TITLE

Predator-prey scaling laws support a suspension-feeding lifestyle in Cambrian lobopodians

AUTHORS

Jared C. Richards[1], and Javier Ortega-Hernández[1]

AFFILIATIONS

[1]Museum of Comparative Zoology and Department of Organismic and Evolutionary Biology,

Harvard University, 26 Oxford Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA

*Corresponding authors: jrichards@g.harvard.edu, jortegahernandez@fas.harvard.edu

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Jared Richards conducted the literature search and data analysis. Jared Richards and Javier Ortega-

Hernández contributed to the interpretation of results, discussion, and writing. All authors

approved the final manuscript.

COMPETING INTEREST STATEMENT

There are no competing interests.

ABSTRACT

The early Paleozoic saw a dramatic diversification of shelly epibenthic metazoans adapted to suspension and filter-feeding, but the extent to which these radiations affected the evolution of non-biomineralized suspension-feeding taxa is uncertain because these organisms are not typically well represented in the fossil record. Luolishaniids are a highly derived and disparate clade of (typically) armoured lobopodians widely interpreted as having a suspension-feeding ecology based on the presence of five or six anterior pairs of setulose appendages. Luolishaniids are globally widespread and represent the only Cambrian non-biomineralized free living epibenthic bilaterians regarded as having a suspension feeding mode of life, but their proposed ecology only relies on a qualitative interpretation of their functional morphology. Here we test the hypothesis that the setulose appendages of luolishaniids were adapted for a suspension feeding function. Quantitative morphological comparisons reveal a positive and statistically significant relationship between body length and the mesh spacing of the setulose anterior limbs of luolishaniids. This pattern correlates with suspension-feeding scaling in extant aquatic organisms, and suggests that luolishaniids primarily fed on mesoplanktonic seston. We provide quantitative evidence for suspension-feeding in luolishaniids, which represents the first statistically supported example of modern-like predator-prey scaling patterns observed in Cambrian soft-bodied metazoans.

Keywords: lobopodians, plankton, macroecology, niche ecology, functional morphology, comparative zoology

INTRODUCTION

Suspension feeding is a widespread life strategy in which animals capture food particles such as

phytoplankton, zooplankton, and organic detritus from the water column in aquatic environments

[1–3]. Suspension feeding is found throughout diverse animal clades, and may be further

subcategorized based on precise habitat, mode of life and locomotory capabilities of the

organisms [1]. Given that the feeding strategy of these organisms fundamentally involves

extracting organic matter from large volumes of water, they play a key ecological role as primary

consumers in aquatic food webs where they help cycle nutrients, transport biomass from small

particles into higher trophic levels in the water column, increase light penetration and alter the

distribution of planktonic lifeforms in space and time [1,4–7].

Suspension feeding among the earliest animal-dominated communities is particularly well

represented during the early Paleozoic among biomineralizing organisms with high preservation

potential such as sponges, brachiopods, echinoderms and bivalved molluscs [8–13]. By contrast,

our understanding of the evolution of non-biomineralizing suspension-feeding organisms is much

more precarious due to their comparatively low preservation potential in the conventional fossil

record [14–19] (Fig. 1). Radiodonts, typically large-bodied nektonic stem-group euarthropods

typified by the presence of arthropodized frontal appendages, represent the most widespread

suspension-feeding soft-bodied metazoans found in sites with exceptional preservation around the

world during the early Paleozoic [20,21]. Suspension-feeding radiodonts include the hurdiids (Fig.

1C) , which become increasingly diverse after the middle Cambrian and extended into the

Devonian [22–26,26,27] and the rarer tamisiocaridids (Fig. 1B), which are restricted to the early

Cambrian [28–30]. Other Cambrian soft-bodied organisms with a likely suspension-feeding mode

of life based on comparisons with modern analogues include groups such as hemichordates,

tunicates, vertebrates, ctenophores, and bivalved euarthropods [31–35] (Fig. 1D, 1E). However,

suspension feeding has also been proposed to be expressed in lobopodians, a diverse group of

ecdysozoans resembling worms with legs found in several major Cambrian sites with exceptional

preservation around the world, particularly the clade Luolishaniidae [36–43] (Fig. 1A). The

general body plan of luolishaniids consists of a tubular trunk with five or six pairs of differentiated

setulae anterior appendages, followed by a variable number of clawed walking legs on the trunk

(Fig. 1). Other aspects of their morphology vary substantially, such as extent of spinose dorsal

amour ranging from absent (e.g. *Facivermis, Ovatiovermis*) to nearly baroque (e.g. *Collinium,*

Collinsovermis, Acinocricus), as well as their body size (roughly 10 to 100 mm in length) and

lifestyle (e.g. free living or tube dwelling). Luolishaniids differ from other suspension-feeding

organisms because most of them had a vagile epibenthic mode of life and lack obvious extant

analogues, with phylogenetic analyses suggesting affinities as either early relatives of velvet

worms (Onychophora), water bears (Tardigrada), or even panarthropods more broadly

[39,42,44,45]. However, the view of luolishaniids as suspension feeders is exclusively based on

the qualitative interpretation of the functional morphology of their anterior setulose appendages,

and thus this ecological hypothesis remains to be critically tested, particularly since the peculiar

morphology and variable lifestyle of these bizarre organisms.

