

1 INFERRED BITE MARKS ON A LATE CRETACEOUS (SANTONIAN)
2 BOTHREMYDID TURTLE AND A HYLAEOCHAMPSID CROCODYLIAN FROM
3 HUNGARY

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20 **Abstract**

21

22 The Iharkút vertebrate locality, an open-pit mine in the Bakony Mountains (western
23 Hungary), has provided a rich and diverse assemblage of Late Cretaceous (Santonian) fossils
24 in the last 13 years. Here we present two fossil specimens of this assemblage, a plate fragment
25 of the bothremydid turtle *Foxemys trabanti*, and a partial skull roof of the hylaeochampsid
26 crocodylian *Iharkutosuchus makadii*, that exhibit pathological traits on their surface. These
27 pathologies can be described as shallow and deep pits, bisected pits, scores, and in the case of
28 the skull roof also a hole piercing through the entire bone thickness. Morphological and bone
29 histological features of these pathological traits imply that they probably represent bite marks.
30 Post-mortem invertebrate feeding traces and microbial activity, as well as different shell
31 diseases and infections are less likely sources of these secondary alterations, because no
32 unequivocal morphological and histological features associated with these alternative causes
33 are detected in the fossil bones. Morphological similarities with experimentally investigated
34 crocodylian tooth marks suggest that both elements bear the bite marks of a crocodylian
35 predator with typical conical teeth. Four different taxa of Mesoeucrocodylia are documented
36 from the Iharkút vertebrate assemblage, among which only the *Allodaposuchus*-like crocodile
37 had conical teeth and therefore might have been responsible for the bite marks in both cases.
38 The inferred tooth marks on the dorsal surface of the *Iharkutosuchus* skull roof indicate a
39 predator-prey interaction rarely documented between two different crocodylian taxa rather
40 than antagonistic behaviour over common resources. Nevertheless, to draw firm conclusions
41 and establish the basis for future investigations of fossil bone pathologies, more comparative
42 studies are needed on the different traumatic as well as non-traumatic bone pathologies that
43 may eventuate in bite-mark-like abnormalities.

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46 The study of bite marks represents a significant research field in paleontology because
47 such traces on the fossil bone surface indicate a factual interaction between two animals
48 (either antagonistic or predator-prey interaction). As such, it may provide direct evidence on
49 the feeding behaviour of extinct carnivores and information on the trophic structure of the
50 palaeocommunity. Crushing the bones of the prey to access the nutritious marrow is a
51 common behaviour among mammalian carnivores and related traces are frequently found in
52 modern ecosystems as well as in fossil assemblages (e.g. Haynes, 1983; Weigelt, 1989;
53 Fiorill, 1991; Domínguez-Rodrigo, 1999; Hu et al., 2005; Faith and Behrensmeyer, 2006;
54 Faith et al., 2007). However, direct evidence of bones showing such mammal-like bone-
55 crushing activity is quite rare among sauropsid groups due to their usually different dentition
56 and feeding behaviour (Fiorillo, 1991; Farlow and Holtz, 2002; Hone and Rauhut, 2009;
57 D'Amore and Blumenschine, 2009). The number of studies focusing on fossil bones with
58 sauropsid bite marks has increased lately (Fiorill, 1991; Carpenter, 1998; Jacobsen, 1998;
59 Farlow and Holtz, 2002; Avilla et al., 2004; Buffetaut et al., 2004; Hone and Rauhut, 2009;
60 Fiorelli, 2010; Longrich et al., 2010; Milàn et al., 2010; Schwimmer, 2010; Bell, et al., 2012;
61 Noto et al., 2012; Boyd et al., 2013), and some experiments have been conducted on the
62 feeding traces of extant sauropsids as well (Njau and Blumenschine, 2006; D'Amore and
63 Blumenschine, 2009, 2012; Vasconcellos and Carvalho, 2010). In most investigations of
64 sauropsid feeding behaviour, the study objects were restricted to dinosaurs (e.g. Fiorill, 1991;
65 Erickson and Olson, 1996; Carpenter, 1998; Jacobsen, 1998; Farlow and Holtz, 2002; Rogers
66 et al., 2003; Fowler and Sullivan, 2006; Hone and Rauhut, 2009; Peterson et al., 2009; Hone et
67 al., 2010; Paik et al., 2011) while feeding traces of other sauropsids, such as crocodylians,
68 have only recently received attention (e.g. Karl and Tichy, 2004; Njau and Blumenschine,
69 2006; 2012 Fiorelli 2010; Schwimmer, 2010; Vasconcellos and Carvalho, 2010; Boyd et al.,

70 2013; Martin, 2013). The predator-prey interaction between crocodyliforms and turtles has
71 long been recognized in modern and ancient ecosystems. However, the number of systematic
72 descriptions of this interaction in the fossil assemblages is limited (Carpenter and Lindsey,
73 1980; Hutchinson and Frye, 2001; Schwimmer, 2002; 2010; McCoy et al., 2012; Noto et al.,
74 2012) because most studies focus on different taxonomic and/or more general
75 palaeoecological aspects, and less on these specific interactions (Antunes and de Broin, 1988;
76 Mead et al., 2006; Mikulás and Dvorák, 2010).

77 The aim of the present study is to explore and investigate potential bite marks on fossil
78 bones of the vertebrate assemblage from Iharkút, Hungary, and to interpret the characteristics
79 of these traces in order to assess possible predator-prey interactions in the palaeocommunity.
80 We provide both morphological and histological descriptions and comparisons of the
81 pathological features to assess the probability that they indeed represent bite marks. After
82 arguing for a tooth mark origin, we attempt to infer the identity of the putative predator
83 responsible for the bite marks on the fossil bones, and discuss their significance for possible
84 trophic interactions in this ancient palaeocommunity.

85

86 **2. Stratigraphy, geological setting and faunal composition**

87 The Iharkút vertebrate locality is situated in a rehabilitated open-pit bauxite mine in the
88 northern part of the Bakony Mountains (Transdanubian Central Range), western Hungary,
89 near the villages of Németszánya and Bakonyjákó (Fig. 1A).

