

# 学位論文の要約

氏名

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学位論文題目

Systematics and paleobiogeography of the Late Miocene rodents  
from the Nakali Formation, Northern Kenya

## Chapter 1. Introduction

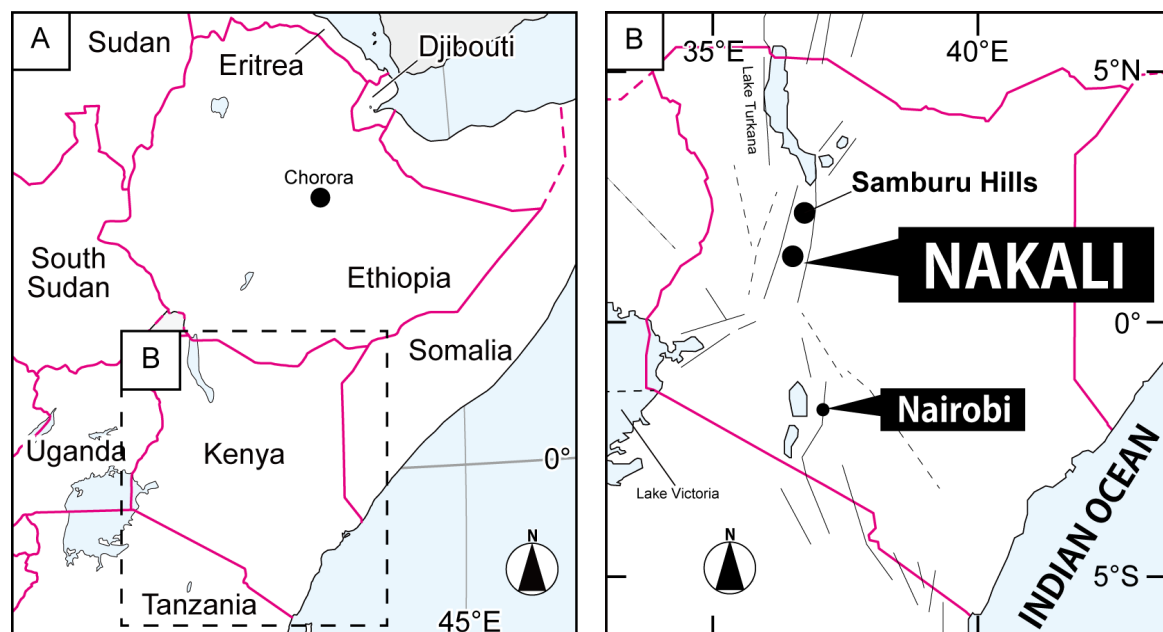
Africa, particularly North, East, and South Africa, has provided important rodent fossil records. Lavocat (1973) summarized the past diversity of rodents in Africa, and recorded at least 54 genera (excluding extant murines) dating from the Oligocene through the Pleistocene. Lavocat (1978) discussed the evolutions and the Miocene immigrants based on rodent fossil records from Africa. Winkler et al. (2010) recorded approximately 133 named genera. In addition, they summarized the distribution and ecology of the extant families of African rodents and focused on the fossil records, including discussing systematics, biochronology, and paleobiogeography.

According to these and other studies (e.g., Winkler, 1994; Wesselman et al., 2009), diverse rodent lineages originated in either Europe or Asia, migrating subsequently into Africa, particularly around the Early to Middle Miocene, and the modern rodent fauna of Africa developed from the Late Miocene. However, the Late Miocene is represented poorly in East Africa, compared to the Early to Middle Miocene. The early Late Miocene (around 10 Ma) rodent fauna is especially poor, and rodents have been found only in three localities (Fig. 1): the Chorora Formation (ca. 8.5–7.0 Ma), Chorora, Ethiopia (Jaeger et al., 1980; Geraads, 1998a, 2001; Suwa et al., 2015), the Namurungule Formation (9.6–9.3 Ma), Samburu Hills, Kenya (Kawamura and Nakaya, 1984, 1987) and the Nakali Formation (ca. 10 Ma), Nakali, Kenya (Flynn and Sabatier, 1984). These localities have yielded the discoveries of three great apes that may be the common ancestor of humans and extant African apes. *Chororapithecus abysynicus* was discovered in the Chorora Formation (Suwa et al., 2007), *Samburupithecus kiptarami* was discovered in the Namurungule Formation (Ishida and Pickford, 1997), and *Nakalipithecus nakayamai* was discovered in the Nakali Formation (Kunimatsu et al., 2007). These localities have also yielded abundant non-primate mammalian fossils.

To date, only a single rodent species, *Nakalimys lavocati* (Rhizomyinae, Spalacidae) has been

described for Nakali (Flynn and Sabatier, 1984). Similarly, only a few families have been reported in East Africa. The Japan–Kenya Expedition team has been conducting paleontological field-work in Nakali since 2002 and has expanded the mammalian fossil collection remarkably [e.g., Kunimatsu et al. (2007); Nakatsukasa et al. (2010); see Chapter 2]. Rodent specimens constitute approximately 45% of Nakali mammals. Onodera et al. (2011) described new rodent fauna, with five families and eight taxa, recovered from the Nakali Formation by the team from 2003 to 2009. The paleoenvironments of the Nakali Formation have been reconstructed based on these faunas. Tanabe et al. (2013, 2014) described the rodent fauna from 2010 to 2012, adding one family and two taxa.

This article summarizes these studies of the rodent fauna recovered by Japan–Kenya Expedition team from the Nakali Formation from 2003 to 2012. The Nakali rodent fauna greatly enriches our understanding of the evolution and paleobiogeography of rodents of the early Late Miocene in East Africa, updating the FAD (First Appearance Datum)/LAD (Last Appearance Datum) of various rodent taxa and providing clues to help refine the phylogeny of fossil rodents from Africa. The paleobiogeography of the Neogene rodent taxa related to taxa from the Nakali Formation is discussed herein.



**Fig. 1.** Map showing the localities of Chorora, Samburu Hills and Nakali (modified from Kunimatsu et al., 2007 and Tanabe et al., in press)

## Chapter 2. Geological setting

### 2.1. Geology and Dating

The Upper Miocene Nakali Formation is distributed in the Nakali area (Baringo, Samburu, and Turkana Counties) and located at the eastern shoulder of the central Kenya Rift (Fig. 1). The Nakali Formation is covered unconformably by the Nasorut Formation, which is composed of trachitic or basaltic lava and volcanoclastics and is characterized by lacustrine, fluvio-lacustrine, and pyroclastic flow deposits (Kunimatsu et al., 2007). The Nakali Formation is divided stratigraphically into the Lower, Middle, and Upper Members. Most of the fossils derive from the volcanic mud flow deposits of the Upper Member, e.g., NA39 (1° 12' 6.6" N, 36° 22' 23.2" E), the site yielding *Nakalipithecus*, and the site NA60 (1° 11' 57" N, 36° 23' 14.9" E), from which the bulk of rodent fossils have been recovered.  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  ages of the uppermost part of the Lower Member are  $9.82 \pm 0.09$  and  $9.90 \pm 0.09$  Ma (Kunimatsu et al., 2007). The paleomagnetic stratigraphy of the uppermost level of the lower Member and the lowermost level of the Upper Member is correlated with Chron C5n. 1r (9.88–9.92 Ma) (Kunimatsu et al., 2007). This formation is estimated to date from approximately 10.0–9.8 Ma (early Tortonian: basal late Miocene), which is correlated with either the uppermost part of MN9 or the lowermost part of MN10, and to the Vallesian ELMA (Kunimatsu et al., 2007; Tsubamoto et al., 2017).

### 2.2. Nakali mammalian fauna

The Nakali Formation has yielded an abundance of vertebrate fossils (Aguirre and Leakey, 1974; Aguirre and Guérin, 1974; Pickford, 1983, 1986; Flynn and Sabatier, 1984; Fischer, 1986; Morales and Pickford, 2006; Nakatsukasa et al., 2006, 2010; Saegusa et al., 2006; Kunimatsu et al., 2007, 2016, 2017a, 2017b; Nakatsukasa, 2009; Onodera et al., 2011; Tanabe et al., 2013, 2014, in press; Handa et al., 2015, 2017a, 2017b; Tsubamoto et al., 2015, 2017, 2020; this study). Currently, the fossil specimens collected by the Japan–Kenya Expedition team from Kyoto University and the National Museums of Kenya during the 2002 to 2016 field seasons consist of approximately 3,500 identifiable mammalian specimens. Approximately 45% of these specimens are rodents, approximately 24% are artiodactyls, approximately 14% are primates, approximately 11% are perissodactyls, and approximately 6% consist of other orders (Tsubamoto et al., 2020). The fossil great ape *Nakalipithecus nakayamai* and other primate fossils, such as *Microcolobs*, have been discovered in this Formation. Moreover, non-primate terrestrial mammalian fossils have been corrected. Currently, the record consists of 9 orders, 30 families, and 49 species. Fishes, crocodiles,

chelonians, snakes, and birds have been recognized in the Formation.

### **2.3. Paleoenvironment**

Matsui et al. (2008) provided a preliminary report of fossil pollens; however, they found fossil pollens only from the Lower Member of the Nakali Formation. They discovered Podocarpaceae, Taxodiaceae, and Poaceae, indicative of wet forest habitat. Nakatsukasa et al. (2010) reported the discovery of a colobine monkey (*Microcolobus*) from the Nakali Formation. The fossil has characters of an arboreal quadruped (distal joint of the humerus and capitulum), which is indicative of forest habitat in Nakali. Uno et al. (2011) estimated the paleodiet of herbivores in the Late Miocene to the Early Pliocene localities (i.e., Samburu Hills, Nakali, and Lothagam) in Kenya by analyzing the stable carbon isotope ratios from fossil tooth enamel. Their findings indicate that, though some herbivores (e.g., equids) from the Nakali Formation had C4-dominated diets, most herbivores from the Formation had either C3-dominated or mixed C3/C4 diets. Mesowear analysis of *Hipparion* and bovids from the Nakali Formation suggest that they were mix-feeders, indicating that woodland was the dominant environment in Nakali (Nakaya et al., 2012).

As described above, the paleoenvironment of the Nakali Formation is estimated as forest with woodland, rivers, and lakes under a seasonal climate.

## **Chapter 3. Systematic paleontology of rodents from the Nakali Formation**

In this study, the rodents from the Nakali Formation (ca. 10 Ma), Northern Kenya, were revised. As a result, the following taxa are recognized: *Vulcanisciurus africanus*, Sciuridae gen. et sp. indet., *Nakalimys lavocati*, *Afrocricetodon* cf. *songhori korui*, *Abudhabia* sp., *Paraulacodus johanesi*, Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (small), Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (large), Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet.

### **3.1. Materials and methods**

The Nakali rodent fossils are housed at the National Museums of Kenya, Nairobi. From 2003 to 2012, a total of 1,513 rodent specimens was collected from the Nakali Formation (Table 1). Most of these fossils were recovered by sieving, using a 1.0 mm x 1.0 mm mesh screen, at the locality NA60. The numbers of recovered elements are as follows: cheek teeth and cheek tooth fragments (1176 specimens), incisors (165 specimens), and bones and bone fragments (182 specimens) (Table

1). Taxonomic determination was carried out based on cheek tooth morphology, as cheek teeth are relatively well preserved and morphologically diversified in rodent taxa. Bones and incisors are still being studied (Tanabe, in preparation). Measurements were obtained using photogrammetry.

### 3.2. Anatomical abbreviations

*A*, anterior; *B*, buccal; *L*, antero-posterior length; *W*, bucco-lingual width; *Lt.*, left; *Rt.*, right; *I/i*, upper/lower incisor; *DP/dp*, upper/lower deciduous premolar; *P/p*, upper/lower premolar; *M/m*, upper/lower molar; *maxi.*, maxilla; *mand.*, mandible; *w/*, with; *frag.*, fragmentary specimens

**Table 1.** Number of identified specimens from 2003–2012 sample.

Specimens	Number of specimens	%
Cheek tooth	1176	77.7
Incisor	165	10.9
Scapla	3	0.2
Humerus	11	0.7
Ulna	3	0.2
Pelvis	3	0.2
Vertebra	29	1.9
Femur	36	2.4
Tibia	7	0.5
Astragalus	9	0.6
Calcaneus	9	0.6
Phalange	10	0.7
Bone fragment	52	3.4
<b>Total number of identified specimens</b>	<b>1513</b>	

### 3.3. Systematic paleontology

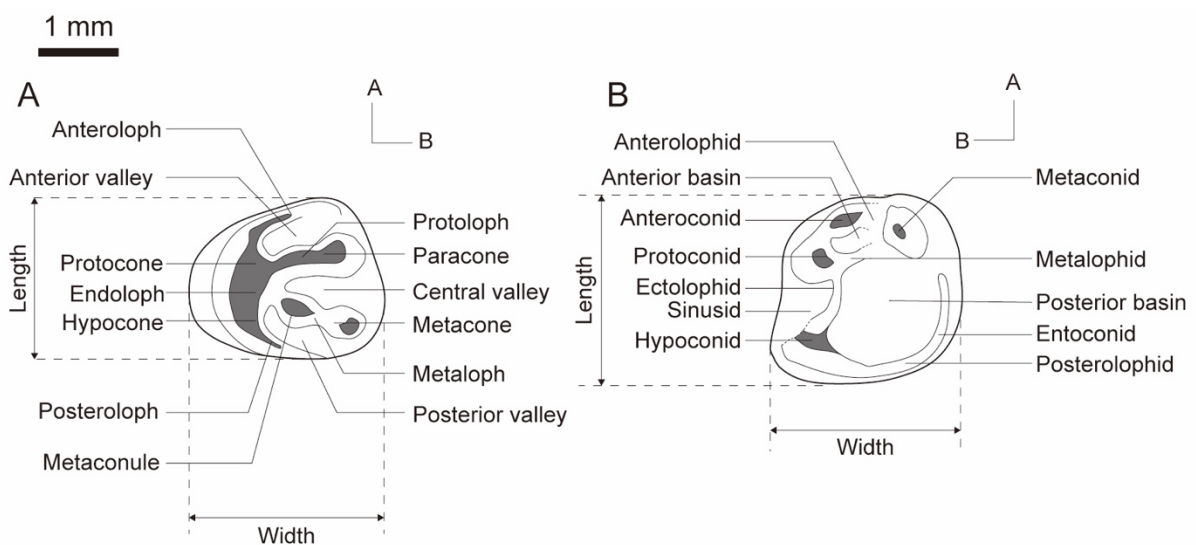
#### 3.3.1. *Vulcanisciurus africanus*

Upper and lower cheek teeth, and several maxilla and mandible fragments from the Nakali Formation were described as *Vulcanisciurus africanus* in this study (Fig. 2–3; Table 2).

