- 1 A UNIQUE PREDATOR IN A UNIQUE ECOSYSTEM: MODELLING THE APEX
- 2 PREDATOR FROM THE LATE CRETACEOUS CROCODYLIFORM-DOMINATED
- 3 FAUNA IN BRAZIL

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ABSTRACT

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Theropod dinosaurs were relatively scarce in the Late Cretaceous ecosystems of southeast Brazil. Instead, the abundant hypercarnivore crocodyliforms known as baurusuchids were probably playing the ecological role as apex predators. Baurusuchids exhibited a series of morphological adaptations associated to this ecological role, but quantitative biomechanical assessments to support this were lacking to date. Here, we employ a biomechanical modelling approach, using finite element analysis (FEA) on skull and mandible models of a baurusuchid specimen, allowing us to characterise the craniomandibular apparatus of baurusuchids, as well as to test the hypothesis that their functional morphology allowed them to outcompete other carnivores, such as theropods. Our results demonstrate, for the first time, the ecological role of this group as specialised apex predators in the continental Late Cretaceous ecosystems of South America. With a with a relatively weak bite force (~600 N), baurusuchids preying strategies probably relied on other morphological specializations, such as ziphodont dentition and strong cervical musculature. Consistently, comparative assessments of the stress distribution and magnitude of scaled models of other predators (the theropod Allosaurus fragilis and the living crocodylian Alligator mississippiensis) show discrepant responses to loadings under the same functional scenarios, further suggesting considerably distinct predatory behaviors for these animals. The unique selective pressures from the arid to semi-arid Late Cretaceous palaeoecosystems of southeast Brazil, which were dominated by crocodyliforms, possibly drove the emergence and evolution of such exclusive set of biomechanical features seen in baurusuchids, which had not been previously reported for any other predatory taxon.

INTRODUCTION

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In nearly all known continental Cretaceous ecosystems worldwide, the dominant hypercarnivores and apex predators were theropod dinosaurs (Lloyd et al. 2008; Benson et al. 2013; Zanno & Mackovicky 2013). However, in the Late Cretaceous ecosystems of Brazil, theropods were exceptionally scarce. Instead, the putative dominant apex predators were a group of large, terrestrial crocodyliforms, the baurusuchids (Riff & Kellner 2011; Godoy et al. 2014). Baurusuchids are phylogenetically included within Notosuchia, a group of highly diverse crocodyliforms which thrived mainly in Gondwana during the Cretaceous (Pol & Leardi 2015; Mannion et al. 2015). Exhibiting a wide range of morphological variation, from gracile omnivores to pug-nosed herbivores, notosuchians contributed significantly to the highest peak of morphological disparity experienced by crocodyliforms (Wilberg 2017; Godoy 2019; Godoy et al. 2019). Although present in other parts of Gondwana, most baurusuchids species (ca. 80%) are found in the Late Cretaceous rocks of the Bauru Group, in southeast Brazil (Carvalho et al. 2005; Godoy et al. 2014; Montefeltro et al. 2011). The Bauru Group palaeoecosystem witnessed an extraordinary abundance of notosuchians, with nearly 30 species described so far. Dinosaurs were also present, but their fossil record is relatively poorer for these rocks. Within this crocodyliform-dominated ecosystem, baurusuchids formed the likely apex predators. Baurusuchids exhibited a series of morphological adaptations associated with their role as hypercarnivores, possibly achieved via heterochronic transformations, such as hypertrophied canines, a reduced number of teeth, and dorsoventrally high skulls (Montefeltro et al. 2011; Riff & Kellner 2011; Godoy et al. 2018). Yet, quantitative assessments about the paleobiology of baurusuchids are lacking, and the data supporting the apex-predatory role of the

baurusuchids is primarily derived from broad generalizations and the faunal composition of the Bauru ecosystem (Riff & Kellner 2011; Godoy *et al.* 2014).

