A NEW CRICETID RODENT FROM THE EARLY OLIGOCENE OF YUNNAN, CHINA, AND ITS EVOLUTIONARY IMPLICATIONS FOR EARLY EURASIAN CRICETIDS

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ABSTRACT—Here we report a new early Oligocene cricetid, *Paracricetops virgatoicus*, gen. et sp. nov., discovered from the Caijiachong locality in Yunnan Province, China. This new cricetid shows a peculiar combination of characters, such as massive and transversely positioned cusps, crenulated cheek tooth enamel, and a deep fossette enclosed between protocone and paracone. These characters are also present in *Cricetops*, a cricetid rodent of which the phylogenetic relationship with other cricetids remains debatable. Our phylogenetic analysis based on a data matrix including 37 taxa and 67 morphological characters reveals that *Paracricetops* and *Cricetops* are sister groups. *Paracricetops*, *Cricetops*, *Deperetomys*, *Metaeusms*, *Selenomys*, *Melissiodon*, *Mirabella*, *Enginia*, *Muhsonia*, and *Aralocricetodon* constitute a monophyletic group. This result suggests that these genera should all be grouped in the subfamily Cricetopinae. Our phylogenetic analysis also casts new lights on the origin and early radiation of the family Cricetidae. The subfamily Pappocricetodontinae is a polyphyletic group. *Pappocricetodon* and *Raricricetodon*, two basal cricetid genera, are also polyphyletic. A thorough systematic revision of these basal cricetids is needed. Chronological distribution of Eucricetodontinae, Paracricetodontinae, Pseudocricetodontinae, and Cricetopinae indicates that the establishment of these cricetid clades should be in the late Eocene at least. We therefore deduced that the first diversification and dispersal of the family Cricetidae across Eurasia must have occurred well before the Eocene-Oligocene transition.

SUPPLEMENTAL DATA—Supplemental materials are available for this article for free at www.tandfonline.com/UJVP

INTRODUCTION

The cricetids, including extant hamsters, constitute one of the most diverse families of rodents. In Europe and North America, cricetids appeared at the beginning of the Oligocene. Since then they underwent very rapid diversification, especially in western Europe, where about 40 species of cricetids are known in the Oligocene alone. The first appearance of cricetids in eastern Asia is much earlier. *Pappocricetodon antiquus* Wang and Dawson, 1994, from the middle Eocene Shanghuang fissure-filling in Jiangsu Province of China and *Palaisiomyys conulus* Tong, 1997, from the middle Eocene Irdinmanhan Hetaoyuan Formation in Henan Province of China are so far the oldest known representatives of the family Cricetidae. In the past two decades, many new cricetids have been discovered from Eocene and Oligocene Asian continental deposits. At least 12 genera (*Edirnella* Unay, 1989; *Trakymys* Unay, 1989; *Metaeusms* de Brujin, Unay, van den Hoek Ostende, and Sarac, 1992; *Muhsinia* de Brujin, Unay, van den Hoek Ostende, and Sarac, 1992; *Aralocricetodon* Bendukidze, 1993; *Pappocricetodon* Tong, 1992; *Raricricetodon* Tong, 1997; *Palaisiomyys* Tong, 1997; *Ulaancricetodon* Daxner-Höck, 2000; *Witenia* de Brujin, Unay, G. Sarac, and Yılmaz, 2003; *Oxyocricetodon* Wang, 2007; *Eocricetodon* Wang, 2007) were added to the family Cricetidae. These discoveries have provided intriguing evidence for understanding the origin and early radiation of this family.

