MORPHOLOGY AND RELATIONSHIPS OF APTERNODUS AND OTHER EXTINCT, ZALAMBDODONT, PLACENTAL MAMMALS

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Frontispiece: Reconstruction of *Apterodon baladontus* sp. nov. based on the type specimen, FMNH PU1690. An elongate rod of cartilage is hypothesized to have been present anterior to the bony external nares based on the large size of the rostral muscle scars in this and other specimens. The enlarged, bulbous anterior dentition may have been used to crush chitinous insect exoskeletons in order to access the fleshy interior. Reconstruction drawn by Chester Tarka with the help of Malcolm McKenna.
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ABSTRACT

We describe and illustrate new, middle Cenozoic fossils of dentally zalambdodont, North American placentals, including six relatively complete crania of Apternodus and two of Oligoryctes, as well as many partial skulls, mandibles, and teeth of these and other taxa. Several of the new Apternodus specimens are also associated with postcrania. We recognize seven species of Apternodus, three of which are new, formally propose the combination Oligoryctes altitalonidus, and recognize two other genera of small, North American, anatomically zalambdodont placentals, Parapternodus and Koniarctes. We regard two other taxa previously associated with North American fossil zalambdodonts, one Bridgerian and the other Tiffanian, as valid but do not name them in this paper. In addition, we argue that dental zalambdodonty entails a primary occlusal relationship between the paracone and the ectoflexid, and the reduction or absence of the metacone and talonid basin.

A phylogenetic analysis of cranial, dental, and postcranial characters of 30 fossil and Recent taxa leads us to conclude that (1) the Apternodontidae as defined in previous literature is not monophyletic and should be restricted to seven species of Apternodus, (2) the genus Oligoryctes contains at least two species and has a considerably longer geologic record than Apter- nodus, (3) neither Micropternodus nor currently known Paleocene taxa are closely related to Apternodus or Oligoryctes, and (4) a case can be made for a close relationship among modern soricids, Parapternodus, Koniarctes, Oligoryctes, and Apternodus to the exclusion of other insectivoran-grade taxa. With the use of ordered, multistate character transformations, Solenodon comprises the sister taxon to a soricid-fossil zalambdodont clade.

INTRODUCTION

As defined by previous workers, the extinct mammalian family “Apternodontidae” is best known from two genera, Apternodus and Oligoryctes, which were most diverse in North America during the late Eocene. These genera are well represented by cranial and dental fossils and share a distinctive pattern of molar occlusion known as zalambdodonty (Butler, 1937; Patterson, 1956). The literature on these animals is based primarily on a few specimens from the latest Eocene and early Oligocene White River Group of the United States, but does not account for a great deal of new material.

The purpose of this revision is to assess this new material and provide anatomical and phylogenetic definitions of Apternodus, Oligoryctes, and other extinct taxa previously associated with the “Apternodontidae”, documenting their temporal and geographic ranges. The phylogenetic questions of importance in this analysis concern the monophyly of each constituent “apternodontid” taxon as previously described in the literature. We are also interested in identifying their immediate sister taxa, living and extinct. Relationships among insectivoran-grade placental mammals have been the subject of considerable scrutiny in recent years, and it has become apparent that the “Insectivora” may not comprise a natural, monophyletic group (e.g., Stanhope et al., 1998; Murphy et al., 2001). Future analyses attempting to decipher relationships of constituent insectivoran groups must therefore be very broad in taxonomic scope. Such a large-scale phylogenetic analysis of the Insectivora is beyond the scope of this paper, but the data discussed here can be used toward that end.

INSTITUTIONAL ABBREVIATIONS

AMNH American Museum of Natural History, New York, NY
BMNH The Natural History Museum, London
CM Carnegie Museum of Natural History, Pittsburgh, PA
DMNH Denver Museum of Nature and Science, CO
FMNH Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, IL
KU University of Kansas Museum of Natural History, Lawrence
MCZ Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA
MPUM Museum of Paleontology, University of Montana, Missoula
MV Locality of the Museum of Paleontology, University of Montana, Missoula
RSM Royal Saskatchewan Museum, Regina
SDSM South Dakota School of Mines and Technology, Rapid City
ANATOMICAL ABBREVIATIONS

acf anterior carotid foramen
ac alisphenoid canal
ctpp caudal tympanic process of the petrosal
cct ect ectotympanic bone
ef ethmoid foramen
en entoglenoid process
eo ear ossicle
ff facial foramen
®s foramen for inferior stapedial artery
fo foramen ovale
fr fenestra rotundum
fss foramen for superior stapedial artery
fv fenestra vestibulae
gp greater palatine foramen
hy hyoid bone
hf hypoglossal foramen
if incisive foramina
lf lacrimal foramen
oc occipital bone
of optic foramen
pal palatine foramina
pf piriform fenestra
pgf postglenoid foramen
pgp postglenoid process
ph pterygoid hamulus
plf posterior lacerate foramen
pm petromastoid bone
rtpp rostral tympanic process of the petrosal
sf sinus canal foramen
spf sphenoidal fissure
sq squamosal bone
stf stapedius fossa
vf vidian foramen
vo vomer

TAXONOMIC HISTORY OF THE “APTERNODONTIDAE”

Previous authors have proposed five genera in the “Apterodontidae” sensu lato: *Apterodus* Matthew, 1903; *Oligoryctes* Hough, 1956; *Parapternodus* Bown and Schankler, 1982; *Iconapternodus* Tong, 1997; and *Koniaryctes* Robinson and Kron, 1998. As described in the literature, each of the latter four genera contains one species: *O. cameronensis*, *P. antiquus, I. qii*, and *K. paulus*. Five species have been allocated to *Apterodus*: *A. mediaevus* Matthew, 1903; *A. gregoryi* Schlaikjer 1933; *A. brevirostris* Schlaikjer, 1934; “A.” *altitalonidus* Clark, 1937 (here recognized as a species of *Oligoryctes*); and *A. iliffensis* Galbreath, 1953. Below we summarize previous investigations of these taxa. Geographic data pertinent to this discussion are depicted in figure 1.

Throughout this paper, quotation marks are used for taxa that are not demonstrably monophyletic, as when we refer to “apternodontids” as a group previously defined to include *Apterodus, Oligoryctes, Parapternodus, Koniaryctes*, plus unnamed Tiffanian and Bridgerian taxa.

In his study of fossil mammals collected by American Museum expeditions from exposures of the “Titanotherium Beds” near Pipestone Springs, Montana (fig. 1: locality 29), Matthew (1903) described two new genera of insectivoran-grade mammals, *Apterodus* and *Micropternodus*. *Apterodus mediaevus* was based on four unassociated mandibular fragments, the best of which (AMNH 9601; a left partial dentary with m2, m3, and partial m1; see fig. 2) was designated the type. A few years later, Matthew (1910) referred to *A. mediaevus* a fairly complete skull and mandibles from central Wyoming “in the neighborhood of Bates’s Hole, north of the Laramie Plains.” Precise locality information for this specimen (AMNH 9601; a left partial dentary with m2, m3, and partial m1; see fig. 2) was designated the type. A few years later, Matthew (1910) referred to *A. mediaevus* a fairly complete skull and mandibles from central Wyoming “in the neighborhood of Bates’s Hole, north of the Laramie Plains.” Precise locality information for this specimen (AMNH 22466) is unknown; but it was almost certainly found in deposits of the White River Formation along the northern margin of the Shirley Basin, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 3). This locality may have been in an area north of the northern intersection of Wyoming routes 77 and 487, east of Stinking Creek, and south of the Deer Creek Range, about 20 miles south of Casper, Wyoming (J. A. Lillegraven, personal commun.).

Matthew (1903, 1910) did not use the family name “Apterodontidae”, and in fact did not specify the family(ies) to which he thought *Apterodus* and *Micropternodus* be-
Fig. 1. Geographical distribution of “apternodontids” (sensu lato) in North America. Acronyms are given in parentheses for institutions that have made significant collections from each locality. Each number represents a locality, listed in alphabetical order, known to have produced “apternodontid” fossils, as follows: 1: Badwater (CM), 2: Banjo Quarry (YPM-PU), 3: Bates’s Hole (AMNH, UW), 4: Big Badlands (USNM, YPM), 5: Cameron Spring, Beaver Divide (USNM), 6: Canyon Ferry (CM, USNM), 7: Cook Ranch (MPUM, CM), 8: Cypress Hills, Lac Pelletier (RSM), 9: Diamond O Ranch (MPUM, CM), 10: Dilts Ranch (UW), 11: Douglass Creek Basin (FMNH), 12: East Fork Basin (AMNH), 13: Easter Lily (MPUM, CM), 14: Elderberry Canyon (USNM), 15: Emerald Lake (AMNH), 16: Eureka Valley Road (MPUM, CM), 17: Fitterer Ranch (USNM), 18: Flagstaff Rim (USNM, AMNH), 19: Fort Union Fm., Clark’s Fork Basin (UMMP), 20: Fremont Butte (DMNH), 21: Harshman Quarry (UW), 22: Highway 10N (MPUM, CM), 23: Horsetail Creek (DMNH), 24: Iliff (FMNH, KU), 25: Little Pipestone Creek (MPUM, CM, AMNH), 26: Lonetree, Wyoming (UCM), 27: McCarty’s Mountain (FMNH, MPUM, CM), 28: Mellinger (UCM), 29: Pipestone Springs (MPUM, CM, AMNH), 30: Powder River Basin (UCM), 31: Powder Wash (CM), 32: Red Mound (TMM), 33: Raben Ranch (SDSM), 34: San Diego (UCMP), 35: Sand Wash Basin (DMNH), 36: Seamen Hills (AMNH), 37: Tabernacle Butte (CM, UMMP), 38: Torrington (MCZ).

Gregory (1910: 258–259) suggested that both taxa were “primitive member[s] of the Centetidae” (i.e., Tenrecidae). Osborn (1910: 519), with input from Gregory, J. K. Mosenthal, and Matthew, assigned Apternodus to the “Apternodontidae” within the superfamily “Centetoidea”, suborder Lipotyphla, order Insectivora. Osborn made no mention of Micropternodus. Simpson (1931) also gave Apternodus its own familial rank without explicit mention of Micropternodus.

Schlaikjer (1933) described a second skull and mandible of Apternodus from Orellan deposits of the Brule Formation southwest of Torrington, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 38). He named this specimen (MCZ 17685) A. gregoryi, and placed both it and A. mediaevus in the subfamily “Apternodontinae”, family Solenodontidae. The following year, Schlaikjer (1934) presented a reanalysis of the skull described by Matthew (1910), and argued that it did not belong to the same species as
the type specimen of *A. mediaevus*. Schlaikjer (1934) therefore reassigned AMNH 22466 (which at the time was housed in the University of Wyoming collections) to a new species, *A. brevirostris*.

In their review of the White River fauna, Scott and Jepsen (1936) illustrated the type specimen of *Apternodus gregoryi* (MCZ 17685) and briefly described “*Apternodus* altitalonidus” from the Chadron Formation of the Big Badlands area of southwestern South Dakota (fig. 1: locality 4), crediting it to John Clark (Scott and Jepsen, 1936: 12). Scott and Jepsen also named the genus “*Clinodon*” based on a lower jaw that resembles that of *Micropternodus*. Subsequently, Clark (1937: 306–307) expanded on the description of “*A.*** altitalonidus” and noted that “*Clinodon*” was preoccupied; hence, Clark replaced it with *Clinopternodus*. Simpson (1945) placed *Apternodus* in its own subfamily, the “*Apternodontinae***”, within the Solenodontidae, and assigned both *Micropternodus* and *Clinopternodus* to the Solenodontinae. All three fossil genera along with the extant *Solenodon* were placed in the superfamily Tenrecoidea, order Insectivora.

Macdonald (1951) described what would have been the youngest “apternodontid” specimen from Whitneyan strata east of Rockyford, South Dakota. However, Gawne (1968) has since demonstrated that this partial skull, named *Apternodus bicuspis* by Macdonald, is actually referable to the erinaceid genus *Proterix*.

In 1953, Galbreath assigned an associated maxilla and mandible (KU 9112), collected from the Horsetail Creek Member of the White River Formation exposed north of Iliff, Colorado (fig. 1: locality 24) to his new species *Apternodus iliffensis*.

In a report on an area then scheduled to be flooded by a hydroelectric project, T. E. White (1954) mentioned two *Apternodus* specimens from Chadronian deposits in the vicinity of Canyon Ferry, Montana (fig. 1: locality 6). USNM 18914 is a fragmentary maxilla with M1, and CM 37455 (uncataloged at the time of White’s paper and referred to using J. L. Kay’s Carnegie Museum field number, “38/40”) is a fragmentary skull and jaws associated with several postcranial elements. In the same paper, White (1954) named “*Kentrogomphios strophen-sis*” based on a partial skull also from the Chadronian part of the Canyon Ferry sequence; this taxon was subsequently synonymized with *Micropternodus* (see below).

The genus *Oligoryctes* was named by Hough (1956). The type species, *O. cameronensis*, was based on a partial skull and associated mandible (USNM 19909), collected from Chadronian deposits northeast of Cameron Spring, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 5). This specimen was almost as small as Clark’s “*A.* altitalonidus”, which, however, was not mentioned by Hough.

In his monograph on the Antillean insectivorans, McDowell (1958) included considerable detail on the anatomy of *Apternodus*, as well as his opinion of its phylogenetic affinities. The illustrations in that monograph continue to serve as an important reference for cranial and dental anatomy in insectivoran-grade mammals, although several errors have been noted by subsequent authors (see below and Patterson, 1962, unpublished ms; Butler, 1972; McKenna, 1975; Asher, 2001; Whidden and Asher, 2001). Specifically, McDowell argued for a novel scheme of dental cusp homologies in *Solenodon*, and inferred a pattern of arterial supply in *Apternodus* that, he believed, excluded it from close affinity to any insectivoran mammal. He suggested instead that *Apternodus* might be a creodont, a suggestion not accepted by subsequent authors (e.g., McKenna and Bell, 1997).

McDowell (1958: 175) made several accurate predictions concerning the lower molars of *Micropternodus* and *Clinopternodus*. He noted that “... the hypoconid, although low in proportion to the trigonid, is quite distinct and salient, which suggests that it occluded between well-developed paracones and metacones (i.e., the upper dentition was dilambdodont).” This suggestion, written in the absence of confirmed upper dentitions of either taxon, was substantiated by Russell (1960) when he associated White’s (1954) “*Kentrogomphios strophensis*” with lower dental material then known for *Micropternodus borealis*. The latter name having priority, Russell synonymized “*Kentrogomphios*” with it, and noted that, as McDowell predicted, *Micropternodus* did indeed have a
prominent metacone on its upper cheek teeth (Russell, 1960: 941, 943). Accordingly, Russell removed *Micropternodus* from its previously vague association with “apternodontids”, suggesting instead that it was related to geolabidine Erinaceids (sensu McKenna, 1960). In their description of a partial skull and mandible of *Micropternodus morgani* from Oligocene strata of the John Day Formation of Oregon, Stirton and Rensberger (1964) echoed this possibility. Although the upper dentition of *Clinopternodus* remains unknown, we suspect that it also possesses upper molars with prominent metacones for the same reasons enumerated by McDowell (1958).

Konizeski (1961) assigned two partial mandibles from the Douglass Creek Basin, Montana (fig. 1: locality 11), about 80 miles northwest of Pipestone Springs, to *A. mediaevus*. He regarded the fauna from the Douglass Creek Basin as similar in composition to those from Pipestone Springs and the Chadronian part of the Canyon Ferry sequence.

McKenna et al. (1962) described two Bridgerian specimens from the Tabernacle Butte area north of Farson, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 37) as “*Apternodontinae, undescribed genus and species*”. One of these specimens (AMNH 55689) was a small, edentulous mandible tentatively considered by Simpson (in McGrew et al., 1959: 151–152) to be an indeterminate soricid. Both specimens were listed by West and Atkins (1970) as “apternodontids” from Tabernacle Butte. The presence of this species in the Bridgerian of Utah (fig. 1: locality 31) was also mentioned by McKenna et al. (1962: 21).

In a paper on comparative brain evolution, Edinger (1964: 8) noted that “the oldest Neozoic mammalian endocranial cast I have seen is that of a tenrecoid insectivore, a lower Paleocene *Apterodus*.” Other than noting some aspects of its morphology and institutional provenance (without a specimen number), Edinger made no further comment on this specimen. She was, nevertheless, referring to YPM PU16520, collected from the Tiffanian (late Paleocene) of the Fort Union Formation in northwestern Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 19). If it were actually an “apternodontid”, this specimen would be the oldest occurrence of the family (as previously defined). Sloan (1969: fig. 8) figured the geological range of *Apterodus* as extending into the late Tiffanian based on this specimen and YPM PU16521. However, citing a personal communication from Donald Baird, Galbreath (1978) noted that YPM PU16520 “is not *Apterodus* and its affinities are very dubious.”

Robinson et al. (1964) and Black and Dawson (1966a, 1966b), reported *Oligoryctes* and *Apterodus* from late Uintan to early Duchesnean age (Krishtalka et al., 1987) deposits in the Badwater Creek area of central Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 1). Krishtalka and Setoguchi (1977) included brief descriptions and photographs of A. cf. *A. iliffensis* and *Oligoryctes* sp. from this area.

Clark and Beerbower (in Clark et al., 1967) referred a skull with associated mandibles (CM 8669) from the Peanut Peak Member of the Chadron Formation in the Big Badlands of South Dakota to *Apterodus mediaevus* (fig. 1: locality 4). Unfortunately, they did not figure or provide details on the morphology of this specimen, which currently appears to be lost.

Emry (1973, 1992) reported the presence of both *Oligoryctes* and *Apterodus* from Chadronian deposits in the Flagstaff Rim area, southwest of Casper and north of Alcova, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 18). On the specimen tags in the AMNH Frick Collection (Galusha, 1975), “Flagstaff Rim” is occasionally referred to as “Bates Hole”. This should not be confused with the somewhat mysterious “Bates’s Hole” of Matthew (1910), which was probably located some 20 miles to the southeast (see above). Discrepancies in the nomenclature of this region are due partly to the field notation made by collecting parties from the AMNH led by Charles Falkenbach in 1941 and 1954, who referred to the area “6 miles NW of Alcova” as the “Bates Hole Area”. In fact, as determined in the late 1950s by M. Skinner, T. Galusha, and colleagues, Falkenbach’s collecting area was located far to the northwest of Matthew’s “Bates’s Hole”. Skinner therefore opted to coin a new locality name for the region northwest of Alcova, and asked local inhabitants for an appropriate choice.
The response was “Flagstaff Rim”, based on the presence of a U.S. Coast and Geodesic Survey tower and flag pole (no longer standing) at the summit of this rim. Nevertheless, many AMNH specimens collected in the late 1950s under Skinner’s direction (e.g., 74940–74942) from Flagstaff Rim have “Bates Hole” written on them. To our knowledge, the only AMNH specimen actually collected from the Bates’s Hole of Matthew (1910) is the type of *A. brevirostris* (AMNH 22466). As reported by Matthew (1910), this specimen was originally housed at the University of Wyoming. Furthermore, it is probably associated with a mandible (UW 26) still part of the UW collections.

Love et al. (1976) listed “Apterodus or Microapterodus” from Chadronian deposits of the White River Formation in the Emerald Lake area, south of Yellowstone National Park in northwestern Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 15). This report was based on a partial mandible (AMNH 56374) containing a broken p4 and alveoli for p2–3, m1, and i1.

Novacek (1976a, 1976b) described and figured specimens representing the western and southernmost occurrences of “apternodontids” in North America. The western record is a minute, isolated upper molar (UCMP 96135), referred by Novacek (1976a) to “apternodontine, genus and species unnamed” from Uintan deposits of San Diego County, California (fig. 1: locality 34). Walsh (1996) has also listed the occurrence of small, zalambdodont molars from the middle Eocene of San Diego County, which he has identified as representing two species of *Oligoryctes*. The southern record is based on a partial skull (TMM 40492-9) from the late Duchesnean Porvenir local fauna from Presidio County, Texas (fig. 1: locality 32), that Novacek (1976b) referred to *A. cf. A. brevirostris*.

In his unpublished master’s thesis, Kron (1978) described several well-preserved *Apterodus* specimens from Chadronian deposits in the Dilts Ranch area near Orin, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 10). These include a particularly large individual with several associated postcranial elements, formally assigned to a new species below.

Twenty-five years after naming *Apterodus iliffensis*, Galbreath (1978) described a fragmentary skull (FMNH PM34512) from a locality adjacent to that of the type specimen. Both sites are about 6 miles north of Iliff, Colorado (fig. 1: locality 24). He did not explicitly assign this specimen to any particular species, although his discussion indicates that it is very similar to *A. iliffensis*.

McKenna (1980) listed *Oligoryctes* sp. as part of an early Uintan fauna from the type section of the Tepee Trail Formation, near Dubois, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 12). This record is based on AMNH 105310 (a right dentary with p4-m3) and comprises the oldest known occurrence of *O. altitalonidus*.


The northernmost occurrence of “apternodontids” in North America is in the Cypress Hills Formation of southwestern Saskatchewan (Storer, 1984). Together with the material reported by Krishtalka and Setoguchi (1977) from Badwater locality 20 (fig. 1: locality 1), the Lac Pelletier fossils constitute the oldest record of the genus *Apterodus* in North America.

Ostrander (1987) included *Apterodus iliffensis* and *Oligoryctes cameronensis* in his faunal list from the middle Chadronian Raben Ranch local fauna of northwestern Nebraska (fig. 1: locality 33), about 2 miles southwest of Orella (Ostrander, 1983). He referred 23 specimens, including maxillary and mandibular fragments, to *O. cameronensis*, and six isolated teeth to *A. iliffensis*.

Emry (1990: 190) briefly mentioned a “very small apternodontid” from the Bridgerian Elderberry Canyon Quarry, south of Ely in eastern Nevada (fig. 1: locality 14). These specimens, consisting of a somewhat crushed lower left dentable with partial p3 through m3 (USNM 417464) and a maxillary fragment with M1-M3 (USNM 417465), are considerably smaller than other specimens.
discussed here, except for the Bridgerian material mentioned above from Tabernacle Butte, Wyoming (McKenna et al., 1962).

Stucky et al. (1996) listed the presence of “Apterodontidae sp.” in the early Uintan from the Washakie Formation in the Sand Wash Basin of northwestern Colorado (fig. 1: locality 35).

In a summary of localities relevant to the Eocene-Oligocene transition in southwestern Montana, Tabrum et al. (1996) reported fossils of *Apterodus* and *Oligoryctes* from several localities of late Duchesnean through late Orellan age (fig. 1: localities 7, 9, 13, 25, 26, and 28). These include specimens from recent fieldwork conducted at Pipestone Springs, the type locality of *Apterodus mediatus*. The late Orellan Cook Ranch locality near Lima, Montana (Tabrum et al., 1996) has yielded a specimen of *Oligoryctes* (MPUM 9560), one of the youngest such specimens yet known.

Tong (1997) described several middle Eocene, dentally zalambdodont specimens from Henan and Shangxi provinces in China, and named the taxon *Iconapternodus qii* based on upper and lower mandibular fragments from the Hetaoyuan Formation in Xichuan County, Henan Province. These fossils fall in the Irdinmanhanian Asian Land Mammal Age, which overlaps extensively with the Uintan Land Mammal Age in North America (Tong et al., 1995). Tong (1997) also described isolated teeth of *Iconapternodus* from the Rencun and Zhaili Members of the Hedi Formation, which correspond (respectively) to the Sharamurunian and Naduan Asian Land Mammal Ages (late Uintan or younger).

Based on illustrations and measurements (Tong, 1997: fig. 12), *Iconapternodus* appears to be similar in size to *Oligoryctes cameronensis*. Tong (1997: fig. 11) also illustrated an isolated lower molar assigned to “*Apterodus* sp.” from the Rencun Member of the Hedi Formation in Mianchi County, Henan Province.

McKenna and Bell (1997) briefly referred to a middle Eocene “apternodontid” from Khaichin Ula, Mongolia, housed at the Paleontological Museum of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow.

Robinson and Kron (1998) named *Koniaryctes paulus* based on a right lower dentary fragment from Wasatchian deposits exposed in the Powder River Basin of Johnson County, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 30), about 6 miles north of Sussex (Robinson and Williams, 1997). Together with *Parapternodus*, *Koniaryctes* represents one of the oldest occurrences of the “Apterodontidae” as previously defined in the literature. Robinson and Kron (1998) also referred additional specimens to *Parapternodus*, including UMMP 81561, a mandibular fragment, and UMMP 81558, an isolated upper premolar, and noted that “apternodontids” constitute “a rare but persistent element” in Eocene faunas, referring specifically to the following localities: Willwood Formation, northwestern Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 2; Bown and Schankler, 1982); Bridgerian of Powder Wash, Utah (fig. 1: locality 31); Tabernacle Butte, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 37; McKenna et al., 1962); Bridger Formation near Lonetree, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 26); Uintan of Badwater Creek, Wyoming (fig. 1: locality 1); Krishitalkha and Setogouchi, 1977); Swift Current Creek, Saskatchewan (fig. 1: locality 8; Storer, 1996); and the Orellan of north-central Colorado (fig. 1: locality 28) and northwest of Crawford, Nebraska (fig. 1: locality 33).

Like several other authors before them (e.g., Emry, 1979; Tabrum et al., 1996), Robinson and Kron (1998) referred to “*Oligoryctes altitalonidus*”, a combination not formally defined in the literature. However, this usage was based on the commonly held view, articulated in previously circulated versions of this manuscript, that “*A. altitalonidus* Clark (1937) is in fact better accommodated in *Oligoryctes* than in *Apterodus*.

Wood et al. (2000) tentatively suggested that an edentulous, fragmentary skull from the Paleocene of Park County, Wyoming (YPM PU16521), found roughly 12 miles to the west of the site that yielded the endocast (YPM PU16520; see fig. 1: locality 19) mentioned by Edinger (1964), could be related to *Apterodus*.

Hence, as currently recognized in the literature, the geographic range of the “Apterodontidae” spans western North America, from west Texas to Saskatchewan, and from South Dakota to southern California. “Apterodontids” appear also to have existed in
China and Mongolia. Temporally, they are known from the early Wasatchian (and by some accounts the Tiffanian) to the late Orellan—a timespan of nearly 25 million years.

NEW LOCALITIES

As indicated by the preceding review, additions to the “apternodontid” fossil record have been made with some regularity. However, the published record is actually quite sparse relative to the amount of currently undescribed material. To date, just two relatively complete *Apternodus* crania (AMNH 22466 and MCZ 17685) have been described (Matthew, 1910; Schlaikjer, 1933, 1934; McDowell, 1958), whereas there are no fewer than six undescribed crania (FMNH UM1690, DMNH 1747, UW 11046, UW 13508, UW 14072, USNM 455680) of similar or greater quality, three of which (UW specimens) are associated with postcrania. Well over a dozen less complete, undescribed cranial fragments of *Apternodus* and *Oligoryctes* are present in the collections of the American Museum, Carnegie Museum, Smithsonian Institution, University of Montana, and University of Wyoming. Similarly, just a single partial skull of *Oligoryctes* has been described (Hough, 1956), and only a single fragmentary mandible of “*A.*** altitalonidus* have been treated in the literature (Clark, 1937).

We describe this well-preserved material in a later section on alpha taxonomy. Below, we briefly review several localities that have yielded unusually complete, undescribed fossil zalambdodonts. Each of these localities is listed alphabetically in figure 1. When available, relevant institutional locality numbers are also included. Other important localities known to have produced “apternodontid” fossils are summarized in the literature reviewed above.

**Dilts Ranch, Wyoming** (UW V76024, V76029; figure 1: locality 10)

Kron (1978) described the geology of several localities in the vicinity of Orin that have yielded some excellent specimens, such as UW 11046 and UW 13508, both of which are complete skulls with associated postcrania. Based on biostratigraphic data, Kron (1978) interpreted the age of these specimens as late Chadronian. Magnetostratigraphic data collected by Prothero (1985) are consistent with a middle or late Chadronian age for these localities. Unlike most other sites that have yielded specimens of *Apternodus*, no *Oligoryctes*-like taxa have been reported from this area.

**Flagstaff Rim, Wyoming** (figure 1: locality 18)

The area southwest of Casper and north of Alcova was described by Emry (1973) as Flagstaff Rim. Numerous field parties from the AMNH, DMNH, USNM, and UW have recovered material from this area, including two complete crania of *Oligoryctes* (USNM 516840 and USNM 516843). *Apternodus* and *Oligoryctes* from Flagstaff Rim have been recovered from the lower 420 feet of the measured section reported by Emry (1973), mainly between volcanic ashes B and G, radiometrically dated at approximately 35.9 and 35.6 Ma, respectively (Swisher and Prothero, 1990; Emry, 1992). Some specimens referred to “*A.*** altitalonidus* have been collected from horizons stratigraphically below ash B (Emry, 1992).