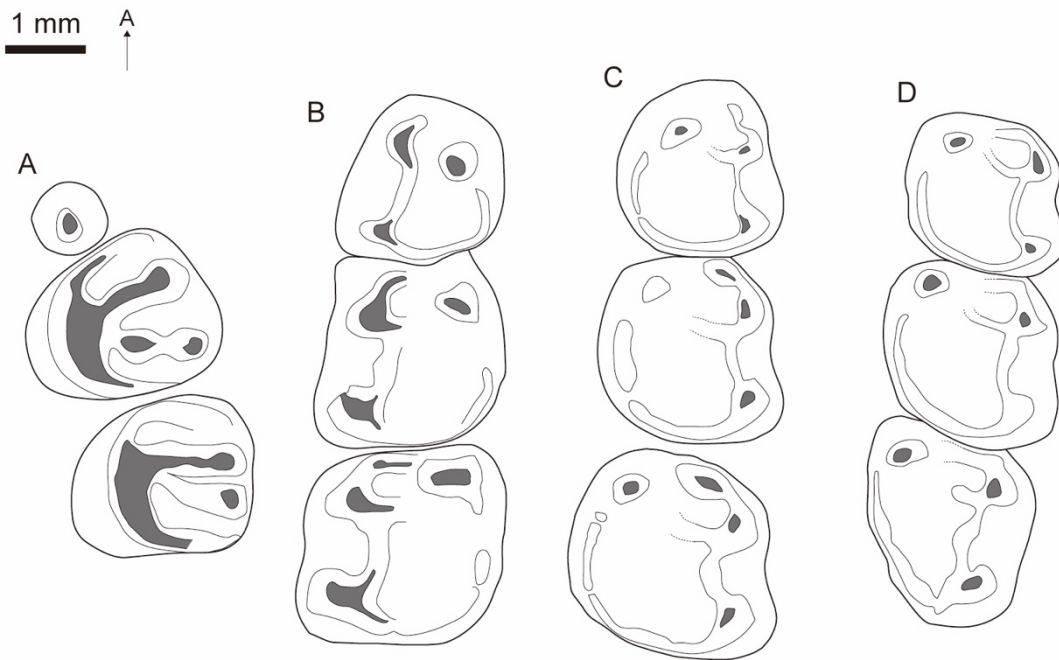
The current specimens exhibit the dental characteristics of Sciuridae (Ungar, 2010): tiny P3, with a series of four moderately developed transverse ridges (lophs) on the upper cheek teeth, deeply basined (= the posterior basin). Known Miocene sciurid taxa from Africa are *Vulcanisciurus*, *Kubwaxerus*, *Xerus*, *Atlantoxerus*, *Paraxerus*, *Helioxerus* (Winkler et al., 2010). As discussed in this study, the current specimens show the characters of *V. africanus*.

The size and lophodonty recall the dentition of *Vulcanisciurus*, which includes only one species, *V. africanus*. This species has a strong protocone, a weak hypocone and a small metaconule on the upper cheek teeth, and an undeveloped entoconid. These characters of *V. africanus* are consistent with those of the current specimens from the Nakali Formation. Thus, the current specimens are identified as *V. africanus*.

*V. africanus* has been recovered from Early Miocene [Songhor, Rusinga, and Koru, in Kenya, and Napak, in Uganda, Lavocat (1973)], Middle Miocene [14 Ma: Fort-Ternan, Kenya, Denys and Jeager (1992)], and late Middle Miocene (12.5 Ma: Ngorora Formation, Tugen Hills, Winkler (1990, 2002) localities. The record from Nakali Formation updates the latest occurrence of the genus *Vulcanisciurus*.



**Fig. 2.** Sciurid dental terminology and measurements used in text of upper (A, KNM-NA 52660) and lower teeth (B, KNM-NA 50912), based on Casanovas (2007).



**Fig. 3.** Schematic drawings of the occlusal surfaces of cheek teeth of *Vulcanisciurus africanus* from the Nakali Formation. A, KNM-NA 52660. Lt. P3–M1. B, KNM-NA 52409, Lt. p4–m2. C, KNM-NA 52424, Rt. p4–m2. D, KNM-NA 50910, Rt. m1–m3. The scale bar indicates 1 mm, anterior (A) denoted by the arrow.

**Table 2.** Measurements (mean and range; in mm) of teeth of *Vulcanisciurus africanus*. Abbreviations: N, number of specimens; M, mean; OR, observed range.

	P3 (N=2)			P4 (N=2)			M1 (N=2)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	0.83	0.82	1.03	1.71	2.25	0.76	1.96	2.41	0.81
OR	0.75–0.90	0.68–0.95	0.95–1.10	1.50–1.92	2.04–0.74	0.74–0.78	1.81–2.11	2.31–2.51	0.78

	p4 (N=2)			m1 (N=4)			m2 (N=5)			m3 (N=3)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	2.22	2.09	1.06	2.27	2.26	1.00	2.46	2.49	0.99	2.66	2.22	1.20
OR	2.12–2.07	2.07–2.11	1.00–1.12	2.01–2.39	1.98–2.38	0.99	1.7–2.8	2.0–2.7	0.93–1.02	1.7–2.8	1.7–2.7	1.04–1.30

### 3.3.2. Sciuridae gen. et sp. indet.

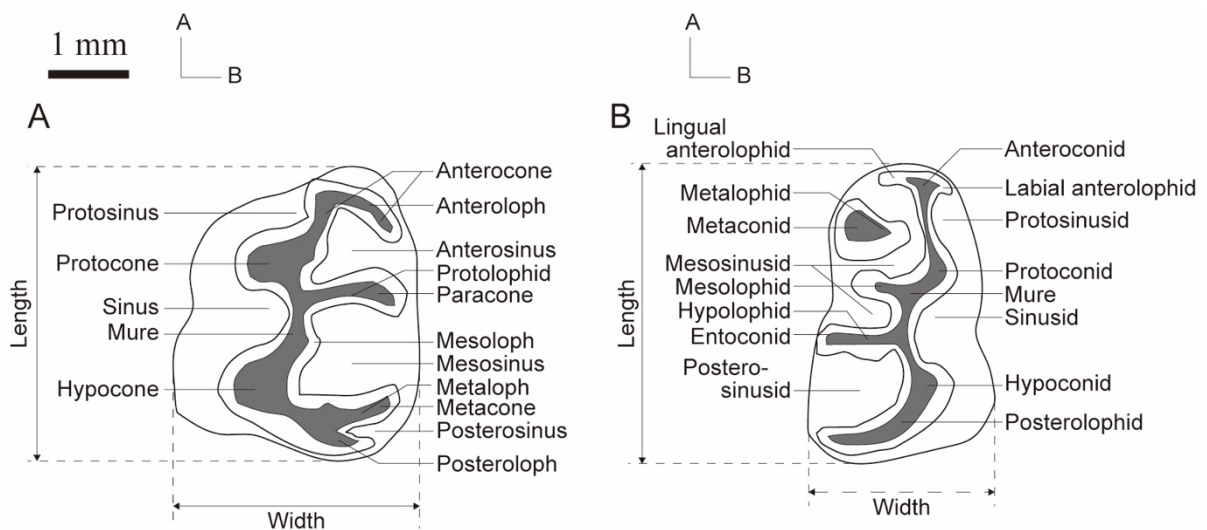
The current specimens are identified as a small-sized species of *Vulcanisciurus* characterized by closeness between the protoconid and the metaconid and either weak or absent entoconid. The occlusal pattern displays an affinity to the genus *Vulcanisciurus*. However, the current specimens are much smaller. As it is difficult to determine the taxonomic allocation from just a few specimens, I leave it as Sciuridae gen. et sp. indet.

### 3.3.3. *Nakalimys lavocati*

Upper and lower molars, incisors, and several maxilla and mandible fragments from the Nakali Formation were described as *Nakalimys lavocati* in this study (Fig. 4–5; Table 3).

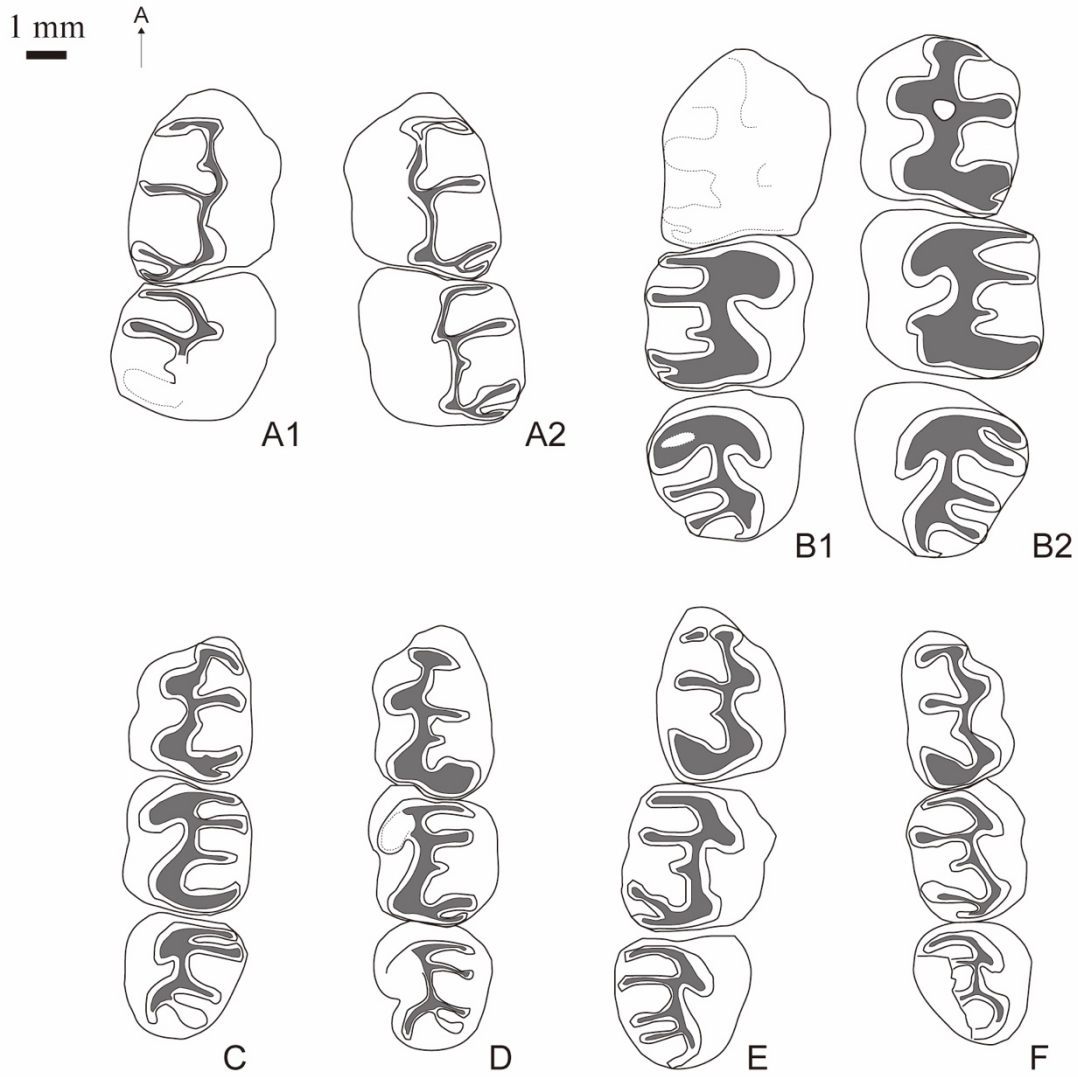
The current specimens are assigned to the Rhizomyinae (Spalacidae) in the following respects: 1) three upper molars and three lower molars; 2) The molars are lophodont; 3) High unilateral hypsodonty (upper molars are higher crowned internally than externally and lower molars are higher crowned externally); 4) Four or five transverse lophs; and 5) M3 is oval and lacks a hypocone (Flynn, 1982a).

The morphology of the molars (low crowns, anterocone on M1 being bilobed until advanced wear stages, large m3 longer than either m1 or m2) is similar to that of *Nakalimys lavocati*, a tachyoryctine reported previously by Flynn and Sabatier (1984) from the same locality.