90 The oldest rocks in the Iharkút open-pit mine are Late Triassic shallow marine
91 dolomites (Main Dolomite Formation) the irregular karstic surface of which was filled by
92 bauxite (Nagytrákány Bauxite Formation) during the Late Cretaceous (pre-Santonian)
93 subaerial exposure phase (Bárdossy and Mindszenty, 2013). The dolomite and the bauxite
94 deposits are overlain by the Upper Cretaceous Csehbánya Formation, rich in both plant and

95 vertebrate fossils. The Csehbánya Formation represents a typical alluvial, flood-plain deposit
96 consisting mainly of fine-grained silty-clayey overbank sediments with several palaeosol
97 horizons and are crosscut by shallow channel-filling sandstones (Ósi and Mindszenty, 2009;
98 Tuba et al., 2006; Botfalvai et al., 2012). Absence of desiccation cracks and subordinate
99 pedogenic carbonate accumulation in the paleosol horizons indicate humid climate in
100 agreement with the reconstructed subtropical floodplain forest vegetation (Bodor et al., 2012).
101 At some places in the quarry, higher up in the stratigraphic sequence, Middle Eocene
102 (Lutetian) conglomerates and limestones unconformably cover the Csehbánya Formation
103 (Bárdossy and Mindszenty, 2013). The youngest deposit exposed in the mine is Pleistocene
104 loess forming a discontinuous blanket over most of the area (Fig. 1B).

105 Most of the vertebrate fossils were discovered in the basal breccia of the site SZ-6. This
106 layer is 10 to 50 cm thick, composed of grey sand, siltstone, clay clasts, pebbles and plant
107 debris, and occasionally contains complete, but more frequently fragmentary bones (Fig. 1C).
108 Normal gradation of this unit suggests that energy conditions changed during the deposition
109 of the bone bed complex. The basal breccia layer of site SZ-6 is covered by a less
110 fossiliferous sandstone bed. The uppermost bed of this sequence is a 30 to 50 cm thick,
111 laminated, greyish siltstone which contains fewer bones and sometimes incomplete skeletons
112 of *Hungarosaurus*. Vertebrate fossils are common in the coarse-grained poorly sorted
113 sediments of the lower segment of sequence SZ-6, while they are only rarely encountered in
114 the upper laminated deposit. The age of the bone beds at site SZ-6 was examined by
115 palynological methods which resulted in an age corresponding to the Santonian *Oculopollis*
116 *zaklinskaiae-Tetracolporopollenites (Brecolpites) globosus* Zone (Bodor and Baranyi, 2012).
117 The fossils presented in this study were recovered from the basal breccia of site SZ-6 and
118 represent part of the attritional isolated bone assemblage of the Iharkút vertebrate material
119 (Botfalvai et al., submitted.).

120 The Late Cretaceous vertebrate locality of Iharkút yielded a very rich and diverse fauna
121 of terrestrial and freshwater animals, the composition of which is similar to other Late
122 Cretaceous continental vertebrate faunas of Europe (see e.g. Buffetaut and Le Loeuff, 1991;
123 Allain and Pereda Suberbiola, 2003; Weishampel et al., 2010). The fish fauna recovered from
124 Iharkút includes one pycnodontiform and one lepisosteiform taxa (Ősi et al., 2012a).
125 Amphibians were a diverse group in this palaeoenvironment and are represented by both
126 allocaudatans (albanerpetontid) and anurans (e.g. Szentesi and Vencel, 2010; Szentesi et al.,
127 2013). Turtle fossils are the most frequent remains in the Iharkút bone assemblage and
128 represent at least four different taxa. Among these, isolated postcranial elements and skulls of
129 the bothremydid *Foxemys trabanti* Rabi, Tong and Botfalvai, 2012 are the most abundant,
130 whereas remains of dortokid turtles and *Kallokibotion* sp. are less common (Rabi et al., 2012
131 Ősi et al., 2012a). Squamates show a high diversity, including at least seven, small to
132 medium-sized taxa of lizards and the freshwater mosasaur *Pannoniasaurus inexpectatus*
133 Makádi, Caldwell and Ősi, 2012 (Makádi et al., 2012; Makádi, 2013a,b). The crocodyliform
134 assemblage is relatively diverse being represented by two terrestrial (*Doratodon* sp. and a
135 *Theriosuchus*-like neosuchian) and two semi-aquatic taxa (*Iharkutosuchus makadii* Ősi, Clark
136 and Weishampel, 2007 and an *Allodaposuchus*-related form; Ősi, 2008; Ősi et al., 2012a).
137 One of the characteristics of the Iharkút palaeocommunity is the surprisingly high individual
138 number of pterosaurs including members of the family Azhdarchidae and indeterminate
139 pterodactyloids (Ősi et al., 2011, Prondvai et al., in press.). At least ten different taxa of
140 dinosaurs can be distinguished: the theropods are represented by five different taxa (Tetanurae
141 indet, Abelisauridae indet, *Pneumatoraptor fodori* Ősi, Apesteguía and Kowalewski, 2010
142 Paraves indet., *Bauxitornis mindszentyae* Dyke and Ősi 2010, Enantiornithes indet.), whereas
143 the known herbivorous dinosaur fauna includes two nodosaurid ankylosaurs (*Hungarosaurus*
144 *tormai* Ősi 2005, cf. *Struthiosaurus* sp.), a small-bodied rhabdodontid (*Mochlodon vorosi* Ősi

145 et al., 2012) and a ceratopsian dinosaur (*Ajkaceratops kozmai* Ösi, Butler and Weishampel
146 2010), the latter of which is the first undisputable evidence for the European occurrence of the
147 clade Ceratopsia (e.g. Ösi and Buffetaut, 2011; Ösi et al., 2010; Ösi et al., 2012a,b; Ösi and
148 Prondvai 2013).

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150 **3. Material and Methods**

151 Among the vertebrate remains, only two specimens, a carapace fragment (MTM PAL
152 2013.93.1) of the turtle *Foxemys trabanti* and a partial skull roof (MTM PAL 2013.94.1) of
153 the crocodylian *Iharkutosuchus makadii* showed clear pathological traits resembling tooth
154 marks, and hence were suitable for this study (Figs. 2 and 3). The fossils are housed in the
155 vertebrate paleontological collection of the Hungarian Natural History Museum (MTM) in
156 Budapest. Morphologies of the inferred tooth marks were described following Njau and
157 Blumenschine (2006).

