2	lower jaw of Eusthenopteron foordi Whiteaves, 1881 from the Upper Devonian of Canada
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Computed tomography, anatomical description and three-dimensional reconstruction of the

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15 Abstract: The cranial anatomy of the iconic early tetrapod *Eusthenopteron foordi* is probably 16 the best understood of all fossil fishes. In contrast, the anatomy of the lower jaw – crucial for both phylogenetics and biomechanical analyses – has been only superficially described. 17 Computed tomography data of three *Eusthenopteron* skulls were segmented using 18 19 visualization software to digitally separate bone from matrix and individual bones from each 20 other. Here we present a new description of the lower jaw of Eusthenopteron based on micro-21 computed tomography data, including: detailed description of sutural morphology and the mandibular symphysis; confirmed occurrence of pre- and intercoronoid fossae on the dorsal 22 aspect of the lower jaw; and the arrangement of the submandibular bones. Furthermore, we 23 24 identify a novel dermal ossification, the postsymphysial, present on the anteromedial aspect of the lower jaw in *Eusthenopteron* and describe its distribution in other stem tetrapod taxa. 25

Sutural morphology is used to infer load regimes and, along with overall skull and lower jaw morphology, suggests that *Eusthenopteron* may have used biting along with suction feeding to capture and consume large prey. Finally, visualization software was used to repair and reconstruct the lower jaw, resulting in a three-dimensional digital reconstruction.

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Key words: fish, early tetrapod, *Eusthenopteron*, lower jaw, computed tomography, feeding.
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33 THE iconic lobe-finned fish Eusthenopteron foordi (Whiteaves 1881, 1888), from the Upper Devonian (Frasnian) Escuminac Formation of Miguasha National Park (Quebec, Canada), is 34 a crucial taxon for understanding the morphology, ecology and evolution of sarcopterygians, 35 including early tetrapods. Anatomical data from this taxon have been extensively 36 incorporated into cladistic analyses (Ahlberg and Johanson 1998; Ruta et al. 2003; Coates et 37 38 al. 2008), and in studies on limb evolution (Gregory and Raven 1941; Westoll 1943; Andrews and Westoll 1970; Coates and Clack 1990; Shubin et al. 1997; Coates et al. 2002; 39 Boisvert et al. 2008; Clack 2009; Shubin et al. 2014), ear architecture (Brazeau and Ahlberg 40 2006) and feeding (Hitchcock, 1995; Anderson et al. 2013; Neenan et al. 2014). 41 Numerous anatomical descriptions of the skull of *Eusthenopteron foordi* are available 42 (Bryant 1919; Stensio 1922; Sternberg 1941), including detailed studies by Jarvik that 43

45 of Natural History, Stockholm, Sweden) P. 222. This painstaking work revealed the anatomy

utilized serial grinding tomography of a well-preserved specimen, SMNH (Swedish Museum

- 46 of the cranial dermal bones, braincase, palatoquadrate, and visceral skeleton, including details
- 47 of cranial sutural morphology and the courses of sensory canals, pit-lines, nerves, blood
- 48 vessels and visceral muscles (Jarvik 1942, 1944, 1954). As a result of these studies, the

49 cranial anatomy of *Eusthenopteron* is among the best known of all fossil fishes (Cunningham et al. 2014). In contrast, the lower jaw of Eusthenopteron has been briefly described (Jarvik 50 1944, 1980) and only a few drawings from the 530 cross-sections produced by Jarvik were 51 52 ever published, providing limited information on sutural contacts in the lower jaw. This lack of data, particularly of the medial and dorsal aspects of the lower jaw, has hampered attempts 53 to carry out three-dimensional (3D) mechanical analyses. Furthermore, the arrangement of 54 the bones of the medial aspect of the lower jaw is important in providing characters for 55 phylogenetic analyses (Ahlberg and Clack 1998), yet these regions were treated only 56 57 superficially by Jarvik (1944, 1980).

58 Computed tomography (CT) and computed microtomography (μ CT) are increasingly being applied to fossils (Cunningham et al. 2014). Applications include 'virtual' preparation 59 of fossils (e.g., Abel et al. 2012; Porro et al. 2015), particularly fragile or very small material 60 61 (e.g, Donoghue et al. 2006; Porro et al. 2011), visualizing internal cavities or bone histology (e.g., Lautenschlager et al. 2012; Rücklin et al. 2012), and capturing skeletal morphology for 62 63 biomechanical analyses (e.g, Rayfield et al. 2001; Pierce et al. 2012). In this study, we used CT/µCT and visualization software, in addition to original fossil material, to produce the first 64 detailed osteological description and 3D reconstruction of the lower jaw of *Eusthenopteron*. 65 66 Among our findings, we describe and name a new dermal ossification – the postsymphysial – which is a bone found on the anteromedial aspect of the lower jaw in Eusthenopteron and 67 several other stem tetrapods. 68

69 Institutional abbreviations

70 MHNM, Musée d'Histoire naturelle de Miguasha, Miguasha National Park, Nouvelle,

71 Quebec, Canada; UMZC (CAMZM), University Museum of Zoology Cambridge,

72 Cambridge, UK.

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74 MATERIAL AND METHODS

Three specimens of Eusthenopteron foordi were used in this study: MHNM 06-538, which 75 consists of a nearly complete, minimally deformed skull; UMZC GN.1147, consisting of 76 mediolaterally crushed cranium and partial right lower jaw; and UMZC GN.792, a nearly 77 78 complete, dorsoventrally crushed skull. MHMN 06-538 (Fig. 1A-B) was scanned in 2004 at the high-resolution CT facility maintained by the Department of Geological Sciences at the 79 80 University of Texas (Austin, Texas, USA). The whole specimen was scanned, producing 340 16-bit TIFF images with a resolution of 0.165 mm/pixel and slice thickness of 1 mm. 81 Additionally, two higher resolution scans of this specimen were carried out – the anterior 56 82 83 mm of the specimen (producing 140 slices with a resolution of 0.096 mm/pixel and a slice 84 thickness of 0.5 mm) and the rear of the skull (producing 250 slices with a resolution of 0.165 mm/pixel and a slice thickness of 0.5 mm). UMZC GN.1147 (Fig. 1C) was scanned in 2013 85 86 at the Imaging and Analysis Centre of the Natural History Museum (London, UK) on an X-87 Tek HMX-ST µCT 225 scanner (Nikon Metrology, Tring, UK) producing 1926 DICOM slices with a resolution of 0.0797 mm/voxel. UMZC GN.792 (Fig. 1D-F) was scanned in 88 89 2014 in the Cambridge Biotomography Centre (Zoology Department) at the University of Cambridge on an X-Tek H 225 µCT scanner (Nikon Metrology, Tring, UK) scanner 90 producing 1920 TIFF images with a resolution of 0.0655 mm/voxel. 91

Scans were processed using the 3D visualization software package Avizo 7.1.1 (FEI
Visualization Sciences Group, Mérignac Cedex, France). Within the segmentation editor,
density thresholding was initially used to separate higher density bone from lower density
matrix. Scans were processed slice-by-slice (interpolating across no more than five slices at a
time) to separate individual bones and sutures (Fig. 2). Sutures occur as low density areas

between bones (Appendix S1). Original specimens were used to confirm the location of
sutures and differentiate them from post-mortem damage. Individual bones were isolated and
separately labeled within the segmentation editor and 3D surface models of each element
were created that could be manipulated in isolation in 3D space; the following description is
based on these models.