In this study we quantitatively test the hypothesis that Cambrian luolishaniids were

suspension feeders by examining the relationship between body size and sieving potential of the

setulose anterior appendages. Based on comparative statistical methods, we provide the first

quantitative evidence for suspension-feeding in luolishaniids and demonstrate that these

lobopodians follow the same predator-prey and suspension feeder–seston size scaling laws

observed in modern ecosystems.

Figure 1. Diversity of exceptionally preserved suspension feeding organisms from Cambrian deposits. A. The luolishaniid lobopodian *Acinocricus stichus* from the middle Cambrian (Wuluian) Spence Shale, Utah (Kansas University Museum Invertebrate Paleontology collection; KUMIP 204353). **B.** Frontal appendage of the tamisiocaridid radiodont *Echidnacaris briggsi* [30] from the early Cambrian (Stage 4) Emu Bay shale, South Australia (South Australian Museum, Adelaide Paleontological collection; SAMA P40180). **C.** Carapace elements and frontal appendage of the hurdiid radiodont *Pahvantia hasta* [24] from the middle Cambrian (Drumian) Wheeler Shale, Utah (KUMIP 314089). **D.** The vertebrate *Nuucicthys rhynchocephalus* [35] from the mid-Cambrian (Drumian) Marjum Formation, Utah (Utah Museum of Natural History; UMNH.IP.6084). **E.** The tunicate *Megasiphon thylakos* [32] from the mid-Cambrian (Drumian) Marjum Formation, Utah (UMNH.IP.6079). **F.** The hexactinellid-like sponge *Polygoniella turrelli* [13] from the mid-Cambrian (Drumian) Marjum Formation, Utah (Museum of Comparative Zoology Invertebrate Paleontology collection, Harvard University; MCZ.IP.199049).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Data collection

High-resolution digital images from all previously described luolishaniid taxa were loaded into Adobe Illustrator 28.2 (2024) (see Table 1). We measured the spacing between the setae (mesh spacing) on the anterior limbs for each taxon, as this is generally considered a proxy for determining the seston (i.e. particles suspended in water) size of suspension feeders [28,46,47]. The average mesh spacing (mm) and the body size for each taxon were plotted on a logarithmic scale (mm). Given the paucity of complete specimens and the widespread likelihood of morphological distortion via diagenesis, we used the maximum recorded body size (maximum length) in the original description (Table 1). In cases where the specimen with the best preservation of the setulose structures is also complete, we would collect the body size measurement from the same specimen.

Data Analysis

Given the smaller sample size of the available data (*e.g.*, multiple mesh spacing values imposed onto only one body size measurement per species), we employed a variety of analytical tools to extract as much information as possible from our limited dataset while being methodologically conservative. First, we ran an Ordinary Least-Squares (OLS) linear regression on unaggregated mesh size values versus body size to determine if there was a similar correlation between these predators (suspension-feeders) and their potential prey size (seston) as seen in other animal clades [46–48]. Next, we performed an Ordinary Least-Squares (OLS) linear regression examining the relationship between aggregated (mean) mesh size values and body size. This

summarized view of the data would be used later for further examination of the ecology of each

luolishaniid species. The former OLS model, which has a higher degree of freedom, was *a priori*

assumed to have higher statistical power than any analysis of aggregated data [49]. To compare

the goodness of fit of the two OLS models and verify our *a priori* assumption, we calculated the

second-order Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) for each OLS regression. This unitless metric

can be calculated to determine and compare the quality of various statistical models, in this case,

linear regressions [50]. The AICc is a specific instance of the Akaike information criterion (AIC)

specifically designed to handle data with smaller sample sizes [51]. We report the F-statistic, the

adjusted coefficient of determination (adjusted R^2), and the p-value recovered from the t-test of

the regression's slope coefficient of both OLS models. We also ran a Harvey-Collier test on the

aggregated mesh spacing dataset to check the linearity assumption before use in estimating the

seston prey size of luolishaniids [52]. Finally, using the relationship that exists between mesh

spacing and estimated prey size for a variety of extant metazoans [28] and our aggregated mean

mesh spacing values for each luolishaniid genus, we calculated the minimum and maximum

estimated prey size (μm) of all known luolishaniids to examine the lifestyles of this rare clade

even further.

RESULTS

Luolishaniid Macroecological Scaling and Seston Prey Size Estimate

We find a positive and statistically significant relationship between body size and mesh spacing

on the log-log scale for both disaggregated mesh spacing data (F(1,152) = 90.87, p-value <

0.001, adjusted R^2 = 0.37, AICc = -199.58) and aggregated mean mesh spacing data (F(1,5) =

7.72, p-value < 0.05, adjusted $R^2 = 0.53$, AICc = 0.65) (Fig. 2). The corresponding sublinear

power functions are Mesh Spacing (mm) = 0.061*Body Length(mm)$^{0.33}$ and Mesh Spacing (mm)

= 0.052*Body Length(mm)$^{0.37}$, respectively. The linearity assumption was met in the OLS of

aggregated mesh spacing data on the logarithmic scale (Harvey-Collier statistic = 0.36, degrees

of freedom = 4, p-value > 0.05).

