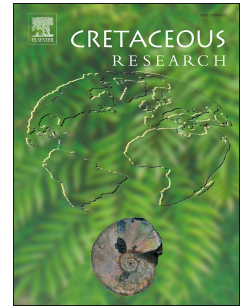


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1 A hypertrophied ungual phalanx from the lower Barremian of Spain: implications for
2 the diversity and palaeoecology of Spinosauridae (Theropoda) in Iberia

3

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 An enlarged theropod manual ungual (CSC1-4) from the *Weald* facies of Spain is
22 described. The claw was found in the fossil locality of Caña Seca 1, Teruel province,
23 within the El Castellar Formation of early Barremian (Early Cretaceous) in age.
24 CSC1-4 is morphologically closer to megalosauroids than to any other theropod clade
25 bearing enlarged manual claws and shows the greatest similarity to the manual ungual
26 of digit I of *Baryonyx walkeri*. Both CS1-4 and this taxon share a particularly enlarged,
27 elongated and transversely wide manual claw. CSC1-4, however, differs from
28 *Baryonyx*'s ungual in having less curvature, a straight dorsal edge in the proximal part,
29 slightly more width above the grooves than below, and a certain asymmetry, with the
30 lateral face more flattened. Taking into account the paleogeographic and temporal
31 context, these considerations suggest that they are closely related but distinct
32 spinosaurid taxa.

33 The presence of an enlarged manual claw in spinosaurids has been invoked as an
34 anatomical feature typically associated with scavenging and hunting habits, as well as
35 digging behaviour. The spinosaurid record from the Barremian of the Iberian Peninsula
36 shows that members of this clade favored freshwater environments with some marine
37 influence in this part of Europe.

38

39 **Key words:** El Castellar Formation, Megalosauroidea, *Baryonyx*, Lower Cretaceous,
40 Teruel.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Megalosauroidea forms a clade of large-bodied theropod dinosaurs whose presence in
44 the Lower Cretaceous of Europe is limited to the specialized clade of Spinosauridae
45 (e.g., Charig and Milner, 1986; Buffetaut, 2007; Canudo et al., 2008; Mateus et al.,
46 2011). Spinosaurids have been described as “crocodile mimics”, being predominantly
47 fish-eating predators with a semi-aquatic lifestyle (Serenó et al., 1998; Rayfield et al.,
48 2007; Amiot et al., 2010; Ibrahim et al., 2014). They were a highly specialized group
49 with a craniodental morphology clearly distinct from other carnivorous dinosaurs (e.g.,
50 Sereno et al., 1998; Rayfield et al., 2007; Hendrickx et al., 2016; Vullo et al., 2016).
51 *Baryonyx walkeri*, first recovered from the Barremian of England, is the best known
52 spinosaurid taxon hitherto and the only known species of Spinosauridae from Europe
53 (Charig and Milner, 1986). The holotype of *Baryonyx* consists of a partial skeleton
54 including partial skull and postcranium (Charig and Milner, 1986, 1997). Along with its
55 crocodile-like skull, *Baryonyx* also stands out in having a hypertrophied manual ungual
56 of digit I, which is the meaning of its genus name. Such enlarged thumb claw also
57 appears to be present in other spinosaurid taxa such as *Suchomimus tenerensis* (Serenó
58 et al., 1998) and possibly *Spinosaurus aegyptiacus* (Ibrahim et al., 2014). Several taxa
59 of large-bodied tetanurans also developed enlarged manual ungual phalanges (see Fig.
60 1), including the megalosaurid *Torvosaurus* (Galton and Jensen, 1979), the allosauroid
61 *Chilantaisaurus* (Benson and Xu, 2008), all megaraptorids (Porfiri et al., 2014) and the
62 tyrannosauroid *Dryptosaurus* (Brusatte et al., 2011). Noteworthy among more derived
63 theropods is the gigantic size of the forelimbs of *Deinocheirus*, terminating in powerful
64 yet poorly recurved claws (Osmólska and Roniewicz, 1970; Lautenschlager, 2014).

65 Remains referred to *Baryonyx* are also known from the Lower Cretaceous of Portugal
66 and Spain, though they mostly consist of dental material (e.g., Torcida et al., 1997;
67 Fuentes Vidarte et al., 2001; Mateus et al., 2011). The most complete specimen comes

68 from the Barremian Papo Seco Formation of Portugal and includes both cranial and
69 postcranial material (Buffetaut, 2007; Mateus et al., 2011). The Portuguese material was
70 referred to the species *Baryonyx walkeri* by Mateus et al. (2011) based on the
71 combination of shared dental characters, in spite the fact that some postcranial
72 differences, considered to be the result of intraspecific variation by these authors, occur.
73 In addition to the presence of *Baryonyx walkeri* in Iberia, several different tooth
74 morphotypes have been reported, implying the presence of more than one spinosaurid
75 taxon for some authors (e.g., Alonso and Canudo, 2016), although the scarcity of
76 associated postcranial material makes testing this hypothesis a challenge.

77 This paper aims to describe an enlarged theropod manual ungual recently discovered in
78 an outcrop from the *Weald* facies of Spain. This new specimen is compared in details
79 with those from other theropods. The implications of this new specimen for our
80 understanding of spinosaurid diversity are also discussed.

81

82 **2. Geological and Palaeontological Context**

83 The manual ungual CSC1-4 was recovered from the fossil locality of Caña Seca 1 in
84 the municipality of Gúdar, Teruel province, Spain (Fig. 2). The study area is located in
85 the northeastern part of the Iberian Chain. The latter was developed during the
86 Palaeogene as a result of the Alpine inversion of the Mesozoic Iberian Rift System (e.g.,
87 Salas et al., 2001). The Caña Seca 1 fossil site is part of the El Castellar Formation and
88 is palaeogeographically located within the Galve sub-basin, in the western part of the
89 Maestrazgo Basin (Fig. 2A). This basin forms part of the Iberian Rift System and was
90 developed during a rifting phase that commenced at the end of the Jurassic and lasted
91 until the mid-Albian (Salas et al., 2001). The Upper Jurassic-Lower Cretaceous
92 stratigraphy of the Galve sub-basin, summarized by Aurell et al. (2016), includes a syn-

93 rift sequence of predominantly continental-transitional series corresponding to *Weald*
94 facies. The carbonate-lutitic shallow-lacustrine-palustrine facies represented by the El
95 Castellar Formation across the entire Galve sub-basin were deposited during the latest
96 Hauterivian-earliest Barremian (Aurell et al., 2016), and are equivalent to the K1.4
97 sequence of the sequential stratigraphic model for the Maestrazgo Basin (Salas et al.,
98 2001). Given the presence and predominance of the charophyte *Atopochara trivolvis*
99 *triquetra* within the charophyte assemblage, the fossil site of Caña Seca 1 is dated to the
100 early Barremian (Riveline, 1996; Canudo et al., 2012).

