

1 The fossil record of ecdysis, and trends in the moulting behaviour of trilobites

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10 ABSTRACT: Ecdysis, the process of moulting an exoskeleton, is one of the key characters uniting  
11 arthropods, nematodes and a number of smaller phyla into Ecdysozoa. The arthropod fossil record,  
12 particularly trilobites, eurypterids and decapod crustaceans, yields information on moulting,  
13 although the current focus is predominantly descriptive and lacks a broader evolutionary  
14 perspective. We here review literature on the fossil record of ecdysis, synthesizing research on the  
15 behaviour, evolutionary trends, and phylogenetic significance of moulting throughout the  
16 Phanerozoic. Approaches vary widely between taxonomic groups, but an overall theme uniting  
17 these works suggests that identifying moults in the palaeontological record must take into account  
18 the morphology, taphonomy and depositional environment of fossils. We also quantitatively  
19 analyse trends in trilobite ecdysis based on a newly generated database of published incidences of  
20 moulting behaviour. This preliminary work reveals significant taxonomic and temporal signal in  
21 the trilobite moulting fossil record, with free cheek moulting being prevalent across all orders and  
22 throughout the Phanerozoic, and peaks of cephalic moulting in Phacopida during the Ordovician  
23 and rostral plate moulting in Redlichiida during the Cambrian. This study and a review of the

24 literature suggest that it is feasible to extract large-scale evolutionary information from the fossil  
25 record of moulting.

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27 *Keywords:* Ecdysis, Moulting, Arthropoda, Trilobita, Evolution, Fossil record

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## 29 **1. Introduction**

30 Ecdysis, the process of moulting an exoskeleton, is one of the key characters uniting  
31 arthropods, nematodes and a number of smaller phyla in the aptly named group Ecdysozoa (Fig.  
32 1) (Telford et al., 2008). Ecdysozoans include both the most abundant and the most diverse animal  
33 groups on the planet today, representing over 80% of total biodiversity. They have been key  
34 components of ecosystems since the early Cambrian when trilobites and various soft-bodied  
35 Burgess Shale-type ecdysozoans including arthropods, lobopodians, priapulids and  
36 palaeoscolecids dominated marine animal communities (Budd and Jensen, 2000), and have  
37 remained important throughout the whole of the Phanerozoic. Understanding the processes and  
38 behaviour of ecdysis in the fossil record is important because this life history strategy would have  
39 imparted constraints on morphology throughout the evolution of modern animal groups. In  
40 addition, it allows us to access information on growth and development in deep time, which can  
41 help resolve the affinity of enigmatic taxa early in the evolution of animals. This is particularly  
42 important because many of these Cambrian fossils are early diverging stem lineage taxa that are  
43 critically important for breaking up long branches, helping us to resolve current ambiguous  
44 relationships in modern taxa (e.g. Legg et al., 2012). Additionally, studying ecdysis in the fossil  
45 record can provide insight into understanding ecology as one of the only examples of direct  
46 evidence of behaviour preserved in the fossil record.

47 For both extant and extinct taxa, moulting is best known for the arthropods. The arthropod  
48 external cuticle is a chitinous exoskeleton that provides protection from mechanical injury and  
49 desiccation, while also giving strong structural support for muscle attachment and locomotion  
50 (Moussian, 2013). This rigid exoskeleton is moulted during normal growth and development, at  
51 which time regeneration and repair of damage may also occur. In extant taxa, moulting of the  
52 exoskeleton is a relatively rapid process, with actual exuviation and subsequent hardening of the  
53 new exoskeleton taking only a brief period of time (minutes to hours generally, but highly variable  
54 between taxa). The brevity of this physical process is reflected in the fossil record by the rarity of  
55 specimens that are preserved mid-moult (e.g. García-Bellido and Collins, 2004; Peel et al., 2013)  
56 or during the immediate post-exuviation stage when the exoskeleton is not yet fully hardened (e.g.  
57 Whittington, 1990). During this process the arthropod is unable to move to escape threats and is  
58 vulnerable to desiccation, leading to an evolutionary constraint for exuviation to occur as rapidly  
59 as possible and behavioural adaptations that minimise risk (e.g. mass moulting behaviour and  
60 seeking shelter during moulting).