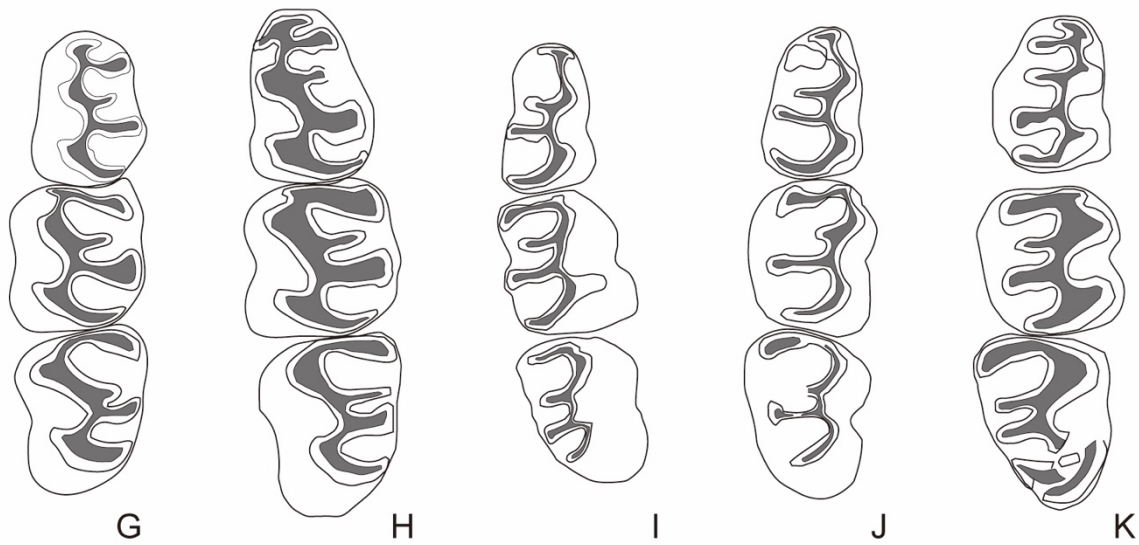


**Fig. 4.** Rhizomyine dental terminology and measurements used in text of upper (A, KNM-NA 52196) and lower teeth (B, KNM-NA 50123), based on Lopez-Antonanzas et al. (2013).





**Fig. 5.** Schematic drawings of the occlusal surfaces of cheek teeth of *Nakalimys lavocati* from the Nakali Formation. A, KNM-NA 52576. A1, Rt. M1–M2. A2, Lt. M1–M2. B, KNM-NA 52564. B1, Lt. M1–M3. B2, Rt. M1–M3. C, KNM-NA 52196, Lt. M1–M3. D, KNM-NA 52576 (a), Lt. M1–M3. E, KNM-NA 52197, Rt. M1–M3. F, KNM-NA 52360, Rt. M1–M3. The scale bar indicates 1 mm, anterior (A) denoted by the arrow.



**Fig. 5.** Continued. G, KNM-NA 52573, Lt. m1–m3. H, KNM-NA 52576, Lt. m1–m3. I, KNM-NA 50123, Rt. m1–m3. J, KNM-NA 50701, Rt. m1–m3. K, KNM-NA 50892, Rt. m1–m3. The scale bar indicates 1 mm, anterior (A) denoted by the arrow.

**Table 3.** Measurements (mean and range; in mm) of teeth of *Nakalimys lavocati*, collected from the Nakali Formation. Abbreviations as in Table 2.

	M1 (N=153)			M2 (N=119)			M3 (N=74)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	4.08	3.13	1.32	3.45	3.21	1.08	3.27	3.07	1.07
OR	3.33–5.03	2.23–3.96	1.06–1.70	2.62–4.49	2.25–4.27	0.81–1.50	2.48–4.54	2.29–4.15	0.83–1.43

	i1 (N=8)			m1 (N=115)			m2 (N=214)			m3 (N=131)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	2.64	1.77	1.49	3.80	2.71	1.41	3.60	3.19	1.13	3.96	3.13	1.27
OR	2.14–3.07	1.5–2.14	1.37–1.69	2.95–4.69	1.85–3.69	1.01–1.77	1.85–4.75	1.66–4.34	0.85–1.54	1.48–4.93	1.59–4	0.93–1.54

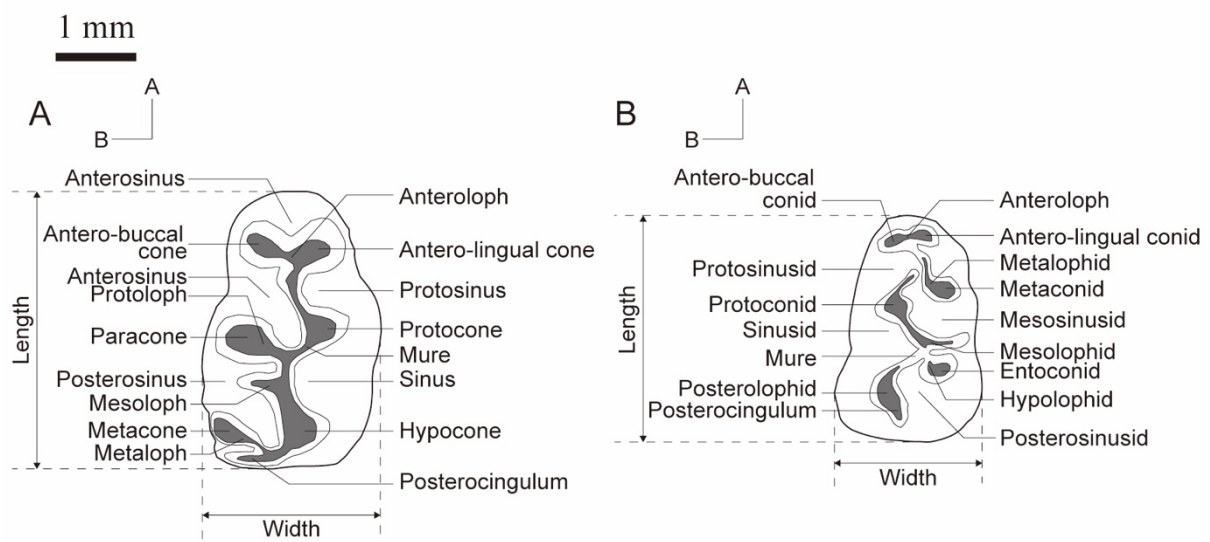
### 3.3.4. *Afrocricetodon cf. songhori korui*

Upper and lower molars, and several maxilla and mandible fragments from the Nakali Formation were described as *Afrocricetodon cf. songhori korui* in this study (Fig. 6–7; Table 4).

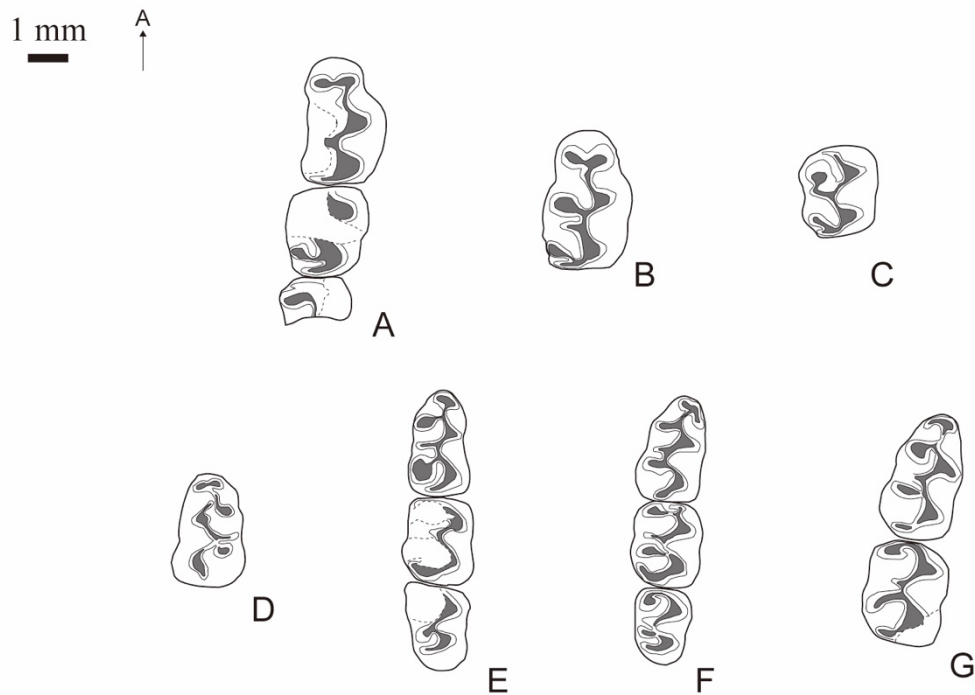
Dental characteristics of the Afrocricetodontinae include the presence of three upper/lower molars, cheek teeth with four main cusps and connecting crests between them, and strongly-developed anterocone and anteroconid on M1 and m1. All these are present in the current specimens (Lavocat, 1973).

Among the Afrocricetodontinae, the Nakali specimens most resemble the genus *Afrocricetodon*, of which one species and two subspecies are known: *A. songori songhori* and *A. S. korui* (Lavocat, 1973). *A. S. korui* has a strong anterocingulum and a bilobed anterocone on M1, and a weak posterocingulum on M2 relative to *A. S. songhori*. The current specimens exhibit a greater affinity with *A. S. korui* than with *A. S. songhori*, though the width on M1 is slightly smaller than is that of *A. S. korui* and the lingual side is constricted inward. Otherwise, size is comparable, and we assign the Nakali specimens as *Afrocricetodon cf. songhori korui*.

To date, *Afrocricetodon* is known only from the Early Miocene [Songhor, Rusinga, and Koru, Kenya, and Napak, Uganda; (Lavocat and Mein, in Lavocat, 1973)]. The current specimens from the Nakali Formation suggest that the genus survived until the early Late Miocene.



**Fig. 6.** Murid dental terminology and measurements used in text of upper (A, KNM-NA 52519) and lower teeth (B, NA60-2879'11), based on Wood and Wilson (1936), Mein and Freudenthal (1971), and Costa et al. (2019).



**Fig. 7.** Schematic drawings of the occlusal surfaces of cheek teeth of *Afrocricetodon cf. songhori korui* from the Nakali Formation. A, KNM-NA 52509, Rt. M1–M3. B, KNM-NA52519 (a), Rt. M1. C, KNM-NA 52539, Rt. M2. D, NA60-2879'11, Lt. m1. E, KNM-NA 50296, Rt. m1–m3. F, KNM-NA 50303, Rt. m1–m3. G, KNM-NA 52376, Rt. m1–m2. The scale bar indicates 1 mm, anterior (A) denoted by the arrow.

**Table 4.** Measurements (mean and range; in mm) of teeth of *Afrocricetodon cf. songhori korui*.

Abbreviations as in Table 2.

	M1 (N=5)			M2 (N=11)			M3 (N=8)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	3.01	1.92	1.50	2.07	1.79	1.16	1.95	1.77	1.10
OR	2.7–3.29	1.57–2.14	1.37–1.61	1.89–2.3	1.49–2.02	0.95–1.36	1.4–2.29	1.52–2.09	0.88–1.35
	m1 (N=14)			m2 (N=12)			m3 (N=9)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	2.91	1.84	1.59	2.19	1.81	1.21	2.07	1.77	1.21
OR	2.39–3.35	1.5–2.23	1.47–1.79	1.95–2.48	1.55–1.94	1.14–1.28	1.8–2.4	1.42–2.12	1.03–1.32

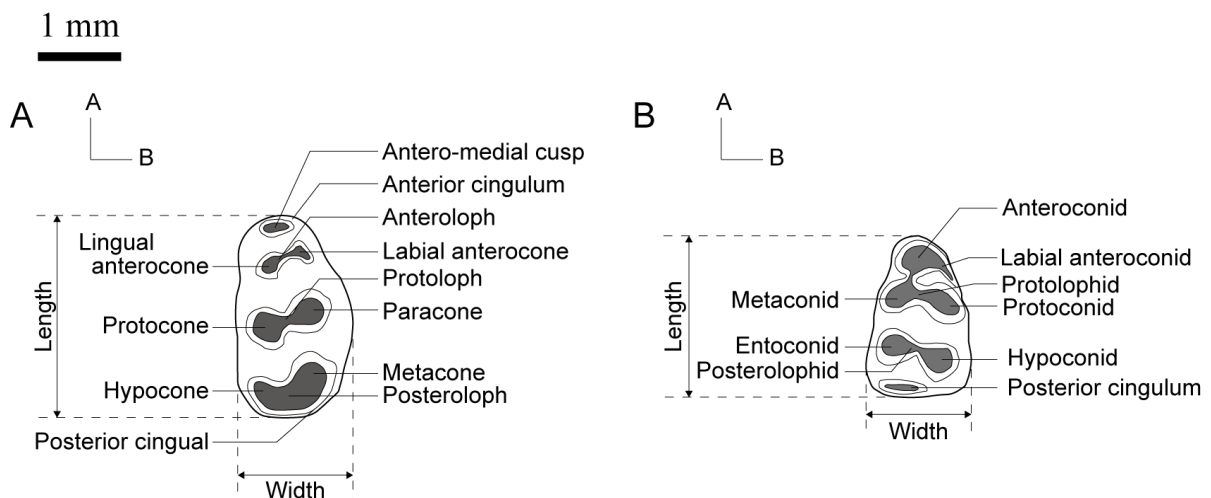
### 3.3.5. *Abudhabia* sp. indet.