Here we report a new cricetid rodent discovered at the Caijiachong mammalian fossil locality in Yunnan Province, China. The Caijiachong locality lies in the north part of the Yuezhou Basin, and is about 20 km southeast of Qujing City. The Palaeogene deposits near Caijiachong village consist of two rock units, the Caijiachong Formation and the Gelanghe Formation. The Caijiachong Formation is a set of sediments consisting of gray and light grayish-green fluvial sandstone or sandy mudstone containing grayish-white marly concretions, and a grayish-white marl bed. Underlying the Caijiachong Formation, is the Gelanghe Formation red bed, which contains reddish mudstone, sandy mudstone, and fine silts, and is usually structureless. Fossil collecting and study at the Caijiachong locality have a long history. Young (1932) first reported mammalian fossils from the Caijiachong locality. Bien (1940) reported the results of the first field survey, carried out in 1937 in this region. Since the 1960s, Zhou Mingzhen and other researchers from the IVPP continued to visit and collect at the Caijiachong locality. To date, more than 30 taxa have been collected from this locality (Xu, 1961; Wang and Zhang, 1983). Most of them are from three layers in or below the marlite bed of the Caijiachong Formation. These fossils constitute the Caijiachong mammalian fauna. The age of the Caijiachong Fauna is Ergilian (Naduan + Ulangochuan) of the Asian Land Mammalian Age, which has been correlated with the North American Chadronian or European MP19 (Wang, 1985, 1992, 1997; Emry et al., 1998). Very few fossils have been collected from the Gelanghe Formation (Wang and Zhang, 1983), and these poorly preserved fossil fragments from there were insufficient to indicate a precise mammalian age. However, an unpublished sivaladapid upper M3 from the Gelanghe Formation probably indicates a Sharamurunian age. In 2008, we discovered a new fossiliferous layer above the marlite bed in the Caijiachong Formation. About 10 taxa, including the new cricetid rodent reported here, have been collected. The entire fauna from this new fossiliferous bed has not been fully documented, but a few taxa clearly indicate a younger age than the Caijiachong fauna. For instance, the *Eucricetodon* specimen from the new layer is very similar to the early Oligocene *Eucricetodon caducus* Shevyreva, 1967, from Burqin of China and Hsanda Gol of Mongolia. These specimens from the new layer are more derived
than the *Eucricetodon* and *Eocricetodon* species from the late Eocene Caijiachong fauna by their larger size, broader antercone in M1, and better-developed anteroconid in m1. Another taxon that could indicate an Oligocene age is a new amynodontid (*Perissodactyla*), which is about 20% larger than the late Eocene *Gigantamynodon giganteus* Xu, 1961, of the Caijiachong fauna. Hence, we believe that the fauna associated with the new cricetid reported here represents an early Oligocene mammalian assemblage.

The morphological terminology used for description and phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 1) is tentative synthetic terminology for all Paleogene cricetids, modified from Freudenthal and Daams (1988), Wang and Dawson (1994), Hugueney (1999), and Maridet et al. (2009). The tooth orientation terminology follows that of Smith and Dodson (2003).

**Institutional Abbreviation**—IVPP, Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and Paleoanthropology of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

**SYSTEMATIC PALEONTOLOGY**

Order RODENTIA Bowdich, 1821
Family CRICETIDAE Fischer von Waldheim, 1817
Subfamily CRICETOPINAE Matthew and Granger, 1923

*PARACRICETOPS*, gen. nov.

**Type Species**—*Paracricetops virgatoincisus*, sp. nov.

**Included Species**—The type species only.

**Occurrence**—Early Oligocene Hsandagolian, Yunnan Province, China.

**Etymology**—From the prefix ‘Para’ meaning ‘at the side of’ or ‘resembling’ and the genus *Cricetops*, to which this new genus is closely related (see Phylogenetic Analysis).

**Diagnosis**—Large cricetid rodent has massive cusps, cuspsids, crenulated enamel. Upper and lower teeth emphasize on transverse wear. Protocone and paracone, hypocone and metacone, protocone and metaconid, and hypoconid and entoconid are about equally developed and positioned in transverse cusp pairs. Mandible is slender, with shallow, long, weakly curved diastema. Mental foramen is in middle of mandible diastema. Mandibular ascending ramus starting point is lateral to m3 distal part.

M1 has one complete anterolophule, one well-developed pro- tostyle, double connection to paracone, one small entomesoloph, one long mesoloph, and one well-developed anterocone. Entomesoloph is slightly mesial relative to mesoloph. Well-developed lingual and labial anterolophs form complete loop with anterocone and enclose mesial lobe. M1 and M2 mesolophs reach labial border and merge with cingulum, paracone spur, and metacone ridge. Similar to *Cricetops* Matthew and Granger, 1923, protocone spur, mesial and distal protolophules, protocone, and paraccone enclose one deep rhombic fossette. m1 has small, simple or slightly bilobed anteroconid. Anteroconid connects metastylid and metaconid (metaconid spur), not protoconid (no anterolophule). m1 entolophid is strongly oblique and extends from hypoconid mesial part to protoconid hind arm. Large, elongated mesosconid is de- veloped on entolophid. m1 hypolophid directly connects mesoconid. m2 hypolophid connects mesoconid or hypoconid mesial part. Lower molars have crenulated enamel. m3 is slightly shorter than m1. M1 and M2 have three roots. Lower molars have two roots.

