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Drilling predation on spatangoid echinoids from the Miocene of Sardinia: a taphonomic and paleoecological perspective

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paleoecology and preservation potential of spatangoid echinoids. The echinoid fauna is dominated by the spatangoid Agassizia and, subordinately, the clypeasteroid Clypeaster, and includes also both regular (undetermined diadematoids and camarodonts), and irregular (Plagiobrissus, Echinocyamus and Koehleraster) forms. Accompanying fauna and flora consist of bivalves, includind large ostreids, Spondylus and pectinids, larger benthic foraminifera (Heterostegina and Amphistegina) and coralline algae. Echinoids and associated fauna and flora, along with taphonomic and sedimentological signatures, indicate an inner sublittoral environment with moderate energy conditions affected by high energy events. Agassizia remains, which mainly consist of complete and well-preserved tests, commonly bear subcircular drill holes that are interpreted as the result of cassid gastropod predation and investigated with respect to size selectively and stereotypy of attack siting. Potential biases by drilling predation and biostratinomy on the preservation potential of spatangoid tests is discussed. Antipredator behavior adopted by the shallow infaunal spatangoid Agassizia are interpreted to rely on gregarious life-history strategies, rather than defense mechanisms and deep burial depths.

# SCHOLARONE<sup>™</sup> Manuscripts

# 1 Drilling predation on spatangoid echinoids from the Miocene of

# 2 Sardinia: a taphonomic and paleoecological perspective

#### 3

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Abstract.—Spatangoid echinoids appeared in the Early Cretaceous and became highly diversified in 13 the Cainozoic colonizing a wide spectrum of marine environments and showing a high morphological 14 variability. Predation is considered of primary importance in driving morphological adaptations and 15 thus the ecological and evolutionary dynamic of spatangoids as well as affecting their preservation 16 potentials. Herein, the spatangoid-dominated Miocene carbonate succession of Punta Foghe 17 (Montiferru area, central-western Sardinia, Italy) is studied with the aim of reconstructing the 18 paleoenvironmental conditions and investigating abiotic and biotic factors, including predation, 19 influencing the paleoecology and preservation potential of spatangoid echinoids. 20

The echinoid fauna is dominated by the spatangoid *Agassizia* and, subordinately, the clypeasteroid *Clypeaster*, and includes also both regular (undetermined diadematoids and camarodonts), and irregular (*Plagiobrissus, Echinocyamus* and *Koehleraster*) forms. Accompanying

fauna and flora consist of bivalves, includind large ostreids, Spondylus and pectinids, larger benthic 24 25 foraminifera (*Heterostegina* and *Amphistegina*) and coralline algae. Echinoids and associated fauna and flora, along with taphonomic and sedimentological signatures, indicate an inner sublittoral 26 environment with moderate energy conditions affected by high energy events. Agassizia remains, 27 which mainly consist of complete and well-preserved tests, commonly bear subcircular drill holes 28 that are interpreted as the result of cassid gastropod predation and investigated with respect to size 29 selectively and stereotypy of attack siting. Potential biases by drilling predation and biostratinomy on 30 the preservation potential of spatangoid tests is discussed. Antipredator behavior adopted by the 31 shallow infaunal spatangoid Agassizia are interpreted to rely on gregarious life-history strategies, 32 33 rather than defense mechanisms and deep burial depths. 

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#### Introduction 35

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Spatangoids constitute a successful group of irregular echinoids which appeared in the Early 37 Cretaceous (Barremian) (Villier and Navarro, 2004; Villier et al., 2004; Stockley et al., 2005; Kroh 38 and Smith, 2010), leaving a rich fossil record (Villier et al., 2004; David et al., 2009). Fossil 39 spatangoid-dominated assemblages are well documented and show a wide distribution (e.g., 40 41 Néraudeau, 1991; Radwański and Wysocka, 2001; Kroh, 2003; Kroh and Neblsick, 2003; Zamora et al., 2008; Smith and Gale, 2009; Stara et al., 2012; Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2017a, 2019; Martínez 42 and Del Rio, 2017; Caron et al., 2019; Palópolo et al., 2021 and references therein). 43

Spatangoids highly diversified in the Cainozoic, with the majority of extant families dating 44 back to the Eocene (Smith and Kroh, 2011). They colonized a wide spectrum of marine environments 45 46 from littoral to abyssal depths (Stockley et al., 2005) and display a wide variety of test shapes and morphological features related to their mode of life and environmental conditions (e.g., Saitoh and 47

Kanazawa, 2012, 2019). Spatangoids predominantly have a burrowing habit which is considered as the key innovation explaining their success (Kier, 1974), allowing access to unexploited food resources and escape from predators (Smith, 1984). Their rich fossil record is the result of a combination of factors including their wide distribution in different habitats, related energy and sedimentological conditions as well as varying taphonomic pathways (see discussion in Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2017a).

Spatangoids in general have fragile tests that make them prone to breakage and disarticulation 54 when subjected to transportation or reworking. Their burrowing habit prevents or minimizes 55 destructive biostratinomic processes (Schäfer, 1972; Kier, 1977; Néraudeau, 1991) if the echinoid 56 succumbs in their burrows. Additionally, these echinoids live within unconsolidated, mobile 57 substrates in areas of active sedimentation, where rapid final burial under thick layers of sediments 58 59 prevents the remains to be reworked and destroyed, leading to a high fossilization potential (Ernst et al., 1973; Smith, 1984; Greenstein, 1993; Radwański and Wysocka, 2001; Mancosu et al., 2015; 60 Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2017a). 61

62 Oxygen deficiency can play a role in preservation potential of spatangoid echinoids inducing emergence on the sediment surface and subsequent death of infaunal forms, as documented for 63 Echinocardium cordatum (Nilsonn and Rosenberg, 1994) and Ova canalifera, tests of which can 64 serve as substratum for epigrowth (Stachowitsch, 1991; Nebelsick et al., 1997). Bioinfestation by 65 encrusting organisms can also increase their chance for preservation on the sea floor (see Ernst et al., 66 67 1973; Nebelsick, 2004; Zamora et al., 2008). In addition, dysoxic or anoxic conditions and low water temperature can enhance their preservation potential, delaying soft tissue decay and test 68 disarticulation (see Nebelsick et al., 1997; Banno, 2008; Mancosu et al., 2015; Palópolo et al., 2021). 69

Predation is also considered to be of primary importance in affecting the preservation potential
of spatangoids (see discussion in Tyler et al., 2018) and shaping their ecological and evolutionary
dynamic (McNamara, 1994; Kanazawa, 2004, 2010), thus influencing the nature of their fossil record.