61 The full process of moulting begins with a complex series of biological interactions long  
62 before the actual act of exuviation takes place. The exoskeleton consists of cuticle that was secreted  
63 by underlying epidermal cells, to which it remains attached during its functional lifetime  
64 (Moussian, 2013). The process of moulting starts with the separation of the cuticle from the  
65 epidermis, referred to as apolysis, after which the epidermal cells undergo a round of cell division  
66 to increase surface area, followed by the secretion a new layer of cuticle, which remains soft until  
67 the old cuticle is shed (Nijhout, 2013). A moulting fluid is secreted between the old and new  
68 cuticles, and in some taxa is involved with digestion and reabsorption of the old exoskeleton. At  
69 some point, all structures associated with the old cuticle (e.g. muscle attachment, sensory neurons,  
70 circulatory system, etc.) must be transferred to the new cuticle (Ewer, 2005). The old cuticle is  
71 then split open along specific lines of weakness, usually by movement of the body or through an  
72 increase in internal pressure, so that the arthropod can emerge and the new cuticle can begin to

73 harden. This process is controlled by the hormone ecdysone in all arthropods (Krishnakumaran  
74 and Schneiderman, 1970; Nijhout, 2013), although there is great variation in the number of  
75 moulting episodes within the phylum, with some taxa requiring many moults to reach adult size,  
76 while others can reach the same size in fewer moults by growing in larger increments at each moult  
77 (Nijhout, 2013).

78         Most palaeontological data that exist for arthropod moulting are derived from the trilobites,  
79 eurypterids and crustaceans. Research on moulting tends to be descriptive and focused on  
80 particular specimens or assemblages, with only a few studies examining the fossil record of ecdysis  
81 as a whole. Henningsmoen (1975) describes in detail the characteristic modes of moulting  
82 observed in different groups of trilobites, but does not examine the evolutionary significance of  
83 these trends. A broader look at such evolutionary trends is taken by Brandt (2002), who examines  
84 the link between trilobite moulting method and geological survivorship of taxa. A brief treatment  
85 of the fossil record of moulting is used by Valentine and Collins (2000) in conjunction with  
86 molecular phylogenetic information to make broad inferences on the process of evolution within  
87 Ecdysozoa, but this focuses mostly on developmental data in modern taxa and does not succinctly  
88 summarise or integrate the broad record known from fossils. A more fossil-based perspective is  
89 provided by Speyer (1990), who evaluates the reliability of the fossil record for understanding  
90 moulting behaviour in a wide variety of moulting groups, including trilobites (based heavily on  
91 Henningsmoen, 1975), decapod crustaceans, insects, and spiders. An informative and substantial  
92 body of research focused specifically on evidence of moulting in the fossil record, particularly for  
93 the arthropods, has been accumulating since these reviews. Here, we bring together this  
94 information into a large-scale literature review examining the prevalence and pattern of moulting  
95 in fossil ecdysozoans, with the aim of reviewing the current knowledge on this major  
96 morphological innovation. This literature review comprises the first half of our paper, with the  
97 second half focused on a quantitative evaluation of the patterns in ecdysial behaviour in trilobites  
98 in relation to taxonomic and temporal signal.

## 99 **1.1 Criteria for distinguishing moults from carcasses in the fossil record**

100 Describing patterns of ecdysis in the fossil record necessitates the ability to distinguish  
101 preserved exoskeleton moults from carcasses. Only in rare cases have specimens been preserved  
102 mid-moult (e.g. García-Bellido and Collins, 2004; Peel et al., 2013) with both the empty moult  
103 and the exiting animal in close association. In the vast majority of cases, individual specimens  
104 must be examined to determine if they are empty moults or full carcasses. Important aspects to  
105 consider when identifying moults include the locations of ‘gape sutures’, planes of weakness  
106 where the exoskeleton splits to produce an opening through which the individual exits; movements  
107 of the animal to facilitate opening of the exoskeleton ‘gape sutures’; the direction of exuviation  
108 (anteriorly or posteriorly); the orientation during exuviation (dorsal- or ventral-up); and the final  
109 configuration of exuviae segments that may be recorded in the fossil record. Interpretations of  
110 moulting behaviour can only be made from definite exuviae, so as not to introduce misleading  
111 signals on, for example, the locations of ‘gape sutures’ identified from fragmented carcasses.  
112 Physical disturbance of carcasses (e.g. from scavenging, decay, currents, reworking, or  
113 compaction) can lead to preservation of disarticulated assemblages, and distinguishing these from  
114 true empty moults requires consideration of the morphology, taphonomic and depositional  
115 environment of the fossil. The procedure for identifying moults depends on the taxonomic group,  
116 owing to the broad morphological and behavioural variation within Ecdysozoa. This is more  
117 difficult for some groups, particularly those with suture lines that close following exuviation (e.g.  
118 modern *Limulus*; Vrazo and Braddy, 2011), but may be aided by consideration of the taphonomic  
119 aspects detailed below.

120 Numerous criteria have been suggested for identifying fossil moults, based on observations  
121 from fossil material in previous studies (Henningsmoen, 1975; Whittington, 1990; Braddy, 2001;  
122 Tetlie et al., 2008; Ebbestad et al., 2013). We suggest that at least Criteria 1 and/or 2 below are  
123 crucial for identifying a moulted exuvia. Criterion 3 may provide additional evidence for  
124 identifying moults, but only if Criteria 1 and/or 2 have been met and the depositional environment

125 and preservational processes considered (Criterion 4). Criteria 4-6 provide further support and are  
126 dependent on the preservation type (soft-part; mineralised).