Figure 2. Comparison of body scaling proportions in Cambrian luolishaniids. Relationship
between body length (mm) and appendage mesh spacing (μm) showing a significant positive trend
(red dashed line; $y = 52.03x^{0.37}$, $R^2 = 0.53$, $p < 0.05$, $F(1,5) = 7.72$). Each point represents a species
with a 95% CI around the mean mesh spacing.

Using the OLS regression of mean mesh spacing versus body size, we find that the

estimated minimum particle diameters would have enabled most luolishaniids to capture

suspended prey/particles on the lower end of the mesoplanktonic scale (~230 μm — 460 μm)

(Fig. 3; Table 1). *Luolishania* is the only luolishaniid estimated to have been able to collect

suspended prey and particles that were on the microplanktonic spectrum (~150 µm). Given that

our knowledge of the Emu Bay luolishaniids is based on a single incomplete specimen that

obstructs our ability to measure its body size, we can use the previously derived power laws to

calculate its estimated maximum body size.

Table 1. Autoecological metrics for all Cambrian luolishaniid lobopodians. Note that body size in the Emu Bay Shale luolishaniid (*asterisk*) is estimated from the statistically significant scaling pattern established amongst other Cambrian luolishaniids.

Taxa	Number of Mesh Spacings (N)	Average Mesh Spacing (µm)	Minimum Estimated Prey Diameter (µm)	Maximum Estimated Prey Diameter (µm)	Body Size (mm)
Acinocricus stichus [41]	21	319.3	457.1	4248.5	96.0
Collinsium ciliosum [39]	52	250.6	358.0	3421.5	85.0
Collinsovermis monstruosus [41]	25	206.2	294.1	2875.1	~35.0
Enthothyreos synnaustrus [43]	14	290.4	415.4	3902.8	~38.12
Facivermis yunnanicus [42]	8	202.7	289.1	2831.3	90.0
Luolishania longicruris [37]	8	108.4	153.8	1619.4	14.30
Ovatiovermis cribratus [40]	26	161.1	229.3	2305.8	18.0
Collins' monster, Emu Bay [38]	12	272.0	389.0	3681.6	87.5[*]

DISCUSSION

Luolishaniid Macroecological Scaling

The strong relationship between body size and mesh spacing in the setulose appendages of

Cambrian luolishaniids (Figure 1) recapitulates macroecological scaling patterns observed in

extant suspension-feeding aquatic invertebrates [46,47]. Given that mesh size closely correlates

with estimated prey size in modern suspension feeders (Fig. 2; Table 1), these results provide direct

quantitative evidence that different Cambrian luolishaniids species exploited various types of

meso-planktonic food sources through suspension-feeding [28,53]. The sublinear relationship

between body size and mesh size, represented by a slope value less than one recovered in both

linear regressions (Fig. 2; Supplementary Figure 1), indicates that mesh spacing does not scale

uniformly with body size in luolishaniids. For a given unit of increase in body size, there is a

proportionally smaller increase in mesh spacing. These observations concur with neontological

data on predator-prey scaling laws for numerous suspension feeding and obligate predatory

aquatic and terrestrial invertebrates, which also feature a similar sublinear relationship [46,47,54].

In the context of luolishaniid macroecology, the correlation between body size and mesh size

would have had direct implications for the planktonic prey items that would be targeted by the

different species. We find that the smallest Cambrian luolishaniids also had the finest mesh size,

estimated at 108.4 μm for *Luolishania* (body length = 14 mm) and 161.1 μm for *Ovatiovermis*

(body length = 18 mm) (Fig. 3), which would have allowed them to capture microplankton (e.g.

acritarchs), as well as the smaller cohorts of mesoplankton (e.g. chitinozoans, radiolarians). All

other larger bodied luolishaniids, ranging from *Collinsovermis* (body length = 35 mm) to

Acinocricus (body length = 96 mm), show a progressive increase in the mesh size on the setulose

appendages, ranging from ca. 200 μm to 450 μm. This mesh size range would have allowed

medium to large bodied luolishaniids to feed on all types of mesoplankton but would be less

suitable for targeting microplankton as it would fall below the minimum seston capture size (Figure

2). More broadly, it is interesting to note that the estimated minimum particle size of luolishaniids

suggests that they targeted smaller plankton than the radiodonts *Tamisicaris borealis (~700* μm)

and *Aegirocassis benmoulai (~800* μm), but larger prey items than *Pahvantia hastata (~100* μm).

