ ), either  
269 due to low numbers of exploitable teeth available, or to the lack of well-preserved microwear texture  
270 on molars. In order to facilitate the understanding, the results are presented by locality  
271 (chronologically) and by species. At **Kumbi 4**, four species were considered for DMTA: *Pleuroceros*  
272 *blanfordi*, *Mesaceratherium welcommi*, *Gaiotherium cf. browni* (grinding facet only), and  
273 *Brachypotherium gajense* (grinding facet only). Figure 3 shows that Kumbi rhinocerotids display a  
274 great variety of microwear patterns. Only one specimen, belonging to *G. cf. browni*, is above the high  
275 anisotropy threshold of  $5 \times 10^{-3}$ , while all specimens of *B. gajense* and *G. cf. browni* but none of *P.*  
276 *blanfordi* display values above the high complexity cutpoint of 2. *Gaiotherium cf. browni* and *P.*  
277 *blanfordi* have large variations in anisotropy, from low values ( $\sim 1 \times 10^{-3}$ ) to high (about  $5 \times 10^{-3}$ ), but  
278 consistent values of complexity (around 3 and 1.4 respectively). Such a pattern associated with  
279 moderate (*P. blanfordi*) to high (*G. cf. browni*) values of Hasfc (Figure 4) point towards mixed-feeding  
280 diets, probably with the inclusion of harder objects for *G. cf. browni* (higher values of complexity). The  
281 signature for *B. gajense* is suggestive of browsing with low mean anisotropy ( $1.82 \times 10^{-3}$ ), but high  
282 means of complexity (4.58), FTfv ( $7.89 \times 10^4$ ), and HASfc (HASfc9 = 0.36; HASfc81 = 1). Eventually, *M.*  
283 *welcommi* presents low to moderate anisotropy values ( $< 4 \times 10^{-3}$ ), a moderate complexity ( $\sim 1.5$ ) and  
284 HASfc, but high FTfv ( $> 4 \times 10^4$ ) on both facets (Figure 4), which denotes browsing or mixed-feeding  
285 habits.

286

287 At **Béon 1**, the DMT patterns of the four rhinocerotids overlap contrary to that of Kumbi 4 rhinocerotids  
288 (Figure 3). The DMTA results are already detailed in Hullot et al. (2021). They suggest a mixed-  
289 feeding behavior for *H. beonense* with moderate anisotropy values (mostly  $< 4 \times 10^{-3}$ ), variable values  
290 of complexity (low-medium), moderate-high FTfv (around  $4 \times 10^4$ ), and moderate HASfc on both facets  
291 (Figure 4). *Plesiaceratherium mirallesi* is considered as a folivore due to low complexity ( $\sim 1$ ) and  
292 HASfc values but relatively high anisotropy (above  $5 \times 10^{-3}$ ), indicating an abrasive but not diversified  
293 diet. Concerning the teleoceratines, they display similar microwear textures (Figure 3; Figure 4),  
294 though *B. brachypus* has lower values of anisotropy ( $< 2 \times 10^{-3}$ ). This suggests that *B. brachypus* was  
295 probably a browser or a mixed-feeder, while *Pr. douvillei* was a browser favoring leaves.

296

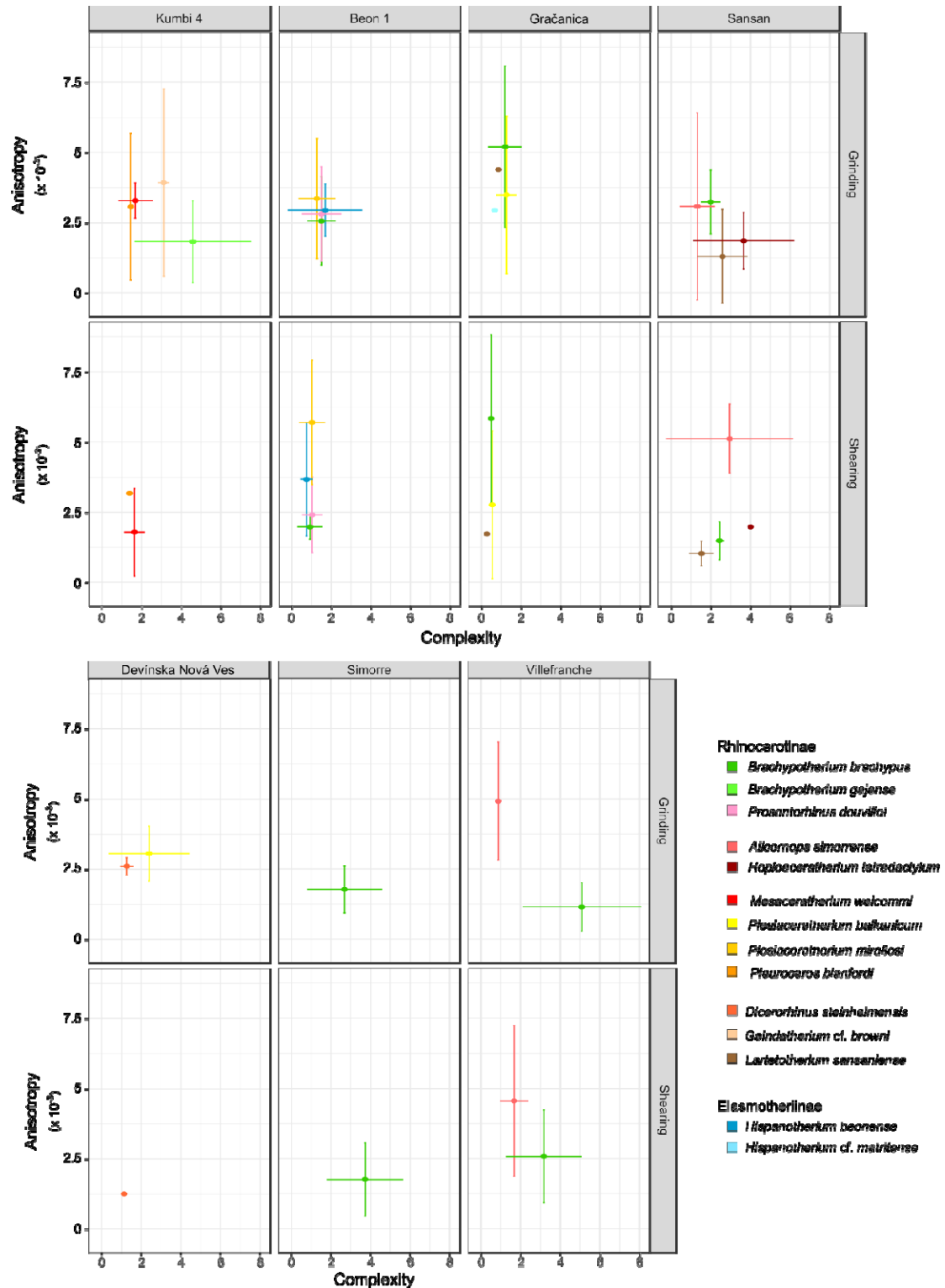
297 At **Gračanica**, we also observe a great overlapping in the DMT patterns. The complexity is very low  
298 for all rhinocerotids studied (mostly below 1) suggesting soft food items. Anisotropy varies greatly but  
299 HAsfc81 is consistently low ( $< 0.5$ ) for all species (Figure 4). This points towards soft browsing or  
300 folivory for all rhinocerotids at Gračanica.

