On reconstructing *Giraffa sivalensis*, an extinct giraffid from the Siwalik hills, India

Sybrand J van Sittert, Graham Mitchell

Giraffa sivalensis occurred during the Plio-Pleistocene period and probably represents the terminal species of the genus in Southern Asia. The holotype is an almost perfectly preserved cervical vertebra of disputed anatomical location. Although there is also uncertainty regarding this animal's size, other specimens that have been assigned to this species include fragments of two humeri, a radius, metacarpi and teeth. Here we estimate neck length, leg length and body mass using interspecific and, unusually, ontogenetic allometry of extant giraffe skeletal parameters. The appropriateness of each equation to estimate body mass was evaluated by calculating the prediction error incurred in both extant giraffes (G. camelopardalis) and okapis (Okapia johnstoni). It followed that the equations with the lowest prediction error in both species were considered robust enough to use in G. sivalensis. The size of G. sivalensis, based on the holotype, is proposed as 400 kg (range 228 kg - 575 kg), with a neck length of approximately 147 cm and a height of 390 cm. The molar lengths of tooth specimens considered agree with this size estimate. The humerus was the most appropriate long bone to establish body mass, which estimates a heavier animal of ca 790 kg. The discrepancy with the vertebral body weight estimate might indicate sexual dimorphism. Radial and metacarpal specimens estimate G. sivalensis to be as heavy as extant giraffes. This may indicate that the radius and metacarpus are unsuitable for body mass predictions in *Giraffa spp*. Alternatively, certain long bones may have belonged to another long legged giraffid that occurred during the same period and locality as G. sivalensis. We have concluded that if sexual dimorphism was present then males would have been about twice the size of females. If sexual dimorphism was not present and all bones were correctly attributed to this species, then G. sivalensis had a slender neck with a relatively stocky body.

Introduction

$^{\circ}$	
_	

- 3 Giraffa sivalensis (Falconer & Cautley, 1843) was the first extinct Giraffa species to be
- 4 discovered, yet neither a complete skull nor specimens related to the holotype vertebra have been
- 5 found. Notwithstanding this limitation, many fossil specimens have been assigned as belonging
- 6 to this species, without adequate consideration of its size or without explicitly citing the
- 7 stratigraphic horizon of discovery (Table S1). In addition, many of the discovered specimens
- 8 have only been described in the Fauna Antiqua Sivalensis, which is a collection of Falconer's
- 9 publications and unpublished notes (Murchison, 1868). Although all the plates (notably plate E)
- within the Fauna Antiqua Sivalensis are well described (Falconer & Murchison, 1867), many of
- them have never been published.

12

- 13 History of G. sivalensis discovery
- In 1838 Cautley briefly described the discovery of a remarkable vertebra in the Siwalik Hills in
- 15 India. He believed the specimen to be very similar to that of extant giraffes a significant
- statement, because up until that time no other fossil *Giraffa* species were known. Falconer and
- 17 Cautley (1843) subsequently named the species *Camelopardalis sivalensis* and assigned the
- 18 fossil, which was to become the holotype (Badam, 1979), as a third cervical vertebra. Lydekker,
- 19 (1885a) however disputed this and proposed that the holotype was in actual fact a fifth cervical
- 20 vertebra of a 'very small individual'. Since Cautley's discovery, other *Giraffa*-like fossils have
- also been found in Asia, Europe and Africa, subsequently leading to proposals for species such
- 22 as G. priscilla, G. jumae, G. stillei, G. gracilis, G. pygmaea and G. punjabiensis. The references

23	to these fossil specimens are extensive, incomplete and confusing as can be seen by the
24	references to G. sivalensis alone in Table S1.
25	Geographic and stratigraphic distribution of fossils
26	Matthew (1929) placed the upper Siwalik deposits, where G. sivalensis fossils and nearly all
27	Siwalik fauna discovered by early writers such a Falconer have been found (Lydekker, 1876), as
28	part of the Pinjor zone (Gaur, Vasishat & Chopra, 1985; Akhtar et al., 1991; Nanda, 2002, 2008;
29	Bhatti, 2004). The Pinjor zone dates to roughly 2.58 to 0.6 million years ago, placing the fauna
30	discovered in this site as originating during the late Pliocene / early Pleistocene (Nanda, 2008).
31	The site of discovery of the holotype for G. sivalensis was presented by Falconer and Cautley
32	(1843) only as 'the Sewalik range to the west of the river Jumna' (currently the Yamuna river).
33	Although Spamer, Daeschler & Vostreys-Shapiro (1995) described the locality as 'Siwalik Hills,
34	near Hardwar, Uttar Pradesh', this is unlikely as Hardwar is east of the Yamuna. We therefore
35	believe the locality was probably in the vicinity of the current Shivalik fossil park, Saketi,
36	Himachal Pradesh, India (Figure 1).
37	
38	Size estimates and controversy
39	Size estimates of <i>G. sivalensis</i> have been inadequate or contradictory. For example, it has been
40	proposed that G. sivalensis was about 'one third shorter' with a neck about 'one tenth more
41	slender' than extant giraffes (Falconer & Cautley, 1843), and that the holotype belonged to a
42	very small individual (Lydekker, 1885a), that it had the same sized cranium as extant giraffes but
43	with a shorter neck (Lydekker, 1876), that it was a large species but smaller than extant giraffes
44	(Bhatti, 2004, p 155), that it was of comparable size to modern giraffes (Bhatti, 2004, p.255),
45	that it was larger than extant giraffes (Mitchell & Skinner, 2003) and that certain proportions of

the species' neck were larger than extant giraffes (Lydekker, 1876, p.105). Additional fossil 46 specimens originally thought to belong to a separate species, G. affinis (Falconer & Cautley, 47 1843), were subsequently shown to belong to G. sivalensis and are currently believed to indicate 48 a larger individual of the species (Lydekker, 1876, p.105; Bhatti, 2004, p140). Table 1 49 summarises previous size estimates for G. sivalensis. 50 51 In this paper we outline and clarify the relevant information about *G. sivalensis* and its remains. 52 In addition, we have made new estimates of its size and shape. 53 54

Materials and Methods

55

77

Studied material and dimensions measured 56 All postcranial specimens assigned to G. sivalensis that were available at the Natural History 57 Museum in London were studied. From these specimens, body and neck size estimates were 58 calculated using giraffe ontogenetic or available interspecific allometric equations. The only 59 60 vertebra measured was the holotype, specimen OR39747, which is a cervical vertebra. Falconer and Cautley (1843) presented an extensive description of this specimen. A caudal fragment of a 61 'fourth' cervical OR39748 (Lydekker, 1885a), also described as a second cervical by Falconer 62 (1845), as well as a caudal part of a 'third' cervical OR39746 (Lydekker, 1885a) that were 63 assigned to G. sivalensis were missing from the Siwalik collection at the Natural History 64 Museum. Dimensions were measured with a vernier calliper and included: vertebral body length, 65 cranial vertebral body height, cranial vertebral body width, caudal vertebral body height, caudal 66 vertebral body width and spinous process length (Figure 2). 67 68 Additional postcranial specimens assigned to G. sivalensis held at the Natural History Museum 69 include fragments of two humeri (OR39749 and OR17136; Figure 3 and Figure 4 respectively), a 70 71 fragment of a radius/ulna (OR17130) and various fragments of metacarpi and phalanges. All metacarpal specimens except OR39750 were avoided due to the unclear numbering of specimens 72 and deformation of the fossils. Measurements of the long bones included length, midshaft 73 74 circumference and midshaft diameter in craniocaudal and transverse planes. The length and circumference measurements were done with a measuring tape, while the cross sectional 75 diameters were done with a vernier calliper. 76

78	Because there is no complete G. sivalensis skeleton its shape needs to be inferred as analogous to
79	the only other extant Giraffa: G. camelopardalis. One of the methods of inferring body size from
80	a model animal or animals requires that regression equations in the form $y=mx^b$ (Huxley, 1932)
81	be constructed. These regression equations can be based on data from different species
82	(interspecific allometry), within the growth phase of a single animal (ontogenetic allometry) or
83	amongst adult animals of different size but within the same species (static allometry). We
84	applied ontogenetic as well as interspecific allometric equations to predict body mass in this
85	case.
86	
87	Ontogenetic data were obtained from previous studies by the authors (Mitchell, van Sittert &
88	Skinner, 2009; van Sittert, Skinner & Mitchell, 2010, 2015). These data were used to construct
89	allometric equations to describe body mass or body dimensions. The dimensions used from
90	ontogenetic vertebral data is summarised in Table 2. Interspecific regression equations were
91	sourced from previously published work (Anderson, Hall-Martin & Russell, 1985; Roth, 1990;
92	Scott, 1990; Campione & Evans, 2012). The dimensions measured for the long bone ontogenetic
93	data are summarised in Table 3
94	
95	There are inherent problems associated with using dental measurements as body size predictors,
96	especially when only a single tooth is used (Damuth, 1990; Fortelius, 1990; Janis, 1990).
97	Nevertheless, we have estimated size from teeth originally measured by Falconer & Cautley
98	(1843), even though these teeth were initially assigned to a new species G. affinis, a species that
99	was eventually abandoned (Lydekker, 1883). Uncertainty regarding these teeth specimens
100	persisted until recent times (Spamer, Daeschler & Vostreys-Shapiro, 1995). Teeth specimens

described by authors other than Falconer and Cautley which are noted in Supplementary Table 1 were not evaluated further as there was either uncertainty regarding the authors' species association (Lydekker, 1876), or the teeth specimens were not necessarily collected in the vicinity (or in the correct stratigraphical layer) of fossils described by Falconer and Cautley (Lydekker, 1878), or because certain specimens were deciduous. Table 4 presents dental specimens as well as dimensions as measured by Falconer and Cautley (1843). Body masses were estimated from regression equations established by Damuth (1990).