Many different organisms, such as turtles, birds, fishes, sea stars and gastropods prey spatangoid 73 74 echinoids today (e.g., Chesher, 1969; Hughes, 1986; Nebelsick, 1999; Scheibling, 2013; Sievers et al., 2014; Grun, 2016; Tyler et al., 2018 and references cited therein). Despite these investigations, 75 spatangoids have been poorly studied with respect to predator-prey interaction from a paleoecological 76 77 and taphonomic perspective. Durophagus predation can destroy the echinoid test while feeding, leaving few recognizable fragments of the prey and may be difficult to distinguish from damage 78 caused by post mortem breakage. By contrast, gastropod predation producing discrete, small holes in 79 the echinoid test which can not only be common, but also allow for detailed investigations on size 80 and site selectively, distribution among different facies within sedimentary environments, defense 81 82 mechanisms and the co-evolution of predator and prey (e.g., Nebelsick, 1999; Kowalewski and 83 Nebelsick, 2003; Farrar et al., 2020; Petsios et al., 2021).

Drilling predation is documented on a number of spatangoids, including *Plagiobrissus*, 84 Meoma, Echinocardium, Lovenia, Brissus and Spatangus (Moore, 1956; Chesher, 1969; Hendler, 85 1977; Hughes and Hughes, 1981; Hughes, 1986; Gerace and Lindsay, 1992; Lindsay, 1996; Dexter, 86 87 2011; Tewfik, 2014; Tyler et al., 2018; personal observations) and is attributed by present-day cassid gastropods (Tonnacea), such as Cassis tuberosa, C. madagascarensis and C. cornuta, Cypreacassis 88 testiculus and Galeodea echinophora. Evidence of drilling predation attributes to gastropods has also 89 90 been recognized in fossil spatangoids, including Hemiaster, Micraster, Pericosmus, Lovenia, Eupatagus, Brissopsis, and various schizasterid echinoids (e.g., Beu et al., 1972; Kier, 1981; Gibson 91 and Watson, 1989; McKinney and McNamara, 1991; McNamara, 1994; Rose and Cross, 1993; Miller 92 93 and Walker, 2009; Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2017a).

Herein, a spatangoid-rich sedimentary succession from the Early-Middle Miocene of Punta
Foghe (central-western Sardinia; western Mediterranean) is studied with the aim of reconstructing
paleoecological and associated paleoenvironmental conditions, and investigating abiotic and biotic
factors, including predation, influencing the preservation potential of spatangoid echinoids. This is

accomplished by 1) detailed logging of sedimentary facies, 2) applying the functional morphological
reconstructions of echinoid skeletons and interpreting their behavior and life habits, 3) quantifying
various taphonomic features of test preservation, and 4) investigating predatory patterns, such as
drilling intensities, size, and site selectivity.

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# 103 Geological setting

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The Oligo-Miocene volcano-sedimentary succession of Sardinia consists of three cycles of the 105 following ages (1) Chattian to early Burdigalian; (2) a late Burdigalian to early Serravallian; and (3) 106 Serravallian to early Messinian (Assorgia et al., 1997a, c). This succession is predominately present 107 in the NNW-SSE-oriented Sardinian Basin (Fig. 1.1), a tectonic trough that extends from the Gulf of 108 Sassari in the northwest to Cagliari in the south and comprises a number of minor sub-basins, which 109 originated during Oligo-Miocene tectonic movements of the Corsica-Sardinia microplate (Cherchi 110 and Montandert, 1982; Thomas and Gennesseaux, 1986; Carmignani et al., 2001; Facenna et al., 111 2002; Speranza et al., 2002). 112

The sedimentary succession studied herein is located in the central-western part of the 113 Montiferru area (central-western Sardinia) (Fig. 1.1-1.3) along the coast between the village of Santa 114 115 Caterina di Pittinuri and Punta Foghe (Cuglieri/Tresnuraghes) and pertains to the second sedimentary cycle (Assorgia et al., 1997b; Carboni et al., 2010). In the Montiferru area, the Miocene volcano-116 sedimentary sequence commences with andesitic lavas and pyroclastic deposits of rhyolitic and 117 dacitic composition (Assorgia et al., 1997b; Bottero et al., 2002 and references cited therein) dated 118 by the K-Ar method to 19-16 Ma and 17-13 Ma, respectively (Assorgia et al., 1997a, b and references 119 cited therein). These deposits are followed by heterometric conglomerates, epiclastites and 120 volcanoclastic deposits of fluvio-lacustrine origin (Assorgia et al., 1997b and references cited therein; 121

Mighela et al., 1997). The succession continues with a thick marine carbonate sedimentary sequence ranging from Late Burdigalian to Early Serravallian based on their stratigraphic position and macrofossil content (Comaschi Caria, 1951; Assorgia et al., 1997b; Carboni et al., 2010). This succession consists of calcarenites and bioclastic limestones, passing upward to fine-grained lithologies dominated by bivalves and echinoids (see Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2019).

Miocene sedimentary deposits are unconformably overlain by subaerial, fluvio-deltaic sandstones and conglomerates intercalated with Pliocene to lower Pleistocene basanites as well as trachytic and phonolitic lava flows (Beccaluva et al., 1974; Assorgia et al., 1997b; Carboni et al., 2010). As noted by Mighela et al. (1997), the tectono-sedimentary development and the stratigraphic framework of the Montiferru area is comparable in part to that of the well-known Logudoro and Porto Torres Basins (Northern Sardinia) as described by Mazzei and Oggiano (1990) and Funedda et al. (2000, 2003).

The Early-Middle Miocene carbonate sedimentary sequence cropping out along the coast between S'Archittu-Santa Caterina di Pittinuri and Punta Foghe consists at the base of grainstones, floatstone and rudstones, containing the echinoid assemblages studied herein, passing upward to finegrained lithologies (calcareous sandstones, mudstone, wackestones and packstones). Fossil content is dominated by echinoid remains which occur throughout the sedimentary sequence and have been described in part by Comaschi Caria (1951, 1972) and Mancosu and Nebelsick (2019).

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# 141 Material and methods

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Paleontological, taphonomic and sedimentological analyses were conducted in the field and laboratory. Complete and fragmented echinoid tests were observed and can be attributed to specific echinoid taxa at least at genus level due the presence of specific morphological features. Taxonomic

146 classification at and above genus level follows Smith and Kroh (2011), and Kroh (2020) and147 Mongiardino Koch and Thompson (2021), respectively.

A stratigraphic section (Fig. 2) was measured in which echinoid remains are common 148 149 throughout. The sedimentary succession was investigated in detail with respect to diversity and relative abundance of echinoids and accompanying fauna and flora, fossil orientation as well as 150 taphonomic and sedimentological features. Field determinations include the abundance, orientation, 151 preservation and packing fabric (following Kidwell and Holland, 1991). Taphonomic signatures such 152 as disarticulation, fragmentation, abrasion, encrustation and bioerosion were evaluated. Abrasion, 153 encrustation and bioerosion were evaluated on both fragments and complete specimens. Surface 154 abrasion was distinguished by noting the presence or absence of tubercles on the test surface. The 155 fabric of the assemblages was analyzed by recording the orientation of complete specimens relative 156 to the bedding plane. The study of the sedimentary succession was based on field observations and 157 microfacies analysis of thin-sections cut in samples selectively collected from different levels 158 recognized in the field, with the aim to assess facies changes across the sedimentary sequence. 159 160 Identification of carbonate rocks follows Lokier and Junaibi (2016).