102 Some limits to the data sets used in the description and reconstruction should be 103 noted. The ventral margins of the posterior lower jaws of MHMN 06-538 and UMZC GN.792 are abraded. In contrast, UMZC GN.1147 preserves the ventral margin of the lower 104 jaw, although the anterior end of the jaw is missing. The 3D reconstruction (Fig. 3) 105 incorporates: the anterior half of the dentary, first infradentary, second infradentary, 106 postsymphysial from the right lower jaw of MHMN 06-538; the posterior half of the dentary, 107 fourth infradentary, adsymphysial, coronoids, prearticular and articular from the left lower 108 109 jaw of MHMN 06-538; and the third infradentary from the right lower jaw of UMZC GN.1147. Scans from UMZC GN.792 were segmented and examined to confirm anatomical 110 111 details of the symphysial region but were not incorporated into the 3D reconstruction. With the exception of the large anterior teeth, the very small individual dentary teeth were not 112 segmented in any of the scanned specimens due to their very small size. 113

The left side of MHMN 06-538 is minimally deformed. Thus, the left lower jaw of 114 this individual was used a 'template' for 3D reconstruction. Surface models of individual 115 bones from the right side of MHMN 06-538 and from UMZC GN.1147 (see previous 116 paragraph) were reflected across the sagittal midline and moved into position on the left 117 lower jaw of MHMN 06-538. Because of differences in specimen size and resolution of CT 118 scans, surface models from UMZC GN.1147 were scaled by a factor of 1.35 to match the size 119 of MHMN 06-538. The reflected elements were fitted into place using sutural contacts as 120 121 well as fragments of these bones preserved on the left side of MHMN 06-538. Finally, the

reconstructed left ramus of the lower jaw was duplicated and reflected across the sagittal
midline to create the right lower jaw ramus. Transformation matrices for all lower jaw bones
from the original data sets to the final 3D reconstruction are available as supporting
information (see Appendix S2).

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127 **RESULTS**

128 Anatomical description of the lower jaw

The complete left lower jaw of MHMN 06-538 measures 234 mm in length; the cranium of 129 this specimen measures 216 mm from premaxilla to the median extrascapular (in dorsal 130 projection). The preserved portion of the lower jaw of UMZC GN.1147 measures 111 mm 131 from the tip of the retroarticular process to the preserved tip of the anterior coronoid fang. 132 The lower jaws of UMZC GN.792 are not visible externally. The length of the cranium 133 134 between the premaxilla and median extrascapular is 88 mm; thus, this specimen is substantially smaller than either MHMN 06-538 or UMZC GN.1147. 135 The lateral aspect of the lower jaw is made up of the dentary and four infradentaries 136 (Fig. 3A); the medial aspect is made up of the first infradentary, prearticular, adsymphysial, 137 postsymphysial, three coronoids and articular (Fig. 3B). The lower jaw is dorsoventrally 138 tallest at the level of the posterior tip of the dentary and tapers anteriorly and posteriorly. The 139 140 ventral margin of the lower jaw is gently curved while the dorsal margin is relatively straight; Eusthenopteron lacks the upturned anterior lower jaw exhibited by Acanthostega (Clack, 141

- 142 2003; Porro *et al.* 2015). The coronoid fangs and dorsolateral edges of the three coronoid
- bones are visible in lateral view above the dorsal margin of the dentary (Fig. 3A). The
- 144 Meckelian fenestra is located at the ventromedial margin of the lower jaw. It extends from the

first infradentary – prearticular contact to the fourth infradentary – articular contact, and was
either filled by Meckelian bone (Jarvik 1954, 1980) or intermittently closed by point contacts
between the infradentaries and the prearticular (Fig. 3D).

In dorsal view, the lateral and medial margins of the lower jaw are parallel along most 148 of its length (Fig. 3C). There are three openings in the dorsal surface of the anterior lower jaw 149 in Eusthenopteron – one precoronoid fossa and two intercoronoid fossae. These fossae are 150 primitive features within stem tetrapods (Jeffery 2003). The precoronoid fossa is present in 151 porolepiforms (except Duffichthys), "osteolepiforms" (including the Tristichopteridae) and 152 elpistostegids (Ahlberg 1992; Lebedev, 1995; Long et al. 1997; Ahlberg and Clack 1998; 153 154 Ahlberg et al. 2000). It occurs in basal rhizodonts but is lost in derived forms (Vorobyeva and Obrucheva 1977; Jeffery 2003; Brazeau 2005). The precoronoid fossa is convergently 155 lost in most of the digited tetrapods - including Elginerpeton, Densignathus, Metaxygnathus 156 157 and Acanthostega (Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Daeschler 2000; Porro et al. 2015) - but retained in the elginerpetontids Obruchevichthys and Webererpeton (Clément and Lebedev, 158 159 2014). The precoronoid fossa of Eusthenopteron (clearly visible in CT scans of MHMN 06-160 538 and UMZC GN.792; Fig. 2A, E; Appendix S1B) is bordered posteriorly by the anterior coronoid, laterally by the anterior coronoid and dentary, anteriorly by the dentary, Meckelian 161 bone and adsymphysial, and medially by the postsymphysial; it accommodated the vomerine 162 fangs when the jaws were closed. An intercoronoid fossa is present between the anterior and 163 middle coronoids of Eusthenopteron, with a second, smaller intercoronoid fossa between the 164 middle and posterior coronoids (visible in CT scans of MHMN 06-538 and UMZC GN.1147; 165 Fig. 2A, D; Appendix S1A). The intercoronoid fossae have a similar phylogenetic 166 distribution as the precoronoid fossa. These openings accommodate the enlarged fangs of the 167 palatine and ectopterygoid when the jaws were closed. The elongate mandibular adductor 168

fossa occupies the posterior third of the lower jaw and is bounded by the dentary, surangular,posterior coronoid, prearticular and articular.

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Meckelian bone. The intramandibular canal of some stem tetrapods is partly lined by 172 endochondral Meckelian bone, forming the floor of the pre- and intercoronoid fossae and 173 occupying the gap (Meckelian fenestra) between the prearticular and the infradentaries on the 174 ventromedial aspect of the lower jaw. Posteriorly, the Meckelian ossification forms the 175 articular; anteriorly, it fills the intramandibular canal and contributes to the symphysial 176 surface in some taxa. Such a symphysial contribution is commonly referred to as the 177 mentomeckelian ossification or mentomandibular rib. The Meckelian element is ossified 178 179 along its entire length and exposed at the symphysis in porolepiforms (Ahlberg 1992), most "osteolepiforms" (Lebedev 1995; Long et al. 1997; Ahlberg and Clack 1998) and 180 elpistostegids (Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Ahlberg et al. 2000). It is ossified in Elginerpeton, 181 182 Obruchevichthys, Densignathus, Ventastega, Metaxygnathus, Ymeria and Icthyostega but it 183 does not floor the dorsal fossae or contribute to the symphysis (Ahlberg 1995, 2005; Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Daeschler 2000; Clack et al. 2012; Clément and Lebedev, 2014); it does 184 185 appear to contribute to the symphysis in Webererpeton (Clément and Lebedev, 2014). The Meckelian element is completely unossified in rhizodonts (except the basal taxon 186 Letognathus) and only the articular is ossified in Acanthostega (Jeffery 2003; Brazeau 2005; 187 Porro et al. 2015). 188

Previous descriptions of the lower jaw of *Eusthenopteron foordi* (Jarvik 1944; Clack 2012) report a core of Meckelian bone (the ceratomandibular of Jarvik [1954]) surrounded by a sleeve of dermal bone. Isolated drawings from Jarvik's serial grinding series (Jarvik 1954, 1980) suggest that the Meckelian bone is a slender rod restricted to the ventromedial margin 193 of the intramandibular canal between the prearticular and infradentary bones, expanding and ossifying fully at the anterior and posterior ends of the lower jaw (Jarvik 1980). Meckelian 194 bone is difficult to visualize in CT scans as its density is similar to that of the surrounding 195 196 matrix: it appears to be intermittent in the middle portion of the lower jaws of MHMN 06-538 and UMZC GN.1147. Wisps of higher density material are visible in the mandibular adductor 197 fossae of MHMN 06-538; anteriorly, these fragments first appear in the medioventral corner 198 of the intramandibular canal, gradually filling the adductor fossa and grading into the 199 articular posteriorly. We suggest that these higher density fragments represent ossified 200 201 fragments of Meckelian bone in the middle and posterior lower jaw. The articular is completely ossified. 202

Scans of UMZC GN.792 demonstrate that the Meckelian bone is limited to the
ventromedial corner of the intramandibular canal at the midpoint of the precoronoid fossa.
Anterior to this point, the Meckelian bone expands to fill the intramandibular canal; however,
it does not appear to be exposed at the symphysis. The morphology of symphysial region of
the lower jaw of *Eusthenopteron* is covered in detail in the Discussion.