Statistical analyses

Allometric equations were generated from bivariate data through ordinary least squares regression. To facilitate this, measurements were logarithmically transformed to base *e* prior to analyses. According to Warton et al. (2006), ordinary least squares regression is appropriate when one wishes to predict y from x, even when x contains measurement error, as long as the results are interpreted in the context of 'predicting y from x measured with error'. It is worth noting that there is controversy regarding the practice of logarithmically transforming data in scaling studies (Packard, Boardman & Birchard, 2009, 2010; Cawley & Janacek, 2010; Packard, 2013). The main argument is whether error becomes larger as body mass increases (multiplicative error), in which case logarithmic transformation is appropriate, or whether there is no correlation between error and body mass, in which case logarithmic transformation is not appropriate (Glazier, 2013). The debate is ongoing and will not be reviewed here. In this study we selected the method of log-transformation of data as it enables more convenient comparison among similar datasets.

123	Because body dimensions (especially body masses) can be predicted by different equations and
124	by different fossil specimens, the predictions need to be validated. If regression equations had
125	reasonable power in estimating body mass in both extant Giraffids (G. camelopardalis and
126	O. johnstoni), then they were regarded as robust enough to extrapolate to G. sivalensis as well.
127	Therefore, dimensions of 10 okapi skeletons were recorded in addition to data obtained from
128	G. camelopardalis. The okapi skeletons were housed in various museums and were recorded as
129	the opportunities presented themselves (Table 5). Adult okapi specimens were assumed to have
130	weighed 250 kg, with a range of 200 kg to 300 kg (Lindsey & Bennett, 1999; Stuart & Stuart,
131	2006). The mature okapi specimens were identified both through additional data associated with
132	each museum specimen as well as by the degree of fusion of the epiphyses. The robustness of
133	giraffe ontogenetic as well as interspecific equations to predict body mass in both adult giraffes
134	and adult okapis correctly were assessed through the percent prediction error, calculated
135	according to Smith (1984) and van Valkenburgh (1990):
136	
137	((Observed value-Predicted value)/ Predicted value) x 100
138	
139	Assumptions made
140	One of the major assumptions of this study is that <i>G. sivalensis</i> dimensions can be modelled
141	from G. camelopardalis ontogeny. Although it is unusual to model an animal from the ontogeny
142	of a different species it is not unique (an example is Roth, 1990). In assigning the holotype to a
143	specific vertebra, we also assumed that there would be broad similarity in shape between the
144	cervical vertebrae of G. sivalensis and G. camelopardalis. Falconer and Cautley (1843)
145	illustrated this assumption to be the case for many but not all features of the holotype vertebra.

146	Another assumption was that the specimens used came from the same Giraffa species. We tried
147	to use only those specimens that were clearly attributable to the Plio-Pleistocene and to the
148	vicinity of the holotype discovery (Figure 1), to limit possible confusion with other Giraffa
149	species like G. punjabiensis. However, in some instances these criteria were not clear due to the
150	lack of other samples or information, as in the discussion of vertebrae OR39746 and OR39748.
151	Lastly, in terms of estimating body proportions in adult animals based on vertebral length,
152	similarity in shape to G. camelopardalis was assumed.

153	Results
154	Dimensions measured
155	The OR39747 and long bone dimensions measured are summarised in Table 2 and Table 3
156	respectively, and where applicable the dimensions contain the equivalent measured values
157	according to Falconer and Cautley (1843). Except for the cranial vertebral body height, our
158	measurements on OR39747 are within 1% to 5% of that reported by Falconer and Cautley
159	(1843). Dimensions measured from okapi skeletons are presented in Table 5. Table 5 also
160	contains predictions and prediction errors for okapi vertebral neck length based on G .
161	camelopardalis ontogenetic data.
162	
163	Predictions based on vertebra OR39747
164	Based on G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data, the average of dorsal and ventral neck length
165	including soft tissue in G. sivalensis was 1467 mm ($y = 1.55 x^{0.859}$), the vertebral neck length
166	excluding soft tissue was 1270 mm ($y = 10.66 x^{0.902}$) and the foreleg (hoof to withers) height in
167	the living G. sivalensis adult was 2540 mm ($y = 7.61x^{0.663}$, Table 6). This would mean that the
168	reaching height of G. sivalensis was around 3.9m.
169	
170	The different vertebral dimensions predict the body mass to be within a range of 228 kg to 575
171	kg, with an average of 373 kg (Table 7, 95% Confidence interval (CI) ± 168 kg). We identified
172	which of these dimensions could predict body mass accurately across species by calculating
173	prediction errors when applying the G. camelopardalis regression equations to both extant
174	giraffes and okapis. Naturally, because the predictions were done using G. camelopardalis
175	ontogenetic allometry, the <i>G. camelopardalis</i> prediction errors were lowest (8% to 50%).

176	Predictions for okapi body mass, however, ranged from 17% to 99%. The only variable which
177	provided relatively low body mass prediction errors in both okapi (17%) and G. camelopardalis
178	(25%) was the caudal vertebral body dorsoventral height. This dimension predicts a body mass
179	of 390 kg in G. sivalensis if we consider OR39747 as a third cervical. If OR39747 was
180	considered a fourth or fifth cervical, body mass predictions will be 274 kg ($y=0.0011*x^{3.128}$) or
181	187 kg (y = $0.0004*x^{3.285}$) respectively (Table 7).
182	
183	Predictions based on long bone dimensions
184	All of the G. sivalensis long bone specimens available at the Natural History Museum were
185	incomplete proximally and/or distally. It was clear, nevertheless, that the bones had a similar
186	slender appearance of extant giraffes and were elongated. Humeral specimen OR39749 was
187	almost complete except for the proximal metaphysis, which has clearly broken off at the physeal
188	line of a subadult animal. Regarding the radius/ulna specimen, the bones' fusion at the midshaft
189	was not complete as in modern giraffes, where the two bones are indistinguishable at midshaft in
190	adults. The metacarpus specimen included in the study had the same caudal 'columns' or caudal
191	groove as those evident in the extant giraffe (Solounias, 1999; van Schalkwyk, 2004; van
192	Schalkwyk, Skinner & Mitchell, 2004) as well as in those of the okapi (own observation).
193	
194	As no bones were complete length wise, bone length could not be used as a predictor for body
195	mass which, in any case, has been as shown to be a poor estimator of body mass in other taxa
196	(Scott, 1990). Based on circumferences of the humeri (OR39749 and OR17136) and using G.
197	camelopardalis ontogenetic data these specimens may have belonged to animals with body
198	weight in the range of 770 kg to 810 kg. An extant giraffe of this body mass would have a

199	humerus length of about 477 mm to 484 mm ($y=63.2*Body mass^{0.304}$), which is just slightly
200	longer than the 453 mm measured on OR39749 that lacked a distal metaphysis. The predictors
201	based on radial and metacarpal cross sectional dimensions offered much higher body mass
202	estimates, with averages of 1024 kg and 1107 kg respectively. In addition to employing
203	ontogenetic data to generate allometric equations, we also referred to previously published
204	interspecific studies (Anderson, Hall-Martin & Russell, 1985; Roth, 1990; Scott, 1990;
205	Campione & Evans, 2012). Interspecific equations tended to predict heavier body masses than
206	ontogenetic equations, especially so in the distal long bone samples.
207	
208	Predictions based on dental dimensions
209	Four molars and two premolars were used for size predictions (Table 4), using equations
210	developed by Damuth (1990). Body mass predictions based on tooth length (average = 577 kg,
211	standard deviation = 155 kg) tended to be smaller than the predictions based on tooth width
212	(average = 881 kg, standard deviation = 188 kg, $t(27) = 4.83$, $p < 0.01$). Predictions from molar
213	length dimensions also tended to be lower than those from premolar lengths (average from molar
214	lengths = 473 kg, average from premolar lengths = 682 kg, $t(9) = -3.12$, $p < 0.05$).
215	