Here, we employ a biomechanical modelling approach to test the hypothesis that

the cranial functional morphology allowed baurusuchids to outcompete other archosaurian carnivores. Using finite element analysis (FEA) we characterize the baurusuchid skull biomechanically and quantify functional similarities and differences between baurusuchids, theropod dinosaurs and living crocodylians. We also calculate bite forces and simulate different functional scenarios to reveal biomechanical properties of the baurusuchid skull and to understand how this group dominated the unique crocodyliform-dominated ecosystems during Cretaceous in Brazil.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Specimens. The baurusuchid specimen modelled for the present study is a complete skull with lower jaws, referred to *Baurusuchus pachecoi* (LPRP/USP 0697 Laboratório de Paleontologia USP-RP) and collected in Jales, Brazil (Adamantina Formation, Bauru Group; Montefeltro 2019). For comparisons, we also modelled a specimen of the theropod *Allosaurus fragilis* (MOR 693, Museum of the Rockies, Bozeman) and one specimen of *Alligator mississippiensis* (XXXXXXXX). *Allosaurus fragilis* was chosen based on its medium size when compared to other theropods, which is equivalent to the putative size of the theropods from the Adamantina Formation, for which no complete craniomandibular material is known. *Allosaurus* has been proposed to be functionally similar to abelisaurids, the most commonly found theropods in the Bauru Group (Sakamoto 2010). Furthermore, the choice of *Alligator mississippiensis* for the comparison with a living representative of the crocodyliform lineage was also made

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given that this is a model organism for herpetological and functional studies (Guillette et al. 2007; Farmer & Sanders 2010; Reed et al. 2011). For the subsequent FEA, existing 3D models of Allosaurus fragilis and Alligator mississippiensis from previous studies were used (Rayfield et al. 2001; Witmer & Ridgely 2008; Lautenschlager 2015). The skull of the Baurusuchus pachecoi was scanned in a Toshiba Aquilion Prime machine, in "Hospital das Clínicas de Ribeirão Preto", Brazil. The 1.187 slices were segmented in Amira 5.3. **FEA.** The 3D models of all specimens, including skulls and mandibles, were imported into Hypermesh 11 (Altair Engineering) for the generation of solid tetrahedral meshes (consisting of approximately 1,000,000 elements per model). For both the *Alligator* and the baurusuchid models, material properties for bone and teeth were assigned based on values for Alligator mississippiensis (bone: E = 15.0 GPa, v = 0.29, teeth: E = 60.4 GPa, v = 0.31; Porro et al. 2011; Sellers et al. 2017), whereas for the Allosaurus model, values derived from studies on theropods (bone: E = 20.0 GPa, v = 0.38, teeth: E = 60.4GPa, v = 0.31; Rayfield *et al.* 2001, 2011). All material properties in the models were assigned in Hypermesh and treated as isotropic and homogeneous. As an intrinsic scenario for the baurusuchid, we simulated, in both the skull and mandible models, a jaw adductor muscle-driven biting. The adductor muscle forces were estimated using the attachment area for each muscle, based on previous works on extant and extinct crocodyliforms (Holliday & Witmer 2009; Holliday et al. 2013). The attachment area was used as a proxy for physiological cross-section area, which was then multiplied by an isometric muscle stress value of 25.0 N/cm² (Porro *et al.* 2011). To investigate the craniomandibular biomechanical properties in alternative load assignments, other functional scenarios were also tested for the baurusuchid skull and

