

1 **HYPOTHESIS: AVIAN FLIGHT ORIGINATED IN ARBOREAL ARCHOSAURS**
2 **GLIDING ON MEMBRANOUS WINGS**

3

4 PIOTR BAJDEK^{1,*}, TOMASZ SULEJ¹

5

6 P. Bajdek (piotr.bajdek@gmail.com; p.bajdek@twarda.pan.pl), T. Sulej (sulej@twarda.pan.pl),

7 Institute of Paleobiology, Polish Academy of Sciences, Twarda 51/55, 00-818 Warsaw, Poland¹

8

9 *Corresponding author

10

11 The oldest feathers known to date have been found in archosaurs capable of flight. However,
12 some of them (scansoriopterygids) flew by the use of a membrane rather than feathers. We
13 therefore propose a new mechanism for the origin of avian flight by the use of membranous
14 wings on both the forelimbs and the hindlimbs. It complements Beebe's (1915) prediction of the
15 tetrapteryx stage. Paleontological and embryological evidence suggest that feathers are a
16 modification of reptilian scales. Scansoriopterygids were covered mostly by down-like feathers
17 which seemingly acted as thermal isolation rather than being adapted for flight. Certain early
18 birds, including scansoriopterygids, possessed elongate shafted tail feathers, which were probably
19 used principally for display and resembled elongate scales. We suppose that display is the
20 primary function of early feathers, which were preadapted for thermal isolation and also flight.
21 The body of theropods was covered mostly by typical reptilian scales, yet some ornithischian
22 dinosaurs possessed filamentous integumentary structures which might have had a comparable

23 display function. However, it is doubtful that these structures in dinosaurs were homologous with
24 avian feathers. Early birds probably shared with theropod dinosaurs an incipient endothermy,
25 which was inherited from their common ancestor in the Triassic Period.

26

27 **Keywords:** origins of avian flight, function of feathers, Scansoriopterygidae

28

29 **Introduction**

30

31 The origin and primary function of feathers have been debated for a long time (Holmgren 1955;
32 Prum 1999). Currently, the prevailing view point on the origin of avian feathers is that they
33 originated from filamentous integumentary structures found in some dinosaur fossils, which
34 might constitute an adaptation for thermal isolation in endothermic cursorial theropods (Prum
35 1999; Makovicky and Zanno 2011; Chatterjee 2015). On the contrary, others suggest that feathers
36 are a modification of reptilian scales (Dzik et al. 2010), whereas dinosaurs and early birds are
37 thought to have been ectothermic (Ruben and Jones 2000; Feduccia 2012) and birds most likely
38 not to be descendants of dinosaurs and instead to have evolved from arboreal forms of archosaurs
39 (Czerkas and Feduccia 2014). Certain authors offer rather several alternatives for the origin of
40 birds (James and Pourtless 2009) and the origin of feathers (Feduccia 2012). Most of the recent
41 papers on the assembly of the avian body plan ignore non-dinosaur hypotheses for the origin of
42 birds (e.g., Bhullar et al. 2012; Brusatte et al. 2014; Puttick et al. 2014; O'Connor and Zhou
43 2015; Nesbitt et al. 2017; Sullivan et al. 2017; Cau 2018) and archosaur species possessing

44 unequivocal flight feathers are described as theropod dinosaurs (e.g., Hu et al. 2018; Rauhut et al.
45 2018).

46 However, only a mix of these two orthodox viewpoints can be sustained by biological data in the
47 light of paleontological finds of the last decade. Herein, we discuss the available evidence on the
48 origin of birds, archosaurian integumentary structures and thermal physiology. We propose a new
49 mechanism for the origin of avian flight by the use of membranous wings at the very early stage,
50 which complements Beebe's (1915) prediction of the tetrapteryx stage. Also, we provide a
51 corrected reconstruction of the scansoriopterygid *Yi qi* (Xu et al. 2015) showing that it was
52 capable of flight only if its membranous wings were also present on the hindlimbs.

