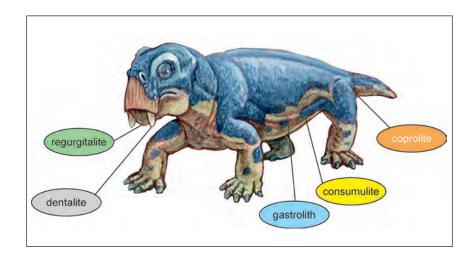
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A Division of the DEPARTMENT OF CULTURAL AFFAIRS

THE ICHNOLOGY OF VERTEBRATE CONSUMPTION: DENTALITES, GASTROLITHS AND BROMALITES



by

ADRIAN P. HUNT and SPENCER G. LUCAS

Albuquerque, 2021

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THE ICHNOLOGY OF VERTEBRATE CONSUMPTION: DENTALITES, GASTROLITHS AND BROMALITES ADRIAN P. HUNT and SPENCER G. LUCAS

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THE ICHNOLOGY OF VERTEBRATE CONSUMPTION: DENTALITES, GASTROLITHS AND BROMALITES

ADRIAN P. HUNT¹ and SPENCER G. LUCAS²

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Abstract—There is a long tradition of indirectly inferring feeding in fossil and Recent vertebrates from the functional morphology of bones and teeth. However, some trace fossils provide direct evidence of feeding, and the study of the ichnology of feeding dates to the 1820s–1830s. Trace fossils that document vertebrate consumption in all of its phases are dentalites ("tooth marks"), gastroliths and bromalites (includes coprolites, consumulites and regurgitalites, among others), and these trace fossils are key to understanding the evolution of nutrient acquisition and food processing in the evolutionary history of vertebrates. We review the fossil record and significance of these ichnolossils as they relate to feeding, which is to say we review the ichnology of vertebrate consumption. Beyond a review, we also indicate areas for further research, which are many, on dentalites, gastroliths and bromalites. Finally, we analyze our knowledge of the history of these trace fossils to identify critical biotic events and turning points in the evolutionary history of vertebrate consumption.

There is an extensive fossil record of vertebrate **dentalites** ("tooth marks"), principally on bony substrates, but also on invertebrate hard parts, coprolites, plants, lithic substrates and others, reviewed here for the first time. Two centuries of studies of dentalites show strong biases towards archeology, and towards dinosaurs as a result of the Taxophile Effect. This record merits more synthetic study in an ichnotaxonomic framework and the development of criteria for establishing inferences about behavior. Indeed, dentalites are of diverse paleoethological significance, including: (1) predation, including hunting strategies; (2) bite method and force; (3) dietary selection; (4) feeding; (5) scavenging strategies; (6) methodologies of bone accumulation; (7) trophic patterns; (8) intraspecific (agonistic) interactions; (9) tooth sharpening; and (10) bone and rock utilization for other purposes, including mineral extraction. What is now needed is a dentalite ichnology beginning with diverse documentation of the dentalite ichnofossil record, compilation and synthesis of the entire record, rigorous ichnotaxonomy and determination of analytical criteria for establishing inferences about the behaviors archived by tooth-mark ichnofossils.

Bromalites include regurgitalites, consumulites, coprolites, pabulites and digestilites. **Regurgitalites** are the least studied bromalites, the most difficult to identify, and their fossil record is strongly controlled by taxonomic and taphonomic factors. Bromalite pellets can represent coprolites or regurgitalites, and two-dimensional examples could be taphonomic artifacts (decayed specimens or physical concentrations). Many identified vertebrate regurgitalites were produced by fish or birds and are preserved in a limited range of environmental settings (e. g., aquatic low energy). Regurgitalites have diverse utility, including: (1) providing evidence of the evolution of predation and digestion; (2) analysis of taphonomy and sedimentary environments; (3) proxies for the presence of biotaxa; (4) loci for exceptional preservation; (5) biogeographic studies; (6) evaluating digestive processes of producers; and (7) evidence of the evolution of durophagy.

There are numerous descriptions of **consumulites**, reviewed for the first time here, but they are usually concealed within publications with a different focus. Consumulites give the most unambiguous dietary attributions of any bromalites and provide direct evidence of the nature of digestion and the structure of the digestive tract. However, the study of consumulites is in an early stage of development, though they also have great potential to provide direct evidence of aspects of patterns of digestion, such as: (1) assessing the chemistry of digestive systems by examining the etching and erosion of consumulite materials; (2) studying the evolution of the components of the digestive system; (3) analyzing dietary changes through ontogeny; (4) evaluating the evolution of diets within clades; and (5) identifying environmental tolerances. Consumulites may preserve a wide range of organic elements with a poor fossil record and thus can be Lagerstätten. In addition, consumulites can also preserve tissues of the gastrointestinal tract. The systematic study of consumulites will undoubtedly yield significant records of contained fossils, as has the recent focus on the contents of coprolites.

The term **gastrolith** refers to sand and/or gravel swallowed by an animal and retained in the digestive tract. Wings recently grouped objects with different origins under the single term gastrolith, so he proposed to add prefixes to the word gastrolith to create terms that identified their different origins: "bio-gastrolith" for the calcareous concretions formed in the bodies of some crustaceans; "patho-gastrolith" for concretions formed in the stomach pathologically; and "geo-gastroliths" for swallowed rock particles. These terms are unnecessary if gastrolith is restricted to the meaning we advocate, which is the same as Wing's "geo-gastrolith." Wings also advocated using the term

"exolith" for "stones" that might be gastroliths but that lack a convincing skeletal association. This term, however, enshrines the widespread misconception that highly polished "stones" are gastroliths, regardless of any skeletal association. It also lacks specificity, as any polished "stone" anywhere could be called an exolith. Thus, we do not use the term exolith. The distribution of gastroliths is very irregular in extant vertebrates and is often related to the presence of a muscular gizzard. Nevertheless, swallowing or not swallowing sand/gravel can be specific to some individuals within a species. A variety of functions have been suggested for gastroliths, only two of which are of significance: use in digestion to grind, pulverize and/or disintegrate food or use as ballast for buoyancy control. It seems likely that some crocodiles and marine mammals use/used gastroliths for buoyancy control, but all other gastrolith-bearing vertebrates appear to have used them in digestion. Identification of fossil gastroliths is only certain when the sand/gravel is found as a concentrated mass in an anatomically plausible position within the abdominal region of a fossil skeleton. There are various ways to polish stones, notably by the wind to make them ventifacts. Polished clasts identified as gastroliths are siliceous, mostly quartz or chert. These clasts could have been polished by wind and/or water, both before ingestion by an animal and/or after excretion or other removal from an animal's digestive tract. Furthermore, how a stomach or gizzard would polish siliceous clasts (which are very hard) is also unclear, and such polishing does not occur in extant birds. Only a small minority of bona fide gastroliths, particularly those of plesiosaurs, are highly polished. There is thus an inability to establish when and where the clasts were polished, and inferring that they acquired their polish while gastroliths is not supported by actualistic studies of gastroliths. The idea that any highly polished clast is a gastrolith needs to be abandoned. Most records of gastroliths are from plesiosaurs, birds and some dinosaurs. Gastroliths are trace fossils in need of ichnotaxonomy that provide important insights into various behaviors. Gastroliths clearly are the work of an animal. Unlike eggs, for example, the sand/gravel that comprise gastroliths (our definition) is not made by animals-it is swallowed by, concentrated by, transported by and, in some cases, altered by animals. So, the trace-fossil status of gastroliths is unimpeachable. We advocate development of an ichnotaxonomy for gastroliths. Ichnotaxonomic names, however, should not be assigned to individual grains/clasts of sand/gravel of fossil gastroliths. We favor naming the entire gastrolith mass from a single abdominal cavity. Ichnotaxobases could be the number of gastroliths in the mass, their general petrographic composition, and their overall size, shape, surface texture and other shared morphological features. This likely would produce a workable ichnotaxonomy that recognizes ichnotaxa that are readily distinguished by morphological differences that are a direct reflection of varied behavior. Gastroliths provide important insights into various behaviors, notably diet, digestion, buoyancy control and habitat preferences.

After footprints, **coprolites** are the most studied vertebrate trace fossils, and they are the subject of an extensive and rapidly growing literature. Coprolites have an extensive fossil record that has proven potential to address a broad range of paleontological issues: (1) coprolites as proxy for biotaxa have utility in biochronology, biogeography and faunal turnover; (2) coprolites as trace fossils can delimit a hierarchy of ichnocoensoes and ichnofacies; (3) coprolites as end products of the gastrointestinal tract can provide evidence of digestive processes; and (4) internally, coprolites can be Lagerstätten that preserve a wide range of organisms with an otherwise poor fossil record.

Other bromalites are digestilites, pabulites and micturalites. **Digestilites** is a new term for materials derived from the digestive tract. They are subject to chemical and physical processes that result in characteristic damage that can be recognized in regurgitated or defecated material. Digestilites composed of invertebrate debris provide a particularly important insight into the evolution of durophagous fish and also constitute a significant sediment source, particularly in the Cenozoic. Many late Cenozoic (and some earlier) microvertebrate accumulations consist of digestilites, and this large topic deserves substantial study. **Pabulites** are fossilized food that never entered the digestive tract. Footprints, some nests and other traces also can record evidence of vertebrate predation and consumption. **Mololite** is a new term for tooth wear, which is a type of trace fossil.

There are **taphonomic megabiases** in the trace fossil record of vertebrate consumption. The bromalite and dentalite records are heavily skewed towards carnivores. There are also significant size-related biases, for example that small and large coprolites and regurgitalites are rare, as are small dentalites. Certain time periods demonstrate strong, geologically-based biases. For example, the continental flooding of the Late Cretaceous resulted in extensive trace (and body) fossils preserved in the Western Interior Basin of North America, not only in the sedimentary deposits of the seaways but also in the rocks that formed on the associated coastal plains. The first large sample of vertebrate ichnofossils related to feeding is from the Devonian, but the largest acme is in the Late Cretaceous, which resulted from taphonomy (continental flooding), the evolution of predators (e.g., sharks, mosasaurs, large theropods) and the Taxophile Effect.

The fossil record of trace fossils provides substantial information about the evolution of vertebrate feeding. In addition, relevant vertebrate and invertebrate ichnofossils provide significant insight into major evolutionary events. The earliest evidence of predation is from terminal Neoproterozoic trace fossils. The earliest definitive vertebrate feeding traces are spiral coprolites and regurgitalites from the Late Ordovician, but earlier bromalites could pertain to vertebrates. The oldest dentalite is from the Middle Silurian. Consumulites occur in Middle Silurian fish, but the first recognizable contents are from the Early Devonian. Bromalites and dentalites provide evidence for major evolutionary events including the Great Ordovician Biodiversification Event, Middle Paleozoic Marine Revolution, as well as various proposed mass extinctions, real and imagined.

Consumulites are important in understanding the evolution of the avian digestive Bauplan. We also introduce the following terms: (1) **cropalite** for preserved contents of the crop, (2) **proventrilite** for contents of the proventriculus; (3) **aspirationalite** (from the medical term for food in the airway) for consumulites that preserve prey in the oral cavity with a significant portion extending exteriorly; (4) **dislocational evisceralite** for a portion of the gastrointestinal tract is physically removed from a carcass; and (5) **preservational evisceralite** for preferential fossilization of the gastrointestinal tract. There is an almost 200-year history of naming vertebrate tracks, but there is an unjustified reluctance to apply a binominal ichotaxonomy to traces related to feeding that impedes the development of their study.

INTRODUCTION

Diet and food acquisition are fundamental biological traits of any organism. In extant organisms, dietary composition and acquisition can be observed directly. However, among extinct organisms, the inference of these traits has relied primarily on analyses of the body fossils of animals. In the case of extinct vertebrates, an extensive literature infers food composition and acquisition primarily by biomechanical analysis of skulls, dentitions and selected postcrania in an actualistic context. However, such inferences are almost always general in nature. Thus, an extinct vertebrate may be inferred to have been eating insects (an insectivore) based on skull and tooth structure as well as based on body size, but precisely what insects were consumed cannot be directly determined.

In contrast, vertebrate trace fossils can record the direct products of actual food acquisition and processing and thereby lead to the identification of very specific diets and modes of dietary acquisition. In these ways, dentalites ("tooth marks"), gastroliths and bromalites (includes coprolites, consumulites and regurgitalites, among others) are key to understanding the evolution of nutrient acquisition and food processing in the evolutionary history of vertebrates (Fig. 1). Here, we review the fossil record and significance of these ichnofossils as they relate to feeding, which is to say we review the ichnology of vertebrate consumption. Beyond a review, we also indicate areas for further research on dentalites, gastroliths and bromalites, which are many. Finally, we summarize the status of our knowledge of the history of vertebrate consumption based on these trace fossils. This summary thus identifies critical biotic events and turning points in the evolutionary history of vertebrate consumption.

Seilacher (1953) defined a mark in relation to ichnology as an abiogenic sedimentary structure (e.g., sole mark, flute mark). The current definition of trace is of a biogenic structure produced by the behavior of an organism modifying a substrate (Bertling et al., 2006; Vallon et al., 2015). Thus, a bite mark is more correctly termed a bite trace in ichnology. However, there is pervasive use in biology, pathology, paleontology, archeology and the vernacular of the term bite mark. We thus utilize the term "mark" in an informal sense, knowing that it is ichnologically

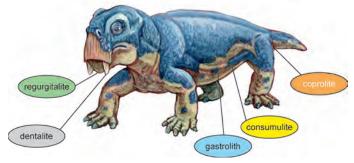


FIGURE 1. Principal trace fossils associated with feeding. Artwork of the Early Triassic synapsid *Lystrosaurus* by Matt Celeskey.

incorrect but that it is easily understood. The usage of the formal term dentalite, which we recently introduced (Hunt et al., 2018), will obviate the need for future discussions of this topic.

Herein we utilize the ichnological framework established by the consensus work of Bertling et al. (2006, p. 266) and the definition of a trace fossil as "a morphologically recurrent structure resulting from the life activity of an individual organism (or homotypic organisms) modifying the substrate." Thus, for example we do not consider signs of human technology as ichnofossils (e. g., Noe-Nygaard, 1989; Bertling et al., 2006; Lucas, 2016, but see Hasiotis et al., 2007). All the trace fossils discussed here fall within the ethological class Digestichnia (Vallon, 2012).

ABBREVIATIONS

CMM, Calvert Marine Museum, Solomons, Maryland, USA; FHSM, Sternberg Museum of Natural History, Fort Hays State University, Hays, Kansas, USA; GLCA, Glen Canyon National Recreation Area fossil collection reposited at Museum of Northern Arizona, Flagstaff, Arizona, USA. NMMNH, New Mexico Museum of Natural History, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA; OUM, Oxford University Museum of Natural History, Oxford, UK; SMNS, Staatliches Museum für Naturkunde, Stuttgart, Germany; USNM, United States National Museum, Smithsonian, Washington, DC, USA; YPM, Yale Peabody Museum of Natural History, New Haven, Connecticut, USA.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS

Buckland (1822, 1835, 1836) first recognized and described coprolites, dentalites and consumulites. The concept of coprolites garnered immediate and widespread interest, and there is an extensive literature on these ichnofossils (e.g., Duffin, 2009, 2012a; Hunt et al. 2012f). The study of dentalites was intermittent until the past half century, but there never has been concerted research on consumulites. One of our goals is to review the voluminous and very dispersed literature on vertebrate dentalites, gastroliths and the most common bromalites (coprolites, consumulites and regurgitalites). The record of coprolites has already been reviewed by us, wholly or partially, several times during the past decade (e.g., Hunt et al., 2007, 2012d, 2013, 2018; Hunt and Lucas, 2013, 2014a, 2016c, 2018a, 2020a), so we limit our presentation on coprolites here to a synopsis. However, there has been no thorough synthesis of the literature on dentalites, consumulites, regurgitalites or gastroliths, although there have been some partial reviews (e.g., Wings, 2004, 2007; Lucas, 2016; Hunt et al., 2018), so we are more comprehensive in our treatment of the literature on these trace fossils (Appendix A). Similarly, there is a voluminous literature on Pleistocene trace fossils that document consumption that we summarize but do not list in detail, though for geologically older trace fossils we have attempted to evaluate the vast majority of examples.

In our reviews we have generally employed the taxonomy of the producers or victims utilized in the original descriptions. We have characterized traces as marine or nonmarine, again based largely on the original literature. We somewhat arbitrarily included lagoons in the nonmarine category, even though many such environments have marine influences. The sequence of the review follows the anterior-to-posterior progression through the gastrointestinal tract, commencing with dentalites and concluding with coprolites (Fig. 1).

There is a long history of the study of vertebrate functional morphology, dating back to Aristotle, but Cuvier laid the foundations of modern methodology with his concept of the correspondence of parts, namely that function could be inferred from structure (Cuvier, 1812, 1829; Appel, 1987; Russell, 1982; Ashley-Ross and Gillis, 2002). Cuvier applied this principle widely to vertebrate feeding, for example "there are several particular modifications, depending on the size, the manners, and the haunts for which each species of carnivorous animal is destined or fitted by nature; and, from each of these particular modifications there result certain minute conformations of particular parts" (Cuvier, 1818, p. 99-100). The inferred functional morphology of vertebrate hard parts has been the basis of almost all subsequent analysis of food acquisition and processing (e.g., Thompson, 1917; Gans, 1974; Schwenk, 2000). However, the extensive dataset of ichnofossils related to feeding also has important potential for analysis, and it should be further integrated with studies of the body fossil record (e.g., Miller and Pittman, 2021).

Vertebrate and invertebrate ichnology have different traditions (e.g., Hunt and Lucas, 2007b, 2016a; Melchor and Genise, 2004; Lucas, 2005; Lockley, 2007), which Hunt and Lucas (2003, 2004, 2005c, 2007b) termed the ethological and the biotaxonomic. The majority of invertebrate ichnologists, with the notable exception of those describing arthropod walking traces, have principally utilized an ethological approach to ichnology by describing and naming behavioral interactions between organisms and substrate. In contrast, vertebrate ichnologists have principally applied a biotaxonomic approach by attempting to relate traces to the taxonomy of the producer. Thus, vertebrate ichnologists treat vertebrate ichnotaxa as proxies of biotaxa (Hunt and Lucas, 2007b, 2016a; Lucas, 2007). The history of naming vertebrate tracks dates back to the 1830s (Chirotherium Kaup, 1835) and has been both widely accepted and utilized in analyses ranging from those of biochronology to ichnofacies (e.g., Lucas, 2007; Hunt and Lucas, 2007b). However, with some exceptions (e.g., Duffin, 2010; Laojumpon et al., 2012; Milàn, 2018; Rakshit et al., 2019; Duffin and Ward, 2020; Rummy et al., 2021), many workers have been explicitly reluctant to apply binomial nomenclature to bromalites and the other traces discussed here (e.g., Chin in Hunt et al., 1994; Bajdek et al., 2014; Francischini et al., 2018). Regardless of all opinions on variation in feces morphology, which in our opinion are not upheld by Recent studies, if morphotypes can be recognized then they should be named to facilitate communication and utility. Thus, we discuss ichnotaxobases for all of the groups of vertebrate trace fossils reviewed here and advocate the erection of binomial taxonomy, as has been universally advocated for all trace fossils (Bertling et al., 2006).

Significant factors influence the preserved pattern of the fossil record of dentalites, gastroliths and bromalites. Lagerstätten are particularly important in the preservation of these trace fossils, especially with regard to consumulites. Cambrian and Ordovician coprolites are almost exclusively recorded from Lagerstätten (e.g., Winneshiek, Soom Shale: Aldridge et al., 2006; Hawkins et al., 2018), and they are important sources of feeding traces through the later Phanerozoic. In particular, Lagerstätten preserve large samples of articulated skeletons, which are necessary for the unambiguous recognition of consumulites and gastroliths (e.g., Holzmaden, Solnhofen: Keller, 1976; Viohl, 1990). Articulated skeletons are not restricted to Lagerstätten, but they mainly are preserved in a limited number of depositional environments, principally those of aquatic low energy settings (lagoonal, lacustrine, shallow marine). These depositional environments also preserve most consumulites, regurgitalites and gastroliths.

The trace fossils discussed herein can provide significant information beyond feeding behavior. For example, dentalites provide prima facie evidence for intraspecific head-biting in serveral clades of large reptiles, including mosasaurs, phytosaurs, crocodylomorphs and tyrannosaurs (e.g., Currie and Eberth, 2010; Carr et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2021). And, latrinites indicate the behavior of producers such as cave utilization by ground sloths (Hunt and Lucas, 2018c).

All ichnofossils are facies fossils, but they have varied environmental restrictions. Coprolites are the only trace fossils that are routinely re-worked because of early lithification (e.g., Hollocher and Hollocher, 2012). They thus are present in intraformational, and even extraformational, lag deposits (Hunt and Lucas, 2010; Hunt et al., 2015).

There is a size bias, at least in the recognition of vertebrate feeding traces. The majority of dentalites, except for those of armored fish in the Devonian, and of consumulites, except for those from Lagerstätten, are reported from relatively large vertebrates. There is also ample evidence of the Taxophile Effect of Hunt et al. (2018)–preferential study of popular fossil groups, such as dinosaurs–for example, with publications on the dentalites of large Mesozoic reptiles greatly outnumbering those of small Paleogene mammals.

There have been few studies of the pattern of the overall fossil record of vertebrate trace fossils (e.g., Hunt et al., 2005a, 2018). There are clearly extensive taphonomic megabiases (Behrensmeyer et al., 2000) in this trace fossil record. The bromalite and dentalite records are, for example, heavily skewed towards carnivores. There are also significant size-related biases, such as that small and large coprolites and regurgitalites are rare, as are small dentalites. Certain time periods demonstrate strong, geologically-based biases. Thus, for example, the continental flooding of the Late Cretaceous resulted in extensive trace (and body) fossils preserved in the Western Interior Basin of North America, not only in the sedimentary deposits of the seaways but also in the rocks that formed on the associated coastal plains, and could reasonably be considered to be a mega-Lagerstätten or maybe a Lagerstätten province. Certain traces have abundant records not consonant with those of the relative abundance of their producers, such as the spiral coprolites of chondrichthyans. These megabiases should provide many lines of future inquiry into the nature of the record of vertebrate ichnofossils and are discussed further below.

VERTEBRATE FEEDING

The analysis of vertebrate feeding in the fossil record has almost totally been based on the functional morphological (biomechanical) analysis of body fossils (especially of skulls and dentitions). A vast literature exists on such analyses, and we do not review it or its conclusions here. Instead, we draw attention to those aspects of vertebrate feeding that are informed by trace fossils, some of which are not understood from the study of body fossils.

The Hard Parts

Dentitions and teeth

Vertebrate teeth are hard structures (usually enamel capped) in the vertebrate mouth that are used to process food. They are very variable in individual morphology and, in their groupings in a given mouth (Fig. 2), which are referred to as dentitions (e.g., Peyer, 1968). Typically, teeth in dentitions can be considered homodont (if all the teeth are of very similar structure) or heterodont (in which very different tooth structures are present). Thus, for example, the dentition of humans is

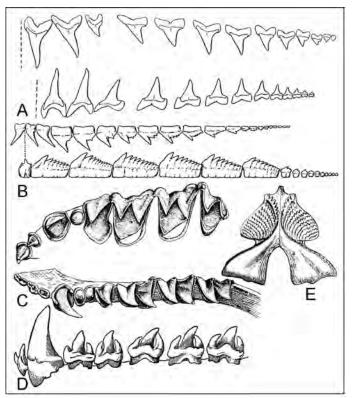


FIGURE 2. Selected vertebrate dentitions to document some of the wide range of morphology of individual teeth and of whole dentitions. **A**, Lateral view of the relatively homodont upper and lower tooth rows of the mackerel shark, *Isurus*. **B**, Much more heterodont upper and lower tooth rows of the sixgill shark, *Hexanchus*. **C**, Upper and lower tooth rows of the bat, *Corynorhinus*, showing the heterodonty characteristic of most mammals, by which teeth can be differentiated readily into incisors, canines, premolars and molars. **D**, Lateral view of the lower dentition of the seal, *Leptonychotes*. Posterior to the large canine, note the relative homodonty of the cheek teeth. **E**, Occlusal view of fossil toothplates of a Carboniferous lungfish, *Ctenodus*. Not to scale; modified from Peyer (1968).

very much heterodont, with the teeth readily distinguished as incisors, canines, premolars and molars based on their differing morphology. In contrast, the dentition of a dolphin consists of conical teeth that are essentially all of the same morphology, so the dolphin dentition is nearly homodont. Nevertheless, the terms heterodont and homodont are best viewed as ends of a spectrum of differentiation of tooth morphology in the dentitions of vertebrates.

Most vertebrates have teeth that are located "marginally," that is on the edges of the upper and/or lower jaws. However, many vertebrates, especially some fishes, amphibians and reptiles, do have teeth otherwise located, usually on the palate. Furthermore, all vertebrates have one or more tooth generations. Thus, in mammals there are typically two sets of teeth-deciduous and permanent-that succeed each other in ontogeny and are different from each other in morphology. Such dentitions are termed diphyodont. In contrast, most non-mammalian vertebrates have many generations of teeth, and such dental ontogeny is referred to as polyphyodont. Mammals are also distinguished from most other vertebrates by the ability to masticate food by virtue of large premolars and molars that fit together during occlusion. Some other groups, such as hadrosaurid dinosaurs, had dental batteries to reduce food to small particle sizes. Several groups of vertebrates are largely or completely edentulous, notably birds and turtles. There is little literature on their dentalites

(e.g., Njau and Gilbert, 2016; Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016; Tables A.1-4 herein), although there are several studies related to the hypothesis that the preservation of the Taung child (*Australopithecus*) in South Africa and its associated fauna were the result of the predatory activity of eagles (Berger and Clarke, 1995; Sanders et al., 2003; McGraw et al., 2006; Gilbert et al., 2009).

Clearly, there is complexity to vertebrate teeth and dentitions, in morphology and in ontogeny. Thus, a similar complexity will be found in trace fossils made by teeth (dentalites). Furthermore, the processing of food by the teeth affects the structure and composition of vertebrate bromalites, a subject that has been little discussed. Finally, as detailed below, the use of gastroliths by some vertebrates (notably birds) can provide a food processing function not undertaken by the dentition.

Skeletal system

A major function of the vertebrate head is the acquisition and initial processing of food items, and the architecture of the skull relates in large part to diet. A good example is found in the semi-aquatic predator guild. Predators of this guild are often characterized by low, robust skulls with elongate jaws. This skull type is widely distributed among different taxonomic groups, including trematosaurs (temnospondyls), proterosuchids (archosauriforms), proterochampsids (archosauriforms), phytosaurs (archosauriforms), champsosaurs (sauropsids), crocodilians (eusuchians) and spinosaurs (saurischians). The low-profiled, elongate skull and lower jaws produce lower resistance when moved laterally through water. The long jaws allow for multiple pointed teeth that can hold slippery fish or other struggling prey, and the infliction of larger bites and higher tooth tip velocity; the robust structure offers protection from resisting prey (Taylor, 1987; Busbey, 1995; McHenry et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2008; Walmesley et al., 2013). Detailed study of skull morphology can provide specific information about feeding behavior, such as with durophagous carnivorans (e.g., Tseng and Wang, 2010, 2011; Figueirido et al., 2013).

The bones of the skull preserve the attachment areas for the muscles associated with mechanics of the jaw. The reconstruction of muscle mass and insertion locations provides information about the feeding capabilities and behaviors of the organism, and this methodology has been widely utilized, principally in terrestrial tetrapods, for example in dicynodonts (e.g., Crompton and Hotton, 1967), theropods (e.g., Molnar, 2008), ornithischian dinosaurs (e.g., Weishampel, 1984) and herbivorous (e.g., Gambaryan and Kielan-Jaworowska, 1995) and carnivorous (e.g., Wroe et al., 2013) mammals.

The postcranial skeleton has indirect and direct significance for feeding. Food is often grasped with, sometimes even processed by, the fore limbs in many vertebrate taxa. For example, the strong fore limbs and thumbs of saber-toothed felines are inferred to have been used to achieve rapid immobilization of prey, thus decreasing the risk of injury and minimizing energy expenditure (Salesa et al., 2010), and claws in large herbivorous mammals are thought to have been utilized for browsing, digging and climbing to acquire food (Coombs, 1983). Other skeletal adaptations that have a direct correlation with locomotion are often directly reflective of the motions needed to acquire food.

The Soft Parts

Digestive System

The digestive tract of animals is an essential organ system. It allows animals to efficiently digest food and take up nutrients to maintain growth and sustain the body (Hejnol and Martín-Durán, 2015). The vertebrate digestive tract is a tubular soft-tissue structure that commonly can be divided into an esophagus, stomach and intestines. There is usually a constriction in the gut between the stomach and intestines, termed the pylorus, formed

by the sphincter muscles. The foregut is anterior to the pylorus, and the posterior segment can be referred to as the hindgut or the midgut and hindgut (e.g., Romer, 1962; Stevens and Hume, 1995).

In the least derived fish, and even some teleosts, the foregut is a simple tube between the pharynx and intestines, but in most vertebrates it is separated into an anterior esophagus and a posterior stomach. The esophagus serves mainly to transport food, whereas the stomach is for storage and some food processing.

Most vertebrates are monogastric, with a simple, singlechambered stomach. However, digesting cellulose by microbial fermentation is most efficiently accomplished by a multichambered ruminant stomach consisting of the reticulum, omasum, abomasum and rumen. This is foregut fermentation (e.g., bovids), as opposed to hindgut fermentation (e.g., camelids), which occurs in the cecum at the beginning of the large intestine. Birds have digestive challenges, including a lack of teeth, high metabolism, weight constraints and rigidity of the abdominal cavity preventing distension of the alimentary canal. They have a two-chambered stomach consisting of a glandular proventriculus and a muscular ventriculus (gizzard), which may contain sand and/or gravel, as well as a crop that is an expanded portion of the posterior esophagus, serving principally for storage.

The digestive tract posterior to the stomach consists of the intestines. Many basal fish have a spiral valve, which comprises the majority of the intestinal length between the stomach and cloaca, and that may be helical or scroll-like in form (McAllister, 1987; Capasso, 2019a). More derived vertebrates have intestines that consist of elongate tubes, separated into a more anterior small intestine (midgut) and a posterior large intestine (hindgut), that terminate in a rectum. The liver, pancreas and gallbladder

are associated with the midgut.

Most of the trace fossils discussed here have diverse relationships to the vertebrate digestive tract. Thus, bromalites, notably consumulites, are divided into different kinds specific to a particular part of the digestive tract, reflecting their site of origin (Fig. 3; Table 1). Gastroliths mostly reside in the stomach. These specific kinds of traces thus provide information about the structure and function of that part of the digestive system in which they reside.

DENTALITES

Introduction

Hunt et al. (2018, p. 500) introduced the term dentalite to encompass all traces produced on a substrate by the teeth or oral cavity of a vertebrate or invertebrate (Appendix B). These trace fossils were generally referred to previously as "bite marks" (e.g., Avilla et al., 2004; Drumheller et al., 2014) although technically they should be considered "bite traces" (see discussion above). Most examples of dentalites were made by vertebrates, but the term also applies to traces left by the jaw apparatus of invertebrates (e.g., Bicrescomanducator rolli - cephalopod dentalites on ammonites: Andrew et. al., 2010: echinoid dentalites on crinoids: Baumiller et al. 2010; Gorzelak et al. 2012). The substrate of dentalites is most often bone (Binford, 1981; Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016) but can be vegetation (Lucas, 2016), invertebrate hard parts (Kauffman and Sawdo, 2013), coprolites (Godfrey and Smith, 2010) or sediment (Gingras et al., 2007).

History of Study

The study of vertebrate dentalites has been reviewed recently by Drumheller-Horton (2012), Lucas (2016) and Hunt et al. (2018). It began with the work of Buckland (1822, 1824),

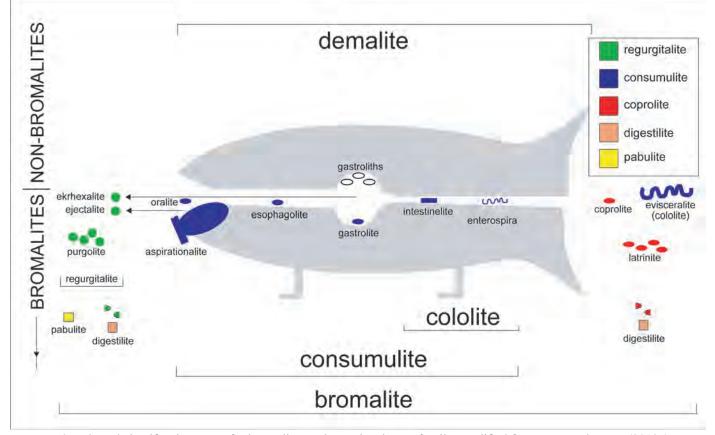


FIGURE 3. Selected classification terms for bromalites and associated trace fossils. Modified from Hunt and Lucas (2012a).

who analyzed a Pleistocene vertebrate fauna from Kirkdale Cave in northern England (Fig. 4). He utilized element representation, bone damage and dentalites to demonstrate that the bone deposit was not "Diluvial" (from the Flood) but actually represented an "Antidiluvian" hyena den (e.g., Boylan, 1977). This was the start of a remarkable period in which Buckland used theoretical and actualistic studies (e.g., feeding cow bones to a captive hyena, walking tortoises across dough) to make major contributions to the study of vertebrate ichnofossils - dentalites, coprolites and footprints (Buckland, 1822, 1824, 1835; Boylan, 1977; Pemberton et al., 2007; Duffin, 2009). Nevertheless, there was relatively little interest in dentalites for the remainder of the nineteenth century, with a few exceptions (e.g., Tournal, 1833; Dawkins, 1863). The exceptions included both Mudge (1877) and Williston (1898), who commented on the presence of mosasaur fossils with dentalites produced by sharks in the Upper Cretaceous strata of the western United States.

During the twentieth century, interest in dentalites grew in the context of a dichotomy between studies in archaeology and paleontology (Hunt et al., 1994b; Drumheller-Horton, 2012). Archeological studies of dentalites increased due to the advent of processual archaeology (e.g., Binford, 1981). A

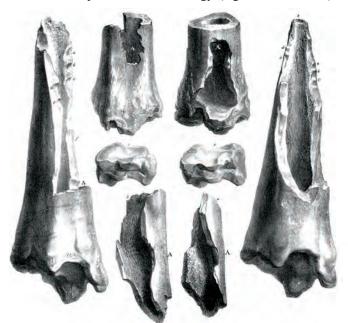


FIGURE 4. Comparison of Pleistocene and Recent damage to bovid bones by hyena jaws (from Buckland, 1824, pl. 23). "1. Residuary part of the lower extremity of the tibia of an ox, which I saw given entire to a Cape hyaena in Mr. Wombell's travelling collection at Oxford, in December 1822: marks of the teeth are definitely distinctly visible at a, b, c, d, e, f.... 2. Fragment of a similar tibia from Kirkdale Cave, broken nearly in the same manner as No. 1, and bearing similar marks of teeth at a, b, c, d, e: in the recent, as in the antediluvian specimen, the lower condyle has, from its hardness, been left unbroken. 3. Splinter from another bome broken by the hyaena at Oxford: the cavity at A. was produced by the hyaena's tooth. 4. Similar splinter, bearing a similar cavity A., from the cave at Kirkdale, and partially incrusted with stalagmite. 5. Inside of the lower extremity of the recent specimen, No. 1, in which the hole A. was produced by the hyaena's bite.....6. Lower extremity of another tibia from Kirkdale, in which the form of the cavity A. resembles that in No. 5. 7. Scaphoid bone of the left carpus of an ox, which, with the other component bones of the carpus, lay all night untouched in the hyaena's cage at Oxford. 8. Similar bone from Kirkdale, equally untouched" (Buckland, 1824, p. 276-277).

major motivation was to answer questions related to that posed by the title of Brain's (1981) well known book "The hunters or the hunted?" (also see Washburn, 1957), which was, in itself, a reaction to Dart's (e.g., 1957) hypothesis of the osteodontokeratic culture of *Australopithecus* (i.e., tool kits made from bones and teeth and utilized by hominoids). Paleontological studies of dentalites have been part of a broad resurgence of interest in vertebrate taphonomy (e.g., Behrensmeyer and Hill, 1980). The majority of this work, both actualistic and on fossils, relates to mammals, with a growing literature on crocodilians (e. g., Njau and Blumenschine, 2006). Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews (2016) provided an extensive photographic atlas of fossil and Recent dentalites.

Cruickshank (1986) applied the first ichnogeneric name to dentalites. Subsequently, 18 additional ichnotaxa have been named (Table 2). The ichnotaxonomic process leads to a clear separation of description and interpretation, which are sometimes conflated in archeological studies. Jacobsen and Bromley (2009), Pirrone et al. (2014) and Lucas (2016) discussed ichnotaxobases of dentalites. Lucas (2016) recently named two substrate-based nonmarine ichnofacies: the *Cubiculum* ichnofacies for modifications to bone, including dentalites, and the *Palaeoscolytus* ichnofacies for modifications to vegetation, including dentalites.

Actualistic Studies

Buckland (1822, 1824) conducted the first actualistic study of dentalites by feeding cow bones to a hyena from a travelling show and comparing the bite marks with those present on Pleistocene bison bones from Kirkdale Cave (Fig. 4). Lyell (1863) provided porcupines at the London Zoo with bone and antler samples to gnaw upon, and he compared the results with marks on probable Pleistocene bones from Saint Prest in France. Modern actualistic studies were largely inspired by controversies generated by the interpretation of early archeological sites in East Africa and South Africa, including Olduvai Gorge (Tanzania), Koobi Fora (Kenya), and Sterkfontein, Klasies River Mouth and Swartkrans (South Africa) (Arriaza et al., 2021). This research started in the 1970s but reached a crescendo in the 1980s (e.g. Sutcliffe, 1970; Binford, 1981; Brain, 1981; Bunn, 1982, 1983; Haynes, 1980, 1982, 1983; Blumenschine, 1986, 1988). New methodologies are being developed (e.g., Domínguez-Rodrigo and Piqueras, 2003; Domínguez-Rodrigo et al., 2012). Arriaza et al. (2021) recently studied leopard dentalites, utilizing microphotogrammetry and geometric morphometrics. They demonstrated that tooth marks inflicted by leopards, spotted hyenas and lions can be statistically differentiated based on their morphology, and that the ratio of pits to scores inflicted by the leopard is closer to hyenas.

Actualistic studies on crocodile dentalites were notably spurred by dissertations and subsequent research by Njau (2006; Njau and Blumenschine, 2006, 2012; Njau and Gilbert, 2016) and Drumheller (Drumheller-Horton, 2012; Drumheller and Brochu, 2014, 2016). D'Amore (2009) studied tooth marks of *Varanus komodoensis* as analogues for dentalites of theropods.

Bony Substrates

Introduction

We organize our review of the dentalite record by the substrate on which the dentalite is registered, because identifying the producers of dentalites is often problematic. Lucas (2016) and Hunt et al. (2018, fig. 12.6) briefly reviewed this record. There are several clear patterns to the documented record of dentalites (Fig. 5):

1. There is a bias towards dentalites of large animals preserved on large pieces of substrate (e.g., cetaceans, dinosaurs, marine reptiles). This is presumably related to ease of recognition and to the fact that smaller animals may be wholly ingested or

TABLE 1. Consumulite ichnotaxonomy.

Placement of	consumulite	Agassiz (1833)	Hoernes (1904)	Fritsch (1907)	Northwood (2005)	Hunt and Lucas (2012a); this paper		
Mouth	Protruding from oral cavity							Aspirationalite
Wouth	Within oral cavity							Oralite
Esophagus								Esophagalite
Esophagus	Avian crop							Cropalite
Stomach/	Avian proventriculus				Gastrolite	Consumulite		Proventrilite
ventriculus								Gastrolite
Intestines		Cololite						Intestinilite
Intestines	Spiral valve	Colonie	Enterolite	Enterospira				Enterospira
Preserved outside body cavity		Cololite					Cololite	Evisceralite

totally destroyed by mastication.

2. Hunt et al. (2018) coined the term Taxophile Effect to refer to the disproportionate study of more "popular" taxonomic groups. This is well seen in the marked disparity between the numbers of reports of dentalites on dinosaur bones relative to those on the bones of Cenozoic mammals. The Taxophile Effect may also be at play with invertebrates, as there are more reports of dentalites on elegant ammonoids than on any other invertebrate taxonomic group.

3. Dentalites are non-randomly distributed in time, with notable acmes in the Late Triassic, Late Cretaceous and late Cenozoic (Fig. 5).

4. Prior to the Quaternary, with the exception of the nonmarine Mesozoic, most dentalites are reported from marine facies. In the Quaternary, a large percentage of dentalites are from cave deposits.

5. There is a clear seeker bias (seek and ye shall find), as careful investigation of large existing collections, at least of vertebrate specimens, has always led to the identification of multiple examples of dentalites (e.g., Jacobsen, 1995, 1998; Konuki, 2008; Drumheller et al., 2020; Dalman and Lucas, 2021).

6. Dentalites on a bony substrate pertain to the *Cubiculum* ichnofacies of Lucas (2016), those on vegetation to the *Palaeoscolytus* ichnofacies of Lucas (2016) and those on coprolites to the *Gaspeichnus* ichnofacies of Hunt et al. (2018).

Paleozoic

Marine

Putative jawed vertebrates date to the Ordovician (Karatajute-Talimaa and Predtechenskyj, 1995; Sansom et al., 1996; Smith and Sansom, 1997; Sansom et al., 2012), but the first definitive body fossil remains are of Early Silurian age (Zhao and Zhu, 2010; Brazeau and Friedman, 2015). The earliest record of a dentalite is on an unidentified jawless cyathaspid from the Middle Silurian (Wenlock) Man on the Hill (MOTH) site in the Mackenzie Mountains, Northwest Territories of Canada (Randle and Sansom, 2019a,b). There are no other recorded Silurian examples, but dentalites become relatively common in the Devonian, and the study of ostracoderms indicates increasing frequency of these traces on aquatic vertebrates through the period (Lebedev et al., 2009; Randle and Sansom, 2019a).

Early Devonian dentalites are present on heterostracans in Canada, the USA, England, Wales, Scotland, Ukraine, Sweden, and Russia (Tarrant, 1991; Lebedev et al., 2009; Elliott and Petriello, 2011; Randle and Sansom, 2019a: Fig. 5). Dentalites of Middle Devonian age are known in heterostracans, arthrodires, and antiarchs in Latvia, Estonia, Russia, and the USA (Obruchev and Mark-Kurik, 1965; Lebedev et al., 2009; Johansen et al., 2013; Tuuling, 2015; Randle and Sansom, 2019a). Late Devonian dentalites are present on heterostracans, arthrodires, antiarchs and osteolepiforms in Scotland, Estonia, Russia, Canada, and Morocco (Capasso et al., 1996; Lebedev et al., 2009; Scott et al., 2012; Cloutier, 2013; Glinskiy and Mark-Kurik, 2016; Randle and Sansom, 2019a). Although eurypterids might be considered the perpetrators of some putative Devonian dentalites (e.g., Romer, 1933, but see Lamsdell and Braddy, 2009), there are only two probable recorded occurrences (Lebedev et al., 2009; Elliott and Petriello, 2011; Blieck, 2017).

There are very few reports of dentalites on Carboniferous or Permian fish fossils. The marked decline after the Devonian probably relates in large part to the extinction of many of the armored fish, as sheets of dermal armor provide a preferential substrate to preserve dentalites. Zangerl and Richardson (1963) published a classic study of fossiliferous Pennsylvanian black shales that contain fossils that appeared to preserve abundant examples of bite marks. They documented a range of incomplete skeletons of fish, which they interpreted as representing dismembered carcasses and "gastric residues" (regurgitalites). However, subsequent study has made it clear that the partial skeletons represent normal decay processes, most of the putative regurgitalites are not regurgitalites, and there are no preserved dentalites (Elder, 1985; Elder and Smith, 1988).

Nonmarine

There are only a small number of reports of Paleozoic nonmarine dentalites (Fig. 5). However, one of the oldest tetrapod fossils, a humerus from the Famennian (Late Devonian), has puncture marks on the dorsal and ventral surfaces that may be dentalites (Shubin et al., 2004). The earliest example in the nonmarine Paleozoic of multiple dentalites is on an articulated skeleton of the early Permian synapsid predator Varanops, which preserves traces interpreted to be the result of scavenging by a dissorophoid amphibian (Reisz and Tsuji, 2006). Reisz and Tsuji (2006, p. 1023) opined that "few Paleozoic tetrapods have been prepared with the kind of care required to readily identify bite marks, or studied with these taphonomic features in mind." The early Permian Craddock Bone Bed in Texas yields abundant dentalites produced by Dimetrodon that have not been described in detail (Houpt et al., 2020). Dentalites are present on a snout of the amphibian Diplocaulus but most commonly on skeletal elements of adult dimetrodonts and subadult diadectids. Damage is concentrated on distal limb elements and has been interpreted as the result of feeding on major muscle masses (Houpt et al.,

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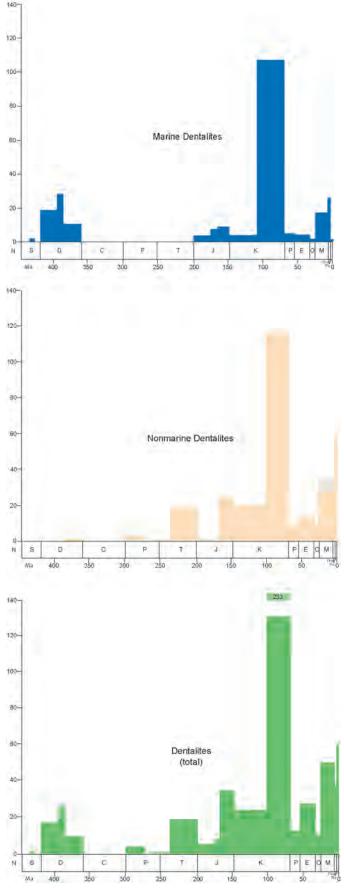


FIGURE 5. Temporal distribution of reports of dentalites. Sources are in the text and Tables A.1-4.

2020).

Another early Permian example is represented by a puncture dorsal to the caniniform tooth of the skull of *Dimetrodon* (*Bathygnathus*) *borealis* (Langston 1963; Brink et al., 2013, 2015). The classic late Permian Karoo faunas preserve few reported dentalites, but one example is of dentalites, likely made by the gorgonopsian *Aelurognathus*, on a therapsid skeleton (Fordyce et al., 2012).

Mesozoic

Marine

There are a large number of dentalites reported from the marine Mesozoic (Fig. 5; Table A.1). The majority are related to marine reptiles, and many dentalites in the Cretaceous were produced by sharks. Marine tetrapods provided an important substrate for the preservation of dentalites throughout the Mesozoic and Cenozoic. They generally have larger body sizes and more robust skeletal elements than chondrichthyans and bony fish, both factors that aid in the preservation and recognition of dentalites. The greatest number of occurrences is from the Late Cretaceous, with many from the sedimentary record of the Western Interior Seaway of western North America.

There are two dentalite records from the Early Jurassic, both from ichthyosaurs. Five specimens of the ichthyosaur *Temnodontosaurus* from Germany have dentalites attributed to *Temnodontosaurus* and the crocodylomorph *Steneosaurus* (Pardo-Pérez et al., 2018). A skull of the ichthyosaur *Leptonectes* cf. *L. tenuirostris* from England has a healed wound that appears to have been a dentalite (Maisch and Matzke, 2003).

There are a number of dentalites reported from the Middle Jurassic of England and one from Scotland. One example of the fish *Leedicthys* preserves a tooth of the marine crocodylomorph *Metriorhynchus* in a dentalite (Martill, 1985a). Four specimens of the plesiosaur *Cryptoclidus* or cf. *Cryptoclidus* from England include dentalites, three of which are attributed to a pliosaur maker and one to *Metriorhynchus* (Martill et al., 1994; Forrest, 2000, 2003; Rothschild et al., 2018). Two ichthyosaurs, one from England and one from Scotland, include dentalites, one identified as having been produced by a pliosaur (Martill, 1996; Brusatte et al., 2015).

Late Jurassic dentalites are not numerous but are more broadly distributed than those from earlier parts of the period. Two specimens of turtles from Switzerland assigned to *Plesiochelys* sp. and an indeterminate taxon have dentalites attributed to the crocodyliform *Machimosaurus* (Meyer, 1991). Bones of the marine crocodyliforms *Geosaurus vignaudi* and *G. saltillense* from Mexico include dentalites (Frey et al., 2002; Buchy et al., 2006). Late Jurassic plesiosaurs with dentalites occur in the USA, England and Mexico, and Late Jurassic ichthyosaurs with dentalites are present in Russia, Poland and Norway (Martill et al., 1994; Wahl, 2006; Buchy, 2007; Druckenmiller et al., 2012; Novis, 2012; Zverkov et al., 2015; Tyborowski, 2016). One of the plesiosaur and one of the ichthyosaur occurrences are attributed to bites from pliosaurs (Buchy, 2007; Zverkov et al., 2015).

The majority of Early Cretaceous dentalite records are from Australia (Table A.1). These specimens include dentalites on the ichthyodectiform fish *Cooyoo australis* (Wretman and Kear, 2014). The holotype of the "elasmosaur" *Eromangasaurus carinognathus* has dentalites made by the "pliosaur" *Kronosaurus* (Thulborn and Turner, 1993; Kear, 2005; McHenry, 2009). In turn, there are two examples of dentalites on *Kronosaurus*, one produced by intraspecific interaction (McHenry, 2009) and one by a cretoxyrhinid shark (Holland, 2018). Kellner et al. (2010) described shallow punctures on an ornithocheiroid pterosaur wing metacarpal. Early Cretaceous dentalites outside of Australia include specimens of the crocodyliform *Pachycheilosuchus trinquei* from the USA (Rogers, 2003) and a spinosaur tooth

TABLE 2. Named dentalite ichnotaxa.IchnotaxonMorphology	sntalite ichnotaxa. Morphology	Author	Producer	Substrate	Age	Stratigraphic unit	Location
Bruatlichnus brutalis	Straight to arcuate grooves	Mikuláš et al. (2006)	Carnivore	Carnivores+	Early Miocene	Ahníkov locality	Czech Republic
Daandavichnus batoideum	Sub-circular to trapezoid outline with the anterior area preserves a curved impression with a M-shaped boundary. Posterior area preserves two circular depressions with smooth borders, occasionally connected by striations forming an arch	Rodríguez-de la Rosa et al. (2021)	Batoid	Lithic	Early Cretaceous	San Juan Raya Formation	Puebla, Mexico
Heterodontichnites hunti	Imprint of straight or slightly arcuate partial dentition with rounded and antero-posteriorly elongated tooth impressions	Rinehart et al. (2006)	Phytosaur	Metoposaur, dycnodont	Late Triassic	Chinle Group	New Mexico, USA
Knethichmus parallelum	Parallel grooves of serrated tooth	Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	Theropods (holotype) Sharks	Dinosaurs (type), dolphin, whale, mosasaur	Late Cretaceous (type) Pliocene	Dinosaur Park Formation (type), Niobrara Formation	Alberta, Canada (type) Italy - (type) Italy - (1990) California - Deméré and Cerutti, 1982) Kansas- Schwinmer et al. (1997), Corral et al. (2004)
Linichnus bromleyi	Single groove with a non-serrated edge	Muñiz et al. (2020)	Shark	Mysticeti and <i>Homiphoca</i> sp.	Early to early late Pliocene	Pliocene Unit I	Spain
Linichnus serratuse (type ichnospecies)	Elongate groove of serrated tooth	Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	Theropods (tyrannosaurs, <i>Troodon</i> , <i>Saurornitholestes</i>)	Ornithischians, theropods	Late Cretaceous	Horseshoe Canyon Formation	Alberta, Canada
Machichnus bohemicus	Shallow, serial parallel or subparallel, oriented perpendicular to substrate edge, arcuate in cross section, representing gnawing (rasping) traces. <i>M. bohemicus</i> has shallow, thin, parallel to subparallel, smooth- bottomed scratches that occur in small groups	Mikuláš et al. (2006)	Rodent (beaver), crocodile	Not specified	Early Miocene	Ahníkov locality	Czech Republic
Machichnus fatimae	Regularly arcuate, large-sized grooves with smooth-bottomed surface, enlarged and U-shaped in cross section, branching may be present	de Araújo-Júnior et al. (2017)	Large-sized canid Protocyon troglodytes	Glyptotherium sp.	Late Pleistocene- Holocene	Lajedo da Escada locality	Brazil
Machichnus harlandi	Isolated, systematically recurring, scratches, some longitudinally striated with transverse cross section that resembles the letter W	Chumakov et al. (2013)	Probably fish	Phosphatic pebble	Late Cretaceous	"Cambridge Greensand"	England
Machichnus jeansi	Deep thin parallel scratches, narrowing to one end	Chumakov et al. (2013)	Probably fish	Phosphatic pebble	Late Cretaceous	"Cambridge Greensand"	England

Location	Czech Republic	England	Czech Republic	Ruhuhu Valley, Tanzania	Czech Republic (type) Alberta, Canada	Thrace Basin, Turkey	Holy Cross Mountains, Poland	Puebla, Mexico	Northland, New Zealand
Stratigraphic unit	Ahníkov locality	"Cambridge Greensand"	Ahníkov locality	Manda Formation	Ahníkov locality (type)	Mezardere Formation	Winna Formation	San Juan Raya Formation	Waitemata Group
Age	Early Miocene	Late Cretaceous	Early Miocene	Middle Triassic	Early Miocene (type) Late Cretaceous	Eocene- Ologocene	Early Devonian	Early Cretaceous	Miocene
Substrate	Not specified	Phosphatic pebble	Not specified	Dicynodont	Carnivores, herbivores	Lithic	Lithic	Lithic	Lithic
Producer	Rodent (beaver), crocodile	Probably fish	Rodent (beaver), crocodile	Archosaur	Amphicyonidae (type)	Fish	Dipnorhynchid lungfish	Benthic feeding fish	Batoid
Author	Mikuláš et al. (2006)	Chumakov et al. (2013)	Mikuláš et al. (2006)	Cruickshank (1986)	Mikuláš et al. (2006)	Demírcan and Uchman (2010)	Szrek et al. (2016)	Rodríguez-de la Rosa et al. (2021)	Gregory (1991)
Morphology	Shallow, serial parallel or subparallel, oriented perpendicular to substrate edge, arcuate in cross section, representing gnawing (rasping) traces. <i>M. multilineatus</i> has longitudinally striated grooves	Two parallel series of short scratches consisting of tens of subparallel striae with minor crosscutting and V cross section	Shallow, serial parallel or subparallel oriented, perpendicular to substrate edge, arcuate in cross section, representing gnawing (rasping) traces. <i>M. regularis</i> has grooves with smooth surface	Imprint of partial arcuate dentition with round tooth impressions	Isolated or grouped tooth impressions	Bilobate mounds, generally elliptical or crescentic in outline, having a smaller and a larger, lip-like lobe separated by undulate furrow	Bilobate pit, mostly elliptical or crescentic in outline, having a smaller and a larger lobe separated by an undulate furrow. Some specimens have a deeply accurate line or more often a trapezoidal depression is present instead the line. The surface inside the pit is undulating with additional wrinkles	Lenticular in outline, with two elongate lip-like lobes, separated by a M-shaped elongate furrow. Differ from other ichnospecies in having an elongate, nearly sub- rectangular, lower jaw lobe, with fusiform lateral ends and upper jaw lobe with a ventral convex projection in its medial portion. Two short, sub-triangular, maxillary barbel impressions	Bowl-shaped depressions filled with sediment, sub-elliptical to circular in outline, with the longer axis of the ellipse or radius ranging from 5 to 45 cm in length. Outline is mostly regular, sharp and smooth. Depressions are usually up to 15 cm deep, exceptionally up to 35 cm deep
Ichnotaxon	Machichnus multilineatus	Machichnus normani	Machichmus regularis (type ichnospecies)	Mandaodontites coxi	Nihilichnus nihilicus	<i>Osculichnus labialis</i> (type ichnospecies)	Osculichnus tarnowskae	Osculichnus tepitsin	Piscichnus waitemata

within a dentalite on the pterosaur *Anhanguera* sp. from Brazil (Buffetaut et al., 2004; Kellner, 2004).

Late Cretaceous marine dentalites are nearly global in their distribution, present in New Zealand, Australia, Japan, Italy, France, Germany, Belgium, Netherlands, Sweden, Jordan, Angola, Mali and Chile. However, the vast majority of occurrences are from the Western Interior of the USA and Canada. A wide range of taxonomic groups preserve dentalites, but the most characteristic group from the Late Cretaceous is the marine lizards, the mosasaurs. Dentalites produced by sharks, notably *Squalicorax* sp. and *Cretoxyrhina*, become abundant in the Late Cretaceous (e.g., Schwimmer et al., 1997; Everhart, 2005c), and this trend extends into the Cenozoic.

There are 20 records of dentalites on large chondrichthyans and teleosts from the Late Cretaceous, including on specimens of *Cretoxyrhina mantelli*, *Eumylodus laqueatus*, *Xiphactinus audax* and *Pachyrhizodus caninus* (Shimada, 1997; Schwimmer et al., 1997; Shimada and Everhart, 2004; Cicimurri et al., 2008; Amalfitano et al., 2019). One of these specimens is from Italy, and the remainder are from the USA. Of the identified tracemakers, 16 represent *Squalicorax* sp., and one is *Cretoxyrhina mantelli* (Table A.1).

Published Late Cretaceous dentalite records on marine turtles number about 23 (Table A.1). These include single occurrences from Italy, Angola, Jordan and The Netherlands, with the remainder from the USA (Mulder, 2003a; Kaddumi, 2006; Mateus et al., 2012; Amalfitano et al., 2017; Fig. 6). All dentalites on Jurassic turtles are attributed to crocodylomorphs. Late Cretaceous dentalites include two or three attributed to crocodylomorphs, four or five to mosasaurs and 17 to sharks, principally *Squalicorax* with a few attributed to *Cretoxyrhina* or other taxa (Table A.1). Marine crocodylomorphs are less common in the Late Cretaceous, and there are only three examples with dentalites from Mali, France and the USA, and the two identified tracemakers are selachians (Hua et al., 2007; Boles and Lacovara, 2013; Hill et al., 2015).

There are more than 50 documented examples of dentalites

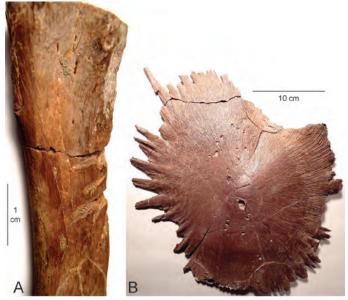


FIGURE 6. Some Late Cretaceous dentalites from marine strata of Kansas, USA. **A**, Proximal end of mosasaur rib with characteristic serrated dentalites (*Linichnus serratus*) produced by *Squalicorax* sp. (Everhart, 2017, fig. 6.13). **B**, Left hyoplastron of the marine turtle *Protostega gigas* (FHSM VP-17979), in ventral view, from Santonian chalk, preserving mosasaur dentalites (Everhart, 2017, fig. 6.13). Photographs courtesy of Michael Everhart.

on Late Cretaceous mosasaurs (Fig. 6: Table A.1). The majority of the specimens are from the United States, but they also are present in The Netherlands, Belgium, Germany, Spain and Angola (Bardet et al., 1998; Dortangs et al., 2002; Corral et al., 2004; Lingham-Solar, 2004; Rothschild et al., 2005; Strganac et al., 2015; Fig. 5). There are 10 examples of dentalites on mosasaurs produced by mosasaurs, some due to presumed intraspecific head biting (e.g., Rothschild and Martin, 1993; Everhart, 2008; Carr et al., 2020). There are approximately 40 examples attributed to sharks, about a quarter of these produced by *Squalicorax* and several by *Cretoxyrhina*, but many are attributed to undetermined selachians (e.g., Schwimmer et al., 1997; Everhart, 1999; Konuki, 2008).

There are 14 reports of dentalites on plesiosaur bones, half from the USA and the others from Sweden, Japan, Chile, Argentina and New Zealand (Sato et al., 2006; Barnes and Hiller, 2010; Einarsson et al., 2010; Shimada et al., 2010; Kubo et al., 2012; Otero et al., 2014; Araújo et al., 2015; Table A.1). The majority of specimens preserve dentalites produced by sharks, primarily *Squalicorax*, with two examples of *Cretoxyrhina* (e.g., Schwimmer et al., 1997; Everhart, 2005a; Araújo et al., 2015). There is one report of a mosasaur-produced dentalite on a plesiosaur (Einarsson et al., 2010), and two plesiosaur skeletons that record dentalites derived from both a mosasaur and one or more selachians (Konuki, 2008; Barnes and Hiller, 2010).

Six dinosaur specimens that preserve dentalites have been recovered from marine strata in the USA – four hadrosaurs, a nodosaur, an ornithomimosaur and another theropod (Schwimmer et al., 1997; Everhart and Hamm, 2005; Everhart and Ewell, 2006; Schein and Poole, 2014; Brownstein, 2018; Brownstein and Bissell, 2021). All but the theropod, whose dentalite is attributed to a crocodylomorph, were bitten by sharks. Two specimens of the pterosaur *Pteranodon* preserve dentalites produced by *Squalicorax* (and a small fish) and *Cretoxyrhina* (Konuki, 2008; Ehret and Harrell, 2018; Hone et al., 2018a, b). There is one record of dentalites on the bird *Hesperornis* produced by a polycotylid plesiosaur (Martin et al., 2016).

Nonmarine

Although there is only a small data set, it seems that dentalites are relatively less common in the Paleozoic than the Mesozoic (Fig. 5; Table A.2). We posit that this may be caused by several factors that distinguish most Mesozoic vertebrate predators from most Paleozoic vertebrate predators, including: (1) the evolution of laterally compressed teeth in terrestrial predators, which would penetrate through soft tissue to bone more effectively; (2) the development of a more upright gait among predators that would provide for more three dimensional predation – more opportunity for biting the dorsal as well as the lateral regions of prey; and (3) increased body size of prey that would invite more extensive scavenging of carcasses than is feasible with small-bodied prey.

There are few unambiguous reports of dentalites from the nonmarine Early and Middle Triassic. Modesto and Botha-Brink (2010) described a possible puncture on the scapula of a juvenile *Lystrosaurus* from the Early Triassic of South Africa. Fernandez et al. (2013) reported possible dentalites on the temnospondyl *Broomistega putterilli* from a burrow, also in the Early Triassic of South Africa. Cruickshank (1986) proposed the first ichnotaxonomic name for a vertebrate dentalite, *Mandaodontites coxi* for the imprint of a partial dental arcade with round tooth impressions (Table 2). This dentalite, from the Middle Triassic of Tanzania, is on a dicynodont bone and is attributed to an archosaur.

There are a large number of reports of Late Triassic dentalites from a wide range of taxa across a broad geographic area (North and South America and Europe), although they are never abundant in any given fossil assemblage (Fig. 5).

The extent of the dentalite record thus broadly parallels that of the osseous record, with many more specimens known from the Late Triassic than in the earlier part of the period. The prevalence of dentalites correlates to a marked increase in the diversity of taxa with dorsal armor in Late Triassic nonmarine environments (non-archosaurian archosauriforms [Vancleavia], pseudosuchians [Revueltosaurus], aetosaurs, phytosaurs, paracrocodylomorphs, crocodylomorphs and turtles). Hunt et al. (2018) recently reviewed the record of Late Triassic dentalites.

The only record of dentalites on a Late Triassic amphibian is a clavicle fragment of *Koskinonodon perfectum* from New Mexico that preserves two rows of tooth marks made by bladelike and rounded teeth (Rinehart et al., 2006). Rinehart et al. (2006) named these dentalites *Heterodontichnites hunti* and attributed them to a phytosaur. Dentalites on several phytosaur skulls of *Nicrosaurus* and *Pseudopalatus* in North America and Europe represent intraspecific head biting, as occurs in modern crocodylians (Abel, 1922a, b; Camp, 1930; Ruben, 1990). There are only two reports of dentalites on aetosaurs. Both specimens are on the aetosaurs *Typothorax* and *Desmatosuchus* from the southwestern United States (Zeigler et al., 2002; Drymala and Bader, 2012).

Dentalites on terrestrial carnivores include two incomplete femora of paracrocodylomorphs ("Rauisuchia") from northern New Mexico, USA (Drumheller et al., 2014), with the dentalites interpreted to be from phytosaurs. A humerus of the holotype of the paracrocodylomorph *Postosuchus kirkpatricki* preserves dentalites of unknown origin (Weinbaum, 2013). The holotype skeleton of the crocodylomorph *Dromicosuchus grallator* from North Carolina, USA, preserves damage to the cervical area and mandible attributed to the paracrocodylomorph whose skeleton was found immediately above it, and it is inferred that the two animals died and were buried together during the act of predation (Sues et al., 2003). Sereno and Novas (1994) described healed intraspecific bite marks on the saurischian *Herrerasaurus*.

The majority of dentalites described from the Late Triassic occur on dicynodont skeletons, which are always the largest bodied herbivorous taxa in their faunas (in contrast, they are not often registered on the bones of prosauropod dinosaurs, which dominate vertebrate faunas in certain environments/geographic locations). A femur of a dicynodont similar to *Ischigualastia* from New Mexico, USA, has multiple dentalites that are tooth marks of a phytosaur assigned to *Heterodontichnites hunti* (Lucas and Hunt 1993; Hunt and Lucas, 2014b). Budziszewska-Karwowska et al. (2010) described bite marks on a dicynodont tibia from Poland. The bone has longitudinal dentalites on the anterior side of its shaft, as well as a row of small oval pits that are interpreted to represent the scavenging of more than one carnivore.

Elsewhere in southern Poland, there are six small dicynodont bones with dentalites (Table A.2). These traces were assigned to the dentalite ichnotaxa *Linichnus serratus, Knethichnus parallelum* and *Nihilichnus nihilicus*, and attributed to theropod dinosaurs (Dzik et al., 2008; Niedźwiedzki et al., 2010). Dentalites also occur on ribs of the dicynodont "*Jachaleria*" *candelariensis* and other dicynodonts from Brazil (Braunn et al., 2001; Vega-Dias and Schultz, 2007). Niedźwiedzki et al. (2010) suggested that dentalites on dicynodont bones indicate that an increase in the size of dicynodonts through the Late Triassic may have been driven by selection pressure to reach a size refuge from early dinosaur predators.

Other dentalites on herbivore bones include the topotype of the pseudosuchian *Revuelosaurus callenderi* that preserves dentalites (gnaw marks: Hunt et al., 2005c; Hunt and Lucas, 2014b). Müller et al. (2015) described dentalites on bones of the traversodontid cynodont *Exaeretodon*, from Brazil, which were attributed to an ecteniniid cynodont. Romo-de-Vivar-Martínez et al. (2017) reported a pathology in the rhynchocephalian

Clevosaurus brasiliensis, also from Brazil, that resulted from injuries (including bites) produced during intraspecific fights. Holgado et al. (2015) recognized dentalites that were produced by fish on a skeleton from Italy of a protorosaurian within a regurgitalite.

The Jurassic and Cretaceous have nonmarine faunas dominated by dinosaurs that yield most of the described dentalites (Table A.2). The Jurassic and Cretaceous share with the Triassic a pattern of an increasing volume of dentalites towards the end of each period, reflecting the increase of preservation of nonmarine vertebrate specimens. Throughout the Mesozoic, the majority of nonmarine dentalites are from North America. Hunt (1984, 1987) predicted that dentalites would be more rare on dinosaur bones than on mammal bones because non-avian theropods lacked the dentition or jaw mechanics to manipulate and modify bones in a similar manner. Fiorillo (1991a) validated this hypothesis by demonstrating that dinosaur faunas exhibited 4% or less of bones with dentalites, whereas in the mammal faunas he studied the percentages varied from 13.1 to 37.5% (but see Drumheller et al., 2020, for a notable exception).

Dentalites are rare in the Early Jurassic, but include occurrences of a crocodylomoprh bite on a prosauropod bone from China (Xing et al., 2018) and a theropod bitten by a theropod from Antarctica (Hammer and Hickerson, 1993). There are no reports of dentalites from the Middle Jurassic, which in large part probably reflects the paucity of nonmarine faunas of that age.

The Late Jurassic has a record of dentalites that is fairly diverse taxonomically and geographically, although it is dominated by specimens associated with sauropods from North America (Table A.2). Two turtles from Germany preserve dentalites, one produced by a theropod and one by a crocodylomorph or a theropod (Joyce, 2000; Karl, 2012). The remaining Late Jurassic dentalites are registered on dinosaur bones. There are four records of dentalities from large theropods. Specimens of Sinraptor dongi from China and Allosaurus from the United States preserve cranial or mandibular dentalites that probably resulted from intraspecific combat (Gilmore, 1920; Tanke and Currie, 1998). Another specimen of Allosaurus preserves a pubic foot bitten by Ceratosaurus or Torvosaurus (Chure et al., 1998). Augustin et al. (2020a, b) described dentalites of a metriacanthosaurid and of a mammal, respectively, on different mamenchisaurid sauropod dinosaur specimens from China.

Cetiosauriscus greppini from Switzerland and Europasaurus *holgeri* from Germany are sauropods with dentalites produced by the huge crocodile *Machimosaurus* and a small crocodylomorph or shark, respectively (Meyer and Thüring, 2003; Slodownik and Wings, 2011; Wings, 2015a). Osborn (1904) first reported dentalites on a sauropod from the Upper Jurassic Morrison Formation of the western USA. Subsequently, dentalites have been described from many taxa from the Morrison, including the sauropods Camarasaurus, Apatosaurus, Diplodocus and a brachiosaur (e.g., Osborn, 1904; Mathew, 1908; Jensen, 1988; Chure et al., 1998; Jacobsen, 1998; Hunt et al., 1994b; Myers, 2004; Kirkland et al., 2005; Jennings and Hasiotis, 2006; Myers and Storrs, 2007; Bader et al., 2009; Storrs et al., 2013; Hone and Chure, 2018). Virtually all of these dentalites are attributed to theropods, in general, and most to Allosaurus, in particular (e.g., Osborn, 1904; Mathew, 1908; Chure et al., 1988; Jennings and Hasiotis, 2006). Dentalites on the holotype skeleton of *Camarasaurus lewisi* may pertain to *Torvosaurus* (Jensen, 1988; Hunt et al., 1994b). There are only single occurrences of dentalites on other Morrison herbivorous dinosaurs – the ankylosaur Mymoorapelta maysi and the stegosaur Stegosaurus (Carpenter et al., 2005; Kirkland et al., 2005).

It is notable that, during the Jurassic, dentalites attributed to crocodylomorphs are restricted to small-bodied tetrapods such as turtles (e.g., Karl and Tichy, 2004), with only two possible associations with sauropods (Meyer and Thüring, 2003; Bader et al., 2009). One of these is attributed to *Machimosaurus*, the largest crocodyliform of the Jurassic, with a body length of up to approximately 6.9 m (Young et al., 2016). While some species of this genus were more marine, the Late Jurassic *M. mosae* was adapted to a semi-aquatic lifestyle (Young et al., 2014).

There is a time interval from the beginning of the Jurassic until the Early Cretaceous, possibly the Aptian, when there are no known large, semi-aquatic predators. In the Late Triassic, phytosaurs such as *Smilosuchus gregorii* (Camp, 1930; Long and Murry, 1985) had a body length longer than that of contemporaneous terrestrial tetrapods. Prosauropods were longer, but apparently were geographically and ecologically separated from phytosaurs. However, after the extinction of the phytosaurs (an earliest Jurassic event: Lucas and Tanner, $201\hat{8}$), no semi-aquatic predators were more than half the length of the largest associated terrestrial predators or herbivores until the Cretaceous. As Young et al. (2016, p. 11) noted, "it is unclear whether Machimosaurus rex (~7.15 m) was the largest crocodylomorph of the pre-Aptian Early Cretaceous, as the ages and body sizes of the giant pholidosaurids Sarcosuchus hartti (Marsh, 1869) and Chalawan thailandicus (Buffetaut and Ingavat, 1980) are uncertain." By the Aptian-Alban, large crocodylomorphs such as Sarcosuchus (Sereno et al., 2001) and large, semi-aquatic theropods such as Suchiomimus and Baronyx entered this niche. We term this interval without large semiaquatic predators the "SAP (semi-aquatic predator) Gap." The prevalence of theropod footprints on lake margins (Hunt and Lucas, 2007b; Milner and Kirkland, 2007) and biomechanical data (Molnar, 1973; Bakker and Bir, 2004; but see Yun, 2019) suggest that terrestrial non-avian dinosaurs may have partially exploited this niche during the SAP Gap. However, the paucity of dinosaur dentalites on either turtles or crocodiles in the Mesozoic suggests otherwise (Table A.2)

Early Cretaceous dentalites are less numerous than those from the Late Jurassic and include traces on a turtle from France and on crocodyliforms from Spain and England, all produced by crocodyliforms, with most attributed to goniopholidids (Andrade et al., 2011; Buscalioni et al., 2013; Ristevski et al., 2018; Gônet et al., 2019; Table A.2). There are only two reports of Early Cretaceous theropods with dentalites, which are an ornithomimosaur from France and a tetanuran from Australia (Gônet et al., 2019; Poropat et al., 2019). Several ornithopod specimens preserve dentalites, including Tenontosaurus tilletti from the USA, Lurdusaurus arenatus from Niger and Camptosaurus and an iguanodont from Romania (Grigorescu, 1992; Taquet and Russell, 1999; Posmoşanu, 2003; Gignac et al., 2010). There are a smaller number of occurrences on sauropod specimens, including Dongbeititan dongi from China, a titanosauriform from Spain and an indeterminate taxon from Korea (Paik et al., 2011; Xing et al., 2012; Alonso et al., 2017). Buffetaut et al. (2004) described the oldest dentalite on a pterosaur bone, an Early Cretaceous record of a spinosaurid tooth within a dentalite.