Discussion

216

Vertebral identity of OR39747 217 The anatomical identity of OR39747 was disputed by Lydekker (1885a). He showed that 218 Falconer was in a habit of not counting the atlas and axis as cervical vertebrae – which often 219 meant that the start of the numbering of vertebra commenced at the third or occasionally the 220 221 second postcranial vertebra. Mammalian C3 to C5 forms a repetitive series and often does not have the distinguishing characteristics present in the other cervical vertebrae (Solounias, 1999). 222 It is therefore indeed challenging to assign OR39747 to a specific vertebra. However, if we 223 assume approximate similarity in shape between G. sivalensis and G. camelopardalis vertebrae, 224 there are clues in the extent to which the cranial articular processes (*Proc. articularis cranialis*) 225 extend beyond the body or centrum of the vertebra (Corpus vertebrae). In the G. camelopardalis 226 C3, this process extends well beyond the cranial extremity of the vertebral body, but ends before 227 or approximately at the same dorsoventral plane as the vertebral body in C4 and C5. Judging 228 229 then by the extent of the articular processes of OR39747, it is a third, fourth or fifth cervical in decreasing order of likelihood. Falconer was therefore correct in assigning this vertebra as a third 230 cervical, albeit fortuitously so. 231 232 Ontogenetic and interspecific scaling models 233 234 It is unusual although not unique to use ontogenetic allometry to predict an extinct animal's size. 235 For instance, Roth (1990) proposed that smaller animals of a species with distinctive 236 morphologies (be they juvenile or adult) may still be better analogues than other taxa, at least in 237 some aspects. We believe that this view is warranted in the current study as no extant species has 238 such an extreme shape as G. camelopardalis. Predicting fossil masses from interspecific

239	equations are further complicated by the decision of which taxa to include in regressions. For
240	example, it is not clear whether predictions generated from interspecific allometric data are more
241	accurate when based on closely related taxa with similar locomotor habits (Runestad, 1994;
242	Janis, Theodor & Boisvert, 2002) or when using a wider sampling base (De Esteban-Trivigno,
243	Mendoza & De Renzi, 2008). Other factors that may influence precision of body mass
244	predictions in interspecific studies are body mass estimations (instead of body mass
245	measurements), small intrataxa sample sizes, and overrepresentation of animals of one sex or of
246	exaggerated proportions. To overcome these problems, we investigated which ontogenetic
247	scaling parameters, if any, might be suitable and robust enough for predictions amongst extant
248	giraffidae. It is possible that giraffe ontogenetic equations are also acceptable for comparison not
249	just amongst the giraffidae but amongst, for example, extant camelids with similar gaits.
250	However, okapis were considered as an adequate reference in this case as they are closest to
251	giraffes phylogenetically and because the ontogenetic scaling of their long bones scales
252	differently to other cetartiodactyla (Kilbourne & Makovicky, 2012).
253	Ontogenetic scaling and interspecific scaling exponents are generally not interchangeable
254	(Gould, 1966; Pélabon et al., 2013); in this case it is dependent on the assumption that G .
255	sivalensis had a similar body plan as juvenile extant giraffes. We thus found it appropriate,
256	where possible, to test both ontogenetic and interspecific curves to infer proportions of
257	G. sivalensis, but realised that neither of these methods may be appropriate for each and every
258	dimensions measured.
259	

260 Neck length and reaching height

Badlangana, Adams & Manger (2009) presented interspecific predictions for vertebral neck
length based on vertebral body length. Using their data (presented in Table 1 of Badlangana,
Adams & Manger, 2009), we could estimate G. sivalensis C2-C7 vertebral neck length as 1150
mm (Table 6), slightly shorter (45 mm or 4%) than vertebral neck length calculated from our
ontogenetic data. There are therefore reasonable grounds to believe that our estimated neck
length based on ontogenetic data is valid, or at least close to interspecific curves. Further support
for this rationale can be seen where the G. camelopardalis ontogenetic curve gives appropriate
predictions for vertebral neck length in both the extant giraffe and okapi (Figure 5). Extant adult
giraffes have an average external neck length of about 2013 mm in males (1000 kg and above)
and 1832 mm in females (800 kg and above) (Mitchell, van Sittert & Skinner, 2009). Assuming
the same body plan for <i>G. sivalensis</i> as for <i>G. camelopardalis</i> , then <i>G. sivalensis</i> had around 350
mm (20%) to 550 mm (27%) shorter necks than modern giraffes, depending on whether
OR39747 came from a female or male animal. This is a slightly longer neck length than Falconer
& Cautley's (1843) estimated neck length for G. sivalensis, which is approximately a third
shorter than extant giraffes.

Body mass

The body mass predictions for *G. sivalensis* are wide (Figure 6). Possible reasons for the large range of predictions are that certain fossils were erroneously attributed to *G. sivalensis* and/or that certain specimens and allometric equations are inadequate for body mass predictions. Before decisions could be made regarding the validity of attributing a fossil to *G. sivalensis*, we ascertained the equations that were robust enough to predict body mass accurately across species.

284	Vertebra OR39747 body mass estimates
285	It is unconventional to use vertebrae as proxies for body mass, although due to the lack of other
286	samples it has been done before (see for instance Taylor, 2007; Taylor & Naish, 2007). As
287	OR39747 is the holotype, it necessitates that body mass estimates are made from it if other
288	Giraffa spp. specimens are to be attributed to it. Although vertebral body length has higher R ²
289	values than cross sectional vertebral properties (Table 7, van Sittert, Skinner & Mitchell, 2010),
290	cross sectional properties are still preferable predictors of body mass in this case. The first reason
291	is that R ² value is inferior to percent prediction error (%PE) and percent standard error of the
292	estimate when assessing reliability of body mass predictions through regressions (Smith, 1984).
293	Secondly, vertebral cross sectional properties are subjected to the stresses and strains within the
294	neck (Slijper, 1946) and therefore are a much better indicator of head and neck mass and by
295	implication body mass. Conversely, vertebral body length is influenced by factors other than
296	body mass such as the number of vertebrae in an anatomical area (compare birds and mammals'
297	cervical region) or the lifestyle of the animal. We found caudal vertebral height (dorsoventral
298	diameter) to have the lowest %PE (25% and 17%) when predicting body mass in both extant
299	giraffes and okapis respectively (Table 7, Figure 7), and therefore considered this dimension to
300	be most robust for body mass predictions across giraffids. There are no other published
301	interspecific regression equations using vertebral dimensions for the prediction of body mass in
302	ungulates of which we are aware. The caudal vertebral height predicts a body mass of 390 kg in
303	G. sivalensis. Interestingly, the average body mass prediction from the remaining vertebral
304	regression equations (C3 vertebral body length, cranial height, cranial width and caudal width,
305	Table 7) is fairly similar - 368 kg. The only body mass prediction to fall outside the 95%

306	confidence interval based on all vertebral dimensions including vertebral height (373 kg \pm 119
307	kg) is vertebral body length, predicting a mass of 575 kg.
308	Nevertheless, the body mass prediction from caudal vertebral height could be either an over or
309	underestimate. Considering it as an overestimate would mean that this animal had a relatively
310	heavy neck and head complex but a slender or lightweight body. This is unlikely as a larger head
311	and neck complex is unsupportable unless accompanied by a larger total body size (Taylor &
312	Wedel, 2013). Conversely an underestimate would mean a slender neck and head complex but a
313	relatively stocky body. This is a more plausible scenario and if indeed it is the case, it might
314	explain the discrepancy between vertebral and dental body mass predictions when compared to
315	those of limb bones.
316	
317	Limb bone body mass estimates
318	Interspecific long bone cross sectional properties, although probably more closely related to
319	body mass than any other variable, have nevertheless been found to be poor predictors of body
320	mass in giraffes and in some cases, okapis (McMahon, 1975; Anderson, Hall-Martin & Russell,
321	1985; Scott, 1990; Janis, Theodor & Boisvert, 2002), although it should be noted that a recent
322	interspecific study has shown giraffes to be more amenable to interspecific equation predictions
323	(Campione & Evans, 2012). Similarly, we found higher prediction errors with interspecific
324	equations compared to G. camelopardalis ontogenetic curves, with a 5% prediction error based
325	on humeral ontogenetic data (Figure 7). Errors were inflated when using more distal bones.
326	Therefore, the most appropriate long bone variable useful for G. sivalensis body mass
327	determination is very likely humeral cross sectional properties, using our ontogenetic G .
328	camelonardalis sample

329	
330	The average body mass estimated from humeral ontogenetic analysis is 732 kg. Interestingly,
331	this body mass is about 150 kg more than would be indicated by a G. camelopardalis of similar
332	neck length, and 342 kg more than the mass predicted from OR39747 cross sectional properties.
333	This could mean that either the humeral fossil specimens were incorrectly assigned to G .
334	sivalensis, that G. sivalensis had a relatively stockier body and thinner neck than G.
335	camelopardalis or that the holotype vertebra came from a female and the humeral specimens
336	from large males.
337	Unfortunately, none of the other long bone dimensions seem to be reliable predictors of body
338	mass across extant giraffids. The best non-humerus candidate using interspecific scaling seems
339	to be the radius transverse diameter with a 43% and 11% prediction error in okapis and giraffes
340	respectively. This dimension predicts that the specimen belonged to an animal of approximately
341	1238 kg, which suggests this animal might have been heavier than G. sivalensis. There are no
342	interspecific equations for metacarpi that we could find, and therefore we could only rely on
343	ontogenetic equations. Yet, similar to the radial prediction, the metacarpal transverse diameter
344	predicts a body mass of 1165 with around 20% prediction error. The inflated prediction errors
345	could be because humeri and femora are generally more suitable for body mass predictions than
346	more distal bones, especially in giraffes (McMahon, 1975). It is also possible that the fossil long
347	bones were incorrectly assigned to G. sivalensis and perhaps belonged to another similar species
348	existing at the same time and location.
349	