53

54 **The origin of avian flight**

55

56 Important information relevant to the debate on the origin of avian flight may be provided by the
57 archosaurian family Scansoriopterygidae, as it includes some of the earliest known flying
58 maniraptorans (late Middle Jurassic–early Late Jurassic). Czerkas and Feduccia (2014)
59 considered *Scansoriopteryx* an arboreal bird capable of parachuting or gliding, which would have
60 represented the four-winged “tetrapteryx” stage of the avian evolution, as predicted by Beebe
61 (1915). Interestingly, Czerkas and Feduccia (2014) noted that the body of *Scansoriopteryx* was
62 covered solely by down-like feathers, which were composed of individual strands, and there were
63 no indications of pennaceous feathers on the forelimb. The lack of preserved wing feathers in
64 *Epidexipteryx* is also peculiar, but it had shafted elongate tail feathers (Zhang et al. 2008). The
65 Early Cretaceous *Zhongornis haoae* may be closely related to scansoriopterygids (O'Connor and

66 Sullivan 2014). Interestingly, on the only known specimen of *Zhongornis* poorly preserved vaned
67 feathers are visible solely on the tail and the manus (Gao et al. 2008).

68 The paradox of the apparent lack of flight feathers in scansoriopterygids was explained by the
69 description of putative patches of membranous tissue and a long rod-like bone extending from
70 each wrist in the scansoriopterygid *Yi*, which also had abundant down-like feathers (Xu et al.
71 2015). All known flying tetrapods, including both extinct and extant groups, possess a membrane
72 for flight, as for example bats, flying squirrels and flying lizards (McGuire and Dudley 2011; Xu
73 et al. 2015) It is intriguing to question whether birds are truly an exception to this rule. Notably,
74 structures such as the contour feathers are far more complex than a membrane, so a membrane
75 seems to be a simpler solution for the development of the ability to fly. In fact, a membrane
76 (proptagium) is present in the forewings of extant birds (Brown et al. 1994) and contributes to
77 avian flight by producing a significant part of the lift (Brown and Cogley 1996). Also, a
78 membrane is present as a rudiment in the hindlimbs of certain baby birds (see Beebe 1915, fig.
79 10). One can therefore imagine that birds originated from archosaurs which used a membrane as
80 the principal flight apparatus. If this is true, in the early avian evolution the membrane, still
81 present in scansoriopterygids, was subsequently covered with contour feathers resulting in typical
82 tetrapteryx forms such as *Anchiornis* (Hu et al. 2009) and *Microraptor* (Xu et al. 2003) (Fig. 1).

83 In flying objects the center of gravity must be located forward relative to the center of lift (wings)
84 for good stability and maneuverability (Dizdarevic and Dizdarevic 2005). For this reason,
85 scansoriopterygids probably represented the tetrapteryx body plan (Fig. 2), just like many other
86 primitive birds did before shortening of the tail and reinforcement of the forewings (Beebe 1915).

87 The fossil feathers *Praeornis* from the Callovian–Oxfordian of Kazakhstan have a rachis and also
88 three vanes (Dzik et al. 2010). The morphology of a three-vaned feather can be far more
89 parsimoniously derived from a reptilian scale than from a simple filament, for example as in the
90 scenario of such a transformation proposed by Dzik et al. (2010). Feathers are likely to be
91 modified scales because during embryological development the feather sac represents the tip of a
92 scale (Duerden 1922; Holmgren 1955). Given the presence of scale-like feathers on the tail of
93 scansoriopterygids (Zhang et al. 2008), feathers hypothetically first appeared on the tail of early
94 birds. Agnolin et al. (2017) noticed the similarity between *Praeornis sharovi* and rachis-
95 dominated tail feathers of an enantiornithine bird, concluding that *Praeornis* may be interpreted
96 as the tail feather of a basal bird. The down-like feathers composed mostly of individual strands,
97 which covered the body of scansoriopterygids (Czerkas and Feduccia 2014) and probably acted
98 as thermal isolation, would have been simplified from more complex vaned feathers like those
99 present on their tail. The principal function of the elongate tail feathers in *Epidexipteryx* might
100 have been display, as suggested by Zhang et al. (2008). Elongate tail feathers of various types
101 were common in birds from the Cretaceous Period, such as for example the dromaeosaurid
102 *Microraptor*, the basal bird *Jeholornis*, the confuciusornithiform *Confuciusornis*, and the
103 enantiornithine *Eopengornis* (Sullivan et al. 2017). The flight feathers would also have evolved
104 as a modification of the shafted display feathers. At some stage of the evolution of birds, the
105 display tail feathers covered other body parts including the wings but it is uncertain when they
106 acquired an aerodynamic value. The reason of the replacement of the membrane by feathers
107 requires more study, but one possibility is the role of sexual selection.