These comparisons indicate that most luolishaniids, except for the small bodied *Luolishania* and

Ovatiovermis, fed on larger prey items than *Pahvantia,* which has an estimated body length of 24

cm [24], making it more than twice the size of the largest luolishaniid *Acinocricus* (body length

ca. 95 mm; [41]). We hypothesize that this pattern might reflect autecological differences in terms

of suspension-feeding preferences for luolishaniids as epibenthic and vagile organisms, relative to

the nektonic lifestyle of suspension-feeding radiodonts. We also notice that the few suspension

feeding radiodonts with enough quantitative data on their body length and mesh size, namely *P.*

hastata (estimated body length = 24 cm; mesh spacing = 0.07 mm), *T. borealis* (estimated body

length = 34 cm; mesh spacing = 0.49*), and A. benmoulai* (body length = 200 cm; mesh spacing =

0.56 mm) also follow a comparable scaling pattern to that of luolishaniids in which body size

increases faster than mesh size [21,24,28]. However, the number of radiodont taxa that fulfill these

requirements is too small to properly analyze quantitatively and make further extrapolations of the

available data.

Figure 3. Relationship between mesh size and planktonic prey size in Cambrian luolishaniids and radiodonts. Estimated planktonic prey size for Cambrian luolishaniids (blue) based on the relationship between mesh size and seston size in modern suspension feeding metazoans. Radiodont (orange) quantitative data based on refs [24,28].

Modern Analogs

Cambrian luolishaniids have been directly compared in terms of their autecology with extant

suspension-feeding invertebrates, particularly caprellid amphipod crustaceans, based on suggested

similarities in their morphology including an elongate tubular body, anterior setulose appendages

with a sieving function, and clawed walking legs on body trunk or posterior for grasping onto the

substrate [40,41,55–57]. However, these represent qualitative comparisons and interpretations, and

these taxa differ in important aspects of their functional morphology with direct implications for

their precise mode of life and feeding strategies. Caprellid amphipods employ their cilia-laden,

mucus-covered antennae to initiate suspension-feeding [40,55]. After detecting a substantial

accumulation of seston on the antennae, caprellids use their raptorial gnathopods to cleanse these

appendages from food particles, form a ball of mucus and seston, and pass it to their mouth for

consumption [55].

Although luolishaniids and caprellid amphipods employ setulose anterior appendages to

capture plankton, the former differs in the absence of specialized cleaning limbs or complex

mouthparts employed in suspension feeding [39,40,42,55,56,58,59]. These differences suggest

that luolishaniids most likely employed a different strategy to consume the seston, with suction

feeding being a suitable option as it is widely employed by aquatic invertebrates where a negative

pressure vacuum is produced to draw nearby water, and therefore any suspended materials, into

the buccal cavity [60,61]. Experimental work on the fluid dynamics of extant suction feeders has

shown that no modern invertebrates with hydrostatically supported bodies can create the same

suction forces seen in aquatic vertebrates such as fish [62]. However, we hypothesize that the

suction feeding capacity of luolishaniids would have been comparatively low, just enough so that

a low-pressure difference between the buccal cavity and the environment would suffice to consume

the seston captured by the sieving apparatus on the anterior setulose appendages of these

lobopodians [40].

Broader Paleoecological Implications

Luolishaniids differ from other Cambrian suspension feeding soft-bodied animals, particularly

free-swimming radiodonts such as *Tamisiocaris*, *Pahvantia* or *Hurdia*, in that the former

lobopodians had a slow-moving epibenthic habitus, which means they would not be able to force

water over their sieving apparatus by simply moving against the water column [21,28]. Instead,

luolishaniids most likely sought after microhabitats with low to intermediate water flow rates

facing their anterior setulose limbs perpendicular to the oncoming water current to collect

suspended food items [1,63–65]. The water flow speeds necessary for stationary suspension-

feeding of mesoplankton in modern ecosystems ranges from 5 to 10 centimeters per second based

on experiments involving modern suspension feeders feeding on mesoplankton [64,66]. Assuming

that luolishaniids would require a similar flow speed necessary for effective suspension feeding,

the role of the robust sclerotized terminal claws on the posterior trunk appendages becomes critical

as it would allow these lobopodians to maintain a secure attachment to hard substrates during food

capture without becoming dislodged [1,39,64,66,67].

The feeding ecology of luolishaniids also has implications for better understanding their

mode of life considering their peculiar morphology, particularly the presence of extensive dorsal

spinose defensive armature in most species [39,41,43]. Neontological behavioural work has shown

that free living animals that bear some type of external body armor (e.g. epidermal spines, plates

or scales) display a higher threat tolerance or threshold before they flee or take refuge from

potential predators when compared to unarmored forms, both in aquatic and terrestrial

environments [68,69]. Applied in the context of luolishaniid paleobiology, this generalized

behaviour would suggest that smaller-bodied species and/or those in which dorsal armor is

relatively light (*Luolishania*) or non-existent (*Ovatiovermis*) would be more hasty to seek refuge

compared to larger bodied and more heavily armored forms, such as *Acinocricus, Collinsium,*