350 Dental body mass estimates

There have been numerous dental specimens ascribed to G. sivalensis (Supplementary Table 1).
Unfortunately, not all of these specimens are from the same locality and are probably from
different stratigraphic zones. Subsequently, there appeared to be uncertainty regarding the
correct species allocation of these fossils (see especially Lydekker, 1876). A discussion on the
morphology and correct species classification of teeth specimens assigned to G. sivalensis were
not considered as part of this study, and we therefore used only those teeth mentioned by
Falconer and Cautley (1843). These specimens were originally assigned to the species G. affinis -
a classification later abandoned by Falconer himself and also disputed by Lydekker (1883), who
re-assigned the fossils to G. sivalensis. As the specimens originated from the same area and
strata as the holotype OR39747, which is the Pliocene of the Siwaliks (Lydekker, 1885a), we
believe it reasonable to consider them as truly G. sivalensis teeth until further evidence emerges.
Molar length measurements are more reliable indicators of body mass than molar width or area
(Damuth, 1990; Fortelius, 1990; Janis, 1990). Furthermore, Janis (1990) found that premolar row
length are poorer correlates than molar row length. Molar lengths predict an animal within the
range of 288 kg to 673 kg, which is similar to OR39747's caudal vertebral height body mass
prediction of 390 kg.
Combined size estimates
Lydekker's (1885a) suggestion that OR39747 belonged to a small individual could have meant
that the animal was still immature, that the animal was a relatively small individual of the species
or that the species itself was small within the genus. It is unlikely that Lydekker meant an
immature animal as the fusion of the epiphyses to the body of the vertebra is complete and clear

definitions of bony ridges and muscular depressions indicate a mature animal (Falconer &
Cautley, 1843). Lydekker might have based his idea of a small individual on two larger vertebrae
assigned to G. sivalensis - a proximal part of a 'third' and distal part of a 'fourth' cervical,
OR39746 and OR39748 respectively (Lydekker, 1885a, Table S1). Unfortunately, these
vertebrae were not locatable within the Siwalik collection at the time of this study (Personal
communication, P Brewer, Curator of fossil mammals, Natural History Museum, 2013), and we
subsequently could not measure them. Nevertheless, Falconer (1845) reported OR39748 to be
2.1 inch (53.3 mm) in height and width at the caudal extremity, which is only 0.2 mm greater and
0.1 mm less than our respective measurements of OR39747 (Table 2). Based on ontogenetic
allometry for caudal vertebral body height, OR39748 came from an animal weighing 394 kg or
277 kg, depending on whether it was a C3 or C4 vertebra respectively (Table 7). The animal
from which the holotype vertebrae originated was therefore also not relatively small compared to
the size estimated from specimen OR39748. It is possible though, especially considering body
mass estimates from the humerus, that there might have been sexual size dimorphism present in
G. sivalensis. If that is indeed the case, OR39747 and OR39748 would have been females about
half the size of fully grown male animals, a possibility also supported by the fossil teeth
considered in body mass estimates.

Conclusion

Our considered opinion is that the *G. sivalensis*, from which the holotype cervical vertebra originated weighed approximately 400 kg, had a neck length of about 1.47 m and a reaching height of 3.9 m. There is a possibility that it displayed sexual dimorphism, in which case male animals would have been a little less than twice the size of females and both would have had a

- 397 similar morphology. If sexual dimorphism was not present and all bones were correctly
- 398 attributed to this species, then the animal had a slender neck with a relatively stocky body, a
- shape that is not unrealistic to imagine.

100	References:
101	Akhtar M, Sarwar M, Saeed M, Khan AA. 1991. Vertical distribution of Siwalik Giraffids. <i>Acta Scientia</i>
102	1:145–152.
103	Anderson JF, Hall-Martin A, Russell DA. 1985. Long-bone circumference and weight in mammals, birds
104	and dinosaurs. Journal of Zoology 207:53–61.
105	Badam GL. 1979. Pleistocene Fauna of India with special reference to the Siwaliks. Pune, India: Deccan
106	College Postgraduate and Research Institute.
107	Badlangana NL, Adams JW, Manger PR. 2009. The giraffe (Giraffa camelopardalis) cervical vertebral
108	column: a heuristic example in understanding evolutionary processes? Zoological Journal of the
109	Linnean Society 155:736–757.
110	Bhatti ZH. 2004. Taxonomy, evolutionary history and biogeography of the Siwalik giraffids. PhD Thesis.
111	Lahore: University of the Punjab.
112	Campione NE, Evans DC. 2012. A universal scaling relationship between body mass and proximal limb
113	bone dimensions in quadrupedal terrestrial tetrapods. BMC Biology 10:60.
114	Cautley PT. 1838. Note on a fossil ruminant genus allied to Giraffidae, in the Siwalik Hills. Journal of the
115	Asiatic Society of Bengal 7:658–660.
116	Cawley GC, Janacek GJ. 2010. On allometric equations for predicting body mass of dinosaurs. Journal of
117	Zoology 280:355–361.
118	Damuth J. 1990. Problems in estimating body masses of archaic ungulates using dental measurements.
119	In: Body Size in Mammalian Paleobiology: Estimation and Biological Implications. Cambridge:
120	Cambridge University Press, 229–253.
121	De Esteban-Trivigno S, Mendoza M, De Renzi M. 2008. Body mass estimation in Xenarthra: a predictive
122	equation suitable for all quadrupedal terrestrial placentals? Journal of morphology 269:1276–
123	1293.

424	Falconer H. 1845. Description of some fossil remains of Dinotherium, Giraffe, and other mammalia, from
425	the Gulf of Cambay, western coast of India, chiefly from the collection presented by Captain
426	Fulljames, of the Bombay Engineers, to the Museum of the Geological Society. Quarterly Journal
427	of the Geological Society 1:356–372.
428	Falconer H. 1868. Description by Dr. Falconer of fossil remains of Giraffe in the museum of Asiatic
429	Society of Bengal. In: Murchison C ed. Palaeontological memoirs and notes of the late Hugh
430	Falconer. Fauna Antiqua Sivalensis. London: R. Hardwicke, 206–207.
431	Falconer H, Cautley PT. 1843. On some fossil remains of Anoplotherium and Giraffe, from the Sewalik
432	Hills, in the north of India. Proceedings of the Geological Society of London 4:235–249.
433	Falconer H, Murchison C. 1867. Description of the plates of the Fauna Antiqua Sivalensis. London: R.
434	Hardwicke.
435	Fortelius M. 1990. Problems with sing fossil teeth to estimate body sizes of extinct mammals. In:
436	Damuth J, MacFadden BJ eds. Body Size in Mammalian Paleobiology: Estimation and Biological
437	Implications. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,.
438	Gaur R, Vasishat N, Chopra SRK. 1985. New and some additional fossil mammals from the Siwaliks
439	exposed at Nurpur, Kangra district, H.P. Journal of the palaeontological society of India 30:42-
440	48.
441	Glazier DS. 2013. Log-transformation is useful for examining proportional relationships in allometric
442	scaling. Journal of theoretical biology 334:200–203.
443	Gould SJ. 1966. Allometry and size in ontogeny and phylogeny. Biological reviews of the Cambridge
444	Philosophical Society 41:587–640.
445	Huxley JS. 1932. Problems of relative growth. New York: The dial press.
446	International Committee on, Veterinary Gross Anatomical Nomenclature. 2012. Nomina Anatomica
447	Veterinaria (N.A.V.).

148	Janis CM. 1990. Correlation of cranial and dental variables with body size in ungulates and
149	macropodoids. In: Body size in mammalian paleobiology: estimation and biological implications.
150	Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,.
151	Janis CM, Theodor JM, Boisvert B. 2002. Locomotor evolution in camels revisited: a quantitative analysis
152	of pedal anatomy and the acquisition of the pacing gait. Journal of vertebrate paleontology
153	22:110–121.
154	Kilbourne BM, Makovicky PJ. 2012. Postnatal long bone growth in terrestrial placental mammals:
155	Allometry, life history, and organismal traits. Journal of Morphology 273:1111–1126.
156	Lindsey SL, Bennett CL. 1999. The Okapi: Mysterious Animal of Congo-Zaire. University of Texas Press.
157	Lydekker R. 1876. Notes on the fossil mammalian faunae of India and Burma. In: Records of the
158	Geological Survey of India. London: Trübner and Co., 86–105.
159	Lydekker R. 1878. Notices of Siwalik Mammals. In: Records of the Geological Survey of India. London:
160	Trübner and Co., 83–95.
161	Lydekker R. 1883. Indian Tertiary and post Tertiary vertebrata: Siwalik Camelopardalidae. In: Memoirs of
162	the Geological survey of India: Palaeontologica Indica, Being Figures and Descriptions of the
163	Organic Remains Procured During the Progress of the Geological Survey of India. Calcutta:
164	Geological survey of India, by order of the Governor-General of India, 99–142.
165	Lydekker R. 1885a. Catalogue of fossil mammalia. Part ii. Containing the order ungulata, suborder
166	Artiodactyla. London: Taylor and Francis. Printed by order of the Trustees.
167	Lydekker R. 1885b. Catalogue of the remains of Siwalik Vertebrata contained in the Geological
168	Department of the Indian Museum, Calcutta. Printed by the Superintendent of Government
169	Printing, India.
170	Matthew WD. 1929. Critical observations upon Siwalik mammals : (exclusive of Proboscidea). Bulletin of
171	the American Museum of Natural History 56:437–560.