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mandible models: unilateral bite, bilateral bite, pull-back, head-shake and head-twist. The loading applied for each scenario was based on the approximation of the bite force obtained from the intrinsic scenario (600 N). All loadings in the unilateral bite scenario were applied to one node, perpendicular to the occlusal planes on one of the following teeth: D1, D4, D9, PM2, PM3, M2 and M4. Bilateral bite scenarios were tested with the same conditions as the unilateral one, but with two vectors of 300 N applied to each M4 and D4. The head-shake scenario was tested with two vectors of 300 N point to the same direction, one on one node on the labial surface of left M2/D4 and the other on one node on the lingual surface of right M2/D4. For the pull-back, the 600 N loading was applied to one node at crown midheight over the distal carena of the caniniform teeth (D4, PM3 and M2). For the head twist, the loadings were applied to two opposite vectors of 300 N in each model. One loading vector was applied to one node at the tip of the maxillary (M2) or dentary (D4) caniniform tooth, and another loading vector on the opposite side on the dorsal surface of the maxilla, or ventral surface of the dentary respectively. Four functional scenarios were also tested in the skull and lower jaws of Allosaurus fragilis and Alligator mississippiensis, for comparison. Bites were simulated at comparable positions of the bites tested in the baurusuchid. Unilateral bites were tested in PM2, M3, M16, D1, D4 and D13 for Allosaurus fragilis, and PM2, M4, M15, D2, D4 and D15 for Alligator mississippiensis. Bilateral bites were also tested in M3 and D5 pairs for the theropod, and M4 and D4 pairs for the crocodylian. For meaningful comparisons of form and function independent of size (Dumont et al., 2009), all models were scaled to the total surface of the baurusuchid specimen. For each scenario, constraints were placed on the craniomandibular articular surfaces. For the skulls, three nodes were constrained on the occipital condyle, and two

nodes on each quadrate articular surface. For the lower jaws, three nodes on each glenoid were constrained.

RESULTS

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The bite force estimation for the baurusuchid specimen was 252 N for the skull model, at the tip of the maxillary canine, and 578 N for the mandible model, at the tip of the dentary canine. Considerable differences were found between the stress magnitudes of the skull and lower jaws of the baurusuchid among the different scenarios tested (e.g. average values of 0.4 MPa in the skull head twist and of 24.7 MPa in the bilateral biting of the lower jaws). Although variable in magnitude, the stress distribution follows a general pattern in the skull and lower jaws of the baurusuchid (Figure 1). The stress in the skull models are mostly present in the posterior and median portions of the skull, with stress hotspots located on the ventral and lateral regions of the quadrate body, ventral region of the infratemporal bar, and preorbital region (anterior jugal, posterior maxillae, lacrimals, nasal, prefrontals, and anterior frontal). In addition, the stress in the premaxillae and maxillae are isolated from each other. This means that when loading is applied to the premaxillary teeth, the maxillae remain relatively stress-free, whereas the dorsal rostrum (premaxilla and nasals) is more stressed. When loading is applied to the maxillary teeth, the premaxillae remain unstressed, and stress is concentrated on the posterior portion of the skull (Figure 1).

As expected, the lower jaws experienced more stress than the skull model, but the stress hotspots are more homogeneously distributed, located on the dorsal surface of surangular, angular and retroarticular process. Two exceptions are the jaw pull back scenario, in which the stress hotspots are located around the mandibular fenestra; and

the bilateral bite scenario, in which most of the lower jaw is highly stressed, and only the symphyseal region remain less stressed.

The areas around the maxillary and dentary canines remain relatively stress-free, even in scenarios in which the loadings were applied to the canines. This is particularly evident for the dentary canine, for which the surrounding bone remain unstressed in all scenarios, including the least optimal scenario of the bilateral biting (Figure 1).

In general, the patterns of stress distribution we obtained for *Allosaurus* and *Alligator* (which was consistent with previous studies [Rayfield *et al.* 2001; Porro *et al.* 2011) contrasted with that of the baurusuchid. The discrepancies are more evident on the lower jaws, in which the baurusuchid remain consistently less stressed than both the theropod and the crocodylian. When compared to the baurusuchid, the theropod models obtained only slightly lower average stress values for the skull, but much higher values for the lower jaws (Figure 2). The alligator model, in contrast, retrieved higher average stress values in most scenarios than both the baurusuchid and *Allosaurus*, even though the skull stress values are less discrepant (Figure 2). The only scenario that does not follow this pattern is the unilateral bite at the back of the upper-tooth row, in which the average stress value is similar between the baurusuchid and *Alligator*, although both retrieved higher stresses than the theropod. The most discrepant results are related to the mandibular anterior bite scenario, which retrieved an average stress value in *Alligator* more than nine times higher than in the baurusuchid, and almost twice the average stress recorded for the theropod.

