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Hungry for fruit? – A case study on the ecology of middle Miocene Moschidae (Mammalia, Ruminantia)

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ABSTRACT
This study reveals the oldest fruit enriched diet in Moschidae so far. It deals with tooth meso- and microwear of *Micromeryx flourensianus* Lartet, 1851 and *M.? eiselei* Aiglstorfer, Costeur, Mennecart & Heizmann, 2017 from the two fossil-rich middle Miocene localities, Sansan (France, 14.1 Ma) and Steinheim am Albuch (a. A., Germany, 13.5 Ma). In combination with literature data it indicates different levels of frugivory in moschids during the Miocene and suggests ecologic niche partitioning of two sympatric moschids in Steinheim a. A. The Miocene data imply a dietary shift during the evolution of the family, as feeding on fruits and/or nuts is not common in modern Moschidae.

A direct comparison of the results for Sansan and Steinheim a. A. points to a slightly more abrasive diet in Steinheim a. A. and thus assumedly more arid conditions. Differences are only minor, however, and indicate that Sansan was most likely already affected as well by the middle Miocene cooling phase.

RÉSUMÉ
Cette étude révèle les plus anciens Moschidae ayant un régime alimentaire en fruits. La méso- et microuser dentaire de *Micromeryx flourensianus* Lartet, 1851 et *M.? eiselei* Aiglstorfer, Costeur, Mennecart & Heizmann, 2017 des localités de Sansan (France, 14,1 Ma) et Steinheim am Albuch (a. A., Allemagne, 13,5 Ma) ont été étudiées. La comparaison de ces données à d’autres du Miocène nous informe sur les différents niveaux de frugivorie au sein des Moschidae. Elle suggère une partition des niches écologiques entre les deux espèces sympatriques de Steinheim a. A. Les données du Miocène impliquent un changement dans le régime alimentaire au cours de l’évolution de cette famille, puisqu’il n’est pas commun, pour les Moschidae actuels, de se nourrir de fruits et/ou de noix. La comparaison entre les sites de Sansan et Steinheim a. A. indique une nourriture plus abrasive chez les spécimens de Steinheim a. A. et donc des conditions environnementales supposées plus arides. Cependant, les différences sont mineures, la localité de Sansan étant probablement déjà affectée par la phase de refroidissement du Miocène moyen.
INTRODUCTION

Moschidae are small pectoral ruminants with elongated upper canines in the males and a lack of cranial appendages. Once spread all over Eurasia with several genera, the family is now reduced to one genus only – *Moschus* Linnaeus, 1758. Today *Moschus* comprises six endangered (*M. anhuiensis* Wang, Hu, & Yan, 1982; *M. berezovskii* Flełow, 1929; *M. chrysogaster* Hodgson, 1839; *M. cupreus* Grubb, 1982; *M. fuscus* Li, 1981; *M. leucogaster* Hodgson, 1839), and one vulnerable species (*M. moschiferus* Linnaeus, 1758) (IUCN 2018). It is restricted to mountainous regions of Asia, mainly in the Paleartic (sensu Wallace [1876]) and Sino-Japanese zoogeographic realm (sensu Holt et al. [2013]), and often lives in areas where the ground is covered with snow more than half of the year (Green 1986; Green & Kettle 1997; Groves 2011; Pan et al. 2015).

The phylogenetic position of the moschid family has been the subject of debate for long, and at the moment, they appear to be most likely the sister group of bovids (Webb & Taylor 1980; Janis & Scott 1987; Vislobokova 1990; Gentry 1994; Su et al. 1999; Gentry 2000; Hassanin & Douzery 2003; Hernández Fernández & Vraa 2005; Vislobokova & Lavrov 2009; Sánchez et al. 2010, 2015; dos Reis et al. 2012; Hassanin et al. 2012; Bibi 2013, 2014). As the split of moschids and bovids is assumed to have taken place more than 20 Ma ago (Mennecart et al. 2012, 2017, 2018; Sánchez et al. 2015), modern Moschus can be considered a terminal taxon of a long isolated lineage and by itself can offer only a very limited data set that is highly susceptible to homoplastic features. Thus, by studying the fossil moschid record we can essentially improve our understanding of the family, especially its early evolution and in-detail phylogeny. By doing this, we also expect to gain better understanding of the ecological plasticity in moschids throughout their evolution: Is modern moschid ecology the relic of a once wider and more diverse ecology or does it represent a completely new trait?


**GEOGRAPHIC, STRATIGRAPHIC AND TAPHONOMIC SETTING**

In this study, we focus on one of the oldest moschid species and the type species of *Micromeryx* (see Fig. 1 for a life reconstruction of *Micromeryx*): *Micromeryx flourensianus* Lartet, 1851. This species was present in European ecosystems from the middle Miocene to the early late Miocene (at least from about 15/16 Ma to 11 Ma; Aiglstorfer et al. 2018). There are two localities with a rich fossil record of this taxon: the type locality of the species, Sansan (France), and the locality Steinheim am Albuch (a. A.; Germany) (Fig. 2). Both localities are of middle Miocene age and can be assigned to a time period which marks the change from the Miocene Climatic Optimum (about 17 to 15 Ma; Kovar-Eder & Teodíris [2018]) to the subsequent Middle Miocene Cooling phase (“Miocene Climatic Event”) that led to more arid conditions and stronger seasonality in Central and Western Europe.