172	McMahon TA. 1975. Allometry and Biomechanics: Limb Bones in Adult Ungulates. <i>The American</i>
173	Naturalist 109:547–563.
174	Mitchell G, van Sittert SJ, Skinner JD. 2009. Sexual selection is not the origin of long necks in giraffes.
175	Journal of Zoology (London) 278:281–286.
176	Mitchell G, Skinner JD. 2003. On the origin, evolution and phylogeny of giraffes Giraffa camelopardalis.
177	Transactions of the Royal Society of South Africa 58:51–73.
178	Murchison C. (ed.) 1868. Palæontological Memoirs and Notes of the Late Hugh Falconer: With a
179	Biographical Sketch of the Author. London: R. Hardwicke.
180	Nanda AC. 2002. Upper Siwalik mammalian faunas of India and associated events. Journal of Asian Earth
181	Sciences 21:47–58.
182	Nanda AC. 2008. Comments on the Pinjor Mammalian Fauna of the Siwalik Group in relation to the post-
183	Siwalik faunas of Peninsular India and Indo-Gangetic Plain. Quaternary International 192:6–13.
184	Packard GC. 2013. Is logarithmic transformation necessary in allometry? Biological Journal of the
185	Linnean Society 109:476–486.
186	Packard GC, Boardman TJ, Birchard GF. 2009. Allometric equations for predicting body mass of
187	dinosaurs. Journal of Zoology 279:102–110.
188	Packard GC, Boardman TJ, Birchard GF. 2010. Allometric equations for predicting body mass of
189	dinosaurs: a comment on Cawley & Janacek (2010). Journal of Zoology 282:221–222.
190	Pélabon C, Bolstad GH, Egset CK, Cheverud JM, Pavlicev M, Rosenqvist G. 2013. On the relationship
191	between ontogenetic and static allometry. The American naturalist 181:195–212.
192	Roth VL. 1990. Insular dwarf elephants: a case study in body mass estimation and ecological inference.
193	In: Damuth JD, MacFadden BJ eds. Body Size in Mammalian Paleobiology: Estimation and
194	Biological Implications. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 151–179.

495	Runestad JA. 1994. Humeral and Femoral Diaphyseal Cross-sectional Geometry and Articular Dimensions
496	in Prosimii and Platyrrhini (primates) with Application for Reconstruction of Body Mass and
497	Locomotor Behavior in Adapidae (primates: Eocene). Johns Hopkins University.
498	Van Schalkwyk OL. 2004. Bone density and calcium and phosphorous content of the giraffe (Giraffa
499	camelopardalis) and African buffalo (Syncerus caffer) skeletons. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
500	Van Schalkwyk OL, Skinner JD, Mitchell G. 2004. A comparison of the bone density and morphology of
501	giraffe (Giraffa camelopardalis) and buffalo (Syncerus caffer) skeletons. Journal of zoology
502	264:307–315.
503	Scott K. 1990. Postcranial dimensions of ungulates as predictors of body mass. In: Damuth J, MacFadden
504	BJ eds. Body size in mammalian paleobiology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,.
505	Van Sittert SJ, Skinner JD, Mitchell G. 2010. From fetus to adult - an allometric analysis of the giraffe
506	vertebral column. Journal of Experimental Zoology Part B Molecular and Developmental
507	Evolution 314B:469–479.
508	Van Sittert S, Skinner J, Mitchell G. 2015. Scaling of the appendicular skeleton of the giraffe (Giraffa
509	camelopardalis). Journal of Morphology 276:503–516.
510	Slijper EJ. 1946. Comparative biologic-anatomical investigations on the vertebral column and spinal
511	musculature of mammals. Verhandelingen der Koninklijke Nederlandsche Akademie van
512	Wetenschappen Afdeling Natuurkunde 42:1–128.
513	Smith RJ. 1984. Allometric scaling in comparative biology: problems of concept and method. American
514	Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology 246:R152–R160.
515	Solounias N. 1999. The remarkable anatomy of the giraffe's neck. Journal of Zoology (London) 247:257–
516	268.

517	Spamer EE, Daeschler E, Vostreys-Shapiro LG. 1995. A Study of Fossil Vertebrate Types in the Academy of
518	Natural Sciences of Philadelphia: Taxonomic, Systematic, and Historical Perspectives. Academy
519	of Natural Sciences.
520	Stuart C, Stuart M. 2006. Field Guide to Larger Mammals of Africa. Struik Publishers.
521	Taylor MP. 2007. Xenoposeidon week, day 4: the question everyone is asking how big was it?
522	Sauropod Vertebra Picture of the Week.
523	Taylor MP, Naish D. 2007. An Unusual New Neosauropod Dinosaur from the Lower Cretaceous Hastings
524	Beds Group of East Sussex, England. <i>Palaeontology</i> 50:1547–1564.
525	Taylor MP, Wedel MJ. 2013. Why sauropods had long necks; and why giraffes have short necks. PeerJ
526	1:e36.
527	Van Valkenburgh B. 1990. Skeletal and dental predictors of body mass in carnivores. In: Body size in
528	mammalian paleobiology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,.
529	Warton DI, Wright IJ, Falster DS, Westoby M. 2006. Bivariate line-fitting methods for allometry.
530	Biological reviews of the Cambridge Philosophical Society 81:259–291.

531

1

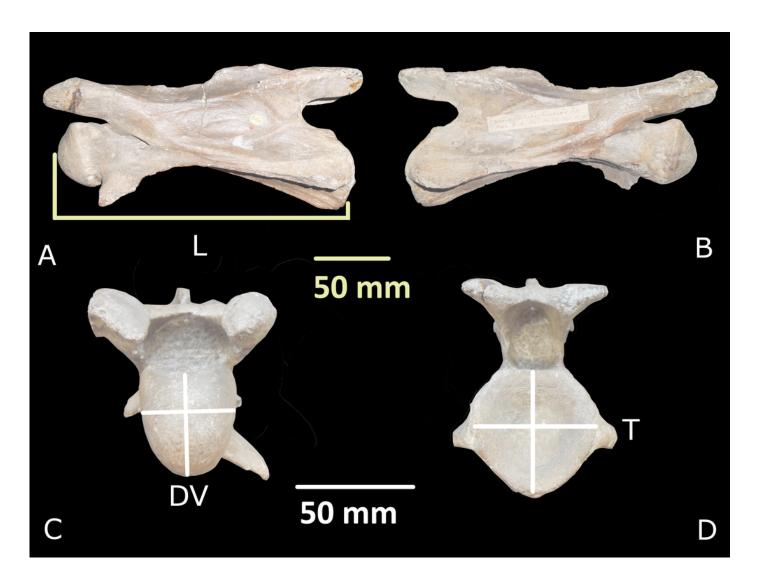
A map indicating the probable vicinity of *G. sivalensis* fossil discoveries.

The marker indicates the location of the Shivalik Fossil Park in the Siwalik Hills, a subHimalayan mountain range. This is most probably the area 'west to the river Jumna' (currently Yamuna River) to which Falconer and Cautley (1843) referred. Map data: AutoNavi, Google.



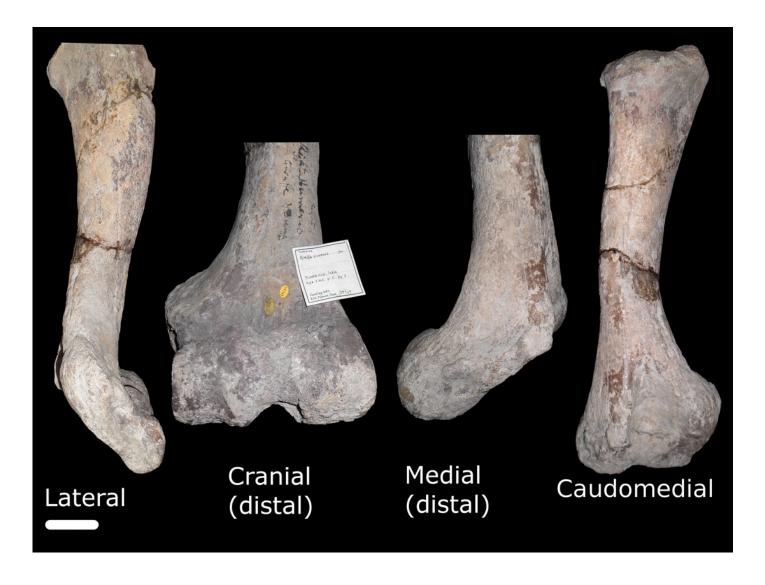
Giraffa sivalensis holotype, specimen OR39747.

Presented, from left to right, in left lateral (A), right lateral (B), cranial (C) and caudal (D) views. On left lateral view the line indicates the landmarks for the vertebral body length (L) measurement. On cranial and caudal views the vertical lines indicate the height (dorsoventral, DV) while the horizontal lines indicate the width (transverse, T) measurements.