DISCUSSION

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The unexpectedly weak bite force estimated for the baurusuchid is much lower than that measured for extant crocodylians of comparable size (Alligator sinensis with a total body length around 150 cm can have a bite of up to 963N measured in caniniform (Erickson et al. 2012). It is also only a fraction of the bite forces inferred for adult theropods, which could potentially exceed 50,000 N (Gignac & Erickson 2017). This weak bite force in baurusuchids suggests that their role as apex predators would possibly involve hunting strategies different from most carnivorous theropods and living crocodylians, which mostly rely on muscle-driven biting forces for killing [Rayfield 2004, 2005, 2011; D'Amore et al. 2011; Erickson et al. 2012). As a consequence, the killing potential of baurusuchids could have been enhanced by structural and behavioural traits, as in other weak-bite apex predators such as troodontids and allosaurid, varanid monitors and felines (Rayfield 2001; D'Amore et al. 2011; Figueirido et al. 2018; Torices et al. 2018). Alternatively, the apex predator role of baurusuchids could have been a historical misinterpretation, and the group would be better suited for preying on smaller and/or softer animals. However, a series of craniomandibular and postcranial adaptations of baurusuchids indicate otherwise. For example, the presence of extensive overengineered regions around the canines in both the skull and lower jaws (e.g. regions that remain relatively stress-free in all tested scenario) show that the baurusuchid craniomandibular architecture could safely perform in much higher stress conditions than the imposed by muscle-driving biting forces. The presence of overengineered regions in Allosaurus has been suggested as evidence that this taxon also used mechanisms to enhance killing potential in its regular feeding strategy (Rayfiled et al.

Additionally, the tested pull-back, head-shake and head-twist scenarios were designed to understand how the baurusuchid craniomandibular architecture would perform during similar head movements employed by other weak- and strong-bite apex predators (Rayfield 2001; D'Amore et al. 2011; Torices et al. 2018). For baurusuchids, these movements would be possible given the robust cervical vertebrae, high neural spines, and well-developed cervical ribs (particularly the first two), which provided large attachment areas for the muscles responsible for head lift, head twist, and side-to-side movements (Cleuren & De Vree 2000; Godoy et al. 2018). These tests show that the baurusuchid skull and mandible worked optimally in scenarios simulating non-orthal loads, suggesting that baurusuchids were well suited for head movements during preying, possibly even more than living crocodylians. This can be explained by the combination of three skull features that minimize skull stress during bites and torsion, the oreinirostral morphology, the obliterate antorbital fenestra, and extensively ossified secondary palate. This combination of features is particularly efficient for stress reduction during unilateral biting (Rayfield & Milner 2008).

Our tests also revealed that the well-developed gap between premaxillae and maxillae is a unique specialization in the skull architecture of baurusuchids, very likely related to predatory habits. This gap rerouted the stress from the premaxillae to the dorsal surface of the fused nasals during biting, preventing stress from traveling from the occlusal region of one bone to the other, and implying a functional modularity between premaxillae and maxillae during bites. This gap at premaxillae-maxillae suture is absent in *Allosaurus* and *Alligator*, and in those taxa, the stress travels directly from the premaxilla to the maxilla, especially during the unilateral premaxillary bite scenarios. A similar stress rerouting is observed in tyrannosaurids, in which the robust and also fused nasals work as main route for stress distribution, bypassing the less

