

缅甸始新世邦唐组一新的石炭兽类 偶蹄类动物

锇本武久¹ ZIN-MAUNG-MAUNG-THEIN^{2,3} 江木直子²
西村刚² THAUNG-HTIKE⁴ 高井正成²

(1 日本株式会社林原生物化学研究所古生物学研究中心 冈山 700-0907)

(2 日本京都大学灵长类研究所 犬山 484-8506)

(3 缅甸曼德勒大学地质学系 曼德勒)

(4 缅甸瑞冒学位学院地质学系 瑞冒)

摘要:描述了缅甸中始新统上部邦唐组发现的一种新的丘齿形石炭兽 *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov.。标本为破碎的上下颌骨。*Myaingtherium* 是一种基于石炭兽类,其大小和基本形态可以与邦唐一种小的石炭兽 *Anthracoeryx tenuis* 相对比。然而,*Myaingtherium* 因具有更丘型化的齿列而与 *Anthracootherium* 和 *Anthracoehyus* 在牙齿形态上更相似。在丘型齿石炭兽类中,*Myaingtherium* 以臼齿前小尖非常退化为特点。*Myaingtherium* 的一些牙齿特征,如具有退化的臼齿前小尖的丘型齿列和下臼齿上具有一个中间附尖,与 *Kenyapotaminae* (最原始的化石河马)以及非洲中新世类似河马的石炭兽 *Kulutherium* 的牙齿特征相似,暗示 *Myaingtherium* 在谱系上可能与 *Kenyapotaminae* 有关。尽管需要更多的证据来检验 *Myaingtherium* 的谱系关系,但这个发现强化了邦唐石炭兽类在检验和理解河马-石炭兽支系的谱系关系和早期演化方面的重要性。

关键词:缅甸,始新世,邦唐组,偶蹄目,石炭兽科,*Myaingtherium*

中图法分类号:Q915.876 文献标识码:A 文章编号:1000-3118(2011)01-0085-29

A NEW ANTHRACOTHERIID ARTIODACTYL FROM THE EOCENE PONDAUNG FORMATION OF MYANMAR

TSUBAMOTO Takehisa¹ ZIN-MAUNG-MAUNG-THEIN^{2,3} EGI Naoko²
NISHIMURA Takeshi² THAUNG-HTIKE⁴ TAKAI Masanaru²

(1 Center for Paleobiological Research, Hayashibara Biochemical Laboratories, Inc.
Okayama 700-0907, Japan sorlestes@msc.biglobe.ne.jp)

(2 Primate Research Institute, Kyoto University Inuyama 484-8506, Japan)

(3 Department of Geology, University of Mandalay Mandalay, Myanmar)

(4 Department of Geology, Shwebo Degree College Shwebo, Myanmar)

Abstract We describe a new bunodont anthracothere (Mammalia; Artiodactyla), *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov., discovered from the upper middle Eocene Pondaung Formation of Myanmar. The specimens consist of upper and lower dentitions with fragmentary jaws. *Myaingtherium* is one of the basal anthracotheres and is comparable in size and overall morphology to a small-sized Pondaung

anthracothere, *Anthracokeryx tenuis*. However, *Myaingtherium* is more similar in dental morphology to *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracohyus* rather than to *Anthracokeryx* in having more bunodont dentition. *Myaingtherium* is characterized particularly by having a very reduced molar paraconule among bunodont anthracotheres. Some dental characteristics of *Myaingtherium*, such as a reduced molar paraconule with bunodont dentition and a median accessory cusplet on the lower molars, are reminiscent of those of the Kenyapotaminae (most primitive fossil hippopotamuses) and hippo-like anthracotheriid *Kulutherium* from the Miocene of Africa, implying a possibility that *Myaingtherium* might be phylogenetically related to the Kenyapotaminae. Although more evidences are necessary to test the phyletic relationships of *Myaingtherium*, this discovery reinforces that the Pondaung anthracotheres are an important fauna for testing and understanding the phyletic relationships and early evolution of the hippo-anthracothere clade.

Key words Myanmar, Eocene, Pondaung Formation, Artiodactyla, Anthracotheriidae, *Myaingtherium*

1 Introduction

The anthracotheres (family Anthracotheriidae) are one of the major groups of fossil artiodactyls (Mammalia), which are recorded in the middle Eocene to Plio-Pleistocene of Eurasia, in the middle Eocene to early Miocene of North America, and in the late Eocene to late Miocene of Africa (Lihoreau and Ducrocq, 2007). They have long been believed to have habits and habitats similar to those of modern hippopotamuses (Kron and Manning, 1998), but according to Lihoreau (2003), they were adapted to several kinds of environments and had more diversified habits and habitats than was thought. The typical early anthracotheres have bunodont or bunoselenodont molars with a large paraconule; and later advanced anthracotheres have selenodont molars without a paraconule. The anthracotheres have been considered to be phylogenetically related to the Hippopotamidae (Falconer and Cautley, 1836; Lydekker, 1876; Colbert, 1935a, b; Pilgrim, 1941; Gentry and Hooker, 1988; Boissarie et al., 2005a, b, 2010; Boissarie and Lihoreau, 2006; Boissarie, 2007), although this hypothesis is still debated (Pickford, 1983, 1989, 1993, 2005, 2007b, 2008; Pickford and Morales, 1989).

The upper middle Eocene Pondaung Formation (Pondaung Sandstones) of Myanmar (Cotter, 1914; Aye Ko Aung, 1999) is one of the fossiliferous Paleogene deposits in Southeast Asia. Since first mammalian fossils were described by Pilgrim and Cotter (1916), many vertebrate fossils have been reported in the formation (Tsubamoto et al., 2006 and references therein; Marivaux et al., 2006, 2008a, b; Métais et al., 2006b, 2007; Egi et al., 2007; Beard et al., 2007, 2009; Peigné et al., 2007; Rosenberger and Hogg, 2007; Adnet et al., 2008; Gunnell and Ciochon, 2008). In the Pondaung mammal fauna, the anthracotheres are dominant in terms of collection size (Pilgrim and Cotter, 1916; Tsubamoto et al., 2005). The Pondaung anthracotheres are morphologically close to one another but have a wide variation in dental morphology (Tsubamoto et al., 2002a). In the Pondaung Formation, many species of primitive bunodont anthracotheres have been described (Pilgrim and Cotter, 1916; Pilgrim, 1928; Colbert, 1938); and the classification of the Pondaung anthracotheres have been debated (Colbert, 1938; Holroyd and Ciochon, 1991, 1995; Holroyd, 1994; Ducrocq, 1999; Ducrocq et al., 2000; Tsubamoto, 2001; Tsubamoto et al., 2002a; Holroyd et al., 2006; Lihoreau and Ducrocq, 2007). The Pondaung anthracotheres are very primitive and are one group of the oldest anthracotheres, so that they are often discussed in the context of the origin of the family (Pilgrim and Cotter, 1916; Pilgrim, 1928, 1940, 1941; Colbert, 1938; Coombs and Coombs, 1977; Holroyd, 1994; Ducrocq, 1999; Ducrocq et al., 2000; Tsubamoto et al., 2002a).

In this article, we describe a new enigmatic anthracothere discovered from the Pondaung Formation. This is a small-sized and bunodont anthracothere and interestingly has several dental characteristics similar to those of primitive fossil hippopotamids (Kenyapotaminae) and hippo-like putative anthracotheriid *Kulutherium* from the Miocene of Africa, implying a possible relationship between the new anthracothere and primitive hippopotamids. The basic dental termino-

logies mostly follow those of Bown and Kraus (1979). Additional dental terminologies are compiled from Hershkovitz (1971), Pickford (1983, 2007a, b), Holroyd (1994), Lihoreau and Ducrocq (2007), and Boisserie et al. (2010). Several dental terminology used here are shown in Fig. 1. Concerning the generic taxonomy of the bunodont anthracotheres from the Paleogene of Asia, we generally follow the classification by Lihoreau and Ducrocq (2007), although it is still debated (Holroyd and Ciochon, 1991; Tsubamoto et al., 2002a; Holroyd et al., 2006).

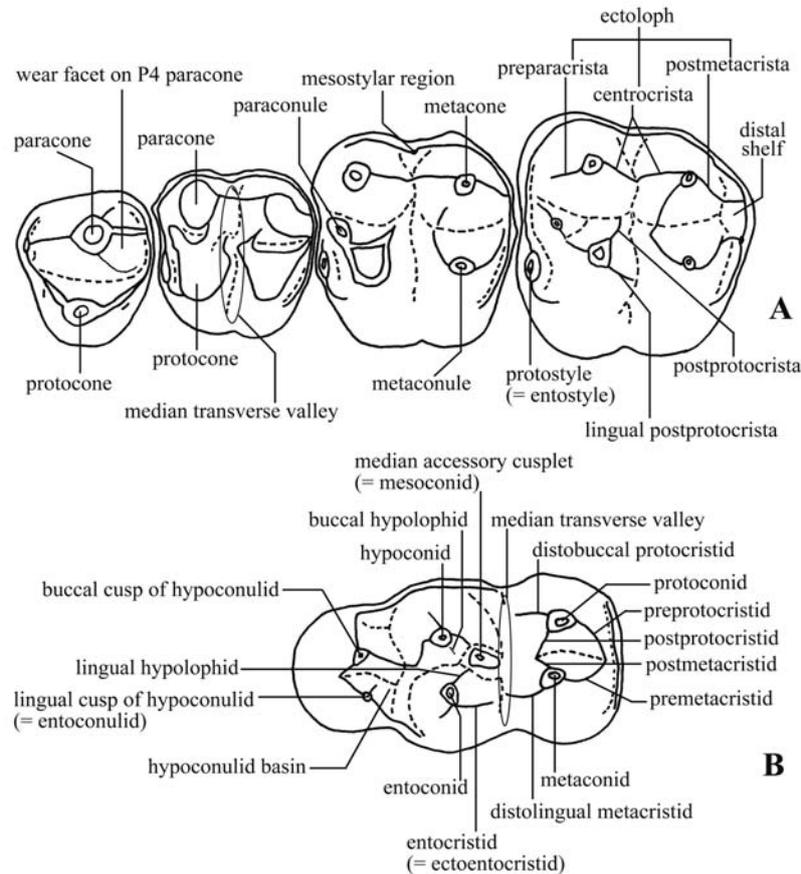


Fig. 1 Dental terminology used in this paper, showing the schematic drawings of the dentition of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov. in occlusal view
A. Left P4-M3; B. Left m3

Abbreviations AMNH, American Museum of Natural History, New York, USA. DMR, Department of Mineral Resources, Bangkok, Thailand. GSI, Geological Survey of India, Kolkata, India. KNM, National Museums of Kenya, Nairobi, Kenya. NMMP-KU, specimens catalogued by the Myanmar-Japan Joint Fossil Expedition Team (Tsubamoto et al., 2000, 2005, 2006) stored in the National Museum of Myanmar (Yangon, Myanmar), Yangon University (Yangon, Myanmar), and Department of Archaeology (Ministry of Culture, Yangon, Myanmar): “NMMP” means National Museum, Myanmar, Paleontology and “KU” means Kyoto University (Japan).

2 Geological setting and age

The new fossil specimens described here was collected from the “Upper Member” of the Pondaung Formation (Aye Ko Aung, 1999) in the Chindwin-Irrawaddy Basin of the western part of central Myanmar (Fig. 2). The Pondaung Formation stratigraphically lies between the marine deposits (Fig. 3; Cotter, 1914; Stamp, 1922; Bender, 1983). The Pondaung Forma-

tion consists of terrestrial deposits and is subdivided into the “Lower” and “Upper” members (Aye Ko Aung, 1999, 2004; Aung Naing Soe, 1999; Aung Naing Soe et al., 2002). All of the Pondaung vertebrate fossils come from the “Upper Member.” The vertebrate fauna of the “Upper Member” includes fishes, terrestrial and aquatic reptiles (such as turtles, snakes, agamid lizards, and crocodiles), an ibis-like bird, and terrestrial mammals, such as primates, dermopterans, hyaenodontids, carnivorans, rodents, insectivorans, artiodactyls, and perissodactyls (Tsubamoto et al., 2005, 2006; Métais, 2006; Marivaux et al., 2006). The “Upper Member” is correlated to the upper middle Eocene (Bartonian) on the basis of its mammalian fauna, fission-track age, stratigraphic relationships, and paleomagnetostратigraphy (Fig. 3; Holroyd and Ciochon, 1994; Tsubamoto et al., 2002b, 2004, 2005; Benammi et al., 2002).

