Braincase and endocranial anatomy of two thalattosuchian crocodylomorphs and their relevance in understanding their adaptations to the marine environment (#28033)

First submission

Editor guidance

Please submit by 1 Jul 2018 for the benefit of the authors (and your \$200 publishing discount).



Structure and Criteria

Please read the 'Structure and Criteria' page for general guidance.



Author notes

Have you read the author notes on the guidance page?



Raw data check

Review the raw data. Download from the location described by the author.



Image check

Check that figures and images have not been inappropriately manipulated.

Privacy reminder: If uploading an annotated PDF, remove identifiable information to remain anonymous.

Files

Download and review all files from the <u>materials page</u>.

10 Figure file(s)

Structure your review

The review form is divided into 5 sections. Please consider these when composing your review:

- 1. BASIC REPORTING
- 2. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN
- 3. VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS
- 4. General comments
- 5. Confidential notes to the editor
- You can also annotate this PDF and upload it as part of your review

When ready submit online.

Editorial Criteria

Use these criteria points to structure your review. The full detailed editorial criteria is on your guidance page.

BASIC REPORTING

- Clear, unambiguous, professional English language used throughout.
- Intro & background to show context. Literature well referenced & relevant.
- Structure conforms to **Peerl standards**, discipline norm, or improved for clarity.
- Figures are relevant, high quality, well labelled & described.
- Raw data supplied (see Peerl policy).

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

- Original primary research within Scope of the journal.
- Research question well defined, relevant & meaningful. It is stated how the research fills an identified knowledge gap.
- Rigorous investigation performed to a high technical & ethical standard.
- Methods described with sufficient detail & information to replicate.

VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS

- Impact and novelty not assessed. Negative/inconclusive results accepted. Meaningful replication encouraged where rationale & benefit to literature is clearly stated.
- Data is robust, statistically sound, & controlled.
- Speculation is welcome, but should be identified as such.
- Conclusions are well stated, linked to original research question & limited to supporting results.

Standout reviewing tips



The best reviewers use these techniques

	p

Support criticisms with evidence from the text or from other sources

Give specific suggestions on how to improve the manuscript

Comment on language and grammar issues

Organize by importance of the issues, and number your points

Please provide constructive criticism, and avoid personal opinions

Comment on strengths (as well as weaknesses) of the manuscript

Example

Smith et al (J of Methodology, 2005, V3, pp 123) have shown that the analysis you use in Lines 241-250 is not the most appropriate for this situation. Please explain why you used this method.

Your introduction needs more detail. I suggest that you improve the description at lines 57-86 to provide more justification for your study (specifically, you should expand upon the knowledge gap being filled).

The English language should be improved to ensure that an international audience can clearly understand your text. Some examples where the language could be improved include lines 23, 77, 121, 128 - the current phrasing makes comprehension difficult.

- 1. Your most important issue
- 2. The next most important item
- 3. ...
- 4. The least important points

I thank you for providing the raw data, however your supplemental files need more descriptive metadata identifiers to be useful to future readers. Although your results are compelling, the data analysis should be improved in the following ways: AA, BB, CC

I commend the authors for their extensive data set, compiled over many years of detailed fieldwork. In addition, the manuscript is clearly written in professional, unambiguous language. If there is a weakness, it is in the statistical analysis (as I have noted above) which should be improved upon before Acceptance.



Braincase and endocranial anatomy of two thalattosuchian crocodylomorphs and their relevance in understanding their adaptations to the marine environment

Yanina Herrera $^{\text{Corresp., 1}}$, Juan Martín Leardi 2 , Marta S Fernández 1

Corresponding Author: Yanina Herrera Email address: yaninah@fcnym.unlp.edu.ar

Thalattosuchians are a group of Mesozoic crocodylomorphs known from aquatic deposits of the Early Jurassic-Early Cretaceous that comprises two main lineages of almost exclusively marine forms, Teleosauridae and Metriorhynchoidea. Teleosaurids were found in shallow marine, brackish and freshwater deposits, and have been characterized as semiaguatic near-shore forms, whereas metriorhynchids are a lineage of fully pelagic forms, supported by a large set of morphological characters of the skull and postcranial anatomy. Recent contributions on Thalattosuchia have been focused on the study of the endocranial anatomy. This newly available information provides novel evidence to suggest adaptations on the neuroanatomy, senses organs, vasculature, and behavioral evolution of these crocodylomorphs. However, is still not clear if the major morphological differences between teleosaurids and metriorhynchids were also mirrored by changes in the braincase and endocranial anatomy. Based on X-ray CT scanning and digital endocast reconstructions we describe the braincase and endocranial anatomy of two well-preserved specimens of Thalattosuchia, the semiaguatic teleosaurid *Steneosaurus bollensis* and the pelagic metriorhynchid *Cricosaurus araucanensis*. We propose that some morphological traits, such as: an enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery, a carotid foramen ventral to the occipital condyle, a single CN XII foramen, absence of brain flexures, welldeveloped cephalic vascular system, lack of subtympanic foramina and the reduction of the paratympanic sinus system, are distinctive features of Thalattosuchia. It has been previously suggested that the enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery, the absence of brain flexures, and the hypertrophied cephalic vascular system were synapomorphies of Metriorhynchidae; however, new information revealed that all of these features were already established at the base of Thalattosuchia and might have been exapted later on their evolutionary history. Also, we recognized some differences within

CONICET. División Paleontología Vertebrados, Unidades de Investigación Anexo Museo, Facultad de Ciencias Naturales y Museo, Universidad Nacional de La Plata, La Plata, Buenos Aires, Argentina

CONICET. Instituto de Estudios Andinos "Don Pablo Groeber" (IDEAN), Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales, Departamento de Ciencias Geológicas, Universidad de Buenos Aires, CABA, Buenos Aires, Argentina



Thalattosuchia that previously have not been received attention or even were overlooked (e.g. circular/bilobate trigeminal foramen, single/double CN XII foramen, separation of the cranioquadrate canal from the external otic aperture, absence/presence of lateral pharyngeal foramen). The functional significances of these traits are still unclear. Extending the sampling to other Thalattosuchia will help to test the timing of acquisition and distribution of these morphological modifications among the whole lineage. Also comparison with extant marine tetrapods (including physiological information) will be crucial to understand if some (and/or which) of the morphological peculiarities of thalattosuchian braincases are products of directional natural selection resulting in a fully adaptation to a nektonic life style.





1	Braincase and endocranial anatomy of two thalattosuchian crocodylomorphs and their relevance
2	in understanding their adaptations to the marine environment
3	
4	Yanina Herrera ¹ , Juan Martin Leardi ² and Marta S. Fernández ¹
5	
6	¹ CONICET. División Paleontología Vertebrados, Unidades de Investigación Anexo Museo,
7	Facultad de Ciencias Naturales y Museo, Universidad Nacional de La Plata, La Plata, Argentina
8	² CONICET, Instituto de Estudios Andinos "Don Pablo Groeber" (IDEAN), Facultad de Ciencias
9	Exactas y Naturales, Departamento de Ciencias Geológicas, Universidad de Buenos Aires,
10	Buenos Aires, Argentina.
11	
12	
13	Corresponding author: Yanina Herrera ¹
14	Email address: yaninah@fcnym.unlp.edu.ar
15	
16	
17	Keywords. Metriorhynchidae, Teleosauridae, Thalattosuchia, Crocodylomorpha, Braincase,
18	Mesozoic, X-ray CT scanning, Neuroanatomy
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	



25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

	L		4.		_	4
Α	n	S	П	าล	C	Γ.

Thalattosuchians are a group of Mesozoic crocodylomorphs known from aquatic deposits of the Early Jurassic-Early Cretaceous that comprises two main lineages of almost exclusively marine forms, Teleosauridae and Metriorhynchoidea. Teleosaurids were found in shallow marine, brackish and freshwater deposits, and have been characterized as semiaguatic near-shore forms, whereas metriorhynchids are a lineage of fully pelagic forms, supported by a large set of morphological characters of the skull and postcranial anatomy. Recent contributions on Thalattosuchia have been focused on the study of the endocranial anatomy. This newly available information provides novel evidence to suggest adaptations on the neuroanatomy, senses organs, vasculature, and behavioral evolution of these crocodylomorphs. However, is still not clear if the major morphological differences between teleosaurids and metriorhynchids were also mirrored by changes in the braincase and endocranial anatomy. Based on X-ray CT scanning and digital endocast reconstructions we describe the braincase and endocranial anatomy of two wellpreserved specimens of Thalattosuchia, the semiaquatic teleosaurid Steneosaurus bollensis and the pelagic metriorhynchid *Cricosaurus araucanensis*. We propose that some morphological traits, such as: an enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery, a carotid foramen ventral to the occipital condyle, a single CN XII foramen, absence of brain flexures, well-developed cephalic vascular system, lack of subtympanic foramina and the reduction of the paratympanic sinus system, are distinctive features of Thalattosuchia. It has been previously suggested that the enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery, the absence of brain flexures, and the hypertrophied cephalic vascular system were synapomorphies of Metriorhynchidae; however, new information revealed that all of these features were already established at the base of



48

49

50

51

53

54

55

56

57

Thalattosuchia and might have been exapted later on their evolutionary history. Also, we recognized some differences within Thalattosuchia that previously have not been received attention or even were overlooked (e.g. circular/bilobate trigeminal foramen, single/double CN XII foramen, separation of the cranioquadrate canal from the external otic aperture, absence/presence of lateral pharyngeal foramen). The functional significances of these traits are 52 still unclear. Extending the sampling to other Thalattosuchia will help to test the timing of acquisition and distribution of these morphological modifications among the whole lineage. Also comparison with extant marine tetrapods (including physiological information) will be crucial to understand if some (and/or which) of the morphological peculiarities of thalattosuchian braincases are products of directional natural selection resulting in a fully adaptation to a nektonic life style.

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

Introduction

During the Mesozoic, several groups of reptiles displayed secondary adaptations to life in marine environments and some of them were especially successful and thrived as major predators in the sea (e.g. Massare, 1988; Mazin, 2001; Bardet et al., 2014). The most taxonomically diverse groups of Mesozoic marine reptiles are Sauropterygia, Ichthyosauria, Squamata, and Testudinata (Bardet et al., 2014). Remains of thalattosuchian crocodylomorphs are also abundant and taxonomically diverse in the fossil record; however, this group has received less attention in the scientific literature despite being an important component of the marine vertebrate fauna during the Mesozoic era.

Thalattosuchians are known from aquatic deposits of the Early Jurassic through the Early Cretaceous distributed mainly in the Tethys and Pacific oceans, that comprises two main lineages

of almost exclusively marine forms, Teleosauridae and Metriorhynchoidea (e.g. Fraas, 1902; 70 Andrews, 1913; Jouve, 2009; Pol & Gasparini, 2009; Young et al., 2010; Wilberg, 2015a). 71 Teleosaurids were recovered in shallow marine, brackish and even freshwater deposits and based 72 on their morphology have been characterized as semi-aquatic and near-shore forms (e.g. Hua & 73 Buffrenil, 1996; Martin et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2017). On the other hand, Metriorhynchidae 74 75 are a lineage of fully pelagic forms, with a large set of morphological traits related to a life in an open ocean environment (e.g. Fraas, 1902; Andrews, 1913; Young et al., 2010). 76 Among thalattosuchians, the body plan of teleosaurids (elongate and tubular snout, high 77 tooth count, dorsally directed orbits) has been considered as analogous to modern gavials 78 (Andrews, 1913; Westphal, 1962). On the other hand, the derived morphological features of 79 Metriorhynchidae (i.e. laterally directed orbits, reduced and paddle-like forelimbs, hypocercal 80 tail, strongly ventrally directed sacral ribs, loss of osteoderms, hypertrophied nasal glands for salt 81 excretion, reduced olfactory bulbs and olfactory nasal region, and probably were bearing live 82 83 young; e.g. Fraas, 1902; Andrews, 1913; Fernández & Gasparini, 2008; Young et al., 2010; Herrera, Fernández & Gasparini, 2013; Herrera et al., 2017) conform an unique and easily 84 recognizable body plan that differs from the typical crocodylomorph body plan. These set of 85 86 morphological and physiological modifications were key-features for the successful invasion of the marine realm. 87 88 Endocranial anatomy of thalattosuchians was poorly known and mainly based on 89 artificial or natural brain endocasts (e.g. Wharton, 2000; Herrera, 2015; Herrera & Vennari, 2015). Recent contributions on Thalattosuchia have been focused on the study of the braincase 90 91 and endocranial anatomy of three-dimensional preserved specimens, based on X-ray computed 92 tomography scanning and 3D visualization techniques. This newly available information



provides novel evidence to suggest adaptations of the neuroanatomy, senses organs, vasculature, and behavioral evolution of these crocodylomorphs (see Fernández et al., 2011; Herrera, 94 Fernández & Gasparini, 2013; Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). 95 However, is still not clear if the major morphological differences between teleosaurids and 96 metriorhynchids were also mirrored by changes in the braincase and endocranial anatomy. 97 98 Herein, we describe the braincase and the brain endocast, vasculature, inner ear, and paratympanic pneumatic cavities of two thalattosuchians: the teleosaurid Steneosaurus bollensis 99 (Jaeger, 1828), and of the metriorhynchid *Cricosaurus araucanensis* (Gasparini & Dellapé, 100 1976). We used these specimens as a tool to evaluate the disparity in the braincase and 101 endocranial anatomy between teleosaurids and metriorhynchids, as these represent a member of 102 the two distinct clades of Thalattosuchia. In this sense, we explore if peculiarities in the 103 braincase and endocranial structures of metriorhynchids correspond to novel traits of this clade 104 or if they were widespread among thalattosuchians. Finally, the significance of these structures 105 for our understanding of the paleobiology of these marine crocodyliforms will be evaluated. 106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

Materials & Methods

The BSPG 1984 I258, referred to Steneosaurus bollensis, was recovered from Toarcian outcrops located in the surroundings of Altdorf (Mittelfranken, Bayern, Germany) and comprises the braincase three-dimensionally preserved with no evidences of post-mortem deformation. It is almost complete except for the most anterior portion of the frontal and the supraoccipital (Figs. 1–2). It was X-ray micro-CT scanned in 2015 in a Nanotom Scan, located at the Zoologische Staatsammlung München (Bavaria State Collection of Zoology, Munich, Germany). Dataset



115	consisted of 1,798 slices 61×2443×1798 voxel, 0.043 m voxel size). Due to poor
116	preservation of the external sutures, the bones were segmented separately (Fig. 2
117	The holotytpe of Cricosaurus araucanensis (MLP 72-IV-7-1), recovered from Portada
118	Covunco Member (middle Tithonian) of the Vaca Muerta Fm. exposed at Cerro Lotena
119	(northwestern Patagonia, Argentina), consists of an almost complete three-dimensionally
120	preserved skull. There is no conspicuous evidences of post-mortem deformation except for the
121	slightly displacement of the palatines and pterygoids. For the purpose of this contribution we
122	only provide the description of the braincase. The MLP 72-IV-7-1 was scanned in a X-ray
123	medical CT-scanner in 2007. The skull was helically scanned at a slice thickness of 1 mm, 140
124	kV and 335 mA. Data consisted of 471 slices (512×512 pixels) and were output from the scanner
125	in DICOM format using eFilm (v. 1.8.3).
126	The respective CT data files were imported as DICOM files into Materialise Mimics
127	10.01 (Materialise Inc., Leuven, Belgium) for image segmentation and digital reconstruction.
128	Institutional abbreviations. AMNH, American Museum of Natural History (Fossil Reptiles),
129	New York, United States; BSPG , Bayerische Staatssammlung für Paläontologie und Geologie,
130	Munich, Germany; GPIT, Paläontologische Sammlung der Eberhard Karls Universität
131	Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany; IVPP, Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and
132	Paleoanthropology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China; LPP, Institut de
133	paléoprimatologie, paléontologie, humaine; évolution et paléoenvironnements Université de
134	Poitiers, Poitiers, France; MACN, Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales "Bernardino
135	Rivadavia", Buenos Aires, Argentina; MB.R., Museum für Naturkunde Humboldt-Universtät,
136	Berlin, Germany; MDA, Museo del Desierto de Atacama, Antofagasta, Chile; MGHF, Museo
137	Geológico H. Fuenzalida, Universidad Católica del Norte, Antofagasta, Chile; MJCM, Museo



de Ciencias Naturales y Antropológicas "Juan Cornelio Moyano", Mendoza, Argentina; **MLP**,

Museo de La Plata, La Plata, Argentina; **MOZ**, Museo Provincial de Ciencias Naturales "Prof.

Dr. Juan A. Olsacher", Zapala, Neuquén, Argentina; **MPZ**, Museo Paleontológico de la

Universidad de Zaragoza, Zaragoza, Spain; **NHMUK**, Natural History Museum, London, U.K.; **SMNS**, Staatliches Museum für Naturkunde, Stuttgart, Germany; **UCMP**, University of

California Museum of Paleontology, Berkeley, USA.