108 *Praeornis* is a pennaceous feather and it is coeval with scansoriopterygids, which apparently
109 lacked feathers of this type. Comparable in age are also birds such as *Anchiornis* (Hu et al. 2009)
110 and *Caihong* (Hu et al. 2018), which were equipped with flight feathers on both their forelimbs
111 and hindlimbs. Therefore, scansoriopterygids can be ruled out as ancestors of the main lineage of
112 birds. The common ancestor of scansoriopterygids (e.g. *Yi*) and more derived birds of the Late
113 Jurassic (e.g. *Anchiornis*) likely differed from scansoriopterygids in having a longer tail and
114 perhaps a shorter IV digit (Fig. 1).

115

116 **The origin of birds and the integumentary structures of archosaurs**

117

118 It can be pointed out that the late Middle Jurassic–early Late Jurassic birds were already
119 diversified, including forms with a variety of flight apparatus types (a membrane, flight feathers).
120 Thus, birds – here, defined as archosaurs equipped with feathers – would have evolved by the
121 Early to Middle Jurassic. Some authors claim that scansoriopterygids and *Zhongornis* were not
122 “birds” (Fostowicz-Frelik and O’Connor 2017) as in computerized cladistic analyses they are not
123 recovered as members of the clade Aves (see Cau 2018). In fact, this is consistent with the
124 viewpoint presented herein because we do not consider scansoriopterygids as direct ancestors of
125 the main lineage of birds (Fig. 1). The bird-like maniraptorans and ornithomimosaurids of the
126 Cretaceous age, which include common flightless forms, reveal little about bird origins regardless
127 of whether they are considered as theropod dinosaurs or, alternatively, as non-dinosaur birds
128 (Feduccia 2012). This standpoint may be inconsistent with the cladistic approach as certain
129 maniraptorans of the Cretaceous Period, such as for example oviraptorosaurs, are cladistically

130 recovered as more basal than the Jurassic scansoriopterygids (see Sullivan et al. 2017; Cau 2018).
131 The Late Jurassic (Oxfordian) *Limusaurus* might possibly represent a secondarily flightless bird
132 as well, due to its supposedly non-dinosaur hand anatomy and digestive physiology (Bajdek
133 2018). Secondarily flightless forms would have appeared at very early stages of the bird
134 evolution and such bird forms can be easily mistaken for theropod dinosaurs (see Maryńska et
135 al. 2002).

136 Remarkably, filamentous structures found in some theropod fossils can be easily mistaken for
137 down feathers of flightless birds. It is debated whether these filaments represent a kind of
138 integumentary structures of theropods or collagen fibers of decomposed skin (Feduccia et al.
139 2005; Smithwick et al. 2017). However, fossils show that the skin of dinosaurs was covered by
140 reptilian scales, as seen for example in compsognathids (Chiappe and Gröhlich 2010) and
141 tyrannosaurids (Bell et al. 2017). Filamentous integumentary structures have been found in some
142 ornithischian dinosaurs, such as the heterodontosaurid *Tianyulong* (Zheng et al. 2009) and the
143 ceratopsian *Psittacosaurus* (see Mayr et al. 2002). Since these structures were present mainly on
144 the tail, whereas the whole body was covered by typical reptilian scales, it seems that their
145 primary function was display rather than thermal isolation.

146 Elongate integumentary appendages of *Longisquama* from the Late Triassic are also thought by
147 some researchers to be probably homologous with avian feathers (Jones et al. 2000). However,
148 the function of the appendages and the phylogenetic position of *Longisquama* within diapsids are
149 uncertain (Buchwitz and Voigt 2012). Because the limbs of *Longisquama* were short and the
150 enigmatic appendages were placed along the dorsum, its body plan does not conform to that
151 expected for the direct ancestor of birds.

152 If it is assumed that the enigmatic integumentary structures present in certain ornithischian
153 dinosaurs and *Longisquama* were modified scales, and that avian feathers are modified scales too,
154 one would say that they were homologous. On the other hand, all these structures most likely
155 evolved from typical reptilian scales independently. Whereas true avian feathers are very
156 complex structures and have probably evolved just once, simple thin elongate scales such as
157 those encountered among ornithischians could have appeared multiple times in different lineages
158 of reptiles (see James and Pourtless 2009).