**Differential Diagnosis**—*Paracricetops* differs from *Cricetops* in exhibiting a shallower and less curved mandibular diastema. The lower incisor of *Paracricetops* bears complex ornamentation (two longitudinal parallel-raised ridges and faint enamel cre- nuniations) on its rostrally facing surface, whereas the incisor of *Cricetops* has no or very weak ornamentation. M1 of *Paracricetops* has a narrower and less divided anterocone, and lacks a distal connection between the metacone and cingulum. The mesoloph and entoloph of M1–2 in *Paracricetops* are much stronger than those in *Cricetops*. M3 of *Paracricetops* lacks the metacone. m1 of *Paracricetops* differs from that of *Cricetops*

**FIGURE 1.** Terminology used for the cricetid molars, modified from Freudenthal and Daams (1988), Hugueney (1999), and Maridet et al. (2009). (A) M1: 1, anterocone; 2, labial anteroloph; 3, anterolophule; 4, protocone spur; 5, protoconule; 6, paracone; 7, paracone spur; 8, mesosinus; 9, mesostyle; 10, mesoloph; 11, metacone ridge; 12, metacone; 13, posterosinus; 14, posteroloph; 15, mesolophid; 16, mesoconid; 17, hypocone; 18, entoloph; 19, protocone distal arm; 20, sinus; 21, lingual cingulum; 22, entomesoloph; 23, mesial and distal protolophules; 24, protocone; 25, protocone platform; 26, protostyle spur; 27, protostyle; 28, lingual anteroloph; 29, protosinus; 30, anterolophule. (B) m1: 1, metastylid; 2, metaconid; 3, metaconid ridge; 4, protoconid hind arm; 5, mesosinusid; 6, mesostylid; 7, mesolophid; 8, entoconid spur; 9, entoconid; 10, hypolophid; 11, posterolophid; 12, additional distal cingulum; 13, posterosinusid; 14, hypoconid hind arm; 15, labial posterolophule; 16, labial posterosinusid; 17, entolophid; 18, hypoconid; 19, entomesolophid; 20, sinusid; 21, ectostylid; 22, mesoconid; 23, protoconid; 24, protosinusid; 25, labial anterolophule; 26, anterolophule; 27, metalophid; 28, anterconid; 29, metastylid spur; 30, lingual anterolophid.
by bearing a less developed anteroconid, and a more oblique ectolophid.

*Paracricetops* is different from *Deperetomys* Mein and Freudenthal, 1971, *Metaemys*, and *Enginia* by its smaller size, less divided anterocone, presence of fossette between protocone and paracone in both M1 and M2, orientation of the metalophule, and much stronger mesoloph and mesolophid.

*Paracricetops* differs from *Paracricetodon* Schaub, 1925, in having lower crown and crenulated enamel on the cheek teeth. Similar to *Cricetops*, but different from *Paracricetodon* and *Trakymys*, the M1 and M2 of *Paracricetops* have two protolophules, which enclose a fossette between the protocone and paracone, and a complete entoloph, which joins the protocone and hypocone. m1 of *Paracricetops* differs from that of *Paracricetodon* in having a well-developed anteroconid, a shorter hypoconid hind arm, and an oblique ectolophid.

*Paracricetops* differs from *Melissiodon* Schaub, 1920, and *Selenomys* Matthew and Granger, 1923, in having a shallow and weakly curved diastema of the mandible, three roots on M1, and very different molar morphology. All species of *Melissiodon* are characterized by possessing molars with long and high crests and ridges but with much reduced cusps. *Selenomys* molars are characterized by a selenodont-type and semi-hypsodont morphology.

*Paracricetops* differs from the Eocene cricetids *Palasiomys*, *Raricricetodon*, and *Pappocricetodon* by the following combination of characters: much larger size, absence of upper P4, crenulated enamel of the cheek teeth, stronger crests, presence of a large divided anterocone in M1, and presence of a well-developed anteroconid and an oblique ectolophid in m1.

*Paracricetops* differs from other Paleogene genera such as *Pseudocricetodon* Thaler, 1969, *Eucricetodon* Thaler, 1966, *Atavocricetodon* Freudenthal, 1996, *Aralocricetodon*, *Muhsinia*, *Uluaocricetodon*, *Heterocricetodon* Schaub, 1925, *Witenia*, *Edrinella*, *Eoerucetodon*, and *Oxynocricetodon* by the following combination of characters: m3 almost as long as the m1, longitudinal axis of the lower tooth row strongly inclined in occlusal view relative to the longitudinal axis of the lower jaw, crenulated enamel, well-developed metacone and metaconid ridges of the cheek teeth, and an oblique ectolophid in m1.