Results

Braincase anatomy of Steneosaurus bollensis (BSPG 1984 I258)

The frontal, squamosals and supraoccipital are not well preserved or are largely incomplete (Figs. 1–2), and thus we do not include the description of these bones. **Parietal.** The parietal is a single element, as in derived crocodylomorphs (*Sphenosuchus* and more derived taxa) and crocodyliforms (Clark et al., 2004; Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017). The parietal is partially preserved (Figs. 1A, 2A). It forms part of the dorsal and posterolateral walls of the braincase. Anteriorly, it contacts the frontal through its elongate anterior process; anteroventrally the parietal has a broad contact with the laterosphenoid and posteroventrally with the prootic (Figs. 1A, 1C–1D, 2A and 2C–2D). The parietal forms the posterior region of the intertemporal bar and the medial and posteromedial margins of the supratemporal fenestrae and fossae (Fig. 1A and 1C–1D). In dorsal view, the dorsalmost region of the intertemporal bar is narrow, forming a sagittal crest (Figs. 1A and 2A), as in all thalattosuchians. Posteriorly, the "parietal table" (*sensu* Brusatte et al., 2016), although slightly incomplete in its posterior region, is less anteroposteriorly developed than in *Steneosaurus* cf. *gracilirostris*. In BSPG 1984 I258 the anterior end of the "parietal table" is almost at the level of the posterior margin of the



161	supratemporal fossa and not at the same plane as the laterosphenoid-prootic suture as in
162	Steneosaurus cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016).
163	Prootic. Both prootics are incompletely preserved. It is exposed on the posteromedial region of
164	the supratemporal fossa (Figs. 1C-1D and 2A, 2C-2D), as in most thalattosuchians and non-
165	crocodyliform crocodylomorphs (Clark, 1986; Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017), and has a dorsal
166	contact with the parietal, this suture could not be recognized externally but it is recognizable in
167	the CT data (Fig. 2A, 2C-2D). Anteriorly, the prootic contacts the laterosphenoid, and
168	posteriorly the quadrate (Figs. 1C and 2C). The prootic forms the dorsal, posterior and ventral
169	margins of the circular trigeminal foramen, and the dorsal and posterior margins of the
170	trigeminal fossa (Figs. 1C-1D and 2C-2D). A circular trigeminal foramen is also present in
171	Machimosaurus hugii (SMNS 91415), and likely in Teleosaurus cadomensis (Jouve, 2009: Fig.
172	2). In the posterior margin of the trigeminal foramen the prootic is a slender rod that runs
173	dorsally and separates the trigeminal foramen from the middle ear cavity (Figs. 1D and 2D).
174	Ventrally to the trigeminal foramen the prootic contacts anteriorly the laterosphenoid and
175	posteriorly the quadrate (Figs. 1C and 2C-2D).
176	Laterosphenoid. Both laterosphenoids are incompletely preserved (Figs. 1C–1D and 2B–2D). 4
177	forms most of the lateral wall of the braincase, and contacts posteriorly the prootic, and
178	anteriorly delimits the exit for the olfactory tract. The laterosphenoid forms the anterior margin
179	of the trigeminal fossa and foramen. The laterosphenoid-prootic suture is located at the level of
180	the anterior margin of the trigeminal foramen, and the laterosphenoid does not participate on the
181	dorsal and ventral margins of this foramen, as it only reaches the anterior border of the
182	trigeminal foramen (Figs. 1C-1D and 2C-2D). The trigeminal fossa is not developed anteriorly,
183	thus the laterosphenoid is not excavated (Figs. 1C and 2C). CT data shows that the



184	laterosphenoid contacts the basisphenoid on the dorsal region of the floor of the endocranial
185	cavity. At level with the ventral margin of the trigeminal foramen a groove excavates the lateral
186	surface of the laterosphenoid, which is dorsally delimited by a subtle ridge. This groove is
187	interpreted as the osteological correlate of the ophthalmic branch of the trigeminal nerve (Fig.
188	1C). In thalattosuchians the presence of a ridge on the region where the laterosphenoid-prootic
189	suture is located has been previously recognized as a unique trait (Holliday & Witmer, 2009;
190	Fernández et al., 2011), however in this specimen the ridge is not conspicuous and not tightly in
191	contact as in other thalattosuchians (Fig. 1D).
192	Quadrate. Both quadrates are incompletely preserved, with the right one more complete than the
193	left only missing the distal ends of the condyles for the articular (Fig. 1). The ventral aspect of
194	the left quadrate is eroded exposing a concave surface that corresponds to the middle ear cavity
195	(Figs. 1D and 2D). The quadrate contacts dorsally the squamosal, dorsomedially the prootic and
196	ventromedially the basisphenoid and the pterygoid (Figs. 1B-1C and 2B-2C). The right orbital
197	process of the quadrate is partially covered by sediment and the left one is not preserved (Fig.
198	1C-1D), however it appears to not be firmly sutured to the braincase, as in other thalattosuchians
199	(Machimosaurus hugii, SMNS 91415; Jouve, 2009; Holliday & Witmer, 2009; Fernández et al.,
200	2011; Herrera, Gasparini & Fernández, 2015; Wilberg, 2015a). The trigeminal fossa is developed
201	posterior to the trigeminal foramen and excavates the anterolateral surface of the quadrate (Figs.
202	1C and 2C), like in Steneosaurus pictaviensis (LPP.M.37), Machimosaurus hugii (SMNS
203	91415), Cricosaurus araucanensis (MLP 72-IV-7-1), and "Metriorhynchus" cf. westermanni
204	(Fernández et al., 2011). The extension of the fossa in BSPG 1984 I258, posterior to the
205	trigeminal foramen, is probably exaggerated because in this region the bone is damaged. The
206	quadrate does not participate in the margin of the trigeminal foramen (Figs. 1C–1D and 2C–2D).



207	In ventral view, the quadrate contacts the basisphenoid through a serrated suture (Fig. 1B). The
208	quadrate does not reach the basal tuberosities of the basioccipital (Figs. 1B and 2B), contrary to
209	Steneosaurus cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016), and Pelagosaurus typus (BSPG 1890 I5,
210	NHMUK PV R.32599). In BSPG 1984 I258 the main body of the quadrate has a more lateral
211	direction in comparison with other thalattosuchians and forms an angle of about 70° with the
212	sagittal plane of the skull (Fig. 1B), similar to Steneosaurus edwarsi (NHMUK PV R.3701). In
213	other thalattosuchians (e.g. Steneosaurus cf. gracilirostris, NHMUK PV R.33095; Pelagosaurus
214	typus, BSPG 1890 I5, NHMUK PV R.32599; Peipehsuchus teleorhinus, IVPP V 10098;
215	Cricosaurus araucanensis, MLP 72-IV-7-1) this angle is more acute and results in the quadrate's
216	body more posterolaterally directed. On the ventral surface of the quadrate the "crest B"
217	(Iordansky, 1973) marks the origin of the M. adductor mandibulae posterior as in most
218	crocodyliforms (Figs. 1B and 2B). In BSPG 1984 I258 the "crest B" is sharp and has its
219	medialmost branch posteriorly curved, and it determines a conspicuous fossa on the ventral
220	surface of the quadrate within the adductor chamber, as in Steneosaurus edwarsi (NHMUK PV
221	R.3701). A well-developed "crest B" has also been described in other thalattosuchians (Jouve,
222	2009; Holliday & Witmer, 2009; Fernández et al., 2011; Young et al., 2012; Herrera, Gasparini
223	& Fernández, 2015; Brusatte et al., 2016). Due to preservation, the sutures with the otoccipital,
224	and the region of the cranioquadrate foramen could not be described.
225	Otoccipitals. The exoccipitals and opisthotics are fused in a single element, the otoccipital
226	(Clark, 1986). Both otoccipitals are incomplete, not well preserved and partially reconstructed
227	(Fig. 1E). The otoccipital forms the lateral margins of the foramen magnum, but it is not possible
228	to determine if it has some degree of participation in the dorsal margin (Figs. 1E and 2E). The
229	foramen magnum is ovalshaped the major axis mediolaterally oriented (Fig. 1E). Also, the



231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

otoccipital participates in the dorsolateral region of the occipital condyle contacting the basioccipital, as in most crocodylomorphs (Figs. 1E and 2E). The right paroccipital process is almost complete and is slightly dorsally directed (Figs. 1E and 2E). The ventrolateral flange of the otoccipital contacts the quadrate in the ventral margin of the occipital surface of the skull, lateral to the lateral pharyngeal foramen. The otoccipital forms approximately half of the posterior margin of the lateral pharyngeal foramen (Figs. 1B and 2B). Lateral to the foramen magnum and at the same level with its ventral margin, the single foramen for the passage of the cranial nerve XII (i.e. hypoglossal foramen) is present (Figs. 1E and 2E), like in *Cricosaurus* araucanensis (MLP 72-IV-7-1), Teleosaurus cadomensis (Jouve, 2009), "Metriorhynchus" cf. westermanni (Fernández et al., 2011: Fig. 1C) and Steneosaurus cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016), among others, and unlike *Pelagosaurus typus* (BSPG 1890 I5), the metriorhynchid specimen LPP.M 23 and likely *Metriorhynchus brachyrhynchus* (LPP.M.22), where the CN XII has two foramina on the occipital table. Approximately at the same level, on the ventrolateral region of the paroccipital process and lateral to the hypoglossal foramen, there is a large foramen (Figs. 1E and 2E). In BSPG 1984 I258 this foramen is interpreted as the common passage of the cranial nerves IX, X, XI and associated vessels (i.e. vagus foramen), as in *Purranisaurus potens* (MJCM PV 2060). It is smaller than the internal carotid artery foramen. In BSPG 1984 I258 the internal carotid artery foramen is conspicuous (Figs. 1E and 2E), as in other thalattosuchians. An enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery was previously described in metriorhynchids (e.g. Pol & Gasparini, 2009; Fernández et al., 2011; Young et al., 2012; Foffa & Young, 2014; Herrera, Gasparini & Fernández, 2015) and this feature was proposed as a synapomorphy of Metriorhynchidae (Pol & Gasparini, 2009). However, a large or wide internal carotid foramen is also present in the metriorhynchoids *Pelagosaurus typus* (e.g. BSPG 1890 I5), and *Zoneait*



253	nargorum (Wilberg, 2015a), and in teleosaurid specimens (e.g. S. pictaviensis, LPP.M.37;
254	?Steneosaurus sp., SMNS 59558; Jouve, 2009), as was recently mentioned by Brusatte et al.
255	(2016). The internal carotid artery foramen in BSPG 1984 I258 is situated ventrally in the
256	occipital table, lateral to the basioccipital tuberosities and piercing the otoccipital with a
257	posteroventral direction (Figs. 1E and 2E). A posteroventral or ventrolateral direction of the
258	internal carotid artery foramen is also present in S. bollensis (SMNS 59558), S. pictaviensis
259	(LPP.M.37), S. leedsi (NHMUK PV R.3320), S. larteti (GPIT 07283), M. hugii (SMNS 91415),
260	T. cadomensis (Jouve, 2009), and differing from the condition in metriorhynchoids, on which the
261	foramen has a strictly posterior direction being only visible in occipital view (see below). Indeed,
262	in some teleosaurid specimens this foramen is only exposed in ventral view (e.g. S. leedsi,
263	NHMUK PV R.3320; Peipehsuchus teleorhinus, IVPP V 10098; M. hugii, SMNS 91415).
264	Basioccipital. It forms most of the occipital condyle because the otoccipital participates solely
265	on the dorsolateral region of the condyle (Figs. 1E and 2E), as in <i>Pelagosaurus typus</i> (BSPG
266	1890 I5), T. cadomensis (Jouve, 2009), S. cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016), and the
267	metriorhynchid specimen from Mörnsheim Formation (BSPG 1973 I195), among others. It
268	forms part of the ventral margin of the foramen magnum. In occipital view, the basioccipital is
269	sutured dorsolaterally and laterally to the otoccipital (Figs. 1E and 2E). In ventral view, the
270	basioccipital contacts anteriorly the basisphenoid. The basioccipital forms most of the
271	basioccipital tuberosities, with its posterolateral region located more dorsally than its medial
272	region. On the anteromedial surface of the tuberosities, it is sutured to the basisphenoid. Between
273	the tuberosities this bone forms the posterior margin of the medial pharyngeal foramen. Also, the
274	basioccipital forms roughly half of the posterior margin of the lateral pharyngeal foramen (Figs.
275	1B and 2B).



277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

Basisphenoid. The basisphenoid is widely exposed in ventral view. Anteriorly it contacts the pterygoids through a "V"-shaped suture with the apex anteriorly directed, laterally the quadrates, and posteriorly the basioccipital, forming the anterior and lateral margins of the medial pharyngeal foramen (Figs. 1B and 2B). The anteroventral surface of the basisphenoid bears two anteroposteriorly directed crests separated by a concave surface. This anteroventral surface is wider than the medial pharyngeal foramen (Figs. 1B and 2B), a similar condition as the one present in S. bollensis (SMNS 15951b). The basisphenoid has two posterolateral processes that form the anterior margin of the lateral pharyngeal foramen; these processes contact laterally the quadrates through a serrated suture (Fig. 1B). The presence of the lateral pharyngeal foramina in S. bollensis is shared with other teleosaurids (e.g. Peipehsuchus teleorhinus, IVPP V 10098; S. pictaviensis, LPP.M.37; T. cadomensis, Jouve, 2009) and basal metriorhynchoids (Pelagosaurus typus, BSPG 1890 I5; Dufeau, 2011: Fig. 1–6C, D; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). However, this contrast with the condition of most metriorhynchids (e.g. C. araucanensis; the metriorhynchid specimen from Mörnsheim Formation, BSPG 1973 I195; Purranisaurus potens, MJCM PV 2060; Metriorhynchus superciliosus, SMNS 10116; "Metriorhynchus" westermanni, MDA 1) where the lateral pharyngeal (Eustachian) foramina are absent. CT data shows that anteriorly, the basisphenoid is sutured dorsally to the laterosphenoid, enclosing the pituitary fossa. On the floor of the endocranial cavity the internal foramina for the passage of the CN VI were recognized. The canals of these cranial nerves are directed anteroventrally, entering to the pituitary fossa dorsally to the internal carotid artery.

296

297

Endocranial anatomy of *Steneosaurus bollensis* (BSPG 1984 I258)



posterior region of the forebrain to the medulla oblongata, lacking the anterior portion of the 299 olfactory tract. Poor preservation of the bones surrounding the brain ventrally resulted in an 300 incomplete reconstruction of the anterior region of the pituitary and of the anteroventral region of 301 the brain (Fig. 3). 302 303 The brain shows a subtle anteroposterior differentiation, with the forebrain-midbrain and midbrain-hindbrain flexures not well marked (Fig. 3A–3B). This feature is also present in other 304 thalattosuchians (Fernández et al., 2011; Herrera, 2015; Herrera & Vennari, 2015; Brusatte et al., 305 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). The lateral projection of the bulbous cerebral 306 hemispheres (at the level of the maximum width of cerebrum) is less extended (Fig. 3C-3D) in 307 comparison with other thalattosuchians (see below) and extant crocodiles (Witmer et al., 2008: 308 Fig. 6.3B; Bona & Paulina Carabajal, 2013: Fig. 6E; Bona, Paulina Carabajal & Gasparini, 2017: 309 Fig. 7A). Although preservation precludes the full reconstruction of the pituitary, its general 310 shape and orientation are discernible. The pituitary is anteroposteriorly elongated, as in other 311 thalattosuchians (Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017) while it contrasts with 312 the rather anteroposteriory shorter pituitary of other crocodyliforms (e.g. Gavialis gangeticus, 313 314 Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017; Simosuchus clarki, Kley et al., 2010; Sebecus icaeorhinus, Colbert, 1946a). As in most crocodyliforms, the pituitary in BSPG 1984 I258 is posteroventrally 315 projected, having its anterior region more dorsally positioned than its posterior one. Posteriorly, 316 317 the extension of the pituitary reaches the level of the posterior margin of the trigeminal foramen (Fig. 3A–3B and 3E–3F). 318 319 **Vascular elements.** The rostral and caudal middle cerebral veins and the internal carotid artery 320 were identified. The rostral middle cerebral vein forms a swelling on the dorsal region of the

Morphology of the brain endocast. The endocast of the BSPG 1984 I258 comprises the