Collinsovermis, and *Entothyreos* [38,39,43]. *Facivermis* is a notable exception in this regard

because it is large-bodied (ca. 90 mm long) but completely lacks dorsal armor [42]. In this case,

the unique tube-dwelling mode of life of *Facivermis* most likely represents a tradeoff that allowed

it to attain a large body size despite the absence of dorsal armor by shifting to a different defensive

strategy that instead relies on the protection of the secreted tube, facilitating a readily accessible

refuge if disturbed. It is notable that the extent of dorsal armature in luolishaniids closely follows

their overall body size, with *Acinocricus, Collinsium, Collinsovermis, Entothyreos* featuring the

heaviest coverage within the clade based on the number of dorsal spines per appendage pair. The

heavy armature of these forms would have likely made their movements cumbersome due to

excessive resistance against the water column and thus caused a tradeoff against their ability to

swiftly escape from potential predators, as also observed in modern species. Heavily armored

luolishaniids would have primarily relied on their body size and impressive arrays of dorsal spines

as primary deterrents, particularly when actively engaging in suspension feeding against the water

current [68–74].

In conclusion, our results support the widespread interpretation of luolishaniids as effective

epibenthic suspension feeders that follow comparable macroecologial patterns observed in modern

species with a suspension feeding autecology. The findings demonstrate that the fundamental

requirements for a suspension-feeding lifestyle were already in place by the early and middle

Cambrian based on a comparative quantification of luolishaniid morphology. This study also

provides the first estimates of planktonic prey sizes for luolishaniids and provides further insights

into their most likely behavior based on modern analogues. Although luolishaniids are among

some of the most unconventional organisms that evolved during the Cambrian Explosion, hence

their initial moniker as Collin's monsters [38,41], we posit that their main adaptations and mode

of life can be readily explained through the lens of a modern suspension feeding ecology.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Rudy Lerosey-Aubril (Harvard University) for sharing digital images of *Pahvantia hastata*, and John Paterson (University of New England) for sharing digital images of *Echidnacaris briggsi*. Thanks to Bruce Lieberman (The University of Kansas) for facilitating access to the holotype of *Acinocricus stichus*. This work is funded by NSF CAREER award no. 2047192 "Ecological Turnover at the Dawn of the Great Ordovician Biodiversification Event— Quantifying the Cambro-Ordovician Transition through the Lens of Exceptional Preservation," and NSF GRFP award no. 2140743.

References

1. Hamann L, Blanke A. 2022 Suspension feeders: diversity, principles of particle separation
and biomimetic potential. *J. R. Soc. Interface.* **19**, 20210741. (doi:10.1098/rsif.2021.0741)

2. Hentschel BT, Shimeta J. 2008 Suspension Feeders. In *Encyclopedia of Ecology*, pp. 3437–
3442. Elsevier. (doi:10.1016/B978-008045405-4.00548-6)

3. Jørgensen CB. 1966 Biology of suspension feeding. *(No Title)*

4. Riisgård H, Larsen P. 2010 Particle capture mechanisms in suspension-feeding invertebrates.
Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. **418**, 255–293. (doi:10.3354/meps08755)

5. Ostroumov SA. 2005 Some aspects of water filtering activity of filter-feeders. *Hydrobiologia*
542, 275–286. (doi:10.1007/s10750-004-1875-1)

6. Gili J-M, Coma R. 1998 Benthic suspension feeders: their paramount role in littoral marine
food webs. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **13**, 316–321. (doi:10.1016/S0169-
5347(98)01365-2)

7. Lenton TM, Boyle RA, Poulton SW, Shields-Zhou GA, Butterfield NJ. 2014 Co-evolution of
eukaryotes and ocean oxygenation in the Neoproterozoic era. *Nature Geosci* **7**, 257–265.
(doi:10.1038/ngeo2108)

8. Bottjer DJ, Ausich WI. 1986 Phanerozoic development of tiering in soft substrata
suspension-feeding communities. *Paleobiology* **12**, 400–420.
(doi:10.1017/S0094837300003134)

9. Nützel A, Lehnert O, Frýda J. 2006 Origin of planktotrophy—evidence from early molluscs.
Evolution and Development **8**, 325–330. (doi:10.1111/j.1525-142X.2006.00105.x)

10. Zamora S, Deline B, Javier Álvaro J, Rahman IA. 2017 The Cambrian Substrate Revolution
and the early evolution of attachment in suspension-feeding echinoderms. *Earth-Science*
Reviews **171**, 478–491. (doi:10.1016/j.earscirev.2017.06.018)

11. Hsieh S, Bush AM, Bennington JB. 2019 Were bivalves ecologically dominant over
brachiopods in the late Paleozoic? A test using exceptionally preserved fossil assemblages.
Paleobiology **45**, 265–279. (doi:10.1017/pab.2019.3)

12. Ausich WI, Bottjer DJ. 2020 Echinoderm role in the history of Phanerozoic tiering in
suspension-feeding communities. In *Echinodermata* (eds BF Keegan, BDS O'Connor), pp.
3–11. CRC Press. (doi:10.1201/9781003079224-2)