101 The stratigraphic series of the Mesozoic outcrops northwest to the village of Gúdar,
102 where Caña Seca 1 is located, (Fig. 2C) begins with the late Tithonian-middle
103 Berriasian Aguilar del Alfambra Formation, which is around 400m thick (Aurell et al.,
104 2016). The overlying Galve Formation, dated to the late Berriasian-Hauterivian? in age,
105 comprises a 20-30 meters thick succession of red lutites with decametric burrowed
106 sandstones and a conglomeratic level in its middle part. Above this, the El Castellar
107 Formation is 60m thick and has a lower level of discontinuous white sandstone up to 5m
108 thick, with cross-bedding and lateral accretion geometries. The rest of the unit is
109 dominated by alternating brown-yellow marls and burrowed skeletal limestones, where
110 some vertebrate fossil sites have been found (Gasca et al., 2012).

111 The fossiliferous level of Caña Seca 1 (Fig. 2C) is located in the lower part of the El
112 Castellar Formation and comprises a 5m-thick level of grey marls just above the
113 basalmost detritic deposits of the El Castellar Formation. These grey marls bear dark-
114 grey and ochre mottling, carbonate nodules and bioturbation, which is characteristic of
115 shallow lacustrine-palustrine conditions (Meléndez et al., 2009), as usually seen in other
116 vertebrate fossil sites of the El Castellar Formation (e.g., Cuenca-Bescós et al., 2014).

117 The fossil assemblage of Caña Seca 1 is composed of microremains as well as isolated

118 vertebrate macrofossils. This fossil content consists of ostracod shells, charophytes
119 (*Globator maillardii trochiliscoides* and *Atopochara trivolvvis triquetra utriculi*),
120 coprolites and eggshell fragments along with vertebrate bony remains (Gasca et al.,
121 2012). Based on the identified remains of teeth, bones and scales, the faunal list of the
122 vertebrate assemblage comprises chondrichthyans (*Hybodus*), osteichthyans
123 (Semionotiformes, Amiiformes, *Archodonichthys*), lissamphibians, chelonians
124 (Solemydidae), dinosaurs (Ornithopoda and Theropoda) and crocodylomorphs
125 (Atoposauridae, cf. *Bernissartia* and Goniopholididae). The dinosaur remains recovered
126 from the fossiliferous bed are scarce. They consist of an isolated dorsal vertebra from an
127 undetermined iguanodontian ornithopod, a caudal centrum from a tetanuran theropod
128 bearing pleurocentral fossae on its lateral side, and the manual claw here studied. A
129 small isolated ilium from an undetermined coelurosaur was also found dozens of metres
130 away (Gasca et al., 2012).

131

132 3. Material and Methods

133 The fossil claw CSC1-4 (Fig. 3 and 4) was collected by surface prospecting during the
134 2010 fieldwork campaign by the Aragosaurus-IUCA research team of the University of
135 Zaragoza. Other fossil specimens from the same fossil locality were recovered by
136 surface collection or screen washing (microfossils) between 2008 and 2011. Additional
137 items from the El Castellar Formation mentioned in this paper (see Table 1: numbers
138 MOAL-1/1, SM-2/D1, BNA2-7, SUE1-2, VES4-1) were recovered during the same
139 fieldwork campaign. These fossil materials are deposited in the Natural History
140 Museum of the University of Zaragoza (Museo de Ciencias Naturales de la Universidad
141 de Zaragoza; Canudo, 2017).

142 The anatomical nomenclature of theropod unguals follows Charig and Milner (1997)
143 and Agnolin and Chiarelli (2010). The phylogenetic framework for Tetanurae followed
144 in this work is based on the results obtained by Rauhut et al., (2016) who performed a
145 phylogenetic analysis on a revised version of the datamatrix of Carrano et al. (2012).
146 For the purpose of comparison, the manual unguals of *Baryonyx walkeri* (NHMUK
147 R9951) *Suchomimus tenerensis* (NHMUK R16013, casts) and *Allosaurus fragilis*
148 (NHMUK R10868, cast) deposited in the Natural History Museum (NHMUK, London,
149 United Kingdom) were examined first-hand (Fig. 5). Figured silhouettes of the claws
150 from other theropod taxa were redrawn from the bibliography (see Fig. 1).

151 A tridimensional model of the theropod claw was generated through photogrammetry
152 (see Supplementary Online Material). CSC1-4 was digitized using the software Agisoft
153 PhotoScan™ (version 0.8.5.1423), following the methodology of Mallison and Wings
154 (2014). Photos were taken using a Panasonic DMC-TZ7 digital camera to compile a
155 360° digital reconstruction of the specimen. Two separate chunks were produced of the
156 dorsal and ventral surfaces (using 78 and 50 photographs respectively), maintaining
157 considerable overlap at the sides. These were generated using an 8-core workstation
158 with 32GB RAM.

159

160 **4. Systematic Palaeontology**

161 Dinosauria Owen 1842

162 Theropoda Marsh 1881

163 Megalosauroida Fitzinger 1843

164 Spinosauridae Stromer 1915

165 Aff. *Baryonyx* sp.

166 Material, locality and age: CSC1-4, a left manual ungual claw (digit I?) from the Caña
167 Seca 1 fossil locality, municipality of Gúdar, Teruel province, Spain. El Castellar
168 Formation, lower Barremian (Lower Cretaceous).

169

170 *Description and comparison*

171 CSC1-4 is a large and elongated ungual phalanx preserving much of its length, with
172 only the proximoventral and distal portions missing (Fig. 3). The preserved portion of
173 the claw has a proximodistal length of 190 mm, a lateromedial width of 64 mm and a
174 dorsoventral height of 100 mm in its maximum dimensions. The ungual is estimated to
175 reach over 220 mm in length. Recent damage due to aerial exposure in the outcrop has
176 caused the loss of the distal part by breakage, partial discoloration and slight weathering
177 of the fossil surfaces. Bone modification by taphonomic processes includes moderate
178 weathering of the claw, being difficult to quantify a precise stage due to the masking
179 effect produced by recent erosion. The proximal articular surface was largely covered
180 by carbonated matrix when the fossil was found, allowing the degree of bone
181 modification to be ascertained after preparation of the fossil by mechanical techniques
182 (Fig. 3A). This part of the bone was particularly altered during the biostratigraphic phase
183 as a result of weathering and perhaps other processes (i.e., consumption by scavenger
184 organisms), affecting in part the preservation of the original morphology, especially in
185 the area of the flexor tubercle.

186 The proximal articular surface bears a dorsoventrally oriented ridge that is slightly
187 offset medially, as in other theropods (e.g., *Dryptosaurus*, Brusatte et al., 2011). As
188 preserved, the dorsoventral height of the proximal articular surface seems to be roughly
189 similar to its width (Fig. 3A). Although its original shape is not well preserved, the
190 flexor tubercle seems to be prominent, as in other basal tetanurans (e.g., *Baryonyx*,

191 *Allosaurus*: Fig. 5). The asymmetry of the claw CSC1-4 is also shown by the medial
192 side being slightly more flattened than the lateral, unlike in *Baryonyx* which has more
193 symmetrical unguals.