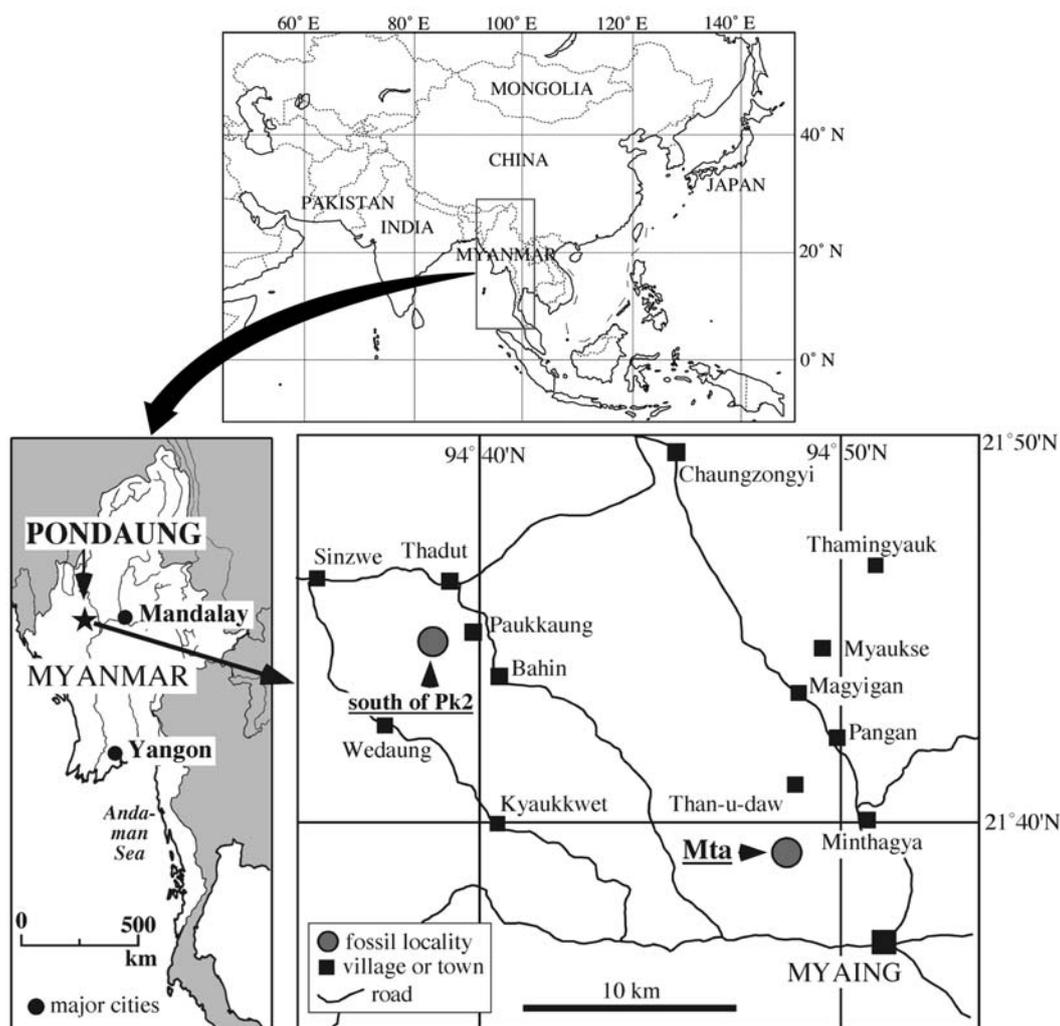


Fig. 2 Geographical map showing the two fossil localities of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov. in central Myanmar

In this paper, the age of the Pondaung fauna is considered to be the middle part of the Bartonian (ca. 39 ~ 38 Ma) based on recently analyzed radiometric data (Tsubamoto et al., 2009; Suzuki et al., 2010) and magnetostratigraphy (Benammi et al., 2002) (Fig. 3). Tsubamoto et al. (2002b) reported a fission-track zircon age, 37.2 ± 1.3 (1 sigma) Ma, of the tuff bed at the Pk1 fossil locality (Tsubamoto et al., 2000) of the “Upper Member.” Tsubamoto et al. (2009) have newly reported a fission-track zircon age, 38.8 ± 1.4 (1 sigma) Ma, of the tuff bed at the Pk5 fossil locality (Tsubamoto et al., 2000) of the “Upper Member.” Because the tuff beds of the Pk1 and Pk5 localities are considered to be located at the same hori-

zon (Maung Maung et al., 2005), the fission-track zircon age of the tuff bed distributed at the Pk1 and Pk5 localities is averaged as around 38 Ma (Tsubamoto et al., 2009). Suzuki et al. (2010) also newly reported a fission-track zircon age, 38.6 ± 1.1 (1 sigma) Ma, of the tuff bed at the Kd1 fossil locality (Tsubamoto et al., 2006) of the “Upper Member.” On the other hand, Benammi et al. (2002) reported a magnetostratigraphy of the “Upper Member” and concluded that the “Upper Member” is assigned to a normal polarity remanent magnetization from the bottom to the top. The relatively long normal polarity chron near 38 Ma is the Polarity Chron C18n.1n, which ranges from 38.975 Ma to 38.032 Ma (Ogg and Smith, 2004). On the basis of these evidence, the age of the “Upper Member” (i. e., the age of the Pondaung fauna) is correlated to the Polarity Chron C18n.1n (ca. 39 ~ 38 Ma), which is the middle part of the Bartonian (Luterbacher et al., 2004).

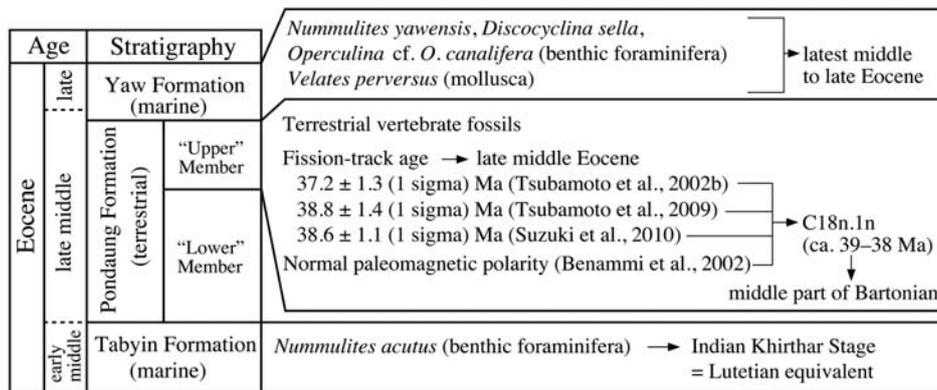


Fig. 3 General stratigraphy of the Pondaung Formation, central Myanmar (after Stamp, 1922; Bender, 1983; Holroyd and Ciochon, 1994; Aye Ko Aung, 1999; Tsubamoto et al., 2002b, 2005, 2009; Benammi et al., 2002; Suzuki et al., 2010)

3 Systematic paleontology

Order Artiodactyla Owen, 1848 (*sensu* Cetartiodactyla Montgelard et al., 1997)

Comments We use the term Artiodactyla (including cetaceans) instead of the term Cetartiodactyla. The term Cetartiodactyla was established by Montgelard et al. (1997) to include the artiodactyls and cetaceans because they found that the cetaceans are sister group of the hippopotamids and are cladistically included in the artiodactyls based on their study of molecular biology (mitochondrial cytochrome b and 12S rRNA sequences). Further studies on the molecular phylogeny of the artiodactyls and cetaceans revealed that the cetaceans are deeply nested within the Artiodactyla cladistically (e. g., Shimamura et al., 1997; Gatesy et al., 1999; Nikaido et al., 1999; Murphy et al., 2001; Beck et al., 2006). Therefore, the cetaceans are not the sister group of the artiodactyls but are deeply included in the artiodactyls. In other words, the cetaceans are actually the artiodactyls; the term Cetartiodactyla actually represents the same meaning as the term Artiodactyla cladistically. Because the term Artiodactyla Owen, 1848 has the priority on the nomenclature to the term Cetartiodactyla Montgelard et al., 1997 and has long been used traditionally in biology and paleontology, we consider that the Cetartiodactyla is a junior synonym of the Artiodactyla.

Family Anthracotheriidae Leidy, 1869

Genus *Myaingtherium* gen. nov.

Type and only known species *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* sp. nov.

Distribution Pondaung Formation, Myanmar; late middle Eocene.

Etymology *Myaing*: from the Myaing Township of Myanmar, where the type specimen of the type species was found; *therium*: wild beast in Latin. The gender of the new genus is neuter.

Generic diagnosis Small-sized bunodont anthracothere with a reduced molar paraconule somewhat shifted mesially, no distinct molar styles on the buccal part, a mesiodistally-oriented molar ectoloph without a connection to the mesostylar region, a large molar protostyle, P4 with more rounded outline, pre- and postprotocristae on P4 continuous with cingulum, a short diastema between c1 and p1, double-rooted p1, a single premetacristid on the lower molars, a median accessory cusplet on the cristid obliqua of the lower molars, a relatively large hypoconulid on m1–m2, and a large and double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3.

Differential diagnosis The size and overall dental morphology are comparable to those of *Anthracokeryx tenuis* (= *Anthracokeryx ulnifer*); however, the dental morphology is more comparable to that of *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracohyus* rather than to that of *Anthracokeryx* in having more bunodont dentition. Differs from most of other bunodont anthracotheres (such as *Anthracotherium*, *Anthracokeryx*, *Anthracohyus*, *Heptacodon*, *Microbunodon*, *Prominatherium*, *Siamotherium*, and *Pakkokuhys*) in having a much smaller paraconule on the upper molars and a median accessory cusplet on the lower molars. Differs from *Bugtitherium* in being much smaller and in having a median accessory cusplet on the lower molars. Differs from *Kulutherium* in being much smaller and in having weaker cingulum on the upper dentition, proportionally shorter and wider M1–M2, a single-cuspid P4 protocone, and in lacking accessory cusps that are located on the lingual and distal regions of the upper molars.

***Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* sp. nov.**

(Figs. 1, 4–12; Table 1)

Holotype NMMP-KU 2245, associated mandibular and maxillary fragments with upper and lower dentitions (right and left P4–M3, right i1, right p1–m3, and left p3–m3), which belong to a single individual.

Type locality Mta locality (GPS data [WGS 84 datum] of the specimen site: 21°39'12"N and 94°49'13"E), near Minthagya Village, Myaing Township, Magway Division, western part of central Myanmar (Fig. 2; Tsubamoto et al., 2000, 2006).

Repository of the type specimen Department of Archaeology, Ministry of Culture of Myanmar, Yangon, Myanmar.

Type formation and age The “Upper Member” of the Pondaung Formation; late middle Eocene (Bartonian).

Referred material NMMP-KU 1723, left M1.

Locality of the referred material South of the Pk2 locality (GPS data [WGS 84 datum] of the Pk2 locality: approx. 21°45'15"N and 94°39'13"E), near Paukkaung Village, Myaing Township, Magway Division, western part of central Myanmar (Fig. 2; Tsubamoto et al., 2000, 2006).

Repository of the referred specimen Department of Geology, Yangon University, Yangon, Myanmar (Tsubamoto et al., 2006).

Formation and age of the referred material As for the type specimen.

Etymology Named after its kenyapotamine-like dental morphology.

Diagnosis As for the genus.

Dental measurements Shown in Table 1. Measurements were made using digital calipers.

Description The present specimens preserve P4–M3, i1, roots of i2–i3, alveolus of lower canine, and p1–m3. The dental morphology shows a brachyodont and basic bunodont anthracotheriid morphology. The dental size is comparable to that of small-sized anthracotheres. In the left upper jaw of the type specimen (NMMP-KU 2245), a part of the internal choane is preserved, indicating that the choane is located at the level of M3 (Fig. 4A).

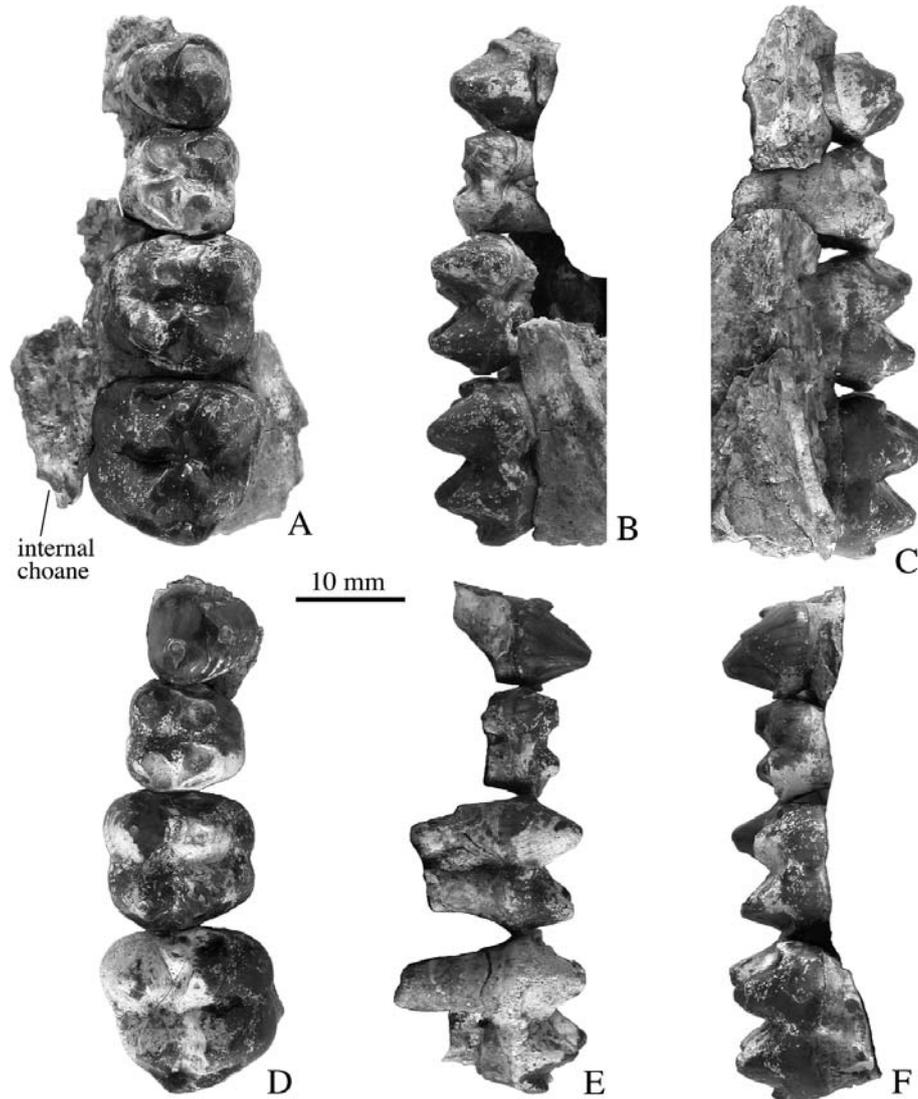


Fig. 4 Upper dentition of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov.