13. Del Mouro L, Lerosey-Aubril R, Botting J, Coleman R, Gaines RR, Skabelund J, Weaver JC,
Ortega-Hernández J. 2024 A new sponge from the Marjum Formation of Utah documents the
Cambrian origin of the hexactinellid body plan. *R. Soc. Open Sci.* **11**, 231845.
(doi:10.1098/rsos.231845)

14. Orr PJ, Benton MJ, Briggs DEG. 2003 Post-Cambrian closure of the deep-water slope-basin taphonomic window. *Geol* **31**, 769. (doi:10.1130/G19193.1)

15. Gaines RR, Hammarlund EU, Hou X, Qi C, Gabbott SE, Zhao Y, Peng J, Canfield DE. 2012 Mechanism for Burgess Shale-type preservation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **109**, 5180–5184. (doi:10.1073/pnas.1111784109)

16. Gaines RR. 2014 Burgess Shale-type Preservation and its Distribution in Space and Time. *Paleontol. Soc. pap.* **20**, 123–146. (doi:10.1017/S1089332600002837)

17. Botting JP, Muir LA, Jordan N, Upton C. 2015 An Ordovician variation on Burgess Shale-type biotas. *Sci Rep* **5**, 9947. (doi:10.1038/srep09947)

18. Lefebvre B, Lerosey-Aubril R, Servais T, Van Roy P. 2016 The Fezouata Biota: An exceptional window on the Cambro-Ordovician faunal transition. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **460**, 1–6. (doi:10.1016/j.palaeo.2016.06.041)

19. Saleh F *et al.* 2021 A novel tool to untangle the ecology and fossil preservation knot in exceptionally preserved biotas. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* **569**, 117061. (doi:10.1016/j.epsl.2021.117061)

20. Potin GJ-M, Daley AC. 2023 The significance of Anomalocaris and other Radiodonta for understanding paleoecology and evolution during the Cambrian explosion. *Frontiers in Earth Science* **11**, 1160285.

21. Potin GJ-M, Gueriau P, Daley AC. 2023 Radiodont frontal appendages from the Fezouata Biota (Morocco) reveal high diversity and ecological adaptations to suspension-feeding during the Early Ordovician. *Front. Ecol. Evol.* **11**, 1214109. (doi:10.3389/fevo.2023.1214109)

22. Kühl G, Briggs DEG, Rust J. 2009 A Great-Appendage Arthropod with a Radial Mouth from the Lower Devonian Hunsrück Slate, Germany. *Science* **323**, 771–773. (doi:10.1126/science.1166586)

23. Van Roy P, Daley AC, Briggs DEG. 2015 Anomalocaridid trunk limb homology revealed by a giant filter-feeder with paired flaps. *Nature* **522**, 77–80. (doi:10.1038/nature14256)

24. Lerosey-Aubril R, Pates S. 2018 New suspension-feeding radiodont suggests evolution of microplanktivory in Cambrian macronekton. *Nat Commun* **9**, 3774. (doi:10.1038/s41467-018-06229-7)

25. Liu Y, Lerosey-Aubril R, Audo D, Zhai D, Mai H, Ortega-Hernández J. 2020 Occurrence of the eudemersal radiodont *Cambroraster* in the early Cambrian Chengjiang Lagerstätte and the diversity of hurdiid ecomorphotypes. *Geol. Mag.* **157**, 1200–1206. (doi:10.1017/S0016756820000187)

26. Pates S, Botting JP, McCobb LME, Muir LA. 2020 A miniature Ordovician hurdiid from Wales demonstrates the adaptability of Radiodonta. *R. Soc. open sci.* **7**, 200459. (doi:10.1098/rsos.200459)

27. Sun Z, Zeng H, Zhao F. 2020 A new middle Cambrian radiodont from North China: Implications for morphological disparity and spatial distribution of hurdiids. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **558**, 109947. (doi:10.1016/j.palaeo.2020.109947)

28. Vinther J, Stein M, Longrich NR, Harper DAT. 2014 A suspension-feeding anomalocarid from the Early Cambrian. *Nature* **507**, 496–499. (doi:10.1038/nature13010)

29. Wu Y, Fu D, Ma J, Lin W, Sun A, Zhang X. 2021 Houcaris gen. nov. from the early Cambrian (Stage 3) Chengjiang Lagerstätte expanded the palaeogeographical distribution of tamisiocaridids (Panarthropoda: Radiodonta). *PalZ* **95**, 209–221. (doi:10.1007/s12542-020-00545-4)

30. Paterson JR, García-Bellido DC, Edgecombe GD. 2023 The early Cambrian Emu Bay Shale radiodonts revisited: morphology and systematics. *Journal of Systematic Palaeontology* **21**, 2225066. (doi:10.1080/14772019.2023.2225066)

31. Nanglu K, Caron J-B, Conway Morris S, Cameron CB. 2016 Cambrian suspension-feeding tubicolous hemichordates. *BMC Biol* **14**, 56. (doi:10.1186/s12915-016-0271-4)