Life habit of the fossil echinoids results from the functional morphological interpretation of skeletal features based on Nichols (1959), Smith (1980), and Kanazawa (1992), and actualistic comparisons to closely related extant taxa. Terminology of the echinoid test follows Smith and Kroh (2011).

Spatangoid tests were obtained by surface collecting and examined for evidence of predation. Drilled tests were analyzed for drilling intensity, drill hole dimension, drill hole morphology and size and site selectivity. Maximum and minimum drill hole diameters were measured from photographs using ImageJ software. As the diameter of drill holes made by gastropods correlates with the size of the predator (Hughes and Hughes, 1981), drill holes were analyzed for their maximum length with respect to the length of the drilled test in which they occur, thus testing for a possible size selectively

of the predator. In addition, size selectivity was examined by comparing drilled and undrilled test size distribution. All linear measurements on the echinoid test were conducted using a caliper with an accuracy of 0.02 mm. To assess site selectivity, the position of drill hole center was detected by dividing the test of *Agassizia* into eight sectors (1-8) by three perpendicular planes, dividing the test in a right/left side, aboral/oral side and anterior/posterior side, respectively (Fig. 3). Statistical analyses were performed with Past 4.03 (Hammer et al., 2001). Samples are stored in the Dipartimento di Scienze Chimiche e Geologiche, Università degli studi di Cagliari.

178

## 179 **Results**

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*Facies description.*—The sedimentary succession studied herein is ca. 5 meters thick and consists of
carbonate lithologies with a very abundant fossiliferous content, including echinoids, bivalves,
coralline algae, and larger benthic foraminifera (LBF). Five facies were recognized based on lithology
and fossil content (Fig. 2).

The sedimentary succession starts with coralline algae floatstones to rudstones (Facies 1) with the common occurrence of disarticulated valves of ostreids and *Spondylus*, followed by calcareous sandstones (Facies 2). The fossil content in Facies 2 is dominated by the spatangoid echinoid *Agassizia*, which occur very commonly, with subordinate amounts of the clypeasteroid *Clypeaster* showing different morphotypes. The larger benthic foraminifera *Heterostegina* also occur commonly, along with rare *Amphistegina*, and smaller benthic foraminifera including rotaliids, elphidiids and miliolids. Further macrofossils also include large ostreids, *Spondylus* and small pectinid bivalve.

Calcareous sandstones pass gradually to floatstone/rudstone (Facies 3) composed of coralline algae and the benthic foraminifera *Heterostegina* in a packstone matrix. Echinoid remains are common and consist mainly of *Clypeaster* with rare *Agassizia*. 195 Coralline algae gradually decrease upward passing to a rudstone with densely packed coquinas 196 (Facies 4), which consist of densely packed, variously oriented and imbricated and mostly fragmented 197 shell remains of *Heterostegina*, with rare *Amphistegina* and miliolids. *Clypeaster* remains (Fig. 4) are 198 very common with the sporadic occurrence of small complete regular echinoids (possibly small 199 *Schizechinus*). A single test remain of the echinoneoid *Koehleraster* was also found.

200 The sedimentary succession ends with floatstones to rudstones (Facies 5) in a bioclastic packstone matrix. The fossil content is dominated by echinoid remains (Fig. 5) and larger benthic 201 foraminifera, including *Heterostegina* and rare *Amphistegina*, which can be present as complete and 202 fragmented shell remains. Very rare small benthic foraminifera (rotaliids and miliolids) are also 203 present. The echinoid fauna is dominated by *Agassizia*, which occur abundantly, reaching density of 204 60 individual/m<sup>2</sup>. Clypeaster remnants also occur very commonly. Test fragments of a large 205 spatangoid, possibly *Plagiobrissus* (Fig. 6A), and regular echinoid remains, including a single 206 fragmented diadematoid spine, a rotula and isolated interambulacral plates are also present. 207 Specimens of the minute clypeasteroid *Echinocyamus* (Fig. 6B) are also present. Pectinid bivalves 208 209 are represented by disarticulated and fragmented remains.

210

*Echinoid taphonomy.*—The echinoid remains occur abundantly throughout the succession and range
from loosely packed to dispersed (sensu Kidwell and Holland, 1991). The echinoid fauna shows a
low diversity, being mainly dominated by *Agassizia* and *Clypeaster*.

Remnants of the spatangoid *Agassizia*, in facies 2 and 5 consist of both complete specimens lacking spines (Fig. 5) as well as large test fragments, which occur sporadically. The orientation of complete tests ranges from concordant to perpendicular (specimens lying on their sides) to the bedding plane. Evidence for abrasion is lacking as echinoid tests and their fragments are very well preserved with respect to surface details. Tests commonly bear subcircular to slightly elongated holes

219 (Fig. 7).

Clypeaster remains are present predominantly as test fragments (Fig. 4.1) ranging from those 220 representing up to half test size to pie-shaped portions and smaller fragments. Both inter- and 221 intraplate fragmentation are present. Complete specimens are also present, though rare. Both 222 complete specimens and fragments show orientations ranging from concordant to perpendicular to 223 the bedding plane. Small fragments can be readily recognized due to the small evenly distributed 224 sunken tubercles on the surface as well as presence of internal support structure in the interior of the 225 test. Complete specimens are well-preserved displaying surface details, while the preservation of 226 fragments ranges from well preserved to abraded. Encrustation by coralline algae occurs on test 227 fragments. Bioerosion is present on *Clypeaster* test fragments as multiple closely spaced, circular to 228 229 sub-circular holes, affecting both oral and aboral side (Fig. 4.2).

Minute undetermined regular echinoids, and the irregulars *Koehleraster* and *Echinocyamus* are present as complete tests. By contrast, the remains of diadematid echinoids and large spatangoids (possibly *Plagiobrissus*) occur exclusively as spine and test fragments, respectively. The sediment infilling the echinoid tests is identical to that of the embedding rock.

234

Drill holes in Agassizia.—The spatangoid Agassizia, which ranges in test length from 7.12 to 25.3 235 236 mm with a mean of 16.12 mm (Fig. 8.1), is affected by drill holes on 35 out of 78 complete (44.87%) specimens selected for this study. Undrilled tests have a mean in length of 15.53 mm (Fig. 8.2). The 237 drilled tests range from 10 to 24 mm in length with a mean of 16.83 mm (Fig. 8.3). The drill holes 238 range from 0.94 to 3.8 mm in maximum length, with a mean of 2.24 mm (Fig. 8.4). These holes are 239 subcircular to slightly elongated in outline with smooth to fairly irregular margins and can be 240 241 attributed to the trace fossil *Oichnus simplex*. A strong correlation (r = 0.92) between the maximum and minimum diameter of the drill hole is present (Fig. 8.5). There is a weak positive correlation (r =242 0.11) between test length and maximum drill hole length (Fig. 8.6). All bored specimens bear single 243 drill holes which completely penetrate the test. The drill holes are predominantly (74.28%) located 244

on the aboral side (Fig. 9.1) with a slight difference in test length between aborally (mean 17.21 mm)

and orally (mean 15.73 mm) drilled specimens (Fig. 9.2). There is no apparent preference of drill hole

location on either the anterior (51.42%) or the posterior side of the test (Fig. 9.3).