**Harshman Quarry, Wyoming** (UW V68013; figure 1: locality 21)

Although the precise locality for the type skull of *Apternodus brevirostris* (AMNH 22466) probably will never be known, it is likely that it was near University of Wyoming locality V68013. This locality is on the northern margin of Carbon County, about 20 miles west-northwest of Marshall, in the northern part of the Shirley Basin. Harshman Quarry has yielded a flattened but nevertheless complete skull of *Apternodus* (UW 14072), associated with several distorted postcranial elements, including a partial vertebral column, scapula, proximal humerus, and tibia. The site represents Chadronian time.

**West Canyon Creek, Wyoming** (figure 1: locality 5)

A fairly complete skull of *Apternodus iliffensis* (USNM 455680) is known from de-
posits in the Beaver Divide area (Emry, 1975), approximately 10 miles southwest of the now abandoned town of Ervay. These deposits are older than those at Flagstaff Rim and represent either the early Chadronian or late Duchesnean. About 2 miles northwest of West Canyon Creek is Cameron Spring, the type locality of *Oligoryctes cameronensis*.

*Northern Clark’s Fork Basin, Wyoming* (UMMP SC-210; figure 1: locality 19)

Winkler (1983) described an early Wasatchian locality north of Powell that has yielded several undescribed, fragmentary dentitions of *Parapternodus antiquus*, currently part of the University of Michigan collections (UMMP 81557–81563). Two of these (UMMP 81558 and 81561) were referred to *Parapternodus* by Robinson and Kron (1998).

*Fitterer Ranch, North Dakota* (figure 1: locality 17)

Isolated dentary and maxillary fragments referable to *Oligoryctes altitalonidus* have been collected by R. J. Emry from the lower part of the Brule Formation at Fitterer Ranch, about 15 miles west of Schefield. Hoganson et al. (1998) indicated that the lower part of the Brule Formation in North Dakota is Orellan in age. The channel deposit that yielded these fossils represents late Orellan time.

*Fremont Butte, Colorado* (DMNH 19; figure 1: locality 20)

This site consists of White River Group exposures just west of Elba, about 70 miles south and slightly west of the type locality of *A. iliffensis*. In addition to a somewhat crushed skull of *Apterodus* (DMNH 1747), it has yielded fossils of protoceratid (Artiodactyla) and cylindrodontid (Rodentia) mammals (R.K. Stucky, personal commun.). Such taxa are also found at Flagstaff Rim, Wyoming, but are widely dispersed throughout the measured section (Emry, 1992), as they are at several other late Eocene localities. Hence, although this site is probably Chadronian in age, it is not clear exactly what part of the Chadronian is represented.

*McCarty’s Mountain, Montana* (figure 1: locality 27)

The McCarty’s Mountain locality consists of a thick sequence of early Chadronian strata exposed over an area of approximately one quarter square mile north of the Big Hole River, about five miles south-southeast of McCarty’s (now McCartney) Mountain. A detailed study of the McCarty’s Mountain beds and fauna was conducted by Riel (1963). More recently, Tabrum et al. (1996) have discussed the locality at some length. Although local faulting within the McCarty’s Mountain sequence complicates interpretation, a stratigraphic section totaling about 850 feet of continuously exposed beds was measured by D. R. Prothero in 1986 (Tabrum et al., 1996). *Apterodus* is represented at McCarty’s Mountain by an undistorted skull and associated mandibles, the holotype of *A. baladontus*, described below. This specimen (FMNH UM1690) was collected from the upper part of the McCarty’s Mountain sequence by James B. Orr in the summer of 1960, and was derived from beds that Tabrum et al. (1996: fig. 5) interpreted as representing Chron C16n1 (early Chadronian).

*Little Pipestone Creek, Montana* (MPUM MV 5905, 6001; figure 1: locality 25)

The Little Pipestone Creek localities consist of a series of sites exposed southeast of the junction of Montana highways 2 and 41 (“Cactus Junction”). The localities are about 3 miles south of the Pipestone Springs Main Pocket and Pipestone Springs Fence Pocket localities (see Kuenzi and Fields, 1971: fig. 3; Tabrum et al., 1996, 2001). The Little Pipestone Creek section is divisible (from oldest to youngest) into the University of Montana Cactus Junction (MV 6001), Honeymoon Quarry (included in MV 5905), and Little Pipestone Creek North Pocket (MV 8603) localities. The Cactus Junction locality is of middle Chadronian age, though somewhat younger than either the Pipestone Springs Main Pocket or Pipestone Springs Fence Pocket localities. The Honeymoon Quarry and Little Pipestone Creek North Pocket localities both appear to be of late Chadronian age. Most of the specimens of *Apterodus* from the Little Pipestone Creek
localities are referable to *A. mediaevus*, but one specimen (MPUM 0450) from the Cactus Junction locality is referable to the new species *A. baladontus* (described below).

**Diamond O Ranch, Montana (MPUM MV 6726, 6727; figure 1: locality 9)**

Specimens referred to the Diamond O Ranch local fauna were collected from several closely related localities in strata best referred to the Climbing Arrow Member of the Renova Formation exposed on the north side of the Beaverhead River about 2 miles west of Beaverhead Rock. The localities are approximately 7 miles southeast of the McCarty’s Mountain locality. Tabrum et al. (1996) noted that Diamond O Ranch appeared to significantly predate the early Chadronian McCarty’s Mountain fauna and assigned a late Duchesnean age to the assemblage. The Diamond O Ranch localities have yielded the majority of the known specimens of *Apternodus baladontus* sp. nov. (see below).

**10N no. 2 (MPUM MV 8007; figure 1: locality 22)**

The late Chadronian 10 N local fauna derives from several closely related localities in sediments of the Dunbar Creek Formation exposed on the east side of U.S. Highway 287 (formerly U.S. Highway 10N) about 3 miles north of its junction with Interstate Highway 90 (Tabrum, 1998; Tabrum et al. 2001). Locality 10N no. 2 (MV 8007) is the richest of the 10N localities and has yielded a well-preserved partial skull and associated mandible of *Apternodus mediaevus* (MPUM 6855; see below).

**Eureka Valley Road, Montana (MPUM locality MV 6403; figure 1: locality 16)**

The Eureka Valley Road locality (now largely destroyed) was a small exposure on the north side of a section-line road about 4 miles northwest of the town of Three Forks in sediments of Robinson’s (1963) informal “middle white unit” of the Climbing Arrow Formation (United States Geological Survey locality F158; University of Montana locality MV6403). The fauna known from Eureka Valley Road and the nearby, closely related Rahn Farm locality is indicative of an early Chadronian age (Tabrum et al., 2001). In 1983, P. McKenna collected right and left maxillary fragments and an associated, parietal petrosal of *Oligoryctes cameronensis* (MPUM 6859) from this locality.

**ANATOMICAL ZALAMBDODONTY**

With the notable exception of the edentulous Fort Union Formation cranial fragments (YPM PU16520 and YPM PU16521), fossils have usually been associated with *Apternodus* and/or *Oligoryctes* based on the possession of zalambdodont cheek teeth. For this reason, we describe in this section the precise, anatomical meaning of the term “zalambdodont”. Throughout this paper we use this term descriptively, not taxonomically.

**Cusp Homologies**

*Apternodus* is dentally remarkable because its cheek-teeth possess a single, major V-shaped loph, the lingual apex of which is the paracone. A similar morphology is present in extant golden moles (Chrysochloridae), solenodons (Solenodontidae), and tenrecs (Tenrecidae). The main cusp of the zalambdodont upper molar has previously been identified as a “zalambdocone” (McDowell, 1958), an “eocone” (Vandebroek, 1961; Quinet and Misonne, 1965), a “protocone” (Leche, 1907; Gregory, 1910), an “amphicone” (Galbreath, 1953), and a “paracone” (Butler, 1937; Patterson, 1956, unpublished ms). Based on occlusal relationships with the lower dentition, we consider “paracone” to be correct.

McDowell (1958) argued that the main upper cusp of the anatomically zalambdodont *Solenodon* was not the paracone, but ironically provided in the same paper clear evidence to the contrary. His figure 22 (reproduced here as fig. 3) shows the upper and lower dentitions of *Solenodon* and the anatomically dilambdodont *Nesophontes* in occlusion, and demonstrates the close fit of the protocone into the talonid basin in both taxa, although the protocone is restricted to the cingulum and the talonid reduced in *Solenodon*. Similarly, this figure shows the paracone of each upper molar occluding with the
Fig. 3. P3-M3 occlusion in Nesophontes (top) and Solenodon (bottom). Upper teeth have light outline, lowers have dark outline. Note consistent relation of protocone with talonid basin (indicated with a “1”) and paracone with hypoflexid (indicated with a “2”) in both taxa. Adapted from McDowell (1958: fig. 22).

buccal hypoflexid of each lower molar, as well as varying degrees of shear between the preparacrista and protocristid (greater in Solenodon). These occlusal relationships, i.e., protocone-talonid, paracone-hypoflexid, and preparacrista-protocristid, are consistent throughout dentally tribosphenic mammals, and have been consistently recognized since the 1960s (e.g., Van Valen, 1966; Szalay, 1969; Bown and Kraus, 1979), and often before (e.g., Butler, 1937; Patterson, 1956). Occlusion between the protocone and talonid is usually much more conspicuous than that between the paracone and hypoflexid (e.g., Didelphis); however, the reverse is true among zalambdodont mammals.

Hence, anatomical zalambdodonty may be defined when the primary occlusal relationship between upper and lower cheek teeth occurs between the paracone and hypoflexid, primary shearing occurs between the preparacrista and protocristid, and the metacone and talonid basin are reduced or absent. A small metacone is present in the anatomically zalambdodont tenrecs Potamogale and Protenrec (Butler, 1985), and a small talonid basin is present in Potamogale and Solenodon. However, the metacone is difficult to detect in worn specimens, and the presence of a metacone and small talonid basin does not change the fact that the primary occlusion between upper and lower teeth in these taxa occurs between the paracone and hypoflexid, and shearing between the preparacrista and protocristid.

Together with the complementary term “Dilambdodonta”, the term “Zalambdodontia” was coined by Gill (1883: 119) in reference specifically to extant golden moles, solenodons, and tenrecs. Gill used “zalambdodont” in both a taxonomic and descriptive sense. Taxonomically, the definition was at the rank of an infraorder, containing the Chrysochloridae, Solenodontidae, and Tenrecidae. Gill’s “Dilambdodonta” contained the Tupaiidae, Macroscelididae, Erinaceidae, Soricidae, and Talpidae. Anatomically, Gill (1883: 119) defined zalambdodont mammals as “Bestiae with narrow molar teeth having V-shaped ridges” and dilambdodont mammals as “Bestiae with broad molar teeth surmounted by W-shaped ridges”. These anatomical definitions of di- and zalambdodonty were expanded slightly in Gill (1884: 135–136):

All the Insectivora of the northern hemisphere, or rather the temperate portions, have oblong molars with two V-shaped (W) ridges, while certain tropical forms have transverse molars (that is, they are very short in the line of the jaws), surmounted with but one V-shaped ridge. Those with two V-shaped ridges are called Dilambdodonta (from the Greek dis, double, the letter Λ, lambda, and odous, odonta, teeth), and the others, with one V-shaped ridge are converse-ly named Zalambdodonta (from the Greek za, signifying emphatically, the letter Λ, and odous, odonta).

When Gill published this definition, consensus did not exist regarding cusp homologies in therian molars; hence, he did not call the primary cusp of the zalambdodont upper molar the “paracone”. Nevertheless, the animals upon which Gill based his definition of zalambdodonty are currently recognized as having a common pattern of cusps and dental occlusion (Patterson, 1956, unpublished MS), and should therefore form the anatomical reference point for the meaning of the dental term “zalambdodont”.

**Which Mammals are Zalambdodont?**

In the years following Gill (1883), “zalambdodont” has come to be used loosely as
a descriptive term for a variety of mammals with generally triangular, transversely elongate upper cheek teeth, usually associated with a relatively small talonid of the lowers. Such animals often referred to as “zalambdodont” include deltatheridiids (Schlaikjer, 1933), micropternodontids (Matthew, 1903), palaeoryctids (Matthew, 1913; Thewissen and Gingerich, 1989), and most notably, zalambdalestids (Gregory and Simpson, 1926). In fact, none of these taxa is anatomically zalambdodont in the same sense as golden moles, Solenodon, or tenrecs.

Gregory and Simpson (1926) did not provide an etymological definition of the family Zalambdalestidae or genus Zalambdalestes. However, previous use of the root of this name by Gill and others suggests that Gregory and Simpson (1926) chose their generic and familial names based on the perceived shape of the cheek teeth. The type specimen of Zalambdalestes lechei (AMNH 21708) has heavily worn teeth, showing transversely elongate upper molars and lowers with a tall trigonid. Material recovered since Gregory and Simpson’s description (e.g., Kielan-Jaworowska, 1968) demonstrates that in contrast to the golden moles, solenodons, and tenrecs to which Gill was referring, zalambdalestids possess prominent metacones on their upper molars, broad talonid basins on their lowers, and have a primary occlusal relationship between protocone and talonid basin (Kielan-Jaworowska, 1968: 187). Although not as well developed as those of Zalambdalestes and Deltatheridium, the metacones and talonid basins of Micropternodus and palaeoryctids are prominent; consequently, none of these taxa is anatomically zalambdodont.

Patterson (1956: 53–56) noted the close correspondence between the cheek teeth of Gill’s zalambdodonts and those of certain late Jurassic, “pantothere”-grade mammals such as Dryolestes, noting that (p. 54) “the resemblance between the molars of pantotheres and of specialized zalambdodonts is extraordinarily close, amounting nearly to identity in almost all features of the crown.” Hence, “zalambdodont”, as an adjective defined above, applies to most dryolestoids (sensu McKenna and Bell, 1997), the mar-
In this section we are concerned with defining the terminal taxa, i.e., species, that will form the basis of our phylogenetic analysis. Supraspecific units discussed in this section are consistent with the phylogenetic conclusions detailed in the next section, unless enclosed between quotation marks.

Species of *Apternodus* recognized here include *A. mediaevus* Matthew, 1903; *A. gregoryi* Schlaikjer, 1933; *A. brevirostris* Schlaikjer, 1934; *A. iliffensis* Galbreath, 1953; *A. baladontus* (sp. nov.), *A. major* (sp. nov.), and *A. dasophylakas* (sp. nov.). “*Apternodus*” *altitalonidus* Clark, 1937 is also a valid terminal taxon, but does not belong in the genus *Apternodus*. Instead, following previous, informal usage (e.g., Emry, 1979), we propose the combination *Oligoryctes altitalonidus*. *Oligoryctes cameronensis* Hough, 1956; *Parapternodus antiquus* Bown and Schankler, 1982; and *Koniaryctes paulus* Robinson and Kron, 1998 are all valid taxa, as are the unnamed Bridgerian taxon from Tabernacle Butte, Wyoming (McKenna et al., 1962) and the Paleocene Silver Coulee taxon from Park County, Wyoming (Wood et al., 2000). The preceding taxa have all been referred to the “*Apternodontidae*” in the literature, but do not exclusively share a single common ancestor with *Apternodus*. Hence, the Apternodontidae as defined here is restricted to the seven species of *Apternodus* listed above. Five taxa previously assigned to the “*Apternodontidae*” sensu lato are here placed in two new families within Eutheria, incertae sedis: *Oligoryctidae* (*O. cameronensis*, *O. altitalonidus*, and the Tabernacle Butte taxon) and *Parapternodontidae* (*Koniaryctes* and *Parapternodus*).

Diagnoses of these taxa, including five new species (three of which are named here), are given below. Numbers following localities listed under the “temporal and geographic distribution” subsection for each species correspond to numbered localities shown in figure 1. A key summarizing differences among extinct, North American zalambdodont taxa is provided in table 1.

CLASS MAMMALIA LINNAEUS, 1758
COHORT EUTHERIA HUXLEY, 1880
ORDER UNDETERMINED

**FAMILY APTERNODONTIDAE MATTHEW, 1910**

**INCLUDED GENERA:** *Apternodus* Matthew, 1903.

**DISTRIBUTION AND DIAGNOSIS:** As for *Apternodus*.

*Apternodus* Matthew, 1903

**TYPE SPECIES:** *Apternodus mediaevus* Matthew, 1903

**INCLUDED SPECIES:** *Apternodus gregoryi* Schlaikjer, 1933; *A. brevirostris* Schlaikjer, 1934; *A. iliffensis* Galbreath, 1953; *A. major* sp. nov.; *A. baladontus* sp. nov.; *A. dasophylakas* sp. nov.

**TEMPORAL AND GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION:** Duchesnean (late middle Eocene) through early Orellan (early Oligocene) throughout western North America.

**DIAGNOSIS:** These insectivoran-grade mammals range in size from a large shrew (cf. *Crocidura*) to *Erinaceus*. Metacones are absent; talonids are reduced to a single cusp without a basin; and P4/p4 are molariform. The dental formula is 2.1.3.3/3.1.3.3, showing enlarged and procumbent upper and lower anterior incisors. The anterior margin of the coronoid process extends anteriorly to occlude part of m3 from lateral view. The lacrimal foramen is enlarged and faces laterally. The anterior margin of the infraorbital canal is concave, providing attachment space for sizable muscles of the anterior rostrum. A sagittal crest is present, continuous posteriorly with the prominent nuchal crest and forking anteriorly into anterolaterally running crests flanking the posterior margin of the nasal bone. The ethmoid foramen and sinus canal open into the orbitotemporal region via the roof of the sphenoidal fissure. The posterolateral braincase is expanded into lambdoid plates comprised of the squamosal.

1 Under the currently accepted International Code of Zoological Nomenclature, art. 36 (International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature, 1999: 45), all family-group names are coordinate and date from the first published, in this case *Apternodontinae* Matthew, 1910. Therefore, if we are to follow the Code, *Apternodontidae* Matthew, 1910, dates from Matthew’s use of the subfamily name *Apternodontinae* (Matthew, 1910: 35, published March 22, 1910) rather than from Matthew, Gregory, and Mosenthal’s (in Osborn, 1910: 519) family name *Apternodontidae* coined in October of the same year.
### Table 1

**Key to North American Fossil Zalambdont Species**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A) Talonid basin and metacones absent | 1) yes: go to B  
2) no: find some other key |
| B) Lambdoid plates | 1) present: go to C  
2) absent: go to J |
| C) Entoglenoid mediolaterally elongate, provides posterior support for condyle of dentary medial to postglenoid foramen and anterior to middle ear promontory | 1) yes: *Apternodus*, go to D  
2) no: Silver Coulee taxon, (dentition unknown) |
| D) Anterior dentition large and bulbous, reduced p3 cingulid, lower molars gracile relative to anterior dentition | 1) yes: *A. mediaeus* or *baladontus*, go to E  
2) no: other *Apternodus*, go to F |
| E) Ventral lambdoid plate extends well ventral to jaw joint and external auditory meatus (EAM), elongate l2 and P2, posterior cusp on p3, well-defined m2 cingulid | 1) yes: *A. mediaeus*  
2) no: *A. baladontus* (spherical l2 and P2, simple p3 without distal cusp, ventral lambdoid plate extends only slightly below entoglenoid process) |
| F) Lacrimal foramen set off from anterior orbit by distinct crest | 1) yes: *A. brevirostris*, *iliffensis*, or *dasophylakas*—see G (lacrimal region unknown in *dasophylakas*)  
2) no: *A. gregoryi* or *major*, see I |
| G) Upper molar protocones present, antemolar diastema absent | 1) yes: *A. brevirostris*  
2) no: *A. iliffensis* or *dasophylakas*—go to H |
| H) Antemolar diastema present, M3 similar in buccolingual width as M2 | 1) yes: *A. dasophylakas*  
2) no: *A. iliffensis* |
| I) EAM shows prominent torus, anterior lambdoid plate sharply curved laterally, medial ridge on petrosal, small/absent antemolar diastema | 1) yes: *A. major*  
2) no: *A. gregoryi* (narrow, sharply angled EAM; ventrally sharp, projecting lambdoid plate) |
| J) Talonid cusp on m3, buccal cingulid on molars, anterior incisors gracile | 1) yes: *O. cameronensis*, *O. alitaitonidus*, or Tabernacle Butte taxon, see K  
2) no: *Parapternodus* or *Koniarctes*, see M |
| K) Internal coronoid process pocketed | 1) yes: *O. alitaitonidus* or *O. cameronensis*, see L (three cusps on i2-3, foramen ovale enlarged)  
2) no: Tabernacle Butte taxon (incisors and cranium unknown, smallest animal in this study) |
| L) Four lower premolars, maxillary zygoma lateral to M2 | 1) yes: *O. alitaitonidus* (smaller than *O. cameronensis*)  
2) no: *O. cameronensis* (three lower premolars, maxillary zygoma lateral to posterior M1) |
| M) Paraconid notch present | 1) yes: *Parapternodus antiquus* (premolariform p4)  
2) no: *Koniarctes paulus* (known only from mandibular fragments and molars) |

*Tooth notation: capital letters indicate upper and lower case indicates lower teeth.*
petromastoid, and occipital bones, all of which are exposed laterally. The mandibular condyle is supported posteriorly by an enlarged entoglenoid process, medial to the postglenoid foramen and anterior to the middle ear. A postglenoid process is absent and the zygomatic arch is incomplete. An ossified auditory bulla is absent; and a piriform fenestra is usually present. The epitympanic recess extends anteriorly into a space bounded ventrally by the entoglenoid process, making the anterior wall of the tympanic cavity concave.

*Apternodus mediaevus* Matthew, 1903

**Type Specimen:** AMNH 9601 (left dentary with m1-m2; see fig. 2).

**Referred Specimens:** AMNH 9607, left dentary with p3 (see Schlaikjer, 1933: 6, footnote 2); AMNH 76745, posterior braincase with most of left lambdoid plate and petrosal, associated right partial maxilla with I2, C, P2, broken I1, left dentary fragment with p2–3, broken p4, isolated right and left canines, left i3, several other isolated tooth fragments, isolated lumbar and caudal vertebrae, right and left proximal humeri with partial right shaft, right distal humerus (fig. 4), metapodial fragments; AMNH 97255, left dentary with p2-m3 (fig. 5); AMNH 97256, right dentary with m1-m3; AMNH 97258, left dentary with p3-m2; USNM, 18966, right dentary with p3-m3; MPUM 0576, right dentary with p4-m2, roots of m3; MPUM 3799, palate with left I1-P3, right C-M1 and alveoli for I1–2, associated with left lambdoid plate (fig. 6); MPUM 6767, left dentary with p3-m3; MPUM 6768, right dentary with p3-m1; MPUM 6855, skull missing anterior rostrum (fig. 7), associated right dentary with p4-m3 (fig. 8); MPUM 6856, left maxillary fragment with canine; MPUM 7820, right dentary with p3-m3; CM 13676, rostrum with left I1-M3, left I2-P2 (original lost, known only from photographs; see fig. 9); CM 31323, right maxilla with C and P2; CM 37455, fragmentary rostrum with right I1-C, left I1, P2, maxillary fragments with partial right M1–2, left P4-M1, associated right and left dentaries with fragmentary right m1-m3, left i1, and roots for p4-m2, isolated lower right i1, c, p2, p3, lower left i3, c, and other fragmentary upper and lower teeth, many disarticulated, fragmentary bits from right and left maxillae and dentaries, isolated cervical and lumbar vertebrae, distal tibia and ulna, partial calcaneus, and phalanx (fig. 10); CM 71569, right maxilla with P2-M2; and CM 71570, right dentary with p3-m2.

**Temporal and Geographic Distribution:** Middle to late Chadronian (Late Eocene) of southwestern Montana (Pipestone Springs 29, Canyon Ferry 6, West Easter Lily 13, Highway 10N 22, and Little Pipestone Creek 25). In this section and those that follow, numbers given after localities correspond to those depicted on the map shown in figure 1.
Fig. 5. AMNH 97255, *Apternodus mediaevus* mandible from Pipestone Springs, Montana in occlusal (top), lateral (middle), and lingual (bottom) views.

**DIAGNOSIS:** The upper and lower canines have elongate, bulbous crowns. The upper canine has two broad roots, anterior and posterior; some specimens (e.g., MPUM 3799; fig. 6) show a small, lingually situated third root. The P2 is slightly enlarged and elongate, with a distinct crest running distally from the main cusp and a slender, lingual, third root extending from the midpoint of the tooth. The i2 is diminutive with a small, poorly defined alveolus that abuts against the much larger i1. The i3, canine, p2, and p3 are also enlarged and bulbous. The p3 shows a distinct posterior cusp and a slight buccal cingulum. The upper molars have distinct protocones. Buccal cingulids are present on the lower molars. Basicranially, the rostral tympanic process of the petrosal exhibits a medial ridge. The posttympanic process extends well ventral to the external auditory meatus.

**REMARKS:** Particularly noteworthy among the *Apternodus mediaevus* specimens not previously discussed in the literature are MPUM 3799, an associated rostrum and partial posterior braincase (fig. 6); AMNH 76745, a fragmentary skull with associated postcranial fragments (fig. 4); MPUM 6855,
Fig. 6. MPUM 3799, *Apternodus mediaevus* partial skull from Little Pipestone Creek, Montana. Lateral (top left) and occlusal (top right) views of rostrum, lateral view of associated lambdoid place (bottom).
Fig. 7. MPUM 6855, *Apternodus mediaevus* partial skull from 10N no. 2 in stereo ventral (top), lateral (middle), and dorsal (bottom) views.
Apternodus mediaevus

**Fig. 8.** MPUM 6855, *Apternodus mediaevus* mandible from 10N no. 2 in lingual (top), lateral (middle), and occlusal (bottom) views.

a partial skull (fig. 7) and associated mandible (fig. 8); CM 13676, a rostrum and complete upper dentition (fig. 9; original lost); CM 37455, a fragmentary skull and mandibles associated with several broken postcranial elements (fig. 10); and AMNH 97255, a well-preserved dentary (fig. 5). These specimens provide a fairly complete picture of the skull of *A. mediaevus*, as well as some information about its skeleton. With the exception of the more gracile upper P2 and I2, the more ventrally pronounced lambdoid plate, the diminutive i2, and the posterior cusp and cingulid on p3, *A. mediaevus* resembles *A. baladontus* sp. nov., described below.

The Canyon Ferry specimen preserving associated cranial and postcranial fragments (CM 37455; White, 1954) is included in *Apternodus mediaevus* based on the morphology of its I2, P2, p3, and enlarged, bulbous upper and lower canines. However, this specimen is larger than others in *A. mediaevus*; its inclusion increases the size range in this species (see later section on metric variation). The only other *Apternodus* specimen known from Canyon Ferry (USNM 18914, a maxillary fragment with M1 and alveoli for P3-P4, M2-M3) is smaller and well within the range of variation for *A. mediaevus*. Nevertheless, considerable variation in size does occur in some modern taxa (see below); more importantly, CM 37455 is anatomically cohesive with specimens in the *A. mediaevus* hypodigm, and for the present is retained in this species.

One mandible in the AMNH collection from Pipestone Springs (AMNH 76747, a left dentary with an erupting p3 and broken m1-m3) does not fit into existing specific diagnoses, and may represent yet another species from Montana. This specimen differs from *A. mediaevus* in showing a very gracile coronoid process and dentary. The coronoid does not anteriorly overlap with m3, and the mandibular corpus is thinner and more gracile than those of any other Pipestone Springs specimen, including one with erupting permanent premolars (CM 71570). Some breakage and postmortem damage has made the mandibular condyle of AMNH 76747 shorter mediolaterally than it was in life. Although the trigonids of all three molars of AMNH 76747 are severely damaged and the intact p3 is not yet fully erupted, remnants of its teeth closely resemble those of other *Apternodus* specimens from Pipestone Springs. In particular, the p3 is bulbous, with a distinct posterior cusp and weak buccal cingulum. Because of these similarities and because AMNH 76747 represents a juvenile and possibly pathologic individual, we refrain from recognizing it as a new species.

**Apternodus baladontus**, new species

**Type specimen:** FMNH UM1690, complete skull (fig. 11) with both mandibles (fig.
Damage to FMNH UM1690 is confined mainly to the occiput, the anterior upper incisors, and the coronoid process of the left mandible. Part of the cerebellar cast is exposed by damage to the posterior parts of the parietals. Otherwise, the specimen is very well preserved. The frontispiece of this monograph shows a reconstruction of *Apternodus baladontus* as it may have appeared in life, based on this specimen.

**Referenced Specimens:** MPUM 0450, left dentary with broken p3-m2; MPUM 2620, rostrum with left I2-P3, right C-P2; MPUM 2634, rostrum (fig. 13) and mandibles (fig. 14) with nearly complete upper and lower dentition, missing anterior incisors and crown of left m1; MPUM 2645, right maxilla with canine; CM 9552, right dentary with p4-m2, erupting p3; CM 71563, right dentary with p3-m3.

**Temporal and Geographic Distribution:** Late Duchesnean (late middle Eocene) to middle Chadronian (late Eocene) of southwestern Montana (McCarty’s Mountain 27, Diamond O Ranch 9, and Little Pipestone Creek 25).