**PARACRICETOPS VIRGATOINCISUS**, sp. nov. (Figs. 2–4)

**Holotype**—IVPP V17821.1: a broken right mandible preserving incisor, m1, and m3 (Figs. 2 and 3). Measurements (length × width): m1, 2.12 × 1.53 mm; m3, 2.00 × 1.63 mm.

**Hypodigm**—IVPP V17821.2, a fragment of left mandible preserving m1 and m2 (Fig. 4F); m1, 2.07 × 1.51 mm; m2, 2.07 × 1.75 mm. IVPP V17821.3, a right m2 mesiolabially broken (Fig. 4G); 2.12 × 1.66 mm. IVPP V17821.4, a broken right m2 (Fig. 4H); width: 1.90 mm. IVPP V17821.5, a fragment of left maxilla preserving M1 (Fig. 4A, B); M1, 2.94 × 1.94 mm. IVPP V17821.6, a left M1 (Fig. 4C); 2.77 × 1.78 mm. IVPP V17821.7, a left M2 (Fig. 4D); 2.07 × 1.78 mm. IVPP V17821.8, a left M3 (Fig. 4E); 1.82 × 1.90 mm.

**Etymology**—From ‘virgatus’, meaning ‘striped’ and ‘incisus’ meaning ‘incisor.’

**Diagnosis**—As for the genus.

**Type Locality**—Caijiachong, Qujing, Yunnan Province, China.

**Description**

**Maxilla**—A maxillary fragment preserves a small part of the zygomatic arch (Fig. 4A, B). The zygomatic plate is broken. It is impossible to estimate its size and orientation. The caudal end of the incisive foramen is slightly rostral to M1. The palatine bone is broken, but a part of the palatine/maxillary suture can be observed at the level of the hypocone of M1.

**Upper Dentition**—M1 has a long, wide mesial lobe. One specimen shows a well-divided anterocone, but the other specimen has a faintly divided anterocone (Fig. 4B, C). Both lingual and labial anterolophes are strong, enclosing the mesial lobe from both sides. The lingual anteroloph bears a protostyle, which is linked to the protocone by a small spur. A long anterolophule links the mesial area of the protocone to the anterocone. In one M1 (Fig. 4B), the anterolophule is formed by the distal spur of anterocone and a labially bended protocone spur. In the other M1 (Fig. 4C), the anterolophule is straight and long. It directly connects the anterocone and protocone. Therefore, the distal spur of anterocone and the protocone spur cannot be distinguished. Both the mesial and distal protolophules (also known as protolophes I and II)

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**FIGURE 2.** Holotype of *Paracricetops virgatoincisus*, gen. et sp. nov. (IVPP V17821.1), a broken right mandible preserving m1 and m3. **A**, labial view; **B**, occlusal view.
are present. They enclose a deep fossette between the protocone and paracone. A spur begins on the mesial side of the paracone. It joins the anterolophule in one specimen and the labial anterolophule in the other specimen. Both the paracone spur and the metacone ridge join the labial extremity of the mesoloph on the labial tooth border. A mesostyle is present at this intersection. A small cingulum starts from the extremity of the mesoloph, forms a loop toward the paracone, and delimits a small pit. The same feature is also observed in Paracricetodon. A mesocone is present on both M1s. A weak entomesoloph is developed from the mesial part of the mesocone. The sinus (also known as hypoflexus) is closed by a thick cingulum. The metalophule is slightly curved and connects the middle part of hypocone. The M1s are three-rooted.

M2 is slightly rounded. Both lingual and labial anterolophs are long and thick (Fig. 4D). They join together and form a straight crista along the mesial tooth border. A similarly thick anterolophule links the anterolophs with the protocone. As in M1, both mesial and distal protolophules are present, and the paracone distal spur and the metacone ridge join the mesoloph on the labial border where the cingulum also forms a small pit. The protocone is distally extended, leaving the sinus in a mesially curved shape. The sinus is closed lingually by a ridge starting from the hypocone. This ridge is merged with the lingual cingulum. The metalophule is also present, but different from that of M1, it connects to the mesial part of hypocone. M2 is three-rooted.

The presence of a deep fossette enclosed by crests between protocone and paracone in both M1 and M2 is a feature shared only by Paracricetops and Cricetops. This feature is not present in other Paleogene cricetid rodents. Although the anterocone of Paracricetops is much less developed than that of Cricetops, the bulky protocone-paracone, hypocone-metacone pairs in upper molars and protoconid-metaconid, hypoconid-entoconid pairs in lower molars are very similar to the cusp-arranging pattern in Cricetops.