159 Prum (1999) discussed several possible functions of filamentous integumentary structures in
160 archosaurs, such as the thermal insulation, heat shielding, water repellency, communication,
161 crypsis, and defense. Since the single-stranded feather-like structures which covered the body of
162 scansoriopterygids are unlikely to have acted as a flight apparatus, it can be expected that they
163 possessed an adaptive value of another kind (Czerkas and Feduccia 2014). For example, an
164 incipient endothermy in dinosaurs and early birds has been suggested by researchers for a long
165 time (e.g., Bakker 1975) but this issue is still a subject of controversy (see Feduccia 2012). The
166 study of theropod and early avian gut contents, feces and gastric pellets suggests that both these
167 groups were likely characterized by moderately high metabolic rates and hence likely an incipient
168 endothermy (Bajdek 2018). Yet, the typical metabolic rates in theropods would have been a little
169 lower than those of extant birds and mammals, which was suggested, among other clues, on the
170 basis of the lack of respiratory turbinates (Ruben et al. 1998) and just moderately rapid digestive
171 processes in theropods (Bajdek 2018). Remarkably, the evidence for an incipient endothermy in
172 early birds is comparable to that for some Late Permian theriodont therapsids, which (a) were
173 likely characterized by a relatively short food retention time in the gastrointestinal tract, as

174 revealed by the study of fossil feces, and moreover (b) possibly had insulation in the form of
175 hairs (Bajdek et al. 2016).

176 The arboreal and cursorial hypotheses for the origin of avian flight are still a subject of debate
177 (Segre and Banet 2018). The model presented herein suggests that birds originated from arboreal
178 forms of archosaurs that could spread the hindlimbs sideways for tree climbing and flight (Fig.
179 1). Currently, the vast majority of researchers argue that birds evolved from theropod dinosaurs
180 (see Makovicky and Zanno 2011). However, several alternatives for the ancestral group of
181 archosaurs have been proposed, including theropods, dinosauiromorphs, crocodylomorphs, and
182 “early archosaurs” (see James and Pourtless 2009). The dinosaur origin of birds is problematic
183 due to the partially closed acetabulum in early birds such as *Anchiornis* and *Scansoriopteryx*
184 (Czerkas and Feduccia 2014). The theropod hindlimbs had a fully upright stance and were clearly
185 adapted for cursorial locomotion (Burnham et al. 2010; Czerkas and Feduccia 2014). For this
186 reason, in this paper we have chosen to use a broader term “archosaur” to call the arboreal
187 ancestor of birds (see also Bajdek 2018).

188

189 **Conclusions**

190

191 We propose that birds originated from tree-climbing archosaurs and probably passed through the
192 stage of arboreal forms which glided on membranous wings. The membrane was present most
193 likely on both the forelimbs and the hindlimbs. At some stage of early bird evolution the
194 membrane was covered and replaced by feathers, resulting in “classical” tetrapteryx bird forms,
195 which were predicted by William Beebe in 1915. Feathers probably evolved from reptilian scales

196 and display is hypothetically the primary function of feathers, which were preadapted for thermal
197 isolation and flight.

198

199 **Author contributions**

200

201 Piotr Bajdek conceived the idea of this work and wrote the manuscript.

202 Tomasz Sulej provided additional ideas and prepared the graphics.

203

204 **Acknowledgments**

205

206 We are grateful to our colleagues who kindly commented on early drafts of the manuscript: Alan
207 Feduccia (University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill), Jerzy Dzik (Polish Academy of Sciences
208 and University of Warsaw), and Mateusz Tałanda (University of Warsaw). We also thank Stephen
209 Brusatte (University of Edinburgh) for critical reading and language correction.

210

211 **References**

212

213 Agnolin, F.L., Rozadilla, S., and Carvalho, I.S. 2017. *Praeornis sharovi* Rautian, 1978 a fossil
214 feather from the early Late Jurassic of Kazakhstan. *Historical Biology*. doi:
215 10.1080/08912963.2017.1413102