**Etymology:** Named for the sphere-shaped anterior dentition, based on the Greek words for “ball” and “tooth”.

**Diagnosis:** In addition to large, bulbous up-
Fig. 10. CM 37455, Apterodus mediaevus postcrania from Canyon Ferry, Montana, as follows: lateral (A) and medial (B) views of distal ulna with partial shaft; lateral (C) and ventral (D) views of phalanx; lateral (E) and medial (F) views of proximal calcaneus; posterior (G) and dorsal (H) views of cervical vertebra; anterior (I), ventral (J), and posterior (K) views of distal tibia. Scale bars represent 3mm; note that elements are not illustrated to the same scale.
Fig. 11. FMNH UM1690, Apterodus baladontus sp. nov. type specimen from McCarty’s Mountain, Montana. Stereo view of ventral skull, (p. 27) anatomical guide to ventral view (see text for abbreviations), (p. 28) dorsal (top) and lateral (middle and bottom) views of skull, (p. 29) detail of left ear region. See text for abbreviations. Dorsal and lateral photos of skull by Chester Tarka.

per canines, bulbous i3-p3, and prominent molar protocones, A. baladontus shows a large, spherical upper P2 and I2, with P2 showing at least three and sometimes four roots (e.g., MPUM 2645). The upper canine has a prominent, buccally situated third root. The p3 lacks a prominent posterior cusp. A. baladontus is further distinguished from A. mediaevus by the small but distinct i2 which has an alveolus separate from that of i1, small cheek teeth with molars that show weak or absent buccal cingulids, the presence of a bony torus defining the ventrolateral margin of the external auditory meatus, and the ventrally short posttympanic process (fig. 11).

Remarks: In addition to the type, the other exceptional element of the A. baladontus hypodigm is MPUM 2634, a rostrum (fig. 13) with complete mandibles (fig. 14). This specimen is unusual in that it preserves a suture between the maxilla, palatine, and frontal in the orbital mosaic, and demonstrates that Apterodus possessed a maxilla that extended far into the orbit. Remnants of the orbital sutures of the maxilla are also evident in a specimen of A. mediaevus (MPUM 6855; fig. 7). In other specimens (e.g., AMNH 22466 and MCZ 17685) these sutures are fused, and do not permit estimates of the maxillary contribution to the orbital mosaic (contra McDowell, 1958). Although many of its cranial sutures are untraceable, the A. baladontus
type (FMNH UM1690) is otherwise complete enough to warrant particular attention, as follows.

**Rostrum:** The nasals, maxillaries, and premaxillaries have completely fused. Above the enlarged upper incisors, a shallow pit can be seen on each premaxillary, just posterior to the anterior end of the bony snout. The dorsomedial boundary of a large muscle scar extends from the medial edge of these pits back to a point above the lacrimal foramen. This scar covers most of the side of the snout and evidently supported powerful musculature for the movement of some sort of proboscis. Similarity to the snouts of *Solenodon*, *Nesophontes*, and *Centetodon* (Lillegraven et al., 1981) is marked. The anterior rim of the orbit is likewise similar to that of *Nesophontes*, *Solenodon*, and *Centetodon*. There is a large lacrimal foramen, from which the nasolacrimal canal runs anteromedially across the roof of the infraorbital canal. The latter is relatively short. A short nubbin over M1 is all that remains of the zygomatic wing of the maxillary bone. In other insectivorans (e.g., most tenrecs and *Solenodon*), this structure is usually larger and more posteriorly located. Several nutritive foramina open into the infraorbital canal. The sphenopalatine and greater palatine foramina open separately into the lower part of the orbit and are even with the posterior end of the palate.

The palatines extend forward to a point opposite the posterior half of M1. Their combined anterior border takes a straight course across more than half of the palate, although the squamous nature of the contact results in an irregular series of about eight forward-projecting lobes of bone. The posterior border of the palate terminates relatively farther behind the level of M3 than in *A. brevirostris*, in agreement with the condition in *A. gregoryi*. The border is swollen at the internal nares and projects somewhat ventrally, but a true torus is not present, nor is there any posterodorsal shelf behind the swelling. The border is instead notched at the midline in this specimen. There are no palatal fenestrae.

At least seven pairs of palatal foramina are present posterior to the level of P2. The most posterior pair is the largest, situated postero-lateral to M3, and presumably carried the greater palatine artery. Dorsally, the opening of the greater palatine foramen is ventrolateral to that of the sphenopalatine foramen; the two are not coincident. The greater palatine artery apparently divided into a number of branches that emerged onto the palate at intervals. A small, paired foramen can be seen anteromedial to the opening for the minor palatine artery at the level of M3. Anterolabial to this foramen lies another paired foramen in the maxillopalatine suture opposite the interdental embrasure between M2 and M3; this gives rise to a faint groove that runs forward on the surface of the maxillary close to the lingual roots of the molars. This may be related to a feature called the third supply tract of the palate in *Centetodon* (Mckenna 1960: 139). The next pair of foramina is located at the anterior limits of the palatine bones. Approximately 1 mm from each side of the midline, a large vascular foramen is present. The maxillary is grooved from there to a point opposite P3. The groove from each
Fig. 11. Continued.
foramen of the pair divides into two slightly divergent grooves. Between the lingual roots of P2 and P3 are two small foramina on each side. Anteriorly, no additional paired foramina are present except for the large incisive foramina between the incisors.

**Orbitotemporal Region and Basicranium**: The ventrally projecting pterygoids are similar to those of several insectivorans, including Microgale and Solenodon. Only a single pair of ventral projections is present; each of these hooks posteriorly opposite the posterior opening of the alisphenoid canal as in Microgale cowani and probably supported a membrane separating the trachea from the rear of the oral cavity, in addition to musculature of the soft palate and auditory tube. Lateral to the ventral border of the pterygoid is a flat surface for attachment of the internal pterygoid muscle.

The sphenorbital fissure and associated foramina in FMNH UM1690 are quite distinctive and well preserved. A massive overhanging wall of bone extends forward as a continuation of the lateral wall of the sphenorbital fissure, terminating at a point approximately even with the posterior border of the palate. In the roof of the resulting vault are several foramina, all of which are hidden from lateral view. The most anterior of these is the ethmoidal foramen, which leads into the anterior cranial fossa and posterior ethmoidal region. Immediately posterior to the ethmoidal foramen are two tiny foramina of uncertain significance. Posterior to these is the large anterior opening of the sinus canal, which in life transmitted the superior ramus of the stapedial artery along the interior of the braincase. Medial to this is a small optic foramen. Immediately posterior to the optic and sinus canal foramina is the much larger opening for the ophthalmic and maxillary divisions of the trigeminal nerve. No separate foramen rotundum is present. Other specimens that preserve the sphenorbital fissure in good condition include some with breakage that permits examination of these foramina from both dorsal and ventral perspectives (e.g., A. brevirostris AMNH 74951). These specimens share the morphology exhibited by FMNH UM1690.

Behind the posterior base of the sphenorbital fissure, just anterior to foramen ovale, is the small posterior opening of the alisphenoid canal. It is about 0.5 mm in diameter and opens directly into the floor of the sphenorbital fissure. The foramen ovale is about 0.7 mm in diameter and faces anteroventrally, medial to the glenoid fossa.

*Apternodus baladontus* possesses a piriform fenestra, as the squamosal and alisphenoid bones fail to contact the anterolateral edge of the petrosal. The rostral tympanic process of the petrosal (MacPhee, 1981) projects ventrally along the area postulated (erroneously) by McDowell (1958: 169) to contain a shallow groove for the internal carotid artery in *A. brevirostris*.

The anterior carotid foramen, through which the internal carotid artery presumably entered the braincase, lies in the petrosal-sphenoid suture at the anteromedial corner of the tympanic roof, just medial to the point at
which the suture separates to produce the pирiform fenestra. Further expansion of the pирiform fenestra would engulf the anterior carotid foramen, resulting in passage of the internal carotid artery through the enlarged fenestra, much as in soricids. Slightly anteromedial to the anterior carotid foramen, a small opening in the alisphenoid is evident; this presumably transmitted a vidian branch of the internal carotid artery.

**Jaw Joint:** Figure 25 of McDowell (1958: 170) is an excellent illustration of the differences between the entoglenoid and postglenoid processes. McDowell recognized that for posterior support of the mandibular condyle, *Solenodon* and *Nesophontes* (along with soricids, moles, and tenrecs) possess a modified entoglenoid process located medial to the postglenoid foramen and anterior to the promontory of the petrosal. These taxa lack a true postglenoid process (see also Mac-Phee, 1981: 220). Strangely, McDowell did not recognize that this was also the case for *Apterodus*. As exemplified by the type of *A. baladontus*, and similar to the condition in *Tenrec* figured by McDowell (1958: fig. 25C), the mandibular condyle of *Apterodus* is supported posteriorly by a flange of squamosal that is coincident with the anterior border of the middle ear, grooved by the chorda tympani, and located anteromedial to the postglenoid foramen. Some variation exists in the contribution of the alisphenoid to the entoglenoid process; in *Tenrec* it is considerable, while in *Solenodon* and *Apterodus* it is small.

This contrasts with a true postglenoid process (as illustrated in *Leptictis* by McDowell 1958: fig. 25A), which is located anterolateral to the postglenoid foramen, and well lateral to the promontory of the petrosal and path of the chorda tympani. McDowell’s figure 24 (p. 169) accurately shows the morphology of the entoglenoid process in *Apterodus*, which can be seen to differ as noted.
above from the postglenoid process of *Leptictis*.

**Braincase:** The parietals of FMNH UM1690 are quite rugose, a feature in keeping with powerful temporal muscles. The ventral margin of the lambdoid plate does not reach as far ventrally as that of other members of the genus *Apternodus*. In contrast, other species show a ventral mastoid rim of the lambdoid plate well below the level of the jaw joint.

**Hyoid Apparatus:** In the course of preparation of the skull, two hyoid elements were found. These appear to be (1) an ankylosed complex made up of the basihyal and both thyrohyals and (2) either a right ceratohyal (of Sprague, 1944, or epihyal of Allen, 1910) or a right hypohyal (also of Sprague, 1944, or ceratohyal of Allen). If the latter really is a ceratohyal, as seems probable because of its large size relative to the basihyal-thyrohyal complex, then the hypohyal must have been very small, a special similarity to *Solenodon* among insectivorans in which the
DENTITION: The dental formula of *Apternodus baladontus* is the same as that of other *Apternodus* species: 2.1.3.3/3.1.3.3. The few *Apternodus* specimens that preserve erupting teeth (e.g., AMNH 76747, CM 9552, CM 71570) have three fully erupted molars posteriorly, and are thus consistent with the replacement pattern observed in most other

Fig. 14. MPUM 2634, *Apternodus baladontus* mandibles from Diamond O Ranch, Montana in stereo occlusal (top) and lateral (bottom) views. Note that the right p2 has been incorrectly repaired so that the anterior tip of the tooth faces posterolingually.
placental mammals. Based on this pattern, we assume that the premaxillary teeth of taxa discussed here are incisors, the anteriormost maxillary tooth is a canine, and the anterior three lower teeth are incisors, followed by a canine.

Accepting these assumptions, there are only two upper incisors in FMNH UM1690, identified here as I1 and I2 based on the observation that in some other insectivoran-grade placentals, I3 is small or absent (e.g., Solenodon and Tenrec). The crown of I1 is not preserved on either side of the skull. The root of the left I1 is 2.0 mm in anteroposterior diameter just within its alveolus. The right and left I1 pitch toward each other and may have met medially, depending on the length of the crown. The tips of the enlarged anterior lower incisors pass forward between the right and left I1 and are accommodated by a gutter in the bone below the nares when the mouth is closed. Lateral motion of the anterior end of the occluded mandible is thereby restricted. I2 has a bulbous crown, and is smaller and more spherical than the elongate, semipremolariform I2 of A. mediaevus. The root is straighter than in CM 13676 or A. brevirostris, but the tooth is tilted medially in the same manner. Wear is confined to a flat facet at the apex of the tooth.

The upper canine is a massive crushing tooth with a bulbous conical crown, supported by three roots. The anterior and posterior roots are massive and diverge slightly when seen from the side. The third, medial root supports the anterolabial corner of the tooth and projects anterodorsally in the wall of the snout, approximately parallel with the anterior root. The crown overlaps the root medially. Wear is confined to a flat surface at the apex. The wear surface tilts slightly medial from the horizontal.

As in most other placentals with three premolars, we consider P1/p1 (or dP1/dp1) of Apternodus to be absent. P2 possesses two main roots and has a third, posterolingual root that is also present in A. mediaevus. The crown is circular and bulbous, larger than P2 of A. brevirostris, but less elongate than P2 of A. mediaevus. Wear is confined to a flat surface at the apex of the crown. P3 is small and triangular, with a weak posterolabial shearing crest. The cingula meet lingually, but a protocone is only faintly indicated. The molars are more gracile, but are otherwise similar to those of A. mediaevus from Pipestone Springs.

The anteriormost lower incisor (i1) is greatly enlarged and procumbent, and contacts the opposite anterior incisor for about half the length of its crown. The root is oval in cross section and, in contrast to Solenodon, is not hollowed out medially. No serrations are present along the upper edge of the labial enamel surface. The second lower incisor is small, but not as diminutive in FMNH UM1690 as it is in A. brevirostris; unlike the latter, the i2 of A. baladontus has a distinct alveolus. As in the upper dentition, i3 to p2 present a series of bulbous, procumbent crowns, presumably adapted for crushing. This curious morphology somewhat resembles an overlapping series of inverted spoons. All are single-rooted.

The lower canine and p2 are similar in appearance and possess bulbous crowns. This contrasts with species of Apternodus common outside of Montana, in which both teeth are premolariform. The ventral side of the anterior part of the canine crown of FMNH UM1690 is hollowed to fit the rear of the crown of i3. No trace of a central high cusp or ridge remains. The second lower premolar of A. brevirostris possesses a crested crown, whereas p2 of A. baladontus does not. The third lower premolar is the first double-rooted lower cheek tooth, and is more premolariform than anterior teeth. Its crown forms a low cone with a very weak posterior crest that runs from the apex to a tiny ridge that lies directly ventral to the paraconid of p4. The first and second lower molars are approximately equal in size; m3 is slightly smaller. Buccal cingulids on the molars of the type (fig. 12) and most referred specimens (e.g., fig. 14) are very slight.

The teeth of FMNH UM1690 seem to retain traces of pigment once present in life. Pigment is present in various soricid teeth as far back as the Oligocene (Patterson and McGrew, 1937: 247) and can also be seen in Solenodon (especially under ultraviolet illumination). The pigment is visible as an opacity blocking the normal yellow or orange radiation emanating from the enamel near the apices of cusps. In the preserved upper den-
tion of FMNH UM1690, only the left I2 is fully pigmented, but traces of pigment can be seen within the enamel of all teeth, especially M2, distributed near cusp apices. The lower anterior incisors are heavily pigmented on the labial and medial faces, but not on the preserved upper face. Similar pigmentation is present in the type specimen of *A. brevirostris*, in the upper dentition of the type specimen of *A. iliffensis*, and in some specimens from Pipestone Springs (e.g., AMNH 97255). It is of course possible that in some cases “pigment” may be an artifact of fossilization, and in any event obscured in specimens (e.g., MPUM 3799, AMNH 76745, USNM 18966, CM 71569) with jet-black teeth. Although the distribution of pigment in *Apternodus* teeth resembles that of soricids and probably had a biological cause, we note that many vagaries of preservation and wear heavily influence whether or not pigmentation is observable in any given specimen. We therefore refrain at present from attributing much systematic importance to this character.

*Apternodus brevirostris* Schlaikjer, 1934

**Type Specimen:** AMNH 22466, slightly damaged complete skull (fig. 15) with associated lower left dentary, complete except for the crown of i1 and coronoid process (fig. 16). This specimen was originally accessioned into the UW collections (Schlaikjer, 1933: 15) and is probably associated with UW 26, a right dentary with p4-m3.

**Referred Specimens:** AMNH 74941, broken skull with left P2-M2; AMNH 74942, broken skull, missing anterior rostrum, associated with left dentary with m2-m3 and unprepared right dentary with p4-m3; AMNH 74946, rostrum with left P3-P4 and broken M1; AMNH 74948, rostrum with right P2-M2, broken M3, left C, P3-M3; AMNH 74949, rostrum with right P2-M1, broken M2, left P2-M2; AMNH 74950, half rostrum with left P3-M3; AMNH 74951, broken skull preserving orbitotemporal regions, left petrosal, fragments of left and right lambdoid plates, and rostrum with left P2, broken P4-M3, right canine, broken P3-M1, M3, associated left dentary with p4-m3 and right dentary with m1-m3, also associated with fragmentary left distal humerus; AMNH 76692, left maxillary fragment with P2-M3; USNM 437460, rostrum (fig. 17) with right and left C-M3, left I2, alveoli and roots for both I1s and right I2, missing buccal margins of right P3-M3; associated with left (fig. 18) and right dentaries with i2-m3 and broken i1s. (For purposes of exhibition, and long before this writing, USNM 437460 was attached to the basicranium of another individual from a different part of the Flagstaff Rim section.)

**Temporal and Geographic Distribution:** Chadronian (late Eocene) of central Wyoming (Flagstaff Rim 18, Bates’s Hole 3).

**Diagnosis:** As the name implies, the rostrum is short, holding a closely packed dentition anterior to P4, usually with overlap between the posterior root of P2 and the anterior root of P3 and without diastemata on either side of the upper canine. The anterior dentition is gracile, with premolariform upper and lower I2-P3. The upper molars have lingually situated protocones that are similar in size to the molar parastyles. The i2 is very small (Schlaikjer, 1934), with an alveolus continuous with that of the larger i1. Both the upper and lower second premolars are much smaller than adjacent teeth; and the p3 shows a prominent buccal cingulum and posterior cusp. The rostral tympanic process of the petrosal is medially flat. The external auditory meatus is ventrally concave. The lacrimal foramen is offset posteriorly from the orbit by the superior margin of the infraorbital canal.

**Remarks:** Several rostra with complete or nearly complete dentitions are now known for *A. brevirostris* (AMNH 74941, 76692, 74950, 74948, 74949, and USNM 437460), most of which were collected by Morris Skinner and colleagues from the Flagstaff Rim area, Wyoming during the 1950s. The type (AMNH 22466) remains the most complete specimen known. Surprisingly, very few specimens have been recovered with associated mandibles. One of these is AMNH 74951, which preserves not only a rostrum and posterior mandibles, but is also associated with a distal humerus, petrosal, and fragmentary lambdoid plate. Several braincases and basicrania are known from Flagstaff Rim, including AMNH 74940, one the
few specimens known to preserve an ectotympanic (fig. 19). These are presumably referable to *A. brevirostris*, but without the dentition it is impossible to be certain. Frustratingly, no specimen unambiguously referable to *A. brevirostris* preserves the ventral margins of the lambdoid plates. These can nevertheless be inferred to have extended well below the level of the glenoid fossa, based on the size of their breakage scars, which are quite large posterior to the external auditory meatus and presumably extended for several millimeters farther ventrally (as reconstructed by Schlaikjer, 1934).

Although a closely packed I2-P4 toothrow characterizes this species, some variation is present in the size of the P2-P3 diastema. For example, in AMNH 74948 (identifiable as *A. brevirostris* by virtue of its upper molar protocones, gracile anterior dentition, small canine diastemata, and ridge separating the lacrimal foramen from the orbit) the space between P2 and P3 is small, but the roots of the two teeth do not overlap. The ratio of palate length to width in *A. brevirostris* is smaller than that of other *Apternodus* species, but not always with decisive statistical significance (fig. 20). Within the *A. brevirostris* hypodigm, the rostrum of the type specimen (AMNH 22466) is one of the shortest.

McDowell (1958) published a discussion and four illustrations of *Apternodus* that contained several mistakes. He based these illustrations primarily on the type of *A. brevirostris* (AMNH 22466), with missing parts restored from the type of *A. gregoryi* (MCZ 17685) and with the inferred morphology of one side reconstructed from a mirror image of the other. Both skulls are imperfectly preserved and do not show a number of characters depicted in McDowell’s reconstruction.

First, McDowell (1958: fig. 23A) repeated Schlaikjer’s error (1933: fig. 3, top; see also section below on *A. gregoryi*) of running a suture between the parietal and occipital (Schlaikjer’s mastoid) bones diagonally across the posterolateral corner of the skull roof. There is no evidence for a suture at this site.

Similarly, there is no evidence to support McDowell’s (1958: fig. 23) placement of the squamosal-parietal, fronto-parietal, and fronto-nasal sutures. The dorsal exposures of most dermal braincase elements are completely fused, and leave no indication of any sutures.

McDowell (1958: 170) argued that “from the American Museum skull (AMNH 22476 [sic, actually 22466]), it can be determined that the maxilla forms little of the orbital wall, an important contrast to the Lipotyphla.” In fact, the sutures of the maxilla in the orbital mosaic are completely fused in both AMNH 22466 (fig. 15) and MCZ 17685 (fig. 21), as they are in the majority of other *Apternodus* skulls, with the two exceptions mentioned above: MPUM 2634 (*A. baladontus*) and MPUM 6855 (*A. mediaevus*). In the former, a suture is clearly visible on both sides curving around the anterior border of the sphenopalatine foramen and posterior to the lacrimal region (fig. 13). Similarly, both sides of the skull in MPUM 6855 (fig. 7) show distinct, wavy lines representing the maxillary-frontal suture and indicating that the maxillary incursion into the orbital mosaic of *Apternodus* is considerable, similar to that of *Erinaceus* (MacPhee and Novacek, 1993: fig. 3.5).

McDowell’s reconstructed cribriform plate (1958: fig. 23) is located too far posteriorly, and is oriented too vertically. A partial, broken skull of *A. brevirostris* (AMNH 74951) exposes most of the cribriform plate intact, and shows its posteriormost point just anterior to the sella turcica, as in most other mammals. Externally, this corresponds with a point just anterior to the glenoid fossa of the mandible, close to the posteriormost external opening of the sphenorbital fissure. Relative to this point, the cribriform plate in *Apternodus* extends both anteriorly and dorsally toward the anterior end of the sagittal crest, to a point coincident with a coronal plane shared with the posterior margin of the hard palate.

McDowell’s figure 23C incorrectly shows a completely solid tympanic roof, with no piriform fenestra on either side. In fact, the region immediately anterior to both petrosals in AMNH 22466 is perforate, although the large size of these “fenestrae”, particularly on the left side, is due to postmortem damage. Nevertheless, most specimens of *Apternodus* that preserve the relevant anatomy
Fig. 15. AMNH 22466, cranium of *Apternodus brevirostris* type specimen from Bates’s Hole, Wyoming. Stereo ventral (top), dorsal (middle), and lateral (bottom) views of skull, (opposite page) anatomical guide to ventral view. See text for abbreviations.
Fig. 15. Continued.

(e.g., FMNH UM1690, AMNH 74941, USNM 455680, UW 11046) clearly show prominent piriform fenestrae anterior to the petrosal. This was shown in AMNH 22466 by Matthew (1910), who included photographs in his original description of the specimen. The type of *A. gregoryi* (MCZ 17685; see below) was also incorrectly reconstructed as lacking piriform fenestrae by Schlaikjer (1933: fig. 3) and Scott and Jepsen (1936: plate 1). In some individuals (MPUM 6855 and AMNH 74940) the fenestrae are indeed small or absent; AMNH 74942 appears to show a piriform fenestra on the left side but not on the right, although this is undoubtedly the result of postmortem damage. In general, the tympanic roof anterior to the petrosal is naturally perforate in most specimens of *Apternodus*, including the type of *A. brevirostris*.

McDowell (1958: figs. 23C, 24, and p. 168) argued that the internal carotid artery of *A. brevirostris* runs medial to the middle ear after giving off a stapedial branch that occupies a groove on the promontorium ventral to the vestibular foramen. This pattern, he wrote, was “very different . . . from that of the Lipotyphla, [and is] more like that of creodonts . . .” (p. 168). In fact, as discussed elsewhere (Asher, 2000, 2001; Whidden and Asher, 2001) McDowell overestimated the conservatism of cranial blood supply among insectivoran mammals, and drew a misleading contrast between an alleged “lipotyphlan pattern” and a speculative model of arterial circulation presented for *Apternodus* based on AMNH 22466 and MCZ 17685. In short, although there is a faint arterial groove associated with the proximal stapedial artery in the immediate vicinity of the vestibular foramen in the petrosal of AMNH 22466, there is no indication of a groove for the internal carotid artery. Neither the medial aspect of the petrosal of AMNH 22466, nor its ventral apex, is marked by subtle depressions that in other specimens define the course of the internal carotid artery along the ventrum of the tympanic roof. As noted elsewhere (Whidden and Asher, 2001), other specimens of *Apternodus* (e.g., AMNH 74942, 76745; USNM 455680) do preserve shallow grooves running between the anterior carotid foramen and ventral apex of the petrosal in a position well lateral to the petrosal-basisphenoid suture. These specimens indicate either that arterial circulation in *Apternodus* was polymorphic, or more likely, that McDowell’s vascular reconstruction (1958: fig. 24) was incorrect. In sum, it is doubtful that the course of the internal carotid artery in *Apternodus* was located farther medially than that of many insectivores, such as *Microgale* (MacPhee, 1981; Asher, 2001).

*Apternodus gregoryi* Schlaikjer, 1933

**Type Specimen**: MCZ 17685, complete skull (fig. 21) with left C, P3-M2, right C, P2-M2, broken M3, missing premaxillae and anterior dentition, associated mandibles with left p3-m3, right i1, and p3-m3.

**Referenced Specimen**: UW 13508, skull (fig. 22) with intact but distorted basicranium, palate with left I1 root, C-M3, roots for right I1–2, plus right C-M3, associated with mandibles (fig. 23) including broken left i1, i3-c, p3-m3, and broken right i1, i3-m3. Also
associated with proximal and distal fragments of the femur and os coxae (fig. 24), a fragment of the proximal ulna, five fragmentary caudal vertebrae, and several indeterminate fragments of ribs and/or longbones.

**TEMPORAL AND GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION:** Chadronian (late Eocene) to Orellan (early Oligocene) of eastern Wyoming (Dilts Ranch 10; Torrington 38).

**DIAGNOSIS:** The rostrum of *Apternodus gregoryi* shows small diastemata between P2 and P3 and on either side of the canine. The external auditory meatus is very narrow and defined posteriorly by a ventrally projecting posttympanic process. Anteriorly, this notch is defined by a ventrally elongate lower lip of the entoglenoid process. The rostral tympanic process of the petrosal is flat. The lacrimal foramen of *A. gregoryi* is posteriorly continuous with the anterior orbit. That is, unlike *A. brevirostris*, *iliffensis*, *mediaevus*, and *baladontus* (but similar to *A. major*), the superior margin of the infraorbital canal is set apart from the lacrimal foramen posteriorly, leaving this region without a ridge of bone defining the posterior aspect of the foramen (figs. 21, 22). Protocones on the upper molars are reduced, smaller than their corresponding parastyles. The cingulid and posterior cusp of p3 are reduced.

**REMARKS:** The only specimen known of *A. gregoryi* besides the type is UW 13508. This
Fig. 17. USNM 437460, Apternodus brevirostris rostrum from Flagstaff Rim, Wyoming in occlusal (top) and lateral (bottom) views.
specimen consists of a nearly complete skull (fig. 22) and lower dentition (fig. 23) from both sides, as well some postcranial elements (fig. 24). The skull is quite similar to MCZ 17685, although the ventral lambdoid plates of UW 13508 are broken. The large size of their breakage scars indicates that the lambdoid plates were ventrally extensive. What remains of the external auditory meatus is sharply concave, as in the *A. gregoryi* type specimen (fig. 21).

Postcranially, the femur and partial os coxae of UW 13508 appear small for an animal with a skull of this size. However, the ratio of anteroposterior skull length to indices of proximal femur and acetabular size (fig. 25) is similar to that of extant groups such as talpids and soricids; hence, we assume that...
the partial femur, os coxae, and skull represent the same individual. In fact, prior to preparation, the distal femur of UW 13508 was embedded in matrix adjacent to the basicranium, making clear at least that the two specimens were deposited in close proximity, although in an anatomically unexpected position. The dentition of the associated skull is fully erupted, but shows minimal wear. Furthermore, the sphenoccipital synchondrosis of the skull is not completely fused (fig. 22), consistent with its association with the juvenile represented by the partial femur.

The distal femur preserves only the epiphysis. Proximally, the femur also appears to be detached from the epiphysis, although in this case the epiphysis is missing. Perhaps as a consequence, the femoral head lacks any sign of a fovea capitis. If what remains of the proximal femur (missing the epiphysis) accurately reflects the shape of the femoral head, then it is dorsally flattened and not separated from the greater trochanter by a deep dorsal concavity, in contrast to the morphology seen in most other insectivoran-grade taxa (e.g., Echinosorex; see MacPhee, 1994: 131). Extant animals with a similar femoral morphology include Didelphis, Orycteropus, Tenrec (MacPhee, 1994: 130–131), and soricids. To varying degrees, these taxa show arboreal, fossorial, and terrestrial locomotor patterns and do not present a simple locomotor analogue to Apternodus.