The Late Cretaceous has the largest number of recorded dentalites from nonmarine depositional environments before the Pleistocene (Fig. 5: Table A.2). Taxa with dentalites include multiple examples of turtles and crocodylomorphs, scores of examples of non-avian dinosaurs (theropods, sauropods, thyreophorans, marginocephalians, ornithopods) as well as a pterosaur and a mammal (Table A.2). These traces have a broad geographic range in North America (Canada, USA, Mexico), South America (Argentina, Brazil), Europe (Hungary, Romania, Spain), Asia (Russia, China, Mongolia, Pakistan) and Africa (Madagascar). There are several reasons why this dataset is so large: (1) the Late Cretaceous yields the largest sample of excavated vertebrate fossils of large size before the Pleistocene; (2) the Western Interior Basin preserved large volumes of Late

Cretaceous vertebrate fossils, and later tectonics, climate and human history led to large numbers of collections and studies; (3) the Taxophile Effect is a strong influence, as many bones or skeletons of dinosaurs with dentalites warrant individual papers, which skews the dataset, and the most popular dinosaurs (tyrannosaurs) have a disproportionately large literature; and (4) the large body size of many Late Cretaceous terrestrial vertebrates results in more recognition and preservation of dentalites. The large dataset demonstrates several patterns:

1. The majority of dentalites on turtles were produced by crocodylomorphs (Carpenter and Lindsay, 1980; Fiorelli, 2010; Noto et al., 2012; Botfalvai et al., 2014).

2. Most dentalites on crocodylomorphs represent instraspecific aggression or predation (Williamson, 1996; Avilla et al., 2004; De Vasconcellos and Carvalho, 2010; Codrea et al., 2010, 2012; de Araújo Júnior and da Silva Marinho, 2013; Botfalvai et al., 2014)

3. Crocodylomorph-produced dentalites are rare on bones of dinosaurs, except for examples that record biting by the giant *Deinosuchus* (Rivera-Sylva et al., 2009, 2011; Schwimmer, 2010).

4. Intraspecific head biting was common among large theropods, including tyrannosaurs (e.g., Bell and Currie, 2010; Currie and Eberth, 2010; Hone and Tanke, 2015) and abelisaurs (Rogers et al., 2004; Malkani, 2006, 2009, 2010; Brown et al., 2021a).

5. Cannibalism is demonstrable in tyrannosaurids (e.g., Dalman and Lucas, 2021; Fig. 7).

6. The most common dinosaurian substrates of dentalites are bones of hadrosaurs and ceratopsians. Jacobsen (1998) analyzed 1000 dinosaur bones from the Dinosaur Park Formation in Alberta, Canada, and recorded the highest percentage of dentalites on hadrosaurid bones (14%), whereas



FIGURE 7. Dentalites on a right femur of a tyrannosaurid (NMMNH P-25083) from the Upper Cretaceous (Campanian) De-na-zin Member, Kirtland Formation, New Mexico, USA. **A**, Femur, in anterior view. **B**, Close-up of the anterior surface of the femoral head showing dentalites (adapted from Dalman and Lucas, 2021, fig. 6).

only 5% of the ceratopsid bones showed tooth marks, and 2% of the tyrannosaurid bones. One of the most well-known examples of putative evidence of carnivore biting involves the mid-caudal neural spines of the Late Cretaceous hadrosaur *Edmontosaurus*, possibly bitten by *Tyrannosaurus* (Carpenter, 1998), but the damage is more likely due to trampling, with the putative tooth marks actually related to a pyogenic infection in which the openings allowed the discharge of pus (Tanke and Rothschild, 2014).

7. The earliest mammalian-produced dentalites occur in the Late Cretaceous and include traces on *Champsosaurus* from Canada (Longrich and Ryan, 2010), the theropods *Buitreraptor gonzalezorum* from Argentina (Gianechini and de Valais, 2016) and *Velociraptor* from Mongolia (Saneyoshi et al., 2011), the protoceratopsians *Protoceratops* and *Bagaceratops* from Mongolia (Saneyoshi et al., 2011), ornithischians from Canada (Longrich and Ryan, 2010), the mammal *Eodelphis* from Canada (Longrich and Ryan, 2010) and multiple taxa from Argentina (de Valais et al., 2012).

8. Large sample sizes of both dentalites and associated body fossils facilitate study of the producers and their behavior (e.g., Brown et al., 2021b).

Cenozoic

Marine

Marine dentalites are less common in the Cenozoic than in the Mesozoic (Fig. 5; Table A.3). The majority of examples were produced by selachians on a substrate of marine mammal bones in (decreasing order of abundance) cetaceans, pinnipeds and sirenians.

Two sawfish from the Pliocene of Italy and the USA preserve dentalites of unknown origin, and one specimen of a tuna (*Thunnus*) from the Pliocene of the USA has dentalites produced by istiophorid billfish (Purdy et al., 2001; Schneider and Fierstine, 2004; Collareta et al., 2017a). A *Carcharhinus* from the Miocene of the USA contains a conspecific tooth in a dentalite, and a *Carcharodon megalodon* from the Pliocene has a shark dentalite (Purdy et al., 2001; Godfrey, 2003).

There are only three recorded Paleogene turtles and one crocodylomorph with dentalites. An indeterminate chelonioid from the Paleocene of Denmark preserves three types of dentalites, *Nihilichnus nihilicus*, interpreted as crocodilian, *Machichnus bohemicus*, interpreted as selachian and small, circular traces from sharks or bony fish (Milàn et al., 2011). Myrvold et al. (2018) describe other Paleocene specimens from Denmark consisting of fragments of a carapace of a chelonid turtle and a hypoplastron of *Ctenochelys* cf. *C. stenoporus*, both with marks produced by a crocodilian and the former with shark dentalites. A dryosaurid from the Paleocene of Niger has dentalites of crocodylomorph origin (Martin, 2013).

There is a small but widespread record of dentalites on fossil penguin bones. These include the Eocene *Palaeeudyptes klekowskii* from Antarctica, cf. *Spheniscus* and an unidentified form from the Miocene of Argentina and Pliocene *Tereingaomis moisleyi* from New Zealand (McKee, 1987; Walsh and Hune, 2001; Cione et al., 2010; Hospitaleche, 2016). The producers of the dentalites were identified as teleost, *Galeocerdo aduncus*, cf. *Carcharhinus* and a dolphin, respectively (McKee, 1987; Walsh and Hune, 2001; Cione et al., 2010; Hospitaleche, 2016). Terrestrial carnivores also produced dentalites on penguin bones (Table A.3). A ?charadiiform bird from the Pliocene of Spain preserves dentalites attributed to a shark (Muñiz et al., 2008).

The largest number (> 40) of reports of marine dentalites from the Cenozoic relate to large, non-delphin cetaceans (Table A.3). The earliest example is the basilosaurid *Dorudon atrox* from the Eocene of Egypt that preserves dentalites attributed to *Basilosaurus isis* (Fahlke, 2012). There are currently no Oligocene records. The earliest records of odontocete (e.g., Lambert et al., 2018) and mysticete (e.g., Noriega et al., 2007; Collareta et al., 2017b) dentalites are from the Miocene, and these, and all younger examples, are attributed to sharks. About a third of all records of dentalites are merely attributed to unspecified cetaceans. The majority of Pliocene dentalites that are attributed to a specific genus are attributed to *Carcharodon* (e.g., Bianucci et al., 2002; Ehret et al., 2009; Govender and Chinsamy, 2013; Govender, 2015, 2019). There are very few reports of Pleistocene marine dentalites (e.g., Cicimurri and Knight, 2009).

Reports of dentalites on dolphins are restricted to the Oligocene, Miocene and Pliocene (Table A.3). Pervesler et al. (1995) describe a specimen from the Oligocene of Austria. The three examples from the Miocene are from the eastern United States. Specimens of *Eurhinodelphis*, a ?eurhinodelphinid, and *Hadrodelphis* preserve dentalites of sharks (Dawson and Gottfried, 2002; Godfrey, 2003; Godfrey et al., 2018). There are three Pliocene examples from northern Italy. Specimens of *Astadelphis gastaldii*, *Hemisyntrachelus cortessi* and an indeterminate taxon preserve dentalites attributed to *Cosmopolitodus hastalis* and *Carcharodon carcharias* (*Knethichnus parallelum*), respectively (Portis, 1883; Cigala-Fulgosi, 1990; Bianucci et al., 2000; Jacobsen and Bromley, 2009).

Éight pinnipeds preserve dentalites (Table A.3). A pinniped from the Miocene of the USA preserves dentalites attributed to a shark (Bigelow, 1994). Two specimens from the Miocene and Pliocene of the USA have dentalites produced by mammals, possibly a pilot whale or beluga-like cetacean, a terrestrial carnivore, a dusignathine or odobenine walrus, or a conspecific otariid (Boessenecker and Perry, 2011). Collareta et al. (2017b) described dentalites produced by *Carcharocles megalodon* on a pinniped from the Miocene of Peru. Two specimens of *Homiphoca* from the Pliocene of Spain preserve *Linichnus* produced by teleosts or small sharks (Rahmat et al., 2018; Muñiz et al., 2020). An example of *Eumetopias jubatus* from the Pleistocene of Canada yields dentalites attributed to a bull of that species (Harington et al., 2004).

There are only three records of dentalites on sirenian bones (Table A.3). The oldest are Oligocene specimens of *Halitherium schinzii* from Germany and Austria that preserve shark-produced dentalites (Pervesler et al., 1995; Diedrich, 2008). A Miocene specimen from Venezuela was also bitten by a shark (Aguilera and de Aguilera, 2004).

Nonmarine

As mammalian faunas typically yield an order of magnitude more dentalites than reptilian faunas (Fiorillo, 1991a), one would expect a very large literature on Cenozoic dentalites, particularly relative to the Mesozoic, but this is not the case (at least until the Pleistocene). It is clear that the Taxophile Effect is important in the large volume of literature on dinosaur dentalites. Many individual examples of dinosaur dentalites warrant individual papers, which is clearly not the case for Cenozoic mammals (Fig. 5; Table A.4). The volume of dentalite reports in the Pleistocene also reflects in part the Taxophile Effect relative to hominin evolution, as well as other factors, including: (1) the large volume of Pleistocene vertebrate fossils relative to earlier time periods; (2) the widespread preservation of cave faunas large sample sizes, often accumulated by predators and carefully studied to document this, hominin fossils are sometimes present. and surface preservation of bones is very good; and (3) the ease of using modern analogues, which has promoted study. The dataset for the nonmarine Cenozoic (Table A.4) is thus the most incomplete in this study. Many pre-Pleistocene dentalites are not recorded, or the occurrences are buried within taxonomic or faunal discussions and are difficult to find.

Sinclair and Granger (1914, p. 310), who amassed important

collections of early Paleocene mammals from New Mexico, USA, noted that "A quarter, at least, of the Puerco specimens, collected by the 1913 expedition, show traces of gnawing, probably by small plagiaulacids [multituberculate mammals]." In marked contrast, we have only found five other published mentions of dentalites on Paleocene mammal bones (Simpson and Elftman, 1928; Gingerich, 1987; Bloch and Boyer, 2001; Secord et al., 2002; Longrich and Ryan, 2010). In addition, the literature on Pleistocene dentalites, particularly with regard to hominins and cave faunas, is very extensive, and we have not captured all of it here. Instead, we have attempted to record the significant literature and a sampling of the remainder.

There is only one dentalite recorded from a lizard, which occurs on *Varanus* sp. from the Miocene of Greece and is interpreted to have been produced by the hyaenid *Protictitherium* (Georgalis et al., 2018). There are many reports (18) of dentalites on Cenozoic turtles and crocodylomorphs (6), and occurrences are mainly clustered in the Paleocene-Eocene and the Pleistocene (Table A.4). The majority of these dentalites are attributed to crocodylomorphs (e.g., Sawyer and Erickson, 1998; Fuentes, 2003; Njau, 2006; Mackness et al., 2010; Böhme et al, 2011; Hastings et al., 2015; Scheyer et al., 2018; Falk et al., 2019).

There are relatively few reports of dentalites on avian specimens. Occurrences include on *Cayaoa brunetti* and a penguin from the Miocene of Argentina (Cione et al., 2010; De Mendoza and Haidr, 2018) and on the ibis *Geronticus* cf. *G. calvus* from the Pliocene of South Africa (Pavia et al., 2017). The sources of the dentalites are identified as mammals or unknown. In the Holocene of New Zealand, moas were subject to predation by the eagle *Harpagornis*, producing dentalites (Farlow and Holtz, 2002).

Eocene mammals with dentalites are known in the USA and Germany, with one occurrence in France and one in England. Specimens from the United States include on the pantodont Coryphodon, resulting from intraspecific combat, and on the "condylarth" Apheliscus chydaeus, the carnivore Viverravus and the primate Notharctus (Gingerich, 1987; Lucas and Schoch, 1987; Alexander, 1992; Gingerich, 1994: Table A.4). Alexander and Burger (2001) described an unusual occurrence of a dentalite on a perissodactyl within a consumulite of the crocodilian Pristichampsus vorax. They also listed several primate specimens (Notharctus, Omomys) that appear to preserve raptor dentalites. The German Eocene includes the two important Lagerstätten of Messel and Geiseltal. Dentalites produced by crocodiles occur on several mammal fossils from these Lagerstätten, including equids, the ceratomorph Lophiodon and the primate *Europolemur* (Franzen and Frey, 1993; Franzen, 2001; Falk et al., 2019). Mammals from Quercy in France preserve dentalites produced by rodents such as *Archaeomys* (Laudet and Fosse, 2001). The rodents Isoptychus sp. and Thalerimys fordi from southern England preserve dentalites produced by the amphicyonid Cynodictis cf. C. lacustris (Vasileiadou et al., 2007, 2009).

There are multiple reports of Oligocene dentalites from the United States and one from Egypt (Table A.4). The dentalites from the USA occur on several taxa, including oreodonts, entelodonts, and *Titanotherium*, and include bite marks and evidence of gnawing (Sinclair, 1922; Scott and Jepsen, 1936; Tanke et al., 1992; Effinger, 1998; Tanke and Currie, 1998; Longrich and Ryan, 2010). Four species of primates (*Aegyptopithecus*, *Propliopithecus*) from the Fayum Formation of Egypt preserve dentalites produced by carnivore-like mammals (Gebo and Simons, 1984).

Miocene dentalites are much more widely distributed than those from the Paleogene, and they occur in Hungary, Greece, Austria, China, Uganda, South Africa, Kenya and the USA (Table A.4). The substrates for these dentalites includes rhinocerotids (Antunes et al., 2006a; Deng and Tseng, 2010), a cervid (Havlik et al., 2014), a proboscidean (Havlik et al., 2014), an equid (Diffendal, 2003), a climacoceratid (Pickford, 1996), a tragulid (Sánchez et al., 2015), camelids (Winkler, 1987; Morgan and Williamson, 2000), a primate (Zapfe, 1981) and a hominim (Gommery et al., 2007). All of the above have dentalites attributed to mammalian predators, except for the climatococeratid from South Africa that was bitten by a crocodilian. The most important study of Miocene dentalites was by Mikuláš et al. (2006; also see Ekrt et al., 2016), who studied multiple dentalites on ungulates, small mammals and carnivores and erected six ichnotaxa for these traces, which are starting to be widely used – Nihilichnus nihilicus, N. mortalis, Machichnus regularis, M. multilineatus, M. bohemicus and Brutalichnus brutalis. They attributed these ichnotaxa to squirrels, the carnivore Amphicyon sp. and crocodilians.

There is a smaller number of records of Pliocene dentalites. Ungulates from Italy have traces produced by the hyena *Pachycrocuta brevirostris*, and a glyptodont (cf. *Eosclerocalyptus lineatus*) from Argentina was bitten by the procyonid, *Chapalmalania* (Mazza et al., 2004; Mazza, 2006; de los Reyes et al., 2013). A Canadian mammoth was gnawed by a beaver, and a rodent from Chad was bitten by a mammalian carnivore (Harington, 1996; Denys et al., 2003). Diverse mammals from Tanzania have traces of indeterminate mammalian predators (Su and Harrison, 2008). Sahle et al. (2017) reported crocodile dentalites on diverse large mammals from Tanzania (bovids, equid, ungulate) and on *Australopithecus anamensis* and *A. afarensis* from Ethiopia.

There are large numbers of reports of dentalites from the Pleistocene from every continent, except Antarctica. Much of the impetus for the rise of interest in dentalites relates to studies focused on the taphonomy of Pleistocene hominins, in particular, which has expanded more broadly to other bone accumulating agents, notably in caves (e.g., Binford, 1981; Brain, 1981; Andrews, 1990; Hart and Sussman, 2005). Indeed, the most well-known examples of dentalites relate to Pleistocene hominins – leopard predation on *Paranthropus robustus* (Brain, 1981), eagle predation on the Taung child, *Australopithecus africanus* (Berger and Clarke, 1995), bites of *Crocodylus anthropophagus* on *Homo habilis* (Davidson and Soloman, 1990) and *Pachycrocuta brevirostris*-produced dentalites on *H. erectus* (Boaz et al., 2000).

Dentalites occur on a wide range of Pleistocene taxa. It is notable that many dentalities in the Old World are attributable to hyenas, principally Crocuta crocuta spelaeus, but also Pachycrocuta brevirostris. Cave hyena dentalites occur in England, Germany, the Czech Republic and Morocco (Buckland, 1824; Diedrich, 2011, 2012a, c, 2013), and those of the giant, short-faced hyena are present in Spain, China and Pakistan (Palmquist et al., 1996; Boaz et al., 2000; Dennell et al., 2008). There are several occurrences in Australia of dentalites of the marsupial "lion" Thylacoleo carnifex (Horten and Wright, 1981; Runnegar, 1983; Camens and Carey, 2013; Dortch et al., 2016). It is also notable that intraspecific dentalites occur in several Pleistocene taxa, including Ursus spelaeus in Spain (Capasso, 1998; Pinto Llona and Andrews, 2004; Rabal-Garcés et al., 2012), Canis lupus in the United States (Courville, 1953), Smilodon fatalis in the United States (Miller, 1980; Akersten, 1985; Rothschild and Martin, 1993), Panthera leo spelaea in Germany (Diedrich, 2011) and Crocuta crocuta spelaea in the Czech Republic (Diedrich, 2012a).

Sutcliffe (1973) first identified osteophagia in herbivorous mammals as a significant phenomenon, notably ungulates such as giraffes and some deer that chew antlers and bone, presumably for nutritional supplements. This behavior has been recognized in several Recent taxa (e. g., Haynes, 1991, figs. 4.30-31) but not yet in fossils.

Invertebrate Hard Tissue Substrate

The ichnological record of predation on invertebrates by vertebrate predators and scavengers is surprisingly small. There are, in fact, only two main taxa that have been documented in any detail: (1) predation on sessile echinoderms; and (2) predation on nektonic nautiloids and ammonoids (Table A.5).

There are three reports of dentalites, possibly produced by vertebrates, on Paleozoic crinoids from the Middle Devonian of Germany (Bohatý, 2008, 2009) and Poland (Gorzelak et al., 2011) and the early Carboniferous of the United States (Gahn, 2004). There are single examples, all from Poland, from the Middle Triassic (Salamon and Gorzelak, 2008), Late Jurassic (Lach et al., 2015) and Late Cretaceous (Salamon and Gorzelak, 2010). Crinoids have relatively massive skeletons and lack a large volume of easily digestible tissue, so they are not attractive to Recent fish (Gahn, 2004). However, since the Ordovician, crinoids have served as substrate hosts to a wide range of organisms, including brachiopods, bryozoans, corals, gastropods, ophiuroids, myzostomid annelids and clionid sponges. Thus, at least some of the dentalites on crinoids may be "collateral damage" resulting from predation on their epibionts (Gahn, 2004). Cione et al. (2010) suggested a similar origin for some dentalites on Miocene penguin bones.

Echinoids, in contrast to crinoids, appear more attractive as a food source because of their thin test and relatively more abundant soft tissue. The earliest example of a vertebrate dentalite on an echinoid is from the Middle Jurassic of Israel (Wilson et al., 2014). There are 11 reports of Late Cretaceous dentalites on echinoids from Germany and The Netherlands. The mosasaur *Prognathodon* is proposed as the producer of a dentalite from Germany (Neumann and Hampe, 2018), and the shark *Squalicorax* for another specimen from that country (Neumann, 2000). Other examples are generally attributed to indeterminate fish (e.g., Thies and Reif, 1985; Jagt et al., 2018). Current records suggest that there is great potential to find additional dentalites on echinoids.

There are three examples of dentalites on nonmarine bivalves from the Late Triassic of Poland (Gorzalak et al., 2010), and the Early Cretaceous of Spain (Bermúdez-Rochas et al., 2013) and Australia (Kear and Godthelp, 2008). Nonmarine invertebrates are much less studied than vertebrates from the same environments, so we expect more dentalites to be present but not yet documented.

A few other sessile invertebrates yield dentalites of vertebrate origin, including a Late Cretaceous rudist (Hattin, 1988), an Early Jurassic brachiopod (Tasnadi-Kubacska, 1962) and marine bivalves from the Middle Devonian (Nagel-Myers et al., 2009), Middle Jurassic (Phipps, 2008) and Late Cretaceous (Kauffman, 1972). There are only two dentalites reported from fossil coral. Galle and Mikuláš (2003) described predation of fish on rugose coral from the Middle Devonian of the Czech Republic, and Kauffman (1981) described gall-like growths on Late Pleistocene coral from Jamaica that resemble Recent examples of predation by threespot damselfish. Given the importance of predation on coral reefs by Recent vertebrates such as parrotfish (Peyrot-Clausade et al., 2000), we expect there to be many more examples of dentalites on scleractinian corals and, by analogy, in extinct coral groups (and other reefforming invertebrates).

There are only three examples of dentalites on vagrant fossil invertebrates. Zatoń et al. (2007) and Neumann (2000) describe traces on sea stars from the Middle Jurassic of Poland and the Late Cretaceous of Germany, respectively. Bishop (1972) reported a dentalite on the crab *Raninella* from the Late Cretaceous of the United States.

Kauffman and Kesling (1960) wrote an influential paper describing putative predation on the Late Cretaceous ammonite *Placenticeras cf. P. whitfieldi* by a platecarpine mosasaur. Subsequently, there has been a large number of reports of dentalites on nautiloids and ammonoids, with the majority being of Late Cretaceous age. Older dentalites on cephalopod fossils are reported from the Late Devonian (Slotta et al., 2011), Late Mississippian (Bond and Saunders, 1989), Early Pennsylvanian (e.g., Mapes and Hansen, 1983), Early Triassic (Hoffman and Keup, 2015), Late Triassic (Tichy and Urbanek, 2004), Early Jurassic (e.g., Takeda and Tanabe, 2014), Middle Jurassic (e.g., Richter, 2009) and Early Cretaceous (Hoffman and Keupp, 2015). The inferred sources of these dentalites include teleosts (e.g., Martill, 1990), sharks (Vullo, 2011) and marine reptiles, including a nothosaur (Tichy and Urbanek, 2004). Late Cretaceous examples occur in Morocco (Gale et al., 2017), Madagascar (Hoffman and Keupp, 2015), Mexico (e.g., Ifrim, 2013) and Canada (e.g., Hewitt and Westermann, 1990). There are multiple reports from the USA, and Kauffman (1990b) mentions more than 100 specimens. One report from Mexico identifies the tracemaker as the shark *Ptychodus* (Ifrim, 2013), but the remainder are identified as being produced by mosasaurs (e.g., Saul, 1979; Tsujita and Westermann, 1998). Some subcircular traces on Late Cretaceous ammonoids represent limpet (patellogastropod) home scars (e.g., Knsc et al., 1994), and it has been proposed that these caused all of the putative dentalites (Kase et al., 1994, 1998; Johnston et al., 1997; Seilacher, 1998). However, this seems an overstatement, and many putative dentalites are correctly identified as such (Tsujita and Westermann, 2001; King, 2009; Mapes and Chaffin, 2003). Other dentalites occurring on nektonic invertebrates include examples of a foraminiferan with parottfish traces from the Eocene of India (Syed and Sengupta, 2019) and a Late Cretaceous squid with marks of the mosasaur Tylosaurus proriger (Stewart and Carpenter, 1990).

Tischlinger (2001) described the only vertebrate dentalites on flying insects. Two specimens of insects, the odonatan *Cymatophlebia longialata* and the neuropteran *Archegetes neuropterum*, have damage to their wings, including absence of a wingtip that he attributed to pterosaur predation.

There is a distinct paucity of dentalites attributed to teleosts, even though many Recent teleost taxa feed on a variety of invertebrates (e.g., Backus, 1964; Brown-Sarracino et al., 2007). However, it is difficult to identify teleost dentalites because there is so little known about fish traces, notably in temperate areas (Cione et al., 2010)

Coprolite Substrate

Coprolites containing dentalites have only been recognized in the past decade, principally by Godfrey and co-workers. They are all from aquatic environments, mainly marine, and all but one is definitely Cenozoic in age. Hunt et al. (2018) erected the *Gaspeichnus* ichnofacies for traces on a coprolitic substrate, which also include footprints and borings.

Godfrey and Smith (2010; Fig. 8) first described dentalites on coprolites of unknown origin, which derive from the Miocene Calvert Cliffs of the United States. They describe two coprolites with dentalites produced by sharks that could have resulted from: (1) aborted coprophagy, (2) benthic or nektonic exploration, or (3) predation. Moore (2021) recently described another coprolite from this location. Godfrey et al. (2020) record a Paleocene crocodile coprolite from the United States with dentalites made by a chondrichthyan, actinopterygian, or small crocodilian.

Godfrey and Palmer (2015) described a coprolite bitten by the gar *Lepidosteus* from South Carolina, USA, from a mixed lag of Late Cretaceous, early Paleocene and Plio-Pleistocene taxa. Frandsen (2020, p. 25-26, 28, 31, 33, 36, 39) illustrated seven additional coprolites with putative dentalites. Godfrey and Frandsen (2016) described another dentalite of *Lepidosteus* from another locality in South Carolina in a coprolite that

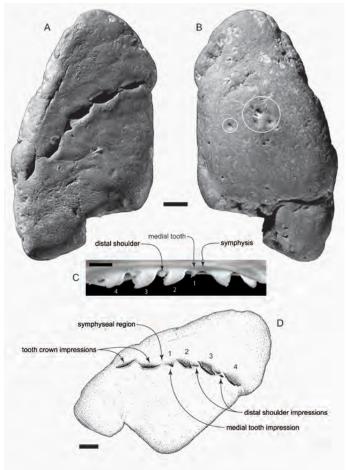


FIGURE 8. Coprolite (CMM-V-2244) from the Miocene of Maryland, USA with dentalites of six tooth marks, possibly produced by a tiger shark (cf. *Galeocerdo* sp.). **A**, Flattened lower surface with six deeper tooth impressions. **B**, Convex upper surface showing at least five shallower tooth impressions. **C**, Silicone rubber cast of the tooth impressions in labial view. Cast teeth 1–4 in C correspond to numbered impressions 1–4 in D. **D**, Drawing of the flattened lower surface of CMM-V-2244. Scale bars equal 10 mm (Godfrey and Smith, 2010, fig. 2). Figure courtesy of Stephen Godfrey.

might pertain to a crocodile. Subsequently, Frandsen and Godfrey (2019) illustrated two coprolites within the jaws of an articulated specimen of the gar *Atractosteus simplex* from the lacustrine Eocene Green River Formation of Wyoming, USA. A crocodilian coprolite from the Paleocene of Maryland, USA, exhibits dentalites of unknown origin (Godfrey et al., 2020).

Frandsen (2020) illustrated two Pre-Cenozoic coprolites with putative dentalites. However, a specimen from the Late Triassic of New Mexico, USA, has longitudinal striations that we identify not as dentalites but rather the characteristic surface texture of *Alococoprus* (Frandsen, 2020, p. 22). Thus, the oldest of his specimens that we concur is a dentalite is from the Early Jurassic of Lyme Regis, England, with conical depressions (Frandsen, 2020, p. 76).

Dentzien-Dias et al. (2018) described teleost (Serrasalmidae?) dentalites on coprolites from the Miocene of Venezuela. A coprolite of a carnivorous fish, likely a shark, from the Miocene of Italy contains dentalites possibly attributed to both selachians and teleosts (Collareta et al., 2019b). Dentzien-Dias et al. (2021) described multiple dentalites on fish coprolites from the Eocene of Virginia, USA. Cueille et al. (2020) described 17 coprolites from the Rhaetian of the United Kingdom with probable dentalites. Rozada et al. (2021) recently noted a coprolite from the Early Cretaceous of France with a possible shark dentalite.

Lithic Substrate

A variety of vertebrate behaviors involve direct interaction between mouth parts and the lithic substrate, notably feeding by aquatic fish and tetrapods, feeding by aerial birds and pterosaurs and digging by rodents. Several Recent vertebrates substantially disturb the substrate during aquatic feeding, including chondricththyans (e.g., Common Skate *Raja erinacea*, Bat Ray *Myliobatis californicus*: Cook, 1971), actinopterygians (e.g., Atlantic Sturgeon *Acipenser oxyrinchus oxyrinchus*: Armitage and Gingras, 2003; Pearson et al., 2007), osteichthyans (e.g., Goat fish – Mullidae: Geister, 1998; flatfish such as California Halibut *Paralicthys californicus*: Cook, 1971), pinnipeds (e.g., walrus *Odobenus rosmarus*: Kastelein et al., 1989), cetaceans (e.g., Grey Whale *Eschrichtius robustus*: Nelson et al., 1987, 1992) and otters (e.g., Sea Otter *Enhydra lutris*: Calkins, 1978).

The oldest marine traces attributed to vertebrate feeding were described by Fischer (1978) from the Ordovician Harding Sandstone of Colorado, USA. He erected the ichnogenus *Agnathichnus* for what he interpreted to be the feeding trace of a jawless fish. However, one of us (SGL) is revising this ichnofauna and considers *Agnathichnus* to be a synonym of *Treptichnus*, a zig-zag style of arthropod feeding trace.

Osculichnus tarnowskae is an ichnotaxon from the Early Devonian of Poland. It consists of a bilobate, generally elliptical, epichnial pit in the substrate that was produced by a fish probably feeding on bivalves, polychaetes and arthropods (Szrek et al., 2016). The producer was probably a lungfish similar to Dipnorhynchus (Szrek et al., 2016). Osculichnus also occurs in the Late Devonian of China (Fan et al., 2019), and the type ichnospecies, O. labialis, is from the late Eocene-early Oligocene of Turkey (Demírcan and Uchman, 2010; 2016; Table 2). Osculichnus and cf. Osculichnus occur in the Lower Jurassic of Poland and the Upper Jurassic of Spain (Pieńkowski, 1985; Rodríguez de la Rosa et al., 2021). Rodríguez de la Rosa et al. (2021) described Osculichnus repitsini from the Lower Cretaceous of Mexico as well as Daandavichnus batoideum, a complex ovoid trace they identified as a batoid feeding trace.

Geister (1998) described sigmoidal epichnial grooves from Early Devonian limestones of the Czech Republic that are 20 to 35 cm long, 3 to 5 cm wide, and less than 3 cm deep. He interpreted these as feeding traces made by jawless or jawed fishes feeding on the muddy sea floor.

Large furrows, up to 60 cm wide, up to 30 cm deep and up to 9 m long, are present on a Middle Jurassic bedding plane of limestone in northern Switzerland (Geister, 1998). There are three morphologies of trace. Geister (1998) suggested that the traces more than 40 cm wide were produced by the snout of the pliosaur *Liopleurodon*, and the smaller ones, less than 15 cm wide, could have been made by plesiosauroids or by the narrow pointed snouts of ichthyosaurs.

Calvo et al. (1987) named *Megaplanolites ibericus* for a large tubular trace fossil from the Late Jurassic of Spain. They interpreted it as a feeding or locomotion trace of a large worm, but Geister (1998) suggested that it represents a vertebrate feeding trace.

Thousands of ovate depressions on bedding planes of Late Cretaceous strata from Spain had been previously identified as dinosaur tracks but were re-interpreted by Martinell et al. (2001) as traces of the feeding activity of rays or other fish with similar behavior. Martinell et al. (2001) assigned them to *Piscichnnus*.

Poropat et al. (2021) describe two morphologies of trace fossil from the Cenomanian–?lowermost Turonian Winton Formation of Australia, which they attribute to feeding traces of fish. One morphotype consists of two indentations and superficially resembles feeding traces made by the Recent sturgeon *Acipenser oxyrinchus* (Pearson et al., 2007). There are multiple examples of a U-shaped trace that are interpreted as snout marks of a lungfish (Poropat et al., 2021).

Undichna is a common sinuous trace produced by a swimming fish (Minter and Braddy, 2006). Martin et al. (2010) described a specimen of *Undichna* cf. *simplicatas* from the lacustrine Green River Formation (early Eocene) of the western United States that preserves overlapping ellipsoids along the midline. These were interpreted as being produced by the ventral mouth of *Notogoneues osculus* during feeding (Martin et al., 2010).

Howard et al. (1977) described how rays excavate large pits in shallow estuarine conditions to search for infaunal food sources. They described how the excavation was accomplished by flapping the "wings" to hydraulically erode the sediment. Howard et al. (1977) noted Pleistocene and Cretaceous examples of this trace. However, Gregory et al. (1979) describe how the New Zealand eagle ray, Myliobatis tenuicaudatus, hydraulically excavates much of its vertical-sided feeding depression by the action of water jetted downwards through the mouth and/ or gill clefts and noted that other rays probably use a similar methodology. In this case, the depression would arguably represent a dentalite. Gregory (1991) named this trace Piscichnus waitemata. However, Piscichnus is a trace often attributed to the shallow, disc-shaped nests that many fish excavate in sediment, so most of its records are not dentalites (e.g., Feibel, 1987). Uchman et al. (2018) described *Piscichnus waitemata* from the Pliocene of Santa Maria Island (Azores Archipelago), which they interpreted to have been produced by ray fishes hunting for polychaetes, crustaceans and bivalves. Belvedere et al. (2011) described more than two hundred crescentic traces from the Middle Eocene of Italy that they assigned to *Piscichnus* isp. and interpreted as the feeding traces of sturgeon-like fishes rather than rays or flat fishes.

Excavation by hydraulic jetting through the oral cavity is also used by walruses. Gingras et al. (2007) described Pleistocene pits from the northwestern United States that they attributed to walruses feeding on deep-burrowing bivalves. Walruses root for prey with their snouts and emit a jet of water that liquefies the bottom sediments where a bivalve has burrowed (Gingras et al., 2007).

Both birds and pterosaurs produced feeding traces on substrate. Erickson (1967) first described dabble (surface grazing) marks associated with a trackway of *Presbyornis* from the Eocene of the United States (also see Lockley and Hunt, 1995, p. 253; Hunt and Lucas, 2007a, fig. 3). Subsequently, Falk (2004; Falk et al., 2010, 2014) described a wide range of avian feeding interactions with the substrate from the Early Cretaceous of Korea, including pecking, probing and scything traces.

Analogous feeding traces have also been attributed to pterosaurs. There are several occurrences of shallow, paired, rounded impressions interpreted as beak traces associated with pterosaur tracks from the Middle Jurassic of Utah (Lockley and Wright, 2003), the Early Cretaceous of England (Wright et al., 1997) and the Late Cretaceous of Utah (Parker and Balsey, 1989; Wright et al. 1997; Mazin et al., 2003). Sinuous traces from the Late Cretaceous of Utah and Mexico, some originally interpreted as tail drags, may represent sweeping movements of pterodactyloid jaws (Lockley and Wright, 2003; Rodriguez-de la Rosa, 2003).

Several rodents utilize their dentition, as well as their claws, for the excavation of burrows. Good examples have been described from the Late Oligocene and Miocene of Nebraska and Colorado in the United States. Tooth marks of *Palaeocaster fossor* occur in the spiral *Daimonelix* burrows from the late Oligocene-early Miocene of Nebraska (Martin and Bennett, 1977; Yelinek, 2005). Gobetz and Martin (2006) described dentalites of a gopher-like rodent, possibly *Gregorymys*, from the Early Miocene of that state. Late Miocene burrows from Nebraska produced by marmotine ground squirrels contain paired striations, which are common dentalites in rodent burrows (Joeckel and Tucker, 2013). Gobetz (2006) and Hembree and Hasiotis (2008) described other burrows of mylagaulids with dentalites from the late Miocene of the adjacent state of Colorado. One of us (SGL) is describing Pliocene rodent burrows from New Mexico with dentalites.

Geophagy is the consumption of soil or minerals (including salt licks) and is practiced by many Recent animals, principally herbivores, including ungulates, seed-eating birds and human and non-human primates (Jones and Hanson 1985; Gilardi et al., 1999; Izawa, 1993; Pryce, 1994; Abrahams and Parsons, 1996; Mahaney et al., 1996; Diamond et al., 1999; Abrahams, 2003; Tobler et al., 2009). There are multiple potential advantages to geophagy, principally related to mineral supplementation or alleviating gastrointestinal disorders (e.g., adsorb toxins, adjust gut pH, antidiarrhoea, counteract the effects of endoparasites, protect the gastrointestinal lining from biological and chemical damage) (Gilardi et al., 1999; Krishnamani and Mahaney, 2000; Abrahams, 2003). Geophagy should result in dentalites in nonprimates, and these could be recognized in the fossil record.

Some Recent terrestrial vertebrates, including bears and raccoons, use mechanical excavation (i.e., digging into the sediment) to feed (Gingras et al., 2007). Currently there is no described fossil record for this behavior.

Plant Substrate

Specialized herbivorous vertebrates date back to the Pennsylvanian (Lucas et al., 2018), and Paleozoic-Cenozoic invertebrate predation on plants has been widely documented (e.g., Scott, 1991; Labandeira, 1998), but there are very few examples of vertebrate dentalites on vegetation, and all are from the Cenozoic. All dentalites are preserved on the more dense portions of plants such as wood and nuts.

There are few well documented Mesozoic examples of dentalites on plant material. However, Lewis (2011) described fossil vines associated with hadrosaur bones from the Late Cretaceous of Texas, USA, with damage indicating that the branches were dominantly removed by shearing consistent with herbivory. In addition, the internal anatomy of the vines shows tracheid-filled false rings that are generally caused by mechanical removal of a portion of the plant during life. Manchester et al. (2010) described palm seeds in the same area associated with bones of juvenile ceratopsian and hadrosaurian dinosaurs and interpreted them as food debris.

Dentalites produced by rodents occur on seeds and nuts from the Eocene to the Pleistocene (Collinson, 1990). Collinson and Hooker (2000) recorded gnaw marks on late Eocene seeds of *Stratiotes* from southern England. Kodaira (1921) and Yoshikawa (2000) described dentalites produced by mice on nuts of *Juglans* spp. from the Pleistocene of Japan. The latter example was attributed to *Apodemus speciosus* (Yoshikawa, 2000). Gregor (1982) described another example of rodent activity in the stripping of Miocene *Aruacaria* cones.

Beavers actively modify woody tissue and produce dentalites. Wood-cutting behavior may date back to the Oligocene, but the earliest dentalites on wood are Pliocene in age (Rybczynski, 2008). Dentalites occur with skeletal remains of *Dipoides* sp. from the early Pliocene on Ellesmere Island in Canada (Harington, 1996; Hutchinson and Harington, 2002; Tedford and Harington, 2003). Both *Dipoides* and the Recent *Castor* employ the same function of their incisors, but the living beaver has a more efficient cutting mechanism (Rybczynski, 2008).

Other Substrates

Dentalites occur, or potentially could occur, on a number of other substrates:

1. Hirsch et al. (1997) described predatory peck marks on fossil eggshells from the Eocene of Colorado, USA.

2. Possible dentalites on dinosaur skin include concave depressions with radiating stress fractures in *Psittacosaurus* (Lingham-Soliar, 2008) and a healed wound in *Edmontosaurus* (Rothschild and Depalma, 2013).

3. Chumakov et al. (2013) erected three new ichospecies, *Machichnus normani*, *M. harlandi* and *M. jeansi*, for scratch marks on phosphorite nodules and pebbles from the Late Cretaceous of England. They are interpreted as scratches that originated from the teeth of fish scraping bacterial or algal film off the surface of nodules that were covered with phosphate gel.

4. Some rocks are gnawed by rodents and other mammals for minerals or to wear down incisors (e.g., Gobetz and Hattin, 2002), although no paleontological specimens have been identified.

5. Jensen et al. (2019) report human chewing of birch pitch for non-nutritional reasons from the Holocene, and similar behavior might be seen in older hominins.

Ichnotaxobases and Ichnotaxonomy

Introduction

Bromley and Jacobsen (2008) outlined research designed to produce an ichnotaxonomy of dentalites. They also noted how few ichnotaxa have been named for trace fossils in bone and recommended the development of rigorous ichnotaxobases and ichnotaxonomy. Currently, there are 19 named ichnotaxa of dentalites on bone and lithic substrates (Table 2).

Ichnotaxobases

Ichnotaxobases are distinctive morphologic features of a trace fossil that display significant and readily detectable variability and are thus important to ichnotaxonomic classifications (e. g., Bromley, 1996; Buatois and Mángano, 2011; Pirrone et al., 2014).

Pirrone et al. (2014) proposed ichnotaxobases for bioerosional structures of all kinds in bone; the following are particular to dentalites.

Substrate

We follow Bertling et al. (2006) in considering substrate as an important ichnotaxobase if it implies a different behavior of the producer. This is clearly the case if the dentalite is in a bone, wood, a coprolite or an invertebrate shell (Lucas, 2016).

Orientation

Virtually all vertebrate teeth/dentitions function (move) vertically (dorso-ventrally), though lateral motion of the teeth/ dentitions is also significant in some vertebrate taxa. Thus, dentalites can be divided into those produced by a vertical or lateral impact or a combination of the two. Binford's (1981) influential classification scheme of tooth marks recognized two vertical (punctures, pits) and two lateral tooth strike marks (scores, furrows).

Vertical features include deep (puncture of Binford, 1981; perforation of Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016) and shallow (pits) penetrations. Binford (1981) suggested the definitions are based on whether there is collapse of surficial layers (in bone, but this could also be applicable to shells), but a simpler differentiation might be whether the depression is deeper than wide. Binford (1981) considered pits to be more typical of gnawing.

Traces produced by lateral impacts of teeth are generally U-shaped (Fiorillo, 1991a, b; Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016). Binford's (1981) terms scores and furrows distinguish single and repeated jaw action. Some traces represent both vertical and lateral contact. Many of these include a tooth strike that slipped, but others may represent "torsional forces applied against incompletely gripped bones that slip on clasped jaws during side-to-side head thrusting and clockwise to counterclockwise death roll pivots.....and are common in crocodile-modified assemblages" (Njau and Gilbert, 2016, p. 5). *Size*

Absolute size and size relative to the dimensions of the substrate are important. Small tooth marks on a large bone (or shell) probably denote post-mortem damage, although the opposite is not always the case.

Evidence of tooth structure

Tooth structure can be seen in vertical marks by the cross section of the impression (e.g., Cruickshank, 1986; Rinehart et al., 2006). In lateral marks, serrations can produce lineations (Jacobsen and Bromley, 2009). Grooved incisors of rodents can also produce lineations (Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016). Bicarinate crocodile teeth produce distinctive marks (Njau and Blumenschine, 2006).

Evidence of dentition

The most useful traces provide not only evidence of behavior but also of the tracemaker's morphology. Bromley and Jacobsen (2008) favored naming bite marks based on the damage of a single tooth and regard multiple tooth marks as compound trace fossils. However, this suggestion fails to recognize the significance of heterodonty and the variation in single dental configurations (arcades). Thus, the ideal ichnotaxobase is the tooth marks of an entire dental arcade, and anything less than that could be regarded as extramorphological variants (Lucas, 2016).

Pattern of occurrence (Pirrone et al., 2014)

Many dentalites are not isolated. Pits often occur in groupings. Multiple lateral marks can be sinuous, arcuate or sub-parallel (Mikuláš et al., 2006; Jacobsen and Bromley, 2009). Gnawing traces are usually sub-parallel (Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016, figs. A.194-A.201).

Location

Buckland (1822, 1824) recognized that the location of dentalites on the substrate was important to identify the behavior and identity of the tracemaker. Subsequently, the pattern of dentalites on skeletons has been recognized as important in assessing predation and scavenging in animals with and without living analogues (e.g., Binford, 1981; Brain, 1981; Hunt et al., 1994b).

Summary

There are several ichnotaxobases available for dentalites, but the ideal one is based on the tooth marks of an entire dental arcade.

Utility of Dentalites

Dentalites have the potential to document a wide range of behaviors, including: (1) predation, including hunting strategies; (2) bite method and force; (3) dietary selection; (4) feeding; (5) scavenging strategies; (6) methodologies of bone accumulation; (7) trophic patterns; (8) intraspecific (agonistic) interactions; (9) tooth sharpening; and (10) bone and rock utilization for other purposes, including mineral extraction (Binford, 1981; Hunt et al., 1994b; Drumheller-Horton, 2012; Lucas, 2016). They thus are of diverse paleoethological significance.

Conclusions

There have been two centuries of studies of dentalites and

abundant records, but with strong biases towards archeology, and towards dinosaurs as a result of the Taxophile Effect. Dentalites have diverse potential in paleoethology. What is now needed is a dentalite ichnology beginning with diverse documentation of the dentalite ichnofossil record, compilation and synthesis of the entire record, rigorous ichnotaxonomy and determination of analytical criteria for establishing inferences about the behaviors archived by tooth-mark ichnofossils (Lucas, 2016).

REGURGITALITES Introduction

Regurgitalites have the least extensive fossil record among bromalites and are the least studied. This results from both the relative infrequency of regurgitation among vertebrates and the difficulty in identifying these traces.

History of Study

The description and discussion of regurgitalites started about a century after the first work on dentalites, coprolites and consumulites. Götzinger and Becker (1932) described discrete accumulations of small fragments of *Inoceramus* shells from the Upper Cretaceous of Austria. They tentatively interpreted them as coprolites. However, Häntzschel et al. (1968, p. 53) noted that they are "perhaps vomit balls, corresponding to the undigestible matter vomited by birds."

Much of the work on regurgitalites in the second half of the Twentieth Century was conducted by German paleontologists, particularly with regard to the Jurassic Holzmaden and Solnhofen Lagersttäten (Frentzen, 1936; Broili, 1938; Wellnhofer, 1964; Janicke, 1970; Barthel and Janicke, 1970; Janicke and Schairer, 1970; Keller, 1977; Barthel, 1978; Mehl, 1978; Böttcher, 1989, 1990; Jäger, 1991) as well as some other localities (Wetzel, 1953, 1960, 1964; Horstmann and Maier, 1957; Engesser and Storch, 1999). Italian paleontologists also conducted important studies (Pinna et al., 1985; Dalla Vecchia et al., 1989).

The most prominent work in the United States during this time period was Zangerl and Richardson's (1963) meticulous study of the Pennsylvanian Carbondale Formation of Indiana. They recognized numerous regurgitalites and introduced terminology to distinguish different types. However, subsequent actualistic taphonomic studies have demonstrated that many of these specimens represent decayed fish (Elder, 1985; Elder and Smith, 1988). Gawne (1975) described the first convincing strigilite from the Miocene of New Mexico. Other strigilites were noted in the western United States (Walton, 1990; Korth and Emry; Lillegraven et al., 1981). Stewart and Carpenter (1990), Hattin (1996) and Everhart (1999) described the first regurgitalites from the productive Cretaceous chalk of Kansas. Wilson (1977a, b, 1980, 1987) studied Eocene lacustrine regurgitalites of the Western United States and Canada. Hunt (1992) introduced the term regurgitalite in a study of Pennsylvanian bromalites from New Mexico.

Starting in the 1970s there was an increased interest in the origin of microvertebrate fossil accumulations. Much work was focused on strigilites (and other ornithoregurgitalites) as an important source of such accumulations (Dodson, 1973; Dodson and Wexlar, 1979; Mellett, 1975; Mayhew, 1977; Andrews, 1990; Kusmer, 1990; Montalvo and Fernández, 2019).

During the first decade of this century there was intermittent, but diverse, interest in regurgitalites. Aldridge et al. (2006) described the earliest putative regurgitalites from the Late Ordovician, and Sanz et al. (2001) published an influential paper in *Science* on a regurgitalite from the Lower Cretaceous of Spain. There were several reports of avian regurgitalites from the Paleocene of Argentina (Nasif et al., 2009) and the Eocene of the United States (Murphey et al., 2001; Alexander and Burger, 2001) and from non-avian specimens from the Late Cretaceous Nammoûra Lagerstätte of Lebanon (Dalla Vecchia and Chiappe, 2002) and the Jurassic of Germany (Dietl and Schweigert, 2001).

Most recognized vertebrate regurgitalites contain vertebrate remains. Oji et al. (2003) used angular shell debris as a proxy for the prevalence of durophagous predators, including fish, and Salamon et al. (2014) reported Devonian and Mississippian regurgitalites that confirm this hypothesis. Zatoń and coworkers (Zatoń et al., 2007; Zatoń and Salamon, 2008; Salamon et al., 2012) described vertebrate regurgitalites from the Triassic and Jurassic of Poland composed of the remains of diverse invertebrate taxa. Other examples of regurgitalites composed of invertebrate hard parts have also been described in the last two decades from the Mesozoic of Germany and Austria (Neumann, 2000; Stevens et al., 2014; Lukeneder et al., 2020; Lukeneder and Lukeneder, 2021).

In the last decade there has been elevated interest in regurgitalites, which has increased in pace during the past three years. Myhrvold (2011) and Hunt and Lucas (2012a) reviewed terminology and introduced new terms, and several papers have reviewed criteria for the recognition of regurgitalites (Myhrvold, 2011; Thies and Hauff, 2012; Hunt et al., 2015a; Klug and Vallon, 2018; Hoffman et al., 2019; Gordon et al., 2020; Friemuth et al., 2021). Burrow and Turner (2010) described the oldest definitive vertebrate regurgitalite from the Lower Devonian of Scotland. Hunt and collaborators (Hunt et al., 2012e, h-i; Hunt and Lucas, 2021a) described a series of Pennsylvanian ichnofaunas from New Mexico and Montana in the United States and named the first regurgitalite ichnotaxa, Ostracobromus and Conchobromus. Diverse regurgitalites produced by owls and snakes have been described from the Messel Lagersttäte in Germany (Morlo et al., 2012; Mayr and Schaal, 2016; Schaal, 2016; Gunnell et al., 2018). Everhart has described multiple regurgitalites from the marine Cretaceous of Kansas in the United States (Everhart, 1999, 2003, 2004b, 2017). Lucas et al. (2012) described a spectacular purgolite composed of strigilites from the lower Oligocene of eastern Wyoming, and Freimuth (2020; Friemuth et al., 2021) studied the regurgitalites of a theropod dinosaur from Montana.

Regurgitation

The vomiting reflex is common in vertebrates and is a protective mechanism for the bulk ejection of noxious material (Simms et al., 2000). Habitual regurgitation occurs in a variety of Recent carnivorous, piscivorous and insectivorous species that routinely ingest food with a high proportion of indigestible material that is egested through the mouth (Shäfer, 1972; Myhrvold, 2011). The other principal expulsion mechanism is stomach eversion, which occurs in sharks and rays and, possibly, some amphibians (e.g., Simms et al., 2000; Brunnschweiler et al., 2005). The range of reasons for regurgitation include: (1) eradicating poison; (2) removing mechanically dangerous matter; (3) feeding offspring; (4) removing parasites; (5) eliminating indigestible material; and (6) getting rid of sloughed gastric mucosa and mucus (Gudger, 1949; Beintema, 1991; Sims et al., 2000; Klug and Vallon, 2018; Hoffmann et al., 2019).

Many bony fish and chrondrichthyans regurgitate indigestible material (e.g., Hattin, 1986; Bowman, 1986; Andrews et al., 1998; Zatoń and Salamon, 2008; Aas et al., 2017). Most carnivorous snakes and many lizards egest gastric pellets and other materials such as eggshell fragments (Gans, 1952; Reinhard and Vogel, 1980; Myhrvold, 2011). Long et al. (2010) reported regurgitation in turtles. Varanids produce gastric pellets (Petzold, 1967; Auffenberg, 1981), as do many crocodilians (Dolowy et al., 1960; Scherpner, 1980; Fisher, 1981a,b; Chabreck, 1996; Andrews et al., 2000; Myhrvold, 2011). Virtually all birds that eat invertebrate or vertebrate animals egest pellets, and the majority of birds regurgitate to feed their young (e.g., Rea, 1973; Duke et al., 1976; Andrews, 1990; Zijlstra and Van Eerden, 1995; Myhrvold, 2011). Among mammals, some marine mammals–whales and most pinnipeds– produce gastric pellets (e.g., Fea and Harcourt, 1997; Goodman-Lowe, 1998; Clarke et al., 1998).

Actualistic Studies

Following the recognition that avian regurgitalites are important in the development of microvertebrate accumulations (e. g., Dodson, 1973; Dodson and Wexlar, 1979; Mellett, 1975; Mayhew, 1977), there have been extensive actualistic studies of Recent regurgitations. Peter Andrews has been prominent in this work, with authorship of two comprehensive volumes (Andrews, 1990; Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016). Recent works that provide access to this large literature include Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews (2016), Fernández-Jalvo et al. (2016), Denys et al. (2018) and Montalvo and Fernández (2019).

Recognition

Hunt (1992; Fig. 3) proposed the encompassing term bromalite in part because it can be difficult to distinguish a regurgitalite from a coprolite. The majority of studies have identified bromalites as either coprolites or regurgitalites, without considering other possibilities (Gordon et al., 2020). And, many regurgitalites may have been mistaken for coprolites (Myrhvold, 2011; Vallon, 2012). Note that Recent raptor pellets can be identified as to originator (e.g., Moon, 1940; Terry, 2007, 2010). Regurgitalites have no single unique characteristics, but they can be recognized on the basis of a suite of features (Wilson, 1987; Myhrvold, 2011; Thies and Hauff, 2012; Hunt et al., 2015a; Klug and Vallon, 2018; Hoffman et al., 2021):

1. Geometry. Putative regurgitalites range from threedimensional cylindrical or amorphous bodies to splatters of associated organic matter in a discrete area on a bedding plane (e.g., Hunt et al., 2012e, h; Hoffmann et al., 2019; Gordon et al., 2020).

2. Non-biotic content. Regurgitalites contain a relative (to coprolites) lack of phosphatic matrix, and some specimens have none (Hunt et al., 2015a; Klug and Vallon, 2018; Gordon et al., 2020; Freimuth et al., 2021).

3. Biotic content.

a. Physico-chemical characteristics. The principal inclusions are elements that are not easy to digest, so they may be preferentially evacuated (e.g., vertebrate skeletal elements, invertebrate valves and cuticle, dermal elements – fur and feathers) (Myhrvold, 2011; Hunt et al., 2015a; Hoffman et al., 2019). It is important to note that some hard parts, such as invertebrate shells, can pass through the digestive tracts of durophagous fish and some birds (Cate and Evans, 1994; Zuschin et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the reverse could also be true, and regurgitalites could be characterized by materials that are easy to digest and that would not be present in coprolites (Gordon et al., 2020).

b. Size. Hard parts are comparably larger and articulated more often in regurgitalites than in coprolites (Hoffmann et al., 2019).

c. Evidence of digestion. Regurgitalites should demonstrate evidence of digestion but less than coprolites (Bochenski et al., 1993, 1998; Hockett, 1996; Hunt et al., 2015a; Hoffmann et al., 2019; Gordon et al., 2020).

i. Physical – broken or rounded elements.

ii. Chemical – etched or pitting.

d. Dentalites. Evidence of predation is likely to be better preserved in elements in regurgitalites that have low residence time in the digestive tract than in coprolites (Hunt et al., 2015a).

e. Element composition. Recent and fossil avian pellets can be characterized by a prevalence of skulls, articulated elements and the association of one or more discrete skeletons (Myhrvold, 2011; Hoffman et al., 2019; Freimuth et al., 2021).

f. Element orientation. Elements are often aligned about their long axes and closely packed (Myhrvold, 2011; Holgado et al., 2015).

Terminology

Hunt (1992) introduced the term regurgitalite to be consonant with coprolite, for bromalites egested through the mouth. Previously, a range of imprecise and inconsistently used terms had been applied to such specimens (see review in Hunt and Lucas, 2012a; Appendix B). Regurgitalite has since been widely used. Darroch et al. (2021) recently used the term "casting" for fossil rergurgitalites. The verb "to cast" is often used in Recent ornithology, but the noun "casting" appears to derive from falconry and is usually only applied to hawks. It is widely accepted that ichnofossils use a different terminology than modern animal traces (Bertling et al., 2006; Hunt and Lucas, 2012a). Myrhvold (2011) coined the term emetolite for fossilized gastric pellets produced by routine vomiting (emesis).

Hunt and Lucas (2012a) introduced the term purgolite for an accumulation of regurgitalites (accretionary, if concentrated by physical processes, and ethological, if by behavior) and others for specific types, including ejectalite (deriving from oral cavity or gastrointestinal tract anterior to the stomach), ekrhexalite (derives from the stomach), ornithoregurgitalite (produced by a bird) and strigilite (fossil owl pellets) (Appendix B). Gordon et al. (2012) rightly pointed out that some of these cannot be readily discriminated in the fossil record.

Fossil Record

The majority of identified regurgitalites occur in marine or lacustrine environments characterized by low energy and finegrained sediments (Hoffman et al., 2019). Overviews of the fossil record of regurgitalites were provided by Thies and Hauff (2012), Klug and Vallon (2018) and Hoffmann et al. (2019).

Paleozoic

The earliest putative regurgitalites are from the Late Ordovician Soom Shale Lagerstätte of South Africa (Aldridge et al., 2006). Aldridge et al. (2006) described compact, pellet-like clusters of fragmented conodont elements that they tentatively interpreted as regurgitalites produced by conodont animals.

A regurgitalite, likely produced by a nautiloid, occurs in the Silurian of Poland (Brachaniec et al., 2016). This specimen consists of fragmented and intermingled angular and nonabraded molluse, brachiopod and crinoid remains (Brachaniec et al., 2016).

A definitive vertebrate regurgitalite is from the Early Devonian locality of Duntrune in Scotland (Burrow and Turner 2010). From this locality, Burrow and Turner (2010) described and illustrated a bromalite that includes four tooth whorls, two fin spines, a scapulocoracoid, flank scales, tesserae, and umbellate scales of one individual of the acanthodian fish *Nostolepis scotica*. They also mentioned several hundred similar specimens from the important fish localities at both Duntrune and Tillywhandland, each of which includes elements from a single specimen of *Ischnacanthus gracilis* or *Mesacanthus mitchelli*. Klug and Vallon (2018) reported three regurgitalites containing cephalopods from the latest Devonian of Morocco. They contain dissolved ammonite shell fragments and ?jaws of ?*Mimimitoceras* and are tentatively ascribed to a gnathostome.

Salamon et al. (2014, figs. 6-7) reported one regurgitalite from the Devonian and nine from the Mississippian composed of shell fragments. Angular shell fragment debris may indicate the presence of durophagous fish, so the distribution of such material should parallel that of shell-rich regurgitalites (Oji et al., 2003; Salamon et al., 2014). This seems to be the case in the Devonian to the Mississippian (Salamon et al., 2014, fig. 7). Thus, based on the work of Oji et al. (2003), we predict that there was a rise in such regurgitalites during the Paleogene and a major increase in the Neogene.

Regurgitalites are notable in several Pennsylvanian units of the United States. The Mississippian Bear Gulch Lagerstätte of Montana includes the ostracode-bearing regurgitalite Ostracobromus snowyensis (Hunt et al., 2012e), which is probably also present in the Pennsylvanian Hamilton Lagerstätte (Cunningham et al., 1993, p. 230). Zangerl and Richardson (1963) described faunas from the Early Pennsylvanian Carbondale Formation of Indiana. They distinguished two types of regurgitalites based on the degree of processing in the digestive tract - ejected prey (mastication, minor digestion) and gastric residues (more extensive digestion) (Zangerl and Richardson, 1963). However, the putative regurgitalites containing vertebrate material probably mainly represent decayed fish instead of regurgitalites (Elder, 1985; Elder and Smith, 1988). Nevertheless, some of the accumulations of invertebrate debris (e.g., of the bivalve *Myalina*) do probably represent vertebrate regurgitalites (e.g., Zangerl and Richardson, 1963, pl. 44D).

The Missourian Atrasado Formation at the Kinney Brick Quarry and Tinajas Lagerstätten in New Mexico, USA, yields large samples of bromalites, including the regurgitalite *Conchobromus kinneyensis*, which contains abundant conchostracans (Hunt et al., 2012e, h-i; Hunt and Lucas, 2021a). Huber (1992) and Scholtze et al. (2021) suggested that the groupings of conchostracans present in *Conchobromus* were caused by weak swirls of water. However, this seems unlikely since there is no other evidence for swirling currents at the Kinney Brick Quarry, and no other fossil specimens occur in such groupings in this Lagerstätte.

Mesozoic

Salamon et al. (2012) described a number of putative regurgitalites from the Middle Triassic Gogolin Formation in southern Poland. These are discrete accumulations composed primarily of angular bivalve shell fragments with sharp, non-abraded margins and crinoid ossicles with many breaks. They are interpreted to represent regurgitalites of durophagous vertebrates, including sharks, colobodontid fish, placodonts and pachypleurosaurs or sauropterygian reptiles (Salamon et al., 2012). Another possible regurgitalite from the same formation is fusiform in shape, composed of fragmented bivalve shells and, based on its size, is attributed to the sharks *Acrodus* or *Palaeobates* (Niedźwiedzki et al., 2021). These regurgitalites suggest that the "Mesozoic Marine Revolution" may have begun by the Middle Triassic and thus was a far more prolonged evolutionary event than its name implies (Salamon et al., 2012).

The Reingraben Shales in Austria yield a Late Triassic (early Carnian) Konservat-Lagerstätte that contains regurgitalites (Lukeneder et al., 2020; Lukeneder and Lukeneder, 2021). These specimens are large (>40 mm long) and consist of flat ovoids with closely packed invertebrate debris, no matrix and evidence of acid etching (Lukeneder et al., 2020). The constituents are entire shells and fragments of the ammonoid *Austrotrachyceras* and rare teuthid arm hooks, and buccal cartilage of *Phragmoteuthis* (Lukeneder et al., 2020). The regurgitalites are attributed to durophagous sharks such as *Acrodus* (Lukeneder et al., 2020; Lukeneder et al., 2021).

Dalla Vecchia et al. (1989) described a regurgitalite from the Late Triassic of northern Italy as containing pterosaur skeletal elements, but they were subsequently re-interpreted as pertaining to a protorosaurian similar to *Langobardisaurus* (Holgado et al., 2015). The producer is hypothesized to be a large fish such as *Saurichthys, Birgeria* or a coelacanthiform (Holgado et al., 2015). Gordon et al. (2020) described another Late Triassic regurgitalite from Arizona that is composed of a compact mass of skeletal material of the pseudosuchian archosaur *Revueltosaurus*. They interpret the producer as a phytosaur, rauisuchid, or temnospondyl.

The Lower Jurassic Posidonia Shale of South Germany yields a number of regurgitalites. Keller (1977; also see Vallon, 2012) considered a coiled-up skeleton of an 1.6-m-long specimen of the ichthyosaur Stenopterygius quadriscissus as a regurgitalite produced by the large predatory ichthyosaur, Temnodontosaurus = Leptopterygius). Jäger (2001) interpreted disarticulated bones of a small ichthyosaur to be another regurgitalite produced by Temnodontosaurus. The type specimen of the small ornithischian Emausaurus ernsti may also represent a regurgitalite produced by a large ichthyosaur or marine crocodile (Haubold, 1990; Thies and Hauff, 2012). Thies and Hauff (2012) described a fourth regurgitalite that contains the remains of four specimens of the actinopterygian Dapedium sp. and a lower jaw of Lepidotes sp. It may have been produced by a chondrichthyan (Hybodus), actinopterygians (pachycormiforms) or by marine reptiles (crocodilians, ichthyosaurs, plesiosaurs). Hoffmann et al. (2019) regarded the "Seeball" described by Jäger (1991), which is composed of spines of the echinoid *Diademopsis*, to be a regurgitalité. Böttcher (1989, 1990) also noted regurgitalites from Holzmaden, and Frentzen (1936) described the ammonite Amaltheus from what he considered to be a fish consumulite, but it is more likely a regurgitalite. Pinna et al. (1985) and Garassino and Donovan (2000) described regurgitalites from the Early Jurassic of Italy containing fish centra and scales and coleoid hooks and ascribed them to thylacocephalan crustaceans, but they could pertain to vertebrates.

Zatoń and co-workers (Zatoń et al., 2007; Zatoń and Salamon, 2008) described regurgitalites from the Middle Jurassic of Poland. Nine specimens are composed of molluscs (scaphopods, gastropods, bivalves, ammonites and belemnites), articulate brachiopods and echinoderms (asteroids, crinoids and echinoids), and the probable producers are palaeospinacid sharks, although other vertebrates such as durophagous pycnodontiform fish, cannot be excluded (Zatoń et al., 2007). Zatoń and Salamon (2008) described another 11 specimens that contain remains of diverse taxa, including gastropods, scaphopods, bivalves, belemnites, ammonites, brachiopods, bryozoan, crinoids, echinoids, ophiuroids and even wood, which they interpreted to have been produced by an opportunistic generalist, most likely a fish.

The Middle Jurassic of the Bielefeld area of northern Germany has yielded possible regurgitalites of marine reptiles (Wetzel, 1953, 1964; Horstmann and Maier, 1957). These contain juvenile ammonites, belemnites, cephalopods, echinoderms, scaphopods and foraminiferans with smaller quantities of fish scales, crustacean limbs and reptile teeth (Wetzel, 1953, 1964; Horstmann and Maier, 1957).

The majority of regurgitalites from the Late Jurassic derive from the Nusplingen and Solnhofen Lagerstätten of Germany. Stevens et al. (2014) described four closely associated belemnites from Nusplingen that they interpreted as a regurgitalite produced by an elasmobranch, holocephalan, or marine reptile. Other Nusplingen regurgitalites contain echinoid (Pseudodiadema, Nenoticidaris, Plegiocidaris) and sea star (Sphaeraster) remains that do not occur elsewhere in these limestones, and they are attributed to the pycnodont fish Gyrodus (Dietl and Schweigert, 2001). Dietl and Schweigert (2001; Fig. 9) and Schweigert et al. (2001) reported a regurgitalite that contained bones of the pterosaur Rhamphorhynchus, possibly produced by a crocodile, Cricosaurus (Geosaurus) or Dakosaurus, or large predatory fish such as Caturus (Hoffmann et al., 2019) or possibly Aspidorhynchus (Frey and Tischlinger, 2012). Other Nusplingen regurgitalites contain the echinoid *Plegiocidaris* and the fishes Tharsisdubius and Caturus (Grawe-Baumeister et al., 2000; Vallon, 2012; Albersdörfer and Häckel, 2015; Viohl, 2015; Hoffmann et al., 2019).

Six coiled vertebral columns of the actinopterygian Leptolepis sprattiformis from the Solnhofen Lagerstätte represent

FIGURE 9. Regurgitalite from the Upper Jurassic Nusplingen Lithographic Limestone of Germany. The bromalite (SMNS Inv. Nr. 63990) contains bones of a pterosaur, probably Rhamphorhynchus, and is interpreted as having been produced by a large fish or a marine crocodile (Schweigert et al., 2001). The regurgitalite is approximately 4 cm tall. Image courtesy of Günter Schweigert.

a regurgitalite (Janicke and Schairer, 1970). Janicke (1970) and Barthel (1978) described regurgitalites from Solnhofen containing the actinopterygian Caturus and interpreted them as produced by a large fish or crocodile. Hoffman et al. (2019) listed other fish regurgitalites from the Solnhofen strata, including: (1) multiple mollusks, among them ammonites, from Lepidotes (Wellnhofer, 1964; Barthel and Janicke, 1970); (2) lamellaptychi from sharks (Barthel and Janicke, 1970); and (3) lamellaptychi from Holostei, Amiiformes (e.g., Caturus) or Aspidorhynchiformes (Mehl, 1978).

There are two Solnhofen pterosaurs associated with possible regurgitalites. The first is represented by a loose spiral of an articulated vertebral column of Leptolepides preserved adjacent to the mandibular tip of a specimen of Scaphognathus crassirostris (Bennett, 2014). This fish skeleton may have been a regurgitalite, or it may have been ejected from the animal during the decay process (Bennett, 2014). The second is a specimen of "Pterodactylus propinguus" from the Upper Jurassic of Germany (now lost) that preserves disarticulated fish debris around the gular pouch, which could have been regurgitated from the gut (Broili, 1938; Wellnhofer, 1970; Witton, 2018).

Sanz et al. (2001) described a regurgitated pellet from the Early Cretaceous Los Hoyas Lagerstätte in Spain. This bromalite consists of partial skeletons of four juvenile birds that may have derived from a non-avian theropod or a pterosaur (Sanz et al., 2001). Pellets occur in several birds from the Jehol Lagerstätte in China (Wang et al., 2016; O'Connor, 2019). All appear to be incorporeal pelletites and not egested. Probable regurgitalites composed of fish scales and bones also occur with three specimens of the Jehol troodontid Anchiornis huxleyi (Zheng et al., 2018b).

The majority of Late Cretaceous regurgitalites contain vertebrate elements, but Neumann (2000) described subrounded or elliptical lenses consisting of densely packed asteroid ossicles and/or other echinoderm remains from chalk in Germany. These pellets are interpreted as possible regurgitalites produced by bony fishes or sharks (Neumann, 2000). Similar bromalites have been found in the Late Cretaceous and Danian of northern Europe, although some have been attributed to large asteroideans (Wright and Wright, 1940; Rasmusseen, 1950;

Müller, 1953; Gale, 1987; Neumann, 2000).

Wetzel (1960, 1964) described possible regurgitalites from the Late Cretaceous of Chile. They contain ammonite larvae and adult Baculites as well as bivalves and plankton, and he ascribed them to plesiosaurs.

Hattin (1996) described a regurgitalite from the chalk of Kansas in the United States. This bromalite includes not only bone, but also cirriped plates and coccoliths and is attributed to the chondrichthyan Ptychodus. Capasso (2019b) described a regurgitalite just exterior to the oral cavity of the pycnodont Acrorhinichthys poyatoi from the Middle Cenomanian of Lebanon.

Everhart (2017) noted the occurrence of similar bromalites in the Kansas Cretaceous. Marine deposits of the Late Cretaceous of the Western Interior Seaway have yielded a variety of other regurgitalites. Bishop (1975) illustrated two regurgitalites, one containing disarticulated fragments of the crab *Dakoticancer* and the other of the mud shrimp *Callianassa*. Regurgitalites from Kansas include heavily-pitted bones of fish, marine reptiles (several mosasaurs, one plesiosaur) and the dinosaur *Niobrarasaurus* (Everhart, 1999, 2003, 2004b, 2017). A regurgitalite consisting of the front part of a juvenile mosasaur skull has teeth that are eroded down to the roots (Everhart, 2017, fig. 4.3). An isolated mandible of the ornithocheiroid Pteranodon preserves a pellet between the mandibular rami, probably held in place by throat tissues before burial (Brown, 1943; Bennett, 2001; Witten, 2018). This specimen preserves several fish vertebrae (Bennett, 2001). Stewart and Carpenter (1990) noted two other possible regurgitalites from Kansas: (1) a iuvenile specimen of the ammonite ? Clioscaphites choteauensis with apatitic matrix in the outer whorl; and (2) a mass of teleost bones, batoid denticles and fragments of a teuthidid gladius. Martin and Tate (1976) described associated material with Baptornis advenus that could represent a regurgitalite (or a coprolite or evisceralite).

Dalla Vecchia and Chiappe (2002) described a bird from the Late Cretaceous Nammoura Lagerstätte of Lebanon. This skeleton is preserved in a ball-like mass of powdered bone mixed with carbonized feathers and represents a regurgitalite (Dalla Vecchia and Chiappe, 2002; Myrhvold, 2011).

Three multi-individual aggregates of mammalian skeletons from the Late Cretaceous nesting locality of Egg Mountain in the Unted States represent regurgitalites (Freimuth, 2020; Friemuth et al., 2021). One yields two individuals of the multituberculate *Filikomys primaevus*, and the other two are composed of three and 11 individuals, primarily of the marsupialiform Alphadon halleyi. These regurgitalites are interpreted as being produced by Troodon formosus on the basis of abundant shed teeth and nesting evidence, and this would be consistent with previous inferences of this predator as having a diet of small-bodied prey, manipulating prey during feeding, heightened metabolic processes, and potential nocturnality (Freimuth et al., 2021).

Cenozoic

The only described regurgitalite from the Paleocene is ornithoregurgitalte (sensu Hunt and Lucas, 2012a) from the Salamanca Formation of Argentina at Punta Peligro (Muzzopappa et al., 2021). This orithoregurgitalite contains a single skeleton of the anuran Calyptocephalella sabrosa.

Eocene regurgitalites occur in shallow lacustrine facies of the western United States and Canada. Wilson (1977a, b. 1980, 1987) studied middle Eocene freshwater vertebrate fossils from the interior of British Columbia and northern Washington (Wilson, 1980). In 25 vertebrate fossil assemblages, he noted that up to 69% of fish remains occurred in pellets (fishbone coprolites), which were interpreted as principally avian regurgitalites (Wilson, 1987). Buskirk et al. (2015) described several morphotypes of bromalites from the Middle Eocene



Florissant Formation of Colorado, including regurgitalites that are ovoid (rarely sinusoidal) in shape with little to no groundmass and with a high content of crushed invertebrate shells—these are likely regurgitalites.

The Eocene Messel Lagerstätte in Germany yielded three regurgitalites that resemble Recent owl pellets and are considered to be strigilites (Mayr and Schaal, 2016). They contain various broken bird bones and may have been produced by the Messel owl Palaeoglaux artophoron, which would make it the oldest owl pellet identified so far. The two other gastric pellets with bird remains have more elongate shapes and probably derive from snakes or other squamates (Mayr and Schaal, 2016; Gunnell et al., 2018). Another regurgitalite reported from Messel includes a skeleton of the hyaenodontid mammal Lesmesodon edingeri and was likely produced by a large boid snake, probably *Palaeopython* (Morlo et al., 2012; Schaal, 2016; Gunnell et al., 2018). This specimen is deformed to a slender carcass with the forelimbs pressed against the body and contains a consumulite consisting of teeth, jaws and bone fragments of an amphibian or reptile and an insectivore (Morlo et al., 2012; Schaal, 2016; Gunnell et al 2018). Lastly, Messel yielded a skeleton of the gecko Ornatocephalus metzleri that is partially disarticulated, missing the pelvis, hind limbs and tail, and with the bone surfaces corroded. This is probably the regurgitalite of a raptor (Smith et al., 2018).