Upper and lower molars, and several maxilla and mandible fragments from the Nakali Formation were described as *Abudhabia* sp. indet. in this study (Fig. 8–9; Table 5).

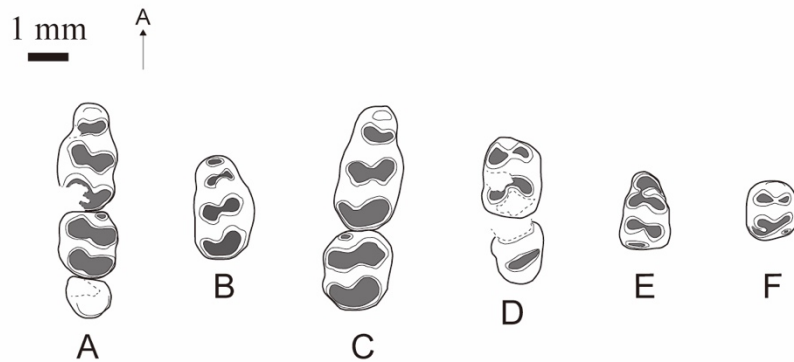
African Late Miocene Gerbillinae (Muridae) show a simple anterocone on M1 and cusp-pairs (transverse rows) with no longitudinal crest on M1–2. Fossil Taterillinae consist of *Protatera* and *Abudhabia* (Wessels, 2009). Although there are few molar specimens, there are distinct characteristics that indicate that the current material can be assigned to *Abudhabia*. These characteristics include the disappearance of the longitudinal loph and the formation of three transverse ridges by the fusion of opposing cusps (anterior loph, medial loph, and posterior loph) (de Bruijn and Whybrow, 1994).

The genus *Abudhabia* comprises six species. These species, known from south of the Sahara and Eurasia, are *A. baynunensis* (de Bruijn and Whybrow, 1994), *A. pakistanensis* (Flynn and Jacobs, 1999), *A. kabulense* (Sen, 1983; Wessels, 1998), *A. radinskyi* (Flynn et al., 2003), *A. yardangi* (see Flynn and Jacobs, 1999; de Bruijn, 1999), and *A. baheensis* (Qiu et al., 2004). *Abudhabia* is also known from the Late Miocene of Lothagam, Kenya [5.23 Ma: Winkler (2003)], but this is a single Rt. m1, and the species cannot be determined.

The Nakali material can, in many characteristics, be attributed to *Abudhabia*, but it is distinct from the known species in possessing a unique combination of features (an anterior cusp on the anterior margin and a dentine lake in the posterior loph, representing a reduced posterior cingulum, and a much narrower occlusal outline). I will refrain from naming a new species until additional specimens, particularly lower dentition, are obtained.



**Fig. 8.** Gerbilline dental terminology and measurements used in text of upper (A, KNM-NA 50302) and lower teeth (B, KNM-NA 54903), based on Jacobs (1978) and Flynn et al. (2003).



**Fig. 9.** Schematic drawings of the occlusal surfaces of cheek teeth of *Abudhabia* sp. from the Nakali Formation. A, KNM-NA 52653, Lt. M1–M3. B, KNM-NA 50302, Rt. M1. C, KNM-NA 52511, Rt. M1–M2. D, NA60-2664'11, Lt. m2–m3. E, KNM-NA 54903 (a), Rt. m1. F, KNM-NA 54903, Rt. m2. The scale bar indicates 1 mm, anterior (A) denoted by the arrow.

**Table 5.** Measurements (mean and range; in mm) of cheek teeth of *Abudhabia* sp., collected from the Nakali Formation. Abbreviations as in Table 2.

	M1 (N=3)			M2 (N=2)			M3 (N=1)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	2.74	1.44	1.90	1.80	1.56	1.15	—	—	—
OR	2.57–2.89	1.41–1.46	1.82–1.98	1.75–1.84	1.55–1.56	1.13–1.18	1.00	1.11	0.90

	m1 (N=1)			m2 (N=2)			m3 (N=1)		
	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
M	—	—	—	1.64	1.38	1.18	—	—	—
OR	1.84	1.24	1.48	1.33–1.94	1.22–1.53	1.09–1.27	1.49	1.35	1.10

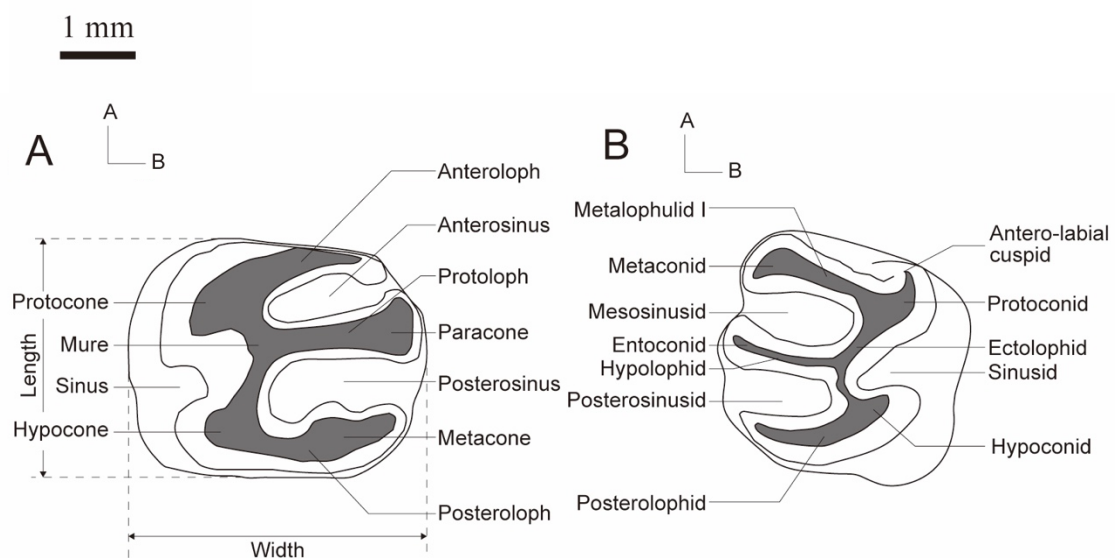
### 3.3.6. *Paraulacodus johanesi*

Upper and lower cheek teeth, upper incisors, and several maxilla and mandible fragments from the Nakali Formation were described as *Paraulacodus* sp. in this study (Fig. 10–11; Table 6).

The Nakali specimens are assigned to the Thryonomyidae because they have well-developed loph/lophids (Winkler et al., 2010), upper cheek teeth with two labial and one lingual enamel infoldings (=sinus, anterosinus, posterosinus), and lower cheek teeth with the opposite pattern (=sinusid, mesosinusid, posterosinusid) (Woods, 1984; Ungar, 2010).

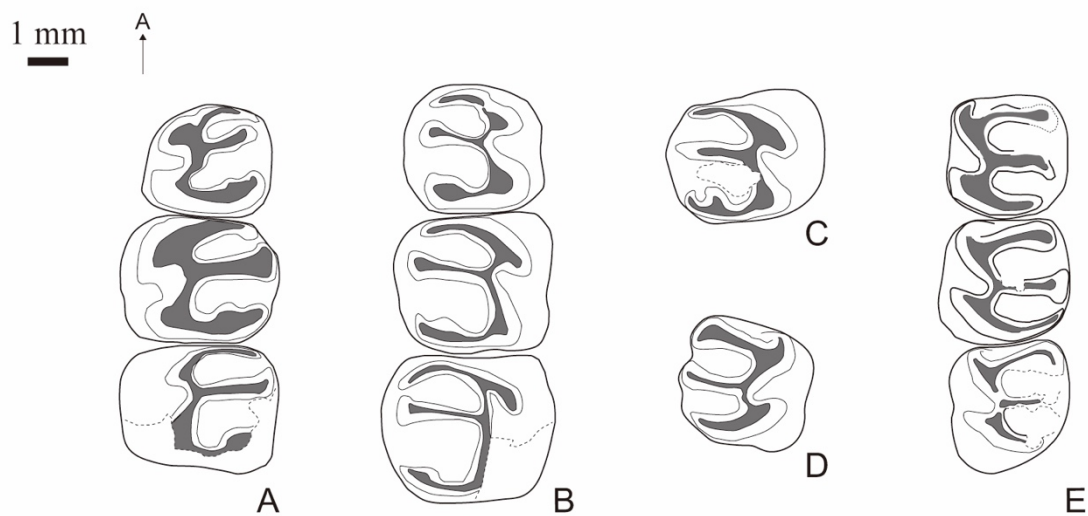
Of the presently recognized six genera of the Thryonomyidae, the Nakali material is most similar to *Paraulacodus* in terms of the three transverse loph on all cheek teeth, the molar size gradient increasing from P4 to M2 (Jaeger et al., 1980; de Bruijn and Hussain, 1985), the entoflexus on P4, and a spur on the posteroloph of P4 and M1. Along with *Paraulacodus*, *Thryonomys* also resembles the current specimens in the m1 lophodonty. However, *Thryonomys* lacks entoflexus on P4 and an anterolabial cuspid on the lower molars, and has four transverse lophs on p4.

*Paraulacodus* contains two known species: *P. indicus* (Hinton, 1933), and *P. johanesi* (Jaeger et al., 1980). *P. indicus* is from the Middle Miocene of the Chinji Formation, Northern India (Hinton, 1933), and *P. johanesi* is from the Upper Miocene of the Ch'orora Formation, Ethiopia (Jaeger et al., 1980). The Nakali material resembles *P. johanesi* in having inconspicuous and unisolated anterolabial cuspids on the lower molars. *P. indicus* has a stronger anterolabial cusp on the lower molars. I assign the Nakali species to *P. johanesi*.



**Fig. 10.** Thryonoyid dental terminology and measurements used in text of upper (A, KNM-NA 50312), lower teeth (B, KNM-NA 54904), based on Marivaux et al. (2002), López-Antoñanzas et al. (2004), López-Antoñanzas and Sen (2005) and Kraatz et al. (2013).





**Fig. 11.** Schematic drawings of the occlusal surfaces of *Paraulacodus johanesi* from the Nakali Formation. A, KNM-NA 50312, Lt. P4–M2. B, NA60-12460'07, Rt. P4-M2, C, NA60-3055'11, Rt. M1 or M2. D, KNM-NA 54904, Rt. m1 or m2. E. KNM-NA 56080, Lt. M1–M3. The scale bar indicates 1 mm, anterior (A) denoted by the arrow.

**Table 6.** Measurements (in mm) of cheek teeth of *Paraulacous johanesi*, collected from the Nakali Formation (when tooth identification uncertain, the measurement is repeated in parentheses).

No.		I1 / i1			P4 / p4			M1 / m1			M2 / m2			M3 / m3		
		L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W	L	W	L/W
<b>Upper Dentition</b>																
KNN-NA 54912	Lt.	3.40	2.49	1.37	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
KNN-NA 54914	?	—	2.82	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
KNN-NA 50314	Lt.	—	—	—	2.72	3.20	0.85	3.13	4.06	0.77	2.74+	4.14	—	—	—	—
NA60-3055'11*	Rt.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.54	3.95	0.90	3.54	3.95	0.90	—	—	—
NA60-12160'07	Rt.	—	—	—	2.92	3.12	0.94	3.25	3.62	0.90	3.17	3.67	0.86	—	—	—
<b>Lower Dentition</b>																
KNM-NA 54904*	Rt.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.11	3.16	0.98	3.11	3.16	0.98	—	—	—
KNM-NA 56080	Lt.	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.73	2.64	1.03	2.76	2.93	0.94	2.98	2.65	1.12



### **3.3.7. Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (small)**

An isolated molar (KNM-NA 50310) from the Nakali Formation were described as Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (small) in this study.

In the advanced groups of the Thryonomyidae (for example, *Paraulacodus* and *Thryonomys*), the upper molars tend to show simple patterns similar to those of the lower molars (Kawamura and Nakaya, 1987).

The present specimen is similar to both *Paraulacodus* and *Thryonomys* in having three transverse lophs, but it differs from them in terms of posteroloph morphpology. Unlike *Paraulacodus*, it does not have a spur, and, unlike *Thryonomys*, its posteroloph is straight. The possibility that it belongs to *Paraphiomys* cannot be dismissed completely, as three to four transverse lophs appear on the upper molars of *Paraphiomys* depending on either dental wear or individual variation. The specimen is smaller than are the other Thryonomyid specimens (see below). The single worn specimen does not allow any definite conclusion, and we assign it tentatively to Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (small).

### **3.3.8. Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (large)**

An isolated molar (KNM-NA 55875) from the Nakali Formation were described as Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (large) in this study.