194 The outline of CSC1-4 in profile (i.e., lateral and medial views) is fairly straight in the
195 proximal part of the dorsal edge, unlike the outline of other large manual claws
196 belonging to theropods. This outline is convex in baryonychine spinosaurids (Fig. 1)
197 and concave in the manual ungual of some megaraptorans (e.g., *Australovenator*; White
198 et al., 2012) and possibly *Spinosaurus* (Russel, 1996; Ibrahim et al., 2014). It also
199 differs from derived coelurosaurs in which the articular facet exceeds the ungual blade
200 in height, giving the appearance of a dorsal depression between the articular facet and
201 the claw blade (Rauhut and Werner, 1995). Otherwise, the gradual tapering of the
202 ungual is similar to other basal tetanurans (e.g., *Baryonyx*) but differs from that of
203 compsognathids such as *Juravenator*, whose manual claws taper abruptly around their
204 midpoints (Chiappe and Göhlich, 2010).

205 A well-defined, vascular groove runs along both the lateral and medial surfaces just
206 ventral to the mid-height of the phalanx and parallel to the ventral margin. One,
207 possibly two foramina can be observed within these grooves (Fig. 4). These foramina
208 are rarely mentioned in the literature (e.g., Pérez-Moreno et al., 1993) but are at least
209 present in the ungual I of the *Baryonyx* holotype.

210 The transverse section is oval in outline, becoming progressively more circular towards
211 the tip. The dorsal and ventral edges are lateromedially rounded unlike megaraptoran
212 allosauroids, which bear claws with a sharp ventral edge (e.g., White et al., 2015). The
213 dorsal portion of the section, above the grooves, is slightly broader: 45 mm wide above
214 the grooves versus 43 mm below, measured at a mid-length section. This contrasts with
215 the unguals of primitive theropods and allosauroids (Pérez-Moreno et al., 1993:

216 character 22), which are broader ventral to the grooves. This is also slightly different
217 from the unguals of spinosaurids such as *Baryonyx*. However, the relevance of this
218 feature in CSC1-4 must be taken cautiously given the poor state of preservation.

219

220 **5. Discussion**

221 The identification of the claw CSC1-4 as a theropod manual ungual rather than a pedal
222 ungual is based on several features, such as a proximal articular surface that is
223 dorsoventrally tall and shows a marked median keel, an oval transverse cross-section,
224 and a strong curvature (Agnolin and Chiarelli, 2009).

225 The asymmetry in the proximal articular surface (i.e., a dorsoventral ridge slightly offset
226 medially) is used to identify CSC1-4 as a left ungual. Given its large size, the attribution
227 of CSC1-4 to digit I is the most probable option according to the criteria previously
228 followed by other authors in identifying disarticulated claws (e.g., Galton and Jensen,
229 1979; Charig and Milner, 1997; Benson and Xu, 2008). However, the claw of digit two
230 in at least *Suchomimus* appears to be very large too, and almost as large as CSC1-4 (see
231 Fig. 5), so the fact that the latter might also belong to digit II cannot be ruled out. The
232 estimated total length of CSC1-4 is about 220mm, which is slightly less than digit I
233 unguals but clearly greater than the length of digit III of *Baryonyx* and *Suchomimus* (see
234 Fig. 5).

235 The known manual unguals of non-tetanuran theropods such as those of the
236 ceratosaurians *Limusaurus*, *Masiakasaurus* and *Noasaurus* clearly differ from CSC1-4.
237 *Noasaurus* differs in that its bizarre claw bears a median ventral ridge (Agnolin and
238 Chiarelli, 2009: fig. 1A), whereas those of *Masiakasaurus* differ in their lower curvature
239 and the reduction of the flexor tubercle (Carrano et al., 2002: fig. 12). In *Limusaurus*,
240 the unguals are mediolaterally expanded at their proximal end but differ in being short,

241 stout and small (Xu et al., 2009). Furthermore, the loss of manual unguals has been
242 suggested in some abelisaurids (Agnolin and Chiarelli, 2009).

243 The tetanuran clades Megalosauroidea and Allosauroidea includes large-bodied taxa
244 with enlarged forelimbs and hypertrophied claws (Benson et al., 2012). However, the
245 presence of enlarged and proximally wide manual unguals has only been reported in
246 megalosauroids (*sensu* Carrano et al., 2012). Carrano et al. (2012: character 259)
247 reported a character which describes the relative length, and thus size, of manual ungual
248 I based on the length:height ratio. By this criterion, enlarged claws are present at least in
249 the megalosaurs *Torvosaurus*, *Suchomimus* and *Baryonyx* and in the megaraptoran
250 *Megaraptor* (Carrano et al., 2012). Despite lacking the distal end, the total length of
251 CSC1-4 can be estimated by comparison with better-preserved specimens (see Fig. 5A),
252 allowing it to be identified as an enlarged claw comparable with those of other
253 theropods (Fig. 1). The estimated proximodistal length:dorsoventral height ratio is 2.2
254 in CSC1-4, which is similar to that of *Baryonyx*, *Suchomimus*, *Deinocheirus* or
255 *Fukuiraptor* (2.2-2.3) and lesser than that of *Torvosaurus?* (2.4), *Chilantaisaurus* (2.5),
256 *Dryptosaurus* (2.6), and *Spinosaurus?* and *Megaraptor* (3.2; see Fig. 1;). Other
257 megalosauroids (e.g., *Dubreuillosaurus*, 2.1) and allosauroids (e.g., *Sinraptor*, 1.9;
258 *Allosaurus*, 2.0) show lower ratios (see Fig. 1).

259 The manual claws of neovenatorids (including megaraptorans) and the first manual
260 ungual of some spinosaurids are similarly enlarged and elongated relative to those of
261 other non-coelurosaurian theropods (Benson and Xu, 2008). However, megaraptorans
262 (e.g., *Australovenator*, *Fukuiraptor*, *Megaraptor*) and *Chilantaisaurus* bear transversely
263 narrow claws (Carrano et al., 2012: character 260; Porfiri et al., 2014: character 141),
264 which are therefore very different from CSC1-4. The hypertrophied manual claws and
265 modified manus of neovenatorids (mostly megaraptorans) represent an unusual

266 morphological adaptation among carnivorous dinosaurs (e.g., White et al., 2015). Some
267 manual unguals in *Australovenator* and *Fukuiraptor* also differ in having asymmetrical
268 lateral grooves and a well-developed ridge on the ventral margin (Porfiri et al., 2014:
269 characters 144 and 145).