32. Nanglu K, Lerosey-Aubril R, Weaver JC, Ortega-Hernández J. 2023 A mid-Cambrian tunicate and the deep origin of the ascidiacean body plan. *Nat Commun* **14**, 3832. (doi:10.1038/s41467-023-39012-4)

33. Zhao Y, Vinther J, Parry LA, Wei F, Green E, Pisani D, Hou X, Edgecombe GD, Cong P. 2019 Cambrian Sessile, Suspension Feeding Stem-Group Ctenophores and Evolution of the Comb Jelly Body Plan. *Current Biology* **29**, 1112-1125.e2. (doi:10.1016/j.cub.2019.02.036)

34. Izquierdo-López A, Caron J-B. 2024 The Cambrian *Odaraia alata* and the colonization of nektonic suspension-feeding niches by early mandibulates. *Proc. R. Soc. B.* **291**, 20240622. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2024.0622)

35. Lerosey-Aubril R, Ortega-Hernández J. 2024 A long-headed Cambrian soft-bodied vertebrate from the American Great Basin region. *R. Soc. Open Sci.* **11**, 240350. (doi:10.1098/rsos.240350)

36. Hou X, Bergström J. 1995 Cambrian lobopodians-ancestors of extant onychophorans? *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* **114**, 3–19. (doi:10.1111/j.1096-3642.1995.tb00110.x)

37. Ma X, Hou X, Bergström J. 2009 Morphology of Luolishania longicruris (Lower Cambrian, Chengjiang Lagerstätte, SW China) and the phylogenetic relationships within lobopodians. *Arthropod Structure & Development* **38**, 271–291. (doi:10.1016/j.asd.2009.03.001)

38. García-bellido DC, Edgecombe GD, Paterson JR, Ma X. 2013 A 'Collins' monster'-type
lobopodian from the Emu Bay Shale Konservat-Lagerstätte (Cambrian), South Australia.
Alcheringa: An Australasian Journal of Palaeontology **37**, 474–478.
(doi:10.1080/03115518.2013.792456)

39. Yang J, Ortega-Hernández J, Gerber S, Butterfield NJ, Hou J, Lan T, Zhang X. 2015 A
superarmored lobopodian from the Cambrian of China and early disparity in the evolution of
Onychophora. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **112**, 8678–8683.
(doi:10.1073/pnas.1505596112)

40. Caron J-B, Aria C. 2017 Cambrian suspension-feeding lobopodians and the early radiation of
panarthropods. *BMC Evol Biol* **17**, 29. (doi:10.1186/s12862-016-0858-y)

41. Caron J, Aria C. 2020 The Collins' monster, a spinous suspension-feeding lobopodian from
the Cambrian Burgess Shale of British Columbia. *Palaeontology* **63**, 979–994.
(doi:10.1111/pala.12499)

42. Howard RJ, Hou X, Edgecombe GD, Salge T, Shi X, Ma X. 2020 A Tube-Dwelling Early
Cambrian Lobopodian. *Current Biology* **30**, 1529-1536.e2. (doi:10.1016/j.cub.2020.01.075)

43. Aria C, Caron J-B. 2024 Deep origin of articulation strategies in panarthropods: evidence
from a new luolishaniid lobopodian (Panarthropoda) from the Tulip Beds, Burgess Shale.
Journal of Systematic Palaeontology **22**, 2356090. (doi:10.1080/14772019.2024.2356090)

44. Smith MR, Ortega-Hernández J. 2014 Hallucigenia's onychophoran-like claws and the case
for Tactopoda. *Nature* **514**, 363–366. (doi:10.1038/nature13576)

45. Kihm J-H, Smith FW, Kim S, Rho HS, Zhang X, Liu J, Park T-YS. 2023 Cambrian
lobopodians shed light on the origin of the tardigrade body plan. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*
U.S.A. **120**, e2211251120. (doi:10.1073/pnas.2211251120)

46. Burns CW. 1968 The Relationship Between Body Size of Filter-Feeding Cladocera and the
Maximum Size of Partcile Ingested. *Limnology & Oceanography* **13**, 675–678.
(doi:10.4319/lo.1968.13.4.0675)

47. Wirtz K. 2012 Who is eating whom? Morphology and feeding type determine the size
relation between planktonic predators and their ideal prey. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* **445**, 1–12.
(doi:10.3354/meps09502)

48. Burton AL. 2021 OLS (Linear) Regression. In *The Encyclopedia of Research Methods in*
Criminology and Criminal Justice (eds JC Barnes, DR Forde), pp. 509–514. Wiley.
(doi:10.1002/9781119111931.ch104)

49. Pandey S, Bright CL. 2008 What are degrees of freedom? *Social Work Research* **32**, 119–
128.

50. Aho K, Derryberry D, Peterson T. 2014 Model selection for ecologists: the worldviews of
AIC and BIC. *Ecology* **95**, 631–636.

51. Malondialdehyde M. 2024 AICc Corrected Akaike information criterion. *FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS BIOLÓGICAS* , 19.