Sansan (reference locality for MN6) is located in the molasse de l’Armagnac (Ginsburg & Bulot 2000) in the South of France. The age of the locality was originally considered to be about 15 Ma (Sen & Ginsburg 2000). Several works have argued for a younger age of the locality and at the moment an age of 14.1 Ma is considered the most likely (Hilgen et al. 2012). Steinheim a. A. is stratigraphically and biochronologically more recent. It is located on the karstic plateau of the eastern part of the Swabian Alb (SW Germany) and comprises middle Miocene lake sediment in-fills of a crater that formed during a binary asteroid impact between 14.6 and 15.0 Ma ago (Stöffler et al. 2002; Buchner et al. 2013). The higher layers of the lake sediments, roughly considered to be about 13.5 Ma (Tütken et al. 2006), are rich in mammal remains (Heizmann & Reiff 2002) and represent the reference locality of the Neogene Mediterranean Mammal Unit MN7. Steinheim a. A. has delivered the worldwide richest fossil moschid material so far and houses a second moschid taxon, *Micromeryx eiselei* Aiglstorfer, Costeur, Mennecart & Heizmann, 2017, besides *M. flourensianus* (Aiglstorfer et al. 2017).

The faunal records of both localities can be considered as palaeocommunities without any mixing in terms of stratigraphy, and moschid specimens were not accumulated in secondary lag triggered. We can assume an autochthonous taphocoenosis for the locality Steinheim a. A.: lake sediments, no indication for water currents, articulated skeletons, and no signs for abrasion (Heizmann & Reiff 2002; Tütken et al. 2006). The main accumulations of plants, mammals and non-mammalian vertebrates are not from the same horizon in Steinheim a. A. and may have recorded slightly different environmental conditions. However, as there are no floral or faunal indications for distinct environmental differences of the lake surroundings in between the main fossil bearing horizons, we consider it justified to reconstruct the assemblage as a whole in terms of a time-averaged palaeoecosystem (Heizmann & Reiff 2002).

For Sansan, Aiglstorfer et al. (2019) reconstructed the moschid accumulation as an allochthonous / suballochthonous assemblage strongly influenced by carnivore activity and with an impact of fluvial transport. Although we are aware that the faunal assemblage from Sansan represents a time-averaged community as well (Sen & Ginsburg 2000), the sedimentological and taphonomic history still allows an interpretation of the accumulation as a whole (Plaziat & Balzter 2000).

Taking into account body size (3–6 kg for *M. flourensianus* [Aiglstorfer et al. 2014b; Aiglstorfer et al. 2019]), between 6.5 and 8 kg for *Micromeryx eiselei* (estimated after Damuth [1990], Janis [1990], and Scott [1990]) and the behavioural ecology of modern moschids, we consider the moschids from both locali-
ties as permanent inhabitants of the wider surroundings of the respective locality with a small radius of movement and not undertaking long migrations. Therefore, palaeoenvironmental data of the localities do indeed reflect frame conditions for the respective moschid habitats.

AIM OF THE STUDY
For our study, we compare the two palaeopopulations of Micromeryx flourensianus from Sansan and Steinheim a. A., M.? eiselei (so far endemic to Steinheim a. A.), and the modern Moschus using mesowear and microwear in order to track ecological variation in terms of long- and short-term dietary behavior.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

MATERIAL
We sampled two Miocene moschid species from two localities: M. flourensianus from Sansan (eight specimens: MNHN.F.SA2970, MNHN.F.SA2971, MNHN.F.SA3812, MNHN.F.SA3813, MNHN.F.SA3817, MNHN.F.SA9772, MNHN.F.SA10973, MNHN.F.SA10971) and Steinheim a. A. (10 specimens: SMNS 15776 [not included in mesowear due to broken tip in paracone], SMNS 40252 [not included in mesowear due to broken tip in paracone], SMNS 40322, SMNS 42636, SMNS 42723 [not included in mesowear due to broken tip in paracone], SMNS 42925 [not included in mesowear due to advanced age], SMNS 46082, NMB Sth. 834, NMB Sth. 836, NMB Sth. 855 a), as well as M.? eiselei (two specimens for microwear: SMNS 40617 [old individual], NMB Sth. 833 [old individual]; four specimens for mesowear: SMNS 40617, NMB Sth. 833, NMB Sth. 825 [young individual], SMNS 40010 [young individual]) from Steinheim a. A. Furthermore, we included four recent specimens of Moschus moschiferus from Siberia (ZFMK 1997.664 and ZFMK 1997.666; SMNS 143 and SMNS 1238 [assignation and regional origin with reservations for the latter]) in our study.

Fig. 1. — Life reconstruction of Micromeryx Lartet, 1851 (based on male skeleton of Micromeryx? eiselei Aiglstorfer, Costeur, Mennecart & Heizmann, 2017; © SMNS).
The material of *Micromeryx florourensianus* from Sansan has not been fully revised so far, and the species indeed still lacks the designation of a lectotype. However, in our study we did not find clear indications for the presence of a second taxon in the locality, and all specimens analysed in this study are well in accordance with intraspecific variability of one species.