301

302 At **Sansan**, the DMTA signatures of the rhinocerotids are more diversified and less overlapping,  
303 similarly to Kumbi 4 (Figure 3). *Lartetotherium sansaniense* and *H. tetradactylum* have low values of  
304 anisotropy ( $< 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ ) and moderate (1-2; *L. sansaniense*) to high ( $> 2$ ; *H. tetradactylum*) values of  
305 complexity, recalling browsers. The high values of HAsfc (Figure 4) for both species are compatible  
306 with a browsing diet. The other two species, *B. brachypus* and *A. simorreense*, are in the range of  
307 mixed-feeders (Figure 3), and have compatible moderate to high values of HAsfc. At **Devínska Nová**  
308 **Ves**, our restricted sample suggest browsing habits for both species *P. balkanicum* and *D.*  
309 *steinheimensis*, with moderate values of both anisotropy ( $\sim 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ ) and complexity (mostly between  
310 1 and 1.5). FTfv is high on both facets ( $> 4 \times 10^4$ ) and HAsfc moderate (Figure 3; Figure 4).

311

312 At **Simorre**, *B. brachypus* specimens display low values of anisotropy ( $< 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$  except two  
313 specimens), and high values of complexity ( $> 2$ ) and FTfv ( $> 4 \times 10^4$ ) on both facets. Values of HAsfc9  
314 are high ( $> 0.3$ ) on both facets, while that of HAsfc81 are moderate on the grinding facet (median =  
315 0.45) and high on the shearing one (median = 0.7). These DMTA results suggest browsing  
316 preferences with the inclusion of hard objects, probably fruits. At **Villefranche d'Astarac**, *B.*  
317 *brachypus* and *A. simorreense* present well-distinguished DMT patterns (Figure 3). *Brachypotherium*  
318 *brachypus* has low anisotropy values ( $< 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ ) and high complexity ones ( $> 2.5$ ) corresponding to  
319 a browsing signal, while the opposite is true for *A. simorreense*. The moderate values of HAsfc for *A.*  
320 *simorreense* suggest that folivory is more likely than mixed-feeding for these specimens and the  
321 corresponding individuals. Eventually the specimen of *A. simorreense* from **Steinheim am Albuch** has  
322 a moderate anisotropy (Grinding:  $3.56 \times 10^{-3}$ ; Shearing:  $2.27 \times 10^{-3}$ ), low (Shearing: 0.41) to moderate  
323 (Grinding: 1.6) complexity, a high FTfv on the grinding facet ( $8.35 \times 10^4$ ) but low on the shearing one  
324 ( $0.63 \times 10^4$ ), and low HAsfc on the shearing facet but moderate-high on the grinding one (Figure 4).  
325 This pattern is consistent with browsing or mixed-feeding habits.



326

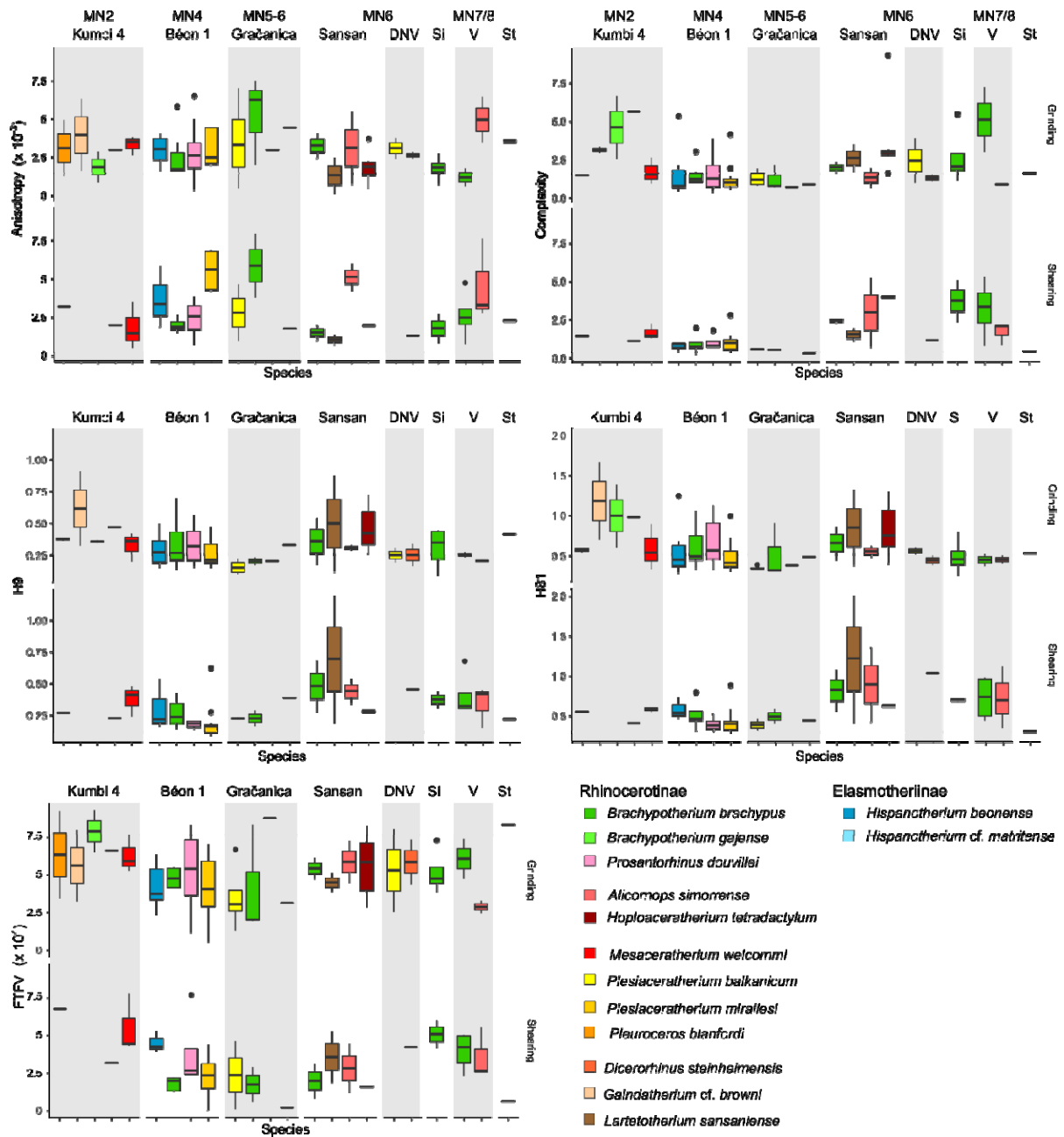
327 **Figure 3: Dental microwear results of early and middle Miocene rhinocerotids plotted as mean**

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

329 Localities organized chronologically. Béon 2 and Steinheim am Albuch not shown as not studied for

330 microwear and only one specimen respectively. Color code by species as indicated in the figure.

331



332

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

334 **boxplots of each DMTA parameter by facet and species.**

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

336 Villefranche d'Astarac. Béon 2 not on the graph as microwear was not studied on the concerned

337 rhinocerotids. Color code by species as indicated in the figure and consistent with Figure 3.