M3 is roughly in a triangle shape from the occlusal view (Fig. 4E). As in the M2, the lingual and labial anterolophs are long and thick, and form a straight crista along the mesial tooth border. The protocone and paracone are mesiodistally compressed. The mesial protolophule and the protocone spur join to-
labially the sinusid is sometimes closed by a cingulid, or by an ectostylid. The posterosinusid is noticeably large. In two specimens, a very weakly developed hypoconid hind arm is present. Different from the m1, the labial posterolophid of m2 is either faint or totally absent. The hypoconulid is variably developed at the base of the posterolophid. m2 is two-rooted.

Only one m3 is available for description, preserved on the type specimen. As in m2, the metalophulid connects directly to the lingual anterolophid. The protoconid hind arm reaches the lingual border where it merges with the metaconid ridge. A low and weakly developed crest joins the metalophulid with the protoconid hind arm. Both the mesosinusid and the sinusid are open. The ectomesolophid is well developed. The hypolophulid is almost transverse and connects to the ectolophid. The hypoconid is reduced and is more elongated compared with the protoconid. It tends to form a continuous crest with the posterolophid. M3 has two roots.

**PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSIS**

The Eurasian Paleogene and early Neogene cricetid rodents are very diverse. The phylogenetic relationships among these cricetids remain unsolved. Rodrigues et al. (2010) carried out a phylogenetic analysis based on a data matrix including 65 cranial and dental characters and 22 myomorphous taxa. Their analysis is a good attempt to resolve the phylogenetic relationship between dipodoid and basal cricetid rodents. Here, in order to decipher the phylogenetic position of *Paracricetops virgatoincisus*, gen. et sp. nov., we performed a phylogenetic analysis focusing on the early Eurasian cricetids, particularly the taxa showing morphological similarities to *P. virgatoincisus*. Our analysis is based on a newly developed morphological data matrix including 67 characters, two Eocene dipodids, and 35 Eocene, Oligocene, and early Miocene Eurasian cricetid rodents (see Supplementary Data). It is generally accepted that muroid and dipodoid rodents have very close phylogenetic relationships (Flynn et al., 1985; Wang and Dawson, 1994; Marivaux et al., 2004; Emry, 2007; Flynn, 2009; Gomes Rodrigues et al., 2010). We therefore selected two dipodids, *Primisminthus yuenus* Tong, 1997, and *Banyuesminthus uniconjugatus* Tong, 1997, as an outgroup in our analysis. Thirty-five ingroup cricetids belonging to 27 genera cover most of the Paleogene cricetids at a genus level. Five early Miocene cricetids, *Muhsinia stefensis* de Bruijn, Unay, van der Hoek Ostende, and Sarac, 1992, *Enginia gertcheki*, *Deperetomys intermedius* de Bruijn, Unay, Sarac, and Klein Hofmeijer, 1987, *Mirrabella tuberosa* (de Bruijn, Unay, Sarac, and Klein Hofmeijer, 1987) (de
Bruijn et al., 2007, suggested Mirabralla as the new name for the genus Mirabralla de Bruijn et al., 1987, which was preoccupied by Mirabralla Emeljanov, 1982), and Metaemys alpine de Bruijn, Unay, van der Hoek Ostende, and Sarac, 1992, are also included in our analysis, because these taxa share many similarities with P. virgatoicus and could have close phylogenetic relationships between them. Among the 67 characters, seven are cranial and 60 are dental characters. Most of the scorings are based on direct observation on the specimens or casts. A few taxa are scored based on literature. The data matrix has a very low proportion of missing data: only 10.9% of the total cells contain question marks. The intraspecific variation was taken into account and coded as multistates. Twelve characters were set as ordered. All characters have equal weight. Characters scored as having multiple states are interpreted as polymorphisms. TNT (Tree analysis using New Technology) phylogenetic analysis program (Goloboff et al., 2008) was used to search for the most parsimonious trees. The Driven Search method was selected, with the best score hit set as 100 times, and for each hit the initial search set as 1000 replications. Bremer supports were calculated from the optimal and suboptimal trees during branch swapping. The absolute difference in fit (Goloboff and Farris, 2001) was set as 0.100 and the relative fit difference during branch swapping. The abso-