248

#### 249 **Discussion**

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Paleoenvironment and paleoecological interpretation.—Based on facies analysis and fossil contents, the Early-Middle Miocene sedimentary succession of Punta Foghe was deposited in a shallow inner sublittoral environment. Taphonomic and sedimentological signatures suggest moderate energy conditions affected by high energy events.

255 Agassiza is well represented in facies 2 and 5 indicating shallow settings with sandy sediments. Currently, this genus includes two extant species, both of which are restricted to tropical 256 257 seas, A. scobiculata having a bathymetric distribution from littoral to shallow sublittoral depths, while A. excentrica is more common at greater depths, from sublittoral to bathyal zones (Mortensen, 1951; 258 Chesher, 1972; Serafy, 1979; Kier, 1984; Lessios, 2005; Alvarado et al., 2010; Galván-Villa et al., 259 260 2018; Gondim et al., 2018). Species of *Agassizia* are deposit feeders living infaunally in fine sands and sandy-muddy sediments (Mortensen, 1951; Chesher, 1972; Serafy, 1979; Galvan-Villa et al., 261 262 2018; Gondim et al., 2018). Agassizia from the Miocene of Punta Foghe is morphologically very similar to A. scrobiculata, the type species of the genus, which has a small to medium globular test 263 with no anterior sulcus, an anterior ambulacrum (III) narrow and weakly depressed adapically with 264 uniserially arranged small pore-pairs bearing small penicillate tube-feet. The other ambulacra are 265 petaloid and weakly sunken. Pores in the anterior column of the anterior petals are entirely 266 267 rudimentary. Peripetalous and lateroanal fascioles are present.

Agassizia from the Miocene deposits studied herein is interpreted as a shallow infaunal form. 268 Since this echinoid lacks respiratory tube-feet in the distal half of the anterior column of the anterior 269 paired petals, it did not have the ability to develop a long respiratory funnel through the sediments to 270 the surface and could thus not burrow deeply. Agassizia is not common in the Miocene sedimentary 271 sequences of Sardinia. It is reported to occur in association with the scutellid Amphiope within coarse-272 grained (conglomeratic) levels of the Mores Formation (Lower Miocene) which represents littoral 273 environments with moderate energy conditions (Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2013). A single test was 274 also found in fine-grained sandstones of Porto Torres (Lower-Middle Miocene) associated to a 275 spatangoid-dominated fauna reflecting deeper sublittoral environments (Mancosu and Nebelsick, 276 277 2017a).

Clypeaster is also common in the examined deposit of Punta Foghe (from facies 2 to 5). Extant 278 representatives of the genus *Clypeaster* mostly inhabit soft-bottom areas of shallow continental 279 280 shelves (e.g., Nebelsick, 2020 and references therein). In the succession studied herein, *Clypeaster* is represented by different morphotypes, including C. calabrus, C. latirostris and C. marginatus. Based 281 on morphological features and comparison with recent analogues (see discussion in Mancosu and 282 Nebelsick, 2015, 2016 and 2017b), *Clypeaster calabrus* morphotype, with its highly-domed test with 283 thick and tumid margins and flat oral surface, and *Clypeaster latirostris* morphotype, with a lower 284 285 test and relatively thin margin, are interpreted as epibenthic and semi- to shallow infaunal forms, respectively. These morphotypes occur frequently in the Miocene sedimentary deposits of shallow 286 water settings (see Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2015, 2016, 2017b and discussion therein). Clypeaster 287 288 marginatus morphotype with a low, flattened test and thin margins is interpreted as shallowly buried to partially burrowed form. It rarely occurs in association of other Clypeaster morphotypes in shallow 289 sublittoral environments and more commonly as a minor component in spatangoid-dominated 290 assemblages of moderately deep sublittoral environments (Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2015, 2017b, 291 2019). 292

293 In the Facies 5, the echinoid assemblage also includes the brissid spatangoid *Plagiobrissus*, Echinocyamus and Koehleraster. Modern representatives of Plagiobrissus, such as P. grandis, are 294 mainly shallow water forms although it has been recorded at depth of 200 m and more (Mortensen, 295 1951; Serafy, 1979). Plagiobrissus grandis lives buried in shallow water sandy areas (Chesher, 1969; 296 297 Serafy, 1979; Hendler et al., 1995; Gondim et al., 2018 and references cited therein) and is typically found buried at a depth of 50 mm (Kier and Grant, 1965). Cassid gastropods, including Cassis 298 tuberosa and C. madagascariensis are the main predators of Plagiobrissus (Moore, 1956) that when 299 buried, exposes its long aboral spines, possibly as a defense against predators (Hendler et al., 1995). 300 *Plagiobrissus* is very rare in the sedimentary succession of Punta Foghe as well as in other Miocene 301 302 fossil deposits of Sardinia. In the Montiferru area, it is found associated with *Clypeaster marginatus* 303 in fine-grained sandstones.

Extant representatives of the genus Echinocyanus, including E. pusillus from the 304 Mediterranean and Atlantic Ocean, show a wide ecological distribution ranging from shallow waters 305 down to 1250 m depth (Mortensen, 1948b; Ghiold, 1982; Grun et al., 2014). Echinocyamus pusillus 306 commonly occurs nearshore at depth from 2 to 50 m (Tortonese, 1965; Zavodnik, 2003). It inhabits 307 coarse sandy to pebbly substrates in areas exposed to extensive wave and tidal current activity, but 308 also in medium sands bordering seagrass meadows (Telford et al., 1983; Telford, 1985; Grun et al., 309 310 2014). Another species, Echinocyamus crispus, lives in poorly sorted fine sands with seagrass in depths between 20 to 30 m in the Red Sea (Nebelsick, 1992a, b; Nebelsick and Kowalewski, 1999). 311 Echinocyamus is common if not locally abundant in the Miocene of Sardinia and occurs in littoral, 312 313 shallow and deep sublittoral settings, commonly co-occurring with spatangoid echinoids (Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2016, 2017a, 2019). 314

The single specimen of *Koehleraster* recognized herein shows a strict morphological affinity to the recent echinoneoid *Koehleraster abnormalis* (see Smith and Kroh, 2011), the ecology of which is poorly known. *Koehleraster* (previously attributed to the genus *Echinoneus*) occurs in the Indo-Pacific (Ghiold, 1989; Arachchige et al., 2019) from the intertidal to 85 m (Mortensen, 1948a; Lane

et al., 2000). It is reported to inhabit sands under coral heads in lagoon grass flats and under boulders
in shallow sublittoral environments (Sloan et al., 1979; Lane et al., 2000). *Koehleraster* occurs rarely
within the Miocene sequences of Sardinia in shallow and moderately deep sublittoral settings (see
Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2017a,b).