338 **GLMM:** For all response variables (epLsar, Asfc, FTfv, HAsfc9, and HAsfc81), model support  
339 increased (i.e., lower AIC) when intraspecific factors (e.g., Facet, Genus, Locality) were included. The  
340 final models contained three to seven factors, including Specimen, the random factor, by default in all  
341 models. Facet was in the final models of epLsar and FTfv, Locality and Age were found in the final  
342 models of Asfc and both HAsfc. Details and comparison of all models can be seen in electronic  
343 supplementary material S5 and S6. Differences by Locality were also observed. The rhinocerotid  
344 specimens from Béon 1 had a lower complexity than those of Kumbi 4, Sansan, Simorre, and  
345 Villefranche (df = 119,  $\alpha = 0.05$ , absolute t-values > 1.7), while Tukey's contrasts highlighted lower  
346 values of Asfc for the rhinocerotids at Gračanica than for those at Kumbi (p-value < 0.004), Simorre (p-  
347 value = 0.027), and Villefranche (p-value < 0.001). Moreover, Béon 1 rhinocerotids had lower HAsfc9  
348 and HAsfc81 values than Kumbi 4 and Sansan specimens (df = 119,  $\alpha = 0.05$ , absolute t-values >  
349 1.7). Tukey's contrasts also showed that Sansan rhinocerotids had higher HAsfc9 and HAsfc81 than  
350 those at Gračanica (p-value  $\leq 0.001$ ). The sampling site (tooth locus, position, side) had sometimes a  
351 confounding effect. For instance, M2 had higher epLsar values than M3 (df = 119,  $\alpha = 0.05$ , t-value = -  
352 1.95).

353

354 **GLMM - Comparison to extant dataset:** When compared to the extant dataset (see S8 for all  
355 details), we noticed that all fossil species had lower anisotropy values than the extant grazer  
356 *Ceratotherium simum* (white rhinoceros) and the folivore *Dicerorhinus sumatrensis* (Sumatran  
357 rhinoceros), although the classic t-value threshold was not reached for a few species (*P. blanfordi*, *G.*  
358 *cf. browni*, *B. gajense* [only regarding *C. simum*], *P. mirallesi*, and *A. simorrense*;  $\alpha = 0.95$ , |t-values|  $\leq$   
359 1.7). On the contrary, *P. mirallesi* displayed higher values of anisotropy than the extant browsers  
360 *Diceros bicornis* (black rhinoceros; t-value = 1.93) and *Rhinoceros sondaicus* (Javan rhinoceros; t-  
361 value = 2.66). Regarding complexity, *C. simum* and *D. sumatrensis* had lower values than *B. gajense*  
362 and *H. tetradactylum*, while the extant browsers had higher values than *P. balkanicum*, *P. douvillei*, *P.*  
363 *mirallesi*, and *H. beonense* ( $\alpha = 0.95$ , |t-values| > 1.7). All other DMTA parameters showed less  
364 differences between the extant and fossil datasets: *C. simum* and *R. sondaicus* had higher FTfv,  
365 HAsfc9, and HAsfc81 than *B. brachypus*, *P. balkanicum*, and *P. mirallesi* ( $\alpha = 0.95$ , |t-values| > 1.7).

366

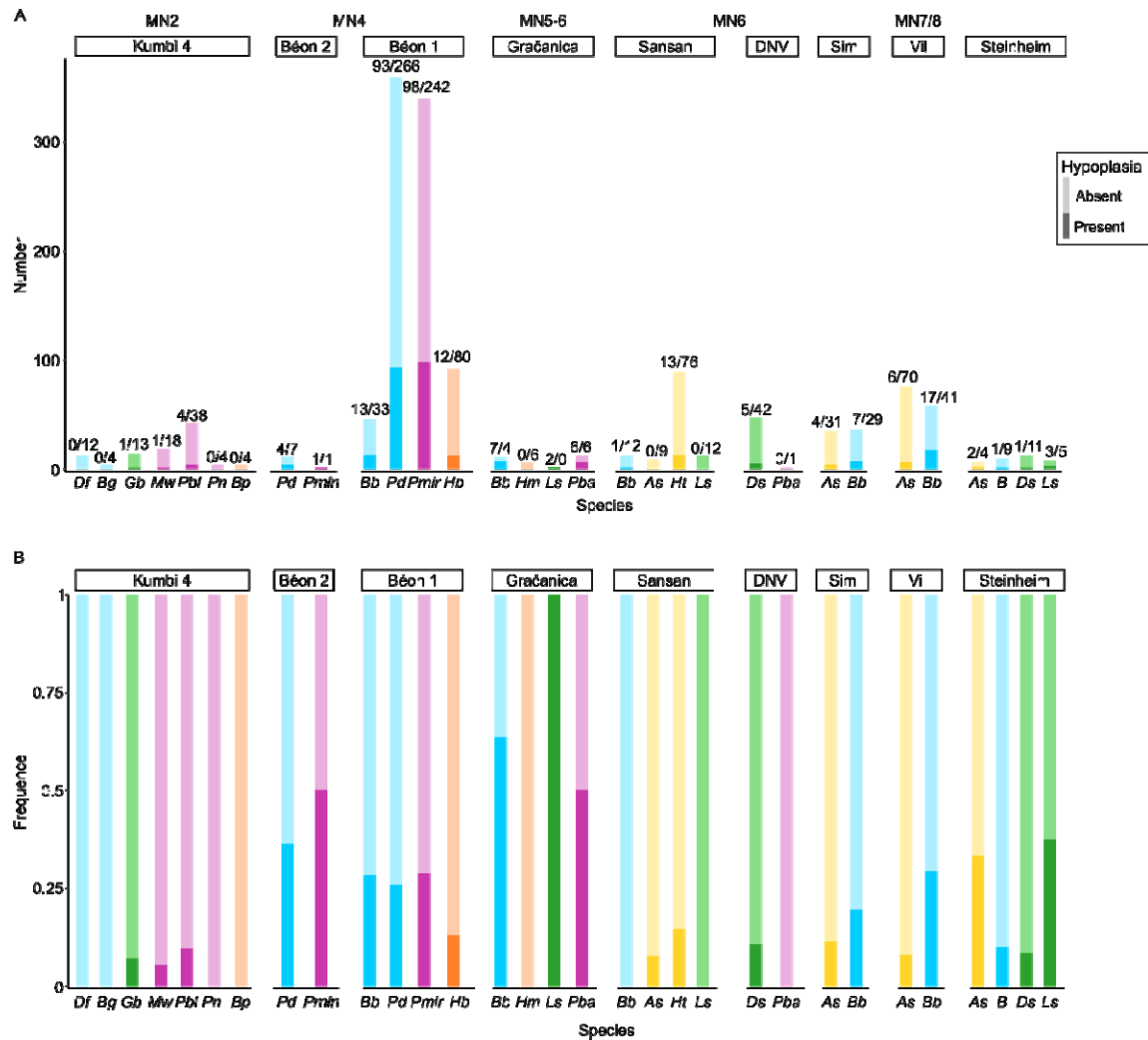
367

368 Hypoplasia

369 The overall prevalence of hypoplasia on rhinocerotid teeth from the early and middle Miocene  
370 localities studied is high, with 302 teeth affected out of 1401, corresponding to over 20 % (21.56 %).  
371 There are, however, marked discrepancies between species, localities, and tooth loci (Figure 5). The  
372 most affected genera were *Plesiaceratherium* (104/357; 29.13 %), *Prosantorhinus* (97/370; 26.22 %),  
373 and *Brachypotherium* (46/178; 25.84 %), but this resulted mostly from the dominance of Béon 1  
374 specimens in our sample. *Brachypotherium brachypus* was often one of the most affected species at  
375 all sites where the species was found, except Sansan (1/13; 7.69 %), contrary to *A. simorreense* often  
376 found associated with the latter species and relatively spared by hypoplasia (maximum 4/35 = 11.43 %  
377 of teeth affected at Simorre; Figure 6).