158 Both elements showing bite-mark-like deformities were cut through the pathologic
159 regions for histological investigation. Two samples were taken from the anterior margin of the
160 carapace fragment (MTM PAL 2013.93.1, Fig. 2A): one right through the largest presumed
161 tooth mark on the left peripheral 1, whereas the other from an intact area on the right
162 peripheral 1 to compare the histological characteristics of a healthy and a pathological region.
163 The transverse (i.e., vertical) section plane was directed parallel to the natural free margin of
164 the peripheral (Fig. 2B). By contrast, the entire skull roof fragment was cut in half through the
165 parietal and the frontal (Fig. 3B) slicing through areas that looked intact as well as through the
166 most distinct, tooth mark looking depressions, including a hole piercing the entire bone
167 thickness. Transverse thin sections of these samples were prepared following standard
168 methods (Wells, 1989) and examined under Nikon LV 100 polarized light microscope.
169 Pictures of the histological slides were acquired with QImaging MP5.0 digital microscope

170 camera and processed with Image Pro Insight software. Interpretative figures were obtained
171 using CorelDRAW X5 software. Histological descriptions follow the nomenclature of Marotti
172 (2010) and Stein and Prondvai (2014) and partially that of Scheyer and Sander (2007).

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174 **4. Results**

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176 *4.1. Examination and description of pathologies detected on the turtle plate*
177 *fragment (MTM PAL 2013.93.1)*

178 *Material and description:* The turtle shell fragment exhibiting the pathological marks
179 (MTM PAL 2013.93.1) is 13.9 cm in length and 6.8 cm in width and represents the anterior
180 edge of the carapace, including the nuchal and both peripherals 1 (Fig. 2). Of the scutes, the
181 anterior fourth of the first vertebral and four marginals can be observed. The left and right
182 first two marginals are complete, whereas the second marginals on both sides preserve only
183 their medial portion. The specimen is assigned to *Foxemys trabanti* on the basis of its size, the
184 emarginated nuchal, the absence of characteristic surface decoration, and the absence of a
185 cervical scale (Rabi et al., 2012, 2013, Ósi et al., 2012).

186 *Taphonomical features:* The dorsal surface of the turtle carapace fragment is moderately
187 well preserved, with no significant abrasion or weathering, whereas the ventral surface is
188 more worn due to physical or chemical effects. The margin of the carapace fragment is
189 interrupted by two pathological depressions, but there are a number of other pits distributed
190 on the dorsal and ventral surface of the element (Fig. 2). The edges of some of these marks
191 are rounded, which indicates that the bone surface experienced some abrasion after the
192 depressions were formed. The rounded margins and the abraded ventral side of the plate
193 fragment indicate that it was exposed to the physical impacts of transportation before the
194 burial. As in the case of this specimen, the dorsal sides of fossil turtle plates often show better

195 preservation than the ventral side due to the protective horny scales covering the dorsal but
196 missing from the ventral surface making the dorsal side more resistant to physical impacts
197 (e.g. Brand et al., 2003). The carapace was deformed and bent along the scale sulci probably
198 due to mechanical impact.

199 *Morphology of the pathological traits:* Several pathological depressions can be detected
200 on the ventral, dorsal and lateral surfaces of the plate showing different morphologies (Fig. 2).
201 The pit marks appear as irregular or bowl-shaped depressions on the plate surface, vary in
202 diameter from 1 to 13.5 mm, show U-shaped cross-section, and a circular to oval outline in
203 dorsal view. Most of the pit marks are arranged in rows of different orientations. Some of
204 them look bisected via a slight linear depression, but this feature was observed only in a few
205 pits. There are two large circular marks situated in the marginal region of the specimen, which
206 completely pass through the carapace. Score marks also appear on the more proximal part of
207 the shell, ranging 13-38 mm in length and 1-4 mm in width. They are shallow and U-shaped
208 in cross section, and in many cases they originate from the pit marks. The scores are mostly
209 perpendicular to the rows of pits and diagonal to the long axis of the carapace. On the ventral
210 surface of the carapace there is a pathological region with deformations of complex
211 morphology including one shallow and three deeper pits which coalesce into a deep groove
212 (Fig. 2D,E).

213 *Bone histology:* Although the staining effect of the pyrite obscures details of fibre
214 orientation and osteocyte lacuna features in most areas, the microstructural preservation of the
215 turtle shell fragment is sufficient for comparing the healthy and pathologic bone tissue (Figs.
216 4 and 5). Histology of the intact area of the shell reveals a diploe structure common in
217 terrestrial and semi-aquatic turtles (Scheyer 2007a; Scheyer and Sander, 2007) with
218 cancellous bone sandwiched between the well-developed external and internal compact
219 cortices (Fig. 4A). Apart from being slightly thinner, the external cortex (Fig. 4B) appears to

220 have the same microstructural features as the internal cortex (Fig. 4F) in this section. In this
221 context, however, it is noteworthy that the peripheral was sampled at its free, rounded margin,
222 and therefore the external and internal cortices in this area correspond to the dorsal and
223 ventral compact bone of the plate fragment, respectively. Hence, the ventral compact bone
224 must be considered external cortex, as well (Scheyer, 2007a) which may explain the
225 unexpected symmetrical diploe structure in the peripheral of this turtle in contrast to the
226 reduced internal cortex in the shell of other bothremydid turtles that is considered a
227 synapomorphic trait (Scheyer, 2007a). Growth marks mostly eventuating in lines of arrested
228 growth (LAGs) are visible, locally even in the highly porous cancellous bone, although not in
229 the innermost middle layer. The spacing of these growth marks is variable; some are densely
230 packed, others are more distantly spaced. Primary vascular canals run radially, longitudinally
231 or irregularly in both the dorsal and ventral cortices, and towards the cancellous layer the
232 canals have progressively wider lumen and scalloped outlines due to secondary resorption
233 (Fig. 4B,D,F). In the cancellous areas (Fig. 4D), most of the large cavities are also the result
234 of extensive secondary resorption, although deposition of secondary bone tissue on these
235 irregular resorption surfaces is also evident mainly at the transitional region between the
236 cancellous and dorsal compact bone. Well-compacted secondary osteons, however, are not
237 present in any area of this section, and most of the bony material in the cancellous layer is
238 also primary. The entire primary cortex is invaded by extrinsic structural fibres mostly
239 running parallel to the surface of the plate fragment (Fig. 4C,D). There are extensive,
240 apparently acellular cortical areas, although the lack of osteocyte lacunae in these regions may
241 be a preservational artefact (Fig. 4C).