322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

endocast, posteriorly to the cerebral hemispheres and dorsally to the cranial nerve V (Fig. 3B). The rostral middle cerebral vein exits the braincase through the trigeminal foramen (Fig. 3B– 3D), as in other thalattosuchians. The dorsal longitudinal sinus, that overlays the brain (Fig. 3C– 3D), is not ridge-like as in C. araucanensis (Fig. 6C-6D), because the dorsal portion of the endocast is flat (Fig. 3A–3B). Posterodorsally on the endocast, the roots of the caudal middle cerebral vein were reconstructed. These veins are dorsolaterally projected and then turn laterally, within the temporal canal, towards the cranioquadrate canal (Fig. 3A–3D). These structures were previously recognized in other thalattosuchians and identified as related to vascular elements under different names; portion of the dorsal venous sinus system (Wharton, 2000), "unnominated cavity 1" (Fernández et al., 2011), posterior portion of the transverse sinus/posterior middle cerebral vein (Brusatte et al., 2016); or branches of the dorsal longitudinal sinus (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). Due to poor preservation the distal part of this vascular canal (temporal canal) and its relationship with the cranioquadrate canal cannot be traced with confidence. However, the preserved morphology is consistent with those of other thalattosuchians, and the lateral projection of the preserved temporal canal suggests that both structures are confluent (Fig. 3G–3H). The carotid canals run from the ventral region of the occipital surface of the skull to the pituitary (Fig. 3B). The most posterior portion runs parallel to the midline of the skull through a short way (this portion is shorter than in C. araucanensis, see Fig. 6F), to turn obliquely afterwards (Fig. 3F). In BSPG 1984 I258 the longest part of the carotid canal is directed from posterolaterally to anteromedially (Fig. 3F). The carotid canals enter the pituitary fossa piercing its posterior wall through two separate foramina. The carotid canals are not completely ossified, thus there is a section of the oblique part of the canal that could not be segmented separately



from the pharyngotympanic sinus (Fig. 3B, 3D, and 3F). A similar condition has been recognized 344 in S. cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016) and others extinct crocodyliforms and extant 345 crocodilians (e.g. Sedlmayr, 2002; Bona, Degrange & Fernández, 2013; Dufeau & Witmer, 346 2015). 347 Nerves. Canals of the III, V, VI, VII, IX-XI, and XII cranial nerves were recognized and 348 349 reconstructed. As we mentioned above, the anteroventral region of the braincase of BSPG 1984 I258 is damaged in a way that some of the nerves that originate from the ventrolateral region of 350 the midbrain could not be identified. 351 On the lateral wall of the braincase, ventrolaterally to the cerebral hemispheres, the 352 foramen that pierces the laterosphenoid is here interpreted as the foramen for the oculomotor 353 nerve (CN III) (Fig. 3B, 3F). The large trigeminal foramen is identified as it is ventrolaterally 354 projected from the endocast (Fig. 3A–3F). 355 Cranial nerve VI (abducens) exits the endocranial cavity through the basisphenoid via 356 individual foramina, posteroventrally to CN V (Fig. 3B, 3F). Two passages for the branches of 357 CN VI project slightly anteroventrally from the ventral side of the hindbrain and pass laterally to 358 the pituitary fossa (Fig. 3B). A small canal posterior to the trigeminal nerve foramen is identified 359 360 as the facial nerve canal (CN VII) which exits the endocranial cavity through a foramen in the prootic (Fig. 3B). Cranial nerves IX, X, XI, and XII originate from the lateral region of the 361 362 hindbrain. Cranial nerves IX, X, XI exit the endocranial cavity through a dorsoventrally 363 elongated metotic foramen (Fig. 3B, 3H). Posteriorly, cranial nerve XII (hypoglossal) has a single root on the endocast and only one external opening in the posterior surface (Fig. 3B, 3D, 364 365 3F, 3H). 366 Paratympanic sinus system. In BSPG 1984 I258 several interconnected diverticular expansions



from both the pharyngotympanic sinus and median pharyngeal sinus (sensu Dufeau & Witmer, 367 2015) have been identified (Fig. 3A, 3C, 3E, 3G). As the condition present in most 368 crocodyliforms (e.g. Protosuchus richardsoni, Notosuchus terrestris, Caiman latirrostris), the 369 paratympanic sinus system of S. bollensis communicates with the pharynx via a single medial 370 foramen (medial pharyngeal foramen), and two lateral foramina (lateral pharyngeal foramina) 371 372 (Figs. 1B and 2B). The medial pharyngeal tube (= medial Eustachian tube) bifurcates wo paired system 373 of pneumatic canals, an anterior pair and a posterior pair (anterior and posterior communicating 374 canals, sensu Miall, 1878). The posterior communicating canals diverge almost at 90 degrees 375 from the medial canal, to be directed laterally and dorsally to connect with the middle ear cavity. 376 The posterior communicating canals bear some expansions on their path to contribute to the 377 pneumatization of the posterior part of the basioccipital (basioccipital diverticulum sensu Dufeau 378 & Witmer, 2015) (Fig. 3E–G). The anterior communicating canals are connected with the medial 379 380 pharyngeal tube through a wide anteroposteriorly directed tube that runs through the ventral surface of the basisphenoid (anterodorsal branch of the basisphenoid diverticulum) (Fig. 3A, 3E). 381 The anterior most part of the ventral canal is expanded, in the same region where the two 382 383 dorsolaterally directed anterior communicating canals are born. At this point a slight ventral projection of the anterior communicating canals is seen, however it is difficult to evaluate if this 384 pneumatization continues into the pterygoids, forming a pterygoid diverticulum (Fig. 3A, 3E, 385 386 3G). The anterior communicating canals are much broader than the posterior ones (Fig. 3E), and after a short dorsoventral extension, enter the middle ear cavity on its anteroventral region. 387 388 The middle ear cavity is elongated and tubular (Fig. 3A, 3C, 3E, 3G), due to the 389 particular thalattosuchian condition where the quadrate extends its limit well laterally when



391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

compared to other crocodyliforms. Besides the middle ear cavity the quadrate lacks any welldeveloped additional pneumatization (Fig. 3A, 3C, 3E, 3G). That is BSPG 1984 I258 lacks any infundibular diverticulum, like *Pelagosaurus typus* (Dufeau, 2011), S. cf. gracilirostris (contra Brusatte et al., 2016; see below), and C. araucanensis (see below). In derived crocodylomorphs (i.e. Macelognathus) and most crocodyliforms (e.g. Protosuchus richardsoni, Notosuchus terrestris, Caiman latirostris) the quadrate is heavily pneumatized, both anteriorly to the otic aperture (infundibular diverticulum) and on the distal body of the quadrate (quadrate diverticulum). These pneumatizations are communicated with the middle ear cavity and also have an independent external opening through one subtympanic foramen (or quadrate fenestrae) (e.g. Macelognathus, C. latirostris) or more (e.g. Junggarsuchus, P. richardsoni, Notosuchus). Thus, the subtympanic foramina are the external osteological correlate of these quadrate pneumatizations. Furthermore, no thalattosuchian with the presence of subtympanic foramen has been reported (e.g. C. araucanensis, S. bollensis, Dakosaurus, Pelagosaurus, Teleosaurus), reinforcing the interpretation of the lack of quadrate pneumatization in thalattosuchians. In other recent contributions, the infundibular diverticulum has been identified in the teleosaurid S. cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016), however this specimen does not have any individualized pneumatization that invades the quadrate anteriorly to the otic aperture, and what was identified as the pneumatic inflations of the suspensorium are not separated from the middle ear cavity. The posterior part of the middle ear cavity of BSPG 1984 I258 bears a posterior sheet-like expansion, just at the level where the posterior communicating canal enters the middle ear (Fig. 3G). This posterior laminar expansion slightly pneumatizes the pterygoid process of the quadrate, but it never reaches the distal body of the quadrate, thus not forming a proper quadrate diverticulum (sensu Dufeau & Witmer, 2015). This condition is shared with other thalattosuchians, as the



absence of a quadrate diverticulum was described previously for *P. typus* (Dufeau, 2011) and *S.*cf. *gracilirostris* (Brusatte et al., 2016).

Anterodorsally the paratympanic cavity of BSPG 1984 I258 is convex and slightly projected, and as a result the posteroventral surface of the prootic is concave. A similar morphology has been identified for *S.* cf. *gracilirostris* and *P. typus*, which lead to the identification of this dorsal projection of the paratympanic cavity as the prootic diverticulum (Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). However, in modern crocodylians the prootic diverticulum is positioned at the level of the semicircular canals, just anteriorly to them, and dorsally to the trigeminal ganglion, forming an isolated pneumatic recess (Dufeau & Witmer, 2015). None of the features mentioned before can be observed in the CT data of any of the thalattosuchians examined up to the date. Thus, a well-developed prootic diverticulum seems to be absent in thalattosuchians.

On the other hand, the middle ear cavity has a convex profile in lateral view and, unlike derived non-crocodyliform crocodylomorphs (*Kayentasuchus*, *Dibothrosuchus*, *Junggarsuchus*, *Macelognathus*) and most crocodyliforms (e.g. *Protosuchus richardsoni*, *Caiman latirostris*), it does not invade the prootic. In derived crocodylomorphs a pneumatic cavity has been described in the posterodorsal region of the prootic, usually referred as the mastoid antrum. In crocodyliforms this sinus (intertympanic sinus, *sensu* Dufeau & Witmer, 2015) penetrates into the supraoccipital and passes through it, connecting the middle ear and paratympanic pneumatizations from both sides (Clark, 1986). This feature is not present in *S. bollensis* neither in other thalattosuchians were CT data has been made available (Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017) or natural breakage of the supraoccipital has allowed observing this feature (Wilberg, 2015b).



437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

Finally, in BSPG 1984 I258 the pharyngotympanic sinus is expanded posteriorly partially pneumatizing the otoccipital. The posterior sheet-like expansion of the middle ear cavity mentioned above, before entering the quadrate, expands entering the ventral part of the otoccipital (Fig. 3A, 3C, 3E, 3G). The dorsal region of the otoccipital is also pneumatized by a posterior rounded evagination of the pharyngotympanic sinus. However, this pneumatization is restricted to the ventral part of the otoccipital. A similar condition has been reported in other thalattosuchians (Dufeau, 2011: Fig. 1-6C, 1-6D; Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). Endosseous labyrinth of the inner ear. The general aspect of the endosseous labyrinth in BSPG 1984 I258 is similar in shape to that of extant and extinct crocodilians (Fig. 4), i.e. a triangular vestibular apparatus dorsally and an elongated cochlea ventrally (e.g. Witmer et al., 2008; Bona, Degrange & Fernández, 2013; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). The anterior semicircular canal is slightly longer than the posterior one, which is similar to the lateral canal (Fig. 4B, 4D). The cochlear ducts extend largely ventrally, with only a slight medial component (Fig. 4A, 4C). In BSPG 1984 I258, the complete inner ear is approximately 20.5 mm tall and has a maximum width of 16 mm at the level of the semicircular canals.

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

Braincase anatomy of *Cricosaurus araucanensis* (MLP 72-IV-7-1)

Frontal. The frontal is completely fused. The postorbital processes form an acute angle of about 45° angle with the midline of the skull. The anteromedial process of the frontal wedges anteriorly between the posteromedial processes of the nasal and extends further anteriorly than the level of the posterior margin of the preorbital fossa. The frontal has a reduced participation in the dorsal margin of the orbit (Fig. 5A). Posterolaterally, the frontal contacts the postorbital trough a V-



shaped suture with the apex pointed posteriorly. The postorbital process of the frontal forms the 459 posterodorsal margin of the orbit, and the anteromedial margin of the supratemporal fossa. The 460 frontal extends posteroventrally and forms most of the anterior floor of the supratemporal fossa. 461 In ventral view the frontal contacts anteriorly with the prefrontal, and posteroventrally, 462 with the laterosphenoid forming the exit for the olfactory tract. The groove on the skull roof is 463 464 the osteological correlate of the olfactory tract and is limited laterally by two low cranii crests. The anterior portion of the groove is mediolaterally wider than the posterior one. 465 Parietal. The parietal is a "T"-shaped element with an anterior (frontal) process and two lateral 466 (squamosal) processes (Fig. 5A). The anterior process forms the posterior region of the 467 intertemporal bar and contacts the frontal; the lateral process is sutured to the squamosal, both 468 via serrated sutures (Figs. 5A and 6A). Posterodorsally, the parietal bears a large posterior notch 469 between the squamosal processes, forming a semicircular or "U"-shaped structure in dorsal view 470 (Figs. 5A, 5C and 6A). This posterior parietal notch is also present in other metriorhynchids such 471 as: Cricosaurus lithographicus (MOZ-PV 5787), Cricosaurus elegans (BSPG AS I 504), 472 Metriorhynchus brachyrhynchus (LPP.B.1), and the metriorhynchid specimen from Mörnsheim 473 Formation (BSPG 1973 I195). The parietal is well-extended posteriorly, having participation in 474 475 the central region of the occipital table. Given this condition, the supraoccipital is excluded of the dorsal aspect of the skull (Fig. 5C) as in most non-eusuchian and non-notosuchian 476 477 crocodyliforms (Clark, 1986). 478 In occipital view the parietal is ventrally sutured to the supraoccipital and ventrolaterally 479 has a reduced contact with the otoccipital near the midline. In the place where the parietal contacts the otoccipital and the supraoccipital, there is a reduced and obliterated fossa, which 480 corresponds topographically to where the postemporal fenestra is located in other 481



483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

crocodylomorphs. The lateral processes of the parietal develop a rim over the occipital table, which continues in the squamosal (nuchal crest) (Fig. 5C).

Within the supratemporal fossa, the parietal is projected ventrally, forming part of the posterolateral wall of the braincase as well the medial margin of the supratemporal fenestra (Figs. 5A and 6A). Within the fossa, the parietal is anteriorly sutured to the frontal through a transverse and interdigitated suture, anteroventrally to the laterosphenoid, and posteroventrally to the prootic. The parietal forms the dorsomedial margin of the temporo-orbital foramen (Fig. 6A). **Squamosal.** The squamosal contributes to the posterior and posterolateral margins of the supratemporal fossa and fenestra. The squamosal participation in the supratemporal zygomatic arcade is reduced, with the postorbital contributing around the 75% of the zygomatic arc. Anterolaterally the squamosal contacts the postorbital, while posteromedially it contacts the parietal (Fig. 5A). Squamosal-postorbital suture is serrated on the lateral aspect of the skull, and within the supratemporal fossa the suture is straight and "V"-shaped with the apex oriented anteriorly. In dorsal view the squamosal is narrow and slightly concave (Fig. 5A). The squamosal-parietal suture is between the dorsomedial process of the squamosal, which meets the lateral (squamosal) process of the parietal (Figs. 5A, 5C and 6A). Within the supratemporal fossa the squamosal extends ventrally contacting the quadrate, and the prootic (Fig. 6A). The suture with the latter is given by the ventral branch of the dorsomedial process of the squamosal, which is broader than the dorsal one. The squamosal forms the dorsolateral margin of the reduced temporo-orbital foramen (Fig. 6A).

In occipital view the squamosal is sutured to the dorsolateral margin of the paroccipital process via a rounded posterior process (Fig. 5C). Visible on lateral and posterior views is the smooth and slightly concave subcircular structure of the squamosal present in other



505	thalattosuchians (e.g. S. leedsi, NHMUK PV R.3320; D. andiniensis, MOZ-PV 6146; C.
506	lithographicus, MOZ-PV 5787; Maledictosuchus riclaensis, MPZ 2001/130a; Torvoneustes
507	coryphaeus, Young et al. 2013; Tyrannoneustes lythrodectikos, Foffa & Young, 2014).
508	Prootic. The prootic is broadly exposed on the lateral wall of the braincase and it is exposed on
509	the posteromedial margin of the supratemporal fossa (Fig. 5A, 5C), as in non-crocodyliform
510	crocodylomorphs and other thalattosuchians (Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017). This bone has a
511	subpentagonal shape and contacts anteriorly the laterosphenoid, dorsally the parietal, posteriorly
512	the squamosal, and ventrally the quadrate (Figs. 5C and 6A-6C). The prootic forms the ventral
513	margin of the temporo-orbital foramen (Fig. 6A-6B), as in <i>Pelagosaurus typus</i> (NHMUK PV
514	R.32599), Teleosaurus cadomensis (Jouve, 2009) and Purranisaurus potens (MJCM PV 2060).
515	In MLP 72-IV-7-1, the prootic has a reduced contribution to the dorsal margin of the trigeminal
516	fossa (however this feature is variable among the C. araucanensis specimens). The prootic forms
517	the posterior half of the bilobate trigeminal foramen (Fig. 6B-6C).
518	Laterosphenoid. It forms most of the lateral and anteroventral walls of the endocranial cavity,
519	surrounding the cerebral hemispheres. The laterosphenoid forms the anterior margin of the
520	supratemporal fossa. Anterior and dorsally it contacts the frontal and postorbital (Fig. 5A).
521	Within the supratemporal fossa, the laterosphenoid has a broad dorsal contact with the parietal
522	and briefly contacts the frontal. The laterosphenoid is posteriorly sutured to the prootic (Fig. 6A)
523	through a suture that forms a pronounced ridge (Fig. 6A), as in other thalattosuchians (e.g.
524	Purranisaurus potens, MJCM PV 2060; Metriorhynchus superciliosus, SMNS 10116;
525	Pelagosaurus typus, BSPG 1890 I5; Steneosaurus bollensis, SMNS 15951b; Holliday & Witmer
526	2009; Fernández et al., 2011; Brusatte et al., 2016). In ventral view, the anterodorsal region



contacts its counterpart and together with the frontal delimits the exit for the olfactory tract. Anteroventrally to the trigeminal fossa, the laterosphenoid contacts the pterygoid (Fig. 6B). 528 529 The laterosphenoid forms the anterior and anteroventral margins of the trigeminal foramen (Fig. 6B-6C). In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the trigeminal foramen is bilobate-shaped, with a 530 posterodorsal lobule much smaller than the anteroventral one (Fig. 6B–6C), as in 531 532 "Metriorhynchus" cf. westermanni (MDA 2), Dakosaurus cf. andiniensis (MOZ-PV 089), the metriorhynchid specimen LPP.M.23, and *Pelagosaurus typus* (NHMUK PV R.32599). The same 533 morphology is observed in the natural casts of the brain of *Cricosaurus araucanensis* (e.g. MLP 534 73-II-27-3, MLP 76-II-19-1, MOZ-PV 7261; Herrera, 2015; Herrera & Vennari, 2015) as two 535 lobules were identified: a small lobule was interpreted as the middle cerebral vein while a large 536 one was assumed to correspond to the trigeminal nerve. Anteriorly to the trigeminal foramen the 537 laterosphenoid is slightly excavated, forming a shallower angular anterior trigeminal fossa 538 (Fig. 6C). This fossa is dorsally delimited by a crest which is interpreted as the osteological 539 540 correlate of the opthalmic branch of the trigeminal nerve (CN V_1), as was identified in "M." cf. westermanni (Fernández et al., 2011) and S. cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016). Dorsal to 541 this crest, there is an anterodorsally directed groove that we interpreted as the correlate of the 542 543 maxillary branch of the trigeminal nerve (CN V₂) (Fig. 6C). Anterodorsally to the trigeminal fossa the left laterosphenoid is eroded leaving exposed 544 545 the natural cast of the brain, specifically the dorsal region of the cerebral hemisphere. Here, there 546 are two small blood vessels fillings with bone tissue preserved between them (Fig. 6A), as in the 547 dorsal region of the cerebral hemispheres of the metriorhynchids from Vaca Muerta Fm. MOZ-548 PV 089, MOZ-PV 7201, MOZ-PV 7261 (Herrera, 2015; Herrera & Vennari, 2015).