378

379 The prevalence was above 10 % for all localities except Kumbi 4, for which the overall prevalence is  
380 low (6/99; 6.06 %; Table 4). Hypoplasia defects are quite rare at Kumbi 4 for all species studied, and  
381 even null for the teleoceratine species (*D. fatehjangense* and *B. gajense*), *Bugtirhinus praecursor*, and  
382 *Plesiaceratherium naricum* (Figure 6). Only *Pleuroceros blanfordi* appears a little more affected (4/42;  
383 9.52 %), totaling four of the six hypoplasias observed at the locality. Hypoplasia is also relatively  
384 limited at Sansan (14/132; 10.61 %) and Devínska Nová Ves (5/48; 10.42 %), with only *B. brachypus*  
385 and *H. tetradactylum* affected at Sansan, and *D. steinheimensis* from the latter (Table 4 ; Figure 6). On  
386 the contrary, the rhinocerotids from Béon 1, Béon 2, and Gračanica are very affected, with more than  
387 25 % of the teeth presenting at least one hypoplasia at Béon 1 (216/832; 25.96 %) and Béon 2 (5/18;  
388 27.78 %), and nearly 50 % at Gračanica (15/31; 48.39 %; Table 4). At these sites, the prevalence of  
389 hypoplasia is high for all species but the elasmotheriines (Figure 6). Indeed, the elasmotheriines of all  
390 sites were relatively spared (*H. beonense* at Béon 1: 13.04 %) or even not affected by hypoplasia (*B.*  
391 *praecursor* at Kumbi 4 and *H. cf. matritense* at Gračanica).



392

393 **Figure 5: Number (A) and Frequency (B) of hypoplasia by Locality and Species**

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

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

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

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

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

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

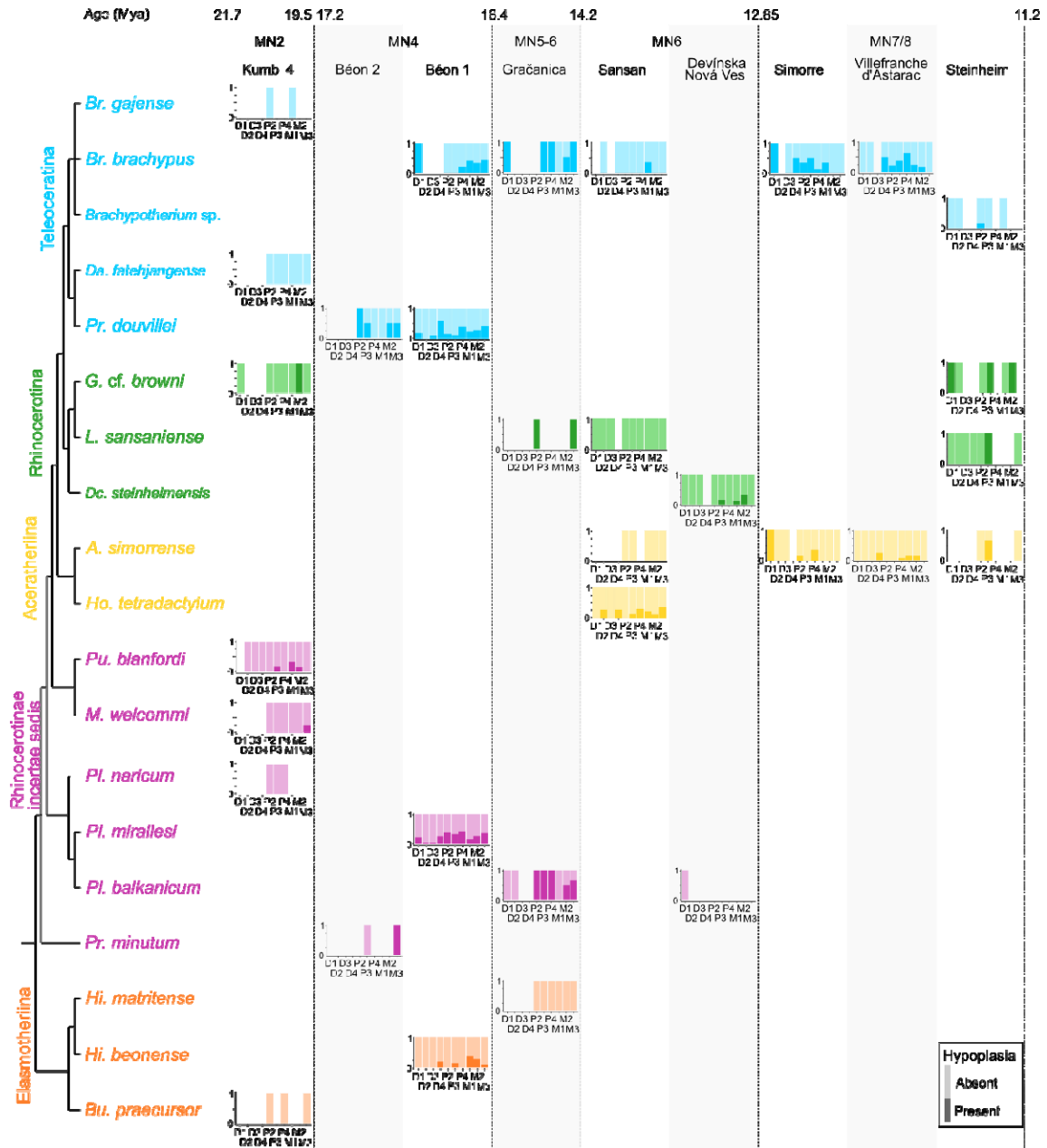
400 *Gaindatherium* cf. *browni*, *Mw*: *Mesaceratherium welcommi*, *Pbl*: *Pleuroceros blanfordi*, *Pn*:

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

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

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

404 *Plesiaceratherium balkanicum*, As: *Alicornops simorreense*, Ht: *Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum*, Ds:  
 405 *Dicerorhinus steinheimensis*, B: *Brachypotherium* sp.  
 406



407  
 408 **Figure 6: Prevalence of hypoplasia by locality, species and tooth locus plotted against**  
 409 **phylogeny**

410 Phylogenetic relationships follow formal parsimony analyses (Antoine, 2002; Antoine et al., 2010,  
 411 2022; Becker et al., 2013; Tissier et al., 2020).

412 Subtribes colored in blue: Teleoceratina, in green: Rhinocerotina; in yellow: Aceratheriina, in pink:  
413 stem Rhinocerotinae, and in orange: Elasmotheriina  
414 Dark colors: hypoplastic teeth; Light colors: unaffected teeth

415

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

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

417

418 Regarding the loci, milk teeth (47/294; 15.99 %) were overall less affected by hypoplasia than  
419 permanent ones (255/1107; 23.04 %; Table 5). Indeed, besides at Béon 1, very few milk molars are  
420 hypoplastic (one D1/d1 at Gračanica and Steinheim, two D1 at Simorre, two D2 and 1 d4 at Sansan, 4  
421 D4/d4 at Villefranche d'Astarac). Upper and lower teeth were equally affected (Kruskal-Wallis,  $df = 1$ ,  
422  $p$ -value = 0.11), with respectively 19.86 % (144/725) and 23.37 % (158/676) of teeth bearing  
423 hypoplasia. The most affected locus was the fourth milk molar with 38.24 % (26/68), while the least  
424 affected were second and third milk molars with around 4 % affected (3/68 and 3/72 respectively;  
425 Table 5). Other loci particularly affected were fourth premolars (60/200; 30 %), third molars (50/188;  
426 26.60 %), and second molars (49/202; 24.26 %; Table 5). Once again, these findings mostly result  
427 from the dominance of Béon 1 specimens in the sample, and great differences in the hypoplasia  
428 pattern are observed by locality (Figure 6). Indeed, if virtually all tooth loci are likely to be affected for  
429 Béon 1 rhinocerotids, the pattern is less varied at other localities although it seemingly diversifies with  
430 sample size (e.g., *H. tetradactylum* from Sansan and Villefranche d'Astarac). For instance, hypoplastic  
431 teeth are nearly exclusively molars at Kumbi 4 (with only one defect on a p3), and permanent teeth at  
432 Gračanica (only one defect on a D1; Figure 6).