Our phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 5) suggests that Paracricetops and Cricetops are a sister group. Paracricetops, Cricetops, Duperetomys, and Metaemys consist of a monophyletic clade. We named this monophyletic clade the Cricetops clade. Selenomys is the sister of Melissiodon, and the two constitute the sister of Mirabralla. The monophyletic clade including Selenomys, Melissiodon, and Mirabralla is called the Melissiodon clade. The Cricetops clade and Melissiodon clade are sister groups. Enginia, Muhsinia, and Aralocricetodon form another monophyletic group, which we named the Enginia clade. Cricetops clade, Melissiodon clade, and Enginia clade constitute a larger monophyletic group. Pseudocricetodon, Ulaancricetodon, Heterocricetodon, Adelomyarian Hugueney, 1969, Kerosinia, Oxyocricetodon, Edimella, and surprisingly Raricricetodon zhongtiaensis constitute a monophyletic group. This group is the sister of the Cricetops-Selenomys-Enginia clade. The Asian middle and late Eocene cricetids show a complicated phylogenetic relationship. Pappocricetodon renucensis, P. antiquus, P. schaubi, Raricricetodon ? minor, and Palasimyons conulus form a paraphyletic group.

When characters changes were traced along the strict consensus tree assuming accelerated transformations (ACCTRAN), three synapomorphies were found supporting the Cricetops clade. They are the presence of one longitudinal ridge on the mesial side of the rostrally facing surface of the lower incisor, the paired cusp of the cheek teeth being arranged in transverse ridges and standing in high relief, and the presence of cheek tooth enamel crenulation. The Cricetops-Melissiodon clade shares a combination of nine synapomorphic characters: the presence of long incisive foramen, M1 possessing metacone ridge, M2 possessing metacone ridge, M2 sinus mesiolabial expansion being absent, variable presence of hypoconid hind arm in m1, m1 hypolophid connecting the mesoconid or the base of mesolophid, m1 possessing X-shaped cristid intersection, presence of m2 hypoconid hind arm, and m2 hypolophid connecting the mesoconid or the base of the mesolophid. The synapomorphic features supporting the Cricetops-Melissiodon-Enginia clade include the presence of one longitudinal ridge in the middle part of the rostrally facing surface of the lower incisor, hystricomorphous zygomatic plate, the ventral masseter crest extending to m2, the orientation of the longitudinal axis of the tooth row relative to the longitudinal axis of the dental bone in occlusal view being strongly inclined, presence of divided anterocone in M1, and the metalophid connecting the lingual anterolophid or the anterior tooth border in m1.

DISCUSSION

Paracricetops virgatoicus, gen. et sp. nov., shows a striking morphology shared with some peculiar Oligocene and early Miocene cricetid rodents, such as Cricetops, Duperetomys, and Metaemys. The phylogenetic analysis including Paracricetops and other early cricetids not only asserts the systematic position of this new cricetid, but also illuminates the phylogenetic relationships among other cricetids.

Our phylogenetic analysis suggests that Paracricetops has close phylogenetic relationships with Cricetops, Duperetomys, Metaemys, Selenomys, Melissiodon, Mirabralla, Enginia, Muhsinia, and Aralocricetodon (Fig. 5). The origin of these cricetids and the phylogenetic relationships with other rodents still remained to be resolved (Simpson, 1945; Stehlin and Schaub, 1951; Schaub, 1958; Mein and Freudenthal, 1971; Unay, 1989; Wang and Dawson, 1994; McKenna and Bell, 1997; Lopatin, 2004; Bendukidze et al., 2009). Cricetops is usually the dominant element of the early Oligocene faunas in northern Asia, occurring widely in early Oligocene deposits in Mongolia, Kazakhstan, and many localities in China (Russell and Zhai, 1987). It has a cricetid dental morphology but hystricomorphous zygoma (Linday, 1977; Wahlert, 1984; Carrasco and Wahlert, 1999). When they described Cricetops as a new genus, Matthew and Granger (1923) put it in a new family, Cricetopidae, because they did not feel justified in assigning this genus to any then-recognized family. In the same paper, Matthew and Granger (1923:5) associated Selenomys with Cricetops, which had “some suggestion of approach in pattern.” Later Simpson (1945) changed Cricetopidae into a tribe, Cricetopini, and placed it under the cricetid subfamily Cricetinae. In this tribe, he included Cricetops, Selenomys, and Kansamys Wood, 1937. Mellett (1966, 1968) put Selenomys in the Aplodontidae family. Kowalski (1974) tentatively agreed with this assignment. Wang (1987) argued, however, that Selenomys does not show similarities to aplodontids but does share many dental and cranial characters with other cricetids and should be kept in the Cricetidae. McKenna and Bell (1997) did not follow Wang’s suggestion, considering Selenomys to be a genus of Muridae incertae sedis. As far as Kansamys is concerned, it is now generally accepted as a rhizomyine rodent (McKenna and Bell, 1997; Flynn, 2009).