Quadrate. In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the quadrates are almost completely preserved, lacking only part 549 of the condylar region (Figs. 5B and 6A–6C). Within the supratemporal fossa, the quadrate 550 contacts dorsally the squamosal and medially the prootic (Fig. 6A). In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the 551 quadrate does not contact the laterosphenoid, as in most thalattosuchians (Clark, 1986), because 552 the prootic is exposed in the supratemporal fossa, thus precluding the contact between these two 553 554 bones (Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017) (Fig. 6A). The trigeminal fossa is broadly developed posteriorly to the trigeminal foramen (Fig. 6B–6C), as in most metriorhynchids (e.g. M. 555 brachyrhynchus, LPP.M.22; "M." westermanni and "M." cf. westermanni; Fernández et al., 556 2011; Plesiosuchus manselli, Young et al., 2012) and some teleosaurids (e.g. Machimosaurus 557 hugii, SMNS 91415; S. pictaviensis, LPP.M.37). In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the fossa excavates the 558 quadrate, thus this bone forms the posterior and ventral margins of the trigeminal fossa (Fig. 6B– 559 6C). The quadrate does not participate on the temporo-orbital foramen (Fig. 6A–6B), as in 560 Pelagosaurus typus (BSPG 1890 I5, NHMUK PV R.32599), and unlike the condition present in 561 Teleosaurus cadomensis (Jouve, 2009) and Machimosaurus hugii (SMNS 91415; Martin & 562 Vincent, 2013) where the quadrate participates very slightly to the ventrolateral margin. The 563 orbital process of the quadrate remains free of bony attachment (Fig. 6B–6C), as in other 564 565 thalattosuchians.. In ventral view, the quadrate contacts the basioccipital and the basisphenoid medially, 566 567 unfortunately and due to damage on the holotype specimen (MLP 72-IV-7-1), we cannot 568 describe in detail this region as well as the contact with the pterygoids. The "erest B" of the quadrate is low and wide and it is developed on the anterior border of the quadrate (Fig. 5B). 569 Anteriorly to the "crest B", the quadrate is not exposed (in ventral view), as in "M." cf. 570 571 westermanni (MDA 2; Fernández et al., 2011: Fig. 1B), Purranisaurus potens (MJCM PV 2060),



and the metriorhynchid specimen (LPP.M.23). The pterygoid process of the quadrate is broad 572 and it widens anterodorsally, forming an expanded distal end of such process (Fig. 5B). 573 In occipital view, the quadrate contacts the ventrolateral flange of the otoccipital. The 574 quadrate forms the lateral margin of the cranioquadrate canal (Fig. 5C). In MLP 72-IV-7-1, the 575 cranioquadrate foramen and canal are separated from the external otic aperture by a bony lamina 576 577 (Fig. 5C), as in other metriorhynchids (e.g. *Purranisaurus potens*, MJCM PV 2060; Maledictosuchus riclaensis, MPZ 2001/130a, Parrilla-Bel et al., 2013; Torvoneustes coryphaeus, 578 Young et al., 2013) and in the teleosaurids ? Steneosaurus sp. (SMNS 59558) and 579 Machimosaurus hugii (SMNS 91415). This differs from the condition present in Pelagosaurus 580 typus (BSPG 1890 I5), Steneosaurus pictaviensis (LPP.M.37), and Teleosaurus cadomensis 581 (Jouve, 2009) where these structures are incompletely separated. In C. araucanensis the external 582 otic aperture is located posteriorly to the infratemporal fenestra and it opens ventrolaterally. In 583 lateral view the otic aperture is triangular shaped with rounded corners and is completely 584 included within the quadrate. The dorsal margin is overhung by the squamosal, but it does not 585 form part of this margin. The quadrate encloses most of the middle ear cavity. 586 Otoccipital. The otoccipital contacts the supraoccipital dorsally, the parietal and squamosal 587 588 dorsolaterally, and the quadrate ventrolaterally, and forms the dorsal and lateral margins of the foramen magnum (Fig. 5C). The foramen magnum is ovalshaped, with the major axis 589 590 mediolaterally oriented. We cannot determine if the otoccipital participates on the dorsal region 591 of the condyle because the sutures are not preserved (Fig. 5C). However, in MLP 72-IV-7-4 this trait can be observed, and the otoccipitals participate in the dorsolateral part of the occipital 592 593 condyle as in most crocodylomorphs. In ventral view it is sutured laterally to the quadrate and 594 medially to the basioccipital (Fig. 5B).



The paroccipital processes are orientated dorsally (Fig. 5C), as in other metriorhynchids
(e.g. "M." casamiquelai, MGHF 1-08573; "M." cf. westermanni, MDA 2; Plesiosuchus manselii,
Young et al., 2012; Maledictosuchus riclaensis, Parrilla-Bel et al., 2013; Torvoneustes
coryphaeus, Young et al., 2013). Unlike many crocodylomorphs (e.g. Protosuchus richardsoni,
UCMP 131827; Notosuchus terrestris, MACN-RN 1037; Steneosaurus bollensis, see above;
Caiman yacare, MACN 15145; Almadasuchus figarii, Pol et al., 2013) the paroccipital processes
are strongly convex on their medial two thirds, while the lateral third is straight. Laterally, the
otoccipital contacts the squamosal, through the distal ends of the paroccipital processes. The
paroccipital process forms the medial and dorsal borders of the cranioquadrate passage (Fig. 5C).
The ventrolateral flange of the otoccipital is sutured ventrolaterally to the quadrate and
ventromedially to the basioccipital. Lateral and ventrally the foramen magnum this region is
pierced by several foramina of different diameter. Lateral to the foramen magnum and at level
with its ventral margin, a small foramen for the passage of the CN XII is identified (Fig. 5C). As
it was mentioned above, a single foramen for the exit of CN XII is present in most
thalattosuchians. There are three foramina located ventrolaterallly to the occipital condyle (Fig.
5C). The two lateralmost foramina are identified as the exit of cranial nerves IX, X, XI and
associated vessels (e.g. jugular vein). The ventralmost foramen is not far from the ventral margin
of the basioccipital tuberosities and is identified as the enlarged foramen for the internal carotid
artery. This foramen is oriented posteriorly in the occipital table, a condition observed in other
metriorhynchoids (e.g. Pelagosaurus typus, BSPG 1890 I5; Purranisaurus potens, MJCM PV
2060; Dakosaurus andiniensis, MOZ-PV 6146; "M." cf. westermanni, MDA 2; Plesiosuchus
manselii, NHMUK PV R.1089; Torvoneustes coryphaeus, Young et al. 2013; Maledictosuchus
riclaensis, MPZ 2001/130a; Tyrannoneustes lythrodectikos, Foffa & Young, 2014; Zoneait



618	nargorum, Wilberg, 2015a). In some metriorhynchoids specimens a groove or canal associated
619	with the foramen is ventrally directed (e.g. Pelagosaurus typus, BSPG 1890 I5; "M." cf.
620	westermanni, MDA 2; Dakosaurus andiniensis, MOZ-PV 6146; Purranisaurus potens, MJCM
621	PV 2060; and the metriorhynchid specimen LPP.M.23).
622	Supraoccipital. This bone exposed solely in occipital view, is flat and subrhomboidally shaped.
623	The supraoccipital is wider (lateromedially) than tall (dorsoventrally) in posterior view (Fig. 5C),
624	as in Almadasuchus and crocodyliforms (Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017). Dorsally it contacts the
625	parietal and ventrolaterally the otoccipital. In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the supraoccipital does not
626	contribute to the dorsal margin of the foramen magnum because the participation of the
627	otoccipitals (Fig. 5C). However, this feature is variable among <i>C. araucanensis</i> specimens, as in
628	MLP 72-IV-7-2 and MLP 86-XI-5-7 the supraoccipital reaches the border of the foramen
629	magnum. There is a raised rim in the dorsal region of the supraoccipital-otoccipital suture that is
630	interpreted as the occipital tuberosities described by Brusatte et al. (2016) for teleosaurids,
631	however these are less pronounced than previously reported. Medially to these tuberosities there
632	are also subtle raised rims, aligned with the vertical walls of the "U"-shaped structure of the
633	parietal (Fig. 5C).
634	Basioccipital. The basioccipital forms the occipital condyle and, as it was mentioned before, we
635	cannot distinguish if the otoccipital participates in the occipital condyle (Fig. 5C). Ventrally to
636	the condyle, and in occipital view, the surface exposed is dorsoventrally short and
637	anteroventrally oriented (Fig. 5C). The basioccipital tuberosities are incompletely preserved
638	because the external surface is eroded; however they are exposed in posterior and ventral views
639	(Fig. 5B-5C). In ventral view the basioccipital tuberosities form a wide "U" with the lateral
640	region in contact with the quadrate. In ventral view the basioccipital is triangular shaped and





between the tuberosities forms the posterior and lateral borders of the medial pharyngeal 641 foramen (Fig. 5B). 642 643 **Basisphenoid.** In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the basisphenoid is broken and poorly preserved. It is exposed in ventral and lateral view. In ventral view it contacts the basioccipital posteriorly, laterally the 644 quadrate and anteriorly the pterygoid. The basisphenoid forms the anterior margin of the medial 645 646 pharyngeal foramen (Fig. 5B). 647 Endocranial anatomy of *Cricosaurus araucanensis* (MLP 72-IV-7-1) 648 Morphology of the brain endocast. The cranial endocast of MLP 72-IV-7-1 is complete, from 649 olfactory bulbs to the medulla oblongata and represents approximately 30 % of the skull length. 650 It is approximately 141 mm long, from the foramen magnum to the olfactory bulbs, and has a 651 maximum width of 26 mm across the cerebral hemispheres. The brain is elongated, narrow, and 652 relatively straight in lateral view (the dorsal border of the medulla oblongata is almost in the 653 654 same horizontal plane the olfactory tract in lateral view), as the midbrain-hindbrain and within the hindbrain flexures are not marked (Fig. 7A–7B). This particular trait has been noted in 655 previous contributions based on the natural brain endocasts (e.g. MLP 76-II-19-1, MOZ-PV 656 657 7201; Herrera, 2015). The olfactory tract is long and forms approximately the half of the total length of the 658 659 brain endocast, as in most longirostrine crocodylomorphs (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017: 660 Figs. 1, 3–4). The olfactory tract widens rostrally, slightly caudal to the prefrontal pillar, forming the reduced olfactory bulbs. It is worthy to remak that the pair of large obloid concavities on the 661 662 ventral surfaces of the frontal that traditionally were interpreted as the olfactory bulbs, actually



2013). 664 In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the cerebral hemispheres are laterally projected and they are 665 noticeably wider (approximately 30% wider) than the medulla oblongata (Fig. 7C-7D). The 666 same condition was previously observed in the natural endocasts of the same taxon (e.g. MOZ-667 668 PV 7201, MOZ-PV 7208, MOZ-PV 7261; Herrera, 2015: Fig. 2.2, 2.4), and also noticed in P. typus (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017: Fig 5A), unlike S. bollensis (Fig. 3C–3D) and S. cf. 669 gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016: Fig. 6A–6B). 670 The anteroposteriorly elongated pituitary body is located ventrally to the midbrain (Fig. 671 7B, 7F). In lateral view, the pituitary extends from the posterior half of the cerebral hemispheres 672 and its posterior end exceeds the posterior margin of the trigeminal foramen (Fig. 7B), as in S. cf. 673 gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016: Fig. 6D). The carotid canals enter at the distarth of the 674 pituitary fossa through two separate foramina and two parallel canals exit anteriorly from the 675 676 pituitary fossa (Fig. 7A–7B, 7E–7F). The cranioquadrate passage runs from the middle ear cavity to the cranioquadrate 677 foramen and it conveys the stapedial vein into the middle ear cavity (Fig. 7G), as in "M." cf. 678 679 westermanni (Fernández et al., 2011) and extant crocodylians (Porter, Sedlmayr & Witmer, 2016). 680 681 Vascular elements. The rostral and caudal middle cerebral veins, the internal carotid artery, and 682 the orbital artery were reconstructed (Fig. 7). The blood vessel fillings distributed throughout the dorsal region of the cerebral hemispheres and associated to the rostral middle cerebral vein 683 identified on the natural casts of C. araucanensis and D. cf. andiniensis (Herrera, 2015; Herrera 684 685 & Vennari, 2015) could not be traced in the digital casts based on CT data of MLP 72-IV-7-1.

correspond to the olfactory region of the nasal cavity (see Herrera, Fernández & Gasparini,



687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

In lateral view, the rostral middle cerebral vein, that exits the braincase through the dorsal lobule of the trigeminal foramen, forms a subtle swealling in the endocast of MLP 72-IV-7-1 (Fig. 7B). This can be probably related to a low CT resolution, as it is markedly different from the condition of some natural endocasts of C. araucanensis where this vein is clearly identifiable (MOZ-PV 7201, MOZ-PV 7261, MLP 73-II-27-3; Herrera, 2015: Fig. 2). In dorsal view, and in the hindbrain region, approximately to the level of the endosseous labyrinth, the two branches of the caudal middle cerebral vein exit from the dorsal region of the brain (Fig. 7B, 7D, 7H). These branches are dorsolaterally directed and run dorsally and parallel to the middle ear cavity (Fig. 7D, 7H). The temporo-orbital/stapedial vein passes ventrally to the temporo-orbital foramen suggesting that this vein diverges from the main branch and exits through the temporo-orbital foramen. The same feature is also present in "M." cf. westermanni (MDA 2), S. cf. gracilirostris and *Pelagosaurus typus* (Brusatte et al. 2016). The temporo-orbital/stapedial vein reaches the middle ear region through the cranioquadrate passage and exits trought the cranioquadrate foramen (Fig. 7H), as it was described for "M." cf. westermanni (Fernández et al., 2011) and P. typus (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). Anteriorly to the root of the caudal middle cerebral veins, the dorsal longitudinal sinus in MLP 72-IV-7-1 is continuous anteriorly as a ridge that overlays the dorsal region of the hind-, mid- and forebrain (Fig. 7B). In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the carotid canals were completely reconstructed as these are fully ossified, isolating the internal carotid arteries from the pharyngotympanic sinus (Fig. 7F). This pattern has not been described in any other crocodylomorph. More CT data of metriorhynchids are necessary to confirm if this trait is widespread among Metriorhynchidae or it represents an autapomorphy of C. araucanensis. In BSPG 1984 I258, S. cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016), and P. typus (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017) the carotid canals are temporarily lost as



710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

they pass through the pharyngotympanic sinus. This could be caused in these thalattosuchians, as in extant crocodilians, due to these portions of the carotid canal remain cartilaginous (Sedlmayr, 2002). In MLP 72-IV-7-1 the longest portion of the carotid canals runs parallel to the midline of the cranium, from the occipital opening to the cochlear duct. On this region, the carotid canals turn abruptly medially towards the midline of the cranium. The carotid canals then become parallel to the main axis of the skull again before entering at the posterior end of the pituitary fossa through two separate foramina (Fig. 7F). The diameter of the canals at the level of the pituitary fossa is about 5 mm, just slightly smaller than the diameter of the internal carotid foramen (ca. 6 mm). Clearly separated paired canals exit anteriorly from the pituitary fossa, ventrally to the optic nerve (CN II) (Fig. 7B, 7F). The same feature was previously identified in nonmetriorhynchid thalattosuchians such as: S. cf. gracilirostris (Brusatte et al., 2016), and Pelagosaurus typus (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). In MLP 72-IV-7-1 these canals are short (likely because of preservation) with a diameter of 5 mm approximately, comparable to the diameter of the internal carotid canal. In two natural endocasts (MOZ-PV 7205 and MOZ-PV 7261) these paired canals can also be observed in the same region. In recent contributions centered on thalattosuchians these canals were interpreted as the canals of the orbital artery (Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). Nerves. Only a few cranial nerves were identifiable and reconstructed in MLP 72-IV-7-1. The optic nerve (CN II) originates from the midline, anterodorsally to the pituitary, and exits the braincase through a broad aperture (Fig. 7B, 7F). Cranial nerve IV originates dorsally to the orbital artery (Fig. 7B, 7F). The large trigeminal foramen, located on the lateral wall of the braincase, is a prominent structure that allowed reconstructing the trigeminal ganglion which





originates from the lateral surface of the midbrain region (Fig. 7). 732 **Paratympanic sinus system.** The paratympanic sinus system of *C. araucanensis* resembles that 733 of S. bollensis. One of the major differences is the absence of the lateral pharyngeal foramina, a 734 feature shared with most metriorhynchids (e.g. Purranisaurus potens, Metriorhynchus 735 superciliosus). As in most crocodyliforms (e.g. S. bollensis, Protosuchus richardsoni, 736 737 Simosuchus shushanensis, Notosuchus terrestris, Caiman latirostris), the medial pharyngeal foramen is located along the sagittal plane at the suture between the basioccipital and the 738 basisphenoid (Fig. 5B). 739 The pharyngotympanic sinus system is not expanded posteriorly, thus not forming a 740 basioccipital diverticulum. The absence of this feature is unique among crocodyliforms, even 741 when compared with other thalattosuchians (e.g. S. bollensis, see above; S. cf. gracilirostris, 742 Brusatte et al., 2016; *Pelagosaurus typus*, Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). The medial 743 pharyngeal foramen continues anteriorly as a narrow tube, which expands slightly at midlength, 744 slightly pneumatizing the posteroventral region of the basisphenoid (Fig. 6E). From the 745 anterolateral regions of the basisphenoid diverticulum two posterodorsally directed ramifications, 746 which connect with the main pharyngotympanic sinus are present. These ramifications are 747 748 identified as the anterior communicating canals (sensu Miall, 1878; or recesus epitubaricus sensu Dufeau & Witmer, 2015) and, unlike the morphology present in non-metriorhynchid 749 750 thalattosuchians, these have little dorsoventral development and are very wide (Fig. 6E). The 751 ventral pneumatization of the floor of the palate is reduced in C. araucanensis as it does not invade the pterygoids. 752 The structure of the main pharyngotympanic sinus of *C. araucanensis* is very similar to 753 that of S. bollensis: the middle ear cavity forms a mediolaterally directed tube limited anteriorly 754



755	by the quadrates and posteriorly by the otoccipitals; accessory pneumatizations to this cavity are
756	very poorly developed (lacking quadrate and infundibular diverticula); and the prootic
757	diverticulum is represented by an anterodorsal swelling on the middle ear cavity (Fig. 7A, 7C,
758	7E, 7G). The later, as in other thalattosuchians reported to the date (see above), lacks an isolated
759	diverticulum just anteriorly to the anterior the semicircular canalante main difference identified
760	among C. araucanensis and S. bollensis is on the relative development of the otoccipital
761	diverticulum, as in the former this diverticulum does not form a laminar ventral expansion (Fig.
762	7G) as it is observed in S. bollensis (Fig. 3G). These laminar ventral expansions of the middle ear
763	cavities (i.e. otoccipital diverticula) are only visible towards the midline, in the posteromedial
764	region of the pharyngotympanic sinus. Another notable difference between the taxa studied in
765	this contribution is the dorsal projection of the otoccipital diverticulum, as in C. araucanensis
766	this diverticulum is restricted ventrally to the foramen magnum. Cricosaurus araucanensis does
767	not bear any dorsal enlargement or connected cavity (i.e. intertympanic diverticulum) on the
768	posterodorsal region of the paratympanic system, as it has been observed in other
769	thalattosuchians (Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017).
770	Endosseous labyrinth of the inner ear. The anterior, posterior, and lateral semicircular canals,
771	crus communis, and cochlear duct were reconstructed (Fig. 8). The general morphology of the
772	inner ear is similar to that described in other crocodilians. The semicircular canals are aligned in
773	approximately orthogonal planes in three-dimensional space. The anterior semicircular canal is
774	the longes MLP 72-IV-7-1, the complete inner ear is approximately 19.5 mm tall and has a
775	maximum width of 18 mm at the level of the semicircular canals (Fig. 8).