The Eocene *Omomys* Quarry in Wyoming in the United States consists almost exclusively of bones of the eponymous primate as well as bones of birds, including owls. It may be a strigilite purgolite (Murphey et al., 2001; Alexander and Burger, 2001).

A specimen of the owl Stihanus from the latest Eocene Peanut Peak Member of the Chadron Formation in South Dakota is a possible strigilte (Hunt and Lucas, 2007a). Lucas et al. (2012; Fig. 10) described a purgolite composed of strigilites from the early Oligocene of eastern Wyoming, first mentioned by Walton (1990) and Korth and Emry (1991). The strigilites are preserved as calcareous nodules full of fossil mammal bones and yielded the type specimens of the sciurid rodent Cedromus wilsoni and the todid bird Palaeotodus emryi. The strigilite assemblage also includes the skeletons, bearing skulls, of at least three individual owls, which strongly reinforces the interpretation of these small masses of bone as owl pellets (Lucas et al., 2012). Other possible Oligocene occurrences from Wyoming include a skeleton of the insectivore Centenodon chadronensis that exhibits features suggestive of it originating in a strigilite (Lillegraven et al., 1981), and pellets and possible owl bones from another locality (Walton, 1990). The late Oligocene of Germany also preserves presumed strigilites that contain rodent specimens (Engesser and Storch, 1999; Smith and Wuttke, 2015).

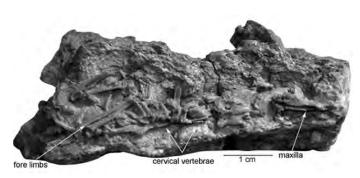


FIGURE 10. Strigilite (regurgitalite) with anterior portion of skeleton of a small rodent from the Orella Member of the White River Formation (early Oligocene), Wyoming, USA (Lucas et al., 2012, fig. 4A).

Gawne (1975) distinguished a strigilite from the early Miocene of central New Mexico. This specimen is a small pellet containing tightly-packed cranial and postcranial specimens of two rodents (*Proheteromys cejanus* and *P.* aff. *P. floridanus*) (Gawne, 1975).

Two fossil regurgitalites from the Andalhuala Formation (Upper Miocene), Santa María of Argentina, are composed of articulated and disassociated bones and teeth of octodontid and cricetid rodents that show evidence of corrosion (Nasif et al., 2009). Nasif et al. (2009) interpreted these as ornithoregurgitalites *(sensu* Hunt and Lucas, 2012a) of "terror birds" (Phorusrhacidae, Psilopterinae). This is the oldest record of a cricetid rodent in South America.

An early Miocene lake in eastern Spain yields "abundant clumps of scales and bones" of unidentified teleosts (Álvarez-Parra et al. 2021, p. 10). These specimens are flat accumulations that lack phosphatic matrix. Álvarez-Parra et al. (2021) recognized them as bromalites, and they clearly represent regurgitalites.

The best example of Pliocene strigilites is a putative purgolite of slightly disaggregated strigilites from Arizona in the United States (Walton, 1990; Czaplewski, 2011). A less well documented occurrence occurs in the adjacent state of New Mexico (Walton, 1990). Many Pleistocene cave deposits and some archeological sites yield bone accumulations derived from raptor, notably owl, regurgitations (e.g., Andrews, 1990; Hunt and Lucas, 2007a). Rodents from Pleistocene cave deposits in Poland may derive from strigilites (Kowalski, 1960; Sulimski, 1964).

There are very few convincing examples, prior to the Pleistocene, of paleontological microvertebrate accumulations that comprise bones derived from raptor regurgitations (Lucas et al., 2012). However, many Pleistocene cave deposits and some archeological sites yield bone accumulations derived from raptor, notably owl, regurgitations (e.g., Andrews, 1990; Hunt and Lucas, 2007a; Montalvo et al., 2012). Indirect evidence of strigilites (or other ornithoregurgitalites) is based on analysis of microvertebrate accumulations (e.g., Mellett, 1975; Mayhew, 1977; Kusmer, 1990). There is strong evidence that some cave microvertebrate accumulations, particularly of bats and lizards, resulted from accumulation by owls (e.g., Williams, 1952; Morgan, 1994).

Cenozoic marine regurgitalites are rare. Milner (in Hunt and Lucas, 2007a) noted fish regurgitalites from the Late Pleistocene calcareous concretions from the Champlain Sea Clays of eastern Canada. Baldanza et al. (2013) described fossil ambergris from the Pleistocene of Italy, but this is probably fecal in origin (Clarke, 2006).

Ichnotaxobases and Ichnotaxonomy

Currently, there are only two named regurgitalite ichnotaxa, both from the Carboniferous of the United States -*Ostracobromus snowyensis* and *Conchobromus kinneyensis* (Hunt et al., 2012e, h). However, there is great potential to construct an ichnotaxonomy of regurgitalites that will further the study of these traces. Ichnotaxobases would include:

- 1. Composition
 - a. Biologic
 - i. Taxonomy of inclusions
 - ii. Physical or chemical modification of inclusions
 - b. Non-biologic
 - i. Volume of matrix
 - ii. Composition of matrix
- 2. Morphology
- a. Geometry
- b. Size

Regurgitalites have diverse utility, including:

1. Providing evidence of the evolution of predation and digestion.

- 2. Analysis of taphonomy and sedimentary environments.
- 3. Proxy for the presence of biotaxa.
- 4. Loci for exceptional preservation (Gordon et al., 2020).
- 5. Biogeographic studies (Darroch et al., 2021).

6. Evaluating digestive processes of producer (Gordon et al., 2020).

7. Evidence of the evolution of durophagy.

Conclusions

Regurgitalites are not only the least studied bromalites, but they can also be the most difficult to identify. Bromalite pellets can represent coprolites or regurgitalites, and two-dimensional examples could be taphonomic artifacts (decayed specimens or physical concentrations). Many identified vertebrate regurgitalites were produced by fish or birds and are preserved in a limited range of environmental settings (e. g., aquatic low energy). Thus, the fossil record of regurgitalites is strongly controlled by both taxonomic and taphonomic factors.

CONSUMULITES

Introduction

Hunt and Lucas (2012a) introduced the term consumulite to refer to material ingested and preserved within the gastrointestinal tract of a fossil vertebrate. We have attempted to compile data on all recorded specimens of consumulites older than Pleistocene. However, most published references to consumulites, particularly in the older literature, are within publications that have a different focus, so we recognize that the compilation is likely incomplete. The volume of literature on Pleistocene consumulites precludes a complete review, so we have only included representative examples. Previously, the "Extant Phylogenetic Bracket" approach was often utilized to reconstruct the digestive tract of extinct vertebrates (e.g., Bryant and Russell, 1992; Witmer, 1995), but consumulites can provide direct evidence of the structure.

History of Study

In 1829, William Buckland introduced the term coprolites for fossil feces (Buckland, 1829; Hunt and Lucas, 2012a). However, it is not generally appreciated that Buckland utilized the term coprolite in three different senses (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a):

1. Evacuated fecal material, as that term is now universally used.

2. Un-evacuated, dispersed and un-pelletized material preserved within the gastro-intestinal tract–Buckland (1830, p. 23) noted that "in many of the entire skeletons of Ichthyosauri.....coprolites are seen within the ribs and near the pelvis." Further, Buckland (1836, p. 149) stated that "the certainty of the origin of these coprolites is established by their frequent presence in the abdominal region of fossil skeletons of Ichthyosauri... One of the most remarkable of these is represented in Pl. 13." Buckland (1836, pl. 13 and 14) illustrated two skeletons of ichthyosaurs with dispersed, digested/partially digested material almost filling the extent of the rib cage in each case.

3. Infilled gastro-intestinal tract–Buckland (1829, p. 142) introduced the term "Ichthyo-coprus" for food material preserved within the body cavity of a fish (later Ichthyocoprus: Buckland, 1835, p. 230). Subsequently, he named a variety of this form of coprolite as "Amia [sic]-coprus" (Buckland, 1830, p. 24) that clearly represents an infilled segment of a gastro-intestinal tract (see Duffin, 2009, fig. 14). Thus, Buckland was

the first to recognize material ingested and preserved within the gastrointestinal tract of a fossil vertebrate, which Hunt and Lucas (2012a) later termed consumulites.

Here we also introduce the term aspirationalite for consumulites that preserve prey in the oral cavity with a significant portion extending exteriorly (Fig. 11). Aspiration is the medical term for breathing in a foreign object/sucking food into the airway. Grande (2013, p. 396) utilized the term "aspiration specimens" for "fossil fishes with other animals preserved in their mouth or stomach." Aspirationalites occur in many large samples of articulated fish (e.g., Eocene Green River Formation, USA: Jepsen, 1967; Grande, 2013, figs. 64 upper, 85 upper) and some tetrapods such as the pterosaur *Rhamphorhynchus* (Frey and Tischlinger, 2012).

During the 19th Century, there was sporadic interest in consumulites of Mesozoic marine reptiles (e.g., Moore, 1856) and of Mesozoic (e.g., von Münster, 1842; Huxley, 1866; Davis, 1887; Stewart, 1899) and of Paleogene fish (Agassiz, 1833-1845a,b). Increased collection and study of mosasaurs later in that century, notably in western North America, resulted in more reports (e.g., Dollo, 1887a,b; Williston, 1898, 1899).

The earliest described nonmarine consumulite was Pleistocene plant debris of *Ephedra* sp. and *Salix* sp. in the oral cavity of a frozen woolly rhinoceros (*Coelodonta antiquitatis*) from Russia (Ukraintseva, 1993). In 1900, the first complete frozen mammoth with a preserved gastrointestinal tract was found (Gerts, 1902). Subsequently, numerous frozen Pleistocene specimens of mammoths, bison and horse have yielded consumulites, principally in Russia, but also in North America (e.g., Ukraintseva, 1981, 1993; Guthrie, 1990; Boeskorov et al., 2014).

There were relatively few reports of consumulites for the first nine decades of the 20th Century, and the majority were just noted in the context of morphological and taxonomic descriptions (e.g., Brown, 1900; Eastman, 1911, Cockerill, 1915; Neumayer, 1929; Weiler, 1934; Broili, 1938; Camp, 1942; Arambourg, 1954; Nybelin, 1958; Eaton, 1964; Pollard, 1968; Sorbini, 1972; Špinar, 1972; Wellnhofer, 1975a,b; Patterson and Rosen, 1977; Richter, 1981; Milner, 1982; Werneburg, 1988). Boucot's (1990) influential compendium on the paleobiology of behavior and coevolution includes numerous references to consumulites and includes important review papers on consumulities in fish by Williams (1990) and Viohl (1990). In the past three decades, there has been increasing mention of consumulites, in general, and publications in which the main focus is these bromalites, in particular (e.g., Massare and Young, 2005; Wahl, 2012). Everhart and others have described a large number of consumulites from the Late Cretaceous of the Western Interior of North America (see Everhart, 2017). Another principal area of focus in the 21st Century has been the consumulites from the Early Cretaceous Jehol Lagerstätte of China, principally in theropods and birds, but also in a mammal, frog and choristodere (Ĥu et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2005; O'Connor, 2019; Xing et al., 2019; O'Connor and Zhou, 2020; Table A.9).



FIGURE 11. Aspirationalite from the early Eocene of Wyoming, USA. *Mioplosus labracoides* swallowing *Knightia eocaena*. The specimen is approximately 50 cm long. Photograph courtesy of Vincent Santucci, National Park Service.

Actualistic Studies

Preservation of consumulites is favored by a longer gut retention time and a lower digestive acidity (Miller and Pittman, 2021). Gut retention times are influenced by overall ecology and short-term behaviours in birds (Miller and Pittman, 2021). In Recent birds, fully terrestrial species tend to have much longer gut retention times than flying taxa, with the most active having the lowest time (Jackson, 1992; Hilton et al., 1999; Caviedes-Vidal et al., 2007; Frei et al., 2014). Gut retention is also related to aspects of diet including fiber content, lipid content, particle size and energy density (Balch and Campling, 1965; Warner, 1981; Hilton et al., 1998, 2000a; McWhorter and Martínez del Rio, 2000; Levey and Del Rio, 2001). Short-term behavioral changes affecting retention include dietary switching (Hilton et al., 2000b), migration (McWilliams et al., 1999), and raising young (Thouzeau et al., 2004). Stomach acidities vary among Recent raptors, with less bone remaining in the pellets of raptors with lower stomach pH (Duke et al., 1975; Duke, 1997; Miller and Pittman, 2021).

Recognition

Demalites are biogenic material putatively preserved within the body cavity of an animal that does not pertain to that animal (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a). They can have five principal sources: (1) apparent preservation as the result of stacked carcasses with parts of one skeleton seeming to be within the body outline of a superposed specimen, as has been proposed for specimens of the Late Triassic theropod dinosaur Coelophysis (Rinehart et al., 2009); (2) gignolites, such as embryos or eggs; (3) postmortem utilization of the carcass (e.g., shed carnivore teeth); (4) material introduced by sedimentological processes; and (5) true consumulites. Thus, consumulites are a subset of demalites referring specifically to fossilized, ingested food material preserved within the body cavity (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a). In much of the vertebrate paleontological literature, consumulites are referred to informally as "stomach contents" or "gut contents."

Consumulites, with the notable exception of evisceralites, cannot be unambiguously recognized unless they occur within an articulated or at least substantially complete skeleton. Voss et al. (2019) adapted identification criteria proposed for the recognition of gastroliths by Wings (2004) to apply to stomach contents, but these criteria are potentially relevant to all consumulites:

1. In association with the skeleton of "an appropriate consumer" – this can be useful, but some consumulites preserve prey that would be unexpected in the consumer (e.g., a fish within the apparently terrestrial theropod dinosaur *Baryonyx*: Charig and Milner, 1986, 1997) or an absence of expected prey (e.g., no insects within the pangolin *Eomanis*, a putative anteater: von Koenigswald et al., 1981; Richter, 1988).

2. In an anatomically correct position – there are definitely exceptions related to rupture or displacement of the gastrointestinal tract (e.g., Eocene *Amia*: Boreske, 1974; Grande, 1980).

3. Discrete clusters of bromalitic material – often the case, but it can be disseminated, e.g., clustered and separated by distance from other such clusters, and, in some cases, the putative consumulite could be an associated concretion (e.g., fish associated with *Elasmosaurus*: Everhart, 2017).

4. Found in a low-energy depositional setting in sediment finer in clast size than in the consumulite.

5. Dentalites present – dentalites are actually rarely reported in consumulites (an exception is the consumulite of *Postosuchus alisonae*: Sues et al., 2003; Peyer et al., 2008), and their absence can provide evidence of prey swallowed whole (e.g., conchostracan valves in the salamander *Jeholotriton*: Dong et al., 2012).

6. A further criterion is evidence of mechanical or chemical processing, which is relatively uncommon (e.g., etched headshield of *Cephalapis* in *Ptomacanthus*: Denison, 1956; Allen and Tarlo, 1963; Miles, 1973).

Terminology

Consumulites are the bromalites with the most complicated terminological history (Table 1, Appendix B; Hunt and Lucas, 2012a). Hunt and Lucas (2012a) reviewed the long history of terms applied to bromalites preserved within the body cavity and introduced the term consumulite to encompass all such trace fossils. They also redefined existing terms and introduced new ones to provide a refined terminology for all consumulites, including oralite (wholly or partially within the oral cavity), esophogalite (in the gastrointestinal tract anterior to the stomach), gastrolite (in the stomach), cololite (in the gastrointestinal tract posterior to the stomach), intestinelite (cololite in intestines), enterospira (cololite in a spiral valve) and incorporeal pelletite (pelletite preserved within the body cavity) (Hunt and Lucas 2012a) (Fig. 3; Table 1). An evisceralite is a cololite that is a preserved segment of infilled fossilized intestines preserved independent of, or exterior to, a carcass.

Fossil Record

Introduction

Vertebrate consumulites have an extensive fossil record, which is compiled here for the first time (Fig. 12; Tables A.6-11). They occur in diverse environments, starting in the Devonian. Consumulites are principally associated with, or at least recognized in the context of, articulated skeletons (Hunt and Lucas, 2020b). The majority of articulated skeletons are from aquatic environments, as thus are many consumulites. Articulated skeletons thus are common in Lagerstätten that preserve vertebrate fossils (Hunt and Lucas, 2020b). Thus, the record of consumulites is biased towards Lagerstätten such as the Cleveland Shale (Devonian), Holzmaden (Jurassic), Solnhofen (Jurassic), Jehol (Cretaceous), Messel (Eocene), and Green River (Eocene). Beyond Lagerstätten, consumulites are most common in fine-grained deposits of low energy environments (Hunt and Lucas, 2020b). The vast majority of consumulites represent carnivorous animals because plant material is usually finely macerated during digestion, and it is much easier to recognize a bone as a foreign object than carbonaceous debris (Hunt and Lucas, 2020b).

Large body size favors the recognition of consumulites. The combination of large body size and an aquatic lifestyle results in an extensive record of consumulites in large Mesozoic marine vertebrates, notably ichthyosaurs, plesiosaurs and mosasaurs.

We will review the fossil record of consumulites, as with dentalites, by era and environment. Evisceralites are considered separately because of their limited fossil record. Significant sources of data on consumulites include Massare (1987), Boucot (1990), Viohl (1990), Cicimurri and Everhart (2001), Konuki (2008), Boucot and Poinar (2010), Naish (2014), Everhart (2017) and O'Connor (2019).

Evisceralites

Agassiz (1833-1845a, b, p. 676) introduced the term cololite to refer to the fossilized "more or less stuffed intestines of fish." He used the term in relation to both infilled intestines preserved within a body cavity and also those preserved in isolation and not directly associated with a body cavity; the latter are now termed evisceralites (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a). A cited example of the latter was *Lumbricaria*, an enigmatic ichnotaxon common in the Upper Jurassic Solnhofen Limestone of Germany and now recognized as ammonite coprolites (e.g., von Münster, 1831; Muller, 1969; Janicke, 1970; Barthel et al., 1990; Knaust and Hoffman, 2021). *Lumbricaria* is not found associated with fish

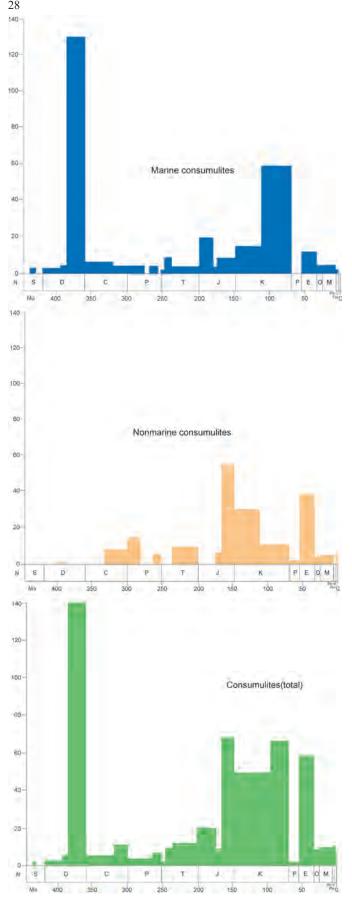


FIGURE 12. Temporal distribution of reports of consumulites. Sources are in the text; also see Tables A.6-11.

skeletons, but "M. Agassiz has ingeniously explained this fact by observing the process of decomposition of dead fishes in the lakes of Switzerland. The dead fish floats on the surface with its belly upwards, until the abdomen is so distended with putrid gas, that it bursts: through the aperture thus formed the bowels come forth into the water, still adhering together in their natural state of convolution" (Buckland, 1835, p. 156). The best evidence for this type of preservation may derive from the Middle Jurassic (late Callovian) fish fauna of the Luciano Mesa Member of the Todilto Formation in eastern New Mexico, USA (Koerner, 1930; Schaeffer and Patterson, 1984; Lucas et al., 1985). Multiple specimens of the holostean fish *Todiltia schoewei* preserve consumulites, and the surrounding matrix also preserves isolated sections of intestinal tract (Schaeffer and Patterson, 1984; Lucas et al., 1985; Hunt and Lucas, 2014b; Fig.13). We term this type of evisceralite, in which a portion of the gastrointestinal tract is physically removed from a carcass, as dislocational.

Buckland (1835, 1836) recognized that spiral coprolites were derived from fish with valvular intestines. Fritsch (1895) and Neumayer (1904) considered that some of the spiral bromalites actually represented fossilized valvular intestines rather than coprolites. Subsequently, Hoernes (1904) and Fritsch (1907) introduced terms for bromalites that represent infilled spiral-valved intestines, enterolite and enterospira, respectively. Hunt and Lucas (2012a) accepted the term enterospira over enterolite because of widespread usage. The idea that spiral bromalites represent infilled intestines has been re-examined several times (e.g., Williams, 1972; McAllister, 1985; Ward et al., 2020). A 300 to 500 μ m separation between whorls could represent a thin mucusoal membrane and be used as a criterion to distinguish intestinal infillings (Ward et al., 2020).

There are few other recorded examples of dislocational evisceralites. Clark (1989) described the earliest such evisceralite from the Late Mississippian (Serpukhovian) of Bearsden, Scotland.

A second type of evisceralite results from preferential fossilization of the gastrointestinal tract, and we term this preservational. Some geologists of the U.S. Geological Survey and others first described unusual sideritic specimens from the Paleocene of North Dakota and the Miocene of Washington (Amstutz, 1958; Roberts, 1958; Brown, 1962). Subsequently, similar specimens were described from the Permian of China and the Late Cretaceous of Canada and Madagascar (Broughton et al., 1977; Broughton, 1981; Seilacher et al., 2001; Hunt and Lucas, 2016b). They were variously interpreted as coprolites, pseudofossils, or casts of internal organs (Amstutz, 1958; Broughton et al., 1977, 1978; Broughton, 1981; Schmitz and Benda, 1991; Spencer, 1993; Mustoe, 2000; Seilacher et al., 2001). Seilacher (Seilacher et al., 2001; Seilacher, 2002) convincingly argued that they are both ichnofossils and cololites. Thus, they are interpreted as evisceralites prefossilized by bacterial activity and later transformed into siderite. All occurrences are in fluvial overbank deposits with no other vertebrate remains. The absence of skeletal fossils may be due to aquifer roll-fronts that destroyed phosphatic bones and teeth but favored siderite precipitation (Seilacher et al., 2001). Hunt et al. (2012b) designated one of the preservational evisceralites from North Dakota as the holotype of Hiabromus seilacheri. Broughton (2017) proposed an *ad hoc* hypothesis that multidecimeter-long specimens may be evisceralites of an unknown taxon of giant terrestrial earthworm (Oligochaeta) that existed from the Late Cretaceous to the Neogene. We consider this unlikely.

Paleozoic

Marine

The earliest vertebrates were jawless, so they are considered to have been primarily filter feeders. Thus, it is not surprising that

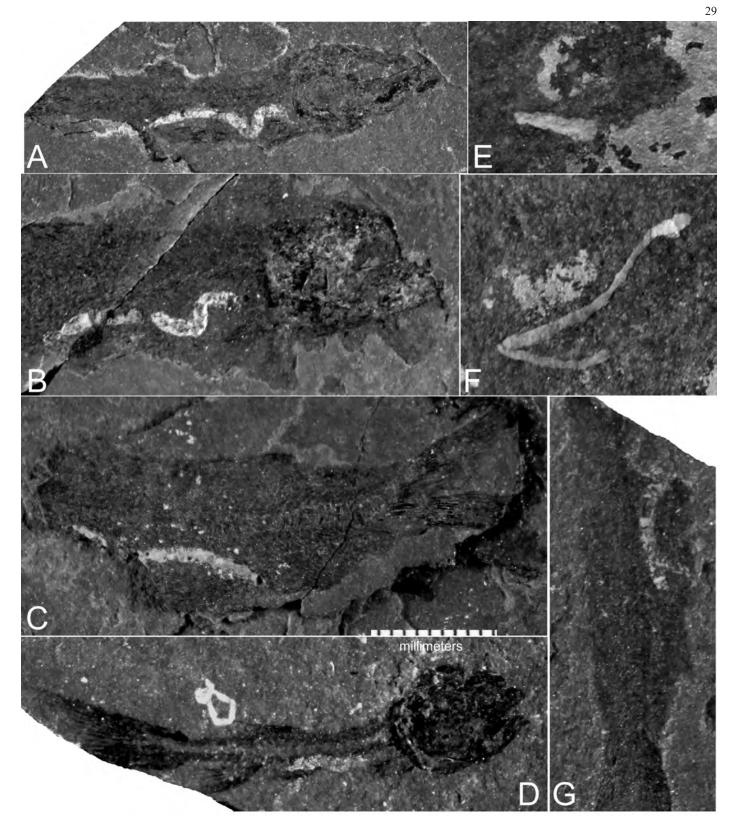


FIGURE 13. Middle Jurassic consumulites and evisceralites in "holostean" fishes from the Luciano Mesa Member of the Todilto Formation at NMMNH locality L-1476, Bull Canyon (A-D, G), and NMMNH locality L-3520, Warm Springs (E-F) in New Mexico, USA. **A**, NMMNH P-32715, *Todiltia schoewei* in lateral view with consumulite. **B**, NMMNH P-32713, *Todiltia schoewei* in lateral view with consumulite. **D**, NMMNH P-32714, *Todiltia schoewei* in lateral view with adjacent evisceralite. **E**, NMMNH P-28700, evisceralite in lateral view. **F**, NMMNH P-32712, *Todiltia schoewei* in lateral view with consumulite. All to same scale (Hunt and Lucas, 2014b, fig. 12).

the earliest consumulite known consists of a gastrolite infilled by sediment within the furcacaudiform thelodont *Pezopallichthys ritchie* from the Middle Silurian of Canada (Wilson and Caldwell, 1993, 1998). This strongly suggest that stomachs evolved before jaws in early vertebrates (Wilson and Caldwell, 1993). Other furcacaudiforms from the Early Devonian of Canda have similar arenaceous consumulites (Wilson and Caldwell, 1993, 1998), as do the endeiolepidiform *Endeiolepis aneri* and the euphanerid *Euphanerops longaevus*, both from the Late Devonian of Canada (Stensiö, 1939; Arsenault and Janvier, 1991; Janvier, 1996a, b; Janvier and Arsenault, 2007).

The oldest known consumulites that contain recognizable prey are from the Early Devonian of England and include a Cephalaspis head shield within the shark Ptomacanthus and a small ostracoderm within an acanthodian (Denison, 1956; Allen and Tarlo, 1963; Miles, 1973; Table A.6). Middle Devonian examples from Scotland occur in several specimens of Coccosteus and Glyptolepis as well as in acanthodians, actinopterygians and placoderms (Heintz, 1938; Miles and Westoll, 1968; Ahlberg, 1992; Davidson and Trewin, 2005). One Glyptolepis contains a small Glyptolepis (Ahlberg, 1992). This is both the earliest record of cannibalism and the first to demonstrate a fish swallowing another head first. This orientation of prey acquisition is prevalent in gape-limited predatory fish throughout the Phanerozoic. Swallowing prey head-first significantly reduces: (1) esophageal abrasion; (2) escape rate of the prey; and (3) the prey manipulation period (Reimchen, 1999). These advantages diminish with small prey. Head-first prey acquisition also occurs in most, but not all (e.g. Braz and Marques, 2016) snakes and squamates. A significant literature demonstrates analagous causation: (1) reduce the resistance offered by the appendages and body covering of the prey; (2) reduce the prey-handling time, which decreases the period of vulnerability to other predators; and (3) advantageous to ophiophagous snakes because it decreases the resistance from posteriorly projecting overlapping ventral scales (Diefenbach and Emslie, 1971; Loop and Bailey, 1972; Loop, 1974; Greene, 1976; Queiroz and de Queiroz 1987; Wiseman et al., 2019). As with fish the probability of head first ingestion increases with increasing prey size (Queiroz and de Queiroz, 1987).

The geographic distribution and volume of consumulite specimens increases substantially in the Late Devonian (Fig. 12; Table A.6). More than 50 fish from the Cleveland Shale in Ohio, USA, preserve consumulites (Williams, 1990). These include more than 40 sharks representing four species of *Cladoselache*, Ctenacanthus compressus and unidentified taxa. The majority of consumulites consist of paleoniscoid debris, but they also include a couple of complete fish (Kentuckia blavini), several contain arthropods and four yield conodonts. Three specimens contain the crustacean Concavicaris cf. C. bradleyi, which were swallowed tail first (Williams, 1990). Whereas most fish are swallowed head first, most invertebrates with appendages in the Devonian and later are swallowed tail first, presumably to avoid damage to the predator during ingestion. Other Late Devonian consumulites are from Russia (Zakharenko, 2008), Latvia (Upeniece, 2001, 2011), Canada (Arsenault, 1982; Janvier, 1996b; Chevrinais et al., 2017) and Australia (Dennis and Miles, 1981; Long, 1991, 1995; Choo et al., 2009).

Notably fewer records of consumulites come from the later Paleozoic (Fig. 12). There are reports of specimens from the early Carboniferous of England and Scotland (Traquair, 1879; Watson, 1937; Viohl, 1990; Coates and Sequeira, 2001). The selachian *Akmonistan zangerli* from Scotland preserves the oldest incorporeal pelletite (*Chondripilula zideki*), and a second occurs in another shark (*Cobelodus aculeatus*) from the Late Pennsylvanian of the United States (Coates and Sequeira, 2001; Hunt, 1992; Hunt et al., 2012h; Hunt and Lucas, 2021a). *Typhloesus wellsi* from the Bear Gulch Lagerstätte in the

Lower Mississippian of Montana, USA, is a rare example of an invertebrate that preserves consumulites of vertebrates (fish) as well as conodont apparatuses and worm teeth (Conway Morris, 1976, 1990).

Most Permian consumulites derive from Germany (Table A.6). Three specimens are known from the late Permian Kupferschiefer (Weigelt, 1928a, b, 1930a, b; Malzahn, 1968; Schaumberg, 1979), and the remainder are from earlier in the period (Heidtke, 2007; Kriwet et al., 2008). Lohmann and Sachs (2001) reported on consumulites through four ontogenetic stages of the temnospondyl amphibian *Sclerocephalus haeuseri*. The only reptilian consumulites from the marine Paleozoic pertain to the mesosaur *Brazilosaurus sanpauloensis* from the lower Permian of Brazil and include crustacean fragments and bones of very young mesosaurids (Silva et al., 2017).

Nonmarine

The pattern of nonmarine Paleozoic consumulites is a mirror image of that of the marine, but with increasing numbers through time (Fig. 12; Table A.7). There are no Devonian examples. Carboniferous specimens are currently only known from two Lagerstätten in the United States, Mazon Creek in Illinois (Richardson and Johnson, 1971; Richardson, 1980; Milner, 1982; Viohl, 1990; Godfrey, 1997) and the Kinney Brick Quarry in New Mexico (Hunt, 1992; Hunt et al., 2012h; Werneburg et al., 2013, 2021). One host is a shark, but all the remaining pertain to small amphibians (body lengths less than 50 mm). The "branchiosaur" Milnerpeton huberi from New Mexico and an unidentified amphibian from Illinois each have ostracods as consumulites. The dvinosaurian Bermanerpeton kinneyi from Kinney preserves syncarid arthropods (Uronectes cf. U. kinniensis, Aenigmacaris cf. A. minima), spines of Acanthodes cf. A. kinnevi, actinopterygian scales and ribs and neural arches of amphibians in consumulites. Hunt and Lucas (2021a) named the ostracod-bearing consumulite Werneburgichnus kinneyensis, and that containing more diverse content is named W. varius. Chondripilula zideki is a pelletal body preserved within the posterior intestines of sharks (Hunt and Lucas, 2021a). No identifiable food items occur in the specimens from Mazon Creek (Godfrey, 1997).

Small "branchiosaur" amphibians from the lower Permian of Germany preserve a variety of consumulites that range from conchostracans to other amphibians (e.g., Werneburg, 1986, 1988, 1989, 2020; Witzmann, 2009). These strata also yielded the first consumulite within a consumulite, which is the shark *Triodus sessilis*, which ingested two amphibians, *Archegaurus decheni* and *Cheliderpeton latirostre*; the latter had swallowed a specimen of *Acanthodes bronni*. Two early Permian reptile skeletons from the United States contain oralites. A specimen of the captorhinimorph *Romeria* sp. from Texas contains a smaller skull and partial skeleton of probably the same species (Case, 1911; Eaton, 1964). Two skulls of the parareptile *Delorhynchus priscus* from Oklahoma preserve fragments of arthropod cuticle between the palatal teeth (Modesto et al., 2009; Reisz et al., 2014).

Late Permian reptile skeletons with consumulites occur in Tanzania and Germany (Table A.7). A specimen of the gorgonopsid "Aelurognathus" parringtoni from Tanzania includes a mandibular symphysis of the dicynodont Katumbia parringtoni as a gastrolite (Maisch, 2009). Both Weigelt (1928a) and Munk and Sues (1993) described ovules of the conifer Ullmannia frumentaria associated with different specimens of the early archosauromorph reptile Protorosaurus speneri from Germany. The first report had been regarded with skepticism (e.g., Haubold and Schaumberg, 1985) because the plant material was scattered within a disarticulated skeleton, but the latter demonstrated the presence of plant material within an articulated ribcage. Munk and Sues (1993) also described coarse clastics with interspersed carbonized material (that they interpreted as macerated plant matter) in a consumulite of the pareisaurian parareptile *Parasaurus geinitzi*.

Mesozoic

Marine

The Mesozoic marine record of consumulites is extensive and dominated by sharks, bony fish and the three main clades of marine reptiles (ichthyosaurs, plesiosaurs and mosasaurs). The frequency of occurrences increases through the Mesozoic and reaches its maximum during the Late Cretaceous (Fig. 12; Table A.8).

An Early Triassic specimen of the ray-finned fish Birgeria from Madagascar yields conspecifics as a demalite. This was originally interpreted as an example of ovoviparity by Beltan (1977), but these specimens more likely represent a consumulite (Viohl, 1990). Middle Triassic fish consumulites occur in specimens of Saurichthys in China and in the Monte San Giorgio Lagerstätte in Switzerland (Wu et al., 2015; Argyriou et al., 2016). Monte San Giorgio also yields consumulites in a nothosaur and a pachypleurosaur (Tschanz, 1989; Diedrich, 2015). Ichthyosaur consumulites occur not only at this Swiss locality (Rieber, 1970; Brinkmann, 2004) but also in the Early Triassic of Norway (Buchy et al., 2004) and the Late Triassic of China (Cheng et al., 2006) and the United States (Camp, 1930; Druckenmiller et al., 2014). The gastrointestinal tracts of Early and Middle Triassic ichthyosaurs yield only cephalopod hooklets, but the Late Triassic examples include both vertebrate remains and mollusk shell fragments (Rieber, 1970; Camp, 1980; Brinkmann, 2004; Buchy et al., 2004; Cheng et al., 2006; Druckenmiller et al., 2014).

The Early Jurassic Holzmaden Lagerstätte of Germany has produced many specimens of consumulites (Table A.8). These records include about 250 belemnite guards in a specimen of the shark Hybodus (Brown, 1900; Pollard, 1990; Doyle and McDonald, 1993) and coleoid remains in the bony fishes Saurostomus and Pachycormus (Urlichs et al., 1994; Přikryl et al., 2012). Mateer (1974) documented an indeterminate organic area above the sacral area in a specimen of the marine crocodylomorph Steneosaurus bollensis. However, the majority of consumulites from the Jurassic Posidonienschiefer pertain to ichthyosaurs. These include more than 35 specimens found in skeletons of Stenopterygius spp. and Leptopterygius spp. (von Wurstemberger, 1876; Keller, 1976; Massare, 1987; Böttcher, 1989; Bürgin, 2000). These consumulites principally contain cephalopod hooklets, but also include an actinopterygian fish, juvenile Stenopterygius and rare wood fragments (e.g., Keller, 1976; Massare, 1987; Böttcher, 1989; Bürgin, 2000). Dick et al. (2016) studied a large sample of consumulites in Stenopterygius auadriscissus and demonstrated that ontogenetic shifts in the size and shape of the dentition coincide with dietary changes. The smallest specimens fed on small, burst-swimming fishes, with a progressive shift with increasing body size towards consuming faster moving fish and, ultimately, cephalopods.

Ichthyosaur consumulites also occur in the Lower Jurassic of England in several species of *Ichthyosaurus* (Buckland, 1858; Pollard, 1968; Lomax et al., 2019; Fig. 14). The majority of specimens yield only cephalopod hooklets, but Buckland (1858) reported some *Pholidophorus* fish scales and spines. Middle Jurassic consumulites also derive from England from the Oxford Clay. They include cephalopods in the plesiosaurs *Simolestes vorax* and *Peloneustes* sp. (Andrews, 1910; Martill, 1992; Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001) and the crocodyliform *Metriorhynchus* sp. (Martill, 1985a).

Late Jurassic consumulites are more geographically widespread but are not numerous (Fig. 12). They include amorphous gut contents in the fish *Allothrissops* in Europe (Patterson and Rosen, 1977) and cephalopod remains in the ichthyosaurs *Pantosaurus striatus* and *Ophthalmosaurus natans* from the United States (Massare and Young, 2005; Wahl, 2012). One American plesiosaur (cf. *Pantosaurus striatus*) has ichthyosaur embryos in its digestive tract (O'Keefe et al., 2009), and another (cf. *Tatenectes laramiensis*) contains hybodont shark teeth, spines and denticles in addition to coleoid cephalopod hooklets (Wahl, 1998; Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001). Late Jurassic plesiosaur skeletons in Russia and England also contain consumulites with hooklets as well as fish (Zhuravlev, 1943a, b; Gekker and Gekker, 1955; Tarlo, 1959). Two skeletons of Metriorhynchidae from Germany preserve consumulites (Spindler et al., 2021). Taylor et al. (1993) described a specimen of *Pliosaurus brachyspondylus* that contains ornithischian dinosaur osteoderms, the oldest example of clearly terrestrial vertebrate remains in a marine consumulite.

Consumulites are geographically widespread in the Lower Cretaceous, but the majority of the specimens come from two countries, Brazil and Australia (Table A.8). The Aptian Santana Formation of Brazil yields at least 10 examples of fish consumulites that contain identifiable fish that were ingested head first (Patterson and Rosen, 1977; Case, 1982; Viohl, 1990; Wilby and Martill, 1992; Maisey, 1994, 1996; Mulder, 2013). The Early Cretaceous of Australia has produced consumulites in the turtle cf. *Notochelone* sp. (inoceramids), the ichthyosaur *Platypterygius longmani* (turtle, bird, fish), two specimens of the pliosaur *Kronosaurus* (fish, turtle, elasmosaur) and two elasmosaurs (principally invertebrates) (Kear et al., 2003; McHenry et al., 2005; Kear, 2006; McHenry, 2009). The plesiosaur *Nichollsia borealis* from Canada contains fish in a consumulite (Druckenmiller and Russell, 2009).

The very extensive record of Late Cretaceous consumulites is heavily biased toward the well excavated and researched vertebrate fauna of the Western Interior seaway of North America, notably in the United States, and particularly the state of Kansas (Table A.8). There are six occurrences of shark consumulites from the United States, and one each from Italy and Lebanon, which preserve a wide range of prey including fish, turtle, plesiosaur and mosasaur (Sternberg, 1917; Martin and Rothschild, 1989; Viohl, 1990; Druckenmiller et al., 1993; Shimada, 1997; Everhart, 2003; Amalfitano et al., 2017).

Arguably the most famous consumulite is the *Gillicus* arcuatus swallowed by Xiphactinus audax (Fig. 15), the "fish within a fish" from Kansas that is on display at the Sternberg Museum of Natural History (e.g., Walker, 2006; Everhart, 2017, fig. 5.1). The Kansas chalk yields at least half a dozen more specimens of Xiphactinus with consumulites as well as several other bony fishes that exhibit similar examples (Table A.8; see discussions and/or listings in Bardack, 1965; Konuki, 2008; Everhart, 2017). There is also a significant record of osteicthyans with consumulites from Lebanon (Davis, 1887; Woodward, 1901; Viohl, 1990; Konuki, 2008; Amalfitano et al., 2017). Other examples are known from Brazil (Viohl, 1990), Morocco (Arambourg, 1954; Cavin, 1999), France (Poplin, 1986) and Germany (Diedrich, 2012b).

A large number of mosasaur skeletons preserve consumulites (Table A.8). Most examples are from the United States (e.g., Konuki, 2008; Everhart, 2017), but specimens also occur in Canada (Konishi et al., 2011, 2014), Belgium (Dollo, 1887a, b, 1913) and Angola (Strganac et al., 2015). Mosasaur consumulites contain a large range of vertebrate prey items, including turtles (Dollo, 1887a,b; Konishi et al., 2011), sharks (Martin and Bjork, 1987), bony fishes (Williston, 1899, 1914; Camp, 1942; Martin and Bjork, 1987; Konishi et al., 2014; Everhart, 2017), plesiosaurs (Everhart, 2004c), mosasaurs (Martin and Bjork, 1987; Bell and Barnes, 2007; Strganac et al., 2015) and birds (Martin and Bjork, 1987). The invertebrate content of mosasaur consumulites includes belemnites (Dollo, 1913), echinoids (Dollo, 1913) and bivalves (Martin and Fox,



FIGURE 14. Consumulites in ichthyosaur skeletons from the Lower Lias (Hettangian-Lower Pliensbachian) of Lyme Regis, UK. A, Consumulite in lateral view (OUM J10320). B, Consumulite in lateral view (OUM J13593), also see Buckland, 1836, pl. 14).

2004).

Late Cretaceous plesiosaur consumulites occur in the United States (Cope, 1868, 1872; Brown, 1904; Martin and Kennedy, 1988; Storrs, 1999; Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001), Canada (Nicholls, 1988) and Japan (Matsumoto et al., 1982; Sato and Tanabe, 1998; Sato and Storrs, 2000). Most of these consumulites contain cephalopods (Brown, 1904; Sato and Tanabe, 1998; Sato and Storrs, 2000; Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001), fishes (Cope, 1868; Brown, 1904; Martin and Kennedy, 1988; Nicholls, 1988; Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001), mosasaurs (Cope, 1872; Storrs, 1999) and pterosaurs (Brown, 1904).

There is a single example of a Cretaceous pterosaur consumulite. This bromalite occurs in the throat of *Pteranodon* sp. and includes partially digested fish material, so it may be a regurgitalitic mass in the process of being egested (Brown, 1943; Bennett, 2001).

Nonmarine

There are many instances of Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites, but a large percentage are associated with two Lagerstätten, the Late Jurassic Solnhofen Limestone of Germany, which is dominated by fish, and the Early Cretaceous Jehol biota of China in which most bromalites occur in tetrapods (Fig. 12; Table A.9). Hunt et al. (2018) reviewed the consumulite record from the Late Triassic.

There are no reported Early or Middle Triassic consumulites. There are eight Late Triassic examples in terrestrial reptiles and one in a pterosaur. Three phytosaurs from the United States



FIGURE 15. *Xiphactinus audax* (FHSM VP-333) from the Upper Cretaceous Smoky Hill Chalk of Kansas, USA, with a consumulite of *Gillicus arcuatus* (Everhart, 2017, fig. 5.1). Length of *Xiphactinus* is approximately 4 m long and *Gillicus* is 1.8 m long. Photograph courtesy of Michael Everhart.

and India preserve consumulites that indicate consumption of a range of tetrapods, including the metoposaurid *Apachesarus* and reptiles, including *Vancleavea, Trilophosaurus* (*=Malerisaurus*: Spielmann et al., 2006), a phytosaur and a rhynchosaur (Chatterjee, 1978, 1980; Hunt, 1991, 1994, 2001; Hunt and Lucas, 2014b). The paracrocodylomorph *Postosuchus alisonae* from the eastern United States contains a gastrolite with a diverse assortment of prey, including a partial skeleton of a small aetosaur (cf. *Aetosaurus*), a snout, left coracoid, and left humerus of the traversodont cynodont *Plinthogomophodon herpetairus*, two articulated phalanges of a large dicynodont, and a fragment of an unidentified ?temnospondyl bone. Some of the bones have dentalites, and others display periosteal erosion likely caused by digestion (Sues et al., 2003; Peyer et al., 2008).

Specimens of the Late Triassic theropod *Coelophysis bauri* from the western United States contain oralites, incorporeal dentalites and a gastrolite with a specimen of *Hesperosuchus* (Nesbitt et al., 2006; Rinehart et al., 2009; Hunt and Lucas, 2014b). The Italian theropod *Notatesseraeraptor frickensis* has a consumulite that includes a maxilla of the rhynchocephalian *Clevosaurus* (Unterrassner, 2009).

There are no reported Early Jurassic consumulites, but Middle Jurassic specimens include fish, amphibians and a dinosaur (Fig. 12; Table A.9). Many specimens of the bony fish *Todiltia schoewei* and a few of *Hulettia americana* from a Middle Jurassic Todilto Formation in New Mexico contain gastrolites and intestinilites (Lucas et al., 1985b; Hunt and Lucas, 2014b; Fig. 13). Post-Paleozoic amphibian consumulites are rare, but there are three examples from the Middle Jurassic of China, including *Jeholotriton paradoxus* and *Chunperpeton tianyiensis*, which contain conchostracans, and a specimen of *C. tianyiensis* that yields insects (Gao and Shubin, 2003; Dong et al., 2012). The theropod *Poekilopleuron bucklandii* from France contains a tooth of the hybodont shark *Polyacrodus* sp. and bone fragments that resemble skeletal elements of cartilaginous fishes (Eudes-Deslongchamps, 1838).

There are more than 120 consumulites from the Upper Jurassic of the Solnhofen area in Germany (including the Ettling Lagerstätte of Ebert et al., 2015), which principally relate to fish and pterosaur skeletons. More than 110 fish skeletons representing more than 20 taxa yield consumulites that contain fishes (Table A.9: e.g., Viohl, 1990; Ebert et al., 2015). The coelacanth *Undina penicillata* is the only taxon from Solnhofen to have undoubtedly ingested a conspecific, and this was initially interpreted as evidence of ovoviparity but more recently of predation (Watson, 1927; Schultze, 1972). Five specimens of the pterosaurs *Rhamphorhynchus* and two of *Pterodactylus* contain consumulites composed of fish material (Broili, 1938; Wellnhofer, 1970, 1975a, b; Kellner, 2006; Frey and Tischlinger, 2012; Witton, 2013, 2018; Hone et al., 2013, 2015). The holotype

of the theropod *Compsognathus longipes* contains a skeleton of the lepidosaur *Bavarisaurus* cf. *B. macrodactylus* (Ostrom, 1978). Outside of Solnhofen, there are four Late Jurassic fishes and a turtle that also contain consumulites (Eastman, 1911; De Saint Seine, 1949; Joyce et al., 2021).

The majority of consumulites from the Lower Cretaceous derive from the Jehol Lagerstätte in northeastern China and include specimens from a frog, a choristodere, nine theropods, 13 birds, a pterosaur and a mammal (Table A.9). The frog Genibatrachus baoshanensis contains as a consumulite a skeleton of a salamander, cf. Nuominerpeton (Xing et al., 2019). Seven juvenile skulls of the choristodere Monjurosuchus splendens were found within the skeleton of an adult, indicating cannibalism in this taxon (Wang et al., 2005). The diversity of small, derived theropods and birds and their consumulites from Jehol provides important information about the development of the crop, proventriculus and ventriculus (O'Connor et al., 2019) discussed below. We introduce the term cropalite for preserved contents of the crop, and the term proventrilite for contents of the proventriculus. Mayr et al. (2021) demonstrated that several putative ovarian follicles in some Jehol birds actually represent propagules assignable to Carpolithes *multiseminalis*: (1) carbonaceous or originally carbonaceous; (2) putative follicles have similar dimensions in differently sized birds; (3) simultaneous maturing of multiple follicles unlikely; (4) no evidence of medullary bones; and (5) unlikely in specimens with little or no soft tissue preservation. We follow O'Connor (2019) and O'Connor and Zhou (2019) in the recognition of other paravian consumulites from Jehol (Table A.9). The gastrolite of the mammal Repenomamus robustus is significant in that it provides direct evidence of predation on dinosaurs, as it contains remains of a juvenile of the ceratopsian Psittacosaurus (Hu et al., 2005). Surprisingly, Ji et al. (2016) reported fish remains in the presumably herbivorous ankylosaur Liaoningosaurus paradoxus.

A salamander and a bird from the Early Cretaceous of Spain yield consumulites (Sanz et al., 1996; Evans, 2016; O'Connor, 2019). Two theropods contain consumulites, the large English theropod *Baryonyx walkeri* contains fish and *Iguanodon* bones, and the Italian *Scipionyx samniticus* yields fish and lepidosaurian bones (Charig and Milner, 1986, 1997; Dal Sasso and Signore, 1998; Dal Sasso and Maganuco, 2011). The ornithischian ankylosaur *Mimni* sp. from Australia contains a consumulite with plant debris and seeds (Molnar and Clifford, 2000, 2001). *Ludodactylus sibbicki* is a pterosaur from Brazil with the unusual oralite of a leaf between mandibular rami (Frey et al., 2003; Witton, 2018).

There are less than a dozen reports of consumulites from the Late Cretaceous, and they all represent tetrapods (Fig. 12; Table A.9). The two examples that do not pertain to dinosaurs or birds are both from Brazil. These are an unidentified frog and the baurusuchid crocodyliform Aplestosuchus sordidus (Leal and Martill, 2007; Godoy et al., 2014). Theropods are represented by three specimens from Mongolia and the United States. The American example is acid-etched vertebrae and a fragmentary dentary from a juvenile hadrosaur found in association with Daspletosaurus sp. (Varricchio, 2001). The Mongolian (Hone et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014), or putative Mongolian (Sereno et al., 2009; Fowler et al., 2011), specimens are Deinocheirus mirificus (fish), the enigmatic ?Raptorex kreigsteini (Lycoptera Ellimmichthyiformes) and Velociraptor mongoliensis or (azhdarchid pterosaur). At least four hadrosaurs from Canada and the United States contain plant debris that has been interpreted as consumulites (Kräusel, 1922; Ostrom, 1964; Taggert and Cross, 1997; Currie et al., 1995; Tweet et al., 2008, 2016). The sole Late Cretaceous bird consumulite of Enantiophoenix electrophyla is from Lebanon and is interesting because blebs of amber were interpreted to be evidence of feeding on sap (Dalla Vecchia and Chiappe, 2002; Cau and Arduini, 2008).

Cenozoic

Marine

There are relatively few consumulite reports from the Paleogene-Quaternary. The majority pertain to fish, with four examples from whales and one from a bird (Fig. 12; Table A.10).

The early Eocene Pesciara di Bolca Konservat-Lagerstätte in Italy has yielded nine examples of consumulites from fishtwo from sharks and the remainder from bony fish (Table A.10; Agassiz, 1833-1845a, b; Sorbini, 1972; Fanti et al., 2016; Friedman and Carnevale, 2018). The presence of remains of the barracuda Sphyraena bolcensis within the shark Galeorhinus *cuvieri* is interesting because there is a predator: prey relationship between these genera in modern reef systems (Fanti et al., 2016). Other consumulite examples occur in a Miocene shark and a whale from Peru (Lambert et al., 2015; Collareta et al., 2017c) and bony fish in the Oligocene of Germany (Weiler, 1934) and Romania (Paucă, M., 1933), the Miocene of Algeria (Carnevale and Pietsch, 2006), Peru (Collareta et al., 2017c) and the United States (Crane, 1996) and the Pliocene of Italy (Sorbibi in Boucot, 1990; Viohl, 1990).

Three late Eocene whales from Egypt contain consumulites. Basilosaurus isis yields bones of a juvenile whale (Durodon atrox) and large fishes (Pycnodus mokattamensis), B. cetoides contains fishes and sharks, and D. atrox contains fishes (Swift and Barnes, 1996; Uhen, 2004; Voss et al., 2019). Martínez-Cáceres et al. (2017) describe another example from Peru. An undescribed late Miocene whale contains bones of the sardine Sardinops, which provides the first evidence of piscivory in an edentulous mysticete (Collareta et al., 2015). Lambert et al. (2015) described specimens of the clupeiform Sardinops sp. cf. S. sagax in the odontocete Messapicetus gregarius from the same strata in Peru. An early Oligocene loon (?Colymboides metzleri) from Germany has a gastrolite consisting of fragments of small fish (Mayr, 2004).

Nonmarine

The consumulite record from nonmarine Cenozoic rocks is skewed by large samples from several Lagerstätten, notably the Eocene Green River Formation of the United States and the Middle Eocene Messel Lagerstätte of Germany (Fig. 12; Table A.11). The Paleocene Menat Lagerstätte in France vields the oldest Cenozoic consumulites, with a fish within a crocodylomorph and a gastrolite within an insectivore (Guth, 1962; Wedmann et al., 2018).

The lacustrine Green River Formation includes a number of fish consumulites (Jepsen, 1967; Boreske, 1974; Ulrich, 1978 - cited by Boucot, 1990; Grande, 1980). A notable specimen is an example of a consumulite within a consumulite - Amia uintaensis consumed Diplomystus, which, in turn, had consumed

Knightia (Boreske, 1974; Grande, 1980). The Middle Eocene of Messel has yielded many consumulites, notably from multiple mammals (Franzen, 1976, 1977, 1984, 1985; Richter and Storch, 1980; von Koenigswald et al., 1981, 1992; Maier et al., 1986; Richter, 1988; Collinson, 1990; Storch, 2001) and birds (Mayr and Peters, 1998; Mayr and Mourer-Cauvré, 2000; Mayr, 2002, 2009, 2013; Mayr et al., 2004, 2006; Morlo, 2004; Mayr and Richter, 2011; Table A.11). These consumulites pertain to both carnivores and herbivores. Multiple specimens of Rhenanoperca minuta and Thaumaturus intermedius yield insects, crustaceans and fish (Richter and Baszio, 2001a, 2006). Two lizards and two snakes contain gastrolites (Greene, 1983; Schall, 2004; Weber, 2004; Smith and Scanferia, 2016; Scanferia and Smith, 2020). One specimen of Eoconstrictor fisheri has the lizard Geiseltaliellus maarius in its stomach that in turn contains an insect in its digestive tract (Smith and Scanferia, 2016). This is only the second example of a consumulite within a consumulite. Five specimens of the putative pangolin Eomanis waldi have gastrolites of coarse sand and plant debris rather than the insects that might be expected (von Koenigswald et al., 1981; Richter, 1988).

Other terrestrial mammals from Messel with consumulites represent nine families (Pantolestidae, Dichobunidae, Equidae, Gliridae, Ischyromyidae, Choeropotamidae, Adapidae, Proviverridae and Amphilemuridae). The bat *Palaeochiropteryx* tupaiodon principally yields lepidopteran wings but also some hair that presumably was derived from grooming (Richter and Storch, 1980; Richter, 1988). Other bats contain moths, caddis flies and beetles (Habersetzer et al., 1994). Several birds yield consumulites. Eleven taxa of birds yield gastrolites and cropalites (Mayr and Peters, 1998; (Mayr and Mourier-Chauviré, 2000; Mayr, 2002, 2009, 2013, 2015; Morlo, 2004; Mayr et al., 2006; Mayr and Richter, 2011; Mayr and Wilde, 2014). For example, the mousebird Masillacolius brevidactvlus yields a large seed (Mayr, 2015).

Alexander and Burger (2001) described a crocodilian, Pristiochampsus vorax, from the middle Eocene of the United States, which had ingested a hindlimb of the perissodactyl Helaletes sp. Oligocene specimens include the frog Palaeobatrachus sp. from Germany with ingested fish (Wuttke and Poschmann, 2010), tadpoles of Pelobates decheni and Eopelobates anthracinus from Germany with granular gut contents, the tortoises Stylemys sp. and Stylemys nebrascensis from the United States with hackberry seeds (Marron and Moore, 2013) and the bird Oligocolius psittacocephalon from Germany with fruit stones in its crop (Mayr, 2013).

Miocene consumulites include the fish Lepidocottus from Germany, which fed on planorbid snails (Wuttke and Poschmann, 2010), and Rama puevoi frogs and their tadpoles from Spain, respectively, which preserve gastrolites composed of gastropod shells (with rarer plants, arthropods and larval anurans) and fine debris that includes diatoms (McNamara et al., 2009, 2010; Wuttke and Poschmann, 2010). The only recorded Miocene mammalian consumulite is from the canid Carpocyon from the United States, which ingested the rabbit Hypolagus and other small mammals (Green, 1948; Stirton, 1959; Tedford in Boucot, 1990). We have found no records of Pliocene consumulites.

There are many examples of Pleistocene consumulites. The frozen mummies of large herbivores that contain consumulites, notably Mammuthus, Coelodonta, Equus and Bison, have been extensively studied (Ukraintseva, 1981, 1993; Guthrie, 1990; Harington, 2007; van Geel et al., 2008; Boeskorov et al., 2011, 2014; Kosintsev et al., 2012). Several studies confusingly use the terms "feces" and "dung" to refer to fragments of consumulites of M. primigenius (e.g., Van Geel et al., 2004, 2011; Mol et al., 2006).

Ichnotaxobases and Ichnotaxonomy

There are currently only four named consumulites, three preserved within the body cavity, Werneburgichnus kinneyensis, W. varius and Chondripilula zideki (Hunt and Lucas, 2021a), and the evisceralite *Hiabromus seilacheri* (Hunt et al., 2012b). Evisceralites are discrete bodies, so ichnotaxobases include shape, size, content, composition and surface texture. However, there are distinct morphologies and content that should allow the erection of other ichnotaxa of consumulites preserved within body cavities. Bromalite content representing different diets would represent different ichnotaxa because they represent different behaviors. Potential ichnotaxobases include: (1) location of bromalite in digestive tract; (2) morphology, e.g., pellet, infilling that follows form of digestive tract; (3) nature of contents and inclusions (including taxonomic identification of inclusions); and (4) degree of mechanical and biochemical processing.

Utility

Consumulites provide the most compelling evidence of diet, as they are direct evidence of what a vertebrate animal consumed. However, the study of consumulites is in an early stage of development, though they also have great potential to provide direct evidence of aspects of patterns of digestion, such as:

1. Assessing the chemistry of digestive systems by examining the etching and erosion of consumulite materials (e.g., degradation of bones within mosasaurs: Strganac et al., 2015)

2. Studying the evolution of the components of the digestive system, as has been done so successfully with early birds (e.g., O'Connor et al., 2019) and also with fish (Janvier and Arsenault, 2007).

3. Analyzing dietary changes through ontogeny, as has been done with "branchiosaurs" (e.g., Werneburg et al., 2007) and ichthyosaurs (Dick et al., 2016).

4. Evaluating the evolution of diets within clades (e.g., ichthyosaurs: Druckenmiller et al., 2014).

5. Identifying environmental tolerances (e.g., nonmarine ostracods in larval amphibians indicate that the amphibians were not marine: Werneburg et al., 2021).

Consumulites preserve a wide range of organic elements with a poor fossil record, ranging from lepidopteran wings to hair (Richter and Storch, 1980; Richter, 1988) to embryos (O'Keefe et al., 2009) and thus can be Lagerstätten as first proposed by Wilby and Martill (1992). In addition, consumulites can also preserve tissues of the gastrointestinal tract (Wilby and Martill, 1992). The systematic study of consumulites will undoubtedly yield significant records of contained fossils as has the recent focus on the content of coprolites.

Conclusions

This review demonstrates that there is an extensive and under appreciated fossil record of consumulites. This record provides the most direct evidence of who was eating who in the past and has substantial potential to address a number of evolutionary and paleoecological issues, notably the evolution of digestive systems, including the function and location of organs, the evolution of diets within clades and the ontogeny of species.

GASTROLITHS

Terminology

We use the term gastrolith to refer to sand and/or gravel swallowed by an animal and retained in the digestive tract. Wings (2004, 2007) provided a detailed review of some of the terminology of gastroliths. We reprise that review here and discuss additional terminological issues not covered by Wings. Thus, our focus is on these terms: gastrolith, geophagy, lithophagy, gizzard, grit and stone.

Though its first use apparently was by Mayne in 1854 (Baker, 1956), the term gastrolith (Greek *gastros*, stomach and *lithos*, stone) has only been in frequent use since the early 1900s. In some of the literature, particularly that dealing with extant animals, the terms "stomach stone" and "gizzard stone" are used interchangeably with gastrolith. In dictionaries of geological terms, gastroliths are usually referred to as "stomach stones" used as "an aid to digestion" (Whitten and Brooks, 1983, p. 198, 428; Currie, 1997), and some note that "such stones acquire a rounding and polish" (Allaby and Allaby, 1991, p. 152). Thus, AGI (1960, p. 119; 1974, p. 201) defines gastroliths (in 1960) and stomach stones (in 1974) as "highly polished, well-rounded pebbles associated with saurian skeletons," even though gastroliths are often associated with many non-reptilian (non-"saurian") tetrapods.

"Gastrolith" has also been applied in an extensive literature to calcic/phosphatic accretions that form inside the bodies of some decapod crustaceans (lobster and crayfish) just before molting (ecdysis) (Huxley, 1880). The crustaceans remove CaCO₃ from their exoskeletons to form these "gastroliths" and usually reabsorb them after molting (Tucker and Tucker, 2018). Found as fossils in the Eocene of Texas and Louisiana, these "gastroliths" have received the taxonomic name *Wechesia pontis* (Frizzell and Exline, 1958; Frizzell and Horton, 1961). Frizzell and Exline (1958) noted that, to avoid confusion, these structures should be referred to as "crustacean gastroliths." Importantly, they should be regarded as part of the body (a derivative of the exoskeleton) of the crustaceans that produced them, not as trace fossils.

Skoczylas (1978) referred to gastroliths as "pebbles, stones and gravel residing in the alimentary tract." Johnston and Enter (1999, p. 507) stated that gastroliths are "usually made of silicates and are rounded, highly polished and have a waxy feel." Schmeisser and Gillette (2009, p. 453) presented a simple definition of gastrolith: "gastroliths are stones ingested by extant and extinct animals that are retained in the digestive tract." Schmeisser and Flood (2008, p. 72) defined "paleogastrolith" as "stomach stones associated exclusively with extinct animals." However, we do not make such a distinction, as the gastroliths of extinct animals are, in principle, the same as those of extant animals in terms of origin and function (actualism).

Wings (2007, p. 2) defined gastrolith as "a hard object of no caloric value (e.g., a stone, a natural or pathological concretion) which is, or was, retained in the digestive tract of an animal." This brings the "crustacean gastroliths," pathological concretions that form in some mammal's stomachs ("Bezoar stones:" DeBakey and Ochsner, 1939; Tomassini et al., 2019; Rothschild and Biehler-Gomez, 2021) and swallowed "stones" (sand/gravel) together under the single term gastrolith. So, it refers to objects formed by three very different processes. We do not endorse that definition, as it groups together three kinds of objects with different origins and function, so we prefer to restrict the term gastrolith to sand and/or gravel swallowed by an animal and retained in the digestive tract.

Because Wings (2007) grouped objects with different origins under the single term gastrolith, he proposed to add prefixes to the word gastrolith to create terms that identified their different origins: "bio-gastrolith" for the calcareous concretions formed in the bodies of some crustaceans; "patho-gastrolith" for concretions formed in the stomach pathologically; and "geo-gastroliths" for swallowed rock particles. These terms are unnecessary if gastrolith is restricted to the meaning we advocate, which is the same as Wing's "geo-gastrolith."

Wings (2007) also advocated using the term "exolith" for "stones" that might be gastroliths but lack a convincing skeletal association. This term, however, enshrines the widespread misconception that highly polished "stones" are gastroliths, regardless of any skeletal association (see later discussion). It also lacks specificity, as any polished "stone" anywhere could be called an exolith. Thus, we do not use the term exolith.

The terms lithophagy and geophagy have also been applied by some to refer to the process of acquiring gastroliths, and some use them interchangeably (e. g., Sokol, 1971; Skoczylas, 1978). Lithophagy has a standard definition as the ingesting of "stones" to aid in digestion. But, geophagy refers to eating earth, particularly chalk or clay, and especially by humans, though some nonhuman animals (such as some bats) do engage in geophagy (e.g., Abrahams, 2003). The consumption of earth is either as a dietary supplement or is an eating disorder (Geophagia). Geophagy should not be used in reference to the ingestion of "stones," which is correctly called lithophagy.

When Brown (1904) suggested that plesiosaur gastroliths resided in a "gizzard-like arrangement," Eastman (1904) rebuked him, stating that only birds have gizzards (see below). In birds, the gizzard (ventriculus or muscular stomach: Figs. 16-17) is an anatomical structure separate from and posterior to the stomach (Romer and Parsons, 1977, figs. 272C, 273E). Other vertebrates lack such a structure. Nevertheless, the term gizzard (or "pyloric gizzard") has been applied by some workers to a distinct muscular compartment of the posterior portion of the stomach in crocodiles (e.g., Pernkopf, 1929; Sokol, 1971; Romer and Parsons 1977; Luppa, 1978; Skoczylas, 1978; Parson and Cameron, 1997; Schwenk and Rubega, 2005). This is because the crocodilian stomach has two chambers, fundus and pyloris, and the pyloric part is sometimes called a gizzard (Varrichio, 2001, argued that such a two-part stomach is a synapomorphy of archosaurs).

Sokol (1971, p. 70) stated that in crocodiles "the posterior end of the stomach [is] modified to form a distinct gizzard." This "pyloric gizzard" of crocodiles may be homologous with the true gizzard of birds, but there are real questions about whether the primary function of gastroliths in crocodiles is to grind food, as it is in the birds (see below). Therefore, we would rather not say that crocodilians have (had) a gizzard, but simply say that they retain gravel in a posterior part of the stomach.

The term grit is widely used to refer to the rock particles swallowed by birds (e.g., Gionfriddo and Best, 1999). However, grit, generally defined as a hard and sharp (rock) granule, has no size specificity except in industrial applications (sandpaper, etc.). If we follow the Wentworth scale used by most geologists for particle size, gastroliths in living birds, which are about 1-10 mm in size range, are very fine to coarse sand to granules and pebbles (Fig. 18). Gastroliths of plesiosaurs and some dinosaurs are larger, as large as cobbles on the Wentworth scale. Thus, we do not advocate continued use of the imprecise term "grit" in reference to avian gastroliths.

Stone is another imprecise term widely used in the gastrolith literature. It has vernacular definitions such as a hard, solid, nonmetallic mineral matter that rocks are made of, or a hard earthen substance. As the definitions of gastrolith given above indicate, the terms gastrolith and stone are often used interchangeably. However, like grit, stone has no specific size limits, and the sand particles that comprise many gastroliths, particularly in birds, would not be called stones. Thus, we abandon the imprecise term stone when referring to gastroliths and replace it with clast, or with more precise terms based on the Wentworth scale, namely sand, granules, pebbles or cobbles (Fig. 18).

We do not consider uroliths (bladder stones, kidney stones), gallstones or bezoars herein since they are pathologic in origin and thus are not technically trace fossils (sensu Bertling et al., 2006). However, they could be confused with gastroliths (Rothschild and Biehler-Gomez, 2021).

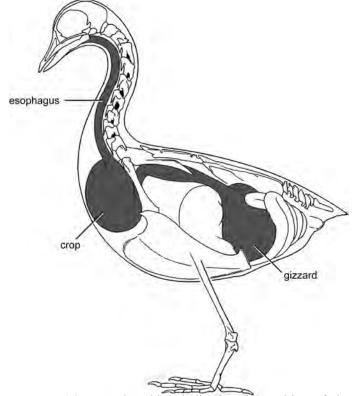


FIGURE 16. A modern bird, indicating the position of the esophagus, crop and the gizzard (modified from Zheng et al., 2011).

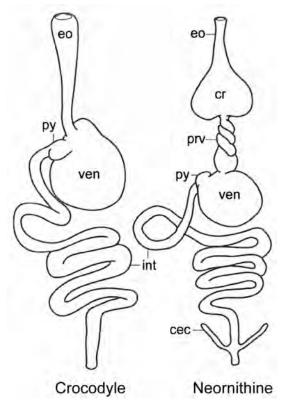


FIGURE 17. Comparison of crocodile and bird alimentary tracts (modified from O'Connor, 2019). Abbreviations are: cec = ceca; cr = crop; eo = esophagus; int = intestines; prv = proventriculus; py = pyloric chamber; ven = ventriculus.

Category	Туре	Grain diameter (mm)
Boulder	Boulders	250-100
	Cobbles	65-250
Gravel	Pebbles	4-65
	Granules	2-4
	Very coarse sand	1-2
	Coarse sand	0.5–1
Sand	Medium sand	0.25-0.5
	Fine sand	0.125-0.25
	Very fine sand	0.0625-0.125
	Coarse silt	0.031-0.625
	Medium silt	0.0156-0.031
1.1	Fine silt	0.0078-0.0156
Mud	Very fine silt	0.0039-0.0078
	Clay	<0.0039
	Dust	<0.0005

FIGURE 18. Wentworth scale for size of sedimentary particles.

Some History

According to Skoczylas (1978), in 1668 the German natural philosopher Henry Oldenburg (1619-1677) described "stomach stones" in an extant crocodile. This report by Oldenburg (1668) was actually of observations of gastroliths in a caiman made by a Dr. Stubbes. Wings (2004) notes that Spallanzini (1785) described gastrolith use by birds. Baker (1956) stated that Mayne (1854) first used the term *Gastrolithus* to refer to a "stone or calculus in the stomach." Lequat (1708) may be the oldest published reference to gastroliths in an extinct vertebrate. He noted their presence in a recently extinct (within historical times) bird, the solitaire (*Pezophaps*) from the Island of Rodrigues, east of Madagascar in the Indian Ocean (also see Caldwell, 1875).

Seeley (1877, p. 546) reported gastroliths in a British Cretaceous elasmosaur, suggesting that "a structure analogous to a gizzard, or the stomach of an edentate, may have used these pebbles to assist in breaking up or crushing the food on which this saurian lived." Mudge (1877) made similar observations on American plesiosaur gastroliths, though the first American plesiosaur skeletal material associated with gastroliths was likely collected in the 1860s (Everhart, 2005e).

Real discussion of gastroliths in extinct vertebrates began in the early 1900s. Thus, Brown (1904, p. 185) briefly commented on stones associated with plesiosaur skeletons in the Cretaceous of Kansas, USA, and stated that they had formed a "gizzard-like arrangement" used to aid digestion. As noted above, Eastman (1904) countered Brown's idea, arguing that a gizzard is a feature exclusive to birds. In contrast, Henderson (1906) stated that similar stones are swallowed by extant sea lions and held in the stomach, concluding that the diets of plesiosaurs were similar to those of the sea lions. Williston (1904), replying to Brown (1904), noted that stones are common in the abdominal regions of both European and North American plesiosaur skeletons, and that the British paleontologist Seeley (1877) had first suggested their use in digestion in a "gizzard." Williston (1904), however, did not believe the plesiosaurs swallowed stones to aid in digestion, but instead used them as ballast to regulate buoyancy.

Williston (1906) noted that Mudge (1877) and Williston (1891) had described siliceous pebbles associated with elasmosaurs from the Upper Cretaceous of Kansas and Wyoming. He concluded that "the plesiosaurs had a real, muscular bird-like gizzard, which utilized the pebbles in whatever way the crocodiles may use them" (Williston, 1906, p. 227).

Wieland (1906, p. 820) joined the discussion, "coining"

the term gastrolith: "stomach stones, or *gastroliths*, as I shall conveniently call them." (note that Johnston and Enter, 1999, erroneously attributed the term to Brown, 1907). Wieland noted polished stones associated with a "sauropod" bone from the Upper Jurassic of the northern Bighorn Mountains in Wyoming-Montana, USA. Wieland (1920) later referred to these as "pebbles of a singular smoothness." Nevertheless, Wieland (1906, p. 821) initially regarded the highly polished surfaces as primary (polished before they were ingested), not polish produced after swallowing, identifying "secondary or gastral wear" as producing a roughened surface.

Cannon (1906) stated that such pebbles were associated with Morrison Formation sauropod fossils from Colorado. Eastman (1906) expressed further skepticism. In rejoinder, Wieland (1907, p. 66), contrary to his earlier opinion, stated that in dinosaurian gastroliths "their entire surface may exhibit a higher polish than wind or water ever produces." Brown (1907) endorsed the idea of high polish characterizing gastroliths, but he expressed doubt about the identity of the dinosaur gastroliths described by Wieland.

This discussion between Brown, Williston, Wieland and Eastman set up three ideas about gastroliths that have been much discussed in later studies: (1) plesiosaurs had gastroliths that were used either for diet or buoyancy control; (2) sauropod dinosaurs had gastroliths; and (3) high polish is characteristic of gastroliths. What followed for about one century is a diffuse literature that has documented gastroliths in various fossil vertebrates (particularly plesiosaurs) and a less extensive literature that has debated their function. Particularly important was the work of Bryan (1931), who cogently argued that high polish does not character gastroliths, a conclusion ignored by many subsequent workers.

Much literature has focused on dinosaur gastroliths, in particular, identifying clasts without skeletal associations or with very loose skeletal associations as gastroliths, simply because they are highly polished. Archeologists have followed suit, identifying polished sand/pebbles at archaeological sites as bird gastroliths, although they lack any association with avian bones. And, some geologists have identified dropstones and other exotic clasts as gastroliths.

Wings (2004) undertook the first extensive study of gastroliths in extinct vertebrates, and his results seem not to have been fully appreciated yet. Thus, his work supports the concept that high polish does not characterize gastroliths and reinforces earlier conclusions that without a plausible skeletal association (i.e., mass of stones in the abdominal cavity), no sand/gravel can be verified as gastroliths.