**Methods**


Following Solounias & Semprebon (2002), we differentiated the following major herbivore dietary classes: grazer, leaf browser, mixed-feeder, and fruit/seed browser (the latter also summarized as frugivore in our study). Furthermore, we considered lichenophagy as a separate dietary category, which is characterized by occlusal relief and sharpness of cusp apices and correlated with the relative amounts of attritive (i.e., eat leaves and grass or on leaves and fruit) and granulitative wear (i.e., eat leaves and grass). These scar categories are subdivided qualitatively as follows:

- **Pits**: classified as either small pits, large pits or puncture pits. Large pits are deeper and more recessive (always dark), generally at least about twice the diameter of small pits, and often have less regular outlines than do small pits; the latter also are always bright and highly refractive. Puncture pits are large and very deep pits with crater-like features with regular margins and they appear dark due to low refractivity.
- **Scratches**: distinguished as fine scratches (i.e., narrow scratches that are also relatively shallow but appear dark due to low refractivity), brilliant scratches (i.e., very deep and trench-like features that are wider than the other types of scratches and dark due to low refractivity) and hypercoarse scratches (i.e., very deep and trench-like features that are wider than the other types of scratches and dark due to low refractivity).
- **Gouges**: features that have ragged, irregular edges and are much larger (approximately 2-3 times as large) and deeper than clearly brachydont species, the tooth crown in the genus is lower than in *Rangifer*, used as representative of the mesodont taxon in the study by Rivals et al. (2007).

**Tooth microwear analysis**

Microwear features of dental enamel on the paracone of the upper M2 (preferably from the left side) were examined with a stereomicroscope on high-resolution epoxy casts of teeth following the cleaning, moulding, casting and examination protocol developed by Solounias & Semprebon (2002) and Semprebon et al. (2004). Casts were observed using a light stereomicroscope (Zeiss Stemi 2000C) at 35× magnification by a single experienced observer (GS) to minimize error that may be incurred. As detailed in Solounias & Semprebon (2002), the refractive properties of the enamel microfeatures were employed to visualize food scars. Microwear scars (i.e., elongated scratches and rounded pits) were quantified in two areas on the paracone of the upper second molars in a square area of 0.16 mm² using an ocular reticule. We used the classification of features defined by Solounias & Semprebon (2002) and Semprebon et al. (2004) which distinguish various types of pits and scratches. Pits are microwear scars that are circular or sub-circular in outline and thus have approximately similar widths and lengths, whereas scratches are elongated microfeatures that are not merely longer than they are wide, but have straight, parallel sides.

These scar categories are subdivided qualitatively as follows using their differential light refractive properties:

- **Pits**: classified as either small pits, large pits or puncture pits. Large pits are deeper, less refractive (always dark), generally at least about twice the diameter of small pits, and often have less regular outlines than do small pits; the latter also are always bright and highly refractive. Puncture pits are large and very deep pits with crater-like features with regular margins and they appear dark due to low refractivity.
- **Scratches**: distinguished as either fine (i.e., narrow scratches that appear relatively shallow and have moderate refractivity – i.e., look white but relatively dim), coarse (i.e., wide scratches that are also relatively deep but have high refractivity – look brilliantly white) and hypercoarse (i.e., very deep and trench-like features that are wider than the other types of scratches and dark due to low refractivity).
- **Gouges**: features that have ragged, irregular edges and are much larger (approximately 2-3 times as large) and deeper than large pits. They are relatively dark features with low refractivity. The presence or absence of gouges in the microscope field was recorded.

Average numbers of scratches and pits allow for discrimination between the dietary categories of leaf browser (i.e., eating woody and non-woody dicotyledonous plants) vs grazer (i.e., eating grass). Animals that alternate between feeding on leaves and grass or on leaves and fruit show a wider variation in scratch/pit results (often falling in the gap between leaf browser and grazer scratch/pit ecospaces and display both high and low individual raw scratch results. In addition, taxa that enrich a folivore diet with a considerable amount of hard

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**Table 1.** Mesowear results for *M. florourensianus* Larret, 1851, *M.? eiselei* Aiglstorfer, Costeur, Mennewart & Heizmann, 2017 (young) and *Moschus Linnaeus*, 1758. Abbreviations: %S, percentage of individuals with sharp mesowear; %R, percentage of individuals with blunt mesowear; %HR, percentage of individuals with high mesowear relief; %LR, percentage of individuals with low mesowear relief.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locality and species</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%S</th>
<th>%R</th>
<th>%B</th>
<th>%HR</th>
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<td>0</td>
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and soft fruits, seeds, and nuts, termed as fruit/seed browsers (frugivores) generally display higher numbers of scratches than found in leaf browsers and higher percentages of coarsely or mixed types of scratches rather than the large percentage of finely textured scratches found in folivores. In addition, many individual specimens in these taxa show more than four large pits. Furthermore, the large pits seen in this group are very characteristic and unique. That is, they are the deepest pits observed (puncture-like and very symmetrical).