216

- 217 Bajdek, P. 2018. Comparative digestive physiology of archosaurs with notes on bird origins.
218 *PeerJ Preprints* 6: e26902v2 doi: 10.7287/peerj.preprints.26902v2
219
- 220 Bajdek, P., Qvarnström, M., Owocki, K., Sulej, T., Sennikov, A.G., Golubev, V.K., and
221 Niedźwiedzki, G. 2016. Microbiota and food residues including possible evidence of pre-
222 mammalian hair in Upper Permian coprolites from Russia. *Lethaia* 49: 455–477.
223
- 224 Bakker, R.T. 1975. Dinosaur renaissance. *Scientific American* 232: 58–78.
225
- 226 Beebe, C.W. 1915. A tetrapteryx stage in the ancestry of birds. *Zoologica* 2: 39–52.
227
- 228 Bell, P.R., Campione, N.E., Persons IV, W.S., Currie, P.J., Larson, P.L., Tanke, D.H., and Bakker,
229 R.T. 2017 Tyrannosauroid integument reveals conflicting patterns of gigantism and feather
230 evolution. *Biology Letters* 13: 20170092. doi: 10.1098/rsbl.2017.0092
231
- 232 Bhullar, B.A.S., Marugán-Lobón, J., Racimo, F., Bever, G.S., Rowe, T.B., Norell, M.A., and
233 Abzhanov, A. 2012. Birds have pedomorphic dinosaur skulls. *Nature* 487:223. doi:
234 10.1038/nature11146
235
- 236 Brown, R.E. and Cogley, A.C. 1996. Contributions of the Propatagium to Avian Flight. *The*
237 *Journal of Experimental Zoology* 276: 112–124.

238

239 Brown, R.E., Baumel, J.J., and Klemm, R.D. 1994. Anatomy of the proptagium: The great
240 horned owl (*Bubo virginianus*). *Journal of Morphology* 219: 205–224.

241

242 Brusatte, S.L., Lloyd, G.T., Wang, S.C., and Norell, M.A. 2014. Gradual assembly of avian body
243 plan culminated in rapid rates of evolution across the dinosaur-bird transition. *Current Biology*
244 24: 2386–2392.

245

246 Buchwitz, M. and Voigt, S. 2012. The dorsal appendages of the Triassic reptile *Longisquama*
247 *insignis*: reconsideration of a controversial integument type. *Paläontologische Zeitschrift* 86:
248 313–331.

249

250 Burnham, D.A., Feduccia, A., Martin, L.D., and Falk, A.R. 2011. Tree climbing – a fundamental
251 avian adaptation. *Journal of Systematic Palaeontology* 9: 103–107.

252

253 Cau, A. 2018. The assembly of the avian body plan: a 160-million-year long process. *Bollettino*
254 *della Società Paleontologica Italiana* 57: 1–25.

255

256 Chatterjee, S. 2015. *The Rise of Birds. 225 Million Years of Evolution*. Johns Hopkins University
257 Press.

258

259 Chiappe, L.M. and Göhlich, U.B. 2010. Anatomy of *Juravenator starki* (Theropoda:
260 Coelurosauria) from the Late Jurassic of Germany. *Neues Jahrbuch für Geologie und*
261 *Paläontologie Abhandlungen* 258: 257–296.

262

263 Czerkas, S. 1994. The history and interpretation of sauropod skin impressions. *Gaia* 10: 173–182.

264

265 Czerkas, S.A. and Feduccia, A. 2014. Jurassic archosaur is a non-dinosaurian bird. *Journal of*
266 *Ornithology* 155: 841–851.

267

268 Dizdarevic, F. and Dizdarevic, M. 2005. Tailed flying wing aircraft. United States Patent: US
269 6,923,403 B1.

270

271 Duerden, J.E. 1922. The origin of feathers from the scales of reptiles. *Journal of the Department*
272 *of Agriculture* July 1922: 67–75.

273

274 Dzik, J., Sulej, T., and Niedźwiedzki G. 2010. Possible link connecting reptilian scales with avian
275 feathers from the early Late Jurassic of Kazakstan. *Historical Biology* 22: 394–402.

276

277 Feduccia, A. 2002. Birds are dinosaurs: simple answer to a complex problem. *The Auk* 119:
278 1187–1201.

279

- 280 Feduccia, A. 2012. *Riddle of the Feathered Dragons: Hidden Birds of China*. Yale University
281 Press.
- 282
- 283 Feduccia, A., Lingham-Soliar, T., and Hinchliffe, J.R. 2005. Do Feathered Dinosaurs Exist?
284 Testing the Hypothesis on Neontological and Paleontological Evidence. *Journal of Morphology*
285 266: 125–166.
- 286
- 287 Fostowicz-Frelik, Ł. and O'Connor, J.K. 2017. The saga of birds. *Acta Palaeontologica Polonica*
288 62: 844.
- 289
- 290 Gao, C., Chiappe, L.M., Meng, Q., O'Connor, J.K., Wang, X., Cheng, X., and Liu, J. 2008. A new
291 basal lineage of Early Cretaceous birds from China and its implications on the evolution of the
292 avian tail. *Palaeontology* 51: 775–791.
- 293
- 294 Holmgren, N. 1955. Studies on the phylogeny of birds. *Acta Zoologica* 36: 243–328.
- 295
- 296 Hu, D., Hou, L., Zhang, L., and Xu, X. 2009. A pre-*Archaeopteryx* troodontid theropod from
297 China with long feathers on the metatarsus. *Nature* 461: 640–643.
- 298
- 299 Hu, D., Clarke, J.A., Eliason, C.M., Qiu, R., Li, Q., Shawkey, M.D., Zhao, C., D'Alba, L., Jiang,
300 J., and Xu, X. 2018. A bony-crested Jurassic dinosaur with evidence of iridescent plumage