The remains of large oysters and Spondylus, which are commonly associated to clypeasteroid 323 echinoids, are consistent with other Miocene shallow water depositional settings of Sardinia 324 (Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2017b). Throughout the section, the presence of coralline algae points to 325 the photic zone, as does the presence of the larger benthic foraminifera Heterostegina and 326 Amphistegina which are symbiotrophs and today occur in tropical and warm-temperate seas (e.g., 327 328 Reiss and Hottinger, 1984; Betzler et al., 1997; Langer and Hottinger, 2000; Eder et al., 2016). 329 *Heterostegina* is found to prefer living on hard substrates (Reiss and Hottinger, 1984), in clear water, it may reach >100 m depth with the optimal range between 40 and 70 m (Hottinger, 1983, 1997; 330 331 Hohenegger, 1994). In the Oligo-Miocene, it is reported to inhabit high energy forereef environments (BouDagher-Fadel et al., 2000) of 20-30 m depth (Banner and Hodgkinson, 1991). Living 332 Amphistegina is adapted to high-energy conditions although this species also occurs in mud-free 333 sands in areas of seagrass or coralline algae and in reefal areas down to depths of 35m (McKee et al., 334 1959). Amphistegina is found in water depths not exceeding 130 m (Hallock, 1999) but its main depth 335 336 range is reported at 5–20 m (Murray, 1973).

The taphonomic and sedimentary signatures are consistent with a shallow water setting with 337 moderate energy conditions, with sporadic high energy events and related episodes of rapid 338 339 sedimentation. Differences in the state of preservation between the spatangoid Agassizia and the clypeasteroid *Clypeaster* can be recognized. *Agassizia* remains occur almost exclusively as complete 340 pristine tests, though lacking spines. In contrast, *Clypeaster* is present in a spectrum of preservation 341 states ranging from well-preserved specimens to highly fragmented remains with evidence of 342 encrustation and bioerosion, with multiple circular holes (Entobia) representing post-mortem 343 344 colonization by endolithic organisms.

During high-energy events, spatangoids living within their shallow burrows and their freshly 345 dead fragmented remnants, could be scoured out, and then after limited transport be smothered by a 346 thick layer of sediment. This led to excellently preserved surface preservation of both complete tests 347 and larger fragments. Agassizia remains lying on the surface for a prolonged amount of time were 348 readily fragmented and destroyed being thin and fragile. By contrast, Clypeaster, with their thick and 349 robust tests, experienced longer surface residence times, and were exposed to biostratinomic 350 processes including fragmentation and bioinfestation. This resulted in the preservation of small 351 abraded, encrusted and bioeroded fragments along with well-preserved, complete test remains. The 352 accumulation of larger benthic foraminifera, with densely packed complete and fragmented shells 353 showing imbrication, is consistent with episodes of high energy conditions. 354

355 The carbonate succession studied herein pertains to the lower portion of the thick sedimentary succession cropping out along the coast of the Montiferru area (see Mancosu and Nebelsick, 2019). 356 357 The echinoid fauna represents somewhat shallower sublittoral environments than those described by Mancosu and Nebelsick (2019), which are characterised by a more diversified echinoid fauna, 358 including regular forms, such as the diadematoid Diadema and the camarodonts Tripneustes and 359 Schizechinus, and irregular echinoids, with the clypeasteroids Clypeaster marginatus and 360 Echinocyamus and different spatangoid taxa, including Brissopsis, Hemipatagus, Echinocardium and 361 362 various (diverse) schizasterids, typical of the fine-grained facies of outer sublittoral environments.

363

*Predation in spatangoid taphonomy and paleoecology.*—The drill holes on *Agassizia* tests are interpreted herein as the result of predation by cassid gastropods. The attribution is supported by the general shape and size of the bore holes and the well documented gastropod–echinoid interactions as found in living populations of both regular and irregular echinoids, including spatangoids (e.g., Moore, 1956; Hughes and Hughes, 1971; Hughes, 1986; Gerace and Lindsay, 1992; Lindsay, 1996; Grun, 2017; Tewfik and Scheuer, 2013; Tyler et al., 2018).

370 Moore (1956) observed *Cassis madagascarensis* preying during the day upon the shallow 371 infaunal spatangoid Plagiobrissus grandis. The cassid gastropod ploughs and burrows into the sand substrate at a sharp angle in pursuit of the prey which is then removed from the sediment. After the 372 predatory attack, the urchin is left with an area of the test devoid of spines within which a circular 373 374 drill hole is found. Hughes (1986) described in detail the hunting technique used by the cassid Galeodea echinophora to prey upon the infaunal spatangoid Echinocardium cordatum. After 375 detecting a buried *Echinocardium* by olfaction, the gastropod attacks the infaunal prey, extending its 376 proboscis down through the sediments. Although in some occasions, the prey remains buried 377 throughout the attack, more often *Echinocardium*, by vigorously moving their spines and tube feet, 378 379 rises to the sediment surface. A few prey specimens were, however, attacked and consumed entirely 380 within the sediment. The predator crawls upon its prey, engulfing the echinoid with its foot, partly removing the echinoid spines, and drilling into the test using its radula and sulfuric acid, whereby a 381 382 circular puncturing wound is produced. The remaining central disc is then pushed into the test's cavity producing the bore hole. The gastropod extends its long proboscis throughout the interior of the test 383 thereby consuming the internal tissues (Hughes and Hughes, 1981; Hughes, 1986). Cassids generally 384 bore a single hole into the urchin test, although in some cases more than one gastropod individual 385 attack the same prey object, either simultaneously or sequentially, thus producing several bore holes 386 387 (Hughes, 1986). The cassid Phalium granulatum uses a mode of attack while foraging upon buried spatangoids (see Hughes and Hughes, 1981). 388

The measured drilling frequency in *Agassizia* (45.33%) is comparable to levels of gastropod predation on spatangoid echinoids from the Miocene of South Australia as documented for *Lovenia forbesi* (32%) and *Eupatagus* ssp. (46-48%) (McNamara, 1994). Higher drilling intensities (96.8%) were documented for the extant *Meoma ventricosa* by Dexter (2011) and Tyler et al. (2018).

393 Statistical analyses performed herein indicate no evidence of size selectivity by predators. As
394 discussed by Grun (2017), cassid predators rarely exhibit size selectivity on their echinoid prey.

395 Nebelsick and Kowalewski (1999) noted that where size selectivity is present, a statistically 396 distinguishable distributions of drilled and undrilled echinoid specimens is expected.

Comparison of test length distributions between drilled (mean 16.83 mm; median 17.06 mm) and undrilled tests (mean 15.53 mm; median 15.12 mm) of *Agassizia* indicates a slight, nonsignificant difference, which suggests that predators did not hunt a distinct size class of prey. Furthermore, predator size, as indicated by drill hole dimensions, is only slightly correlated with prey test size (Fig. 8.6), indicating that distinct size range of cassid predators did not select certain range size of prey. *Agassizia* lived shallowly burrowed within the sediment and occurred in large numbers. It is thus likely that the cassid predator preyed upon randomly encountered echinoids.

