

Chapter 10

The Mesozoic Vertebrate Radiation in Terrestrial Settings

Massimo Bernardi, Fabio Massimo Petti, Laura Piñuela, José Carlos García-Ramos, Marco Avanzini, and Martin G. Lockley

10.1 Introduction

Given their worldwide abundance, it is not surprising that the study of Mesozoic vertebrate tracks is the most ancient branch of vertebrate ichnology. Dinosaur tracks were first observed and figured by Native Americans by, if not before, the seventeenth century (Lockley et al. 2006a), and the first document dates back to the earliest nineteenth century when Pliny Moody reported the discovery of large tracks in the eastern U.S. With Edward Hitchcock (who would eventually coin the word “ichnology”), tracks began to be approached scientifically (e.g., Hitchcock 1858) and subsequent papers by Wolfgang Soergel (Soergel 1925), Othenio Abel (Abel 1935)

M. Bernardi (✉)

Department of Geology and Palaeontology, MUSE - Museo delle Scienze,
Corso del Lavoro e della Scienza 3, 38122 Trento, Italy

School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, Queen’s Road, Bristol BS8 1RJ, UK
e-mail: massimo.bernardi@muse.it

F.M. Petti

Department of Geology and Palaeontology, MUSE - Museo delle Scienze,
Corso del Lavoro e della Scienza 3, 38122 Trento, Italy

PaleoFactory, Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, Sapienza Università di Roma,
Piazzale Aldo Moro, 5, 00185 Rome, Italy

L. Piñuela • J.C. García-Ramos

Museo del Jurásico de Asturias [MUJA], Colunga, Asturias, España

M. Avanzini

Department of Geology and Palaeontology, MUSE - Museo delle Scienze,
Corso del Lavoro e della Scienza 3, 38122 Trento, Italy

M.G. Lockley

Dinosaur Tracks Research Group, University of Colorado Denver,
PO Box 173364, Denver, CO 80217-3364, USA

and Roland Bird (Bird 1939, 1944) brought consciousness and the first scientific methods into the discipline. Haubold (1971a, b) published two seminal papers which constituted the base of the first reliable track-trackmakers associations.

In the late twentieth century, the discovery of numerous and vast dinosaur tracksites contributed to the so-called “renaissance” in vertebrate ichnology (Lockley and Gillette 1987) and brought the first solid attempts to standardize study procedures (Leonardi 1987). With this new impetus the first ideas were put forward for using track data for paleobiologic (mainly behavioral and physiologic) studies (Lockley and Gillette 1987). This continued in the last two decades with the publication of several seminal volumes, especially on dinosaur tracks (Leonardi 1987, 1994; Gillette and Lockley 1989; Thulborn 1990; Lockley 1991; Lockley and Hunt 1995a; Lockley and Meyer 2000). In order to fully contribute to the paleobiology of dinosaurs, however, the long-standing debate of the relation between tracks and trackmakers needed to be addressed. No paleobiologic inference can in fact be drawn except by interpreting tracks as the result of the activity of a trackmaker, identified as belonging to a particular taxon. It is commonly assumed that tracks can rarely be accurately associated with their producers at the species or genus level (Farlow and Pianka 2000; Carrano and Wilson 2001). During its two centuries of history, however, vertebrate ichnology built a broad consensus on the assignment of some footprint morphogroups to broad taxonomic categories, based on clear analysis of the morphologies of digits, hands, and feet, and comparisons of tracks with hand and foot skeletons (e.g., Haubold 1971a, b; Demathieu and Demathieu 2004; Padian et al. 2010; Heckert et al. 2010) or, rarely, on the direct association of track and fossil material (e.g., Voigt et al. 2012). Most authors agree that a trackmaker attribution at a high taxonomic level is often possible (e.g., Baird 1980; Sarjeant 1990; Olsen et al. 2002; Carrano and Wilson 2001; Thulborn 2006), and in fact morphofamilies or ichnofamilies have been referred to in the literature since the early twentieth century (Lull 1904). In the 1980s, Demathieu and colleagues began to elaborate on the possibility of implementing tracks in phylogenetic studies (Demathieu 1981; Demathieu and Haubold 1978). Demathieu also pioneered the use of vertebrate tracks in many other areas of paleobiologic studies (Demathieu 1986); since then, a synapomorphy-based approach has been employed in a number of studies (Olsen 1995; Olsen and Baird 1986; Olsen et al. 1998; Wilson and Carrano 1999; Haubold and Klein 2000, 2002; Padian 2003; Wilson 2005; Wright 2005; Brusatte et al. 2010b; Kubo and Kubo 2012; Bernardi et al. 2015). This perspective has considerably constrained potential trackmakers finally allowing full hypothesis testing and a better integration of vertebrate ichnology in paleobiologic analysis.

10.2 Trends and Events During the Mesozoic

10.2.1 *Tetrapods Across the PT Boundary*

A track is the result of the activity of a producer, or trackmaker, namely a track is the imprint of an autopodium (a limb) registered during locomotion. The vertebrate track record can be thought as an archive of the evolution of foot morphology and

posture of extinct and extant vertebrates. Here we must also remember that tracks also record many details of soft tissue morphology, not revealed by body fossils, which in many cases may lack foot skeletons, even when other key diagnostic elements are present. When consecutive steps are impressed as an animal moves, in fact, a trackway is formed and its parameters (i.e., width, distance between single tracks, angle between tracks, distance of the tracks from midline, etc.) can be used to accurately define the walking posture of its producer. Assessing posture from a skeleton involves observing limb articular surfaces and manipulating (physically or virtually) bones at the hip, knee, and ankle in the hindlimb, and shoulder, elbow, and wrist in the forelimb. This procedure is time-consuming and necessitates good preservation of the joints, which is not often the case. On the contrary, basic trackway parameters, such as those listed here, can be easily measured in all kinds of trackways and are less dependent on substrate consistency and taphonomic deformation with respect to single-track descriptive measurements (i.e., interdigital angles). Furthermore, the track record is often much more abundant than the skeletal one, thus giving opportunities to statistically analyze the data.

Limb postures of tetrapods vary from sprawling to erect. An erect limb can be found within birds and cursorial mammals, where the limbs are held under the body and move in a parasagittal plane. On the other hand, a sprawling limb posture is seen in limbed squamates and all limbed amphibians, where the proximal limb segments are highly abducted and swing largely in a horizontal plane (Blob 2000). Posture can change during locomotion, a classic example being crocodiles which show a sprawling posture at low speeds and a semi-erect one when running (Zug 1974; Carpenter 2009). An erect limb posture is energetically advantageous over a sprawling limb posture, especially for large animals. Stresses over the knee and elbow joints are reduced and respiration is facilitated when the limbs are held vertical (Carrier 1987).

From skeletal studies, it is known that Late Permian tetrapods such as temnospondyl amphibians, pelycosaur, and pareiasaur were largely sprawlers (Carroll 1988; Benton 2005). Late Triassic faunas were instead dominated by erect forms such as dinosaurs and crurotarsan archosaurs (Nesbitt 2011). The postural transition from sprawling to erect between those times can be described by looking at skeletal remains, but these are scanty in the Early and Middle Triassic. Vertebrate ichnology has allowed a better understanding of this event, especially regarding the exact pattern, timing, and possible correlation with other events by studying fossil trackways.

A key study in this respect was developed by Kubo and Benton (2009). The authors used a classic, simple measure to distinguish sprawlers from erect walkers: the ratio of stride length to trackway width, indicated by the pace angulation (Peabody 1959). This is defined as the angle formed by three continuous front or hind footprints (Peabody 1959) (Fig. 10.1). Pace angulation is dependent on body size and speed, but limb posture is the key factor in determining pace angulation. As exemplified by neoichnologic studies, values lower than 107° , in fact, indicate the producer performed a sprawled locomotion while values greater than 138° indicate erect locomotion (Kubo and Benton 2009).

By analyzing a large dataset of Late Paleozoic to Early Mesozoic tetrapod trackways, the authors found a clear distinction between Permian and Triassic samples

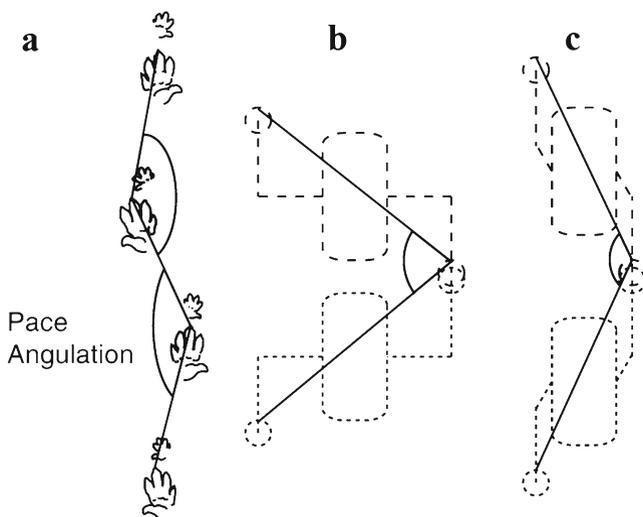


Fig. 10.1 Pace angulation, the angle formed by three consecutive footprints, can be used as a proxy for trackmaker's posture. Using the measuring method shown in (a), Kubo and Benton (2009) discovered that the shift from a sprawler posture (b) to a more erect one (c) occurred across the Permian-Triassic boundary, and may thus be related with the profound impact of the devastating mass extinction event. Modified from Kubo and Benton (2009)