270 The case of *Chilantaisaurus* from the Cretaceous of Mongolia is paradigmatic; it has
271 been recovered as a derived member of both Allosauroidae and Megalosauroidae
272 (Benson and Xu, 2008). *Chilantaisaurus* shares certain features with some
273 megalosauroids: an enlarged and elongated first manual ungual and a suprastragalar
274 buttress that has been modified to a vertical ridge (Benson and Xu, 2008). In fact, Allain
275 et al. (2012) considered *Chilantaisaurus* to be a member of Spinosauridae after adding
276 this taxon to their matrix. Pursuing further this approach, they highlighted that, among
277 large theropods, an enlarged manual digit I ungual had only been reported in the
278 ‘spinosaurids’ *Baryonyx*, *Suchomimus* and *Chilantaisaurus* (Allain et al., 2012).
279 However, later phylogenetic analyses by other authors place *Chilantaisaurus* within
280 Allosauroidae, more specifically within the clade of neovenatorid
281 carcharodontosaurians as the sister taxon of megaraptorans (Carrano et al., 2012;
282 Rauhut et al., 2016). Unlike Spinosauridae, the ungual claw of *Chilantaisaurus* is
283 clearly more laterally compressed (see Benson and Xu, 2008: fig. 2C), supporting an
284 affinity with megaraptorans.

285 Allosauroids such as *Allosaurus* (Madsen, 1976; Pérez-Moreno et al., 1993) and
286 *Sinraptor* (Currie and Zhao, 1993: fig. 20) also differ in the lateral compression of their
287 unguals, which is less important than in megaraptorans but greater than in spinosaurids.
288 This difference may not be obvious (see Fig. 5G2), but it adds to the more strongly
289 curved nature of the claw in *Allosaurus* than in spinosaurids (Charig and Milner, 1997).
290 Other allosauroids such as carcharodontosaurids can be differentiated by the presence of

291 claws that are almost as high (proximally) as long (Rauhut and Werner, 1995).
292 Carcharodontosaurids such as *Mapusaurus* bear manual unguals that are distinctive in
293 having asymmetrical positioning of the lateral grooves (see Coria and Currie, 2006: fig.
294 25).
295 Basal coelurosaurs bearing proportionally large manual unguals such as *Juravenator*,
296 *Sinosauroptryx* and *Tanycolagreus* (Porfiri et al., 2014: character 48) differ in the
297 morphology and the smaller size of their unguals in absolute terms, the latter reflecting
298 their small body size. The claw morphology of *Juravenator* is characteristic in being
299 very high proximally and tapering abruptly around the midpoint (Chiappe and Göhlich,
300 2010). The claws in *Sinosauroptryx* and *Tanycolagreus* (Currie and Chen, 2001;
301 Carpenter et al., 2005) are significantly less curved than in spinosaurids. Tyrannosaurids
302 (e.g., *Tyrannosaurus*, *Albertosaurus*) differ in having a flexor tubercle reduced to a
303 small convexity (Porfiri et al., 2014: character 143) and shallower vascular grooves
304 (Benson et al., 2012). Other derived coelurosaurs bearing powerful enlarged manual
305 claws are the therizinosaurids, but their claws are wholly different in their lesser curvature
306 and the abruptly tapering morphology of the proximal end (e.g., *Deinocheirus*,
307 Osmólska and Roniewicz, 1970; Lautenschlager, 2014).
308 Without ruling out other affinities completely, the ungual phalanx CSC1-4 can be
309 reliably related to Megalosauroidea. A large ungual phalanx from the Upper Jurassic
310 Morrison Formation was referred to *Torvosaurus* (Galton and Jensen, 1979: fig. 1M).
311 This element (BYU 2020) was found isolated in another fossil locality far from the
312 *Torvosaurus* type locality. Later it was suggested that this manual ungual might actually
313 be referable to Spinosauridae, this being the oldest known occurrence of the group
314 (Allain et al., 2012). Apart from the uncertainty of its assignment to *Torvosaurus*, the
315 megalosauroid affinity of the claw BYU 2020 seems clear in the light of features such

316 as the degree of curvature, which is similar to that of *Baryonyx* and clearly less than in
317 other coeval large-sized theropods such as *Allosaurus* (see Fig. 1).

318 Further comparison between CSC1-4 and BYU 2020 requires first-hand examination of
319 the latter. Other megalosauroids such as *Dubreuillosaurus* (Allain, 2005) and possibly
320 *Megalosaurus* (Owen, 1849: plate 32 in vol. II) bear less enlarged manual claws, with
321 lower ratios of length:height (roughly 2.1 in both taxa) and width:height (0.42 estimated
322 in *Megalosaurus*). Taking into account the stratigraphical context and their shared
323 morphological features, the inclusion of CSC1-4 within Spinosauridae is the most
324 plausible scenario.

325 The preserved segment of the dorsal edge of CSC1-4 is gently curved, similar to
326 *Suchomimus* and to a lesser extent than in *Baryonyx* (Fig. 5) and in BYU 2020 (Galton
327 and Jensen, 1979). The straight profile of the dorsal edge at its proximalmost end in
328 CSC1-4 is different from all the others. CSC1-4 bears greatest similarity to the manual
329 ungual of digit I of *Baryonyx walkeri* (Charig and Milner, 1986, 1997). They share
330 general features such as being enlarged, elongated and transversely wide. The
331 lateromedial width:dorsoventral height ratio in CSC1-4 (0.64) is higher than in
332 *Baryonyx* and *Suchomimus* (0.56) and these values are in turn higher than in other
333 theropods (e.g., *Chilantaisaurus*, 0.36; *Allosaurus*, 0.47; *Deinocheirus*, 0.49; *Sinraptor*,
334 0.50; *Dryptosaurus*, 0.55).

335 On the other hand, ungual CSC1-4 differs from that of *Baryonyx walkeri* in having a
336 little less curvature, a straight dorsal edge in the proximal part, slightly more width
337 above the grooves than below –comparing the section at mid-length–, and a certain
338 asymmetry, with the lateral face more flattened. These considerations suggest that they
339 were closely related but distinct spinosaurid taxa, which is in agreement with their close
340 palaeogeographical and temporal proximity. The open nomenclature aff. *Baryonyx* sp. is

341 used here to highlight the close affinity of the ungual CSC1-4 with the contemporary
342 spinosaurid *Baryonyx walkeri*, from the Barremian of Europe. Nevertheless, at least the
343 same degree of morphological similarity is present between CSC1-4 and the slightly
344 younger African spinosaurid *Suchomimus*.

345

346 *Additional spinosaurid material from the El Castellar Formation*

347 Other localities from the El Castellar Formation have also yielded spinosaurid material.
348 Isolated teeth are the most common spinosaurid material from this formation (Sánchez-
349 Hernández et al., 2007; Gasca et al., 2008, 2009; Table 1; Fig. 6), yet two middle caudal
350 vertebrae have also been recovered from two different localities respectively located in
351 Aliaga (Fig. 6B) and Miravete de la Sierra.

352 The isolated crowns from the El Castellar Formation are weakly labiolingually
353 compressed, and bear mesial and distal carinae as well as apicobasal ridges on both
354 labial and lingual sides. MOAL-1/D1 (Fig. 6A) and BNA-2/7 from Aliaga and Mora de
355 Rubielos, respectively, belong to the same tooth morphotype as the teeth from the
356 coeval La Cantalera 1 fossil site of the Blesa Formation and referred to Baryonychinae
357 (Alonso and Canudo, 2016).