Wahlert (1984) suggested that Cricetops is an extinct kin of the living maned rat Lophiomys and should be put in Lophiomyni- nae. But soon this suggestion was rejected by Aguilar and Thaler (1987), who discovered that Protolophiomys Aguilar and Thaler, 1987, from the late Miocene of Spain had a Lophiomys-like skull but lacked the bulky and transversely arranged cusp pattern. The dental similarities shared by Cricetops and Lophiomys must be a result of convergent adaptation.

The microstructure of the incisor enamel shows many similarities between Cricetops, Melissiodon, and Selenomys (Kalhoff, 2000, 2006; Koenigswald and Kalthoff, 2007). Instead of suggesting any phylogenetic correlation, however, Koenigswald and Kalthoff (2007) believed that the same incisor Schmelzmuster must be a genus of Muridae incertae sedis. It is widely believed that Melissiodon belongs to a peculiar clade of its own (Mein and Freudenthal, 1971; McKenna and Bell, 1997). Unay (1989) suggested that Edimella from the Oligocene of Turkey is morphologically between Paracricetodon and Melissiodon and could be the ancestor of Melissiodon. She therefore assigned Edimella and Melissiodon in the subfamily Melissiodontinae. De Bruijn et al. (2003) supported the assignment of Melissiodon and Edimella in Melissiodontinae.
Freudenthal et al. (1992), however, suggested that *Edirnella* probably had a closer relationship with *Paracricetodon*. McKenna and Bell (1997) followed this suggestion and assigned *Edirnella* in subfamily Paracricetodoninae, leaving *Melissiodon* as the only genus in Melissiodontinae.

De Bruijn and von Koenigswald (1994) established *Enginia* genus based on some isolated teeth and maxilla fragment from the eastern Mediterranean area. They noticed the overall similarity shared by *Cricetops* and *Enginia*, particularly its bulky cusps with peculiar crenulated enamel. They therefore proposed...
ascribing Enginia and Cricetops to the same subfamily, Cricetopinae (they spelled Cricetopsinae). This systematic assignment is followed by McKenna and Bell (1997).

Deperetomys is a peculiar cricetid rodent. It first appeared in the earliest Miocene in Anatolia, and arrived in Europe in the middle Miocene (de Bruijn et al., 1993). Different from Parariceretops and Cricetops, the tooth cusps of Deperetomys are more slender, but the tooth cusp and ridge arrangement of Deperetomys are very similar to those of Parariceretops and Cricetops. Originally Deperetomys was raised as a subgenus of Cricetodon and assigned in the subfamily Cricetodontinae (Mein and Freudenthal, 1971). Unay (1989) suggested that Eumyarion, Deperetomys, and Mirrabella represent a specialized branch of cricetid rodents and grouped them in the subfamily Euymyarioninae. She also pointed out that Cricetops shared many similarities with her Euymyarioninae, suggesting close relationship between them. This hypothesis links the Asian Cricetops with the Anatolian and European cricetids for the first time. However, the idea was largely ignored by later researchers.

Meteamys is another peculiar cricetid rodent. It is the dominant element of the late Oligocene rodent assemblage in Anatolia. At the beginning of the Miocene, Meteamys, together with Mulhisina, was gradually replaced by other cricetids (Wessels, 2009). De Bruijn et al. (1993) partly agreed with Unay (1989), and suggested that Cricetodon, Deperetomys, Eumyarion, and Meteamys must be derived from the same stock, but Mirrabella should have its root in Parariceretodontinae. They also pointed out that the subfamily name Cricetodontinae Schaub, 1925 (cited as Stelhín and Schaub, 1951), has priority over Euymyarioninae Unay, 1989.

Aralocricetodon occurs in the late Oligocene Aral Formation of Kazakhstan (Bendukidze, 1993; Lopatin, 2004; Bendukidze et al., 2009), and possibly also in the Biozone C/C’ of the Hsanda Gol region of Mongolia (Höck et al., 1999; Bendukidze et al., 2009). McKenna and Bell (1997) and Lopatin (2004) assigned Aralocricetodon to Cricetodontinae, but Bendukidze et al. (2009) considered it to be a member of the Tachyoryctinae Bohlin, 1937.