when median values rise from 87.5° (Late Permian) to 139.5° (Early Triassic), whereas within those epochs no significant change in the distributions of pace angulation could be found. All tetrapods, whether synapsids or archosaurs, show the same postural shift across the Permo-Triassic boundary and once the posture had changed, there was no significant change in mean pace angulation through the Triassic. This shift was mostly caused by the increase in the number of chirotheriid trackways from the Early Triassic. The ichnofamily Chirotheriidae (Abel 1935) is a form family comprising the ichnogenera *Chirotherium* Kaup, 1835; *Brachychirotherium* Beurlen, 1950; *Isochirotherium* Haubold, 1971b; *Synaptichnium* Nopcsa, 1923; *Parasynaptichnium* Mietto, 1987, and *Protochirotherium* Fichter and Kunz, 2004. These have been consistently attributed to archosaurs, usually to crurotarsans (pseudosuchians) and basal archosauriforms (Krebs 1965; Haubold 1967, 1971a, 1971b, 1984, 1986, 1999; 2006; Lockley and Meyer 2000; Demathieu and Demathieu 2004; Gand et al. 2010; Bowden et al. 2010; Heckert et al. 2010; Lucas and Heckert 2011; Desojo et al. 2013; Bernardi et al. 2015) and show *manus* (fore foot) and *pes* (hind foot) imprints with a compact anterior digit group I–IV and a postero-laterally positioned, strongly reduced digit V, which are apomorphies of Archosauromorpha (Nesbitt 2011). Thus it is clear that archosaurs (and to a lesser extent, therapsids) were responsible for the high pace angulation of Triassic trackways. Footprints made by amphibians, procolophonids, and small basal diapsids indicate retained sprawling limb posture (Haubold 1971a, b). The abundance of trackways from the Permian up to the Triassic provides resolution that the rare skeletal fossil tetrapods of this age do

not. In addition to providing a description of the pattern of this event, dating indicates that the shift was accomplished already 6 myr after the profound Permo-Triassic mass extinction; this is considerably earlier than the 15–20 myr suggested by the study of locomotory evolution based on skeletal fossils (Charig 1972; Kemp 1982; Bonaparte 1984; Parrish 1987; Kubo and Benton 2009). The ichnologic record also supports a late Permian-Early Triassic radiation of archosauriforms not well documented by skeletal material. By analyzing several chirotheriid footprints from the upper Permian of the Southern Alps (Italy), Bernardi et al. (2015) showed that archosauriforms had already undergone substantial taxonomic diversification by the late Permian, widening the geographical distribution of this clade before and after the P-T boundary (Bernardi et al. 2015). Furthermore, analysis of body size, as deduced from track length, allowed formulating a new hypothesis on the response of archosauriforms to the end-Permian events, proposing that their body size did not change significantly from the late Permian to the Early Triassic (Bernardi et al. 2015).

10.2.2 The Origin of Dinosauromorphs

In vertebrate ichnology synapomorphy-based studies are still rare. However, it now appears possible to integrate this discipline into paleobiologic studies if rigorous descriptions are coupled by thoughtful character-based evaluation of potential trackmakers. When synapomorphic characters are found, potential trackmakers can be constrained considerably, allowing full hypothesis testing. More simply, each find that reveals new morphotypes of trackways or skeletal remains of limbs/feet showing apomorphic characters, helps constrain possible track-trackmaker correlations more accurately. Using this approach, tracks and trackways become “biologically informative” and can thus be of interest for paleobiologic analysis. The synapomorphy-based technique focuses on the identification of osteologic-derived character states in the tracks that result from the impression of corresponding (synapomorphic) characters in the autopodia of the trackmaker. These characters allow the recognition of a particular clade independent from the defined body-fossil distributions (see Olsen et al. 1998; Carrano and Wilson 2001; Wilson 2005). This approach has been applied only recently (e.g., Olsen 1995; Olsen and Baird 1986; Olsen et al. 1998; Wilson and Carrano 1999; Carrano and Wilson 2001; Haubold and Klein 2000, 2002; Padian 2003; Wilson 2005; Wright 2005; Brusatte et al. 2010b; Kubo and Kubo 2013; Bernardi et al. 2015).

The most recent advances in the understanding of the origin of dinosaur lineages are a good example of the potential for integrating ichnologic studies with cladistic approaches. The resulting contribution is that, conceived in this way, vertebrate ichnology can give to a deeper understanding of patterns and processes in the evolution of life. Dinosauromorpha is a clade including all taxa closer to dinosaurs than to the other main archosaur clades (i.e., pterosaurs and crocodylomorphs). Dinosauromorphs originated, and radiated in the Triassic, and several taxa are now known that vary in size, feeding, and locomotory features, and that were spread over

most of western Pangea (Langer et al. 2013). However, both the timing and pattern of the early radiation of this lineage are poorly understood (see Marsicano et al. 2015 for a recent update). The oldest known body fossils of dinosauromorphs are silesaurids, which are Anisian in age (Nesbitt et al. 2010; Peacock et al. 2011; Barrett et al. 2015). Silesaurids occupy a derived position within Dinosauromorpha (Ezcurra 2006; Nesbitt et al. 2010; Nesbitt 2011), and therefore imply the presence of other dinosauromorph groups such as lagerpetids, and non-silesaurid dinosauriformes before that time. No such Early Triassic groups are documented in the body fossil record. However, the Early Triassic archosaur track record is rich (see Klein and Haubold 2007 and references therein), raising the intriguing possibility that dinosauromorph tracks can be recognized among the diverse ichnoassociations. *Rotodactylus*, a common ichnogenus in the latest Olenekian–Ladinian worldwide (Peabody 1948; Gand and Demathieu 2005; Gand et al. 2005; Klein and Haubold 2007), has been long attributed to basal dinosauromorphs (Haubold 1999; Haubold and Klein 2002); however, a strict synapomorphy-based assessment was lacking. Recently, Brusatte et al. (2010a) presented a formal analysis corroborating this identification. *Rotodactylus*, in fact, possesses unequivocal features of dinosauromorphs, such as reduction of digits I and V and digitigrade posture. Moreover Brusatte et al. (2010a, see also; Niedźwiedzki et al. 2013), described a new ichnogenus named *Prorotodactylus*, discovered in the Early Triassic of Koszary and Stryczowice, Poland. *Prorotodactylus* can be assigned to Dinosauromorpha thanks to the presence of unequivocal synapomorphies such as the bunched metatarsus, reduction of digits I and V, the posterior deflection of digit V, and the manifest digitigrady. Brusatte et al. (2010a) suggested *Lagerpeton* as possible trackmaker, and although this is (Niedźwiedzki et al. 2013) or might be (Langer et al. 2013) the case, an attribution of *Prorotodactylus* to dinosauromorphs appears quite solid (Niedźwiedzki et al. 2013; but see Klein and Niedźwiedzki 2012). The nearly complete absence of autopodia in the skeletal record (with the notable exception of *Lagerpeton*, Sereno and Arcucci 1994) prevents an evaluation of digit ratios across other dinosauromorph taxa (see Langer et al. 2013 for a discussion) and enhance the importance of the above cited ichnotaxa in exploring the early history of this group. The synapomorphy-based identifications of *Rotodactylus* and *Prorotodactylus* shed new light on the debate over the posture of the earliest dinosauromorphs; both show that these early forms were much more digitigrade than any other closely related archosaurs and that they walked on all fours (Fig. 10.2b). The ichnogenus *Sphingopus*, which is found in numerous Olenekian to Middle Triassic sites all over the world (Klein and Haubold 2007), shares the apomorphic characters described in *Prorotodactylus*; however, the lack of associated manus imprints and high pace angulation indicates that the trackmaker was walking bipedally. Furthermore, *Sphingopus* is much larger than the other dinosauromorph tracks. The tendency toward a full tridactyl morphology, with digit III being the longest, suggest that *Sphingopus* isp. was produced by a dinosauromorph more derived than the *Prorotodactylus*/*Rotodactylus* trackmaker, and therefore suggests that bipedality was acquired and the trackmaker was closer to the origin of dinosaurs (Fig. 10.2c).

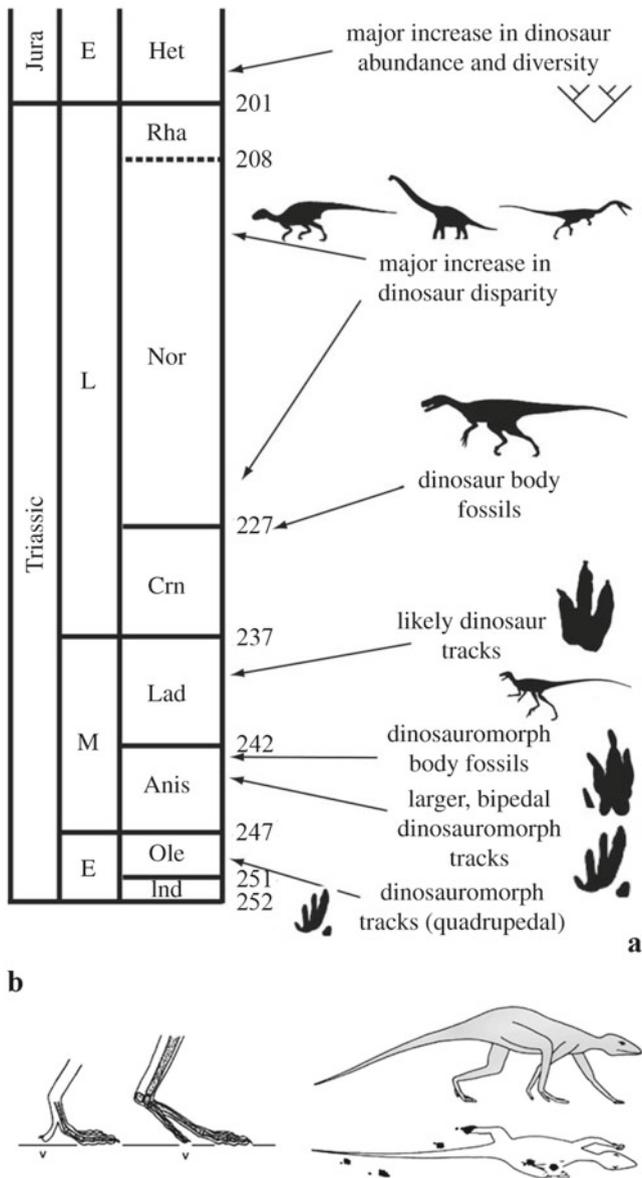


Fig. 10.2 Footprints attributed to dinosauromorphs and early dinosaurs can be integrated with skeletal data to build a general timeline of early dinosaur history. Footprints, as those described by Brusatte et al. (2010b), document the earliest phase of this radiation and predate timing of emergence of the various groups (a). (b) Shows a likely reconstruction of an early dinosauromorph as reconstructed on the base of *Rotodactylus* trackways. (a) Modified from Brusatte et al. (2010b), (b) modified from Haubold (1999) and Niedzwiedzki et al. (2013)