**RESULTS**

**TOOTH MESOWEAR ANALYSIS**

For the mesowear, we observe a high relief for *Micromeryx flourensianus* from both localities, as well as mostly rounded (Sansan) to completely rounded (Steinheim a. A.) cusps, displaying also a certain change in mesowear pattern along the life span (Table 1; Fig. 3). In the cluster analysis, *M. flourensianus* from Steinheim a. A. clusters with non-extreme grazers and the frugivores *Cephalophus silviculter* (Azélis, 1815), *C. natalensis* A. Smith, 1834 and *Hyemoschus aquaticus* (Ogilby, 1841). *M. flourensianus* from Sansan has less abrasive mesowear and clusters with extant mixed feeders and other *Cephalophus* H. Smith, 1827 taxa (Fig. 4). The cluster analysis shows that *Micromeryx flourensianus* does not have a mesowear signature that groups it with extant leaf browsers but has rather a higher level of abrasion than what is seen in extant leaf browsers.

The mesowear is more heterogenous in *Micromeryx eiselei*. In the older individuals (SMNS 40617, NMB Sth. 833), the cusp shape is less sharp, which may indicate that the long-term diet included some fruit, but also (and more likely) could simply reflect more worn cusps due to advanced age. Consequently, we did not include old individuals of *M.? eiselei* in the cluster analysis or in Table 1 since their cusps might be expected to be worn due to age obscuring any normal dietary behavior. However, we did include the mesowear results from two young individuals of *M.? eiselei* in our cluster analysis as we found their highly attritive results more significant. Wear facets were present on their paracone enamel bands indicating some adult foods were likely being consumed. The two younger specimens (NMB Sth. 825, SMNS 40010) have sharp cusps and high relief typical of leaf browsers (Fig. 3) and thus cluster in Figure 4 with extant leaf browsers (e.g. *Alces alces* (Linnaeus, 1758)).

For modern *Moschus* from Siberia, we observed a high mesowear relief and rounded cusps comparable to *M. flourensianus* (Table 1). Modern *Moschus* clusters with *M. flourensianus* from Steinheim a. A. in the analysis (Fig. 4).

**TOOTH MICROWEAR ANALYSIS**

For *Micromeryx flourensianus* from Sansan (n = 8) the number of pits ranges from 27 to 45 per counting area, for *M. flourensianus* from Steinheim am Albuch (n = 10) from 35 to 64. The number of scratches per counting area ranges from 7 to 22 for *M. flourensianus* from both localities. Many specimens have large pits, some of these are deep and puncture-like (Fig. 5B, D), and many individuals fall in between the extant leaf browsing and grazing morphospace (Fig. 6). Both results are typical for extant species that incorporate fruit and seeds in their diet. Only some individuals have very few large pits, lack puncture-like pits, and have results typical of more leaf browsing (Fig. 5A). *M. flourensianus* individuals from Steinheim a. A. have more pits overall and more large pits and gouges than those from Sansan (Table 2; Figs 5D, 7A). Furthermore Steinheim a. A. has more individuals with scratch numbers in or closer to the leaf browsing range (Fig. 6). Also, some individuals from Steinheim a. A., display a mixture of coarse and hypercoarse scratches (Fig. 7B).

The number of pits in *M.? eiselei* from Steinheim a. A. (older individuals; n=2) ranges from 30 to 42 and the number of scratches from 8 to 10 per counting area. Both specimens only show fine scratches and totally lack gouges (Table 2; Fig. 5C).

In order to compare our fossil data with modern *Moschus*, we sampled four available specimens (Fig. 5E, F). In our analysis, the numbers of pits range from 49 to 54, and scratches from 12 to 20 per counting area. Most specimens fall in between the extant leaf browsing and grazing morphospace (Fig. 6). Large pits are present in all specimens, three out of four specimens show clear gouges, and in all except one specimen, scratches are coarse and hypercoarse (Table 2; Fig. 7A, B). In contrast to the other individuals, the latter shows puncture-like pits and mixed scratches (Table 2; Fig. 5E).
Table 2. — Microwear results for *M. flourensianus* Lartet, 1851, M.? eiselei Aiglstorfer, Costeur, Mennecart & Heizmann, 2017 (old) and Moschus Linnaeus, 1758. Abbreviations: n, number of specimens; NP, total number of pits; NLP, number of large pits; NS, total number of scratches; %LP, percentage of individuals with large pits (% more than four large pits, coded as present in the specimen); %PP, percentage of individuals with puncture pits; %FS, percentage of individuals with fine scratches; %MS, percentage of individuals with mixed scratches; %CS, percentage of individuals with coarse scratches; %C&HC, percentage of individuals with coarse and hypercoarse scratches; %G, percentage of individuals with gouges; SWS, scratch width score: 0, fine; 1, mix of fine and coarse; 2, coarse; 3, mix of coarse and hypercoarse; S/P, scratch/pit ratio.