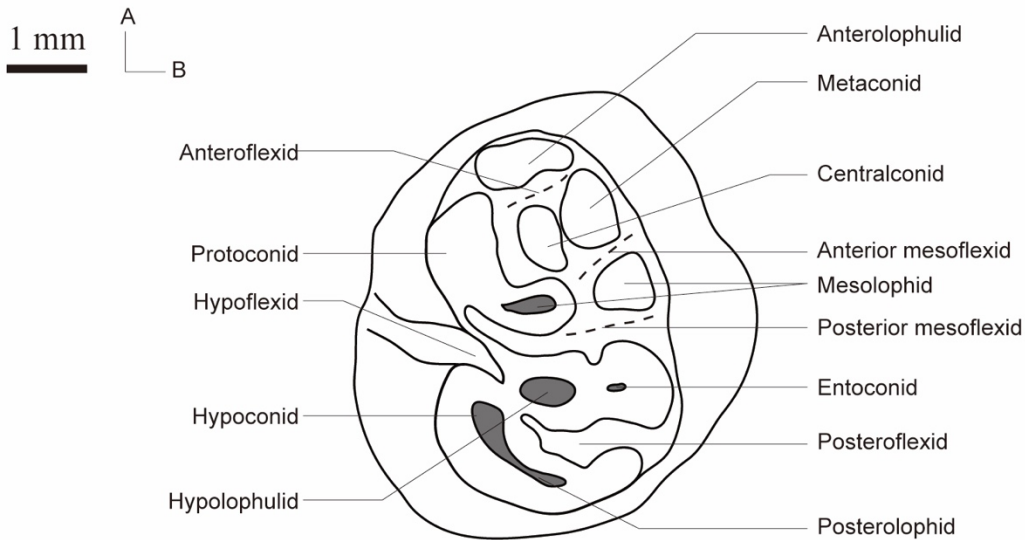
The presence of three transverse lophs support a Thryonomyidae status of KNM-NA 55875, particularly with an affinity to *Paraulacodus* and *Thryonomys*. However, it differs from these genera in respect of the valley morphology. This specimen is very large compared with thryonomyid rodents, such as extant *Thryonomys*. In these species, the crown outline is rectangular, it is elongated bucco-lingually, and it has no robust loph in this specimen. The corresponding valley of *Thryonomys* is shallower than is valley in this specimen. The size of this specimen is larger, although all crests are straight. The current specimen is either as large or larger than is the extant *T. swinderianus*, and it may be possible to assign it to a new species. As the specimen is only one isolated molar, further determination is difficult. Thus, we assign the specimen tentatively as Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (large).

### 3.3.9. Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet.

An isolated premolar (KNM-NA 52956) from the Nakali Formation were described as Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet. in this study (Fig. 12; Table 7).

The hystricid status of this specimen is supported by its many curved crests and strong unilateral hypsodonty. Precise identification of Hystricidae from an isolated tooth is difficult because the complexity of the occlusal pattern changes with continuing wear (Masini and Rook, 1993; Sen and Kovatchev, 1987; Winkler, 2003).

The current specimen is smaller than both *Xenohystrix* and *Hystrix* and slightly larger than *Atherurus*. As it is not possible to distinguish clearly between *Hystrix* and *Atherurus* molars, we leave the present specimen as Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet.



**Fig. 12.** Hystricid dental terminology and measurements used in text of lower teeth (KNM-NA 54956), based on Sen (2001a).

**Table 7.** Measurements (in mm) of cheek teeth of Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet., collected from the Nakali Formation.

No.		L	W	L/W
<b>Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet.</b>				
KNM-NA 54956	Lt. Lower	5.70	4.81	1.19

### 3.4. Discussion

#### 3.4.1. Composition of Nakali rodent fauna

Through identifying the Nakali rodent fauna, we have recognized six families and 9 species (Table 8). The dominant taxon in the six families (total 680 classified specimens) is the Rhizomyinae (615 specimens); the remainder are Afrocricetodontinae (37 specimens), Sciuridae (13 specimens), Thryonomyidae (8 specimens), Gerbillinae (6 specimens), and Hystricidae (1 specimen) from the Nakali Formation. Most of the rodent fossil remains from site NA39 are fragmented strongly. The following taxa are recognized: *Vulcanisciurus africanus* (Sciuridae), Sciuridae gen. et sp. indet., *Nakalimys lavocati* (Rhizomyinae, Spalacidae), *Afrocricetodon* cf. *songhori korui* (Afrocricetodontinae, Nesomyidae), *Abudhabia* sp. indet. (Gerbillinae, Muridae), *Paraulacodus johanesi* (Thryonomyidae), Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (small), Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet (large), Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet.

**Table 8.** Rodent fauna based on cheek teeth from Nakali Formation.

Family	Taxa
Sciuridae	<i>Vulcanisciurus africanus</i> Sciuridae gen. et sp. indet.
Spalacidae (Rhizomyinae)	<i>Nakalimys lavocati</i>
Nesomyidae (Afrocricetodontinae)	<i>Afrocricetodon</i> cf. <i>songhori korui</i>
Muridae (Gerbillinae)	<i>Abudhabia</i> sp.
Thryonomidae	<i>Paraulacodus johanesi</i> Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (small) Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (large)
Hystricidae	Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet.

Reference: Onodera (2011), Tanabe (2013, 2014), this study.

### 3.4.2 Reconstruction of paleoenvironments based on Nakali rodent fauna

The environmental interpretations arrived at from the Nakali rodent fauna are based on the use of modern analogs and the assumption that ecological requirements and/or behavior have remained constant for both the rodents and the accumulating agency (e.g., Avery, 1982).

The dominant taxon in the Nakali rodent fauna, *Nakalimys lavocati*, belongs to the subfamily Rhizomyinae (Spalacidae). Extant rhizomyines are fossorial rodents that live in Southern Asia and Eastern Africa. The African rhizomyine, the ‘mole rat,’ includes only one genera (*Tachyoryctes*), which inhabits wet uplands (700–4000 m), and prefers either wet grassland or open forest (Kingdon, 1974, 1997; Nowak, 1999; Monadjem et al., 2015; Norris, 2017). The same may be said of *N. lavocati*.

As most genera among the Gerbillinae (Muridae) are restricted to arid areas and open landscapes (Kingdon, 1997; Nowak, 1999; Wessels, 2009), Nakali *Abudhabia* also likely indicates mainly dry environments. However, as these specimens are very rare from the Nakali Formation. It may be possible that dry environments were not the dominant habitat. Nakali was likely to have temporary dry environments (e.g., rainy–dry seasons).

The extant African Hystricidae have two genera: *Atherurus* (brush-tailed porcupine) and *Hystrix* (porcupine). *Hystrix* occurs in nearly all habitats (apart from extensive wet forests and very arid regions), but it is found most often in hilly, rocky country (Kingdon, 1997). *Atherurus* lives exclusively in forests (Kingdon, 1997).

The ecological requirements of *Vulcanisciurus* and *Afrocrisetodon* are unknown. However, both taxa are known generally from the Upper–Middle Miocene East African sites sampling forest habitats (Ungar et al., 2012; Pickford et al., 2014; Coste et al., 2019). *Vulcanisciurus* has been recovered from the Lower Miocene [Koru-Songhor (20–19 Ma) and Rusinga (18–15 Ma) in Kenya, and Napak (20–19 Ma), in Uganda, e.g., Lavocat (1973)], the Middle Miocene [Fort-Ternan (14 Ma), Kenya, Denys and Jaeger (1992)], and the late Middle Miocene [Ngorora Formation (12.5 Ma), Tugen Hills, Winkler (1990, 2002)]. *Afrocrisetodon* has been known only from the Early Miocene [Koru-Songhor ([20–19 Ma) and Rusinga (18–15 Ma) in Kenya, and Napak (20–19 Ma), in Uganda, e.g., Lavocat (1973)].

From what has been stated thus far, it follows that Nakali should have had a watery environment and forested uplands, with rainy–dry seasons during the early late Miocene. This reconstruction is in accordance with the previously reconstructed paleoenvironment of the Nakali Formation (as mentioned in chapter 2.3).

### 3.4.3 Comparison to other localities of the upper lower Miocene in Eastern Africa

The early late Miocene rodent fauna have been found in Kenya (Nakali and Samburu Hills) and Ethiopia (Chorora) in sub-Saharan Eastern Africa.

The Chorora Formation (8.5–7.0 Ma) is located along the southeastern margin of the transition zone of the Afar and the Main Ethiopian Rifts (Suwa et al., 2015). Based on the mammalian fauna, the paleoenvironments of the Chorora Formation have been estimated to be wooded with more open (savanna-like) habitat (Geraads et al., 2002; Cote, 2004). Seven families and 11 taxa of rodent fauna from the Chorora Formation have been reported by Jaeger et al. (1980), Geraads (1998a, 2001), and Suwa et al. (2015) (Table 9). The fauna are characterized by a diverse array of Murids and a resemblance to the Nakali rodent fauna (i.e., *Nakalimys lavocati* and *Paraulacodus johanesi* from the type locality). From the upper Chorora (7.5–7.0 Ma, the upper upper Miocene), *Abudhabia* has been known. The Murid records represent the earliest occurrence in Eastern Africa (Winkler et al., 2010); they did not occur during the age of the Nakali Formation (ca. 10 Ma). And the similarity of some taxa from the Nakali Formation and the Chorora Formation is connected to the similarity of the paleoenvironments of each.

The Samburu Hills are situated 60 km north of the Nakali (Fig. 1). The Namurungule Formation (9.6–9.3 Ma) is distributed in this area (Saneyoshi et al., 2006; Sakai et al., 2010). The paleoenvironments of the Namurungule Formation are more open and wooded habitat with lakes and rivers in a dry climate (Nakaya, 1994; Sakai et al., 2010; Uno et al., 2011; Nakaya et al., 2012). Sedimentological study has shown that the Namurungule Formation would have been deposited in lowlands with lakes under strong seasonality (Sakai et al., 2010). The known rodent fauna from the Namurungule Formation include only three reports of thryonomyids by Kawamura and Nakaya (1984, 1987) (Table 9). As mentioned above, thryonomyids indicate watery environments; this is in accordance with the sedimentological study findings (Sakai et al., 2010). Though the ages and locations of the Nakali Formation and the Namurungule Formation are nearly the same, fewer rodents are known from the Namurungule Formation. This difference may arise from depositional and environmental differences. The drier environments and lower lands of the Samburu Hills compared to Nakali during the Miocene may not have been suitable for rodents.

**Table 9.** Faunal list of rodents from the Chorora and Namurungule Formation.**Chorora Fm. (ca. 8.5–7.0 Ma) of Ethiopia**

<b>Order / Family-Level</b>	<b>Taxa</b>	<b>Type Locality (ca. 8.5 Ma)</b>	<b>Beticha (ca. 8.0 Ma)</b>	<b>Upper Chorora (ca. 7.5–7.0 Ma)</b>
Thryonomyidae	<i>Paraulacodus johanesi</i>	X	X	X
	<i>Paraphiomys chororensis</i>	X		
Spalacidae (Rhizomyinae)	<i>Nakalimys lavocati</i>	X		
Gerbillidae (Gerbillinae)	cf. <i>Abudhabia</i> sp.			X
Cricetidae	<i>Afaromys gillemoti</i>	X		
Nesomyidae	" <i>Dendromus</i> " (? <i>Saccostomus</i> ) spp.	X		
Muridae	<i>Preacomys kikiae</i>	X		
	aff. <i>Stenocephalomys</i> sp.	X		
	cf. <i>Parapelomys</i> sp.	X		
	cf. <i>Tectomys</i> sp.	X		
Sciuridae	<i>Xerus</i> sp.	X		

Reference: Jaeger et al. (1980), Geraads (1998a, 2001), and Suwa et al. (2015)

**Namurungule Fm. (ca. 9.5 Ma) of Kenya**

<b>Order / Family-Level</b>	<b>Taxa</b>
<b>Rodentia</b>	
Thryonomyidae	<i>Paraphiomys</i> sp.
	<i>Paraulacodus</i> sp.
	Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet.

Reference: Kawamura and Nakaya (1984, 1987), and this study.

## Chapter 4. Paleobiogeography of the Neogene Rodents from Afro-Eurasia

As discussed in the previous chapter, rodent fauna from the Nakali Formation have renewed the FAD/LAD of different rodent taxa. Following this updating, this chapter reviews fossil records of some rodent groups in Afro-Eurasia during the Neogene. Further, the relationships between migrations, faunal changes, and paleoenvironmental transitions are discussed.

### 4.1. Materials and Methods

This study focuses on the fossil records of the genus *Vulcanisciurus*, the genus *Afrocricetodon*, the genus *Abudhabia*, and the Family Hystricidae in Afro-Eurasia during the Neogene. *Vulcanisciurus* and *Afrocricetodon* from the Nakali Formation are the latest records, and *Abudhabia* and hystricid from the Formation are the oldest records in Eastern Africa. These are followed by either direct observations or numerous references (see the following sections). Geological age is followed by Gradstein et al. (2012) and Ogg et al. (2016). The Faunal Sets, which is the African mammalian biostratigraphy, is based on Pickford (1981) and Pickford and Morales (1994). The “European Land Mammalian Ages” (ELMA) and the “Neogene Mammal-Zones” (MN-Zones) are followed by Steininger (1999).

### 4.2. Results and Discussions

#### 4.2.1. Genus *Vulcanisciurus* (Sciuridae) and genus *Afrocricetodon* (Afrocricetodontinae)

*Vulcanisciurus* is the oldest fossil sciurid from Africa. Its fossil records are known from the lower [20–19 Ma: Rusinga, Songhor, and Koru, Kenya; Lavocat (1973); 20–19 Ma: Napak, Uganda; Lavocat (1973); Coste et al. (2019)] to the middle [14 Ma: Fort Ternan, Kenya; Denys and Jaeger (1992)] and the upper–middle Miocene [12.5 Ma: Ngorora Formation, Tugen Hills Kenya; Winkler (1990, 2002)]. Although Senut et al. (1992) previously listed *Vulcanisciurus* from Harasib 3a, Namibia (ca. 10Ma), Mein et al. (2000a) described it as *Heteroxerus*, as *Vulcanisciurus* was the only genus described from eastern Africa during the early–middle Miocene. *Afrocricetodon* is the only known genus from eastern Africa, and it has been reported from the lower Miocene [20–19 Ma: Rusinga, Songhor, and Koru, Kenya; Lavocat (1973); 20–19 Ma: Napak, Uganda; Lavocat (1973); Coste et al. (2019)]. Its occurrence was limited in the early Miocene. Both taxa from the Nakali Formation (ca. 10Ma) suggest that the genus survived until the early Late Miocene.