The stratigraphically successive records of *Prorotodactylus* and *Rotodactylus* documented by Brusatte et al. (2010a) show that changes in foot anatomy were occurring in dinosauromorphs during the Olenekian; the appearance of *Sphingopus* documents the evolutionary shift from quadrupedality to bipedality, and from small to large size, in the dinosaur lineage. Tracks, identified using synapomorphies, can thus provide new data on the timing and pattern of character acquisition during early dinosauromorph radiation (Fig. 10.2a). Such data are currently not visible in the body fossil record. Furthermore, being older than indicated by the skeletal record, tracks might indicate that the appearance of the dinosauromorph lineage can be linked with the Permian—Triassic mass extinction event (Brusatte et al. 2010a; Niedźwiedzki et al. 2013).

10.2.3 *The Origin and Early History of Dinosaurs*

The vertebrate track record can be used to make inferences about the spatial and temporal distribution of tetrapod taxa and can give reliable clues, although at a coarse taxonomic level, into tetrapod diversity. If parsimoniously interpreted, it can complement the skeletal record offering a “total evidence” approach to the study of evolutionary patterns and timing of events.

The study of early Mesozoic vertebrate terrestrial ecosystems is a lively field in both vertebrate paleontology and paleoichnology, mostly powered by the debates on dinosaur origins and their early history. The appearance of dinosaurs during the Triassic marked the onset of a faunal diversification that has dominated terrestrial ecosystems for almost 230 Myr (Brusatte et al. 2008a). As discussed, the possible contribution of track data to this and other taxon-based debates, depends on reliable identification of dinosaur trackmakers.

Triassic tridactyl prints are traditionally assigned to Dinosauria (see Lucas et al. 2006 and reference therein). Supposed dinosaur tracks are recognized on the base of few synapomorphies: (1) the prevalence of the digit II–IV group, (2) mesaxonic pattern of foot structure, (3) digit I reduced and shifted backwards (and thus often not preserved in tracks), and (4) tendency towards digitigrady (see also Thulborn 1990; Haubold 1999; Brusatte et al. 2010b). However, this morphotype cannot be unambiguously assigned to Dinosauria using apomorphy-based identifications; a functionally tridactyl pes is found also in some non-dinosaurian dinosauriforms (Gauthier 1986; Brinkman and Sues 1987; King and Benton 1996; Novas 1992; Carrano and Wilson 2001; Fraser et al. 2002; Dzik 2003; Marsicano et al. 2007; Nesbitt et al. 2007; Brusatte et al. 2010b). Furthermore, no synapomorphies of three-toed footprints can discriminate among theropods, basal saurischian, and basal ornithischian groups (Olsen et al. 1998). “Theropod-like” tracks can, however, be identified on the basis of the following characters: (1) asymmetry of the track with angle between digit III and II lower than III–IV, (2) digit III longer than IV > II, (3) sharp claw traces on all digits, and (4) tip of digit II turned inwards (Bernardi et al. 2013). Lockley (2001, 2007a, 2009) has also argued that narrowness and strong mesaxony distinguishes theropod tracks from those of tridactyl ornithischians. Nevertheless, no clear

synapomorphy can be described in tridactyl tracks to clearly distinguish between dinosaurian- and non-dinosaurian-dinosauriforms. All Triassic functionally tridactyl tracks with digitigrade pes produced by bipedal parasagittal posture should be loosely attributed to an archosaur on the dinosaur line. Some derived characters, such as those listed by Bernardi et al. (2013), can be used in support of an attribution to Dinosauria, but a “gray zone” will always exist.

Debates on dinosaur origin thus focus around three main topics: (1) timing of appearance, (2) pattern and pace of early diversification (body size and biogeography), and (3) dynamics of replacement of crurotarsan archosaurs by dinosaurs. If the first relies on new discoveries of older specimens and reliable dating of the dinosaur-bearing formations, the second refers to dinosaurs having experienced a rapid diversification or having a deeper origin (“slow fuse”) not documented (with the possible notable exception of Nesbitt et al. 2013) by current knowledge of the fossil record. The last needs data from mixed assemblages to test for habitat preferences and niche competition, and the in situ nature of footprints can be of great value in this respect.

10.2.3.1 Timing of Appearance

The exact timing of dinosaur origins remains unclear (Benton 1983; Brusatte et al. 2008a). The oldest record of dinosaurs based on skeletal remains is from the Carnian of Argentina (Benton 1983; Sereno and Arcucci 1994; Sereno 1999; Irmis et al. 2007; Brusatte et al. 2010b; Langer et al. 2010; Ezcurra 2010; Martinez et al. 2011), although Nesbitt et al. (2013) reported a possible earlier dinosaur from the Anisian of Tanzania. By the Carnian-Norian transition, all three major dinosaur lineages (Ornithischia, Sauropodomorpha, Theropoda) are documented (Brusatte et al. 2010b; Irmis et al. 2007; Langer et al. 2010). This forces researchers to focus mostly on the still poorly known Middle Triassic record. Furthermore, ghost lineages inferred from phylogenetic analyses predict that Dinosauria and its immediate stem lineage should be as old as the early Middle Triassic (Sereno and Arcucci 1994; Nesbitt et al. 2010).

Early Triassic tracks previously attributed to dinosaurs have been reconsidered as partially or badly preserved “chirotheroids” (King and Benton 1996; see also Cavin et al. 2012). Although track-bearing formations cannot be always confidently dated, functionally tridactyl footprints are documented in the Middle Triassic of France (Demathieu 1989; Lockley and Meyer 2000), Germany (Haubold and Klein 2000, 2002), Italy (Avanzini 2002), and Argentina (Marsicano et al. 2007 and references therein), and have been generally attributed to dinosauromorphs. Dinosaur tracks have been reported from the Middle Triassic Los Rastros Formation (Argentina) by Marsicano et al. (2004, 2007; see also Marsicano and Barredo 2004; Melchor and Valais 2006) but have been considered ambiguously identified by others (Langer et al. 2010; Irmis 2011). Therefore the ichnologic record, although failing to definitively prove a Middle Triassic origin for dinosaurs, clearly indicates the presence of a diverse fauna of dinosauromorphs with functionally tridactyl digitigrade pedes, and possibly true dinosaurs during the Middle Triassic (Fig. 10.3), a condition that the body-fossil record is only recently beginning to document (Nesbitt et al. 2013).

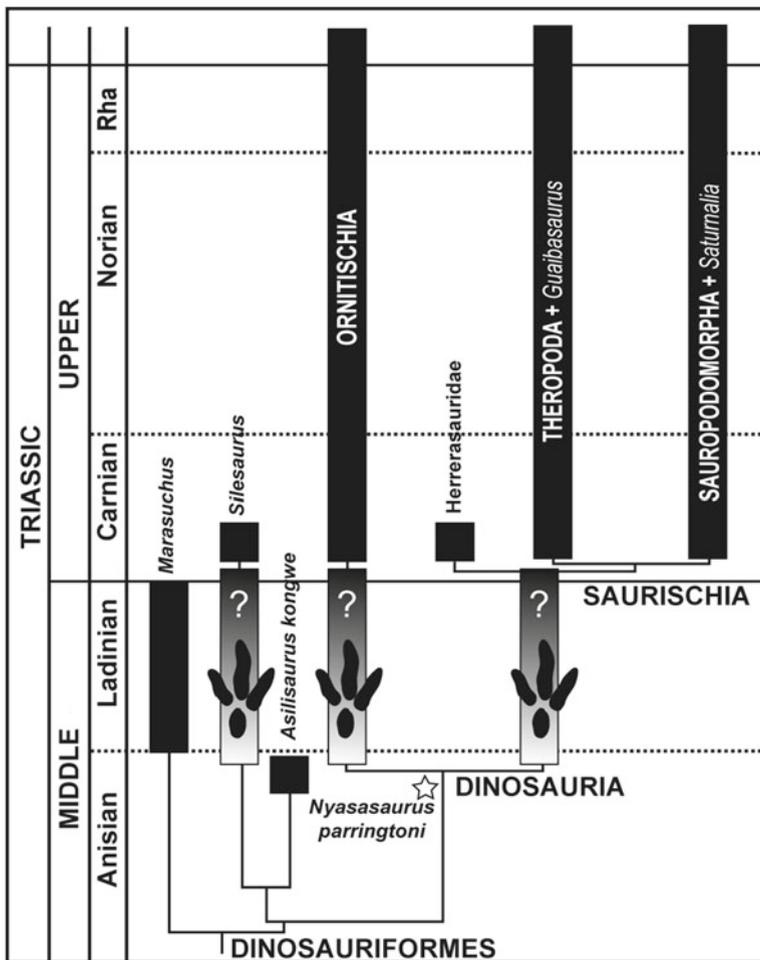


Fig. 10.3 A calibrated phylogeny of early dinosaurs and sister taxa based on both skeletal and ichnological data. The possible presence of dinosaurs in the Middle Triassic as testified by controversial footprints have recently received support from the description of *Nyasasaurus* which is considered either within, or sister-taxon of, Dinosauria. Modified from Marsicano et al. (2007) and Nesbitt et al. (2013)

10.2.3.2 Early Diversification

Although the first unequivocal dinosaur body fossils are known from the Carnian (Brusatte et al. 2010b; Langer et al. 2010; Nesbitt et al. 2013), Brusatte et al. (2008a, 2010b) demonstrated that dinosaurs increased their diversification and their morphologic disparity only from the Norian; dinosaurs experienced a burst of diversification only after the Triassic–Jurassic transition.