<table>
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<th>NP</th>
<th>NLP</th>
<th>NS</th>
<th>%LP</th>
<th>%PP</th>
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</table>

Discussion

Diet of modern and fossil Moschidae

**Diet of Miocene Moschidae**

Based on the relatively abrasive signature in the mesowear of *M. flourensianus* from Sansan and Steinheim a. A. we reconstruct that it was most likely not feeding on soft leaves exclusively but included some seed/fruit in its diet as fruit consumption has been shown to cause rounding of molar cusps (Fortelius & Solounias 2000). The microwear results for both palaeopopulations are as well typical for species that incorporate fruit and seeds in their diet and point to *M. flourensianus* as a fruit/seed browser. As mentioned, only some individuals show very few large pits and lack puncture-like pits, and have results more typical of leaf browsing, which can result from dietary variation intraspecifically or interseasonally.

The second moschid taxon in Steinheim a. A., *M.? eiselei*, does not show a strong signal for a fruit enriched diet. The mesowear pattern in the young *M.? eiselei* individuals is more similar to modern browsers, with whom it also clusters in the analysis. This indicates that this taxon was less frugivorous than *M. flourensianus*. The two old individuals of *M.? eiselei* appear to be leaf browsers as well based on their microwear. As sample size is low and as older individuals may shift their normal dietary patterns due to a wearing down of cusp morphology, we are aware that the results remain tentative. However, both, mesowear and microwear, delivered a stronger leaf browsing signal in *M.? eiselei* than in *M. flourensianus*. And, even though data are few so far, these differences in micro- and mesowear between *M. flourensianus* and *M.? eiselei* could indeed result from niche partitioning among the two sympatric moschids.

Frugivory in fossil moschids was reconstructed in several late Miocene localities by micro- and mesowear as well as isotopic measurements: Merceron (2009) described *Micromeryx flourensianus* from Atzelsdorf (late Miocene; Austria) as a browser enriching its diet by fruit. Merceron et al. (2007) classified *Micromeryx* from Rudabánya (late Miocene, Hungary) as a fruit browser based on microwear and as an intermediate feeder based on mesowear, explaining the difference as a possible signal of seasonality in diet preferences or food availability. Isotopic measurements for the locality revealed relatively low values in $\delta^{13}$C in this taxon in comparison to the whole fauna from Rudabánya (Eastham et al., 2016), also indicating that the long-term signal could be more influenced by subcanopy browsing rather than intensive frugivory.

During the middle Miocene, frugivory could still have played a major role for moschids in Western and Central Europe. Besides the here presented data the first isotopic measurements on moschid enamel from middle Miocene localities (i.e., *Micromeryx flourensianus* from Steinheim a. A. and from the locality Gratkorn (late middle Miocene, Austria)) indicate a fruit enriched diet as well (Tütken et al. 2006; Aiglstorfer et al. 2014a). So far, only a few specimens have been measured for only two localities (Steinheim a. A.: n=2; Gratkorn: n=1) and thus allow only a tentative interpretation. However, the relatively high $\delta^{13}$C values (Tütken et al. 2006; Aiglstorfer et al. 2014a) may result from considerable fruit consumption (see Cerling et al. [2004] and Codron et al. [2005] for modern data on $\delta^{13}$C enrichment in fruits and frugivores).

**Diet of Modern Moschidae**

Fruits and seeds play an important role in the diet of many modern ungulates. Frugivory as main dietary trait can be observed in ungulates with small body sizes (Bodmer 1989; Clauss et al. 2013). The small bovid *Cephalophus* possesses a diet consisting of 71% fruit on average or more (Gagnon & Chew 2000). It inhabits areas that provide a high availability of fruits during most of the year, like tropical forests or rain forests (Castelló 2016). But fruits and nuts can also represent a seasonal fall-back resource, when preferred food items are less available (Ramdarshan et al. 2016). Merceron et al. (2004) described acorn as a significant part of the diet in a French population of *Capreolus capreolus* (Linnaeus, 1758) during autumn and winter, when other resources were low.

Modern moschids mostly live in cold climate environments and although small in body size do not show a pronounced degree of frugivory (Green 1986; Green & Kattel 1997; Groves 2011; Pan et al. 2015). Groves (2011) described modern moschids as concentrate selectors that eat high-protein, high-calorie, low-fiber plants, comprising mainly moss and lichens in winter, enriched by buds and shoots in spring, and consisting of mainly broadleaved grasses and bracken...
in summer. Animal matter as part of the diet seems to be rather rare (Domanov 2013). The only moschids explicitly cited as living in evergreen forests are *Moschus chrysogaster* and *M. leucogaster* (Green 1986; Green & Kattel 1997; Groves 2011). A considerable nut input in the diet was mentioned only for *Moschus chrysogaster* by Zhixiao & Helin (2002) in terms of seasonal feeding on acorns (90 % of the ruminal content in populations living in oak forests), and for the region around Irkutsk (Russia), where Heptner *et al.* (1967) noted that moschids include pine nuts in their diet. Green (1987) found high proportions (varying seasonally) of leaves (forbs and woody leaves) and lichens in the diet of *M. chrysogaster* in a study on feces in North India. For *M. moschiferus*, lichens, especially arboreal lichens, are a significant part of its diet (Bannikov *et al.* 1978; Domanov 2013; Zaitsev *et al.* 2015). Groves (2011) stated that stomach contents of *M. moschiferus* revealed even 70% lichens in winter, and 50% in summer, which is higher than known for any other ruminant. Prihod’ko (2015) corroborated that lichens comprise a considerable part of the modern moschid diet, although variable in its extent in the different populations. The author stated that the supposed frugivory for modern moschids often found in literature might indeed represent a regional signal of one population of the southern part of the genus’ range, which fits with the observations on populations of *Moschus chrysogaster* mentioned above. Sridhara *et al.* (2016) stated as well that they could not find any references for modern moschids as seed dispersers in their summary on frugivory and seed dispersal by large herbivores in Asia.