242 The appearance of the bone tissue in the pathologic region (Fig. 5) suggests mechanical
243 abrasion of the dorsal compact bone in the U-shaped pit that exposed the inner cancellous
244 layer (Fig. 5A-D,G). This exposed cancellous layer contains cavities of diverse sizes and

245 shapes most of which have smooth rims formed by a thin layer of secondary bone (Fig. 5C). It
246 is observable by naked eye as well that the loss of the dorsal cortex is restricted to the area of
247 the U-shaped depression. Unequivocal microstructural characteristics of osteomyelitis such as
248 irregular lesion or necrosis of the bony tissue caused by different shell diseases (Lovich et al.,
249 1996; Garner et al., 1997; Homer et al., 1998; Hernandez-Divers et al., 2009; Aleksić-
250 Kovačević et al., 2013; Rothschild et al., 2013 and references therein) cannot be detected. No
251 callus-like tissue or other pathological secondary bone tissues disfiguring shell disease or
252 referring to wound healing can be observed. Apart from the erosion of the dorsal cortex in the
253 U-shaped pit, the microstructure of this region of the plate corresponds with that of the intact
254 region (compare Figs. 4 and 5), and there is no other evidently pathological condition
255 observed in this thin section.

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257 *4.2. Examination and description of pathologies detected on the Iharkutosuchus*
258 *skull roof (MTM PAL 2013.94.1)*

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260 *Material and description:* The skull roof fragment of *Iharkutosuchus makadii* (MTM
261 PAL 2013.94.1) exhibits at least eleven pathological marks on its dorsal surface (Fig. 3). The
262 anteroposterior length of this specimen is 4 cm and its mediolateral width is 3.1 cm. It
263 represents the anterior part of the skull table preserving the posterior part of the frontal, the
264 anterior and central portions of the parietal, the medial sides of both postorbitals, and the
265 anteromedial corner of the right squamosal. As it is characteristic for *Iharkutosuchus*, this
266 specimen has also closed supratemporal fenestrae. The dorsal ornamentation of the skull
267 elements is similar to that seen in the holotype of *I. makadii* (MTM PAL 2006.52.1). On the
268 ventral side of the frontal, the posterior ends of the cristae cranii frontales can be observed.
269 On the ventral side of the parietal, only the crests for the connection with the lateral side of

270 the braincase are preserved. The specimen represents a skull approximately 75% of the 11.1
271 cm long holotype specimen, so the estimated total body length of MTM PAL 2013.94.1 is
272 about 55-60 cm.

273 *Taphonomical features:* The *Iharkutosuchus* skull roof is well preserved showing
274 neither abrasion nor weathering. Most of the broken edges outlining the skull fragment
275 (irregular and step fractures) were created during the pre-fossil diagenetic phase. The margins
276 of the pit marks are not abraded. Good preservation indicates that the bone was not exposed to
277 fluvial transportation before the burial and raises the possibility that the skull fragment was
278 broken off the rest of the skull due to biological impact such as feeding or trampling.

279 *Morphology of the pathological traits:* There are approximately 11 pathological features
280 on the dorsal surface of the skull roof and they all show similar morphology. All of the marks
281 were U-shaped in cross-section and had an oval outline in dorsal view, and some of them
282 could be identified as bisected pit marks (e.g. Njau and Blumenschine, 2006, 2012). The
283 largest detected pathological trait on this skull fragment is a hole that penetrates the element at
284 the border of the parietal and frontal, and is 0.9 mm in diameter. The other, bowl-shaped
285 depressions on the dorsal surface of the skull roof are relatively deep (1-3 mm) and have
286 rounded margins.

287 *Bone histology:* The complete transverse section of the partial skull roof reveals a
288 smaller piece of the frontal and a larger piece of the parietal separated by the pathologic hole
289 (Figs. 6A and 7A). The ventral and dorsal surfaces, including the surface of sculptural and
290 pathological pits on the dorsal side, uniformly appear very smooth under the microscope. This
291 may be due to pre-burial external factors that very finely polished the surface of the element.
292 Extensive areas along the margin of the section show infiltration of a staining mineral into the
293 bone tissue obscuring details of fibre arrangement and osteocyte lacuna morphologies. The
294 general microstructure of the skull fragment corresponds to that of a typical dermal bone with

295 partially distinct, partially transitional border between the middle, highly cancellous bone
296 layer and the compact cortex surrounding it. In a larger area, the external (dorsal) cortex
297 consists of longitudinally oriented (i.e. parallel to the bone surface) fine parallel-fibred bone
298 with low birefringence (Fig. 6D) and abundant Sharpey's fibres that run roughly
299 perpendicular or oblique to the dorsal surface of the bone. In other areas, the orientation of the
300 parallel-fibred bone is variable partially following the orientation of the vascular canals.
301 Osteocyte lacunae are sparse in the majority of the dorsal cortex with areas that seem to be
302 void of lacunae; however, the latter may be a pure preservational artefact. No evident
303 plywood-like arrangement can be observed. Some indistinct incremental lines can be detected
304 but usually cannot be followed all along the length of the section. Vascular canals are sparse
305 but of relatively wide lumen, and they run mostly radially and parallel to the dorsal surface of
306 the bone. Secondary remodelling can also be observed around some vascular. A distinct
307 structural change characterizes the border between the external cortex and the middle
308 cancellous bone layer. Here, the fine parallel-fibred bone of the dorsal cortex with low lacunar
309 densities and low birefringence abruptly changes into the strongly birefringent parallel-fibred
310 bone of the middle cancellous layer which shows much higher lacunar densities (Fig. 6D).
311 The majority of the parallel-fibred bone in the middle layer is primary and oriented parallel or
312 subparallel to the external and internal cortical surfaces (Fig. 7A), but in small areas
313 interwoven structural fibres characteristic of dermal bones (e.g., Scheyer 2007a,b; Scheyer
314 and Sander, 2007; Witzmann 2009) also occur. External structural fibres are also present in
315 this middle layer. Secondary remodelling by lamellar parallel-fibred bone is restricted to the
316 margin of some medium-sized secondary osteons and the large erosion cavities. There is no
317 distinct border between the middle cancellous layer and the internal (ventral) cortex; the
318 parallel-fibred bone of the middle layer continues in the ventral compacta without any
319 structural interruption (Figs. 6C and 7C). In the ventral cortex, parallel-fibred bone is oriented