At the end of the Triassic the dinosaurs experienced an increase in maximum body size, later expressed as an increase in average body size (Sookias et al. 2012; Turner and Nesbitt 2013). Late Triassic tridactyl footprints are well known from USA, Europe, South America, Australia, and Africa (e.g., Tucker and Burchette 1977; Biron and Dutuit 1981; Mietto 1988; Olsen and Baird 1986; Thulborn 2000; Gatesy 2001; Knoll 2004; Milàn and Gierliński 2004; Weishampel et al. 2004; Lockley and Eisenberg 2006; Silva et al. 2007; Meyer et al. 2013). The Triassic record of large tridactyl tracks (e.g., Thulborn 2003; Bernardi et al. 2013; Meyer et al. 2013) has invalidated the hypothesis of Olsen et al. (2002) of a dramatic increase in size at the Triassic–Jurassic boundary. However, the increasing abundance toward the end of the Triassic of medium- and large-sized theropod tracks (*Eubrontes* and *Grallator* above all) marked a crucial phase in dinosaur history, when the main radiation or diversification of theropods and the evolution of large species got underway during the Late Triassic (Lockley and Hunt 1995a). Furthermore, if the attribution of the largest Late Triassic tracks is correct, the estimated body length, calculated according to Thulborn's (1990) equations ($h=3.06 \times FL^{1.14}$ and $L=4h$), would be more than 5 m. Their estimated body mass value, following Weems (2006), would have been about 200 kg (Bernardi et al. 2013). This size is not known from dinosaur skeletal remains of Carnian age (Benton 2006; Brusatte et al. 2010b) and is approximated only by the Norian theropod dinosaur *Liliensternus* (Cuny and Galton 1993; Lucas et al. 2006).

Tracks are also a valuable tool that gives us insight into the geographic distribution of the first dinosaurs. The earliest skeletal remains of dinosaurs are from southern Pangaea and the oldest possible dinosaur tracks are from Argentina. The earliest dinosaur from northern Pangaea has recently been dated as “middle” Norian of western North America (Nesbitt et al. 2009). This has led to the view that the major dinosaurian clades (Ornithischia, Sauropodomorpha, Theropoda) may have originated in southern Pangaea (Brusatte et al. 2010b; Langer et al. 2010). The paleogeographic importance of this distribution, however, is compromised by the absence of well-preserved skeletal remains of Carnian age from northern localities (northern Africa, Europe, North America) (Langer 2005; Nesbitt et al. 2007; Martinez et al. 2011). Tracks, however, indicate that dinosaurs were already present by the Late Carnian in northern Pangea (Bernardi et al. 2013, Fig. 10.4). With the exclusion of the possible earliest dinosaur *Nyasasaurus* (Nesbitt et al. 2013), this would imply a nearly contemporaneous appearance of dinosaurs on all of Pangea (Bernardi et al. 2013).

10.2.3.3 Dynamics of Replacement

In the past, the Late Triassic was described as the period when the faunas dominated by crurotarsan archosaurs were competitively replaced by those dominated by dinosaurs (Bakker 1972; Charig 1984). A growing consensus now suggests that dinosaurs were initially rare components of Triassic terrestrial ecosystems and that their ascent was gradual (Brusatte et al. 2008b). It was only after the Triassic–Jurassic transition that dinosaurs became dominant in terrestrial vertebrate ecosystems

small bipedal and tridactyl forms, possibly produced by “dinosaurian” trackmakers in the Carnian of North Carolina, while Cameron and Wood (2003, 2004) described a rich association composed of *Atreipus*, *Brachychirotherium*, *Grallator*, and *Rhynchosauroides* from the Carnian of Canada. Similar assemblages are ubiquitous in the western USA (Lockley and Hunt 1995a). Marsicano and Barredo (2004) reported the presence of crurotarsal archosaurs, dinosaurs (sauropodomorphs and theropods) and nonmammalian therapsids (small cynodonts and large dicynodonts). Nicosia and Loi (2003) described a rich Carnian ichnoassociation from Italy with crurotarsan and dinosaurian tracks. D’Orazi Porchetti et al. (2008) and Bernardi et al. (2013) document the co-occurrence of large- and middle-sized dinosaurs, dinosauriforms, and crurotarsans in the late Carnian (Tuvalian) of the southern Alps. Therefore, the record of ichnofaunal assemblages composed of large and small dinosaurs, dinosauriforms and non-dinosaurian archosaurs and their co-occurrence with dinosauriforms and crurotarsal archosaurs provides support to the non-abrupt replacement of the more archaic faunas by dinosaur-dominated ones. Furthermore, the co-occurrence of dinosaurs, dinosauriforms, and crurotarsal archosaurs in the Middle to Late Triassic (Ladinian to Late Carnian) documents a prolonged coexistence of different groups of archosaurs, even in the same environment. This provides support to the view of crurotarsan-dominated faunas being neither rapidly outcompeted nor quickly opportunistically replaced by dinosaurs, but rather substituted by a more gradual process of ecologic replacement (Irmis et al. 2007; Nesbitt et al. 2010; Brusatte et al. 2010b; Martinez et al. 2011).

10.2.4 A Look into Sauropod Paleobiology

One key feature of tracks that neatly distinguishes them from body fossils is that they cannot be transported post-mortem, in this case, “post-emplacement”. Tracks thus provide a direct indication of environmental and/or habitat preferences of the producer (Thulborn 1982; Lockley 1991; Wilson and Carrano 1999; Carrano and Wilson 2001). To better understand habits, locomotory attitudes or geographic distribution of particular groups, it is therefore useful to integrate body fossil findings with track data. A good example in this respect is provided by the sauropod dinosaur record.

Numerous studies of locomotory dynamics in this group attribute different footprint morphotypes to distinct trackmakers. Many authors (Farlow et al. 1989; Farlow 1992; Lockley et al. 1995a; Moratalla et al. 1995; Wilson and Carrano 1999; Lockley et al. 2002, 2005; Day et al. 2002a; Henderson 2002) have observed that sauropod trackways could be essentially subdivided into two broad categories: “narrow gauge” and “wide gauge” (Fig. 10.5). Sauropod trackways can also show (or lack) claw and phalangeal impressions in the manus (Farlow et al. 1989; Lockley et al. 1995a; Wilson and Carrano 1999; Day et al. 2004). “Wide-gauge” trackways are those in which manus and pes prints are well separated from the midline, and which frequently lack pollex claw impressions (e.g., *Brontopodus* Farlow et al. 1989); “Narrow gauge” trackways have manus and pes prints that approach or intersect the trackway midline, and have pollex claw impressions (e.g., *Parabrontopodus*

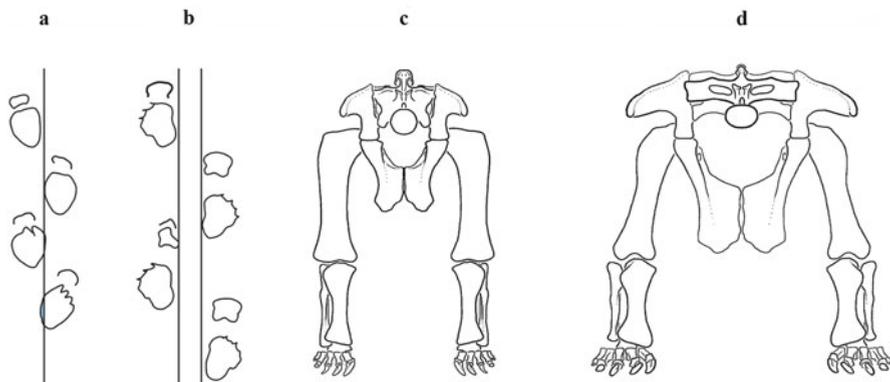


Fig. 10.5 Many authors (see text for discussion) have observed that sauropod trackways could be essentially subdivided into two broad categories: “narrow gauge” (a) and “wide gauge” (b). These reflect the postural difference between non-titanosaur (c, here represented by *Camarasaurus*—pelvic girdles and hindlimbs in anterior view) and titanosaur sauropods (d, here *Opisthocoelicaudia*). This inference allowed full integration of ichnological and skeletal data, which contributed to a better understanding of sauropod paleobiology. Modified from Lockley et al. (1995b), and Wilson and Carrano (1999)

Lockley et al. 1995a). Lockley (1999, 2001, 2007a) also argued that there is a positive correlation between narrow gauge and small manus forms, and between wide-gauge and large manus forms. Furthermore, large and small manus forms have been independently identified among the various chirotherian ichnotaxa (Lockley 2007a). Such differences in turn speak to changes in the position of the center of gravity in various archosaur clades.