Our data for four modern *Moschus* individuals from the collections in Stuttgart and Bonn fit well to the observations that fruit/seed consumption is not predominant in moschids today. Although the mesowear pattern is similar to frugivorous taxa, the microwear pattern in three individuals is more typical of browsing with a certain amount of bark or twig consumption and does not indicate fruit consumption. Especially the total lack of puncture pits (typical for fruit/seed browsers) in these three specimens differs distinctly from the signal of frugivores. As mentioned, only one specimen of *Moschus moschiferus* possesses puncture-like pits and mixed scratches in the microwear, which, in combination with the position in the morphospace (Fig. 6), indicates likely fruit browsing. For the other specimens lichen consumption might explain both, meso- and microwear. Feeding on lichens often results in incorporation of bark and twigs and can produce a mesowear signal indicating harder diet, but a microwear without the puncture-like pits that are typical for frugivores. Furthermore lichenophagy produces microwear patterns characterized by high numbers of pits, low scratch/pit ratios, and a high number of gouges (Rivals & Semprebon 2017),
which fits well to the pattern we observed in our Moschus sample (Figs 6, 7A). The coarse and hypercoarse scratches (Fig. 7B) we found in the modern Moschus sample point to processing of hard objects as well (e.g. bark or twigs), which might be also a side effect of feeding on arboreal lichen, as mentioned above.

**Diet of Moschidae: From the Past to the Present**

Thus far, we did not find any indication for a considerable lichen consumption in fossil Moschidae. However, as the fossil record of lichens is very scarce (see e.g. Honegger et al. [2013]), it is not easy to generally estimate their role as a food resource in palaeoecosystems. We have to take into account that our view on lichen distribution is strongly biased by today’s direct and indirect anthropogenic impact on ecosystems all over the world. Widespread air pollution as well as habitat destruction and fragmentation has led to much altered distribution patterns for lichens in modern ecosystems compared to pre-industrial conditions (Wirth 1995; Ellis et al. 2011). From what we know on climate and environmental conditions in Central and Western Europe during the middle Miocene, and especially for the here studied localities (see discussion below for more details), we can assume that lichens were also present in these ecosystems, considering the distribution pattern of lichens in modern ecosystems, (e.g. from regions with a Mediterranean climate in Italy [Nimis & Tretiach 1995; Zedda 2002; Thüs & Licht 2006]). However, taking into consideration that climate...
conditions (no indications for temperatures below zero, nor for snow cover, or a pronounced dry season) still allowed a sufficient supply of nutrient richer diets all year round, lichens were assumedly less relevant in the diet of Miocene herbivores from this realm, as lichens often comprise mainly a fall-back resource during winter (Grueter et al. 2009; Xiang et al. 2012; Zhao et al. 2015; Ecke et al. 2018) (information on lichens: pers. comm. H. Thüs, 05.09.2018).

Comparing the diets of fossil and modern Moschidae, a generally wider dietary plasticity is indicated for their evolutionary history than we would expect based on the modern record only. This could possibly represent a shift from a facultative frugivorous browser to lichenophagy as proposed by Prikhod’ko (2015) at the turn of the Pliocene to the Pleistocene. Pan et al. (2015) think that the common ancestor of modern Moschidae lived on the margin of the Tibet Plateau or the adjacent mountains. Thus, a diet including a considerable amount of fruit could have been very likely for this ancestor. This might still be traceable in the possibly most ancient Moschus clade, including M. chrysogaster, still inhabiting evergreen oak forests today. Actually, M. chrysogaster has been named as the most basal modern moschid, although there are some controversies about this issue (Su et al. 1999, 2001; Zhang et al. 2004; Agnarsson & May-Collado 2008; Vislobokova & Lavrov 2009).

To understand how, when, and to what extent a dietary shift occurred during the evolution of Moschidae, more studies will be needed; also taking into account that lichenophagy shows similar trends as frugivory in the isotopic signal of enamel (Drucker et al. 2012) and that the microwear pattern for different types of lichen is still unresolved (Rivals & Semprebon 2017).

**Sansan and Steinheim am Albuch: Moschids and Environment**

Another aim of our study was an intraspecific comparison of the ecology in *Micromeryx flourensianus* between the assemblages from Sansan and Steinheim a. A. Therefore, we evaluated our results in light of other environmental data available for the localities.