Actualistic Basis

Overview

Extensive reviews of gastroliths in extant vertebrates have been published (Wickes, 1908; Baker, 1956; Taylor, 1993; Whittle and Everhart, 2000; Wings, 2004, 2007), obviating the need for a detailed review here. Gastroliths are rare among living fishes (a handful of osteichthyans swallow sand and/or gravel to grind food, and possible gastroliths in Devonian placoderms are discussed by Long and Trinajstic, 2010), and none are known among extant amphibians. Among mammals, some pinnipeds swallow gravel, likely for buoyancy control (Emery, 1941; Fleming, 1951; Taylor, 1993; Wings, 2007). Modern pangolins have a muscular stomach and swallow fine gravel that is retained in the stomach (e.g., Walker, 1968). In contrast, many living reptile and bird species swallow sand and/or gravel. Thus, some living turtles, snakes, lizards and crocodilians (see more below) swallow sand/gravel, mostly to grind food (Sokol, 1971), and many birds (in particular, most herbivorous and omnivorous birds) use gastroliths to aid digestion.

Nevertheless, the distribution of gastroliths is very irregular

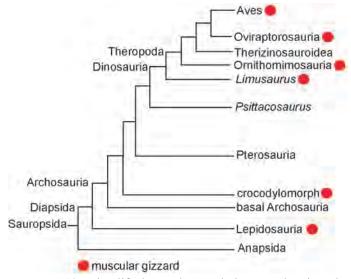


FIGURE 19. Simplified vertebrate phylogeny showing the distribution of the muscular gizzard (after O'Connor, 2019).

in extant vertebrates and is often related to the presence of a muscular gizzard (Fig. 19). For example, a few species of crocodilians swallow gravel, whereas others do not, and, in a population of crocodilians that swallow gravel, some individuals apparently do not. As Whittle and Everhart (2000, p. 77) well observed, "lithophagy in extant turtles, lizards and marine Mesozoic diapsids appears to be species-specific." We would add that the literature suggests that swallowing or not swallowing sand/gravel can be specific to some individuals within a species as well. The literature on extant crocodilian and bird gastroliths is most extensive, so we discuss these two taxa separately.

Crocodilia

Most of the scientific literature on gastroliths in extant reptiles focuses on crocodilians, especially the Nile crocodile (*Crocodilus niloticus*) and American alligator (*Alligator mississippiensis*), two species long known to have gastroliths (e.g., Cott, 1961; Neill, 1971). Nevertheless, there has long been disagreement over the function of the gastroliths in extant crocodilians, divided into those who see them as used in digestion to grind food (e.g., Pooley and Gans, 1976) and those who advocate that crocodilians use the gastroliths to control buoyancy (Cott, 1961).

In a much cited and highly influential article, Cott (1961) argued that the gastroliths of living crocodilians were not used in digestion but instead increased stability while in water. However, Henderson (2003) undertook three-dimensional computer modeling of the effects of gastroliths on a crocodilian to conclude that they would have little to no effect on buoyancy or stability while in water. Thus, the gastroliths in his model represent less than 4% of body mass and had much less effect on depth of immersion or inclination than did the crocodile simply inflating/deflating the lungs.

Platt et al. (2006) documented that gastroliths are present in all of the growth stages (from hatchlings to adults) of at least one crocodilian species, and argued that this indicates they are not for buoyancy control. Platt et al. (2006) concluded that the gastroliths are used to break down ingested prey.

Nevertheless, the idea of buoyancy control by crocodiles using gastroliths has had, and continues to have, wide support (e.g., Cott, 1961; Seymour, 1982; Grigg and Kirshner, 2015; Uriona et al., 2018). Particularly compelling were experiments by Uriona et al. (2018) on dive duration by juvenile American alligators. As little as 2.5% of body weight in gastroliths increased the duration of dives by 88-117%. The reasoning is that the gastroliths increase specific gravity, thus allowing a greater lung volume in order to prolong the dive. This increases the time of submersion and may also be important to the Nile crocodile, which normally drowns prey items while submerged (Cott, 1961). It may also be consistent with the modeling of Henderson (2003), as his model indicates the interplay between gastrolith mass and lung volume. Furthermore, there seems to be little if any direct evidence that extant crocodiles use their gastroliths in digestion (see Wings, 2004), so their use in buoyancy by crocodiles may be the most well supported function.

Aves

Most of the extant species of vertebrates that swallow sand/ gravel are birds, who use them in a gizzard to aid digestion, particularly herbivorous birds (e.g., Pough et al., 2002). After birds swallow food, if necessary, they store it in the crop, a chamber connected to the esophagus (a ventral pouch anterior to the furcula) (Figs. 16, 17). They then pass food into the gizzard (ventriculus or muscular stomach) where it can be ground by sand/gravel that has been swallowed and stored in that chamber. Once processed in the gizzard, the food is passed to the true stomach. This differs from crocodilians, whose swallowed pebbles go directly to the stomach and, if retained, are then stored in the posterior (pyloric) portion of the stomach (see above).

A diverse literature on the gastroliths of living birds exists, much of it summarized by Gionfriddo and Best (1999), who concluded: (1) most birds swallow sand/gravel to mechanically grind and pulverize food in their gizzards, though some sand/ gravel is swallowed for mineral extraction (especially calcium) or to stimulate/facilitate digestion; (2) the size of the swallowed clasts correlates to body size and ranges in diameter from < 0.1 mm to > 25 mm (in ostriches: Meinertzhagen, 1954); (3) the larger the sand/gravel swallowed, the harder and coarser the diet; (4) most birds selectively swallow rough and angular sand/ gravel that can become more rounded in the gizzard; and (5) some birds prefer sand/gravel of a certain color (also see Milton et al., 1994; Tryon, 2002).

As noted above, in the ornithological literature, the clasts swallowed by birds are usually referred to as "grit." However, on the Wentworth size scale they are very fine sand to gravel (Fig. 18).

Fritz et al. (2011) demonstrated that gizzard-based reduction in particle size in herbivorous birds is as efficient as mastication by herbivorous mammals (also see Moore, 1999). Thus, the evolution of the avian gizzard presents a solution for birds to the problem of how to grind vegetation to produce more effective digestion (and secondarily compensating for the loss of teeth).

Function of Gastroliths

A variety of functions have been suggested for gastroliths, only two of which are of significance: use in digestion to grind, pulverize and/or disintegrate food or use as ballast for buoyancy control (see Wings, 2004, 2007, for a thorough review). Some gastroliths are swallowed while feeding, either by accident (mostly by herbivores browsing close to the ground) or incidentally as the gastroliths inside of a prey item that was consumed.

The function of gastroliths in terrestrial tetrapods seems clear–they are used in digestion. But, in aquatic tetrapods, a digestive function and/or use as ballast for buoyancy control have been advocated and have long been a source of disagreement.

Taylor (1993, 1994) studied the distribution of gastroliths in extant and extinct aquatic tetrapods to conclude that the stones were swallowed as ballast for buoyancy control. Thus, his analysis indicated no correlation between the possession of gastroliths and diet among marine tetrapods. However, according to Taylor, the gastroliths do correlate with a mode of locomotion called "underwater flying," employed by the Mesozoic plesiosaurs, and now by sea lions and penguins. Taylor noted that crocodiles may also swallow stones for ballast (see above), but aquatic tetrapods that use the hind limbs or caudal fin for propulsion (ichthyosaurs, mosasaurs, some pinnipeds and cetaceans) do not swallow stones. Taylor reasoned that the stones are much denser than bone, so they provide an efficient way to take on ballast that can also be released by vomiting and thus provide for rapid regulation of buoyancy.

Nevertheless, gastroliths have been recognized in swimmers that are/were not underwater flyers, including some cetaceans and seals (see review by Wings, 2007). This contradicts the correlation between gastroliths and a specific mode of locomotion (underwater flying) in marine tetrapods, and thus undermines Taylor's (1993, 1994) conclusion that these gastroliths were used only for buoyancy control (Wings, 2007). Indeed, as discussed further below, the case for plesiosaurs using gastroliths for buoyancy control is a weak one. It seems likely that some crocodiles and marine mammals use/used gastroliths for buoyancy control, but all other gastrolith-bearing vertebrates appear to have used them in digestion.

Does High Polish Characterize Gastroliths?

Identification of fossil gastroliths is only certain when the sand/gravel are found as a concentrated mass in an anatomically plausible position within the abdominal region of a fossil skeleton. This conclusion has long been advocated by various authors (e.g., Bryan, 1931; Dorr, 1966; Lucas, 2000; Wings, 2004, 2007; Schmeisser and Flood, 2008). Nevertheless, many pebbles and granules are identified as gastroliths that lack such a skeletal association.

The idea that high polish characterizes gastroliths, first articulated by Wieland (1906) and Brown (1907), has dominated the quest to recognize gastroliths that lack a skeletal association. Indeed, many authors state a priori that gastroliths are highly polished. For example, Johnston et al. (1994, p. 159), who asserted that "a particularly striking characteristic of gastroliths is that they are highly polished." This, despite the fact that the gastroliths of living birds are not highly polished nor are most bona fide fossil gastroliths, especially those of plesiosaurs.

In a classic review of ventifacts, Bryan (1931) stated that the high polish of so-called gastroliths from the Upper Jurassic Morrison Formation in the western USA must have been acquired after the pebbles left the gastrointestinal tracts of the dinosaurs. He based this argument on the observation that quartz pebbles from the gizzard of an extant turkey are not polished, but instead have a "matte" or "frosted" surface texture of numerous conchoidal fractures produced by the impact of the pebbles against each other. As Bryan (1931, p. 36) noted, "the pebbles in a bird's gizzard click together and are abraded by impact" and that "they attained a smooth but not polished surface...formed by innumerable impact fractures." Bryan (1931) concluded that most so-called gastroliths are actually wind-polished stones (ventifacts).

Dorr (1966, p. 272) concurred with Bryan and stated that "no smooth, rounded, or even highly polished stones can be identified as gastroliths unless they are found within the fossilized skeleton of an animal in an area formerly occupied by the digestive tract." Miller (1987) also agreed, noting that many polished and rounded ventifacts from the Pleistocene of New Jersey are identical to so-called gastroliths. And, Schmeisser and Flood (2008, p. 72) well observed that "conclusive identification of paleogastroliths not associated with skeletal remains continues to be problematic."

Actualistic studies convinced Wings and Sander (2007, p. 637) that "natural stones taken up by a bird will not develop any

polish in its gastric mill." Indeed, Wings (2009) simulated an avian gastric mill, and it did not polish stones. This is contrary to Hoskin et al. (1970), who claimed, without analysis, that the longer the stones are in a bird's gizzard the more rounded and polished they become. Rounded, yes (see Gionfriddo and Best, 1999), but polished, no.

Despite these conclusions, the literature abounds in diverse identifications of polished "stones" as gastroliths where there is no skeletal association. Particularly striking are identification of dinosaurian gastroliths in Cretaceous strata of Kansas and Minnesota, USA, hundreds of kilometers from the nearest coeval dinosaur bones (Schaffner, 1928; Stauffer, 1945).

Various studies of gravel clasts from the Upper Jurassic Morrison Formation that lack a skeletal association have claimed that particular types or a high degree of polish characterize gastroliths (Kemp, 1936; Minor, 1937; Frison, 1939; Brown, 1941; Salo, 1942; Greene, 1956; Sperry, 1957). These clasts are usually seen as out of sedimentological context–granules, pebbles or cobbles in fine-grained sediments. They are mostly siliceous (quartz, chert, quartzite) and highly polished (Fig. 20). Stokes (1942) first expressed skepticism about these Morrison Formation "gastroliths," suggesting that they are actually stream or pediment gravels polished by the wind (ventifacts). He based this largely on their lack of association with dinosaur skeletons, and the fact that they are not coextensive geographically or stratigraphically with the Morrison Formation (they tend to be concentrated in the upper part of the formation).

Stokes (1964) later reported a Morrison Formation sauropod skeleton from Utah with "stomach contents," though the identification of the stomach contents is open to question (Hunt and Lucas, 2014). He noted that "here and there are small rounded pebbles of amorphous siliceous material that may have been ingested as lumps of clay" (Stokes, 1964, p. 576) but no gastroliths. Nevertheless, Stokes (1987) subsequently changed his mind about polished siliceous pebbles of the Morrison Formation, accepting their origin as gastroliths, though he noted that there are no gastroliths in the extensive Cleveland-Lloyd dinosaur bonebed in Utah (nor are they present in abundance in any of the extensive Morrison bonebeds: Lucas, 2000; Wings and Sander, 2007; Wings, 2015b). Petrographically, according to Stokes, these pebbles had an origin to the west of the Morrison depositional basin.

The most recent addition to the analysis of such Morrison "gastroliths" is Malone et al. (2019, 2021). They examined three red quartzite pebbles from the Morrison Formation in Utah that lack any skeletal association, but identified them as dinosaur gastroliths. According to Malone et al. (2019, 2021), the detrital zircons in these pebbles are most similar to Neoproterozoic red quartzite from the Lake Superior region (well to the east of the Morrison depositional basin), though they do note that there is Neoproterozoic red quartzite in the Cordilleran belt from California to Idaho. In contrast, we regard as questionable identifying three isolated quartzite pebbles as gastroliths. Furthermore, the sample size is too small to identify what seems a highly unlikely source area for these pebbles hundreds of kilometers east of the Morrison depositional basin, in which paleoflow was mostly to the east.

Highly polished stones without any skeletal association from the Lower Cretaceous Cloverly Formation of Wyoming-Montana have also been called gastroliths (Hares, 1917; Stokes, 1942, 1944, 1952, 1987). But, various workers (e.g., Moberly, 1960; Mirsky, 1962; Ostrom, 1970) doubted that attribution. Relatively recently, Zaleha and Wiesemann (2005) argued that the highly polished siliceous clasts in the Cloverly Formation were simply polished by transport in ash-laden hyperconcentrated flows. Given the volume of volcanic detritus in the Morrison Formation, and the similarities between the Morrison and the Cloverly fluvial systems, it seems likely that transport in ash-

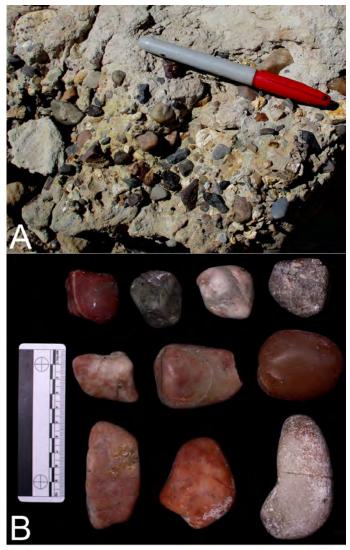


FIGURE 20. **A**, Siliceous fluvially-transported pebbles (conglomerate) in sandstone, Jackpile Member of Morrison Formation (Upper Jurassic), central New Mexico. **B**, Some of the supposed gastroliths of the Morrison sauropod dinosaur *"Seismosaurus"* from the Brushy Basin Member of the Morrison Formation (Upper Jurassic), central New Mexico.

laden hyperconcentrated flows could also have polished many of the "gastroliths" from the Morrison Formation.

Two methods have been used to document and/or quantify the polish of supposed gastroliths: high magnification of surface textures by SEM and measuring reflectance. The SEM examination has brought inconsistent results. Thus, Chatelain (1991, 1993) studied the surface texture of more than 400 Morrison formation "gastroliths" to conclude they show a "diagnostic, grid-like pattern of shallow, fine scratches on the highly polished surfaces," which could be duplicated by tumbling similar stones with conifer and cycad foliage. Unfortunately, his work was only published in two abstracts and not further documented.

Whittle and Onorato (2000) concluded that gastroliths show pronounced pitting and rill-like features at 50 x magnification. Schmeisser and Flood (2004, 2008) treated the pebbles associated with the partial skeleton of the Late Jurassic sauropod dinosaur "*Seismosaurus*" as bona fide gastroliths (but see Lucas, 2000) and concluded that ostrich gastroliths are highly pitted, lapidary stones have deep gouges, fluvially polished stones have rough textures and multiple cresentric gouges, and the *Seismosaurus* "gastroliths" have curved and parallel polish grooves. They argued that small particles and stomach muscle movement produced the polish grooves. Schmeisser and Flood (2004, 2008) concluded that such "polish grooves" diagnose gastroliths, in contrast to the results of Chatelain (1991, 1993) and Whittle and Onorato (2000).

Johnston et al. (1990, 1994), Manley (1989, 1991a, b, 1993) and Cox (1994, 1997, 1998) used video and laser instruments to scatter light from known gastroliths, suspected gastroliths and other "stones" to quantify surface polish (concentrated reflectance = high polish). Manley (1991b) argued that pebbles not associated with bones can be identified as gastroliths if they: (1) have high polish; (2) come from stratigraphic units with fossils of known "stone" swallowers; and (3) the "stones" are not in their perceived lithologic or sedimentological context. She quantified polish using a profilometer and laser light scattering. The profilometer measures smoothness, whereas laser light scattering measures light reflectance.

However, the methodology of all of these studies is questionable. For example, Schmeisser and Flood (2004, 2008) did not control for rock type in their comparisons. And, Lucas (2000) noted that Manley's (1991b, 1993) analysis needs to be repeated with unquestioned gastroliths, and the gastroliths should be compared to fluvial clasts of identical petrology. Significantly, none of the researchers who claim that high polish characterizes gastroliths actually compared the polish on bona fide gastroliths to the polish on bona fide ventifacts.

Darby and Ojakangas (1980, p 549) expressed skepticism about the diagnostic utility of high polish and used the term "gastromyth" to refer to stones thought to be gastroliths of uncertain origin (also see Lucas, 2000). Everhart (2005c, fig. 7.8; 2017, fig. 7.13; also see Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001) documented plesiosaur gastroliths with conchoidal fractures that he inferred were formed by the stones hitting one another while in the plesiosaur's digestive tract (Fig. 21). Again, Wings (2009) simulated a bird gastric mill, and it did not polish stones.

Gastroliths have also been invoked as a possible biogenic source of dropstones (lonestones), but we are not aware of any specific cases of a dropstone being definitively identified as a gastrolith (e. g., Hawkes, 1951; Bennett et al., 1996; Ahlberg et al., 2002). In the Lower Cretaceous Wessex Formation of England, a Late Jurassic ammonite steinkern was considered to be a regurgitated gastrolith by Martill and Baker (2000). Other polished stones in the British Lower Cretaceous have also been identified as dropstones or gastroliths (Radley, 1993, 1994, 2005; Sweetman and Underwood, 2006). However, identification of



FIGURE 21. A plesiosaur gastrolith showing scratch marks inferred to have been made by adjoining gastroliths while the clasts were in the alimentary tract of the plesiosaur. Photograph courtesy of Mike Everhart.

these clasts as gastroliths is primarily based on their high polish, not on any skeletal association, so their identity as gastroliths is open to question.

Ernst et al. (1996) identified the stones in a Cenomanian pebble bed from the Saxony basin in Germany as scattered gastroliths, largely because they are highly polished (also see Wilmsen and Nieburh, 2002; Kruger, 2003). Bartholommäus et al. (2004) interpreted these stones as plesiosaur gastroliths that came from sources about 300 km distant. However, these stones lack a skeletal association, so we are skeptical of their origin as gastroliths.

The important point, echoing Bryan (1931), is that there are various ways to polish stones, notably by the wind to make them ventifacts (there is even tectonic polish: Clifton, 1965). Polished clasts identified as gastroliths are siliceous, mostly quartz or chert. These clasts could have been polished by wind and/or water, both before ingestion by an animal and/or after excretion or other removal from an animal's digestive tract. Furthermore, how a stomach or gizzard would polish siliceous clasts (which are very hard) is also unclear, and such polishing does not occur in extant birds. Only a small minority of bona fide gastroliths, particularly those of plesiosaurs, are highly polished (also see Rothschild and Biehler-Gomez, 2021, especially their figure 9). M. Everhart (written commun., 2021) notes that plesiosaur gastroliths are only temporary in the plesiosaur, being ground down by use until the remaining clasts are small enough to pass out of the gut. Thus, the gastroliths would need to be periodically replaced, and an accumulation of gastroliths inside a plesiosaur specimen would have included a mixture of material of various ages.

There is thus an inability to establish when and where the clasts were polished, and inferring that they acquired their polish while gastroliths is not supported by actualistic studies of gastroliths. The idea that any highly polished clast is a gastrolith needs to be abandoned.

Gastroliths in Fossil Vertebrates

Introduction

Diverse fossil vertebrates of late Permian to Pleistocene age are associated with gastroliths. The most extensive and well documented record comes from plesiosaurs, the long-necked marine reptiles of the Mesozoic. Though there are relatively few bona fide gastrolith-dinosaur associations, a diverse literature has been published on dinosaur gastroliths, a good example of the Taxophile Effect. Some fossil birds have gastroliths, and, importantly, exceptionally preserved specimens from China document that both the crop and the gizzard had already evolved in birds during the Early Cretaceous.

Plesiosaur gastroliths

Plesiosaurs have the most extensive and unambiguous gastrolith record of any fossil vertebrates (Fig. 22). Since the 1870s (e.g., Seeley, 1877; Mudge, 1877), numerous articulated or semi-articulated skeletons have been collected with closely associated clasts of granule to cobble size, often aggregated as masses in the abdominal cavity. O'Gorman et al. (2014) also noted that several plesiosaurs have been documented with sand in their abdominal cavities, indicating that not just gravel was being swallowed (e.g., Andrews, 1910; O'Keefe et al., 2009).

Indeed, more than a century ago, Williston (1904) stated that he knew of at least 30 plesiosaur skeletons from Europe and North America with gastroliths, and many more have been described since. There is now an extensive literature on plesiosaur gastroliths, mostly from the long-necked elasmosaurids (e. g., Riggs, 1939; Welles and Bump, 1949; Shuler, 1950; Storrs, 1981; Nicholls, 1988; Chatterjee and Small, 1989; Matsumoto et al., 1982; Nakaya, 1989; Stewart and Martin, 1993; Ludvigsen and Beard, 1994, 1997; Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001; Everhart,

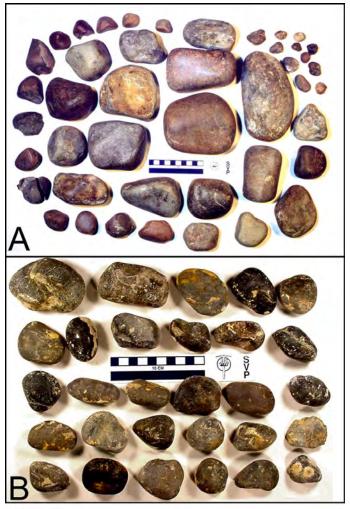


FIGURE 22. Two masses of gastroliths from Cretaceous elasmosaurids. Photographs courtesy of Mike Everhart.

2000, 2005e-f; Whittle and Everhart, 2000; Everhart, 2004a; Schumacher and Everhart, 2005; McHenry et al., 2005; Thompson et al., 2007; Liggett, 2005; Sato et al., 2006; Druckenmiller and Russell, 2008; Cerda and Salgado, 2008; O'Gorman et al., 2012, 2013, 2019), but also from the shortnecked forms (e.g., Andrews, 1910; Fraas, 1910; Zhuravlev, 1943a, b; Ritchie, 1991; Taylor, 1992; Sato and Storrs, 2000; Schumacher, 2007; Smith, 2007; Druckenmiller and Russell, 2009; O'Keefe et al., 2009; Schmeisser and Gillette, 2009; Kear, 2016). Gastroliths have thus been documented in the plesiosaur families Pliosauridae, Rhomaleosauridae, Elasmosauridae and Polycotylidae. Clearly, there are more elasmosaurid records than of other families, but the pattern of gastrolith possession in plesiosaurs is complex, as it is in other tetrapod groups. Space prevents a review of all of these examples, most of which are very well documented, so we add texture by detailing a few here.

Riggs (1939, fig. 113) described an elasmosaurid specimen from the Upper Cretaceous of southeastern Montana that had 206 granitic clasts, 20-102 mm in diameter, scattered around the coracoids and paddles. He described them as "rounded and smooth, but in no case do they have a high polish" (Riggs, 1939, p. 390).

Welles and Bump (1949) described a skeleton of an elasmosaurid from the Upper Cretaceous of South Dakota that had 254 siliceous clasts massed in an area of 194 cm² and 18 cm deep immediately anterior to the pelvis and ventral to some dorsal vertebrae. These clasts (Welles and Bump, 1949, p. 523, fig. 2) were mostly quartzite, 11-128 mm in diameter and had

"no luster or polish."

Shuler (1950, p. 18, figs. 11, 14) described an elasmosaurid skeleton from the Upper Cretaceous of Texas that, within the rib cage, contained at least 70 siliceous clasts that "range in size from well-worn, rounded and highly polished pebbles, half an inch [12.7 mm] in section, to a large rectangular block of flint–2 by 4 inches [50 x 100 mm] and weighing almost a pound–with a rough unaltered surface." Shuler (1950, p. 18) claimed that "an alternating rhythmic squeeze of great gizzard muscles gave the flints their beautiful polish." He also observed that "close association with an actual skeleton is the only direct proof" that such clasts are gastroliths. Darby and Ojakangas (1980) documented the 197 gastroliths associated with an elasmosaurid skeleton from the Upper Cretaceous of Montana. They noted that among these gastroliths, which they concluded resemble river cobbles, sphericity decreases with size. These gastroliths were mostly quartzite with a dull finish.

Cicimurri and Everhart (2001) documented an elasmosaurid with a mixture of fish bones and gastroliths posterior to the pectoral girdle. These are 95 gastroliths up to 151 mm in diameter, and they are shaped as disks, spheres or cylinders. Those made of chert were polished, but those made of quartzite had a dull, pitted texture. They concluded that the association of food and stones demonstrates a dietary function for the gastroliths.

In a polycotylid plesiosaur skeleton from the Upper Cretaceous of Utah, Schmeisser and Gillette (2009) reported 289 pebbles up to 34.5 mm diameter with varied degrees of polish. However, we note that these pebbles were scattered, not concentrated in a mass inside the abdominal cavity, so it is not certain that they are gastroliths.

From these details and a review of the other literature on plesiosaur gastroliths, we can conclude that: (1) many plesiosaurs used gastroliths, especially elasmosaurids; (2) plesiosaur gastroliths are numerous in one individual (usually 50-200 pebbles, but as many as 793 in one individual: O'Gorman et al., 2014), show a wide range in size (up to 170 mm maximum diameter: Everhart, 2005c) and are mostly siliceous pebbles of varied shapes; (3) most plesiosaur gastroliths are *not* highly polished; and (4) plesiosaur gastroliths are mostly found in the posterior part of the abdominal region, but it is not certain whether the plesiosaur held them in a separate structure ("gizzard") or in the posterior region of the stomach, like modern crocodiles.

Gastroliths have provided important inferences about plesiosaur behavior. Thus, in the American Late Cretaceous, plesiosaurs generally swam above muddy or chalky sea floors that offered no clasts of the same lithology as their gastroliths. Analysis indicates that such clasts as bedrock were often hundreds of km (maximum estimate = 600 km: Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001) distant from the location of the plesiosaur fossil skeleton with gastroliths (e.g., Cicimurri and Everhart, 2001; Everhart, 2005e; McHenry et al., 2005; and see Vincent et al., 2017 for a Jurassic example). Furthermore, as was first noted by Darby and Ojakangas (1980), the gastroliths of plesiosaurs resemble river cobbles. Thus, O'Gorman et al. (2013, 2014) demonstrated that the sphericity metrics of plesiosaur gastroliths (Darby and Ojakangas, 1980; Everhart, 2000; Cerda and Salgado, 2008; O'Gorman et al., 2012) show a close similarity to fluvial pebbles (cf. Dobkins and Folk, 1970). This, and the fact that many plesiosaur skeletons with gastroliths are found in marine shale and chalk units that are hundreds of km from a possible source of pebbles, indicate that plesiosaurs were prodigious swimmers that likely went very close to shore or ashore to swallow stones in estuaries or along river courses. As O'Gorman et al. (2014) noted, this also suggests that habitat partitioning by adult (deep offshore) and juvenile (shallow nearshore) plesiosaurs (advocated by Wiffen and Moisley, 1986; Wiffen et al., 1995) could only have happened part of the time.

Less clear has been the function of plesiosaur gastroliths.

As already noted, the first observers (Seeley, 1877; Mudge, 1877) inferred that plesiosaur gastroliths were used as an aid to digestion (also see Martin and Kennedy, 1988). But, as already discussed, Taylor (1993, 1994; also see Sander et al., 1997; Lingham-Soliar, 2000) argued for their use as ballast for buoyancy control. Nevertheless, Reiss and Frey (1991) reviewed underwater flight in plesiosaurs and concluded that ballasting was not needed for buoyancy control. Storrs (1993, p. 74) stated that plesiosaur gastroliths were ballast "needed to maintain a neutrally buoyant position within the water column" but suggested they may also have had a digestive function.

Cicimurri and Everhart (2001) made the very cogent observation that the gastroliths of plesiosaurs represent only 1-2% of total body mass, so their function in buoyancy control seems unlikely (also see Everhart, 2005e). Henderson (2006) undertook three-dimensional modelling of plesiosaur swimming and rejected a role for gastroliths in buoyancy control. Henderson (2006) thus documented that if the gastroliths amount to less than 10% of the body mass of the plesiosaur (which is always the case), they would have had a negligible effect on buoyancy. Yet, he did find that the gastroliths suppressed the dorso-ventral oscillation of the head and neck in floating elasmosaurids.

The function of plesiosaur gastroliths has been debated for more than a century. The current "consensus" favors their use in digestion, not in buoyancy control. However, most other tetrapods (especially birds) that use gastroliths for dietary purposes are herbivores. Plesiosaurs, like crocodiles, were not herbivorous, so whether or not these predatory marine reptiles would use gastroliths to grind their food is not above discussion. As suggested by Storrs (1993), the possibility that plesiosaurs used gastroliths for both digestion and some amount of buoyancy control remains plausible. More research is needed here.

Dinosaur gastroliths

An extensive literature has been published on dinosaur gastroliths, even though there are relatively few records of bona fide dinosaurian gastroliths; indeed, only a few taxa of dinosaurs had demonstrable gastroliths. These taxa are some prosauropods, sauropods, theropods, an ornithopod and some members of the ceratopsian genera *Yinlong* and *Psittacosaurus*.

Most impressive are the gastroliths found in the skeletons of some prosauropod dinosaurs, notably *Massospondylus* from the Lower Jurassic of southern Africa (Bond, 1955; Raath, 1974; Cooper, 1981). Thus, Raath (1974, p. 4) described as many as 50 subrounded "more or less polished" stones inside the rib cages of articulated skeletons of *Massospondylus*. According to Raath, these were composed of quartz, quartzite and chalcedony, used to grind food and were stream pebbles chosen by the prosauropod. These gastroliths have been viewed as forming "gastric mills" for pulverizing and disintegrating the vegetation eaten by the herbivorous prosauropods (Galton, 1976, 1985, 1986).

Nevertheless, prosauropods are a group of dinosaurs with a Pangea-wide distribution during part of the Late Triassic-Early Jurassic, and few had demonstrable gastroliths. Weems et al. (2007) argued that stones without any skeletal association from the Upper Triassic of Virginia, USA, were likely prosauropod gastroliths. These were mostly quartzite with moderate to high polish, up to 105 mm diameter and unlike nearby fluvial conglomerate pebbles. But, given the lack of any skeletal association, we see this as a problematic record.

The case for gastroliths in sauropod dinosaurs is a weak one, despite the fact that a diverse literature identifies gastroliths in these, the largest of all terrestrial tetrapod herbivores (see, for example, Christiansen, 1996). Calvo (1994) first drew attention to this, noting that Wieland's (1907) original report of sauropod gastroliths was actually of clasts near a stegosaur skeleton (Brown, 1907). Calvo (1994, p. 206) concluded that the evidence of gastroliths associated with sauropod bones is "very restricted

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to fragmentary sauropod remains; thus, these evidences should be interpreted with caution" (also see Lucas, 2000).

Wings and Sander (2007) accepted that some sauropods had gastroliths but argued that these dinosaurs lacked a gastric mill as is found in birds. They thus noted that in examples that they considered bona fide gastroliths in sauropods ("Seismosaurus," Cedarosaurus, Dinheirosaurus) the stones are much less than 0.1% of body mass, whereas in herbivorous birds they are 1% of body mass. They also noted that autochthonous sauropod bone beds lack gastroliths, as did Calvo (1994), Lucas (2000) and Wings (2015b).

Wings (2015b) reviewed the classic dinosaur bonebeds in the Upper Jurassic Morrison Formation (Bone Cabin quarry, Cleveland-Lloyd quarry, Como Bluff, Dinosaur National Monument, Dry Mesa quarry, Howe quarry) and stressed the almost total lack of any evidence of sauropod gastroliths, even from articulated/semi-articulated sauropod skeletons in these bonebeds. Indeed, once you eliminate the taphonomic possibilities for gastrolith removal, these quarries generally lack gastroliths.

We should note, however, that the case for gastroliths in *"Seismosaurus"* is unconvincing (Lucas, 2000, and see below). *Dinheirosaurus* has a convincing record of gastroliths according to Wings and Sander (2007), but no gastroliths are mentioned in the original description by Bonaparte and Mateus (1999), and they have not been otherwise documented.

Galton (1986) and Farlow (1987b) accepted a gastric mill in sauropods based on the reports of Janensch (1929), Cannon (1906) and Brown (1941), although these are unconvincing records of one or a few polished stones associated with a sauropod fossil (see below). Bakker (1971, 1980, 1986), like Galton and Farlow, argued that sauropod heads and dentitions were so small that they needed a gastric mill to digest the vast amounts of vegetation such behemoths consumed (also see Weishampel and Norman, 1989; Taggart and Cross, 1997; Upchurch and Barrett, 2000). This found its fullest expression in Bakker (1986, p. 126-138), who presented a lengthy argument for gastroliths in sauropods largely based on his idea that they were endothermic and lacked the masticatory apparatus to process the large quantities of vegetation they ate. He envisioned huge gizzards in sauropods but admitted that direct evidence of sauropod gastroliths was sparse. Indeed, sauropods likely used fermentation to process large amounts of consumed vegetation according to Wings and Sander (2007), as the ability to process vegetation in the mouth was minimal, and there is no compelling evidence of a gastric mill in any sauropod.

Cannon's (1906) claim of sauropod gastroliths was never documented. Janensch (1929) described supposed "gastroliths" (German: Magensteine) associated with some of the Jurassic sauropod bones at the famous East African dinosaur locality Tendaguru. These were composed of gneiss or quartz, rounded, not polished and up to 60 mm in diameter. However, all were isolated clasts found in proximity to vertebrae, so their identification as gastroliths is questionable.

Bird (1985, p. 65) published a photograph of about 64 polished siliceous cobbles between the pelvis and ribs of one sauropod skeleton at the Howe quarry in the Upper Jurassic Morrison Formation in Wyoming, USA. Farlow (1985) and Schwartz et al. (2007) accepted this as a record of sauropod gastroliths, and it may be the first published substantiation of gastroliths in a sauropod skeleton, though this is difficult to confirm without additional documentation.

Calvo (1994) mentioned a complete skeleton of *Rebbachisaurus* from the Cretaceous of Argentina associated with six igneous rocks that he identified as likely gastroliths. Calvo and Salgado (1995, p. 27) described this fossil but only provided minimal information about the gastroliths, namely that the igneous rocks "have roughened and rugose surfaces." We

regard this supposed gastrolith record as questionable.

Gillette (1990, 1991, 1994, 1995) reported 240 pebbles/ cobbles as gastroliths associated with the partial skeleton of the Late Jurassic sauropod "Seismosaurus" (= Diplodocus: Lucas et al., 2006). Artwork in Gillette (1995, p. 113) shows both a crop and gizzard in this sauropod. However, Lucas (2000) argued that there is no clear skeletal association of these stonesthey do not define a crop or gizzard in a plausible abdominal position surrounded by articulated bones. Instead, the sizes, shapes, textures and orientations of the stones are consistent with their origin as stream-deposited cobbles of a channel-lag deposit according to Lucas (2000). The fact that some of these clasts were imbricated along trough crossbeds (Lucas, 2000, fig. 4) provides compelling evidence of concentration by fluvial processes. These supposed gastroliths of "Seismosaurus" show a wide range of polish matched by similar clasts from the Morrison Formation that are not associated with bones (Fig. 20).

Dantas et al. (1998) stated that more than 100 gastroliths were located in a "crop" near the anterior dorsal and posterior cervical vertebrae of a skeleton of the sauropod *Lourinhasaurus*. They described these as mostly well-polished quartz pebbles, 56-217 mm in diameter that had variable shapes, mostly discoidal or spheroidal. These may be gastroliths, but we question the identification of a "crop" in a sauropod dinosaur. Jennings and Hasiotis (2006) identified as gastroliths 14 polished quartz clasts 10-130 mm in diameter between the ischia and caudal vertebrae of an incomplete skeleton of *Camarasaurus*. However, we regard this as a problematic record because of the location of the stones outside of the abdominal cavity.

The only compelling and well documented example of a sauropod skeleton with gastroliths is that of *Cedarosaurus* from the Lower Cretaceous of Utah, USA (Sanders and Carpenter, 1998; Sanders et al., 2001; Myers, 2004). A mass of 115 stones was located in the abdominal cavity (posterior to the coracoid, ventral to dorsal vertebrae) of the skeleton of this sauropod. These pebbles were mostly highly polished chert and quartzite up to 165 mm in diameter, and range in shape from oblate spheroids to blades and cylinders.

Among theropod dinosaurs, gastroliths are most common among the Maniraptorifirmes, which are the theropods closest to bird ancestry. However, there are some reports from other kinds of theropods: (1) a single clast near the skeleton of Baryonyx judged (we believe questionably) to be a gastrolith by Milner and Charig (1997); (2) a skeleton of Pokilopleuron with stomach contents that include 10 small, rounded pebbles interpreted to be gastroliths among fish bones (Eudes-Deslongchamps, 1838; Allain, 2005); (3) a skeleton with gastroliths in the abdominal cavity of the Jurassic ceratosaur Limusaurus, which is a beaked theropod (Xu et al., 2009); (4) in a partially articulated skeleton of Ngwebasaurus, 12 scattered pebbles were present that are 5.2-14.5 mm in diameter and are mostly polished quartzite (De Klerk et al., 2000), a problematic record; and (5) Mateus (1998) described a very incomplete skeleton of an allosaurid that had 32 clasts and impressions of 3 more in the rib cage below the 11th dorsal vertebra. These were associated with bone fragments he interpreted as food remains.

As noted above, the theropods closest to bird ancestry have an impressive record of gastroliths that indicates that the crop and gizzard had evolved in some dinosaurs during the Early Cretaceous. Pebbles form a crop and a gizzard in the theropod *Caudipteryx* (Fig. 23; Ji et al., 1998; Zhou et al., 2000; Zhou and Wang, 2000; Zhang, 2001). Twelve ornithomimind skeletons (*Sinornithomimus*) with crops that contain small siliceous grains were documented by Kobayashi et al. (1999; Kobayashi and Lü, 2003; also see Varrichio et al., 2008). A skeleton of the Lower Cretaceous ornithomimosaur *Shenzhusaurus* has concentrated pebbles in the abdomen anterior to the gastral basket that are smooth to pockmarked, and rounded to angular (Ji et al., 2003).



FIGURE 23. Skeleton of the maniraptoriform theropod dinosaur *Caudipteryx*, with a large mass of gastroliths in its abdominal area. Skeleton of *Caudipteryx* is about 1 meter long. Photograph courtesy of the late Stephen Czerkas.

Indeed, Zanno and Makovicky (2011) indicated that gastroliths provide important evidence of herbivory in some coelurosaurs, notably the toothless ornithomimosaurs and oviraptorosaurs.

There are relatively few records of gastroliths in ornithischian dinosaurs. Carpenter (1987, 1990) reported gastroliths in one specimen of the Late Cretaceous ankylosaur *Panoplosaurus*, but these have not been described. K. Carpenter (written commun., 2020) has informed us that these stones were catalogued (presumably collected) with the fossil, but there are no records of their original association in the sediment. Thus, this is a problematic record. A skeleton of *Minmi paravertebra* from the Upper Cretaceous of Australia has an extensive cololite but no gastroliths (Molnar and Clifford, 2001). However, Brown et al. (2020) recently documented bona fide gastroliths in an ankylosaur from the Early Cretaceous of Canada.

Early reports of gastroliths associated with the hadrosaur Edmontosaurus ("Claosaurus") by Brown (1907) and with Iguanodon by Rivett (1956) are not of a mass of gastroliths in the abdominal region and thus are problematic (Wings, 2004). Cerda (2008), nevertheless, published a bona fide gastrolith record in an ornithopod dinosaur. These are clusters of pebbles in the abdominal regions of three articulated skeletons of Gasparinsaura from the Upper Cretaceous of Argentina. Up to 17 mm in diameter, these pebbles are mostly of igneous rocks, subrounded and not polished.

Xu (1997) well described gastroliths from a skeleton of the Early Cretaceous ceratopsian *Psittacosaurus* (also see Brown, 1907; Osborn, 1924; Sereno, 1990). At least 36 pebbles up to 20 mm diameter were preserved as a mass around the sacral vertebrate. They range in shape to include spheroids, disks, blades and cylinders. Some other specimens of *Psittacosaurus* have gastroliths (You and Dodson, 2004), as does the Jurassic ceratopsian *Yinlong* (Xu et al., 2006).

Fossil birds

The fossil record of birds is mostly of isolated and/or incomplete bones, not complete skeletons. This likely explains why there are relatively few documented cases of fossil avian gastroliths. These are mainly of late Cenozoic age (e.g., Stirling and Zietz, 1900; Lambrecht, 1931; Voorhies, 1980; Yeh, 1981; Yang and Yang, 1994). Notable among this is the extensive subfossil record of moas, extinct giant birds from New Zealand, the skeletons of which famously contain many gastroliths that are mostly semi-round, white quartz pebbles (Chapman, 1884; Forbes, 1892; Navás, 1922; Duff, 1949; Baker, 1956; Burrows et al., 1981; Anderson, 1989; Johnston et al., 1994). These clasts range in size from "gravel" to 100 mm in diameter. Importantly, the clasts are all of lithologies local to the skeletons that contain them. This suggests that moas were localized, only moving tens of kms during their lifetimes, not the long distances travelled by some other large, flightless birds, such as ostriches (Anderson, 1989).

Importantly, the spectacular record of fossil birds from the Early Cretaceous strata of northeastern China demonstrates that the avian crop and gizzard had already evolved in the Early Cretaceous. Thus, Zheng et al. (2011) documented Early Cretaceous birds from China with masses of fossilized seeds in the region of the crop. Many Early Cretaceous birds with gizzards have been documented, and these birds are therefore thought to have been herbivorous.

Zhou et al. (2004) described some specimens of the Early Cretaceous bird *Yanornis* with fine sand- and gravelsized particles that are quartz grains 0.2-2.7 mm diameter and subangular to subrounded. To explain the presence of gastroliths in some specimens of *Yanornis* and their absence in others, Zhou et al. (2004) suggested "gizzard plasticity," which is seen in some modern birds due to seasonal changes in diet (Starck, 1999a, b). This kind of phenotypic flexibility of the gastrointestinal tract in response to changes in diet or organismal demand is seen in some extant birds and mammals and generally indicates fluctuating environments (Starck, 1999a, b). Zhou et al. (2004) aptly observed that the distribution of gastroliths in *Yanornis* may indicate that such phenotypic plasticity had evolved early in the Cretaceous.

Zhou and Zhang (2003), Zheng et al. (2011) and O'Connor (2019) described the gastroliths of *Sapeornis*. Zheng et al. (2011) argued that the evolution of the gizzard in birds likely preceded the evolution of the crop. Furthermore, the presence of the crop in Early Cretaceous birds indicates seed eating, and the development of the crop may have facilitated the loss of teeth in beaked birds.

Wang et al. (2016) described an entantiornithine bird with a gizzard. Wang et al. (2018; also see Zhou and Zhang, 2003; Zhou et al., 2013; Wang and Zhou, 2016) documented multiple specimens of the stem bird *Archaeorhynchus* from the Lower Cretaceous of China that have gastroliths clustered in the abdominal cavity (~100 gastroliths in one specimen). Gastroliths in the ornithuromorph *Hongshanornis* were described by Chiappe et al. (2014). On one of the specimens they described, the gastroliths are located in a ventral position, consistent with the location of the ventriculus in the abdominal cavity. O'Connor et al. (2018) documented gastroliths in *Jeholornis*. Possible gastroliths in the enantiornithine bird *Bohaiornis* were studied in some detail, but were demonstrated to be mineral precipitates, not gastroliths (Liu et al., 2021).

We note that the avian gizzard could have been inherited from non-avian theropods or evolved independently. Thus, the phylogenetic bracket of theropods with gastroliths (see above) suggests birds inherited it from dinosaurian ancestors, but note that the oldest bird, Late Jurassic *Archaeopteryx*, lacks gastroliths.

Louchart and Viriot (2011) stated that during the Jurassic-Cretaceous, dental reduction occurred at least six times independently among Aves. They concluded that the horny beak (rhamphotheca) and gizzard replaced the dentition, so the loss of teeth in birds is correlated to the evolution of a muscular gizzard (also see Dilger, 1957).

O'Connor (2019) regarded fossil birds with gizzards as herbivores, and those with crops as granivores (but see Miller and Pittman, 2021 for a different analysis of the diets of early birds). She also noted that the role of gizzards in the tooth loss of birds is complicated by the presence of gastroliths in some toothed birds (*Jeholornis*, *Sapeornis*). So, tooth loss and gastrolith acquisition are not clearly correlated according to O'Connor (2019).

Other fossil vertebrates

Various records of gastroliths in fossil vertebrates other than plesiosaurs, dinosaurs and birds are mostly single reports, many of which are problematic. Trewin (1986) documented a placoderm fish (*Coccosteus*) from the Old Red Sandstone with pebbles in the visceral area.

Moodie (1912), Shimada (1997) and Everhart (2000) discussed a large lamniform shark with apparent black chert gastroliths, and Sternberg (1922) and Everhart (2004c) described a mosasaur with apparent gastroliths. Everhart (2005e) stated that both the shark and the mosasaur likely acquired the gastroliths from preying on plesiosaurs.

The only claim of gastroliths in a fossil amphibian is of the temnospondyl *Acerastea* from the Lower Triassic of Australia. Warren and Hutchinson (1987) stated that the holotype partial skeleton had 10 angular, polished pebbles immediately posterior to the skull that are 20-60 mm in diameter. These pebbles were metamorphic mudstone (5 pebbles), sandstone (2 pebbles), quartz (1 pebble) and mudstone (2 pebbles). But, given their size, composition and location with respect to the fossil bones, these pebbles are highly unlikely to have been gastroliths.

The oldest published tetrapod gastroliths are in a late Permian pareiasaur from Germany (Munk and Sues, 1993). The abdominal cavity of this pareiasaur had a mass of unsorted granules and pebbles of quartz and chert of varied roundness up to 10 mm in diameter interspersed with carbonized particles that Munk and Sues interpreted as macerated organic matter. They suggested that herbivorous pareiasaurs may have ingested the stones while foraging close to the ground.

Cheng et al. (2006) documented gastroliths in a Triassic ichthyosaur from China. Given that few other known ichthyosaurs have gastroliths (e.g., Keller, 1976; Long et al., 2006), they concluded that this specimen represents an example of accidental ingestion. Silva et al. (2017) suggested that a few quartz grains and other mineral clasts in some mesosaur skeletons may be gastroliths.

Many skeletons of tangasaurid eosuchians (aquatic reptiles from the upper Permian of Madagascar) have masses of gravel in their abdominal regions (Piveteau, 1926; Haughton, 1930; Currie, 1981) (Fig. 24). The most extensive analysis of these pebbles by Currie (1981, p. 115-12, figs. 3, 5-7) led him to conclude that they were used for buoyancy control. These clasts in *Hovasaurus* are of two sizes, large pebbles and gravel up to 200 mm in diameter and much smaller sand and granules that are 0.5-2.0 mm in diameter. They are mostly quartz and not polished. These clasts are located between the ribs and gastralia of multiple specimens of different body sizes, though two articulated specimens lack any gastroliths.

Currie (1981) argued that these gastroliths were too far posterior to have been held in the stomach, though Haughton (1930) saw the pebbles as having a digestive function. Currie (1981, p. 119) further concluded that they were stored in a "blind sac" in the abdominal cavity that shifted the center of gravity backward to maximize the tail-based propulsion of the tangasaur, and we regard this as reasonable speculation. Estimating the weight of the specimen illustrated here (Fig. 24) as about 300-500 grams, and the weight of the pebbles as ~ 25 grams, Currie noted that this would raise the tangasaur's specific gravity by 5-10%, to a value within the range of the specific gravity of aquatic turtles (Zug, 1971).

Fossil crocodiles have a diverse but not prolific record of gastroliths. These include a few records in nonmarine crocodilians (e.g., Berckheimer, 1928; Hölder, 1955; Keller and Schaal, 1992; Vasconcellos et al., 2008; Nascimiento and Zaher, 2010) and marine crocodiles (e. g., Westphal, 1962; Kobatake and Kamei, 1966; Buffetaut, 1979, 1982; Martill, 1986; Walkden et al., 1987; Keupp and Kohring, 1993; Denton et al., 1997). However, we question the gastrolith identity of some of these records. For example, we doubt Keupp and Kohring (1993), who identified as a gastrolith a single stone in a concretion found near some bones of an Early Jurassic crocodilian.

There are a few records of gastroliths in coprolites, presumably excreted by the animal that swallowed the gastroliths. These are records primarily in fossil crocodile coprolites (Weigelt, 1927; Walter and Weigelt, 1932; Young, 1964; Wings, 2012).

Codorniú et al. (2013) reported gastroliths from a specimen of the pterosaur *Pterodaustro* from the Lower Cretaceous of Argentina. These comprised fine gravel up to 8.4 mm in diameter in an area of 24 cm² just in front of the pelvis surrounded by gastralia and ribs. Most of the gastroliths were angular, abraded metaquartzite. They noted the rarity of gastroliths in pterosaurs (many complete skeletons lack gastroliths) and suggested that this pterosaur used the gastroliths to break up hard-shelled crustaceans in its food.

Gastrolith records in fossil mammals are almost unknown. The only record we are aware of is a skeleton of an Eocene pangolin, *Eomanis*, from Germany that had coarse sand in the visceral area (von Koenigswald et al., 1981). Extant pangolins similarly swallow sand and gravel as an aid to digestion (e. g., Walker, 1968).

Gastroliths in Archeology and Pedology

Although our focus is on paleontology, it is worth noting that there is a diverse literature on supposed gastroliths in archeological sites and in very young loessic paleosols, often in an archeological context (Lucas and Hunt, 2021).

The archeological literature is very biased by the notion that high polish characterizes gastroliths, so that any highly polished, "out-of-place" stone can be called a gastrolith, even though it lacks any avian skeletal association (Lucas and Hunt, 2021). The archeological analyses are largely focused on identifying gastroliths as evidence of the consumption of birds by humans (e.g., Hardcastle, 1889; Young, 1967; Hoskin et al., 1970; Powers et al., 1983; Powers and Hoffecker, 1989; Gautier, 1993, but see Thorson and Hamilton, 1977; Tryon, 2002). It ranges from simply calling any polished stone at an archeological site a gastrolith (e. g., Bottema, 1975) to more nuanced treatments at hunting camps where the harvesting of birds finds evidence beyond their supposed gastroliths (e. g., Brooks et al., 2012).

Pebbles that lack any osteological association in loessic soils of late Pleistocene age have also been identified as gastroliths.

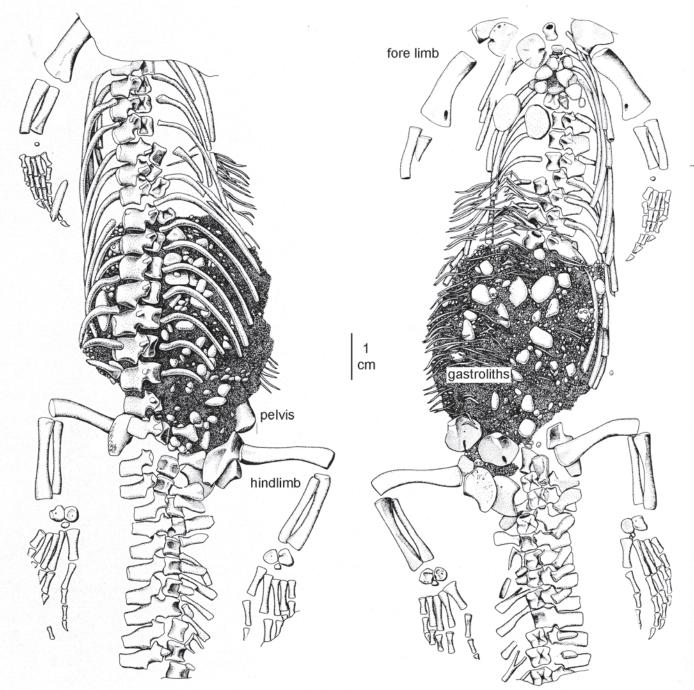


FIGURE 24. Dorsal (left) and ventral (right) views of the abdominal region of the tangasaurid *Hovasaurus* showing gastroliths (modified from Currie, 1981).

Particularly interesting is the work of Cox (1994, 1997, 1998), who identified pebbles 4 to 64 mm in diameter as avian gastroliths that are buried in "stone lines" in Pleistocene loessic soils in Illinois and Mississippi, USA. Cox accepted the conclusions of Johnston et al. (1990, 1994) and Manley (1991b, 1993) that high polish diagnoses gastroliths. He concluded that the pebbles in these stone lines were avian gastroliths that had been moved downward to their current stratigraphic positions by invertebrate bioturbation in the loess. However, identification of the loessic pebbles as gastroliths rested totally on the unsubstantiated idea that high polish identifies gastroliths.

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To determine polish, Cox (1994) used the methods of Johnston et al. (1990, 1994) and Manley (1991b, 1993), by

which the reflectance of light (which is an indicator of the degree of polish) scattered from the pebbles is quantified. However, the data of Cox (1994, table 4.1) show, as other workers have demonstrated, that most of the gastroliths of extant birds are not highly polished (an average of 16% of gastrolith pebbles from the modern birds Cox listed are highly polished). Because most of the loessic pebbles studied by Cox are not highly polished (only 8.8% to 21% of the pebbles in the populations of loess pebbles he studied are highly polished), Cox concluded that these loessic pebbles are gastroliths. But, if high polish diagnoses gastroliths fide Cox, then only a small minority of the pebbles he studied could be gastroliths by his own stated criterion.

Cox's (1994) idea that invertebrate bioturbation moved

the gastroliths to stratigraphic levels that are within loessic paleosols (they are in A, E and upper B horizons of the paleosols), instead of at levels that were paleoland surfaces, is also open to question. Cox (1994) argued that if the stones are gastroliths, they must have been regurgitated, defecated or otherwise left on the paleoland surface by Pleistocene birds (the "gastrolith rain" of Van Nest, 2002), and moved stratigraphically downward later. But, he presents no evidence that invertebrate bioturbation moved the stones-no ichnofabric data or evidence of bioturbation in the form of biogenic structures in the loess. Thus, bioturbators moved the stones to a stone line below the paleosurface, and because the stones are so organized, they must have been moved by bioturbators–a perfectly circular argument. The fact is that plausible inorganic processes to organize the loessic stones in the sediment were published long ago (e. g., Shaler, 1891; Savage, 1915).

Cox's (1994, 1997, 1998) work was done in the context of understanding "biomantles" as stone lines overlain by sand and silt created by invertebrate burrowers (notably earthworms: Darwin, 1881) that moved the stones downward to their current stratigraphic levels (e.g., Johnson, 1990, 1993, 2002; Johnson and Balek, 1993; Johnson et al., 2005a, b; Johnson and Schaetzl, 2015). Most of these articles also endorse the pebbles in the loessic stone lines as avian gastroliths. However, a more insightful discussion by Van Nest (2002) recognized that only some of these exotic pebbles may actually be avian gastroliths, as there are many ways for such stones to arrive at and be buried in loesses and at archeological sites.

We also note that not a single bird bone was found in the loess anywhere near the pebbles studied by Cox (1994). Some loessic pebbles Cox studied are as much as 64 mm in diameter, so they are much larger than the pebbles that the largest birds, extinct and extant (moas, ostriches), are known to have swallowed. Thus, high polish = gastrolith needs to be abandoned in archeological and pedological studies. There needs to be a more rigorous appraisal to determine the origin of polished pebbles lacking an osteological association at archeological sites and in soil profiles (Lucas and Hunt, 2021).

Gastroliths as Trace Fossils

Bertling et al. (2006, p. 266), in their effort to standardize the study and terminology of trace fossils, defined a trace fossil as "a morphologically recurrent structure resulting from the life activity of an individual organism (or homotypic organism) modifying the substrate." They regarded gastroliths as trace fossils, but they classified them as in a "gray zone" with coprolites, "regurgitaliths" (sic) and bite and gnaw structures that have not been considered trace fossils by some workers. Thus, gastroliths receive no mention in a very comprehensive book on ichnology by Buatois and Mángano (2011). Nevertheless, much earlier, Abel (1935), in a classic treatise on trace fossils, devoted 13 pages to reviewing the then published records of gastroliths. And, in their treatise on fossil behavior, Boucot and Poinor (2010; also see Boucot, 1990) regard gastroliths primarily as of use in digestion and assigned them as fossilized evidence of behavior to their highest category 1, or "frozen behavior."

As is currently the case in ichnology, Bertling et al. (2006) argued that all trace fossils need ichnotaxonomic nomenclature governed by the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature. No ichnotaxonomy has been proposed for gastroliths. Bertling et al. (2006) state that gastroliths stand on the boundary between the work of (trace fossil) and the product of (not a trace fossil) an animal. They only list the etched sculpture of some gastroliths as a possible morphological character that could be of use in an ichnotaxobase.

However, we see gastroliths clearly as the work of an animal. Unlike eggs, for example, the sand/gravel that comprise gastroliths (our definition) is not made by animals–it is swallowed by, concentrated by, transported by and, in some cases, altered by animals. So, the trace-fossil status of gastroliths is unimpeachable by the Bertling et al. (2006) definition of a trace fossil.

We advocate development of an ichnotaxonomy for gastroliths. Ichnotaxonomic names, however, should not be assigned to individual grains/clasts of sand/gravel of fossil gastroliths. As the review above indicates, the numerous sand grains/gravel found in a fossil vertebrate digestive tract are often diverse in number, size, shape and composition. Naming single sand grains/gravel clasts would thus produce a bewildering plethora of names. Instead, we favor naming the entire gastrolith mass from a single abdominal cavity. Ichnotaxobases could be the number of gastroliths in the mass, their general petrographic composition, and their overall size, shape, surface texture and other shared morphological features. This likely would produce a workable ichnotaxonomy that recognizes ichnotaxa that are readily distinguished by morphological differences that are a direct reflection of varied behavior.

One problem little addressed is the taphonomy of gastroliths. Does a decomposing vertebrate carcass lose its gastroliths rapidly (cf. Everhart, 2005b), and could gastroliths be all that remain of a carcass otherwise disintegrated? To our knowledge the only taphonomic study of gastroliths is Wings (2003), whose actualistic studies suggest gastroliths are rapidly released from carcasses in water. Wings (2003) also noted that the integrity of a vertebrate animal's integument matters, as there are numerous crocodiles (strong integument) with gastroliths, and almost no birds (weak integument) with gastroliths at the Eocene Messel Lagerstätte in Germany. Further studies of gastrolith taphonomy are needed.

Gastroliths are a limited and somewhat perplexing part of the ichnological record of vertebrate consumption. Other than birds, relatively few vertebrate taxa utilize/utilized gastroliths in digestion to pulverize and disintegrate food (Fig. 19). Most of these non-avian vertebrates and the gastrolith-using birds are/ were herbivores or omnivores. But, a compelling case has been made that plesiosaurs used gastroliths for digestion, yet they were predators.

We view gastroliths as a behavioral strategy primarily to grind food, mostly plant matter. Use for ballast in buoyancy control may have been the function of gastroliths in some animals, notably some crocodiles and marine mammals, but this is a little employed strategy for the use of gastroliths. Nevertheless, these strategies for gastrolith use have only been adopted idiosyncratically. Many taxa that could use a "gastroliths, whereas close relatives do not and, in populations of some vertebrate species that use gastroliths, not all individuals have gastroliths. These complexities of gastrolith distribution await further explanation, if an explanation is possible.

Gastroliths not only provide important information about feeding and buoyancy control, but the need for the animal to collect them provides insight into habitat. Thus, some plesiosaurs must have travelled hundreds of kilometers to acquire their gastroliths, whereas the gastroliths of moas are all of local origin, indicating little travel by these avian giants.

Thus, gastroliths are trace fossils in need of ichnotaxonomy. They provide important insights into various behaviors, notably diet, digestion, buoyancy control and habitat preferences.

COPROLITES

Introduction

There is an extensive literature on coprolites, fossilized feces, large portions of which we have reviewed elsewhere (Hunt et al., 2007, 2012d, 2013b, 2018; Hunt and Lucas, 2013, 2014a, 2016c, 2018c, 2021b). After footprints, they are the most studied vertebrate trace fossils, and coprolites are the subject of

an extensive and rapidly growing literature.

History of Study

Several authors have reviewed the history of study of vertebrate coprolites (e.g., Reinhard and Bryant, 1992; Duffin, 2009, 2012a, b; Bryant and Reinhard, 2012; Hunt et al., 2012d; Pemberton, 2012; Shillito et al., 2020; Hunt and Lucas, 2021b), obviating the need for a lengthy review here. Bromalites, later identified as coprolites, have been known since the late seventeenth century (Duffin, 2012a). In the 1820s, Buckland identified aggregates of apatitic subspheroidal objects from a Pleistocene deposit in Kirkdale Cave in northern England as fossil hyena feces (Buckland, 1822, 1824). This was a relatively easy conclusion, as the cave contained many hyena bones, and Buckland could demonstrate that the new specimens were comparable to modern hyena feces.

Buckland made a much more important breakthrough in 1829, when he recognized spiral objects from the Early Jurassic of southern England as also representing what he then called coprolites (Buckland, 1829). This recognition, possibly aided by the famed fossil collector Mary Anning (Duffin, 2012a), led him to identify these types of fossil from many stratigraphic intervals from the Carboniferous to the Neogene (Buckland, 1829, 1835). Buckland realized that modern sharks and rays have spiral valves, and he filled modern shark intestines with Roman cement to demonstrate that they might produce spiral feces (Buckland, 1835). Despite this innovative study, he still referred some spiral coprolites to ichthyosaurs. In an impressive decade of early research on vertebrate trace fossils, Buckland also recognized dentalites (fossil bite marks) and fossil footprints, and was equally diligent in conducting actualistic studies - feeding cow bones to modern hyenas to examine the feces they produced and the bite marks they left on the bones, and making tortoises walk across wide sheets of pastry to compare their footprints to fossil tracks (Buckland, 1822, 1824, 1829, 1835, 1836; Pemberton et al., 2007).

Buckland's recognition of fossil feces sparked interest, and it inspired what Duffin (2012a) termed "copromania," particularly in Victorian England, but also in Europe and in the United States, that lasted till about the middle of the nineteenth century (e. g., DeKay, 1830a, b; Geinitz, 1842; Hitchcock, 1844; Dana, 1845; Henslow, 1845; Quadrat, 1845; Fischer, 1856; Reuss, 1856). But, during the subsequent 100 years, there was only intermittent interest in coprolites. Notable publications included the first study of human coprolites by Young (1910), descriptions of large coprofaunas from the Permian and Cretaceous (Bertrand, 1903; Neumayer, 1904) and the first paper by Eric Callen (1912-1970) on archaeological coprolites (Callen and Cameron, 1955).

There was increased study of coprolites between 1960 and 1990. Callen's discovery of a methodology to reconstitute desiccated coprolites using trisodium phosphate (Callen and Cameron, 1960) ushered in a three-decade-long "Golden Age of Coprolite Analysis" for human specimens (Bryant, 1994; Bryant and Reinhard, 2012). This work focused largely on North America, principally in the western (e.g., Fry, 1969; Hall, 1969; Heizer and Napton, 1969; Callen and Martin, 1969; Napton and Heizer, 1970) and southwestern (e.g., Williams-Dean and Bryant, 1975; Irwin-Williams and Shelley, 1980; Reinhard, 1988) United States, including Texas (e.g., Bryant, 1969, 1974; Williams-Dean, 1978; Sobolik, 1988, 1994). Other human coprolites were described from the southeastern United States (e.g., Watson and Yarnell, 1966; Bryant, 1974; Schoenwetter, 1974), Mexico (e.g., Callen, 1963, 1967a, 1967b, 1968; Bryant, 1975) and South America (e.g., Callen and Cameron, 1960; Callen, 1965). De Lumley (1969) and Trevor-Deutsch and Bryant (1978) studied coprolites of Homo erectus, Callen (1969) studied those of Neanderthals, all from France, and others worked on younger European latrinites (e.g., Callen, 1969).

Earlier studies in Europe tended to focus on latrinites (cess pits, latrines) because these are prevalent, and isolated coprolites that characterize cave sites in the Americas, are rare (Shillito et al., 2020). Lipid biomarkers have been the focus of increased study of archaeological coprolites during the past 20 years around the world (e.g., Shillito et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2019, 2020).

The decades of the 1960s through 1990s also saw an increased interest in paleontological coprolites. As the work of Callen had stimulated studies of human coprolites, Paul S. Martin (1928-2010) had a similar effect on the study of Pleistocene vertebrate coprolites. Martin and his students and collaborators, notably Jim I. Mead, became the driving force behind the study of the desiccated coprolites from caves in the American Southwest (Martin, 2005; Mead and Swift, 2012; Mead et al., 2020). Much of this work was focused on the palynology and paleobotany of coprolites and their ages and relationship to late Pleistocene extinctions (e.g., Martin et al., 1961, 1985; Hansen, 1978, 1980; Mead et al., 1984, 1986a, b, 1993, 2020; Agenbroad and Mead, 1987, 1989; Mead and Agenbroad, 1989, 1992). Outside of the Americas work has focused on hyena coprolites and their palynology, principally in caves in Europe, Africa and Asia (Hunt and Lucas, 2020a and references cited therein).

The development of the study of older coprolites was slower during this timeframe. The majority of this work was on the coprolites of the Paleozoic (e.g., Zangerl and Richardson, 1963; Williams, 1972; McAllister, 1985, 1988, 1996), Triassic (e.g., Ochev, 1974; Duffin, 1979; Jain, 1983) and Cretaceous fish (e.g., Stewart, 1978) and of Cenozoic mammals (e.g., Jepsen, 1963; Vogeltanz, 1965, 1967; Clark et al., 1967; Lemley, 1971; Edwards, 1973a, b; Edwards and Yatkola, 1974; Packard and Allison, 1980).

Karen Chin did much to popularize the study of coprolites within paleontology in the 1990s and 2000s as she and coworkers studied the coprolites of the most glamorous of fossil vertebrates, the dinosaurs (e.g., Chin, 1996; Chin and Gill, 1996; Chin et al., 1998, 2003, 2009; Chin and Kirkland, 1998; Chin, 2007). In a similar timeframe, we began to collect and analyze large samples of coprolites, especially of Triassic age (e.g., Lucas et al., 1985a; Hunt, 1992; Hunt et al., 1994a, 1998, 2007, 2018). This period also saw the first applications of DNA analysis to the study of ground sloth coprolites (Höss et al., 1996; Poinar et al., 1998, 2003). Ironically, as the study of human coprolites declined (Bryant and Reinhard, 2012), work on pre-Pleistocene coprolites intensified. Coprolite studies expanded in South America, notably due to the work of Souto and of Dentzien-Dias and their co-workers (e.g., Souto, 2001, 2007, 2008, 2010; Souto and Schwanke, 2010; Souto and Fernandes, 2015; Dentzien-Dias et al., 2012, 2013, 2017, 2021), and, in Europe, notably due to Qvarnström, Niedźwiedzki and Bajdek and their co-workers (Bajdek, 2013, 2014; Badjek et al., 2014, 2016, 2017, 2019; Niedźwiedzki et al., 2016b; Qvarnström et al. 2019a, b, c, 2021; Bajdek and Bienkowska-Wasiluk, 2020; Qvarnström, 2020b). Hunt et al. (1998) applied the first binomial ichotaxonomy to vertebrate coprolites, and several ichnotaxa have subsequently been named (Table 3). The study of parasites in coprolites has a long history in archeology (Bryant and Reinhard, 2012; Camacho and Reinhard, 2020; Blong and Shillito, 2021). There is a now an extensive and growing literature on parasites in paleontological coprolites (Dentzien-Dias et al., 2013, 2017; Cardia et al., 2019, 2021; Ferreira et al., 2019; Barrios-de Pedro et al., 2020b; Agustín et al., 2021; De Baets et al., 2021; Oyarzún-Ruiz et al., 2021).