433

434 **GLMM:** For all response variables (Hypo, Defect, Multiple, Localization, and Severity), model support  
435 increased (lower AIC) when intraspecific factors (e.g., Tooth Loci, Genus, Locality) were included.

436 When Genus was not forced into the models, the final models contained three to six factors, including  
437 Specimen, the random factor, by default in all models. Defect (converted to a factor) was in the final  
438 models of all concerned variables (Multiple, Localization, and Severity). Genus was in the final models  
439 of all variables but Localization. Position was in the final models of Hypo, Defect, and Localization,  
440 while Tooth, and Wear were in that of Hypo and Defect. Details and comparison of all models can be  
441 seen in electronic supplementary material S5 and S7.

442

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

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

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

445

446

447 Based on GLMMs results, we can assess the influence of Genus, Locality, and Tooth on the  
448 hypoplasia pattern. *Alicornops* was less affected than *Brachypotherium* (p-value = 0.015), while  
449 *Plesiaceratherium* was more prone to hypoplasia than *Hispanotherium* (p-value = 0.02). GLMMs  
450 revealed differences in the patterns of hypoplasia (i.e., type of defects and their frequencies) between  
451 *Brachypotherium* and the following taxa: *Dicerorhinus* (p-value = 0.0046), *Alicornops* (p-value <  
452 0.001), and *Protaceratherium* (p-value = 0.034). Tukey's contrasts also revealed the lowest p-values  
453 between *Alicornops* and the following taxa: *Hispanotherium* (p-value = 0.064), *Plesiaceratherium* (p-  
454 value < 0.01), *Prosantorhinus* (p-value < 0.01), *Protaceratherium* (p-value = 0.05). Eventually  
455 *Dicerorhinus* had a different hypoplasia pattern than *Plesiaceratherium* (p-value = 0.034) and  
456 *Prosantorhinus* (p-value = 0.071).

457 Regarding tooth loci, all teeth but fourth premolars and third molars were less affected than fourth milk  
458 molars (p-values < 0.05). The results further suggested that the most commonly affected loci were  
459 third molars, fourth premolars and fourth milk molars, while the least affected were all milk molars but  
460 the fourth. Concerning localities, Gračanica teeth were significantly more affected than Béon 1 and  
461 Sansan specimens (p-values  $\approx$  0.01). Middle Miocene rhinocerotids presented a hypoplasia pattern  
462 distinct from that of early Miocene ones (p-value = 0.019). Similarly to GLMMs for DMTA, we observed  
463 confounding effects. Slightly-worn teeth had less hypoplasia than average worn (p-value = 0.005) and  
464 very worn teeth (p-value = 0.026).

465

## 466 **Discussion**

467

### 468 Dietary preferences and niche partitioning of the rhinocerotids studied

469 The comparison of the fossil specimens DMT to that of extant ones highlighted marked differences.  
470 This suggests that the dietary spectrum of extinct rhinocerotids might have been very distinct from that  
471 observed in living species (Hullot et al., 2019). However, the microwear textures of the fossils are  
472 critically distinct from that of the only extant strict grazer *Ceratotherium simum*, banning such dietary  
473 preferences for the studied fossil specimens. This finding is not surprising as grasses and associated  
474 grazing ungulates expended only during latest Miocene in Eurasia (Janis, 2008). The reconstructed  
475 dietary preferences based on DMTA are presented in Table 6 by locality and by species.

476

477 The DMTA results of fossil specimens on both facets (Figure 3; Figure 4) suggest a clear niche  
478 partitioning based on feeding preferences for the rhinocerotid specimens studied at Kumbi 4, Sansan,  
479 and Villefranche d'Astarac. Although DMT could only be explored in four out of the nine rhinocerotid  
480 species present at Kumbi 4, the patterns observed indicate clear differences in the feeding behaviors,  
481 even if leaf consumption seems to be a major component for all rhinocerotids studied but *B. gajense*.  
482 This finding is in line with the inferred lush vegetation under warm and moist climatic conditions  
483 proposed for this locality, providing abundant and diverse feeding resources for the many large  
484 herbivores present (Antoine et al., 2010, 2013; Martin et al., 2011).

485 **Table 6: Dietary preferences inferred from textural microwear (DMTA) of the studied**  
 486 **rhinocerotid specimens from different fossil localities of the early and middle Miocene of**  
 487 **Eurasia.**

488 Extant species are provided as a comparison, based on the work of Hullot et al. (2019)

489 Color code: brown/B – browser, blue/M – mixed-feeder, pale green/F – folivore, vivid green/G –

490 grazer, vivid green/VG – variable grazer, no color/x – not studied

	Kumbi 4	Béon 2	Béon 1	Gračanica	Sansan	Devínska Nová Ves Spalte	Simorre	Villefranche d'Astarac	Steinheim am Albuch	Extant species
Rhinocerotinae										
<i>Mesaceratherium welcommi</i>	M									
<i>Pleuroceros blanfordi</i>	M									
<i>Protaceratherium</i> sp.	x									
<i>Protaceratherium minutum</i>		x								
<i>Plesiaceratherium naricum</i>	x									
<i>Plesiaceratherium mirallesi</i>		x	F							
<i>Plesiaceratherium balkanicum</i>				F		B				
<i>Plesiaceratherium</i> sp.										
<i>Hoploaceratherium tetradactylum</i>					B					
<i>Alicornops simorreense</i>					M		x	F	M	
<i>Ceratotherium simum</i>										G
<i>Diceros bicornis</i>										B
<i>Gaindatherium</i> cf. <i>browni</i>	M									
<i>Lartetotherium sansaniense</i>				B	B			x		
<i>Dicerorhinus steinheimensis</i>						B		x		
<i>Dicerorhinus sumatrensis</i>										F
<i>Rhinoceros unicornis</i>										VG
<i>Rhinoceros sondaicus</i>										B
<i>Diaceratherium fatehjangense</i>	x									
<i>Brachypotherium gajense</i>	B									
<i>Brachypotherium brachypus</i>			M	F	M		B	B		
<i>Brachypotherium</i> sp.									x	
<i>Prosantorhinus shahbazi</i>	x									
<i>Prosantorhinus douvillei</i>		x	B							
Elasmotheriinae										
<i>Bugtirhinus praecursor</i>	x									
<i>Hispanotherium beonense</i>			M							
<i>Hispanotherium</i> cf. <i>matritense</i>				M						

491

492 The dietary preferences reconstructed for Sansan rhinocerotids suggest the co-occurrence of two  
 493 browsers (*L. sansaniense* and *H. tetradactylum*, the latter including harder items in its diet) and two  
 494 mixed-feeders (*A. simorreense* and *B. brachypus*), coherent with the warm (16 to 19°C mean annual  
 495 temperatures) forested environment reconstructed for that locality (Costeur et al., 2012), but at odds  
 496 with the recent-like Miocene coolhouse as depicted by Westerhold et al. (2020; ~415 parts per million



497 CO<sub>2</sub>). This discrepancy could be due to differences between local and global climatic conditions or to  
498 a problematic dating of the locality of Sansan (Sen and Ginsburg, 2000; Maridet and Sen, 2012).  
499 Moreover, the niche partitioning was probably accentuated by different habitat preferences as  
500 suggested in the literature: *H. tetradactylum* is mostly found in swamp or fluvial sediments indicating  
501 wet habitat preferences contrary to *A. simorreense*, while *B. brachypus* seems intermediate and *L.*  
502 *sansaniense* generalist (Heissig, 2012). Eventually, we observed obvious differences in the dietary  
503 preferences for *A. simorreense* (folivore or mixed-feeder favoring leaves) and *B. brachypus* (browser  
504 including hard objects) at Villefranche d'Astarac, where a humid forested environment is hypothesized  
505 (Bentaleb et al., 2006).