Schlaikjer’s (1933) study of Apternodus gregoryi was considerably more detailed than that of Matthew (1910), but contained the following points that we cannot confirm.
First, Schlaikjer (1933: 10 and fig. 4) thought that there was some evidence that the mastoid extended onto the occiput to contact the exoccipital and supraoccipital. However, the mastoid-occipital suture actually lies on the lateral-facing lambdoid plate, as noted by Matthew and later by Schlaikjer himself (1934: 6). There is no visible exoccipital-supraoccipital suture on skulls of *A. brevirostris* or *A. gregoryi*. The entire occiput is composed of fused parts of the occipital bone. The squamosal was believed to extend back on the lambdoid plate to what in reality is the mastoid-occipital suture. Schlaikjer’s (1933: fig. 3) figure of the lateral view of the skull omitted the squamosal-mastoid suture. The latter was corrected by Schlaikjer (1934) and McDowell (1958: 165, fig. 23).

On the lambdoid plate, Schlaikjer’s (1933: fig. 3, top) identification of the lateral exposure of the occipital as a part of the mastoid bone led him to depict a faint “mastoid-parietal” suture on the dorsal view of the skull. A suture between the occipital and the parietals was assumed to run along the lambdoid crests. A similar interpretation was given by McDowell (1958: fig. 23A). However, in available material of *A. gregoryi*, dorsal exposures of dermal cranial bones are fused and sutures cannot be accurately distinguished.

As noted above, piriform fenestrae were incorrectly shown as absent by Schlaikjer (1933, 1934) in both *A. gregoryi* and *A. brevirostris*. The type of *A. gregoryi* shows a relatively undistorted piriform fenestra (fig. 21). This region is less well-preserved in UW 13508 (fig. 22), but also appears to exhibit an incompletely ossified tympanic roof.

*Apternodus iliffensis* Galbreath, 1953

**Type Specimen**: KU 9112, left maxillary fragment with P3-M3, associated left dentary with p4-m3 (fig. 26).
Fig. 22. UW 13508, *Apterodus gregoryi* skull from Dilts Ranch, near Orin, Wyoming in stereo ventral (top), dorsal (middle), and lateral (bottom) views.

**REFERRED SPECIMENS:** USNM 455680, skull (fig. 27) with left P3-M3, fragmentary right I2 and canine root, associated left (fig. 28) and still articulated right posterior mandibles with m1-m3 and m2-m3, respectively; DMNH 1747, skull (fig. 29) with left C-M2 and right canine; FMNH PM34512, rostrum with right and left P2, left P3 and partial P4,
lingual roots of M1-M2, alveoli for right and left canines, associated with brain endocast, right lambdoid plate, and petrosal; and TMM 40492-9, rostrum with left P4-M2, right P4-M1, M3, partial P3, preserving pterygoid and orbitotemporal regions (fig. 30).

**TEMPORAL AND GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION:** Chadronian (late Eocene) of northeastern Colorado (Iliff 24, Fremont Butte 20) and central Wyoming (Beaver Divide 5); and late Duchesnean (late middle Eocene) of west Texas (Red Mound 32).

**DIAGNOSIS:** The type and referred specimens of *Apternodus iliffensis* are smaller than other species of *Apternodus*. They have reduced upper molar protocones that are continuous with the molar lingual cingula and a small M3. The anterior dentition of USNM 455680 and DMNH 1747 is premolariform, not bulbous; a diastema is absent between P2 and P3; and minute diastemata are present on either side of the canine. The lacrimal foramen is set off from the orbit by a prominent crest, formed by the proximity of the infra-
orbital canal. Medial to the promontory, the rostral tympanic process of the petrosal is flat. The external auditory meatus is weakly concave ventrally, and the ventral margin of the lambdoid plate does not extend far below the glenoid region, similar to the condition in A. baladontus.

REMARKS: Cranially, this species is the smallest within Apterodus, even though its cheek teeth are relatively larger than those of A. mediaevus and A. baladontus. Two nearly complete skulls are now known for A. iliffensis: USNM 455680 (figs. 27, 28) and DMNH 1747 (fig. 29). The lower dentition anterior to p4 remains unknown.

As indicated by DMNH 1747 and USNM 455680, the upper anterior dentition of A. iliffensis closely resembles that of A. brevirostris and A. gregoryi. That is, the P2, canine, and I2 are small, premolariform, non-bulbous teeth. I2 has one root, P2 and canine two. I2 has a small but distinct posterior cusp, connected to the apex of the tooth by a crest.

The basicranium is mediolaterally narrower than that of other species. However, structures of the posterior braincase (i.e., the lambdoid plate, temporal fossa, and sagittal and nuchal crests) are at least as robust as those of other taxa.

USNM 455680 displays a large, undistorted piriform fenestra anterior to the petrosal, bounded medially by a strut of alisphenoid, which defines the lateral border of the anterior carotid foramen. The smaller vidian foramen is present anteromedial to the anterior carotid foramen. The petrosal retains a subtle but distinct groove extending from the apex of the promontory, medial to the vestibular foramen, anteromedially toward the anterior carotid foramen. In life this groove was associated with the internal carotid artery and contradicts McDowell’s (1958: 168) interpretation that the internal carotid artery of Apterodus had a medial course adjacent to the petrosal-basisphenoid suture.

Referring the west Texas specimen (TMM 40492-9; fig. 30) to A. iliffensis makes this species the most geographically widespread within Apterodus. Novacek (1976b) tentatively referred this specimen to “A. cf. bre-
Fig. 25. Intertrochanter width (top) and acetabular width (bottom) divided by anteroposterior skull length in selected taxa (in millimeters). See figure 52 for measurements taken. Dots indicate individual specimens measured. Diamonds indicate 95% confidence intervals of the mean; non-overlapping diamonds indicate a significant difference at alpha = 0.05, assuming normality.

Fig. 26. Cast of KU 9112, Apterodus iliffensis type specimen from the White River Formation north of Iliff, Colorado, maxillary (top) and associated mandibular (bottom) fragments.

**virostris**”. However, TMM 40492-9 contrasts with *A. brevirostris*, and is similar to the *iliffensis* type specimen, in having reduced molar protocones, a mesiodistally elongate P3, and a small M3. In fact, the M3 of TMM 40492-9 is considerably smaller than that of any other *Apterodus* specimen. It further differs from most other *Apterodus* individuals in showing a particularly elongate P3. Hence, at present we regard this specimen as a member of *A. iliffensis*; however, recovery of additional material from west Texas may justify the recognition of a new species.

In his 1978 paper describing a second apernodontid specimen (FMNH PM34512) from White River Formation exposures north of Iliff, Colorado, Galbreath made several confusing statements. First, Galbreath (1978: 302) stated that “there should not be any doubt that the new specimen [i.e., FMNH PM34512] is an apernodontid but not an apernotid.” However, Galbreath’s intended meaning for the term “apernotid” is unclear. He may have been of the opinion that his new specimen should not be included in the genus *Apterodus*, in which case we would disagree for reasons given below.

Galbreath (1978: 301) indicated that “oth-
er details not mentioned in the original description of *A. iliffensis* acquire significance now with the discovery of a second apternodontid from the same locality**, and described some aspects of the *A. iliffensis* infraorbital canal, presumably based on FMNH PM34512. However, on the next page he argued that “the dissimilar details of the infraorbital canal suggests that the two [i.e., KU 9112 and FMNH PM34512] would not be in the same specific taxon”, in contrast to his previous implication that both specimens illuminate the anatomy of *A. iliffensis*.

Galbreath (1978: 299) stated that the “preorbital ridge so characteristic on the maxillaries of *A. brevirostris* and *A. gregoryi*” is missing on FMNH PM34512. However, a “preorbital ridge” has not been explicitly mentioned by other authors, and Galbreath does not illustrate or further elaborate on the identity of this character. There is some variation in the distance between the superior...
margin of the infraorbital canal to the lacrim-
mal foramen; in *A. brevirostris* this distance
is shorter than that in *A. gregoryi* and de-
tines the border between the lacrimal foramen
and orbit with a ridge. However, this feature
serves to distinguish the two species, not
characterize them. Furthermore, a ridge pos-
terior to the lacrimal foramen is present in
FMNH PM34512. Hence, we regard this charac-
ter as a misinterpretation by Galbreath of
breakage along the lateral margin of the
maxilla in FMNH PM34512.

The fragmentary teeth of FMNH PM34512, consisting of an intact P2, P3, par-
tial P4, and the lingual remnants of M1-M2,
are identical in size and appearance to the
corresponding parts of P3-M2 in KU 9112.
Most importantly, both specimens lack pro-
tocones and are from temporally and geo-
graphically adjacent localities, and can easily
be accommodated in the single species, *A-
ternodus iliffensis*.

Krishtalka and Setoguchi (1977) described
upper and lower dental remains of “*Aper-
nodus sp. cf. A. iliffensis*” from Badwater lo-
cality 20, now considered to be early Du-
chesnean in age. One of these specimens,
CM 29012 (fig. 31), is a right maxillary frag-
ment with P4-M1, not M1–2 as stated by
Krishtalka and Setoguchi (1977), with weak
protocones that presumably led these authors
to associate the Badwater specimens with *A.
iliffensis*. However, the protocones of CM
29012 are actually larger than those of the *A.
iliffensis* type. Other potentially useful ana-
tomical regions (e.g., P3 and M3) are miss-
ing. Hence, this specimen and others from
Badwater locality 20 are not sufficiently di-
agnostic for identification at the species lev-
el. Nevertheless, the Badwater locality 20
*Apternodus* specimens, and similar material
described by Storer (1995) from the approx-
imately contemporaneous Lac Pelletier Low-
er Fauna of Saskatchewan, document the first
occurrence of this genus in the middle Eo-
cene of North America. The small “*Apter-
nodus sp.*” described by Tong (1997) from
China may be similar or even older in age.

Ostrander (1987) referred several isolated
upper and lower teeth from the middle Chad-
ronian Raben Ranch Local Fauna of Nebras-
ka to *A. iliffensis*. However, Ostrander did
not provide illustrations of these specimens,
and the mesiodistal and buccolingual dimen-
sions he reports are broadly consistent with
those of several *Apternodus* species. In our
experience, isolated upper or lower molars
cannot be assigned with confidence to a sin-
gle species of *Apternodus*.

*Apternodus major*, new species

**Type Specimen:** UW 11046, nearly com-
plete skull (fig. 32) preserving base of left
I1, C, P3-M3, right I1, C-M3, missing pos-
terior palate and pterygoid region, articulated
right dentary with broken i1, c, broken p3,
p4-m3, and associated left dentary (fig. 33)
with p4-m3; associated ulna, proximal and
distal fragments of right humerus (fig. 34),
fragments of scapulae, cervical vertebrae, and
ribs.
Fig. 29. DMNH 1747, *Apterodactylus iliffensis* skull from Fremont Butte, Colorado in stereo ventral (top), dorsal (middle), and lateral (bottom) views.
Fig. 30. TMM 40492–9, *Apterodus iliffensis* rostrum from Red Mound, Texas in ventral (top) and lateral (bottom) views.

**Referred Specimens:** UW 10981, rostrum associated with partial right dentary with p3-m3, broken i1, i3, c; UW 10984, fragmentary skull with left M1-M3, right M1-M2; UW 11291, partial rostrum with left P2-P4, broken M1-M2; UW 11292, fragmentary skull with right M1-M3, associated left maxilla with P3-M2; UW 11295, fragmentary rostrum with left P3-P4, articulated posterior left dentary, associated with anterior left den-
Fig. 31. Cast of CM 29012, *Apternodus* sp. maxillary fragment from Badwater 20, Wyoming in occlusal view.

**ETYMOLOGY:** The name "*major*" was coined originally by Kron (1978) and refers to the large size of this species.

**TEMPORAL AND GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION:** Chadronian (late Eocene) of eastern Wyoming (Dilts Ranch 10).

**DIAGNOSIS:** This species is the largest yet known in the genus *Apternodus*. It is anatomically distinctive by virtue of the laterally flared anterior lambdoid plates and the enlarged, bony torus present along the ventral margin of the external auditory meatus. Unlike *A. iliffensis*, the external auditory meatus is ventrally concave, but not to the extent seen in *A. gregoryi* (fig. 21). *A. major* also has a prominent, anteromedially running rostral tympanic process of the petrosal, a laterally prominent maxillary rudiment of the zygoma, and a lacrimal foramen continuous with the anterior orbit. Diastemata between the upper incisors and adjacent to P3 are lacking. The anterior dentition of *A. major* is large, but premolariform, resembling that of *A. gregoryi*. The large, two-rooted, premolariform P2 of *A. major* is similar in size to P3 and much larger than the P2 of *A. brevirostris*. Protocones on the upper molars are reduced and barely distinguishable from the lingual cingulum.

**REMARKS:** Several specimens collected and first described by Kron (1978) are well-preserved, but none is as complete as the type. This specimen (UW 11046) is a particularly large and robust individual, showing extreme development of the anteriorly flared lambdoid plates, a laterally expansive maxillary zygoma, and distinct fossae in the maxillae above each canine. *A. major* is found nowhere else except at the Dilts Ranch area examined by Kron (1978), which has also yielded other species of *Apternodus* (UW 13508 *A. gregoryi* and AMNH 74952 possibly *A. brevirostris*) but none of *Oligoryctes*. In addition to the details summarized in the diagnosis, the morphology of the type skull is as follows.

The maxilla adjacent to the anterior infraorbital canal is damaged on both sides. However, it can be seen on the left side to project far anterolaterally (fig. 32), providing extensive surface area for the attachment of anterior facial muscles. Following Butler (1956), the muscles that originate from this area include levator labii superioris, levator alae nasi, and zygomaticus. Whidden (MS in progress) has recently confirmed Butler’s assessment for the origin of these muscles in insectivoran-grade taxa such as *Solenodon*. *A. major* possesses a relatively huge area for the attachment of anterior snout-muscles, somewhat more elaborate than that of *Solenodon*, which supports an elongate rod of cartilage that stretches anteriorly from the external nares. Hence, the rostral morphology of *A. major*, and that of *Apternodus* generally, appears compatible with an anteriorly elongate, cartilaginous extension of the proboscis (as reconstructed anterior to the elongate upper incisor in the frontispiece of this monograph).

The dorsal braincase of *A. major* is rugose (fig. 32). Due in part to its laterally extensive anterior lambdoid plate, *A. major* has more surface area for the attachment of the temporalis muscle than other species of *Apternodus*. The robust temporalis musculature of *A. major* is also reflected in the pronounced muscle scar on the lateral aspect of the mandibular coronoid process (fig. 33).

As in other species of *Apternodus*, *A. major* shows prominent piriform fenestrae in the tympanic roof anterior to the pars cochlearis of the petrosal. Anteromedial to the prom-
Fig. 32. UW 11046, skull of *Apterodus major* type specimen from Dilts Ranch, Wyoming in stereo ventral (top), dorsal (middle), and lateral (bottom) views.
ontory, on the lateral margin of the basi-sphenoid, a distinct vidian foramen is evident. The anterior carotid foramen appears to be confluent with the piriform fenestra (fig. 32). Anterior and slightly ventral to the caudal tympanic process of the right petrosal, UW 11046 preserves fragments of what might be a broken ectotympanic or tympanohyal (fig. 32).

The posterior palate and pterygoid region are not preserved in UW 11046, but from other, more fragmentary specimens (e.g., UW 10981, UW 10984, UW 11292) they can be inferred to be similar to those of other species of *Apternodus*. The jaw joint, well preserved in the type, also resembles that of other *Apternodus*, as described above for *A. baladontus*. 

Fig. 33. UW 11046, mandible of *Apternodus major* type specimen from Dilts Ranch, Wyoming in occlusal (inset), lingual (top), and lateral (bottom) views.
Fig. 34. UW 11046, humerus of *Apternodus major* type specimen from Dilts Ranch, Wyoming in anterior (left) and posterior (middle) views, with ulna (right).

UW 11046 is one of the few *Apternodus* specimens with associated postcrania. These include a left ulna and both proximal and distal left humeral fragments (fig. 34). Both elements resemble those of *Solenodon*, but are smaller. The proximal humerus shows a broad greater tuberosity and well-defined fossa for the biceps tendon. The distal humerus shows an entepicondylar foramen, prominent medial epicondyle, well-defined trochlea and capitulum, and a small fossa posterior to the capitulum that is continuous with the supinator crest. The proximal ulna differs from that of *Solenodon* in having a smaller, more gracile olecranon process.

Distal fragments of both scapulae, a clavicle, vertebrae, and ribs are also preserved together in an associated block of matrix. The right scapula appears to be articulated with the proximal end of the right clavicle.

On both sides, the scapulae are unremarkable, with concave glenoid fossae for articulation with the proximal humeri. The neural arches of several vertebrae, probably thoracic, are partially exposed. Spinous processes of these vertebrae were either very small or not preserved in this specimen.

*Apternodus dasophylakas*, new species

**Type and Only Specimen:** UW 14072, crushed but otherwise complete skull (fig. 35) preserving left I1, C-M3, right I1, broken C, P2, broken P3, P4-M3, articulated left dentary with complete dentition, associated right dentary with i1-i2, c-m3 (fig. 36), associated tibia, atlas, axis, partial scapula, proximal humerus, distal ulna, ribs, and other fragmentary postcranial fragments (fig. 37). All elements are slightly distorted due to postmortem deformation.

**Etymology:** This species is named in honor of the faculty, students, and staff of the Department of Geology and Geophysics, University of Wyoming, under whose auspices the type and only specimen was collected and is now curated. The Greek word transliterated as “*dasophylakas*” is an interpretation of the English word “cowboy”, the UW mascot. Literally, the trivial name means “ranger” or “guardian of wild land and forest” (N. Soulunias and I. Trivilas, personal commun.).

**Temporal and Geographic Distribution:** Chadronian (late Eocene) of southeastern Wyoming (Harshman Quarry 21).

**Diagnosis:** Protocones on the upper molars are absent, a condition somewhat exacerbated by wear. The anterior dentition is premolariform, not bulbous. P3 has an elongate stylar margin, and diastemata are evident on either side of the upper canine, between I1 and I2, and probably also between P2 and P3; some distortion in the maxilla between P2-P3 on both sides precludes certainty as to the size of the P2-P3 diastema. Both P2 and p2 are smaller than adjacent teeth and are similar in proportion to those of *A. brevirostris*. The mental foramen on the dentary is located just below p2, a position slightly anterior to that of other *Apternodus* species. The p3 shows a slight buccal cingulid and a distinct posterior cusp. The ex-
Fig. 35. UW 14072, skull of *Apterodus dasophylakas* type specimen from Harshman Quarry, Wyoming in stereo ventral (top) and dorsal (bottom) views.
ternal auditory meatus of UW 14072 is not marked by a torus, in contrast to that of A. major, but is flat as in A. iliffensis. Another similarity to A. iliffensis is the ventral margin of the lambdoid plate, which reaches just slightly ventral to the level of the jaw joint. The rostral tympanic process of the petrosal is flat. A piriform fenestra is evident, lateral to a small anterior carotid foramen.

Remarks: UW 14072 is a large version of A. iliffensis, sharing with it aspects of the ear and lambdoid region as well as reduced upper molar protocones and an elongate P3 (polymorphic in A. iliffensis). UW 14072 differs qualitatively from individuals of A. iliffensis in having an M3 similar in buccolingual width to the M2, an elongate rostrum with diastemata on either side of the canine,
Fig. 37. UW 14072, scapula, tibia, fragmentary vertebral column including the axis (top and middle) and atlas (bottom) of *Apterodus dasophylakas* type specimen from Harshman Quarry, Wyoming.
and a transversely wide basicranium. It differs from other *Apternodus* species in having a mental foramen ventral to p2; the position of the mental foramen is unknown in *A. iliffensis*. Cranial proportions are similar to those of *A. gregoryi*, with the exception that *A. dasophylakas* has a very shallow external auditory meatus and a lambdoid plate that does not extend far ventral to the jaw joint. The orbitotemporal region of UW 14072 is crushed, leaving a very distorted lacrimal foramen on the left side, and none on the right. It is therefore difficult to tell if the posterior border of the lacrimal foramen is flush with the anterior orbit as in *Apternodus gregoryi* (figs. 21, 22) and *A. major* (fig. 32). The left craniomandibular joint, with the jaw still in articulation, preserves what might be part of an ossified articular disk separating the condyle from the glenoid fossa (fig. 35). However, due to the postmortem distortion of the specimen, it is difficult to discount the possibility that this region contains multiple fragments of the mandibular condyle itself.

Postcranially, what little is known of *A. dasophylakas* (fig. 37) does not appear to be specialized for a nonterrestrial locomotor repertoire. The only exception to this observation in any *Apternodus* specimen may be the structure of the proximal femur in *A. gregoryi* (UW 13508; see above). The distal tibia of *A. dasophylakas* is not fused with the fibula. The scapula has a triangular shape, narrow laterally at the glenoid fossa and broadening dorsomedially toward the vertebral column. The second cervical vertebra shows a ventrally projecting keel on the posteroventral aspect of its centrum (similar to the axis of shrews and *Echinosorex*); and the first cervical vertebra shows two widely separated facets for the occipital condyles of the skull.

**FAMILY OLOGYCTIDAE, NEW FAMILY**

**INCLUDED GENERA:** *Oligoryctes* Hough, 1956

**DIAGNOSIS:** *Oligoryctes* is a shrew-sized animal with zalambdodont molars, lacking metacones and with reduced talonid basins. The m3 talonid cusp is slightly taller than the m3 paraconid. The upper molars have distinct protocones and anterior cingula, and the posterior two lower incisors are tricuspid. The medial aspect of the coronoid process is deep or pocketed. *Oligoryctes* has a relatively unspecialized posterior braincase without the elaborate lateral extensions of the squamosal, petromastoid, and occipital that form the lambdoid plates in *Apternodus*. Instead, *Oligoryctes* has a laterally rounded squamosal and petromastoid. It shows a prominent entoglenoid process for posterior support of the jaw joint, medial to the postglenoid foramen and anterior to the promontory of the middle ear. The basicranium shows an enlarged foramen ovale and lacks an alisphenoid canal. The squamosal extends posteriorly along the ventrolateral margin of the braincase, lateral to the large piriform fenestra. The anterior exit of the sinus canal and ethmoid foramen are located well anterior to the sphenorbital fissure and are not incorporated into its superior margin. As in *Apternodus*, the lacrimal foramen is large and laterally oriented.

**Oligoryctes cameronensis** Hough, 1956

**TYPE SPECIMEN:** USNM 19909, rostrum (38) with right P2-P4, broken M1, M2-M3, left P3-M3, preserving pterygoid region, associated left dentary with p3-m3 (fig. 39); original lost, known only from illustrations.

**REFERRED MATERIAL:** USNM 516840, undistorted cranium (fig. 40), missing premaxillae and mandibles, preserving left ?C, P2,
dP3, erupting P3, P4-M3, right P2, dP3, erupting P3, P4-M3; USNM 516846, left dentary with p3-m3; UCM 52446, rostrum (fig. 41) with left broken I2, I3-M3, right I2, P2-M3, orbitotemporal region, articulated left dentary with complete dentition except for missing crown of i3, associated right dentary with p3-m3 (fig. 42); MPUM 6677, left dentary with heavily worn i1-m3; MPUM 6859, right ?M1, left maxillary fragments with P3-M3, associated left petromastoid fragment preserving superior semicircular canal and stapedius fossa, missing bulk of pars cochlearis; CM 17193, rostrum with right and left P3-M3 plus anterior alveoli (fig. 43; original lost, known only from photos); CM 73977, associated right and left dentaries, each with p4-m3.

**Temporal and Geographic Distribution:** Chadronian (late Eocene) of central Wyoming (Cameron Spring 5, Flagstaff Rim 18) and western Montana (Pipestone Springs 29, Eureka Valley Rd. 16), probably also northwestern Nebraska (33; see Ostrander, 1987).

Fig. 38. USNM 19909, type rostrum of *Oligoryctes cameronensis* from Cameron Spring, Wyoming in ventral (top) and lateral (bottom) views. Illustrations by Lawrence Isham.
Fig. 39. USNM 19909, type mandible of *Oligoryctes cameronensis* from Cameron Spring, Wyoming in occlusal (top), lateral (middle), and lingual (bottom) views. Illustrations by Lawrence Isham.

**Diagnosis:** The small maxillary rudiment of the zygoma is located lateral to the posterior edge of M1. The type skull shows a foramen in the alisphenoid posterior to the enlarged foramen ovale, similar in position to the alisphenoid foramen transmitting the inferior stapedial ramus in some tenrecs (Asher, 2001). A small foramen is evident on the rostrum near the nasal-frontal suture, as are foramina laterally along the path of the sinus canal, above the external auditory meatus and jaw joint. The dental formula is 3.1.3.3/3.1.3.3, differing from that of *Apter nodus* in having one more upper incisor. The
crown of P3 is longer than that of P4; both show a prominent, anteriorly projecting parastyle. The trigonids of the lower molars decrease progressively in width, with that of m1 the largest and m3 the smallest. The talonid of the m3 is elongate, making this tooth the longest in the molar series. As in *O. altitalonidus*, the m3 talonid cusp is slightly greater in height than the m3 paraconid; the medial aspect of the coronoid process is pocketed; and the coronoid process is externally convex.

Remarks: USNM 516840, collected by one of us (RJE) from Flagstaff Rim, is by far the best specimen yet known of this taxon (fig. 40). It is one of the few small “apternodontid” specimens known that preserves petrosals and elements of the deciduous dentition; and its pristine state of preservation is also quite remarkable. The undistorted rostrum shows sutures between the nasals and maxilla; the nasal-frontal suture is faint, but appears to delimit a posteriorly narrow nasal. A small foramen is present in the rostrum at the posterior margin of the nasal. Premaxillae are missing. The lacrimal foramen is large, laterally directed, and situated on the anterior aspect of the infraorbital canal. The frontal-maxillary suture is also visible and appears to extend well into the orbit, accompanied by the roots of the maxillary teeth (fig. 40). The maxilla anterior to the infraorbital canal is also perforate and shows roots of the erupting permanent P3. The posterior ethmoid region is broad and contributes to a slight post-orbital constriction.

The braincase is well preserved and shows no sign of sutures within the frontal or between the frontal, parietal, and occipital, although numerous hairline cracks, some bilateral, may represent such sutures. In contrast, the petromastoid shows well-defined sutures with the occipital, parietal, and squamosal, and is well-exposed laterally. The petromastoid-squamosal suture extends ventrally onto the basicranium and defines the lateral boundary of the tympanic cavity. The squamosal also shows fairly well-defined sutures with the parietal and alisphenoid. On the squamosal side of the squamosal-parietal suture are three foramina, two located adjacent to the petromastoid, and one dorsal to the jaw joint.

USNM 516840 shows four foramina anterior to the sphenorbital fissure. The anteriormost is a large ethmoid foramen, providing a conduit into the anterior cranial fossa and posterior ethmoid region. Immediately posterior and ventral is a much smaller foramen which may also connect the orbit with the anterior cranial fossa. Continuing posteriorly, the next large foramen is the anterior exit point of the sinus canal; slightly medial to that is a small optic foramen. Both the sinus canal and the optic foramen are located immediately anterior to the large sphenorbital fissure, the ventral boundary of which is continuous with the pterygoid. Posterior to the palate, sutures are evident between the V-shaped vomer and pterygoids.

The most conspicuous openings on the basicranium of USNM 516840 are the large piriiform fenestra and foramen ovale. The latter is slightly larger than the sphenorbital fissure, and the piriiform fenestra is as large as the bony promontory itself. Posterior to foramen ovale, and within the base of the entoglenoid process, is a foramen that served as a conduit for the inferior ramus of the stapedial artery (mentioned above as similar in position to that of tenrecs such as *Geogale*; see Asher, 2001). Subtle grooves on the promontory bone indicate that the internal carotid artery entered the tympanic cavity at the ventral apex of the pars cochlearis, just medial to the prominent caudal tympanic process of the promontory. It immediately bifurcated into a proximal stapedial ramus, which traversed laterally toward the fenestra vestibuli, and a transpromontorial internal carotid (sensu Wible, 1986), which ran anteromedially, entering the braincase via the piriiform fenestra. A foramen in the basisphenoid at the dorsomedial margin of the tympanic cavity is smaller in caliber than the groove for the internal carotid on the pars cochlearis. Hence, we believe this foramen provided a conduit for a small vidian artery, branching from the internal carotid immediately proximal to the latter’s path through the piriiform fenestra.

Zygomatic arches are completely lacking, and both maxillary and squamosal rudiments of the zygoma are reduced. As in *Apter nodus*, the jaw joint is defined posteriorly by the entoglenoid, not postglenoid, process.
Fig. 40. USNM 516840, *Oligoryctes cameronensis* skull from Flagstaff Rim, Wyoming. Stereo ventral (top), lateral (middle), and dorsal (bottom) views; (opposite page) anatomical guide to ventral view. See text for abbreviations.
This is located medial to the postglenoid foramen and anterior to the middle ear.