777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

791

792

793

794

795

796

797

798

Discussion

Comparative braincase and endocranial anatomy

In the sections above we described the braincase and the 3D models of the endocast and other associated structures of two well-preserved thalattosuchians: Steneosaurus bollensis and Cricosaurus araucanensis. Despite that recent phylogenetical studies do not use the same taxon sampling (e.g. Pol & Gasparini, 2009; Young et al., 2017), there is a general consensus that the specimens analyzed in this contribution represent members from the two main lineages among thalattosuchians: Teleosauridae and Metriorhynchoidea. This, along with recent contributions centered on the braincase and other associated structures of thalattosuchians (Fernández et al., 2011; Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017), provided the framework to analyze the main changes on this region in Thalattosuchia. In the following lines we will tackle this issue and try to evaluate the different structures individually. **Internal carotid foramen and canal.** An enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery was previously proposed as a synapomorphy of Metriorhynchidae (Pol & Gasparini, 2009). However, as mentioned above, this feature is also present in non-metriorhynchid thalattosuchians such as Teleosaurus cadomensis, S. cf. gracilirostris and Pelagosaurus typus (Jouve, 2009; Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017), and S. pictaviensis (LPP.M.37) and ?Steneosaurus sp. (SMNS 59558) indicating that an enlarged foramen for the internal carotid is a feature widely distributed in Thalattosuchia. An exception are the teleosaurids Machimosaurus hugii (SMNS 91415; Martin & Vincent, 2013) and Peipehsuchus teleorhinus (IVPP V 10098) where this foramen has the same diameter (or is even smaller) than the one for the exit of the hypoglossal cranial nerve (CN XII).





800

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

In metriorhynchids, an enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery was linked with an enlargement of the carotid canal (Fernández et al., 2011). An increased artery diameter implies that there is less blood contacting the vessel wall, thus lowering the friction and the resistance, subsequently increasing the flow. Herrera, Fernández & Gasparini (2013) suggested, based on the known case of extant birds (Gerstberger, 1991), that in metriorhynchids a high amount of the blood flow through the carotid arteries can be diverted to the glands at maximal salt gland secretion. In this sense, the enlargement of the carotid foramen and canal indicates an increase in blood flow that could be coupled with an increase in blood flow to salt glands at maximal secretion. Recently, Brusatte et al. (2016) have used the presence of an enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery (and also a conspicuous canal) to suggest that large salt glands were also present in the non-metriorhynchid thalattosuchian S. cf. gracilirostris. Posteriorly erce, Williams & Benson (2017) described an expansion of the nasal cavity anterior to the orbits in P. typus and referred this expansion as the osteological correlate of an enlarged salt gland. Again, this claim is coupled with the presence of an enlarged foramen/canal for the internal carotid artery in *P. typus* (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). Considering the proposed links mentioned above between the diameter of the carotid foramen and the size of the salt gland, taxa like Machimosaurus hugii and Peipehsuchus teleorhinus would not have enlarged salt glands if present. Additionally to the absence of an enlarged carotid foramen, some specimens of these taxa have been also reported from brackish or continental deposits (Martin & Vincent, 2013; Martin et al., 2016). Fernández & Gasparini (2008), following the four stage evolutionary model of osmoregulation strategies of Dunson & Mazzotti (1989), suggested that marine adaptation in

thalattosuchians was transitional, that teleosaurids represent the third state, and metriorhynchids



the more extreme fourth stage. That is, teleosaurid lived probably in brackish environments and, occasionally in open sea; and prevent lethal dehydratation (as the extant *Crocodylus porosus*) by means of small salt-secreting glands of low secretory capacity used in conjunction with selective drinking of only hypo-osmotic fresh water. If so, no conspicuous osteological correlates of salt glands must be expected in teleosaurids. On the contrary, pelagic life-style of metriorhynchids required well-developed salt-secreting glands such preserved as natural casts in *Cricosaurus araucanensis* (Fernández & Gasparini, 2008).

If enlarged carotid arteries can be used as a correlates of an increased blood flow, coupled with the blood demand of enlarged salt glands (as proposed by Brusatte et al., 2016) then most thalattosuchians would have had enlarged salt glands with a high secretory capacity, and salt glands of low secreting capabilities were restricted to some teleosaurids such as *M. hugii* and *P. teleorhinus*. It is worth mentioning that osteological correlates, even in the case of enlarged glands, are not easy to identify. In the case of *Cricosaurus araucanensis* the identification of these structures was possible as they were preserved as natural cast (see e.g. Fernández & Gasparini, 2008). It must be noted that the hypothesis about the presence of enlarged salt glands outside Metriorhynchidae is based solely on this indirect evidence (i.e. enlarged carotid foramina) and such correlation needs to be validated with fossil specimens displaying enlarged salt glands.

Concerning the position of the foramina for the entrance of the internal carotids, in most thalattosuchians these foramina are placed ventral to the occipital condyle, and lateral to the basioccipital tuberosities, while in most crocodyliforms these foramina are placed at the level of the occipital condyle (e.g. *Junggarsuchus sloani*, Clark et al., 2004: Fig. 2; *Mourasuchus nativus*, Bona, Degrange & Fernández, 2013: Fig. 3B; *Caipirasuchus*, Pol et al., 2014: Fig. 20B;



Notosuchus terrestris, Barrios et al., 2018: Fig. 22F). Among thalattosuchians there is a
modification regarding the general orientation of the carotid canal, which affects in which view
the foramen for the entrance of these arteries is visible on the skull. In metriorhynchoids the
foramen for the entrance of the internal carotid pierces the otoccipital with a posterior direction,
and as a result it is only visible in occipital view (e.g. Pelagosaurus typus, Zoneait nargorum,
Purranisaurus potens, Plesiosuchus manselii, Maledictosuchus riclaensis, Cricosaurus
araucanensis). This condition is the most widespread among crocodylomorphs as in most of
them (e.g. Junggarsuchus sloani, Mourasuchus nativus, Notosuchus terrestris, Protosuchus
richardsoni, Gryposuchus neogaeus, cf. Rhabdognathus, Dyrosaurus phosphaticus, Caiman
latirostris), the foramen for the entrance of the internal carotids in the skull is visible in occipital
view. On the other hand, in the teleosaurids Steneosaurus bollensis, S. pictaviensis, S. leedsi,
Machimosaurus hugii, and Teleosaurus cadomensis the foramen for the entrance of the carotid
artery pierces the otoccipital with a posteroventral, ventrolateral, or even ventral direction. It is
worth mentioning that the change in orientation of the internal carotid foramen is only present in
the teleosaurids mentioned above, while most of them exhibit the generalized crocodylomorph
condition. However, it should be considered that in some specimens this feature can be
exaggerated by post-mortem deformation.
Trigeminal foramen. Two different morphologies for the trigeminal foramen have been
reported in thalattosuchians: circular (e.g. S. bollensis, M. hugii, and likely in T. cadomensis) and
bilobate, constricted or hour-glass shaped (e.g. P. typus, M. brachyrhynchus, "M." cf.
westermanni, C. araucanensis and D. cf. andiniensis). A bilobate trigeminal foramen can be
recognized in other non-thalattosuchian crocodylomorphs, for example Sphenosuchus (Walker,
1990), Dibothrosuchus elaphros (Wu & Chatterjee, 1993: Fig. 3A), and Notosuchus terrestris



(Barrios et al., 2018). However, most crocodyliforms have a circular trigeminal foramen (e.g. 868 Goniopholis stovali, AMNH 5782; Caiman latirostris, MACN 30531; Protosuchus haughtoni, 869 Busbey & Gow, 1984; cf. Rhabdognathus, Brochu et al., 2002; Simosuchus clarki, Kley et al., 870 2010; Almadasuchus figarii, Pol et al., 2013). 871 In sum, a bilobate trigeminal foramen appears to be restricted for metriorhynchoids 872 873 within Thalattosuchia, whereas teleosaurids retain the plesiomorphic condition of a circular trigeminal foramen (Figs. 9 and 10). Although preliminary, as this feature needs to be tested 874 thoroughly in a phylogenetic context, occurrences of bilobate trigeminal foramina seem to be 875 isolated outside Metriorhynchoidea, contrasting with the widespread condition of a circular one. 876 This particular morphology has been associated to the separation of the maxillary (V_2) and 877 mandibular (V_3) branches of the trigeminal nerve (Barrios et al., 2018). 878 Cranial nerves IX-XI and XII. The presence of a vagus foramen (common exit of CN IX-XI) 879 with a unique or double opening has been recognized within Thalattosuchia. We interpreted that 880 881 Steneosaurus bollensis, Pelagosaurus typus, Purranisaurus potens, and Dakosaurus cf. andiniensis have a single opening. In the holotype of "Metriorhynchus" casamiquelai (MGHF 1-882 08573) there is also one opening for this cranial nerve, contrasting with the observations of Soto-883 884 Acuña, Otero & Rubilar-Rogers (2012: Fig. 2) where two foramina for the exit of the CN IX-XI were identified (in other specimen referred to this taxa contrast, in C. araucanensis, the 885 metriorhynchid specimen from Mörnsheim Formation (BSPG 1973 I195), "M." westermanni, 886 887 "M." cf. westermanni, M. brachyrhynchus (LPP.M 22), and Teleosaurus cadomensis there is a double opening for the exit of cranial nerves IX, X and XI. 888 889 Related to the exit for the CN XII, most of thalattosuchians have only one exit, a different 890 condition in comparison with most crocodylomorphs (e.g. *Protosuchus*, *Sphenosuchus*,



892

893

894

895

896

897

898

899

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

Almadasuchus, Notosuchus terrestris, Dibothrosuchus elaphros) that have two. However, there is variation within Thalattosuchia as in *Pelagosaurus typus*, *M. brachyrhynchus* (LPP.M 22), and likely "*M." casamiquelai* (at least in the right side of the skull of the holotype there are two foramina near to the occipital condyle), there is a double exit for the CN XII.

It must be considered the possibility that in some cases where the vagus foramen has a double opening one of them could corresponds to a second opening for the CN XII. This uncertainty can be resolved with complete reconstructions of the passage of the nerves, based on CT data, but unfortunately in the specimens that we are describing this is not possible because the resolution of CT data do not allow tracing this passages. Within the studied thalattosuchians, there is variability in the number, relative size, or location of the cranial nerve foramina on the posterior aspect of the skull (see also Brusatte et al., 2016). However, if this variability impacts on phylogenetic analyses or has functional implications requires further research. Separation of the cranioquadrate canal from the external otic aperture. The cranioquadrate canal is a structure present in hallopodid crocodylomorphs, mesoeucrocodylians and derived crocodyliforms (i.e. Fruitachampsa, Gobiosuchus, Hsiosuchus) (Clark, 1994; Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017). The cranioquadrate canal connects the middle ear space with the posterior aspect of the skull, which additionally serves to transmit the stapedial artery and vein (Iordansky, 1973; Porter, Sedlmayr & Witmer, 2016). In thalattosuchians the cranioquadrate foramen is placed more laterally than in most crocodyliforms, a condition reported as synapomorphy for the group (Clark, 1994).

In this contribution we report a further derived condition for the cranioquadrate passage present in all metriorhynchids and some telesaurids, in which the cranioquadrate foramen is completely separated from the external otic aperture by a thin bony lamina. This condition is



914	present in the metriorhynchids Cricosaurus araucanensis (Fig. 5C), Maledictosuchus riclaensis,
915	Torvoneustes coryphaeus, Purranisaurus potens, "Metriorhynchus" casamiquelai, and in the
916	teleosaurids Machimosaurus hugii and ?Steneosaurus sp. (SMNS 59558). Aditionally, Jouve
917	(2009) mentioned that these structures are also completely separated in <i>Mystriosaurus</i> cf.
918	bollensis, Teleidosaurus, and Enaliosuchus. In contrast, based on first hand examinations of the
919	specimens we found that the cranioquadrate canal is incompletely separated from the external
920	otic recess in Pelagosaurus typus (BSPG 1890 I5, NHMUK PV R.32599) and Steneosaurus
921	pictaviensis (LPP.M.37). According to Jouve (2009) the same feature ocurrs in Teleosaurus
922	cadomensis, Steneosaurus larteti, Pelagosaurus typus, and Steneosaurus bollensis. The
923	distribution of this character within non-metriorhynchid thalattosuchians appears to be a highly
924	homoplastic trait. However it should be considered that the complete separation of the
925	cranioquadrate canal and the external otic recess in some non-metriorhynchid thalattosuchians
926	could be cartilaginous. This is based on our observations of the specimen Pelagosaurus typus
927	(BSPG 1890 I5) where the separation of both structures is incomplete, but the bony laminae
928	almost contact each other. Yet, the separation it is very difficult to evaluate in internal structures
929	in fossil taxa, as the osteological marks left by the cartilage can be very subtle (e.g. Holliday &
930	Witmer, 2008).
931	Absence of flexures. Most of extant and extinct crocodyliforms have, at least, a well-marked
932	flexure between the mid and hindbrain, giving the encephalon a curved profile in lateral view
933	(e.g. Almadasuchus JML unpublished data; Pholidosaurus meyeri, MB.R.2027; Macelognathus,
934	Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017; Sebecus icaeorhinus, Colbert, 1946a: pl. 14A; Crocodylus johnstoni,
935	Witmer et al., 2008: Fig. 6.3; Simosuchus clarki, Kley et al., 2010: Fig. 32C; Gavialis
936	gangeticus, Bona, Paulina Carabajal & Gasparini, 2017: Fig. 7). In this sence, the presence of a



938

939

940

941

942

943

944

945

946

947

948

949

950

951

952

953

954

955

956

957

958

959

straight brain (i.e. absence of flexures between fore- midbrain, and mid-hindbrain), appears to be characteristic for Thalattosuchia (e.g. Herrera, 2015; Herrera & Vennari, 2015; Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017).

The tubular brain of thalattosuchians can be coupled with two morphological traits present in their skulls. Most thalattosuchians have a very long and tubular snout which does not have an abrupt transition between its dorsal edge and the anterior end of the skull roof (i.e. the anterior end of the frontal). This feature is particularly marked in C. araucanensis (Gasparini & Dellapé, 1976: Lam, 1–2), where the anterodorsal part of the snout is almost straight with the skull roof. This particular transition between the skull roof and the snout has been previously noted in other non-thalattosuchian crocodyliforms like Sebecus icaeorhinus and baurusuchids (Colbert, 1946a; Carvalho, Campos & Nobre, 2005). Also, Sebecus has a fore-midbrain flexure with an angle comparable to the one observed in thalattosuchians (see Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). On the other hand, the mid-hindbrain flexure could be hidden by the development of the large dorsal venous sinus on the posterodorsal region of the encephalon that overlying this region and obscure the real nature of the flexure. However, these interpretations need to be thoroughly tested as other taxa like *Simosuchus* have high angles between parts of it encephalon attaining values similar to the ones present in thalattosuchians (Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). It is important to note that, to the present day, CT data and 3D endocast models for crocodylomorphs are very few and more data could easily change the interpretations presented in here. Cephalic vascularization. The cephalic vascular system in Thalattosuchia is characterized by a well-developed caudal middle cerebral vein/stapedial vein/temporo-orbital vein, internal carotid

artery, and orbital artery (see also Fernández et al., 2011; Herrera, Fernández, Gasparini, 2013;



961

962

963

964

965

966

967

968

969

970

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

978

979

980

981

982

Herrera, 2015; Herrera & Vennari, 2015; Herrera, 2016a; Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). Additionally, descriptions of natural brain endocasts of metriorhynchids (Herrera, 2015; Herrera & Vennari, 2015) showed that several blood vessels cover the dorsal region of the cerebral hemispheres, and are associated to the rostral middle cerebral vein. This enlarged vascular system indicates an important blood supply to the head of thalattosuchians.