A–C. Left maxillary fragment with P4–M3 (A. occlusal view; B. buccal view; C. lingual view);
D–F. Right P4–M3 (D. occlusal view; E. buccal view; F. lingual view)

Table 1 Dental measurements of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov.
(NMMP-KU 2245 [= holotype] and 1723) from the Eocene Pondaung Formation of Myanmar (mm)

	il	il	p1	p1	p2	p2	p3	p3	p4	p4	
NMMP-KU	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	
2245 left	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5.0	10.3	6.7	
2245 right	4.0	3.3	6.3	2.9	9.0	4.0	10.4	5.6	10.5*	6.4	
	m1	m1	m1	m2	m2	m2	m3	m3	m3		
NMMP-KU	L	W-tr	W-ta	L	W-tr	W-ta	L	W-tr	W-ta		
2245 left	11.4	7.4	8.0	—	9.6	—	21.7	11.5	11.4		
2245 right	11.5*	7.3	7.9	14.2	9.3	9.8	—	—	10.8		
	P4	P4	M1	M1	M1	M2	M2	M2	M3	M3	M3
NMMP-KU	L	W	L	W-m	W-d	L	W-m	W-d	L	W-m	W-d
2245 left	8.8	10.1	10.4	10.5	11.0	13.1	14.3	13.8	15.4	16.1	14.7
2245 right	8.7	10.2	10.5	10.5	10.9	13.0	14.3	13.9	15.6	16.1	14.9
1723 left	—	—	10.4	11.1	11.1	—	—	—	—	—	—

Abbreviations; L. mesiodistal length; W. buccolingual width; W-tr. trigonid width; W-ta. talonid width; W-m. width of the mesial part of upper molar (paracone-protocone); W-d. width of the distal part of upper molar (metacone-metaconule); * estimate.

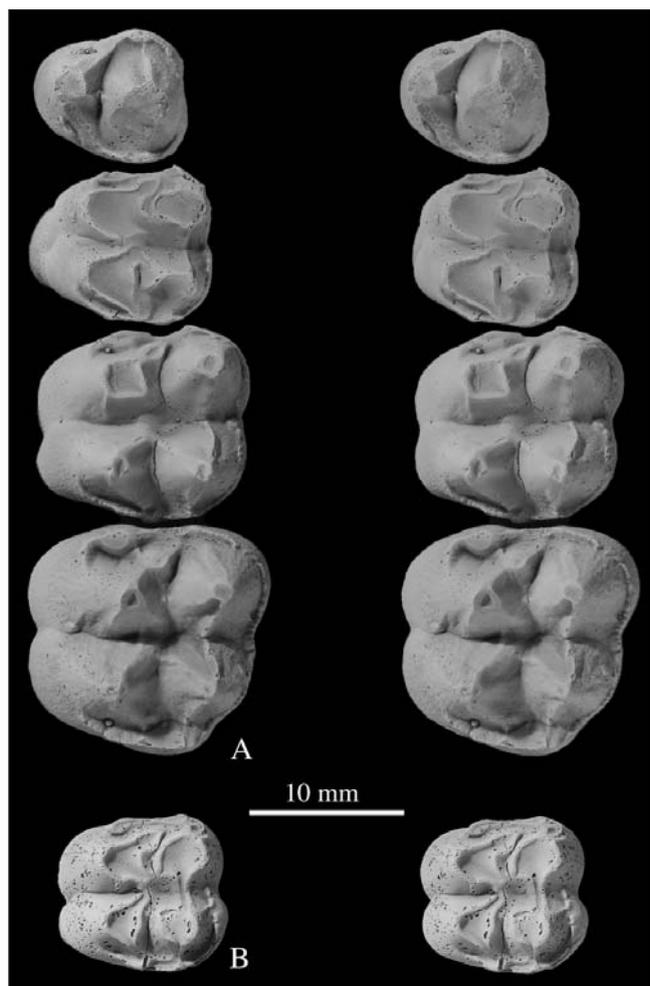


Fig. 5 Casts of the left upper dentition of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov. in occlusal view (stereo pair)

- A. Left P4–M3 of NMMP-KU 2245 (type);
 B. Left M1 of NMMP-KU 1723

P4 has three isolated roots and rounded outline in occlusal view (Figs. 1A, 4, 5A, 6). The paracone and protocone are also somewhat rounded. The paracone has the pre- and postparacristae and weak fossae (*sensu* Boisserie et al., 2010). The pre- and postparacristae extend mesiodistally and stop at the mesial and distal cingula, respectively. There is a broad wear facet on the distolingual face of the paracone. This wear facet occludes that of the mesiobuccal face of the m1 trigonid. The protocone is smaller and lower than the paracone and is mesial to the paracone. The protocone is separated from the paracone by a mesiodistal groove. The pre- and postprotocristae extend mesiobuccally and distobuccally, respectively, and are continuous with the mesial and distal cingula, respectively. The mesial cingulum disappears at the mesiobuccal base of the paracone. The distal cingulum disappears at the distobuccal base of the paracone. There is neither buccal nor lingual cingula. There are faint and dimple-like cingula mesial and distal to the protocone; these faint cingula are isolated from the buccal part of the mesial and distal cingula, respectively. There are no styles, although there are faint swellings at the para- and metastylar regions of the cingula, which are located mesial and distal to the para-

cone, respectively.

The upper molars are bunodont and three-rooted (Figs. 1A, 4, 5, 6). They are almost tetracuspitate: there are a large paracone, protocone, metacone, and metaconule with a very small, reduced, and somewhat mesially-shifted paraconule. The paracone, metacone, and paraconule are conical; and the protocone and metaconule shows a slight degree of selenodonty. The cristae are relatively weak. The cingulum is relatively weak and surrounds the mesial, buccal, and distal margin of the crown. It becomes very faint or disappears in some parts. There is no distinct lingual cingulum, although on M3 there is a tiny cusplet between the bases of the protocone and the metaconule. The paracone and metacone are mesial to the protocone and metaconule, respectively. The ectoloph (preparacrista + centrocrista + postmetacrista) is mesiodistally oriented. The centrocrista is isolated from the mesostylar region; there is no crista linking the centrocrista to the mesostylar region. The paraconule is located more mesial to the line going through the tips of the paracone and protocone. The preparaconule crista extends mesiobuccally and is sometimes connected to the mesial cingulum at the mesiolingual base of the paracone. There is no postparaconule crista. The preprotocrista extends mesiobuccally, connecting to the paraconule. The postprotocrista extends distobuccally, stopping at the distolingual

base of the paracone. The lingual postprotocrista is weaker than the postprotocrista and extends distally or distolingually, stopping at the median transverse valley. It does not interrupt the median transverse valley. The premetaconule crista extends mesiobuccally, stopping at the mesiolingual base of the metacone. The postmetaconule crista extends distobuccally, linking to the distal cingulum. The lingual metaconule crista (= third metacristule = ectometacristule) is absent in most of the teeth, but a weak structure is observed on right M3 of NMMP-KU 2245 (Fig. 6). There is a large protostyle on the mesial cingulum, which is located mesially to the tip of the protocone. There are neither distinct para-, meso-, nor meta-styles, although sometimes there is a small enamel crenulation or swelling at the mesostylar region. The median transverse valley is straight and is open buccally and lingually. The metacone is smaller relative to the other main cusps on M3 than on M1–M2. On M3, there is a distal shelf on the distal cingulum. This distal shelf has a wear facet that occludes with the distal face of the m3 hypoconulid. There can be observed a possible incipient trilobed wear facet on the protocone and metaconule of M1. On M1 of the type specimen (NMMP-KU 2245), there is a wear facet on the distolingual face of the metacone. This wear facet occludes with the mesiobuccal face of the m2 trigonid. This wear facet is not developed on M1 of the referred specimen (NMMP-KU 1723). $M1 < M2 < M3$.

The preserved part of the right mandibular corpus is relatively shallow (Fig. 7, 8). It shallows anteriorward. The mandibular symphysis is unfused and shallow. It is anteroposteriorly elongated, extending beneath the anterior root of p3. The mandible appears to be slightly compressed transversally behind the canine (Fig. 7). There are three incisor loci without diastema (Fig. 9). The alveolus of right i1 is adjacent to the symphysis and does not preserve the root, suggesting that the preserved isolated incisor (Figs. 7, 8A–B, 10C–F) is right i1. The alveoli of i2 and i3 preserve the roots, which are round-shaped in the cross section (Fig. 9). There is a short diastema between i3 and c1 (Fig. 7, 9). Judging from the broken alveolus, the lower canine is moderately large; its estimated mesiodistal diameter (length) is about 7 mm. There is a diastema (ca. 6 mm) between c1 and p1 (Fig. 7). There appears to be no diastema between p1 and p2, although this part is somewhat dislocated due to the breakage (Fig. 7). There is a very short diastema (1.5 mm) between p2 and p3. The p3–m3 are crowded (Figs. 7, 8).

The lower i1 has a spatulate crown (Figs. 7, 8, 10). The crown is triangular in lingual and buccal views. The mesial margin of the crown is higher than the distal margin. There is a notch between the mesial tip and the distal tip of the crown, with a shallow lingual groove. The root is twice as long as the crown height.

The lower p1 is triangular in lateral view and is two-rooted (Figs. 7, 8, 10). It has only

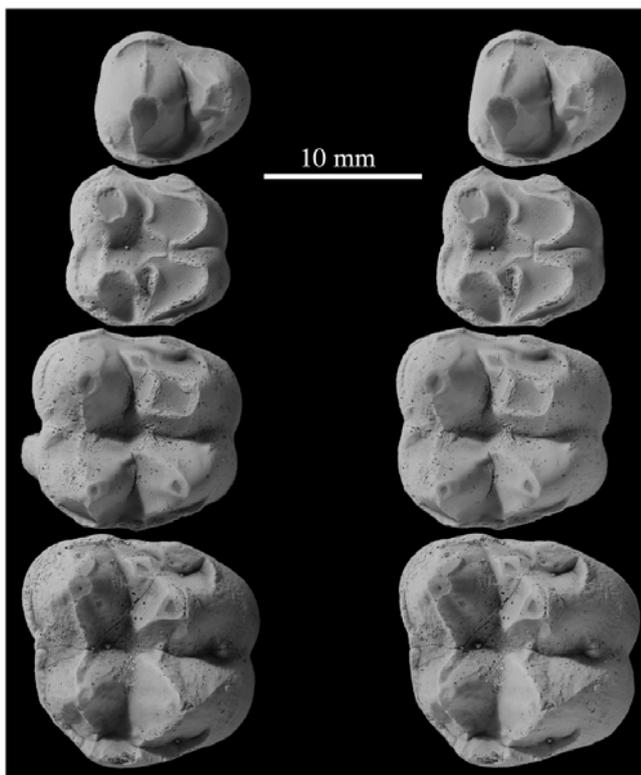


Fig. 6 Casts of right upper P4–M3 of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov. in occlusal view (stereo pair)

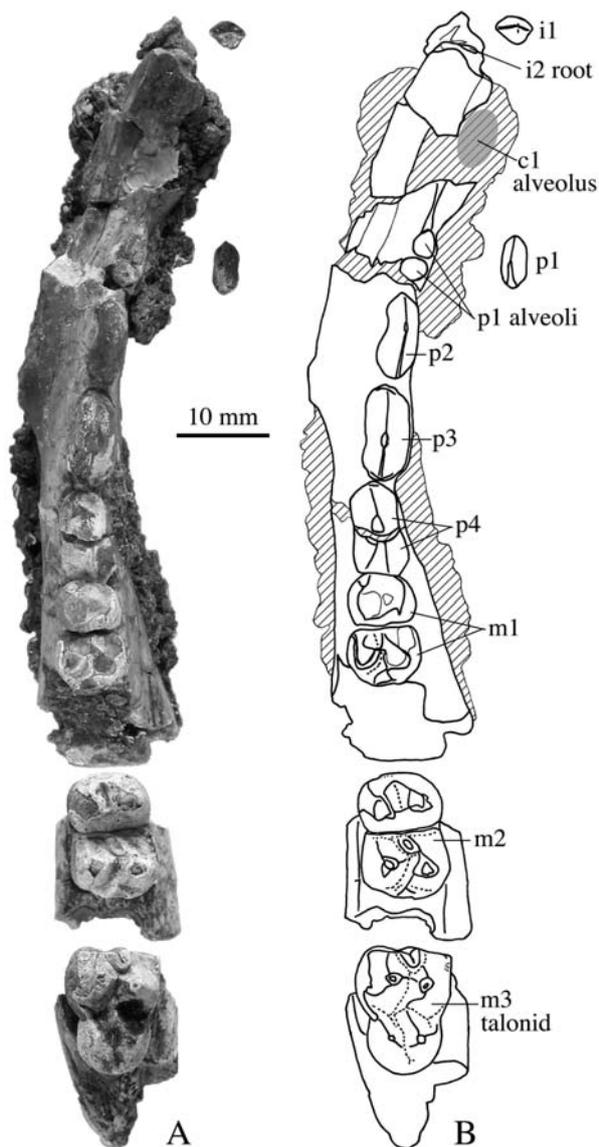


Fig. 7 Right mandibular fragment and lower dentition of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov. in occlusal view
A. Photo; B. Schematic drawing

The preprotocristid extends mesiolingually and the premetacristid extends mesio buccally. The two cristids meet at the center of the mesial face of the crown between the protoconid and the metaconid, where a notch is observable, making a paracristid. The postprotocristid and postmetacristid extend rather transversally, meet at the notch which is located at the center of the distal trigonid wall, making a protocristid. A cristid from the tip of the protoconid (= distobuccal protocristid) extends distally and disappears at the base of the trigonid wall, making a shallow groove lingual to the cristid. Similarly, a cristid from the tip of the metaconid (= distolingual metacristid) extends distally and disappears at the median transverse valley, making a shallow groove buccal to the cristid. These two cristids and protocristid make a weak M-shaped ridge at the distal trigonid wall in the distal view. The cristid obliqua hits the distal trigonid wall below the notch of the protocristid. There is a median accessory cusplet (= mesoconulid) on the cristid obliqua. Although this part is moderately worn on m1, there is a bulge at the central

one cusp, the protoconid. The pre- and postprotocristids are mesiodistally oriented. The preprotocristid is shorter than the postprotocristid. There is a bulge at the distal margin of the crown connected to the postprotocristid. There is no cingulum. The two roots are closely located with each other.