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Dentary. The dentary is long and narrow in lateral view, being tallest anteriorly, featuring nearly parallel dorsal and ventral margins along most of its length, and tapering to a point posteriorly (Fig. 3A). In dorsal view (Figs 2A and 3C), the dentary is transversely narrow, widening anteriorly as described by Jarvik (1980) to form a medial shelf that articulates with the adsymphysial and postsymphysial and contributes to the anterior margin of the precoronoid fossa. In ventral view (Fig. 3D), the anterior end of the dentary expands towards the midline so that its ventromedial margin contributes to the symphysis. In transverse section, the dentary is mediolaterally thin and laterally bowed; the dorsal margin is thickened
but lacks the medial shelf exhibited by *Acanthostega* (Porro *et al.* 2015).

Among stem tetrapods, enlarged dentary teeth near the symphysis are referred to as 218 219 tusks while enlarged coronoid teeth are referred to as fangs (Jeffery 2003; Brazeau 2005; but note alternative definitions proposed by Bolt and Lombard, 2001). Dentary tusks are absent 220 in porolepiforms but are present in all known rhizodonts (Johanson and Ahlberg 2001). 221 Enlarged dentary teeth near the symphysis occur in the "osteolepiforms" Gogonasus and 222 Medoevia (Lebedev 1995; Long et al. 1997); however, Ahlberg and Clack (1998) do not 223 classify these as tusks. Derived tristichopterids, elpistostegids and digited tetrapods exhibit 224 225 tusks (Schultze and Arsenault 1985; Ahlberg and Johanson 1997; Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Daeschler 2000; Ahlberg et al. 2000; Johanson and Ahlberg 2001; Clack et al. 2012; Clément 226 and Lebedev, 2014). Unlike rhizodonts, in which the marginal tooth row labial to the tusk is 227 228 interrupted to form a diastema (Brazeau 2005), the dentary tusks of other tetrapodomorphs lie lingual to a marginal tooth row that continues uninterrupted to the symphysis, with the 229 230 possible exception of Obruchevichthys (Clément and Lebedev, 2014). The dentary teeth of 231 Eusthenopteron increase in size anteriorly, with the first two teeth being larger and more strongly recurved than succeeding teeth (Jarvik 1944); however, these are not considered 232 233 tusks by most authors (Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Johanson and Ahlberg 2001), which are thought to be absent in basal tristichopterids. 234

The anteromedial edge of the anterior dentary contributes to the symphysis, approaching its opposite in a loose, vertical contact (Figs 2F and 3D). The symphysial pit described by Jarvik (1980) cannot be discerned in CT scans. The dorsomedial tip of the dentary is "capped" by a small, dermal element, the adsymphysial (Fig. 2A, E). Posteriorly, the ventromedial margin of the dentary contacts the ventral margin of the postsymphysial in an anteroposteriorly long and transversely narrow butt joint (Fig. 2A, E); the medial aspect of 241 the dentary is separated from the lateral aspect of the postsymphysial by the Meckelian bone (anteriorly) and the precoronoid fossa (posteriorly). The first infradentary wedges between 242 the dentary and postsymphysial, separating these elements at the level of the anterior tip of 243 the anterior coronoid. The ventral margin of the dentary contacts the lateral margin of the first 244 infradentary. Scans of MHMN 06-538 and UMZC GN.792 reveal that this contact is either a 245 butt joint or that the first infradentary externally overlaps the dentary in a short scarf, contra 246 illustrations and descriptions by Jarvik (1944, 1980) that suggest that the ventral margin of 247 the dentary overlaps the first infradentary. The ventral margin of the dentary overlaps (often 248 249 to a considerable extent) the dorsal margins of second, third and fourth infradentaries. The medial aspect of the dentary broadly contacts the lateral aspects of the three coronoid bones 250 251 (Figs 2A and 3C); faint interdigitations are present, as depicted by Jarvik (1954). The 252 posterior tip of the dentary contributes to the lateral margin of the mandibular adductor fossa (Figs 2A and 3C). The dentary reaches the midpoint of the surangular in UMZC GN.1147 253 (Fig. 2C) but extends nearly to the jaw joint in MHMN 06-538 (Fig. 2A). 254

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First infradentary (*=splenial*). The first infradentary is the shortest of the series and forms the 256 257 anteroventral margin of the lower jaw in lateral and medial views (Fig. 3A-B). The first infradentary is shaped like an inverted "Y" in transverse section; the short stem of the "Y" is 258 directed dorsolaterally, contacting the dentary and externally overlapping the second 259 infradentary. As in Acanthostega (Porro et al. 2015), one arm of the "Y" is dorsomedially-260 directed; it meets the ventral margins of the postsymphysial and prearticular in rounded butt 261 joints. As in all stem tetrapods less crownward than elpistostegids, this dorsomedial arm is 262 not developed into a medial lamina (Ahlberg and Clack 1998). The other arm of the "Y" is 263 directed ventromedially, forming a flange that contributes to the mandibular symphysis by 264 265 either under- or overlapping its counterpart across the midline (Figs 2F and 3D) – see section

titled "Mandibular symphysis of *Eusthenopteron*" in the Discussion for more details. The
surface between the arms of the "Y" is deeply concave; anteriorly this may have
accommodated a ligament pit, as suggested for *Acanthostega* (Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Porro *et al.* 2015). Posterior to the contact between the first infradentaries, this concave depression
articulates with the rounded lateral margins of the first and second branchiostegal rays (Fig.
2B-C; Appendix S1C).

The morphology and sutural contacts of the posterior margin of the first infradentary 272 is variable among the specimens included in this study. In both lower jaws of MHMN 06-273 538, the dorsomedial and ventromedial laminae (arms of the "Y") of the first infradentary 274 bifurcate into dorsal and ventral processes; the ventral process is short and terminates as a 275 rounded tip that underlaps the second infradentary. The dorsal process is longer and is 276 applied to the ventral margin of the prearticular. The notch between the dorsal and ventral 277 278 processes is rounded and forms the anterior and dorsal margins of a small opening that is bounded posteroventrally by the second infradentary. The right lower jaw of UMZC GN.792 279 280 is badly abraded at this level; however, µCT scans of the left lower jaw of this specimen suggest a similar morphology as exhibited by MHMN 06-538. The shape and sutural contacts 281 of the posterior margin of the first infradentary of UMZC GN.1147 are different - the 282 dorsomedial and ventromedial laminae of the first infradentary do not bifurcate. Instead, the 283 posterior margin of the first infradentary is rounded and externally laps the second 284 infradentary (Fig. 2D). This deviation may be due to strong mediolateral compression of this 285 286 specimen.