The Sansan locality was considered one of the last sites still representing the humid and warm conditions of the Miocene Climatic Optimum in Western Europe and is the youngest proof of crocodiles naturally occurring in France (Ginsburg & Bulot 1997; Antunes 2000). However, with only five teeth assigned to *Diplocynodon cf. styriacus* Hofmann, 1885 by Antunes (2000), the crocodile record is quite scarce and indicates already a strong decline during that time. Furthermore, the reference to Sansan is just by a label “Crocodile, Sansan, 1981”, which means that the provenience of this reptile from the mammal-bearing horizons is rather ambiguous. Costeur
et al. (2012) reconstructed a forested habitat in a subtropical to tropical context for the Sansan locality. Furthermore, they stated that the environment must have also shown more open areas and swamps and suggested an MAT of about 16°C to 19°C (with a winter temperature of 7°C and the highest temperature of more than 25°C) and a marked seasonality. Although Costeur et al. (2012) think of Sansan as a locality still typical for the Miocene Climatic Optimum, they observe first indications for a climate change in its mammal assemblage. Macroflora as well as palynoflora comprise mainly wet habitat elements and unfortunately do not allow any assumptions on climate and vegetation in general (pers. comm. J. Eder, 14.06.2018). Solounias & Moelleken (1994) found a browsing signal in the early bovid *Eotragus* Pilgrim, 1939 and a mixed feeding signal in the early cervid *Diceros* Lartet, 1837 from Sansan, which they considered well in accordance with a woodland habitat. As smallest ruminant in the locality the dietary adaptation of *Micromeryx flourensianus* as a frugivore browser fits very well in the environment of Sansan. Even though the record for the macroflora in Sansan is not very rich, with *Celtis lacunosa* (Reuss) Kirch. and *Myristicarpum miocenicum* Gregor (Blanc-Louvel 2000) there is a record of plants providing fruits suitable for a ruminant diet. The mostly frugivorous *Cephalophus callipygus* Peters, 1876 and *C. dorsalis* Gray, 1846 are known to feed on *Staudtia gabonensis* Warb., a modern member of the Myristicaceae (Feer 1989). Based on the floral content in Steinheim a. A. Kovar-Eder & Schweigert (2018) reconstructed the climate for this locality as warm-temperate with cooler and/or drier conditions compared to previous periods, and seasonal fluctuations in humidity. They described the vegetation as subhumid sclerophyllous to broad-leaved deciduous forest type. In Kovar-Eder & Teodiris (2018) Steinheim a. A. clusters with the “Quercus” communities of subhumid sclerophyllous forests from the Meili Snow Mountains (Yunnan, China). The composition of the land snail fauna from Steinheim a. A. indicates warmer and drier micro-habitats than in the stratigraphically older *silvans*-beds (Höltke & Rasser 2017). Based on ectothermic vertebrates, Böhme et al. (2011) reconstructed a MAP of 706 mm for Steinheim a. A. during the lake sedimentation (174 mm less than what they found today for Heidenheim [10 km E of Steinheim a. A., also located on the karstic plateau of the Swabian Albi]). Tütken et al. (2006) reconstructed warm-temperate climatic conditions, possibly with a high humidity for the area around the site Steinheim a. A. However, due to significant enrichment in 18O of the lake water, they still assume considerable evaporation for the long-term freshwater lake (Tütken et al. 2006). The mammal community, more or less originating from exactly the same layers as the moschid remains (Heizmann & Reiff 2002; R. Ziegler pers. comm., 09.2018), indicates the presence of closed environments (predominantly browsing taxa dwelling mostly in closed environments like e.g. cervids, *Palaeomeryx* eminens von Meyer, 1847, and *Brachypotherium brachypus* (Lartet, 1837) [Köhler 1993; Tütken et al. 2006; Tütken & Vennemann 2009; Merceron et al. 2012; Aiglstorfer et al. 2014a]; small mammals categorized as “forest specialists” such as *Muscardinus* Kaup, 1829 and *Eumysarion* Thaler, 1966 in Blanco et al. [2018]) and open environments (mixed feeders like *Gomphotherium steinheimense* (Klähn, 1922), *Lartotothereus sansaniensis* (Lartet in Laurillard, 1848) for large mammals [Tütken et al. 2006; Tütken & Vennemann 2009; Aiglstorfer et al. 2014a]; small mammals more common in open environments like Ochotonidae [Hordijk 2010]). The most diverse terrestrial plants