The upper molars of USNM 516840 are fully erupted and show minimal wear. P4 is almost fully erupted; P3 is still in its crypt, but some cusps are evident dorsal to dP3. P2 is fully erupted and minute in size. The right upper canine is missing; on the left side it is intact but not yet fully erupted and is displaced posteriorly.

Also noteworthy among the new specimens of *O. cameronensis* is UCM 52446, a well-preserved rostrum (fig. 41) and associated, largely complete mandible (fig. 42). Its dentition is fully erupted and shows a permanent P3 that is larger than the dP3 of USNM 516480, particularly the paraarista running posterior to the paracone. The dentary shows trigonids of m1-m3 becoming progressively smaller posteriorly, as well as multicuspid incisors. Otherwise, UCM 52446 conforms with the morphology evident in USNM 516840.

Some of Hough’s (1956) original description of *Oligoryctes* does not accord with the material that we now have available. Unfortunately, the type specimen designated by her (USNM 19909) now appears to be lost; however, one of us (MCM) previously had an opportunity to examine it. Her diagnosis stated (1956: 538) that the basicranial region differs from that of *Apternodus* “in having lateral descending processes of the basisphenoid, which embrace medially the small anterior bullae.” The features in question are actually the medial walls of the sphenorbital fissures; and the contents of the “anterior bullae” consist principally of matrix fillings of the trigeminal nerve tracts. If the lower teeth are placed in occlusion with the uppers, this area may be seen to lie well in front of the jaw suspensorium. The medially excavated coronoid process of the mandible was not seen by Hough because the specimen was incompletely prepared at the time it was described.

McDowell (1958: 171, 172) also mistakenly regarded *Oligoryctes* as possessing an ossified auditory bulla, going even farther than Hough by arguing (p. 171) that *Apternodus* also possessed an ossified bulla, based on a presumed close relationship between the two genera. However, elsewhere in his paper (McDowell, 1958: 167–168), he seems to have recognized Hough’s mistake: “Hough (1956) claims that the basisphenoid tympanic wing is present in *Oligoryctes*, a genus probably closely related to *Apternodus*. However, this is not clear from the specimen and appears rather to be but a slight selvage of basisphenoid against the ear chamber and does not have the characteristic position of the lipotyphlan basisphenoid, abutting against the Eustacian cartilage.” In any event, new material described here of both *Apternodus* and *Oligoryctes* clearly demonstrates that the middle ear of both taxa is similar to that of soricids and *Solenodon*, with neither taxon showing an ossified auditory bulla, and both showing a piriform fenestra (polymorphic within *A. brevirostris* and *A. mediaevas*).

**Oligoryctes altitalonidus** Clark, 1937
(new combination, formerly “*Apternodus* altitalonidus”)

**Type Specimen:** YPM PU13774, left dentary with p4-m3; original lost but casts remain (fig. 44).
Fig. 41. UCM 52446, *Oligoryctes cameronensis* rostrum from Cameron Spring, Wyoming in ventral (top), dorsal (middle), and lateral (bottom) views.
Fig. 42. Mandibles of *Oligoryctes cameronensis* (UCM 52446, stereo right, bottom right) and *Oligoryctes altitalonidus* (USNM 516843, stereo left, bottom left).
Fig. 43. CM 17193, *Oligoryctes cameronensis* rostrum from Cameron Spring, Wyoming in lateral (top) and ventral (bottom) views. Photos by Chester Tarka.

Fig. 44. YPM-PU 13774, type mandibular fragment of *Oligoryctes altiatalonidus* from the Big Badlands of South Dakota in occlusal (top), lingual (middle), and lateral (bottom) views. Photos by Chester Tarka.

**REFERRED MATERIAL:** USNM 516843, nearly complete skull (fig. 45), slightly compressed dorsoventrally, missing petrosals, with associated mandibles with left i1-m3 and right p3-m3 (fig. 42); USNM 22816, associated right maxillary fragments with P2-M3 (fig. 46); USNM 516841, left dentary with m1-m3; USNM 516842, rostrum with nearly complete dentition including dP3 and dP4 and erupting left P3-P4 in crypts, plus associated mandibles with complete dentition; USNM 516847, left dentary with p3-m3; USNM 516848, left dentary with p4-m3; USNM 516849, left dentary with p4-m3; USNM 516850, right dentary with p3-m3; USNM 516851, right dentary with p4-m3; USNM 516852 left dentary with m1; USNM 516853, left dentary with p3-m3; USNM 516854, rostrum with right and left P3-M3; USNM 516855, rostrum with heavily worn left C-M3 and right P3-M3; USNM 516856, rostrum with right C-M3 and left C-P4; USNM 516857, rostrum with right P3-M3 and left P3-P4; USNM 516858, right dentary with m2-m3; USNM 516862, left maxilla with P3-M2; USNM 516863, right maxilla with P3, M1-M3; USNM 516864, right maxilla with M1-M3; USNM 516865, left dentary with m1-m3; USNM 516866 left maxilla with M1-M2; USNM 516867, anterior braincase and rostrum with right P3-M3 and left P4-M3; USNM 516868, left dentary with m1-m3; USNM 516869, left dentary with p3-m3; USNM 516870, left dentary with m2; AMNH 105310, right dentary with p4-m3; MPUM 0414, left dentary with p3-m3; MPUM 2592, left dentary with m2-m3; MPUM 6797, left dentary with p4-m2; MPUM 6857, left dentary with p4-m3; MPUM 6858, rostrum with right and left P3s; CM 9260, right dentary with p3–4, m2–3; CM 71571, left dentary with p4-m2; CM 71572, left dentary with m1-m2; CM 71573, left dentary with m2–3; and CM 73976, right maxilla with P4-M2.

**TEMPORAL AND GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION:**
Uintan (middle Eocene) through Orellan (early Oligocene) of Wyoming (Flagstaff Rim 18, East Fork Basin 12), Montana (Pipestone Springs 29, Diamond O Ranch 9, Little Pipestone Creek 25, Cook Ranch 7), South Dakota (Big Badlands 4), and North Dakota (Fitterer Ranch 17). Geographic distribution probably also includes Saskatchewan (8; see Storer, 1996) and California (34; see Walsh, 1996).

Diagnosis: Unlike Apternodus, and like most other mammals including Oligoryctes cameronensis, O. altitalonidus lacks the extensive, box-shaped structures of the posterior braincase. Instead, its braincase is rounded and gracile, as in Microgale. O. altitalonidus possesses a maxillary rudiment of the zygoma lateral to M2, slightly posterior to that of O. cameronensis. O. altitalonidus is smaller than all other Tertiary zalambdodonts except for the unnamed Tabernacle Butte taxon (McKenna et al., 1962; Bloch et al. in prep.). Perhaps the most conspicuous similarity with O. cameronensis is the large size of foramen ovale, which is greater in diameter than the jugular foramen (fig. 45). The squamosal is posteriorly elongate, forming the lateral border of the large piriform fenestra. The stylar crests of P3 are elongate, as in O. cameronensis. In contrast to Apternodus and O. cameronensis, this species possesses a p1, one of eight teeth anterior to the three lower molars; hence, its dental formula is 3.1.3.3/3.1.4.3. The p3 shows a cingulid buccally. As in O. cameronensis, the m3 is longer than more anterior cheek teeth, and the posterior two incisors are tricuspid. The tall trigonid cusp on m3, for which this species was named, is also present in the larger O. cameronensis and the Tabernacle Butte taxon. Unlike O. cameronensis, the molar trigonids of O. altitalonidus are similar in size and do not decrease markedly from m1 to m3. The medial side of the coronoid process is pocketed, as in modern soricids. Unlike soricids, the coronoid process is bowed in shape, or externally convex.

Remarks: USNM 516843 (figs. 42, 45) is the best specimen of O. altitalonidus yet known. Several additional specimens from Pipestone Springs (USNM 22816; fig. 46) and Flagstaff Rim (e.g., USNM 516842, 516854, and 516857) confirm details of cranial anatomy of this genus evident from USNM 516843. USNM specimens from Fitterer Ranch (516868–516870) document the previously unknown presence of this species in the Orellan of North Dakota. In addition to fully erupted M1-M3, USNM 516842 shows an erupting P3 and P4 in the process of replacing their deciduous precursors, demonstrating that unlike shrews, O. altitalonidus had functional deciduous teeth. As in O. cameronensis, P4 erupts prior to P3.

Oligoryctes altitalonidus resembles O. cameronensis more than it does any species of Apternodus. It shares a zalambdodont dition with both Apternodus and O. cameronensis, but lacks the derived shape of the Apternodus posterior braincase. O. altitalonidus shares with O. cameronensis an enlarged foramen ovale, an elongate P3, and multicuspid lower incisors. For these reasons, many previous authors (e.g., Emry, 1979; Tabrum et al., 1996; Robinson and Kron, 1998) have referred to this species using the name Oligoryctes altitalonidus, a combination that we support.

Unnamed Taxon from Tabernacle Butte and Elsewhere
(formerly “Eoryctes” Romer, 1966 nomen nudum)

Type Specimen: To be determined by Bloch et al. (manuscript in progress).

Referred Material: USNM 417465, left maxillary fragment with M1-M3; USNM 417464, distorted left dentary with p3-m3; CM 13627, left dentary with m1-m3, original lost but casts remain (see fig. 47); CM 13859, left dentary with m2; DMNH 8776, right dentary fragment with broken m1, talonid of m2, and partial alveolus for m3; probably also AMNH 55689, edentulous mandibular fragment mentioned by Simpson in McGrew et al. (1959).

Temporal and Geographic Distribution: Bridgerian (early middle Eocene) of eastern Nevada (Elderberry Canyon 14), southwestern Wyoming (Tabernacle Butte 37), northeastern Utah (Powder Wash 31), and Uintan (middle Eocene) of northwestern Colorado (Sand Wash 35).

Remarks: Among taxa that lack a talonid basin and metacone, the Tabernacle Butte
that species is unique by virtue of its deep anterior cingulum and large protocones of the upper molars, medially deep but not fully pocketed coronoid process, and extreme small size.

Several authors, including McKenna et al. (1962) and Emry (1990), have acknowledged the presence of this as yet unnamed, diminutive, early-middle Eocene “apternodontid”. In fact, based on previously circulated, unpublished versions of this paper, Romer (1966) prematurely called this taxon “Eorictes”, a name now unavailable as it was used by Thewissen and Gingerich (1989) for a genus of palaeoryctid. As of early 2002, J. Bloch et al. have a manuscript in progress that will name this taxon, including additional material from southwestern Wyoming in the University of Michigan collections. We defer to them for nomenclature, but will use available material of this species as an informally named terminal taxon (i.e., “Tabernacle Butte taxon”) in our phylogenetic analyses.

PARAPTERNODONTIDAE, NEW FAMILY


TEMPORAL AND GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION: Wasatchian (early Eocene) of northern Wy-
Fig. 45. Continued.

Parapternodus Bown and Schankler, 1982

Type and Only Species: P. antiquus.

Distribution and Diagnosis: As for P. antiquus.

Parapternodus antiquus Bown and Schankler, 1982

Type Specimen: YPM 31169, left dentary with m2–3.

Referred Material: UMMP 81557, right dentary with p4-m2, m2 trigonid broken; UMMP 81560, right dentary with m2-m3 and base of coronoid process (fig. 48); UMMP 81561, left dentary with a fragmentary incisor root and p4-m3 (fig. 49); UMMP 81558, maxillary fragment with left ?P3; UMMP 81559, left dentary fragment with lower molar; UMMP 81562, maxillary fragment with right upper molar; UMMP 81563, maxillary fragment with left P4 or M1.

Temporal and Geographic Distribution: Wasatchian (early Eocene) of northern Wyoming (Clark’s Fork Basin 19).

Diagnosis: The talonids of Parapternodus are exceedingly small and form no basin. Anterior to m3, the talonids consist only of a ridge capped by a weak cusp. Parapternodus is slightly smaller than O. cameronensis (contra Bown and Schankler, 1982) and is similar in size to O. altitalonidus. It differs from the latter in having a premolariform p4, an anteroposteriorly short m3 talonid, and mental foramina adjacent to each p4 root. It
Fig. 47. CM 13627, mandible of the Tabernacle Butte taxon from locality 5 of McGrew et al. (1959) in occlusal (top), lingual (middle), and lateral (bottom) views. Illustrations by Chester Tarka.

also lacks buccal cingulids on its lower molars. UMMP 81561 preserves a fragmentary, enlarged root of an anterior incisor that extends posteriorly at least as far as the region below p3. Although no specimen retains an intact coronoid process, the region immediately posterior to m3 on UMMP 81560 and 81561 is not expanded transversely, indicating that the coronoid process is more gracile than that of *Apternodus*. The base of the coronoid process in UMMP 81650 is excavated deep to the alveolar plane of the dentary, suggesting that like soricids and the larger two species of *Oligoryctes*, *Parapternodus* also possessed a coronoid process that was pocketed medially. Alternatively, this excavation could be a dorsally broken entrance for the inferior alveolar nerve and artery; however, we consider this explanation unlikely because of the considerable dorsoventral size of this space and its anterodorsal proximity to the toothrow (fig. 48).

**REMARKS:** Perhaps due to the fragmentary type material, Bown and Schankler (1982: 67) used some continuous, unquantified comparisons to define *Parapternodus*, such as “m2 paracristid and postvallid relatively narrower transversely than in *Oligoryctes* or *Apternodus* . . .” and “trigonid less compressed anteroposteriorly than *Oligoryctes*”. These statements cannot be verified based on presently available material. Nevertheless, Bown and Schankler (1982) accurately identified a valid species based on an extremely limited sample, which has improved only slightly since 1982.
Fig. 48. UM 81560, Parapternodus antiquus right mandibular fragment with m2-m3 from the Clark’s Fork Basin, Wyoming in occlusal (top), lateral (middle), and lingual (bottom) views. Arrow in dorsal view points into remnant of pock- eted coronoid process.

Fig. 49. UM 81561, Parapternodus antiquus left mandibular fragment with p4-m3 from the Clark’s Fork Basin, Wyoming in occlusal (top), lingual (middle), and lateral (bottom) views.

Fig. 50. UCM 59843, Koniaryctes paulus left mandibular fragment with broken m2 from the Powder River Basin, Wyoming in lingual (top) and lateral (bottom) views. Note alveolus for enlarged anterior incisor at left and mental foramen inferior to p4 alveolus.

*Koniaryctes* Robinson and Kron, 1998

**Type and Only Species:** *Koniaryctes paulus* Robinson and Kron, 1998

**Distribution and Diagnosis:** As for *K. paulus*.

*Koniaryctes paulus* Robinson and Kron, 1998

**Type Specimen:** UCM 58291, right dentary fragment with m1-m2.

**Referred Material:** UCM 59843, right dentary fragment with broken m2, preserving talonid (fig. 50).

**Temporal and Geographic Distribution:** Wasatchian (early Eocene) of northeastern Wyoming (Powder River Basin 30).

**Diagnosis:** *Koniaryctes* is slightly larger than *Parapternodus*. As in other zalambdodonts, the talonid is reduced to a crest and has no basin. *K. paulus* lacks buccal cingu-
lids and has an anteroposteriorly short m3. In contrast to *Parapternodus*, there is no evidence of a notch below the paraconid into which the talonid rudiment of the anterior tooth would fit. This is consistent with Robinson and Kron's (1998) observation that the talonid cusp is absent throughout the molar toothrow. A second specimen (UCM 59843) preserves an unbasined m2 talonid which lacks a cusp, and is therefore referable to *Koniaryctes*. The rudiment of an enlarged alveolus for an anterior incisor is evident below the p4 alveoli; this specimen also preserves alveoli for m1, m3, the posterior root of p3, and a mental foramen below p4. The dentary lateral to m3 shows a breakage scar that was probably connected to the base of a robust, anteriorly placed coronoid process (fig. 50).

**Remarks:** The position of the mental foramen below p4 in UCM 59843 supports the identification of the type specimen (UCM 59821) as m1-m2; the dentary of the latter specimen shows no mental foramina. Without this association, the possibility that the type specimen represents p4-m1, and not m1-m2 as stated by Robinson and Kron (1998), would be difficult to reject. The absence of a talonid cusp and paraconid notch support the status of *Koniaryctes paulus* as a real species, distinct from *Parapternodus antiquus*. Moreover, if UCM 59843 is correctly attributed to it, *Koniaryctes* is further distinguishable from *Parapternodus* by virtue of a robust, anteriorly extensive coronoid process. Nevertheless, this sample is even smaller than that of *Parapternodus*, and a definitive evaluation of its validity must await the discovery of better material.

**Family Undetermined**

*Unnamed Paleocene “Silver Coulee apterodontid”*

**Type Specimen:** To be determined by C. B. Wood (manuscript in progress).

**Referred Specimens:** YPM PU16520, endocast with partial edentulous skull; YPM PU16521, edentulous skull missing rostrum, basicranium intact (fig. 51).

**Temporal and Geographic Distribution:** Puercan (early Paleocene) and Tiffanian (late Paleocene) of Park County, northwestern Wyoming (Ft. Union Formation 19).

**Remarks:** YPM PU16521 has laterally expansive, boxlike muscle attachments on its posterior braincase, reminiscent of those in *Apterodontus*. The same is presumably true for YPM PU16520, although we have not been able to observe this specimen directly. Based on the appearance of the posterior braincase in these specimens, Edinger (1964) and Sloan (1969) suggested that *Apterodontus* was present in the Paleocene. Unlike *Apterodontus* and *Oligoryctes*, YPM PU16521 has a true postglenoid process supporting the jaw joint posteriorly (fig. 51). As in many placental mammals (e.g., *Leptictis*; see McDowell, 1958: fig. 25), but not most insectivorans, this process is located lateral to the postglenoid foramen and middle ear. An entoglenoid process is present, but does not support the mandibular condyle posteriorly. YPM PU16521 also shows remnants of an ossified auditory bulla, comprised at least in part by the rostral tympanic process of the petrosal and basisphenoid, and possibly also by an entotympanic.
Fig. 52. Illustration of measurements taken in this study, using ventral view of Crocidura olivieri skull (left), occlusal view of Tabernacle Butte taxon mandible (top right), posterior view of Apternodus gregoryi proximal femur (middle right), and lateral view of Apternodus gregoryi os coxae (bottom right). Measurements are as follows: 1 = M1 length, 2 = M1 width, 3 = palatal width, 4 = palate length, 5 = skull length, 6 = m2 width, 7 = m2 length, 8 = intertrochanteric width, 9 = acetabular width.

“APTERNODONTID” MATERIAL NOT DIRECTLY EXAMINED IN THIS STUDY

The descriptions above account for the vast majority of “apternodontid” fossils currently known. However, there are several specimens we have not examined, including material reported from California (Novacek, 1976a; Walsh, 1996), Saskatchewan (Storer, 1996), Nebraska (Ostrander, 1987), Mongolia (McKenna and Bell, 1997), and China (Tong, 1997). The fossil “shrew” Cretasorex (Nessov and Gureyev, 1981) may also be relevant to the fossil history of one or more of the dentally zalambdodont taxa discussed in these pages, but has not been examined during the course of this study. Nor have we been able to directly examine the Paleocene endocast of an “apternodontid” (YPM PU16520) referred to by Edinger (1964).

We can only comment on the material of Iconapternodus and ?Apterodus sp. described by Tong (1997) based on published figures. Iconapternodus shows a better defined talonid basin than Oligoryctes on at least some of its lower molars, similar in appearance to the small m3 talonid basin in Soledodon. The isolated tooth assigned to ?Ap-
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*All measurements are in millimeters and are displayed graphically in figure 52. See text for institutional abbreviations. Acetab indicates acetabular width and interr indicates intertrochanteric width.

*Palatal width estimated.

*From photo.

*From figure.

*Teeth worn to stubs.
ternodus sp. (Tong, 1997: fig. 11) lacks a talonid basin, and at less than 1 mm in mesiodistal length is close in size to O. altitalonidus and considerably smaller than any North American Apternodus. If this specimen really is Apternodus, it would be among its oldest representatives, possibly older in age than material from Badwater locality 20, Wyoming (Krishtalka and Setoguchi, 1977).

METRIC COMPARISONS

Species Diversity

Anatomical uniqueness, as expressed through combinations of discrete character states, is the prime vehicle used here to identify terminal taxa. Nevertheless, metric comparison of fossil groups to living ones comprises a useful tool in understanding species diversity, assuming that the biological unit of "species" has not changed qualitatively through time. Our null expectation is that morphological diversity in a single fossil species does not greatly exceed that of an ecologically similar living one (Cope, 1991 and references therein). However, this assumption must be tempered by the reality that unlike modern biological populations, fossil assemblages may sample a large span of geologic time. A single fossil locality may contain individuals separated by thousands of generations; such an interval may be accompanied by some level of metric change. Therefore, if metric variation is observed to be greater within a given fossil species than in one that is living, the hypodigm of that species may sample individuals at disparate ends of an evolving lineage (sensu Gingerich, 1976; but see Lillegraven et al., 1981). This is of course in addition to the possibility that multiple species have been conflated within a single taxon, or that males and females of the extinct species are sexually dimorphic (Plavcan, 1991).

Detailed exploration of the links between metric variation and specific integrity has been discussed elsewhere (e.g., Simpson, 1947; Simpson et al., 1960; Kimbel and Martin, 1991) and is beyond the scope of this paper. For the remainder of this section we concern ourselves only with presenting metric data for the species groups defined above and noting where variation occurs.

Measurements were taken using digital calipers to the nearest 0.1 mm and are depicted graphically in figure 52. Measurements of very small taxa (i.e., O. altitalonidus and the Tabernacle Butte taxon) were confirmed using digital photography and public domain NIH Image software (developed at the U.S. National Institutes of Health and available on the Internet at http://rsb.info.nih.gov/nih-image/). Raw measurements and specimen numbers are provided in table 2.

As shown in figures 53 and 54, the distribution of palatal width and approximate m2...
area (respectively) in the fossil taxa are comparable to that observed in living taxa. In fact, the most variable taxon in absolute terms for both characters is the extant *Solenodon paradoxus*. However, when the standard deviations of these characters are expressed as coefficients of variation, some fossil taxa exceed the variability seen in living ones (fig. 55). Specifically, the m2 area coefficient of variation for *A. mediaevus* (21.5), *O. camerensis* (16.6), and *P. antiquus* (16.1) are all greater than those of any living species. The latter two taxa have samples of just five and three specimens, respectively; but *A. mediaevus* is represented by 10 individuals. Its high coefficient of variation is due primarily to the large size of CM 37455 from Canyon Ferry, Montana, included in *A. mediaevus* for anatomical reasons previously enumerated. When this specimen is eliminated from the sample, the m2 area coefficient of variation for *A. mediaevus* falls from 21.5 to 13.4, below that seen in *Solenodon paradoxus* (14.1).

In terms of palatal width, the greatest coefficients of variation are again seen among the fossils (14.9 and 13.4 for *O. altitalonidus* and *A. mediaevus*, respectively). However, these do not greatly exceed the coefficient of variation for palatal width seen in a sample of extant *Setifer setosus* (12.2). They are also based on very small samples (three individ-

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**Fig. 54.** Estimated m2 area (m2 length \(\times\) m2 width) in square millimeters across selected taxa. See figure 20 for taxonomic abbreviations and figure 52 for measurements taken. Dots indicate individual specimens measured. Crosses denote extinct taxa. Diamonds indicate 95% confidence intervals of the mean; nonoverlapping diamonds indicate a significant difference at alpha = 0.05, assuming normality.

**Fig. 55.** Coefficients of variation ((st dev * 100) / mean) for approximate area of lower m2 (diamonds) and palatal width (squares) across examined taxa. See figure 20 for taxonomic abbreviations. Sample sizes used to generate each coefficient of variation are listed in parentheses (m2 area, palatal width) below each taxon.
Table 3

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uals for *O. altitalonidus* and two for *A. medaiaveus*). Small sample sizes tend to underestimate coefficients of variation (Sokal and Braumann, 1980); however, the largest possible estimates of the coefficient of variation come from small samples (Cope, 1991). For this reason, and as recommended by Cope (1991: 233), the correction factor for calculating the coefficient of variation from small samples suggested by Sokal and Rohlf (1995: 58) was not used.

Of perhaps greater interest than the extremes are the several cases in which coefficients of variation of fossil taxa are similar to or smaller than those of modern species (fig. 55). This is the case for the *A. brevirostris* species unquestionably present in this area is *A. brevirostris*, although there are several less diagnostic specimens (e.g., AMNH 74940) that may be referable to other taxa, and the nearby Harshman Quarry has yielded the type of *A. dasophylakas*. Nevertheless, there are seven measurable specimens referable to *A. brevirostris* known from several points in the section described by Emry (1973) and summarized in table 3.

Plots of M1 area and palatal width relative to stratigraphic position (fig. 56) indicate that at the highest levels of their range, specimens are smaller. More precisely, as measured by M1 area and palatal width, the largest and smallest specimens of *A. brevirostris* from Flagstaff Rim have been found at, respectively, the lowest (250 ft.) and highest (410–415 ft.) stratigraphic points in their range. The Pearson correlation coefficient (Sokal and Rohlf, 1995: 559) of M1 area to stratigraphic level is $-0.74$, with a probability of 0.056 (assuming normality) that the correlation is due to chance. The correlation of palatal width to stratigraphic level is $-0.63$, also suggestive but statistically insignificant with a $p$-value of 0.18. In both cases the sample size is small, with seven measurable specimens for M1 area and six for palatal width.

Unfortunately, there is a lack of diagnostic, measurable material in the 265 to 375 ft. interval in the Flagstaff Rim section. Moreover, USNM 437460 (found 265 ft. above the base) is slightly smaller than AMNH 74948 (found 375 ft. above the base), suggesting that size is not inversely correlated with stratigraphic height in the middle part of the section. Hence, at present we limit our conclusions to the observation that the oldest specimens of *A. brevirostris* from Flagstaff

**Stratigraphic Change in *Apternodus brevirostris***

The number of *Apternodus* specimens from the stratigraphically controlled Flagstaff Rim section (Emry, 1973) is small, but permits a brief examination of morphological change through time. The only *Apternodus* species unquestionably present in this area is *A. brevirostris*, although there are several
METHODS
CHARACTER MATRIX

In order to phylogenetically analyze the terminal taxa defined above, it is necessary to have a database of heritable information. In the present study, this database is composed of 264 character states distributed in 118 morphological characters across 30 taxa.

Many papers have been written on how to distill morphological information into formats appropriate for phylogenetic algorithms (e.g., Pogue and Mickevitch, 1990; Platnick et al., 1991; Lipscomb, 1992; Maddison, 1993; Simmons, 1993; Hawkins et al., 1997; Lee and Bryant, 1999; Strong and Lipscomb, 1999). As outlined by Asher (2000, 2001), we attempt to maximize the testability of primary hypotheses of homology by favoring binary characters (Pleijel, 1995), but recognize that multistate characters are better suited to deal with issues of redundancy (Strong and Lipscomb, 1999) and counterintuitive optimizations at ancestral nodes (Platnick et al., 1991). We further recognize that no single method is capable of escaping both of these pitfalls consistently (Strong and Lipscomb, 1999).

Following Lipscomb (1992), hypotheses of character order should be tested in a similar manner as hypotheses of character homology. That is, initial or “primary” hypotheses of order within a multistate character, as for primary homology across different characters, should be tested iteratively by the distribution of other such hypotheses. Those hypotheses of order that are optimized consistently on parsimonious cladograms, i.e., that show transformations only between adjacent states or (to use the terminology of Lipscomb, 1992) lack “hierarchical discordance”, are considered to be robust and are retained for use in further analyses. Hypotheses of order that are not optimized consistently, i.e., that show multiple state changes within a single branch, are discarded. Multistate characters that comprise a morphcline based on the criterion of similarity (Pogue and Mickevitch, 1990; Lipscomb, 1992), upon which primary hypotheses of order are postulated, are so designated in the descriptions below.

In addition to new observations of morphological variability, the characters described below derive from the work of many other authors, including Novacek (1986: 82–89), MacPhee et al. (1988: 25–27), Frost et al. (1991: 3–15), and MacPhee (1994: 163–179). References to these papers are given below using the acronyms N86, M88, F91, and M94, respectively, preceding the character number used in that study. Citations of
other authors are also given where appropriate. Many of these characters were used by Asher (1999, 2000) and have been updated for the present data set.

For characters pertaining to tooth-position homology, we use dental formulae given by Starck (1995), supplemented by more detailed studies (e.g., Kindahl, 1959a, 1959b) where available. Due in part to their lack of functional deciduous teeth, dental homologies in soricids are unclear (Dannelid, 1998). Based on growth series of Crocidura, Neomys, and Sorex, Årnback-Christie-Linde (1912) suggested that the anterior lower incisor in shrews was i4, and that the canine, p2, and p3 were missing in the adult dentition. This formula has not generally been followed by subsequent authors. More recently, Kindahl (1959a) argued that the dental formula for Suncus is 3.1.3.3/2.0.1.3 and that of Sorex 3.1.3.3/2.0.1.3, with the same upper (I1-I3) and anterior lower (i1) incisors as those of other placental mammals. The histological criteria upon which she based her conclusions are consistent with those of Luckett (1993), although there is some question about the identity of I3 and P2, which may actually be homologous with dI3 and dP2 in other eutherians (W. P. Luckett, personal commun.).