Little attention has been paid to Mulhisina. But its systematic position is also uncertain. De Bruijn et al. (1992) tentatively assigned Mulhisina to Pseudocricetodontidae Engesser, 1987, whereas McKenna and Bell (1997) placed the genus in the tribe Eurycricetodontini under the subfamily Parariceretodontinae. Based on our phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 5), we suggest assigning Parariceretops, Cricetops, Deperetomys, Meteamys, Selenomys, Melissiodon, Mirrabella, Enginia, Mulhisina, and Aralocricetodon to the cricetid subfamily Cricetopinae. Because Melissiodontinae Schaub, 1925, was published two years later than Cricetopinae Matthew and Granger, 1923, Melissiodontinae therefore becomes the junior synonym of Cricetopinae. As discussed above, these genera consist of three monophyletic subgroups: the Cricetops clade, Melissiodon clade, and Enginia clade (Fig. 5). To reflect this phylogenetic relationship, three tribes should be defined within the subfamily Cricetopinae. They are Cricetopini Matthew and Granger, 1923, Melissiodontini Schaub, 1925, and Engini, trib. nov.

The Cricetopinae clade is paraphyletically related to a large group containing the taxa mostly assigned in the subfamily Eurycricetodontinae by Mein and Freudenthal (1971), Parariceretodontinae by McKenna and Bell (1997), or Pseudocricetodontinae by Kalthoff (2006) (Fig. 5). Our phylogenetic analysis indicates that Parariceretop and Trakynyn form a monophyletic group, Ulaancricetodon and Pseudocricetodon form another monophyletic group, and Atavocricetodon is the sister of Eucricetodon. This result therefore supports the assignments of these taxa to Parariceretodontinae, Pseudocricetodontinae, and Eurycricetodontinae, respectively. Adelomyarion, Kerosina, and Heterocricotodon were suggested to be closely related to Pseudocricetodon (Unay, 1989; McKenna and Bell, 1997; Kalthoff, 2006). Our analysis shows that these three genera plus Edirnella, Raricricetodon zhongtaiensis, and Oxyocricotodon form a monophyletic group, with Pseudocricetodon and Ulaancricetodon being its sister. Such a result suggests that all these taxa, namely, Edirnella, R. zhongtaiensis, Oxyocricotodon, Adelomyarion, Kerosina, Heterocricotodon, Ulaancricetodon, and Pseudocricetodon, could all be assigned in the subfamily Pseudocricetodontinae.

Pappocricetodon, Palasiomys, and Raricricetodon are among the most basal myodont rodents, and they are probably ancestral to all other cricetids. Tong (1997) proposed a new subfamily Pappocricetodontinae to include Pappocricetodon, Palasiomys, and a new subfamily Raricricetodontinae to include Raricricetodon. The phylogenetic relationships among these taxa and other more derived cricetids remain debatable (Tong, 1997; Dawson and Tong, 1998; Emry, 2007; Wang, 2007). In our analysis, these three genera are paraphyletically related to each other, and the so-called Pappocricetodontinae is a polyphyletic group (Fig. 5). Three Pappocricetodon species included in our analysis do not belong to a monophyletic group. One Raricricetodon species, R. zhongtaiensis, joins the subfamily Pseudocricetodontinae. The phylogenetic relationship among Pappocricetodon, Raricricetodon, and Palasiomys revealed by our analysis is different from that of Gomes Rodrigues et al. (2010). However, both analyses strongly suggest that a thorough revision of these genera is definitely needed. Discovery of more specimens of these basal cricetids will also help to resolve their systematic position.

The Eocene-Oligocene transition is marked by global climate change (Wolfe, 1971; Legendre, 1986; Elderfield, 2000; Zachos et al., 2001; Dupont-Nivet et al., 2007). Abrupt global cooling, continental aridification, and expansion of open habitats have been suggested as the main drivers of the diversification of rodents. The large change in the distribution and diversity of cricetids seems coincident with the Eocene-Oligocene transition. Our phylogenetic analysis, however, suggested that the divergence of major cricetid clades actually occurred in the Eocene (Fig. 5). The primary diversification and distribution of cricetids across Eurasia also may have occurred well before the Eocene-Oligocene transition. The dispersal of Asian cricetid rodents into Europe is now known earlier than the date traditionally believed. Some cricetids such as Eucricetodon and Pseudocricetodon have migrated to eastern Europe (Baciu and Hartenberger, 2001) in late Eocene. These late Eocene Asian migrants may have served as a stock for European faunal reorganization during the ‘Grande Coupure’ and the later rapid diversification of Oligocene European cricetids.

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