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robust maxilla-lacrimal contact (Rayfield 2005). We suggest that the gap observed in baurusuchids, in combination with the robust and fused nasals, worked similarly to that of tyrannosaurids. The gap could also allow repeatedly punctures to be inflicted from different positions of the tooth row, but concomitantly working as a built-in safety factor, minimizing the risk of skull yielding (Rayfield et al., 2001). Finally, the presence of ziphodont dentition in baurusuchids is also in line with the role of apex predator (Riff & Kellner 2011; Godoy et al. 2014). The knife-like teeth with well-developed serrated cutting edges is a dental adaptation for optimal defleshing of vertebrate carcasses (D'Amore et al. 2009) and are present in a series of unrelated apex predators, including theropod dinosaurs and large monitor lizards (D'Amore et al. 2011; Brink & Reisz 2014; Torices et al. 2018). The discrepancy in the stress magnitude and distribution seen between the mandibles of the three taxa suggests that this structure is also pivotal in understanding the palaeoecology of baurusuchids. The stress distribution shows that Allosaurus and Alligator have higher and more homogeneously distributed stress in the mandible, while in the baurusuchid the stress is concentrated at the postsymphyseal region. This indicates that the robust symphysis in baurusuchids is important for stabilizing the lower jaws. The best example of the discrepant responses among lower jaws is seen in the bilateral biting scenario, for which the average stress value for the baurusuchid was approximately five times greater than any other scenario. Additionally, this is the only scenario in which the stress approaches the higher values presented by Allosaurus and Alligator (Figure 2). The baurusuchid response is also different from Allosaurus and Alligator in the sense that the average stress values in the bilateral scenarios are discrepant from the unilateral bite scenarios, whereas the other two taxa show similar

values in both scenarios. Based on our FEA results, we propose that the bilateral biting is the least likely killing strategy for baurusuchids, and the clamp-and-hold, employed by living crocodylians, and large mammal predators, such as the lion (*Panthera leo*) (Figueirido *et al.* 2018), does not fit the mechanical properties of baurusuchid skull.

Our results also indicate that baurusuchids were well adapted for handling struggling preys, which were possibly subdued by inflicting a series of unilateral bites using premaxillary, maxillary and particularly the dentary canines, that combined with the ziphodonty would pierce repeatedly the prey skin. The puncture phase would be followed by head-movements that would worsen the wounds caused by the punctures and ultimately leading to the killing of the prey.

Our results successfully characterise the exceptional suite of biomechanical properties displayed by baurusuchids, which combine exclusive adaptations, features similar to theropods, and other characteristics also seen in living crocodylians. Such a combination has not been reported previously for any predatory taxon, raising questions on the specific evolutionary settings that allowed these features to emerge. Particularly, selective pressures from extrinsic environmental factors seem to have an important influence during amniote functional and biomechanical evolution (Sakamoto *et al.* 2019). In the case of baurusuchids, the unique Late Cretaceous palaeoecosystems of southeast Brazil exhibited a combination of playa-lake systems and transitory rivers which possibly permitted life to flourish in semi-arid to arid conditions (Carvalho *et al.* 2010; Marsola *et al.* 2016). These landmasses witnessed an extraordinary diversity of crocodyliforms (especially notosuchians; Mannion *et al.* 2015), as well as other tetrapods (Godoy *et al.* 2014). This resulted in a diverse array of potential preys for baurusuchids, from small terrestrial crocodyliforms to gigantic titanosaur sauropods,