Resolution of soricid dental homologies is beyond the scope of this paper. For the present, we note that recent authors (e.g., Kindahl, 1959a; Shigehara, 1980) support the presence of I1-I3, C, and P4-M3 in the upper dentition, and i1 and p4-m3 in the lower. We follow these authors in using an upper dental formula of 3.1.4.3 in Blarina and 3.1.1.3 in Crocidura, and in assuming the homology of i1 and p4-m3 of shrews with those of other taxa examined in this study. Hence, characters pertaining to tooth positions between (but not including) p4 and i1 are coded as missing in shrews (i.e., nos. 75, 78–81). In the case of the fossil soricid Domnina, which has six upper and five lower teeth anterior to M1/m1, we assume only the homology of P3-M3/p4-m3 and I1/i1, and leave several characters pertaining to anterior premolars, canines, and posterior incisors (i.e., nos. 51, 52, 54, 55, 57, 58, 75), as well as character no. 49 (presence of functional deciduous teeth) as “missing” in Domnina. In certain cases, we have semantically avoided the problem of homology by not specifying tooth position in a given character. For example, we use presence/absence of “antemolar diastema” (character no. 56) to represent the fact that regardless of tooth number, shrews (and certain other taxa) have a tightly packed row of upper teeth between P4 and I1, in contrast to the more widely spaced antemolars seen in Didelphis, Echinosorex, and other taxa.

For more general dental terminology, we follow Patterson (1956), Van Valen (1966), and Szalay (1969), as discussed in the previous section on zalambdodonty. For cranial terminology, we follow McDowell (1958), MacPhee (1981, 1994), and Novacek (1986); for postcranial terminology, we follow MacPhee (1994). Wible et al. (2001) and Asher (2001) summarize variation in the use of cranial anatomical terms.

The following characters are numbered consecutively and correspond to the matrix presented in table 4. A one-line summary of these characters is presented in table 5. This data set is available in NEXUS and NONA formats on the internet at ftp.amnh.org/pub/people/asher. Polarity is determined a posteriori by rooting phylogenetic trees (Farris, 1982; Nixon and Carpenter, 1993). Hence, a “0” character state in the following descriptions has no necessary association with primitiveness.

### Tympanic Region

1. Tympanic process of basisphenoid (N86: no. 49; M88: no. 3). The basisphenoid is typically flat medial and anterior to the middle ear (e.g., Apterodus, state 0; fig. 11D). Alternatively, it may contribute to the anterior wall of the ossified auditory bulla (e.g., Microgale, state 1).

2. Piriform fenestra (M88: no. 9). This character is present when the petrosal, alisphenoid, and/or squamosal fail to ossify anterior to the promontory in the roof of the middle ear in an adult (e.g., A. baladontus, state 1; see fig. 11D). Other taxa have a solid tympanic roof anterior to the middle ear promontory (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0), or have an anteriorly extensive fenestra, extending forward to the entoglenoid process (e.g.,...
TABLE 4
Character-Taxon Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character number:</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>21</th>
<th>31</th>
<th>41</th>
<th>51</th>
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<tr>
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<td>00-1000000 0000-00000 110-112031 1010000000 0010000001 2100001000</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. mediaeus</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>A. gregoryi</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>A. major</td>
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<tr>
<td>Taber. Butte</td>
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<td>Silvercoulon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pararyctes</td>
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<td>Eoryctes</td>
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<td>Centetodon</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Echinonotus</td>
<td>010-0010100 0011000001 120-011010 1000110001 0110010000 0100101000</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erinaceus</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microgale</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>S. paradoxus</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. cubanus</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crocidura</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blarina</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Domina</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Elephantulus</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macroscopeles</td>
<td>10-1121111 1010-00110 0-0-0-000011 1000100100 0100021001 1000120210</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Crocidura_, state 2; see fig. 52). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphocline.

3. Anterior carotid foramen. In those taxa that possess a piriform fenestra, the internal carotid may enter the cranial cavity via a distinct anterior carotid foramen located medial to the piriform fenestra (e.g., _A. baladontus_; state 0; see fig. 11D). Alternatively, a distinct foramen may be absent and the artery may enter the braincase via the piriform fenestra (e.g., _Crocédura_, state 1; see fig. 52).

4. Vidian foramen. Whether or not the tympanic roof shows a distinct anterior carotid foramen for the internal carotid artery, it may be perforated anteromedially by a small vidian branch of the internal carotid (e.g., _A. baladontus_, state 0; see fig. 11D).

_Setifer_, on the other hand, lacks distinct vidian foramina (state 1).

5. Caudal tympanic process of the petrosal (N86: no. 55; M88: no. 2). This outgrowth from the posterior part of the petrosal may be absent or cover only the fenestra cochleae ventrally (e.g., _A. baladontus_; state 0; see fig. 11D), or it may be larger and shield the fenestra cochleae and the entrance of the internal carotid artery as it enters the middle ear, contributing to the posterior wall of the ossified auditory bulla (e.g., _Crocédura_, state 1; see fig. 52).

6. Rostral tympanic process of petrosal (M88: no. 1). A prominent ridge may extend along the medial aspect of the petrosal, adjacent to the petrosal-basisphenoid suture (e.g., _O. cameronensis_, state 0; see fig. 40).
In other taxa, the basicranium on either side of the petrosal-basisphenoid suture is flat (e.g., *Setifer*, state 1). In elephant shrews and palaeoryctids, the medial wall of the auditory bulla is composed of an expanded rostral process of the petrosal (state 2). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphocline.

7. Petrosal auditory tubes. Proximal branches of the stapedial and internal carotid arteries typically traverse the middle ear without passing through elongate, ossified canals of the petrosal (e.g., *Solenodon*, state 0). In elephant shrews, one or more of these arteries is enclosed within a bony tube (state 1).

8. Tubal canal (M88: no. 4). In most examined taxa, the auditory tube exits the anterior part of the middle ear through a sulcus defined by the alisphenoid dorsally and basisphenoid mediadly (e.g., *Microgale*, state 0). Other taxa have a foramen completely enclosed by the alisphenoid dorsally and basisphenoid ventrally, through which passes the auditory tube (e.g., *Echinosorex*, state 1).

9. Ectotympanic expansion. Most taxa possess a simple, ring-shaped ectotympanic (e.g., *Microgale*, state 0). In others, this element is mediolaterally expanded so as to contribute significantly to at least the lateral part of the bony auditory bulla (e.g., *Elephantulus*, state 1).
## TABLE 5
Summary of Characters and States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characters</th>
<th>Character states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 tympanic process basisphenoid</td>
<td>0 reduced 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 piriform fenestra</td>
<td>0 absent 1 anterior petrosal 2 jawjoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 anterior carotid foramen</td>
<td>0 separate 1 piriform fenestra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 vidian foramen</td>
<td>0 ant medial basisphenoid 1 absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 caudal tympanic process petrosal</td>
<td>0 reduced 1 shields posterior bulla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 rostral tympanic process petrosal</td>
<td>0 flat 1 medial ridge 2 medial wall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 petrosal arterial tubes</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 tubal canal</td>
<td>0 not closed by sphenoid 1 closed by sphenoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 ectotympanic</td>
<td>0 simple 1 expanded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 entotympanic</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 EAM (external auditory meatus) angle</td>
<td>0 $&gt; 90$ 1 $&lt; 90$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 EAM torus</td>
<td>0 flat 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 alisphenoid foramen for inferior stapedial ramus</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 alisphenoid canal presence</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 alisphenoid canal position</td>
<td>0 lateral sphenorb fissure 1 continuous sphenorb fissure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 basisphenoid pit</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 foramen ovale size</td>
<td>0 similar jugular foramen 1 larger jugular foramen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 suboptic foramen</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 inferior petromastoid</td>
<td>0 near glenoid 1 below glenoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 petromastoid position</td>
<td>0 exposed posteriorly 1 exposed laterally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 post EAM tuber presence</td>
<td>0 reduced 1 prominent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 post EAM tuber composition</td>
<td>0 squamosal 1 squamosal-petromastoid 2 petromastoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 postlateral braincase</td>
<td>0 gracile 1 lambdoid plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 anterior lambdoid plate</td>
<td>0 straight 1 lateral flare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 squamosal tubercle jaw distance</td>
<td>0 short 1 intermediate 2 elongate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 sagittal crest</td>
<td>0 reduced 1 large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 optic foramen-size</td>
<td>0 caliber as trigeminal exit foramina 1 smaller 2 absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 ethmoid foramina</td>
<td>0 separate sphenorb fissure 1 within sphenorb fissure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 sinus canal opening</td>
<td>0 confluent sphenorb fissure 1 in between sphenorb fissure and ethmoid foramen 2 confluent ethmoid foramen 3 absent</td>
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<tr>
<td>30 posterior sinus canal foramen</td>
<td>0 present 1 absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 anterior sinus canal foramen</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>32 entoglenoid process</td>
<td>0 no jaw support 1 jaw support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 entoglenoid shape</td>
<td>0 solid 1 posteriorly concave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34 lacrimal foramen opening</td>
<td>0 open posterior 1 open lateral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 lacrimal foramen size</td>
<td>0 similar sphenopalatine foramen 1 larger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 posterior lacrimal border</td>
<td>0 separate orbit 1 flush orbit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37 orbital wing maxilla</td>
<td>0 reduced 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38 zygomatic arch</td>
<td>0 complete 1 incomplete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39 ventral ectopterygoid</td>
<td>0 narrow 1 flat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 dual ectopterygoid</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 maxilla on pterygoid</td>
<td>0 no 1 yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42 postpalatine spine</td>
<td>0 reduced 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43 origin maxillary zygoma</td>
<td>0 M1 1 M2 2 M3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44 size maxillary zygoma</td>
<td>0 posterolateral projection 1 reduced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 maxilla at M1-3</td>
<td>0 straight 1 convex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characters</td>
<td>Character states</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>46 length of infraorbital canal</td>
<td>0 2 x 1 1 x 2 &lt; anterior infraorbital foramen</td>
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<tr>
<td>47 anterior infraorbital canal</td>
<td>0 flat 1 anteriorly concave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48 posterior nasal foramina</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49 calcified deciduous teeth</td>
<td>0 present 1 absent</td>
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<tr>
<td>50 upper anterior dentition</td>
<td>0 anterior incisor large 1 incisors similar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 upper incisors</td>
<td>0 two 1 three 2 five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52 upper antemolars (excluding incisors)</td>
<td>0 five antemolars 1 four am 2 two am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 posterior incisor crowns</td>
<td>0 trenchant 1 bulbous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 canine crown</td>
<td>0 premolariform 1 bulbous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 upper C roots</td>
<td>0 one 1 two 2 three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 antemolar diast</td>
<td>0 present 1 absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57 antemol(P2) roots</td>
<td>0 one 1 two 2 three 3 four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58 P2 length</td>
<td>0 similar molariform 1 smaller molariform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59 molariform P3</td>
<td>0 no 1 yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 P3 length</td>
<td>0 = P4 1 longer than P4</td>
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<td>61 P4 parastyle</td>
<td>0 weak 1 prominent</td>
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<tr>
<td>62 metacone</td>
<td>0 present 1 connate w paracone 2 absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63 protocone</td>
<td>0 present 1 reduced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64 hypocone</td>
<td>0 present 1 reduced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 M1·3 size</td>
<td>0 larger than antemolar 1 &lt;= antemolar</td>
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<td>66 M1·2 anterior cingulum</td>
<td>0 deep 1 narrow-red</td>
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<td>67 M1 parastyle</td>
<td>0 flush 1 anterior projection</td>
</tr>
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<td>68 M2 centrobuccal cleft</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
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<td>69 upper M3 presence</td>
<td>0 present 1 absent</td>
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<td>70 upper M3 width</td>
<td>0 &gt; 70% M2 1 reduced</td>
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<tr>
<td>71 upper M3-stylar shelf</td>
<td>0 short 1 long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72 lower antemolars</td>
<td>0 8 antemolars 1 7 am 2 6 am 3 5 am 4 3 am</td>
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<tr>
<td>73 incisor cusps</td>
<td>0 single 1 dual 2 triple</td>
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<td>74 lower anterior tooth</td>
<td>0 enlarged 1 gracile</td>
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<td>75 second lower anterior incisor</td>
<td>0 reduced 1 gracile 2 enlarged</td>
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<td>76 incisors curved medially</td>
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<td>77 incisor-canine crown orientation</td>
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<td>80 antemolar (p3) posterior cusp</td>
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</tr>
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<td>81 antemolar (p3) cinguid</td>
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<tr>
<td>82 molariform p4</td>
<td>0 no meta 1 yes</td>
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<td>83 presence of talonids</td>
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<tr>
<td>84 m2-3 trigonid size</td>
<td>0 m2 = m3 1 m2 &gt; m3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85 m2 cingulid</td>
<td>0 doesn’t reach base 1 reaches base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86 hypoflexid basin</td>
<td>0 closed 1 open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87 m2 paraconid notch</td>
<td>0 present 1 absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88 m3 talonid cusp</td>
<td>0 absent 1 shorter paraconid 2 taller paraconid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89 m3 length</td>
<td>0 m3 long 1 as m1·2 2 m3 short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 m3 paraconid</td>
<td>0 distinct cusp 1 crestiform</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. Entotympanic (N86: no. 49; M88: no. 7). Many mammals lack an independently ossified entotympanic contribution to the auditory bulla (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0; see MacPhee, 1981). Other taxa (e.g., Macroscelides, state 1) possess one or more ossified entotympanic elements that comprise some or all of the tympanic floor (MacPhee, 1979).

11. Ventral curvature of external auditory meatus. The type specimen of A. gregoryi (MCZ 17685) shows an acute, ventrally concave angle to its external auditory meatus (state 0; see fig. 32). In most other taxa, the exterior margin of the external auditory meatus does not form a torus and is flush with the rest of the posterior skull (e.g., A. iliffensis, state 0; see fig. 27).

12. Lateral torus of external auditory meatus. In A. major, the ventral margin of the external auditory meatus bulges laterally, forming a ridge continuous with the lateral margin of the entoglenoid process (state 1; see fig. 32). In other taxa, the exterior margin of the external auditory meatus does not form a torus and is flush with the rest of the posterior skull (e.g., A. iliffensis, state 0; see fig. 27).

13. Inferior stapedial foramen (M88: no. 4). As the inferior stapedial arterial ramus leaves the middle ear in tenrecs such as Microgale, it passes through a bony foramen within the alisphenoid contribution to the anterior wall of the middle ear (state 1; see Asher, 2001). O. cameronensis shows a similarly positioned foramen in its alisphenoid, just posterior to foramen ovale (fig. 40), dorsal to and distinct from the exit point of the

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### TABLE 5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characters</th>
<th>Character states</th>
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<tr>
<td>91 angular process</td>
<td>0 broad 1 narrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92 mental foramina</td>
<td>0 p2 1 p3 2 p4 3 m1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93 mandibular condyle length</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>94 mandibular condyle number</td>
<td>0 single 1 dual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95 coronoid shape</td>
<td>0 straight 1 bowed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96 root coronoid process</td>
<td>0 posterior m3 1 overlaps m3</td>
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<tr>
<td>97 internal coronoid fossa</td>
<td>0 flush 1 deep 2 pocketed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98 alveolar ridge</td>
<td>0 weak 1 connects condyle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99 ventral crest on C2</td>
<td>0 present 1 absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 verts in sacro-iliac art</td>
<td>0 sl alone 1 sl-2 2 sl-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 sacral neural spines</td>
<td>0 weak or not fused 1 fused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102 metacromion-shape</td>
<td>0 blunt 1 elongate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103 acromion-shape</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>104 deltoid ridge</td>
<td>0 flat-convex 1 concave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105 medial epicondyle</td>
<td>0 absent 1 present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106 olecranon fenestra</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>107 distal ulna</td>
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</tr>
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<td>108 ulnocarpal articulation</td>
<td>0 broad 1 styloid only</td>
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<td>109 iliopitceal tubercle</td>
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<td>0 extensive 1 reduced</td>
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<td>112 angle of pubic ramus</td>
<td>0 &gt; 15° angle 1 parallel</td>
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<tr>
<td>113 femoral head shape</td>
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<td>114 obturator ridge</td>
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<td>115 femoral head greater trochanter</td>
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<td>117 calcaneal tubercle</td>
<td>0 blunt 1 elongate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118 cranial size</td>
<td>0 cameron 1 gregoryi 2 major 3 solenodon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See text for full descriptions.
auditory tube. Other taxa show no distinct arterial foramina dorsal to the tubal canal in the alisphenoid (e.g., Solenodon, state 0).

Basicranium and Braincase

14. Alisphenoid canal, presence (N86: no. 34). In A. baladontus the alisphenoid canal consists of a foramen in the alisphenoid, just anterior and medial to foramen ovale, that leads into the cavum epipetricum, just posterior to its opening into the orbitotemporal region (state 1; see fig. 11). In O. cameronensis, the alisphenoid anterior to foramen ovale is solid, lacking a conduit into the cavum epipetricum (state 0; see fig. 40).

15. Alisphenoid canal, position: When present, the alisphenoid canal may have an anterior opening lateral to the sphenorbital fissure, as in Echinosorex (state 0; see Cartmill and MacPhee, 1980: fig. 2); or it may be “elongate” and anteriorly continuous with the exit foramen(ina) of the ophthalmic and/or maxillary trigeminal divisions (state 1, as in A. baladontus described above; see also Butler, 1988: 119).

16. Basisphenoid pit (F91: no. 30). At the dorsal and posterior margin of the nasopharynx, medial and slightly anterior to the middle ear, a marked concavity (when viewed ventrally) may occur in the basisphenoid (e.g., Erinaceus, state 1). Alternatively, most taxa examined here possess a flat basisphenoid continuous with the basioccipital (e.g., Oligoryctes, state 0; see fig. 40).

17. Size of foramen ovale. Oligoryctes shows an unusually large foramen ovale that is comparable in size to the entire sphenorbital fissure (state 1; see figs. 40, 45). Other taxa (e.g., A. baladontus; see fig. 11) show a foramen ovale that is smaller than the other exit points of the trigeminal nerve (state 0).

18. Suboptic foramen (Butler, 1956: 473). In Elephantulus, an opening is evident ventrally to the optic foramina that passes transversely through the body of the sphenoid, ventral to the sella turcica, and connects the sphenorbital fissures on each side of the skull (state 1). In most other taxa this communication between the opposite orbitotemporal regions is not apparent in the anterior aspect of the sphenorbital fissure (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0).

19. External position of petromastoid (N86: no. 60). The petromastoid is the dorsal part of the petrosal and houses part of the inner ear. It may be best exposed on the posterior aspect of the skull, posterior to the nuchal crest (e.g., Didelphis, state 0), or it may be anterior to nuchal muscle scars and appear broadest when viewed laterally (e.g., Oligoryctes, state 1; fig. 40).

20. Ventral petromastoid. Some Apterodus species show a steeply descending process of the petromastoid that extends well ventral to the glenoid fossa and defines the external auditory meatus posteriorly (e.g., A. major, state 1; see fig. 32). In other taxa (e.g., A. baladontus; see fig. 11) the ventral margin of the petromastoid is close to the level of the jaw joint (state 0).

21. Presence of mastoid tubercle. Setifer shows a ventrally projecting process on the basicranium posterior to the external auditory meatus and anterior to the paroccipital process and/or occipital condyles (state 1). Other taxa (e.g., Oligoryctes; see fig. 40) show a rounded, gracile basicranium postero-laterally (state 0).

22. Composition of mastoid tubercle (N86: nos. 46, 58). When present, the mastoid tubercle may be composed primarily of the petromastoid (e.g., Erinaceus, state 2), the squamosal (e.g., Setifer, state 0), or have equal contributions from both elements (state 1). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

23. Posterolateral braincase. The skull of Apterodus is perhaps most remarkable for its expanded, boxlike lambdoid processes composed of the squamosal anteriorly, the petromastoid medially, and the occipital posteriorly (state 1; see figs. 6, 7, 11, 15). Most other mammals show a gracile posterolateral braincase, with curved elements that are continuous with the temporal and occipital regions of the skull (e.g., Oligoryctes, state 0; see fig. 40).

24. Anterior lambdoid plate. Among most Apterodus species (e.g., A. gregoryi), the lambdoid plates are roughly parallel to the sagittal crest and connect with a squamosal root of the zygoma that does not extend far lateral to the jaw joint (state 0; see fig. 22). A. major, in contrast, shows a wide lateral flare in the anterior part of the lambdoid
plate, continuous with a squamosal zygoma that is well lateral to the entoglenoid process (state 1; fig. 32). In the current data set, this character is an autapomorphy for *A. major* and does not influence relationships among the taxa discussed below. We retain it in this character list to maximize the information content for species of *Apternodus*.

25. Squamosal length on basicranium. Soricids possess a mastoid “tubercle” that is an anteroposteriorly elongate extension of the squamosal on the ventrolateral margin of the basicranium (e.g., *Crocidura*, state 2; see fig. 52). This process extends from the jaw joint to the posterior margin of the middle ear and is much longer than the transverse width of the mandibular condyle. In other taxa, the posterior extent of the squamosal on the posterolateral braincase is similar in length to the transverse width of the mandibular condyle (e.g., *Oligoryctes*; state 1; see fig. 40), or shorter (e.g., *Erinaceus*, state 0). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

26. Sagittal crest. *Apternodus* shows a pronounced, anteroposterior crest along the midline of the dorsal braincase, dividing the skull into mediolateral halves, continuous with the nuchal crest, and forking anteriorly into smaller crests posterior to the nasal bone (state 1; see fig. 15). In other taxa (e.g., *Oligoryctes*), the dorsum of the braincase is flat (state 0; fig. 40).

Orbitotemporal Region

27. Optic foramen (N86: no. 30; MacPhee 1994: 164). Several mammals possess an optic foramen that is similar in size to foramina associated with the first two divisions of the trigeminal nerve (e.g., *Elephantulus*, state 0). Most insectivorans have an optic foramen of very small caliber, a fraction of the size of trigeminal exit foramina (e.g., *Oligoryctes*, state 1; see fig. 40). *Didelphis* lacks a distinct canal for the optic nerve (state 2). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

28. Ethmoid foramen. In *Oligoryctes*, one or more foramina within the anterior cranial fossa open bilaterally into the orbitotemporal fossa well anterior to the sphenorbital fissure (state 0; fig. 40). *Apternodus* shows an ethmoidal foramen that opens within the dorsum of the sphenorbital fissure (state 1). Ethmoidal foramina provide passage for an artery (called the ethmoidal by Gregory, 1910, and McDowell, 1958) typically continuous with the superior stapedial ramus supplying the posterior nasal region, eye, and anterior meninges (Asher, 2001).

29. Sinus canal foramen (N86: no. 38). When present, the sinus canal may open into the orbitotemporal region via a foramen confluent with the sphenorbital fissure (e.g., *Apternodus*, state 0; fig. 11), or with ethmoidal foramina (e.g., *Solenodon paradoxus*, state 2). The sinus canal may also enter the orbitotemporal region via a distinct foramen anterior to the sphenorbital fissure and posterior to the ethmoidal foramen (e.g., *Oligoryctes*, state 1; fig. 40). *Didelphis* lacks a sinus canal (state 3).

30. Posterior accessory sinus canal foramen. In most taxa, a foramen pierces the posterolateral braincase near the parietal-squamosal suture and communicates with the superior petrosal sinus and sinus canal (e.g., *Apternodus*, state 1; fig. 15). *Elephantulus* shows a solid squamosal and parietal in this region (state 0).

31. Anterior accessory sinus canal foramen. *Oligoryctes*, *Apternodus*, and shrews possess a foramen superior to the jaw joint, near the squamosal-parietal boundary, that opens into the sinus canal proximal to its anterior exit foramen into the orbitotemporal region (state 0; fig. 40). Other taxa possess a solid squamosal superior to the jaw joint (e.g., *Erinaceus*, state 1).

32. Entoglenoid jaw support (McDowell, 1958: 143–144). The flange of cranial bone supporting the mandibular condyle posteriorly may consist of the postglenoid process, located anterior to the postglenoid foramen and anterolateral to the petrosal bone (e.g., *Didelphis*, state 0). Alternatively, the postglenoid process may be reduced and the posterior glenoid fossa buttressed by the entoglenoid process, located medial to the postglenoid foramen and anterior to the petrosal (e.g., *Apternodus*, state 1; figs. 11D, 15).

33. Entoglenoid shape. *Apternodus* shows an entoglenoid process that is posteriorly concave, comprising the anterior wall of a recess in the anterior tympanic cavity, ventral
to the braincase (state 1; figs. 11D, 15). Other taxa (e.g., Crocidura; fig. 52) have a posteriorly flat entoglenoid process (state 0).

34. Lacrimal foramen, position (N86: no. 23). Many taxa possess a lacrimal foramen that opens along the posterior margin of the bridge of bone that forms the infraorbital canal and is directed posteriorly into the orbit, hidden from lateral view (e.g., Didelphis, state 0). In other taxa, this foramen opens in a lateral direction and is clearly visible in lateral view (e.g., Apternodus, state 1; fig. 15).

35. Lacrimal foramen, size. Most taxa show a lacrimal foramen that is smaller in size than the sphenopalatine foramen (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0); in other taxa it is larger (e.g., Apternodus, state 1; fig. 15).

36. Posterior border of lacrimal foramen. The posterior border of the lacrimal foramen is typically demarcated by a ridge of bone, separating it from the orbit (e.g., A. brevirostris, state 0; fig. 15). In contrast, A. gregoryi and A. major have a lacrimal foramen that is located farther from the infraorbital canal, making the posterior margin of the foramen flush with the orbit (state 1; figs. 22, 32).

37. Orbital wing of the maxilla (N86: no. 14). Most insectivorans are remarkable among mammals in possessing a broad process of the maxilla that extends dorsocaudally into the medial orbital wall, reducing the contribution of the palatine to the orbital mosaic (e.g., A. baladontus, state 1; fig. 13). In contrast, other mammals possess a maxilla restricted to the anteroventral margin of the zygoma, making the posterior margin of the maxilla flush with the orbit (state 1; McDowell, 1958: 184).

40. Dual ectopterygoid (N86: no. 36). Most taxa possess a single pair of laminae made up primarily of the sphenoid and palatine bones which laterally border the nasal choana (e.g., Apternodus, state 0; fig. 11). Other taxa possess prominent ectopterygoid processes of the alisphenoid that contribute to a pair of laminae on each side of the choana, creating a large fossa for attachment of pterygoid musculature (e.g., Erinaceus, state 1).

41. Maxillary process on pterygoid. The maxilla posterior to the upper toothrow is not extensive in most taxa (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0). Tenrecs, on the other hand, show a process of the maxilla that extends well posterior to the upper toothrow along the ventral margin of each ectopterygoid lamina (state 1; McDowell, 1958: 184).

42. Postpalatine spine (N86: no. 18). The posterior margin of the palate may be smooth or have only a minor tubercle at its midpoint (e.g., Apternodus, state 0; fig. 7), or it may possess a large process extending caudally or caudo-dorsally at its midpoint (e.g., Erinaceus, state 1).

43. Origin of maxillary zygoma. Some taxa possess a maxillary root of the occasionally incomplete zygomatic arch that is relatively rostral, originating at or near the last upper premolar or the M1 (e.g., O. cameronensis, state 0; figs. 40, 41). It may also originate adjacent to M2 (e.g., O. alitalomus, state 1; figs. 45, 46) or M3 (e.g., Microgale, state 2). In taxa possessing a broad maxillary zygoma (e.g., Didelphis), the anteriormost part of the zygoma was used to code this character. These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphocline.

44. Size of maxillary zygoma. Soricids possess a highly reduced rudiment of the maxillary root of the zygoma, barely extending lateral to the upper dentition (e.g., Crocidura, state 1; fig. 52). Other taxa possess a larger maxillary zygoma that extends posterolaterally (e.g., Solenodon, state 0).

45. Shape of maxilla supporting cheek
teeth. The bone into which the roots of the upper molar toothrow insert may be convex ventrally, such that the crown of M2 may be situated ventral to that of M1 (e.g., Apternodus, state 1; fig. 15). Alternatively, the maxilla may be straight in the area supporting the upper cheek teeth (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0).

46. Length of infraorbital canal (N86: no. 10, F91: no. 6). The infraorbital canal (transmitting the infraorbital vessels and nerve and passing dorsal to posterior cheek teeth) may be more than twice as long as its anterior exit foramen is high (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0), of similar size (e.g., Echinosorex, state 1), or shorter, composed of a simple bar of bone connecting the alveolar and facial components of the maxilla (e.g., Elephantulus, state 2). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphocline.