52. Harvey AC, Collier P. 1977 Testing for functional misspecification in regression analysis. *Journal of Econometrics* **6**, 103–119.

53. Servais T *et al.* 2016 The onset of the 'Ordovician Plankton Revolution' in the late Cambrian. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **458**, 12–28. (doi:10.1016/j.palaeo.2015.11.003)

54. Miller-ter Kuile A *et al.* 2022 Predator–prey interactions of terrestrial invertebrates are determined by predator body size and species identity. *Ecology* **103**, e3634. (doi:10.1002/ecy.3634)

55. Caine EA. 1974 Comparative functional morphology of feeding in three species of caprellids (Crustacea, Amphipoda) from the northwestern Florida Gulf Coast. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* **15**, 81–96. (doi:10.1016/0022-0981(74)90065-3)

56. Caine EA. 1977 Feeding mechanisms and possible resource partitioning of the caprellidae (Crustacea: Amphipoda) from Puget Sound, USA. *Mar. Biol.* **42**, 331–336. (doi:10.1007/BF00402195)

57. Guerra-García JM, Tierno De Figueroa JM. 2009 What do caprellids (Crustacea: Amphipoda) feed on? *Mar Biol* **156**, 1881–1890. (doi:10.1007/s00227-009-1220-3)

58. Lustri L, Collantes L, Esteves CJP, O'Flynn RJ, Saleh F, Liu Y. 2025 A Hypothesis on Suspension Feeding in Early Chelicerates (Offacolidae). *Diversity* **17**, 412. (doi:10.3390/d17060412)

59. Conova S. 1999 Role of particle wettability in capture by a suspension-feeding crab (Emerita talpoida). *Marine biology* **133**, 419–428.

60. Wainwright P, Carroll AM, Collar DC, Day SW, Higham TE, Holzman RA. 2007 Suction feeding mechanics, performance, and diversity in fishes. *Integrative and Comparative Biology* **47**, 96–106. (doi:10.1093/icb/icm032)

61. Van Wassenbergh S, Aerts P. 2009 Aquatic suction feeding dynamics: insights from computational modelling. *J. R. Soc. Interface.* **6**, 149–158. (doi:10.1098/rsif.2008.0311)

62. Wolcott TG. 1981 Inhaling without ribs: the problem of suction in soft-bodied invertebrates. *The Biological Bulletin* **160**, 189–197.

63. Shimeta J. 2009 Influence of flow speed on the functional response of a passive suspension feeder, the spionid polychaete Polydora cornuta. *Mar Biol* **156**, 2451–2460. (doi:10.1007/s00227-009-1270-6)

64. Trager G, Achituv Y, Genin A. 1994 Effects of prey escape ability, flow speed, and predator
feeding mode on zooplankton capture by barnacles. *Marine Biology* **120**, 251–259.
(doi:10.1007/BF00349685)

65. Leonard AB, Strickler JR, Holland ND. 1988 Effects of current speed on filtration during
suspension feeding in Oligometra serripinna (Echinodermata: Crinoidea). *Mar. Biol.* **97**, 111–
125. (doi:10.1007/BF00391251)

66. Miller DC, Bock MJ, Turner EJ. 1992 Deposit and suspension feeding in oscillatory flows
and sediment fluxes.

67. Hart DD, Merz RA, Genovese SJ, Clark BD. 1991 Feeding postures of suspension-feeding
larval black flies: the conflicting demands of drag and food acquisition. *Oecologia* **85**, 457–
463. (doi:10.1007/BF00323756)

68. Abrahams MV. 1995 The interaction between antipredator behaviour and antipredator
morphology: experiments with fathead minnows and brook sticklebacks. *Canadian Journal*
of Zoology **73**, 2209–2215.

69. Losos JB, Mouton PLFN, Bickel R, Cornelius I, Ruddock L. 2002 The effect of body
armature on escape behaviour in cordylid lizards. *Animal Behaviour* **64**, 313–321.

70. Vermeij GJ. 1977 The Mesozoic marine revolution: evidence from snails, predators and
grazers. *Paleobiology* **3**, 245–258. (doi:10.1017/S0094837300005352)

71. Wahle RA. 1992 Body-Size Dependent Anti-Predator Mechanisms of the American Lobster.
Oikos **65**, 52. (doi:10.2307/3544887)

72. Harper EM, Skelton P. 1993 The Mesozoic marine revolution and epifaunal bivalves. *Scripta*
Geologica, Special Issue **2**, 127–153.

73. Whitman DW, Vincent S. 2008 Large size as an antipredator defense in an insect. *Journal of*
Orthoptera Research **17**, 353–371. (doi:10.1665/1082-6467-17.2.353)

74. Cury De Barros F, Eduardo De Carvalho J, Abe AS, Kohlsdorf T. 2010 Fight versus flight:
the interaction of temperature and body size determines antipredator behaviour in tegu
lizards. *Animal Behaviour* **79**, 83–88. (doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2009.10.006)