In contrast to prey size, a clear drilling stereotypy is recognized, with the prey mainly attacked 404 from on the upper, aboral surface (Fig. 9.3). Handling by the predator in a preferred anterior-posterior 405 orientation is, however, not present. The random distribution of drill holes over the aboral surface of 406 Agassizia, with fewer incidences occurring on the oral side of the test, is consistent with observations 407 of the distribution of drill holes in the test of extant Echinocardium (Hughes, 1986), which also 408 mainly affects the aboral side of the test. This is in contrast with observations on the Caribbean 409 spatangoid *Meoma ventricosa* (Dexter, 2011; Tyler et al., 2018) with the majority of drill holes 410 411 occurring on the oral side of the test.

Drilling predation by cassid gastropods may be an important factor influencing the preservation of spatangoid echinoid tests (see Tyler et al., 2018). Potential predation-related biases should be considered in estimating drilling frequency in relation to predation intensity and size and site selectivity. Cassid predators can enhance the preservation of echinoid tests, preying upon the spatangoids within the sediment. Additionally, they create an enlarged opening and remove internal soft tissue, including the peristomal and periproctal membranes, thus accelerating sediment infill and burial of the test (Tyler et al., 2018). This indicates that echinoid tests preyed by drilling gastropods

might have a greater chance of preservation than echinoids killed by durophagous predator, which
extensively damage the echinoid test (see Grun, 2016).

By contrast, if echinoid tests are weakened by drill holes, they would be more easily destroyed 421 by mechanical, chemical, and biological processes, leading to the underestimation of drilling 422 frequencies. In the case of *Meoma ventricosa*, the high percentage of drilled tests suggests that drill 423 holes did not weaken the test sufficiently to lead to preferential breakage of drilled specimens (Tyler 424 et al., 2018). This was also observed by Nebelsick and Kowalewski (1999) for Echinocyanus and 425 Fibularia from the Red Sea. Drilling predation may also introduce a size bias when large holes occur 426 on small tests (Grun and Nebelsick, 2015) which become more prone to be destroyed, and when large 427 predators totally destroy the test of a much smaller prey during the hunting process (Grun et al., 2014). 428

The random orientation of complete drilled tests of Agassizia, with respect to the bedding 429 plane, and their state of preservation, indicate that predated spatangoids suffered exumation and 430 limited reworking. The rapid infilling of small-medium tests by fine-grained sediments, which 431 entered through the peristome and periproct, both of which will have lost their membranes through 432 decay, as by the newly produced bore hole, after all internal soft tissues were fed upon by the 433 gastropod predators, possible enhanced the preservation potential. The subsequent overturning and 434 435 redeposition by high energy events and final burial under thick layer of sediments then led to the preservation of otherwise thin and fragile spatangoid tests. 436

Predation is considered one of the major selective force in the evolution of morphological and behavioral characteristics in marine invertebrates, including species distributions, life habits and population densities (Vermeij, 1977; Bardhan and Chattopadhyay, 2003). Morphological innovations and diversification in spatangoids have been related to the increasing predator pressure by cassid gastropods (Smith, 1984; McNamara, 1994; Kanazawa, 2004, 2010; Saitoh and Kanazawa, 2019), which diversified during the Eocene (Farrar et al., 2020; Petsios et al., 2021). Specialized morphology, refuge by increasing in size and test thickness, infaunalisation, habitat selection,

colonization of fine-grained sediments in both deeper water settings or gravelly substrates in shallow
unstable environments, and related functional and morphological adaptations, are interpreted as antipredatory strategies adopted by spatangoids (McNamara, 1994; McKinney and McNamara, 1991;
Kanazawa, 2004, 2010; Saitho and Kanazawa, 2019).

An antipredator adaptation is suggested for Agassizia that depends on high-density 448 populations. Agassizia does not appear to possess any specific morphological adaptations to 449 minimizing predation risk, as it lacks the long and robust aboral defensive spines as present, for 450 example, in Lovenia elongata, which inhabits shallow water, coarse grained environments (Lawrence 451 and Ferber, 1971; Ferber and Lawrence, 1976). Agassizia also lacks the functional adaptation to 452 burrow deeply into the sediment. The gregarious behavior in Agassizia, as suggested by the high 453 number of preserved tests, allowed a defensive response against predation by providing safety in 454 numbers in reducing the per capita frequency of attack by predators. 455

Aggregating behavior has been documented in spatangoid echinoids both in shallow and deeper water settings (e.g., Ursin, 1960; Buchanan, 1966; Chesher, 1969; Ferber and Lawrence, 1976; Scheibling, 1982; Norris, 1991; Young et al., 1992; Poulin and Féral, 1995; Hollertz et al., 1998; Nakamura, 2001; Keesing and Irvine, 2013; Pawson and Pawson, 2013). In some cases, aggregation is related to substrate preferences and feeding (Chesher, 1969; Norris, 1991; Poulin and Féral, 1995) and reproduction (Buchanan, 1966); in other, no obvious explanations are provided.

Safety in numbers, including the dilution effect of living in dense assemblages, is seen relevant for influencing the possibility of being preyed, as the larger the group of prey animals, the smaller the chance that any given individual will be the prey (e.g., Foster and Treherne, 1981; Lehtonen and Jaatinen, 2016). Defensive aggregating behavior in the regular sea urchins *Strongylocentrotus* and *Echinometra* reducing the intensity of predation by crabs and lobsters and sea stars, respectively, has been discussed by Bernstein et al. (1983) and Morishita and Barreto (2011).

### 469 **Conclusions**

470

A spatangoid-dominated sedimentary succession from the Early-Middle Miocene of Sardinia was
investigated with respect to abiotic and biotic aspects, including predation, with a paleoecological
and taphonomic perspective.

The sedimentary succession consists of carbonate lithologies including (containing) a diversified echinoid fauna with the dominance of the spatangoid *Agassizia* and, subordinately, the clypeasteroid *Clypeaster*. Minor components include the irregular echinoids *Koehleraster*, *Plagiobrissus* and *Echinocyamus* and remains of regular echinoids, namely diadematoids and small camarodont echinoids.

Echinoid diversity and accompanying fauna (including large ostreids and *Spondylus* and larger benthic foraminifera) and flora (coralline algae), along with taphonomic and sedimentological signatures, support the interpretation of an inner sublittoral environment with moderate energy conditions affected by high energy events.

Agassizia remains consist predominantly of intact and well-preserved tests which commonly 483 bear subcircular drill holes that are interpreted as cassid gastropod predation. Frequency of drilling 484 485 predation (44.87%) and behavior of predatory gastropods, with no echinoids featuring multiple drill holes, indicate a high drilling success for the cassids on these infaunal spatangoids. A slight statistical 486 difference in test length between drilled and undrilled specimens along with a weak correlation 487 between predator-prey dimension indicate no size selectively by cassid predators. Site selectivity is 488 489 observed with attack sites favoring the aboral side of spatangoid test (74.28%). Drilled spatangoid 490 tests undergone exhumation and rapid infilling by fine-grained sediments, trough the periproct and peristome, along with the bore holes produced by gastropod predators. Subsequent overturning and 491 re-sedimentation of the tests by high energy events, with final burial under thick layer of sediments, 492 493 promote the preservation of thin and fragile spatangoid tests.