Ichnologic investigations suggest that the transition from narrow- to wide-gauge occurred during the Kimmeridgian-Tithonian (Wilson and Carrano 1999). “Wide-gauge” trackways show a trend towards an increase of manus print dimensions through time. This feature and the age of “wide-gauge” trackways closely match the evolutionary trend seen in the sauropod body fossil record. Skeletal remains record a gradual shift of the center of gravity toward the front, with the consequent growth of the forelimbs in response to the greater weight they had to support. This evolutionary change coincides with the appearance of Titanosauriformes Salgado, Coria and Calvo 1997 (including Brachiosauridae Riggs 1904 and Titanosauria Bonaparte and Coria 1993) (Wilson 1995; Upchurch et al. 2004), animals that would have produced tracks with larger manus impressions. The lack of digital impressions in the manus ichnites of the “wide-gauge” trackways could also be referred to the appearance of Titanosauriformes; indeed both Brachiosauridae and Titanosauria are characterized by the progressive reduction and loss of phalanges and claws in the manus (Wilson and Sereno 1998; Upchurch et al. 2004; Apestegua 2005). In particular, Titanosauria probably walked only on the distal parts of their metacarpal bones (Salgado et al. 1997; Wilson and Sereno 1998). It is thus difficult to envisage digital or claw marks produced by individuals belonging to Titanosauriformes. Wilson and Carrano (1999) argued that hindlimb modifications, such as outwardly angled femora, offset knee

condyles, and a more eccentric femoral midshaft cross-section, could be responsible for wide-gauge tracks. All these features are synapomorphies of titanosaurs, and thus support the hypothesis that they were the producers of wide-gauge trackways. Temporal and geographic distribution of titanosaurs is coherent with this hypothesis; “wide-gauge” trackways predominate during the Cretaceous and are found worldwide. After Wilson and Carrano’s (1999) proposals, other studies have cast some doubt on this correlation. D’Emic (2012) suggested that some Late Jurassic non-titanosaurs might have femoral cross-sections similar to those of titanosaurs. Henderson (2006) proposed that all large sauropods (over 12.6 tonnes) would have been constrained to adopt a wide-gauge stance in order to maintain stability during locomotion; trackway gauge could also be influenced by the degree of lateral motion of the trackmaker (Carpenter 2009). Recent discovery of sauropod trackways from Switzerland, Morocco (both of Jurassic age), and Spain (Cretaceous age) show that single sauropod trackmakers were able to adopt both narrow and wide gauge as testified by the occurrence of differently spaced tracks along single trackways (Marty et al. 2010; Castanera et al. 2012a, b). Furthermore, wide-gauge trackways could have appeared more than once in sauropod evolution. Wide-gauge trackways are not exclusive to titanosauriform sauropods and caution must be applied ascribing a trackway to an ichnotaxon on the basis of this character (Castanera et al. 2012a, b).

Sauropod tracks have provided important clues for the understanding of the environmental preferences of this clade. Based on the analysis of a dataset of sauropod trackways, Lockley et al. (1995b) found a good correlation between sauropod tracksites and coastal environments, and noted that they are primarily associated with tropical and subtropical paleolatitudes (mean average Northern Hemisphere = 25°), and semi-arid or seasonal climatic carbonate depositional environments (lacustrine or marine carbonate platform). Butler and Barrett (2008) partially confirmed these results: the percentage of Cretaceous sauropod tracks in coastal environments is remarkable (32%) if compared with the contemporaneous sauropod body fossil record (7%). Nevertheless, statistic analysis of the ichnologic data does not indicate that sauropod trackways are overrepresented if compared to those of other herbivorous dinosaurs. In contrast, the body fossil record supports previous hypotheses of a preference for inland settings (e.g., Lehman 1987; Hunt et al. 1995a). However, it should be noted that these results might be hindered by preservational biases that are not yet fully understood (Mannion and Upchurch 2010). Using a new large data set of sauropod skeletal remains, Mannion and Upchurch (2010) found a significant positive association between non-titanosaurs and coastal environments, and between titanosaurs and inland environments. Their analysis of track records also highlighted a positive correlation between narrow-gauge trackways and coastal environments, and wide-gauge trackways and inland environments; this reinforced the hypothesis of Wilson and Carrano (1999) that wide-gauge trackways were produced by titanosaurs. The hypothesis of Mannion and Upchurch (2010) has been partially put into question by isolated findings of wide-gauge trackways preserved in coastal environments (e.g., Castanera et al. 2011).

10.2.5 Clues About Theropod Paleobiology

Most famously among track features, trackways allow estimation of speed (Alexander 1976, 1989; Thulborn 1981, 1990). In fact, debates about speeds attained by dinosaurs led to a revival of tetrapod ichnology (Alexander 1976; Lockley 1998). Early estimates of rapid progression of large dinosaurs were proposed in support of the idea that dinosaurs were highly active and possibly warm-blooded (Russell and Belland 1976; Czerkas and Olson 1987); however, later studies based on larger samples and updated formulae concluded that most medium- to large-sized theropods walked fairly slowly (Farlow 1981; Thulborn 1990). Estimates of the speeds of theropod dinosaurs are based on the formula of Alexander (as corrected by Thulborn 1990); speed (v , velocity) is calculated on the basis of stride length (SL) where $v \approx 0.25 g^{0.5} SL^{1.67} h^{-1.17}$, where hip height (h) of a trackmaker can be estimated from footprint length (FL): $h \approx 8.60 FL^{0.85}$ (Thulborn 1984; Thulborn and Wade 1984). This formula was successively slightly modified by Weems (2006) to estimate basal theropod dinosaur speeds ($v = 0.16 SL^2 h^{-1.5} g^{0.5}$). The same formula can be used for any bipedal dinosaurs (see Currie 1983, 1995), while no similar, reliable formulae are available for quadrupedal dinosaur taxa. Using musculoskeletal modeling and Computer Aided Engineering, Mallison (2011) questioned the validity of the Alexander formula to assess speed in dinosaurs without knowing the frequency of the stride. He suggested that speeds calculated from tracks should be better considered as the slowest speeds at which the animals moved.

Tracks and trackways have also been long used to establish dynamics of foot movement (Avanzini 1998; Gatesy et al. 1999; Gatesy 2001, 2003; Manning 2004; Milàn et al. 2004, 2006; Avanzini et al. 2012; Ellis and Gatesy 2013), locomotion (Alexander 1976, 1985, 1989; Thulborn 1981, 1990) and contributed in the debate about theropod posture (Lockley 1998). The high pace angulation exhibited by theropod trackways, for example, shows that theropods placed their hind feet close to, or on, the midline (Alexander 1976, 1985). This optimizes the efficiency by reducing the energy lost through lateral displacement of the center of gravity (Thulborn 1981, 1990), and is characteristic of a highly specialized locomotory control system. Lockley (2007a) regarded such narrow trackway configurations as a manifestation of an intrinsic morphodynamic organization in theropods. Furthermore, saurischians in general had narrow bodies, narrow feet, and other laterally compressed skeletal elements, although this contrasts with the wide-gauge trackway configurations and wide bodies and feet seen in derived saurischians such as the titanosaurs. Furthermore, Day et al. (2002b) showed that large theropods were able to change their speed instantaneously, highlighting their high maneuverability and balance control.

Theropod trackways do not typically include hand imprints, which is again an expression of a posterior center of gravity (Lockley 2007a). Only when the trunk was lowered toward a substrate, as in a crouched posture, could the hands potentially produce impressions. Crouching has been demonstrated by a few extraordinary discoveries of impressions of autopodia associated with metatarsals and pelvic girdle imprints. Milner et al. (2009) reported unambiguous theropod manus impressions associated

with a crouching trace that indicate the avian orientation of the manus (with a medially facing palm) evolved early within the history of Theropoda (see Gierliński et al. 2009 and references therein for further examples). The crouching trace was registered when the animal rested on the substrate in a posture similar to that of modern birds; the traces include well-defined impressions made by both hands, the ischial callosity, pedes, and the tail. This trace constitutes evidence that an Early Jurassic theropod expressed two bird-like features: anatomic restriction to a palms-medial manual posture, and symmetric leg positions while resting (Fig. 10.6). Inferences that theropods displayed behavior analogous to modern birds are intriguing but often too speculative. Recently discovered Cretaceous theropod tracks in Colorado provided extensive physical evidence of substrate scraping behavior by large theropods; they were considered as compelling evidence of “display arenas” or leks, and consistent with “nest scrape display” behavior among many extant ground-nesting birds (Lockley et al. 2016).