Both taxa are known from the Upper–Middle Miocene East African sites, including the Nakali Formation, generally sampling forest habitats (see section 3.4.2). The taxa, which became extinct

after this period, suggest dominance of more open habitats (e.g., either woodland or savanna).

#### 4.2.2. Genus *Abudhabia* (Gerbillinae; see Appendix 1)

*Abudhabia* is distributed widely in the Neogene. There are groups known from Eastern Africa to Western and Southern Asia and to Eastern Asia (Figs. 13–14).

Their first occurrence is from Turkey, Kenya (the Nakali Fm.) and China during the Vallesian (11.1–8.7 Ma: the early late Miocene). The *Abudhabia* reported from the late Miocene Turkey [MN9 (11.1–9.8 Ma); de Bruijn et al. (2013)] is inferred as being the oldest record of the genus. However, de Bruijn only listed the species and did not describe it in detail. The Nakali *Abudhabia* reported in this study is the oldest record in Africa. At least, it inhabited in Africa by this period. The occurrence of Chinese *Abudhabia* [*A. baheensis*; Bahe Fm. (9.98–8.07 Ma); Qui et al., 2004] indicates the close biogeographical affinity of Eastern Asia with Eastern Africa. It also implies that there was a xeric open region between Eastern Asia and Eastern Africa in this period that enabled interchange of small mammals through the Arabian Peninsula (Qui et al., 2004; this study). These old *Abudhabia*, which are distributed widely from East Africa to East Asia, are reported from similar ages. Therefore, it is difficult to determine their origin.

In the Turolian (8.7–4.9 Ma: the late Tortonian to the early Zanclean), the genus is known from Eastern and Northern Africa, Western and Southern Asia, and possibly China. *A. radinskyi* is named from the early–middle Turolian Kabul, Afghanistan (Flynn et al., 2003). The oldest fossil Gerbillid from Africa is *Abdhabia*, which has been reported previously from the upper Miocene of Ethiopia [Chorora Fm. (Upper Chorora; ca. 7.5–7.0 Ma: Suwa et al. (2015)], Libya [Sahabi Fm. (ca. 7 Ma): described as *Protatera yardangi* by Manthe (1987), and discussed as *A. yardangi* by Flynn et al. (2003)] and Kenya [Lukeino Fm. (6.2–5.6 Ma): Mein and Pickford (2006)], and the lower Pliocene of Kenya (Lothagam [5.23 Ma]: Winkler (2003)]. The *Abudhabia* from the Nakali Formation (ca. 10Ma) mean that the temporal range of *Abudhabia* dates to ca. 10Ma in Africa. The fossil records indicate that more open environments (e.g., woodland, savanna, or arid zones) developed in Eastern Africa during the Vallesian to the Turolian. Moreover, the last fossil records of *Abudhabia* in Africa and of other extinct (*Protatera*, *Pseudmeriones*, and *Mascaramys*) and extant (*Gerbilliscus*, *Desmobillus*, *Gerbillurus*, *Meriones*) gerbillids in Africa begun to occur at the end of the Turolian (e.g., Winkler et al., 2010).

The last records of *Abudhabia* are from the Ruscian and the Vilanyian. *A. cf. A. kabulense* is known from India (4.18–2.58 Ma: Patnaik, 1997). *Abudhabia* disappeared at the end of this period and interchanged with modern gerbillids.



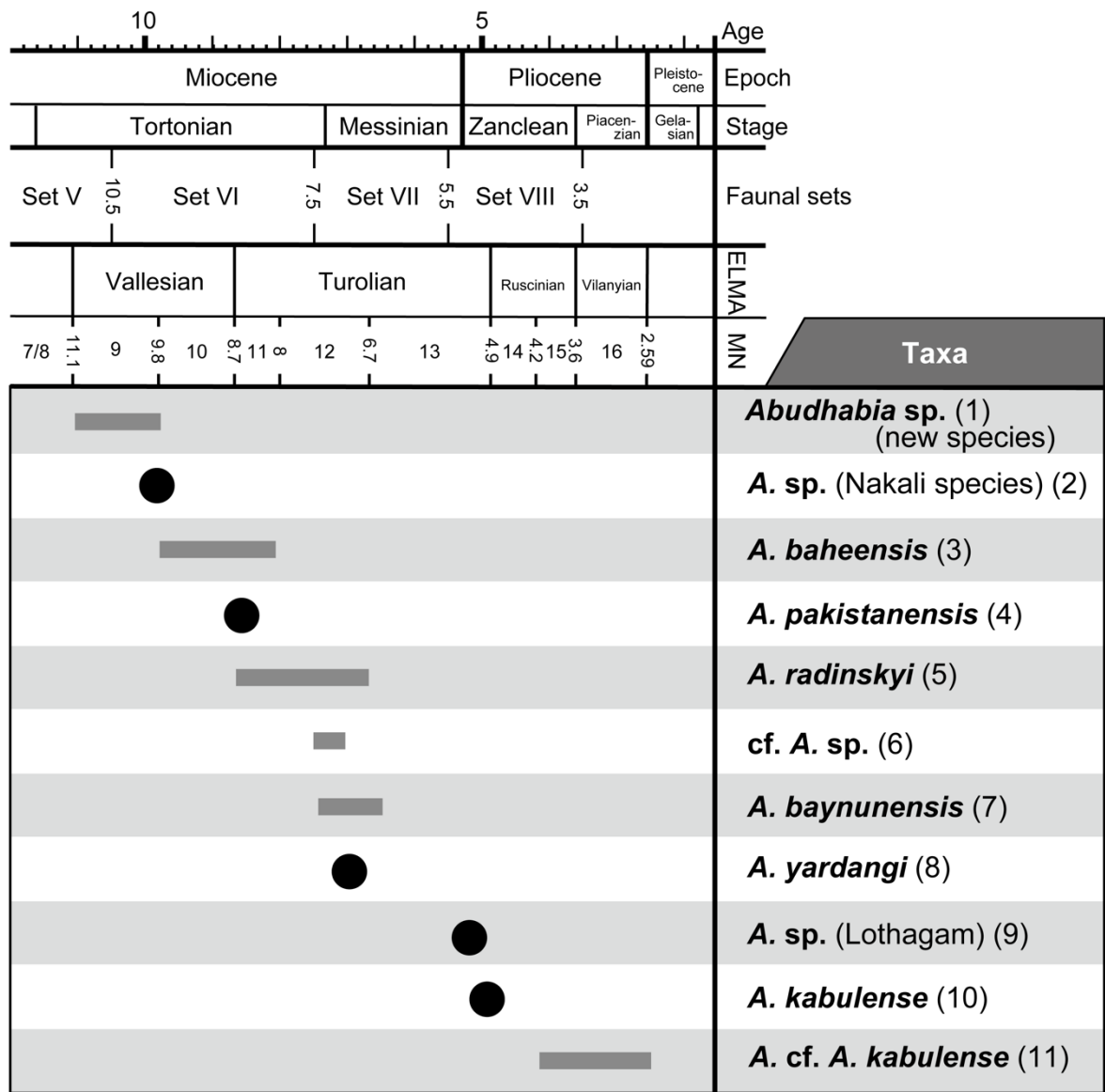
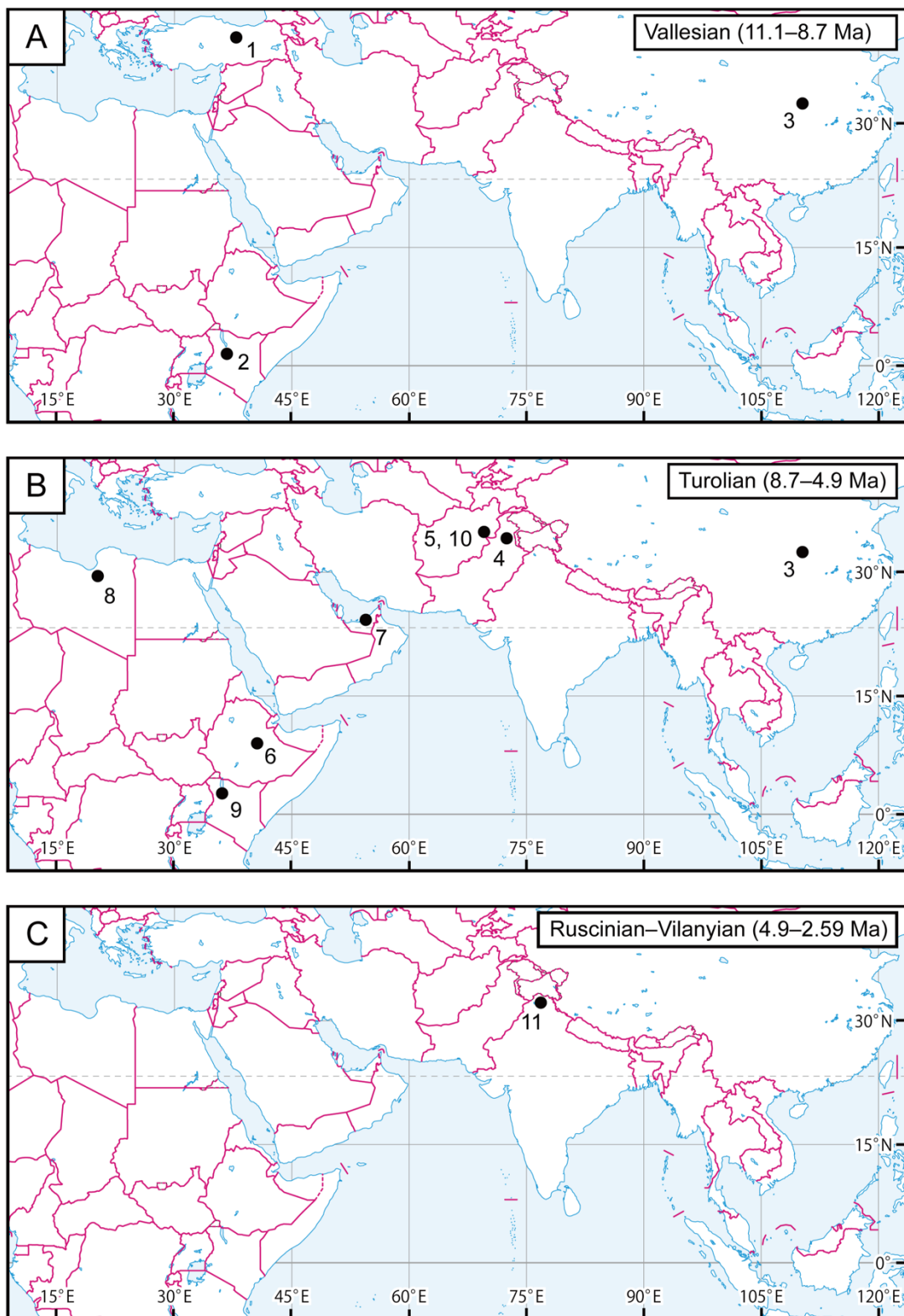


Fig. 13. Temporal ranges of *Abudhabia*. For detail fossil records see Appendix 1.



**Fig. 14.** Paleogeographic map of *Abudhabia* in Afro–Eurasia during Vallesian to Vilanyian (MN 9–16; early late Miocene–Pliocene). A, Vallesian (11.1–8.7Ma; MN9–10); B, Turolian (8.7–4.9 Ma); C, Ruscinian–Vilanyian (4.9–2.59 Ma). See appendix 1 for the numbers in this figure.

#### 4.2.4. Family Hystricidae (see Appendix 2)

The earliest occurrence of hystricids is *Atherurus karnuliensis*, known from the Chinji Formation of the lower Siwalik, India (14.3–11.5 Ma: Colbert, 1993; Landry, 1957; Van Weers, 2002, 2005). The oldest record in Europe is *Hystrix parvae* from Cskvar, Hungary (MN10; 9.8–8.7 Ma; Kretzoi, 1951; Weers and Montoya, 1996). This is also the oldest occurrence of *Hystrix*.

The family is represented by three genera, *Atherurus*, *Hystrix*, and *Xenohystrix*, in Africa during the Neogene. Only the last of these is extinct. The oldest African Hystricidae is 11–10Ma, from Sheikh Abdallah, Egypt (*Atherurus* sp.; Pickford et al., 2008). The Nakali specimen is one of the oldest records of this family in Africa. The hystricids are likely Vallesian, particularly MN9 (11.1–9.8 Ma), immigrants from Eurasia to Africa, distributed throughout eastern Africa by the early Late Miocene (Fig. 16, 21-A).

In the MN12 (8–6.7 Ma: the Middle Turolian; Fig. 21-B), the earliest occurrences of *Hystrix* are represented from Northern and Eastern Africa. The earliest record of *Hystrix* in Northern Africa is known from Manacer, Algeria (*H.* sp.; 7.1–5.3? Ma; Aramboug, 1959) and Tros-Menalla, Chad (*H.* sp.; 7–6 Ma; Vignaud et al., 2002), and in Eastern Africa is known from Lothagam, Kenya (*H.* sp.; ca. 7.44 Ma; Winkler, 2003). The *Hystrix* is likely MN12 (8–6.7 Ma) immigrants from Eurasia to Africa, distributed throughout Northern and Eastern Africa by the early Late Miocene.