Hunt et al. (2012d) edited the first academic volume on vertebrate coprolites, which included diverse contributions that discussed the history of study, terminology, distribution and importance of bromalites. The last decade has been characterized by the use of new methodologies of study and a focus on inclusions in coprolites of fossils of organisms in

TABLE 3. Named coprolite ichnotaxa.Ichnotaxon	e ichnotaxa. Morphology	Author	Producer	Holotype Age	Age Range	Type Unit	Type locality
Alococopros indicus	Arcuate, large, sub- rounded in cross section, regularly spaced longitudinal grooves	Hunt et al. (2007)	Crocodylomorph	Late Cretaceous (Maastrichtian)	Late Cretaceous	Lameta Formation	Kadubana, India
Alococopros triassicus	Arcuate, small, sub- rounded in cross section, regularly spaced longitudinal grooves	Hunt et al. (2007)	Archosauromorph	Upper Triassic (late Carnian)	Early Permian-Late Eocene	Tecovas Formation of Chinle Group	Crosby County, Texas, USA
Beechybromus wellschi	Elongate sub-cylindrical coprolite composed of discoidal segments	Hunt and Lucas (2018b)	Mosasaur	Late Cretaceous (late Campanian)	Late Cretaceous	Beechy Member of Bearpaw Formation	Wellsch Valley, Saskatchewan, Canada
Bibliocoprus beemanensis	Scroll, cylindrical, parallel-sided, coils in lateral view that constitute less than 20% of the length	Hunt et al. (2012g)	Chondrichthyan	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Beeman Formation	Sacramento Mountains, New Mexico, USA
Borocopros wangi	Segmented cylindrical containing abundant large bone fragments	Hunt and Lucas (2021c)	Borophagus spp.	latest Miocene	Latest Miocene - latest Pliocene	Mehrten Formation	Turlock Lake, California, USA
Castrocopros martini	Sub-cylindrical comprised of anterior-posteriorly thick plates that are parallel-sided to wedge- shaped in cross section	Hunt and Lucas (2018c)	Nothrotheriops shastensis	Late Pleistocene	Late Pleistocene	Unnamed cave fill	Rampart Cave, Arizona, USA
Castrocopros hauthali	Sub-cylindrical composed of anterior-posteriorly thin plates that are parallel- sided to wedge-shaped in cross section	Hunt and Lucas (2018c)	Mylodon darwinii	Late Pleistocene	Late Pleistocene	Unnamed cave fill	Cueva de Milodón, Última Esperanza province, Chile
Costacoprus chinae	Cylindrical with closely spaced lateral ridges along its length that average 2-3 mm in width and that are at right angles to the long axis	Hunt et al. (2012c)	Fish	Early Cretaceous (Albian)	Early Cretaceous	"Cambridge Greensand"	Cambridge, England
Crassocoprus mcallisteri	Heteropolar macrospiral, approximately 10 tight, irregularly-spaced coils that constitute 75% of the length	Hunt et al. (2012i)	Chondrichthyan	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian- Eocene	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Tinajas Lagerstätte, New Mexico, USA
Crustacoprus tinajaensis	Cylindrical, predominantly of conchostracan valves with abundant fine-grained phosphatic groundmass	Hunt et al. (2012i)	A canthodian, platysomid	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Tinajas Lagerstätte, New Mexico, USA

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oros hofstedtii ontocopros	inclusions	Lucas (2005a)	**************************************	(Late Wolfcampian- Middle Leonardian)	Early Permian	Arroyo Formation	Taylor County, Texas, USA
ntocopros	Microspiral heteropolar, posterior spire less than 50% length, irregular longitudinal striations	Milàn and Hunt (2016)	Fish less derived than teleosts or advanced actinopterygian	Early Paleocene	Early Paleocene	Stevns Klint Formation	Hammelev Quarry, Denmark
othe	Large, typically dark gray, up to 4 loose coils, containing large blebs of carbonaceous material, slightly arcuate, one end broadly rounded and the other acute	Hunt et al. (1998)	Dicynodont	Late Triassic (late Carnian)	Late Triassic	Tecovas Formation of Chinle Group	Crosby County, Texas, USA
Elacocoprus williamsi elor post	Elongated amphipolar coprolite narrow, elongate, and tapering posteriorly	Hunt et al. (2012i)	Chondrichthyan or sarcopterygian	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Tinajas Lagerstätte, New Mexico, USA
Elongatocoprus cyli amadoensis spir	Elongate gently coiled cylinder with a round cross section that is tightly spiraled in cross section	Hunt et al. (2012i)	Chondrichthyan or sarcopterygian	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Tinajas Lagerstätte, New Mexico, USA
Eucoprus cylindratus osse	Cylindrical with rounded ends and containing no osseous inclusions	Hunt and Lucas (2012b)	Fish, amphibians, tortoises, iguanas, crocodylians, theropods, birds, mammalian carnivores	Late Triassic (Rhaetian)	Early Triassic –late Eocene`	Redonda Formation of Chinle Group	Gregory Quarry, New Mexico, USA
Falcatocopros Lon oxfordiensis cyli	Long, narrow, tapering, cylindrical, curved	Hunt et al. (2007)	Vertebrate	Late Jurassic (Oxfordian)	Late Triassic-Late Jurassic	Oxford Clay	Peterborough, England
Am Beliocoprus clarki deer sect	Amphipolar with wide separation of the coils by deep sulci with a V-cross section	Hunt et al. (2015b)	Rajidae (skates)	Late Pliocene- Pleistocene	Late Pliocene- Pleistocene	Red Crag Formation	Ipswich, England.
Heteropolacopros three-f texaniensis less the less the length	Heteropolar, microspiral, three-four coils forming less than 50% of the length	Hunt et al. (1998)	Chondrichthyan	Upper Triassic (late Carnian)	Early Permian-Late Triassic	Tecovas Formation of Chinle Group	Crosby County, Texas, USA
Huberobromus ovatus ovo and	Large, flattened and sub- ovoid with groundmass and abundant fish debris	Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	Chondrichthyan	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Mississippian- Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Kinney Brick Quarry, New Mexico, USA

TABLE 3. (continued) Ichnotaxon	Morphology	Author	Producer	Holotype Age	Age Range	Type Unit	Type locality
	A series of rounded segments, some of which are sub-spherical and are white in color with many small angular bone fragments	Hunt et al. (2012a)	Hyena	Late Pleistocene	Pliocene-Recent	Unnamed cave fill	Kirkdale Cave, England
Hyronocopros amphipola	Amphipolar, tight coils, no inclusions, typically six coils, small	Hunt et al. (2005b)	Sarcopterygian or chondrichthyan	Early Permian (Wolfcampian)	Late Pennsylvanian- Early Permian	El Cobre Canyon Formation	VanderHoof Quarry, New Mexico, USA
	Amphipolar, tight coils, elongate, large	Rummy et al. (2021)	Asipenceriformes	Early Cretaceous (Barremian)	Early Cretaceous	Tsagan-Tsab Formation	Tatal, Mongolia
	Amphipolar, tight coils, elongate, tapered, inclusions	Rummy et al. (2021)	Asipenceriformes	Early Cretaceous (Barremian)	Early Cretaceous	Tsagan-Tsab Formation	Tatal, Mongolia
Ichthyosaurolites duffini	Wide, flattened rectangle with a rounded tip with abundant phosphatic groundmass and inclusions of multiple skeletal elements of juvenile ichthyosaurs	Hunt et al. (2012a)	Plesiosaur or ichthyosaur	Early Jurassic (Hettangian-Lower Pliensbachian)	Early Jurassic	Lias	Lyme Regis, England
Iuloeidocoprus mantelli	Amphipolar, cylindrical with multiple, closely spaced spirals	Hunt et al. (2012b)	Chondrichthyan or Osteicthyan	Late Cretaceous (Santonian- Maastrichtian)	Late Cretaceous	Selma Group	Huntsboro, Alabama, USA
Kalocoprus oteroensis	Dominantly amphipolar -spirals do not extend to the posterior end, small number of coils separated by deep sulci, unwound	Hunt et al. (2012g)	Chondrichthyan	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Beeman Formation	Sacramento Mountains, New Mexico, USA
Kinneybromus jurgenai	Large, flat with elongate ovoid shape, scalloped margin and fine-grained matrix	Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	Chondrichthyan	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Kinney Brick Quarry, New Mexico, USA
Liassocopros hawkinsi	Heteropolar, macrospiral, maximum width at first spiral	Hunt et al. (2007)	Chondrichthyan	Early Jurassic (Hettangian-Lower Pliensbachian)	Late Pennsylvanian-Late Cretaceous	Lias	Lyme Regis, England
	Dense, dark flattened ovoid with macerated fish material and matrix	Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	Acanthodians, palaeonisciforms or platysomids	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Mississippian- Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Kinney Brick Quarry, New Mexico, USA
	Heteropolar, microspiral, rounded ends, cylindrical	Hunt et al. (2007)	Chondrichthyan	(Late Triassic; late Carnian)	Permian-Late Triassic	Maleri Formation	Maleri, India
Megaheteropolacopros sidmacadami	Heteropolar, microspiral, four whorls forming less than 50% of the length, length greater than 5 cm	Hunt et al. (2005a)	Large chondrichthyan	Early Permian (middle Leonardian)	Early Permian (Wolfcampian- middle Leonardian)	Vale Formation	Sid McAdams locality, Texas, USA
	Flattened sphere shape, large size	Hunt and Lucas (2020)	Mammuthus columbi	Late Pleistocene	Late Pleistocene	Unnamed cave fill	Bechan Cave, Utah, USA

Ichnotaxon	Morphology	Author	Producer	Holotype Age	Age Range	Type Unit	Type locality
Megakalocoprus barremianensis	Amphipolar, coils separated by deep sulci, unwound, large	Rummy et al. (2021)	Asipenceriformes	Early Cretaceous (Barremian)	Early Cretaceous	Tsagan-Tsab formation	Tatal, Mongolia
Plektecoprus whitbyensis	Elongate, rounded in cross section with a loose spiral coil and having a conical posterior end and a broad, rounded anterior end	Hunt et al. (2012a)	Ichthyosaur or plesiosaur	Early Jurassic (Hettangian-Lower Pliensbachian)	Early Jurassic	Lias	Whitby, England
Rhynchocopros soutoi	Well rounded ovoid, wide, composed primarily of calcite, often occurring in masses of up to six	Hunt et al. (2013b)	Rhynchosaur	Middle Triassic (Ladinian)	Middle Triassic	Santa Maria Formation	Gal. Camara, Villa Melo, Brazil
Santamariacopros elongatus	Elongate, rounded cylinder, composed principally of calcite lacks inclusions, often occurs in masses of up to four	Hunt et al. (2013b)	Dicynodont	Middle Triassic (Ladinian)	Middle Triassic	Santa Maria Formation	Gal. Camara, Villa Melo, Brazil
Saurocopros bucklandi	Heteropolar, microspiral, small number of wide spirals	Hunt et al. (2007)	Chondrichthyan	Early Jurassic (Hettangian-Lower Pliensbachian)	Late Triassic-Early Jurassic	Lias	Lyme Regis, England
Scrollocoprus tatalensis	Scroll, small, anisopolar, cylindrical	Rummy et al. (2021)	Sarcopterygian	Early Cretaceous (Barremian)	Early Cretaceous	Tsagan-Tsab formation	Tatal, Mongolia
Speiracoprus socorroensis	Heteropolar, macrospiral, proportionally short and wide, three coils with deep sulci between them, a narrow, acutely tipped posterior end and a rounded, conical anterior termination	Hunt et al. (2012i)	Chondrichthyan or sarcopterygian	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Tinajas Lagerstätte, New Mexico, USA
Strabelocoprus pollardi	Heteropolar, microspiral, wide, small number of coils (<3) in lateral view, very wide spirals in posterior view	Hunt et al. (2012a)	Chondrichthyan or sarcopterygian	Late Triassic (Rhactian)	Late Triassic-Early Jurassic	?Penarth Group	Watchet, England
Strophocopros valensis	Segmented, elongate, a surface texture with a fibrous, ropy texture, over 10 cm in length	Hunt and Lucas (2005b)	Chondrichthyan	Early Permian (middle Leonardian)	Early Permian	Vale Formation	Sid McAdams locality, Texas, USA
Tikicopros triassicus	Scroll, small, cylindrical, rounded anterior and tapering posterior ends, dense inclusions of bones and scales	Rakshit et al. (2019)	Hybodontid sharks - <i>Lonchidion</i> or <i>Pristrisodus</i>	Late Triassic (Carnian-Norian)	Late Triassic	Tiki Formation	Near the village of Tihki, Madhya Pradesh, India

Ichnotaxon	Morphology	Author	Producer	Holotype Age	Age Range	Type Unit	Type locality
Vinculostercus vermiformis	Amphipolar, small with narrow, flattened ribbons	Duffin and Ward (2020)	Chondrichthyans or actinopterygians	Early Carboniferous (Brigantian)	Early Carboniferous	Eyam Limestone Formation (Peak Limestone Group, Carboniferous Limestone Supergroup)	Once-A- Week Quarry, Derbyshire, England
Virgacoprus brevis	Flattened, small, narrow with rounded terminations, composed of macerated fish debris in fine-grained matrix	Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	Haplolepid, a small palaeonisciform or an acanthodian	Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian)	Late Pennsylvanian	Tinajas Member of Atrasado Formation	Kinney Brick Quarry, New Mexico, USA

TABLE 3. (continued)

coprolites such as bacteria and beetles, and structures such as hair that otherwise have a very limited and poor fossil record, as well as biochemicals (e.g., Dentzien-Dias et al., 2012, , 2021; Cosmidis et al., 2013; Beltrame et al., 2014; Khosla et al., 2015, 2016; Bajdek et al., 2016, 2017; Robin et al., 2016; Cin et al., 2017; Qvarnström et al. 2019a, b, c, 2021; Qvarnström, 2020b; Umamaheswaran et al., 2019; Runge et al., 2021; Tripp et al., 2021) culminated by the recognition by Qvarnström et al. (2016) of coprolites as Lagerstätten.

Terminology

Buckland (1829; see review in Hunt and Lucas, 2012a) introduced the term coprolite for preserved feces. The term coprolite has been consistently utilized for expelled feces, although there are a few examples of the term being utilized for consumulites (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a, 2020). Hunt and Lucas (2012a) reviewed all usage of terminology related to coprolites and introduced other terms including latrinite (accretionary and ethological) for accumulations of coprolites and guanolite (ornithoguanolite, pinnipedaguanolite, chiropteraguanolite) for fossil guano (Appendix B).

Neumayer (1904) first introduced a terminology for spiral coprolites from the early Permian of Texas. He recognized that some spiral coprolites have spirals that are distributed roughly evenly along the long axis in lateral view (amphipolar), whereas others have the spirals concentrated at one end (heteropolar) (Appendix B). Heteropolar coprolites are much more common throughout the fossil record than amphipolar forms. Scroll coprolites represent a third major morphology of spiral coprolites (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b). Hunt et al. (2007) recognized two forms of heteropolar morphology - microspiral, in which the posterior spire constitutes less than 50% of the length of the coprolite in lateral view, and macrospiral, in which it represents 50%-75% of the length of the coprolite (Appendix B). Several authors proposed different descriptive terminologies for spiral coprolites (e.g., Jain, 1983; McAllister, 1985; Laojumpon et al., 2012), and Hunt and Lucas (2012b) synthesized aspects of these schemes (coils, lip) and defined new terms (anterior coil, posterior spire) (Appendix B).

Non-spiral coprolites display a wide range of morphologies (e.g., Häntzschel et al., 1968, fig. 1). Thulborn (1991) noted that many coprolites have terminations of different shapes. He applied the term anisopolar to this type of coprolite and the term isopolar to forms in which the two ends are of the same shape (Appendix B). Typically, the posterior (distal) end of an anisopolar coprolite that emerges first from the anus/cloaca is broadly rounded, and the anterior (proximal) end is tapered to a point (mucro of Thulborn, 1991). The trailing end is pinched by the constriction of the cloaca/anal margins as it closes (Thulborn, 1991). Hunt and Lucas (2012b) proposed the term segments for the discrete longitudinal elements of a coprolite (pellets of Diedrich, 2012a; Appendix B).

Actualistic Studies

Buckland (1822, 1824) conducted the first actualistic studies of coprolites when he fed cow bones to a hyena and studied the resulting feces to assist in the identification of coprolites from a Pleistocene cave. Subsequently, Buckland recognized spiral coprolites, which he hypothesized were produced by chondrichthyans. Thus, he dissected extant rays and scyliorhinid sharks (dogfish) in order to study the spiral valves of their intestinal tracts, and subsequently he injected the intestines with Roman cement (Buckland, 1835; Duffin, 2009). The injection process produced "artificial coprolites that in form are exactly similar to many of our fossil specimens" (Buckland, 1835, p. 234). Zangerl and Richardson (1963) conducted analogous experiments.

Modern feces have been the subject of extensive study,

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but actualistic studies of coprolites have been mainly limited to anecdotal comments (e.g., Jain, 1983; McAllister, 1996), although there are a few notable exceptions (e.g., Esteban-Nadal et al., 2010; Milàn and Hedergaard, 2010; Milàn, 2012; Wings, 2012). However, many neontological studies provide important data for the study of coprolites such as the particle size of ingesta (Fritz, 2007; Fritz et al., 2009), fecal dimensions relative to body size (Platt et al., 2020) and fecal composition, diet and digestive physiology (Canfield and Fairburn, 1983; Doherty, 2009). There is clear potential for more actualistic studies related to coprolites.

Fossil Record

Introduction

We have previously reviewed the fossil record of coprolites (Hunt et al., 2012d) and some of the coprofaunas from the Carboniferous-Permian (Hunt and Lucas, 2013), Triassic (Hunt et al., 2007, 2013b, 2018), Jurassic (Hunt and Lucas, 2014a), Cretaceous-Paleogene (Hunt and Lucas, 2007a, 2016a; Hunt et al., 2015c), Cenozoic (Hunt and Lucas, 2007a) and Pleistocene (Hunt and Lucas, 2018c, 2020a).

Paleozoic

The oldest vertebrate body fossils are from the lower Cambrian of China (e.g., Shu et al., 1999, 2003; Shu, 2008). Cambrian coprolites occur at a number of localities, but all have been attributed to invertebrates (e.g., Peel, 2015; Shen et al., 2014; Kimmig and Strotz, 2017; Kimmig and Pratt, 2018). Some larger forms could have arguably been produced by vertebrates, such as round masses of fragmented skeletal material from the middle Cambrian Spence Shale of Utah. These were identified as coprolites by Conway Morris and Robison (1986), and attributed either to very large individuals of the arthropod predator *Anomalocaris* or to another unidentified large predator.

There are several occurrences of clusters of conodont elements from the Early Ordovician of Kazakhstan, Sweden and Australia that probably represent coprolites (Tolmacheva, 1996; Tolmacheva and Purnell, 2002; Stewart and Nicoll, 2003). These coprolites were most likely produced by conodont animals (Tolmacheva and Purnell, 2002).

The Middle Ordovician Winneshiek Lagerstätte of Iowa in the United States and the Late Ordovician Soom Shale Lagerstätte of South Africa both preserve diverse bromalites that probably include some of vertebrate origin (Aldridge et al., 2006; Hawkins et al., 2018). The Winneshiek Shale yields a variety of vermiform bromalites that are principally preserved three-dimensionally and composed of calcium phosphate with a minority preserved as carbonaceous compressions (Briggs et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2017; Hawkins et al., 2018). Hawkins et al. (2018) identified five morphotypes that may have been produced by eurypterids, agnathans and/or conodonts. Inclusions identified in thin sections are principally conodonts but also include phyllocarids, other small arthropods such as ostracods, and linguloids. Some Winneshiek bromalites preserve a concentrically layered internal structure, which is characteristic of the coprolites of animals with a valvular intestinal tract such as chordates (Hawkins et al., 2018). The abundance and diversity of the Winneshiek bromalites may provide independent evidence of predation in the fauna during the Great Ordovician Biodiversification Event (Hawkins et al., 2018).

Aldridge et al. (2006) described five principal morphotypes of Ordovician bromalites, including coprolites. Brachiopodbearing coprolites could pertain to conodont animals or several groups of invertebrates. Some coprolites, or possibly regurgitalites, are composed of conodont elements more fragmented than those in the Early Ordovician specimens, and they were probably produced by conodont animals (Aldridge et al., 2006). Corrugated/spiral bromalites, coiled coprolites and wrinkled coprolites could all have been produced by vertebrates. The most likely vertebrate coprolites are those that are amphipolar spiral in morphology (Aldridge et al., 2006, pl. 1, figs. 9-10). This corresponds to the intestinal morphology of many early fish (McAllister, 1987). While eurypterids also possessed a partially spiraled gut, there is no evidence that they produced spiral coprolites. Caster and Kjellesvig Waering (1964) described a putative eurypterid coprolite containing fragments of the exoskeleton of the eurypterid Megalograptus ohioensis and a trilobite cephalon, in association with body fossils of M. ohioensis from the Ordovician of Ohio, as evidence of cannibalism. Unstructured masses containing disarticulated agnathan fragments are common in the Monks Water fish bed in the Silurian Hagshaw Hills inlier in Scotland, together with the eurypterid Lanarkopterus dolichoschelus, and these were interpreted by Selden (1979) as eurypterid coprolites. These examples suggest eurypterid coprolites consist of unstructured material. Thus, we consider the spiral morphology to be diagnostic of vertebrates.

There are few putative Early or Middle Silurian vertebrate coprolites. There are Early Silurian coprolites from Scotland and Nova Scotia of a size that they could have been produced by vertebrates, but they have been attributed to large predatory eurypterids such as *Lanarkopterus* (Gilpin, 1886; Rolfe, 1973; Selden, 1984; Turner, 1999). Late Silurian coprolites include two unusual morphologies. Gilmore (1992) described more than 150 scroll and non-spiral coprolites from western Ireland and southern Scotland. The coprolites are composed of argillaceous clastic material. These coprolites occur with body fossils of agnathans, to which they are attributed. Scroll coprolites are uncommon in the fossil record (e.g., Hunt et al., 2012b; Stringer and King, 2012), and the only other examples of non-phosphatic spiral coprolites are from the Permian of Antarctica (Retallack

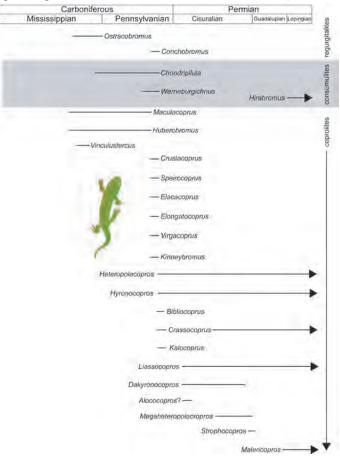


FIGURE 25. Stratigraphic distribution of Paleozoic bromalite ichnogenera.

and Krull, 1999).

The Telychian/Llandovery agnathan locality of Birk Knowes, Lanarkshire, Scotland, yields a large number of coprolites. They are composed principally of agnathan fragments with little matrix. Specimens at the Hunterian Museum in Glasgow preserve two principal morphologies. The majority of the bromalites are flattened ovoids averaging 30 mm in length and 40 mm in height. A small number of specimens are parallelsided linear ribbons with a maximum length of 105 mm and a width of 24 mm. The lack of matrix may suggest that these bromalites represent regurgitalites. However, the abundance of specimens and the regular size of the pellets suggest they are coprolites, albeit unusual ones.

The Ludlow bone bed (Ludlow Bone Bed Member of Downton Castle Sandstone Formation) is a Late Silurian source of vertebrates in the area along the border between England and Wales. Coprolites have long been known to be locally common in the Ludlow bone bed (Strickland and Hooker, 1853; Murchison, 1867). They include spiral morphologies and are phosphatic, and are thus similar to many geologically younger coprolites (Murchison, 1839, p. 607, pl. 2, figs. 46-47, 54- 55).

Vertebrate coprolites become more common in the Devonian, with the most important assemblages derived from fossil-fish localities in Scotland, and Lagerstätten elsewhere. The most significant Early Devonian coprolites from Scotland derive from the Lochkovian Tillywhandland Quarry, Forfarshire (Trewin and Davidson, 1996). Many coprolites contain spines and scales of the acanthodian fish *Mesacanthus* and were probably produced by *Ischnacanthus* (Trewin and Davidson, 1996; Trewin, 2008; Newman and Davidson, 2010). The *Mesacanthus* spines are usually oriented anteriorly, which indicates head first ingestion of spiny acanthodians (Trewin, 2008). Most coprolites are flattened. A second important assemblage of coprolites occurs at Duntrune Quarry in Angus. Spiral coprolites are uncommon in the nonmarine assemblages of the Early Devonian of Scotland.

The Early Devonian Hunsrück Slate Lagerstätte of Germany yields pyritized coprolites of various morphologies and includes local concentrations (Bartels et al., 1998; Wagner and Boyce, 2006; Kühl et al., 2012). Small strings of feces that represent deposit feeders are widespread, but larger coprolites attributed to fish are only common in the northern Hunsrück where body fossils are rare (Bartels et al., 1998). These coprolites range from ovoids to spirals in morphology and locally are concentrated in thin layers (Bartels et al., 1998, fig. 220; Kûhl et al., 2012, fig. 119).

The Achanarras Quarry in the Upper Flagstone Group of the Middle Old Red Sandstone of Caithness (Eifelian–Givetian) yields a large sample of Middle Devonian coprolites (Rayner, 1963; Trewin, 1986; Hamilton and Trewin, 1988, 1994). Other Scottish Middle Devonian coprolites derive from Orkney and Moray. Most coprolites are preserved three dimensionally and include several examples of spiral coprolites, and one with a scroll morphology.

McAllister (1996) published a detailed study of more than 120 bromalites, principally coprolites, from the Upper Devonian Escuminac Formation of the Miguasha Lagerstätte, Quebec, Canada. These coprolites are typical of Devonian assemblages in that spiral forms are relatively uncommon (only 3-4 in the Escuminac) as are specimens over 4-5 cm in length, and larger forms are very rare. Small vertebrate coprolites occur in the Late Devonian of Poland, and one larger spiral specimen contains conodont elements (Zatoń and Rakociński, 2014; Zatoń et al., 2017). Devonian coprolites have been reported from other areas, including Brazil (Maisey and Melo, 2005), Latvia/Estonia (Hunt et al., 2012b) and the United States (e.g., Branson, 1914).

Carboniferous strata record the first large samples of vertebrate coprolites (Turner, 1999; Fig. 25). This is a strictly Laurussian record that increases in diversity and abundance from

the Mississippian into the Pennsylvanian. Mansky et al. (2012) described coprolites from the Early Mississippian (Tournaisian) Horton Bluff Formation of Nova Scotia. In Scotland, there are Early Mississippian coprolites (e.g., Pollard, 1985) as well as large collections of coprolites from three Middle Mississippian (Viséan) localities: (1) East Kirkton, West Lothian; (2) Wardie, Midlothian; and (3) Anstruther, Fife (Buckland, 1836; Sumner 1991,1994). The Wardie and Anstruther localities yield the oldest coprofaunas dominated by spiral coprolites. These coprolites occur in concretions and average about 5 cm in length. Very large coprolites from East Kirkton measuring more than 17 cm in length have been attributed to eurypterids (Sumner, 1994). The Late Mississippian (Serpukhovian) of Bearsden, East Dunbartonshire, Scotland, yields a large sample of coprolites, as does the similar age Bear Gulch Lagerstätte of Montana, USA (Zidek, 1980; Clark, 1989; Hunt et al., 2012e). Other Mississippian coprolites occur in the USA (e.g., Fayetteville Shale of Arkansas and Oklahoma, Michigan Formation of Michigan, Buffalo Wallow Formation of Kentucky) and England (Hunt and Lucas, 2013; Greb et al., 2015).

The first abundant samples of vertebrate coprolites occur in the Pennsylvanian (Fig. 25). Coprolites are found in marine and lagoonal shales at many localities as well as in some nonmarine coal successions (Hunt and Lucas, 2013). Four bromalite faunas of Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian/Kasimovian) age in New Mexico, USA, represent an ecological transect from lacustrine to basinal marine: (1) Tinajas Lagerstätte – lacustrine; (2) Kinney Brick Quarry Lagerstätte – lagoonal; (3) Erickson site – nearshore marine; and (4) Sacramento Mountains (Fig. 26) – offshore marine (Hunt and Lucas, 2017a). There are clear trends through these ichnofaunas from lacustrine to offshore marine in terms of a trend of flattened preservation to three dimensional preservation, decreasing diversity of kinds of bromalites (regurgitalites, consumulites) and increasing proportions of spiral coprolites (Hunt and Lucas, 2017a).

There are several Pennsylvanian examples of stratigraphically narrow but geographically widespread zones rich in spiral coprolites in marine shales in Colorado (Weber Formation, lower Belden Formation) and West Virginia (Conemaugh Group) in the USA, and in Germany (Göttelborner Beds) (Price, 1927; Johnson, 1934; Guthörl, 1959; Kneuper and Schönenberg, 1962; Hunt et al., 2012b; Hunt and Lucas, 2013). A variety of Pennsylvanian Lagerstätten in the United States preserve coprolites, including Mazon Creek in Illinois, the Hamilton Quarry of Kansas and the Kinney Brick Quarry and Tinajas localities of New Mexico (McAllister, 1988; Shabica and Godfrey, 1997; Hunt et al., 2012h, i; Hunt and Lucas, 2017a, 2021b; Tripp et al., 2021). Marine invertebrates in coprolites from Hamilton aid in paleoenvironmental interpretation (Cunningham et al., 1993). Zangerl and Richardson (1963) conducted a classic and extensive study of the paleoecology of the Middle Pennsylvanian (Desmoinesian/Moscovian) Mecca Quarry Shale and Logan Quarry members of the Carbondale Formation in western Indiana, USA, and described multiple bromalites (coprolites and regurgitalites: Elder, 1985; Elder and Smith, 1988).

Dawson (1854, 1862) first noted common coprolites in the fossil-bearing tree stumps of the Early Pennsylvanian Joggins Formation of Nova Scotia, and they have been described from various localities in eastern Canada (Brown, R. and Lyell, C., 1845; Keighley and Pickerill, 1997; Falcon-Lang et al., 2006; Ó Gogáin et al., 2016; Chipman, 2017; Chipman et al., 2020; Bingham-Koslowski et al., 2021). Other coal-bearing Pennsylvanian strata in England, Scotland, Belgium, Germany and Poland yield coprolites (e.g., Buckland, 1836; Bayer, 1934; Anderson et al., 1997; Hunt et al., 2012b, c; Hunt and Lucas, 2013; Krzykawski et al., 2014, Lomax et al., 2016). Hodnett and Lucas (2018) described an unusual, large coprolite that

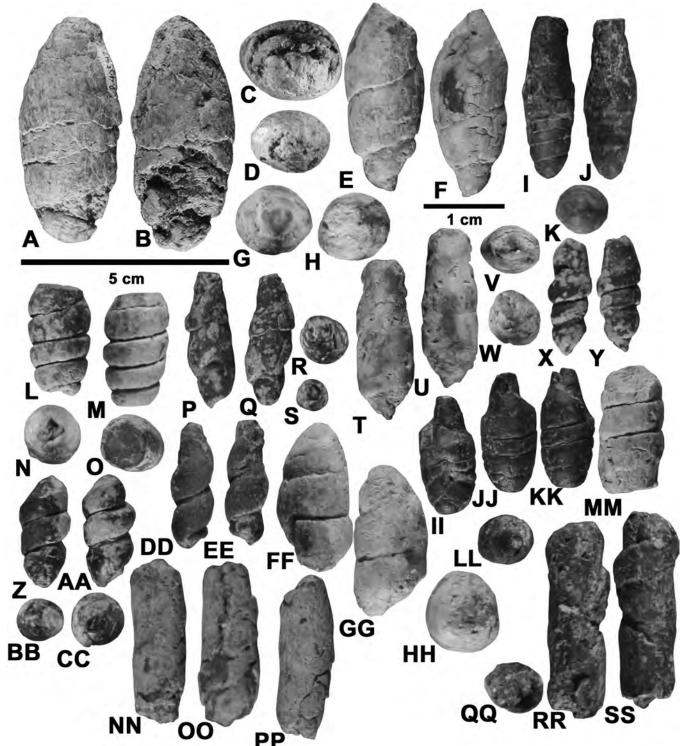
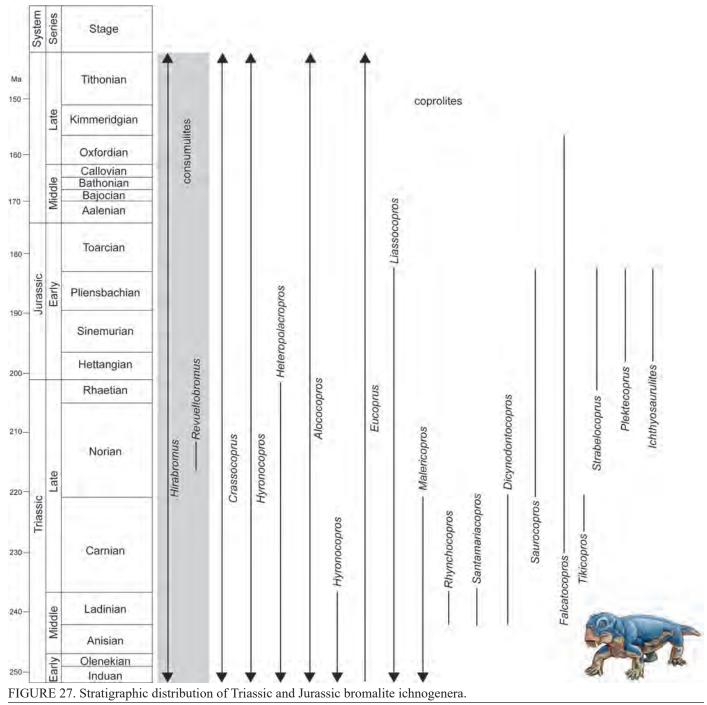


FIGURE 26. Selected spiral coprolites from the Late Pennsylvanian (Missourian) Beeman Formation, Otero County, New Mexico, USA. A-D, *Liassocoprus hawkinsi*, NMMNH P-42547, coprolite in A-B, axial and C-D, polar views. E-H, *Hyronocoprus* isp., NMMNH P-63521, coprolite in E-F, axial and G-H, polar views. I-K, *Heteropolacoprus texaniensis*, NMMNH P-63514, coprolite in I-J, axial and K, polar views. L-O, *Hyronocoprus amphipola*, NMMNH P63520, coprolite in L-M, axial and N-O, polar views. P-S, *Kalocoprus oteroensis*, NMMNH P-63511, coprolite in P-Q, axial and R-S, polar views. T-W, *Heteropolacoprus* isp., NMMNH P-63517, coprolite in T-U, axial and V-W, polar views. X-CC, *Kalocoprus oteroensis*. X-Y, NMMNH P-63527, coprolite in axial views. Z-CC, NMMNH P-63523, coprolite in Z-AA, axial and BB-CC, polar views. DD-EE, *Kalocoprus oteroensis*, NMMNH P-63513, coprolite in Z-AA, axial and BB-CC, polar views. DD-EE, *Kalocoprus oteroensis*, NMMNH P-63513, coprolite in Z-AA, axial and BB-CC, polar views. DD-EE, *Kalocoprus oteroensis*, NMMNH P-63513, coprolite in Z-AA, axial and BB-CC, polar views. DD-EE, *Kalocoprus oteroensis*, NMMNH P-63513, coprolite in Z-AA, axial and BB-CC, polar views. DD-EE, *Kalocoprus oteroensis*, NMMNH P-63513, coprolite (holotype) in axial views. FF-HH, *Hyronocoprus amphipola*, NMMNH P-63519, coprolite in FF-GG, axial and HH, polar views. II-LL, *Heteropolacoprus texaniensis*, NMMNH P-63524, coprolite in II-KK, axial and LL, polar views. MM, *Hyronocoprus amphipola*, NMMNH P-63518, coprolite in axial view. NN-SS, *Bibliocoprus beemanensis*. NN-PP, NMMNH P-63515, coprolite in axial views. QQ-SS, NMMNH P-63503, coprolite (holotype) in QQ, polar and RR-SS, axial views (from Hunt et al., 2012g, fig. 1).



contained body fossils of fishes and a tetrapod from the Upper Pennsylvanian of New Mexico that may represent a fecal cloud derived from a large shark.

Many Pennsylvanian coprolites have a spiral morphology, and most of these are heteropolar in form, including *Crassocoprus* and *Heteropolacopros* (Hunt et al., 2012a, b, c, 2013c; Hunt and Lucas, 2017a; Chipman et al., 2020; Figs. 25-26). Amphipolar morphologies, such as *Kalocoprus* and *Hyronocoprus*, are less common, and scroll coprolites (e.g., *Bibliocoprus*) are only locally present (Hunt et al., 2012g; Hunt and Lucas, 2017a; Chipman et al., 2020; Fig. 26). The Benxi Formation of Mississippian/Pennsylvanian (Serpukhovian to Bashkirian) age in northern China yields small coprolites that could have been produced by fish (Gong et al., 2010).

Whereas the Carboniferous coprolite record is strictly

Laurussian, the Permian coprolite record globalizes to include records from Gondwana (Hunt and Lucas, 2013). A similar pattern is seen in the bone record, and this is due, at least in part, to the glaciations in Gondwana during parts of the Carboniferousearliest Permian, which restricted the distribution of vertebrates in the southern continents (Lucas, 2006). Permian coprolites are even more abundant than those of the Pennsylvanian and are particularly common in redbeds.

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Early Permian coprolites occur in redbeds of the American Southwest in New Mexico (Hunt et al., 2005b, 2013a; Cantrell et al., 2012), Texas (Neumayer, 1904; Olson, 1966; Olson and Mead, 1982; Sander, 1989; Hunt and Lucas, 2005a, b, Hunt et al., 2005a, 2012c) and Oklahoma (Olson, 1971, 1977; Hunt et al., 2012b), and in marine strata in Kansas (Williams, 1972; McAllister, 1985). These ichnofaunas principally yield spiral coprolites that are commonly heteropolar (*Heteropolacopros*, "Megaheteropolacopros," Liassocoprus, Malericoprus, Saurocoprus), although amphipolar (*Hyronocoprus*) and nonspiral forms (*Alococopros, Dakyronocopros, Strophocoprus*) are also present (Neumayer, 1904; Hunt and Lucas, 2005a, b; Hunt et al., 2005a, 2012a, b, 2013a; Cantrell et al., 2012; Fig. 26). Similar age coprolites are present in the lower Permian Dunkard Group of West Virginia in the eastern United States (Bowen, 2013; Lucas, 2013; Hembree and Blair, 2016; Hembree and Bowen, 2017).

Coprolites are common in the Rotliegend strata of Western and Central Europe, including France (Gaudry, 1887), Germany (Lohmann and Sachs, 2001; Eichler and Werneburg, 2010) and the Czech Republic (Lemke and Weiler, 1942; Zajíc, 2014). Other early Permian coprolites are found in Brazil and Namibia and include specimens associated with skeletons of Mesosaurus (Ruedemann, 1929; Horsthemke et al., 1990; Warren et al., 2001; Silva et al., 2017). Middle Permian coprolites are less common, but they are present in Brazil (Dentzien-Dias et al., 2012, 2013, 2017), Russia (Ochev, 1974) and Antarctica (Retallack and Krull, 1999). The Antarctic specimens are of note because they are composed of arenaceous matrix (Retallack and Krull, 1999). Late Permian coprolites have been reported from England (Bell et al., 1979) and South Africa (Smith, 1993; Smith and Botha-Brink, 2011), but they are most common in Russia where one specimen contains possible pre-mammalian hair (Owocki et al., 2012; Sennikov and Golubev, 2012; Bajdek et al., 2016, 2017; Niedźwiedzki et al., 2016b).

Mesozoic

There is an abundant record of vertebrate coprolites in the Triassic that increases in abundance and diversity through the period (Hunt et al., 2018; Fig. 27). As in the Permian, Triassic, coprolites are particularly abundant in nonmarine redbeds. Early Triassic coprolites are geographically widely dispersed but relatively small in number. The largest sample is from the Arcadia Formation (Induan) in Queensland, northeastern Australia (Northwood, 1997, 2005). This ichnofauna includes Hyronocopros amphipola, Alococopros triassicus, Eucoprus sp. and indeterminate coprolites (Hunt et al., 2007). Other significant nonmarine coprofaunas occur in the Burgersdorp Formation (Olenekian) of South Africa (Bender and Hancox, 2004; Yates et al., 2012), the Vokhama Formation in Russia (Niedźwiedzki et al., 2016b) and the Bulgo Sandstone in Australia (Niedźwiedzki et al., 2016a). Other coprolites occur in units of the Buntsandstein in France (Gall, 1971; Gall and Grauvogel-Stamm, 1993) and Germany (e.g., Dachroth, 1985) and the Beaufort Group in South Africa (Smith and Botha-Brink, 2011). Early Triassic coprolites from marine strata of Japan and Poland have been utilized to address changing ecosystems after the PTB extinctions and in relation to the "Mesozoic Marine Revolution" (Nakajima and Izumi, 2014; Brachaniec et al., 2015). Similarly, Luo et al. (2017) utilized a diverse coprolite fauna from the Middle Triassic of Luoping, China to indicate the emergence of complex trophic ecosystems in the Anisian as evidence for biotic recovery after the Early Triassic extinctions.

Middle Triassic nonmarine coprolite localities are widely dispersed in North (USA) and South America (Argentina, Brazil), Europe (England, France, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, Poland, Slovenia), Asia (Russia, Kazakhstan, India, China) and

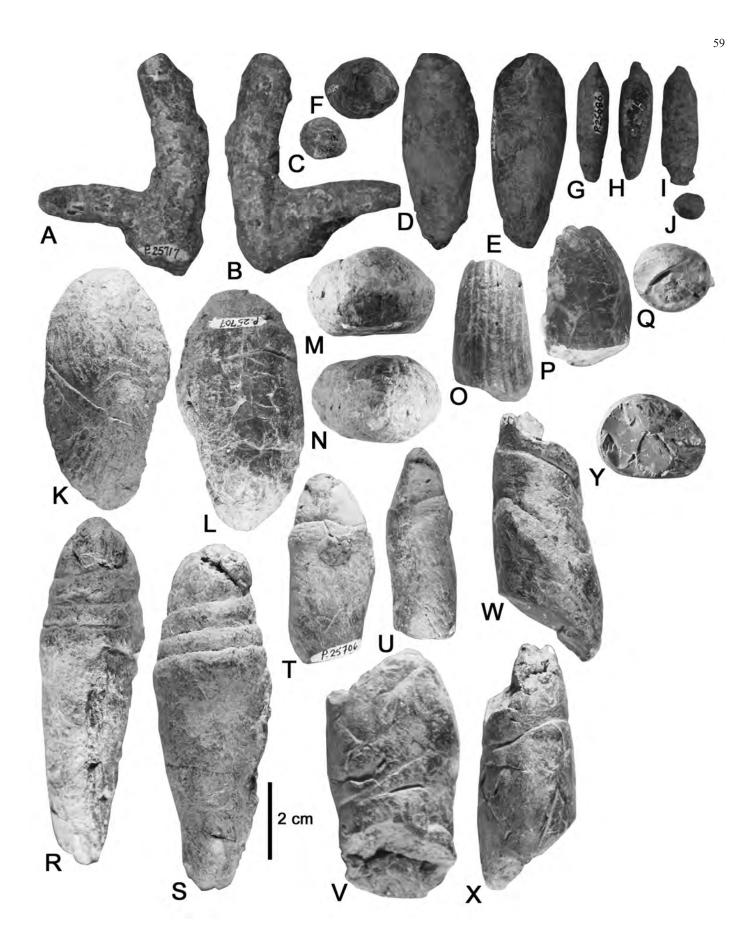
Africa (South Africa) (Hunt et al., 2013b). The best described Middle Triassic ichnofaunas are from Brazil (Santa Maria Formation: Souto, 2001; Hunt et al., 2013b; Francischini et al., 2018), Argentina (Potrerillos, Cacheuta, Río Blanco and Chañares formations: Rusconi, 1947, 1949; Mancuso et al., 2004; Fiorelli et al., 2013; Loinaze et al., 2018; Mancuso et al., 2018), the United States (Moenkopi Formation: Benz, 1980; Morales, 1987; Boy et al., 2001; Schoch et al., 2010), Russia (Karagachka, Donguz I and Bukobay localities: Ochev, 1974), Kazakhstan (Mollo-Khara-Bala-Kantemir locality: Ochev, 1974) and Poland (Muschelkalk: Chrzastek, 2008; Kowal-Linka and Bodzioch, 2012). The Santa Maria Formation of Brazil yields the earliest unambiguous vertebrate herbivore coprolites, Rhynchocopros and Santamariacopros (Hunt et al., 2013b; but see Francischini et al., 2018). The oldest latrinite is from the Chañares Formation of Argentina (Fiorelli et al., 2013).

The Late Triassic sample of coprolites is by far the largest from this period, and the majority of specimens are from nonmarine strata (Figs. 27-28). There are records in the USA (Lucas et al., 1985a; Wahl et al., 1998; Hunt et al., 1998, 2007, 2013b, 2018), Greenland (Milàn et al., 2012b, 2021; Hansen, 2014; Hansen et al., 2016), England (Duffin, 1979; Swift and Duffin, 1999; Hunt et al., 2013b), The Netherlands (Klompmaker et al., 2010), Switzerland (Fluckiger, 1861), Germany (Fraas, 1891; Schoch, 2012), Poland (Badjek et al., 2014, 2019; Zatoń et al., 2015; Qvarnström et al., 2019a, b, 2021), India (Matley, 1939a, b; Sohn and Chatterjee, 1979; Jain, 1983; Vijaya et al, 2009; Rakshit et al., 2019; Umamaheswaran et al., 2019), Thailand (Laojumpon et al., 2012), Argentina (Contreras, 1995; Hollocher et al., 2005), Brazil (Langer, 2005), Morocco (Hunt et al., 2013b), Madagascar (Burmeister et al., 2006) and South Africa (Anderson et al., 1998). The majority of specimens are from the nonmarine Chinle Group and Newark Supergroup of western and eastern North America, respectively, and the marine Rhaetic bonebeds in Europe (Duffin, 1979; Swift and Duffin, 1999; Hunt et al., 2013b).

The largest and most studied Late Triassic coprolite assemblages are from about 20 stratigraphic units of the Chinle Group of the western and southwestern United States (Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, Texas, Utah, Wyoming: Hunt et al., 1998, 2007, 2013b, 2018; Fig. 28). Late Triassic nonmarine coprofaunas include a wide diversity of morphologies representing large herbivores (Dicynodontocopros) and carnivores with heterospiral (Heteropolacopros), scroll and nonspiral (Alococoprus, Eucoprus) coprolite morphologies (Hunt et al., 2013b, 2018; Badjek et al., 2014; Zatoń et al., 2015; Rakshit et al., 2018; Bajdek et al., 2019; Qvarnström et al., 2019a, 2021; Fig. 28). The most abundant marine coprolites are from Rhaetian bonebeds of western Europe, notably the United Kingdom, and morphotypes include spiral and nonspiral forms (Duffin, 1979; Swift and Duffin, 1999; Hunt et al., 2013b; Cueille et al., 2020). Coprolites also occur in the marine Carnian of Austria (Lukeneder et al., 2020; Lukeneder and Lukeneder, 2021).

Jurassic coprolites are much less common than those in the Triassic and understudied, with the notable exception of those from the Lias of England, which yields several ichnotaxa, including multiple spiral forms such as *Liassocoprus*, *Strabelocoprus* and *Saurocoprus* (Hunt et al., 2007, 2012a; Duffin, 2009, 2010, 2012a; Fig. 27). Other Early Jurassic marine units in Europe yield relatively few coprolites, for example the

FIGURE 28. (facing page) Late Triassic (Adamanian) coprolites from the Ciniza pond locality, Bluewater Creek Formation, New Mexico, USA (NMMNH locality 1864). A-C, NMMNH P-25717, two conjoined coprolites of *Eucoprus cylindricatus*, in A-B, axial and C, polar views. **D-F**, NMMNH P-25692, heterospiral coprolite in D-E, axial and F, polar views. **G-J**, NMMNH P-25686 from NMMNH locality 1864, cf. *Heteropolacopros* isp. in G-I, axial and J, polar views. **K-N**, NMMNH P-25707, *Eucoprus cylindricatus*, in **K-L**, axial and **M-N**, polar views. **O-Q**, NMMNH P-25706, *Alococopros triassicus* in O-P, axial and Q, polar views. **R-S**, NMMNH P-1864, large *Heteropolacopros texaniensis* in axial views. **T-U**, NMMNH P-25706, partial *Heteropolacopros texaniensis* in axial views. **V-Y**, NMMNH P25709, segment of *Heteropolacopros texaniensis* in V-X, axial and Y, polar views (from Hunt et al., 2013, fig. 6).



Posidonienschiefer of Germany (e.g., Hauff, 1921). Garassino and Donovan (2000) describe possible coprolites of marine reptiles, some containing coleoid hooks, which are common in ichthyosaur consumulites, from the Early Jurassic of Italy.

The Early Jurassic portion of the nonmarine Newark Supergroup in eastern North America contains coprolites that are little studied (e.g., Hitchcock, 1844; Dana, 1845; Gilfillian and Olsen, 2000; Lanzirotti et al., 2000), and a smaller number occur in the Glen Canyon Group of the southwestern USA (Clark and Fastovsky, 1986). Górecki et al. (2019) described plant material from the coprolite of a large predatory dinosaur from the Early Jurassic of Poland.

Nomarine Middle Jurassic coprolites are rare (as are terrestrial vertebrate body fossils). Hill (1976) described a mass of small pellets containing the plant *Ptilophyllum* in England and tentatively assigned them to an ornithopod dinosaur or mammal, although the latter is highly improbable given their size (about 1 cm in diameter) and age. The Natural History Museum in London has coprolite collections from the marine Purbeck Limestone and Oxford Clay formations of England, which are largely unstudied (Hunt et al., 2007, 2012c). The Oxford Clay is notable for yielding many vertebrate coprolites (Martill, 1985a).

Several lithographic limestone Lagerstätten of Late Jurassic age in Germany contain coprolites. Schweigert and Dietl (2012) described specimens from the Nusplingen Lithographic Limestone, and specimens are also common in the Solnhofen and Ettling Lagerstätten (Barthel et al., 1990; Kemp and Trueman, 2003; Röper, 2005; Ebert et al., 2015). Hone et al. (2015) described rare pterosaur coprolites from Solnhofen, and Qvarnström et al. (2019b) described others from Poland. The Talbragar Fish Bed Lagerstätte in New South Wales, Australia, is of Kimmeridgian-Tithonian age and yields abundant coprolites (Beattie and Avery, 2012; Schwarzhans et al., 2018).

Despite the local abundance of dinosaur body fossils in the Late Jurassic, their coprolites are rare. Hunt and Lucas (2014a) reviewed the record of Late Jurassic coprolites from the United States. It includes probable theropod specimens and putative specimens produced by herbivorous dinosaurs from the Morrison Formation (Chin and Kirkland, 1998; Chin and Bishop, 2004, 2007).

Cretaceous coprolites are more numerous and more widespread than in any earlier time period (Fig. 29). Early Cretaceous coprolites are mainly known from nonmarine settings and are relatively poorly documented, although their occurrences are widespread (North and South America, Africa, Australasia and Europe) (Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). Bertrand (1903) authored the first monograph on vertebrate coprolites, based on specimens that had been found in strata that yielded multiple skeletons of Iguanodon from Belgium. He ascribed them to theropod dinosaurs (see also Casier, 1960, 1978), but they more likely pertain to crocodiles (Abel, 1935). Multiple coprolites also occur in an Iguanodon bonebed at Nehden in Germany (Norman, 1987). Öther notable coprofaunas from Early Cretaceous nonmarine strata include the Maceió and São Sebastião formations of Brazil (Souto, 2008; Souto and Schwanke, 2010), the Wealden Group of England (Buckland, 1835; Martill and Naish, 2001; Goldring et al., 2005), the Escucha Formation (Alcalá et al., 2012; Vajda et al., 2016) and La Huérguina Formation (Las Hoyas Konservat-Lagerstätte: Barrios-de Pedro et al., 2018, 2020a,c) of Spain, the Angeac-Charente bonebed of France (Rozada et al., 2021) and the Jehol Lagerstätte of China (Burnham, 2008; Pan et al., 2011, 2013). Other nonmarine Early Cretaceous coprolites are present in the United States, Mexico, Denmark, Tunisia and Mongolia (Hunt and Lucas, 2016c).

Marine reptile coprolites are uncommon. Early Cretaceous ichthyosaur coprolites occur with a large concentration of skeletons in the Zapata Formation at Torres del Paine National Park in Chile (Stinnesbeck et al., 2014). The lagoonal Civita di Pietraroja Lagerstätte in Italy has yielded coprolites of a herbivorous fish, possibly *Notagogus* (Russo et al., 2015).

The record of Late Cretaceous coprolites is much more extensive and more widespread than for the earlier part of the period (Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). In addition, there are much larger samples from marine units, reflecting the great extent of continental flooding. And, Late Cretaceous-Paleogene phosphorites yield coprolites over a wide area from northwest Africa to the Middle East (Hunt and Lucas, 2016c).

Woodward (1729) was the first to describe Late Cretaceous specimens that were later recognized as coprolites, from the marine Grey Chalk Group (Cenomanian) in England (Duffin, 2009; Hunt et al., 2015b). Subsequently, Mantell (1822) described and illustrated similar specimens and others from the Turonian-Maastrichtian White Chalk Group (Turonian-Maastrichtian), which Buckland (1835) ultimately identified as coprolites. Subsequently, several coprolites, principally

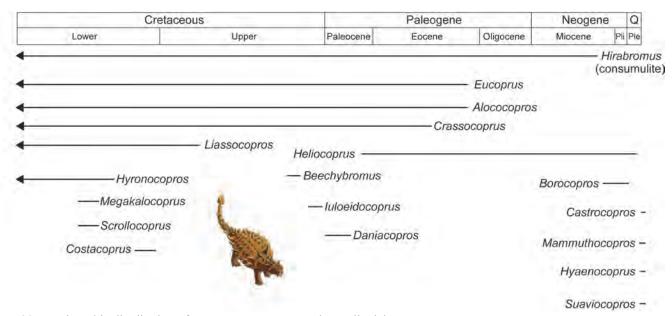


FIGURE 29. Stratigraphic distribution of Cretaceous-Quaternary bromalite ichnogenera.

heteropolar in form, were described from the Chalk of southern England (Longbottom and Patterson, 2002; Hunt et al., 2015b). Elsewhere, Late Cretaceous marine coprolites are widely distributed in three principal areas: (1) Europe; (2) Middle East/North Africa; and (3) North America. Many of the coprolites from Europe are spiral forms from chalk facies in the Netherlands, Belgium, Sweden, Germany, the Czech Republic, Austria and Poland (e.g., Hunt et al., 2015c; Milàn et al., 2015; Hunt and Lucas, 2016b). Non-spiral forms are locally common (Hunt and Lucas, 2018b). Large samples demonstrate a diversity of morphotypes (e.g., Eriksson et al., 2011; Anagnostakis, 2013), and coprolites from Austria and Poland are composed of *Inoceramus* shell fragments (Götzinger and Becker, 1932; Bajdek, 2013).

Phosphorites are nonrandomly distributed in space and time (e.g., Cook and McElhinny, 1979; Dornboss, 2011). The North Africa/Middle East phosphogenic province ranges in age from Late Cretaceous to Eocene and is part of the South Tethyan Phosphogenic Province (STPP) (e.g., Sheldon, 1964; Klemme, 1985). It yields reports of marine coprolites from Togo to Iraq, including Late Cretaceous specimens from Jordan, Israel, Syria, Egypt, Mauritania, Tunisia, Senegal, Morocco, Mali and Niger (Tapanila et al., 2008; Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). Many coprolites are correctly identified, but some of the putative coprolites are probably concretions (cf. Horton, 2012; Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). Capasso (2019b) described a coprolite of a pycnodont from the Cenomanian of Lebanon that is not associated with phosphorites and that appears to have been expelled just before fossilization.

The Western Interior Seaway in North America yields abundant marine coprolites. The first published record of a North American coprolite was a heteropolar specimen from the Upper Cretaceous of New Jersey (DeKay, 1830a, b; Buckland, 1835). Subsequently, coprolites have been described from elsewhere in the eastern United States, in New Jersey (Hunt and Lucas, 2016b, c), North Carolina (Hunt et al., 2012a), South Carolina (Hunt et al., 2012b; Schwimmer et al., 2015a, b), Georgia (Harrell and Schwimmer, 2010; Hunt et al., 2012b) and Alabama (Hunt et al., 2012a). The majority of the coprolites from the western United States derive from Kansas (e.g., Stewart, 1978; Hattin, 1996; Everhart, 2005e, 2017), but they also occur in Texas (Friedman, 2012), Colorado (Shimada et al., 2006; Hunt et al., 2012b) and Wyoming (Hunt and Lucas, 2016b). Mosasaur coprolites occur in southern Saskatchewan (Mahaney et al., 2013; Hunt and Lucas, 2018c), and other specimens occur in Cenomanian bonebeds in Saskatchewan and Manitoba (Schröder-Adams et al., 2001; Cumbaa et al., 2006; Phillips, 2008; Underwood and Cumbaa, 2010).

The majority of vertebrate coprolites from the nonmarine Late Cretaceous derive from North America, and there are also specimens from Europe, India and Africa. Many of the nonmarine units in the Western Interior of North America (Canada, United States, Mexico) that produce vertebrate body fossils, also yield coprolites, but there are relatively few published descriptions. The most extensive described samples in North America are from the San Juan Basin in New Mexico (Suazo et al., 2012; Sullivan and Jasinski, 2012; Hunt et al., 2012b), and the largest individual specimens are putative tyrannosaur coprolites from Saskatchewan and Alberta (Chin et al., 1988, 2003). Apart from putative coprolites of herbivorous dinosaurs from Montana (Chin and Gill, 1996; Hollocher et al., 2001; Chin, 2007; Chin et al., 2009) and possibly Coahuila, Mexico (Rodriguez de la Rosa et al., 1998) and Utah (Ridgewell et al., 2015), all other occurrences represent carnivores and include specimens from Texas, Utah, Wyoming, Montana and Alaska in the United States (Rowe et al., 1992; Baghai-Riding and DiBenedetto, 2001; Hollocher at al., 2010; Hunt et al., 2012b; Hunt and Lucas, 2016c), and Alberta in Canada (Waldman and Hopkins, 1970; Coy, 1995; Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). Other nonmarine Late Cretaceous

coprolites occur in India (e.g., Matley, 1939a, b; Ghosh et al., 2003; Hunt et al., 2007; Khosla et al., 2016), France, (Robertson, 1834), Hungary (Segesdi et al., 2017), Austria (Ősi et al., 2021), Brazil (Souto, 2010; Souto and Fernandes, 2015; Ferreira et al., 2019; de Oliveira et al., 2021), Madagascar (Rogers et al., 2013) and Kazakhstan (Nesov, 1995, 1997; Averianov et al., 2015).

Paleogene

The majority of Paleogene coprolite localities are in nonmarine strata, although the largest sample sizes are from marine deposits (Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). North America has the best described record of Cenozoic vertebrate coprolites (Hunt and Lucas, 2007a, 2016b), with nonmarine specimens from every epoch and notably large samples from the Eocene Green River Formation (e.g., Edwards, 1976; Grande, 1980; 2013; Wilson, 1987; Wells et al., 1993; Hunt et al., 2012b) and Eocene/Oligocene White River Group, including a latrinite (e.g., Sinclair, 1921; Wanless, 1923; Abel, 1926, 1935; Stovall and Strain, 1936; Vogeltanz, 1965, 1967; Clark et al., 1967; Lemley, 1971; Edwards, 1973a, b; Edwards and Yatkola, 1974; Retallack, 1983; LaGarry, 1997; DiBenedetto, 2004; Hembree and Hasiotis, 2004, 2007; Meehan, 2007; Hunt and Lucas, 2007a; Hunt et al., 2012b, g).

Nonmarine Paleogene coprolites are present at several localities in South America, including the Paleocene of Brazil (Souto, 2007), Paleocene/Eocene of Argentina (Krause et al., 2007; Krause and Piña, 2012) and Oligocene of Brazil (Castro et al., 1988). Lucas et al. (2012) described a large coprofauna from the late Eocene of northeastern Kazakhstan, and other Asian localities are in the Paleocene of China (Young, 1964; Meng and Wyss, 1997) and the middle Eocene of Pakistan (Gingerich, 1977). Paleocene coprolites occur in the Menat Lagerstätte in France (Wedmann et al., 2018).

Coprolites, principally from crocodiles and fish, are known from both of the famous German Eocene Lagerstätten of Geiseltal (Voigt, 1934) and Messel (Fikentscher, 1933; Nürnberger, 1934; Schmitz, 1991; Richter and Baszio, 2001a, b; Richter and Wedmann, 2005). Baranov et al. (2021) described an unusual occurrence of fly larvae in a specimen of a mammalian coprolite within Eocene Baltic amber. Other nonmarine coprolites from Europe occur in the Eocene London Clay (Buckland, 1835; Cloutier et al., 2000; Rayner et al., 2009) and the Oligocene of France (Buckland, 1835; Duffin, 2009).

Paleogene phosphorites yield marine coprolites over a wide area of the South Tethyan Phosphogenic Province (STPP) from northwest Africa to the Middle East, including Iraq, Jordan, Egypt, Algeria, Senegal, Mali, Morocco, Algeria, Togo and Nigeria (Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). The marine Eocene is characterized by very large samples (> 1K specimens) of marine coprolites, notably the early Eocene Potapaco Member of the Nanjemov Formation, Virginia (Dentzien-Dias et al., 2021) and the upper Eocene Yazoo Clay, Louisiana (Stringer and King, 2012), both in the United States, and from the middle Eocene Fürstenau Formation of Germany (Diedrich and Felker, 2012). The latter two coprofaunas consist principally of heteropolar spiral coprolites. Other marine coprolites occur in the Paleocene of Denmark (Milàn, 2010; Milàn et al., 2012b; Milàn and Hunt, 2016), the Oligocene of Germany (Weiler, 1922; Zotz, 1928; Martini, 1965), Oligocene of Denmark (Milàn et al., 2018), Oligocene of Poland (Bajdek and Bienkowska-Wasiluk, 2020) and the Paleocene and Eocene of France (Meillet, 1842) and Belgium (Buckland, 1835).

Neogene

The Neogene coprolite record is dominated by nonmarine assemblages with relatively few marine examples. Miocene coprolites have an almost worldwide distribution and occur in South, North and Central America, Europe, Asia, Africa and Australasia. Virtually all examples are from nonmarine strata, and they include an increased number of coprolites attributed to herbivores relatively to older time intervals.

Some of the most significant Miocene coprofaunas from Europe are from Spain and yield the earliest hyena coprolites (Pesquero et al., 2011, 2013a, b), which were to become prevalent during the latest Neogene and Quaternary (Hunt and Lucas, 2020a). Abella et al. (2021) described two morphotypes of bone-consuming carnivores from Spain. Antunes et al. (2006a, b) reported the unusual occurrence of mammalian footprints in coprolites from Portugal. Miocene tetrapod coprolites occur in the Czech Republic (Fejfar et al., 2003; Mikuláš and Dvorák, 2010), and aquatic coprolites occur in Spain and Malta (Pedley, 1978; Peñalver and Gaudant, 2010).

One of the largest coprolite ichnofaunas from the Miocene of South America is from the Uranco Formation of Venezuela, and it includes specimens produced by herbivorous and carnivorous mammals and reptiles (Royo and Gomez, 1960; Dentzien-Dias et al., 2018). There are several localities yielding coprolites in Argentina (Tauber et al., 2007; Verzi et al., 2008; Tomassini and Montalvo, 2010; Aceñolaza, 2012; Montalvo et al., 2016, 2019; Tomassini et al., 2019), and specimens have been reported from Colombia (Carlini et al., 1997) and in northwestern Amazonia (Hoorn, 1994). In Central America, coprolites occur in Miocene strata in Panama (Whitmore and Stewart, 1965; Hastings et al., 2013).

Wang et al. (2018) described coprolites of the bone-cracking dog *Borophagus* from the Miocene of California in the western United States that Hunt and Lucas (2021d) subsequently named *Borocopros wangi*. Other borophagine coprolites occur in New Mexico and Texas (Hunt and Lucas, 2021a). Martin (1981) documented other carnivore coprolites to the north in Oregon. There are other undescribed Miocene coprolites from North America, including Miocene rhinoceros coprolites from Mexico (Hunt and Lucas, 2007a).

There are relatively few reports of Neogene coprolites from Africa and Asia, but they include specimens from terrestrial and lacustrine environments in Uganda and Kenya, respectively (Greenwood, 1951; Bishop, 1964), and crocodilian coprolites from India (Sharma and Patnaik, 2010). Australasian Miocene coprolites occur in a fluvial deposit in central Australia (Megirian et al., 1996) and a lacustrine maar Lagerstätte in New Zealand (Lindquist and Lee, 2009; Lee et al., 2016).

Miocene marine coprolites are uncommon, and most derive from the Calvert Cliffs of Maryland in the United States (e.g., Godfrey and Smith, 2010). Specimens of note include one yielding feather impressions and another that includes dentalites produced by a shark (Wetmore, 1943; Godfrey and Smith, 2010). Another dentalite-bearing coprolite derives from northern Italy (Collareta et al., 2019b).

The record of Pliocene coprolites is principally from nonmarine strata in Africa, Europe and South America. Most Pliocene African coprolites were discovered during studies of early hominins in the eastern and central parts of the continent, including Ethiopia (Jacobs, 1985), Tanzania (Harrison, 2011; Njau and Blumenschine, 2012) and Zaire (Harris et al., 1987). Other Pliocene coprolites occur in Namibia (Morales et al., 2011) and Libya (Muftah, 2020; Muftah et al., 2020). Pliocene or Villafranchian (late Pliocene-early Pleistocene) coprolites, principally derived from hyenas, are known from multiple localities in Europe, including Spain (Arribas et al., 2009; Madurell-Malapeira et al., 2010, 2011), France (Delson et al., 2006; Argant and Bonifay, 2011) and Italy (Girotti et al., 2004).

South American Pliocene coprolite records are principally from Argentina (Aceñolaza, 2012; Tomassini and Montalvo, 2013; Cenizo et al., 2016). The North American Pliocene has produced few coprolites. Hunt et al. (2019, 2021b) described a specimen of the borophagine coprolite *Borocopros* from southwestern New Mexico in the United States. There are possible Pliocene coprolites from China (Kao, 1962).

There are few records of Pliocene marine coprolites. Hunt et al. (2016b) named *Helicoprus clarki* for a spiral chondricthyan coprolite from the Red Crag Formation (upper Pliocene-lower Pleistocene) of England.

Quaternary

There are numerous Quaternary coprolites in paleontological and archeological sites worldwide, which include hominin specimens. The largest Quaternary coprolite fossil record is in North America, where the caves of the arid Southwest have yielded large accumulations of coprolites, including latrinites (e.g., Rampart Cave, Bechan Cave) of megaherbivore coprolites such as those of ground sloth and mammoth (*Castrocopros, Mammuthocopros*) as well as of smaller herbivores (Martin et al., 1961; Mead et al., 1984, 1986a, b, 1993, 2020; Glowiak, 2007; Mead and Swift, 2012; Hunt and Lucas, 2018c, 2020c; Figs. 29-30). The most extensive record is from small rodents such as *Neotoma* (Tweet et al., 2012). *Neotoma* coprolites also occur at the Rancho La Brea (tar pits) Lagerstätte (Rice et al., 2019; Mychajliw et al., 2020a).

There is a smaller but similar Quaternary coprolite record in South America (e.g., Spillmann, 1929; Verde and Ubilla, 2002; Kerber and Oliveira, 2008; Hunt and Lucas, 2018c). The Old World is characterized by caves with hyena coprolites and latrinites (Buckland, 1822, 1824, 1827; Chow, 1955; Kao, 1962; Musil, 1962; Mitzopoulos and Zapfe, 1963; Mohr, 1964; Scott, 1987; Fernandéz-Rodriguez et al., 1995; Tournepiche and Couture, 1999; Diedrich, 2012a, c; Hunt and Lucas, 2020a). New Zealand and other Pacific islands yield locally abundant and important records of bird coprolites that are Quaternary and Holocene in age (James and Burney, 1997; Horrocks et al., 2004; Wood et al., 2008, 2012a, b). Human coprolites are present at a large number of archeological sites, but their study is generally in a separate literature from the paleontological literature, and there is little communication between the two sciences (e.g., Bryant and Reinhard, 2012; Shillito et al., 2020).

Bryant and Reinhard, 2012; Shillito et al., 2020). Davis (Davis et al., 1977; Davis, 1987; Davis and Shafer, 2006)) first recognized that spores of the dung fungus Sporormiella became abundant following the historic introduction of grazing herbivores in the western United States. During the Holocene this fungus is rare. However, Sporormiella spores are abundant before the extinction of Pleistocene megaherbivores, and they have been recovered from coprolites of Mammuthocopros from Bechan Cave in Arizona (Davis, 1987; Gill et al., 2013). So, Sporormiella spores are a proxy for an abundance of large terrestrial herbivores and can provide evidence for their extinction (Davis, 1987). Thus, Sporormiella spores have been widely utilized to study patterns of extinction or/and the immigration or introduction of moas in New Zealand (Wood et al., 2011), giant tortoises in the Galapagos Islands (Froyd et al., 2013), giant lemurs, elephant birds and the pygmy hippopotamus in Madagascar (Burney et al., 2003) and cattle in Brazil (Raczka et al., 2016).

Ichnotaxonomy

Bertling et al. (2006, p. 265) noted that "The need to name trace fossils...has unambiguously been accepted for decades." However, vertebrate ichnologists have been slow to name coprolites. Hunt et al. (1998) named the first valid ichnotaxa of vertebrate coprolites (*Dicynodontocopros maximus*, *Heteropolacopros texaniensis*). Indeed, the description and naming of vertebrate coprolites has allowed detailed analyses of distribution patterns, including a robust biostratigraphy and biochronology for the Triassic, utilizing 17 ichnogenera (Hunt et al., 2018, fig. 12.11; Fig. 27) and construction of paleoenvironmental transects in the Pennsylvanian using seven

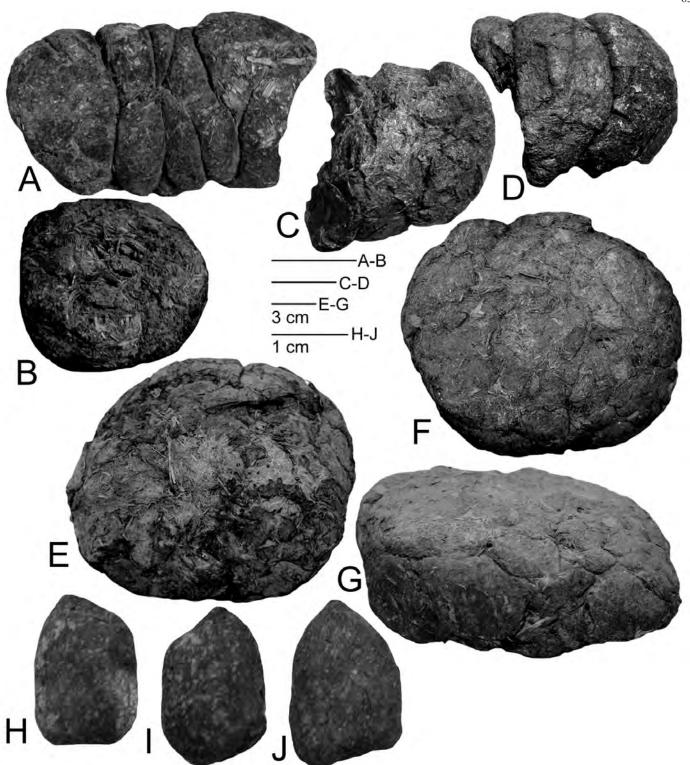


FIGURE 30. Late Pleistocene herbivore coprolites. A–B, USNM PAL 720155, *Castrocopros martini*, holotype coprolite from Rampart Cave, Arizona, USA, in lateral (A) and terminal (B) views. C–D, YPM 10574, *Castrocopros hauthali*, holotype coprolite from Cueva de Milodón, Ultima Esperanza Province, Chile in lateral views. E–G, GLCA 381, *Mammuthocopros allenorum*, holotype coprolite from Bechan Cave, Utah, USA, in terminal (E–F) and lateral (G) views. H–J, GLCA 2379, Three coprolites of *Suaviocopros harrisi* from Hooper's Hollow, Utah, USA, in lateral view (from Hunt and Lucas, 2020a, fig. 2).

ichnogenera (Hunt and Lucas, 2017a, fig. 1). Why, then, have relatively few other workers used a formal ichnotaxonomy for vertebrate coprolites, with a few notable exceptions (e.g., Duffin, 2010; Laojumpon et al., 2012; Milàn, 2018; Rakshit et al., 2019; Rummy et al., 2021; Table 3)?

Several authors have explicitly advocated the use of morphotypes rather than ichnotaxa for coprolites because: (1) different animals may produce similar fecal morphologies; (2) differing morphologies and contents of feces are driven by seasonal or ontogenetic factors; and (3) there is variation in preservation (Chin in Hunt et al., 1994a; Bajdek et al., 2014; Francischini et al., 2018). The first two arguments are based on the misconception that modern feces are not distinguishable because of variability, even though wildlife biologists routinely track and study the distribution of extant taxa based on the distinct morphologies of their feces (e.g., Murie, 1974; Jenkins and Burrows, 1980; Stuart and Stuart, 2000; Chame, 2003).

In large part, this reluctance to name coprolites stems from the fact that primates (such as ourselves) produce unusually variable morphologies of feces (Hunt et al., 2012d). However, the majority of vertebrates (carnivores and herbivores) produce a consistent morphology of feces, which, as just noted, is apparent from studies of Recent animal traces. Authors who decline to erect ichnotaxa discriminate morphotypes (e.g., Eriksson et al., 2011; Hansen et al., 2016; Francischini et al., 2018), which are ichnotaxa without names. A nomenclature that recognizes repetitive morphologies is essential for synthetic ichnology. Seilacher (1964, 1967) could not have recognized ichnofacies if all invertebrate ichnologists had described ichnofaunas in terms of ad hoc morphotypes. Thus, we strongly advocate the application of a rigorous ichnotaxonomy to vertebrate coprolites for both philosophical and practical reasons.

Ichnotaxobases

Vallon (2012) first explicitly discussed ichnotaxobases for coprolites. The most utilized ichnotaxobases for coprolites are:

1. External morphology – Coprolites and Recent feces display a range of morphotypes that are useful for definition (Häntzschel et al., 1968; Chame, 2003; Hunt and Lucas, 2012b).

2. Internal structure – Many coprolites have a spiral or scroll internal structure (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b). Spiral coprolites are either amphipolar or heteropolar (microspiral or macrospiral) in form (Appendix B). Many ichnotaxa are based on these structures (e.g., *Heteropolacopros:* Hunt et al., 1998; *Scrollocoprus:* Rummy et al., 2021).

3. Surface texture – Some coprolites such as *Strophocopros* have distinct surface textures (Hunt and Lucas, 2005b).

4. Size – Size by itself is not usually an ideal ichnotaxobase except in cases where there are very distinct size classes (e.g., *Megaheteropolacopros*: Hunt et al., 2005a).

5. Inclusions – Certain coprolites contain distinct and/ or abundant inclusions, such as conchostracan valves in *Crustacoprus* (Hunt et al., 2012i).

6. Mineralogy – Most coprolites are phosphatic in composition, but others have different mineralogies, such as *Rhynchocopros soutoi* and *Santamariacopros elongatus*, which are calcareous (Hunt et al., 2013).

Producer

The majority of vertebrate coprolites represent those of carnivorous animals, because of two main factors: (1) herbivores defecate a large proportion of undigested vegetable material that is the basis of a diverse micro-ecosystem of bacterial and other scavengers that diminish and/or destroy the bolus, whereas carnivore feces are largely composed of unattractive waste products; and (2) the calcium phosphate in consumed bone facilitates the lithification of most carnivore feces (Hunt et al., 1994; Hollocher and Hollocher, 2012).

The main lines of evidence to identify the specific producer of a vertebrate coprolite type are:

1. Morphology - Some coprolites have a very distinctive morphology and structure. Notably, spiral coprolites that are

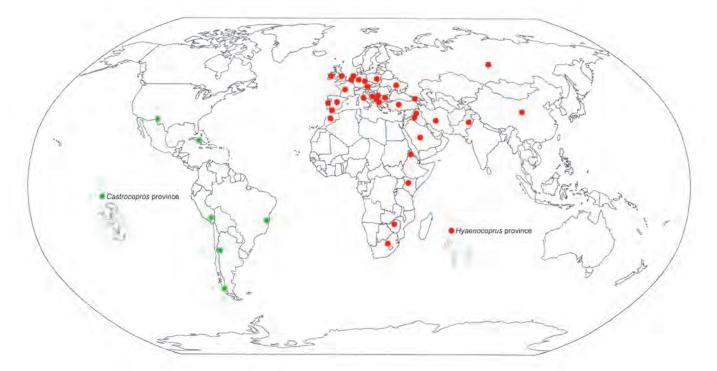


FIGURE 31. Late Pleistocene biogeographic provinces based on vertebrate coprolites. The *Castrocopros* province (green squares) characterized by *Castrocopros* ispp. produced by ground sloths and the *Hyaenacoprus* province (red circles) by *Hyaenacoprus bucklandi* produced by hyenas. Each symbol represents a single country. For details of localities see Hunt and Lucas (2020a, table 1 and Supplemental Data file) (from Hunt and Lucas, 2021b, fig. 9, adapted from Hunt and Lucas, 2020, fig. 1).

produced by sharks, rays or less advanced fish with spiral valves have been studied extensively to investigate their origins (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b).

2. Analogy – In the case of late Cenozoic animals, it is often possible to compare the morphology and content of coprolites with those of living animals. Thus, comparison of putative mammoth coprolites with elephant dung has been useful in identification of the producers (Mead et al., 1986a; Hunt and Lucas, 2020a).

3. Association in digestive tract – In a few rare instances, coprolites have been found within the body cavity of Paleozoic fish, Mesozoic dinosaurs and Cenozoic crocodilians, thus establishing their producers.

4. Association with skeletal remains (articulated carcass or bone bed) – Some coprolites are found in close association with skeletons but not within them, such as *Dicynodontocopros* at the Late Triassic *Placerias* quarry bone bed, which is dominated by the bones of dicynodonts (Hunt et al., 1998). The association thus suggests the producer.

5. Biochemistry – Pleistocene and Holocene coprolites are often identifiable to species level because of the preservation of complex organic molecules, including DNA (Poinar et al., 1998, 2003; Karpinksi et al., 2017).

6. Inclusions – Inclusions in coprolites can provide information about diet that may help identify the producer.

7. Size – Size can be of some use in the identification of the producer of coprolites, as small animals cannot produce large coprolites. In cases of very large dimensions, size may allow attribution. For example, very large Late Cretaceous coprolites have reasonably been attributed to tyrannosaurid dinosaurs, the only vertebrate taxon at that time large enough to produce such large coprolites (Chin et al., 1988, 2003).