Another iconic example of the impact that ichnology has had on postural biomechanic reconstructions is the case of the orientations of dinosaur trunks and tails. Analysis of trackways have clearly shown that most dinosaurs walked with their tails carried well off the ground, so tail-drag traces are rare (Irby and Albright 2012; García-Ramos et al. 2004, 2006; Platt and Hasiotis 2008; Kim and Lockley 2013). The presence of tail traces, therefore, implies either a pathologic condition of the

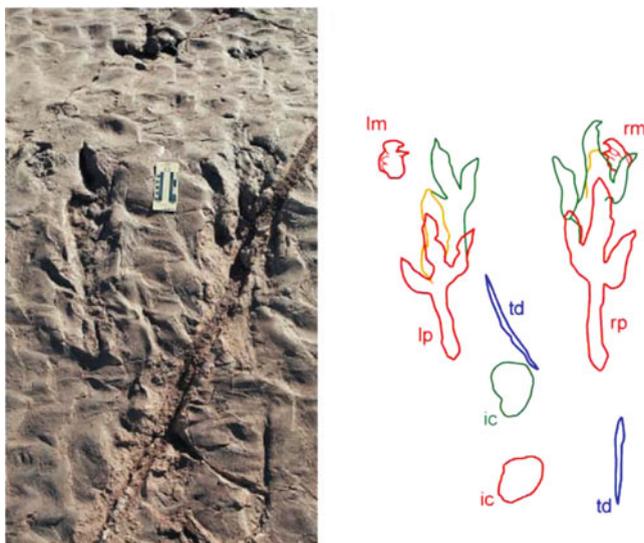


Fig. 10.6 Footprints provide clues to the individual behavior of trackmakers. These crouching traces described by Milner et al. (2009), for example, demonstrate that avian orientation of the manus, with medially facing palms, evolved by the Early Jurassic within Theropoda. Such conclusion would have never been reached on the base of skeletal record alone. Modified from Milner et al. (2009)

trackmaker or an atypical mode of locomotion because dinosaurs used their tails for balance on land (Galton 1970; Farlow et al. 2000; Fujita et al. 2012).

Tracks can also be used to assess the effects of traumas and illness in dinosaur bones and therefore the evolution of pathologic behavior. Tracks and trackways indicative of pathologies (e.g., fractures in pedal phalanxes) are relatively frequent, especially in middle to large-sized theropods (Tanke and Rothschild 1997, 2002; Rothschild et al. 2001; Rothschild and Tanke 2005). Many of the trackways described refer to large carnivorous dinosaurs that show missing or curled digits (Lockley 1991; Tanke and Rothschild 1997). Footprint and trackway evidence of limping theropods (Ishigaki 1986; Dantas et al. 1994; Lockley et al. 1994b) suggests injury or arthritis. Foot pathologies in large bipedal dinosaurs however have also been used to infer more active life-styles or natural fragility of the narrow, protruding digits (Laws 1997; Tanke and Rothschild 1997). For other good examples of pathologic tracks, see Abel (1935), Thulborn (1990) and Avanzini et al. (2005).

Tracks have also helped unveil another aspect of dinosaur behavior: their ability to swim. No skeletal remains can help addressing this question, and tracks attributable to swimming theropods have been reported, among others, by Coombs (1980), Milner et al. (2006), Ezquerro et al. (2007) and Xing et al. (2013a) (similar reports are available also for other dinosaur taxa; e.g., Currie 1983; Fujita et al. 2012). Theropods could float, as demonstrated by clawing traces left in the sediment as they swam (Ezquerro et al. 2007); the trackway shows that this theropod used a pelvic paddle motion, i.e. they were powered by alternating movements of the two hind limbs, like in living aquatic birds, and swam with amplified asymmetric walking movements to maintain its direction while swimming perpendicular to a water current (Ezquerro et al. 2007). The track record, therefore, has shown that dinosaurs (mostly theropods) colonized areas that included aquatic environments and were therefore probably able to swim.

10.2.6 Evidence for Gregariousness

Gregariousness is a form of social interaction between individuals that probably evolved to increase the fitness of single individuals within a group (Alexander 1974). Gregariousness allows greater defense of individuals from predators, increases effective access to food, efficiency of breeding, effective migration, and enhances the probability of safely raising the young (Currie and Eberth 2010). In order to maintain group cohesion, individuals within a group must synchronize their behavior in terms of time spent resting, foraging, and moving (Conradt 1998).

Tracksites, together with nesting sites, provide some of the most reliable proof about the gregariousness in extinct animals, in particular among dinosaurs (Ostrom 1972; Currie 1983; Lockley et al. 1986; Farlow et al. 1989; Horner and Gorman 1990; Carpenter 1999). Fossil trackways made by multiple individual animals can provide important qualitative and quantitative information about their social behavior.

Evidence for gregariousness in dinosaurs is difficult to gain from the body fossil record, and only bone bed assemblages may reflect such group behavior. Bone beds are concentration of bones in a localized area or stratigraphically limited sedimentary unit, in which the bones belong to more than one individual (see Rogers et al. 2007 for more details). Significant work on bone beds assemblages has provided compelling evidence on the gregarious habits of some ornithischian dinosaurs and the coexistence of multispecific individuals in the same habitat (Rogers 1990; Varricchio and Horner 1993; Mathews et al. 2009; Zhao et al. 2007).

In the study of dinosaur tracks, gregariousness may be deduced by the recognition of some peculiar features, primarily by the occurrence of multiple parallel trackways, exhibiting a preferring directionality (Ostrom 1972; Currie 1983; Lockley 1991). However, there is no arbitrary minimum number of adjacent parallel trackways for indicating gregarious behavior (Lockley and Matsukawa 1999). The presence of many parallel trackways does not necessarily constitute proof of a herding behavior, and data should be critically examined: trackways could have been made by animals that have walked alone at different times, and selected the same direction for the presence of a physical constraint, such as narrow river valley, shoreline, or the banks of a river (e.g., Ostrom 1972). Depths of the tracks in each trackway must be taken into consideration; similar-sized dinosaurs, walking contemporaneously on a substrate characterized by similar physical properties, probably produced parallel trackways with comparable depths. By contrast, parallel trackways with different track depths suggest that the animals walked on that substrate at different times, perhaps months, days, or even years later one from the other. A useful parameter to recognize gregariousness from track data is the intertrackway spacing (i.e., an index of regularity of spacing between parallel trackways; Lockley 1989; Lockley et al. 1998). In recent years, several trackways characterized by regular intertrackway spacing have been reported (Lockley et al. 1986, 2006b; Farlow et al. 1989; Lim et al. 1989; Li et al. 2008), suggesting animals that walked shoulder to shoulder, and thereby substantiating the hypothesis of their social behavior. Parallel trackways curving or swerving in unison could also provide evidence of herd habits among the trackmakers (Lockley and Hunt 1995a, b; Lockley and Matsukawa 1999).

Such ichnologic evidence for gregarious behavior in dinosaurs has been reported from Jurassic and Cretaceous sites in North America (Currie 1983, 1995; Lockley et al. 1983, 1986, 1992a, 1998; Farlow 1987; Farlow et al. 1989; Pittman and Gillette 1989; Hawthorne 1990; Carpenter 1992; Barnes and Lockley 1995; Lockley and Hunt 1995a, b; Cotton et al. 1998; Kvale et al. 2001; Schumacher 2003; Myers and Fiorillo 2009), South America (Leonardi 1989; Lockley et al. 2002; Fig. 10.7), East Asia (Lim et al. 1989; Matsukawa et al. 1997, 2001, 2005; Lockley et al. 2002, 2006b, 2012a, b; Hwang et al. 2004; Li et al. 2008; Xing et al. 2013a), Europe (Kaeffer and Lapparent 1974; Delair 1981; Agirrezabala et al. 1985; Viera and Torres 1992; Lockley et al. 1995c; Moratalla et al. 1997; Day et al. 2002a, 2004; Piñuela et al. 2002; Pérez-Lorente 2003; García-Ramos et al. 2004; Clark et al. 2005; Vila et al. 2008; Castanera et al. 2011, 2013, 2014; García-Ortiz and Pérez-Lorente 2014), Africa (Lingham-Soliar et al. 2003) and Australia (Thulborn and Wade 1979, 1984).

Fig. 10.7 Footprints provide clues on the social behavior of dinosaurs. Here spectacular parallel trackways at the Humaca dinosaur tracksite (Chuquisaca, Bolivia) interpreted as evidence of gregarious behavior by Lockley et al. (2002). Direction of progression is towards the *right* of picture. From Lockley et al. (2002)



Evidence suggests that large herbivorous dinosaurs, especially sauropods and ornithomorphs often traveled in herds, and that both groups acquired gregarious tendencies early in their histories (see Lockley and Matsukawa 1999 and Myers and Fiorillo 2009 and references therein). Sauropod trackways indicate groups of 40 or more individuals (Day et al. 2002a, 2004) and show either mixed-age or are age-segregated ichnologic assemblages (Lockley et al. 1986, 1995c, 2002; Castanera et al. 2011). The co-occurrence of adult and juvenile trackways may suggest protracted parental care far beyond the hatchling stage of development; groups of small-sized trackways may be interpreted as herds of juveniles or (as in the case of archipelago paleoenvironments) as the presence of dwarfed populations (Benton et al. 2010). Few tracksites exhibit parallel trackways of different species or groups (e.g., Day et al. 2002a, 2004).

Much evidence of possible social behavior in other groups of herbivorous dinosaurs, such as ankyosaurs (McCrea and Currie 1998; McCrea 2000) and ceratopsians (Lockley and Hunt 1995b) has now also accumulated. Evidence of gregariousness in carnivorous dinosaur trackways, particularly non-avian theropods, is less common than in other groups of dinosaurs, and the interpretations of such evidence remain more controversial. Some researchers support this hypothesis (Lockley and Matsukawa 1999; Carvalho and Pedrão 2000; Smith et al. 2002; Lingham-Soliar et al. 2003; Clark et al. 2005; Barco et al. 2006; Li et al. 2008; Currie and Eberth 2010; McCrea et al. 2014) while others prefer to consider track-

way data as coincidental instances of normally solitary individuals converging on a common point (e.g., food source, Roach and Brinkman 2007).