320 mainly parallel to the internal bone surface, and locally it shows lamellation (Figs. 6C and
321 7A,C). As in the dorsal cortex, Sharpey's fibres abundantly cross the internal compacta
322 perpendicular or oblique to its surface. Vascularity is much lower than in the external cortex
323 with a few radially oriented canals and large, entirely avascular areas. Numerous growth
324 marks are present which, in contrast to e.g., the frontal bone of the eocene *Crocodylus* cf.
325 *affinis* and the recent *C. niloticus* (Buffrenil and Buffetaut, 1981), are much more distinct than
326 in the dorsal cortex.

327 The complete section reveals the pathologic as well as the presumably intact areas of the
328 skull fragment, including a supposedly intact sculptural pit of the external surface. The most
329 important microstructural difference between the ornamental and the pathological pits lies in
330 the apparently pathological loss of a larger amount of bone in the bite-mark-like pits and
331 around the hole piercing through the entire element. Although the surface of the element is
332 uniformly smoothed, in contrast to the sculptural pit, where the external cortex is still thick
333 and the fibres seem to follow the undulation of the dorsal surface, in all pathological pits the
334 external cortex is lost or reduced to a thin layer and there is an abrupt termination of the
335 longitudinally oriented parallel-fibred bone at the margin of the pits and the hole (Figs. 6C
336 and 7A,C). The preserved bone layers do not exhibit any other histological difference
337 compared to the intact region of the bone which shows no apparent deviations from the
338 characteristic microstructure of dermal bones, either (e.g., Buffrenil and Buffetaut, 1981;
339 Scheyer, 2007a,b; Scheyer and Sander, 2007; Witzmann, 2009). Hence, as in the turtle plate
340 fragment MTM PAL 2013.94.1, no histological features indicate that pre-mortem pathogens
341 were responsible for the formation of the bite-mark-like pits. The microstructure of this skull
342 roof fragment rather suggests an external, strong mechanical impact that removed the dorsal
343 cortex in the pits and broke through the entire bone thickness in the thinner part of the
344 element.

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5. Discussion

Some morphological features (spatial distribution and shapes) of the diverse pits, bisected marks and scores detected on the surface of the carapace fragment and the skull roof imply that they probably represent feeding traces. In addition, histological comparison of the intact and pathologic regions of both elements is consistent with the hypothesis that the investigated pits have resulted from the massive intrusion of conical objects, most probably teeth, into the bones. The abundant fractures and deformations present in both elements may also be the result of powerful mechanical impacts to which the specimens were exposed prior to fossilization (e.g. Noto et al., 2012). Post-mortem invertebrate feeding traces (Hutchinson and Frye, 2001; Farinati and Zavala, 2002; Bader et al., 2009; Saneyoshi et al., 2011; Holden et al., 2013) and microbial activity (Pereda Suberbiola et al., 2000; Hutchinson and Frye, 2001; Slater et al., 2011), as well as different shell diseases and infections (Lovich et al., 1996; Garner et al., 1997; Homer et al., 1998; Knotkova et al., 2005; Hernandez-Divers et al., 2009; Rothschild et al., 2013) are less likely sources of these secondary alterations, because no unequivocal morphological and histological features associated with these alternative causes are detected in the fossil bones. Traces of neither post-mortem microbial activities (fungal and bacterial) nor shell diseases are likely to be spatially restricted to evenly distributed, coherent rows of pits, as is the case in our fossils. However, it must be noted that, at present, inadequate morphological and histological descriptions and illustrations of pathologies occurring in dermal bones (such as skull bones or turtle shells) with known causes (including trauma, infection and metabolic diseases) prevent precise comparison (Rothschild et al., 2013) and hence inferences on the unknown agent of pathologies in fossils. As a consequence, most reports on inferred bite marks (Antunes and de Broin, 1988; Schwimmer,

370 2002, 2010; Steadman et al., 2007; Milàn et al., 2011; Noto et al., 2012; Valais et al., 2012;
371 Karl, 2012,; McCoy et al., 2012; Morgan and Albury, 2013) do not take non-traumatic origin
372 of the detected pathologies into account which are otherwise very common in both extant and
373 fossil turtle shells (Hutchison and Frye, 2001; Rothschild, 2010; Rothschild et al., 2013 and
374 references therein). Non-traumatic skeletal pathologies resulting in holes and grooves near the
375 articular surfaces have also been documented in crocodylians (Rothschild, 2010); however not
376 in their skull bones. Bone pathological evaluation of fossil specimens is even more
377 problematic because post-mortem alterations of the bone surface due to diagenetic processes,
378 weathering, and different microbial and invertebrate feeding activities sometimes eventuating
379 in bite-mark-like pathologies (Hutchison and Frye, 2001; Fejfar and Kaiser, 2005; Fernández-
380 Jalvo et al., 2010; Holden et al., 2013) cannot be assessed with high confidence. Nevertheless,
381 based on the comparison of morphological and histological features of the pathologies
382 detected in our specimens with those reported in other studies, the bite mark origin is still
383 consistent in both elements studied here.