A functional hypothesis about the enlarged internal carotid artery in metriorhynchids was given by Herrera, Fernández & Gasparini (2013) (see also Internal carotid foramen and canal section). The orbital artery supplies the caudal aspect of the orbit, whereas the venous drainage of the orbit is mainly via the temporo-orbital veins (Porter, Sedlmayr & Witmer, 2016). In C. araucanensis and S. cf. gracilirostris, the orbital artery is approximately the same diameter as the internal carotid artery. In both taxa and also in "Metriorhynchus" cf. westermanni, Dakosaurus cf. andiniensis, and Pelagosaurus typus the temporo-orbital vein is also well developed. Extant crocodilians have the orbital region well vascularized and arteries and veins form a plexus within the orbit, potentially allowing heat exchange (Porter, Sedlmayr & Witmer, 2016). In thalattosuchians, the well-developed orbital arteries and temporo-orbital veins suggests that these blood vessels were capable of transmitting a large volume of blood to the orbit. On the other hand, blood shunts or countercurrent heat exchangers, responsible for regional temperature differences have been described for several species of reptiles (Heath, 1966; Crawford et al., 1977). This could be the case of the blood vessels that cover the cerebral hemispheres and derive from the rostral middle cerebral vein described in metriorhynchids.

The enlarged vascular system was interpreted as a mechanism to cover the blood demand of enlarged salt glands. It also likely played a role in the cephalic physiological thermoregulation (to regulate the temperature of neurosensory tissues). However, as was mentioned by Porter,



Sedlmayr & Witmer (2016), the anatomical and physiological roles that blood vessels play in 983 extant crocodilian thermoregulation need further investigation. 984 Lateral pharvngeal foramen (pharvngotympanic tube). The pharvngotympanic tubes 985 communicate the middle ear cavity with the pharynx and are part of the mechanism used in 986 several amniotes to equalize pressures of the middle ear and the external environment (Dufeau & 987 988 Witmer, 2015). In metriorhynchids the lateral pharyngeal foramina are closed as the basisphenoid 989 contacts the otoccipital and the basioccipital along its posterolateral edge. On the other hand, 990 991 teleosaurids (e.g. S. bollensis, BSPG 1984 I258; S. pictaviensis, LPP.M.37; Lemmysuchus obtusidens, LPP.M.21; Teleosaurus cadomensis, Jouve, 2009) and the basal metriorhynchoid 992 Pelagosaurus typus (BSPG 1890 I5) bear lateral Eustachian foramina, as most crocodyliforms 993 (e.g. Protosuchus haughtoni, Notosuchus terrestris, cf. Rhabdognathus, Caiman latirostris). 994 Within Thalattosuchia the closure of the lateral pharyngeal foramina appears to be 995 restricted for metriorhynchids, while non-metriorhynchid thalattosuchians retain the 996 plesiomorphic condition of bear lateral pharyngeal foramina. Besides the closure of the lateral 997 pharyngeal foramina, additional variation can be reported in thalattosuchians. In teleosaurid taxa, 998 999 restricted to the genus Steneosaurus (e.g. S. bollensis BSPG 1984 I258, S. pictaviensis, LPP.M.37) the medial pharyngeal foramen is smaller lateral ones, while *Peipehsuchus* 1000 1001 teleorhinus (IVPP V 10098) retains the typical crocodyliform condition where the medial 1002 foramen is the largest of the pharyngeal foramina. The absence of the lateral pharyngeal foramina in metriorhynchids implies that the 1003 1004 communication between the middle ear cavity with the pharynx is reduced only through the



median pharyngeal foramen. Further studies are needed to understand if this modification has a 1005 physiological/adaptive significance. 1006 Reduction of the paratympanic sinus system. According to Dufeau (2011) and Dufeau & 1007 Witmer (2015) in most mesoeucrocodylian crocodyliforms (Sebecus icaeorhinus; 1008 Hamadasuchus rebouli; and extant crocodiles like Alligator mississippiensis), diverticular 1009 1010 expansions are extensive whereas in longirostrine taxa such as Gavialis, Tomistoma, cf. Rhabdognathus and Pelagosaurus there is a constraint on diverticular pneumatization of the 1011 rostral portion of the braincase. 1012 1013 The constraint on diverticular pneumatization is more evident in Thalattosuchia, in comparison to extant and extinct crocodiles, given by the absence of the infundibular, quadrate, 1014 intertympanic diverticula, likely the prootic diverticulum and also a restricted pneumatization of 1015 1016 the otoccipital (see also Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017). This reduction is more developed in Cricosaurus araucanensis which also lacks of basioccipital diverticulum 1017 and the otoccipital diverticulum has not a dorsal projection (in comparison to S. bollensis). 1018 Future work should confirm if this condition is restricted to C. araucanensis or if it is more 1019 distributed among metriorhynchids. 1020 The development of pneumatizations anterior to the tympanic crest is not so well 1021 documented in non-crocodyliform crocodylomorphs, although pneumatic anterior foramina have 1022 been reported in several taxa (e.g. Terrestrisuchus, Dibothrosuchus, Junggarsuchus, 1023 1024 Almadasuchus, Macelognathus) and in some of them the connection with the middle ear cavity was confirmed (Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017). As it was observed with the particular shape of the 1025 otic aperture, the lack of a subtympanic foramen (sensu Montefeltro, Andrade & Larsson, 2016) 1026



and an associated infundibular diverticulum is distributed among most thalattosuchians (e.g. *S. bollensis*, *T. cadomensis*, *P. typus*, *C. araucanensis*).

The lack of pneumatic features on the supraoccipital (intertympanic sinus) has been proposed as evidence for a non-crocodylomorph position for Thalattosuchia in previous contributions (Wilberg, 2015b). However, the lack of a prootic pneumatization (i.e. mastoid antrum) in thalattosuchians, a feature widely distributed among derived crocodylomorphs (see above), has gone unnoticed in recent analysis of the paratympanic pneumaticity of thalattosuchians (Wilberg, 2015b; Brusatte et al., 2016; Pierce, Williams & Benson, 2017).

The posterior pneumatization of the otic capsule is present and well-developed in derived non-crocodyliform crocodylomorphs and crocodyliforms (Pol et al., 2013; Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017), where the otoccipital diverticulum is dorsally extended exceeding the dorsal border of the foramen magnum, contrasting with the thalattosuchian condition in which is mostly restricted to the ventral part of the otoccipital.

Pneumatic diverticula associated to the middle ear cavity of crocodylomorphs have been described and analyzed several times (e.g. Colbert, 1946b; Tarsitano, 1985; Dufeau & Witmer, 2015). However, the functional interpretations related to this particular crocodylomorph specialization remain elusive. Given that interaural time differences have been reported for crocodylians (Carr et al., 2009), Bierman et al. (2014) hypothesized that the pneumatic diverticula allowed the internal coupling of both ears, allowing the crocodylian ear to act as a pressure difference receiver organ and, thus, permiting directional hearing. A second hypothesis was erected by Dufeau & Witmer (2015), in which the development of the paratympanic pneumatic diverticula increases the auditory sensitivity. In particular, Dufeau & Witmer (2015) found that the resonant frequencies calculated on the subtympanic foramen coincided with the



greatest intensity of juvenile vocalizations of *Alligator mississippiensis*, while these distress calls where among the lowest threshold of cochlear sensitivity in adults. Thus, it was associated to have a function in increasing the auditory sensitivity from adults towards their offspring. Due to the recent increasing amount of available CT data of thalattosuchians we can conclude that the group as a whole lacks the intertympanic diverticulum, and has a reduced dorsal pneumatization associated with the otic capsule (see above). However, internal connections between both middle ears are still retained through the ventral part of the pharyngotympanic and median pharyngeal systems, thus allowing internal ear coupling and the associated sound localization. As a result, we can infer a reduced response in directional hearing in thalattosuchians and a decrease in low frequency sensitivity (Bierman et al., 2014), due to the loss of the dorsal paratympanic pneumatization. On the other hand, the increased sensitivity hypothesis through the subtympanic foramen can be discarded for thalattosuchians, as it was discussed in this contribution thalattosuchians lack pneumatic foramina and associated pneumatization in the quadrate.

Braincase and endocranial anatomy evolution of thalattosuchians

In order to trace morphological transformations and major changes in the braincase and endocranial anatomy along crocodylomorph evolution, we mapped in two phylogenetic hypotheses the anatomical features that were discussed above (Figs. 9–10). This approach is due to the unresolved phylogenetic affinities of Thalattosuchia. Thus, we choose to use the two most widely accepted phylogenetic hypotheses for the clade: Thalattosuchia as derived neosuchians, nested with pholidosaurs/dyrosaurids forming a "longirostrine clade" (Fig. 9; Clark, 1994; Pol & Gasparini, 2009; Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017); or Thalattosuchia as basal mesoeucrocodyilans (Fig. 10; Sereno & Larsson, 2009; Young et al., 2010; Young et al., 2017). Recently, Wilberg



(2015b) has highlighted the issues about the insufficient amount of outgroups to test the thalattosuchian phylogenetic placement. In this study, he recovered Thalattosuchia as non-crocodyliform crocodylomorph, as the sister group of Crocodyliformes. However, these results have not been replicated using other datasets (e.g. Young et al., 2017) even including a large amount of "sphenosuchians" (e.g. Leardi, Pol & Clark, 2017). So, until this hypothesis is thoroughly tested it will not be considered in this discussion.

Under both phylogenetic hypotheses the enlarged foramen for the internal carotid, the carotid foramen ventral to the occipital condyle, an orbital process of the quadrate free of bony attachment, a laterosphenoid-prootic suture forming a pronounced ridge, a unique foramen for the exit of CN XII, the absence of a a subtympanic foramen, the absence of brain flexures be hypertrophied cephalic vascular system (i.e. the enlargement of the carotids and orbital arteries as well as temporo-orbital veins), and the reduction of the paratympanic sinus system are putative synapomorphic features of Thalattosuchia (see above; Figs. 9–10). Thalattosuchians are very diverse and some of these features exhibit reversions, showing instances of homoplasies (e.g. double foramen for the exit of CN XII in some thalattosuchians and the absence of an enlarged carotid foramen in *Machimosaurus* and *Peipehsuchus*). However, some of the traits discussed are unknown in many crocodylomorphs, either due the lack of well-preserved braincases, incomplete descriptions in the literature of this area, or the lack of internal anatomy data (e.g. CT data).

Although, a general pattern of braincase configuration is evidenced in Thalattosuchia, other morphological traits characterize smaller clades within it. Such is the case of the shape of the trigeminal foramen. In the topology of Pol et al. (2014) (Fig. 9) the bilobate trigeminal foramen characterizes Metriorhynchidae, although a bilobate trigeminal foramen is also present



in the non-metriorhynchid thalattosuchian *Pelagosaurus typus*. On the other hand, based on the topology of Young et al. (2017) the bilobate trigeminal foramen is a putative synapomorphy of Metriorhynchoidea. On the other hand, in both phylogenetic hypotheses the loss of the lateral Eustachian foramina is a putative synapomorphy of Metriorhynchidae (Figs. 9–10). This feature could be coupled with the extreme reduction evidenced in the paratympanic sinus system (absence of basioccipital and pterygoid diverticula) of *Cricosaurus araucanensis*. However, in order to evaluate if this condition is extended among other members of Metriorhynchidae futher descriptions of the metriorhynchid paratympanic sinus system are required.

Conclusions

The braincase and endocranial morphology of the teleosaurid *Steneosaurus bollensis* and the metriorhynchid *Cricosaurus araucanensis* are described in this contribution. The descriptions of two members of different clades of Thalattosuchia allowed us to evaluate and contrast the main features of the braincase and endocranial anatomy with other crocodylomorphs. The main traits that characterize Thalattosuchia from other crocodylomorphs are: enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery, the carotid foramen ventral to the occipital condyle, a single CN XII foramen, the absence of brain flexures, the well-developed cephalic vascular system, the absence of a subtympanic foramen, and the reduction of the paratympanic sinus system. Some of these features (enlarged foramen for the internal carotid artery, the absence of brain flexures, the hypertrophied cephalic vascular system), were previously suggested as exclusively present in Metriorhynchidae, and associated to the pelagic lifestyle of this lineage; however our study revealed that they were already established at the base of Thalattosuchia.



From the paleobiological perspective, these changes indubitably had consequences on the biology of these animals. We suggest that the well-developed vascular system was not only related to the secretory function of salt glands but also it played a role in the cephalic physiological thermoregulation. On the other hand, the reduction of the paratympanic pneumatization is related to a reduced response in directional hearing in thalattosuchians and a decrease in low frequency sensitivity. However these interpretations should be tested in the light of new information about extant and extinct archosaurs.

As it was mentioned above, the main modifications on the braincase and endocranial anatomy appear to be present even in the basalmost members of the clade. These findings do not support an adaptive gap between fully pelagic forms (metriorhynchids) and semiaquatic ones (teleosaurids), implying that these features were already present in the lineage and might have been exapted later on their evolutionary history.

We recognized differences within Thalattosuchia that previously have not been received attention or even were overlooked (e.g. circular/bilobate trigeminal foramen, single/double CN XII foramen, separation of the cranioquadrate canal from the external otic aperture, absence/presence of lateral pharyngeal foramen). The new information on the braincase and endocranial morphology of both thalattosuchians adds anatomical information that has potential use in taxonomy, phylogeny, and paleobiology.

The functional significances of these traits are still unclear. Extending the sampling to other thalattosuchian taxa will help to test the timing of acquisition and distribution of these morphological modifications among the whole lineage. Also comparison with extant marine tetrapods (including physiological information) will be crucial to understand if some (and/or



1140	which) of the morphological peculiarities of thalattosuchian braincases are products of
1141	directional natural selection resulting in a fully adaptation to a nektonic life style.
1142	
1143	Acknowledgements
1144	We thank C. Mehling and M. Norell (AMNH), O. Rauhut (BSPG), W. Joyce, P. Havrlik and M.
1145	Aiglstorfer (GPIT), F. Zheng and X. Xu (IVPP), P. Vignaud and G. Garcia (LPP), A. Kramarz
1146	(MACN), T. Schossleitner and D. Schwarz (MB.R.), A. Garrido and B. Bollini (MOZ), J.I.
1147	Canudo (MPZ), L. Steel (NHMUK), R. Schoch (SMNS), and P. Holroyd (UCMP) for provided
1148	access to specimens under their care and valuable help during collection visits. We thank G.
1149	Rößner (BSPG) for providing access to CT facilities and assistance with CT scanning. We would
1150	like thank F. Degrange (CICTERRA) and M. Bronzati (FFCLRP-USP) for their technical
1151	support, and Manuela Schellenberger (BSPG) for the photographs of BSPG 1984 I258. YH
1152	deeply thanks O. Rauhut (BSPG) for his support during her stay in Munich.
1153	
1154	References
1155	Andrews CW. 1913. A descriptive catalogue of the marine reptiles of the Oxford Clay, Part
1156	Two. London: British Museum (Natural History), 285.
1157	Bardet N, Falconnet J, Fischer V, Houssaye A, Jouve S, Pereda Suberbiola X, Pérez-García
1158	A, Rage J-C, Vincent P. 2014. Mesozoic marine reptile palaeobiogeography in response
1159	to drifting plates. Gondwana Research 26:869-887.
1160	http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.gr.2014.05.005
1161	Barrios F, Bona P, Paulina Carabajal A, Gasparini Z. 2018. Re-description of the cranio-
1162	mandibular anatomy of Notosuchus terrestris (Crocodyliformes, Mesoeucrocodylia) from



1163	the Upper Cretaceous of Patagonia. Cretaceous Research 83:3–39.
1164	http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cretres.2017.08.016
1165	Bierman HS, Thornton JL, Jones HG, Koka K, Young BA, Brandt C, Chistensen-
1166	Dalsgaard J, Carr CE, Tollin DJ. 2014. Biophysics of directional hearing in the
1167	American alligator (Alligator mississippiensis). The Journal of Experimental Biology
1168	217 :1094–1107.
1169	Bona P, Degrange FJ, Fernández MS. 2013. Skull anatomy of the bizarre crocodilian
1170	Mourasuchus nativus (Alligatoridae, Caimaninae). The Anatomical Record 296:227-239
1171	DOI 10.1002/ar.22625.
1172	Bona P, Paulina Carabajal A. 2013. Caiman gasparinae sp. nov., a huge alligatorid
1173	(Caimaninae) from the late Miocene of Paraná, Argentina. Alcheringa 37:1–12.
1174	Bona P, Paulina Carabajal A, Gasparini Z. 2017. Neuroanatomy of Gryposuchus neogaeus
1175	(Crocodylia, Gavialoidea): a first integral description of the braincase and endocranial
1176	morphological variation in extinct and extant gavialoids. Earth and Environmental
1177	Science Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh 106:235–246.
1178	doi:10.1017/S1755691016000189
1179	Brochu CA, Bouare ML, Sissoko F, Roberts EM, O'Leary MA. 2002. A dyrosaurid
1180	crocodyliform braincase from Mali. Journal of Paleontology 76:1060–1071.
1181	Brusatte SL, Muir A, Young MT, Walsh S, Steel L, Witmer LM. 2016. The braincase and
1182	neurosensory anatomy of an Early Jurassic marine crocodylomorph: implications for
1183	crocodilian sinus evolution and sensory transitions. The Anatomical Record 299:1551-
1184	1530.