47. Infraorbital flange. As the infraorbital canal opens on the side of the rostrum, its lateral border is typically posterior to its medial border (e.g., Setifer, state 0). A. major, in contrast, shows an anteriorly extensive lateral edge of the infraorbital canal, such that the anterior opening of the canal is concave, and its anterolateral edge reaches a point even with or anterior to its anteromedial edge (state 1; fig. 32).

48. Posterior nasal foramina. Blarina shows foramina opening onto the rostrum from the anterior margin of the olfactory fossa, dorsal to the cribriform plate (state 1). In other taxa (e.g., Apternodus; fig. 11) the frontal and nasal bones are solid in this region (state 0).

Upper Dentition

49. Deciduous teeth. Most mammals possess functional, fully calcified deciduous teeth, with a permanent dentition that erupts postnally (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0). In soricids, deciduous teeth do not completely calcify or erupt; and the adult set is present from birth (Kindahl, 1959a; state 1).

50. Size of anterior upper incisor. In some taxa, the anteriormost upper incisor is longer and more robust than other anterior teeth (e.g., Solenodon, state 0); in other taxa, the upper incisors are similar in size (e.g., Didelphis, state 1).

51. Upper incisors. In therians, the number of teeth on each half of the premaxilla ranges from five (e.g., Didelphis, state 2) to two (e.g., Setifer, state 0), with intermediate states numbered accordingly. No taxon in this data set exhibits four teeth in each half of its premaxilla; therefore, this character state is omitted. These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphocline.

52. Upper antemolars, excluding incisors. The number of upper premolars and canines in each dental quadrant varies in the taxa examined from five (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0) to two (Crocidura, state 2), with intermediate states numbered accordingly. No taxon in this data set has three teeth between its incisor and molar toothrows; therefore, this character state is omitted. These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphocline.

53. Posterior incisor crowns. The last upper incisor is typically premolariform and mediolaterally compressed in appearance (e.g., Microgale, state 0). In contrast, A. mediaevus and A. baladontus show an enlarged I2, with similar buccolingual and anteroposterior dimensions of the base of the tooth (state 1; figs. 6, 13).

54. Upper canine crowns. As for the posteriormost upper incisor, the upper canine is typically premolariform and mediolaterally compressed (e.g., A. brevirostris, state 0; fig. 15). In contrast, Solenodon cubanus and species of Apternodus from Montana show squat, bulbous canines with oval or circular dimensions when viewed occlusally (state 1; figs. 6, 10, 11, 13).

55. Upper canine roots. In most taxa, the upper canine is double rooted (e.g., Setifer, state 1). Alternatively, it may show one (Didelphis, state 0) or three (A. baladontus, state 2; fig. 11) roots. These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphocline.

56. Upper antemolar diastemata. Some taxa show prominent interdental gaps between the upper incisors and P4 (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0). In others, the dentition between the posterior upper incisor and P4 is closely packed and lacks prominent diastema (e.g., A. brevirostris, state 1; fig. 15).

57. Anterior premolar roots. Echinosorex possesses a single-rooted P2 (state 0); Microgale has two roots (state 1); elephant shrews
have three (state 2); and the P2 of some A. baladontus specimens has four (state 3). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

58. Anterior premolar length. Oligoryctes and some species of Apternodus share a diminutive P2, similar in anteroposterior length to a single root of a molariform, more posterior premolar (state 1; figs. 15, 41). In other taxa, P2 is similar in length to P3 and/or P4 (e.g., A. baladontus, state 0; figs. 11, 13).

59. Molariform P3. P3 may be three-rooted with a lingually projecting protocone, similar in size to more posterior cheek teeth (e.g., Setifer, state 1), or smaller and close in morphology to anterior premolars (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0).

60. P3 length. The buccal margin of P3 may be longer (e.g., O. cameronensis, state 1; fig. 41) or of similar size or shorter (e.g., A. baladontus, state 0; fig. 13) than that of P4.

61. P4 parastyle. The mesiobuccal cusp (parastyle) of P4 in A. gregoryi and A. major projects anteriorly at a sharp angle from the anterior margin of the tooth (state 1; fig. 32), in contrast to the more anteriorly flat appearance of other taxa (e.g., A. mediaevus, state 0; fig. 7). Following Luckett (1993, and references therein), we code Didelphis as lacking a P4.

62. Metacone. Some taxa possess a prominent metacone on the posterobuccal aspect of M1 and M2 (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0). Eoryctes possesses a metacone that is closely situated to the paracone (state 1). Other taxa have a reduced or absent metacone (e.g., Apternodus, state 2; fig. 15). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

63. Protocone. In some taxa, the mesiolingual cusp of the upper cheek teeth is restricted to the cingulum and is smaller than the parastylar cusp, if present at all (e.g., A. iliffensis, state 1; fig. 26). In other mammals, the protocone is at least as large as the anterior stylar cusp of the upper molars (e.g., O. altitalonidus, state 0; fig. 46).

64. Hypocone. Some taxa possess a prominent hypocone on the posterolingual aspect of M1 and M2 (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0). In other taxa, this cusp is reduced or absent (e.g., Apternodus, state 1; fig. 26).

65. Relative M1-M3 size. In most taxa, the cheek teeth comprise a larger occlusal area than the canine and anterior premolars (e.g., A. brevirostris, state 0; fig. 15); in others (e.g., A. baladontus; fig. 11), the molar occlusal area is less than that of C to P2 (state 1).

66. M1-M2 anterior cingulum. The upper M1-M2 of the Tabernacle Butte taxon shows a very deep, troughlike cingulum. The upper M1-M2 of the Tabernacle Butte taxon shows a very deep, troughlike cingulum which connects the parastylar region to the protocone (state 0). In other taxa (e.g., Solenodon), the mesial cingulum is weakly developed and shallow, forming a weak prominence along the anterior margin of the tooth. In the current data set, this character is an autapomorphy for the Tabernacle Butte taxon. Nevertheless, as stated previously for character no. 24 in A. major, we retain it to maximize information content for novel taxa discussed in this paper.

67. Parastyle on M1. On the mesiobuccal margin of M1, Apternodus (e.g., fig. 26) displays a large, anteriorly projecting parastyle (state 1). Other taxa show a flat mesial border to M1 with no anterior projections (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0).

68. Centrobuccal cleft on upper molars. The buccal margin of the upper molars (particularly M2) may be mesiodistally flat (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0). Alternatively, a cleft extending lingually may separate the mesial and distal stylar regions, giving the buccal margin of the tooth a V shape (e.g., Oligoryctes, state 1; fig. 46; MacPhee, 1987: fig. 7b).

69. M3 presence. Adults of most taxa possess M3 (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0); in elephant shrews it is absent (state 1).

70. M3 size. Erinaceus, soricids, and Apternodus iliffensis (fig. 30) possess a transversely shortened M3 relative to M2 (state 1). In other taxa (e.g., Solenodon) M3 is at least 70% of the buccolingual width of M2 (state 0).

71. M3 stylar shelf. When present, M3 may show a prominent stylar region with a distinct stylocone, mesostyle, and/or metacone (e.g., Oligoryctes, state 1; fig. 46). Alternatively, this region may be reduced, and little or no occlusal surface may be present buccal to the paracone and/or metacone (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0).
Lower Dentition

72. Lower antemolars: The number of premolars, canines, and incisors in each mandible varies from eight (e.g., *Oligoryctes altitalonidus*) to three (e.g., *Blarina*), successively comprising character states 0–4. No taxon coded in this study shows four lower antemolars; hence, this character state is omitted. These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

73. Lower incisor cusps. *Oligoryctes* shows three distinct cusps on its posterior two lower incisors (fig. 42): one at the heel, one at the tip, and one in an intermediate position (state 2). The lower incisors of other taxa may consist of just a single cusp at the tip (e.g., *Solenodon*, state 0), or a cusp at the tip and a second at the base of the tooth (e.g., *Erinaceus*, state 1). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

74. Lower anterior incisor. This tooth may be gracile and similar in size to (e.g., *Echinosorex*, state 1), or trenchant and larger than (e.g., *Erinaceus*, state 0), other anterior teeth.

75. Second lower incisor. This tooth may be gracile and similar in size to (e.g., *Microgale*, state 0), or trenchant and larger than (e.g., *Solenodon*, state 0; fig. 16). Other taxa lack multiple trigonid cusps and have a buccolingually narrow p4 that resembles more anterior lower teeth (e.g., *Parapternodus*, state 0; see fig. 18).

76. Medial curvature of i2. The medial aspect of i2 in *Solenodon* is concave (state 1) to facilitate this animal’s poisonous bite (Nowak, 1999). Lower incisors of other taxa are usually convex (e.g., *Echinosorex*, state 0), although the medial aspect of the incisor of *Pararyctes* shows an interesting resemblance to that of *Solenodon*.

77. Incisor crown orientation. The crowns of most incisors, anterior premolars, and the canine of *Apter nodus* are inclined anteriorly, such that the tooth crown meets the root at an angle (state 1; fig. 16). Other taxa (e.g., *Didelphis*) show incisor crowns that are parallel with their roots (state 0).

78. Anterior antemolar roots. Several taxa (e.g., *Solenodon*) have two roots on their anterior lower premolars, including p2 (state 0); other taxa have single-rooted anterior premolars (e.g., *A. brevirostris*, state 1; fig. 16).

79. Antemolar anterior cusp. At its anterior margin, the p3 of *Oligoryctes* shows a prominent cusp (state 1; fig. 42), absent in the antemolars of most other taxa (e.g., *A. brevirostris*, state 0; fig. 16).

80. Antemolar posterior cusp. Similarly, *Oligoryctes* shows a distinct cusp at the distal edge of its p3 (state 1; fig. 42), absent in many other taxa (e.g., *A. baladontus*, state 0; fig. 14).

81. Antemolar cingulid. *A. brevirostris* shows a prominent cingulid along the buccal margin of p3 (state 0; fig. 18); this cingulid is reduced and does not surround the buccal margin of premolars in other taxa such as *A. baladontus* (state 1; fig. 14).

82. Molariform p4. Many taxa examined show p4 with a molariform trigonid with three major cusps (paraconid, metaconid, and protoconid; e.g., *Apter nodus*, state 1; fig. 18). Other taxa lack multiple trigonid cusps and have a buccolingually narrow p4 that resembles more anterior lower teeth (e.g., *Parapter nodus*, state 0; see fig. 49).

83. Talonid. Lower molars of several taxa may have a talonid with a well-defined basin surrounded by ridges comprised of, or continuous with, the entoconid, hypoconid, and/or hypoconulid (e.g., *Echinosorex*, state 0). In some taxa the talonid basin is small or altogether absent (e.g., *Apter nodus*, state 1; fig. 18).

84. Trigonid size. The trigonid on m2 of *O. cameronensis* is larger than that of m3 (state 1; fig. 42). Some other taxa (e.g., *O. altitalonidus*) show m2-m3 trigonids of roughly similar size (state 0; fig. 42).

85. Cingulid on m2. The lower second molar of *A. brevirostris* shows a cingulid extending from the mesial margin of the tooth to the buccal edge (state 1; Fig 18). In *Parapter nodus*, this cingulid is evident only near the anterior margin of the tooth, and does not extend buccally to the tooth base (state 0; fig. 49).

86. Secondary hypoflexid basin. Among taxa with extensive hypoflexid-paraconcusion, the paracone of the M3 may occlude with the m3 in a basin comprised of the hypoflexid bounded laterally by a cingulid (e.g., *Solenodon*, state 0). Alternatively, the
m3 hypoflexid may be buccally open (e.g., Oligoryctes, state 1; fig. 42).

87. Paraconid notch (Robinson and Kron, 1998). Ventral to the paraconid of the molars, several taxa show a notch that receives the distal talonid of the adjacent, anterior tooth (e.g., A. brevirostris, state 0; fig. 18). In a few taxa (e.g., Koniaryctes), this notch is absent (state 1).

88. m3 talonid cusp. Oligoryctes altitalonidus was named for the single cusp on its lower third molar talonid which exceeds the m3 paraconid in height (state 2; fig. 44). Talonid cusps on the m3 in other taxa (e.g., Apternodus) are typically shorter than the m3 paraconid (state 1; fig. 18). Some taxa (e.g., Parapternodus) lack a talonid cusp on m3 (state 0; fig. 49). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

89. m3 length. When present, the m3 may be shorter (e.g., Parapternodus, state 2; fig. 49), equal in length (e.g., A. brevirostris, state 1; fig. 18), or longer (e.g., Solenodon, state 0) than each of the first two lower molars. These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

90. m3 paraconid. Instead of a paraconid cusp, Erinaceids show on the anterior margin of m3 a crest that runs anterolingually away from the protoconid (state 1). The anterior-most cusp of most other taxa (e.g., Solenodon, state 0) than each of the first two lower molars. These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

91. Angular process. At the posteroventral corner of the mandible, A. baladontus possesses a narrow angular process that shows approximately the same width distally and at its base (state 1; fig. 12). Other taxa (e.g., Solenodon) have an angular process with a broader base that tapers along its length (state 0).

92. Mental foramina. Foramina for branches of the mandibular nerve and vessels appear in a number of places on the buccal side of the mammalian jaw. States observed here include ventral to m1 (e.g., Crocidura, state 3), p4 (e.g., Echinosorex, state 2), p3 (e.g., Micropteropus, state 1), or p2 (e.g., A. dasaphylakas, state 0).

93. Mandibular condyle, length. Some taxa have a globular, ball-shaped mandibular condyle (e.g., Setifer, state 0). This contrasts with pronounced mediolateral expansion conspicuous in other taxa (e.g., Apternodus, state 1; fig. 14), in which the condyle is 50–100% wider transversely than m1.

94. Mandibular condyle, number. Extant soricids possess a dual craniomandibular articulation (state 1), showing two distinct articular surfaces and synovial capsules between the mandible and cranium (Fernhead et al., 1954). Other taxa show a single synovial articulation (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0).

95. Coronoid shape. The coronoid process of Apternodus is laterally convex, or bowed such that the midpoint of the coronoid reaches farther laterally than the dorsal tip (state 1; fig. 8). Other taxa show a relatively straight coronoid (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0), including modern soricids, which have a medially pocketed coronoid.

96. Anterior root of coronoid process. Members of the genus Apternodus show an anteriorly extensive coronoid process that, in lateral view, overlaps with the posterior part of the lower third molar (state 1; fig. 2). An illustration of the mandible in A. gregoryi in Schlaikjer (1933) misleadingly gives the impression that the anterior margin of the coronoid process is posterior to m3; however, this is not the case. In most other taxa (e.g., Erinaceus), the anterior root of the coronoid process is located well posterior to the m3 (state 0).

97. Internal coronoid fossa. The lingual aspect of the coronoid process of the mandible in most taxa examined is smooth and continuous with more ventral regions of the internal aspect of the posterior part of the dentary (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0). Extant soricids, O. cameronensis, O. altitalonidus, and Parapternodus, in contrast, have a lingually pocketed coronoid which increases the surface area available for jaw muscle attachments (state 2; see fig. 42). Some taxa (e.g., Apternodus) possess an intermediate condition in which the coronoid process has a deep internal concavity, but is not pocketed (state 1; fig. 33). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

98. Alveolar ridge. A ridge of bone may be present on the lingual aspect of the pos-
terior dentary, running from the base of m3 to the mandibular condyle (e.g., Apternodus, state 1; fig. 33). In other taxa, this ridge is reduced and fails to reach the condyle (e.g., Setifer, state 0).

Axial Skeleton

99. Posteroventral keel on axis (F91: no. 69). The posterior aspect of the second cervical vertebral centrum may be smooth ventrally or show only a reduced tuberosity close to its midpoint (e.g., Setifer, state 1). The axis of other taxa shows a prominent spine projecting posteroventrally from the centrum (e.g., A. dasophylakas, state 0; fig. 37).

100. Number of vertebrae contributing to the sacroiliac articulation. The sacral vertebrae articulating with the ilium may include S1 alone (e.g., Blarina, state 0), S1-S2 (e.g., Setifer, state 1), or S1-S3 (e.g., Erinaceus, state 2). These character states comprise a potentially ordered morphcline.

101. Fusion of sacral neural spines (F91: no. 72). Most taxa show sacral spines processes that lack consistent fusion among each other (e.g., Microgale, state 0). In a few taxa, these processes form a well-fused longitudinally running plate (e.g., Echinosorex, state 1).

Forelimb

102. Scapular metacromion shape (F91: no. 71). Most taxa possess a laterally bifid scapular spine, made up of two processes extending laterally from the scapular spine and dorsal to the scapular glenoid fossa: the acromion (directed laterally) and metacromion (directed posteriorly). Variation in this region occurs in several ways: first, the posteriorly directed metacromion may be blunt (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0), or elongate (e.g., Elephantulus, state 1).

103. Scapular spine, acromion shape (F91: no. 71). Similarly, the acromion may be blunt (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0) or elongate (e.g., Blarina, state 1).

104. Deltoid ridge. The muscular attachments for the deltoid musculature typically comprise a slightly rugose, convex bulge on the proximal half of the humerus (e.g., A. major, state 0; fig. 34). In soricids, however, deltoid muscle attachments form an externally concave rugosity on the proximal humerus (state 1).

105. Medial epicondyle of humerus. Most taxa possess a medially projecting epicondyle that comprises at least 25% of the distal humeral margin medial to the trochea (e.g., A. major, state 1; fig. 34). Others show a reduced or absent medial epicondyle (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0).

106. Olecranon fenestra of humerus. Distally, the humerus may have a fenestra or a very thin lamina of bone within the olecranon fossa (e.g., Erinaceus, state 1); in most taxa, the olecranon process of the ulna sits in a well-ossified fossa of the humerus (e.g., A. major, state 0; fig. 34).

107. Distal ulna. Elephant shrews possess an ulna that tapers to an end by the radial midshaft, with no articular surface for the carpus (state 1). Other taxa possess an ulna that articulates with both the humerus and carpus (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0).

108. Ulnocarpal articulation. In those taxa with a distal ulna, it may have a restricted articulation with the carpus, reaching the triquetrum and pisiform only via an elongate styloid process (e.g., Setifer, state 1; see Kielan-Jaworowska, 1977: 72). Other taxa show a distal ulna with a broader articulation with the carpus, comparable in size to the radial articular surface (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0).

Hindlimb

109. Iliopectineal tubercle, presence. In Echinosorex, a single, prominent, ventrally projecting tuberosity is present immediately ventral to the acetabulum (state 1). Most other taxa show only a mild rugosity or a smooth surface ventral to the acetabulum (e.g., Setifer, state 0).

110. Pubic symphysis. Insectivorans have been characterized as having either narrow or no contact between the pubes medially (e.g., Setifer, state 1). Most other mammals have a craniocaudally broad pubic symphysis, similar in length to ischiopubic rami framing the obturator foramina of each os coxa (e.g., Tupai, state 0). Following Allen (1910: 39), all of the specimens of Solenodon paradoxus observed during the course of this study show a reduced pubic symphysis, contra Leche (1907: 82).
111. Pubis length. Variation is present in the relative lengths of the pubis and ischium (Leche, 1907: 81). In some taxa, the distance from the midpoint of the acetabulum to the pubic symphysis is longer than the distance from the same point to the caudal extent of the ischium (e.g., Echinosorex, state 1). In other taxa, the pubis is similar in length or slightly shorter than the ischium (e.g., Didelphis, state 0).

112. Angle of pubic ramus. The pubis typically joins the acetabulum at an angle with the ischium and ilium of 15 degrees or greater (e.g., Setifer, state 0). In some taxa, the pubis is parallel to the long axis of the ilium and ischium (e.g., Blarina, state 1).

113. Shape of femoral head. The femoral head of most taxa is spherical (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0). One of the few specimens of Apterodus with associated postcrania (UW 13508) reveals a very distinctive proximal femur with an ovoid femoral head, slightly flattened in a dorso-ventral plane (state 1; fig. 24).

114. Obturator ridge. On the posterior aspect of the proximal femur, attachments for obturator muscles are typically defined ventrally by a ridge of bone connecting the greater and lesser trochanters (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0). In certain taxa (e.g., A. gregoryi), this ridge is weak and does not form a connection between the greater and lesser trochanters (state 1; fig. 24).

115. Greater trochanter of femur. Most taxa have a deep gap or notch between the femoral head and the greater trochanter (e.g., Echinosorex, state 0). A. gregoryi, on the other hand, has a femoral head that is essentially continuous with the superior margin of the greater trochanter (state 1; fig. 24).

116. Fusion of distal tibia and fibula. The distal tibia and fibula may be completely fused or synostosed at the ankle (e.g., Erinaceus, state 1). Some taxa possess a distal tibia and fibula that approximate each other but do not fuse (e.g., Setifer, state 0).

117. Calcaneal (peroneal) tubercle (Gregory, 1910: 250). In some taxa, the distolateral margin of the calcaneus shows a blunt rugosity (e.g., Erinaceus, state 0) for attachment of abductor digitii quinti and, following Gregory (1910: 250), a tarso-metatarsal ligament. In others this rugosity is elongate and similar in size to the sustentaculum tali, extending laterally and/or distally past the distal margin of the calcaneus (e.g., Microgale, state 1).

Other Characters

118. Cranial size. As a heritable, morphological characteristic that distinguishes many taxa considered here, cranial size is an appropriate addition to this character list. For present purposes, it is arbitrarily divided into four character states, each based on disjunctions present in the distribution of palatal widths across taxa (fig. 53). Where cranial data are lacking (i.e., for the Tabernacle Butte taxon, Parapternodus, and Koniaryctes), the dentition is used as a surrogate (fig. 54).

TAXON SAMPLE

We include 30 taxa in the phylogenetic analysis component of this study, including the 11 species of Apterodus, Oligoryctes, Parapternodus, and Koniaryctes, plus the unnamed Tabernacle Butte (McKenna et al., 1962) and Silver Coulee taxa (Wood, 2000) discussed above. Also sampled are Micropterodus (Matthew, 1903); the palaearctoids Pararcycteris pattersoni and Eoryctes melanus (Thewissen and Gingerich, 1989); the geolabid Centetodon (Lillegraven et al., 1981); the Caribbean insectivorans Nesophontes, Solenodon cubanus, and Solenodon paradoxus; the tenrecids Microgale cowani and Setifer setosus; the erinaceoids Erinaceus europaeus and Echinosorex gymnura; the soricids Blarina, Crocidura olivieri, and Domina; and the macroscelideans Elephantulus braehyrhynchus and Macroscelides elephantulus. The marsupial Didelphis is used to root phylogenetic trees. When a trivial name is not given above, multiple species of that genus were used to code characters (e.g., Blarina carolinensis and B. breviceucauda). In addition to those already listed in table 2, catalog numbers of specimens examined here are as follows: Centetodon (USNM 181720,
181722, 187339, 214436, 299498, 299500, MPUM 1616, UCM 38429), *Didelphis* (AMNH 28408, 28962, 29255, 70082, 145630, 148959, 210327), *Domnina* (AMNH 32647, 94257, USNM 12841), *Echinosorex* (AMNH 32640, 34698, 102781, 102782, 103736, 103851, 103883, 106066, 106067, USNM 396674, 448860), *Eoryctes* (cast of UMMP 68074), *Erinaceus* (AMNH 3770, 42561, 42563, 70613, 140469, 140470), and *Microgale* (AMNH 31245, 100717).

**Analytical Protocol**

NONA (Goloboff, 1993), Winclada (Nixon, 1999), and PAUP* (Swofford, 2000) were used to analyze this data set. Character entry and optimization were accomplished using Winclada and MacClade (Maddison and Maddison, 2000). We performed distinct runs on a data set that gave more weight to extreme changes in multistate characters (i.e., characters “ordered”) that are optimized consistently with their hypothesis of order (Lipscomb, 1992), and with all character transformations requiring one step (i.e., characters “unordered”). Searches in NONA/Winclada were heuristic using TBR branch swapping (the “mult*max*” option in WinClada), with at least 1000 random addition replicates and branch swapping performed on up to five trees held per replicate. Analyses in PAUP* used heuristic parsimony searches with TBR branch swapping and at least 200 random addition replicates. Branch supports (Bremer, 1988, 1994) were calculated using a NONA macro file written by Diego Pol of the American Museum of Natural History, and by using constraint trees in PAUP*. Tree lengths calculated by NONA are reported here. We configured PAUP* to collapse nodes that have zero branch lengths under any optimization (the “amb-” option in the “parsimony settings” dialog) so that it produces the same topologies as NONA.

**RESULTS**

Following the procedure for testing hypotheses of ordered transformations outlined by Lipscomb (1992), 15 of the 20 morphocline characters are optimized unambiguously as showing changes between adjacent states only (table 6). An analysis calculating tree lengths with these 15 multistate characters ordered produces eight trees of 374 steps, a strict consensus of which is depicted in figure 57A. This topology is similar to those produced by ordering all 20 characters, which yields four most parsimonious trees (MPTs) of 384 steps that differ from figure 57A only in showing *Micropternodus* as the sister taxon of erinaceids. With all characters unordered, the analysis produces six MPTs of 370 steps (fig. 57B). As indicated by the low branch support for many nodes, this data set is noisy. Few of the high-level clades have branch supports above 1, and the number of trees within five steps of the shortest is vast. Nevertheless, this does not change the fact that the relatively well-resolved MPTs (fig. 57) represent the least ad hoc explanation of the available data.

All analyses agree that the “Apterodontidae” as a group including taxa previously attributed to it in the literature (i.e., *Apterodus*, *Oligoryctes*, *Parapternodus*, *Koniaryctes*, *Micropternodus*, and the Tabernacle Butte and Silver Coulee taxa) is not monophyletic. Contradicting its monophyly are the positions of soricids, *Micropternodus*, and the Silver Coulee taxon. McKenna and Bell (1997) restricted the “Apterodontidae” to the three demonstrably zalambdodont fossil North American genera with (as of 1997) published descriptions: *Apterodus*, *Oligoryctes*, and *Parapternodus*. However, even this more restricted group is not monophyletic according to the MPTs reported here, as soricids nest within “apterodontids” (sensu lato) as sister taxa to *Parapternodus* and *Koniaryctes*.

The genus *Apterodus* as recognized here consists of seven species: *A. mediaevus*, *A. baladontus*, *A. brevirostris*, *A. iliffensis*, *A. dasophylakas*, *A. gregoryi*, and *A. major*, without “*A.*” alitalonidus Clark, 1937. *Apterodus* is one of the better-supported clades recovered in these analyses, the others being a Montana *Apterodus* clade (*A. mediaevus* and *A. baladontus*), soricids, extant elephant shrews, and the genus *Solenodon*. Another consistent intra-*Apterodus* clade consists of *A. gregoryi* and *A. major*, with a branch support of two across analyses (figs. 57 and 58). Within *Apterodus*, the relationships of the
Montana and *gregoryi-major* clades to each other and to the remaining three *Apternodus* species (*brevirostris*, *iliffensis*, and *dasophylakas*) remain unresolved.

*Oligoryctes*, including the Tabernacle Butte taxon, is reconstructed as the sister taxon to a soricid-*Parapternodus-Koniarctes* clade in the ordered analyses, and as unresolved in a clade including the latter group plus *Apternodus* in the unordered analysis. *Oligoryctes* consists of *O. cameronensis* as sister taxon to an *O. altitalonidus*-Tabernacle Butte taxon in both. As a clade, these three taxa enjoy slightly better support from the ordered analyses (with a branch support of two steps) than the unordered analysis (with a branch support of one step). Interestingly, according to both phylogenies illustrated in figure 57, the generic name of the Tabernacle Butte taxon should be *Oligoryctes*. Although *Parapternodus* and *Koniarctes* are known only from isolated mandibles and

### TABLE 6
Ordered Multistate Characters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character (number of states)</th>
<th>Optimization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Piriform fenestra (3)</td>
<td>nonadjacent change from state 0 to 2 in branch leading to <em>Centetodon</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rostral tympanic process of the petrosal (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Composition of the mastoid tubercle (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Extent of squamosal on ventrolateral braincase (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Optic foramen size (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Origin of maxillary zygoma (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Length of infraorbital canal (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. Number of upper incisors (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. Number of upper antemolars (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. Upper canine roots (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. Upper P2 roots (4)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62. Metacone (3)</td>
<td>nonadjacent change from state 2 to 0 in branch leading to <em>parapternodontids</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72. Lower antemolars (5)</td>
<td>nonadjacent change from state 0 to 3 in branch leading to <em>Erinaceus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73. Lower incisor cusps (3)</td>
<td>nonadjacent change from state 0 to 2 in branch leading to oligoryctids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75. Second lower incisor (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88. m3 talonid cusp (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89. m3 length (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97. Internal coronoid fossa (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100. Sacral vertebrae (3)</td>
<td>adjacent changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118. Cranial size (4)</td>
<td>nonadjacent changes from state 0 to 2 and 0 to 3 in branches leading to tenrecs and <em>Solenodon</em>, respectively</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Following Lipscomb (1992), characters are optimized on each of four ordered topologies produced by an initial analysis treating all 20 morpholine characters identified in the text as ordered. "Adjacent changes" indicates that at least one optimization exists in which all changes occur between adjacent states. "Nonadjacent change" indicates that hypothesis of order is not corroborated by congruence.
Fig. 57. Strict consensus trees from (A) 15-character ordered (8 MPTs, 374 steps) and (B) unordered (6 MPTs, 370 steps) analyses. The ordered analysis (A) gives greater weight to only those multistate characters that are optimized consistently (see text and Lipscomb, 1992). Boldface indicates taxa previously considered to comprise the Apterodontoidea. Numbers adjacent to nodes indicate branch support.
Fig. 58. Strict consensus trees from the same analyses shown in figure 57, but excluding taxa with greater than 40% missing data. (A) ordered (22 MPTs, 341 steps) and (B) unordered (10 MPTs, 338 steps). Notation as in figure 57.
teeth, and are consequently missing 82 and 92% (respectively) of the character data described above, they are reconstructed (with low branch support) as a clade with soricids as its sister group regardless of character ordering.