Utility of Coprolites

Introduction

Coprolites can serve as proxies for biotaxa (the animals that produced them). The producer of individual vertebrate coprolites can usually only be identified at a high taxonomic level (order or higher) with very few exceptions before the Pleistocene, such as dicynodont therapsids from the Late Triassic of the United States and hyperodapedontid rhynchosaurs from the Middle Triassic of Brazil (Hunt et al., 2013b). Most Pleistocene vertebrate coprolites can be identified at the specific level on the basis of morphology and DNA (e.g., Hyaenocoprus derives from Crocuta: Bon et al., 2012). Regardless of the known taxonomic level of the producer, the distribution of a coprolite ichnotaxon is a proxy for a biological taxonomic unit. Vertebrate coprolites provide some biochronology in the Pennsylvanian to the Quaternary (Figs. 25, 27, 29), and invertebrate coprolites, although represented by far fewer ichnotaxa, provide a biochronology through the entire Phanerozoic (Knaust, 2020).

Vertebrate coprolites can delimit biogeographic regions. For example, there are two distinct biogeographic and taphonomic provinces for vertebrate coprolites in the Pleistocene (Fig. 31). The *Castrocopros* province of the New World characterized by a dominance of herbivore coprolites, which are preserved almost exclusively in caves, and the *Hyaenacoprus* province in the Old World, which is dominated by hyena coprolites that also occur mainly in caves (Hunt and Lucas, 2020a; Fig. 31).

All trace fossils, including coprolites, are facies fossils. Spiral vertebrate coprolites in shallow marine environments define the *Crassocoprus* ichnofacies that ranges from the Mississippian to the Eocene. On a finer scale, vertebrate coprolites allow the discrimination of three ichnocoenoses in the nonmarine Late Triassic and four in an ecological transect from lacustrine to shallow marine conditions in the Late Pennsylvanian (Hunt and Lucas, 2017a).

The first important inclusions to be recognized in coprolites

were spores in arthropod coprolites and pollen in vertebrate herbivore coprolites. Subsequently, a wide range of organic materials, including soft tissues, have been identified in vertebrate coprolites, particularly muscle tissues, eggs, hair, parasites, bacteria, fungi and feathers. Thus, some coprolites represent Lagerstätten (Qvarnström et al., 2016).

Coprolites obviously represent the end point of digestion, so they can provide evidence about the evolution of feeding, diet and digestion. For example, vertebrate coprolites of the Silurian to Carboniferous demonstrate changing patterns of predation and food processing among carnivorous fishes as demonstrated by an increase in groundmass, increase in size and the diversification of spiral morphologies (Hunt and Lucas, 2016b).

Coprolites provide ecological information about their producers, and Niedźwiedzki and co-workers have utilized them to reconstruct ecosystems and analyze diversity (Niedźwiedzki et al., 2016a, b). Coprolites are also of utility in a number of other areas from the study of the evolution of human diseases to sedimentology to providing mineable resources (guanolite) (Hunt, 1992; Bryant and Reinhard, 2012; Hunt et al., 2012d).

Ichnofacies

Coprolites are trace fossils and thus facies fossils. Hunt and co-workers (Hunt et al., 1994, 1998, 2007, 2013a; Hunt and Lucas 2007b) first recognized discrete associations of vertebrate coprolites and sedimentary facies in the Late Triassic of western North America. Hunt and Lucas (2017a) recognized that four bromalite ichnofaunas of Missourian (Late Pennsylvanian) age in New Mexico represent an ecological transect from lacustrine to basinal marine: (1) Tinajas Lagerstätte – lacustrine; (2) Kinney Brick Quarry Lagerstätte – lagoonal; (3) Erickson site - nearshore marine; and (4) Sacramento Mountains - offshore marine. There are clear trends through these ichnofaunas (Tinajas-Kinney-Erickson-Sacramentos): flattened (1)preservation in matrix to isolated three dimensional; (2) diverse bromalites to only coprolites; and (3) increasing proportion of spiral coprolites, so that the most basinward ichnofauna is dominated by spiral coprolites. In addition, the Kinney ichnofauna is typical of lagoonal/estuarine ichnofaunas of the Paleozoic and Mesozoic. Hunt et al. (2015c) had identified the presence of abundant spiral coprolites as being characteristic of certain marine environments.

Buckland (1829, 1835) largely based his definition of coprolites on the recognition that heteropolar "bezoar stones" from the Early Jurassic of Lyme Regis in southwestern England represent fossil feces. Heteropolar coprolites occur in large numbers in shallow marine strata from the Mississippian to the Eocene (e.g., Hunt et al., 2015c). Hunt et al. (2018) defined the *Crassocoprus* ichnofacies to include marine trace fossil ichnocoenoses dominated by heteropolar coprolites and that include coprolites of low to moderate ichnodiversity. Shale substrates typify the *Crassocoprus* ichnofacies. The name is for *Crassocoprus*, a macrospiral heteropolar coprolite from the Pennsylvanian that is attributed to a chondrichthyan (Hunt et al., 2012i).

Heteropolar coprolites date back to the Devonian and first became abundant during the Pennsylvanian (Hunt and Lucas, 2013). The principal large samples of heteropolar coprolites (shallow marine setting unless indicated otherwise) occur in the: 1. Middle-Late Mississippian Wardie, Midlothian, Scotland (Middle Mississippian: Viséan) (Buckland, 1835; Sumner, 1991) Anstruther, Fife, Scotland (Middle Mississippian: Viséan) (Sumner, 1991). Bearsden, East Dunbartonshire, Scotland (Late Mississippian: Serpukhovian) (Clark, 1989). 2. Late Pennsylvanian of Park and Chaffee counties, Colorado, USA (Johnson, 1934), Bassam Park, Colorado, USA (Houck et al., 2004), Morgantown, West Virginia, USA (Price, 1927) and Sacramento Mountains, New Mexico, USA (Hunt et al., 2012g). 66

3. Early Permian Manhattan, Kansas, USA (Williams, 1972; McAllister, 1985). 4. Middle/late Permian southern Brazil – lacustrine (Dentzien-Dias et al., 2012). 5. Late Permian/Early Triassic European Russia – nonmarine (Niedźwiedzki et al., 2016b). 6. Early Jurassic Lyme Regis, England (Buckland, 1835; Hunt et al., 2012a). 7. Late Cretaceous southern England, Western Europe (Hunt et al., 2015c). 8. Middle-Late Eocene northern Germany (Diedrich and Felker, 2012) and Alabama, USA (Stringer and King, 2012).

Hunt et al. (2018) also named the Gaspeichnus Ichnofacies for traces developed on the substrate of a coprolite. Feces provide a source of food for some insects and vertebrates. Coprolites also undergo bioerosion and are the subject of accidental contact by vertebrates. Therefore, coprolites preserve a variety of traces including vertebrate dentalites, vertebrate footprints and invertebrate borings. The Gaspeichnus Ichnofacies was thus defined to include marine and nonmarine trace fossil ichnocoenoses of low diversity dominated by macroscopic borings and vertebrate dentalites and footprints that utilize coprolites as a substrate. The name is for Gaspeichnus, a sinuous coprolite boring from the Devonian (Hunt et al., 2018). Other examples of the Gaspeichnus Ichnofacies include: (1) flaskshaped borings in both bone and coprolites from the Cretaceous-Eocene of Mali that represent the putative bivalve boring named Gastrochaenolites ornatus (Tapanila et al., 2004); (2) an amphipolar coprolite with an invertebrate boring from the Rio do Rasto Formation (middle/upper Permian) in southern Brazil (Dentzien-Dias et al., 2012); (3) small holes in Late Triassic coprolites from Arizona, USA, produced by insects, such as dipteran larvae (Wahl et al., 1998); (4) putative examples of coprophagy traces of dung beetles in the Cretaceous and Paleogene of the USA (Bradley, 1946; Chin and Gill, 1996); (5) Miocene mammalian footprints preserved in coprolites from Portugal, including a tridactyl footprint that can be ascribed to a right foot of the rhinoceros Hispanotherium matritensis, a tridactyl, left foot impression of a perissodactyl, possibly an Anchitherium-like equid, and a didactyl track from a small-sized ruminant, most probably a cervid, genus Procervulus (Antunes et al., 2006b); and (6) coprolites containing dentalites (e.g., Godfrey and Smith, 2010; Godfrey and Palmer, 2015).

Biostratigraphy and Biochronology

Vertebrate coprolites can serve as proxies for biotaxa and thus are of biostratigraphic and biochronological utility (e.g., Hunt, 1992; Hunt et al., 1998, 2005a, 2007, 2013b, b, 2018; Figs. 25, 27, 29). However, vertebrate ichnotaxa almost always correspond to higher level taxonomic groups than do body fossils. Thus, footprint ichnogenera are often equivalent to the family (or higher) taxonomic level of body fossils (Lucas, 2007). Pre-Pleistocene coprolites probably represent, in most cases, even higher level taxonomic groups ("order" or above) (Hunt et al., 2007, 2013b). Examples of lower level identifications would be coprolites attributed to dicynodont therapsids from the Late Triassic of the United States (Hunt et al., 1998) and to tyrannosaurid theropods from the Late Cretaceous of Canada (Chin et al., 1988, 2003). Most Pleistocene vertebrate coprolites can be identified at the specific level on the basis of morphology (e.g., Mead and Swift, 2012) and more recently by DNA. For example, Hyaenocoprus derives from Crocuta (Bon et al., 2012), and Mammuthocoprus derives from Mammuthus columbi (Karpinski et al., 2017). However, all coprolite ichnotaxa do have defined stratigraphic ranges that parallel the stratigraphic ranges of the producing animals, so the coprolites have potential utility in biostratigraphy and biochronology (Hunt and Lucas, 2005c; Hunt et al., 2007, 2013a, b; Figs. 25, 27, 29). Indeed, coprolites have demonstrated biochronologic utility, particularly in the Late Triassic-Early Jurassic (Hunt et al., 2018, fig. 12.11: Figs. 25, 27, 29).

Biogeography

Vertebrate coprolites can delimit biogeographic regions as proxies for biotaxa. For example, there are two distinct biogeographic and taphonomic provinces for vertebrate coprolites in the Pleistocene (Hunt and Lucas, 2020a). The *Castrocopros* province of the New World is characterized by a dominance of herbivore coprolites, which are preserved almost exclusively in caves, and the *Hyaenacoprus* province in the Old World is dominated by hyena coprolites that occur mainly in caves (Hunt and Lucas, 2018c, 2019, 2020a; Fig. 31). Coprolites as proxy for biotaxa can record the presence of a taxon in the absence of bones (e.g., dicynodonts in the Late Triassic: Hunt et al., 2013b).

Lagerstätten

The first important inclusions to be recognized in vertebrate coprolites were pollen in herbivore coprolites (Martin et al., 1961; Hunt and Fiaconni, 2018). Subsequently, a wide range of organic materials, including soft tissues, have been identified in vertebrate coprolites, particularly muscle tissues, eggs, hair, parasites, bacteria, fungi and feathers (e.g., Chin et al., 1998, 2003). Recent studies have also highlighted that coprolites contain diverse body fossils of delicate and rare organisms (Dentzien-Dias et al., 2013, 2017; Bajdek et al., 2016; Chin et al., 2017; Qvarnström et al., 2016, 2017, 2019, 2021). Thus,

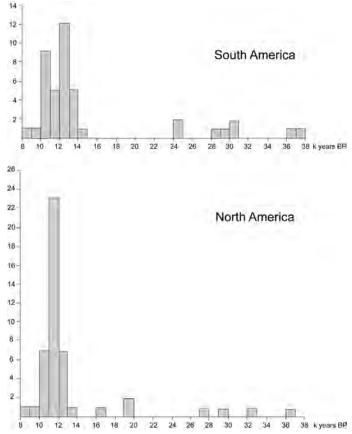


FIGURE 32. Age distribution of radioisotopic ages on ground sloth coprolites from caves in North and South America. These data demonstrate increased cave utilization during the latest Pleistocene, which is likely climate driven. There is virtually no evidence of humans hunting sloths, which would be another explanation for this behavioral shift. Thus, the giant sloth demise is more likely related to climatic factors than to human overkill, which are the two most prevalent hypotheses for their extinction. Age data from Hunt and Lucas (2018c, table 3) (from Hunt and Lucas, 2018c, fig. 8).

Qvarnström et al. (2016) concluded that the term Lagerstätte is applicable to some coprolites.

Paleoecology

Coprolites can provide diverse information about the diet and digestion of their producers (e.g., Hansen, 1978; McAllister, 1988; Qvarnström et al., 2019a, b). They can also inform analysis of ancient and modern human health (Bryant and Reinhard, 2012).

Faunal Evolution and Extinction

Coprolites can also be used as biotaxa proxies to analyze ecosystem evolution, extinction and diversity patterns (e.g., Nakajima and Izumi, 2014; Niedźwiedzki et al., 2016a, b; Fig. 32).

Conclusions

Coprolites have an extensive fossil record that has proven potential to address a broad range of paleontological issues. A challenge to their increased utility is the necessity for more comprehensive ichnotaxonomy.

1. Coprolites as proxy for biotaxa have utility in biochronology, biogeography and faunal turnover.

2. Coprolites as trace fossils can delimit a hierarchy of ichnocoensoes and ichnofacies.

3. Coprolites as end products of the gastrointestinal tract can provide evidence of digestive processes.

4. Internally, coprolites can be Lagerstätten that preserve a wide range of organisms with an otherwise poor fossil record.

OTHER BROMALITES

Digestilites

Food stuffs that pass through the digestive tract are subject to chemical and physical processes that result in characteristic damage that can be recognized in regurgitated or defecated material (e.g., Crandall and Stahl, 1995; Fernández-Jalvo et al. 2002, 2014, 2016; Esteban-Nadal et al., 2010; Cohen, 2003; Cohen and Kibii, 2015; Fernandez-Jalvo and Andrews, 2016; Meador, 2017; Montalvo and Fernández, 2019). For example, crocodilian-digested bones most closely resemble bones exposed to hydrochloric acid as opposed to the damage due to a mix of hydrochloric acid and digestive enzymes exhibited by bones consumed by mammalian and avian predators (Fernández-Jalvo et al., 2014; Meador, 2017). This exposure to digestive acid produces a number of unique and identifiable characteristics on bones and teeth, including: (1) surface etching; (2) corrosive pitting; (3) rounding; (4) enamel erosion; (5) foramen excavation; (6) reduction of cortical thickness; (7) corrosive holes; (8) undulations; (9) desquamation; (10) cupules; and (10) polishing (e. g., Lyman, 1994; Crandall and



FIGURE 33. Digestilite composed of etched skeletal elements of a hatchling turtle (FHSM VP-17572) from lower Santonian chalk, Kansas, USA. Scale bar in mm (Everhart, 2017, fig. 6.12 partim). Photograph courtesy of Michael Everhart.

Stahl, 1995; Esteban-Nadal et al., 2010; Cohen, 2003; Cohen and Kibii, 2015; Brown et al., 2016; Meador, 2017; Montalvo and Fernández, 2019). Such specimens clearly represent morphologically recurrent structures resulting from the life activity of an individual organism modifying the substrate, and thus are trace fossils (Bertling et al., 2006). We propose the term digestilite, from the Latin *digestus* (digestion), for fossil specimens that preserve evidence of digestion.

The investigation of damage to ingested vertebrate hard tissue was initially stimulated by the study of the accumulation mechanisms of micromammal taphocoenoses (Dodson, 1973; Dodson and Wexlar, 1979; Korth, 1979; Fisher, 1981a,b; Andrews and Evans, 1983; Andrews, 1990). However, larger bones, such as a hominin bone from Zhoukoudian in China, also show clear evidence of digestion (Boaz et al., 2000). Thus, Zhoukoudian Homo erectus Femur V exhibits a breakage pattern characteristic of hyenas and also has rounded edges and pitting associated with ingestion and partial digestion (Weidenreich, 1941; Boaz et al., 2000).

Digestilites record evidence of mechanical and/or chemical digestion and may derive from regurgitation (e.g., Boaz et al., 2000) or defecation (e.g., Fisher, 1981a,b). The most wellknown digestilite is probably the Denisova 11 hominid, which is the fragmentary limb bone of a Denisovan and Neantherdal hybrid from Denisova Cave, Siberia (Brown et al., 2016; Slon et al., 2018).

Ingested hard tissue constitutes an important contribution to the fossil record. It is widely recognized that many terrestrial microvertebrate fossil faunas are composed of digestilites, the majority from bird regurgitalites, but also from carnivore and crocodile coprolites (Dodson, 1973; Mellet, 1975; Dodson and Wexlar, 1979; Korth, 1979; Fisher, 1981a,b; Andrews and Evans, 1983; Andrews, 1990; Fernández-Jalvo and Andrews, 1992; Williams, 2003; Denys, 2011; Fernández-Jalvo et al., 2016; Denvs et al., 2018; Montalvo and Fernández, 2019). Thus, for example, Coco et al. (2020) described late Pleistocene bones of owls (Tyto, Athene, Glaucidium) that exhibit breakage and weathering, consistent with digestion by the giant strigiform Asio ecuadoriensis.

The other major importance of digestilites is in the processing of invertebrate hard parts into the sedimentological record. Thus, Oji et al. (2003) and Salamon et al. (2014) conducted actualistic studies that demonstrated that predation by fish on bivalves produces shell fragments with sharp, angular margins, in contrast to non-biogenic physical processes that produce abraded and rounded shell fragments. They thus utilized angular shell fragments as a proxy for the feeding of durophagous fish in the Paleozoic (and later). Digestilites composed of invertebrate material may encompass a significant portion of shell beds from the Mississippian to the Recent (Oji et al., 2003; Salamon et al., 2014). Vertebrate predation is also important in the production of Recent coral sands from reefs, notably by scarid parrotfish (Peyrot-Clausade et al., 2000).

Digestilites are also important in other taphonomic settings. Wilson (1987) suggested that fish bones in some Eocene lake deposits of British Columbia and Washington are partly dissolved due to possible ingestion, probably by birds. Digestilites also occur in the Late Cretaceous marine strata of western North America, representing fish, turtles, mosasaurs and dinosaurs (Everhart, 2017, figs. 3.19, 4.3, 6.12, 12.2; Fig. 33).

Pabulites

Montalvo et al. (2016) introduced the term "leftover prey remains," which represent accumulations of uneaten prey remains discarded by a predator. These remains are identified on the basis of anatomical representation, degree of bone breakage and the presence of dentalites. They based the term on late Miocene microvertebrate accumulations from Argentina. It may

have some utility in assessing microvertebrate accumulations to distinguish the genesis of the assemblage that result from concentrations produced by digestion (regurgitalites or coprolites).

Klug et al. (2021a) coined the formal term pabulite for fossilized food that never entered the digestive tract. They note that pabulites are normally incomplete animals that preserve traces of predation. They describe the example of the belemnite *Passaloteuthis laevigata* from the Toarcian Posidonienschiefer Lagerstätte. Most of the soft parts are missing, but the arm crown is one of the best preserved that is known. Klug et al. (2021a) suggest that the belemnite represents the remnant of the food of a predatory fish, possibly the shark *Hybodus huffianus*. Subsequently, Klug et al. (2021b) described another possible pabulite from the Cenomanian of Lebanon. A specimen of the cymatoceratid cephalopod *Syrionautilus libanoticus* preserves soft tissues but lacks the arms and the hood, and the plane of symmetry is perpendicular to bedding. This specimen may be a pabulite or represent incomplete scavenging (Klug et al., 2021b).

The development of the study of pabulites requires: (1) ichnotaxobases – see Montalvo et al. (2016); (2) actualistic studies; (3) documentation of new examples; and (4) review of their fossil record. Pabulites may be difficult to recognize in the absence of other traces. For example, a partial skeleton with some bite marks was likely scavenged, so it is probably a pabulite, whereas an incomplete carcass with no dentalites could have other causation. Many vertebrate specimens exposed on an oxygenated substrate are probably subject to scavenging and may represent pabulites (cf. Early Jurassic Holzmaden ichthyosaurs).

Micturalites

Micturalites are trace fossils produced by interaction between liquid urine and substrate (Hunt and Lucas, 2012). These ichnofossils are rare. McCarville and Bishop (2002) interpreted a sub-circular depression (scour?) at a Late Jurassic tracksite in Colorado, USA as eroded by liquid urine of a sauropod. There is no evidence that this trace fossil resulted from urine impacting the substrate. Fernandes, and Souto and co-authors, described a more convincing trace ichnofossil from the Early Cretaceous of Brazil (Fernandes et al., 2004; Souto and Fernandes, 2015). They compared this "urolite" to erosional depressions produced in the substrate by liquid waste of the Recent ratite *Struthio camelus* (ostrich).

OTHER TRACE FOSSIL EVIDENCE OF VERTEBRATE FEEDING

Introduction

Dentalites, gastroliths and bromalites are not the only trace fossils that provide evidence of vertebrate feeding. Footprints, some nests and other traces also can record evidence of vertebrate predation and consumption.

Footprints and Handprints

There are several examples of trackways that purport to capture an act of predation. The first specimen to be so recognized was from the Early Cretaceous of Texas and purports to show a theropod attacking a sauropod (Bird, 1954, 1985; Thomas and Farlow, 1997). The theropod repeatedly stepped in the prints made by the sauropod, and the trackways of both made a turn at the same point, which may suggest that the carnivore was following the herbivore (Farlow, 1987a, b; Thomas and Farlow, 1997). Bird (1954, 1985) believed that the theropod actually attacked the sauropod as indicated by a missing left carnivore footprint, which was interpreted to represent the animal being dragged off its feet by the forward motion of the much larger herbivore (Bird, 1985, p. 173; Thomas and Farlow, 1997).

However, the subsequent footprint's location and morphology do not support that hypothesis (Lockley and Hunt, 1995; Hunt and Lucas, 1998; Farlow et al., 2012).

The Lark Quarry tracksite from the Early Cretaceous of Australia was originally interpreted to represent a large predatory theropod causing a stampede of small ornithopods and theropods (Thulborn and Wade, 1979, 1984). However, there is a lack of clarity about the taxonomy of the trace makers, the contemporaneity of the trackways and the speed of the smaller dinosaurs, so the predatory theropod hypothesis is problematic (Romilio and Salisbury, 2011; Romilio et al., 2013; Thulborn, 2013, 2017).

Weems (2018, 2020) described a theropod trackway of *Kayentapus minor* from the Late Triassic of the Culpeper Quarry in Virginia, USA, that is purported to be a possible record of predation. This trackway preserves changing locomotion of an individual – acceleration, running, slowing, slight skid, walking, stopping and slight shifting of position. This is interpreted as the behavior associated with the capture of prey, but it is not a convincing interpretation.

There are five examples from the Permian of trackway terminations of vertebrates and invertebrates that have been interpreted as evidence of predation (Lockley and Madsen, 1993; Kramer et al., 1995; Hunt and Lucas, 1998; Santi and Stoppini, 2005; Citton et al., 2012). In each case, one trackway appears to terminate at another with no change of pace. Nevertheless, none of these examples satisfy more than one of the five criteria established by Hunt and Lucas (1998) to evaluate trackway evidence of predation in such cases: (1) in the case of intersecting trackways, one trackway should terminate at the other; (2) in the case of parallel pursuit trackways, one trackway should end; (3) there should be evidence of a pursuer adjusting length of stride to sync with prey stride length; (4) one or both trackways should demonstrate change in direction or/and speed -evasion and compensation; and (5) the trackway of the prev should show evidence of a struggle – slowing, terminating or lateral movement. In addition, it is not clear in the cases of supposed Permian trackway documentation of predation that the trackways are synchronous or even on the same bedding plane.

Theropod tracks and inferred trampling have been found associated with large bone accumulations, and this could be evidence of scavenging (e.g., Lockley et al., 1998; Jennings and Hasiotis, 2006; Augustin et al., 2020a). An absence of tracks but a presence of broken bones that could have been impacted by trampling together with shed teeth has also been considered as evidence of scavenging (Eberth and Getty, 2005; Snyder et al., 2020). Simpson et al. (2010) described putative digging traces produced by a maniraptoran theropod dinosaur in association with mammalian den complexes from the Late Cretaceous of Utah, which they interpreted as evidence of predation.

Nests

Lucas and Hunt (2006) defined a nest as the structure made by, or the place chosen by, an animal for spawning, breeding and/ or laying eggs and sheltering young. Carnivore nests, notably dens of Pleistocene hyenas in caves of the Old World, preserve abundant evidence of predation in terms of trace fossils such as dentalites and coprolites, but also body fossils that demonstrate aspects of prey selection, processing and utilization (e.g., Boaz et al., 2000; Marra et al., 2004; Stiner, 2004; Sala et al., 2012). The most abundant nests in the fossil record are of rodents, notably pack rats (*Neotoma*), which are widely distributed in the Late Pleistocene-Holocene of North America and other areas (e.g., Betancourt et al., 2010; Tweet et al., 2012). Discarded food items can also commonly be found below raptor nests, as may be the case for the South African Taung Child mentioned above (Berger and Clarke, 1995).

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FIGURE 34. Major events in the evolution of vertebrate feeding, selected taphonomic episodes and significant highlights of the fossil record of related ichnofossils.

Tooth Wear

Fossil teeth preserve wear that has long been recognized as evidence of the nature of the food that is being processed. The study of tooth wear as it relates to diet became a robust tool with the examination of mammalian microwear (particularly with the SEM) in the late 1970s and early 1980s (e.g., Walker et al., 1978; Covert and Kay, 1981; Kay and Covert, 1983; Teaford and Walker, 1984). The majority of wear studies have been on the teeth of terrestrial mammals, but the same methodology has been subsequently applied to other groups such as marine mammals (e.g., Lambert and Bianucci, 2019) and reptiles (e.g., Fiorillo, 1998, 2011). Tooth wear is a type of trace fossil because it falls within "bite and gnaw structures" and reflects the interaction of an organism and a substrate (Bertling et al., 2006, table 1). Thus, we propose the term mololite from the Latin molo (to grind) for wear features, both mesowear and microwear (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000; Green and Croft, 2018), on fossil teeth. The study of microwear is now widespread, particularly with regard to hominins and other mammals (e.g., Merceron et al., 2005; Scott et al, 2005; Williams and Patterson, 2010; DeSantis, 2016; Ungar et al., 2016; Pappa et al., 2019) but also of fish (e.g., McLennan and Purcell, 2021) and of reptiles (e.g., Bestwick et al., 2019, 2020a-b; Winkler et al., 2019).

Association

The most famous association of vertebrates that has been interpreted as signs of predation (or at least of combat) are the "fighting dinosaurs" from the Upper Cretaceous Djadokhta Formation of Mongolia. Kielan-Jaworowska and Barsbold (1972) first described the entwined skeletons of *Velociraptor mongoliensis* and *Protoceratops andrewsi*, which have generally (e.g., Carpenter, 1998) but not exclusively (Osmólska, 1993) been interpreted as two animals that died while in the midst of a struggle.

Wilson et al. (2010) described multiple associations between the snake *Sanajeh indicus* and sauropod eggs from the Late Cretaceous of India. They interpreted this pattern as an "ethofossil" that preserves feeding behavior. Other associations interpreted as evidence of predation or scavenging are shed theropod or shark teeth in the absence of dentalites (e.g., Repenning and Packard, 1990; Schwimmer et al., 1997; Jennings and Hasiotis, 2006; Konuki, 2008; Meso et al., 2021).

Trace Elements

Feeding produces chemical signatures that provide evidence of diet (e.g., Toots and Voorhies, 1965; Boaz and Hampel, 1978; Sillen et al., 1995; Bourgon et al., 2020; Mychajliw et al., 2020b). However, a trace fossil is defined as a "morphologically recurrent structure" (Bertling et al., 2006, p. 266), so these chemicals are not trace fossils, though they may serve as proxies for traces and the behaviors they indicate.

THE ICHNOLOGICAL RECORD OF VERTEBRATE CONSUMPTION

Introduction

The fossil record of trace fossils provides substantial information about the evolution of vertebrate feeding. In addition, vertebrate (e. g., Lucas, 2019) and invertebrate (e. g., Buatois and Mángano, 2016a, b; Mángano and Buatois, 2006b, c) ichnofossils provide significant insight into major evolutionary events (Fig. 34).

Cambrian Explosion

The oldest record of predation on macroscopic organisms is ichnological. Thus, there are putative borings in *Cloudina* shells that coincide with the beginning of the radiation of skeletonized animals during the terminal Neoproterozoic (Bengtson and Zhao, 1992; Hua et al., 2003; Buatois and Mángano, 2016a; Mángano and Buatois, 2006a, 2021). However, these traces have also been interpreted as the result of the dissolution of microcrystals of dolomite (Debrenne and Zhuravlev, 1997), in which case the earliest ichnological evidence of predation may be early Cambrian ichnofossils from Mexico that have been interpreted to show a *Planolites* tracemaker consuming the producer of *Rusophycus multilineatus* (McMenamin, 2001, 2003).

Subsequently, during the Cambrian Explosion, there was a rapid diversification of macroscopic and anatomically complex predators that may have accelerated evolutionary diversification (Bengtson, 2002; Marshall, 2006; Leighton, 2011, but see Zhang et al., 2014; López-Villalta, 2016). These predators included conodonts and agnathan vertebrates, although there are some disagreements about phylogenetic relationships (Briggs, 1992; Donoghue and Purnell, 2009; Sansom et al., 2010; Turner et al., 2010). Coprolites are the only putative vertebrate feeding traces in the Cambrian, but they are diverse and reflect the Cambrian explosion of carnivores. Microscopic coprolites first are found in the lowest Cambrian strata (e.g., Chen and Chen, 1980), and macroscopic forms are present in several early Cambrian Lagerstätten, principally Burgess Shale-type (BST) deposits, of China (Vannier and Chen, 2005), the United States (Kimmig and Strotz, 2017) and the Czech Republic (Mikuláš, 1995). Macroscopic coprolites are also widespread in the middle Cambrian of Canada (Kimmig and Strotz, 2017; Kimmig and Pratt, 2018), the United States (Conway Morris and Robison, 1988; Kimmig and Strotz, 2017), China (Lin et al., 2010) and Sweden (Eriksson and Terfelt, 2007). Kimmig and Pratt (2018) demonstrate the earliest examples of coprophagy and the importance of fecal matter as an important source of nutrition in the Cambrian food web. However, no Cambrian coprolites have been attributed to vertebrates despite the fact that such organisms were present, and some larger coprolites could have arguably been produced by vertebrates (e.g., Conway Morris and Robison, 1988, fig. 10.2).

Great Ordovician Biodiversification Event

The only putative ichnofossils from the Ordovician possibly related to vertebrates are coprolites, principally from Lagerstätten. Clusters of conodont elements from the Early Ordovician of Kazakhstan, Sweden and Australia may represent coprolites of conodont animals, which are chordates and considered by some to be vertebrates (Tolmacheva 1996; Tolmacheva and Purnell 2002; Stewart and Nicoll 2003; Fig. 34). Middle Ordovician coprolites from the Winneshiek Lagerstätte have a concentrically layered internal structure, formed by animals with a valvular intestinal tract, such as some vertebrates (Hawkins et al., 2018). Spiral coprolites from the Late Ordovician Soom Shale Lagerstätte of South Africa are the first undoubted vertebrate coprolites (Aldridge et al., 2006; Fig. 34). This approximately correlates with the oldest record of jawed vertebrate body fossils and is a component of the Great Ordovician Biodiversification Event.

Ordovician vertebrate macrofossils are rare, and most complete body fossils represent arandaspid agnathans and allied genera and are from the second half of the period (Gagnier et al., 1986; Friedman and Sallan, 2012). Isolated vertebrate bone fragments and ichthyoliths from the later Ordovician lack definitive morphological characteristics, and have been erroneously assigned to more derived taxa such as heterostracanand placoderm-grade taxa and even to gnathostomes such as chondrichthyans or acanthodians (Friedman and Sallan, 2012). The earliest putative regurgitalites are from the Late Ordovician and are tentatively assigned to conodont animals (Aldridge et al., 2006; Fig. 34).

Silurian

The Silurian record of vertebrate trace fossils related to feeding is still dominated by coprolites, but it includes more definitive examples as well as the oldest dentalite. There are a few putative Early or Middle Silurian coprolites that have been generally assigned to eurypterids, but may have been made by vertebrates, and they deserve more study (Gilpin, 1886; Rolfe, 1973; Selden, 1979, 1984; Turner, 1999). The oldest dentalite is on an unidentified cyathaspid element from the Middle Silurian Wenlock (Randle and Sansom, 2019a, b; Fig. 34), which indicates the presence of jawed fish at this time, preceding the unambiguous oldest occurrence of their body fossils. The Late Silurian first preserves a diversity of vertebrate coprolite morphotypes, including: (1) arenaeous scroll and nonspiral forms from Ireland and Scotland; (2) accumulations of agnathan fragments with little matrix from Scotland; and (3) phosphatic spiral and non-spiral coprolites from England that are characteristic of post-Silurian ichnofaunas (Murchison, 1839, 1867; Strickland and Hooker, 1853; Gilmore, 1992).

The impact of the end-Ordovician (Hirnantian) extinctions on fishes, except for conodonts, is difficult to assess because of a paucity of articulated specimens, particularly in the Lower Silurian (Friedman and Sallan, 2012). Sallan and Galimberti (2015) postulated a large reduction in body size in vertebrates following the end-Ordovician extinctions, but this is not currently testable in the coprolite record. Later in the period, the first well-preserved body fossils of gnathostomes appear in the latest Ludlow (Zhu et al., 1999, 2009; Zhang et al., 2010). The diversification of jawed fish in the later Silurian to Early Devonian is both taxonomic and ecological, with a major shift from benthic to nektonic lifestyles (Anderson et al., 2011; Klug et al., 2011; Friedman and Sallan, 2012). The diversification of vertebrate coprolite morphotypes in the Late Silurian presumably reflects the diversification of gnathostomes (and agnathans).

Devonian

The Devonian yields the first large samples of vertebrate feeding traces, both in terms of numerous specimens (e.g., dentalites, coprolites) and all of the different kinds of feeding traces (dentalites, regurgitalites, consumulites, gastroliths, coprolites), as well as the first nonmarine occurrences. This reflects: (1) increased abundance of fish in the fossil record; (2) large numbers of articulated skeletons, notably in the Upper Devonian Cleveland Shale (Fig. 34) – required for recognition of consumulites and gastroliths; (3) rise of the biting gnathostomes; (4) a succession of substantial body faunas through the span of the period, with many from Scotland; and (5) increased vertebrate exploitation of freshwater and ultimately terrestrial environments. This latter feature is part of the "terrestrialization" of the nonmarine biota that took place during the Devonian (e.g., Isozaki and Servais, 2017; Lucas, 2019).

Fish assemblages of macrofossils are dominated by jawless forms until the end of the Early Devonian, after which jawed gnathostomes dominate (Boucot and Janis, 1983; Anderson et al., 2011). However, dentalites increase at the onset of the Devonian and peak in the Givetian (Lebedev et al., 2009; Randle and Sansom, 2019a). Early Devonian coprolites from Scotland yield common acanthodian elements, although jawless fish dominate the associated body-fossil faunas. The orientation of acanthodian spines in Early Devonian coprolites, and a Middle Devonian consumulite, both provide the oldest evidence of head-first swallowing, which has been prevalent in fish predation until the Recent (Ahlberg, 1992; Trewin, 2008). Tailfirst swallowing of invertebrates with tentacles is first recorded in the Late Devonian Cleveland Shale (Williams, 1990). Marine and nonmarine Devonian fish coprolites are mainly fusiform, with only a minority displaying a spiral morphology. There is no major change in mean size or morphology of coprolites

during the Devonian. The Devonian yields some of the earliest regurgitalites in the Lower Devonian of Scotland and the Upper Devonian of Morocco, indicating that early gnathostomes undertook regurgitation (Burrow and Turner, 2010; Klug and Vallon, 2018).

The first terrestrial(?) dentalites occur on a tetrapod bone, a humerus, from the Famennian of the Canadian Arctic (Shubin et al., 2004; Fig. 34). Given the underived dentitions and jaw musculature of early tetrapods, it is unlikely that they manipulated their prey effectively, so Devonian dentalites would be predicted to be infrequent.

Devonian Extinctions and the Middle Paleozoic Marine Revolution

Early paleontologists, such as Agassiz (1833–1845a,b) and Marsh (1877), recognized that there were significant changes in vertebrate faunas between the "Age of Fishes" (Devonian) and the "Age of Amphibians" (Carboniferous). Newell (1952, 1962) and Schindewolf (1953) later first identified a Late Devonian mass extinction. This mass extinction is actually a series of events. The Kellwesser Crisis of the Frasnian-Fammenian boundary was previously considered the most significant for vertebrates (Long, 1995), but more recently the Hangenberg Crisis of the end Fammenian (end of the Devonian) is recognized to have had a more major impact on vertebrate (fish) extinctions, except for tetrapods (Sallan and Coates, 2010; Kaiser et al., 2016; Lucas, 2021).

Signor and Brett (1984) analyzed changes in predation patterns in the marine Devonian-Carboniferous, and they are widely credited with having introduced the term "Mid-Palaeozoic Revolution" (MPR) (e.g., Borszcz and Zatoń, 2013) or "Middle Paleozoic Marine Revolution" (MPMR) (e.g., Salamon et al., 2014), though they did not explicitly use either of these terms. Brett et al. (2002, p. 98) apparently first utilized the term Middle Paleozoic Revolution (MPR), and Baumiller and Gahn (2004) introduced the term Middle Paleozoic Marine Revolution (MPMR). We prefer the latter term, as it is more precise. The marked increase in durophagous fish during the later Devonian and Carboniferous (Signor and Brett, 1984, fig. 1) that resulted is documented by an increase in angular digestilites of invertebrates in the Missisippian (Salamon et al., 2014).

The first large ichnofaunas of coprolites are found in the Carboniferous, and they are significantly different from those of the Devonian, and thus document both the extinction and subsequent fish diversification and the MPMR. Other traces such as dentalites, evisceralites and consumulites are much less common in the Carboniferous relative to the Devonian.

The Carboniferous is characterized by shallow marine coprofaunas dominated by spiral forms, and, in several examples, the spiral forms are present to the near exclusion of other morphologies. Notable among the latter are the Mississippian Wardie Shale of Scotland, first reported by Buckland (1835), and the Pennsylvanian Weber Formation and Conemaugh Group of the United States (Price, 1927; Johnson, 1934). Hunt et al. (2017) named this recurrent association of spiral coprolites in shallow marine environments, which ranges from the Carboniferous to at least the Eocene, the *Crasssocoprus* Ichnofacies.

The heterospiral coprolites clearly pertain to chondrichthyans (e.g., McAllister, 1985; Williams, 1872; Diedrich, 2012b). Most or all of the pre-Carboniferous spiral coprolites, such as in the Ordovician, presumably derived from other fish that had spiral valves (McAllister, 1987). Chondrichthyan feces must have elevated preservational potential relative to those of other fish, because many coprofaunas dominated by spiral coprolites of the *Crassocoprus* Ichnofacies are often associated with body fossil faunas dominated by other fish. There is clearly a disparity between the high taxonomic diversity of some fish faunas, notably in the Pennsylvanian, Late Cretaceous and Eocene,

and the low diversity of associated chondrichthyan-dominated coprolite ichnofaunas, and Hunt et al. (2015c) termed this the "Shark Surplus Paradox."

There is a marked reduction in dentalites in marine environments from the Devonian to the Carboniferous, which presumably is largely due to the Devonian extinctions of the armored fishes, whose extensive skeletons preferentially preserved such traces. Most nonmarine trace fossils derive from Lagerstätten, which in the Carboniferous notably yield several consumulites from sharks and amphibians. Among Carboniferous amphibians, consumulites have been analyzed to distinguish dietary changes during ontogeny in branchiosaurs (e.g., Werneburg et al., 2007).

Permian

Whereas most vertebrate feeding traces in the Carboniferous are marine rather than nonmarine, the reverse is true in the Permian. The earliest example of dentalites documenting extensive scavenging of a terrestrial tetrapod is from the early Permian of the United States (Reisz and Tsuji, 2006). Consumulites from the Permian of the United States and Germany provide direct evidence of insectivory and herbivory in tetrapods (Munk and Sues, 1993; Modesto et al., 2009; Reisz et al., 2014).

Nonmarine coprolites are abundant for the first time in Permian redbeds in the southwestern United States and have a wide distribution throughout the nonmarine strata of Permian Pangea (Hunt and Lucas, 2013). The majority of specimens represent aquatic organisms, and many have a heterospiral or scroll morphology. The first common evisceralites occur in the nonmarine Permian of China (Seilacher et al., 1991).

End-Permian Extinctions

It is not clear that the end-Permian extinction (PTME: Permian-Triassic Mass Extinction) had a significant impact on marine (Friedman and Sallan, 2012) or nonmarine (Lucas, 2009, 2017) vertebrates. However, Niedźwiedzki et al. (2016) studied the distribution of vertebrate coprolites across the nonmarine Permo-Triassic boundary in Russia and interpreted the results to demonstrate an extinction. Nevertheless, given the tenuous attribution of coprolite morphotypes to body-fossil taxa, the magnitude of the turnover supposedly demonstrated by coprolites is unclear.

"Mesozoic Marine Revolution"

Marine bromalites are well known from the Triassic, and they have the potential to provide information about the evolution of diet at the beginning of the Mesozoic Marine Revolution (MMR). Vermeij (1977) introduced the term MMR for macroecological and macroevolutionary predation-driven changes in marine ecosystems, predominantly during the later Mesozoic. "This term might seem to imply that a dramatic development of marine predators was initiated at the Triassic; a continuous intensification of predator-prey relationships has been envisaged. In actuality, the Mesozoic and Cenozoic evolution of predators involved a series of episodes" (Walker and Brett, 2002, p. 119). Nevertheless, this was probably too protracted an event (it lasted from the Triassic through much of the Cretaceous) to deserve the term "revolution" (Lucas and Tanner, 2018).

Early Triassic coprolites have been used to suggest that the MMR began early in the Triassic (Nakajima and Izumi, 2014; Brachaniec et al., 2015; Antczak et al., 2020), as is also suggested by evidence from body fossils (e.g., Hu et al., 2011; Stubbs and Benton, 2016). There is evidence from ichnology for increased vertebrate predation on invertebrates (Tables A.1-2, 5, 8-9) in the Jurassic and Cretaceous, including regurgitalites (e.g., Zatoń et al., 2007; Borszcz and Zatoń, 2013), consumulites (e.g., Pollard, 1968; Přikryl et al., 2012) and digestilites (e.g., Oji et al., 2003). Consumulites of ichthyosaurs demonstrate some feeding changes, as Early and Middle Triassic specimens yield only cephalopod hooklets, whereas Late Triassic examples include both vertebrate remains and mollusk-shell fragments (Rieber, 1970; Camp, 1980; Brinkmann, 2004; Buchy et al., 2004; Cheng et al., 2006; Druckenmiller et al., 2014). This corresponds to an ecomorphological diversification documented by hard parts (Stubbs and Benton, 2016). Marine coprolites occur throughout the Triassic, but are most abundant in the Rhaetic bonebeds in England and elsewhere in Europe (Cueille et al., 2020).

Triassic Terrestrial Radiations

Coprolites occur throughout the Triassic but are most numerous and widely dispersed in redbeds of Late Triassic age. The oldest vertebrate herbivore coprolites are from the Middle Triassic of Brazil (Hunt et al., 2013b: Fig. 34). Nonmarine dentalites are abundant in the Late Triassic, but rarer earlier in the period. The Late Triassic is also a time interval characterized by the presence of extensive osteoderms in a wide range of carnivorous (phytosaurs, paracrocodylomorphs, crocodylomorphs) and herbivorous (non-archosaurian archosauriforms, pseudosuchians, aetosaurs, turtles, *Doswellia*) reptiles, suggesting a substantial amount of evolutionary escalation. More armor and more dentalites are characteristic of both the aquatic Devonian and the terrestrial Late Triassic.

Terminal Triassic Extinction

Contrary to a large volume of literature, there is no single mass extinction at the end of the Triassic that affects either fish (e. g., McCune and Schaeffer, 1986; Bambach et al., 2004) or tetrapods (Lucas and Tanner, 2015, 2018). The record of vertebrate coprolites similarly shows no significant turnover across the Triassic/Jurassic boundary (Hunt and Lucas, 2018a; Hunt et al., 2018).

Jurassic

The majority of marine trace fossils of vertebrate consumption in the Jurassic are dentalites and consumulites related to the development of ecosystems with diverse marine reptiles of large body size, a trend that started in the Early Jurassic. Large bones aid in the recognition of dentalites, and consumulites are more easily identified in relatively large, articulated skeletons. While the majority of Jurassic consumulites pertain to ichthyosaurs that ingested coleoids or belemnites, many dentalites were produced by predatory pliosaurs, plesiosaurs and marine crocodylomorphs. Jurassic marine coprolites are not abundant, except in the Lias of England where multiple large spiral forms such as *Liassocoprus*, *Strabelocoprus* and *Saurocoprus* indicate that chondrichthyans were important predators during the Early Jurassic.

Nonmarine coprolites in the redbeds of the Lower Jurassic of western and eastern North America are little different from those of the Upper Triassic, supporting the absence of a mass extinction of vertebrates on land across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary. The most significant Jurassic vertebrate trace fossils occur in the Upper Jurassic. The Solnhofen and related Lagerstätten of Germany (Fig. 34) produce over 100 fish consumultites as well as specimens preserved in pterosaurs and a theropod that facilitate the construction of food webs (Wellnofer, 1970; Ostrom, 1978; Viohl, 1990; Ebert et al., 2015). The first large samples of terrestrial dentalites occur in Late Jurassic dinosaurs. These demonstrate that dinosaur communities yield significantly fewer dentalites than mammal communities, because non-avian dinosaurs lacked the dentition or jaw mechanics to adeptly manipulate and modify bones (Fiorillo, 1991a). Jurassic and Cretaceous dentalites demonstrate that crocodylomorphs only preyed on smaller bodied animals, such as other crocodylomorphs or turtles, and that only theropods attacked large dinosaurs.

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Origin of the Avian Digestive Bauplan

One of the most important aspects of the record of vertebrate trace fossils is the documentation of the development of the avian digestion system (crop, two-part stomach - proventriculus and ventriculus) as demonstrated by gastroliths, consumulites, regurgitalites and coprolites from small, derived theropods and birds, principally from the Early Cretaceous Jehol Lagerstätte but also from the Late Jurassic Yanliao Biota (O'Connor and Zhou, 2015, 2020; O'Connor et al., 2019; Fig. 34, Table A.9). This documents a trophic shift from carnivory to herbivory (fruit, seed, and/or nut eater) with the origin of birds (Wu, 2021). Among the conclusions based on examination of the ichnofossils record are (O'Connor, 2019): (1) the two-part stomach evolved outside Aves; (2) evolution of the crop and use of the esophagus to store food is only documented in Aves among the Theropoda; (3) Jeholornis (the only long, bony-tailed bird other than Archaeopteryx) and Sapeornis both ate seeds, and, like living granivores, utilized a gastric mill, although only the more derived Sapeornis possessed a crop for food storage; (4) a modern alimentary canal was present in the earliest members of Ornithuromorpha, but the Enantiornithes were characterized by a primitive alimentary canal – no grinding gizzard, crop or bidirectional peristalsis; (5) the two-part stomach is inferred to have evolved outside Aves, but the evolution of the crop and use of the esophagus to store food occurred later and is thus far only documented in Aves among the Theropoda; (6) the role of the gizzard in the loss of teeth in Aves is more complex than in non-avian theropod lineages and may not be entirely indicative of herbivory, although this diet does appear to correlate with complete tooth loss in this clade; and (7) whole fish and clusters of macerated fish remains in specimens of Yanornis suggests that food items that were difficult to digest could be moved between parts of the digestive tract through peristalsis-antiperistalsis and regurgitated, increasing digestive efficiency; and (8) advanced digestive abilities like those observed in living birds are probably unique to the Ornithuromorpha and may represent a major factor in the current success of this clade.

Cretaceous Acme of Feeding Traces and the Cretaceous Terrestrial Revolution

The Cretaceous yields the largest record of vertebrate trace fossils prior to the Quaternary (Fig. 34). With the exception of gastroliths, the majority of specimens of vertebrate ichnofossils derive from the Late Cretaceous. This is in large part a taphonomic artifact associated with the abundance of fossils preserved within continental floodings with related tectonic sediment sourcing. It also partly reflects the Taxophile Effect, particularly with regard to dinosaur dentalites. An apparent expansion of dinosaur diversity occurred in the mid-Cretaceous, with the emergence of new groups (e.g. neoceratopsians, ankylosaurid ankylosaurs, hadrosaurids and pachycephalosaurs), but this is a sampling artifact not related to the Cretaceous Terrestrial Revolution (KTR) (Lloyd et al., 2008). However, the KTR undoubtedly affected food webs and vertebrate feeding with potential for documentation from ichnofossils. For example, Prasad et al. (2005) document the inclusion of grasses in dinosaur diet based on Late Cretaceous coprolites from India.

Ichnofossils from the nonmarine Late Cretaceous provide diverse evidence of feeding and other behavior in dinosaur communities, including the digestion of tyrannosaurs (e.g., Chin et al., 1998), scavenging of dinosaurs by mammals (e.g., Longrich and Ryan, 2010), the disparity between the density of dentalites on ceratopsians and hadrosaurs (Jacobsen, 1998) and intraspecific head biting among large theropods (e.g., Brown et al., 2020a). Many smaller Late Cretaceous coprolites probably pertain to crocodylomorphs, so there is a scant record of small theropod coprolites (Hunt and Lucas, 2017b).

Ichnofossils of marine ecosystems of the Late Cretaceous

document disproportionate evidence of predation by two groups, sharks and mosasaurs. The earliest known shark dentalites were produced by a cretoxyrhinid on a specimen of *Kronosaurus* from the Early Cretaceous of Australia (Holland, 2018). Subsequently, dentalites produced by sharks, notably *Squalicorax* and *Cretoxyrhina*, are abundant in the Late Cretaceous and demonstrate widespread predation on marine tetrapods that continued into the Cenozoic. Large chondrichthyans and teleosts, the latter undergoing a substantial radiation during this time (Underwood, 2006; Cavin and Forey, 2007; Cavin et al., 2007; Guinot et al., 2012), also exhibit dentalites predominantly produced by large sharks. Sharks dominate the record of both marine coprolites and dentalites from the Late Cretaceous onwards.

A large number of mosasaur dentalites and consumulites in the Late Cretaceous demonstrate the diversification and importance of this group as predators in Late Cretaceous marine environments. Marine coprolites are very abundant, particularly in the South Tethyan Phosphogenic Province, and in chalk facies (Hunt et al., 2015; Hunt and Lucas, 2016c).

K-Pg Extinctions

The change in mean body size and taxonomic composition of terrestrial vertebrates across the K/Pg boundary resulted in large changes in the ichnofaunas. The rare but very visible and much studied dentalites of dinosaurs are replaced by more common but much less studied and recognized dentalites on small mammal bones in the Paleocene.

There is a limited change in coprolite morphotypes across the K-Pg boundary in nonmarine environments (Suazo et al., 2012; Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). Thus, for example, Alococopros and Eucoprus extend across the boundary, and there is no significant change in the overall median size of coprolites (except for the loss of the rare putative tyrannosaurid coprolites). This suggests that ornithischian and non-avian theropod coprolites are not commonly preserved in the Cretaceous. Most small carnivore coprolites probably represent crocodylomorphs, which do not demonstrate significant changes across the boundary (Sullivan, 1987; Mardwick, 1998; Vasse and Hua, 1998; but also see Puertolas-Pascual et al., 2016). Similarly, there is also no significant change in coprolite morphologies across the K/Pg boundary in marine environments (Hunt and Lucas, 2016c). This is consistent with the hypothesis that many marine coprolites represent chondrichthyans (Hunt et al., 2015b), which exhibit limited extinction across the boundary (Adolfssen and Ward, 2014; Bazzi et al., 2021).

Cenozoic

There is a significant reduction in marine vertebrate ichnofossils in the Paleogene. This is probably largely due to the extinction at the K-Pg boundary of the large-bodied marine reptiles, whose body fossils preferentially preserve such traces, but also to the significant retreat of the epicontinental seas that preserved them. The largest number of reports of marine dentalites from the Cenozoic are related to large, non-delphin cetaceans from the Neogene that were bitten by large sharks (Fig. 34). Spiral shark coprolites of the *Crassocoprus* Ichnofacies dominate many shallow marine ichnofaunas, particularly those of large size from the Eocene (Diedrich and Felker, 2012; Stringer and King, 2012). There is a small but widespread record of dentalites on fossil penguins, whose robust bones give them both an enhanced preservational potential over those of other birds and a better chance of preserving bite marks.

There are well known ichnofaunas of coprolites from the nonmarine Paleocene that show little change from those of the Late Cretaceous except for the absence of the extremely rare, large specimens attributed to tyrannosaurs (Suazo et al., 2012). This is probably due to the fact that the most common carnivorous coprolites of Late Cretaceous and Paleogene are small in size and represent crocodylomorphs rather than small theropods or mammals (e.g., *Alococoprus*).

Digestilites of marine invertebrates composed of angular fragments increase dramatically from the Paleogene to Neogene in Japan (Oji et al., 2003). This suggests increased durophagy by teleosts during the Cenozoic.

Dentalites remain common but relatively understudied throughout the Cenozoic. Paleogene Lagerstätten, notably Messel and the Green River, produce abundant ichnofossils, in particular consumulites, regurgitalites and even gastroliths. Messel yields the oldest evidence of owl predation by strigilites, which become increasingly common later in the Neogene.

Quaternary Acme

Pleistocene vertebrate ichnofossils are abundant. Buckland first found coprolites and dentalites in a Pleistocene cave, and this environment is disproportionately important in the preservation of vertebrate trace fossils in the Quaternary (e.g., Brain, 1981; Andrews, 1990; Hunt and Lucas, 2018c, 2020a).

Terminal Pleistocene Extinctions

One of the primary motivations for the study of the extensive Pleistocene coprolites of the Western United States was to better understand extinctions of the megafauna (Martin et al., 1985; Mead and Agenbroad, 1992; Martin, 2005; Hunt and Lucas, 2018c, 2020a). Paul Martin and his co-workers conducted the majority of this work, and they are proponents of the human overkill hypothesis of terminal Pleistocene extinction (e.g., Martin et al., 1985; Martin, 2015). However, Hunt and Lucas (2018c; Fig. 33) concluded that the pattern of preservation of sloth coprolites suggests that climate rather than overkill was most significant in the extinction of ground sloths. Sporormiella, serving as a proxy for coprolites, has widespread utility in analyzing the timing of extinctions (Davis, 1987; Perotti, 2018).

PROSPECTUS

Introduction

There is a large fossil record of diverse ichnofossils that relate to the feeding of vertebrates. This database provides an opportunity to investigate a number of significant issues in paleobiology.

Data Set

There is a substantial and growing literature on vertebrate coprolites that documents an extensive fossil record (e.g., Dentzien-Dias et al., 2012, 2021; Hunt et al., 2012a, b, c, 2018; Qvarnström et al., 2016, 2017, 2019a-d). Here, we have documented that there is also a substantial record of other ichnofossils related to feeding that include dentalites, consumulites, gastroliths and, to a lesser extent, regurgitalites (see Tables A.1-11), There are still notable areas of understudy such as dentalites in Paleogene mammals, and coprolites in many Lägerstatten. The trace-fossil record of vertebrate feeding also has systematic biases, mostly documents vertebrate-on-vertebrate interactions and suffers from a paucity of herbivore traces. Overall, however, the large datasets encompassed by dentalites, consumulites, gastroliths and regurgitalites provide diverse opportunities for further research.

Methodologies

Significant methodological innovations have been introduced into the study of coprolites in the last decade (e.g., micro CT scans, biogeochemical analyses, SEM, etc: Milàn et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2018; Qvarnström et al., 2019a, b; Umamaheswaran et al., 2019; Cueille et al., 2020; Qvarnström, 2020b). These techniques have only been utilized to a very limited extent in other bromalites (e.g., Gordon et al., 2020) and have great potential to further the study of other trace fossils, notably consumulites.

Taphonomy

The nature and pattern of the fossil record of vertebrate ichnology has received relatively little attention (e.g., Hunt et al., 2018). There are clearly both biological and physical factors that influence the nature of the fossil record of traces related to vertebrate feeding (and other ichnofossils) that can be investigated. For example, how much is the Late Cretaceous acme of all types of traces related to tectonics and sea-level changes and how much to the diversification of sharks, mosasaurs and the large theropods that produce a seemingly disproportionate amount of the fossil record of coprolites and dentalites?

Ichnotaxonomy

Vertebrate ichnology, with the exception of the study of tracks and more recently dentalites, has been hindered by a reluctance to utilize a formal ichnotaxonomy. This is particularly notable with regard to bromalites (coprolites, consumulites and regurgitalites) and gastroliths. Synthetic studies require a common framework of ichnotaxonomy that is generally lacking with regard to the ichnofossils related to vertebrate feeding.

Evolution of Ecosystems

Vertebrate feeding traces provide direct and indirect information on trophic levels and food webs in ancient communities and can aid in the study of ecosystem evolution. Notably, digestilites composed of invertebrate debris provide a particularly important insight into the evolution of durophagous fish and also constitute a significant sediment source, particularly in the Cenozoic. This large topic is deserving of substantial study.

Predation and Evolution

Predation has had a significant impact on macroevolution (e.g., Huntley and Kowalewski, 2007; Stanley, 2008; Sallan et al., 2011). However, predator–prey interactions are thought to be "notoriously difficult to define in the fossil record" (Sallan et al., 2011, p. 8335). Previously, there was recognition of a significant volume of data on the ichnology of invertebrate predation (e.g., Huntley and Kowalewski, 2007), and herein we review an extensive trace fossil record of vertebrate predation. The ichnological record of vertebrate feeding is clearly significant in its extent and can be utilized in modeling evolutionary scenarios.

Predation and Environment

Predation is known to vary among Recent environments (e.g., Harper and Peck, 2016; Sanford, 1999; Sperling et al., 2013; Klompmaker et al., 2019). Environmental factors related to predation include water depth, substrate, oxygenation, temperature and ocean acidification (Klompmaker et al., 2019). Large ichnological data sets, such as from the Late Cretaceous of North America, allow the investigation of environmental factors related to vertebrate feeding traces.

Lagerstätten Without

Lagerstätten yield a disproportionate number of consumulites. However, with a few notable exceptions (e.g., Hunt, 1992; Schweigert and Dietl, 2012; Barrios-de Pedro et al., 2018, 2020a, b), there has been relatively little study of the numerous coprolites and other bromalites from Lagerstätten.

Lagerstätten Within

Bromalites are loci for exceptional preservation and thus constitute Lagerstätten (Wilby and Martill, 1992; Qvarnström et al., 2016; Gordon et al., 2020). Coprolites preserve muscle tissues, eggs, hair, parasites, bacteria, fungi and feathers (Qvarnström et al., 2016), consumulites preserve lepidopteran wings, hair and embryos (Wilby and Martill, 1992) and regurgitalites preserve muscle tissue (Gordon et al., 2020). There is clearly great potential to examine the plethora of bromalites discussed above for the preservation of organic materials that have an otherwise under-represented fossil record.

Vertebrate Predation on Invertebrates

Vertebrate predation is often cited as an important influence on invertebrate evolution (e.g., Vermeij, 1977; Walker and Brett, 2002; Baumiller and Gahn, 2004; Klompmaker et al., 2019). However, the ichnological record of predation of invertebrates by vertebrates is extremely limited. This record needs to be further developed and requires much more research.

Defense

A significant portion of the literature on predation on invertebrate fossils relates to the development of protective measures preserved in hard tissues of organisms, such as thickened shells and the evolution of spines (e.g., Vermeij, 1977; Brett and Walker, 2002). An equivalent arms race occurred during vertebrate evolution, and this invites varied research questions. For example, what is the significance of the relative prevalence of dentalites among unarmored nonmarine herbivores (dicynodonts) in the Late Triassic relative to armored herbivores (aetosaurs).

Conclusions

1. There is a long tradition of inferring feeding in fossil and Recent animals indirectly from functional morphology. Ichnology provides direct evidence of feeding.

2. The bromalite and dentalite records are highly skewed towards carnivores and also have distinct size and facies biases.

3. There is an almost 200 year-long history of naming vertebrate tracks, but there is reluctance to apply a binomial ichotaxonomy to traces relating to feeding that impedes the development of their study.

4. There is a large fossil record of vertebrate dentalites, principally on bony substrates but also on invertebrate hard parts, coprolites, lithic substrates and others. The record requires more synthetic study, an ichnotaxonomy and the development of criteria for establishing inferences about behavior.

5. Regurgitalites are the least studied bromalites and the most difficult to identify. Their record is strongly controlled by taxonomic and taphonomic factors. Avian (notably owl) regurgitalites are a significant source of microvertebrate faunas.

6. There are many descriptions of consumulites, but they are often hidden within publications with a different focus. Consumulites provide the most unambiguous attribution of the tracemaker of any bromalites and provide direct evidence of the nature of digestion and the structure of the digestive tract. They are particularly important in comprehending the evolution of the avian digestive system.

7. Most records of gastroliths are from plesiosaurs, birds and some dinosaurs that provide important insights into varied behaviors, including diet, digestion, buoyancy control and habitat preferences. None are highly polished. Gastroliths are in need of an ichnotaxonomy.

8. Coprolites serve as proxies for biotaxa with demonstrated utility in biochronology, biogeography and the understanding of extinction dynamics.

9. Diverse other ichnofossils provide some information on feeding, including tracks, nests, pabulites and mololites

10. Digestilites are an important source of microvertebrate assemblages, provide insight into the evolution of durophagous fish and constitute an important sediment source in the Cenozoic.

11. The first large sample of vertebrate ichnofossils related to feeding is from the Devonian, but the largest acme is in the Late Cretaceous, which results from taphonomy (continental flooding), the evolution of predators and the Taxophile Effect. 13. Bromalites are Lagerstätten that provide important preservational environments.

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Note Added in Proof

Zonneveld et al. (2021) described *Nihilichnus nihilicus* and cf. *Nihilichnus* isp. on a left front peripheral of a tortoise (Testudininei indeterminate) from the early Miocene Moghra Formation of Egypt. They attribute these traces to the bites

of an unidentified mammalian carnivore during predation or scavenging.

Reference

Zonneveld, J.P., AbdelGawad, M.K. and Miller, E.R., 2021, Ectoparasite borings, mesoparasite borings, and scavenging traces in early Miocene turtle and tortoise shell: Moghra Formation, Wadi Moghra, Egypt: Journal of Paleontology, p.1-19, doi: 10.1017/jpa.2021.92.

Mesozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate Higher level taxon of Taxon of substrate References Notes/biter Age Location substrate Amalfitano et al. Chondrichthyes Cretoxyrhina mantelli Late Cretaceous Italy (2019)Squalicorax falcatus, Cretoxyrhina mantelli Late Cretaceous USA Shimada (1997) tooth in dentalite Cicimurri et al. *Eumylodus laqueatus* Late Cretaceous USA Squalicorax sp. (2008)Metriorhvnchus UK Osteichthyes Leedsichthys sp. Middle Jurassic Martill (1985b) tooth in dentalite embedded Shimada and Xiphactinus audax Late Cretaceous USA Cretoxyrhina Everhart (2004) mantelli tooth USA Konuki (2008) Enchodus sp. Late Cretaceous Squalicorax plethodid Everhart and USA Late Cretaceous *Martinichthys* sp. Everhart (1994) Martinicthys sp. Late Cretaceous USA Konuki (2008) Schwimmer et Late Cretaceous Protosphyraena nitida USA 2 specs Squalicorax al. (1997) Schwimmer et Late Cretaceous USA 10 specs Squalicorax Protosphyraena spp. al. (1997) Pachyrhizodus Schwimmer et Late Cretaceous USA Squalicorax caninus al. (1997) perhaps a polycotylid plesiosaurian, ornithocheiroid Wretman and *Cooyoo australis* Early Cretaceous Australia Kear (2014) pterosaur, ichthyosaurian Platypterygius australis shark lamniform Amalfitano et al. Cretodus sp. in Testudines Large chelonioid Late Cretaceous Italy (2017)consumulite Shimada and 2 specimens Cretoxyrhina Protostega gigas Late Cretaceous USA Hooks (2004); Everhart (2017) manteĺli Everhart (2013, mosasaur Late Cretaceous USA Protostega gigas 2017) ?Tylosaurus Mateus et al. Late Cretaceous Angola shark Protostega sp. (2012)Saualicorax Late Cretaceous USA Konuki (2008) dentalites and tooth *Protostega* sp. in dentalite Schwimmer Chelospargus advena Late Cretaceous USA crocodilian (2010)Plesiochelys sp. and Late Jurassic Meyer (1991) Switzerland Machimosaurus Plesiochelyidae indet.

TABLE A.1. Mesozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate.

	Mesozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate									
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter					
Testudines	Bothremys barberi	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	Squalicorax kaupi					
	Toxochelys latiremis	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	Squalicorax and Xiphactnus, Cretoxyrhina					
	Toxochelys? sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	Squalicorax					
	Desmatochelys lowii	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	Squalicorax					
	Osteopygis sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Grandstaff (1998)	Mosasaurus maximus					
	Protostega dixie (=gigas)	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	shark					
	Gigantatypus salahi	Late Cretaceous	Jordan	Kaddumi (2006)	Squalicorax?					
	Allopleuron hofmanni	Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Mulder (2003a)	?mosasaur					
	Allopleuron hofmanni	Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Jagt et al. (2020)	Machichnus isp., possibly produced by enchodontid fish					
	Chedighaii (Bothremys) barberi	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer (2010)	Deinosuchus					
	Ctenochelys tenuitesta	Late Cretaceous	USA	Zangerl (1953)	?mosasaur					
	<i>Catapleura repanda</i> or cf. <i>Bothremys</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous/ Paleogene	USA	Boles (2016)	Cretolamna appendiculata					
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous/ Paleogene	USA	Boles (2016)	hexanchid					
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous/ Paleogene	USA	Boles (2016)	shark					
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous/ Paleogene	USA	Boles (2016)	<i>Bottosaurus harlani</i> or a mosasaur					
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Becker et al. (2006)	shark					
Mosasauroidea	<i>Tylosaurus</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Massare (1987)						
	Tylosaurus kansasensis	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2005g)	mosasaur					
	<i>Tylosaurus</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2005g)	tips of three <i>Cretoxyrhina</i> teeth embedded in the skull and lower jaws					
	Tylosaurus nepaeolicus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schumacher (1993); Everhart (2002)	mosasaur					
	Platecarpus tympaniticus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2008)	mosasaur					
	Tylosaurus nepaeolicus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Rothschild and Martin (1993)	head biting					

	Mesozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate							
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
Mosasauroidea	Tylosaurus nepaeolicus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2008)	two partially healed puncture wounds on the left-lateral side of the premaxilla, consistent with the "head biting" scenario			
	Clidastes propython	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2008)	skull partially healed puncture wounds on the frontal, right prefrontal and right articular from mosasaur			
	Clidastes sp.	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Hans-Volker and Nyhuis (2012)				
	Clidastes sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Rothschild Martin (1993)	<i>Squalicorax</i> , dentalite and tooth in dentalite			
	Clidastes sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	Squalicorax			
	Prognathodon saturator	Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Dortangs et al. (2002); Rothschild et al. (2005)	shark, associated teeth of <i>Squalicorax</i> and <i>Plicatoscyillium</i>			
	Prognathodon kianda	Late Cretaceous	Angola	Strganac et al. (2015)	Squalicorax pristodontus			
	cf. Ectenosaurus clidastoides	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2004c)	Cretoxyrhina mantelli and Squalicorax falcatus, dentalites and tooth in dentalite			
	Mosasaurus conodon	Late Cretaceous	?	Bell and Martin (1995)	mosasaur			
	Mosasaurus hoffmanni	Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Lingham-Soliar (2004)	dentary mosasaur?			
	Platecarpus ictericus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Lingham-Soliar (2004)	dentary – mosasaur?			
	Platecarpus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (1999)	unhealed <i>Cretoxyrhina</i> bite marks on the skull and dorsal vertebrae			
	Platecarpus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Rothschild and Martin (1993)	Squalicorax			
	?Platecarpus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Shimada (1997); Rothschild et al. (2005)	one of several punctures includes <i>Cretoxyrhina</i> tooth			
	Plioplatecarpus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bell and Martin (1995)	mosasaur			
	Plioplatecarpus marshi	Late Cretaceous	Belgium	Bardet, et al. (1998)	shark			
	Plioplatecarpus marshi	Late Cretaceous	The Netherlands	Jagt et al. (2020)	Linichnus cf. serratus			

	IVIESUZUI	e marine dentalites			
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Mosasauroidea	plioplatecarpine	Late Cretaceous	USA	Carr et al. (2020)	plioplatecarpine mosasaur head biting
	Platecarpus ictericus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al., (1997); Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	shark with serrations, Knethichnus parallelum
	Platecarpus ictericus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	one is tooth in dentalite, <i>Squalicorax</i>
	Platecarpus coryphaeus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	Squalicorax
	Platecarpus sp	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	Squalicorax
	Platecarpus sp	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	serrated shark
	Platecarpus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	Squalicorax
	Tylosaurus proriger	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	serrated shark
	Tylosaurus proriger	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2005b)	Squalicorax falcatus
	Tylosaurus kansasensis	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2002)	tooth in dentalite, Cretoxyrhina
	<i>Tylosaurus</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schumacher (1993)	mosasaur
	<i>Tylosaurus</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	Squalicorax, Cretoxyrhina, Squalicorax and Cretoxyrhina
	tylosaurine	Late Cretaceous	USA	Hamm and Shimada (2007)	Pseudocorax laevis and Squalicorax pristodontus
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	Spain	Corral et al. (2004)	shark, maybe Squalicorax kaupi (Agassiz, 1843) or Cretolamna appendiculata, both from same unit
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart et al. (1995); Shimada (1997)	Cretoxyrhina
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (1999); Rothschild and Everhart (2015)	shark bite on the tail, 2 age sets of bites
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	striated shark
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	striated shark
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Welton and Farish (1993); Schwimmer et al. (1997)	Squalicorax

	Mesozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Mosasauroidea	mosasaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	<i>Squalicorax, Squalicorax</i> and <i>Cretoxyrina</i>				
Plesiosauria	cf. Cryproclidus sp.	Middle Jurassic	UK	Martill et al. (1994)	propodeal bitten by pliosaur				
	cf. Dolichorhynchops osborni	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2003)					
	polycotylid	Late Cretaceous	Sweden	Einarsson et al. (2010)	mosasaur				
	Dolichorhynchops sp	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	Squalicorax				
	Trinacromerum willistoni	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	shark				
	Trinacromerum willistoni	Late Cretaceous	USA	Riggs, 1944	?shark				
	Brachauchenius lucasi	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	Squalicorax				
	Ogmodirus martini	Late Cretaceous	USA	Williston and Moodie (1917); Everhart (2006)	bite marks were serrated, scavenging by <i>Squalicora</i> x				
	Albertonectes vanderveldei	Late Cretaceous	Japan	Kubo et al. (2012)	shark				
	Futabasaurus suzukii	Late Cretaceous	Japan	Sato et al. (2006); Shimada et al. (2010)	shark – teeth in dentatlites				
	Eromangasaurus carinognathus	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Thulborn and Turner (1993); Kear (2005); McHenry (2009)	pliosaur - Kronosaurus				
	indeterminate elasmosaur	Late Cretaceous	Chile	Otero et al. (2014)					
	indeterminate elasmosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2005a)	Cretoxyrhina mantelli				
	indeterminate elasmosaur	Late Cretaceous	Angola	Araújo et al. (2015)	Squalicorax pristodontus				
	indeterminate elasmosaur	Late Cretaceous	New Zealand	Barnes and Hiller (2010)	mosasaur Prognathodon waiparaensis and shark, similar to or smaller than Cretoxyrhina mantelli				
	cf. Cryptoclidus sp.	Middle Jurassic	UK	Martill et al. (1994)	pliosaur				
	Cryptoclidus sp.	Middle/Late Jurassic	UK	Forrest (2000)	75% of sample have bite marks of pliosaur				
	Cryptoclidus sp.	Middle Jurassic	UK	Forrest (2003)	marine crocodile Metriorhynchus				

TP-h 1 C	Mesozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate									
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter					
Plesiosauria		Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	Tylosaurus, Squalicorax falcatus Pseudocorax laevis					
	Cryptoclidus eurymerus	Middle Jurassic	England	Rothschild et al. (2018)	<i>Peloneustes</i> (a small pliosaur, healed)					
	cf. Cryproclidus	Late Jurassic	England	Martill et al. (1994)						
	indeterminate	Late Jurassic	USA	Wahl (2006)	? juvenile propodial					
	Pliosaurus sp.	Early Jurassic	England	Grange et al. (1996)						
	Kronosaurus sp.	Early Cretaceous	Australia	McHenry (2009)	Kronosaurus					
	Kronosaurus queenslandicus	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Holland (2018)	cretoxyrhinid lamniform					
	indeterminate	Late Jurassic	Mexico	Buchy (2007)	pliosaur + indeterminate					
Ichthyosauria	Leptonectes cf. tenuirostris	Early Jurassic	England	Maisch and Matzke (2003)	?angular, healed					
	Temnodontosaurus sp.	Early Jurassic	Germany	Pardo-Pérez et al. (2018)	5 specimens, possibly <i>Temnodontosaurus,</i> crocodylomorph or <i>Steneosaurus</i>					
	Dearcmhara shawcrossi	Middle Jurassic	Scotland	Brusatte et al. (2015)	humerus					
	indeterminate	Middle Jurassic	England	Martill (1996)	pliosaur <i>Liopleurodon</i>					
	Platypterygiinae gen. et sp. indet.	Late Jurassic	Russia	Zverkov et al. (2015)	medium-sized pliosaur.					
	Cryopterygius kielanae	Late Jurassic	Poland	Tyborowski (2016)						
	?ophalmosaurid	Late Jurassic	Norway	Druckenmiller et al. (2012); Novis (2012)	pelvic area					
	Platypterygius australis	Late Cretaceous	Australia	Zammit, (2011); Zammit and Kear (2011)	Platypterygius australis					
Marine reptiles?	marine reptiles?	Late Cretaceous	USA	McKean and Gillette (2015)						
Crocodyliformes	Geosaurus saltillense	Late Jurassic	Mexico	Buchy et al. (2006)	crocodilian					
	Geosaurus vignaudi	Late Jurassic	Mexico	Frey et al. (2002)						
	Pachycheilosuchus trinquei	Early Cretaceous	USA	Rogers (2003)	large predator					
	? Rhabdognathus keiniensis	Late Cretaceous	Mali	Hill et al. (2015)	neoselachian - Linichnus serratus, serrate-toothed - Knethichnus parallelum					

	Mesozoic	marine dentalites of	on bony substr	ate	
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Crocodyliformes	Oceanosuchus boecensis	Late Cretaceous	France	Hua et al. (2007)	
	Neosuchian crocodylomorph	Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Mulder et al. (2016)	femur, Linichnus isp.
	Thoracosaurus neocesariensis	Late Cretaceous/ Paleocene	USA	Boles and Lacovara(2013)	Squalicorax
Pterosauria	Pteranodon cf. P. longiceps	Late Cretaceous	USA	Ehret and Harrell (2018)	Squalicorax kaupi, and a small to moderate-sized saurodontid fish, such as Saurodon or Saurocephalus
	Pteranodon sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008); Hone et al. (2018b)	<i>Cretoxyrhina</i> <i>mantelli</i> tooth and possibly missing, damaged neural spines
		Late Cretaceous	USA	Bennett in Witton (2018)	tooth gouges made by the serrated teeth of <i>Squalicorax</i>
	Anhanguera sp.	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Buffetaut et al. (2004); Kellner (2004)	dentalite infilled by spinosaur tooth
Hadrosauroidea	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schein and Poole (2014)	Cretalamna appendiculata or Odontaspis cuspidata, and possibly secondarily by Hexanchus sp.
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart and Ewell (2006)	no serrations Cretoxyrhina mantelli
	indeterminate	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer et al. (1997)	<i>Squalicorax</i> , tooth in dentalite
	Indeterminate ?lambeosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Brownstein and Bissell (2021)	shark without serrated dentition, possibly <i>Cretalamna</i>
Nodosauridae	Niobrarasaurus coleii	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart and (Hamm, 2005)	Cretoxyrhina mantelli
Theropoda	ornithominimosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Brownstein (2018)	shark, on femur
	theropod	Late Cretaceous	USA	Brownstein (2018)	crocodile, on tibia
Aves	Hesperornis sp	Late Cretaceous	USA	Martin et el. (2016)	polycotylid plesiosaur

Mesozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate							
Higher level taxon of substrateTaxon of substrateAgeLocationReferencesNotes/biter							
	bird	Late Cretaceous	USA	Hanks and Shimada (2002)	Squalicorax		

TABLE A.2. Mesozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate.