The lower p2 has almost the same morphology as p1 (Figs. 7, 8, 10). However, it is larger, taller, longer, and wider than p1 and has a weak distal cingulum connected with the postprotocristid. Separation between the two roots is larger in p2 than in p1.

The lower p3 has almost the same morphology as p2 (Figs. 7, 8, 10, 11, 12). However, it is larger, taller, longer, and wider than p2. It has a weak mesial cingulum and a stronger distal cingulum, which are connected with pre- and postprotocristids, respectively. There are no buccal and lingual cingula.

The lower p4 has roughly the same morphology as p3 (Figs. 7, 8, 10, 11, 12). It is mesiodistally as long as p3, is buccolingually wider than p3, and is roughly as tall as p3. It has stronger mesial and distal cingula. There is an additional cristid that originates from the tip of the protoconid and is located lingual to the postprotocristid. This cristid extends distally and disappears before reaching the distal cingulum.

The lower molars (Figs. 1B, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12) are bunodont and with four main cusps (protoconid, metaconid, hypoconid, and entoconid) on m1 - m2. There is no trace of a paraconid. The metaconid has only one mesial cristid (single premetacristid).

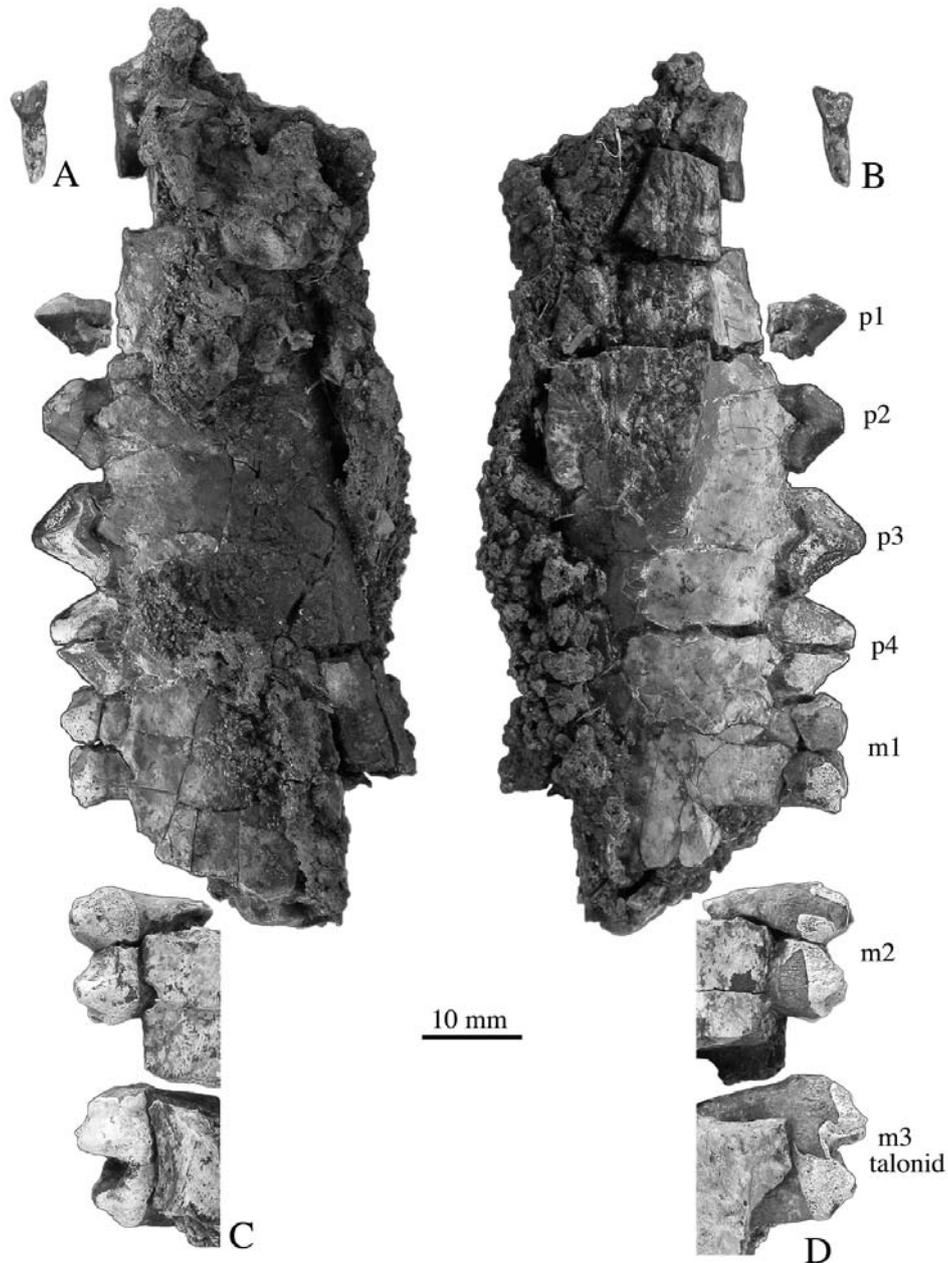


Fig. 8 Right mandibular fragment and lower dentition (i1 and p1–m3) of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov.

A–B. Right i1 (A. buccal view; B. lingual view); C–D. Mandibular fragment with p1–m3 (C. buccal view; D. lingual view)

part of the cristid obliqua, indicating a presence of the median accessory cusplet even on m1. The median accessory cusplet does not block the center of the median transverse valley. The entoconid is mesial to the hypoconid. The entocristid (= mesiolingual entocristid) extends mesially and disappears at the median transverse valley. The lingual hypolophid connects to the median accessory cusplet or stops at the distolingual base of the median accessory cusplet. On right m3, however, the lingual hypolophid is continuous with the buccal hypolophid with a deep notch between them. In other molars, there is no distinct buccal hypolophid. There is no distinct postentocristid. The posthypoconid extends distolingually and links to the hypoconulid. On m1–m2, the hypoconulid (= cingulum spur) is on the distal cingulum and is relatively large. On m3, the hypoconulid is very large, is distally elongated, and is buccolingually wide.

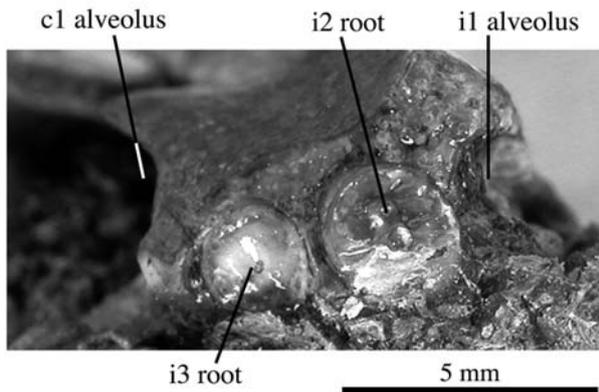


Fig. 9 Incisor region of the right mandible of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov.

ened with two cusps, the buccal and lingual (= entoconulid) ones. The mesial cristid of the buccal cusp of the m3 hypoconulid links to the posthypocristid with a notch between them. The buccal and lingual cusps of the m3 hypoconulid are separated by a deep groove and are linked by a notched cristid distally. The mesial cristid of the lingual cusp of the m3 hypoconulid extends mesiolingually and disappears at the distolingual base of the entoconid, making the hypoconulid basin somewhat closed lingually. On m1–m2, there are mesial and distal cingula, no lingual cingulum, and a buccal cingulum between the pro-

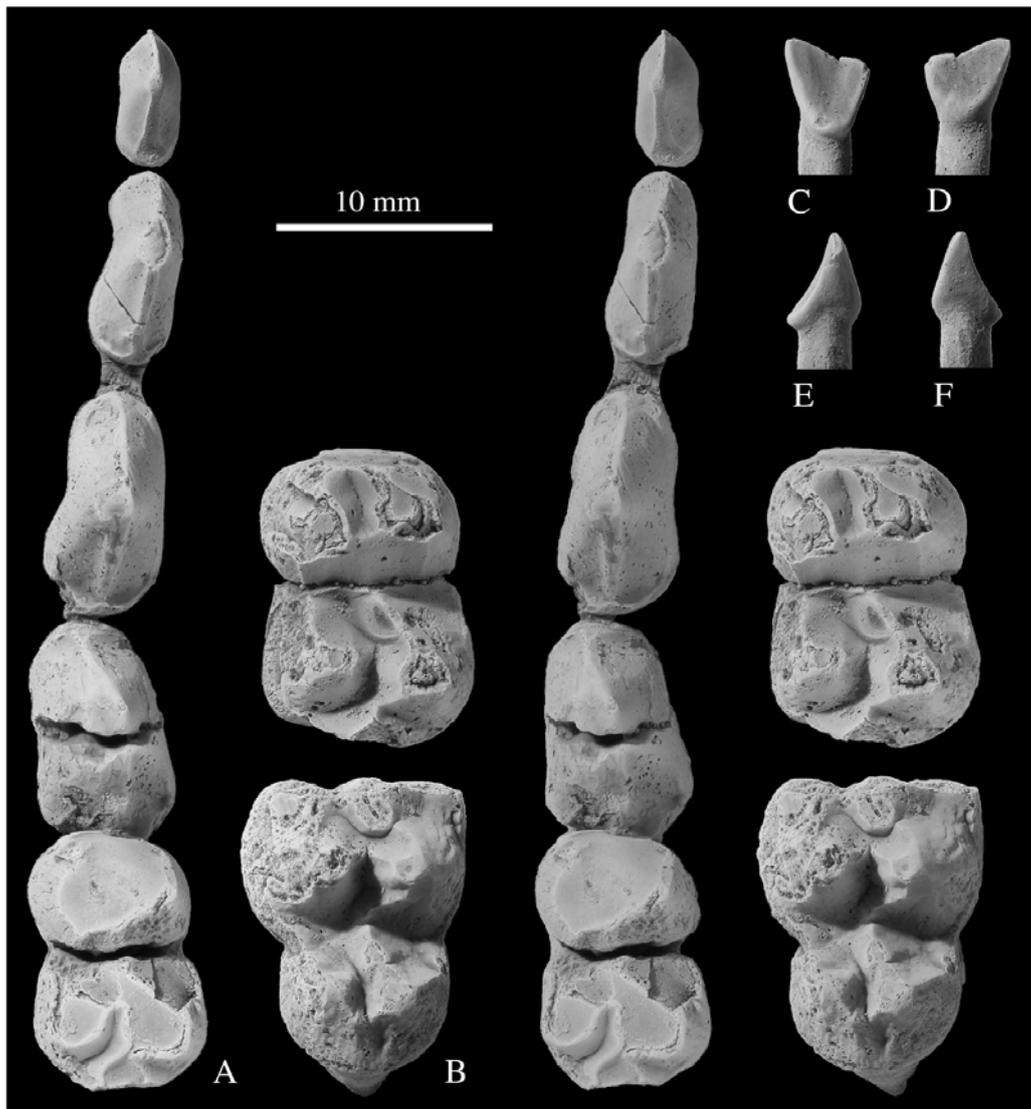


Fig. 10 Casts of the right lower dentition of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov.

A. Right p1–m1 (occlusal view, stereo pair); B. Right m2 and talonid of m3 (occlusal view, stereo pair); C–F. Right i1 (C. lingual view; D. buccal view; E. distal view; F. mesial view)

toconid and the hypoconid. On m3, there is a precingulid (mesial cingulum), no distal and lingual cingula, and buccal cingula between the protoconid and the hypoconid and between the hypoconid and the buccal cusp of the hypoconulid. The buccal cingulum is continuous to the buccal cristid of the buccal cusp of the m3 hypoconulid. The talonid is wider than the trigonid on m1–m2 and is as wide as the trigonid on m3 (Table 1). The m1 trigonid is heavily worn and has a mesio-buccal wear facet that occludes the distolingual face of the P4 paracone. The m2 protoconid also has a mesio-buccal wear facet that occludes the distolingual face of the M1 metacone. $m1 < m2 < m3$.

4 *Myaingtherium* as a variation of the Pondaung anthracotheres

In the mammalian fauna of the Pondaung Formation, the anthracotheres are most abundant in terms of collection size; half of the mammalian dental specimens from the formation are attributed to the anthracotheres (Tsubamoto et al., 2002a, 2005). The Pondaung anthracotheres currently consist of four genera besides the present new genus (*Myaingtherium*), although their generic and specific taxonomies are still controversial (Colbert, 1938; Holroyd and Ciochon, 1991; Ducrocq et al., 2000; Tsubamoto et al., 2002a; Holroyd et al., 2006). All of these four genera are primitive bunodont anthracotheres. Two are common genera with abundant fossil specimens and many described species; and the other two are rare in terms of collection size. The common genera are *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx*. *Anthracotherium* is larger and more bunodont than *Anthracokeryx*, although Tsubamoto et al. (2002a) considered that the two genera are not distinguishable except for size in the Pondaung Formation. The rare genera are *Anthracohyus* and *Pakkokuhyus*. *Anthracohyus* is a medium/large-sized and enigmatic bunodont anthracothere, although Tsubamoto et al. (2002a) considered *Anthracohyus* to be synonymous with *Anthracotherium*. *Pakkokuhyus*, which was originally described as the Helohyidae by Holroyd and Ciochon (1995), is a very small-sized and putative bunodont anthracothere (Holroyd et al., 2006). Tsubamoto et al. (2002a) considered that the material of *Siamotherium pondaungensis* Ducrocq et al., 2000 from the Pondaung Formation is synonymous with *Pakkokuhyus lahirii* and that the genus *Siamotherium* is endemic to the late Eocene of Krabi; we follow this synonymy here.