- 301 highlights complexity in early paravian evolution. *Nature Communications* 9: 217. doi:
302 10.1038/s41467-017-02515-y
- 303
- 304 James, F.C. and Pourtless, J.A. 2009. Cladistics and the origin of birds: a review and two new
305 analyses. *Ornithological Monographs* 66: 1–78.
- 306
- 307 Jones, T.D, Ruben, J.A, Martin, L.D., Kurochkin, E.N., Feduccia, A., Maderson, P.F.A.,
308 Hillenius, W.J., Geist, N.R., Alifanov, V. 2000. Nonavian Feathers in a Late Triassic Archosaur.
309 *Science* 288: 2202–2205.
- 310
- 311 Makovicky, P.J. and Zanno, L.E. 2011. Theropod diversity and the refinement of avian
312 characteristics. In: Dyke, G. and Kaiser, G. (Eds.), *Living dinosaurs: the evolutionary history of*
313 *modern birds*. John Wiley & Sons, pp. 9–29.
- 314
- 315 Maryńska, T., Osmólska, H., and Wolsan, M. 2002. Avialan status for Oviraptorosauria. *Acta*
316 *Palaeontologica Polonica* 47: 97–116.
- 317
- 318 Mayr, G., Peters, D.S., Plodowski, G., and Vogel, O. 2002. Bristle-like integumentary structures
319 at the tail of the horned dinosaur *Psittacosaurus*. *Naturwissenschaften* 89: 361–365.
- 320
- 321 McGuire, J.A. and Dudley, R. 2011. The Biology of Gliding in Flying Lizards (Genus *Draco*) and
322 their Fossil and Extant Analogs. *Integrative and Comparative Biology* 51: 983–990.

323

324 Nesbitt, S.J., Butler, R.J., Ezcurra, M.D, Barrett, P.M., Stocker, M.R., Angielczyk, K.D., Smith,
325 R.M.H., Sidor, C.A., Niedźwiedzki, G., Sennikov, A.G., and Charig, A.J. 2017. The earliest bird-
326 line archosaurs and the assembly of the dinosaur body plan. *Nature* 544: 484–487.

327

328 O'Connor, J.K. and Sullivan, C. 2014. Reinterpretation of the Early Cretaceous maniraptoran
329 (Dinosauria: Theropoda) *Zhongornis haoae* as a scansoriopterygid-like non-avian, and
330 morphological resemblances between scansoriopterygids and basal oviraptorosaurs. *Vertebrata*
331 *Palasiatica* 52: 3–30.

332

333 O'Connor, J. and Zhou, Z. 2015. Early evolution of the biological bird: perspectives from new
334 fossil discoveries in China. *Journal Fur Ornithologie*. doi: 10.1007/s10336-015-1222-5

335

336 Prum, R.O. 1999. Development and Evolutionary Origin of Feathers. *Journal of Experimental*
337 *Zoology* 285: 291–306.

338

339 Puttick, M.N., Thomas, G.H., and Benton, M.J. 2014. High rates of evolution preceded the origin
340 of birds. *Evolution* 2014: 1–14. doi: 10.1111/evo.12363

341

342 Rauhut, O.W.M., Foth, C., and Tischlinger, H. 2018. The oldest *Archaeopteryx* (Theropoda:
343 Avialiae): a new specimen from the Kimmeridgian/Tithonian boundary of Schamhaupten,
344 Bavaria. *PeerJ* 6: e4191. doi: 10.7717/peerj.4191

345

346 Ruben, J.A. and Jones, T.D. 2000. Selective factors associated with the origin of fur and feathers.
347 *American Zoologist* 40: 585–596.

348

349 Ruben, J.A., Jones, T.D., and Geist, N.R. 1998. Respiratory physiology of the dinosaurs.
350 *BioEssays* 20: 852–859.