358 SM-2/D1 from Miravete de la Sierra represents another tooth morphotype characterized
359 by the absence of mesial denticles (Gasca et al., 2009: fig. 4A). The crown also bears a
360 split distal carina, which is probably the result of a pathological condition, as reported in
361 other theropod teeth (e.g., Candeiro and Tanke, 2008). Specimen MPG PX-23 from
362 Galve was confusingly described and figured by Sánchez-Hernández et al. (2007), and it
363 is difficult to ascertain whether it is a baryonychine tooth. The specimen is attributed to
364 Baryonychinae due to the presence of minute denticles on the distal carina, whereas the
365 mesial carina is unserrated. However, the tooth does not possess the flutes characteristic

366 of spinosaurid teeth (e.g., Alonso and Canudo, 2016), and the number of denticles per
367 mm is not provided. Some authors have pointed out the existence of a baryonychine
368 morphotype without denticles on the mesial carina, as stated above (Canudo and Ruiz-
369 Omeñaca, 2003; Infante et al., 2005). Specimen MPG PX-23 seems to belong to a
370 different tooth morphotype characterized by the absence apicobasal ridges. As a whole,
371 the teeth from the El Castellar Formation appear to be different from those of *Baryonyx*
372 *walkeri* as the latter bear apicobasal ridges only on the lingual side. Furthermore, the
373 morphotypes from the El Castellar Formation seem to indicate the presence of more
374 than one spinosaurid representative. However, this proposal cannot be definitively
375 addressed with the currently available specimens, given that heterodonty may be an
376 alternative, equally plausible explanation.

377 Two other fossil localities from the El Castellar Formation have provided postcranial
378 material assignable to Spinosauridae. SUE1-2 (Fig. 6B) and VES4-1 are two vertebral
379 centra belonging to the middle caudal series, which are quite similar to the caudal
380 vertebrae of the Portuguese specimen ML1190 from the Barremian Papo Seco
381 Formation of Portugal, referred to *Baryonyx walkeri* (Mateus et al., 2011). They are
382 amphicoelous, and the posterior face is more shallowly concave. The anterior and
383 posterior faces of the centra have a characteristic subrectangular outline, being as high
384 as wide. The chevron facets are well visible, mainly on the ventroposterior margin of
385 the centrum. The ventral face of the centrum has two parallel ridges between which a
386 deep and wide longitudinal groove extends along the midline.

387 The ungual phalanx CSC1-4 described in detail in this work is an isolated but
388 informative occurrence of Spinosauridae. In the absence of more complete specimens,
389 CSC1-4 is the only postcranial fossil from the lower Barremian El Castellar Formation
390 apart from the isolated vertebrae mentioned just above. The fragmentary nature of the

391 vertebrate record is the general taphonomic pattern of the El Castellar Formation (e.g.,
392 Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2007; Gasca et al., 2009; Cuenca-Bescós et al., 2014). Given
393 this context, each fossil occurrence is relevant in order to reconstruct the El Castellar
394 Formation biota as a whole. Regarding theropods, the presence of spinosaurids
395 contributes to a diverse biota from El Castellar Formation biota, together with
396 allosauroids (Buscalioni and Sanz, 1984; Gasca et al., 2012) and coelurosaurians (see
397 Ruiz-Omeñaca et al., 2004).

398

399 *Approach to the palaeoecological significance of the presence of spinosaurids*

400 Spinosauroids were a major component of the theropod faunas in the Early Cretaceous of
401 Iberia. The presence of spinosaurids has been confirmed in several localities in the
402 Maestrazgo Basin, including the Barremian units of El Castellar, the Blesa Formation
403 (Canudo et al., 2010; Alonso et al., 2016), the Mirambel Formation (Infante et al., 2005;
404 Gasca et al., 2014), and the Papo Seco Formation (Mateus et al., 2011); the upper
405 Barremian Morella Formation (Canudo et al., 2008); and the upper Hauterivian-Aptian
406 series from the Cameros Basin (Torcida et al., 1997; Fuentes Vidarte et al., 2001). This
407 contrasts with the absence of spinosaurids or any other megalosaurid theropods in La
408 Huerguina Formation (Serranía de Cuenca Basin, southern Iberian Range; Barremian),
409 in which a large diversity of theropods is present (Buscalioni et al., 2008; Ortega et al.,
410 2012). The intensive palaeontological surveys in this formation over the last 30 years
411 have yielded several large-bodied theropods in the same environment (e.g., the
412 carcharodontosaurid *Concavenator*, Ortega et al., 2012). This suggests that the absence
413 of megalosaurid theropods is not a sampling or taphonomic bias, but characterizes the
414 palaeoecosystem of La Huerguina Formation.

415 A recent analysis of the environmental preferences of allosauroids and megalosauroids
416 in the Jurassic indicates that the former preferred inland environments, whereas the
417 latter are more common in nearshore environments (Rauhut et al., 2016). On the other
418 hand, megalosauroid theropods, represented by the spinosaurids, were positively
419 associated with coastal palaeoenvironments in the Cretaceous whereas
420 carcharodontosaurids and abelisaurids were more closely associated with terrestrial
421 palaeoenvironments during the same period (Sales et al., 2016).

422 Both groups of large-sized theropods (i.e., carcharodontosaurid allosauroids and
423 spinosaurid megalosauroids) are present in the palustrine-lacustrine deposits of the El
424 Castellar Formation as well as in other coeval units of the Maestrazgo Basin, such as the
425 Blesa Formation (Canudo et al., 2010; Alonso et al., 2016) and the Mirambel Formation
426 (Infante et al., 2005; Gasca et al., 2014). The sedimentary record of the El Castellar
427 Formation corresponds rather to inland environments, but these are located
428 palaeogeographically close to coastal zones. Furthermore, an ostreid-bearing limestone
429 bed from the uppermost part of the El Castellar Formation has been identified in the
430 Gúdar area, showing a certain degree of marine influence and confirming its proximity
431 to the sea. A coastal influence is more in evidence in some horizons in the Mirambel
432 and Blesa Formations (Canudo et al., 2010; Gasca et al., 2017). On the other hand, La
433 Huerguina Formation is a genuine inland wetland, with no marine influence (Buscalioni
434 and Poyato-Ariza, 2016).

435 A large number of anatomical features in spinosaurids clearly indicates a very different
436 mode of prey capture and processing from other theropods, with a tendency to focus on
437 aquatic prey items (Hone and Holtz, 2017). A piscivorous diet has been suggested for
438 spinosaurid megalosauroids on the basis of jaw as well as tooth morphology and
439 stomach contents (e.g., Charig and Milner, 1997; Ibrahim et al., 2014; Hendrickx et al.,

440 2016). But direct evidences have shown on two instances that spinosaurid were also
441 feeding on ornithischians (Charig & Milner, 1997) and pterosaurs (Buffetaut et al.,
442 2004) as well. Furthermore, on the basis of the oxygen isotopic composition of their
443 phosphatic remains, Amiot et al. (2010) revealed that spinosaurs had semiaquatic
444 lifestyles. This research shed light on niche partitioning among large predatory
445 dinosaurs, so that the likely piscivorous diet and aquatic habits of spinosaurids may
446 have allowed them to coexist with other large theropods such as carcharodontosaurids
447 and abelisaurids by reducing competition for food and territory (Amiot et al., 2014).
448 The fossil record of the Iberian Peninsula also supports the fact that spinosaurs preferred
449 freshwater environments with a certain degree of marine influence.