Myaingtherium is basically similar in morphology to these Pondaung *Anthracotherium*, *Anthracokeryx*, and *Anthracohyus* (= the “Pondaung *Anthracotherium*” in Tsubamoto et al., 2002a). It is similar to *Anthracokeryx* in dental size, is much larger than *Pakkokuhyus*, and is much smaller than *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracohyus*; the m1 size is intermediate between those of large *Anthracokeryx* (= *Anthracokeryx birmanicus* = “*Anthracotherium birmanicum*” in Tsu-

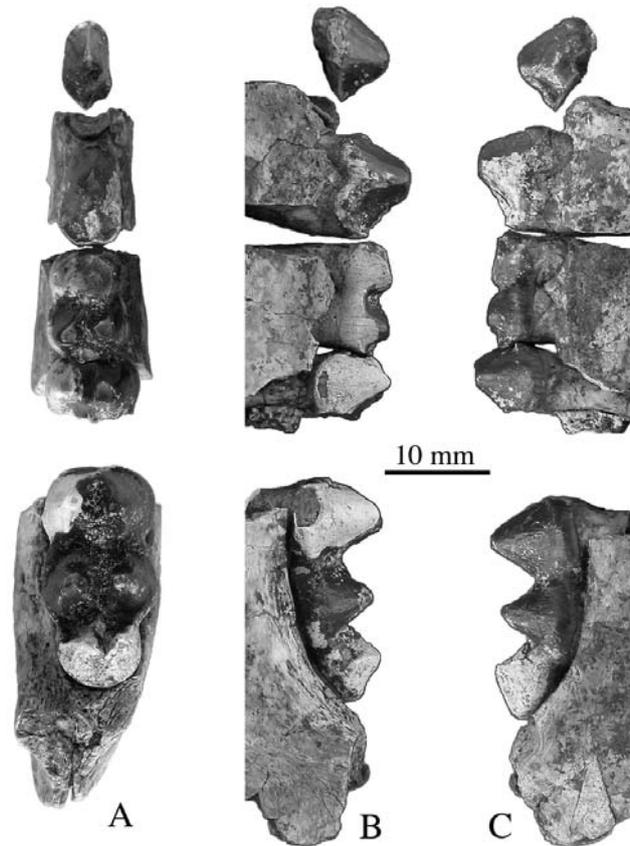


Fig. 11 Left mandibular fragment and lower dentition (p3–m3) of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov.

A. Occlusal view; B. Buccal view; C. Lingual view

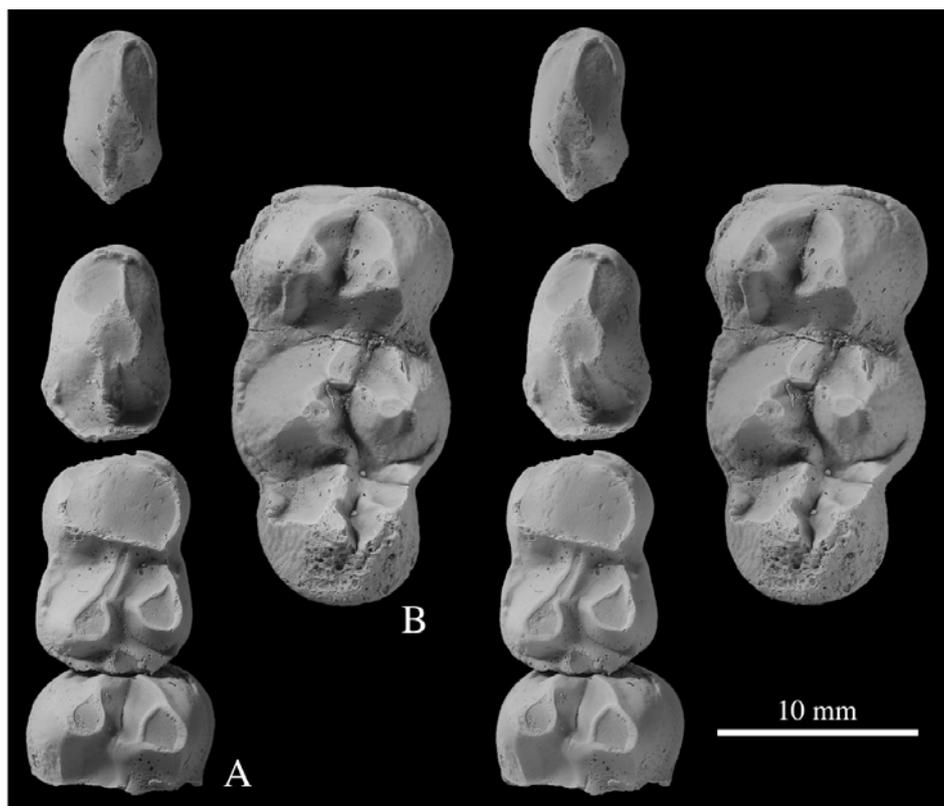


Fig. 12 Casts of the left lower dentition of the type (NMMP-KU 2245) of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* gen. et sp. nov. in occlusal view (stereo pair)
A. Left p3 (distal most part is broken), p4, m1, and trigonid of m2; B. Left m3

bamoto et al. 2002a) and small *Anthracokeryx* (= *Anthracokeryx tenuis* = *Anthracokeryx ulnifer* = “*Anthracotherium tenuis*” in Tsubamoto et al. 2002a); and the m2 and m3 sizes approach those of small *Anthracokeryx* (Fig. 13). However, it is morphologically more similar to *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracohyus* than to *Anthracokeryx* in having more bunodont dentition (Fig. 14).

Compared to the other four genera of the Pondaung anthracotheres (*Anthracotherium*, *Anthracokeryx*, *Anthracohyus*, and *Pakkokuhyus*), *Myaingtherium* is characterized by a very reduced paraconule on the upper molars and by a median accessory cusplet on the cristid obliqua of the lower molars. The other four genera have a large molar paraconule with developed pre- and postparaconule cristae and lack the median accessory cusplet on the lower molars, although some specimens of *Anthracotherium* have enamel crenulation at this position (Fig. 14).

Myaingtherium is distinguished from the other four genera of the Pondaung anthracotheres in other precise dental morphologies by the combination of the following characteristics (Fig. 14). *Myaingtherium* has a developed protostyle on the upper molars, which is shared with *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracohyus*. *Anthracokeryx* and *Pakkokuhyus* have no or weak protostyle. *Myaingtherium* has no or only a very faint styles on the buccal part of the upper molars, which is shared with *Anthracohyus* and *Pakkokuhyus*. *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx* have variously developed but distinct styles on the buccal part (parastyle, mesostyle, and metastyle) and/or a more developed buccal cingulum. *Myaingtherium* has a mesiodistally-oriented ectoloph on the upper molars, which is shared with *Anthracohyus*, *Pakkokuhyus*, and some specimens of *Anthracotherium*. *Anthracokeryx* and other specimens of *Anthracotherium* have a W-shaped ectoloph connected with the buccal styles. Even in *Anthracohyus* and some specimens of *Anthracotherium*, the centrocrista is connected with the mesostyle or mesostylar region by a crista. In *Myaingtherium*, the centrocrista is completely isolated from the mesostylar region as in *Pakkokuhy-*

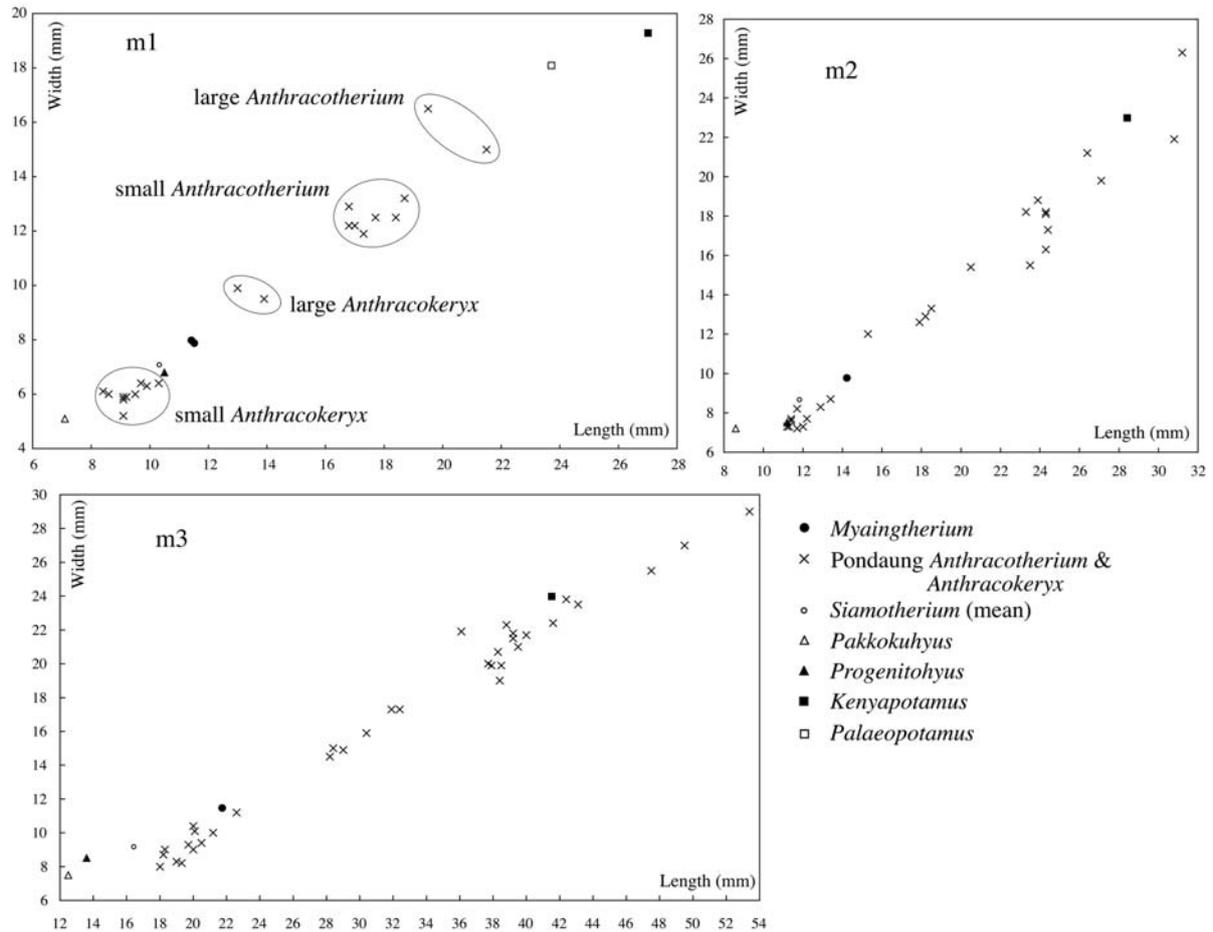


Fig. 13 Bivariate plots of the lower molar dimensions (in mm) of *Myaingtherium*, Pondaung *Anthracokeryx* and *Anthracotherium*, *Siamotherium*, *Pakkokuhyus*, *Progenitohyus*, *Kenyapotamus*, and *Palaeopotamus*. The data of Pondaung *Anthracokeryx* and *Anthracotherium* are from Tsubamoto et al. (2002a); the data of *Siamotherium* (mean) are from Ducrocq (1999); the data of *Pakkokuhyus* are from Holroyd and Ciochon (1995); the data of *Progenitohyus* (? Helohyidae) are from Ducrocq et al. (1997); the data of *Kenyapotamus* (= *Kenyapotamus coryndonae*) and *Palaeopotamus* (= *Kenyapotamus ternani*) (Hippopotamidae; Kenyapotaminae) are from Pickford (1983) and Pickford (2007b), respectively

us. Myaingtherium lacks a distinct mesiolingual crista on the molar metaconule (third metacristule); this character is shared with *Anthracokeryx*. Many (but not all) specimens of *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx* have a distinct mesiolingual crista on the metaconule. The presence/absence of this crista in *Pakkokuhyus* is not clear. *Myaingtherium* has a single premetacristid, which is shared with *Pakkokuhyus*. *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx* have a double premetacristid (Holroyd and Ciochon, 1995). *Myaingtherium* has a large, wide, and double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3, which is shared with *Anthracotherium*. *Anthracokeryx* and *Pakkokuhyus* have a smaller, narrower, and single-cuspid hypoconulid on m3. However, *Anthracotherium* occasionally has an almost-single-cuspid hypoconulid on m3; and *Anthracokeryx* occasionally has a double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3 in the Pondaung Formation (Pilgrim and Cotter, 1916, pl. 5, fig. 8; Colbert, 1938:377, fig. 52; Holroyd, 1994; Tsubamoto et al., 2002a:369, fig. 5I). Therefore, this character (single- or double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3) may not be a critical diagnostic character among the Pondaung *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx*. *Myaingtherium* has a relatively larger hypoconulid (= cingulum spur) on m1–m2 than *Anthracotherium*, *Anthracokeryx*, and *Pakkokuhyus*. *Myaingtherium* has a relatively mesiodistally longer M3 with