1185	busbey Ab, Gow C. 1964. A new protosuchian crocodile from the Opper Thassic Effici
1186	Formation of South Africa. Palaeontologia Africana 25:127–149.
1187	Carr CE, Soares D, Smolders J, Simon JZ. 2009. Detection of Interaural Time Differences in
1188	the Alligator. The Journal of Neuroscience 29:7978–7982.
1189	Carvalho IS, Campos ACA, Nobre PH. 2005. Baurusuchus salgadoensis, a new
1190	Crocodylomorpha from the Bauru Basin (Cretaceous), Brazil. Gondwana Research 8:11-
1191	30.
1192	Clark JM. 1986. Phylogenetic relationships of the crocodylomorphs archosaurs. D. Phill.
1193	Thesis, University of Chicago.
1194	Clark JM. 1994. Patterns of evolution in Mesozoic Crocodyliformes. In: Fraser NC, Sues H-D,
1195	eds. In the shadow of the dinosaurs. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 84–97.
1196	Clark JM, Xu X, Forster CA, Wang Y. 2004. A Middle Jurassic "sphenosuchian" from China
1197	and the origin of the crocodilian skull. <i>Nature</i> 430 :1021–1024. DOI
1198	10.1038/nature02802.
1199	Colbert EH. 1946a. Sebecus, representative of a peculiar suborder of fossil Crocodylia from
1200	Patagonia. Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History 87:2017–2270.
1201	Colbert EH. 1946b. The eustachian tubes in crocodiles. <i>Copeia</i> 1946:12–14.
1202	Crawford EC, Palomeque J, Barber BJ. 1977. A physiological basis for head-body
1203	temperature differences in a panting lizard. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology
1204	Part A: Physiology 56 :161–163.
1205	Dufeau DL. 2011. The evolution of cranial pneumaticity in Archosauria: patterns of
1206	paratympanic sinus development. D. Phil. Thesis, Ohio University.



1207	Dufeau DL, Witmer LM. 2015. Ontogeny of the middle-ear air-sinus system in <i>Alligator</i>
1208	mississippiensis (Archosauria: Crocodylia). PLOS ONE 10(9):e013706.DOI
1209	10.1371/journal.pone.0137060.
1210	Dunson WA, Mazzoti FJ. 1989. Salinity as a limiting factor in the distribution of reptiles in
1211	Florida bay: a theory for the estuarine origin of marine snakes and turtles. Bulletin of
1212	<i>Marine Science</i> 44 :229–244.
1213	Fernández MS, Gasparini Z. 2008. Salt glands in the Jurassic metriorhynchid Geosaurus:
1214	implications for the evolution of osmoregulation in Mesozoic crocodyliforms.
1215	Naturwissenschaften 95 :79–84. DOI 10.1007/s00114-007-0296-1.
1216	Fernández MS, Paulina Carabajal A, Gasparini Z, Chong Diaz G. 2011. A metriorhynchid
1217	crocodyliform braincase from northern Chile. Journal of Vertebrate Paleontology
1218	31 :369–377. DOI 10.1080/02724634.2011.550361.
1219	Foffa D, Young MT. 2014. The cranial osteology of Tyrannoneustes lythrodectikos
1220	(Crocodylomorpha: Metriorhynchidae) from the Middle Jurassic of Europe. PeerJ
1221	2:e608DOI 10.7717/peerj.608
1222	Fraas E. 1902. Die Meer-Krocodilier (Thalattosuchia) des oberen Jura unter specieller
1223	berucksichtigung von Dacosaurus und Geosaurus. Paleontographica 49:1-72.
1224	Gasparini Z, Dellapé D. 1976. Un nuevo cocodrilo marino (Thalattosuchia, Metriorhynchidae
1225	de la Formación Vaca Muerta (Jurásico, Tithoniano) de la Provincia del Neuquén
1226	(Argentina). [1° Congreso Geológico Chileno (Santiago), Actas]:1–21.
1227	Gerstberger R. 1991. Partial uncoupling of salt gland blood flow and secretion in the pekin
1228	duck (Anas platyrhynchos). Journal of Physiology 435:175–186.



1229	Heath JE. 1966. Venous shunts in the cephalic sinuses of horned lizards. <i>Physiological Zoology</i>
1230	39 :30–35.
1231	Herrera Y. 2015. Metriorhynchidae (Crocodylomorpha: Thalattosuchia) from Upper Jurassic-
1232	Lower Cretaceous of Neuquén Basin (Argentina), with comments on the natural cats of
1233	the brain. In: Fernández MS, Herrera Y, eds. Reptiles Extintos-Volumen en Homenaje a
1234	Zulma Gasparini. 15. Publicación Electrónica de la Asociación Paleontológica Argentina
1235	159–171.
1236	Herrera Y. 2016a. Endocranial anatomy of a marine Crocodylomorpha (Thalattosuchia): a
1237	preliminary study. Zitteliana 88:26.
1238	Herrera Y, Vennari VV. 2015. Cranial anatomy and neuroanatomical features of a new
1239	specimen of Geosaurini (Crocodylomorpha: Metriorhynchinae) from west-central
1240	Argentina. Historical Biology 27:33-41. DOI 10.1080/08912963.2013.861831.
1241	Herrera Y, Fernández MS, Gasparini Z. 2013. The snout of Cricosaurus araucanensis: a case
1242	study in novel anatomy of the nasal region of metriorhynchids. <i>Lethaia</i> 46 :331–340. DOI
1243	10.1111/let.12011.
1244	Herrera Y, Fernández MS, Lamas GS, Campos L, Talevi M, Gasparini Z. 2017.
1245	Morphology of the sacral region and reproductive strategies of Metriorhynchidae: a
1246	counter-inductive approach. Earth and Environmental Science Transactions of the Royal
1247	Society of Edinburgh 106:247–255. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S1755691016000165
1248	Herrera Y, Gasparini Z, Fernández MS. 2013. A new Patagonian species of Cricosaurus
1249	(Crocodyliformes, Thalattosuchia): first evidence of Cricosaurus in Middle-Upper
1250	Tithonian lithographic limestone from Gondwana. Palaeontology 56:663-678. DOI
1251	10.1111/pala.12010



1252	Herrera Y, Gasparini Z, Fernández MS. 2015. Purranisaurus potens Rusconi, an enigmatic
1253	metriorhynchid from the Late Jurassic-Early Cretaceous of the Neuquén Basin. Journal
1254	of Vertebrate Paleontology 35 :e904790. DOI: 10.1080/02724634.2014.904790
1255	Holliday CM, Witmer LM. 2008. Cranial kinesis in dinosaurs: intracranial joints, protractor
1256	muscles, and their significance for cranial evolution and function in diapsids. Journal of
1257	Vertebrate Paleontology 28:1073–1088.
1258	Holliday CM, Witmer LM. 2009. The epipterygoid of crocodyliforms and its significance for
1259	the evolution of the orbitotemporal region of eusuchians. Journal of Vertebrate
1260	Paleontology 29 :715–733.
1261	Hua S, De Buffrenil V. 1996. Bone histology as a clue to the interpretation of functional
1262	adaptations in the Thalattosuchia. Journal of Vertebrate Paleontology 16:703-717. DOI
1263	10.1080/02724634.1996.10011359.
1264	Iordansky NN. 1973. The skull of Crocodylia. In: Gans C, Parsons TS, eds. Biology of reptilia.
1265	Vol. 4. New York: Academic Press, 201–264.
1266	Jaeger GF. 1828. Über die Fossile Reptilien, welche in Württemberg aufgefunden worden sind.
1267	Stuttgart: Metzler, 48.
1268	Johnson MM, Young MT, Steel L, Foffa D, Smith AS, Hua S, Havlik P, Howlett EA, Dyke
1269	G. 2017. Re-description of 'Steneosaurus' obtusidens Andrews, 1909, an unusual
1270	macrophagous teleosaurid crocodylomorph from the Middle Jurassic of England.
1271	Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society 182:385–418.
1272	https://doi.org/10.1093/zoolinnean/zlx035



1273	Jouve S. 2009. The skull of <i>Teleosaurus cadomensis</i> (Crocodylomorpha; Thalattosuchia), and
1274	phylogenetic analysis of Thalattosuchia. <i>Journal of Vertebrate Paleontology</i> 29 :88–102.
1275	DOI 10.1080/02724634.2009.10010364.
1276	Kley NJ, Sertich JW, Turner AH, Kause DW, O'Connor PM, Georgi JA. 2010. Craniofacial
1277	morphology of Simosuchus clarki (Crocodyliformes: Notosuchia) from the Late
1278	Cretaceous of Madagascar. Society of Vertebrate Paleontology Memoir 10:13–98. DOI
1279	10.1080/02724634.2010.532674.
1280	Leardi JM, Pol D, Clark JM. 2017. Detailed anatomy of the braincase of Macelognathus
1281	vagans Marsh, 1884 (Archosauria, Crocodylomorpha) using high resolution tomography
1282	and new insights on basal crocodylomorph phylogeny. PeerJ 5:e2801. DOI
1283	10.7717/peerj.2801
1284	Martin JE, Deesri U, Liard R, Wattanapituksakul A, Suteethorn S, Lauprasert K, Tong H,
1285	Buffetaut E, Suteethorn V, Suan G, Telouk P, Balter V. 2016. Strontium isotopes and
1286	the long-term residency of thalattosuchians in the freshwater environment. Paleobiology
1287	42 :143–156. doi:10.1017/pab.2015.42
1288	Martin JE, Vincent P. 2013. New remains of Machimosaurus hugii von Meyer, 1837
1289	(Crocodylia, Thalattosuchia) from the Kimmeridgian of Germany. Fossil Record 16:179-
1290	196. DOI 10.1002/mmng.201300009.
1291	Massare JA. 1988. Swimming capabilities of Mesozoic marine reptiles: implications for method
1292	of predation. <i>Paleobiology</i> 14 :187–205. doi.org/10.1017/S009483730001191
1293	Mazin J-M. 2001. Mesozoic marine reptiles: an overview. In: Mazin J-M, de Buffrénil V, eds.
1294	Secondary Adaptation of Tetrapods to Life in Water. München: Verlag Dr. Friedrich
1295	Pfeil, 95–117.



1296	What LC. 1676. The Skull of the Crocoatte. London. Machinian and Co, 50.
1297	Montefeltro FC, Andrade DV, Larsson HCE. 2016. The evolution of the meatal chamber in
1298	crocodyliforms. <i>Journal of Anatomy</i> 228 :838–863. DOI: 10.1111/joa.12439.
1299	Mueller-Töwe IJ. 2006. Anatomy, phylogeny, and palaeoecology of the basal thalattosuchians
1300	(Mesoeucrocodylia) from the Liassic of Central Europe. PhD Thesis, Universität Mainz.
1301	Parrilla-Bel J, Young MT, Moreno-Azanza M, Canudo JI. 2013. The first metriorhynchid
1302	crocodylomorph from the Middle Jurassic of Spain, with implications for evolution of the
1303	subclade Rhacheosaurini. PLoS ONE 8:e54275.DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0054275.
1304	Pierce SE, Williams M, Benson RBJ. 2017. Virtual reconstruction of the endocranial anatomy
1305	of the early Jurassic marine crocodylomorph Pelagosaurus typus (Thalattosuchia). PeerJ
1306	5 :e3225. DOI 10.7717/peerj.3225.
1307	Pol D, Gasparini Z. 2009. Skull anatomy of Dakosaurus andiniensis (Thalattosuchia:
1308	Crocodylomorpha) and the phylogenetic position of Thalattosuchia. Journal of
1309	Systematic Palaeontology 7:163–197. DOI 10.1017/S1477201908002605.
1310	Pol D, Nascimento PM, Carvalho AB, Riccomini C, Pires-Domingues RA, Zaher H. 2014. A
1311	new notosuchian from the Late Cretaceous of Brazil and the phylogeny of advanced
1312	notosuchians. PLOS ONE 9:e93105. DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0093105
1313	Pol D, Rauhut OWM, Lecuona A, Leardi JM, Xu X, Clark JM. 2013. A new fossil from the
1314	Jurassic of Patagonia reveals the early basicranial evolution and the origins of
1315	Crocodyliformes. Biological Reviews 88:862–872. DOI: 10.1111/brv.12030.
1316	Porter WR, Sedlmayr JC, Witmer LM. 2016. Vascular patterns in the heads of crocodilians:
1317	blood vessels and sites of thermal exchange. Journal of Anatomy 229:800-824. DOI
1318	10.1111/joa.12539.



1319	Sedimayr JC. 2002. Anatomy, evolution, and functional significance of cephalic vasculature in
1320	Archosauria. PhD Thesis, Ohio University.
1321	Sereno PC, Larsson HCE. 2009. Cretaceous Crocodyliforms from the Sahara. ZooKeys 28:1-
1322	143. doi: 10.3897/zookeys.28.325
1323	Soto-Acuña S, Otero RA, Rubilar-Rogers D. 2012. Un nuevo ejemplar de Metriorhynchus
1324	casamiquelai Gasparini y Chong, 1977 (Crocodylomorpha: Thalattosuchia) del
1325	Caloviano de Sierra de Moreno, Región de Antofagasta. [XIII Congreso Geológico
1326	Chileno, Antofagasta]:755–757.
1327	Tarsitano SF. 1985. Cranial metamorphosis and the origin of the Eusuchia. Neues Jahrbuch für
1328	Geologie und Paläontologie 170 :27–44.
1329	Walker AD. 1990. A revision of Sphenosuchus acutus Haughton, a crocodylomorph reptile from
1330	the Elliot Formation (late Triassic or early Jurassic) of South Africa. Philosophical
1331	Transactions of the Royal Society of London B 330 :1–120.
1332	Westphal F. 1962. Die Krokodilier des deutschen und englischen oberen Lias.
1333	Palaeontographica A 118:23–118.
1334	Wharton DS. 2000. An enlarged endocranial venous system in Steneosaurus pictaviensis
1335	(Crocodylia: Thalattosuchia) from the Upper Jurassic of Les Lourdines. France. Comptes
1336	Rendus de l'Académie des Sciences-Series IIA-Earth and Planetary Science 331:221-
1337	226.
1338	Wilberg E. 2015a. A new metriorhynchoid (Crocodylomorpha, Thalattosuchia) from the Middle
1339	Jurassic of Oregon and the evolutionary timing of marine adaptations in thalattosuchian
1340	crocodylomorphs. Journal of Vertebrate Paleontology 35:e902846. DOI:
1341	10.1080/02724634.2014.902846



1342	Wilberg E. 2015b. What's in an Outgroup? The impact of outgroup choice on the phylogenetic
1343	position of Thalattosuchia (Crocodylomorpha) and the origin of crocodyliformes.
1344	Systematic Biology 64 :621–637. DOI 10.1093/sysbio/syv020.
1345	Witmer LM, Ridgely RC, Dufeau DL, Semones MC. 2008. Using CT to peer into the past: 3D
1346	visualization of the brain and ear regions of birds, crocodiles and nonavian dinosaurs. In:
1347	Endo H, Frey R, eds. Anatomical imaging: towards a new morphology. Berlin: Springer,
1348	67–87.
1349	Wu X-C, Chatterjee S. 1993. Dibothrosuchus elaphros, a crocodylomorph from the Lower
1350	Jurassic of China and the phylogeny of the Sphenosuchia. Journal of Vertebrate
1351	Paleontology 13:58–89. DOI 10.1080/02724634.1993.10011488.
1352	Young MT, Andrade MB, Etches S, Beatty BL. 2013. A new metriorhynchid crocodylomorph
1353	from the Lower Kimmeridge Clay Formation (Late Jurassic) of England, with
1354	implications for the evolution of dermatocranium ornamentation in Geosaurini.
1355	Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society 169:820–848.
1356	Young MT, Brusatte SL, Andrade MB, Desojo JB, Beatty BL, Steel L, Fernández MS,
1357	Sakamoto M, Ruiz-Omenaca JI, Schoch RR. 2012. The cranial osteology and feeding
1358	ecology of the metriorhynchid crocodylomorph genera Dakosaurus and Plesiosuchus
1359	from the Late Jurassic of Europe. PLoS ONE 7:e44985. DOI
1360	10.1371/JOURNAL.PONE.0044985.
1361	Young MT, Brusatte SL, Ruta M, Andrade MB. 2010. The evolution of Metriorhynchoidea
1362	(Mesoeucrocodylia, Thalattosuchia): an integrated approach using geometrics
1363	morphometrics, analysis of disparity and biomechanics. Zoological Journal of the
1364	Linnean Society 158:801–859. DOI 10.1111/j.1096-3642.2009.00571.x.

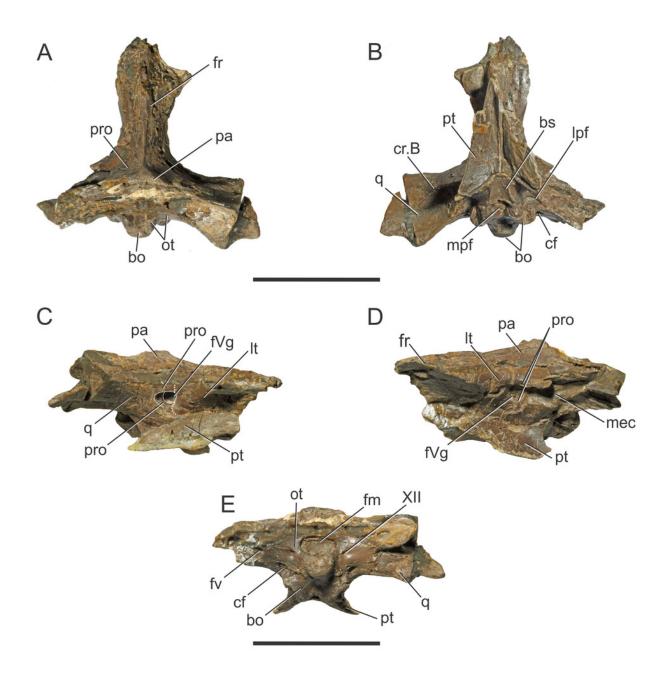


1365	Young MT, Hastings AK, Allain R, Smith TJ. 2017. Revision of the enigmatic crocodyliform
1366	Elosuchus felixi de Lapparent de Broin, 2002 from the Lower-Upper Cretaceous
1367	boundary of Niger: potential evidence for an early origin of the clade Dyrosauridae.
1368	Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society 179:377–403.
1369	https://doi.org/10.1111/zoj.12452



Braincase of Steneosaurus bollensis (BSPG 1984 1258).