351

352 Segre, P.S. and Banet, A.I. 2018. The origin of avian flight: finding common ground. *Biological*
353 *Journal of the Linnean Society*. doi: 10.1093/biolinnean/bly116

354

355 Smithwick, F.M., Mayr, G., Saitta, E.T., Benton, M.J., and Vinther, J. 2017. On the purported
356 presence of fossilized collagen fibres in an ichthyosaur and a theropod dinosaur. *Palaeontology*
357 60: 409–422.

358

359 Sullivan, C., Xu, X., and O'Connor, J.K. 2017. Complexities and novelties in the early evolution
360 of avian flight, as seen in the Mesozoic Yanliao and Jehol Biotas of Northeast China.
361 *Palaeoworld* 26: 212–229.

362

363 Xu, X., Zhou, Z., Wang, X., Kuang, X., Zhang, F., and Du, X. 2003. Four-winged dinosaurs from
364 China. *Nature* 421: 335–340.

365

366 Xu, X., Zheng, X., Sullivan, C., Wang, X., Xing, L., Wang, Y., Zhang, X., O'Connor, J.K, Zhang,
367 F., and Pan, Y. 2015. A bizarre Jurassic maniraptoran theropod with preserved evidence of
368 membranous wings. *Nature* 521: 70–73.

369

370 Zhang, F., Zhou, Z., Xu, X., Wang, X., and Sullivan, C. 2008. A bizarre Jurassic maniraptoran
371 from China with elongate ribbon-like feathers. *Nature* 455: 1105–1108.

372

373 Zheng, X.T., You, H.L., Xu, X., and Dong, Z.M. 2009. An Early Cretaceous heterodontosaurid
374 dinosaur with filamentous integumentary structures. *Nature* 458: 333–336.