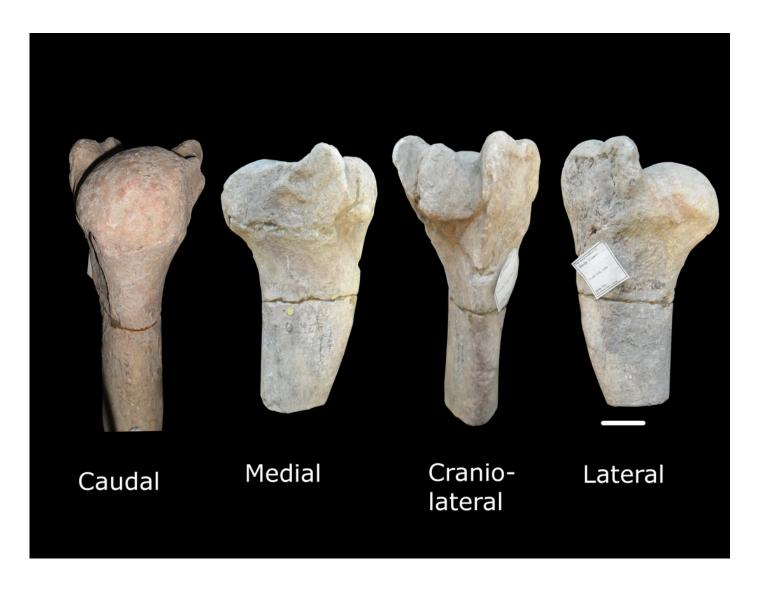
Specimen OR39749.

This image represents different views of a right humerus that has been assigned to *G. sivalensis*. The different views are not to scale; where only distal parts of the bone are shown, these have been enlarged relative to images of the specimen in toto. The scale bar indicates 50 mm and pertains to the lateral view only.



Specimen OR17136.

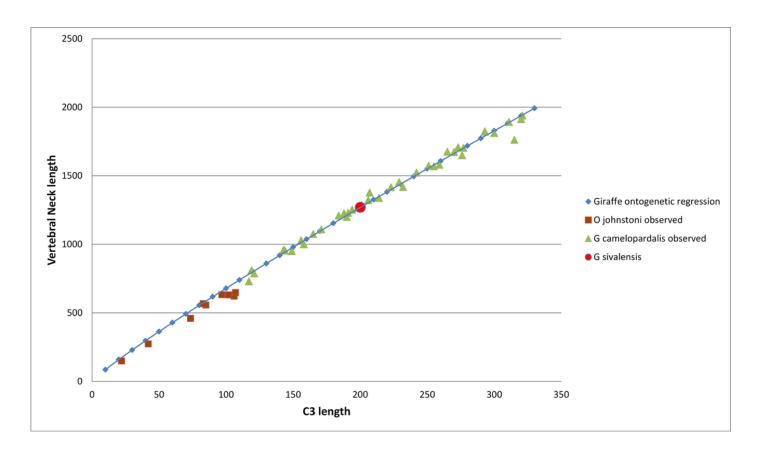
This represents different views of the proximal part of a left humerus that has been assigned to *G. sivalensis*. The scale bar indicates 50 mm and pertains to the lateral view only as the different views are not drawn to scale.



5

The relationship between neck length and C3 vertebral length throughout ontogeny in giraffes and okapis.

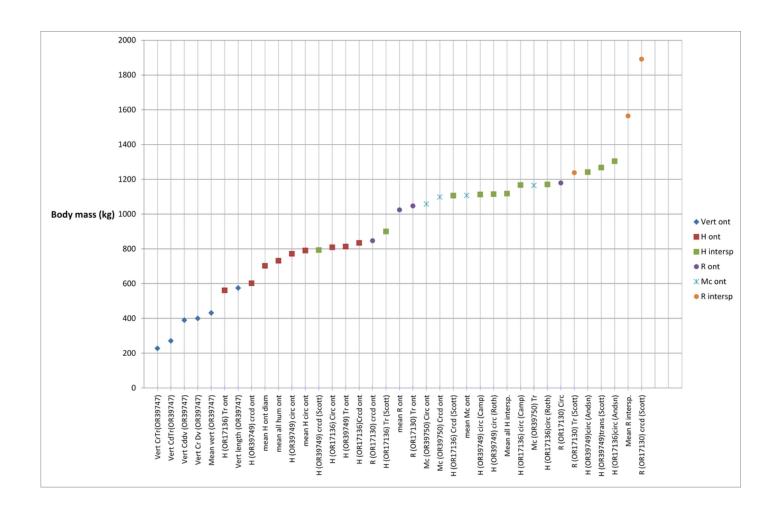
A regression line is based on the giraffe ontogenetic series and is extrapolated to the okapi range. The use of a regression line for ontogenetic and phylogenetic allometry seems to be appropriate in this case, supporting the use of a giraffe ontogenetic regression line to predict a neck length value for *G. sivalensis*.



6

Body mass predictions for *G. sivalensis* based on various fossil specimens.

The labels are divided into predictions from vertebral dimensions (diamond shapes), humeral dimensions (squares), radial dimensions (circles) and metacarpal dimensions (crosses). The humeral and radial dimensions are further subdivided into those originating from ontogenetic allometric equations (red and purple, respectively) and those from interspecific equations (green and orange, respectively). Note that the interspecific predictions generally provide heavier estimates of body mass than predictions based on ontogenetic data. Furthermore, the distal bones tend to predict higher values than the proximal (humerus) bone predictions. Vertebral predictions give the lightest body mass estimates. Abbreviations: Vert: Vertebral body; H: Humerus; R: Radius; Mc: Metacarpus; Cr: Cranial; Cd: Caudal; CrTr: Cranial Transverse Dimension; CrDv: Cranial Dorsoventral Diameter; CdTr: Caudal Transverse Diameter; Cddv: Caudal Dorsoventral Diameter; Crcd: Craniocaudal Midshaft Diameter; Tr: Transverse Midshaft Diameter; Circ: Midshaft Circumference; ont: ontogenetic sample; inters: interspecific sample; Sc, (Scott, 1990); Ro, (Roth, 1990); An, (Anderson, Hall-Martin & Russell, 1985)



The body mass prediction errors (absolute values) associated with various dimensions in *Okapia johnstoni* and *Giraffa camelopardalis*.

Of the available regressions and variables measured, it would appear that humeral circumference and craniocaudal diameter (using *G. camelopardalis* ontogenetic regression) is best suited for body mass predictions, both in giraffes and okapis, and therefore also likely to be useful for body mass predictions in *G. sivalensis*. Vertebral caudal dorsoventral diameter represents an acceptable variable should estimates only be based on the holotype, with prediction errors of 17% and 25% in giraffes and okapis respectively. Different shapes indicate different bones used for body mass predictions. Note that for clarity of the graph, the maximum indicated prediction error is 100%. Abbreviations: Oj: *Okapia johnstoni*; Gc: *Giraffa camelopardalis*; P.E: Prediction Error; other abbreviations as listed for Figure 2.

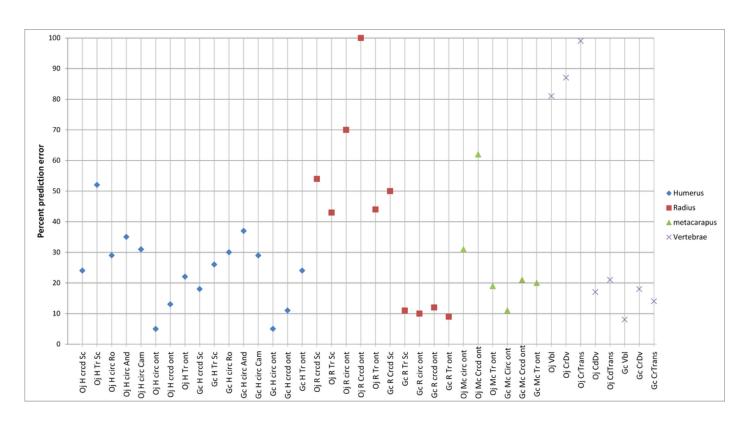


Table 1(on next page)

Previous size estimates of *G. sivalensis*

Size estimate	Author	Relevant specimens/ comments
'One third shorter' with a neck	Falconer & Cautley, 1843;	Holotype vertebra, OR39747
'one tenth more slender' as	Lydekker, 1876 (p.105)	Tholotype vertebra, ON39747
extant giraffes.	Lydekker, 1870 (p.103)	
	Photti 2004 p 155	No specimen referred to
Large species but smaller than	Bhatti, 2004, p. 155	No specimen referred to.
extant giraffes.	Dhatti 2004 - 225	No sussing an aufamant to
Of comparable size to modern	Bhatti, 2004, p.225	No specimen referred to.
giraffes.	1 1 1 1 1076 105	0000747 1 111 1 111 1
Similar head size to extant	Lydekker, 1876, p.105	OR39747. Lydekker noted that
giraffes but with a shorter neck.		the areas of the zygoapohyses
		are 'considerably larger' than in
		those of extant giraffes, making
		the neck 'at least equally
		strong' as that that of extant
		giraffes. The larger cranial and
		caudal articular surfaces were
		also noted by Falconer and
Circilar in size to extent significa-	Ludalder 1002	Cautley (1843).
Similar in size to extant giraffes.	Lydekker, 1883	Cervical vertebra similar in size
		as that of <i>G. camelopardalis</i> .
		Referring to an imperfect 'first'
		cervical vertebra, later
		catalogued as a 'third' cervical,
Clark H. January H. and January	M	BM39746 (Lydekker, 1885a).
Slightly larger than extant	Murchison, 1868, P207	Right humerus. Museum of the
giraffes.		Asiatic Society of Bengal no 43,
		Natural History Museum no 39749. Exact form to that of
		extant giraffes, but a little
		larger (Falconer, 1868). Lydekker (1885a) however
		mentioned that this fossil bone
		originated from a 'small
		individual'.
Similar in size to extant giraffes.	Murchison, 1868, p.206	Left radius. Asiatic Museum of
Similar in size to extant giralles.	19101 (1113011, 1308, μ.200	Bengal no 690. Nearly equal in
		dimensions to existing giraffes.
Similar in size to extant giraffes.	Murchison, 1868, p.207	Left metacarpus. Asiatic
Jilliai ili size to extait giralles.	19101 (1115011, 1606, μ.207	Museum of Bengal no 52. Of
		the size of existing giraffe.
Similar in size to extant giraffes.	Lydekker, 1885a	Phalangeals, no 17131a. Almost
Similar in size to extant giranes.	Lyuerrei, 1003a	indistinguishable from the
		corresponding bones of extant
		giraffes.
Similar in size to extant female	Falconer & Cautley, 1843	Fragments from upper and
giraffes.	l alconer & Cautiey, 1043	lower jaws. Falconer originally
giralles.		lower jaws. raiconer originally