450

451 *Approach to the palaeoecological significance of the manual claw morphology in*
452 *spinosaurids*

453 The morphological study of ungual phalanges in animals is of particular importance
454 since variations are associated with different life styles, activities such as locomotion
455 and hunting, as well as ecology and habits (Pike and Maitland, 2004; Birn-Jeffery et al.,
456 2012; Lautenschlager, 2014). They can be expected to show different morphological
457 adaptations according to the type of substrate and the way in which they are applied to it
458 (Macleod and Rose, 1993).

459 In theropod dinosaurs, the shape and size of pedal unguals have been related with
460 grasping (see Becerra et al., 2016), perching (see Manning et al., 2009), digging (e.g.,
461 Simpson et al., 2010), wading and climbing (Glen and Bennett, 2007). Nevertheless, the
462 function of manual unguals has received less interest (Lautenschlager, 2014). Ostrom
463 (1969) and Currie and Chen (2001), for example, proposed that *Deinonychus* and
464 *Sinosauroptryx* used their claws for grasping their prey. Lautenschlager (2014) pointed

465 out that some therizinosaur taxa used their claws in a generalist fashion, whereas other
466 taxa were functionally adapted for using the claws as grasping hooks during foraging.
467 Even the single manual ungual of the alvarezsaurid *Linhenykus* has been related with
468 digging behaviour (Xu et al., 2010).

469 Many ideas have been proposed on the functional morphology and the mode of life of
470 spinosaurids (e.g., Charig and Milner, 1997; Rayfield et al., 2007; Ibrahim et al., 2014;
471 Hendrickx et al., 2016; Vullo et al., 2016), but the presence of an enlarged manual claw
472 has been left largely out of account. A scavenging habit has been suggested for
473 *Baryonyx* on the basis of the massively developed forelimbs with huge claws, which
474 would be ideal for breaking into a carcass (Kitchener, 1987). However, it has usually
475 been argued that they had a diet consisting mainly of fish (Charig and Milner, 1997).
476 These authors considered the enlarged manual claws of *Baryonyx* to be a powerful
477 offensive weapon. They presented this spinosaurid as mainly a fish-eater, although
478 fishing would not be its only source of food, and pointed out that it may well have been
479 both an active predator (using its powerful forelimbs and claws rather than its jaws and
480 teeth) and/or an opportunistic scavenger (Charig and Milner, 1997). In their discussion,
481 Charig and Milner (1997) note that: “*The characters of the fore-limb and manus suggest*
482 *that the forelimbs of Baryonyx were exceptionally powerful, the fore-arm being capable*
483 *of exerting great force at the wrist when extended. (...)The enlarged claws could also*
484 *have been used for 'gaffing', i.e. hooking or flipping fishes out of the water as is done*
485 *today by grizzly bears.*”

486 Many extant (anteaters, pangolins, moles, armadillos, etc.) and extinct mammals
487 (ground sloths, glyptodonts, palaeonodons, etc.) also present hypertrophied manus
488 claws (see Rose and Emry, 1983) and all of them share the ecological habit of being

489 diggers. Digging is a behaviour that has only recently been explored in dinosaurs (see
490 Fearon and Varricchio, 2015 and references therein).

491 Hildebrand (1985) proposed three basic types of limb-based digging mechanics used by
492 mammals: scratch digging, humeral rotation and hook-and-pull. The first two are
493 characteristic of fossorial animals (i.e., animals adapted to digging and living
494 underground) that use their short, robust forelimbs and hypertrophied manual ungual
495 phalanges to build their burrows (Kley and Kearney, 2007). Fearon and Varricchio
496 (2015) studied the forearm of the basal ornithomimid *Oryctodromeus cubicularis*, which
497 was found in a burrow, and concluded that it produced burrows by scratch digging. By
498 contrast, hook-and-pull digging is not typically used for burrowing, but for food
499 gathering (Fearon and Varricchio, 2015). Hook-and-pull digging is a two-step process:
500 1) the enormous, curved claws of the forefoot are hooked into a preexisting crack,
501 crevice or hole; and 2) the digits are strongly flexed and the forefoot is pulled back
502 toward the body. Anteaters use this technique when foraging to rip holes into termite
503 mounds, ant hills and rotting logs (Kley and Kearney, 2007). Senter (2005) suggested
504 that animals that use hook-and-pull digging must have one huge manual ungual that is
505 larger than the others, and an enlarged digit capable of enough flexion to reach the palm
506 (Hildebrand, 1985). The *Baryonyx* holotype includes some manual digit elements, and
507 the ungual of the first digit is notably larger than the others (Charig and Milner, 1997).
508 Moreover, it preserves a well-developed flexor tubercle. In the light of the above
509 discussion, we suggest that the hypertrophied manual ungual CSC1-4, as well as that of
510 other spinosaurids, could be associated with hook-and-pull digging behaviour. In their
511 recent review of Spinosauridae, Hone and Holtz (2017) point out that the short, robust
512 nature of the limb with an enlarged olecranon in combination with enlarged unguals is a
513 feature held in common with animals that engage in scratch-digging and hook-and-pull

514 digging. The authors suggest that the relatively narrow width of the enlarged ungula and
515 the lack of a spade-like spread to the limbs imply that it was used for digging into
516 harder substrates rather than moving large quantities of softer materials. Hone and Holtz
517 (2017) propose that the hypertrophied manual ungual of spinosaurids could have served
518 them to dig up nests, dig for water or reach certain prey items. Another hypothesis
519 would be to help them raise their prey from the ground. In this sense, Russell (1996)
520 points out that lungfish bones have been found close to *Spinosaurus* remains in
521 Morocco. On the other hand, Ibrahim et al. (2014) hypothesized that elongate manual
522 phalanges and less recurved, manual unguals likely referable to *Spinosaurus* (Russell,
523 1996: fig. 24) possibly used in gaffing and slicing aquatic prey. Nevertheless, whether
524 used for hooking or flipping fishes (Charig and Milner, 1997), for opportunistic
525 scavenging (Kitchener, 1987) or for digging, such skill involves the same bone
526 movements: hooking with large curved claws into a substrate, carcass or a living
527 animal; flexing; and pulling back toward the body. To further explore the functional
528 morphology of the spinosaurid manus claw, future research should focus on an analysis
529 of the forearm and pectoral girdle as a whole. Morphometric and Finite Element
530 analyses of these elements may shed light on the relative contributions of the three
531 postulated behaviours in shaping the powerful claw of spinosaurid dinosaurs.