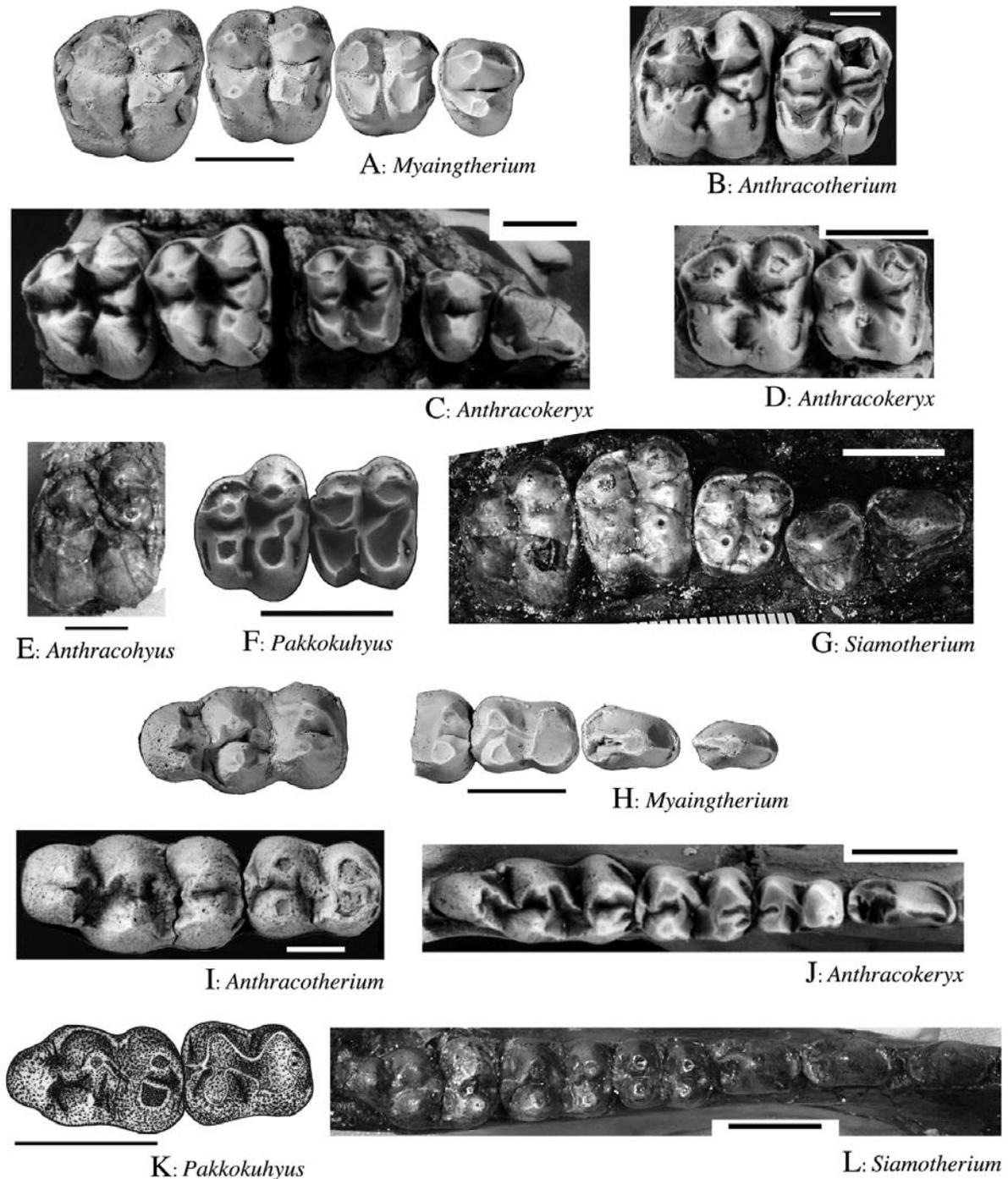


Fig. 14 Comparison of the dentitions of *Myaingtherium* with those of the Pondaung anthracotheres (*Anthracokeryx*, *Anthracotherium*, *Anthracohyus*, and *Pakkokuhyus*) and *Siamotherium* (from the late Eocene of Thailand) in occlusal view

A. Right P4–M3 of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* (NMMP-KU 2245); B. Right M2–M3 of Pondaung *Anthracotherium* (NMMP-KU 0056); C. Right P3–M3 of Pondaung *Anthracokeryx* (NMMP-KU 0053); D. Left M2–M3 of Pondaung *Anthracokeryx* (NMMP-KU 0382) (reversed); E. Left M3 of *Anthracohyus choeroides* (GSI B603) (reversed); F. Right M2–M3 of *Pakkokuhyus lahirii* (NMMP-KU 0039 [Kdw 6]); G. Right P3–M3 of *Siamotherium krabiense* (DMR TF2333.1); H. Left p3–m3 of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* (NMMP-KU 2245); I. Left m2–m3 of Pondaung *Anthracotherium* (NMMP-KU 0330); J. Right p4–m3 of Pondaung *Anthracokeryx* (NMMP-KU 0052) (reversed); K. Right m2–m3 of *Pakkokuhyus lahirii* (GSI B766) (reversed); L. Right p2–m3 of *Siamotherium krabiense* (DMR TF2333.2) (reversed); scale bars = 10 mm

a distal shelf; *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx* occasionally have this character, but *Anthracohyus* and *Pakkokuhyus* have proportionately shorter and wider M3 without a distal shelf. The cusps of *Myaingtherium* are conical like *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracohyus*; they are less conical than those of *Pakkokuhyus* and are more conical than those of *Anthracokeryx*. *Myaingtherium* differs from *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx* in having a more rounded P4 outline and a proportionally smaller P4 protocone, in that the pre- and postprotocristae on P4 are continuous with the mesial and distal cingula, respectively, and in that there are only a small and dimple-like cingula mesial and distal to the P4 protocone, which are isolated from the buccal part of the mesial and distal cingula, respectively. Normally, the mesial and distal cingula on P4 of *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracokeryx* are continuous respectively from the buccal parts to the lingual parts and are not interrupted by the pre- and postprotocristae.

In spite of the characteristics of *Myaingtherium* discussed above, there is a possibility that *Myaingtherium* might be an individual variation of the “Pondaung *Anthracotherium*” (*sensu* Tsubamoto et al., 2002a) and might be not assigned to a new genus and species because the “Pondaung *Anthracotherium*” have a very wide individual variation on their dental morphology (Tsubamoto et al., 2002a). Although the very reduced molar paraconule in *Myaingtherium* is very unique, a specimen of *Anthracokeryx moriturus* from the Pondaung Formation described by Colbert (1938:376, fig. 51), AMNH 20011 (right P3–M3), has a relatively small paraconule, too. Nevertheless, the molar paraconule in *Myaingtherium* is much smaller than that in AMNH 20011 and this character is very unique among the bunodont anthracotheres. *Myaingtherium* also differs from other bunodont anthracotheres as discussed below. Therefore, we establish a new genus and species to the present specimens. *Myaingtherium* shows further taxonomic and dental morphological variations among the Pondaung anthracotheres.

5 Comparison with other bunodont anthracotheres

Myaingtherium is distinguished from the other bunodont anthracotheres except for *Kulutherium* in having very reduced molar paraconule. This character is probably a derived character in the Anthracotheriidae because all other plesiomorphic anthracotheres including basal anthracotheres (such as *Siamotherium*, *Anthracotherium*, *Anthracokeryx*, and *Heptacodon*), putative primitive anthracothere *Pakkokuhyus*, and also plesiomorphic bothriodontines (such as *Bothriogenys* and *Elomeryx*) have a large molar paraconule. It is also distinguished from the other bunodont anthracotheres except for some specimens of *Anthracotherium* in having a median accessory cusplet on the cristid obliqua of the lower molars.

Myaingtherium further differs from *Anthracotherium*, *Anthracokeryx*, *Heptacodon*, *Microbunodon*, and *Prominatherium*, in having a mesiodistally oriented molar ectoloph without a connection to the mesostylar region, a much weaker buccal cingulum on the upper molars, and a single molar premetacristid, and in lacking a parastyle, metastyle, and distinct mesostyle on the upper molars. These latter genera generally have distinct styles and/or stronger cingulum on the buccal side of the upper molars, a W-shaped ectoloph with a connection to the mesostyle or mesostylar region, and a double premetacristid. *Myaingtherium* further differs from *Anthracotherium* in its much smaller size (Fig. 13). It further differs from *Microbunodon* and *Anthracokeryx* in having a larger molar protostyle and a double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3. It further differs from “*Anthracothema minima*” (late middle Eocene of central China; Xu, 1962), which is represented only by M3, in having a much larger molar metaconule and a less developed cingulum and in lacking a molar parastyle. It further differs from “*Anthracothema lijiangensis*” (middle Eocene of southern China; Zong et al., 1996), which is represented only by m1–m3, in being smaller and in having stronger cristids, a more lingually shifted cristid obliqua at the distal trigonid wall on the lower molars, and a double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3. The distal shelf on

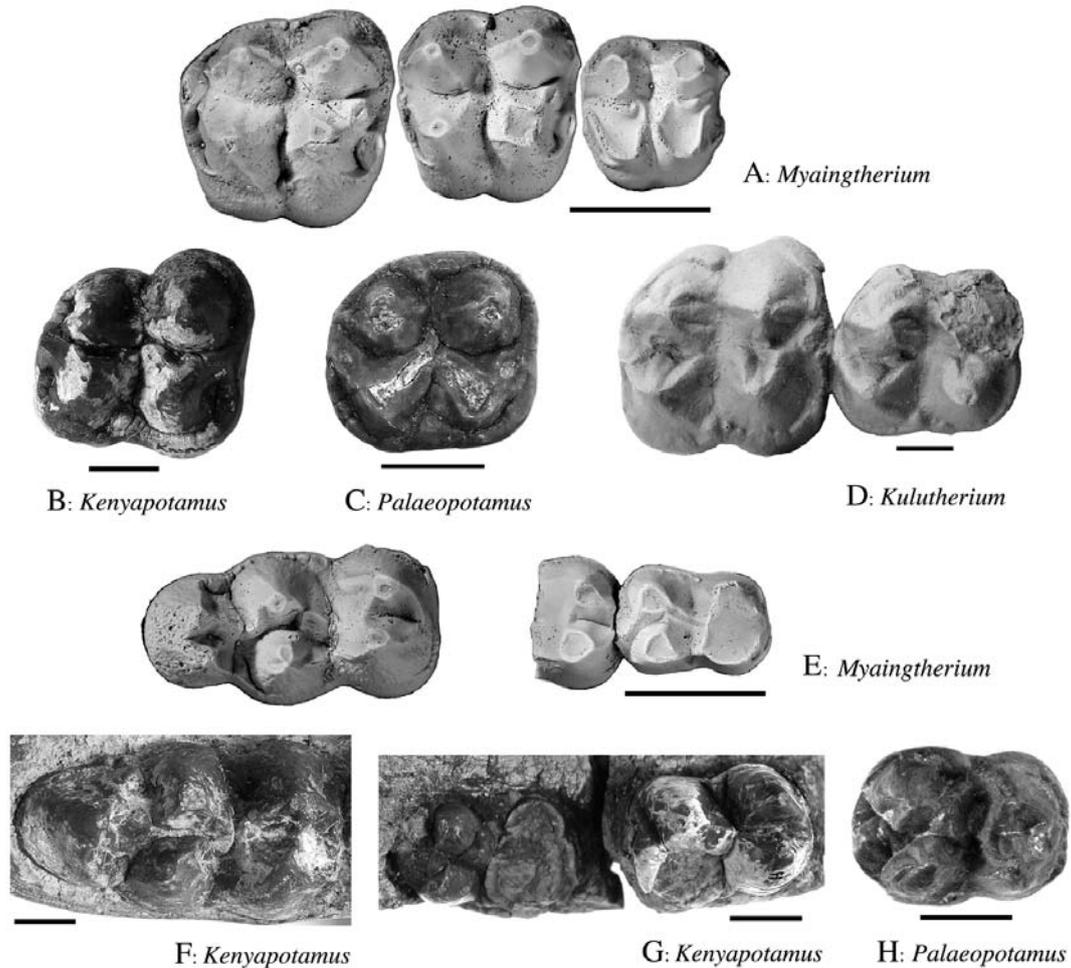


Fig. 15 Comparison of the molars of *Myaingtherium* with those of the Kenyapotaminae and *Kulutherium* (from the Miocene of Africa) in occlusal view

A. Right M1–M3 of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* (NMMP-KU 2245); B. Right M3 of *Kenyapotamus coryndonae* (KNM BN1321); C. Right M1 of *Palaeopotamus ternani* (= *Kenyapotamus ternani*) (KNM FT3634); D. Left M1–M2 of *Kulutherium kenyensis* (R773'49) (reversed); E. Left m1–m3 of *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides* (NMMP-KU 2245); F. Right m3 of *Kenyapotamus coryndonae* (KNM NA246) (reversed); G. Left m1–m2 of *Kenyapotamus coryndonae* (KNM SH14792); H. Left m1 of *Palaeopotamus ternani* (= *Kenyapotamus ternani*) (Bar1186'99); scale bars = 10 mm

M3 of *Myaingtherium* is reminiscent of that of “*Anthracothea*” *verhoeveni* (? late Eocene of Indonesia; von Koenigswald, 1967), however the former is less developed and less distally protruded than the latter.

Myaingtherium further differs from *Siamotherium* (Fig. 14G, L; late Eocene of Thailand; Suteethorn et al., 1988; Ducrocq, 1999), which is supposed to be the most primitive anthracothere (Lihoreau and Ducrocq, 2007), in having a larger molar protostyle, a molar centrocrista isolated from the mesostylar region, proportionately longer and narrower M3, a diastema between c1 and p1, double-rooted p1 (*Siamotherium* has a single-rooted p1), a relatively larger hypoconulid (= cingulum spur) on m1–m2, and a much larger and double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3 (*Siamotherium* has a single-cuspid hypoconulid on m3). On the other hand, they share several characteristics: a rounded outline of P4 crown, a proportionately smaller protocone on P4, P4 pre- and postprotocristae continuous with the cingula, no or very weak molar styles (on the buccal part), and a single premetacristid on the lower molars.