The extant familial taxa sampled in this study, i.e., two species of Solenodon, two tenrecids, two extant soricids plus Domnina, two Erinaceids, and two macroscelidids, are reconstructed as monophyletic in all analyses. Interestingly, the extinct heterosoricine Koniaryctes is reconstructed within crown Soricidae, more closely related to Blarina than to Crocidura.

According to the ordered MPTs (fig. 57A), the immediate sister taxon of the soricid-Apternodus-Oligoryctes-Parapternodus-Koniaryctes clade (hereafter referred to as the soricid-fossil zalambdodont clade) is Solenodon, followed by tenrecids, Nesophontes, and Centetodon as successively distant sister taxa. Subsequent sister taxa are a palaeoryctid group (consisting of the Silver Coulee taxon, Eoryctes, and Pararyctes), Erinaceids, Micropternodus, Macroscelidids, and finally the placental root as defined by Didelphis.

Higher-level relationships change slightly according to the unordered MPTs (fig. 57B). The positions of tenrecids and Solenodon switch, with tenrecids as the sister taxon to a soricid-fossil zalambdodont clade. Similarly, Centetodon and Nesophontes switch places, followed by the Silver Coulee taxon, palaeoryctids, Micropternodus, Erinaceids, and elephant shrews. Neither the Silver Coulee taxon nor Micropternodus are reconstructed within palaeoryctids or Erinaceids, respectively.

Six taxa are composed of over 50% missing data. Koniaryctes has the most (91.5%), followed by Parapternodus (82.2%), the Tabernacle Butte and Silver Coulee taxa (both with 76.3%), and Micropternodus and Eoryctes (both with 51.7%). Domnina is slightly above half complete at 40.7% missing data. Taxa with large amounts of missing data may contribute to low resolution and/or support in some analyses, but this is not always the case (Gauthier et al., 1988; Novacek, 1992). In any event, it is worth exploring the possibility that the exclusion of such taxa will affect resolution and/or support in this analysis.

When the aforementioned seven taxa are excluded from the ordered analyses, the strict consensus topology (fig. 58A) loses a great deal of resolution, only supporting the monophyly of soricids, Solenodon, Oligoryctes, elephant shrews, Apternodus, and Montana and Wyoming subclades of Apternodus. The unordered, reduced-taxon analysis is slightly more resolved (fig. 58B), showing a soricid-fossil zalambdodont clade plus Microgale, Solenodon, and Nesophontes, followed by Centetodon, Pararyctes, an Erinaceid-Macroscelidid clade, and Setifer as successively distant sister taxa. Both reduced-taxon analyses support an Apternodus clade, as well as Montana (A. baladontus-A. mediaevus) and Wyoming (A. gregoryi-A. major) subclades.

Both reduced-taxon analyses show increases in branch support at several low-level nodes, including Apternodus, Solenodon, Oligoryctes, soricids, and Macroscelidids. Support remains low for the partially resolved soricid-fossil zalambdodont clade in the reduced-taxon, unordered analysis (which also contains Microgale and Nesophontes). This clade is completely unresolved in the reduced-taxon, ordered analysis.

**DISCUSSION**

The hierarchical pattern among the 30 terminal taxa produced by the anatomical data described above can be interpreted to unambiguously support six clades that appear across the four analyses just described: Apternodus, Solenodon, Oligoryctes, soricids, Macroscelidids, and a clade within Apternodus composed of A. mediaevus and A. baladontus. Other clades are consistently recognized, but have weaker branch supports than the previous six: A. gregoryi and A. major, parapternodontids plus soricids, Oligoryctes plus the Tabernacle Butte taxon, and a soricid-fossil zalambdodont clade. A case may also be made for the placement of oligoryctids as sister taxon to parapternodontids-soricids, Solenodon as a sister to soricids-fossil zalambodonts, and the Silver Coulee taxon within Palaeoryctids. However, acceptance of these groups requires an a
priori appeal to the process of ordered character evolution.

Of the 20 characters hypothesized to comprise ordered morphochlines, 15 are optimized consistently based on examination of each of the four shortest topologies produced by an analysis in which these 20 characters are ordered (table 6). This iterative procedure based on congruence is the same as that used for testing primary homology across characters (Lipscomb, 1992), which has been justified at length elsewhere (e.g., Farris, 1983; dePinna, 1991). The topology based on the ordered data set (fig. 57A) allows for more explicit hypotheses of Apternodus relationships to be made. Hence, we base further discussion on the strict consensus of the ordered topologies.

TEMPORAL RANGES OF FOSSIL ZALAMBDODONTIDS

The geological ranges of Apternodus, Oligoryctes, Parapternodus, and Konarcyctes may now be defined with greater precision than was previously possible. These ranges are summarized in table 7 and figure 59. The family Apternodontidae, because it is here limited to Apternodus, has a shorter range than previously estimated, with a first appearance in the early Duchesnean and a last appearance in the early Orellan. The longest-lived fossil zalambdodont is *O. altitalonidus*, with a first appearance in the early Uintan and last appearance in the late Orellan. Based on the phylogeny presented here, we hypothesize that *O. altitalonidus* and the much more temporally limited *O. cameronensis* have ghost lineages (Norell, 1992) extending back into the Bridgerian, corresponding with the range of the Tabernacle Butte taxon.

The oldest definitive soricid fossils are late Uintan in age (Krishtalka and Setoguchi, 1977; Storer, 1984), not basal Uintan as figured by Harris (1998: 135). Nessov and Guryev (1981) argued that soricids first appeared in the late Cretaceous based on a small, edentulous dentary preserving part of the mandibular condyle and a pocketed coronoid process, the holotype for their taxon *Cretasorex*. However, both the identification and age assignment of this specimen have been questioned (McKenna and Bell, 1997: 81).

Based on the relationship hypothesized here between soricids and parapternodontids, we hypothesize that members of a stem soricid lineage extend back to the Wasatchian. If the postulated relationships among these soricids and extinct zalambdodonts is correct, then stem lineage representatives of *Apternodus* and *Oligoryctes* should also be present in the Wasatchian, again corresponding with the appearance of parapternodontids in that interval (fig. 59).

The identification of soricid, apternodontid, and oligoryctid ghost lineages in the Wasatchian is not synonymous with the belief that full-blown representatives of these groups, with anatomical complexes such as a dual jaw joint, lambdoid plates, and an enlarged foramen ovale (respectively), existed at that time. Nor are we proposing that parapternodontids comprise the actual “ancestors” of modern soricids (Wiley, 1981: 106–107; but see Prothero and Lazarus, 1980). Rather, the sister-taxon relationship between parapternodontids and soricids, and between the latter clade and *Oligoryctes* and *Apternodus*, leads to the hypothesis that soricids, apternodontids, and oligoryctids evolved from an unknown population related to parapternodontids during the early Eocene, as illustrated in figure 59. The recognition of such cladogenetic events has no necessary bearing on the timing of character evolution within a postulated ghost lineage (Hennig, 1965; Norell, 1992). Lambdoid plates, for example, may not have evolved until long after the first appearance of the *Apternodus* stem lineage. Such inferences require a better paleontological record (including, for example, more fossils from the Wasatchian and Bridgerian) than that currently available.
TABLE 7
First and Last Appearances of “Apternodontids” in North America

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon</th>
<th>First appearance</th>
<th>Last appearance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apternodus</td>
<td>early Duchesnean (Badwater 20, Wyoming)</td>
<td>early Orellan (Torrington, Wyoming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. mediaevas</td>
<td>middle Chadronian (Pipestone Springs, Montana)</td>
<td>late Chadronian (West Easter Lily and 10N, Montana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. baladontus</td>
<td>late Duchesnean (Diamond O Ranch, Montana)</td>
<td>middle Chadronian (Little Pipestone Creek, Montana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. brevirostris*</td>
<td>middle Chadronian (Flagstaff Rim, Wyoming)</td>
<td>middle Chadronian (Flagstaff Rim, Wyoming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. gregoryi</td>
<td>middle-late Chadronian (Dilts Ranch, Wyoming)</td>
<td>early Orellan (Torrington, Wyoming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. iliffensis</td>
<td>Duchesnean (Beaver Divide, Wyoming; Red Mound, Texas)</td>
<td>middle Chadronian (Hill and Fremont Butte, Colorado)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. major</td>
<td>middle-late Chadronian (Dilts Ranch, Wyoming)</td>
<td>middle-late Chadronian (Dilts Ranch, Wyoming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. dasophylakas</td>
<td>Chadronian (Harshman Quarry, Wyoming)</td>
<td>Chadronian (Harshman Quarry, Wyoming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oligoryctes (including Tabernacle Butte taxon)</td>
<td>Bridgerian (Elderberry Canyon, UT; Powder Wash, UT; Tabernacle Butte, Wyoming)</td>
<td>late Orellan (Cook Ranch, Montana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O. cameronensis</td>
<td>early Chadronian (Eureka Valley Rd., Montana)</td>
<td>middle Chadronian (Cameron Spring, Wyoming; Flagstaff Rim, Wyoming; Pipestone Springs, Montana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O. altitalonidus</td>
<td>early Uintian (East Fork Basin, Tepee Trail Fm., Wyoming)</td>
<td>late Orellan (Cook Ranch Fm., Montana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabernacle Butte taxon</td>
<td>Bridgerian (Elderberry Canyon, NV; Powder Wash, UT; Tabernacle Butte, Wyoming)</td>
<td>earliest Uintian (Sand Wash Basin, Colorado)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parapternodus</td>
<td>early Wasatchian (Clark’s Fork and Big Horn Basins, Wyoming)</td>
<td>early Wasatchian (Clark’s Fork and Big Horn Basins, Wyoming)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silver Coulee taxon</td>
<td>Puercan (Clark’s Fork Basin, Wyoming)</td>
<td>Tiffanian (Clark’s Fork Basin, Wyoming)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Age of A. brevirostris type (AMNH 22466) from “Bates’s Hole” of Matthew (1910) unknown, probably Chadronian.

topology. Most of these character changes apply also to the unordered analysis; exceptions are noted. It is also important to point out that most of the following characters displayed in figure 60 show homoplasy in other parts of the tree, but are nevertheless optimized as local synapomorphies for the groups indicated.

Montana Apternodus

A clade uniting A. mediaevas and A. baladontus has strong branch support, comparable to those of Apternodus itself. Several characters comprise synapomorphies for this group, as follows: a medial ridge on the petrosal comprised of the rostral tympanic process (character no. 6, also present in A. major), an enlarged I2 crown (character no. 53, state 1), an enlarged upper canine crown (character no. 54; state 1), three or more roots on P2 (character 57, states 2 and 3), an enlarged P2, similar in size to more molariform premolars (character no. 58; also present in A. major and A. gregoryi), a molar
Fig. 59. Phylogeny from figure 57A plotted stratigraphically. Solid lines indicate known ranges; dotted lines indicate “ghost lineages” (see text and Norell, 1992). Ghost lineages for unresolved nodes within *Apterodus* are approximations only. The timescale is taken from Prothero (1998) and Prothero and Whittlesey (1998). Notes: 1, earliest definitive record of the Soricidae is late Uintan (Krishtalka and Setoguchi, 1977; Storer, 1984). 2, Earliest North American record of *Apterodus* is based on specifically indeterminate teeth from early Duchesnean deposits at Badwater 20, Wyoming.

Wyoming *Apterodus*

*A. gregoryi* and *A. major*, known exclusively from two localities in eastern Wyoming, form a clade to the exclusion of other *Apterodus* species. This group shares five synapomorphies: a lacrimal foramen that is posteriorly flush with the anterior orbit (character no. 36, state 1), an elongate infraorbital canal (character no. 46, state 0), an enlarged P2 (character no. 58, state 0; also present in Montana *Apterodus*), a prominent parastyle on P4 (character no. 61, state 1; polymorphic in *A. brevirostris*), and a minute i2 lacking a distinct alveolus (character no. 75, state 0; also present in *A. mediaeus* and polymorphic in *A. brevirostris*).

*Oligoryctes* Including the Tabernacle Butte Taxon

The association of *O. cameronensis* and *O. altitalonidus* is consistent and has a branch
Fig. 60. Unambiguous character changes mapped onto topology from figure 57A. Each circle represents a character state change, with the character number above and state below (corresponding to the list given in the text and in table 5). Changes represented by solid circles show less homoplasy than those represented by open circles.
Fig. 60. Continued.
support greater than one in most analyses (figs. 57, 58). However, their relationship is complicated by the fact that when included, the Tabernacle Butte taxon forms a clade with *O. altitalonidus* to the exclusion of *O. cameronensis*. This is based in part on the similar size of the molar trigonids in *O. altitalonidus* and the Tabernacle Butte taxon (character no. 84, state 0), whereas in *O. cameronensis*, the size decrease from the trigonid of m1 to that of m3 is considerable (fig. 42). All three species share an elongate m3 (character no. 89, state 0) with a tall talonid cusp (character no. 88, state 2). The *O. altitalonidus*-Tabernacle Butte clade also owes its existence to the fact that most of the synapomorphies uniting the larger two *Oligoryctes* species are unknown in the Tabernacle Butte taxon, and are therefore optimized by parsimony algorithms as also present in the latter taxon, comprising testable predictions about the as yet unknown anatomy of this animal. These characters include an enlarged foramen ovale (character no. 17, state 1), similarly sized upper incisors (character no. 50, state 1), an elongate P3 (character no. 60, state 1), tricuspid lower incisors (character no. 73, state 2), and a laterally bowed or convex coronoid process of the mandible (character no. 95, state 1). Taxonomically, according to the MPTs represented in figure 57, the Tabernacle Butte taxon should be regarded as a species of *Oligoryctes*. 

An important similarity between *O. cameronensis* and *O. altitalonidus* not shared with the Tabernacle Butte taxon is the medially pocketed coronoid process (character no. 97, state 2). In the latter taxon, the internal aspect of the coronoid fossa is deep, but not pocketed (47). However, the pocketed coronoid is optimized as primitive for *Oligoryctes* itself (60). In the ordered analyses, it appears in the stem leading to oligoryctids, parapternodontids, and soricids, and reverses to an “internally deep” state (character no. 97, state 1) independently in the Tabernacle Butte taxon and *Domnina*.

Parapternodontids and Soricids

As with the Tabernacle Butte taxon, the high percentage of missing data in *Parapternodus* and *Koniaryctes* greatly magnifies the impact of the few characters that are known. Synapomorphies for a parapternodontid clade consist of a reduced buccal cingulum on m2 (character no. 85; state 0) and an absent m3 talonid cusp (character no. 88, state 0). A clade of parapternodontids plus soricids is supported by two synapomorphies: a premolariform p4 (character no. 82, state 0; missing in *Koniaryctes*) and an anteroposteriorly short m3 (character no. 89, state 2). Additionally, missing characters of the skull and postcranium in parapternodontids are optimized so as to resemble character states exhibited by shrews and *Apternodus*, as discussed below.

Parapternodontids, Soricids, and *Oligoryctes*

The conclusion indicated by the ordered analyses (figs. 57A, 60) that small, extinct, North American zalambdodonts and soricids are closely related is not completely novel. Simpson (in McGrew et al., 1959) first hinted at this possibility when he suggested that an edentulous mandibular fragment of the Tabernacle Butte taxon (AMNH 55689) could be a shrew. The single character known for most taxa and optimized as a synapomorphy at this node is a pocketed coronoid process of the dentary (character no. 97, state 2; missing in *Koniaryctes*, reversed to state 1 in the Tabernacle Butte taxon and *Domnina*). Two other characters present in shrews and the larger two species of *Oligoryctes* have also been optimized as synapomorphies at this node: an absent alisphenoid canal (character no. 14, state 0) and lack of an antemolar diastema (character no. 56, state 1).

Parapternodontids, Soricids, *Oligoryctes*, and *Apternodus*

A clade uniting the preceding four groups into a fossil zalambdodont-soricid clade is supported by several craniodental and postcranial characters. These include presence of an anterior sinus canal foramen (character no. 31, state 0; unknown in *A. dasophylakas*, *O. altitalonidus*, the Tabernacle Butte taxon, parapternodontids, and *Domnina*), reduction of the maxillary process of the zygoma (character no. 44, state 1; reversed in *A. ma-
Setifer, unknown in the Tabernacle Butte taxon and parapternodontids), an infraorbital canal similar in length to the width of the anterior exit foramen (character no. 46, state 1; elongate in Blarina, A. major, and A. gregoryi, unknown in the Tabernacle Butte taxon and parapternodontids; uncordable for soricids—see above), and a medially deep coronoid process (character no. 97, state 1; unknown in Koniaryctes) which in the ordered analysis is intermediate between the pocketed condition seen in Parapternodus, O. cameronensis, O. altitalonidus, and shrews, and the medially flat condition seen in (for example) Setifer.

Although postcranial remains of extinct zalambdodonts are exceedingly scarce, the fossils that are known show several interesting similarities with modern shrews, here interpreted as synapomorphies. Importantly, these postcranial characters are unknown for Oligoryctes and parapternodontids, but are optimized as present based on the distribution of craniodental characters and the consequent topologies of both ordered and unordered analyses depicted in figure 57. These resemblances to shrews are as follows: the axis of A. dasophylakas (fig. 37) has a prominent ventral keel on its centrum (character 99, state 0; also present in Microgale and Echinosorex); distal ulnae of A. mediaeavus (fig. 10) and A. major (fig. 34) show a relatively broad articulation with the carpus (character no. 108, state 0; also present in Erinaceus); the posterior aspect of the proximal femur in A. gregoryi (fig. 24) shows a noncontinuous ridge between greater and lesser trochanters (character no. 114, state 1; also present in Didelphis, Setifer, and some macroscelidids); and the femoral head and greater trochanter of A. gregoryi (fig. 24) are not separated by a deep notch (character no. 115, state 1; also present in Didelphis and Setifer).

Position of Tenrecids and Solenodon

As noted previously, the ordered analysis favors Solenodon as the sister taxon to a soricid-fossil zalambdodont clade, whereas the unordered analysis favors tenrecids. In favor of the latter, tenrecids and fossil zalambdodonts share a reduced hypocone (character 64, state 1; reversed in soricids, unknown in Koniaryctes). Tenrecids, Apternodus, Oligoryctes, and shrews also share a prominent buccal cingulid on m2 (character 85, state 1; reversed in parapternodontids, polymorphic in A. baladontus); and tenrecids and extant shrews share an elongate calcaneal tubercle (character 117, state 1; unknown in Domnina and all fossil zalambdodonts). Asher (1999) recovered a tenrecid-Apternodus clade under several (but not all) assumption sets regarding character ordering and weighting. These analyses used a slightly smaller morphological data set than that used here, with a single, chimaeric terminal taxon representing Apternodus (Asher, 1999: appendix 1), without Oligoryctes or other fossil zalambdodonts, but with a larger sample of tenrecid genera. Because the present data set has a much better sample of North American zalambdodonts, we believe it conveys a more accurate picture of the relationships of these fossil taxa than the study of Asher (1999). Nevertheless, future analyses that include more tenrecs and soricids, in addition to a diverse sample of extinct zalambdodonts, are clearly desirable.

At least two characters are consistent with the status of Solenodon as the fossil zalambdodont-soricid sister taxon. Solenodon, Apternodus, and extant soricids share a unicusp lower incisor (character no. 73, state 1; reversed in Echinosorex); parapternodontids, and the Tabernacle Butte taxon, bicuspid in Domnina, tricuspid in Oligoryctes). S. paradoxus, A. major, A. mediaeavus, A. brevirostris, and extant soricids also share a solid distal humerus, lacking an olecranon fenestra (character 106, state 0; polymorphic in S. cubanus, missing in other fossil taxa). Another interesting similarity is the homoplastic convergence between species of Apternodus from Montana and Solenodon cubanus. In these three taxa, elements of the upper and lower anterior dentition are enlarged and bulbous (character no. 54, state 1; see figs. 6, 9, 11, 13), a condition to our knowledge not seen in any other insectivoran-grade taxon. While such “underlying synapomorphy” (Saether, 1979; Lockwood, 1999) does not contribute directly to
strengthening this clade, it is recognized in the ordered analysis (fig. 57A) as occurring within a fairly small group of insectivoran-grade mammals, including Solenodon, soricids, and fossil zalambdodonts, and excluding tenrecids, Nesophontes, Centetodon, palaeoryctids, erinaceids, Micropternodus, and macroscelidids.

Both tenrecs and Solenodon share with fossil zalambdodonts two dental characters that are reversed in soricids. These are an absent metacone (character no. 62, state 2) and a reduced talonid basin (character 83, state 1). They also share the presence of a paraconid notch (character no. 87, state 0; reversed in Koniaryctes and soricids).

Identity of the Silver Coulee Taxon

The laterally exposed lambdoid plates of the Silver Coulee taxon (Wood et al., 2000) are similar in gross appearance to those of Apterodon, but the jaw joint is not. Posterior support for the mandibular condyle in YPM PU16521 is provided by a true postglenoid process, lateral to the postglenoid foramen and pars cochlearis of the petrosal (fig. 51). This contrasts to the entoglenoid process of Apterodon and Oligoryctes, which is medial to the postglenoid foramen and anterior to the promontory (e.g., figs. 11D and 40; character no. 32, state 1), and is consistent with the association of the Silver Coulee specimen with the palaeoryctids Pararyctes and Eoryctes (fig. 40A) as reconstructed in the ordered analysis (fig. 57A).

Furthermore, as noted by Thewissen and Gingerich (1989), the palaeoryctid Eoryctes appears also to have possessed lambdoid plates on its posterolateral braincase, although they are not as well preserved in the Eoryctes holotype as they are in YPM PU16521. Similar convergence in the development of boxlike muscle attachments on the posterior braincase has occurred in the erinaceid Proterix bicuspis, also originally believed (erroneously; see Gawne, 1968) to be related to Apterodon (Macdonald, 1951).

The Silver Coulee taxon is reconstructed as the sister taxon to Eoryctes and nested within palaeoryctids in the ordered analysis (fig. 57A), and as the sister taxon to a Nesophontes-Centetodon-soricid-fossil zalambodont clade, with palaeoryctids attaching at a more basal node in the unordered analysis (fig. 57B). Characters supporting its status as closely related to Eoryctes include presence of lambdoid plates (character no. 23, state 1) and incomplete zygomatic arches (character no. 38, state 1); notably these character states are present in Apterodon as well, but are optimized as homoplastic in the two taxa based on the distribution of other characters summarized here. Supporting its status as a palaeoryctid is the rostral tympanic process of the petrosal, which contributes to the medial wall of the auditory bulla (character no. 6, state 2). Possession of a true postglenoid process supporting the jaw joint posteriorly (character no. 32, state 0) is optimized on both trees as primitive for palaeoryctids and is consistent with the placement of the Silver Coulee taxon outside of a zalambdodont-soricid-Centetodon-Nesophontes clade. Whether or not it is a palaeoryctid, we do not believe that the Silver Coulee taxon is closely related to Apterodon.

Affinities of Micropternodus

When all 20 multistate morphoclines identified in table 6 are treated as ordered, Micropternodus is reconstructed as the sister taxon to erinaceids. Two characters are optimized in support of this clade: a single-rooted P2 (character no. 57, state 0) and a short M3 stylar region (character no. 71, state 0). However, this arrangement falls apart when the five multistate characters with non-adjacent changes (table 6) are treated as unordered. Similarly, when all characters are treated as unordered, Micropternodus is placed between erinaceids and the remaining ingroup taxa (fig. 57B), sharing with most of the latter taxa a reduced zygomatic arch (character no. 38, state 1) and seven lower antemolars (character no. 72, state 1).

After Russell (1960) synonymized “Kentrogomphios” White (1954) with Micropternodus Matthew (1903), and after Stirton and Rensberger (1964) suggested that it was related to “erinaceoids”, additional material of micropternodontids has been recovered, most notably from Asia. As illustrated by McKenna et al. (1984), Prosarcodon lonanensis has decidedly non-zalambdodont teeth, with
large talonid basins and distinct metacones. McKenna et al. further noted the similarity of the middle ear of Prosarcodon with that of Palaeoryctes. We agree with their implication that micropternodontids are not closely related to apternodontids, oligoryctids, or parapternodontids. More definitive conclusions about the affinities of Micropternodus must await an analysis that has a better sample of erinaceomorphs, palaeoryctids, and Asian micropternodontids.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

One of the major challenges of modern paleontology is understanding how extinct biological diversity has contributed to the evolution of modern groups. Reconstructing the history of the “Insectivora” is particularly difficult given their perceived status as primitive among placental mammals, and the strong possibility that they do not comprise a natural, monophyletic group (Stanhope et al., 1998; Emerson et al., 1999; Murphy et al., 2001). We have attempted in the preceding pages to make sense of a relatively small assemblage of extinct insectivoran-grade mammals, previously known in the literature as the “Apternodontidae”, and infer the extent to which they comprise a natural group unto themselves and are phylogenetically related to modern insectivoran-grade taxa.

Our analysis has several consequences. First, we propose to restrict the family Apternodontidae to the genus Apternodus, composed of seven species present in North America from the late middle Eocene through early Oligocene: A. mediaeus, baladontus, brevirostris, iliffensis, dasophylakas, major, and gregoryi. Clark’s (1937) “A.” altitalonidus is more closely related to Oligoryctes cameronensis and the Tabernacle Butte taxon; as such, we formalize the combination Oligoryctes altitalonidus. Although it is incompletely known, the nested position of the Tabernacle Butte taxon adjacent to O. altitalonidus, with O. cameronensis as sister taxon to both, indicates that the generic designation of the Tabernacle Butte taxon should be Oligoryctes.

Contrary to previous conceptions of the family Apternodontidae, extinct, North American, zalambdodont placentalss do not share a common ancestor to the exclusion of all other mammals. In this analysis, extant soricids are reconstructed as sister taxa to parapternodontids, a clade which is in turn closely related to Oligoryctes and Apternodus. Slightly more resolution for these taxa is achieved with the use of ordered characters, which support Oligoryctes as the sister taxon to a soricid-parapternodontid clade. This arrangement admittedly has weak branch support (fig. 57). Nevertheless, soricids share with one or more North American fossil zalambdodonts several characters, detailed above, including a medially pocketed coronoid process of the mandible, a premolariform p4, a mesiodistally short m3, a reduced maxillary zygoma, an absent alisphenoidal canal, anterior sinus canal and posterior nasal foramina, and morphology of the proximal femur. In general, we are impressed by the similarities among Apternodus, Oligoryctes, parapternodontids, and soricids, and predict that future fossil discoveries will support the afflication of these primarily North American fossil zalambdodonts with the Soricidae.

Another possible character linking some soricids to fossil zalambdodonts is tooth pigmentation. As detailed above, this appears to have been present in many specimens of Apternodus. We have opted not to include this character in our phylogenetic analyses due to the difficulty in establishing its presence consistently in fossil specimens. We would, however, encourage future researchers to examine more closely the distribution of this character in fossil zalambdodonts, shrews, and other extant taxa such as Solenodon.

As noted previously, McDowell (1958) argued forcefully against the association of Apternodus and Oligoryctes with any insectivoran-grade mammal, particularly shrews and Solenodon. In addition, McDowell was one of only a few 20th century morphologists who de-emphasized the dentition in trying to infer insectivoran-grade relationships. We would agree with McDowell (1958) that dental zalambdodonty is not a shared, derived character complex of all of the placentalss (notably tenrecs, golden moles, Solenodon, Apternodus, Oligoryctes, and parapternodontids) in which it occurs. Given the relative strength of molecular data supporting the afflication of tenrecs and golden moles...
with endemic African mammals (Stanhope et al., 1998; Murphy et al., 2001), it appears likely that these African zalambdodonts are not closely related to soricids or their North American fossil relatives.

However, as evident in the preceding pages, the material upon which McDowell based his assessment of fossil zalambdodonts is extremely limited compared to the present sample. We believe that his opinion that Apterodon is more closely related to creodonts than to North American insectivoran-grade placentals is incorrect. With the qualification that further tests including more extant (e.g., a greater variety of soricids) and fossil (e.g., nytitheriids) taxa are desirable, we tentatively conclude that parapternodontids, Apterodon, and Oligoryctes were part of a radiation of insectivoran-grade placental mammals that has played an integral role in the evolution of modern soricids.

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