384 Morphological similarities with experimentally investigated crocodylian tooth marks
385 (e.g. Njau and Blumenschine, 2006, 2012) suggest that both the carapace and skull roof
386 fragments studied here bear the bite marks of a crocodylian with typical conical teeth. This
387 hypothesis is also supported by (1) the presence of bisected pits typical for crocodylian tooth
388 marks; (2) the U-shaped cross section and the circular outline of tooth marks in dorsal view
389 lacking extensive punctures or furrows which have been associated with mammalian style of
390 chewing (Noto et al., 2012); (3) the high concentration of feeding traces in a small area (Boyd
391 et al., 2013); and (4) the lack of diagnostic marks from serrated ziphodont teeth, such as
392 parallel clusters of elongate and narrow marks or striations, which are characteristic of most
393 theropod dinosaurs and some crocodylians (Fiorillo, 1991; Farlow and Holtz, 2002; Rogers et
394 al., 2003; D'Amore and Blumenschine, 2009; Hone and Rauhut, 2009; Paik et al., 2011).

395 *Pannoniasaurus*, a potential top predator known from the locality, has slender, pointed and
396 slightly distally curved teeth (Makádi et al. 2012); a tooth morphology that, in contrast to
397 conical teeth, is considered to be inadequate for crushing hard food items, such as bony
398 elements (e.g. Massare, 1987). Therefore it is also highly unlikely that *Pannoniasaurus* was
399 responsible for the feeding traces detected on the investigated carapace and the skull roof
400 fragments.

401 The differently oriented rows of tooth marks on the turtle plate are likely the result of
402 rotating the shell in the mouth during which the crocodile, by quick motions of the head and
403 jaws, tried to place the food item in the most adequate position for swallowing; a process also
404 demonstrated by Noto et al. (2012) and Milán et al. (2010).

405

406 *5.1. Paleoecology*

407

408 If the feeding trace hypothesis is true, the bite marks detected on the *Iharkutosuchus*
409 skull roof fragment most probably represent traces of a predator-prey interaction between two
410 crocodylian species rather than scavenging, because the skull is an undesirable food item for a
411 scavenger (Dodson, 1971; Weigelt, 1989). Antagonistic behaviour due to competition over
412 common resources is also very unlikely, since *Iharkutosuchus* was a small-bodied crocodile
413 (estimated body length 50–100 cm) with spatulate anterior and flat, molariform posterior teeth
414 referring to oral food processing and a specialized omnivorous/herbivorous diet (Ösi and
415 Weishampel, 2009), whereas its attacker was apparently a larger species with tooth
416 morphologies typical for generalist crocodylian predators (e.g.; Buffetaut, 1983). Hence, it is
417 more likely that these tooth marks were created when the *Iharkutosuchus* specimen was
418 caught by another, larger-bodied crocodile species that tried to kill its prey by perforating the
419 skull roof, which injury may have caused the death of this *Iharkutosuchus* individual.

420 Having restricted the circle of possible predators to a crocodylian, the most probable
421 identity of the attacker can be assessed. Four different taxa of Mesoeucrocodylia are
422 documented from the Iharkút vertebrate assemblage (Ősi et al., 2007; Ősi et al., 2012a).
423 *Doratodon* sp. is represented by several serrated, labiolingually compressed (i.e., ziphodont)
424 teeth, an incomplete dentary and a maxilla (Ősi et al., 2012a). The occurrence of a second
425 mesoeucrocodylian taxon is inferred from the presence of labiolingually compressed teeth
426 lacking serration (i.e., pseudoziphodont teeth). This tooth morphology is similar to that found
427 in the genus *Theriosuchus* (Ősi et al., 2012a). The remains of the other two, semiaquatic
428 mesoeucrocodylians, an indeterminate neosuchian and the hylaeochampsid eusuchian
429 *Iharkutosuchus*, yield the richest diagnostic crocodylian material of the Iharkút vertebrate
430 assemblage. *Iharkutosuchus* is known on the basis of nearly complete skulls and skull
431 fragments, dentaries, and teeth (Ősi et al., 2007; Ősi et al., 2012a). The indeterminate
432 neosuchian taxon is represented by conical teeth with sharp mesial and distal carinae,
433 dentaries, and different skull elements which are reminiscent of those of *Allodaposuchus*
434 (Rabi, 2006; Ősi et al., 2012a; Rabi and Delfino, 2012); a taxon reported from numerous
435 European Late Cretaceous vertebrate localities (e.g. Buscalioni et al., 2001; Delfino et al.,
436 2008; Martin, 2010; Puértolas-Pascual, 2013). Among the abundant remains of
437 *Iharkutosuchus*, the most unmistakable elements are its unique molariform, multicuspid teeth
438 (Ősi et al., 2007; Ősi, 2008) which suggest specialized feeding involving elaborate chewing
439 mechanism (Ősi and Weishampel, 2009). Differences in tooth morphology and presumed
440 lifestyle of these four crocodylian taxa suggest distinct feeding strategies.

441 The tooth morphology and enamel microstructure of *Iharkutosuchus makadii* suggest
442 that its diet could have included fibrous plants, fruits, arthropods, and possibly small-bodied
443 vertebrates (Ősi and Weishampel, 2009). These features, combined with its relatively small
444 body size shows that *Iharkutosuchus* certainly did not belong to the top predators of the

445 Iharkút paleocommunity. Instead, it may have represented an important food source for the
446 top predators of the area. The other crocodylians were probably more generalist carnivores.
447 The largest of them, the *Allodaposuchus*-like neosuchian, may have been among the top
448 predators at least in the aquatic environment along with the mosasaur *Pannoniasaurus*.

449 The ziphodont and pseudoziphodont teeth of *Doratodon* and the *Theriosuchus*-like
450 crocodylian suggest different feeding strategies from the *Allodaposuchus*-like neosuchian with
451 conical tooth morphology. Whereas ziphodont and pseudoziphodont teeth are more suitable
452 for cutting and slicing, conical teeth have more potential for crushing hard elements, such as
453 bones (e.g. Massare, 1987; Fiorillo, 1991; Farlow and Holtz, 2002; D'Amore and
454 Blumenschine, 2009, 2012). Hence, it is most likely that the bite marks detected on the
455 *Iharkutosuchus* skull roof fragment (MTM PAL 2013.94.1) originated from this
456 *Allodaposuchus*-like predator. This hypothesis is further supported by the presence of bowl-
457 shaped deep depressions and bisected-like tooth marks, which is exactly the expected pattern
458 if conical teeth with sharp mesial and distal carinae intrude the bone. Such tooth marks were
459 observed on the bone surface bitten by extant *Crocodylus niloticus* with similar tooth
460 morphologies (Njau and Blumenschine, 2006). By contrast, the ziphodont teeth of *Doratodon*
461 and the pseudoziphodont teeth of the *Theriosuchus*-like crocodylian tend to create deeper
462 marks with a more oval outline in dorsal view and V-shaped cross section (Noto et al., 2012).
463 Thus, based on these parameters it is conceivable that the bite marks observed on the
464 *Iharkutosuchus* skull roof fragment originate from the *Allodaposuchus*-like neosuchian
465 crocodylian.