Moreover, in the MN13 (6.7–4.9 Ma; Late Turolian; Fig. 21-C), the earliest occurrences of *Atherurus* and *Xenohystrix* are represented from Eastern Africa. The earliest records of *Atherurus* and *Xenohystrix* in Eastern Africa are known from Lemdong'o, Kenya (*A.* sp.; 6.12–6.08 Ma: Hlusko, 2007). During this period, *Atherurus* ingressed to Eastern Africa, and *Xenohystrix* appeared in Eastern Africa. However, these are their last records from Eastern Africa. After this period, the fossil records of *Hystrix* are increase.

In the Ruscianian to the Vilanyian (MN14–16; 4.9–2.59 Ma), Neogene African hystricids were the most diversified, and they expanded to Southern Africa. The extant species, *H. cristata* and *H. africae australis*, appeared for the first time.

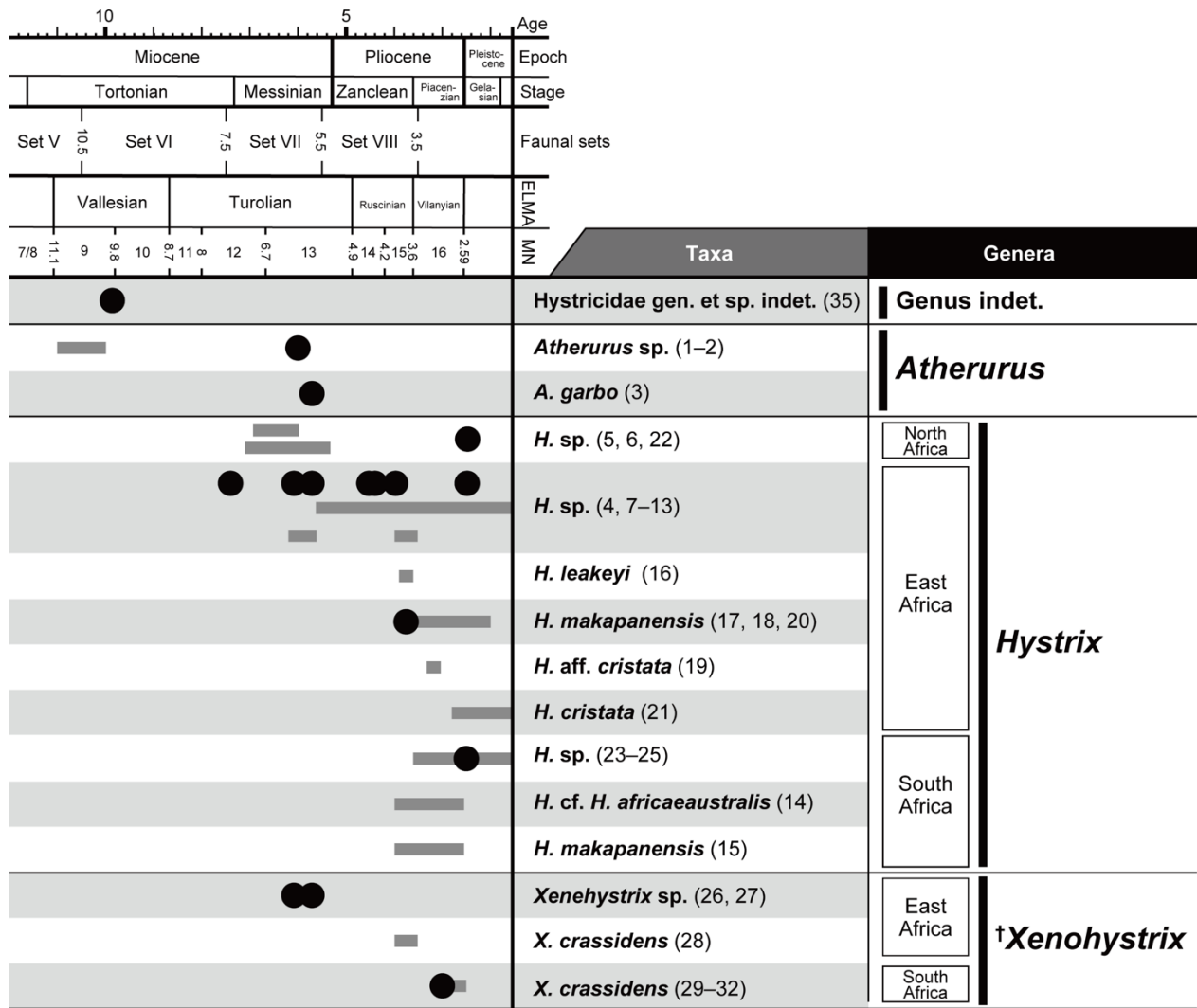
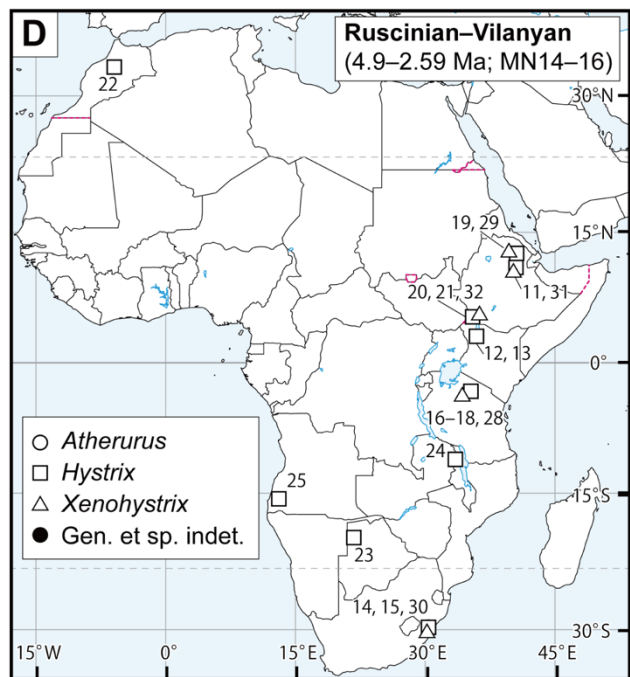
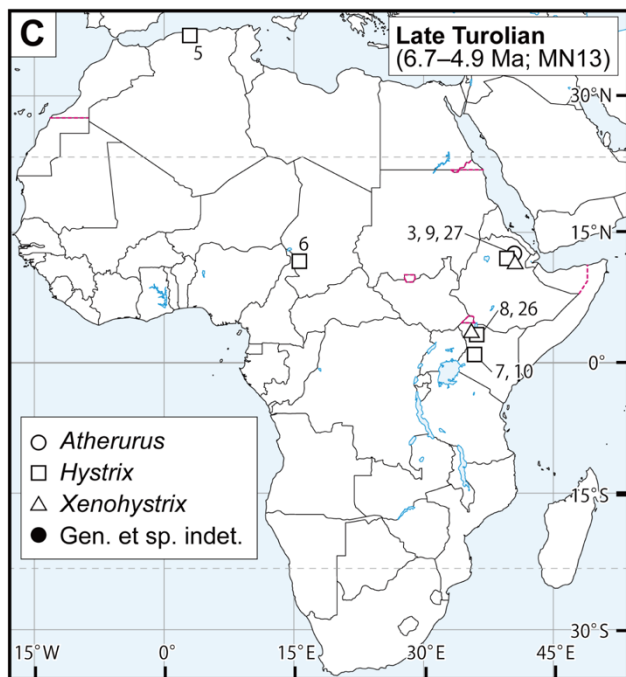
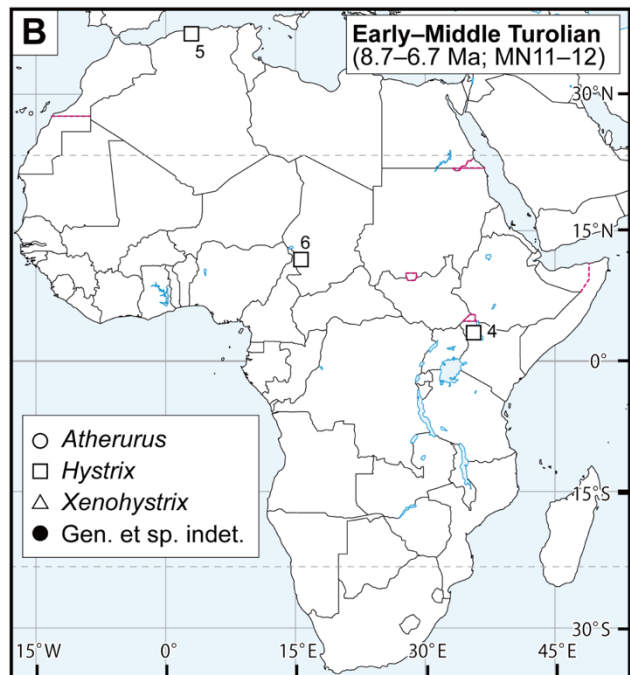
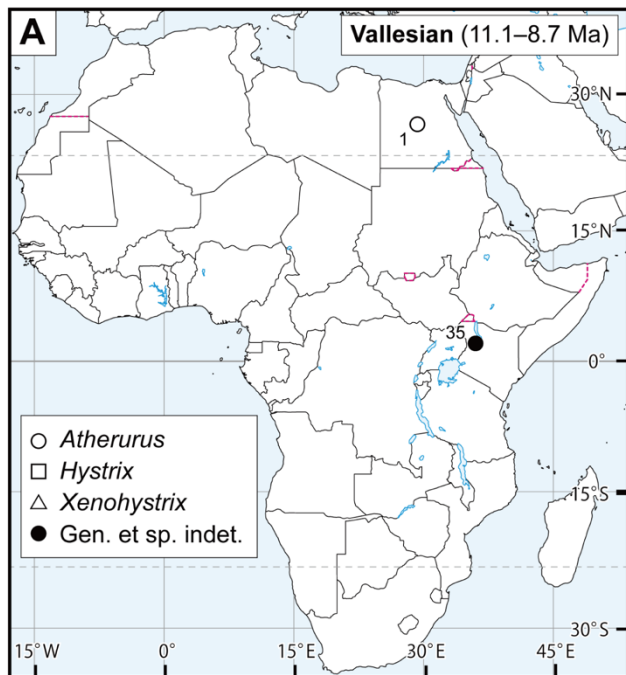


Fig. 15. Temporal ranges of the species in Africa. For detail fossil records see Appendix 2.



**Fig. 16.** Paleogeographic map of African hystricids during Vallesian to Vilanyan (MN 9–16; early late Miocene–Pliocene). A, Vallesian (11.1–8.7Ma; MN9–10); B, Early–Middle Turolian (8.7–6.7 Ma; MN11–12); C, Late Turolian (6.7–4.9 Ma; MN13); D, Ruscinian–Vilanyan (4.9– 14–16). See appendix 2 for the numbers in this figure.

## Chapter 5. Conclusion

In this study, the Late Miocene rodent fauna from Nakali Formation (ca. 10 Ma), Northern Kenya, were revised and described. As a result, the following taxa are recognized: *Vulcanisciurus africanus* (Sciuridae), Sciuridae gen. et sp. indet., *Nakalimys lavocati* (Rhizomyinae, Spalacidae), *Afrocricetodon* cf. *songhori korui* (Afrocricetodontinae, Nesomyidae), *Abudhabia* sp. indet. (Gerbillinae, Muridae), *Paraulacodus johanesi* (Thryonomyidae), Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (small), Thryonomyidae gen. et sp. indet. (large), Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet. From identifying the Nakali rodent fauna, this study recognized six families and 9 species (Table 8). The dominant taxon among the six families (total 680 classified specimens) is the Rhizomyinae (615 specimens); the remainder are the Afrocricetodontinae (37 specimens), the Sciuridae (13 specimens), the Thryonomyidae (8 specimens), the Gerbillinae (6 specimens), and the Hystricidae (1 specimen).

The taxonomic identifications by this study represent important new data for early Late Miocene biogeography. It suggests that Nakali presents 1) the latest records for *Vulcanisciurus* and *Afrocricetodon*, 2) the oldest records in Africa for *Abudhabia*, 3) the oldest records in Sub-saharan Africa for Hystricidae. These suggest that faunal changes of some rodent taxa of Eastern African begun to occurred from around 10 Ma. It is quite likely that the changes would be related to the land connection of Afro–Eurasia and paleoenvironmental change in Africa.

The rodent fauna from the Nakali Formation fill a paleobiogeographic gap during the early Late Miocene. Nonetheless, the Late Miocene is represented poorly in East Africa, compared to the Early to Middle Miocene. More fossil records and detailed phylogenetic analysis of each rodents are needed to discuss this hypothesis

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**Appendix 1.** List of the fossil localities of *Abudhabia* and its paleoenvironments.