506

507 On the contrary, an overlap of microwear textures, especially for the grinding facet, is observed for the  
508 localities of Béon 1 and Gračanica. Besides diet, different habitats and feeding heights might result in  
509 niche partitioning (Hutchinson, 1959; Arsenault and Owen-Smith, 2008). Concerning Béon 1, a partial  
510 niche partitioning due to habitat differences has been hypothesized for the rhinocerotids – swamps for  
511 both teleoceratines *B. brachypus* and *P. douvillei*, open woodland for *P. mirallesi*, and savannah-like  
512 open environments for *H. beonense* (Bentaleb et al., 2006) – and subtle dietary differences are  
513 discussed in Hullot et al. (2021) in the light of the combination of molar mesowear and dental  
514 microwear texture analysis. At Gračanica, low-magnification microwear and mesowear score already  
515 revealed an overlap in the dietary preferences of *Pl. balkanicum* and *B. brachypus* as two browsing  
516 species, but the microwear pattern of the latter likely suggests dirty browsing (i.e., browsers ingesting  
517 abrasive dust, grit, or dirt with their forage; Rivals et al., 2014), a dietary category however not defined  
518 by comparative datasets on intensively studied extant species with known diet. Although microwear  
519 sampling is restricted and includes premolars for the other two rhinocerotids (*L. sansaniense* and *H.*  
520 *cf. matritense*), it points towards different mixed-feeding behaviors, most likely with a dominance of  
521 grass in the diet of *H. cf. matritense* (Xafis et al., 2020). The very low values of complexity for all  
522 Gračanica rhinocerotids in our sample, combined to relatively high values of anisotropy (Figure 3;  
523 Figure 4), recalls the feeding preferences and microwear textures of the extant *Dicerorhinus*  
524 *sumatrensis* (Sumatran rhino; Hullot et al., 2019). This could suggest an important consumption of  
525 leaves for all species, as well as a very low amount of lignified tissues that would have required more  
526 grinding to get access to cell content. Interestingly, the reconstructed environment at this locality

527 (based on mammal assemblage and flora) is a lowland swamp surrounded by a closed canopy-like  
528 environment (Butzmann et al., 2020; Xafis et al., 2020), meaning that leaves would have been an  
529 abundant resource. Eventually, the restricted DMTA sample from Devínska Nová Ves Spalte,  
530 Steinheim am Albuch, and Simorre suggest browsing or mixed-feeding habits for all specimens  
531 studied, but did not allow to conclude on potential competition for food resources.

532

### 533 Interactions with co-occurring herbivores

534 Besides other rhinocerotid species, the individuals studied co-occurred with many other herbivore  
535 mammals. The co-occurrence is inferred based on the retrieving from the same stratigraphic level  
536 (Kumbi 4: Antoine et al., 2010; Gračanica: Göhlich and Mandic, 2020; Steinheim: Tütken et al., 2006)  
537 or by attested interactions between some species (Béon 1: trampling marks, Antoine pers. obs.,  
538 Sansan: Aiglstorfer et al., 2019). Although co-occurrence is not necessarily a good proxy for ecological  
539 interactions (Blanchet et al., 2020), it is possible that some of these herbivores were competing for or  
540 partitioning food resources with the rhinocerotids. Unfortunately, very little has been studied  
541 concerning the dietary preferences of the fauna at most of the studied localities with the notable  
542 exceptions of Gračanica (Göhlich and Mandic, 2020) and Sansan (Peigné and Sen, 2012).

543

544 Indeed, recent studies on dental wear (micro- and meso- wear) or stable isotopy, suggested frugivory  
545 for some associated species such as tragulids (*Dorcatherium* spp. at all localities but Simorre and  
546 Villefranche; Aiglstorfer et al., 2014; Xafis et al., 2020), the middle Miocene Moschidae (*Micromeryx*  
547 spp. found at Sansan, Simorre and Steinheim am Albuch; Aiglstorfer and Semprebon, 2019) or the  
548 chalicothere *Metaschizotherium fraasi* (found at Steinheim am Albuch; Semprebon et al., 2011).

549 Interestingly, no rhinocerotid specimens studied here seemingly favored fruits, although they might  
550 have included some in their diet (*B. brachypus* from Simorre) or consumed some seasonally, which  
551 might not be detected by DMTA.

552

553 Similarly, the lophodont suid *Listriodon splendens*, found at Gračanica, Devínska Nová Ves, and  
554 Simorre, might have favored grasses (Van der Made, 2003; Xafis et al., 2020), a resource not  
555 dominant in the diet of the sampled rhinocerotids neither. Otherwise, the vast majority of herbivore  
556 species were probably browsers or mixed-feeders, in good agreement with the statement by Eronen

557 and Rössner (2007) that these forms are dominant between MN4 and MN9. This is for instance the  
558 case of the associated perissodactyl species *Anisodon grande* (Chalicotheriidae), which low-  
559 magnification microwear signal at Devínska Nová Ves suggests folivory (Semprebon et al., 2011), and  
560 *Anchitherium* spp. (Equidae) ranging from generalists to dirty browsers depending on the locality  
561 (Kaiser, 2009; Xafis et al., 2020).

562

563 Within browsers and mixed-feeders, resources partitioning is still possible (consumption of different  
564 plant parts or species) but might be difficult to detect in fossil communities. Moreover, other strategies  
565 can lead to niche partitioning, such as different habitat, different body mass, or different feeding height  
566 (Hutchinson, 1959; Schoener, 1974; Arsenault and Owen-Smith, 2008). Regarding body mass, most  
567 rhinocerotids studied are megaherbivores *sensu* Owen-Smith (1988; terrestrial herbivores weighting  
568 more than 1000 kg), which implies specific feeding strategies and metabolic requirements.  
569 Megaherbivores are often treated as a separate herbivore guild, mostly disturbing the feeding and  
570 abundance of mesoherbivores (4–450 kg ; Fritz et al., 2002; Calandra et al., 2008; Landman et al.,  
571 2013). Within megaherbivores, proboscideans frequently co-occurred with rhinocerotids at the studied  
572 localities and were mostly browsers or mixed-feeders, placing them as direct competitors for  
573 rhinocerotids. Indeed, the mesowear and low-magnification microwear suggest that *Prodeinotherium*  
574 *bavaricum* and *Gomphotherium angustidens* were browsers at Gračanica (Xafis et al. 2020), while the  
575 mesowear angle categorizes *P. bavaricum* from Sansan, *D. giganteum* from Villefranche d'Astarac  
576 and *G. angustidens* from Simorre as browsers, but *G. angustidens* from Sansan and Villefranche  
577 d'Astarac as mixed-feeders (Loponen, 2020). Such overlapping in the diet of proboscideans and  
578 rhinocerotids is observed nowadays between African elephants and black rhinoceroses (Landman et  
579 al., 2013). Interestingly, this competition is detrimental to the rhinoceros, with individuals shifting  
580 towards the inclusion of more grasses in presence of elephants (on a seasonal basis). A similar shift  
581 could be hypothesized at the studied localities, notably at Gračanica, for which the low-magnification  
582 microwear of *P. bavaricum* and *L. sansaniense* would be consistent (Xafis et al. 2020). Another  
583 possibility, as postulated by Xafis et al. (2020) for *Deinotherium* spp. and *Plesiaceratherium*  
584 *balkanicum* at Gračanica, would be different feeding heights between proboscideans and  
585 rhinocerotids, as the first ones were most likely feeding at the top of trees due to their larger size  
586 (some of the biggest Neogene mammals; Larramendi, 2015).