	Mesozoic noni	narine dental	ites on bony su	ıbstrate	
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Temnospondyli	Broomistega putterilli	Early Triassic	South Africa	Fernandez et al. (2013)	two punctures above left orbit may be dentalites
	Koskinonodon perfectum	Late Triassic	USA	Rinehart et al. (2006)	Heterodontichnites hunti; phytosaur
Testudines	Foxemys trabanti	Late Cretaceous	Hungary	Botfalvai et al. (2014)	crocodilian
	Plesiochelys solodurensis	Late Jurassic	Germany	Karl (2012)	machimosaurid, velociraptorine, dromaeosaurid, survived both
	turtle	Early Cretaceous	France	Rozada et al. (2021)	Goniopholididae
	Eurysternum wagleri	Late Cretaceous	Germany	McCoy et al. (2012)	Goniopholis
	Rionegrochelys caldieroi	Late Cretaceous	Argentina	de Valais et al. (2020)	crocodyliform
	turtle	Late Jurassic	Germany	Karl and Tichy (2004)	crocodile
	turtle	Late Cretaceous	USA	Noto et al. (2012)	crocodyliform
	turtle	Late Cretaceous	USA	Carpenter and Lindsey (1980)	Brachychampsa
	Solnhofia parsonsi	Late Jurassic	Germany	Joyce (2000)	broad nosed crocodilian
	Pleurosternon bullockii	Early Cretaceous	France	Gônet et al. (2019)	Crocodile
	turtle, crocodyliform and dinosaur	Late Cretaceous	Romania	Augustin et al. (2019)	multituberculate mammals, (4) ziphodont theropod dinosaurs or crocodyliforms
	Mongolemys elegans	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Szczygielski and Surmik (2020)	
Rhynchocephalia	Clevosaurus brasiliensis	Late Triassic	Brazil	Romo-de-Vivar- Martínez et al. (2017)	Clevosaurus brasiliensis
Archosauromorpha	protorosaurian	Late Triassic	Italy	Holgado et al. (2015)	large fish, perhaps <i>Saurichthys</i> or a coelacanthiform, protorosaurians
Choristodera	Champsosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Longrich and Ryan, (2010)	?multituberculate

	Mesozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Serpentes	Nidophis insularis	Late Cretaceous	Romania	Venczel et al. (2015)	crocodyliform or a theropod				
Pseudosuchia	Revueltosaurus callenderi	Late Triassic	USA	Hunt et al. (2005c); Hunt and Lucas (2014)	?crocodylomorph				
Phytosauria	Nicrosaurus sp.	Late Triassic	Germany	Abel (1922a); Ruben (1990)	Nicrosaurus				
	Pseudopalatus sp.	Late Triassic	USA	Camp (1930); Ruben (1990).	Pseudopalatus				
Aetosauria	Typothorax coccinarum	Late Triassic	USA	Drymala and Bader (2012); Drymala et al. (2021)	phytosaur or paracrocodylomorph				
	Desmatosuchus sp.	Late Triassic	USA	Zeigler et al. (2002)	possibly phytosaur				
Paracrocrodylomorpha	paracrocodylomorphs	Late Triassic	USA	Drumheller et al. (2014)	phytosaur				
	Postosuchus kirkpatricki	Late Triassic	USA	Weinbaum (2013)					
Crocodylomorpha	Dromicosuchus grallator	Late Triassic	USA	Sues et al. (2003)	paracrocodylomorph				
Crocodyliformes	Anteophthalmosuchus epikrator	Early Cretaceous	England	Ristevski et al. (2018)	another goniopholid				
	Goniopholis simus	Early Cretaceous	England	Andrade et al. (2011)	Goniopholis simus				
	goniopholid	Early Cretaceous	Spain	Buscalioni et al. (2013)	Goniopholis				
	?Brachychampsa sealeyi	Late Cretaceous	USA	Williamson (1996)	?Brachychampsa sealeyi				
	Baurusuchus pachecoi	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	Avilla et al. (2004)	baurusuchid				
	Baurusuchus salgadoensis	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	de Vasconcellos and Carvalho (2010)	baurusuchid				
	Baurusuchus sp.	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	de Araújo Júnior and da Silva Marinho (2013)	small baurusuchid or theropod				
	Iharkutosuchus makadii	Late Cretaceous	Hungary	Botfalvai et al. (2014)	crocodilian				
	peirosaurid	Late Cretaceous	Argentina	Fiorelli (2010)	theropod				
	crocodilian	Late Cretaceous	Romania	Codrea et al. (2010, 2012)	crocodilian				
Theropoda	Herrerasaurus ischigualastensis	Late Triassic	Argentina	Sereno and Novas (1994)	parietal and splenial; Herrerasaurus				
	Monolophosaurus jiangi	Middle Jurassic	China	Tanke and Currie (1998); Brown et al. (2021)	head; Monolophosaurus jiangi				
	Sinraptor dongi	Late Jurassic	China	Tanke and Currie (1998)	Sinraptor dongi				

Higher level taxon of		marine dentali			
substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Theropoda	Allosaurus fragilis	Late Jurassic	USA	Chure et al. (1998); Drumheller et al. (2020); Brown et al. (2021)	Ceratosaurus, Torvosaurus or Allosaurus
	"Labrosaurus ferox" Allosaurus?	Late Jurassic	USA	Gilmore (1920); Tanke and Currie (1998)	bitten off symphysis?
	Acrocanthosaurus atokensis	Early Cretaceous	USA	Harris (1997, 1998); Eddy and Clark (2011)	2 skeletons, skull, vertebrae and ribs
	ornithominosaur	Early Cretaceous	France	Rozada et al. (2021)	Goniopholididae
	Carcharodontosaurus saharicus	Late Cretaceous	Algeria	Tanke and Currie (1998); Brown et al. (2021a)	skull; Carcharodontosaurus saharicus
	Albertosaurus sarcophagus	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Bell (2010); Brown et al. (2021a)	dentary; Albertosaurus
	Albertosaurus sarcophagus	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Tanke and Currie (1998); Currie and Eberth (2010); Brown et al. (2021a)	numerous skull elements; <i>Albertosaurus</i> sarcophagus
	Gorgosaurus libratus	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Tanke and Currie (1998); Bell and Currie (2010); Brown et al. (2021a)	many specimens; Gorgosaurus
	Daspletosaurus torosus	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Brown et al. (2021a)	many skull elements; Daspletosaurus
	Daspletosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Tanke and Currie (1998); Hone and Tanke (2010); Brown et al. (2021a)	many skull elements; Daspletosaurus
	Tarbosaurus bataar	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Tanke and Currie (1998)	Tarbosaurus
	Tyranosaurus rex	Late Cretaceous	USA	Horner and Lessem (1993); Brochu (2003)	"Sue;" tyrannosaur
	Tyrannosaurus rex	Late Cretaceous	USA/ Canada	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex
	Tyrannosaurus rex	Late Cretaceous	USA	Peterson et al. (2020)	juvenile <i>Tyrannosaurus rex</i>
	<i>Tyrannosaurus</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Stein (2021)	two large, sub- circular holes on the lateral anterior end of dentary
	Tyrannosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Larson (2001)	
	Thanatotheristes olegrootorum	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Brown et al. (2021)	Thanatotheristes olegrootorum

	Niesozoic non	marine dental	ites on bony su	Distrate	
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Theropoda	tyrannosaurs	Late Cretaceous	USA	Dalman and Lucas (2020)	3 specimens; tyrannosaur
	tyrannosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Peterson et al. (2009, 2021)	Tyrannosaurus
	tyrannosaur	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Bell and Currie (2010)	tyrannosaur, tooth in dentalite
	tyrannosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	McLain (2016); McLain et al. (2018)	Tyrannosaurus rex; Knethichnus parallelum; Linichnus serratus
	tyrannosaurids	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Jacobsen (1995, 1998); Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	theropod
	six genera of tyrannosaurs	Late Cretaceous	USA/ Canada	Rothschild and Molnar (2008)	theropods
	Deinocheirus sp.	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Bell et al. (2012)	Tarbosaurus bataar
	Vitakridrinda sulaimani	Late Cretaceous	Pakistan	Malkani (2006, 2009, 2010)	Vitakridrinda
	Majungasaurus crenatissimus	Late Cretaceous	Madagascar	Rogers et al. (2004); Gutherz et al. (20220)	3 specimens; <i>Majungasaurus</i>
	Aniksosaurus darwini	Late Cretaceous	Argentina	Ibiricuet al. (2013)	vertebrate
	Buitreraptor gonzalezorum	Late Cretaceous	Argentina	Gianechini and de Valais (2016)	mammal
	Saurornitholestes langstoni	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	tyrannosaur
	Saurornitholestes langstoni	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Tanke and Currie (1998); Jacobsen (2001)	small tyrannosaur, Saurornitholestes
	Stenonychosaurus inequalis	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Currie (1985); Tanke and Currie (1998)	
	ornithomimosaur	Early Cretaceous	France	Gônet et al. (2019)	crocodile
	theropod	Early Jurassic	Antarctica	Hammer and Hickerson (1993)	small theropod
	Gobiraptor minutus	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Lee et al. (2019)	
	Velociraptor mongoliensis	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Saneyoshi et al. (2011)	mammal
	Velociraptor mongoliensis	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Norell et al. (1995)	multiple dentalites on dorsal braincase; <i>Velociraptor</i> ?
	Tetanurae	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Poropat et al. (2019)	small theropod
	theropod	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer (2010)	Deinosuchus

Mesozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
Sauropoda	Lufengosaurus huenei	Early Jurassic	China	Xing et al. (2018)	? <i>Sinosaurus</i> ; osteomyalitis			
	Cetiosauriscus greppini	Late Jurassic	Switzerland	Meyer and Thüring (2003)	femur; Machimosaurus			
	Titanosauriform	Early Cretaceous	Spain	Alonso et al. (2017)	theropod			
	Apatosaurus sp.	Late Jurassic	USA	Osborn (1904)	Allosaurus			
	Camarasaurus supremus	Late Jurassic	USA	Chure et al. (1998)	Allosaurus			
	Camarasaurus supremus	Late Jurassic	USA	Jacobsen (1998)	theropod			
	Camarasaurus lewisi	Late Jurassic	USA	Jensen (1988); Hunt et al. (1994)	<i>Torvosaurus</i> or <i>Allosaurus</i>			
	three <i>Camarasaurus</i> , a partial diplodocid skeleton, left pes and right manus of a brachiosaur	Late Jurassic	USA	Bader et al. (2009)	theropod or crocodilian			
	Camarasaurus sp.	Late Jurassic	USA	Jennings and Hasiotis (2006)	Allosaurus			
	Apatosaurus sp.	Late Jurassic	USA	Kirkland et al. (2005)	theropod			
	Apatosaurus sp.	Late Jurassic	USA	Matthew (1908)	Allosaurus			
	Diplodocus sp.	Late Jurassic	USA	Myers (2004); Myers and Storrs (2007); Storrs et al. (2013)				
	sauropods, theropods, ankylosaur, other	Late Jurassic	USA	Drumheller et al. (2020)	of 2368 vertebrate fossils, 28.885% preserve at least one theropod bite mark; <i>Allosaurus</i> , <i>Torvosaurus</i> , <i>Saurophaganax</i>			
	mamenchisaurid	Late Jurassic	China	Augustin et al. (2020b)	mammal			
	diplodocoid	Late Jurassic	USA	Hone and Chure (2018)	young diplodocoid; large theropod ? <i>Allosaurus</i>			
	Europasaurus holgeri	Late Jurassic	Germany	Slodownik and Wings (2015); Wings (2015)	small crocodilians or, less likely, sharks			
	Dongbeititan dongi	Early Cretaceous	China	Xing et al. (2012)	small theropod tooth in dentalite			
	Rapetosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	Madagascar	Rogers and Krause (2007)	Majungatholus atopus			
	Brasilotitan nemophagus	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	Machado et al. (2013)				
	sauropod	Early Cretaceous	Korea	Paik et al. (2011)	small and large theropod			

	Mesozoic noni	narine dentali	ites on bony su	bstrate	
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Sauropoda	Opisthocoelicaudia skarzynskii	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Borsuk- Bialynicka (1977)	anterior border of iliac blade "strongly damaged by predators"
	sauropod	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Currie et al. (2018)	caudal vertebra
	titanosaur	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	da Silva Marinho et al. (2011)	osteoderm; large crocodyliform or theropod dinosaur
	titanosaur	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	Paes Neto et al. (2018)	theropod or crocodilian
	sauropod	Late Jurassic	USA	Hasiotis (2004)	Allosaurus
	sauropods	Late Cretaceous	Madagascar	Rogers et al. (2004)	Majungasaurus
	sauropods	Late Jurassic	USA	Hunt et al. (1994)	theropods
	Mamenschisauridae indet	Late Jurassic	China	Augustin et al. (2020a)	large theropod, probably metriacanthosaurid
Ankylosauria	Mymoorapelta maysi	Late Jurassic	USA	Kirkland et al. (2005)	theropod
	Tarchia sp.	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Tumanova et al. (1998); Gallagher et al. (1998)	Tarbosaurus
Hypsilophontidae	hypsilophodontid	Late Cretaceous	USA	Drumheller and Boyd (2011); Boyd et al. (2013)	crocodyliform feeding on juvenile
Ankylopollexia	Camptosaurus sp.	Early Cretaceous	Romania	Grigorescu (1992)	
Parkosauridae	Thescelosaurus neglectus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex
Iguanodontia	Tenontosaurus tilletti	Early Cretaceous	USA	Gignac et al. (2010)	Deinonychus antirrhopus
	Lurdusaurus arenatus	Early Cretaceous	Niger	Taquet and Russell (1999)	left prepubis with two tooth punctures?
	iguanodont	Early Cretaceous	Romania	Posmoşanu (2003)	
	Thescelosaurus neglectus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex
Hadrosauroidea	Hypacrosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Chin (1997)	fibula with a tooth embedded in it, <i>Tyrannosaurus</i>
	Kritosaurus notabilis	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Pinna (1979)	theropod
	Naashoibitosaurus ostromi	Late Cretaceous	USA	Horner (1992), Tanke and Rothschild (2002); this paper	compression fractured gouge on the dorsal aspect of the left squamosal; "healed remnants of a predator's bite?"

Mesozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
Hadrosauroidea	Edmontosaurus regalis	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bell and Campione (2014)	<i>Dromaeosaurus</i> <i>albertensis</i> or juvenile tyrannosaurs			
	Edmontosaurus annectens	Late Cretaceous	USA	Ullman et al. (2017)	dromaeosaur			
	Edmontosaurus annectens, Triceratops horridus	Late Cretaceous	USA	McLain (2016)	tyrannosaur, crocodilians and theropods			
	<i>Edmontosaurus</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Carpenter (1998); Tanke and Rothschild (2014)	<i>Tyrannosaurus</i> <i>rex</i> ; osteomyelitis resulting from an infection of a wound, but see Tanke and Rothschild (2014) for alernative hypothesis of damage caused by trampling			
	Edmontosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex			
	Edmontosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Erickson and Olson (1996)				
	Edmontosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Peterson et al. (2020)	juvenile <i>Tyrannosaurus rex</i>			
	Edmontosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Gangloff et al. (1999); Gangloff and Fiorillo (2010)				
	Edmontosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Stein (2021)				
	Telmatosaurus transylvanicus	Late Cretaceous	Romania	Codrea et al. (2010); Codrea and Solomon (2012)	crocodilian			
	Amurosaurus riabinini	Late Cretaceous	Russia	Lauters et al. (2008)	theropod			
	Brachylophosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Murphy et al. (2006)	tyrannosaur			
	Brachylophosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Murphy et al. (2013)	tyrannosaur tail			
	Brachylophosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	LaRock (2000)				
	Gryposaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Dinter (2013)	crocodyliform			
	Saurolophus sp.	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Hone and Watabe (2010)	Tarbosaurus			
	?Velafrons coahuilensis	Late Cretaceous	Mexico	Rybakiewicz et al. (2019)	crocodilian			
	lambeosaurine	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Holland et al. (2021)	possibly smaller tyrannosaurid			

Mesozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
Hadrosauroidea	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Brown et al. (2021)	pedal ungual with multiple bites from adult-sized dromaeosaurid, or a very young tyrannosaurid in late-stage carcass consumption			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Brown et al. (2021)	three unguals			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Rothschild and DePalma (2013)	hadrosaurid skin associated with a skull, showing healed bone around tooth score traces; tyrannosaurid			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Campagna (2000)	on dentaries			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Fiorillo (1991a, b)	large theropod			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	Mexico	Rivera-Sylva et al. (2009, 2011)	Deinosuchus			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	Mexico	Rivera-Sylva et al. (2012)	tibia; tyrannosaurine			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	Mexico	Serrano-Brañas and Espinosa- Chavez (2017)	crocodilian			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	Spain	Canudo et al. (2005)	osteomyelitis resulting from an infection of a wound			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	DePalma et al. (2013)	<i>Tyrannosaurus rex</i> tooth in dentalite in fused caudal centra			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Gangloff and Fiorillo (2010); Fiorillo et al. (2010)	theropod			
	hadrosaurine	Late Cretaceous	USA	Robinson et al. (2015)	theropod			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Peterson and Daus (2019)	Tyrannosaurus rex			
	hadrosaurs	Late Cretaceous	USA	Schwimmer (2010)	Deinosuchus			
	hadrosaurs	Late Cretaceous	USA	Varricchio (1995a, b)	theropod			
	hadrosaurs	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Jacobsen (1995, 1998); Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	theropod			
	hadrosaurs	Late Cretaceous	USA	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex			
	hadrosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Lewis (2011)	crocodilian			

Higher level taxon of	Taman Carlostanta		Taratian	Deferment	NT - 4
substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Ornithischia	ornithopod	Late Cretaceous	USA	Noto et al. (2012)	crocodyliform
	ornithopod	Late Cretaceous	Romania	Benton et al. (2006)	phalanges and vertebrae; theropods
	ornithischian	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex
Stegosauria	Stegosaurus sp.	Late Jurassic	USA	Carpenter et al. (2005)	Allosaurus
Pachycephalosauridae	Prenocephale edmontonensis	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Sullivan (2000)	Albertosaurus or Daspletosaurus
Ceratopsia	Psittacosaurus sp.	Lower Cretaceous	Thailand	Buffetaut et al. (2007)	
	Protoceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Saneyoshi et al. (2011)	mammal
	Bagaceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Saneyoshi et al. (2011)	mammal
	Brachyceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Sampson in Rogers (1990)	
	Pachyrhinosaurus lakustai	Late Cretaceous	USA	Fanti et al. (2015)	small theropod
	small Centrosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Hone et al. (2018)	dromaeosaurid or young tyrannosaur
	Styracosaurus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Rogers (1990)	Albertosaurus
	chasmosaurine	Late Cretaceous	USA	Dalman and Lucas (2018)	tyrannosaur
	Eotriceratops xerinsularis	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Wu et al. (2007)	
	Triceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Gignac and Erickson (2017)	<i>Tyrannosaurus rex,</i> repetitive localized biting
	Triceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Erickson and Olson (1996)	Tyrannosaurus rex
	Triceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Erickson et al. (1996)	Tyrannosaurus rex
	Triceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex
	Triceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Rothschild (2015)	occipital condyles, not bites for feeding, but play; tyrannosaurid
	Triceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Happ (2008)	Tyrannosaurus rex
	Triceratops sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	de Rooij (2020)	crocodilian
	ceratopsids	Late Cretaceous	USA/ Canada	Longrich et al. (2010)	Tyrannosaurus rex
	ceratopsian	Late Cretaceous	USA	Fowler and Sullivan (2006)	Daspletosaurus

	Mesozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Ceratopsia	ceratopsian	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	<i>Linichnus serratus</i> matching denticles of <i>Troodon</i>				
	ceratopsians	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Jacobsen (1995, 1998)	Theropod				
	ceratopsian	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	Tyrannosaur				
Dinosauria	ornithischians	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Longrich and Ryan (2010)	?multituberculate				
	sphenodontids, crocodyliforms and theropod dinosaurs	Late Cretaceous	Argentina	de Valais et al. (2012)	mainly mammals were scavenging on the carcasses; non-mammalian marks also found on the skeletons possibly made by crocodyliforms, dromaeosaurids and snakes				
Pterosauria	ornithocheiroid	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Kellner et al. (2010)	wing metacarpal with small depressions				
	azhdarchid pterosaur	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Currie and Jacobsen (1995)	Saurornitholestes langstoni tooth in dentalite				
	Eurazhdarcho langendorfensis	Late Cretaceous	Romania	Vremir et al. (2013)	bite marks on cervical vertebrae and distal metacarpal IV (possibly made by Crocodyliformes)				
	Quetzalcoatlus sp	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kellner and Langston (1996)	three openings in the quadrate may be punctures				
	pterosaur vertebra	Early Cretaceous	?Brazil	Buffetaut et al. (2004)	spinosaurid tooth in dentalite				
Dicynodontia	Lystrosaurus sp.	Early Triassic	South Africa	Modesto and Botha-Brink (2010)					
	dicynodont	Middle Triassic	Tanzania	Cruickshank (1986)	<i>Mandaodontites coxi</i> ; archosaur				
	cf. Ischigualastia sp.	Late Triassic	USA	Lucas and Hunt (1993); Hunt and Lucas (2014)	phytosaur - Heterodontichnites hunti				
	dicynodont	Late Triassic	Poland	Budziszewska- Karwowska et al. (2010)	tibia; multiple dentalites				
	dicynodont	Late Triassic	Poland	Dzik et al. (2008); Niedźwiedzki et al. (2010)	Linichnus serratus, Knethichnus parallelum and Nihilichnus nihilicus; attributed to theropod dinosaurs				
	Jachaleria candelariensis	Late Triassic	Brazil	Braunn et al. (2001)					

Mesozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
Dicynodontia	dicynodonts	Late Triassic	Brazil	Vega-Dias and Schultz (2007)	archosauriform			
Cynodontia	<i>Exaeretodon</i> sp.	Late Triassic	Brazil	Müller et al. (2015)	ecteniniid cynodont			
Mammalia	Eodelphis sp.	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Longrich and Ryan (2010)	?multituberculate			

TABLE A.3. Cenozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate.

Cenozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
Chondrichthyes	Anoxypristis?	Pliocene	Italy	Collareta et al. (2017a)				
	Pristis sp.	Pliocene	USA	Purdy et al. (2001), but see Collareta et al. (2017a)				
	Carcharhinus sp.	Miocene	USA	Godfrey (2003)	<i>Carcharhinus</i> tooth in dentalite			
	Carcarodon megalodon	Pliocene	USA	Purdy et al. (2001)	shark; tooth on tooth			
Osteichthyes	fossil tuna, Thunnus	Pliocene	USA	Schneider and Fierstine (2004)	istiophorid billfishes			
Testudines	Cheloniidae	Paleocene	Denmark	Myrvold et al. (2018)	crocodilian and shark, carapace fragment			
	Ctenochelys cf. stenoporus	Paleocene	Denmark	Myrvold et al. (2018)	crocodilian, hypoplasstron			
	Chelonioidea indeterminate	Paleocene	Denmark	Milàn et al. (2011)	shark; <i>Machichnus</i> <i>bohemicus</i> , others - sharks or fish			
Crocodyliformes	dyrosaurid	Paleocene	Niger	Martin (2013)	crocodilian			
Protocetidae	Aegyptocetus tarfa	Eocene	Egypt	Bianucci and Gingerich (2011)	dentalites on ribs, large shark			
Basilosauridae	Dorudon atrox	Eocene	Egypt	Fahlke (2012)	Basilosaurus isis (both Cetacea, Basilosauridae)			
	Dorudon atrox	Eocene	Egypt	Uhen (2004)	Basilosaurus isis			
	Dorudon atrox	Eocene	Egypt	Voss et al. (2019)	Basilosaurus isis			
Cetiotheriidae	Piscobalaena nana	Miocene	Peru	Collareta et al. (2017b)	Carcharocles megalodon			
	Cetotherium capellinii	Pliocene	Italy	Freschi (2017)	Carcharodon carcharias			
	cetothere cetacean	Miocene	USA	Godfrey and Altman (2005)	Carcharodon megalodon			
	cetotheriid whale	Pliocene	USA	Deméré and Cerutti (1982); Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	Carcharodon, Knethichnus parallelum			
Balaenopteridae	Fragilicetus velponi	Pliocene	Belgium	Bisconti and Bosselaers (2016)	shark			

	Cenozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Balaenopteridae	"Megaptera" hubachi	Pliocene	Chile	Bisconti (2010)	shark				
	balaenopterid	Miocene	Argentina	Noriega et al. (2007)	Isurus xiphodon				
	balaenopterid	Miocene	Peru	Takakuwa (2014)	"Isurus" hastalis				
	balaenopterid	Early Pliocene	Spain	Muñiz et al. (2009)	Notorhynchus, Linichnus isp.				
	balaenopterid mysticete	Pliocene	Panama	Cortés et al. (2019)	Carcharodon carcharias				
Escrichtiidae	<i>Eschrichtius</i> cf. <i>E. robustus</i>	Pleistocene	USA	Barnes (1976); Barnes and McLeod (1984)	shark bites on snout				
Mysticeti	baleen whale	Miocene	USA	Godrey (2021)	distal portion ulna, shark dentalites; <i>Linichnus bromleyi</i>				
	mysticete	Pliocene	Italy	Portis (1883); Bianucci et al. (2002)	Carcharodon carcharias				
	mysticete	Pliocene	Peru	Ehret et al. (2009)	tooth in dentalite <i>Carcharodon</i> sp.				
	mysticete	Pliocene	Spain	Esperante et al. (2009)	shark				
	mysticete	Pliocene	Italy	Dominici et al. (2009)	shark				
	mysticete	Pliocene	Spain	Muñiz et al., 2020	dentary and rib. <i>Linichnus bromleyi</i> . Shark				
	baleen whale	Pliocene	USA	Cicimurri and Knight (2009)	Galeocerdo cuvier, Carcharhinus falciformis, C. longimanus, C. obscurus, C. plumbeus				
	baleen whale	Pleistocene/ Holocene	USA	Cicimurri and Knight (2009)	Galeocerdo cuvier, Carcharhinus falciformis, C. longimanus, C. obscurus, C. plumbeus				
Odontoceti	Albertocetus meffordorum	Early Oligocene	USA	Boessenecker et al. (2017)	vertebrae and chevron; shark, ray, skate or fish; <i>Linichnus</i> isp.				
	Inticetus vertizi	Miocene	Peru	Lambert et al. (2018)	shark, no serrations				
	odontocete	Miocene	USA	Godrey et al. (2018)	three caudal vertebrae. <i>Carcharocles</i> <i>megalodon</i> or <i>Carcharocles</i> <i>chubutensis</i>				
	Physeteroidea	Miocene or Pliocene	USA	Godfrey et al. (2021)	tooth shows three gouges, one of which preserves raking bite traces of <i>Otodus</i> <i>chubutensis</i> or <i>Otodus megalodon</i>				

Cenozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate									
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Kogiidae	Pliokogia apenninica	Pliocene	Italy	Collareta et al. (2019a)	long, unserrated dentalites, <i>Cosmopolitodus</i> <i>plicatilis</i>				
Squalodontidae	squalodontid	Miocene	Argentina	Frenguelli (1928)	shark				
Eurhinodelphinidae	Eurhinodelphis sp.	Miocene	USA	Godfrey (2003)	shark				
	eurhinodelphinid-size	Miocene	USA	Godfrey et al. (2018)	two peduncular caudal vertebrae with dentalites of <i>Carcharocles</i> spp.				
Eurhinodelphinidae	eurhinodelphinid-size	Pliocene	USA	Godfrey et al. (2018)	peduncular caudal vertebra with dentalites of <i>Carcharocles</i> spp.				
Monodontidae	monodontid	Pliocene	Belgium	Lambert and Gigase (2007)	Cosmopolitodus hastalis				
Delphinidae	cetacean (dolphin)	Pliocene	Italy	Cigala-Fulgosi (1990); Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	Carcharodon carcharias, Knethichnus parallelum				
	Hadrodelphis calvertense	Miocene	USA	Dawson and Gottfried (2002); Godfrey (2003)	shark, and tooth in dentalite				
	Halitherium schinzii	Oligocene	Austria	Pervesler et al. (1995)	shark				
	Astadelphis gastaldii	Pliocene	Italy	Portis, (1883); Bianucci et al. (2002)	Cosmopolitodus hastalis				
	Hemisyntrachelus cortessi	Pliocene	Italy	Bianucci et al. (2002)	Carcharodon carcharias				
Cetacea	mysticetes	Miocene	Peru	Bosio et al. (2021)	7 specimens, 4 cetotheriids, 3 indeterminate, <i>Carcharhinus</i> cf. <i>C. leucas</i> or <i>Galeocerdo aduncus</i> and <i>Cosmopolitodus</i> <i>hastalis</i> or <i>C.</i> <i>plicatilis</i>				
	ondontocetes	Miocene	Peru	Bosio et al. (2021)	3 specimens, 1 phocoenid, 2 indetermintae delphinidans; <i>Cosmopolitodus</i> <i>hastalis</i> or <i>C</i> . <i>plicatilis</i>				
	cetaceans	Miocene	Peru	Bosio et al. (2021)	3 indeterminate specimens				
	cetacean	Miocene	Venezuela	Aguilera and de Aguilera (2004); Aguilera et al. (2008)	ribs with shark dentalites				
	whale	Miocene	USA	Godfrey (2003)	shark				
	cetacean	Miocene	Peru	Collareta et al. (2017b)	Carcharocles megalodon				

Cenozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
Cetacea	cetaceans	Miocene	Peru	Bianucci et al. (2018); Basio et al. (2021)	sharks, from Chilcatay Formation and dentalites more common than in underlying Pisco Formation			
	cetacean	?Miocene	USA	Mierzwiak and Godfrey (2019)	partial rib with dentalites on both sides of <i>Carcharocles</i> <i>megalodon</i>			
	cetaceans	Mio-Pliocene	Peru	Esperante et al. (2002, 2015)	3 specimens, shark tooth in dentalite and dentalites			
	Cetacea indeterminate	Pliocene	South Africa	Govender (2019)	white shark (<i>Carcharodon</i> <i>carcharias</i>) and <i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i> or <i>Cosmopolitodus</i> <i>hastalis</i>			
	cetacean	Pliocene	Italy	Bianucci et al. (2010)	shark			
	cetaceans	Pliocene	South Africa	Govender (2015)	Carcharodon carcharias			
	cetacean	Pliocene	South Africa	Govender and Chinsamy, (2013)	maybe white (Carcharodon spp.), Zambezi (bull) (Carcharhinus leucas), tiger (Galeocerdo sp.) and mako (Isurus sp.) sharks			
	cetacean	Pliocene	USA	Kallal et al. (2012)	shark or physeterids			
	cetacean	Pliocene	Venezuela	Aguilera et al. (2008)	lumbar vertebra with an embedded tooth of a <i>Carcharocles</i> <i>megalodon</i>			
	cetacean	Pliocene	USA	Purdy (1996)	Carcharodon carcharias			
	cetacean	Plio- Pleistocene	USA	Deméré and Cerutti (1982); Jacobsen and Bromley (2009)	Carcharodon, Knethichnus parallelum			
Pinnipedia	Otariidae	Miocene and Pliocene	USA	Boessenecker and Perry (2011)	mammal, 2 specimens; pilot whale or beluga- like cetacean, a terrestrial carnivore, a dusignathine or odobenine walrus, or a case of infanticide by a conspecific otariid			
	pinniped	Miocene	USA	Bigelow (1994)	shark			
	pinniped	Miocene	Peru	Collareta et al. (2017b)	Carcharocles megalodon			
	Monachinae	Pliocene	Spain	Muñiz et al. (2008)				

	Cenozoic marine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Pinnipedia	Homiphoca sp.	Pliocene	Spain	Muñiz et al., 2020	pelvic bone; <i>Linichnus bromleyi.</i> shark				
	Homiphoca sp.	Pliocene	Spain	Rahmat et al. (2018)	bony fish and/ or small sharks; <i>Linichnus</i>				
	Eumetopias jubatus	Pleistocene	Canada	Harington et al. (2004)	bull Eumetopias jubatus				
Sirenia	Halitherium schinzii	Oligocene	Germany	Diedrich (2008)	Isurus				
Sirenia	dugongids	Miocene	Venezuela	Aguilera and de Aguilera (2004); Cozzuol and Aguilera (2008)	shark				
Sphenisciformes	Palaeeudyptes klekowskii	Eocene	Antarctica	Hospitaleche (2016)	small fish				
	Tereingaomis moisleyi	Pliocene	New Zealand	McKee (1987)	dolphin				
	penguin	Miocene	Argentina	Cione et al. (2010)	carcharhiniform Galeocerdo aduncus				
	cf. Spheniscus sp.	Miocene	Argentina	Walsh and Hume (2001)	similar to <i>Carcharhinus</i>				
Charadriiformes	?charadiiform	Pliocene	Spain	Muñiz et al. (2008)	shark				
Vertebrata	vertebrates	Miocene	USA	Prothero et al. (2008)	sharks				
	marine vertebrates	Miocene	Peru	Bianucci et al. (2018)	shark				

TABLE A.4. Cenozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate.

	Cenozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate								
Higher taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Squamata	Varanus sp.	Miocene	Greece	Georgalis et al. (2018)	hyaenid Protictitherium				
Testudines	turtles	Paleocene	USA	Erickson (1984)	Leidyosuchus formidabilis				
	pelomedusoid turtle	Paleocene	Columbia	Hastings et al. (2015)	Anthracosuchus balrogus				
	pelomedusoid turtles	Paleocene	Columbia	Cadena et al. (2012)	crocodile				
	Notochelys aff. N. salmanticensish	Eocene	Spain	Fuentes (2003)	Asiatosuchus sp.				
	Echmatemys uintensis	Eocene	USA	Sandau (2005)	crocodilians or large terrestrial carnivores				
	Baena arenosa	Eocene	USA	Smith et al. (2017)	carnivore				
	Apalone sp.	Eocene	USA	Sandau (2005)	rodent				
	turtle	Eocene	USA	Hutchison and Frye (2001)					
	turtle	Eocene	USA	Brand et al. (2000)	rodent gnawing, other predator				
	turtle	Oligocene	Vietnam	Böhme et al. (2011)	crocodilian				
	tortoise	Oligocene	USA	LaGarry (2004)					

	Cenozoic	nonmarine den	talites on bor	ly substrate	1
Higher taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Testudines	cf. Acanthochelys; cf. Chelonoidis	Miocene	Bolivia	Cadena et al. (2015)	possible but doubted because no crocodilians in fauna
	turtle	Miocene	USA	Albright (1994)	alligator
	turtle	Miocene	Hungary	Mikuláš et al. (2006)	Machichnus multilineatus, Machichnus regularis
	Aldabrachelys gigantea	Pleistocene	Aldabra	Scheyer et al. (2018)	crocodilian
	Chelonoidis sp.	?Pleistocene	Bahamas	Steadman et al. (2007)	Crocodylus rhombifer
	Chelonoidis alburyorum	?Pleistocene	Bahamas	Morgan and Albury (2013)	Crocodylus rhombifer
	Cheloniidae (marine)	?Pleistocene	Bahamas	Morgan and Albury (2013)	Crocodylus rhombifer
Crocodyliformes	Leidyosuchus formidabilis	Paleocene	USA	Sawyer and Erickson (1998)	Leidyosuchus formidabilis,
	Tilemsisuchus lavocati	Eocene	Mali	Buffetaut (1983)	Tilemsisuchus lavocati
	crocodilian cf. Pallimnarchus sp.	Pliocene	Australia	Mackness et al. (2010)	crocodilian
	cf. Asiatosuchus sp.	Eocene	Pakistan	Angielczyk and Gingerich (1998)	bite
	Toyotamaphimeis machikanensis	Pleistocene	Japan	Katsura (2004)	Toyotamaphimeis machikanensis
	crocodile	Pleistocene	Tanzania	Njau (2006)	crocodile
Marsupialia	<i>Macropus giganteus</i> other marsupials	Pleistocene	Australia	Camens and Carey (2013)	cf. <i>Thylacoleo</i> , rodent gnawing, dasyurid bite, cf. <i>Sarcophilus</i>
	Diprotodon optatum	Pleistocene	Australia	Runnegar (1983)	Thylacoleo carnifex
	Macropus giganteus titan	Pleistocene	Australia	Horton and Wright (1981); Dortch et al. (2016)	Thylacoleo carnifex
"Metacheiromyidae"	Mylanodon rosei	Paleocene	USA	Secord et al. (2002)	
Coryphondontidae	Coryphodon sp.	Eocene	USA	Lucas and Schoch (1987)	Coryphodon
Apheliscidae	Apheliscus chydaeus	Eocene	USA	Gingerich (1994)	
Chalicotheriidae	Litolophus gobiensis	Eocene	China	Bai et al. (2011)	
Brontotheriidae	Titanotherium	Oligocene	USA	Scott and Jepsen (1936)	rodent
Rhinocerotidae	Chilotherium wimani	Miocene	China	Deng and Tseng (2010)	female skull; giant percrocutid, Dinocrocuta gigantea
	Iberotherium rexmanueli zbyszewskii	Miocene	China	Antunes et al. (2006a)	bear-dog (Amphicyon giganteus)

Higher taxon of			ntalites on bony		
substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Rhinocerotidae	Coelodonta antiquitatis	Pleistocene	Germany	Diedrich (2006)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
	Coelodonta antiquitatis	Pleistocene	Germany	Diedrich (2011)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
Equidae	Equus sp.	Pleistocene	Brazil	Avilla et al. (2018)	ursid
	horse	Miocene	USA	Diffendal (2003)	
Perissodactyla	perissodactyl	Eocene	USA	Alexander and Burger (2001)	within gut of Pristichampsus vorax
Entelodontidae	Archaeotherium walassi; A. scotti	Oligocene	USA	Sinclair (1922); Effinger (1998)	Archaeotherium
Bovidae	Bison antiquus taylori	Pleistocene	USA	West and Hasiotis (2007)	rodents
	Bos primigenius	Pleistocene	Czech Republic	Diedrich (2012a)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
	Bos cf. priscus	Pleistocene	UK	Buckland (1824)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
	Hippotragus sp.	Pleistocene	South Africa	van Zyl et al. (2016)	carnivore
Tragulidae	Siamotragulus songhorensis	Miocene	Uganda	Sánchez et al. (2015)	carnivore
Merycoidodontoidae	oreodonts	Oligocene	USA	Tanke et al. (1992); Tanke and Currie (1998)	carnivore
Climacoceratidae	climacoceratid	Miocene	South Africa	Pickford (1996)	crocodilian
Cervidae	Euprox furcatus	Miocene	Austria	Havlik et al. (2014)	medium-sized carnivore
	Megaloceros giganteus	Pleistocene	Czech Republic	Diedrich (2012a)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
	Rangifer tarandus	Pleistocene	Czech Republic	Diedrich (2012a)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
	deer and other mammals	Pleistocene	USA	Glowiak (2007)	Canis dirus
Camelidae	Poebrotherium sp.	Miocene	USA	Sundell (1999); Benton et al. (2015)	multiple skeletons and dentalites, <i>Archeotherium</i> meat cache
	Michenia sp.	Miocene	USA	Morgan and Williamson (2000)	carnivore, rodent gnawing
	camel	Miocene	USA	Winkler (1987)	coyote-sized carnivore
Ungulata	ruminant	Miocene	Austria	Havlik et al. (2014)	femur; undescribed carnivore
	ungulate	Pliocene	Italy	Mazza et al. (2004); Mazza (2006)	Pachycrocuta brevirostris
Chlamyphoridae	cf. Eosclerocalyptus lineatus	Pliocene	Argentina	de los Reyes et al. (2013)	procyonid <i>Chapalmalania</i>

	Cenozoic nonmarine dentalites on bony substrate									
Higher taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter					
Mylodontidae	Glyptotherium sp.	Pleistocene- Holocene	Brazil	de Araújo-Júnior et al. (2017)	Machichnus fatimae, Machichnus bohemicus - Protocyon troglodytes					
	<i>Pseudoprepotherium</i> sp.	Miocene	Peru	Pujos and Salas- Gismondi (2020)	Purussaurus, young or subadult					
Megatheriidae	Eremotherium laurillardi	Pleistocene- Holocene	Brazil	de Araújo-Júnior et al. (2011, 2017)	Machichnus bohemicus; a juvenile individual of Protocyon troglodytes or an adult of Cerdocyon thous					
Proboscidea	Deinotherium leviusvel giganteum	Miocene	Austria	Havlik et al. (2014)	larger carnivore					
	Mammuthus columbi	Pleistocene	USA	Wiest et al. (2016)	Machichnus bohemicus – small carnivore Nihilichnus nihilicus – large carnivore Machichnus regularis – rodent, large cat					
	mammoth	Pleistocene	Germany	Diedrich (2011)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea					
	gomphothere	Pleistocene	Chile	Labarca et al. (2014)	large felid					
	Haplomastodon waringi	Pleistocene	Brazil	Dominato et al. (2011); de Araújo- Júnior et al. (2017)	Machichnus bohemicus					
	mastodon	Pliocene	USA	Harington (1996)	beaver gnawed molars					
	proboscidean	Pleistocene	El Salvador	Cisneros (2005)	rib; Crocodylus acutus					
Viverravidae	Viverrravus	Eocene	USA	Gingerich (1987)	mammal					
Nimravidae	Nimravus brachyops	Oligocene	USA	Scott and Jepsen (1936)	left frontal; <i>Nimvarus</i>					
	Nimvarids	Oligocene	USA	Boyd et al. (2013)	five crania; mainly nimravids					
Ursidae	Ursus spelaeus	Pleistocene	Spain	Pinto Llona and Andrews (2004)	Ursus spelaeus					
	Ursus spelaeus	Pleistocene	Spain	Rabal-Garcés et al. (2012)	Ursus spelaeus					
	Ursus spelaeus	Pleistocene	Germany	Diedrich (2013)	Panthera leo spelaea, Crocuta crocuta spelaea					
	Ursus spelaeus	Pleistocene	Spain	Capasso (1998)	Ursus spelaeus or Panthera leo spelaea					
Amphicyonidae	Daphoenodon superbus	Miocene	USA	Hunt et al. (1983); Hunt (1984)	carnivorous mammal					
Canidae	Canis lupus	Pleistocene	USA	Courville (1953)	intraspecific					

Higher taxon of			T (*	D	
substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Felidae	Smilodon fatalis	Pleistocene	USA	Miller (1980); Akersten (1985); Rothschild and Martin (1993)	intraspecific
	Smilodon populator	Pleistocene- Holocene	Brazil	de Araújo-Júnior et al. (2017)	Machichnus bohemicus - a juvenile individual of Protocyon troglodytes or an adult of Cerdocyon thous
	Panthera leo spelaea	Pleistocene	Germany	Diedrich (2011)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
Hyaenidae	Crocuta crocuta spelaea	Pleistocene	Czech Republic	Diedrich (2012a)	Crocuta crocuta spelaea
Carnivora	Canis, Lynx	Pleistocene	Italy	Sardella et al. (2018)	Acinonyx pardinensis, crania
Rodentia	Isoptychus sp., Thalerimys fordi	Eocene	UK	Vasileiadou et al. (2007, 2009)	Cynodictis cf. lacustris
	Xerus daamsi	Pliocene	Chad	Denys et al. (2003)	mammalian carnivore
Lemuriformes	lemurs	Pleistocene	Madagascar	Meador (2017)	crocodiles, raptors, mammalian carnivores
Notharctidae	Notharctus sp.	Eocene	USA	Alexander (1992)	Vulpavus
	Notharctus, Omomys	Eocene	USA	Alexander and Burger (2001)	raptor dentalites
	Notharctus sp.	Eocene	USA	Alexander and Burger (2001)	?Vulpavus
Adapidae	Europolemur sp.	Eocene	Germany	Franzen and Frey (1993); Franzen (2001)	small crocodilian
Propliopthecidae	Aegyptopithecus and Propliopithecus	Oligocene	Egypt	Gebo and Simons (1984)	crocodile or creodon
Cercopithecidae	Mesopithecus pentelicus	Miocene	Greece	Zapfe (1981)	felid
	Theropithecus oswaldi leakeyi	Pleistocene	Tanzania	Frost et al. (2017)	felid
Homininae	Orrorin tugenensis	Miocene	Kenya	Gommery et al. (2007)	proximal femur
	Australopithecus anamensis Australopithecus afarensis	Pliocene	Ethiopia	Sahle et al. (2017)	crocodilian
	Australopithecus africanus, Paranthropus robustus (and cercopithecoids)	Pleistocene	South Africa	Brain (1970, 1978, 1981)	leopard, felids
	Australopithecus africanus (and cercopithecoids)	Pleistocene	South Africa	Berger and Clarke (1995); Sanders et al. (2003)	raptor, Taung child

	Cenozoic	nonmarine dei	ntalites on bony	substrate	-
Higher taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Homininae	Homo erectus	Pleistocene	China	Boaz et al. (2004)	Pachycrocuta brevirostris
	Homo erectus	Pleistocene	Georgia	Wong (2003)	felid
	Homo habilis	Pleistocene	Tanzania	Davidson and Soloman (1990); Njau (2006); Njau and Blumenschine (2006); Brochu et al. (2010)	Crocodylus anthropophagus
	Homo sp.	Pleistocene	Morocco	Daujeard et al. (2016)	Crocuta crocuta or Hyaena hyaena
	Homo neanderthalis	Pleistocene	Spain	Camarós et al. (2015)	large felid
	Homo neanderthalis	Pleistocene	Croatia, Portugal, Germany, Spain, France, Italy	Diedrich (2014)	<i>Crocuta crocuta</i> <i>spelaea</i> and other carnivores
Mammalia	mammal	Paleocene	USA	Longrich and Ryan (2010)	multituberculate gnawing
	multiple mammals, including <i>Ignacius</i> sp.	Paleocene	USA	Gingerich (1987); Bloch and Boyer (2001)	mammal
	mammals	Paleocene	USA	Sinclair and Granger (1914); Simpson and Elftman (1928)	Eucosmodon
	early equids, and the tapir-like perissodactyl <i>Lophiodon,</i> and turtle shells	Eocene	Germany	Falk et al. (2019)	crocodilians
	mammals	Eocene	France	Laudet and Fosse (2001)	rodents, possibly Archaeomys
	mammals	Oligocene	USA	Longrich and Ryan (2010)	gnawing
	mammals	Oligocene	USA	LaGarry (2004)	Hesperocyon, Mesocyon, Daphoenus hartshornianus, Daphoenus vetus, and rodents
	ungulates, small mammals and carnivores	Miocene	Hungary	Mikuláš et al. (2006); Ekrt et al. (2016)	Nihilichnus nihilicus, Nihilichnus mortalis, Machichnus regularis, Machichnus multilineatus, Machichnus bohemicus, Brutalichnus brutalis, - squirrels, carnivore Amphicyon sp. and crocodilians
	mammals	Miocene	China	Andersson and Kaakinen (2004)	
	mammals	Miocene	USA	Bartley (2005)	carnivores

			ntalites on bony		
Higher taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
Mammalia	mammals	Miocene	Uganda	Morales (2016)	gnawing marks due to carnivore activity, parallel gnawing traces made by rodents.
	alcelaphine bovid, ungulate, bovid, equid	Pliocene	Ethiopia	Sahle et al. (2017)	crocodilian
	large mammals	Pliocene	Tanzania	Su and Harrison (2008)	carnivores
	bovids, mammals	Pleistocene	South Africa	Brain (1970, 1978, 1981); Pickering et al. (2004)	leopards, hyenas, other carnivores
	mammals (bovid, suid, <i>Parmularius</i> , Tragelaphini, Alcelaphini, Antilopini, equid)	Pleistocene	Tanzania	Bunn et al. (1986); Njau (2006); Njau and Blumenschine (2006)	carnivores, rodents
	Bison, Mammuthus, Alces, Equus, Cervus, and Rangifer	Pleistocene	USA	Haynes (1980)	canid, felid, ursid gnawing
	Stephanorhinus etruscus, Equus altidens, Megaloceros (Megaceroides) solilhacus	Pleistocene	Spain	Palmquist et al. (1996); Palmqvist and Arribas (2001)	Pachycrocuta brevirostris and other carnivores
	mammals	Pleistocene	South Africa	Kandel and Conrad (2012)	>200 bones with bites or rodent gnawing
	mammals	Pleistocene	Australia	Westaway et al. (2011)	Pallimnarchus
	mammals	Pleistocene	Pakistan	Dennell et al. (2008)	Pachycrocuta brevirostris
	mammals	Pleistocene	Brazil	Araújo-Júnior et al. (2011, 2017)	Machichnus bohemicus
Aves	penguin	Miocene	Argentina	Cione et al. (2010)	didelphid or borhyaenid marsupials, didelphid or hathliacyniid sparassodont marsupials
	Cayaoa bruneti	Miocene	Argentina	De Mendoza and Haidr (2018)	Hathliacynidae
	Geronticus cf. calvus	Pliocene	South Africa	Pavia et al. (2017)	
	Moa	Holocene	New Zealand	Farlow and Holtz (2002)	Harpagornis

	Vertebrate dentalites on invertebrate substrate									
Ecology	Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
Sessile	rugose coral	Calceola sandalina	Middle Devonian	Czech Republic	Galle and Mikulas (2003)	fish-like animals capable of durophagy (placoderms and chondrichthyans)				
	hermatypic coral	Acropora cervicornis	Late Pleistocene	Jamaica	Kaufman (1981)	three spot damselfish, <i>Eupomacentrus</i> <i>planifrons</i> - gall- like growths called "chimneys," in response to damage by the threespot				
	crinoid		Middle Devonian	Poland	Gorzelak et al. (2011)	Coccosteidae (Arthrodira), placoderm				
		Holocrinus longicirrifer	Early Mississippian	USA	Gahn (2004)					
			Late Jurassic	Poland	Lach et al. (2015)	fish on ossicles				
		Clypeaster spp.	Late Miocene	Spain	Santos et al. (2003)	fish				
		Cupressocrinitidae	Middle Devonian	Germany	Bohatý (2008, 2009)	cephalopods, placoderms or arthropods				
			Middle Triassic	Poland	Salamon and Gorzelak (2008)	fishes, arthropods, asteroids and echinoids				
			Late Cretaceous	Poland	Salamon and Gorzelak (2010)	high percentage of bite-marks and aberrant growths				
		Bougueticrinus hagenowii	Late Cretaceous	Poland	Jagt and Salamon (2007)	?bite marks				
		Semiometra saskiae	Late Cretaceous		Jagt et al. (2018)	fish or decapod				
	echinoid		Middle Jurassic	Israel	Wilson et al. (2014)	fish bites on spines, Machichnus bohemicus, Nihilichnus nihilicus				
		Echinocorys ovata	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Neumann and Hampe (2018)	globidensine mosasaur, probably Prognathodon				
		Echinocorys sp.	Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Jagt et al. (2018)	teleost fish and/or neoselachian				

Ecology	Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
	echinoid	Hemipneustes striatoradiatus	Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Donovan et al. (2008)	bony fish or small mosasaur, but see Neumann and Hampe (2018)
		Ananchytes ovata	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Gripp (1929)	
		Echinocorys sovata	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Thies (1985)	pock-marked test from teleost or shark
		Recurvaster polyplacus	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Neumann (2003)	fishes
		Pycinaster magnificus	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Neumann (2003)	galeoid shark Squalicorax
			Late Cretaceous	Germany	Schormann (1987)	fish
		Echinocorys sp.	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Frerichs (2012)	fish
			Late Cretaceous	Germany	Girod and Rösner (2013)	fish
			Late Cretaceous	Netherlands	Dortangs (1998)	fish
		Parascutella höbarthi	early Miocene	Austria	Nebelsick (1999); Kowalewski and Nebelsick (2003)	hollowed-out central area and paired grooves leading to the wound, similar to Recent triggerfish
		Monophoraster darwini	late Miocene	Argentina	Zinsmeister (1980)	test margin damage produced by small fish
	conulariid	Paraconularia magna	Late Pennsylvanian	USA	Mapes et al. (1989)	cladodont shark
	bivalve	Ptychopteria sp.	Middle Devonian	USA	Nagel-Myers et al. (2009)	fish, arthropod or cephalopod
			middle Permian	USA	Boyd and Newell (1972)	high percentage have divots probably produce by sharks
		Gryphaea lituola	Middle Jurassic	UK	Phipps (2008)	Steneosaurus durobrivensis
		Inoceramus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kauffman (1972)	Ptychodus

	Vertebrate dentalites on invertebrate substrate									
Ecology	Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter				
	bivalve	nonmarine bivalve	Late Triassic	Poland	Gorzelak et al. (2010)	Ceratodus, Hybodus				
		unionid	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Kear and Godthelp (2008)	large osteichthyan or chondrichthyan fish, crocodiles, and pliosauroid plesiosaurs				
		Protopleurobema numantina	Early Cretaceous	Spain	Bermúdez-Rochas et al. (2013)	crocodiles				
	rudist	Durania maixima	Late Cretaceous	USA	Hattin (1988)	?sea turtle				
	brachiopod	productid	Early Carboniferous	England	Brunton (1966)	sharks				
		brachiopods	Late Mississippian	USA	Alexander (1981)	sharks, some tetrahedron shaped				
		Pygope adnethenses	Early Jurassic	Hungary	Tasnadi-Kubacska (1962)	fish				
		Pyope, Menzelia	Mesozoic	Europe	Tasch (1973)	fish or reptiles				
	epibionts		Miocene	Argentina	Cione et al. (2010)	epibionts on penguin bones				
Vagrant	asteroid	Sea stars	Middle Jurassic	Poland	Zatoń et al. (2007)	ossicles in regurgitalites, durophagous sharks or pycnodontiform fishes				
		Pycinaster magnificus,	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Neumann (2000)	galeoid shark <i>Squalicorax</i>				
	crab	Raninella sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bishop (1975)	fish				
Nektonic	foraminiferan	Assilina exponens	Eocene	India	Syed and Sengupta (2019)	scarid parrotfish				
	nautiloid	multiple taxa	Early Devonian	Morocco	Klug (2007)	mainly dentalites of nautiloids but cannot be excluded that some are vertebrate in origin				
		nautiloid	Early Pennsylvanian	USA	Mapes and Hansen (1983); Hansen and Mapes (1990)	Symmorium reniforme				
		nautiloid	Early Pennsylvanian	USA	Hansen and Mapes (1990)	Petalodus ohioensis				

Vertebrate dentalites on invertebrate substrate									
Ecology	Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter			
	nautiloid	Pseudorthoceratidae	Middle Pennsylvanian	USA	Seuss et al. (2012)	shark or other fish			
		Tainoceras, Neobistrialites	Pennsylvanian	USA	Mapes and Chaffin (2003)	Symmorium reniforme			
		Eutrephoceras dekayi	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kauffman and Sawdo (2013)	Platycarpus, Prognathodon or Mosasaurus			
		Argonautilus catarinae	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kauffman (2004)	mosasaur			
		nautiloid	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Ludvigsen and Beard (1997)	mosasaur			
	ammonoid	Platyclymenia annulata, P. subnautilina, Pleuroclymenia costata, and Prionoceras divisum	Late Devonian	Germany	Slotta et al. (2011)	possibly jawed, fish-like chondrichthyans			
		various	Late Devonian- Recent	Various	Keupp (2006)	some large-scale, sub-lethal injuries occurring since the Late Devonian were due to attacks by durophagous vertebrates			
		Anthracoceras discus, Fayettevillea bransoni, Fayettevillea friscoense, Rhadinites miseri, Richardsonites mapesi	Late Mississippian	USA	Bond and Saunders (1989)	sharks, other fishes, or cephalopods			
		Gonioloboceras goniolobum	Pennsylvanian	USA	Mapes et al. (1995)	chondrichthyans and other fish, particularly the symmoriid shark <i>Symmorium</i> <i>reniforme</i>			
		Gonioloboceras sp.	Pennsylvanian	USA	Mapes and Chaffin (2003)	Symmorium reniforme			
		Gonioloboceras sp.	Pennsylvanian	USA	Sims et al. (1987)				

Ecology	Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
	ammonoid	Dactylioceratidae (Dactylioceras) and Hildoceratidae (Cleviceras, Fuciniceras, Fontanelliceras, Harpoceras, Paltarpites, and Protogrammoceras	Early Jurassic	Japan	Takeda and Tanabe (2014)	mainly by ammonites, but some possibly by jawed fishes and marine reptiles
		Dactylioceras sp.	Early Jurassic	Germany	Lehmann (1975)	
		Oxycerites sp.	Middle Jurassic	Germany	Hoffmann and Keup (2015)	pycnodontid bite mark on both side:
		<i>Gymnites</i> sp.	Early Triassic	Greece	Hoffmann and Keup (2015)	fish
		ammonoids	Early Jurassic- terminal Cretaceous	various	Klompmaker et al. (2009)	ventral bite marks are situated at the end of the body chamber, close to the phragmocone, predatory attacks on the back or blind side of ammonoids, produced by probably coleoid cephalopods (especially teuthoids) and also predatory fish
		various	Late Devonian- Cretaceous	Various	Keupp (2006)	some large-scale, sub-lethal injuries occurring since the Late Devonian were due to attack by durophagous vertebrates
		Pinacoceras parma	Late Triassic	Austria	Tichy and Urbanek (2004)	nothosaur
		Ataxioceras hypselocyclum	Late Jurassic	Germany	Keupp (2006)	crustacean or vertebrate
		Promicroceras, Xipheroceras, Cymbites, Arnioceras, Asteroceras, Caenisites, Eoderoceras and Paltechioceras?	Early Jurassic	UK	Andrew et al. (2015)	

Vertebrate dentalites on invertebrate substrate						
Ecology	Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
	ammonoid	Kosmoceras cf. K. obductum	Middle Jurassic	UK	Martill (1990)	semionotid or pycnodontid
		Kosmoceras gulielmi	Middle Jurassic	UK	Ward and Hollingworth (1990)	unknown marine reptile
		Oxycerites sp.	Middle Jurassic	Germany	Richter (2009)	Pycnodontidae
		Orthaspidoceras sp.	Late Jurassic	France	Vullo (2011)	hybodont shark <i>Planohybodus</i> ; tooth in dentalite and possible dentalites
		Kachpurites, Craspedites	Late Jurassic	Russia	Mironenko (2020)	small apertural injuries, likely traces of fish bite
		Desmoceras latidorsatum	Early Cretaceous	Madagascar	Hoffmann and Keupp (2015)	semionotid fish
		Placenticeras, Sphenodiscus and much less common Baculites	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kauffman, (1990b)	more than 100
		Placenticeras sp. cf. P. whitfieldi	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kauffman and Kesling (1960); Kauffman (1990b)	Platecarpinae
		Placenticeras meeki	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Hewittand Westermann (1990)	mosasaur
		Placenticeras meeki	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Wahl, (2008)	mosasaur
		Placenticeras sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Hoffmann and Keupp (2015)	mosasaur
		Placenticeras sp.	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Kauffman (1990b)	Mosasaurus
		Placenticeras sp.	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Tsujita and Westermann (1998)	Prognathodon
		Metoicoceras sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kauffman (1990b)	Globidens
		Sphenodiscus sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bukowski and Bond (1989)	mosasaur
		Pseudaspidoceras madagascariensis	Late Cretaceous	Morocco	Gale et al. (2017)	mosasauroid, <i>Tethysaurus</i>
		Pseudaspidoceras flexuosum.	Late Cretaceous	Mexico	Ifrim (2013)	Ptychodus

		Vertebrate der	ntalites on inverte	ebrate substra	te	
Ecology	Higher level taxon of substrate	Taxon of substrate	Age	Location	References	Notes/biter
	ammonoid	Anapachydiscus peninsularis	Late Cretaceous	Mexico	Saul (1979)	mosasaur
		ammonite	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Ludvigsen and Beard (1997)	mosasaur
	coleoid	Plesioteuthis subovata	Late Jurassic	Germany	Hoffmann et al. (2020)	tooth of <i>Rhamphorhynchus</i> <i>muensteri</i> embedded in dentalite
	"squid"	Tusoteuthis longa	Late Cretaceous	USA	Stewart and Carpenter (1990)	Tylosaurus proriger
	thylacocephalan		Late Devonian	Poland	Broda et al. (2015)	fish damaged and fragmented carapaces
	conchostracan	Yanjiestheria sp.	Early Cretaceous	China	Bi (1986)	growth line abnormalities supposedly caused by fish biting
Volant	odonatan insect	Cymatophlebia longialata	Late Jurassic	Germany	Tischlinger (2001)	removal of the posterior right wingtip; also, minor damage to the posterior margin of the right anterior wing caused by pterosaur bite
	neuropteran insect	Archegetes neuropterum	Late Jurassic	Germany	Tischlinger (2001)	removal of anterior left wingtip by pterosaur bite

	Notes		present in virtually all specimens			long axis of the gastrolite makes a 25 degree angle with the long axis of the body, and the posteroventral corner reaches two- thirds the distance to the anal notch	gastrolite begins immediately posterior to the branchial row, and has its posteroventral corner near the ventral body margin at the end of the paired "fin- flaps;" the long axis of the stomach is parallel to the branchial row
	References	Melton (1972); Conway Morris (1976, 1990)	Stensiö (1939); Janvier (1996b); Janvier and Arsenault (2007)	Wilson and Caldwell (1993, 1998)	Wilson and Caldwell (1998)	Wilson and Caldwell (1998)	Wilson and Caldwell (1998)
	Location	USA	Canada	Canada	Canada	Canada	Canada
consumulites	Age	early Mississippian	Late Devonian	Middle Silurian	Early Devonian	Early Devonian	Early Devonian
Paleozoic marine consumulites	Contents	conodont apparatuses, fish, and worm teeth	gastrolite is oblong patch of fine- grained matter, phosphatized mass	gastrolite is flattened, barrel- like shape, sediment infilling, intestinilite is preserved in some specimens from gastrolite to anal notch	the posterior end of the intestinilite is preserved as a small tubular structure at the anal notch, sediment infilling	gastrolite is represented by a large rectangular endocast of sediment infilling that has ananteroventral corner immediately posterior to the branchial row, several specimens show the weathered remnants of a slender, conical, intestinilite extending from the posteroventral corner of the gastrolite to the anal notch	gastrolite, and posterior to it is a short, conical intestinilite, that extends to the prominent anal notch, sediment infillings
	Taxon	Typhloesus wellsi	Endeiolepis aneri	Pezopallichthys ritchie	Cometicercus talimaaa	Sphenonectris turnerae	Furcacauda heintzae
	Higher level taxon	Metazoa	Endeiolepidiformes	Furcacaudiformes			

TABLE A.6. Paleozoic marine consumulites.

		Paleozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Furcacaudiformes	Furcacauda fredholmae	gastrolite consists of a rectangular endocast of fine sediment, leading posteriorly into a short, conical endocast interpreted as the short intestine, which reaches the anal opening at the anal notch	Early Devonian	Canada	Wilson and Caldwell (1998)	
Euphanerida	Euphanerops longaevus	gastrolite composed of oblong mass of fine-grained whitish or grayish matter	Late Devonian	Canada	Arsenault and Janvier (1991); Janvier and Arsenault (2007)	several specimens, the fine-grained sediment in the gastrolite suggests microphagous bottom feeding; in two specimens the gastrolite contents show in its center one or two rounded dark stains that suggest the presence of larger food particles but may be overprinting
Petromyzontida	gen. et sp. indet.	elongated black impression behind the branchial pouches is most probably that of the digestive tract, and in the posterior of the specimen there is a ventral dark area that may be due to the accumulation of organic matter in the cloaca	Early Carboniferous	USA	Lund and Janvier (1986)	accumulation of organic matter in the cloaca is often observed in Recent larval lampreys
Chirodipteridae	Gogodipterus paddyensis	gut contents	Late Devonian	Australia	Long (1992)	
Coelolepidae	Turinia pagei	gastrolite composed of silt-grade sediment that is much finer, and of different petrological composition than that which surrounds the body	Early Devonian	Scotland	Novitskaya and Turner (1998); Donoghue and Smith (2001)	the presence of fine-grained sediment filling the stomach and gut, but not the buccopharyngeal area, of the alotype, provides support for the interpretation of a

		Paleozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Antiarchi	Bothriolepis canadensis	carbonaceous sediment	Late Devonian	Canada	Denison (1941); McAllister (1996); Upeniece (2001)	several sectioned specimens have intestinilites and enterospira – infilled valvular intestines
Antiarchi	Asterolepis ornata	carbonaceous and detritic-like bone material occur in several cases, as well as numerous grains of quartz; this suggests that these remains are stomach contents, with the stomach full of digested food matter at the time of death of the animal	Late Devonian	Latvia	Upeniece (2001, 2011)	occurs in >100 juveniles - not visible from the outside in adults due to the heavy armor; demonstrates mud grubber behavior of the juvenile <i>Astercolepis</i>
Arthrodira	Coccosteus cuspidatus	stomach contents include mostly small acanthodians and other young fish, three specimens have phosphatized material in the region of the intestine and contained scales of acanthodians, bones probably belonging to dipnoans	Middle Devonian	Scotland	Heintz, (1938); Miles and Westoll, (1968); Davidson and Trewin (2005)	gastroliths
	plourdosteid	juvenile ptyctodontid, <i>Ctenurella</i> sp.	Late Devonian	Russia	Zakharenko (2008)	
	Incisoscutum richiei	?Incisoscutum richiei	Late Devonian	Australia	Dennis and Miles (1981)	prey ingested head first
Symmoriiformes	Cladoselache spp - C. brachypterygius, C. fyleri, C. clarki, C. desmopterygius and C. sp.	about 75% contain palaeoniscoid debris and a couple of complete fish (<i>Kentuckia blavini</i>), several contain arthropods and yield four conodonts; three specimens of the crustacean <i>Concavicaris</i> cf. <i>bradleyi</i> were swallowed tail first	Late Devonian	USA	Williams (1990)	more than 40 specimens

		Paleozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Symmoriiformes	Akmonistion zangerli	an area of debris posterior to the branchial skeleton and pectoral girdle represents remains of stomach/foregut contents; debris includes small fragments (around 1–2 mm across) of arthropod cuticle and actinopterygian scales; a second region of preserved gut contents lies directly above the pelvic plates and ventral to the dorsal fin; this squat bolus (incorporeal pelletiite) measures about 15 mm along its longest axis; the posterior end is blunt	early Carboniferous	Scotland	Coates and Sequeira (2001); Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	Chondripilula zideki
Ctenacanthiformes	Ctenacanthus compressus	Stenosteus glaber	Late Devonian	USA	Williams (1990)	
Xenacanthida	Triodus sessilis	<i>Cheliderpeton latirostre</i> with ingested juvenile of <i>Acanthodes</i> <i>bronni</i> , skull of larval <i>Archegosaurus decheni</i>	Permian (lowermost)	Germany	Kriwet et al. (2008)	lacustrine; consumulite within a consumulite
	Orthacanthus sp.	Triodus spines in oralite	late Carboniferous	Spain	Soler-Gijón (1995)	
Eugeneodontida	Fadenia sp.	brachiopod shells	Permian	unstated	Moy-Thomas and Miles (1971)	
Petalodontidiformes	Janassa bituminosa	brachiopods, crinoid, crustacean and foraminiferans	late Permian	Germany	Malzahn (1968)	
	Janassa bituminosa	bryozoan <i>Acnthocladia</i>	late Permian	Germany	Malzahn (1972)	
	Janassa bituminosa	brachiopod <i>Horridonia</i> and bryozoan	late Permian	Germany	Schaumberg (1979)	
	Janassa sp.	brachiopod fragments	unknown	unknown	Moy-Thomas and Miles (1971)	
Chondricthyes	unidentified sharks	palaeoniscoid elements and arthropod fragments	Late Devonian	USA	Williams (1990)	13 specimens
Acanthodii	Tegeolepis clarki	arthrodire bones and shark spine	Late Devonian	USA	Williams (1990)	
	acanthodian		early Permian	Germany	Heidtke (2007)	
	Acanthodes	valves of conchostracans	early Permian	Germany	Kner (1868)	

		Paleozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Acanthodii	acanthodian	small osteostracan	Early Devonian	England	Miles (1973)	
	Ptomacanthus anglicus	<i>Cephalaspis</i> head shield	Early Devonian	England	Denison(1956); Allen and Tarlo (1963); Miles (1973)	head shield etched in gut
	acanthodians, actinopterygians and placoderms	amorphous organic matter interpreted as internal organs or gut contents	Middle Devonian	Scotland	Davidson and Trewin (2005)	
	Acanthodes sulcatus	Cryphiolepis striata	Early Carboniferous	England	Watson (1937); Viohl (1990)	
	Lodeacanthus gaujicus	a few individuals reveal a brown coprolitic-like material in the intestine region	Late Devonian	Latvia	Upeniece (2001, 2011)	
Cheirolepiformes	Cheirolepis sp.	acanthodians <i>Mesacanthus</i> and <i>Triazeucanthus</i> as well as juvenile <i>Eusthenopteron</i>	Late Devonian	Canada	Janvier (1996b)	
Actinopterygii	Gogosardina coatesi	conodont elements	Late Devonian	Australia	Choo et al (2009)	lodged among the branchial arches, indicating dietary habits and a possible cause of death
	Mimipiscis bartrami	remains of two separate conodont animals - the complete, 15-element apparatus of <i>Oulodus</i> <i>angulatus</i> and a partial apparatus (13 elements) of <i>lcriodus brevis</i>	Late Devonian	Australia	Nicoll (1977); Choo (2012)	
Palaeonisciformes	Nematoptychius sp.	Acanthodes	early Carboniferous	Scotland	Traquair (1879)	prey ingested head first
	Palaeoniscoid	palaeoniscoid	Pennsylvanian	USA	Richardson and Johnson (1971); Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
	Palaeoniscoid	Acanthodes marshi	Pennsylvanian	USA	Richardson (1980)	prey ingested head first
	Pygopterus sp.	Palaeoniscus	late Permian	Germany	Weigelt (1928)	
	Palaeoniscus magnus	Palaeoniscus freieslebeni	late Permian	Germany	Weigelt (1930b)	
Actinistia	<i>Glyptolepis</i> sp.	scales and spines of <i>Cheiracanthus</i> in one specimen and a small <i>Glyptolepis</i> in another	Middle Devonian	Scotland	Ahlberg (1992)	two specimens; ingested head first

		Paleozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Actinistia	cf. Diplocercides sp.	conodont Ctenopolygnathus	Late Devonian	Poland	Zatoń et al. (2017)	
	Caridosuctor populosum	complete paleostomatopod shrimp and fragments	Mississippian	USA	Lund and Lund (1984, 1985); Lund et al. (1985)	several specimens
	Rhabdoderma elegans	Parahaptolepsis tuberculata	Pennsylvanian	NSA	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
Onychodontida	Onychodus sp.	pharynx contains bony plates of a small arthrodire <i>Incisoscutum</i> <i>ritchiei</i>	Late Devonian	Australia	Long (1991, 1995); Long and Trinajstic (2010)	prey ingested tail first
Eotetrapodiformes	Eusthenopteron foordi	Bothriolepis canadensis, Homalacanthus concinnus, Cheirolepis	Late Devonian	Canada	Arsenault (1982); Janvier (1996b); Chevrinais et al. (2017)	several prey ingested head first
Fish	multiple	proportion of predators with fish prey remains relatively low compared to the number of specimens with solely amorphous organic matter or devoid of digestive contents	Late Devonian	Canada	Chevrinais et al. (2017)	n=78 with identifiable gut contents
Mesosauria	Brazilosaurus sanpauloensis	crustacean fragments, disrupted fragmentary carapaces of small pygocephalomorph crustaceans and bones of very young mesosaurids	early Permian	Brazil	Silva et al. (2017)	

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TABLE /

Paleozoic nonmarine consumulitesTaxonContentsAgeCornovichthyspatch of dark matterMiddle Dev	marine consumu Age Middle	Age Middle	nsumulites Age Middle Devonian	Location	References Newman and Trewin (2001)	Notes
Cobelodus aculeatus incorporeal pelletite Late Penn (intestinelite)	Penn	Late Penn	Late Pennsylvanian	USA	Hunt et al., (2012); Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	Chondripilula zideki
Triodus sessilis amphibians Archegesaurus earl decheni and Glanochthon latirostre (which, in turn, has ingested Acanthodes bronni)	s has ni)	earl	early Permian	Germany	Kriwet et al. (2008)	first consumulite within a consumulite
Isodectes cf. obtusum infilled intestines Pennsyl	Mid Pen	Mid Pem	Middle Pennsylvanian	USA	Milner (1982)	
Isodectes obtusum three intestinal masses from Middle mid-body to pelvic region Pennsy		Mid Pen	Middle Pennsylvanian	USA	Godfrey (1997)	
Bermanerpeton kinneyisyncarid arthropodsLate(Uronectes cf. kinniensis, Aenigmacaris cf. minima), Acanthodes cf. kinneyi, actinopterygian scales, ribs and neural arches of amphibians		Pen	Late Pennsylvanian	USA	Werneburg et al. (2021); Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	three specimens; type and referred specimen of <i>Werneburgichnus</i> varius
Apateon flagrifer conchostracans carl	earl	earl	early Permian	Germany	Werneburg (1986)	small specimen
<i>Apateon kontheri</i> stomach contents including earl early juveniles of the palaeoniscide Elonichthys and branchiosaurids		earl	early Permian	Germany	Werneburg (1988)	large specimens of taxon
Apateon gracilis Apateon gracilis earl	earl	earl	early Permian	Germany	Witzmann (2009)	predator was early growth stage
Apateon caducus branchiosaurid prey items earl preserved in digestive tracts		earl	early Permian	Germany	Boy, (1993); Boy and Sues, (2000)	skull lengths exceeding 12 mm that have branchiosaurid prey items preserved in their digestive tracts

Branchiosauridae	Apateon caducus	neural arches, limb bone and dentary with teeth of small branchiosaurid	early Permian	Germany	Werneburg (2020)	large branchiosaurid with skull lenth of 33 mm
	Apateon caducus	small branchiosaurid skull between left hind limb and tail	early Permian	Germany	Werneburg (2020)	large branchiosaurid with skull length of 20 mm and with possible displaced consumulite
	Melanerpeton eisfeldi	stomach contents including early juveniles of the palaeoniscid <i>Elonichthys</i> and branchiosaurids	early Permian	Germany	Werneburg (1988)	large specimens
	Melanerpeton eisfeldi	Apateon kontheri	early Permian	Germany	Werneburg (1988)	large predator specimen
	Micromelerpeton sp.	Apateon pedestris	early Permian	Germany	Boy (2003)	
	Melanerpeton sembachense	specimens of the same species in the stomach contents	early Permian	Germany	Werneburg (1989)	two large individuals
	?Branchiosaurus	infilled stomach and intestines	Middle Pennsylvanian	NSA	Milner (1982)	larval
Amphibamidae	Amphibamus grandiceps	infilled stomach and intestines	Middle Pennsylvanian	USA	Milner (1982)	larval
Dissorophidae	Milnererpeton huberi	a linear and sinuous consumulite containing ostracods that is a gastrolite and/or intestinelite	Late Pennsylvanian	USA	Werneburg et al. (2013); Hunt and Lucas (2021a)	two specimens; type and referred specimen of <i>Werneburgichnus</i> kinneyensis
Sclerocephalidae	Sclerocephalus sp.	paramblypterid fish, Micromelerpeton, Apateon, Sclerocephalus	early Permian	Germany	Lohmann and Sachs (2001)	several specimens from four ontogenetic stages
Temnospondyli	unidentified amphibian	ostracods	Middle Pennsylvanian	USA	Godfrey (1997)	
Procolophonomorpha	Delorhynchus priscus	arthropod cuticle in oral region	early Permian	USA	Modesto et al. (2009); Reisz et al. (2014)	two skulls, both with oralites
	<i>Parasaurus geinitzi</i> (Pareiasauria)	coarse clastics with interspersed carbonized particles	late Permian	Germany	Munk and Sues (1993)	

Case, (1911); ingested tail first, Eaton (1964) so far that its jaws reached to the back of the predator's head	Romer and Price (1940)	Maisch (2009)	Munk and Sues (1993)	Weigelt (1930a)
USA C	USA R	Tanzania	Germany S	Germany V
early Permian	early Permian	late Permian	late Permian	late Permian
smaller specimen, probably of same species;the prey lay inverted, and bones of the left foreleg can be seen in the mouth of the predator, as well as a series of seven vertebrae along the inner side of the right mandible and a skull	Zatrachys bones	dicynodont mandibular symphysis of <i>Katumbia</i> <i>parringtoni</i>	numerous ovules of the conifer Ullmannia frumentaria	57 ovules of <i>Ullmannia</i> <i>frumentaria</i> – among scattered bones
<i>Romeria</i> sp.	Dimetrodon milleri	"Aelurognathus" parringtoni.	Protorosaurus speneri	Protorosaurus speneri
Captorhinidae	Sphenacontidae	Gorgonopsidae	Archosauromorpha	

	-	Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites		-	
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Hybodontiformes	Hybodus hauffianus	about 250 belemnites	Early Jurassic	Germany	Brown (1900); Pollard (1990); Doyle and McDonald (1993); Hoffmann and Stevens (2020)	
Lamniformes	<i>Cretodus</i> sp.	large chelonioid turtle bones with dentalites, shell, vertebrae, limbs, ovoid mass, <i>Cretodus</i> tooth	Late Cretaceous	Italy	Amalfitano et al. (2017)	location of stomach
	Squalicorax falcatus	Toxochelys, Ichthyodectes Ctenodon, mosasaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Druckenmiller et al. (1993)	
	<i>Cretolamna</i> sp.	Xiphactinus	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Martin and Rothschild (1989)	
	Cretoxyrhina mantelli	Xiphactinus audax	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Sternberg (1917); Shimada, (1997)	scattered along length
	Cretoxyrhina mantelli	Elasmosaurus	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Everhart (2003)	
	Cretoxyrhina mantelli	mosasaur	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Shimada (1997)	two specimens
	<i>Cretoxyrhina</i> sp.	plesiosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Shimada (1997)	
	Scapanorhynchus lewisi	teleost	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
Carcharhiniformes	Scyliorhinus elongatus	Spaniodon	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
Ginglymodi	Lepidotes sp.	gastrolite of small crustacean cuticle fragments indicative of shrimp-like taxa	Early Jurassic	Germany	Thies et al. (2019)	two specimens
Actinistia	Holophagus gulo	Dapedius	Jurassic	England	Huxley (1866)	prey ingested head first
	Śwenzia latimerae	an incomplete, crushed, small crustacean	Late Jurassic	France	Clément (2005, 2006)	gastrolite

TABLE A.8. Mesozoic marine consumulites.