No.	Taxa	Contry	Locality	Horizon	Ma	Dating	Paleoenvironment	References (Fossil record)
1	<i>A. sp.</i> (new species)	Turkey	Altinta	—	11.1–9.8 (MN9)	Biostratigraphy (Unay et al., 2003a, b; de Bruijn et al., 2013)	—	de Bruijn et al. (2013) listed only
2	<i>A. sp.</i>	Kenya	Nakali	Nakali Fm.	ca. 10 Ma	K/Ar and paleomagnetic data (Kunimatsu et al., 2007)	forest with woodland and river and lake under seasonal climate (Kunimatsu et al., 2007; Nakatsukasa et al., 2010; Sakai et al., 2010, 2013; Uno et al., 2011; Nakaya et al., 2012)	this study
3	<i>A. baheenensis</i>	China	Lantian area	Bahe Fm.	9.98–8.07	Paleomagne (Kaakinen and Lunkka, 2003; Kaakinen, 2005; Zhang et al., 2013)	arid and open euvironment (Qiu et al., 2004)	Zhang et al. (2002) as <i>Abudhabia sp. nov.</i> Qiu et al. (2003) as <i>Abudhabia sp. nov.</i> Qiu et al. (2004)
4	<i>A. pakistanensis</i>	Pakistan	Potwar Plateau	Dhok Pthan Fm.	8.6	Paleomagne (Flynn and Jacobs, 1999)	—	Flynn and Jacobs (1999) Flynn and Wessels (2013)
5	<i>A. radinskyi</i>	Afghanistan	Kabul	Lataband series	Late Miocene (Early–Middle Turolian)	Biostratigraphy (Sen, 2001b)	—	Flynn et al. (2003)
6	cf. <i>A. sp.</i>	Ethiopia	Chorora	Chorora Fm. (Upper Chorora)	ca. 7.5–7.0	K/Ar (Suwa et al., 2015)	wooded with more open (savanna-like) habitat (Geraads et al., 2002; Cote, 2004)	Suwa et al. (2015)
7	<i>A. baynunensis</i>	United Arab Emirates	Al Gharba	Baynunah Fm.	7.5–6.5	Biochronology (Bibi et al., 2013)	more woodland environment flanking a river sytem (Paleosol; Kingdon, 1999)/ more open glasslands or wooded grasslands distal to the fluvial environments (enamel isotopic datasets; Kingdon, 1999)	de Bruijn and Whybrow (1994) de Bruijun (1999) (added materials)
8	<i>A. yardangi</i>	Libya	As-Sahabi	Sahabi Fm.	ca. 7 Ma	Biostratigraphy (Boaz, 2008; Boaz et al., 2008; Werdlin, 2010)	arid zone behind the better-vegetated and probably forested shoreline (Manthe, 1987)	Manthe (1987) as <i>Protatera yardangi</i> Flynn et al. (2003) as <i>Abudhabia yardangi</i>
9	<i>A. sp.</i>	Kenya	Lothagam	Upper Nawata	5.23 Ma	Sdimentation rate and paleomagne (McDougall and Feibel, 1999)	C4 grass, more open (more grass lands) (Bobe, 2011)	Winkler (2003)
10	<i>A. kabulense</i>	Afghanistan	Pul-e Charkhi	—	5	Biochronology (Brandy, 1981; Sen, 1983, 2001b)	open steppe habitat or herbaceous savanna with the presence of gallery forests (Sen, 1983)	Brandy (1979) as <i>Protatera sp.</i> Brandy (1981) as <i>Protatera sp.</i> Sen (1983) as <i>Protatera kabalense</i> Wessels (1998) as <i>Abudhabia kabalense</i>
11	<i>A. cf. A. kabulense</i>	India	Moginand and Kanthro	—	4.18–2.58	Paleomagne (Nanda, 2002; Dannell, 2004; Dannell et al., 2006; Patnaik, 2013)	pond, pond-bank, bushland and grassland communities (Patnaik, 1995)	Patnaik (1997)

**Appendix 2.** List of the fossil localities of the Neogene hystricid of Africa and its paleoenvironments.

No.	Taxa	Contry	Locality	Horizon	Ma	Dating	Paleoenvironment	References (Fossil record)
<b><i>Atherurus</i></b>								
1	<i>A. sp.</i>	Egypt	Sheikh Abdallar	—	11–10	Biochronology (Pickford et al., 2008)	humid paleoclimate (Pickford et al., 2008)	Pickford et al. (2008, 2010)
2	<i>A. sp.</i>	Kenya	Lemudong'o	—	6.12–6.08	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Deino and Ambrose, 2007)	forested and mesic micro-environments dominated over open grassland/woodland habitats (Manthi, 2007)	Hlusko (2007)
3	<i>A. garbo</i>	Ethiopia	Middle Awash	Adu-Asa Fm.	5.7	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar dates, paleomagnetic data, and tephrachemistry (WoldeGabriel et al. 2001; Renne, 1999)	riparian woodland and floodplain grassland/ Arid savanna (vertebrate fossils; Su et al., 2009)	Haile-Salassie et al. (2004) Wesselman et al. (2009)
<b><i>Hystrix</i></b>								
4	<i>H. sp. (small)</i>	Kenya	Lothagam	Lower Nawata	ca. >7.44	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (McDougall and Feibel, 1999)	mixed woodlands/ open country (Cote, 2004)	Winkler (2003)
5	<i>H. sp.</i>	Algeria	Manacer (=Marceau)	—	7.1–5.3? (Cote, 2004)	uncertain	—	Arambourg (1959) Thomas and Petter (1986)
6	<i>H. sp.</i>	Chad	Tros-Menalla	—	7–6	Biochronology (Vignaud et al. 2002)	mosaic of environments from gallery forest at the edge of a lake area to a dominance of large savannah and grassland (Vignaud et al. 2002)	Vignaud et al. (2002)
7	<i>H. sp.</i>	Kenya	Tugen Hill	Lukeino Fm.	6.2–5.6	K/Ar (Hill, 1999)	a mix of woodlands and more open habitat/ a Savanna habitat (Winkler, 2002)	Winkler (2002) Mein and Poickford (2006)
8	<i>H. sp.</i>	Kenya	Lemudong'o	—	6.12–6.08	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Deino and Ambrose, 2007)	forested and mesic micro-environments dominated over open grassland/woodland habitats (Manthi, 2007)	Hlusko (2007)
9	<i>H. sp.</i>	Ethiopia	Middle Awash	Adu-Asa Fm.	5.7	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar dates, paleomagnetic data, and tephrachemistry (WoldeGabriel et al. 2001; Renne, 1999)	riparian woodland and floodplain grassland/ Arid savanna (vertebrate fossils; Su et al., 2009)	Haile-Salassie et al. (2004) Wesselman et al. (2009)
10	<i>H. sp.</i>	Kenya	Tugen Hill	Cheneron Fm.	5.6–1.6	K/Ar (Hill, 1999)	a mix of woodlands and more open habitat/ a Savanna habitat (Winkler, 2002)	Winkler (2002)
11	<i>H. sp.</i>	Ethiopia	Middle Awash (e.g., Aramis)	Adu-Asa Fm.	4.4 (Wesselman and Black, unpubl.)	—	—	WoldeGabriel et al. (1994) Haile-Salassie et al. (2004) Wesselman et al. (2009)
12	<i>H. sp.</i>	Kenya	Kanapoi	Kanapoi Fm.	ca. 4	Tuff (Leakey et al., 1995, 1998; Manthi, 2006)	open and dry savanna grasslands with scattered vegetation, riverine woodlands, and gallery forests (Manthi, 2006)	Harris et al. (2003) Manthi (2006)

Appendix 2. Continued.

No.	Taxa	Contry	Locality	Horizon	Ma	Dating	Paleoenvironment	References (Fossil record)
13	<i>H. sp.</i> (large)	Kenya	Lothagam	Kaiyumung Mb.	ca. 4.0–3.5	(Leakey, unpubl. data from Winkler, 2003; Leakey et al. 1996)	—	Winkler (2003)
14	<i>H. cf. H. africaeustralis</i>	South Africa, western	Makapansgat	—	4–2.6	Geomorphological, faunal and cultural evidence (Maguire, 1976)	—	Greenwood (1955, 1958)
15	<i>H. major</i> (= <i>H. makapanensis</i> )	South Africa, western	Makapansgat	—	4–2.6	Geomorphological, faunal and cultural evidence (Maguire, 1976)	—	Greenwood (1955, 1958)
16	<i>H. leakyi</i>	Tanzania	Laetoli	Upper Laetoli Beds	3.85–3.6	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Harrison, 2011; Deino, 2011)	mosaic of closed woodland, open woodland, shrubland and grassland (various reason; Harrison, 2011)	Denys (1987a, 2011)
17	<i>H. makapanensis</i>	Tanzania	Laetoli	Upper Laetoli Beds	3.85–3.6	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Harrison, 2011; Deino, 2011)	mosaic of closed woodland, open woodland, shrubland and grassland (various reason; Harrison, 2011)	Denys (1987a, 2011)
18	<i>H. makapanensis</i>	Tanzania	Laetoli	Upper Ndolanya Beds	3.6–2.66	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Harrison, 2011; Deino, 2011)	greater proportion of grassland / closed or open woodlands (Various reason; Herrison, 2011)	Denys (2011)
19	<i>H. aff. cristata</i>	Ethiopia	Hadar		3.2–3.1	Paleomagne (Taieb and Tiercelin, 1979)	humid conditions excluding any possibility of arid steppe environments/ closed with buhes and forests (Sabatier, 1982)	Ssbatier (1978, 1982)
20	<i>H. makapanensis</i>	Ethiopia	—	Shungura Fm. Mb. C, E, F, G	2.8–2.0	Tuff sequense (Feibel et al., 1989; McDougall and Brown, 2008)	xeric > mesic (Wesselman, 1984)	Wesselman (1984)
21	<i>H. cristata</i>	Ethiopia	Omo Valley	Shungura Fm. Mb. B, E, F, G, L	3.4–0.8	Tuff sequense (Feibel et al., 1989; McDougall and Brown, 2008)	xeric > mesic (Wesselman, 1984)	Wesselman (1984)
22	<i>H. sp.</i>	Morocco	Ahl al Oughlam	—	ca. 2.5	Biostratigraphy (Geraads, 1998b)	shrubland and bushland (Geraads, 2006)	Geraads (1995, 2006)
23	<i>H. sp.</i>	Botswana	NW Botswana (Ngamiland: Gcwihaba and Nqumtsa)	—	ca. 2.5	Biostratigraphy (Pickford, 1990)	arid climate / swampy patches bordered by trees nearby / desertic conditions (Pickford, 1990)	Pickford (1990) Pickford and Mein (1988)
24	<i>H. sp.</i>	Malawi	Uraha	Chiwondo Beds	2.5–2.3	Faunal correlation with radiometrically dated biostratigraphic units in eastern Africa (Schrenk et al. 1993; Bromage et al., 1995; Kullmer, 2008)	open / absence of moist dense forest (Denys, 2011)	Denys et al. (2011)
25	<i>H. sp.</i>	Angola	Humpata	2, unspecified	The late Pliocene to early Pleistocene	Biostratigraphy (Pickford et al. 1992)	semi- arid steppes or wooded and grassland-savannahs (Pickford et al. 1992)	Pickford et al. (1990, 1992)



Appendix 2. Continued.

No.	Taxa	Contry	Locality	Horizon	Ma	Dating	Paleoenvironment	References (Fossil record)
	<sup>†</sup> <i>Xenohystrix</i>							
26	<i>X. sp.</i>	Kenya	Lemudong'o	—	6.12–6.08	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Deino and Ambrose, 2007)	forested and mesic micro-environments dominated over open grassland/woodland habitats (Manthi, 2007)	Hlusko (2007)
27	<i>X. sp.</i>	Ethiopia	Middle Awash	Adu-Asa Fm.	5.7	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar dates, paleomagnetic data, and tephrochemistry (WoldeGabriel et al. 2001; Renne, 1999)	riparian woodland and floodplain grassland/ Arid savanna (vertebrate fossils; Su et al., 2009)	Haile-Salassie et al. (2004) Wesselman et al. (2009)
28	<i>X. carassidens</i>	Tanzania	Laetoli	Upper Laetoli Beds	3.85–3.6	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Harrison, 2011; Deino, 2011)	mosaic of closed woodland, open woodland, shrubland and grassland (various reason; Harrison, 2011)	Denys (1987a, 2011)
29	<i>X. sp.</i>	Ethiopia	Middle Awash localities (e.g., Aramis)	Haradaso Mb. Sagantole Fm.	3.4	<sup>40</sup> Ar/ <sup>39</sup> Ar (Renne et al., 1999)	—	WoldeGabriel et al. (1994) Haile-Salassie et al. (2004) Wesselman et al. (2009)
30	<i>X. carassidens</i>	South Africa, western	Makapansgat	Member 3 and 4	3.2–3.1 Ma for Mb. 3 2.5 Ma for Mb. 4	Magnetostratigraphy (Patridge et al., 2000)	more wooded than present day woodland–savanna mosaic (paleodiet; Hopley et al., 2006)	Greenwood (1955)
31	<i>X. carassidens</i>	Ethiopia	Hadar	Hadar Fm. (SH2: 147, 265; DD2: 133)	3.1–2.9	Paleomagne (Taieb and Tiercelin, 1979)	humid conditions excluding any possibility of arid steppe environments/ closed with buhes and forests (Sabatier, 1982)	Ssbatier (1978, 1982) =1978: <i>X. cf. X. crassidens</i>
32	<i>X. carassidens</i>	Ethiopia	Omo Valley	Shungura Fm. Mb. B	ca. 3	Tuff sequense (Feibel et al., 1989; McDougall and Brown, 2008)	a relic lowland forest (Wesselman, 1984)	Wesselman (1984)
<b>Hystricidae gen. et sp. indet.</b>								
35	Gen et sp. indet.	Kenya	Nakali	Nakali Fm.	ca. 10 Ma	K/Ar and paleomagnetic data (Kunimatsu et al., 2007)	forest with woodland and river and lake under seasonal climate (Kunimatsu et al., 2007; Nakatsukasa et al., 2010; Sakai et al., 2010, 2013; Uno et al., 2011; Nakaya et al., 2012)	this study