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Second infradentary (=postsplenial). The second infradentary is anteroposteriorly longer than
the first infradentary (Fig. 3A). It is tallest at its midsection and tapers anterodorsally and

290 posteroventrally. It is mediolaterally thin in cross-section and bowed ventrolaterally. The anterior tip of the second infradentary inserts between the dentary and first infradentary, 291 being overlapped by both bones in scarf joints. The dorsomedial aspect of the second 292 293 infradentary contacts the ventrolateral aspect of the anterior and middle coronoids in a smooth, curving contact. Scans of UMZC GN.1147 demonstrate that the ventral margin of 294 the second infradentary is grooved and articulates with the lateral margins of the second, 295 296 third, and fourth branchiostegal rays (Fig. 2C). The dorsal margin of the second infradentary overlaps the ventral margin of the third infradentary in a scarf joint that is anterodorsally-297 298 oriented in lateral view (Figs 2C and 3A). The second infradentary terminates posteriorly as a rounded tip underlapping the third infradentary. Scans of the UMZC GN.1147 reveal that the 299 300 ventral margin of the second infradentary makes weak point contacts with the ventral margin 301 of the prearticular.

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303 *Third infradentary (=angular).* The third infradentary is similar in shape to the second 304 infradentary, being tallest at its midsection and tapering anteriorly and posteriorly, and is gently laterally bowed in cross-section. The central portion of this bone is missing in MHMN 305 306 06-538 and its ventral margin is severely abraded on both sides of UMZC GN.792. In contrast, it is broken longitudinally but otherwise well-preserved in UMZC GN.1147 (Fig. 307 2C), and most of the following description is based on this specimen. The ventral margin of 308 the third infradentary features a groove along its length, continuous with the groove along the 309 ventral margins of the first and second infradentary. This groove articulates with the lateral 310 margins of the fifth, sixth and seventh branchiostegal rays (Fig. 2C). There are small point 311 contacts between the ventral margin of the third infradentary and the prearticular. Scans of 312 UMZC GN.1147 reveal discontinuous patches of a material with a density unlike that of 313 314 either bone or matrix associated with gaps between these two bones. These patches most

likely represent Meckelian bone, as depicted by Jarvik (1980, figs 76 and 84) in his drawings.
The posterodorsal margin of the third infradentary overlaps the ventral margin of the fourth
infradentary in a short scarf (Figs. 2C and 3A). The dorsomedial aspect of the third
infradentary broadly contacts the ventrolateral surfaces of the middle and posterior coronoids.

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Fourth infradentary (=surangular). The fourth infradentary makes up the posterolateral 320 portion of the lower jaw (Figs 2C and 3A) and contributes to the lateral margin of the 321 mandibular adductor fossa (Figs 2A and 3C). It features a curved ventral margin and nearly 322 straight dorsal margin, and is tallest posterior to the tip of dentary. It is gently laterally bowed 323 in cross-section with a thickened dorsal margin. The anterior tip of the fourth infradentary 324 325 inserts between and is overlapped by the dentary and third infradentary. Its medial surface makes a short contact with the lateral surface of the posterior coronoid. There is an oblique 326 ridge, directed anterodorsally, on the lateral surface of the fourth infradentary, dorsal to a row 327 328 of sensory pores (=oral canal of Jarvik [1944]) and in line with the posterior tip of the 329 dentary. This ridge is clearly visible in MHMN 06-538 (Fig. 3A) and UMZC GN.1147 (Fig. 2C), and divides the lateral aspect of this bone into a larger, ventral surface which is highly 330 331 ornamented and a small, dorsolaterally-directed surface that is laterally overlapped by the quadratojugal when the mouth is closed, as exhibited by various rhizodonts and Gogonasus 332 (Long et al. 1997; Brazeau 2005). In UMZC GN.1147 and the left lower jaw of MHMN 06-333 538, the anterior half of the ventral margin of the fourth infradentary is grooved to receive the 334 lateral margin of the eighth branchiostegal ray (Fig. 2B-C). It is possible that the upper lip 335 forming this groove (continuous from the first through fourth infradentaries) supported the 336 Meckelian element, as suggested for rhizodonts (Brazeau 2005). The thickened posterior half 337 of the ventral margin of the fourth infradentary rises steeply towards the tip of the 338 339 retroarticular process and does not feature a groove. The fourth infradentary laterally overlaps the articular and wraps partially around its posterior aspect; it does not contribute to the jaw
joint except by a lip that restricts lateral movement of the quadrate. The posterior tip
(retroarticular process) of the fourth infradentary is short and thickened, and may have served
as an attachment site for a muscle or ligament. The ventral margin of the fourth infradentary
contacts the ventral margin of the prearticular. Posteriorly, this contact is a strong butt joint;
anteriorly, the elements separate and the articular or patches of Meckelian bone are visible
between the fourth infradentary and prearticular (Fig. 3D).

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Adsymphysial. The adsymphysial (also known as the parasymphysial plate) of 348 Eusthenopteron is a small, disc-shaped bone with a rounded anterior edge and a very short, 349 350 tapering posteromedial process. It is visible in µCT scans of UMZC GN.792 (Fig. 2E), in which it caps the dorsomedial tip of the dentary, the dorsal surface of the Meckelian bone and 351 the dorsal margin of the postsymphysial. Scans of MHMN 06-538 reveal a small element on 352 353 both sides of the head that loosely contacts the dorsal aspect of the dentary anteriorly but has 354 disarticulated posteriorly (Fig. 2A). No adsymphysial teeth or denticles can be resolved in scans of either UMZC GN.792 or MHMN 06-538. 355

The morphology and dentition of the adsymphysial poses a coding problem among 356 stem tetrapods (Clack et al. 2012). It is small, rests on the dentary and Meckelian element, 357 and does not contact the anterior coronoid in most porolepiforms and derived rhizodonts 358 (Ahlberg 1992). In contrast, the adsymphysial is elongate and sutures to the anterior coronoid 359 360 in the basal rhizodonts Gooloogongia and Letognathus (Johanson and Ahlberg 2001; Brazeau 2005). The "osteolepiforms" Gogonasus and Medoevia feature an elongate adsymphysial that 361 362 caps the Meckelian bone and contacts the anterior coronoid (Lebedev 1995; Long et al. 1997; Ahlberg and Clack 1998) while tristchopterids and elpistostegids feature a small 363

364 adsymphysial that rests on the dentary, Meckelian bone and/or postsymphysial, fails to contact the anterior coronoid and is frequently detached and lost, leaving only an attachment 365 scar (Ahlberg and Johanson 1997; Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Ahlberg et al. 2000; Johanson 366 and Ahlberg 2001). In all "osteolepiforms" and elpistostegids, the adsymphysial is lightly 367 denticulated. In contrast, more derived tetrapodomorphs feature an elongate adsymphysial 368 that sutures to the anterior coronoid and bears an organized tooth row, usually including 369 370 fangs (Ahlberg and Clack 1998; Daeschler 2000; Clack et al. 2012; Clément and Lebedev, 2014; Porro et al. 2015). 371

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Postsymphysial. Jarvik (1980) described the prearticular of Eusthenopteron as comprising 373 374 two separate bones – the "prearticular" and the denticulated "prearticular dental plate". As noted by Ahlberg and Clack (1998), this terminology is highly confusing as the "prearticular 375 dental plate" is, in fact, the true prearticular. Jarvik's "prearticular" is a slender, curving bone 376 377 that is present in all three Eusthenopteron specimens included in this study (although only its 378 posterior half is preserved in UMZC GN.1147). It is dorsoventrally tallest anteriorly and tapers to a point posteriorly, forming the medial margin of the precoronoid fossa and the 379 380 medial wall of the anterior intramandibular canal (Figs 2A, E and 3B, C). In cross-section it 381 is mediolaterally thin, and its tapering posterior tip underlies the anterior tip of the true prearticular in an anteroposteriorly long contact that is undulating in cross-section. We 382 identify this element as a novel dermal ossification in the lower jaw of Eusthenopteron, 383 which we call the postsymphysial. In addition to its contacts with the dentary, first 384 385 infradentary and adsymphysial (previously described), the lateral margin of the postsymphysial overlaps the medial edge of the anterior coronoid in a short scarf joint. The 386 anterior portion of the postsymphysial forms part of the mandibular symphysis, approaching 387 388 its counterpart across the midline in a loose, vertical butt contact.