indicating that prey selection could have played an important role in the evolution of the 286 287 baurusuchid craniomandibular apparatus. 288 289 **REFERENCES** 290 Benson, R. B., Mannion, P. D., Butler, R. J., Upchurch, P., Goswami, A., & Evans, S. 291 E. (2013). Cretaceous tetrapod fossil record sampling and faunal turnover: implications for biogeography and the rise of modern clades. *Palaeogeography*, 292 293 Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, **372**, 88–107. 294 Bronzati, M., Montefeltro, F., & Langer, M. (2015). Diversification events and the effects of mass extinctions on Crocodyliformes evolutionary history. Royal 295 296 Society Open Science, 2, 140385. 297 Brink, K. S.; & Reisz, R. R. (2014). Hidden dental diversity in the oldest terrestrial apex 298 predator Dimetrodon. Nature Communications, 5, 3269. Carvalho, I., S., De Celso, A., Campos, A., & Nobre, P. (2005). Baurusuchus 299 salgadoensis, a new Crocodylomorpha from the Bauru Basin (Cretaceous), 300 301 Brazil. Gondwana Research, 8, 11-30. Carvalho, I. S., Gasparini, Z. B., Salgado, L., Vasconcellos, F. M., & Marinho, T. S. 302 (2010). Climate's role in the distribution of the Cretaceous terrestrial 303 Crocodyliformes throughout Gondwana. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, 304 305 Palaeoecology, 297, 252–262. 306 Cleuren J, & De Vree, F. (2000) Feeding in Crocodilians. *In* K., Schwenk (ed.) 307 *Feeding: form, function and evolution in tetrapod vertebrates.* pp. 337–358. Academic Press, San Diego. 308 309 D'Amore, D. C. (2009). A functional explanation for denticulation in theropod dinosaur teeth. The Anatomical Record, 292, 1297–1314. 310 D'Amore, D. C.; Moreno, K.; McHenry, C. R.; & Wroe, S. 2011. The effects of biting 311 and pulling on the forces generated during feeding in the Komodo dragon 312 (Varanus komodoensis). PloS ONE, 6, e26226. 313 Dumont, E., Grosse, I., & Slater, G. (2009). Requirements for comparing the 314 performance of finite element models of biological structures. Journal of 315 Theoretical Biology, **256**, 96–103. 316 Erickson, G., Gignac, P., Steppan, S., Lappin, A., Vliet, K., Brueggen, J., Inouye, B. D., 317 Kledzik, D., & Webb, G. (2012). Insights into the ecology and evolutionary 318 success of crocodilians revealed through bite-force and tooth-pressure 319 experimentation. *PLoS ONE*, **7**, e31781. 320

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FIGURES AND FIGURE CAPTIONS

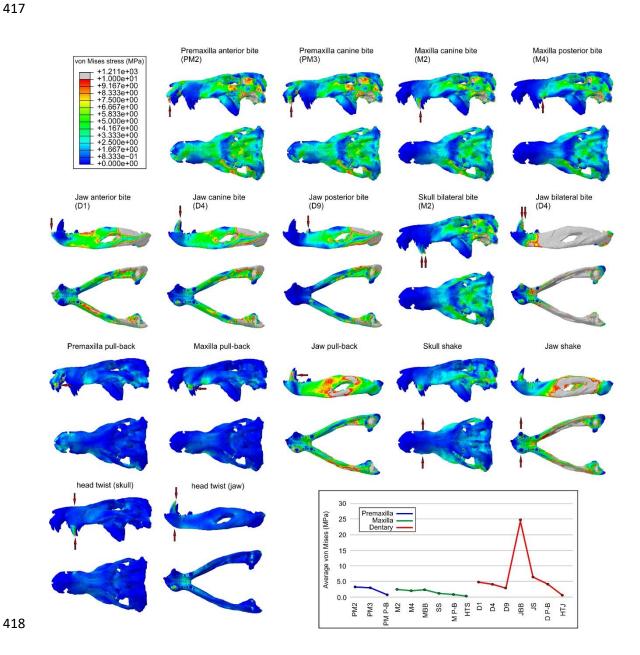


Figure 1. Von Mises stress contour plots from FEA of the baurusuchid specimen LPRP/USP 0697, comparing the stress distribution of skull and mandible models under distinct functional bite scenarios. Arrows indicate the location on the models of the loading vectors for each scenario. Average Von Mises values per scenario are displayed on the bottom right.

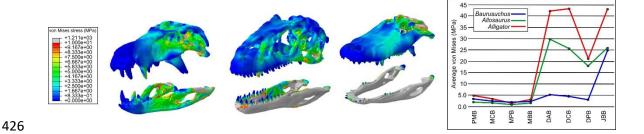


Figure 2. Comparison of Von Mises stress distribution for scaled models of different archosaurian carnivores: baurusuchid, *Allosaurus fragilis* and *Alligator mississippiensis*. Stress contour plots displayed for the anterior bite scenario. On the right, comparative average Von Mises values per scenario for each taxon.