Myaingtherium differs from an enigmatic possible anthracothere *Bugthierium* (late Oligo-

cene of Pakistan; Pilgrim, 1907, 1908; Métais et al., 2006a), whose rostral structure of the skull has some similarities with that of archaeocete cetaceans, in being much smaller and in having a median accessory cusplet on the lower molars, although they share a double-cuspid hypoconulid on m3. The upper molar dentition of *Bugtitherium* has been unknown.

Myaingtherium have some dental similarities with the hippo-like anthracothere *Kulutherium* (Fig. 15D; early Miocene of Kenya; Pickford, 2007a) in having a bunodont and almost tetracuspidate upper molar with a very small paraconule shifted mesially, no or vestigial molar mesostyle, and a mesiodistally-oriented molar ectoloph isolated from the mesostylar region, and in lacking a molar parastyle and metastyle. However, it is distinguished from *Kulutherium* in being much smaller and in having a weaker cingulum on the upper dentition, proportionately shorter and wider M1–M2, a large protostyle on the upper molars (*Kulutherium* lacks a molar protostyle but have an elevation of the middle part of the mesial cingulum almost connected to the paraconule on the upper molars), a single-cuspid P4 protocone, and in lacking accessory cusps that are located on the lingual and distal regions of the upper molars.

6 Phylogenetic analysis

We performed cladistic analyses to test the phyletic position of *Myaingtherium*. Cladistic analyses of the anthracotheres have been attempted by several previous studies. We performed four cladistic analyses using the data sets by Lihoreau et al. (2004), Lihoreau and Ducrocq (2007), Holroyd (1994), and Boisserie et al. (2010). A consensus tree of the most parsimonious trees discovered by each analysis is shown in Figs. 16–19.

6.1 Analysis 1

The cladistic analysis 1 was performed using the data set by Lihoreau et al. (2004), concerning relationships among bunodont anthracotheres. We added the data matrix of *Myaingtherium* to the matrix represented by Lihoreau et al. (2004:110, table 4). The added data matrix of *Myaingtherium* is as follows:

?0(01)010???1(01)(01)011001

We revised some character states shown in Lihoreau et al. (2004:110, table 4). The states

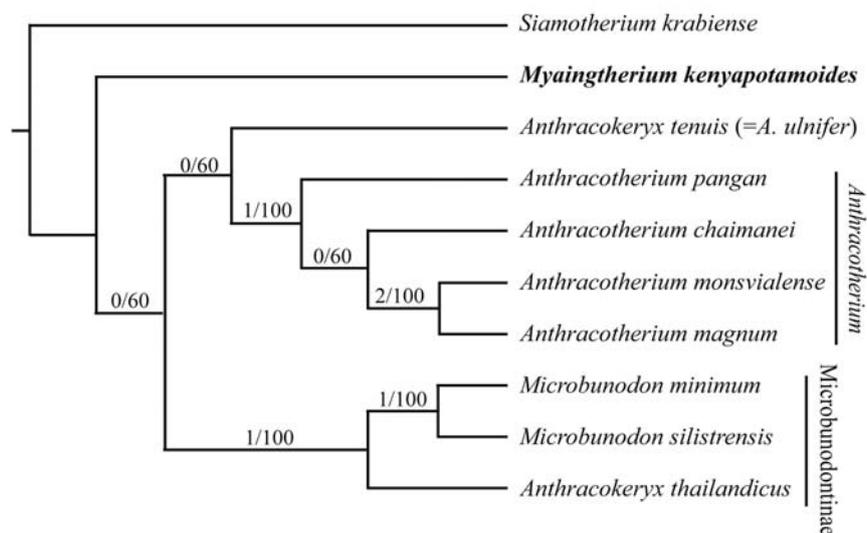


Fig. 16 50% majority-rule consensus tree of the five equally most parsimonious cladogram trees recovered by the cladistic analysis 1 (using the data set modified from that by Lihoreau et al., 2004)

Numbers indicate Bremer support/frequencies of occurrence

of the character 1 (on the P3 “protocone”) of *Anthracokeryx tenuis* (= *A. ulnifer*) and *Anthracokeryx thailandicus* were changed from “0” to “1” because *Anthracokeryx* have an accessory lingual cusp (protocone) on P3 as implied by Lihoreau et al. (2004:98). Also, the states of the character 10 (on the m3 entoconulid [= lingual cusp of hypoconulid]) of *Anthracokeryx tenuis* and *Anthracotherium pangan* (= *Anthracothema pangan*) were changed from “0” (former) and “1” (latter), respectively, to “(01)” because the entoconulid on m3 variously exists/lacks in *Anthracokeryx* and *Anthracotherium* from the Pondaung Formation (Holroyd, 1994; Tsubamoto et al., 2002a). *Microbunodon milaensis* was removed from the analysis following Lihoreau et al. (2004). The data matrix (10 taxa and 18 characters) was compiled using MacClade version 4.0 (Maddison and Maddison, 2000) and analyzed using PAUP4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002) with branch-and-bound search option, using *Siamotherium* to represent an outgroup to the other anthracotheres. All characters were coded as unordered and unweighted. Multi-state taxa were interpreted as polymorphism. All characters were parsimony-informative. This analysis recovered five equally most parsimonious trees with a length of 33 steps. Each most parsimonious tree has a consistency index (CI) of 0.7273, homoplasy index (HI) of 0.4242, retention index (RI) of 0.7805, and rescaled consistency index (RC) of 0.5676.

6.2 Analysis 2

The cladistic analysis 2 was performed using the data set by Lihoreau and Ducrocq (2007), concerning relationships among an extensive number of anthracotheres. We added the data matrix of *Myaingtherium* to the matrix represented by Lihoreau and Ducrocq (2007:103, table 7.1). The added data matrix of *Myaingtherium* is as follows:

0?00????0000100?011(01)00001(01)(01)000? 01100000?0?????????0

The same revisions of the character states as in the analysis 1 were made on the character 16 (on P3) of *Anthracokeryx tenuis* and *Anthracokeryx thailandicus* and on the character 25 (on m3) of *Anthracokeryx tenuis* and *Anthracotherium pangan*. The data matrix (28 taxa and 51 characters) was analyzed in the same procedure as in the analysis 1. This analysis recovered 45 equally most parsimonious trees with a length of 118 steps. Each most parsimonious tree has a CI (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.6293, HI (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.3707, RI of 0.8497, and RC of 0.5400.

6.3 Analysis 3

The cladistic analysis 3 was performed using the data set by Holroyd (1994), concerning relationships among Old World Paleogene anthracotheres and relationships with helohyids. We added the data matrices of *Myaingtherium* and also putative anthracothere *Pakkokuhys* from the Pondaung Formation to the matrix represented by Holroyd (1994:289, table 6.3). The added data matrices are as follows:

Myaingtherium: 11?00(13)000010101121110112112(12)1131(12)0110000

Pakkokuhys: 1???0?1002200001200?????1100113110110?00

The character 35 (lower molar trigonid to talonid width) was removed from the analysis because the width of the molar trigonid to that of the talonid varies depending on tooth class. The data matrix (16 taxa and 39 characters) was analyzed generally in the same procedure as in Holroyd (1994) with branch-and-bound search option, using *Pentacemylus* to represent an outgroup. Multi-state taxa were interpreted as polymorphism. This analysis recovered one most parsimonious tree with a length of 116 steps. The most parsimonious tree has a CI (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.5652, HI (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.4348, RI of 0.6711, and RC of 0.3818.

6.4 Analysis 4

The cladistic analysis 4 was performed using the data set by Boisserie et al. (2010), con-

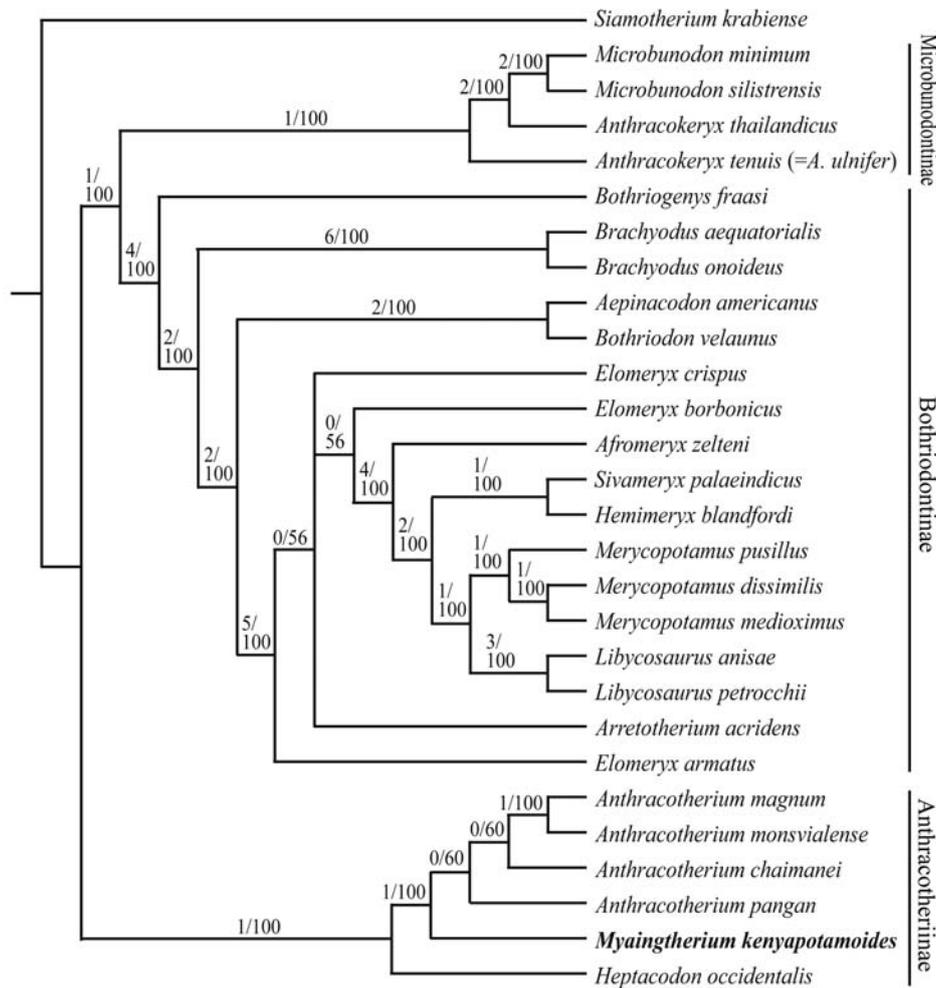


Fig. 17 50% majority-rule consensus tree of the 45 equally most parsimonious cladogram trees recovered by the cladistic analysis 2 (using the data set modified from that by Lihoreau and Ducrocq, 2007)
Numbers indicate Bremer support/frequencies of occurrence

cerning hippos, anthracotheres, some suoids, and some other primitive artiodactyls. We added the data matrix of *Myaingtherium* to the matrix represented by Boisserie et al. (2010:365, appendix 3). The added data matrix of *Myaingtherium* is as follows:

?0?000100100?????????????10011011110020000101001000100000110000000010110100010021??????

The data matrix (25 taxa and 87 characters) was analyzed generally in the same procedure as in Boisserie et al. (2010). This analysis recovered six equally most parsimonious trees with a length of 297 steps. Each most parsimonious tree has a CI (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.4595, HI (excluding uninformative characters) of 0.5405, RI of 0.7193, and RC of 0.3318.

6.5 Discussion

The phylogenetic tree obtained by the analysis 1 (Fig. 16) indicates that *Myaingtherium* is positioned at the very basal part of the family, between *Siamotherium* (designated as outgroup) and the other bunodont anthracotheres. The analysis 1 supports the Microbunodontinae Lihoreau and Ducrocq, 2007 excluding *Anthracokeryx tenuis* (= *A. ulnifer*), and shows that *Anthracokeryx tenuis* is a sister taxon of the genus *Anthracotherium*. The tree obtained by the analysis 2 (Fig. 17), however, indicates that *Myaingtherium* is positioned within the Anthracotheriinae (*sensu* Li-

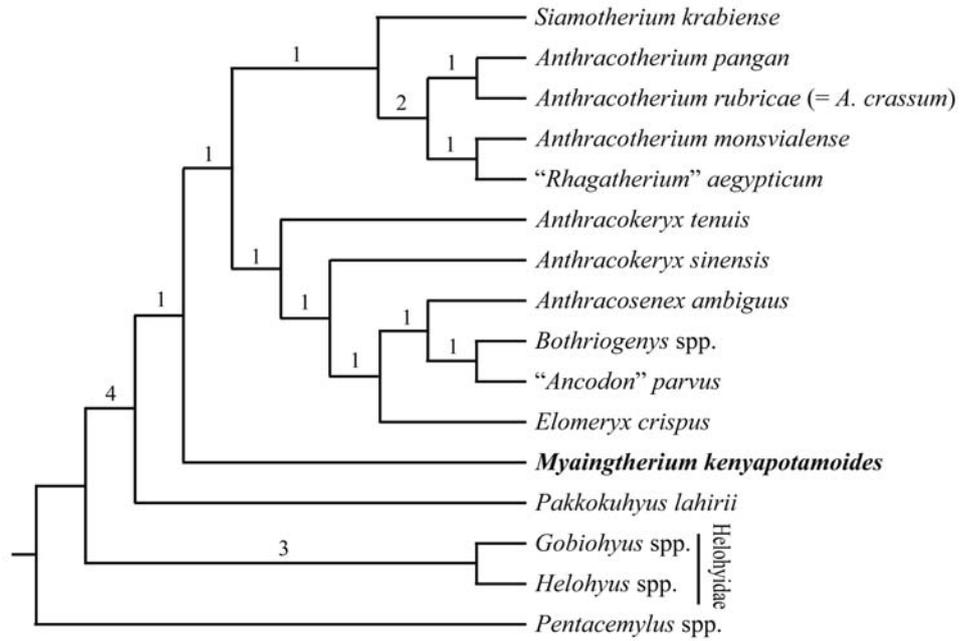


Fig. 18 The most parsimonious cladogram tree recovered by the cladistic analysis 3 (using the data set modified from that by Holroyd, 1994) Numbers indicate Bremer support