The size of the postsymphysial and its surrounding contacts rule out the possibility 389 that it represents a portion of the adsymphysial. Scans reveal that the element is higher 390 density than either the matrix or the Meckelian bone within the intramandibular canal; its 391 392 density is similar to that of other dermal bones of the lower jaw. Along with its external appearance, the element is clearly dermal (not endochondral) bone, and is therefore not part 393 of the Meckelian ossification. Ahlberg and Clack (1998) noted that the postsymphysial might 394 395 represent a separate ossification, but chose to adhere to conventional terminology and referred to this element as an anterior process of the prearticular. Scans of all three 396 397 Eusthenopteron specimens demonstrate a clear, unambiguous sutural contact with the prearticular; thus, this element is not simply an anterior extension of the prearticular. 398

Primitively, the postsymphysial is absent and the Meckelian ossification is developed 399 into a mentomandibular rib that is exposed at the symphysis and forms the medial margin of 400 401 the precoronoid fossa. This is the condition in porolepiforms, the basal rhizodont Letognathus and the "osteolepiform" Gogonasus (Ahlberg 1992; Long et al. 1997; Brazeau 2005). Long et 402 403 al. (1997) note that there is no forward extension of the prearticular in Gogonasus as in 404 Medoevia. Ahlberg and Clack (1998) identify a raised, denticulated field with distinct edges as the "prearticular dental plate" in *Gogonasus* but the anterior edge of the prearticular is a 405 very short distance in front of this field and there is no anterior process (and no 406 postsymphysial) in this taxon. In contrast, the "osteolepiform" Medoevia features a 407 "prearticular anterior process" that contacts the anterior coronoid (medially), the first 408 infradentary (ventrally) and the Meckelian bone (medially), and is clearly distinct from the 409 shagreen-covered main body of the prearticular (Lebedev 1995). It is likely that this 410 "prearticular anterior process" represents the postsymphysial in this taxon, although CT scans 411 would be necessary to confirm such a diagnosis. An anterior process of the prearticular also 412 occurs in tristichopterids and elpistostegids, including Panderichthys (Ahlberg and Clack 413

1998), and may represent the postsymphysial. The postsymphysial is not present in later 414 tetrapods such as Densignathus, Ventastega, Metaxygnathus, Acanthostega, Ymeria or 415 Ichthyostega, as the medial lamina of the first infradentary (upper arm of the "Y") expands 416 dorsally to contact the dentary, adsymphysial and prearticular (Ahlberg and Clack 1998; 417 Daeschler 2000; Clack et al. 2012; Porro et al. 2015). Therefore, we identify the 418 postsymphysial as a novel ossification that occurs in *Eusthenopteron* and may be present in 419 420 other "osteolepiforms", tristichopterids and elpistostegids. Scans of individual taxa within these groups would be necessary to unambiguously support or refute the presence of this 421 422 ossification.

423

424 Prearticular. The dominant bone of the medial aspect of the lower jaw, the prearticular (Figs 2A, D and 3B) is tallest at the anterior margin of the mandibular adductor fossa, tapering to a 425 fine point anteriorly and a rounded margin posteriorly. The ventral margin of the prearticular 426 427 is smoothly curved along its entire length; the dorsal margin is gently curved anterior to the 428 mandibular adductor fossa and more deeply embayed posteriorly. In transverse section, the bone is mediolaterally thin with a thickened, outwardly (laterally) turned dorsal margin. It is 429 430 medially bowed along most of its length, although it becomes vertical at its contact with the 431 articular. Scans demonstrate that the anterior tip of the prearticular twists about its long axis, overlying the posterior tip of the postsymphysial. The prearticular contacts the first 432 infradentary in a rounded butt joint in *Eusthenopteron*; similar contact between the 433 prearticular and first infradentary occurs in most "osteolepiforms" (Lebedev 1995; Ahlberg 434 435 and Johanson 1997; Ahlberg and Clack 1998). In contrast, the ventral margin of the prearticular rests on the Meckelian ossification and does not reach the first infradentary in 436 porolepiforms or Gogonasus (Ahlberg 1992; Long et al. 1997). The laterally turned dorsal 437 438 margin of the prearticular overlaps the medial shelves of the coronoids and forms the medial

439 margin of the mandibular adductor fossa. The prearticular is broadly applied to the medial aspect of the articular. The medial surface of the posterior prearticular of MHMN 06-538 and 440 UMZC GN.1147 bears a shallow, anteroposteriorly elongated depression that may mark a 441 muscle attachment site. This depression is bounded dorsally by a longitudinal ridge (Figs 2D 442 and 3B, E); a similar ridge occurs on the prearticular of Medoevia (Lebedev 1995). The 443 ventral margin of the prearticular weakly contacts the ventral margins of the second and third 444 445 infradentaries; however, it is joined more firmly to the posterior part of the fourth infradentary. 446

447

Anterior coronoid. The anterior coronoid (Figs 2 and 3C) of Eusthenopteron is 448 449 anteroposteriorly short and dorsoventrally expanded. It is tallest at its midsection and tapers anteriorly and posteriorly. The anterior and posterior portions of the bone are thin vertical 450 sheets in transverse section; the central portion (which bears the enlarged fangs) is shaped 451 452 like an inverted "L" in cross-section. The lateral surface of the vertical lamina contacts the 453 medial aspect of the dentary, with a small area contacting the dorsomedial aspect of the second infradentary. The edge of the medial shelf fits under the lateral margins of the 454 postsymphysial and prearticular. The anterior margin of the anterior coronoid forms the 455 lateral and posterior margins of the precoronoid fossa; the posterior edge of the anterior 456 coronoid forms the anterior margin of the first intercoronoid fossa. The number of fangs (and 457 replacement pits) borne on the coronoids varies among and within individuals, presumably as 458 a result of different stages of tooth replacement; such variability in the number of fangs is 459 460 also noted in Gogonasus (Long et al. 1997). The right anterior coronoids of UMZC GN.1147 (preserved portion) and MHMN 06-538 bear a single large fang, with a smaller tooth visible 461 in MHMN 06-538 within a replacement pit posterior to the large fang. The left anterior 462 463 coronoid of MHMN 06-538 and both anterior coronoids of UMZC GN.792 bear two large

fangs. The posterior tip of the anterior coronoid touches the anterior tip of the middle
coronoid in UMZC GN.1147; there is no contact between these two elements in MHMN 06538 or UMZC GN.792. The anterior process of the coronoid does not contact the
adsymphysial plate in *Eusthenopteron*, as is typical for tristichopterids (see previous
discussion in "Adsymphysial" section).