10.2.7 *On the Tracks of Birds*

Birds are among the most diversified and thoroughly analyzed vertebrate groups, but both their origin and evolution remain controversial. The skeletal record of birds is strongly biased by the nature of bones that, in this group, are mostly small and delicate so that limbs are commonly lost in taphonomic decay processes (Davis and Briggs 1998; Brand et al. 2003). This makes the bird fossil record highly incomplete, and only a multidisciplinary approach, including paleornithology, paleoichnology, and molecular studies, can help in the understanding avian origins and radiation.

The skeletal record indicates an initial avian radiation around the Jurassic-Cretaceous boundary (about 145 million years ago) and an early Paleogene diversification for modern birds (Neornithes) (e.g., Clarke et al. 2005; Dyke and Kaiser 2011; Brocklehurst et al. 2012; Ksepka and Boyd 2012). Molecular studies and recent combined molecular and morphologic analyses, instead, indicate that modern birds began radiating in the Early Cretaceous (Cooper and Penny 1997; Haddrath and Baker 2012; Jetz et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2014).

Tracks similar to those of modern birds (i.e., shorebirds, small ducks, small herons, roadrunners) are only 15-20 million younger than the oldest avian skeletal remains, which is in agreement with molecular data (Brown et al. 2008). In contrast, the oldest body-fossil records of anseriforms and possibly charadriiforms date to the latest Cretaceous (ca. 70 million years ago), and are even younger for ciconiiforms and cuculiforms (Lockley and Harris 2010; Fig. 10.8). This could be explained through the following two hypotheses: (1) pre-latest Cretaceous occurrence of neornithians, implying that the body fossil record is strongly biased toward the preservation of non-neornithian birds, or (2) neornithians converged in foot morphology with their non-neornithian, Cretaceous ancestors. The latter appears more parsimonious suggesting that convergent evolutionary programs, in similar niches and at different periods, produced not only similar pedal morphologies but also similar size (Lockley and Harris 2010).

Feeding behavior has been also inferred from different fossil bird tracks by comparing them with traces characteristic of modern birds. For example several *Ignotornis* trackways exhibit reduced pace length, interpreted as a type of “foot stirring” behavior characteristic of modern herons “stirring” up the substrate for feeding (Lockley et al. 2008, 2009). The most noticeable example of feeding behavior was reported from the Cretaceous of Korea (Lockley and Harris 2010; Lockley et al. 2012a; Kim et al. 2012). Traces consist of sets of fine, zigzag, arcuate to semi-circular grooves that “sweep” back and forth across the trackway, indistinguishable from those of modern spoonbills (Swennen and Yu 2005). But spoonbills are not recorded in the Cretaceous fossil record, and no spoonbill morphology is known in any Cretaceous bird. The ichnologic record thus adds new data to the Cretaceous avian diversity.

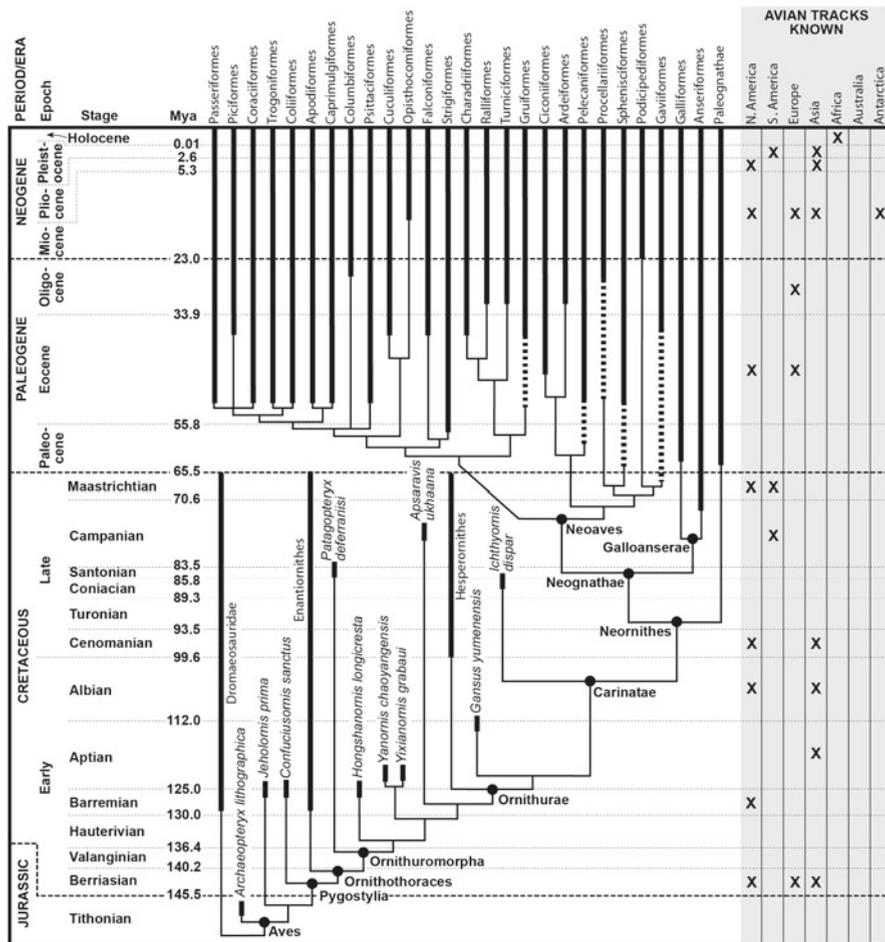


Fig. 10.8 Paleornithology and avian paleoichnology provide complementary data on the evolution of birds. This cladogram superimposed on geologic time scale shows both taxon ranges based on skeletal data and associated footprint occurrences. See text for discussion. Modified from Lockley and Harris (2010)

The primary Mesozoic bird tracksites were recently reviewed by Lockley and Harris (2010) but there are new findings reported every year (Falk et al. 2010, 2014; Falk 2011; Fiorillo et al. 2011; Xing et al. 2011, 2013b; Contessi and Fanti 2012; Huh et al. 2012; Kim et al. 2012; Lockley et al. 2012c, d; Azuma et al. 2013; Martin et al. 2014). Most fossil bird tracks exhibit sizes and morphologies similar to those of extant shorebirds and water-birds (Greben and Lockley 1992), and are generally associated with lake basin, fluvial floodplain, coastal plain, and marine shoreline deposits (Lockley and Harris 2010). This bias is strictly related to the physical properties of these environments that apparently facilitate the registration and preservation of tracks, and the creation of

what has been called the shorebird ichnofacies (Lockley et al. 1994a; Lockley 2007b). Tracks of birds with feet adapted for perching, such as songbirds or raptors, have much less chance to be produced and preserved; the same happens with birds that live in environments where the burial and preservation of tracks is less frequent or improbable (mountain, forest, open marine, etc.). Even though there are many avian skeletal and track fossils, the two records do not match each other and few footprints were probably produced by the feet represented by the skeletal remains (Lockley and Harris 2010). This mismatch and all the previously mentioned data strongly indicate that morphologies and behaviors of many modern birds actually evolved convergently with many of their extinct, Mesozoic relatives. A striking example is provided by the discovery of an Early Cretaceous (Aptian-Albian 120–110 Ma) trackway: *Shandongornipes muxiai* (Li et al. 2005). This discovery shows the evolution of a terrestrial, zygodactylous bird that is unknown in the body fossil record; it probably occupied a roadrunner-like niche indicating evolutionary convergence of an early Cretaceous bird with the locomotory habits and possible ecology of modern birds (see Lockley et al. 2007).

The majority of the fossil bird tracksites discovered to date are in East Asia, primarily in China and South Korea (Azuma et al. 2002, 2013; Li et al. 2002; Kim et al. 2006, 2012; Lockley et al. 2006b, 2007, 2009, 2012c, d; Xing et al. 2011, 2013b; Contessi and Fanti 2012; Huh et al. 2012; He et al. 2013; Falk et al. 2014). The high frequency could be related to the abundance of lake deposits in these regions, but the contemporaneous Chinese and North Korean skeletal records are also very rich in birds. The complementary evidence thus indicates that the distribution pattern may reflect a true center of avian radiation (Lockley and Harris 2010).

10.2.8 Pterosaur Locomotion

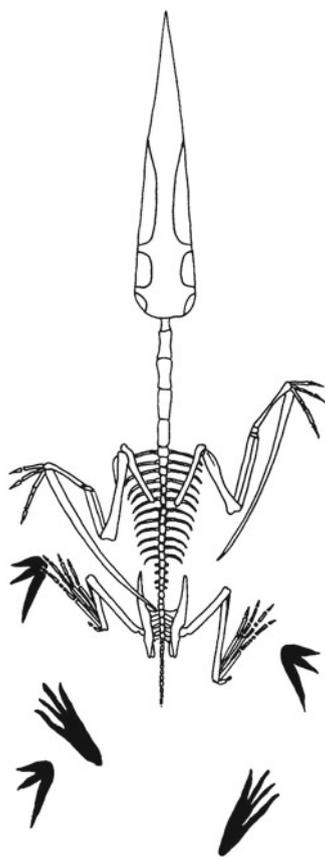
Pterosaurs are the earliest known vertebrates to have evolved powered flight. These winged reptiles first appeared in the Late Triassic and went extinct at the end of the Cretaceous period (Buffetaut and Mazin 2003). Since their first discovery, there has been considerable debate over their terrestrial locomotor capabilities, in particular whether they walked bipedally (Cuvier 1809) or quadrupedally with their hindlimbs splayed (Soemmerring 1812, 1817). Some eminent paleontologists considered that pterosaurs were unable to walk (Abel 1925) or were bad walkers with their hindlimbs unsuitable for a quadrupedal gait (Wellnhofer 1978). The hypothesis that pterosaurs were digitigrade bipeds with an erect stance was supported and argued with phylogenetic and osteologic analysis by Padian (1983, 1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1991), Padian and Rayner (1993), Paul (1987) and Bennett (1990). In contrast, several researchers, on the basis of osteologic arguments, claim that pterosaurs were quadrupedal plantigrades, with semi-erect or possibly even sprawling stances (Pennycuik 1986; Unwin 1987, 1989; Wellnhofer and Vahldiek 1986; Wellnhofer 1988, 1991a, b).