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

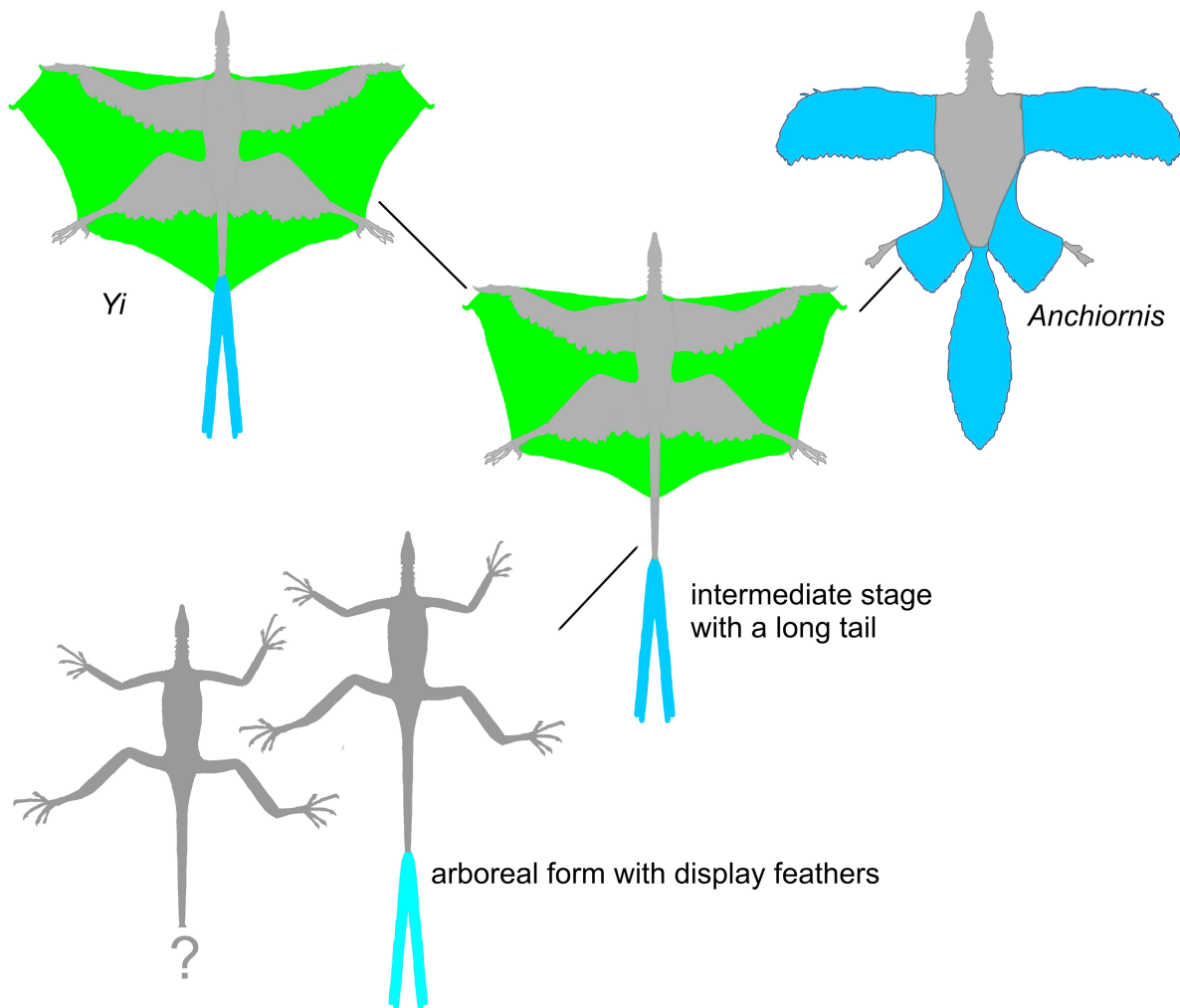
384

385

386

387

388

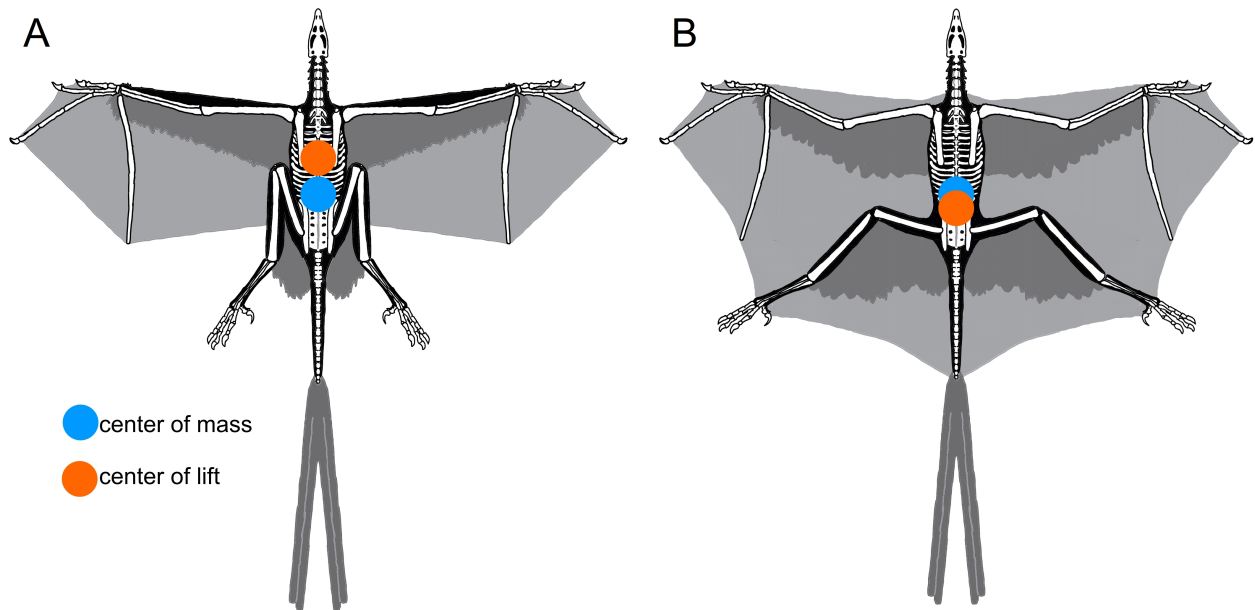


390 **Fig. 1. Origin and early evolution of birds.** Birds originated from tree-climbing archosaurs and
 391 passed through the stage of arboreal forms which glided on membranous wings. It is uncertain at
 392 which stage the tail feathers first appeared.

393

394

395



397 **Fig. 2. Reconstructions of *Yi qi* showing the aerodynamic apparatus.** Model proposed by Xu
398 et al. (2015) (A) and a new model proposed herein (B). Xu et al. (2015) provided three different
399 alternatives for the construction of the front wing of *Yi* and only that one of the greatest extension
400 of the membrane is reproduced (model A). Approximate positions of the center of mass (blue
401 dots) and the center of lift (orange dots) are marked. Note that *Yi* was capable of flight only if the
402 membrane was extended also on the hindlimbs, as the center of lift was located backward
403 relatively to the center of mass (model B).