469

Middle coronoid. The middle coronoid (Figs 2 and 3C) is slightly shorter than the anterior 470 coronoid. Its cross-sectional geometry resembles that of the anterior coronoid. Its anterior and 471 posterior margins are more rounded than those of the anterior coronoid, the medial shelf is 472 overlapped by the dorsal margin of the prearticular and the lateral aspect of the vertical 473 474 lamina contacts the medial surfaces of the dentary and second and third infradentaries. The right middle coronoid of UMZC GN.1147 bears a large fang and a smaller, anterior tooth 475 within a replacement pit; both middle coronoids of MHMN 06-538 bear two fangs. The 476 477 anterior margin of the middle coronoid forms the posterior edge of the first intercoronoid 478 fossa; the posterior margin of this bone forms the anterior edge of the second intercoronoid fossa. The posterolateral tip of the middle coronoid weakly contacts the anterior tip of the 479 posterior coronoid. 480

481

482 Posterior coronoid. The posterior coronoid of *Eusthenopteron* (Figs 2 and 3C) is twice the 483 length of the anterior and middle coronoids. It resembles the other coronoids in cross-484 sectional geometry and in its medial contact with the prearticular. The vertical lamina 485 laterally contacts the medial aspects of the dentary and third infradentary; the tapered 486 posterior tip laterally contacts the fourth infradentary and contributes to the lateral margin of 487 the mandibular adductor fossa. The posterior coronoid bears two sets of enlarged fangs, situated on either side of a deep concavity in the center of the bone that accommodated the
posterior set of enlarged ectopterygoid fangs. The possession of two sets of fangs on the
posterior coronoid is a derived condition unique to tristichopterids (Ahlberg and Clack 1998).
The posterior coronoids on both sides of MHMN 06-538 feature two large fangs anterior and
one fang posterior to the concavity; the right posterior coronoid of UMZC GN.1147 features
one large fang anterior and two smaller teeth posterior to the concavity, with no visible
replacement pits.

495

Articular. Scans show that the articular of Eusthenopteron is shaped like an inverted triangle 496 in transverse section. In dorsal view, the articular is widest at the level of the jaw joint and 497 498 tapers anteromedially to a fine point lying against the prearticular, as in Gogonasus (Long et al. 1997). This process reaches the anterior limit of the mandibular adductor fossa in MHMN 499 06-538 but is substantially shorter in UMZC GN.1147. The articular is extensively 500 501 overlapped by the fourth infradentary (laterally) and prearticular (medially). High-resolution 502 CT scans of the posterior portion of MHMN 06-538 reveal the detailed morphology of the articular for the first time. Posteriorly, the articular expands laterally to form the posterior 503 504 wall of the mandibular adductor fossa, which is strongly concave dorsally and anteriorly. The dorsal margin of this concavity is drawn up into a strong ridge that is U-shaped in dorsal 505 view. This ridge defines the posterior margin of the adductor fossa and the anterior margin of 506 the jaw joint. The jaw joint surface faces posterodorsally and is concave in lateral view; in 507 dorsal view, it is mediolaterally wider than it is anteroposteriorly long. It bears a low, central 508 509 eminence that separates the joint surface into lateral and medial faces (Jarvik 1980). Posterior to the jaw joint, the articular terminates as a transversely oriented, thickened ridge (which 510 looks like a rounded point in lateral view). The ridges of the articular limited anterior and 511 512 posterior movements of the lower jaw against the quadrate; additionally, the posterior ridge

may have served as a muscle attachment site (Jarvik 1980). A pair of canals anterior to the
joint surface described by Jarvik (1980) cannot be discerned in CT scans. Because the fourth
infradentary wraps around the posterior margin of the articular, there is no comma-shaped
scar on the ventral aspect of the articular as reported in *Gogonasus* (Long *et al.* 1997) or by
Jarvik (1980) in *Eusthenopteron*.

518

519 *The submandibular bones*

Closely associated with the bones of the lower jaw are the submandibular bones (Fig. 2B-C), 520 which supported elements of the gill cover (Jarvik, 1944) and played a role in operating the 521 pump mechanism by which Eusthenopteron and other "osteolepiforms" ventilated their gills 522 (Long et al. 1997; Clack 2012; Schoch 2014). These bones were described by Jarvik (1944, 523 524 1980) but CT scans of MHMN 06-538 and UMZC GN.1147 reveal new details of their contacts with each other and the infradentary series. There are eight marginal bones that lie 525 medial to lower jaws, which are referred to here as branchiostegal rays (note that the large 526 posterior element is referred to as the submandibulobranchiostegal plate by Jarvik [1980]). 527 Branchiostegal rays 1-7 are ovoid or rectangular in shape, being anteroposteriorly elongate 528 529 and mediolaterally narrow. Branchiostegal ray 8 is over twice the length of the anterior branchiostegal rays and transversely expanded; in ventral view, it is roughly triangular in 530 531 shape with the apex directed medially. The substantially larger size of the posterior branchiostegal ray also occurs in Gogonasus (Long et al. 1997) and Medoevia (Lebedev 532 533 1995). In cross-section, these marginal bones are thickest at their rounded, lateral margins and taper medially to a fine point. 534

Between these marginal bones, *Eusthenopteron* exhibits a pair of large, triangular
principal gular plates and a single, unpaired, diamond-shaped median gular. Like the

537 marginal bones, the principal gulars are thickest laterally and taper medially to a fine point in cross-section. The median gular, which is partially preserved in UMZC GN.1147, is thickest 538 in its center and thins laterally. Anteriorly, the median gular becomes triangular in cross-539 540 section with the apex forming a ventrally-directed keel that inserts between the first branchiostegal rays. As illustrated by Jarvik (1944, 1980), the posterolateral margins of the 541 median gular ventrally lap the anteromedial margins of the principal gulars, which exhibit a 542 543 distinct overlap surface. The principal gulars also exhibit overlap surfaces along their lateral margins, which correspond to the medial margins of the branchiostegal rays. The medial 544 545 margins of the principal gulars approach each other at the midline, and the right principal gular underlaps its counterpart anteriorly in MHMN 06-538; however, this may be due to 546 547 deformation.

The medial margins of branchiostegal rays 2-8 underlap the principal gular plate; 548 549 branchiostegal rays 1 and 2 underlap the lateral margin of the median gular plate; a similar arrangement between the branchiostegal rays and gulars is reported in Gogonasus (Long et 550 551 al. 1997). The posterior margin of each branchiostegal ray ventrally laps the anterior margin of the succeeding branchiostegal ray, as illustrated by Jarvik (1944, 1980). The rounded 552 lateral margins of the branchiostegal rays are not underlapped by the infradentaries as 553 described by Jarvik (1944, 1980) but articulate with a continuous groove (previously 554 described) along the ventromedial margins of the infradentaries. The morphology of this 555 contact may have permitted the branchiostegal rays to rotate against the lower jaws during 556 557 buccal expansion associated with ventilation of the gills or suction feeding.

558 During the early evolution of tetrapods, the operculogular series (including the 559 submandibular bones) is reduced and eventually lost: *Panderichthys* retains a full set of 560 operculogular bones, although these are reduced in anteroposterior length compared to 561 *Eusthenopteron* (Clack 2012); *Tiktaalik* features submandibulars and gulars but the status of the opercular bones is indeterminate (Daeschler e al. 2006); and the operculogular series is entirely absent in *Acanthostega*. This progressive loss of the submandibular bones is mirrored by the reduction and loss of the opercular series and transformation of the hyomandibula into the stapes; all of these components worked to maintain a tight connection between and ensure coordinated movements of the skull and gill skeleton during ventilation (Jarvik 1954). These trends are thought to reflect a reduced reliance on gills for breathing or suction feeding (Clack 2012).

569

570 3D Reconstruction of the Eusthenopteron lower jaw

The lateral aspect of the 3D model (Fig. 3A) closely resembles previous reconstructions 571 (Jarvik 1944, Jarvik 1980): the infradentaries and tips of the coronoid fangs are visible in 572 573 external view, the sutures between the infradentaries are anterodorsally-directed, and the second infradentary is the longest in the series. In contrast, there are notable differences 574 between previous reconstructions and the 3D model in medial view (Fig. 3B). The 575 symphysial pit, illustrated by Jarvik (1944, 1980), is not present; instead, the elongate 576 postsymphysial forms a substantial part of the mandibular symphysis. Although absent from 577 earlier descriptions, Jarvik (1980) later figured and described a small "parasymphyseal dental 578 plate" between the dentary, prearticular and Meckelian bone. Scans reveal that such an 579 580 element, the adsymphysial, is present at the anteromedial tip of the lower jaw between the dentary and postsymphysial, capping the Meckelian bone (Fig. 3B-C). The posterodorsal 581 582 margin of the prearticular is more deeply embayed than depicted by Jarvik (1944, 1980), exposing the articular and medial aspect of the surangular in medial view. The dorsal aspect 583 584 of the lower jaw of Eusthenopteron has never been reconstructed and CT scans confirm the presence of the precoronoid fossa and two intercoronoid fossae. Finally, the ventral aspect of 585

the 3D reconstruction demonstrates the intermittent contacts between the prearticular and

587 infradentaries, with the Meckelian bone occupying gaps between these elements.