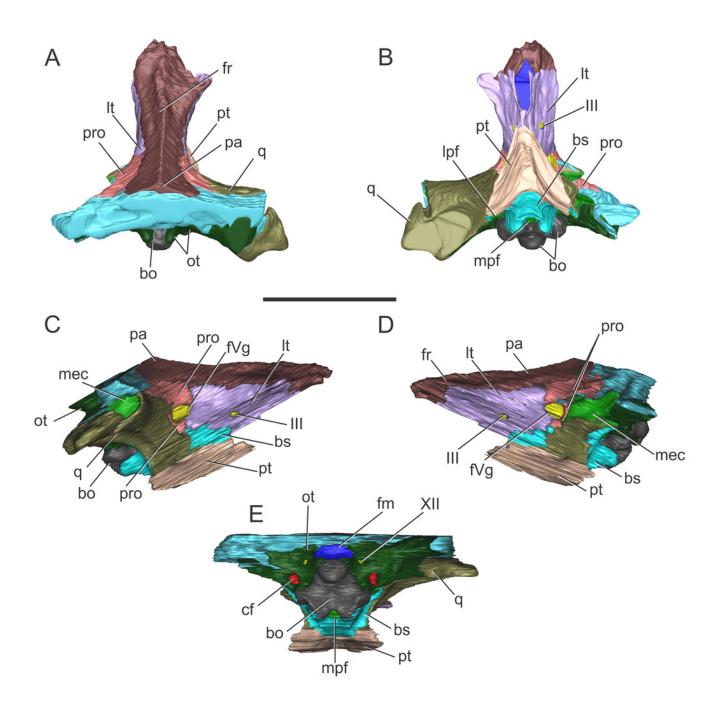
In (A) dorsal; (B) ventral; (C) right anterolateral; (D) left anterolateral; and (E) posterior views. Abbreviations: bo, basioccipital; bs, basisphenoid; cf, carotid foramen; cr.B, crest B; fm, foramen magnum; fr, frontal; fv, vagus foramen; fVg, foramen for the trigeminal ganglion; lpf, lateral pharyngeal foramen; lt, laterosphenoid; mec, middle ear cavity; mpf, medial pharyngeal foramen; ot, otoccipital; pa, parietal; pro, prootic; pt, pterygoid; q, quadrate; XII, hypoglossal foramen. Dotted white line in (C) shows laterosphenoid-prootic suture, continuous lines show the trigeminal foramen and fossa. Scale bars equal 5 cm.





Reconstruction of the braincase of Steneosaurus bollensis (BSPG 1984 1258).

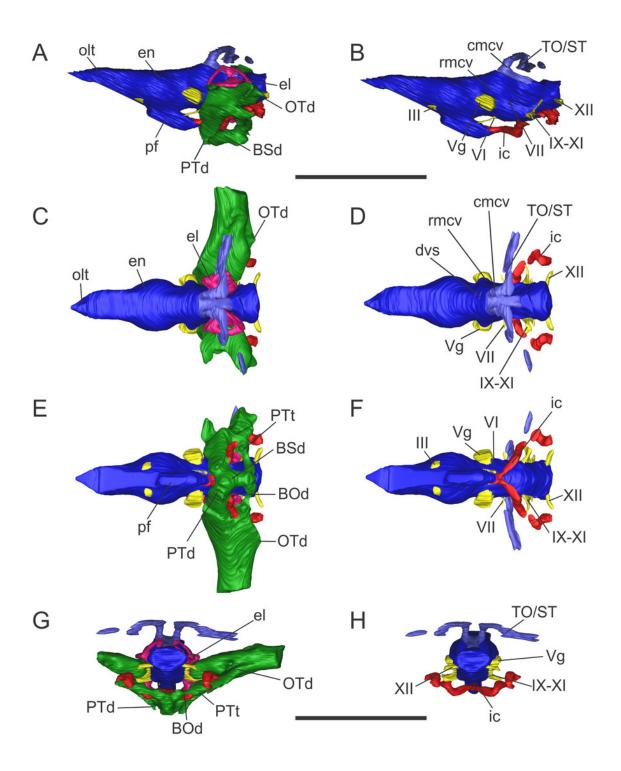
In (A) dorsal; (B) ventral; (C) right anterolateral; (D) left anterolateral; and (E) posterior views. Abbreviations: bo, basioccipital; bs, basisphenoid; cf, carotid foramen; fm, foramen magnum; fr, frontal; fVg, foramen for the trigeminal ganglion; lpf, lateral pharyngeal foramen; lt, laterosphenoid; mec, middle ear cavity; mpf, medial pharyngeal foramen; ot, otoccipital; pa, parietal; pro, prootic; pt, pterygoid; q, quadrate; III, oculomotor foramen; XII, hypoglossal foramen. Scale bar equals 5 cm.





Endocranial anatomy of Steneosaurus bollensis (BSPG 1984 1258).

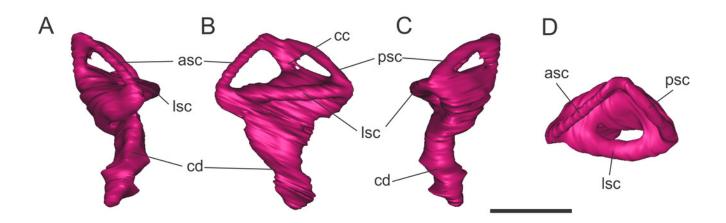
In (A–B) lateral; (C–D) dorsal; (E–F) ventral; and (G–H) posterior views. Abbreviations: BOd, basioccipital diverticulum; BSd, basisphenoid diverticulum; cmcv, caudal middle cerebral vein; dvs, dorsal venous sinus; el, endosseous labyrinth of the inner ear; en, endocranial cast; ic, internal carotid artery; olt, olfactory tract; OTd, otoccipital diverticulum; pf, pituitary; PTd, pterygoid diverticulum; PTt, pharyngotympanic tube; rmcv, rostral middle cerebral vein; TO/ST, temporo-orbital/stapedial vein; Vg, trigeminal ganglion; III, VI, VII, IX-X-XI, XII, cranial nerves. Scale bars equal 5 cm.





Left endosseous labyrinth of Steneosaurus bollensis (BSPG 1984 I258).

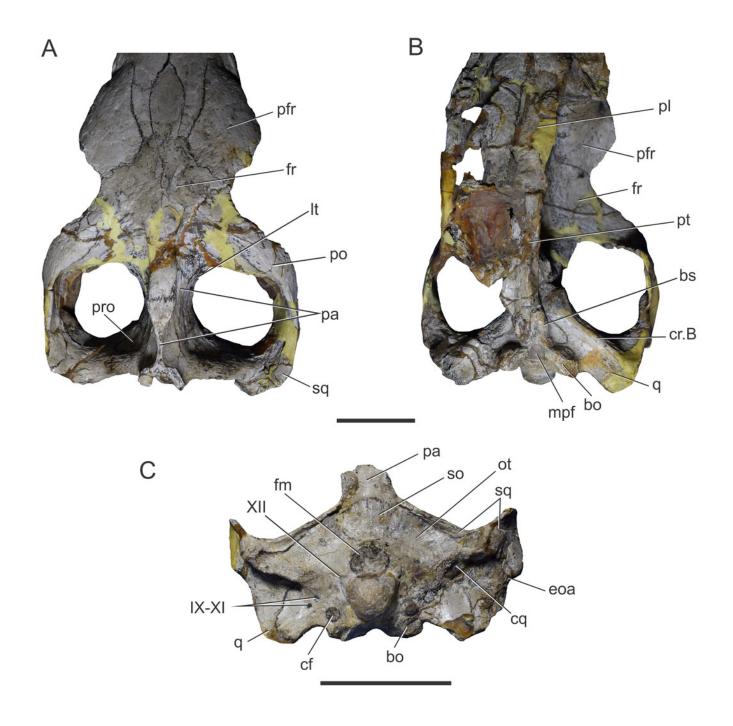
In (A) anterior; (B) lateral; (C) posterior; (D) posterior; and (E) dorsal views. Abbreviations: asc, anterior semicircular canal; cc, common crus; cd, cochlear duct; lsc, lateral semicircular canal; psc, posterior semicircular canal. Scale bar equals 1 cm.





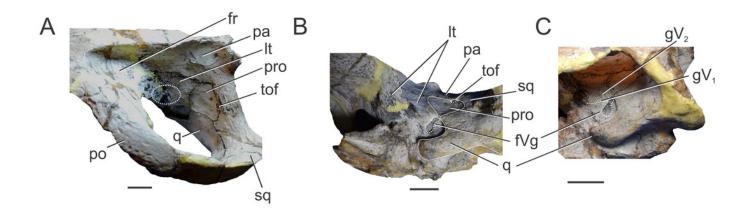
Braincase of Cricosaurus araucanensis (MLP 72-IV-7-1).

In (A) dorsal; (B) ventral; (C) posterior views. Abbreviations: bo, basioccipital; bs, basisphenoid; cf, carotid foramen; cq, cranioquadrate foramen; cr.B, crest B; eoa, external otic aperture; fm, foramen magnum; fr, frontal; lt, laterosphenoid; mpf, medial pharyngeal foramen; ot, otoccipital; pa, parietal; pfr, prefrontal; pl, palatine; po, postorbital; pro, prootic; pt, pterygoid; q, quadrate; so, supraoccipital; sq, squamosal; IX-XI, XII, foramina for cranial nerves. Scale bars equal 5 cm.



Braincase of Cricosaurus araucanensis (MLP 72-IV-7-1).

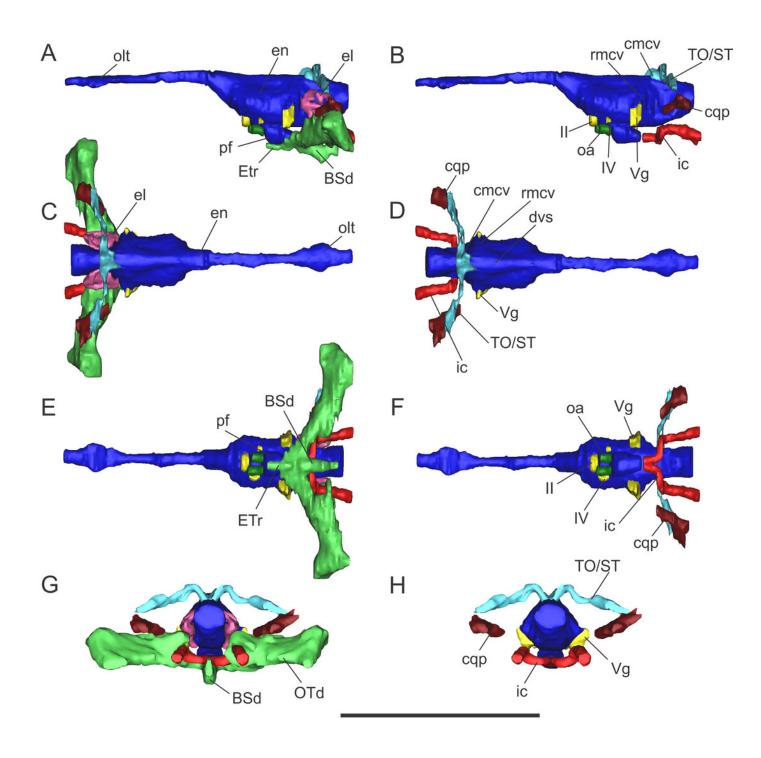
In (A) left dorsolateral; (B) left ventrolateral; and (C) left ventrolateral views. Abbreviations: fr, frontal; fVg, foramen for the trigeminal ganglion; gV_1 , groove for the ophthalmic branch of the trigeminal nerve; gV_2 , groove for the maxillary branch of the trigeminal nerve; lt, laterosphenoid; pa, parietal; po, postorbital; pro, prootic; q, quadrate; sq, squamosal; tof, temporo-orbital foramen. The white circle on (A) marks the blood vessel infillings that cover the cerebral hemispheres. The doted white line on (C) marks the ophthalmic groove. Scale bars equal 2 cm.





Endocranial anatomy of Cricosaurus araucanensis (MLP 72-IV-7-1).

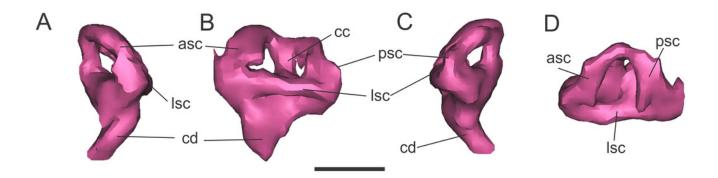
In (A–B) lateral; (C–D), dorsal; (E–F), ventral; and (G–H), posterior views. Abbreviations: BSd, basisphenoid diverticulum; cmcv, caudal middle cerebral vein; cqp, cranioquadrate passage; dvs, dorsal venous sinus; el, endosseous labyrinth of the inner ear; en, endocranial cast; ETr, recessus epitubaricum; ic, internal carotid artery; oa, orbital artery; olt, olfactory tract; OTd, otoccipital diverticulum; pf, pituitary; rmcv, rostral middle cerebral vein; TO/ST, temporo-orbital/stapedial vein; Vg, trigeminal ganglion; II, IV, cranial nerves. Scale bar equals 10 cm.





Left endosseous labyrinth of Cricosaurus araucanensis (MLP 72-IV-7-1).

In (A) anterior; (B) lateral; (C) posterior; and (D) dorsal views. Abbreviations: asc, anterior semicircular canal; cc, common crus; cd, cochlear duct; lsc, lateral semicircular canal; psc, posterior semicircular canal. Scale bar equals 1 cm.

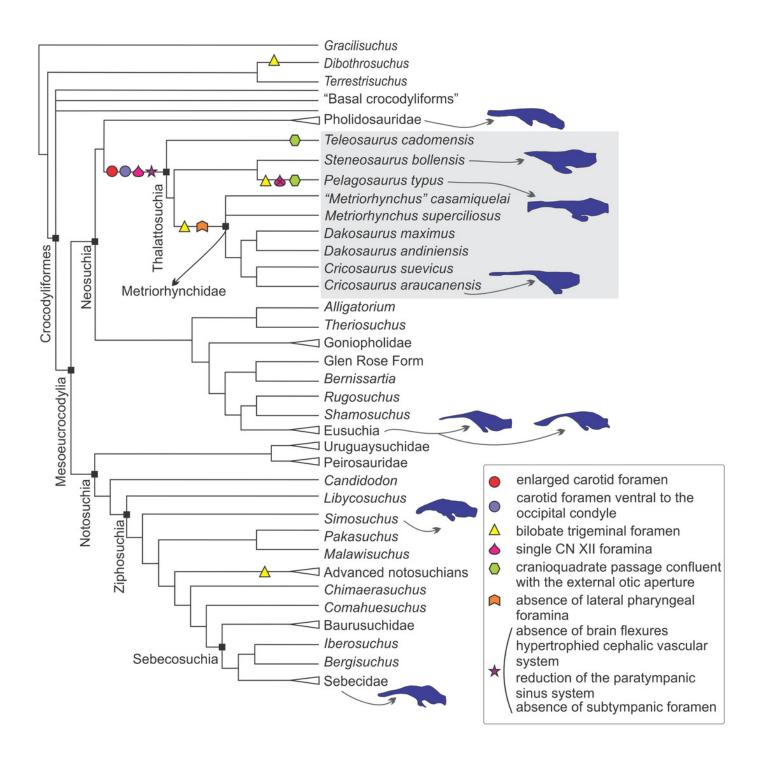




Braincase and endocranial features of some crocodylomorphs displayed on a phylogenetic framework (based on Pol et al., 2014).

Endocasts were redrawn from the following sources (from top): *Pholidosaurus mereyi* (MB.R.2027), *Steneosaurus bollensis* (BSPG 1984 I258), *Pelagosaurus typus* (Dufeau, 2011), *Cricosaurus araucanensis* (MLP 72-IV-7-1); *Gavialis gangeticus* (Bona, Paulina Carabajal & Gasparini, 2017), *Crocodylus johnstoni* (Witmer et al., 2008), *Simosuchus clarki* (Kley et al., 2010), *Sebecus icaeorhinus* (Colbert, 1946a). Synapomorphies and putative synapomorphies are plotted on the cladogram (see reference chart). An x on the symbol represents a reversion on that character. Not to scale.







Braincase and endocranial features of some crocodylomorphs displayed on a phylogenetic framework (based on Young et al., 2017).

Endocasts were redrawn from the following sources (from top): *Sebecus icaeorhinus* (Colbert, 1946a); *Gavialis gangeticus* (Bona, Paulina Carabajal & Gasparini, 2017), *Crocodylus johnstoni* (Witmer et al., 2008), *Pholidosaurus mereyi* (MB.R.2027), *Steneosaurus bollensis* (BSPG 1984 I258), *Pelagosaurus typus* (Dufeau, 2011), *Cricosaurus araucanensis* (MLP 72-IV-7-1); "*Metriorhynchus*" cf. *westermanni* (MDA 2). Synapomorphies and putative synapomorphies are plotted on the cladogram (see reference chart). An x on the symbol represents a reversion on that character. Not to scale.