		ascribed these specimens to <i>G. affinis</i> . Lydekker (1876) however refuted this species and proposed that it in actual fact <i>G. sivalensis</i> .
Larger than extant giraffes with smaller teeth than extant giraffes.	Mitchell & Skinner, 2003	Review of literature.

Table 2(on next page)

Dimensions for the *G. sivalensis* holotype; a well preserved third cervical vertebra (OR39747)

Falconer and Cautley's (1843) findings are also presented. All values in mm. Nomenclature is based on the Nomina Anatomica Veterinaria (International Committee on & Veterinary Gross Anatomical Nomenclature, 2012)

Dimension and description	Falconer & Cautley (1843)'s terminology	Present study's measurement (± 95% confidence interval for three measurements) (mm)	Falconer & Cautley (1843) measurement (mm)
Vertebral body length: Longitudinal axis of the vertebral body (Corpus vertebrae), from the most cranial curvature of the cranial extremity (Extremitas cranialis [Caput vertebrae]) to the most caudal part of the caudal extremity (Extremitas caudalis [Fossa vertebrae])	Length of the body of the vertebrae between articulating heads.	200.2 ± 0.7	198.1
Cranial vertebral body height: Greatest dorsoventral height of	Vertical height articulating head?		25.4
cranial extremity.	Antero-posterior diameter articulating head?	42.9 ± 1.4	48.3
Cranial vertebral body width: Greatest transverse width of cranial extremity.	Greatest diameter at articulating head	36.2±2.8	35.6
Caudal Vertebral body height: Greatest dorsoventral height of caudal extremity.	Vertical diameter, articular cup, posterior end	53.1±0.3	50.8
Caudal vertebral body width: Greatest transverse width of caudal extremity.	Transverse diameter, articular cup, posterior end	53.4±0.3	50.8
Spinous process length: From roof of the vertebral foramen to the highest point of the spinous process, perpendicular to the long axis of the vertebral body.		21.8±2.6	

Table 3(on next page)

Dimensions for long bone specimens marked as belonging to *G. sivalensis*.

All values in mm. OR39749 is marked as a juvenile. Abbreviations: H: Humerus; R: Radius; Mc: Metacarpus; L: Length; Circ: Midshaft circumference; Cr: midshaft craniocaudal diameter; Tr: midshaft transverse diameter.* distal proportion lacking. † only diaphysis. ‡ proximal metaphysis missing.

Specimen	HL	HCirc	HCr	HTr	RL	RCirc	RCr	RTr	McL	MCirc	McCr	McTr
no												
OR39750*									389	186	53	60
OR17130†					220	217	53	71				
OR39749‡	453	212	66	66								
OR17136*	279	216	76	57								

2

Table 4(on next page)

Summary of fossil teeth assigned to *G. affinis* by Falconer and Cautley (1843), and subsequently assigned to *G. sivalensis*. All regressions equations were obtained from Damuth (1990).

Abbreviations: TUML: Third Upper Molar Length, TUMW: Third Upper Molar Width, SUMW: Second Upper Molar Width, TLML: Third Lower Molar Length, TLMW: Third Lower Molar Width, TLPL: Third Lower Premolar Length, TLPW: Third Lower Premolar Width, SUPL: Second Upper Premolar Length, SUPW: Second Upper Premolar Width, SD: Sample Standard Deviation

Fossil specimens	Museum no	References to specimen	Dimensions	Relevant regression equation (reference)	Body mass prediction
			Joint length of two back molars, maxilla =2.5 in = 63.5mm		
Fragment of left maxilla including two rear molars. The 'back part of the maxillary, beyond the teeth, is attached'.			Greatest with of last molar = 1.4 in = 35.56 mm	38.02xTUMW ^{^2.77} (all ungulates)	752 kg
				32.36 x TUMW ^{^2.87} (all selenodonts)	945kg
	39756 a (Lydekker, 1885a)	Figured in Plate 2 fig. 3a and 3b of Falconer & Cautley, (1843).		17.78 x TUMW^2.97 (selenodont browsers)	718 kg
			Greatest with of penultimate molar = 1.45 in = 36.83 mm	32.36xSUMW ^{^2.78} (all ungulates)	731 kg
				22.91 x SUMW ^{^2.96} (all selenodonts)	991 kg
				12.02 x SUMW ^{^3.08} (selondont browsers)	801 kg
			Average of width measurements (SD)		823 (117) kg
			Length = 1.2 in = 30.48 mm * it is not sure whether this is the greatest dimensions or occlusal surface.	19.50 xTUML ^{^2.81} (all ungulates)	288 kg
				8.71 x TUML ^{^3.12} (all selenodonts)	372 kg
Rear molar of right maxilla	39756 (Lydekker, 1885a)	Figured in Plate 2 fig. 4 of Falconer and Cautley (1843).		6.31 x TUML ^{^3.29} (selenodont browsers)	481 kg
			Average of length measurements (SD)		380 (97) kg
			Width = 1.4 in = 35.56 mm * it is not sure whether this is the greatest dimensions or occlusal	38.02xTUMW^2.77 (all ungulates)	752 kg

Fossil specimens	Museum no	References to specimen	Dimensions	Relevant regression equation (reference)	Body mass prediction
			surface.		
				32.36 x TUMW ^{^2.87} (all selenodonts)	915 kg
				17.78 x TUMW^2.97 (selenodont browsers)	718 kg
			Average of width measurements (SD)		795 (105) kg
			Length = 1.7 in =43.18 mm	6.31 xTLML ^{^2.99} (all ungulates)	489 kg
		Figured in plate 2 figure 5a and 5b of Falconer & Cautley, (1843).		3.24 x TLML ^{^3.19}	533 kg
Fragment of left				(all selenodonts) 2.24 x TLML ^{^3.35} (selenodont browsers)	673 kg
	39755		Average of length measurements (SD)		565 (96) kg
mandible containing the third molar	(Lydekker, 1885a)		Greatest width = 1.0 in = 25.4 mm	109.64xTLMW ^{2.73} (all ungulates)	750 kg
				77.62 x TLMW ^{^2.93} (all selenodonts)	1014 kg
				64.56x TLMW ^{^2.88} (selenodont browsers)	718 kg
			Average of width measurements (SD)		827 (162) kg
			Length = 1.0 in = 25.4 mm	79.43xTLPL ^{^2.76} (all ungulates)	599 kg
				61.66xTLPL ^{^2.92} (all selenodonts)	780 kg
				20.42x TLPL ^{^3.19} (selenodont browsers)	618 kg
Third premolar of the	39757 (Lydekker,	Figured in Plate 2 figure 6 of Falconer	Average of length measurements (SD)		666 (99) kg
left mandible, detached.	1885a)	& Cautley, (1843).	Width = 0.9 in = 22.86 mm	524.81xTLPW ^{^2.45} (all ungulates)	1121 kg
				524.81x TLPW ^{2.53} (all selenodonts)	1440 kg
				398.11x TLPW ^{^2.49} (selenodont browsers)	964 kg
			Average of width measurements (SD)		1175 (243) kg
Second premolar of right maxilla		Figured in Plate 2 figure 7 of Falconer & Cautley, (1843).	Length = 1.0 in = 25.4 mm	169.82xSUPL^2.51 (all ungulates)	570 kg

Fossil specimens	Museum no	References to specimen	Dimensions	Relevant regression equation (reference)	Body mass prediction
				141.25xSUPL ^{^2.65} (all selenodonts)	746 kg
				20.41xSUPL ^{^3.26} (selenodont browsers)	776 kg
			Average of length measurements (SD)		697 (111) kg
			Width = 1.12 in = 28.45 mm	380.19xSUPW ^{^2.3} (all ungulates)	840 kg
				416.87xSUPW ^{^2.31} (all selenodonts)	953 kg
				208.93x SUPW^2.44 (selenodont browsers)	738 kg
			Average of width measurements (SD)		843 (108) kg

Table 5(on next page)

The studied okapi specimens and their dimensions used in determining the appropriateness of allometric equations in determining body size and shape estimates in *G. sivalensis*.