466 Studies focusing on predator-prey interaction or cannibalism among extant crocodylians
467 based on stomach content investigations in modern ecosystems are rare (e.g. Delany and
468 Abercrombie, 1986; Gabrey, 2010). Reports on crocodylian-crocodylian interaction in the
469 fossil record are also scarce, and most of them are interpreted as intraspecific antagonistic

470 behaviour rather than predation or scavenging (Buffetaut, 1983; Williamson 1996; Avilla et
471 al., 2004; Vasconcellos and Carvalho, 2010; Martin, 2013). Interspecific predator-prey
472 interactions among different crocodylian taxa are also poorly documented (Fiorelli, 2010).
473 Therefore, the inferred tooth marks on the dorsal surface of the *Iharkutosuchus* skull roof
474 (MTM PAL 2013.94.1) indicating a predator-prey interaction between two different
475 crocodylian taxa are of great importance. Considering its abundance in the locality, it is
476 possible that, besides turtles, the small-bodied, semiaquatic *Iharkutosuchus* was also a
477 potential prey for larger-bodied carnivores in the palaeoenvironment of Iharkút, including the
478 *Allodaposuchus*-like crocodylians.

479 Turtles are the most common and most important sauropsid food source for the wild
480 populations of larger-bodied (>3 m) extant alligators (*Alligator mississippiensis*) in Florida
481 and Louisiana where, based on stomach content investigations, turtles give ~15% of the total
482 volume of consumed prey (Delany and Abercrombie, 1986; Gabrey, 2010). Predator-prey
483 interaction between eusuchian crocodylians and turtles has been inferred from the fossil
484 record, including many Cretaceous ecosystems, as well (Carpenter and Lindsey, 1980;
485 Antunes and de Broin, 1988; Joyce, 2000, Hutchison and Frye, 2001; Schwimmer, 2002,
486 2010; Karl and Tichy, 2004; Mead et al., 2006; Steadman et al. 2007; Joyce et al., 2009;
487 Milàn et al., 2010; McCoy et al., 2012; Noto et al., 2012). Bothremydid turtles were common
488 members of Late Cretaceous aquatic communities along the northern coasts of Africa, the
489 European archipelago and North America (Schwimmer, 2002; Gaffney et al., 2006; Rabi et
490 al., 2012), and their fossils are often found together with conical-tooth-bearing eusuchians,
491 such as *Allodaposuchus*, *Musturzabalsuchus*, *Massaliasuchus*, *Brachychampsa* or
492 *Deinosuchus* (Buscalioni et al., 1999; Martin and Buffetaut, 2008, Ortega et al., 2008, Martin
493 2010, Schwimmer, 2002; Ósi et al., 2012a).

494 However, assessing predator-prey interaction between the *Allodaposuchus*-like
495 neosuchian crocodiles and the adult *Foxemys* turtles in the Iharkút paleocommunity is
496 problematic because the largest known remains of *Foxemys trabanti* (Rabi et al., 2012), which
497 also include the plate fragment bearing the inferred bite marks, indicate that shell length and
498 carapace/plastron thickness could have reached 70-80 cm and 0.5-1 cm, respectively. These
499 dimensions probably did not define an adequate prey size for an *Allodaposuchus*-like
500 crocodilian with an estimated adult body length of 170 cm and a skull length of 25 cm based
501 on its scanty fossil remains known from the Iharkút locality. Furthermore, the 13.5 mm wide
502 pit mark on the turtle plate fragment MTM PAL 2013.93.1 is too large compared with the
503 greatest mesiodistal diameter (6-7 mm) of the largest known teeth of the *Allodaposuchus*-like
504 neosuchian. On the other hand, size differences between these teeth and the bite marks might
505 be explained by repeated biting and/or further, post-mortem physical and chemical erosion of
506 the original bite mark. The diameter of the other tooth marks (3-8 mm) on the turtle plate
507 fragment corresponds with the size of the *Allodaposuchus*-like neosuchian teeth recovered so
508 far from the Iharkút assemblage. However, adult *Foxemys* turtles apparently represented an
509 over-sized prey to be attacked and regularly consumed by the *Allodaposuchus*-like neosuchian
510 in this paleocommunity. It is more conceivable that the large plate fragment bears the traces
511 of scavenging activity rather than those of a predatory attack.

512 In summary, based on the currently available data, the bite mark origin of the
513 pathologies detected on both elements studied here seems probable. Nevertheless, the general
514 shortage of comparative morphological and histological descriptions of similarly looking
515 traumatic and non-traumatic bone pathologies prevents us to draw firm conclusions on the
516 most likely causes of the deformities described in the studied specimens. If the bite mark
517 hypothesis is right, uncertainties further accumulate when questing for the identity of a
518 putative predator responsible for the tooth marks. Even so, all information obtainable at

519 present suggests that the inferred predator was a generalist crocodylian with conical tooth
520 morphology, such as the *Allodaposuchus*-like neosuchian known from the Iharkút locality.
521 This possibility raises further questions on the potential interspecific predator-prey interaction
522 among different crocodylians. Moreover, this study also draws attention to the need for more
523 comparative work on the morphological and histological appearance of bone pathologies
524 induced by different external and internal factors in extant vertebrates before inferring on the
525 origin of fossil bone deformations.