587

588 Hypoplasia prevalence and environmental conditions

589 We found that the hypoplasia prevalence and pattern (i.e., tooth loci affected) were very different  
590 depending on the locality and the species concerned. Except for Kumbi 4, the prevalence was  
591 relatively high (> 10 %) at all sites of our early-middle Miocene sample. Even though nine species of  
592 rhinocerotids are found at Kumbi 4, such a low prevalence is in agreement with previous results in the  
593 region over the Cenozoic (Roohi et al., 2015), and coherent with the very favorable, low-stress context  
594 hypothesized at this locality, that is a rich vegetation under a warm and humid climate (Antoine et al.,  
595 2013).

596

597 The prevalence of hypoplasia is high at Béon 1 (>25 %) for all rhinocerotids except *H. beonense*, with  
598 molars being particularly affected with respect to other dental loci. Second and third molars are the last  
599 teeth to develop and erupt in rhinocerotids (Hitchins, 1978; Hillman-Smith et al., 1986; Böhmer et al.,  
600 2016), and stresses on these late-developed teeth have been correlated with environmental, seasonal  
601 stresses in sheep (Upex and Dobney, 2012). Although subtropical wet conditions are reconstructed at  
602 Béon 1 (just prior to the MCO), periodic droughts are also reported in the area at that time (Duranthon  
603 et al., 1999; Hullot and Antoine, 2020). Interestingly, the least affected species is the elasmotheriine *H.*  
604 *beonense*, an early representative of a clade adapted to relatively open and arid environments  
605 (Cerdeño and Nieto, 1995; Iñigo and Cerdeño, 1997), and which displays a mixed-feeding diet thus  
606 probably not relying on a single (or a few) specific resource(s) (Figure 4). On the contrary, both  
607 teleoceratine species, often considered swamp dwellers hence probably depending on water  
608 availability, display a high prevalence of hypoplasia (Figure 5).

609

610 We found a very high prevalence of hypoplasia at Gračanica, with nearly 50 % of the teeth bearing at  
611 least one hypoplastic defect. The proposed age for the locality ranges between 14.8 and 13.8 Ma  
612 (Göhlich and Mandic, 2020), which is an interval of great climatic changes. Indeed, though included in  
613 the MCO, the interval from 14.7 to 14.5 Ma present an increased seasonality in precipitations, with  
614 extended dry periods (Böhme, 2003). On the other hand, an abrupt cooling occurred between 14 and  
615 13.5 Ma, correlating with the Mi-3 event (Zachos et al., 2001; Böhme, 2003; Holbourn et al., 2014;  
616 mMCT of Westerhold et al., 2020). Besides this challenging environmental context for the

617 rhinocerotids, our DMTA results suggest a potential competition for food resources (Figure 3), that  
618 could have generated stressful conditions.

619

620 At Sansan, the prevalence of hypoplasia is overall moderate (~ 10 %) and defects are only found in  
621 two species out of four: *H. tetradactylum* and *B. brachypus* (only one M1). The pattern of hypoplasia  
622 for *H. tetradactylum*, with various loci affected, suggests different stresses and timing, from *in utero*  
623 (D2) to post-weaning (M3). It is quite remarkable, as the proximity of the MCO peak (Maridet and Sen,  
624 2012) leading to seasonal warm and moist conditions (Costeur et al., 2012), would seemingly  
625 constitute relatively low stress conditions for the concerned rhinocerotids.

626

627 The prevalence of hypoplasia at Devínska Nová Ves Spalte is also moderate (5/48; 10.42 %) and  
628 restricted to *D. steinheimensis* (P3, M1, M2 only; Figure 6), although the locality dates from the  
629 mMCT. However, despite this transitional climatic system, pollen data from the Vienna Basin, to which  
630 the locality belongs, indicate that regional conditions remained tropical with few precipitation variations  
631 (Sabol and Kováč, 2006), coherent with the absence of hypoplasia on third molars, that can be  
632 correlated with seasonal stresses. The paleogeographic context seems to have played a major role,  
633 as the taxonomic differences with Sansan are partly explained by different paleoenvironments:  
634 Devínska Nová Ves Spalte was a forested area near the shoreline of the transgressive late Langhian  
635 sea (Sabol and Kováč, 2006).

636

637 The rhinocerotids from the localities of the MN7/8 (Simorre, Villefranche d'Astarac, and Steinheim am  
638 Albuch), a time of sea-level drop and comparatively dry climate (Legendre et al., 2005; Böhme et al.,  
639 2011; Heissig, 2012; Westerhold et al., 2020), presented higher prevalences but contrasted patterns  
640 depending on the species and locality (Figure 5; Figure 6). However, contrary to what we could have  
641 expected regarding the environmental conditions, the most affected loci (P2, P3, D1) document mostly  
642 early-life stresses (e.g., birth, juvenile disease), rather than environmental or seasonal stresses (Niven  
643 et al., 2004; Upex and Dobney, 2012). At Steinheim, only *L. sansaniense* has hypoplasia on other  
644 teeth than second and third premolars, suggesting mostly early-life stresses. At Simorre, more loci are  
645 affected (D1, P2-P3, P4, and M1) and the pattern is relatively similar for both co-occurring species i.e.,  
646 *B. brachypus* and *A. simorreense*. Hypoplasia on D1, that develops mostly *in utero* synchronously with

647 D4, could indicate birth-related stresses (Hillman-Smith et al., 1986; Mead, 1999; Böhmer et al., 2016).  
648 Indeed, birth is a stressful moment for most animals as it causes a temporary malnutrition and rapid  
649 environmental change (Upex and Dobney, 2012). Similarly, the M1 starts its development relatively  
650 early, attested by the presence of a neonatal line in some rhinocerotid teeth (Tafforeau et al., 2007),  
651 and hypoplasia on M1 could thus reveal particularly stressful conditions around birth. Eventually, the  
652 rhinocerotids from Villefranche d'Astarac document later-life stresses, with hypoplasia recorded from  
653 D4 to M2 (not P2-P3 for *A. simorreense*). The fourth premolars are particularly affected in *B. brachypus*,  
654 which could indicate harsh weaning or cow-calf separation conditions. Interestingly, the timing of  
655 weaning varies according to climatic conditions in proboscideans (shorter under favorable conditions),  
656 and a delayed weaning renders the individuals more vulnerable to climatic stressors (Metcalf et al.,  
657 2010).