Abbreviations: DMNH: Ditsong National Museum of Natural History (Formerly Transvaal Museum), Pretoria, South Africa; MNHN: Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France; SM: Senckenberg Naturmuseum, Frankfurt, Germany; OTVL: Observed Total Vertebral Length; ONL: Observed Neck Length; ONL-1: Observed Neck Length Minus C1; OTL: Observed Trunk Length; OFL: Observed Front Limb Long Bone Lengths; OHL: Observed Hind Limb Long Bone Lengths; N:FL: Neck Length to Foreleg Length ratio; PNL: Predicted Neck Length; % PE: Percent Prediction Error for vertebral length based on giraffe ontogenetic allometry.

Specimen no	Museum	OTVL	OVNL	OVNL-1	C3VBL	OFL	N:FL	PVNL	Predicted neck length regression equation	%PE
az2348	DMNH	1259	557	522	85	932	0.60	586		0.05
az2440	DMNH	1392	567	531	83			574		0.01
1973-178	MNHN	722	273	260	42	752	0.36	310		0.14
1961-131	MNHN	400	149	137	22.1	553	0.27	174		0.17
1984-56	MNHN		459	428	73.5			514	-	0.12
1996-102	MNHN	1529	632	600	96.9	1018	0.62	660	PVNL=10.65*C3VBL^0.902	0.04
27194	SM	1442	621	589	106	1018	0.61	715		0.15
73224	SM	1521	647	613	107	993	0.65	722		0.12
56346	SM	1458	630	599	102	998	0.63	691		0.10
92290	SM			142	22	534				



Power functions, their origin and predicted values for linear dimensions of *G. sivalensis*.

Dimension predicted for G. sivalensis (dependent (y) variable)	Prediction based on (independent (x) variable)	Equation generated from	Equation, Slope Confidence interval, R ²	Prediction
Vertebral neck length (C1 to C7	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	y = 10.66 x ^{0.902} CI = 0.874 - 0.930 R ² = 0.99	1270 mm
Vertebral neck length (C2 to C7)	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	y = 9.708x ^{0.908} CI = 0.881 - 0.936 R ² = 0.99	1195 mm
Vertebral neck length (C2 to C7)	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	Various ungulates, data from (Badlangana, Adams & Manger, 2009)	y = 5.023 x ^{1.025} CI = 0.977 - 1.614 R ² = 0.99	1148 mm
Dorsal neck length (occipital crest to withers)	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	$y = 1.694 x^{0.822}$ $CI = 0.716 - 0.928$ $R^2 = 0.87$	1321 mm
Ventral neck length (angle of jaw to acromion)	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	$y = 1.442 x^{0.890}$ $CI = 0.765 - 1.014$ $R^2 = 0.85$	1608 mm
Average neck length (of dorsal and ventral neck length)	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	$y = 1.55 x^{0.859}$ $CI = 0.767 - 0.951$ $R^2 = 0.91$	1467 mm
Front leg length (humerus+ radius+ metacarpus long bones)	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	y = 70.2x ^{0.598} CI = 0.332 - 0.8642 R ² = 0.87	1668 mm
Foreleg withers height	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	$y = 7.61x^{0.663}$ $CI = 0.586 - 0.741$ $R^2 = 0.92$	2558 mm
Approximate reaching height (hoof to occipital crest)	OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	y = 7.600x ^{0.742} CI = 0.678-0.806 R ² = 0.95	3880 mm

Table 7(on next page)

Functions for the prediction of body mass based on various *G. sivalensis* specimens.

SD = Standard deviation. PE = Prediction Error

Independent(x) variable	Model sample	Model r2	Allometric equation	Body mass prediction (kg)	Body mass PE% confidence intervals in kg (based on prediction errors when applied to G. camelopardalis data)	Body mass confidence intervals in kg (based on prediction errors when applied to <i>O.</i> johnstoni data
OR39747 (C3) vertebral body length	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.91	y = 0.022*x^1.919	575	8% PE (529-612)	81% PE (109-1041)
OR39747 (C3) cr dv	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.77	y = 0.0023*x^3.21	400	18% PE (328-472)	87% PE (52-748)
OR39747 (C3) cr lat	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.84	y= 0.0054*x^2.967	228	14% PE (196-260)	99% PE (2-454)
OR39747 (C3) cd dv	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.69	y= 0.0048*x^2.847	390	25% PE (293-487)	17% PE (323-456)
OR39747 (C3) cd lat	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.57	y= 0.0227*x^2.360	271	50% PE (136-407)	21% PE (214-328)
Average of OR39747 vertebral dimensions (SD)				373 (135)		
OR39748 (C3) cd dv	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.69	y= 0.0048*x^2.847	394	25% PE (296-493)	17% PE (327-462)
OR39747 (C4) cd dv	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.69	y= 0.0011*x^3.128	274		
OR39747 (C5) cd dv	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.69	$Y = 0.0004 * x^{3.285}$	187		
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR17136)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.98	y = 8.96*10 ⁻⁴ x^2.55	809	5% PE (767-851)	5%PE (766-852)
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR39749)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data			772	5% PE (732-812)	5%PE (731-813)
average of humeral circumferences (SD)				791 (26)		
Humerus midshaft craniocaudal diameter (OR17136)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.98	y = 3.59*10 ⁻² x^2.32	834	11% PE (743-925)	13%PE (723-945)
Humerus midshaft craniocaudal diameter (OR39749)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data		y = 3.59*10-2 x^ ^{2.32}	602	11% PE (537-667)	13%PE (522-682)
Humerus midshaft transverse diameter (OR17136)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.96	y = 2.00*10-2 x^2.53	561	24% PE (429-693)	22%PE (438-684)
Humerus midshaft transverse diameter (OR39749)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data		y = 2.00*10-2 x^2.53	813	24% PE (622-1004)	22%PE (635-991)
Average humeral craniocaudal and transverse (SD)				703 (141)		
All humeral ontogenetic average				732 (119)		

(SD)						
Radius midshaft circumference (OR17130)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.99	y = 1.65*10-4 x^2.93	1179	10%PE (1064-1294)	31%PE (726-1390)
Radius midshaft craniocaudal diameter (OR17130)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.98	y = 2.89*10-3 x^3.19	847	12%PE (746-948)	62%PE (416-1780)
Radius midshaft transverse diameter (OR17130)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.99	y = 1.18*10-2 x^2.67	1047	9%PE (948-1146)	19%PE (943-1387)
Radius ontogenetic average (SD)				1024 (167)		
Metacarpal midshaft circumference (OR39750)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.96	y = 4.70*10-5 x^3.24	1058	11%PE (942-1174)	31%PE (726-1390)
Metacarpal midshaft craniocaudal diameter (OR39750)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.97	y = 1.59*10-3 x^3.40	1098	21%PE (867-1329)	62%PE (416-1780)
Metacarpal midshaft transverse diameter (OR39750)	G. camelopardalis ontogenetic data	0.98	y = 6.71*10-3 x^2.95	1165	20%PE (932-1398)	19%PE (943-1387)
Average metacarpus				1107 (54)		
Humerus midshaft craniocaudal diameter (OR17136)	Artiodactyl interspecific allometry (Scott, 1990)	0.94	y =7.63 x^2.455	1106	18%PE (906-1305)	24%PE (844-1368)
Humerus midshaft craniocaudal diameter (OR39749)	Artiodactyl interspecific allometry (Scott, 1990)			793	18%PE (650-936)	24%PE (605-981)
Humerus midshaft transverse diameter (OR17136)	Artiodactyl static interspecific (Scott, 1990)	0.95	y =12.4 x^2.46	900	26%PE (662-1138)	52%PE (428-1372)
Humerus midshaft transverse diameter (OR39749)	Artiodactyl interspecific allometry (Scott, 1990)			1268	26%PE (822-1518)	52% (603-1933)
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR17136)	Various mammalian taxa (Roth, 1990)	0.99	y = 9.45*10^-4 x^2.61	1170	30%PE (822-1518)	29%PE (831-1509)
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR39749)	Various mammalian taxa (Roth, 1990)			1115	30%PE (784-1446)	29%PE (792-1438)
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR17136)	Various mammalian taxa (Anderson, Hall- Martin & Russell, 1985)	0.99	0.0009 x^2 ^{.6392}	1304	37%PE (819-1789)	35%PE (842-1766)
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR39749)	Various mammalian taxa (Anderson, Hall- Martin & Russell,			1241	37%PE (780-1702)	35%PE (801-1681)

	1985)					
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR17136)	Ungulates (Campione & Evans, 2012)	0.95	y = 1.469 x^2.5273	1167	29%PE (831-1503)	31%PE (800-1534)
Humerus midshaft circumference (OR39749)	Ungulates (Campione & Evans, 2012)			1113	29%PE (792-1433)	31%PE (763-1463)
All humeral interspecific average (SD)				1112 (180)		
Radius midshaft craniocaudal diameter (OR 17130)	Artiodactyl static allometry (Scott, 1990)	0.93	y =29.2 x^2.51	1891	50%PE 946-2837	54%PE 870-2911
Radius midshaft transverse diameter (OR 17130)	Artiodactyl static allometry (Scott, 1990)	0.91	$y = 8.19 x^{2.555}$	1238	11%PE 1102-1374	43%PE (711-1765)
Radial interspecific average (SD)				1565 (462)		