532

533 **6. Conclusion**

534 The record of an isolated large manual claw in the El Castellar Formation yields new
535 evidence on the common presence of spinosaurids within the vertebrate communities of
536 the Barremian of southwestern Europe (i.e., Iberia). It also provides new data on the
537 presence of a second spinosaurid taxon apart from *Baryonyx walkeri*, reinforcing the

538 information from the tooth record which already pointed to the coexistence of various
539 spinosaurid species in the Barremian of Europe.

540 This claw is the only postcranial spinosaurid fossil from the lower Barremian El
541 Castellar Formation apart from two isolated vertebrae, and it is highly relevant for
542 reconstructing the diversity of this fossil biota. Within Theropoda, the presence of
543 spinosaurids in the El Castellar Formation is thus added to that of other large-sized
544 tetanurans such as allosauroids as well as several coelurosaurians.

545 The record of spinosaurids from the Barremian of the Iberian Peninsula shows that this
546 theropod group preferred freshwater environments with a certain degree of marine
547 influence in this part of Europe.

548 In spite of the fact that studies of function are poorly developed in manual unguals, the
549 presence of an enlarged manual claw in spinosaurids has been invoked as an anatomical
550 feature that could be useful in various palaeoecological scenarios – i.e., for scavenging
551 and/or as an offensive weapon – but recently the option of its use in digging behaviour
552 has also been considered.

553

554 **Supplementary Online Material**

555 A tridimensional model of the theropod claw CSC1-4 generated by photogrammetry.

556

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573

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819

820 FIGURE CAPTIONS

821 Figure 1. Size comparison of scale of theropod manual claws in profile. Claws are
822 aligned from their proximodorsal corners, whereas each claw is oriented so that the line
823 between the dorsoproximal corner and the distal tip is horizontal.

824 Figure 2. Geographical and geological setting of Caña Seca 1 fossil locality (Gúdar,
825 Teruel province, Spain), modified from Gasca et al. (2012). A. Palaeogeographical
826 location within the Maestrazgo Basin. B. Detailed geographical location near the village
827 of Gúdar. C. Stratigraphic section of the studied outcrop.

828 Figure 3. Manual ungual CSC1-4 in proximal (A), medial (B), lateral (C), distal (D) and
829 dorsal (E) views. Abbreviations: laf – lateral articular facet, maf – medial articular facet,
830 ft – flexor tubercle.

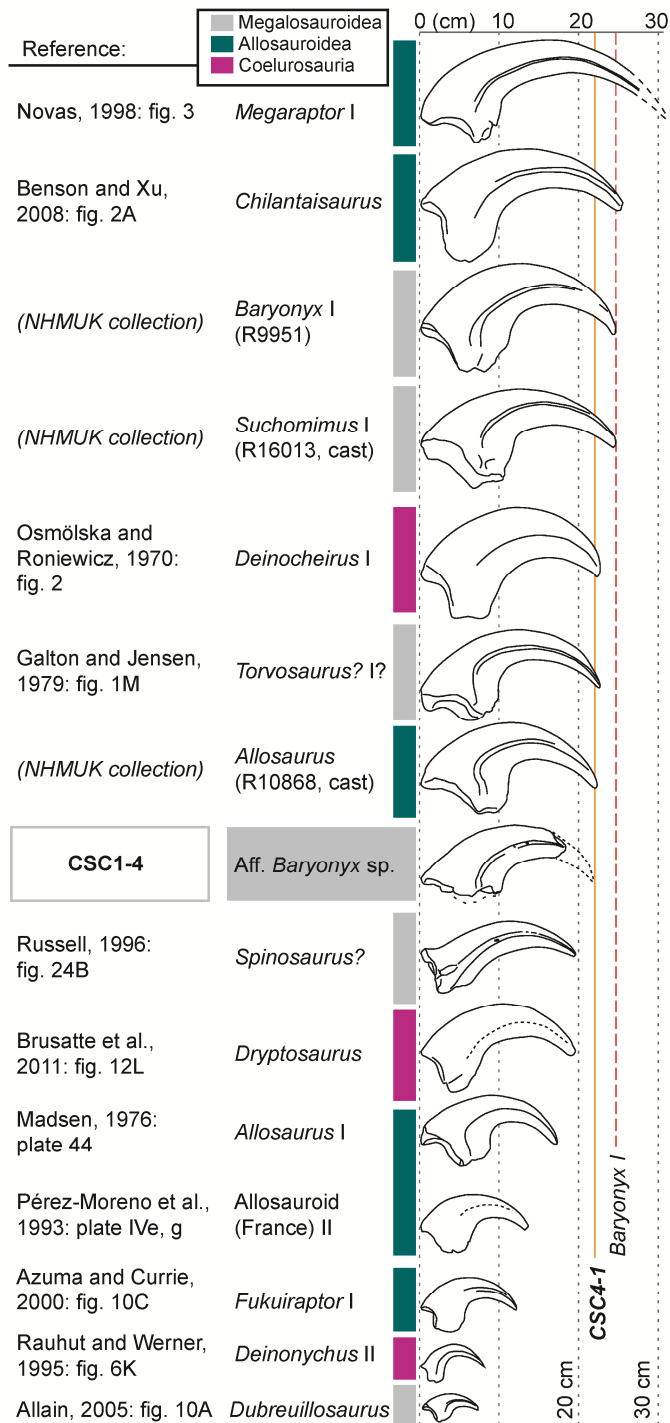
831 Figure 4. CSC1-4, close-up of the medial side showing the presence of foramina on the
832 vascular groove.

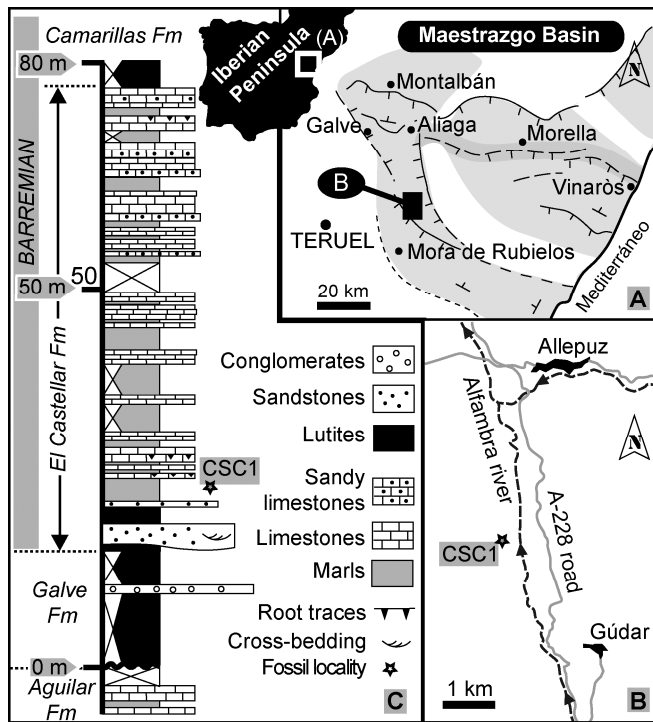
833 Figure 5. Manual claws (original fossil or cast), examined first-hand, of spinosaurid (A-
834 F) and allosaurid theropods (G). A. CSC1-4 in medial (A1), dorsal (A2) and lateral (A3)
835 view. B-C. *Baryonyx walkeri*, ungual I in medial (B1), lateral (B2) and dorsal (B3)
836 views and ungual of digit II or III in dorsal (C1), medial (C2) and lateral (C3) views. D-
837 F. *Suchomimus tenerensis*, ungual I in medial (D1), lateral (D2) and dorsal (D3) views,
838 ungual II (E) and III (F) in medial view. G. *Allosaurus*, profile (G1) and dorsal (G2)
839 view.