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Actinistia	Axelrodichthys araripensis	elements of an actinopterygian fish	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Yabumoto and Brito (2013); Meunier et al. (2018)	two vertebrae, some neural and/or hemal spines, lepidotrichial hemisegments, teeth, long and thin bones that are probably myorhabdos
Gonorynchiformes	Cearana rochae	Cearana	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Case (1982)	prey ingested head first
	Dastilbe elongatus	Dastilbe	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Maisey (1994)	prey ingested head first
Birgeriformes	Birgeria sp.	<i>Birgeria</i> sp.	Early Triassic	Madagascar	Beltan (1977); Viohl (1990)	originally interpreted as oviviparity but probably consumulite (Viohl, 1990)
Saurichthyiformes	Saurichthys costasquamosus	complete individual of an early actinopterygian (cf. <i>Luganoia</i>) in the abdominal cavity just posterior to the head	Middle Triassic	Switzerland	Argyriou et al. (2016)	size of spiral intestine discussed
	Saurichthys macrocephalus	putative stomach, a short anterior intestine and part of the spiral intestine	Middle Triassic	Switzerland	Argyriou et al. (2016)	
	Saurichthys paucitrichus	post-gastric portion of the GI tract that corresponds to part of the anterior intestine, which is uncoiled, the complete spiral intestine and likely the cranial tip of the rectum	Middle Triassic	Switzerland	Argyriou et al. (2016)	
	Saurichthys yangjuanensis	undescribed stomach contents	Middle Triassic	China	Wu et al. (2015)	
Pachycormiformes	Pachycormus sp	stomach contains numerous hooklets that can be referred to the coleoid cephalopod <i>Phragmoteuthis</i>	Early Jurassic	Germany	Přikryl et al. (2012)	
	Saurostomus sp.	coleoid <i>Loligosepia</i>	Early Jurassic	Germany	Urlichs et al. (1994)	
	Bonnerichthys gladius	stomach contents	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart (2017)	

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Amiaformes	Calamopleurus cylindricus	conspecific	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Mulder (2013)	
	Calamopleurus cylindricus	Vinctifer, arthropod material	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Maisey (1994)	four specimens; prey ingested head first
	Enneles audax	Aspiridorhynchus comptoni	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first (half swallowed)
	Caturus sp.	teleost	Late Cretaceous	France	Poplin (1986)	prey directed posteriorly
Ichthyodectiformes	Cladocyclus sp.	Rhacolepis in one specimen, many disarticulated ?Tharrhias in another	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Patterson and Rosen (1977)	Rhacolepis was swallowed tail first, most commonly swallowed head first, as with ?Tharrhias
	Allothrissops sp.	gut contents are frequently preserved in the form of an amorphous, phosphatic mass or ribbon	Late Jurassic	Europe	Patterson and Rosen (1977)	minute teeth and amorphous gut contents suggest was microphagous, not predatory, like other ichthyodectiforms
	Ichthyodectes ctenodon	tentative identification of <i>Enchodus petrosus</i> as stomach contents	Late Cretaceous	USA	Everhart et al. (2010)	
	Xiphactinus audax	Gillicus arcuatus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bardack (1965); Schwimmer et al. (1997); Walker (2006); Everhart (2017)	four specimens: prey ingested head first
	Xiphactinus sp.	Anogmius sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Viohl (1990); Boucot and Poinar (2010)	prey ingested head first
	Xiphactinus sp.	Enchodus	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bardack (1965)	
	Xiphactinus sp.	unidentified fish	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bardack (1965); Everhart (2017)	four specimens
	Xiphactinus sp.	Ananogmius	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bardack (1965)	
						>

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Crossognathiformes	Rhacolepis sp.	Vinctifer	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Wilby and Martill (1992)	prey ingested head first
	Elopopsis microdon	three non-connected intestinilites that are about 6-8 mm thick and round in cross section, but are incomplete, phosphatic matrix	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Diedrich (2012)	
Elopiformes	Notelops brama	Rhacolepis	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Maisey (1994, 1996)	prey ingested head first
	Notelops sp.	disarticulated arthropod	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Wilby and Martill (1992)	
	Protostomias marocanus	Rhinellus africanus in one, Paravinciguerria praecursor in another	Late Cretaceous	Morocco	Arambourg (1954)	two specimens; prey ingested head first
	Protostomias maroccanus	skeleton of small fish is preserved in the stomach region (fish scales and beige-colored gastrolitic phosphatic material).	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Diedrich (2012)	
	Pachyrhizodus minimus	stomach and intestinal casts	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Stewart (1899); Miller (1957)	two specimens
Osmeroformes	Spaniodon sp.	<i>Spaniodon blodeli</i> in one specimen, indeterminate in another	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Woodward (1901); Viohl (1990)	two specimens
Aulopiformes	Cimolichthys nepaholica	complete Enchodus skeleton	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Cicimurri and Everhart (2001)	prey ingested head first
	Cimolichthys ggnephaholica	<i>Tusoteuthis</i> sp., gladius	Late Cretaceous	USA	Kauffman (1990a); Stewart and Carpenter (1990)	swallowed from rear, cause of death?
	Cimolichthys sp.	small bony fish	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki (2008)	
	Enchodus major	teleost	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Davis (1887); Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Aulopiformes	Enchodus marchesetti	teleost	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Davis (1887); Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
	Enchodus sp.	small bony fsh	Late Cretaceous	USA	Konuki, (2008)	
Stomiiformes	Pronotocanthus sahelalmae	teleost	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Davis (1887); Woodward (1901)	prey ingested head first
Alepisauriformes	Prionolepis cataphractus	one to two indeterminate fish	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Viohl (1990)	four specimens; prey ingested head first
	Eurypholis boissieri	one, and, in one case, two fish	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Viohl (1990)	four specimens
	Prionolepis sp.	small osteichthyans	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Amalfitano et al. (2017)	high percentage of specimens
Crossognathiformes	Goulmimichthyes sp.	Enchodus	Late Cretaceous	Morocco	Cavin (1999)	prey ingested head first
Pycnodontiformes	Brembodus sp.	crushed shells in gut	Jurassic and Cretaceous	various	Nursall (1996)	
	Arduafrons sp.	spines of monospecific echinoderms	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	one specimen
	Gyrodus sp.	spines of monospecific echinoderms	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	two specimens
	<i>lemanja</i> sp.	small actinopterygian vertebrae	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	one specimen
	Nursallia sp.	spines of monospecific echinoderms	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	two specimens
	Proscinetes sp.	shells of monospecific bivalves	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	one specimen
	Tepexichthys sp.	shells of monospecific bivalves	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	several specimens
	Pycnodus sp.	shells of monospecific bivalves	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	two specimens
	Neoproscinetes sp.	monospecific snails	unspecified	unspecified	Kriwet (2001)	one specimen

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Abuliformes	Anogmius ornatus	 (a) four freshly swallowed fish with the head directed posteriorly, possibly <i>Clupavis</i>; (b) partly digested prey in which bones and scales are enclosed in a phosphatic bromalitic matrix (gastrolite); and (c) phosphatic bromalitic material (intestinelite) that does not contain scales or bone material 	Late Cretaceous	Germany	Diedrich (2012)	
Protostegidae	cf. Notochelone sp.	densely packed inoceramid fragments in phosphatic matrix	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Kear (2006)	three specimens
Teleosauridae	Steneosaurus bollensis	black patch just above sacral region	Early Jurassic	Germany	Mateer (1974)	
Metriorhynchidae	Metriorhynchus sp.	cephalopod hooklets	Middle Jurassic	England	Martill (1985a)	
	Cricosaurus bambergensis	articulated crustacean	Late Jurassic	Germany	Spindler et al. (2021)	
	Dakosaurus sp.	gut contents	Late Jurassic	Germany	Spindler et al. (2021)	
Ichthyosauria	cf. Merriamosaurus hulkei	black hooks identified as belennoid cephalopods and annelids	Early Triassic	Norway	Buchy et al. (2004)	annelids could have been consumed by belemnoids
	Phragmoteuthis? ticinensis	stomach contents composed of cephalopod hooklets	Middle Triassic	Switzerland	Rieber (1970)	
	ichthyosaurs	cephalopod hooklets	Middle Triassic	Switzerland	Brinkmann (2004)	
	Guizhouichthyosaurus tangae	fish scales and fragments of bivalves and brachiopods	Late Triassic	China	Cheng et al. (2006); Wang et al. (2008)	
	Shonisaurus popularis	vertebrate and mollusc shell fragments	Late Triassic	USA	Camp (1980)	

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Ichthyosauria	merriamosaur	a discrete mass of phosphatic residue interpreted as osteichthyan bones and scales, together with cephalopod shell fragments	Late Triassic	USA	Druckenmiller et al. (2014)	occurs in the anterior half of the rib cage
	Leptopterygius acutirostris	small ichthyosaur	Early Jurassic	Germany	Massare (1987)	
	Stenopterygius crassicostatus	cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	Germany	Massare (1987)	
	Stenopterygius megalorhinus	cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	Germany	Massare (1987)	
	Stenopterygius quadriscissus	fish fragments and cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	Germany	Von Wurstemberger (1876)	
	Stenopterygius spp.	hooklets and rare wood fragments and fish remains	Early Jurassic	Germany	Keller (1976)	28 specimens
	Leptopterygius burgundiae	gastric mass was composed mainly of cephalopod hooklets (<i>Belemnitida</i>), and up to 200 small (10 mm or less) ichthyosaurian vertebrae, interpreted as remains of juvenile <i>Stenopterygius</i>	Early Jurassic	Germany	Böttcher (1989)	
	Stenopterygius quadriscissus	actinopterygian fish, head first	Early Jurassic	Germany	Bürgin (2000)	

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Ichthyosauria	Stenopterygius quadriscissus	small juvenile - <i>Dapedium</i> sp., Pachycormidae indet., indeterminate fish/shark remains; large juvenile - <i>Saurorhynchus</i> sp. <i>Dapedium</i> sp., <i>Euthymotus</i> sp., indeterminate fish/shark remains, belemnitid hooklets; small adult - indeterminate fish/shark remains, belemnitid hooklets, belemnoteuthid hooklets, belemnoteuthid hooklets, bragmoteuthid hooklets, bragmoteuthid hooklets, <i>Stenopterygius</i> sp., aborted embryo	Early Jurassic	Germany	Dick et al. (2016)	43 specimens, smallest fed on small, burst-swimming fishes, with shift towards faster moving fish and cephalopods with increasing body size; larger adult specimens appear to completely reliant on cephalopods shortly after onset of sexual maturity
	Stenopterygius triscissus	juvenile - Dapedium sp. Euthynotus sp., indeterminate fish/shark remains; adult - belemnitid and phragmoteuthid hooklets	Early Jurassic	Germany	Dick et al. (2016)	15 specimens
	Stenopterygius uniter	belemnitid and belemnoteuthid hooklets	Early Jurassic	Germany	Dick et al. (2016)	5 specimens
	Ichthyosaurus communis	<i>Pholidophorus</i> scales and spines, cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	England	Buckland (1858); Pollard (1968)	
	Ichthyosaurus communis	dibranchiate cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	England	Pollard (1968)	
	Icthyosaurus communis	several black cephalopod hooklets preserved between the ribs	Early Jurassic	England	Lomax et al. (2019)	neonate icthyosaur
	Ichthyosaurus conybeari	dibranchiate cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	England	Pollard (1968)	
	Ichthyosaurus breviceps	dibranchiate cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	England	Pollard (1968)	
	Ichthyosaurus sp.	coleoid cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	England	Lomax (2010)	
	Several	dibranchiate cephalopod hooklets	Early Jurassic	England	Pollard (1968)	

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Ichthyosauria	Ophthalmosaurus natans	gastric material consists of badly fragmented coleoid cephalopod hooklets, loosely cemented by calcite crystals	Late Jurassic	USA	Massare and Young (2005)	
	Pantosaurus striatus	gastric contents consisting of a mass of coleoid hooklets as well as disarticulated cardiocerid ammonite jaws	Late Jurassic	USA	Wahl (2012)	
	Thalassodraco etchesi	amorphous black material preserved in the body cavity with small, indeterminate clasts	Late Jurassic	England	Jacobs and Martill (2020)	
	Platypterygius longmani	hatchling-sized protostegid turtle, enantiornithine bird, actinopterygian fish and phosphatic nodules	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Kear et al. (2003)	gravid female ichthyosaur
Nothosauridae	Silvestrosaurus buzzii	<i>Cyamodus hildegardis</i> tooth bearing elements in the stomach region	Middle Triassic	Switzerland	Tschanz (1989)	
	Paranothosaurus sp.	stomach contents of pachypleurosaurs	Middle Triassic	Switzerland	Diedrich (2015)	
Mosasauridae	Compressidens fraasi	echinoid test found between teeth	Late Cretaceous	Belgium	Dollo (1913)	
	Plioplatecarpus sp.	two belemnites	Late Cretaceous	Belgium	Dollo (1913)	
	Tylosaurus (Hainosaurus) sp.	turtle bones	Late Cretaceous	Belgium	Dollo (1887a, b)	
	Mosasaurus missouriensis	fish	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Konishi et al. (2014)	
	Tylosaurus proriger	juvenile <i>Dolichorhynchops</i> <i>osborni</i> including two probable humeri	Late Cretaceous	USA	Sternberg (1922); Everhart (2004b)	the proximal and distal ends of both bones were partially digested by the mosasaur's stomach acids

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Mosasauridae	Tylosaurus nepaeolicus	three small <i>Platecarpus</i> sp. individuals and a <i>Ptychodus</i> tooth	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bell and Barnes (2007)	
	Tylosaurus nepaeolicus	a scattering of smaller bone materials representing stomach contents	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bell et al. (2013)	
	Tylosaurus proriger	partially digested <i>Clidastes</i> vertebrae	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Bell and Barnes (2007)	
	Tylosaurus proriger	a mosasaur (<i>Clidastes</i> sp.), a bird (<i>Hesperornis</i>), a shark (? <i>Cretolamna</i>), a teleost fish (<i>Bananogmius</i>)	Late Cretaceous	USA	Bjork (1981); Martin and Bjork (1987)	anterior to pelvis
	Tylosaurus proriger	mosasaur, Cimolichthys	Late Cretaceous	USA	Cicimurri and Everhart (2001)	
	Tylosaurus proriger	Cimolichthys	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Everhart (2017)	
	Tylosaurus proriger	mosasaur as stomach contents	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Everhart (2017)	
	Tylosaurus (Hainosaurus) sp.	mosasaur as stomach contents	Late Cretaceous	NSA	Everhart (2017)	
	Prognathodon overtoni	fragments of a large and a small fish, a sea turtle (<i>Nichollsemys</i> <i>baieri</i>), and possibly a cephalopod	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Konishi et al. (2011)	anterior to pelvis
	Prognathodon kianda	partial skulls of <i>Platecarpus</i> <i>ptychodon, Mosasaurus</i> sp. and an indeterminate mosasaurine	Late Cretaceous	Angola	Strganac et al. (2015)	the skull roof, snout and other areas thinly fleshed in life are etched, and tooth crowns are dissolved above the gum line
	Plotosaurus tuckeri	teleost	Late Cretaceous	USA	Camp (1942)	

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Mosasauridae	Platecarpus tympanticus	gastrointestinal contents in the form of partially digested fish bones packed into a dense mass with an outline that appears to follow the course of the digestive tract.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Lindgren et al. (2010)	it is possible that the ingested bones derive from the anterior portion of the digestive system (displaced stomach contents), but the longitudinal axis of accumulation runs dorsally beneath and parallel to the vertebrae in the lumbar region; it is more likely that the residues represent processed food from within the colon
	Platecarpus sp.	Cimolichthys	Late Cretaceous	USA	Williston (1899)	
	Globidens sp.	bivalves	Late Cretaceous	USA	Martin (1994); Martin and Fox (2004, 2007)	
	mosasaurs	large teleosts	Late Cretaceous	USA	Williston (1914)	
	Simolestes vorax	cephalopods	Middle Jurassic	England	Martill (1992); Cicimurri and Everhart (2001)	gastroliths
	cf. Pantosaurus striatus	ichthyosaur embryo	Late Jurassic	NSA	O'Keefe et al. (2009)	
	Peloneustes sp.	cephalopods	Middle Jurassic	England	Andrews (1910)	gastroliths
	pliosaur indet	Pholidophorus bechei	Early Jurassic	England	Patterson (1975)	
	Pliosaurus brachyspondylus	cephalopod hooklets	Late Jurassic	England	Tarlo (1959)	
	Pliosaurus brachyspondylus	ornithischian osteoderms	Late Jurassic	England	Taylor et al. (1993)	

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Plesiosauria	Pliosaurus irgisensis	fish, cephalopod hooklets	Late Jurassic	Russia	Zhuravlev, (1943); Gekker and Gekker (1955)	
	Kronosaurus sp.	turtle, limb, girdle, carapace	Early Cretaceous	Australia	McHenry (2009)	esophagus and stomach
	Kronosaurus sp.	1 bony fish vertebra, elasmosaur vertebra (prey within prey)	Early Cretaceous	Australia	McHenry (2009)	
	pliosaur	Nautilus, ammonites	Late Cretaceous	Japan	Sato and Tanabe (1998); Sato and Storrs (2000)	gastroliths
	?Plesiosaurus sp.	bony fish debris	Early Jurassic	England	Storrs (1995)	
	Tatenectes laramiensis	hybodont shark (teeth, dorsal spines and skin denticles) and coleoid cephalopod hooklets	Late Jurassic	USA	Wahl (1998); Cicimurri and Everhart (2001)	gastroliths
	Nichollsia borealis	fish vertebrae	Early Cretaceous	Canada	Druckenmiller and Russell (2008)	gastroliths
	Styxosaurus snowii	a fish bone hash was concentrated in a 1 by 2 meter area just behind the pectoral girdle on the right side – crop or gizzard; fragments of fish bone were the most abundant elements recovered from the stomach contents of and include cranial fragments of small clupeomorph fishes and several teeth, vertebrae, and scales of the teleost <i>Enchodus</i> sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Cicimurri and Everhart (2001)	many gastroliths
	Elasmosaurus platyurus	teleost fish <i>Enchodus</i> and 5 other species	Late Cretaceous	USA	Cope, (1868)	Everhart (2017) believes this to be just associated concretions
	Elasmosauridae indeterminate	Clidastes	Late Cretaceous	USA	Cope (1872); Storrs (1999)	

		Mesozoic marine consumulites	e consumulites			
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Plesiosauria	Dolichorhynchops osborni	teleost <i>Apateodus</i>	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Nicholls (1988)	
	Thalassomedon hanningtoni	ammonite	Late Cretaceous	USA	Cicimurri and Everhart (2001)	gastroliths
	elasmosaur	teleosts	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Nicholls (1998)	
	elasmosaur	many benthic invertebrates, predominantly bivalve shell fragments but also the remains of gastropods and pieces of crinoid; two bivalve shells are referable to <i>Macoyella</i> ; free- swimming taxa are represented by belemnite endoskeletons and a single teleost plate	Early Cretaceous	Australia	McHenry et al. (2005)	92% gastropod and bivalve shell and 8% belemnite guards; there is no evidence of action by stomach acids on material in the bromalite or the stomach cavity; gastroliths
	elasmosaur	an intact decapod carapace, several crustacean fragments, and a fish scale.	Early Cretaceous	Australia	McHenry et al. (2005)	gastroliths
	plesiosaur	cephalopods	Late Cretaceous	Japan	Matsumoto et al. (1982)	gastroliths
	plesiosaur	teleosts	Late Cretaceous	USA	Martin and Kennedy (1988)	gastroliths
	plesiosaur	teleost, pterosaur, Scaphites	Late Cretaceous	USA	Brown, (1904)	gastroliths
Pterosauria	Pteranodon sp.	fragments of undetermined fishes preserved in the throat area	Late Cretaceous	USA	Brown, (1943); Bennett, (2001)	or regurgitalite (Bennett, 2001); partly digested fish remains represent gut contents regurgitated during death throes
	Pteranodon sp.	Enchodon sp.	Late Cretaceous	USA	Hargrave (2007)	in association with possible consumulites

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Coelacanthiformes	Undina penicillata	Undina penicillata	Late Jurassic	Germany	Schultze (1972)	Watson (1927) suggests represents ovoviparous behavior as in Recent <i>Latimeria</i> (Smith, 1975; prey ingested head first
Palaeonisciformes	Hulettia americana	consumulites that consist of small fish(?) bones, and, possibly scales of <i>Todiltia</i> <i>schoewei</i> (?)	Middle Jurassic	NSA	Schaeffer and Patterson (1984); Lucas et al. (1985b); Hunt and Lucas (2014)	a few specimens
Actinopterygii	Todiltia schoewei	consumulites are preserved as a white or yellowish, featureless phosphatic mass, which suggests a microphagous diet	Middle Jurassic	USA	Schaeffer and Patterson (1984); Lucas et al. (1985b); Hunt and Lucas (2014)	70% of the specimens preserve consumulites, a large stomach anteriorly, separated by a sphincter from an intestine that looped ventrally, rose dorsally again above the pelvic fins, then passed obliquely down to the anus, in front of the anal fin
	Heterolepidotus radiato-punctatus	pycnodonts	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	
	Oenoscupus sp.	rhynchocephalian	Late Jurassic	France	Eastman (1911)	prey ingested head first
Aspidorhynchiformes	Belonostomus sp.	Homeosaurus	Late Jurassic	France	Eastman (1911)	prey ingested head first
	Belonostomus sp.	Notagogus	Late Jurassic	France	De Saint Seine (1949)	prey directed posteriorly
	Belonostomus cf. B. kochi	Orthogonikleithrus hoelli	Late Jurassic	Germany	Ebert et al. (2015)	three specimens, one in pharynx, two in stomach
	Belonostomus tenuirostris	two specimens of cf. <i>Leptolepides</i> and possibly a juvenile <i>Caturus</i> sp.	Late Jurassic	Germany	Kogan and Licht (2013)	
	Aspidorhynchus sp.	Rhamphorhynchus in which a small leptolepidid fish is in the esophagus and its stomach is full of fish debris	Late Jurassic	Germany	Frey and Tischlinger (2012)	pterosaur is aspirationalite, consumulite within a consumulite

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Salmoniformes	Orthogonikleithrus hoelli	conspecific	Late Jurassic	Germany	Ebert et al. (2015)	21 specimens, 5 in pharynx, 16 in stomach
	Orthogonikleithrus n.sp.1	Orthogonikleithrus hoelli	Late Jurassic	Germany	Ebert et al. (2015)	12 specimens, 1 in pharynx, 11 in stomach
Amiiformes	Caturus furcatus	Leptolepides sprattiformis, ?Aaethalion angustissimus, ?Ascalabos voithi, , ?Eichstaettia mayri, Tharsis dubious, pycnodont and unidentified	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1983, 1990)	28 specimens; 11 prey ingested tail first 10 prey ingested head first – in 5 cases prey is only half-swallowed and body juts out of mouth - aspirationalites
	Caturus pachyurus	fish	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	
	Caturus giganteus	piece of pycnodont (too large to be swallowed whole)	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	
	Caturus sp.	Tharsis dubius	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first, half swallowed and extending out of mouth - aspirationalite
	Ionoscopus cyprinoides	fish	Late Jurassic	Germany	Stuetzer (1972); Viohl, (1990)	
	Urocles lepidotus	teleost	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
	Urocles polyspondylus	Urocles(?)	Late Jurassic	Germany	Lange (1968); Viohl (1990)	
Pholidophoriformes	Eurycormus speciosus	fish	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	
Pachycormiformes	Asthenocormus titaius	Tharsis dubius	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	no preferential orientation, but fish small compared to consumer
	Hypsocormus insignis	Tharsis dubius	Late Jurassic	Germany	Wagner (1860); Viohl (1990)	5 specimens
	Pholidophorus microcephalus	Tharsius dubius	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	2 specimens; 1 prey ingested tail first
	Ascalabos voithi	fish	Late Jurassic	Germany	Nybelin (1974); Viohl (1990)	

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Aspidorhynchiformes	Aspidorhynchus acutirostris	? Aaetbalion sp., ? Eichstaettia mayri, Pholidophorus microcephalus, indeterminate fish	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	3 prey ingested tail first, 2 ingested head first
	Belonostomus tenuirostris	Notagogus	Late Jurassic	France	Saint-Seine (1949)	prey ingested head first
Clupeiformes	Daitingichthys tischlingeri	?Anaethbalion sp., teleost	Late Jurassic	Germany	Arratia (1987); Viohl (1990)	2 specimens, 1 prey ingested tail first
Elopiformes	Anaethbalion angustissimus	teleosts including ?Anaethbalion	Late Jurassic	Germany	Von Münster (1842); Nybelin (1967); Viohl (1990)	2 specimens, both prey ingested tail first
Ichthodectiformes	Thrissops formosus	Leptolepides sprattiformis	Late Jurassic	Germany	Neumayer (1929); Nybelin (1958); Viohl (1990)	8-10 specimens, 4 with heads of prey ingested head first
	Thrissops subovatus	Leptolepides sprattiformis	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	2 specimens, 1 prey ingested head first
	Allothrissops mesogaster	Leptolepides sprattiformis	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
	Pachythrissops sp.	fish	Late Jurassic	Germany	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested tail first
	Thrissops cf. formosus	Orthogonikleithrus hoelli in stomach	Late Jurassic	Germany	Ebert et al. (2015)	3 specimens
Crossognathiformes	Bavarichthys incognitus	Orthogonikleithrus hoelli in stomach	Late Jurassic	Germany	Ebert et al. (2015)	
Teleostei	Teleostei n.sp.1	Orthogonikleithrus hoelli	Late Jurassic	Germany	Ebert et al. (2015)	20 specimens, 13 in pharynx, 7 in stomach (including 1 specimen with multiple specimens)

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Urodela	Jeholotriton paradoxus	50-100 conchostracan (<i>Euestheria luanpingensis</i>) carapaces in the abdominal region, valves are clustered, overlapping heavily, relatively circular; in contrast, oval valves outside of the body, suggesting softening of the chitinous valves during digestion, most preserved dorsally with the two valves open, suggesting the adductor muscle had been digested before burial; no tooth marks, implying swallowed whole, occupy nearly the entire body cavity, probably because the carapaces broke the gut and entered the coelom as they were pressed during burial	Middle Jurassic	China	Dong et al. (2012)	carapace valves stomach contents based on: (1) clustered, overlapping heavily, and the margin cluster is below the vertebral column and between the forelimbs and hind limbs in abdominal region; (2) small, whereas others from locality are normally dispersed, which suggests selection of prey size by the predator; (3) relatively circular, in contrast to the more or less oval carapace valves outside the salamander's body; the rounded shape could be a result of softening of the chitinous valves during digestion; and (4) a proportionally large number are preserved dorsally with the two valves open, suggesting the adductor muscle had been digested before burial
	Chunperpeton tianyiensis	abundant intact conchostracans in the gut cavity	Middle Jurassic	China	Gao and Shubin (2003)	small larval
	Chunperpeton tianyiensis	stomach contents contain insect Yantiaocorixa chinensis – one individual contains 5; the corixids are exclusively adults or last larval instars, suggesting size-based selective feeding of the live predator; in addition, there are no tooth marks on the eaten corixids, indicating that they were probably swallowed whole	Middle Jurassic	China	Dong et al. (2012)	9 juvenile specimens; the head or fore wings of these corixids are sometimes disarticulated, indicating that the joints were digested in the stomach
	salamander	indeterminate gut contents	Early Cretaceous	Spain	Evans (2016)	

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Anura	Genibatrachus baoshanensis	skeleton of salamander, cf. <i>Nuominerpeton</i>	Early Cretaceous	China	Xing et al. (2019)	
	unidentified frog	stomach contents	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	Leal and Martill (2007)	
Thalassochelydia	Thalassemys bruntrutana	elongate body can be seen through the central plastral fontanelle, irregular, wavy and phosphatic	Late Jurassic	Germany	Joyce et al. (2021)	location midbody combined with its relatively narrow diameter is broadly consistent with the small intestine of extant marine turtles
Choristodera	Monjurosuchus splendens	7 juvenile skulls of Monjurosuchus splendens	Early Cretaceous	China	Wang et al. (2005)	
Phytosauria	Parasuchus hislopi	a few skull bones of a rhynchosaur in "stomach;" <i>Malerisaurus robinsoni</i> , which may be a synonym of <i>Trilophosaurus buetmeri</i> (Spielmann et al., 2006)	Late Triassic	India	Chatterjee (1978, 1980)	
	Pseudopalatus pristinus	series of dorsal centra of the metoposaurid amphibian <i>Apachesaurus</i> <i>gregori</i> i	Late Triassic	USA	Hunt (1991, 2001); Hunt and Lucas (2014b)	male, altirostral skull
	Pseudopalatus pristinus	proximal pubis of a smaller phytosaur and a series of centra of <i>Vancleavea campi</i>	Late Triassic	USA	Hunt (1991, 1994, 2001); Hunt and Lucas (2014b)	female, dolichorostral
Paracrocodylomorpha	Postosuchus alisonae	gastrolite a partial skeleton of a small stagonolepidid (cf. Aetosaurus), a snout, left coracoid, and left humerus of the traversodont cynodont Plinthogomophodon herpetairus, two articulated phalanges of a large dicynodont, and a fragment of an unidentified ?temnospondyl bone	Late Triassic	USA	Sues et al. (2003); Peyer et al. (2008)	some of the bones bear tooth marks and show periosteal erosion, possibly caused by digestion
Crocodylifomes	Aplestosuchus sordidus	sphagesaurid	Late Cretaceous	Brazil	Godoy et al. (2014)	

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	re consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Theropoda	Notatesseraeraptor frickensis	bones in preserved contents of the stomach include a well preserved maxilla of the rhynchocephalian <i>Clevosaurus</i>	Late Triassic	Switzerland	Unterrassner (2009); Zahner and Brinkmann, (2019)	
Coelophysidae	Coelophysis bauri	possible oralite containing small premaxillary and other teeth of <i>Coelophysis</i>	Late Triassic	USA	Rinehart et al. (2009)	
	Coelophysis bauri	three specimens have bromalitic material with indistinct structure and a granular matrix; some specimens located between the ischia and the proximal caudal vertebrae and apparently represent incorporeal pelletites	Late Triassic	USA	Rinehart et al. (2009)	
	Coelophysis bauri	gastrolite consisting of specimens of <i>Hesperosuchus</i>	Late Triassic	USA	Nesbitt et al. (2006)	
Dromaeosauridae	Velociraptor mongoliensis	azhdarchid pterosaur	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Hone et al. (2012)	
Tyrannosauridae	Raptorex kreigsteini	<i>Lycoptera</i> or Ellimmichthyiformes	Early or Late Cretaceous	Mongolia or China	Sereno et al. (2009); Fowler et al. (2011)	
	Daspletosaurus sp.	acid etched vertebrae and a fragmentary dentary from juvenile hadrosaur dinosaur	Late Cretaceous	USA	Varricchio (2001)	two part stomach
Megalosauridae	Poekilopleuron bucklandii	a tooth of the hybodont shark <i>Polyacrodus</i> sp., and fragments that resemble skeletal fragments of cartilaginous fishes	Middle Jurassic	France	Eudes- Deslongchamps (1838)	
Spinosauridae	Baryonyx walkeri	both fish and terrestrial vertebrates - <i>Iguanodon</i>	Early Cretaceous	England	Charig and Milner (1986, 1997)	
Deinocheiridae	Deinocheirus mirificus	fish	Late Cretaceous	Mongolia	Lee et al. (2014)	fish remains (vertebrae, scales)
Oviraptosauria	Ningyuansaurus wangi	seeds	Early Cretaceous	China	Ji et al. (2012)	
	Jinfengopteryx elegans	seeds?	Early Cretaceous	China	Ji et al. (2005)	

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ae consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Compsognathidae	Compsognathus longipes	lepidosaur Bavarisaurus cf. macrodactylus	Late Jurassic	Germany	Ostrom (1978)	
	Scipionyx samniticus	fish and lepidosaurian reptiles	Early Cretaceous	Italy	Dal Sasso and Signore (1998); Dal Sasso and Maganuco (2011)	
	Sinosauropteryx prima	two specimens, one has pair of eggs (probably gignolites) and semi- articulated skeleton of lizard, including skull	Early Cretaceous	China	Chen et al. (1998); Dong and Chen (2000)	
	Sinosauropteryx prima	bones of an unidentified small mammal; the jaws of triconodont (<i>Sinobaatar</i>) and symmetrodont (<i>Zhangheotherium</i>) mammals	Early Cretaceous	China	Currie and Chen (2001); Hurum et al. (2006)	2 specimens
	Huaxiagnathus orientalis	chunks of a partially digested meal (bones)	Early Cretaceous	China	Hwang et al. (2004)	
	Sinocalliopteryx gigas	Sinornithosaurus, Confuciusornis, unidentified ornithiscian	Early Cretaceous	China	Ji et al. (2007); Xing et al. (2012)	
	Sinocalliopteryx gigas	incomplete dromaeosaurid leg preserved in abdominal cavity	Early Cretaceous	China	Ji et al. (2007); Xing et al. (2012)	
Dromaeosauridae	Microraptor zhaoianus	partially articulated skeleton of <i>Indrasaurus</i> <i>wangi</i> in stomach	Early Cretaceous	China	O'Connor et al. (2019)	ingested whole and head first
	Microraptor gui	small mammal bone	Early Cretaceous	China	Larsson et al. (2010)	
	Microraptor gui	enantiornithine bird partial skeleton	Early Cretaceous	China	O'Connor et al. (2011)	
	Microraptor gui	gut contents composed of teleost fish remains	Early Cretaceous	China	Xing et al. (2013)	
Anchiornithidae	Anchiornis sp.	gastric pellet comprising lizard bones preserved in the oesophageal area	Early Cretaceous	China	Zheng et al. (2018b)	

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Ankylosauria	Kunbarrasaurus ieversi	short fragments of plant debris in matrix of micrite, mainly vascular bundles including seeds, complete fruiting bodies of angiosperms or their endocarps	Early Cretaceous	Australia	Molnar and Clifford (2000, 2001); Leahey et al. (2015)	previously referred to <i>Minmi</i> sp.
	Liaoningosaurus paradoxus	fish bones	Early Cretaceous	China	Ji et al. (2016)	gastrolite/intestinilite
	Borealopelta markmitchelli	leaf tissue dominated (85%) by leptosporangiate ferns with low cycad– cycadophytes (3%) and trace of conifer foliage	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Brown (2017); Brown et al. (2020)	
Hadrosauridae	Brachylophosaurus canadensis	abundant plant fragments (mainly mm size leaf fragments) occupy a volume of at least 5750 clay from flowing water that entered through openings in the carcass	Late Cretaceous	USA	Tweet et al. (2008, 2016)	
	Edmontosaurus sp.	needles and twig fragments of conifer	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Kräusel (1922)	disputed by Abel (1922b)
	Corythosaurus sp.	conifers	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Taggert and Cross (1997)	
	hadrosaurs	conifer	Late Cretaceous	Canada	Ostrom (1964); Currie et al. (1995)	
Confuciusornithiformes	Eoconfuciusornis zhengi	?plant propagules	Early Cretaceous	China	Mayr et al. (2021)	previously identified as ovarian follicles (Zheng et al., 2017)
	Confuciusornis sanctus	fish bones in crop, not in articulation but in cluster, tentatively indentified as primitive teleost fish, <i>Jinanichthys</i>	Early Cretaceous	China	Dalsätt et al. (2006)	partly underlying the ventral region of the seventh and eighth cervical vertebrae; position on the ventral side of the distal one-third of the neck of the bird suggests that the bones were processed in the alimentary system at the time of death

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Jeholornithiformes	Jeholornis prima	many seeds, including <i>Carpolithus</i> in ventriculus	Early Cretaceous	China	Zhou and Zhang (2002); O'Connor et al. (2018)	4 specimens
	Jeholornis prima	plant propagules	Early Cretaceous	China	Mayr et al. (2021)	previously identified as ovarian follicles
Sapeornithiformes	Sapeornis chaoyangensis	6 with seeds in cropalite, one also has incorporeal pelletite intestinilite	Early Cretaceous	China	Zheng et al. (2011, 2014); Chiappe and Meng (2016)	3 specimens also have gastroliths
	Sapeornis chaoyangensis	4 with seeds in ventriculus, one has two size classes	Early Cretaceous	China	Zheng et al. (2014)	2 specimens also have gastroliths
Ornithuromorpha	Hongshanornis longicresta	mass of small seeds in crop	Early Cretaceous	China	Zheng et al. (2011)	gastroliths in gizzard
	Yanornis martini	One or more whole fish (7) or fish bones (4) in crop and two pellets and also material in ventriculus (12), which is dominantly macerated fish (9)	Early Cretaceous	China	Zhou et al. (2004); Wang et al. (2016); Zheng et al. (2014); Chiappe and Meng (2016)	13 specimens
	Yanornis sp.	more than one whole fish in crop, possible material in ventriculus	Early Cretaceous	China	Wang et al. (2013)	one specimen has gastroliths
Enantiornithes	Eoalulavis hoyasi	crustacean exoskeletal elements in ventriculus	Early Cretaceous	Spain	Sanz et al. (1996);O'Connor (2019)	
	Enantiophoenix electrophyla	small pieces of amber	Late Cretaceous	Lebanon	Dalla Vecchia and Chiappe (2002); Cau and Arduini (2008)	sap feeding
	Linyiornis amoena	plant propagules	Early Cretaceous	China	Mayr et. al. (2021)	previously identified as ovarian follicles (Wang et al., 2016)
	indeterminant	pellet with fish bones	Early Cretaceous	China	Wang et al. (2016)	
	indeterminant	enigmatic diminutive "corpuscles" in the pelvic area inferred to have derived from intestines	Early Cretaceous	Spain	Knoll et al. (2018)	perinate bird
	indeterminant	plant propagules	Early Cretaceous	China	Mayr et al. (2021)	7 specimens, previously identified as ovarian follicles

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Ornithuromorpha	Piscivoravis lii	macerated fish bones in ventriculus and fish bones in a pelletin ventriculus	Early Cretaceous	China	Zhou et al. (2014); O'Connor (2019)	
	Eogranivora edentulata	seeds in cropalite	Early Cretaceous	China	Zheng et al. (2011, 2018a)	gastroliths
Eudimorphodontidae	Eudimorphodon ranzii	fish remains referred to Parapholidophorus	Late Triassic	Italy	Wild (1978); Dalla Vecchia (2003)	
Rhamphorhynchidae	Rhamphorhynchus muensteri	indeterminate vertebrate elements	Late Jurassic	Germany	Hone et al. (2015)	
	Rhamphorhynchus muensteri	small leptolepidid fishes	Late Jurassic	Germany	Wellnhofer, (1975a-b, 1991); Witton (2013, 2018)	2 specimens; shows size of gut and that must have possessed highly mobile and distensible throat tissues, much like those of modern fish-eating birds
	Rhamphorhynchus muensteri	a pair of dark brown elements close to the gastralia appear to be osteichthyan scales or teeth; a mass of additional fish parts lies between the gastralia and dorsal ribs; these include a putative series of vertebrae, a fin ray, and a series of small discs that may be scales	Late Jurassic	Germany	Hone et al. (2013)	
	Rhamphorhynchus sp.	swallowing head first, a leptolepidid fish, tail stuck in the pharyngeal region	Late Jurassic	Germany	Frey and Tischlinger (2012)	pterosaur killed by Aspidorhynchus and swallowing not completed of prey
Euctenochasmatia	Pterodactylus sp.	fish debris in the gular area tentatively interpreted as the contents of a throat pouch	Late Jurassic	Germany	Kellner (2006)	
	"Pterodactylus propinquus"	disarticulated fish debris in and around the region of the gular pouch, including a 10 mm-long series of articulated vertebrae and fin debris	Late Jurassic	Germany	Broili (1938); Wellnhofer (1970)	specimen lost

		Mesozoic nonmarine consumulites	ne consumulites			
Higher level Taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Tapejaromorpha	Nemicolopterus crypticus	yellow-colored matrix occasionally forming rounded structures represents decayed soft tissues or amorphous gut content	Early Cretaceous	China	Wang et al. (2008)	
Anhangueridae	Ludodactylus sibbicki	large leaf between the mandibular rami	Early Cretaceous	Brazil	Frey et al. (2003); Witton (2018)	frayed leaf margin is interpreted as evidence of attempts to dislodge the leaf from the gular pouch, and the pterosaur's inability to do this led to its death
Mammalia	<i>Repenomamus</i> robustus	juvenile <i>Psittacosaurus</i> as stomach contents	Early Cretaceous	China	Hu et al. (2005)	

TABLE A.10.	Cenozoic	marine	consumulites
IADLL A.IU.	CCHOZOIC	marme	consumances.

Higher level	Taxon	Contents	Ago	Location	References	Notes
taxon	14.00	Contents	Age	Location	Kelerences	INOLES
Lamniformes	Cosmopolitodus hastalis	Sardinops sp. cf. S. sagax	Miocene	Peru	Collareta et al. (2017c)	between the 25th and the 33rd vertebra
	Cosmopolitodus hastalis	fish remains as fossilized stomach contents including several scales and an opercle of <i>Sardinops</i> cf. <i>S. sagax</i>	Late Miocene	Peru	Collareta et al. (2017c); Bosio et al. (2021)	
Carcharhiniformes	Galeorhinus cuvieri	skeleton of barracuda, <i>Sphyraena</i> <i>bolcensis</i>	Early Eocene	Italy	Friedman and Carnevale (2018)	
	Galeorhinus cuvieri	stomach contents of 6 articulated distal caudal vertebrae and dismembered caudal fin rays of <i>Sphyraena</i> <i>bolcensis</i>	Early Eocene	Italy	Fanti et al. (2016)	evidence that a predator-prey relationship between <i>Galeorhinus</i> and <i>Sphyraena</i> in the modern coral reefs has roots in the Eocene
Anguilliformes	Paranguilla tigra	Cyclopoma gigas	Early Eocene	Italy	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
	indeterminate	fragments of 4 fish	Early Eocene	Italy	Viohl (1990)	1 ingested head first, 3 ingested tail first
	Paranguilla tigrina	indeterminate	Early Eocene	Italy	Sorbini (1972)	prey ingested head first
Perciformes	Carangodes cephalus	fish	Early Eocene	Italy	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
	Ductor vestenae	fish	Early Eocene	Italy	Viohl, (1990)	prey ingested head first
	Callipteryx speciosus	indeterminate	Early Eocene	Italy	Agassiz (1833- 1845b)	1 prey ingested head first and 1 ingested tail first
	Serranus budensis	Serranus budensis	Oligocene	Romania	Paucă (1933)	prey ingested head first
Acanthomorpha	Blochius longirostris	indeterminate	Early Eocene	Italy	Agassiz (1833- 1845a)	prey ingested head first
Osmeriformes	smelt	argentinoid	Early Eocene	Denmark	Bonde (1987)	prey ingested head first
Scombriformes	Scomberomorus (Cybium) sp.	12 clupeids	Early Oligocene	Germany	Weiler (1931)	prey ingested head first

	1_	Cenozoic marin	1	1		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Stomiiformes	Scopeloides glarisianus	crustaceans such as ostracods and copepods, and small fish, principally <i>Scopeloides</i> <i>glarisianus</i>	Oligocene	Poland, Ukraine, Czech Republic, northern Caucasus in Russia and Abkhazia	Přikryl et al. (2012)	crustaceans in smaller specimens and fish in larger specimens
Lophiiformes	Antennarius monodi	a nearly complete percomorph fish, possibly belonging to the family Sparidae	Miocene	Algeria	Carnevale and Pietsch (2006)	the prey is longer than the predator; frogfishes of Antennariidae are able to swallow very large prey because of rapid expansion of the oral and opercular cavities that produces suctior pressure for prey capture
Aulopiformes	Lestidiops (Lestioliops)	Bregmoceras and unidentified fish	Pliocene	Italy	Viohl (1990)	prey ingested head first
Stomiiformes	Chauliodus eximius	?bathypelagid	Middle Miocene	USA	Crane (1996)	prey ingested head first
Pycnodontiformes	pycnodonts	small pieces of coral	unspecified	unspecified	Maisey (1996)	
Basilosauridae	Basilosaurus isis	smaller whales (juvenile Dorudon atrox) and large fishes (Pycnodus mokattamensis)	Late Eocene	Egypt	Voss et al. (2019)	
	Basilosaurus cetoides	fishes and sharks ranging up to approximately 50 cm in length	Late Eocene	Egypt	Swift and Barnes (1996)	
	Durudon atrox	fish	Late Eocene	Egypt	Uhen (2004)	
	Cynthiacetus peruvianus	head of a large scombrid teleost fish aff. <i>Scombramphodon</i> (c. 1.5 m long) in anterior of thoracic region	Late Eocene	Peru	Martínez- Cáceres et al. (2017)	hypothesized that head remained caught in the throat of the predator in the process of swallowing, which may have caused its death by suffocation

		Cenozoic marin	e consumulit	es		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Odontoceti	Messapicetus gregarius	clupeiform Sardinops sp. cf. S. sagax	Late Miocene	Peru	Lambert et al. (2015); Bosio et al. (2021)	aggregate between the posterior left ribs suggests it derives from cetacean forestomach
Mysticeti	undescribed	clupeiform <i>Sardinops</i> bones and scales, discrete small mass between ribs	Late Miocene	Peru	Collareta et al. (2015)	first direct evidence of piscivory in an ancient edentulous mysticete
Gaviiformes	?Colymboides metzleri	dense package of remains of small fishes (diameter of vertebrae from 0.4– 1.0 mm) represents the stomach contents	Early Oligocene	Germany	Mayr (2004)	

TABLE A.11. Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites.	onmarine consumulites.					
		Cenozoic nonm	Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites	lites		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Perciformes	Mioplosus labracoides	Knightia humilis	Early Eocene	USA	Jepsen (1967); Grande (1980, 2013)	prey ingested head first, aspirationalite
	Rhenanoperca minuta	aquatic larvae of nematocerous Diptera and parts of fish skeletons	Middle Eocene	Germany	Richter and Baszio (2006)	less than 30 mm long contain arthropods and longer contain fish
	Mioplosus labracoides	Knightia eocaena oralite	Early Eocene	NSA	Grande (2013)	half body out of mouth, aspirationalite
	Mioplosus labracoides	Diplomystus dentatus and other taxa	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	<i>Mioplosus labracoides</i> has most consumulites in Green River Formation
	Priscacara serrata	Knightia eocaena	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	aspirationalite, prey ingested head first
	Priscacara serrata	Priscacara serrata	Early Eocene	NSA	Grande (2013)	aspirationalite, prey ingested head first, juvenile predator
	Lepidocottus sp.	planorbid snails	Miocene	Germany	Cockerill (1915)	
Clupeiformes	Diplomystus dentatus	Knightia humilis	Early Eocene	NSA	Grande (1980, 1984)	prey ingested head first
	Diplomystus dentatus	Knightia eocaena oralite	Early Eocene	NSA	Ulrich (1978), Grande (1984)	prey ingested head first, only head in mouth, aspirationalite
	Diplomystus dentatus	Cockerellites liops	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	two apirationalites, prey ingested head first
	Diplomystus dentatus	Knightia eocaena	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	gastrolite, dozens of <i>Diplomystus</i> specimens have consumulites of which at least 10 contain <i>Cockerellites</i> or <i>Priscacara</i>
	Diplomystus dentatus	Diplomystus dentatus	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	aspirationalite
Lepisosteiformes	Lepisosteus simplex	Diplomystus sp. oralite	Early Eocene	USA	Ulrich (1978); Grande (1980, 1984)	prey ingested head first, tail extends out of oral cavity, aspirationalite
	Atractosteus simplex	Diplomystus dentatus	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	two specimens, both aspirationalites, prey ingested head first
Osteoglossiformes	Phareodus encaustus	Mioplosus labracoides, Knightia eocaena oralites	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	3 examples of tail extending out of mouth, aspirationalites

		Cenozoic nonn	Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites	lites		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Amiiformes	Amia unintaensis	Diplomystus, which, in turn, contains Knightia	Early Eocene	USA	Boreske (1974); Grande (1980)	stomach ruptured during burial and prey is extruded; prey ingested head first
	Amia pattersoni	Mioplosus	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	gastrolite, stomach distended
Acipenseriformes	Crossophilis magnicaudatus	Mioplosus labracoides	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	gastrolite
Salmoniformes	Thaumaturus intermedius	abundant arthropod cuticular fragments, intestinal contents originate from small Crustacea (Cladocera) and larvae of Diptera (Culicidae and Chaoboridae)	Middle Eocene	Germany	Richter and Baszio (2001a)	21 specimens
Anura	Palaeobatrachus sp.	disarticulated and poorly preserved fish bones, correspond in size to a small specimen of <i>Palaeorutilus enspelensis</i> , mainly isolated vertebrae and fin ray elements embedded and covered in a brown mass	Late Oligocene	Germany	Wuttke and Poschmann (2010)	
	Pelobates sp.	group of black roundish spots in the abdominal region	Early Miocene	Turkey	Dubois et al. (2009)	3 specimens, spots could represent seeds, bacterial or fungal aggregations or eggs
	Rana pueyoi	stomach contents composed of overlapping gastropod shell fragments (32 specimens) of aquatic genera of planorbiid and bithyniid families, single specimens also include the water plant <i>Ruppia</i> , seeds, sponge spicules, vertebral column of a larval anuran, fragments of arthropod cuticle, and rare patches of layered, densely packed fibers may represent fragments of ingested tissues	Miocene	Spain	McNamara et al. (2009); Wuttke and Poschmann (2010)	61% of specimens (n=71) have stomach contents

		Cenozoic nonm	Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites	lites		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Anura	<i>Rana pueyoi</i> tadpoles	fine-grained granular sedimentary detritus consisting of silt-sized grains of calcium carbonate and fragmented diatom frustules; siliceous sponge spicules also present	Miocene	Spain	McNamara et al. (2010)	
	Pelobates decheni and Eopelobates anthracinus tadpoles	granular gut contents	Oligocene	Germany	Maus and Wuttke (2002)	
	tadpoles	granular gut contents	Tertiary	Europe	Špinar (1972)	
Testudinidae	Stylemys sp. and Stylemys nebrascensis	hackberry (Celtis) seeds	Oligocene	USA	Marron and Moore (2013)	2 specimens
Iguania	Geiseltaliellus maarius	globular plant remains	Middle Eocene	Germany	Smith and Scanferla (2016)	
Scincoidea	Ornatocephalus metzleri	gastrolite contains plant matter and insect cuticle	Middle Eocene	Germany	Weber (2004)	3 specimens
Alethinophidia	Eoconstrictor fischeri	gastrolite of crocodilian probably <i>Diplocynodon</i> sp.	Middle Eocene	Germany	Greene (1983); Scanferla and Smith (2020)	
lethinophidia	Eoconstrictor fischeri	lizard Geiseltaliellus maarius in stomach which in turn has insect in its gut	Middle Eocene	Germany	Schall (2004); Smith and Scanferla (2016)	lizard swallowed head first; consumulite within a consumalite
Crocodilia	Menatalligator bergouniouxi	Amia	Paleocene	France	Wedmann et al. (2018)	
	Pristochampsus vorax	nearly complete hindlimb of perissodactyl, <i>Helaletes</i> sp.	Eocene	USA	Alexander and Burger (2001)	
"Insectivore"	indeterminate	stomach contents	Paleocene	France	Guth (1962); Wedmann et al. (2018)	
Mustelidae	Mustela nigripes	undetermined	Pleistocene	Canada	Youngman (1994); Hunt and Lucas (2007)	

		Cenozoic nonm	Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites	ites		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Canidae	borophagine <i>Carpocyon</i> (Tomarctus robustus)	rabbit (<i>Hypolagus</i>), pocket mouse and other small mammals in limey mass in the abdominal cavity behind the pelvis	Late Miocene	USA	Green (1948); Stirton (1959); Tedford in Boucot (1990)	
Proviverridae	Lesmesodon edingeri	teeth, bone fragments including one amphibian or reptile jaw, an insectivore jaw and tooth	Middle Eocene	Germany	Morlo et al. (2012); Schaal (2016); Gunnell et al. (2018)	juvenile specimen that is regurgitalite/digestilite produced by a boid snake, probably <i>Palaeopython</i>
Pantolestidae	Palaeosinopa didelphoides	fish bones	Early Eocene	USA	Grande (2013)	
	Buxolestes piscator	fish debris in one specimen, plant debris in second	Middle Eocene	Germany	Richter (1987); Von Koenigswald et al. (1992, 2018)	2 specimens
Eomanidae	Eomanis waldi	coarse sand and plant debris in stomach, insect chitin in only one specimen	Middle Eocene	Germany	Von Koenigswald et al. (1981); Richter (1988); Storch and Richter, (1992); Gunnell et al. (2018)	5 specimens
Ischyromyidae	Ailuravus macrurus	leaf fragments of laurel in one specimen and of <i>Polyspora</i> in another	Middle Eocene	Germany	Ruf and Lehmann (2018)	2 specimens
Gliridae	Eogliravus wildi	fruits, seeds, buds	Middle Eocene	Germany	Ruf and Lehmann (2018)	
Dichobunidae	Messelobunodon schaeferi	fungi in one specimen, seeds and leaves in another, only one contains small pieces of insect cuticle	Middle Eocene	Germany	Richter (1981); Richter in Boucot (1990)	
Equidae	Propalaeotherium	mainly leaves but also some fruit (grape pits)	Middle Eocene	Germany	Franzen (1976, 1977, 1984, 1985); Collinson (1990, 1999)	several specimens from Messel
	Propalaeotherium isselanum	densely packed plant material, especially leaf fragments but also fruits/ seeds and pollen, in a dense matrix of organic material with interspersed quartz grains	Middle Eocene	Germany	Wilde and Hellmund (2010)	specimen from Geiseltal

		Cenozoic nonm	Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites	ites		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Equidae	Equus lambei	intestinal contents included not only remains of what the horse had been feeding on, but also elements of the surrounding environment; grasses, sedges, poppies, mustards, pink family, buttercups and members of the rose family	Pleistocene	Canada	Harington (2002)	
Pseudorhyncocyonidae	Leptichtidium nasutum	insect fragments	Middle Eocene	Germany	Maier et al. (1986); Richter (1988)	
Amphilemuridae	Pholidocercus hassiacus	insect cuticle, fruit tissue and leaves	Middle Eocene	Germany	Storch and Richter (1994); Storch (2001); von Koenigswald et al. (2018)	3 specimens, 2 predominantly insects including beetles, 1 mainly plant material including fruit and leaves
	Macrocranion tupaiodon	fish, seeds, fruit, insect cuticle, leaves, fungus, fish	Middle Eocene	Germany	Storch and Richter (1994); Storch (2001); von Koenigswald et al. (2018)	10 specimens, 3 almost exclusively fish, one partially fish
Dichobunidae	Aumelasia cf. gabineaudi	fruit pulp, seeds, fungi	Middle Eocene	Germany	Franzen and Richter (1992); Lehmann and Ruf (2018)	
	Eurodexis sp.	fruit pulp, seeds, fungi	Middle Eocene	Germany	Lehmann and Ruf (2018)	
Choeropotamidae	Masillabune martini	leaves of Laurel	Middle Eocene	Germany	Tobian (1980); Lehmann and Ruf (2018)	
Bovidae	Bison priscus	Poaceae, Apiaceae, mosses and horsetails	Holocene	Russia	Van Geel et al. (2014); Boeskorov et al. (2016)	
Rhinocerotidae	Coelodonta antiquitatis	spore and pollen analyses of the stomach contents indicate that grasses and sagebrushes formed the main part of the diet	Pleistocene	Russia	Boeskorov et al. (2011)	

		Cenozoic nonm	Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites	lites		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Elephantidae	Mammuthus primigenius	pollen and plant macro- remains show that grasses and sedges were the main food, with considerable amounts of dwarf willow twigs and a variety of herbs and mosses	Pleistocene	Russia	van Geel et al. (2008)	fruit bodies of dung-inhabiting ascomycete fungi indicate coprophagy
	Mammuthus primigenius	intestinilite with plant detritus, some animal remains and mineral matter; plant remains are dominated by branches of mosses with rare herbaceous plants; animals are ephippia of <i>Daphnia</i> sp., worm remains, a few fragments of insects and arachnids, and a single bone of a micromammal	Pleistocene	Russia	Kosintsev et al. (2012)	very young specimen; most plant remains are crushed and fractured into separate fibers by chewing by an adult, suggesting coprophagy; also suggested by the abundance of ascospores of coprophilous fungi in the pollen spectrum
Adapidae	Darwinius masillae	seed of fruit, leaves	Middle Eocene	Germany	Franzen and Wilde (2003); Franzen et al. (2009)	first fossil primate consumulite
Chiroptera	Palaeochiropteryx tupaiodon,	insects, principally lepidopteran wings, bat hair	Middle Eocene	Germany	Richter and Storch (1980); Richter (1988); Habersetzer et al. (1994, 2018)	16 specimens; hair is presumably from grooming
	Palaeochiropteryx spp.	small moths, and caddis flies	Middle Eocene	Germany	Habersetzer et al. (1994)	hunting slow and low flying insects
	Hassianycteris spp.	beetles and other insects with thick cuticules	Middle Eocene	Germany	Habersetzer et al. (1994, 2018)	
	Tachypteron franzeni	black area below ribs	Middle Eocene	Germany	Habersetzer et al. (2018)	
	Archaeonycteris spp.	beetle cuticle	Middle Eocene	Germany	Habersetzer et al. (2018)	
Mammalia	mummified mammals	various	Pleistocene	various	Harington (2007)	
Eurypygiformes	Messelornis cristata	Rhenanoperca minutus in esophagus, seeds in gut	Middle Eocene	Germany	Morlo (2004)	
Cariamiformes	Strigogyps sapea	preserves plant material in its crop and stomach or gut regions	Middle Eocene	Germany	Mayr and Richter (2011)	

		Cenozoic nonm	Cenozoic nonmarine consumulites	lites		
Higher level taxon	Taxon	Contents	Age	Location	References	Notes
Gruiformes	Salmila robusta	unidentified material	Middle Eocene	Germany	Mayr (2002)	
Coraciiformes	Primobucco frugilegus	fruits are preserved as stomach contents	Middle Eocene	Germany	Mayr et al. (2004)	
Coraciiformes	Eocoracias brachyptera	large bean-shaped seed, surrounded by grit	Middle Eocene	Germany	Mayr and Mourer- Chauviré (2000)	
Zygodactylidae	Primozygodactylus major	seeds, including Vitaceae	Middle Eocene	Germany	Mayr (2009)	
Coliiformes	Eoglaucidium pallas	Annonaceae seeds	Middle Eocene	Germany	Mayr and Peters (1998)	
	Masillacolius brevidactylus	large seed	Late Eocene	Germany	Mayr (2015)	
Galliformes	Palaeortyx cf. gallica	fibrous plant material in stomach and seeds in crop	Oligocene	Germany	Mayr et al. (2006)	
Colliiformes	Oligocolius psittacocephalon	fruitstones, six in crop, two in stomach	Late Oligocene	Germany	Mayr (2013)	
Aves incertae sedis	Pumiliornis tessellatus	gastrolite containing numerous pollen grains of an eudicotyledonous angiosperm also contains a few unidentifiable insect remains	Middle Eocene	Germany	Mayr and Wilde (2014)	earliest and first direct fossil evidence of bird feeding on flowers
Vertebrata	multiple taxa	various	Middle Eocene	Germany	Richter (1987, 1988, 1992)	

APPENDIX B

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Accretionary latrinite: Latrinite that results from accumulation due to physical, rather than biological, processes (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Accretionary purgolite: Purgolite that results from accumulation due to physical, rather than biological, processes (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Amphipolar: Spiral coprolite that preserves coils that extend for the majority of the length of the coprolite (>75%) in lateral view (Neumayer, 1904; Hunt and Lucas, 2012b; Figs. B.1-2).

Anisopolar: Non-spiral coprolite with terminations of different shapes (Thulborn, 1991) (Fig. B.3).

Aspirationalite: Consumulites that preserve prey in the oral cavity, with a significant portion extending exteriorly (this paper).

Anterior coil: The anterior end of a spiral coprolite consisting of a single, antero-posteriorly elongate coil (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b; Fig. B.1).

Bromalite: All trace fossils that represent food items that have entered the oral cavity and/or gastrointestinal tract of an animal and have been expelled (either anteriorly or posteriorly and either pre- or post-mortem) from, or retained within, them (Hunt, 1992).

Chiropteraguanolite: Guanolite produced by bats (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Coil: The external expression of the spiral, conular elements of a spiral coprolite (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b; Fig. B.1).

Cololite: Consumulite preserved in the gastrointestinal tract posterior to the stomach (sensu Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Consumulite: All fossilized digested food material preserved within the body cavity (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Coprolite: Fossil fecal material that has been ejected from the posterior end of the gastrointestinal tract (Buckland, 1829; Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Cropalite: Consumulite preserved contents in the crop (this paper).

Cumulite: Accumulation of organic or inorganic material concentrated by an organism (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Demalite: Skeletal material preserved within the body cavity

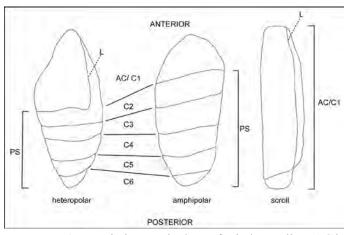


FIGURE B.1. Descriptive terminology of spiral coprolites. AC is anterior coil, C is coil, L is lip, PS is posterior spire (from Hunt and Lucas, 2012b, fig. 3).

of a vertebrate or invertebrate animal that does not pertain to it (could be consumulite, gignolite, artifact or not discernable) (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Dentalite: Traces produced on a substrate by the teeth or oral cavity of a vertebrate or invertebrate (Hunt et al., 2018).

Digestichnia: Ethological class that comprises all trace fossils (and their recent counterparts) originating from the digestive process of animals, including coprolites, regurgitalites and gastroliths (Vallon, 2012).

Digestilite: Fossil specimens that preserve evidence of digestion (this paper).

Dislocational evisceralite: Evisceralite in which a portion of the gastrointestinal tract is physically removed from a carcass (this paper).

Esophogalite: Consumulite preserved in the gastrointestinal tract anterior to the stomach (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Emetolite: Regurgitalite from animal that habitually egests pellets (Myrhvold, 2011).

Enterospira: Cololite preserved in a spiral valve (sensu Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Ethological latrinite: Latrinite that results from behavior of an organism (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Ethological purgolite: Purgolite that results from behavior of an organism (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Evisceralite: Cololite that is a preserved segment of infilled fossilized intestines preserved independent of, or exterior to, a carcass (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Excorporeal pelletite: Pelletite preserved outside body cavity, coprolite (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Gastrolith: Sand and/or gravel swallowed by an animal and retained in the digestive tract (this paper).

Gastrolite: Fossilized wholly or partially digested food material preserved in the stomach (Northwood, 2005).

Gignolite: Trace and body fossils related to reproduction (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Guanolite: Fossil guano deposit (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Heteropolar: Spiral coprolite with the coils concentrated at one end in lateral view (Neumayer (1904; Figs. B.1-2).

Incorporeal pelletite: Pelletite preserved within the body cavity (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Intestinelite: Cololite preserved within the body cavity (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

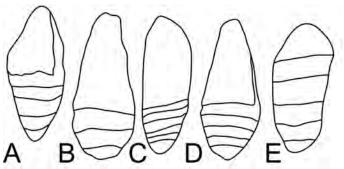


FIGURE B.2. Principal morphotypes of spiral coprolites: Macrospiral heteropolar (A), microspiral heteropolar (B-D) and amphipolar coprolites (E). A, *Liassocopros*. B, *Saurocopros*. C, *Malericopros*. D, *Heteropolacopros*. E, *Hyronocopros*. Not to scale (adapted from Hunt et al., 2007, fig. 6).

Isopolar: Non-spiral coprolite with terminations of the same shape (Thulborn, 1991).

Latrinite: An accumulation of coprolites (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Lip: An exposed edge of a flap on the anterior coil of a heteropolar coprolite (Jain, 1983; Fig. B.1).

Macrospiral: Heteropolar coprolite in which the posterior spire constitutes 50%-75% the length of the coprolite in lateral view (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b; Fig. B.2).

Microspiral: Heteropolar coprolite in which the posterior spire constitutes less than 50% of the length of the coprolite in lateral view (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b; Fig. B.2).

Micturalite: Trace fossil produced by interaction between liquid urine and substrate (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Mololite: From the Latin *molo* (to grind), for wear features on fossil teeth (this paper).

Mucro: Anterior end of an anisopolar coprolite that is tapered to a point (Thulborn, 1991; Fig. B.3).

Neotomalite: Fossil packrat midden (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Nest: Structure made by, or the place chosen by, an animal for spawning, breeding and/or laying eggs and sheltering young (Lucas and Hunt, 2006).

Oralite: Consumulite preserved wholly or partially within the oral cavity (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Ornithoguanolite: Guanolite produced by birds (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Pabulite: Fossilized food that never entered the digestive tract (Klug et al., 2021a).

Paleomidden: Fossilized mammalian midden (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Pelletite: Fossil fecal pellets preserved inside (incorporeal pelletite) or outside (excorporeal pelletite) the body cavity (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Pinnipedaguanolite: Guanolite produced by pinnipeds (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Posterior spire: The posterior segment of heteropolar coprolites that consists of a number of closely spaced coils (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b: Fig. B.1).

Postilite: Fossil site used repeatedly by an organism for defecation or urination to mark territory (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Preservational evisceralite: Evisceralite resulting from preferential fossilization of the gastrointestinal tract (this paper).

Proventrilite: Consumulite preserved in proventriculus (this paper).

Regurgitalite: Trace fossil that includes all manipulated or digested/partially digested food material egested via the oral cavity (Hunt, 1992).

Saccatalite: Fossil accumulation of dried liquid urine (Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

Scroll: Spiral coprolite with the structure of a rolled sheet of paper that consists essentially of a single coil (Hunt and Lucas, 2012b; Fig. B.1).

Segments: Discrete, longitudinal elements of a non-spiral coprolite (Hunt et al., 2012b; Fig. B.3).

Urolite: Fossil nonliquid urinary secretions (sensu Hunt and Lucas, 2012a).

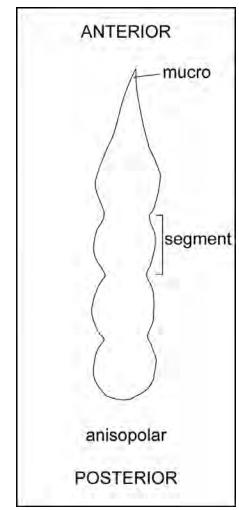


FIGURE B.3. Descriptive terminology of non-spiral coprolites (from Hunt and Lucas, 2012b, fig. 5).