588

589 **DISCUSSION**

590 Mandibular symphysis

591 The mandibular symphysis of *Eusthenopteron* has been previously described and figured
592 (Jarvik 1944, 1980); however, CT scans reveal numerous new details. The symphysial region

of MHMN 06-538 is broken and rich in high-density precipitates, creating scanning artifacts;

scans of UMZC GN.792 are clearer and provide much of the information presented below.

Jarvik (1944) states that the Meckelian bone is exposed at the mandibular symphysis 595 596 at the bottom of the symphysial pit, a feature roofed by the anteromedial extension of the dentary. Evidence from CT scans suggests the symphysial pit is absent and that Meckelian 597 bone fills the anterior portion of the intramandibular canal but is not exposed at the 598 599 mandibular symphysis in either MHMN 06-538 or UMZC GN.792. Instead, the symphysis is formed by the dentary, postsymphysial and first infradentary, and the intramandibular canal 600 601 does not open into the symphysis in Eusthenopteron as in Acanthostega (Porro et al. 2015). The anterior intramandibular canal is bounded by the dentary (laterally and dorsally), 602 603 adsymphysial (dorsally), first infradentary (laterally and ventrally), and postsymphysial 604 (medially), and opens posteriorly into the precoronoid fossa (Fig. 3C).

In both MHMN 06-538 and UMZC GN.792, the dorsoventrally expanded and
flattened medial surface of the postsymphysial closely approaches but does not directly
contact its counterpart across the midline at the symphysis. Likewise, the flat medioventral

surface of the dentary approaches but does not contact its opposite, and presumably both ofthese elements were joined across the symphysis by strong ligaments.

Scans reveal that the medioventral flange of the left first infradentary of UMZC 610 GN.792 extensively underlaps the right first infradentary across the symphysis (Fig. 2F). The 611 most anterior portion of the left infradentary of MHMN 06-538 is broken; however, it also 612 appears that the left first infradentary underlapped its counterpart in this specimen. This 613 asymmetrical contact between the first infradentaries was described and figured by Jarvik 614 (1944) and is not a result of postmortem deformation but genuine symphysial morphology. 615 As the only bone-bone contact at the mandibular symphysis of Eusthenopteron, the first 616 infradentaries would have been subjected to high stress as force was transferred across the 617 symphysis, particularly during unilateral biting. 618

A longitudinal row of four symphysial dermal bones or ossicles occur between the
anterior and anteroventral tips of the dentary (but not the first infradentary) in UMZC
GN.792 (Fig. 2F), externally lapping the symphysis as described by Jarvik (1944, 1980).

622

623 Sutural morphology in the lower jaw of Eusthenopteron

Skulls are made up of individual bones joined by collagen fibres at sutures, which assume a number of forms: butt joints that meet at flat edges; overlapping scarf joints; and convoluted interdigitations. Experimental and modelling studies have suggested that sutures perform a functional role by modifying and absorbing strain during feeding and other behaviours, and particular sutural shapes have been linked to specific loading regimes. Butt joints are associated with tension or bending, interdigitations are associated with compression, and scarf joints have been associated with torsion, shear, or both compression and tension (Bolt, 1974; Herring and Mucci 1991; Busbey 1995; Rafferty and Herring 1999; Herring and Teng
2000; Markey *et al.* 2006; Markey and Marshall 2007*a*). By correlating sutural morphology
in the skull roof with *in vivo* strain orientations and feeding mode in living *Polypterus*,
Markey and Marshall (2007*b*) inferred that *Eusthenopteron* used suction feeding (not biting)
to capture and ingest prey.

Jarvik (1944, 1980) illustrated sutural contacts on the lateral aspect of the lower jaw 636 of Eusthenopteron. Evidence from CT scans largely agrees with Jarvik's illustrations -637 anterior bones overlap posterior bones in the infradentary series and the dentary extensively 638 overlaps the second, third and fourth infradentaries (Fig. 4A). Contrary to Jarvik's 639 640 illustrations, the dorsal margin of the first infradentary meets the dentary in a butt joint. Scarf joints are the most common suture type in the lower jaw, while butt joints occur at the 641 anterior end and ventral margin of the lower jaw and interdigitations are only found between 642 643 the dentary and the coronoids. The bones of the dorsal margin of the lower jaw (dentary, coronoids and prearticular) are strongly joined through broad overlaps and interdigitations 644 645 (Fig. 4D); CT scans also reveal the contact between the coronoids and second, third and fourth infradentaries for the first time. In contrast, the ventral margin of the lower jaw is 646 647 weakly sutured (Fig. 4C), particularly in its mid-section, with the second, third and fourth 648 infradentaries contacting the prearticular only intermittently. However, the slender rod of Meckelian bone wedged between the prearticular and infradentaries presumably filled any 649 gaps and strengthened the ventral margin of the lower jaw. 650

Extensive scarf joints, as well as the box-like cross-sectional geometry of the lower jaw of *Eusthenopteron*, are well-adapted to resisting a loading regime involving torsion, shear and bending. The coronoids, which bear the largest teeth, meet the dentary at interdigitated contacts. This sutural morphology suggests resistance to laterally-directed forces on the coronoid fangs, such as those generated by prey attempting to escape. If *Eusthenopteron* employed suction to capture and ingest prey as suggested by Markey and Marshall (2007*b*),
the elongate coronoid fangs may have functioned as "place holders" during capture of prey
too large to ingest in a single suction feeding event (see Conclusions below).

The first infradentary contacts dorsal elements (dentary, postsymphysial, and 659 prearticular) via butt joints, which are presumably adapted to resist tension. As noted above, 660 the contact between the left and right first infradentaries is the strongest of the mandibular 661 symphysis (the only bone-bone contact at the symphysis), with connections between 662 opposing postsymphysials and dentaries being ligamentous. As force transfer (from the 663 balancing- to working-side) during unilateral biting would have occurred primarily through 664 665 the first infradentaries, butt joints may have allowed some 'give' between these bones and the dentaries and postsymphysials that were more loosely joined at the symphysis. Similar 666 deformation at the symphysis during biting has been suggested for rhizodonts (Jeffery 2003), 667 668 although the longitudinal intramandibular hinge of rhizodonts is absent in Eusthenopteron.