494 Potential biases related to drilling predation and biostratinomy are considered for a more495 thorough understanding of the relationship between drilling frequency and predation intensity.

Antipredator behavior adopted by the shallow infaunal spatangoid *Agassizia* in inner sublittoral environments with high predation rates by cassid gastropods possibly rely on gregarious life-history strategies, rather than defense mechanisms and deep burial depths.

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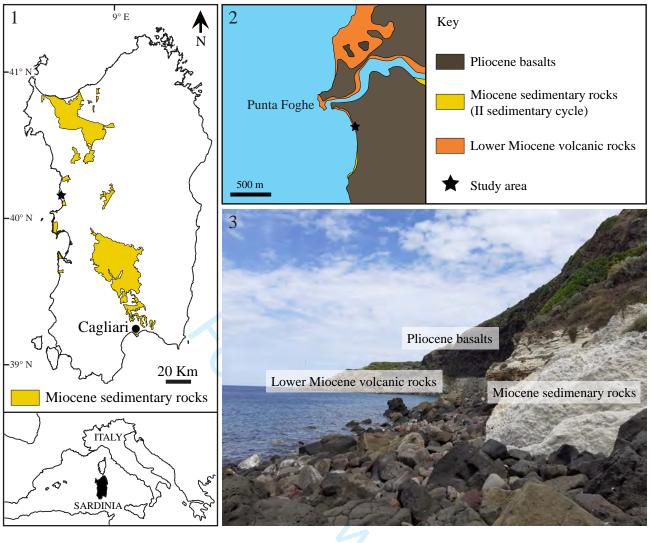
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893	Figure captions
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- Figure 1. (1) Distribution of Miocene sedimentary rocks in Sardinia and location of the study area;
  (2) Simplified geological map of the study area (modified from Carboni et al., 2010) with the
  location of the stratigraphic section measured herein; (3) Panoramic view of the volcanosedimentary succession.
- Figure 2. Stratigraphic section with distribution and relative abundance of echinoids and associated
  fauna and flora. Und. = Undetermined. F1-F5 = Facies 1 to 5.

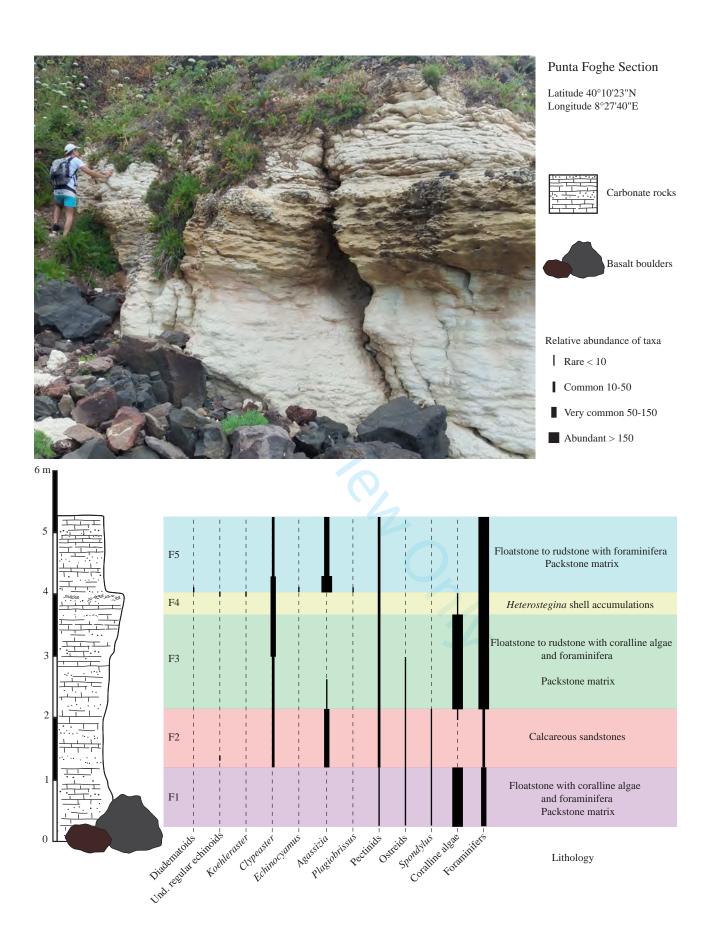
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901	Figure 3. Agassizia test (in aboral, oral, lateral and posterior view) divided into 8 sectors by three
902	perpendicular planes.

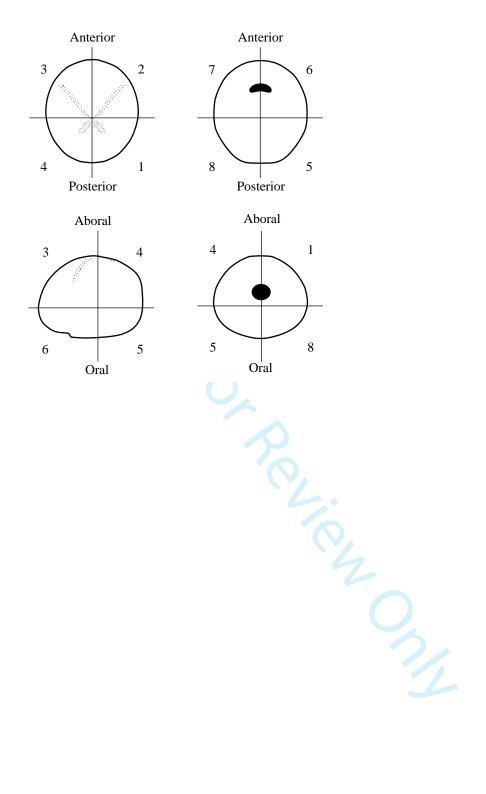
- Figure 4. (1) *Clypeaster* test affected by fragmentation (Facies 3); (2) Test fragment of *Clypeaster*affected by multiple circular drill holes. Scale bar = 1 cm.
- Figure 5. (1) Plan view of floatstone to rudstone composed of foraminifera (*Heterostegina*) in a
  bioclast packstone matrix (Facies 5) with abundant echinoid remains; (2, 3) Details showing
  accumulation of complete tests of *Agassizia* (A), test fragments of *Clypeaster* (B), regular
  echinoid interambulacral plates (C) and pectinid remains (D).
- Figure 6. Remains of the spatangoid *Plagiobrissus* (A), the clypeasteroid *Echinocyamus* (B) and the
  benthic foraminifera *Heterostegina* (C) (Facies 5). Scale bar = 1 cm.
- Figure 7. (1) Drilled specimen of *Agassizia* in aboral view; (2) Close up of the drill hole; (3) Drilled
  specimen of *Agassizia* in lateral view; (4) Close up of the drill hole; (1, 3) Scale bars = 1 cm;
  (2, 4) Scale bars = 0.5 cm.
- Figure 8. Size selectively analysis: (1) Test size (Length) distribution of *Agassizia*; (2) Test length
  distribution of undrilled specimens; (3) Test length distribution of drilled specimens; (4) Drill
  hole size distribution; (5) Drill hole length and width plot; (6) Test length and drill hole length
  plot; r = Pearson's correlation coefficient.
- Figure 9. Site selectivity analysis: (1) Drill hole site distribution; (2) Difference in test length between
  aborally and orally drilled specimens; (3) Drill hole location on anterior/posterior side of the
  test.