As was the case for other extinct track-making animals, ichnology provided unequivocal evidence in resolving this long-standing dispute. Already in 1957 Stokes described a short trackway composed of tridactyl manus and tetradactyl pes prints

(Stokes 1957). He instituted the new ichnotaxon *Pteraichnus saltwashensis* that he identified as produced by a quadrupedal pterodactyloid pterosaur. This attribution was endorsed by subsequent findings (Stokes 1978; Wellnhofer 1978; Stokes and Madsen 1979), but was strongly opposed by Padian and Olsen (1984) who proposed they were made by a crocodylian trackmaker. *Pteraichnus* was no longer considered a pterosaur ichnotaxon (Unwin 1986, 1989; Prince and Lockley 1989; Lockley 1991; Wellnhofer 1991a; Bennett 1992). New discoveries provided new information (Logue 1994; Hunt et al. 1995b; Lockley and Hunt 1995a) and Mazin et al. (1995) and Lockley et al. (1995d) independently demonstrated that *Pteraichnus* could be attributed to pterosaurs (Fig. 10.9). To date, this interpretation is accepted by most pterosaur researchers (Lockley et al. 1996, 1997; Bennett 1997; Mazin et al. 1997, 2001; Unwin 1997a, b, 2006; Wright et al. 1997; Kubo 2008; Witton 2013). Ichology therefore provided definitive evidence that pterosaurs walked on all fours.

These studies also demonstrated that at low-velocity walking, the body was held upright, with the forelimbs held more vertically and the *mani* brought close to the axis of the trackway, so they could not be starched much forward. Conversely, at

Fig. 10.9 Fossil trackways attributed to pterosaurs provided exceptional insight into the functional morphology and behavior of these flying reptiles. Furthermore, they solved the long-standing debate over pterosaur terrestrial locomotion. The tracks called *Pteraichnus* show that pterosaurs employed a plantigrade, quadrupedal stance and gait with the hind limb partially—to fully—abducted. From Unwin (1996)



higher velocities, the body was held less erect (possibly subhorizontally) allowing the long forelimbs to reach a more distant anterior point (Mazin et al. 2001). Trackways were also useful to infer the landing behavior of pterosaurs, which like modern birds used their wings to stall before landing (Mazin et al. 2009).

Pterosaur tracks are abundant in the Upper Jurassic rocks of Arizona, Colorado, Oklahoma, Utah and Wyoming (Stokes 1957; Lockley et al. 1995d, 1996; Lockley and Wright 2003; Lockley et al. 2008), France (Mazin et al. 1997, 2003, 2009; Billon-Bruyat and Mazin 2003), Poland (Pienkowski and Niedzwiedzki 2005), and Spain (García-Ramos et al. 2000, 2002, 2006; Meijide Calvo and Fuentes Vidarte 2001; Fuentes Vidarte et al. 2004a, b; Sánchez-Hernández et al. 2009). Tracks of Cretaceous age are much larger than those of the Late Jurassic, which agrees with body size trends of skeletal remains (Buffetaut and Mazin 2003). Large body size in this group can have evolved as early as Late Jurassic as testified by abundant footprints from Spain (García-Ramos et al. 2000, 2002, 2006) and few skeletal remains from Switzerland (Meyer and Hunt 1999). Pterosaur tracks have been reported from the Lower Cretaceous of China (Li et al. 2002; Zhang et al. 2006; Xing et al. 2013b, c), England (Delair 1963, reinterpreted by Wright et al. 1997), Germany (Hornung and Reich 2013), Japan (Lee et al. 2010), South Korea (Kim et al. 2006; Lee et al. 2008), Spain (Pascual Arribas and Sanz Pérez 2000; Meijide Calvo 2001; Fuentes Vidarte 2001; Hernández Medrano et al. 2006; Moratalla and Hernán 2009; Sánchez-Hernández et al. 2009), and USA (Maryland; Lockley and Rainforth 2002). In the Upper Cretaceous, they are known from Argentina (Calvo and Lockley 2001), Mexico (Rodríguez de la Rosa 2003), South Korea (Lockley et al. 1997; Hwang et al. 2002) and USA (Colorado, Lockley and Rainforth 2002; Utah, Lockley et al. 1995d). Upper Cretaceous Korean tracks, known as *Haenamichnus*, are the largest pterodactyloid tracks (up to 33 cm) and were made by a trackmaker not yet known from the body fossil record.

Pterosaur tracks have been also used as an indicator of body mass. Kubo (2011) tried to correlate the foot area with weight. He used seven ichnospecies of pterosaur tracks and estimated body weights of pterosaurs as ranging from 110 to 145 kg. This result indicates that large pterosaurs were ten times heavier than the heaviest modern birds.

The pterosaur track record provides evidence about the preferred environments and behaviors of these flying reptiles. Most Upper Jurassic pterosaur tracks are found in marginal marine, carbonate, and clastic-evaporitic lagoonal deposits whereas Cretaceous tracksites are associated with fluvial and freshwater deposits (Lockley and Rainforth 2002). The Late Jurassic record is consistent with the hypothesis, inferred also through the body fossil record, that pterosaurs inhabited marine shoreline habitats. This view is further corroborated by the discoveries of “swimming” and “feeding traces” (García-Ramos et al. 2000, 2002, 2006; Lockley and Wright 2003; Witton 2013; Lockley et al. 2014). They consist of scrape marks that are interpreted as traces produced by

padding limbs, a random distribution of tracks without evidence of trackways, and small circular paired depressions left in the substrate by beak prods of pterosaurs in search of food. This evidence reveals that pterosaurs could probably swim, or at least float on the surface of the water, like modern seabirds (Witton 2013; Hone and Henderson 2014; Li et al. 2015).

10.3 Conclusions

By applying rigorous analytic methods, which allow full hypothesis testing, vertebrate ichnology can provide reliable information about paleobiology (documenting evolutionary patterns, tempo of evolution, locomotion, posture, size, speed, social and individual behavior), paleobiodiversity (indicating the presence of taxa undocumented by the skeletal record), paleoecology (giving hints on environmental/habitat preferences and faunal composition) and paleobiogeography (providing presence/absence data on geographic distribution) of trackmakers, vertebrate ichnology is finally sitting at the “high table” of paleobiology.

In this review of Mesozoic reptile tracks some milestones of paleoichnologic research have been evaluated with the aim of highlighting the potential of these studies in contributing to the knowledge of evolutionary history and coevolution on the changing Earth. We have shown that vertebrate track record can be used to study the evolution of posture. Studies of the Permian to Triassic tetrapod-track record documents the appearance of upright stance in reptiles and shows a previously hidden correlation between this event and the Permo-Triassic mass extinction. Using synapomorphic characters in tracks has been essential in developing the present understanding of the origin of the dinosauro-morph clade. Tracks show that the most basal dinosauro-morphs were quadrupedal and that bipedalism was acquired phylogenetically closer to the origin of dinosaurs. An earlier origin of dinosauro-morphs might imply a possible link with the Permo-Triassic mass extinction. The ichnologic record can be used to make hypotheses about the spatial and temporal distribution of basal dinosaurs. Tracks indicate the presence of a diverse and widespread fauna of dinosaurs during the early Late Triassic both in Laurasia and Gondwana, a distribution not yet documented by the body-fossil record. Track records provide evidence that habitats were shared by dinosaurian and non-dinosaurian archosaurs in the Late Triassic, and support the hypothesis that crurotarsan-dominated faunas were replaced by dinosaurs through a gradual process of ecologic replacement. Combined analyses of body and track fossils provide insights in the understanding of both environmental preferences and evolution of locomotory mechanisms in sauropod dinosaurs. Ichnologic data reveals the inland preference of wide-gauge titanosaurs highlighting the importance of considering track data in ecologic analysis. Trackways are used to estimate the speeds of trackmakers and provide clues to individual behaviors of theropod dinosaurs. Empiric formulae derived from extant animals constitute the basis of these interpretations, and show that theropods primarily used walking gaits, although some were runners, and there are a few records

of individuals using trotting gaits. Crouching traces demonstrate that the avian orientation of the manus, with a medially facing palm, had evolved by the Early Jurassic within Theropoda. Footprints provide clues on social behavior in dinosaurs. Many sites have shown that herbivorous dinosaurs were at times gregarious. Carnivorous non-avian theropods were sometimes gregarious although interpretations are more controversial. A strong link between paleornithology and avian paleoichnology illuminates aspects of avian evolution, particularly with regard to paleoenvironmental preferences. Ichnology is particularly relevant when studying shorebirds evolution, given the completeness of the track record for this group. Footprints are crucial to understand pterosaur terrestrial locomotion and stance, to estimate body mass, and to learn about their physiology and behavior (swimming, feeding, landing).

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