669

670 CONCLUSIONS

In this article we provide the first comprehensive description of the lower jaw of 671 *Eusthenopteron foordi*, including new information on sutural morphology, the mandibular 672 symphysis, the jaw joint and the arrangement and contacts of the submandibular bones. 673 Additionally, we have identified a novel ossification, the postsymphysial, which occurs on 674 the anteromedial aspect of the lower jaw in Eusthenopteron and other "osteolepiform", 675 676 tristichopterid and elpistostegid taxa. Data from CT scans and visualization software were used to create a 3D digital reconstruction of the lower jaw and sutural morphology was used 677 to predict load regime and feeding behavior in this iconic fossil taxon. 678

679 Suction, which relies on rapid expansion of the oropharyngeal cavity, is the primary feeding mechanism in fishes and many other aquatic vertebrates, being used to capture prey 680 and during intraoral transport (Westneat 2006). Biting fishes are defined as species that 681 682 depend on forceful contact of the oral jaws with the prey during acquisition (Alfaro et al. 2001). Changes in skull morphology, muscle activity patterns and behaviour accompany the 683 transition from suction feeding to biting (Alfaro et al. 2001): biting fish have more robust 684 685 skulls, better developed adductor muscles (Alfaro et al. 2001; Van Wassenbergh et al. 2004, 2007) and produce higher forces rather than faster jaw movements (Westneat 2004). 686 687 Although the "optimal" design for a biter and a suction feeder are different, modifications to increase bite performance do not necessarily reduce the ability to use suction (Van 688 Wassenbergh et al. 2007). Many species effectively combine suction and biting to position 689 690 prey (Alfaro et al. 2001) and all biters retain the ability to generate suction for intraoral 691 transport (Westneat 2006). Biters often take larger prey than suction feeders, and biting may represent a strategy to overcome dietary restrictions imposed by maximum gape size 692 693 (Westneat 2006).

Suction has been inferred as the feeding mechanism used by Eusthenopteron based on 694 various aspects of skull morphology. Hitchcock (1995) suggested that the anterior vertebrae 695 and posterior aspect of the skull in Eusthenopteron accommodated powerful epaxial muscles 696 that raised the cranium and opened the opercula. According to Hitchcock's model, this action 697 forced the quadrate forward, causing depression of the lower jaw. At the same time, 698 contraction of the sternohyoideus muscle acted on the hyobranchial apparatus to ventrally 699 700 expand the oral cavity while mobile joints between the palatoquadrate, braincase and cheek region allowed lateral expansion of oral cavity. This model placed greater emphasis on the 701 702 role of suction during feeding in *Eusthenopteron* and less reliance on biting. More recently, the sutural morphology of the skull roof has also been used to support suction-feeding in 703

Eusthenopteron (Markey and Marshall 2007*b*). Other anatomical features, such as the welldeveloped operculogular series and small marginal teeth, support suction feeding in this
taxon.

In contrast, the extensive scarf joints and enlarged coronoid and palatal fangs of 707 *Eusthenopteron* suggest that biting was used to some extent during prey capture. The 708 coronoid/palatal fangs of *Eusthenopteron* superficially resemble the long, sharp dentary teeth 709 of the pike (*Esox lucius*). Pike primarily employ suction to capture and ingest prey; however, 710 during the capture of very large prey, the teeth are used as 'place holders' during successive 711 suction events that draw prey through the buccal cavity and into the pharynx (LBP personal 712 713 observations). Fish that employ both biting and suction feature enlarged jaw adductor muscles and reinforced articulations of the suspensorium with the neurocranium, which limit 714 lateral expansion of the buccal cavity; these taxa compensate by larger and faster ventral 715 716 expansion of the buccal cavity by depression of the hyoid and branchiostegal rays (Van Wassenbergh et al. 2004, 2007). Examination of the skulls of both Gogonasus and 717 718 Eusthenopteron by Long et al. (1997) suggests that any movements between the braincase, 719 palatoquadrate and cheek region of these taxa were minor, if even possible (contra Hitchcock, 1995); this suggests that lateral expansion of the oral cavity was limited. On the 720 other hand, the well-developed hyoid skeleton of Eusthenopteron (Jarvik 1954) coupled with 721 the potential for rotation of the branchiostegal rays against the infradentaries supports the 722 idea that *Eusthenopteron* may have combined suction feeding (generated primarily by ventral 723 expansion of the oral cavity) with biting, possibly to permit the capture of larger prey. 724 Morphological adaptations associated with this feeding mode may have set the stage for the 725 evolution of biting as the primary mode of prey capture in later tetrapods. 726

727

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JAC interpreted CT data. LBP drafted the manuscript. All three authors read and commentedon the manuscript.

746

747 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information are available in the [Dryad Digital Repository]:
doi:10.5061/dryad.t9q11

Appendix S1. µCT sections through the three specimens (left) with black line indicating
position on corresponding 3D surfaces (right). A, Transverse section through the left first
intercoronoid fossa of MHMN 06-538. B, Transverse section through the right precoronoid
fossa of UMZC GN.792. C, Transverse section through the anterior lower jaw of UMZC
GN.1147.

Appendix S2. Transformation matrices for three-dimensional surface models of individual
bones of the lower jaw of *Eusthenopteron foordi*.

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930

931 EXPLANATIONS OF FIGURES AND TABLES

FIG. 1. Photographs of original *Eusthenopteron foordi* specimens used in this study. A, Left
lateral view of MHMN 06-538. B, Right lateral view of MHMN 06-538. C, Right lateral
view of UMZC GN.1147. D, Dorsal view of UMZC GN.792. E, Ventral view of UMZC
GN.792. F, Close up of mandibular symphysis (inset shown in E). Scale bars equal 50 mm
(A-B), 20 mm (C– E), and 10 mm (F).

937 FIG. 2. Surface models of *Eusthenopteron foordi* specimens prior to retrodeformation. A,

Dorsal view of MHMN 06-538, showing only the bones of the lower jaw. B, Ventral view of

MHMN 06-538 showing the submandibular bones (opaque) and bones of the lower jaw

- 940 (transparent). C, Right lateral view of UMZC GN.1147 showing the right lower jaw and
- submandibular bones. D, Medial view of UMZC GN.1147 showing the right lower jaw
- 942 bones. E, Dorsal view of the anterior end of UMZC GN.792. F, Ventral view of the anterior
- 943 end of UMZC GN.792. Individual bones are shown in various colours. Anatomical

abbreviations: ad, adsymphysial; ar, articular; br1 – br8, branchiostegal rays 1 through 8; co1,
anterior coronoid; co2, middle coronoid; co3, posterior coronoid; d, dentary; gu, principal
gular; ic1, first intercoronoid fossa; ic2, second intercoronoid fossa; if1, first infradentary; if2,
second infradentary; if3, third infradentary; if4, fourth infradentary; mc, Meckelian bone; mg,
median gular; os, symphysial dermal ossicles; pa, prearticular; pf, precoronoid fossa; ps,
postsymphysial.

FIG. 3. Three-dimensional reconstruction of the lower jaw of *Eusthenopteron foordi*. Right
lateral (A) and right medial (B) views of the right lower jaw ramus; dorsal (C), ventral (D)
and oblique (E) views of the lower jaw. Individual bones are shown in various colours.

Anatomical abbreviations: ad, adsymphysial; af, mandibular adductor fossa; ar, articular; co1,

anterior coronoid; co2, middle coronoid; co3, posterior coronoid; d, dentary; ic1, first

955 intercoronoid fossa; ic2, second intercoronoid fossa; if1, first infradentary; if2, second

956 infradentary; if3, third infradentary; if4, fourth infradentary; mc, Meckelian bone; pa,

957 prearticular; pf, precoronoid fossa; ps, postsymphysial.

958 FIG. 4. Suture maps of the lower jaw of *Eusthenopteron foordi*. Right lower jaw ramus in lateral (A), medial (B), ventral (C) and dorsal (D) views. Heavy solid lines indicate butt 959 960 joints; medium shading indicates scarf joints and the direction (but not the extent) of underlap; cross-hatches indicate interdigitated sutures. Some sutures (such as those between 961 the coronoids and dentary) are a combination of suture types. The adsymphysial is not shown 962 as it is loosely attached to the dentary and postsymphysial. Black shading indicates openings 963 in the lower jaw. Dark shading at the anterior end of the jaw (C and D) indicates the 964 965 symphysis; dark shading in the middle and posterior sections of the lower jaw (C) indicates the Meckelian bone visible between the infradentaries and the prearticular. The articular is 966 overlapped by all surrounding elements and is shown in light shading. 967