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**Fig. 6.** Bivariate plot with raw number of scratches versus raw number of pits in *Micromeryx flourensianus* Lartet, 1851 from Sansan (□) and Steinheim am Albuch (○), in *M.? eiselei* Aiglstorfer, Costeur, Menneecart & Heizmann, 2017 (●), and in *Moschus moschiferus* Linnaeus, 1758 (▲) plotted in reference to extant leaf dominated ungulate browsers (B), and extant grazers (G) at 35 times magnification (extant comparative data from Semprebon 2002 and Solounias & Semprebon 2002). Gaussian confidence ellipses (p = 0.95) on the centroid are indicated for the extant leaf browsers and grazers (convex hulls) adjusted by sample size.
in Steinheim a. A. are oaks (Quercus drymeja Unger, Q. gigas Göppert emend. Walther & Zastawniak, Q. kubinyyi (Kováts ex Ettingsh.) Cecznott, Q. mediterranea Unger, Q. pseudocasta-nea Goepert), and well documented are Celsit sapeti Unger, C. lacunosa, Podocarpium podocarpum (A. Braun) Herendeen, Populus balsamoides Goepert, Želkova zelkovifolia (Unger) Bůžek & Kotlaba, and Sapindales leaflets of compound leaves (Kovar-Eder & Schweigert 2018). Sapindales, Podocarpium A. Braun ex Stizenberger and Celsit Linnaeus may have provided a considerable amount of soft fruit for Micromeryx flourensianus, while high nutritious nuts could have been gained especially from Quercus Linnaeus. Some individuals from Steinheim a. A. might have fed (at least seasonally) on acorn, comparable to the modern roe deer from France and the population of M. chrysogaster, both described above. They display a mixture of coarse and hypercoarse scratches (Fig. 7B), which are seen in extant ungulates that incorporate harder fruits and seeds in their diet or more twigs and bark (Solounias & Semprebon 2002).

Combining the different proxies from flora, invertebrates, ectothermic vertebrates, and mammals, with our data we can assume for the wider area around both localities, Sansan and Steinheim a. A., a mosaic environment with a marked seasonality, and, at least for Steinheim a. A., our data indicate that there was a considerable amount of folivore dietary items available in terms of arboreal leaves or maybe just scrubs in the vicinity of the lake. Combining our data from Sansan with the results of Solounias & Moelleken (1994) for other ruminant taxa, enough biomass was apparently available for a folivore-based diet for several ruminants in Sansan as well. Due to the stronger influence of the “Miocene Climatic Event” and/or the position on the karstic environment of the Swabian Alb, the conditions in Steinheim a. A. were already more arid and/or comprised a stronger seasonality than in Sansan. This fits well as our data for Micromeryx flourensianus individuals from Steinheim a. A. have more pits overall and more large pits and gouges than those from Sansan (Table 2; Fig. 7A) which is often found in ungulates that live in more open environments (Solounias & Semprebon 2002). Surprisingly Steinheim a. A. has more individuals with scratch numbers in or closer to the leaf browsing range (Fig. 6) which seems to indicate more leaf-browsing in the individuals from Steinheim a. A. than in those from Sansan. This is corroborated as well by the fact that the second moschid taxon in Steinheim a. A., M. eiselei, shows a more distinct browsing signal. However, a higher degree of browsing does not contradict more open landscapes, considering that the modern Antilocapra americana (Ord, 1815), living in the open landscape of the North American prairies has a dental wear signal typical for a browser (Semprebon & Rivals 2007), as it feeds extensively on the sagebrush Artemisia tridentata Nutt. and less on grass.

The environmental data from Sansan and Steinheim a. A., including the reconstructed moschid diet, show that, although Steinheim a. A. offers indications for more arid conditions, differences between the localities are smaller than expected, meaning that the environment in Sansan was most likely also quite different from the conditions during the “high times” of the Miocene Climatic Optimum, but more similar to Steinheim a. A. We think that Sansan was indeed already affected by the “Miocene Climatic Event” as indicated also by Costeau et al. (2012). Sansan marks the onset of the wide moschid dispersal in Europe. And we consider this dispersal as strongly linked to the change in the climatic conditions and that Micromeryx might actually prove an index-taxon for a climate change to stronger aridity/seasonality, which is corroborated also by the fact that Steinheim a. A. represents the so far richest accumulation of fossil moschids.
CONCLUSION

Our data on micro- and mesowear in Micromeryx flourensianus from Sansan and Steinhäim a. A. in combination with the reconstructed climates and environments, show that fruits were an essential, but not exclusive part of the diet of M. flourensianus in both localities. This corroborates other studies on a frugivorous diet of Miocene Moschidae and with the record from Sansan provides the so far oldest evidence for fruit consumption in the family.

The second moschid in Steinhäim a. A., M.? eiselei, had a stronger leaf browsing signal, which indicates ecolnic niche partitioning for the two sympatric moschid species from Steinhäim a. A.

Combining our study with literature data (Türken et al. 2006; Merceron et al. 2007; Merceron 2009; Aiglstorfer et al. 2014a; Eastham et al. 2016), it appears that frugivory seems to have been a common trait in moschids in Miocene ecosystems, with a possibly decreasing trend from middle to late Miocene. This reveals a different diet in the early moschids than it is usually the case in the modern genus, Moschus, whose diet comprises less fruits, but a considerable amount of lichens.

A comparison between the palaeoecosystems from Sansan and Steinhäim a. A. revealed that, though the record from Steinhäim a. A. points to more arid conditions, the environment could have been more alike in both localities than expected. This corroborates the assumption that the Sansan palaeoecosystem was already affected by the effects of the “Miocene Climatic Event”. Taking into account the stratigraphic distribution of European moschids the wide dispersal of the family in Europe might actually be linked to this event, and, as mentioned above, Micromeryx might indeed prove very helpful in tracking the middle Miocene climate change.

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