658

#### 659 Paleoecological implications and changes

660 Several species or genera are retrieved in various localities overtime, but *B. brachypus* clearly has the  
661 longest range (from Béon 1 [MN4] to Simorre + Villefranche d'Astarac [MN7/8], with Gračanica [MN5-  
662 6] and Sansan [MN6] in the meantime). We observe a clear shift in the DMT of *B. brachypus* over time  
663 from a mixed-feeding behavior at Béon 1, Gračanica, and Sansan to a clear browsing signal with the  
664 ingestion of harder items (fruits, seeds, or even soil) at Simorre and Villefranche d'Astarac (Figure 3;  
665 Figure 4). This result could be due to a change in the regional climatic conditions, from warm and  
666 humid pre-MCO to cooler, more seasonal and arid post-MCO (Zachos et al., 2001; Böhme, 2003;  
667 Holbourn et al., 2014), perhaps leading to behavioral changes in this species (Cerdeño and Nieto,  
668 1995), and/or to changes in local conditions. Interestingly, the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of carbonates in the bioapatite of  
669 *B. brachypus* teeth at Béon 1, Sansan, and Simorre also shows marked differences with a 2.9 ‰  
670 decrease between MN4 and MN7/8, suggesting paleoenvironmental changes over time (Bentaleb et  
671 al., 2006). As the prevalence of hypoplasia is also very high at all localities but Sansan for this  
672 rhinocerotid, a dietary shift due to competition with other herbivores could also be hypothesized.  
673 Eventually, the DMT pattern at Gračanica is more singular, with high values of anisotropy ( $> 5 \times 10^{-3}$ ).  
674 The low-magnification microwear of *B. brachypus* was also studied at Gračanica, and the authors  
675 discussed a dirty browsing behavior, consistent with the low head posture of this rhinocerotid (Becker  
676 and Tissier, 2020; Xafis et al., 2020). Such ingestion of abrasive soil particles could explain the high

677 anisotropies observed in the studied specimens, but not the relatively low values of complexity and  
678 FTfv. Such a DMT pattern recalls that of the extant species (Scott, 2012; Ramdarshan et al., 2016),  
679 notably *D. sumatrensis* (Hullot et al., 2019), and could point towards an important consumption of  
680 leaves from low vegetation (folivory). This diet would be consistent with the abundance of trees at  
681 Gračanica (Butzmann et al., 2020; Xafis et al., 2020),  
682  
683 Contrastingly, the DMT of *A. simorreense* remains quite similar from Sansan (MN6) to Steinheim  
684 (MN7/8; Figure 3; Figure 4). Interestingly, there are clear differences in the hypoplasia prevalence of  
685 these two species, *B. brachypus* being one of the most affected species in our sample. Such  
686 differences in the hypoplasia prevalence could reveal the existence of a competition for food and/or  
687 water resources, responsible for a shift in the diet of *B. brachypus*. The pattern of hypoplasia at  
688 Simorre (D1, P2-P3) and Villefranche d'Astarac (D4-M1, P4-M2) suggests early life stresses for both  
689 rhinocerotids (Figure 6), mostly before weaning (Mead, 1999), which does not give insight into such a  
690 competition.  
691  
692 Concerning other rhinocerotid species found at more than one locality (*L. sansaniense*, *D.*  
693 *steinheimensis*, and *Plesiaceratherium* spp.), the hypoplasia patterns seem to be different at each  
694 locality, denoting a greater effect of local conditions than species-related sensitivities. Only the  
695 *Plesiaceratherium* species from Béon 1 and Gračanica exhibit comparable patterns (Figure 6),  
696 although it could be related to the high prevalence of stresses for individuals belonging to the  
697 concerned taxa at these localities. Overall, the elasmotheriines (*Bugtirhinus*, *Hispanotherium*) were  
698 seemingly spared by hypoplasia. Indeed, no teeth was hypoplastic at Kumbi 4 (*B. praecursor*; 0/4) and  
699 Gračanica (*H. cf. matritense*; 0/6). At Béon 1, for which a greater sample is available, *H. beonense* is  
700 the least affected species with 13.04 % (12/92) of hypoplastic teeth, nearly exclusively permanent  
701 (only one hypoplasia on a D4). If this result was not surprising at Kumbi 4, where low-stress conditions  
702 were inferred and very little hypoplasia recorded for all studied species, the difference with other  
703 associated species was particularly striking at Béon 1 and Gračanica. The microwear study of  
704 elasmotheriines is restricted in the literature, but it suggests the inclusion of a non-negligible part of  
705 browse resources in the diet, at least seasonally (Rivals et al., 2020; Xafis et al., 2020). This finding is  
706 in line with our DMTA results for *Hispanotherium* species (Béon 1 and Gračanica) suggesting mixed-



707 feeding preferences (Figure 3; Figure 4). The increasing crown height observed in this clade over time  
708 could allow for accommodating to a greater variety of food items (Semprebon and Rivals, 2007;  
709 Damuth and Janis, 2011; Tütken et al., 2013), thus limiting nutritional stress, as observed in  
710 hipparionine equids, with respect to anchitheriine equids (MacFadden, 1992; Janis, 2008; Muhlbachler  
711 et al., 2011). The classic view of elasmotheriines as obligate open-environment rhinocerotids adapted  
712 to grazing – notably based on representatives from the arid Iberic Peninsula (Iñigo and Cerdeño,  
713 1997) – is thus somehow challenged. This could mean that hypsodonty in this clade might  
714 counterbalance significant grit load induced by feeding low in open environments, thus reflecting more  
715 the habitat rather than the diet, an hypothesis that has already been proposed to explain hypsodonty  
716 evolution (Janis, 1988; Jardine et al., 2012; Semprebon et al., 2019). A lower prevalence of hypoplasia  
717 in elasmotheriines compared to other associated rhinocerotids has also been noted at Maragha (in the  
718 latest Miocene, though), where *Iranotherium morgani* does not present hypoplastic defects (0/16 teeth;  
719 Hullot et al., 2022). This finding could suggest an influence of the diet in the stress susceptibility, with  
720 more specialized species heavily relying on a limited number of resources being more sensitive.

721

## 722 **Conclusions**

723

724 In this article, we wanted to assess if the great diversity of Miocene Rhinocerotidae was associated to  
725 an ecological disparity and to explore paleoecological differences associated with climate changes  
726 between the studied species, region, and periods. The study of the paleoecology of rhinocerotids from  
727 9 localities of the early and middle Miocene of Europe and Pakistan revealed clear differences over  
728 time and space between and within species. Although the DMTA results in this sample suggested only  
729 browsers and mixed-feeders (no grazers and frugivores), we observed differences within these dietary  
730 categories that exceeds the paleoecological range of extant relatives. Regarding enamel hypoplasia,  
731 which is rather prevalent in the studied sample (except in the oldest and only South Asian locality,  
732 Kumbi 4), it revealed clear disparities between localities, species, and dental loci. While the effects of  
733 global climate changes (MCO, mMCT) were often not immediately obvious, hypoplasia revealed itself  
734 as marker of more specific, local conditions at least in certain taxa (Rhinocerotina). Indeed, our sample  
735 highlighted various stress susceptibility depending on the species and even the sub-tribe: while *B.*  
736 *brachypus* is highly affected by hypoplasia regardless of locality and conditions, elasmotheriines



737 (*Bugtirhinus praecursor* at Kumbi 4, *Hispanotherium beonense* at Béon 1 and *H. cf. matritense* at  
738 Gračanica) are pretty spared in contrast. This could suggest an influence of phylogeny and/or diet in  
739 stress susceptibility, with more flexible species being less vulnerable to environmental stressors. The  
740 investigation of diet preferences and stress susceptibility in the associated fauna could be of great  
741 interest to discriminate between the effects of local conditions, phylogeny and diet in the prevalence of  
742 hypoplasias.

743

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745

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753

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