526

527

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977 **Figure captions**

978

979 **Figure 1.** Map and stratigraphic-sedimentological sections of the Iharkút locality (see colour
980 version online). A, Location map of the Iharkút vertebrate locality. B, Schematic section of
981 the Iharkút open-pit mine after Ósi and Mindszenty (2009). C, Schematic stratigraphic
982 section of the site SZ-6 showing the main palaeoenvironment and lithofacies associations.

983

984 **Figure 2.** Carapace fragment of the *Foxemys* turtle (MTM PAL 2013.93.1) with
985 pathological traits. A, Actual specimen in dorsal view with the indication of pathologies
986 (white arrows) and the locations of histological sampling (black squares). B, Line drawing
987 of the specimen in dorsal view outlining the pathological traits (solid grey lines), the bony
988 sutures (blue solid lines) between the first peripherals (per1) and the nuchal (nu), the sulci
989 (green dotted lines) between the four marginals (m1, m2) and the vertebral (ver1) scales, and
990 the direction of the histological sectioning (dashed lines). C, Arrangement of scutes in a
991 reconstructed intact carapace with the red outline marking the position of MTM PAL
992 2013.93.1 in dorsal view (see colour version online). D, Actual specimen and E, its line
993 drawing in ventral view with the indication of the same structures as in A and B.
994 Abbreviations: hs1, location of histological sampling of the intact region; hs2, location of
995 histological sampling through the largest pit mark; m1-2, marginals 1 and 2; nu, nuchal;
996 per1, peripheral 1; ver1, vertebral 1.

997

998 **Figure 3.** Skull roof fragment of the *Iharkutosuchus* (MTM PAL 2013.94.1) with
999 pathological traits. A, Pathological pits (white arrow) in dorsal view. B, Sketch of the same
1000 skull fragment with pathological marks indicated by grey line in dorsal view. Dotted lines
1001 mark sutures; hatched area indicates the hole piercing the skull roof. Dashed line denotes the

1002 direction of cut of the histological sample. C, Reconstruction of the skull of *Iharkutosuchus*
1003 with indication of the position of MTM PAL 2013.94.1 (red line) in dorsal view (see colour
1004 version online). Abbreviations: fr, frontal; pa, parietal; po, postorbital; sq, squamosum.

1005

1006 **Figure 4.** Transverse thin section of the intact region of the turtle plate fragment MTM PAL
1007 2013.93.1. A, Complete section revealing the diploe microanatomy of the shell with dorsal
1008 and ventral compact bone (dcb, vcb) and the cancellous bone (cb) sandwiched in between.
1009 Labelled squares indicate corresponding magnified areas showing finer details of the
1010 tripartite structure in B, D, and F. C, Close-up of the dorsal compact bone with short
1011 irregular and circular primary vascular canals (pvc) and abundant bundles of extrinsic
1012 structural fibres (esf) appearing as dark stripes. Areas of apparently acellular bone (acb?) are
1013 also visible. E, Higher magnification of some preserved osteocyte lacunae probably derived
1014 from dynamic osteogenesis (DO-1?), and the extrinsic structural fibres running between
1015 them. Further abbreviations: ds, dorsal surface; ec, erosion cavity; so, secondary osteon; vs,
1016 ventral surface.

1017

1018 **Figure 5.** Transverse thin section through the largest pit mark found on the turtle plate
1019 fragment MTM PAL 2013.93.1. A, Complete section with indication of the outline-shape of
1020 the depression (dashed line) and the direction of the presumed mechanical impact (black
1021 arrow) causing it. Labelled squares indicate corresponding magnified areas in B-G showing
1022 details of the pathologically eroded surface (pes) and the deeper shell layers. Note, that the
1023 only evident pathology compared to the intact section is the lack of the dorsal compact bone
1024 which reveals the inner cancellous bone on the dorsal external surface. Further
1025 abbreviations: LAG, lines of arrested growth; and as in Figure 4.

1026

1027 **Figure 6.** Transverse thin section of the *Iharkutosuchus* (MTM PAL 2013.94.1) skull
1028 fragment. A, Complete section under plane polarized light showing the general tripartite
1029 microstructure of the skull roof (delineated by dotted lines) including intact as well as
1030 pathologic regions. Black arrows indicate pathologic depressions, whereas dashed lines the
1031 outline of the eroded surfaces of the depressions. Large black arrow marks the pathological
1032 hole where the element was pierced through. Letter labels refer to the magnified areas shown
1033 in B-D. B, Histological details of the margin of a pathological pit at the broken edge of the
1034 fragment under single plane polarizers and C, under cross polarized light. Note the abrupt
1035 termination of the bone fibres running parallel to the ventral bone surface and the complete
1036 loss of the dorsal compact bone (dcb) in the deeper part of the pit revealing the cancellous
1037 layer on the eroded surface. D, Close-up of the intact sculptural pit (scp) and the distinct
1038 structural change of the primary parallel-fibred bone (pfb) at the border between the dorsal
1039 compact bone (dcb) and the middle cancellous bone (cb). Further abbreviations as in Figures
1040 4-5.

1041

1042 **Figure 7.** Counterpart of the transverse thin section of the *Iharkutosuchus* (MTM PAL
1043 2013.94.1) skull fragment. A, Complete section showing the general tripartite microstructure
1044 under cross polarized light. Black arrows and dashed lines indicate pathologic pits and the
1045 outline of their eroded surfaces, respectively. Large black arrow marks the pathological hole
1046 where the element was pierced through. Letter labels refer to the magnified areas shown in B-
1047 D. B and C, magnified areas of the margins of pathologic pits under crossed plane polarizers
1048 revealing the cut-off nature of the bone fibres and vascular canals at the edge of the pits and
1049 the loss of the dorsal cortex. D, Close-up of the shallow margin of a pathologic pit at the edge
1050 of the broken fragment. Note the apparent erosion cutting off the fibres of secondary osteons
1051 close to the surface. Abbreviations as in Figures 4-6.

1052

1053 **Figure 8.** Scaled silhouette-reconstructions of the studied *Foxemys* specimen, MTM PAL
1054 2013.93.1 (A), and the *Iharkutosuchus* specimen, MTM PAL 2013.94.1 (B), and the
1055 estimated maximum body size of the *Allodaposuchus*-like crocodylian (C) based on the known
1056 material from the Iharkút assemblage.