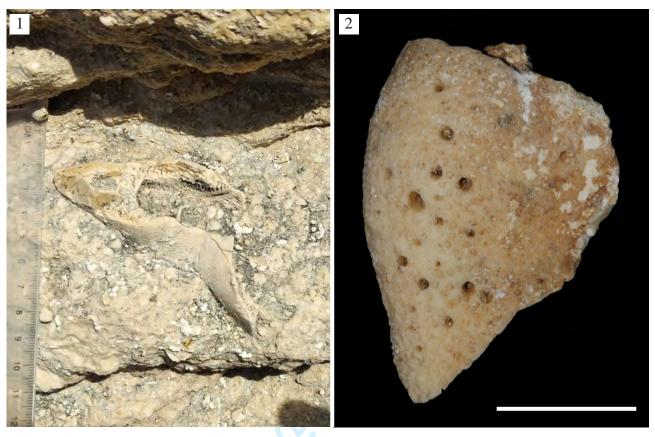


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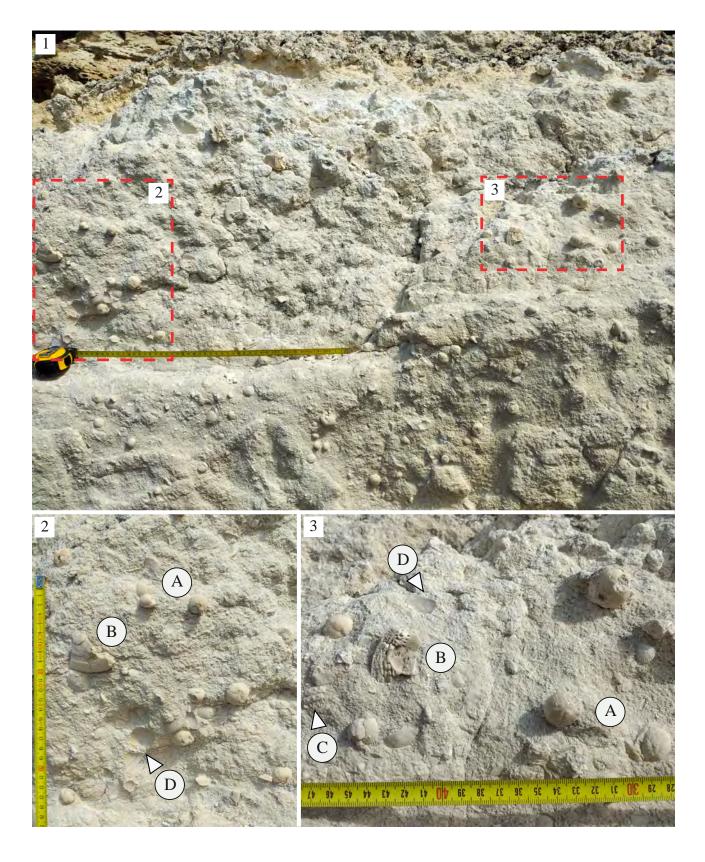


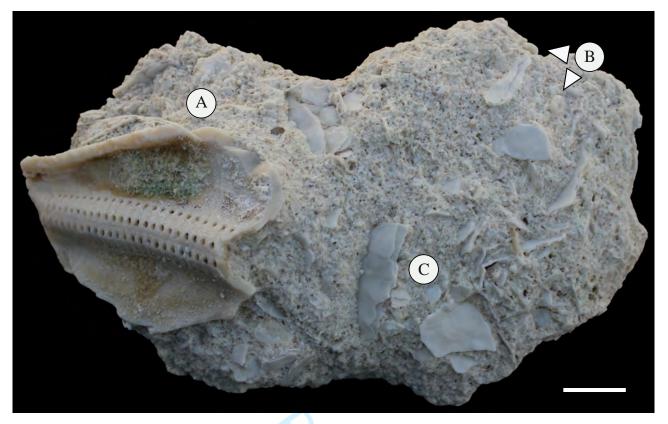
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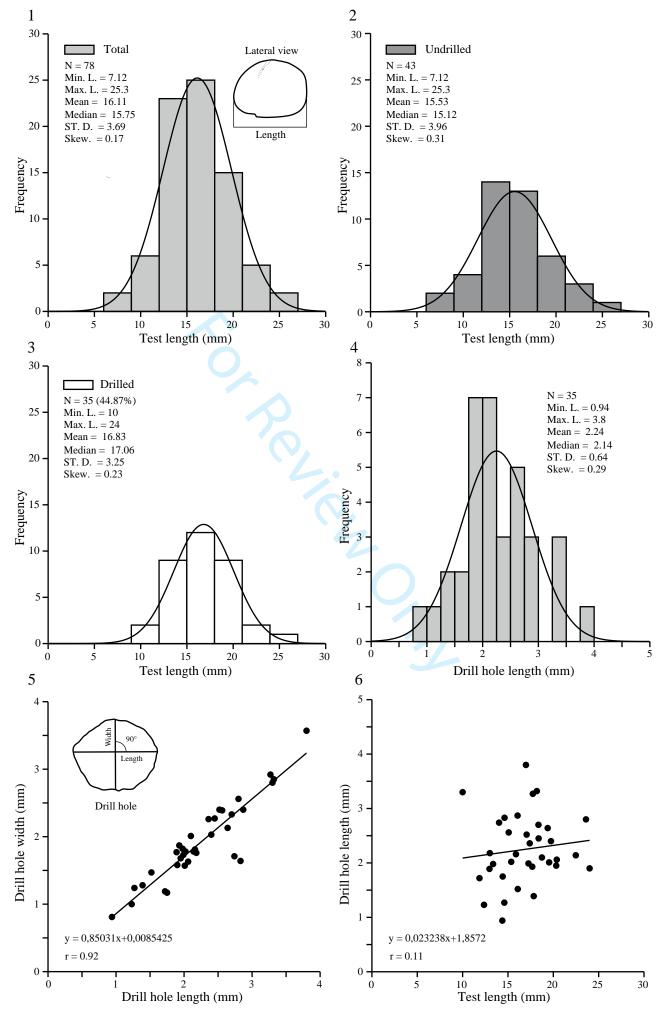












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