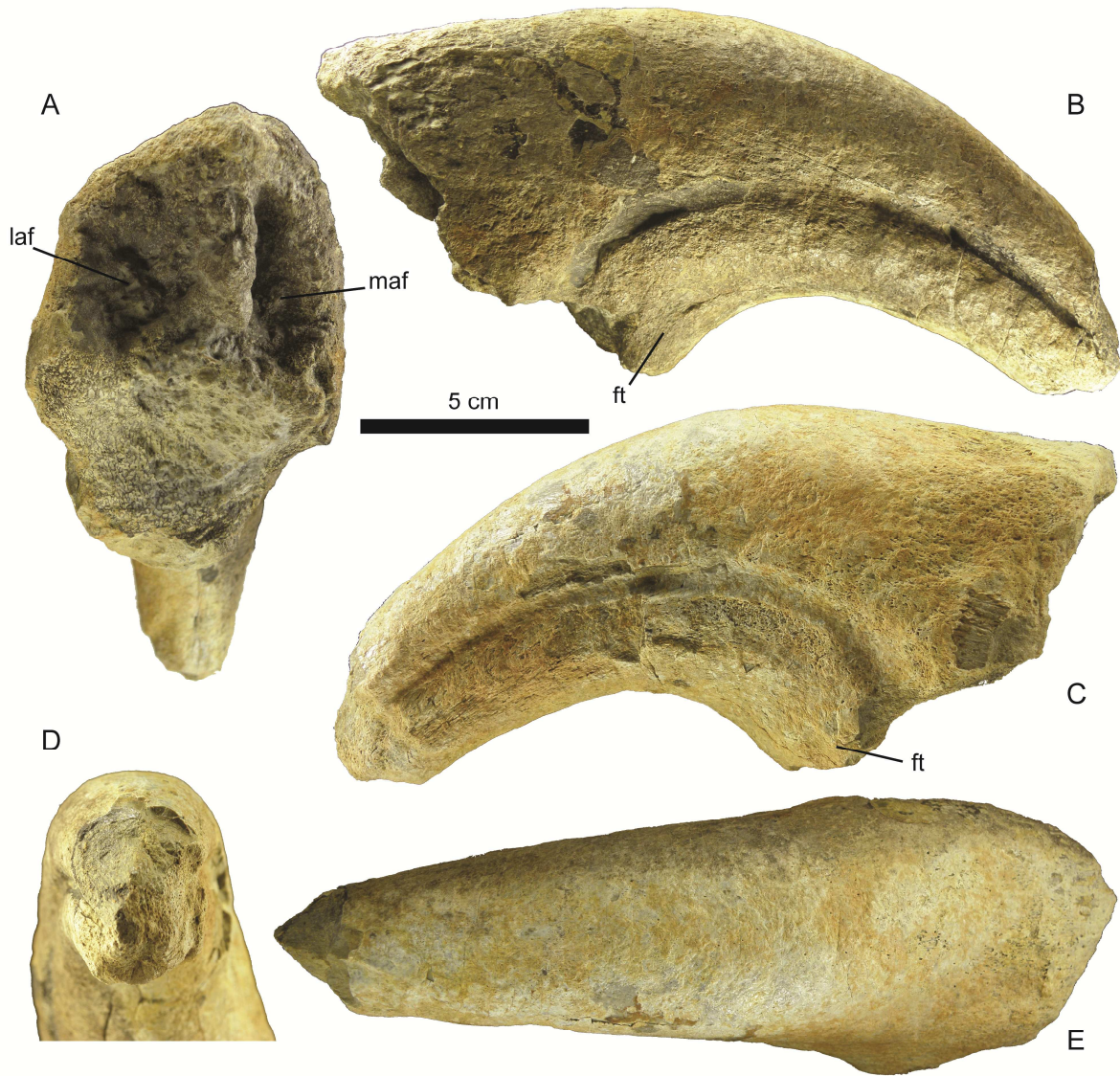
840 Figure 6. Some additional spinosaurid fossils from the El Castellar Formation. A. Tooth
841 MOAL-1/1 in mesial (A1), lateral (A2) and adapical (A3) views. B. Caudal centrum
842 SUE 1-2 in dorsal (B1), left lateral (B2) and posterior (B3) views.
843 Table 1. Spinosaurid record of the El Castellar Formation (lower Barremian, Teruel
844 province, Spain).
845

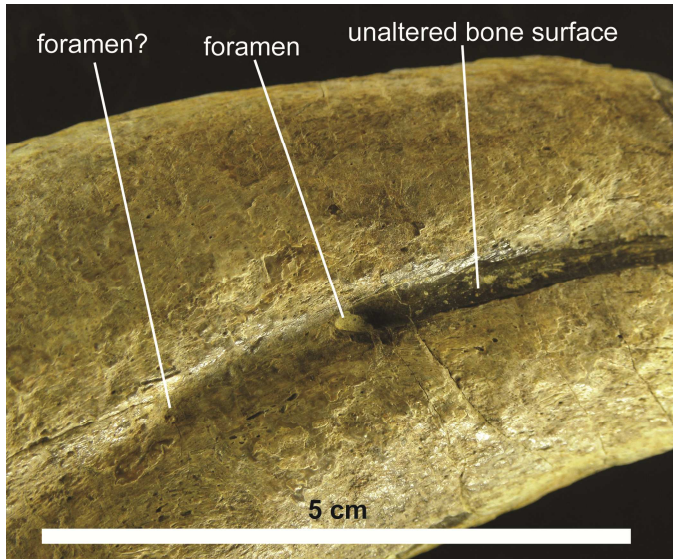
Number	Material	Fossil locality	Municipality	Reference
MPG PX-23	Tooth	"PX outcrop"	Galve	Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2007
MOAL-1/1	Tooth	Molino Alto 1	Aliaga	Gasca et al., 2008
SM-2/D1	Tooth	Senda Miravete 2	Miravete de la Sierra	Gasca et al., 2009
BNA2-7	Tooth	Barranco de las Navas 2	Mora de Rubielos	This work
SUE1-2	Middle caudal centrum	Suertes 1	Miravete de la Sierra	This work
VES4-1	Middle caudal centrum	Valdespino 4	Aliaga	This work
CSC1-4	Manual claw	Caña Seca 1	Gúdar	This work

Table 1. Fossil remains of Spinosauridae from the El Castellar Formation.









ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