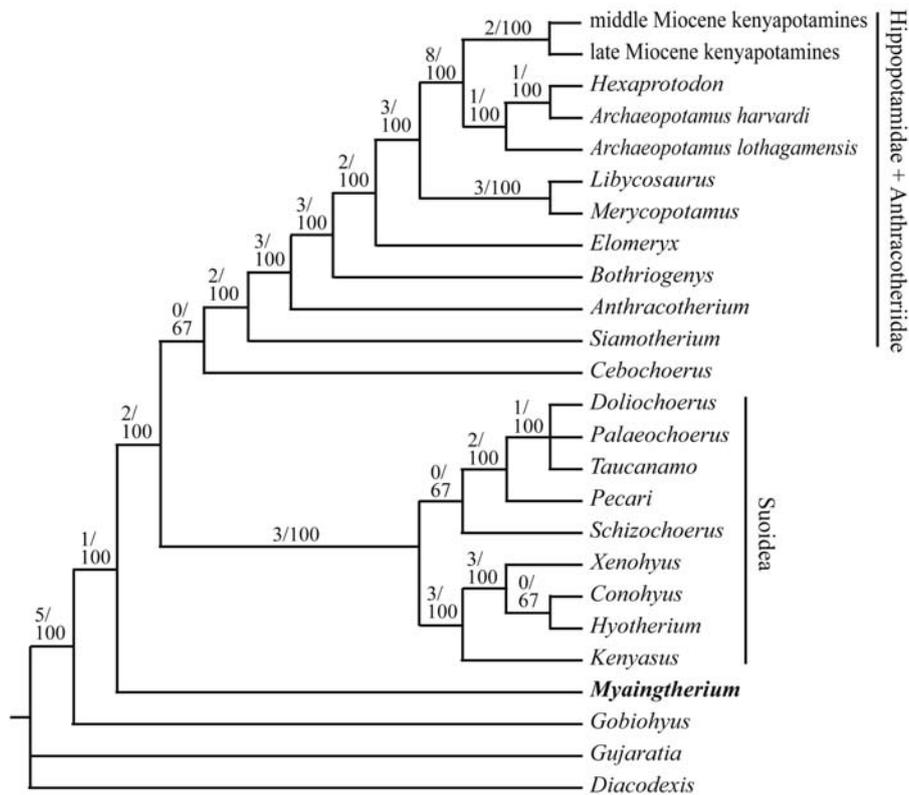


Fig. 19 50% majority-rule consensus tree of the six equally most parsimonious cladogram trees recovered by the cladistic analysis 4 (using the data set modified from that by Boisserie et al., 2010) Numbers indicate Bremer support/frequencies of occurrence

horeau and Ducrocq, 2007), between *Heptacodon* and *Anthracotherium*, and is one of the basal anthracotheriine species. This tree supports the monophyly of the Anthracotheriinae, but not

strongly (Bremer support 1). This tree also supports the monophyly of the Microbunodontinae including *Anthrakokeryx tenuis* (Bremer support 1). The tree obtained by the analysis 3 (Fig. 18) indicates that *Myaingtherium* is a basal anthracothere which is positioned more basal than *Siamotherium*. This tree strongly indicates that *Pakkokuhys* is the sister taxon of the other anthracotheres including *Myaingtherium* (Bremer support 4), implying its inclusion within the Anthracotheriidae rather than within the Helohyidae, as suggested by Ducrocq et al. (2000) and Holroyd et al. (2006). The analyses 1–3 emphasize that *Myaingtherium* is a very primitive and one of the basal and oldest bunodont anthracotheres. On the other hand, the cladogram by the analysis 4 (Fig. 19) indicates that *Myaingtherium* is positioned outside of the hippo-anthracothere clade and is located more basal within the Artiodactyla, albeit a basal anthracothere *Siamotherium* is included in the hippo-anthracothere clade. This may be caused by the fragmentary nature of the currently available material of *Myaingtherium*, resulting in many missing data in the matrix, but may alternatively imply a need for further reconsideration of the character selection and coding of the data matrix to test the phyletic relationships of the anthracotheres among the Artiodactyla.

7 Similarity with primitive hippos and possible implication for the hippo origins

Interestingly, several dental characteristics of *Myaingtherium* are reminiscent of those of the Kenyapotaminae (primitive Hippopotamidae) from the middle to late Miocene of Africa and the hippo-like anthracothere *Kulutherium* (known only on the upper dentition) from the early Miocene of Africa (Fig. 15). Although *Myaingtherium* is much smaller in size than the latter (Figs. 13, 15), it is comparable to the kenyapotamines and *Kulutherium* in the following molar characteristics (Fig. 15): a bunodont dentition, an almost tetracuspidate upper molar with a very small paraconule shifted mesially, lack of a molar parastyle and metastyle, no or vestigial molar mesostyle, a mesiodistally-oriented molar ectoloph, a centrally (not lingually) positioned and well-defined notch between the preprotocristid and the premetacristid on the lower molars, an M-shaped ridge at the distal trigonid wall on the lower molars, and a median accessory cusplet on the lower molars. Besides, the configuration of the cusps and cristids of the lower molars in the kenyapotamines is comparable to that in *Myaingtherium* (Fig. 15E–H). Among these similarities, however, there are only two potential synapomorphies, a reduced molar paraconule and median accessory cusplet on the lower molars, among *Myaingtherium*, the Kenyapotaminae, and *Kulutherium*. Most of other similarities are considered to be symplesiomorphies because they are generally common among the early primitive Eocene artiodactyls.

The origin of the Hippopotamidae has long been debated (Pilgrim, 1941; Gentry and Hooker, 1988; Boissarie et al., 2005a, 2010; Pickford, 1989, 2008, and references therein). Several possible ancestors of the family have been elected, such as anthracotheres, suoids, and cebochoerids (Pickford, 1989, 2008). As summarized by Boissarie et al. (2005a, 2010), at present, there are two major hypotheses on the origin of the Hippopotamidae, the advanced selenodont anthracotheriid (bothriodontine) origin hypothesis (Falconer and Cautley, 1836; Lydekker, 1876; Colbert, 1935a, b; Boissarie et al., 2005a, b, 2010; Boissarie and Lihoreau, 2006; Boissarie, 2007) and the palaeochoerid (= Old World tayassuid) origin hypothesis (Pickford, 1989, 1993, 2005, 2007b, 2008; Pickford and Morales, 1989). The advanced selenodont anthracotheriid origin hypothesis is well supported by cladistic analyses (Boissarie et al., 2005a, b, 2010), but the problem is the molar morphology. The advanced anthracotheres have a strongly selenodont dentition, but conversely the primitive hippos (kenyapotamines) have a bunodont dentition. On the other hand, the palaeochoerid (Suoidea) origin hypothesis agrees with the molar morphology, but it disagrees with the molecular phylogeny. This hypothesis implies that the suoids and hippos are closely related, but the molecular phylogeny strongly suggests that the hippos are closely related not to the suoids but to the cetaceans and then ruminants (Gatesy et al., 1999; Nikaido et al.,

1999; Murphy et al., 2001; Marcot, 2007). If we consider that *Myaingtherium* (primitive bunodont anthracothere) is phylogenetically related to kenyapotamines (and *Kulutherium*) as implied by Gentry and Hooker (1988), this agrees with the molar morphology and at the same time it is not incongruent with the molecular phylogeny. Although the cladistic analysis (the analysis 4; Fig. 19) does not indicate a close relationship between *Myaingtherium* and kenyapotamines, this might be caused by the poor fossil record of these taxa and a large temporal gap (ca. 20 Ma) between them. Actually, the close phyletic relationship between *Kulutherium* and the kenyapotamines has been recently suggested by Orliac et al. (2009). Therefore, the discovery of *Myaingtherium* indicates that the further resolution on the hippo origin requires the discovery of data on poorly known Paleogene and early Miocene bunodont anthracotheres from Asia and Africa, such as *Myaingtherium*, *Kulutherium*, “*Rhagatherium*” *aegypticum*, and *Bugtitherium* (Holroyd, 1994; Métais et al., 2006a; Pickford, 2007a).

8 Concluding remarks

The new anthracotheriid specimens from the upper middle Eocene Pondaung Formation of Myanmar described here (Figs. 1, 4–12) are assigned to a new genus and species, *Myaingtherium kenyapotamoides*. *Myaingtherium* is a primitive and bunodont anthracothere and has overall dental similarity with Pondaung *Anthracotherium*, *Anthracohyus*, and *Anthracokeryx*. It is more comparable in dental morphology to the larger Pondaung anthracotheres, *Anthracotherium* and *Anthracohyus*, in having more bunodont dentition, rather than to *Anthracokeryx*; however, it is more comparable in dental size to a small-sized Pondaung anthracothere, *Anthracokeryx tenuis*. It differs from the Pondaung and other bunodont anthracotheres (except for Miocene African *Kulutherium*) particularly in having very reduced molar paraconule, which is a unique character among the bunodont anthracotheres. The present specimens add further taxonomic and dental morphological variations among the Pondaung anthracotheres. The cladistic analyses indicated that *Myaingtherium* is one of the basal and oldest anthracotheres and is likely included in the Anthracotheriinae (*sensu* Lihoreau and Ducrocq, 2007).

Interestingly, *Myaingtherium* has some dental similarities, such as a reduced molar paraconule with bunodont dentition, with the Kenyapotaminae (primitive hippopotamids) and *Kulutherium* (hippo-like putative anthracothere), filling the gap of the superficial molar morphology between the Anthracotheriidae and the primitive Hippopotamidae. This implies a possibility that *Myaingtherium* (primitive bunodont anthracothere) might be related to *Kulutherium* and kenyapotamines, that is, primitive hippos, as implied by Gentry and Hooker (1988). It is also interesting to note that the Pondaung fauna includes a possible raoellid artiodactyl (Tsubamoto et al., 2005; Métais et al., 2007; Theodor et al., 2007). The raoellids are an early to early middle Eocene bunodont artiodactyl family recorded in the lower to lower middle Eocene of northern Indo-Pakistan and have been recently considered to be the sister group of cetaceans (Thewissen et al., 2001, 2007; Theodor et al., 2007; Geisler and Theodor, 2009; Spaulding et al., 2009). Therefore, possible hippopotamid ancestors (most primitive anthracotheres including *Myaingtherium*) and a possible raoellid (sister group of cetaceans) coexisted in the middle Eocene Pondaung fauna. This is consistent with the results of the molecular biology that the cetaceans and hippopotamids are in a sister-taxon relationship (Gatesy et al., 1999; Nikaido et al., 1999; Murphy et al., 2001; Marcot, 2007). Although more evidences are necessary to test the precise phyletic relationships of *Myaingtherium*, this discovery reinforces that the Pondaung anthracotheres are an important group for testing and confirming the phyletic relationships among the Anthracotheriidae, Hippopotamidae, Cetacea, Raoellidae, and Suoidea, and for understanding the early evolution of these artiodactyl groups (Pilgrim and Cotter, 1916; Pilgrim, 1928, 1940, 1941).

Acknowledgments We gratefully thank the personnel from the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Culture, and the Department of Archaeology of the Union of Myanmar for giving permission for the paleontological study in the field and institutions in the country. We are also indebted to Nobuo Shigehara (Kyoto University, Inuyama, Japan) for his supports to our field works, to Martin Pickford (Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France) for providing his published reports and access to the specimens of the Kenyapotaminae in his hand, to Maeva Orliac (Université Montpellier II, Montpellier, France) for showing a cast of *Kulutherium*, and to Hiroshi Tsujikawa (Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan) and Hideo Nakaya (Kagoshima University, Kagoshima, Japan) for providing photos of the Kenyapotaminae. We are grateful to Patricia A. Holroyd (University of California, Berkeley, USA), Jin Meng and Judith Galkin (American Museum of Natural History, New York, USA), Christine Argot and Pascal Tassy (Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France), Yaowalak Chaimanee (Department of Mineral Resources, Bangkok, Thailand), and Yuanqing Wang and Xun Jin (Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and Paleoanthropology, Beijing, China) for graciously providing access to the collections in their institutions. Special thanks are due to all members of the Kyoto University (Japan) and Myanmar joint paleontological research team (since 1998) for their help during our field works and to the curators from the National Museum of Myanmar and for access to the specimens in their care. We also wish to express our sincere thanks to the ambassadors and staffs of the Embassy of Myanmar in Tokyo and of the Embassy of Japan in Yangon for providing necessary assistances. This paper was read at the International Symposium on Terrestrial Paleogene Biota and Stratigraphy of Eastern Asia—In Memory of Prof. Dr. Minchen Chow (Zhou Mingzhen) held at Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and Paleoanthropology (Beijing, China) on June 15–17, 2009. We are grateful to the organizing committee of the symposium. Financial supports were provided by the MEXT Overseas Scientific Research Fund to M. Takai (no. 16405018, 20405015), by the MEXT Grant-in-Aid for the 21st Century COE Program (A14 to Kyoto University), and by the MEXT Global COE Program (A06 to Kyoto University). Research by T. Tsubamoto was partly supported by the Hayashibara Museum of Natural Sciences (Okayama, Japan).

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