127 Criteria for identifying moults in the fossil record:

128 (1) Presence of suture lines showing evidence of having been opened. Criteria 1 and/or 2 are  
129 crucial for identification of a fossil moult specimen.

130 (2) Repeated configurations of specific exoskeletal parts (for examples see Figs. 2 to 6).  
131 Criteria 1 and/or 2 are crucial for identification of a fossil moult specimen.

132 (3) Disturbance of mineralised exoskeletal features in a systematic, repeated and characteristic  
133 way. This may include flattening or distortion of elements (Braddy, 2001); superimposition  
134 of dorsal and ventral surfaces; telescoping of segments (Braddy, 2001); and possibly  
135 crushing of the glabella (Figs. 2C, 4B) (Ebbestad et al., 2013). The exact nature of the  
136 disturbance may vary between different assemblages and types of fossils. Identification of  
137 these types of features may assist with recognising fossil moults in taxa where suture lines  
138 close after exuviation, for example with the scorpions where the relative positioning of  
139 anatomical features allows for identification of fossil moults even without suture lines  
140 (McCoy and Brandt, 2009). Generally, Criterion 3 would not be enough on its own to  
141 conclusively identify a moult assemblage, but may provide additional evidence if Criteria  
142 1 and/or 2 are met and if Criterion 4 has been considered.

143 (4) Consideration of contextual information, including biostratigraphic data,  
144 palaeoenvironmental conditions, and preservational processes. Evidence indicating a quiet  
145 depositional environment with low energy conditions and a low degree of transportation is  
146 preferred for moulting assemblages, as it would preclude post-depositional disarticulation  
147 that could cause carcasses to look like empty moults. Avoiding heavily reworked and/or  
148 time averaged deposits also reduces the chance of incorrectly identifying carcasses as  
149 moults. This type of information is not enough on its own to identify a moult, but would  
150 provide supporting evidence for moults identified using Criteria 1, 2 and/or 3.

151 (5) Lack of clear internal carcass features, including: the midgut and/or gut contents (as some  
152 arthropods moult part of the gut with the exuviae); musculature; and the nervous or  
153 circulatory system. This criterion is only applicable at localities known to have soft-part  
154 preservation, so is not diagnostic on its own for the arthropod taxa that comprise the vast  
155 majority of the fossil record of ecdysis, including trilobites, eurypterids and crustaceans.  
156 Only rarely are these taxa found with soft-part preservation (e.g. Whittington, 1990) and  
157 so a lack of internal organs in arthropod taxa does not necessarily indicate a moult unless  
158 minimally Criteria 1 and/or 2 are also met. Criterion 5 is more relevant when discussing  
159 the ecdysis fossil record of lobopodians, loriciferans, priapulids and stem-lineage  
160 arthropods without a hardened exoskeleton.

161 (6) Lack of evidence of behaviours associated with body fossils, such as predation and  
162 scavenging. For eurypterids and crustaceans at least, moult assemblages are thought to be  
163 better preserved than carcasses, because they would not be a target for scavenging and  
164 predatory activities (Clarke and Ruedemann, 1912; Feldmann and Tshudy, 1987; Braddy,  
165 2001). Again, this criterion is not enough on its own to identify a moult assemblage, but  
166 provides supporting evidence for specimens that minimally meet Criteria 1 and/or 2.

167 Preservation potential must also be considered when investigating the moult fossil record.  
168 Moults in animals with thickened exoskeletons, such as Trilobita, may have increased preservation  
169 potential as compared to carcasses. This could result in a bias to moults in the fossil record of these  
170 groups, exacerbating inflation already present from the fact that one individual produces numerous  
171 moults during its lifetime (but only one carcass). This bias is also dependent on additional moulting  
172 behaviours. Specifically, some taxa consume their moults entirely, while others reabsorb  
173 exoskeletal material for energy conservation (Brandt, 2002). Consequently, moults of some clades  
174 may be more fragile (for example eurypterids; Vrazo et al., 2014), with decreased preservation  
175 potential compared to their respective carcasses. Further, body sections in segmented ecdysozoans  
176 are more likely to become disarticulated in the moult as connective tissue may be lacking. However,

177 the opposite could also be true; preserved carcasses could appear to be moults (based on criterion  
178 3 above) due to the presence of exoskeletal distortion following the rapid decay of soft connective  
179 tissue (Hegna, 2012). Factors such as these may decrease the likelihood of moult preservation, but  
180 the lack of published experimental taphonomic (decay) data comparing moults and carcasses  
181 compounds this knowledge gap (although see Hegna, 2012, for preliminary data on crustacean  
182 decay experiments). A number of criteria must therefore be considered when attempting to justify  
183 a moult identification, and decisions must be rooted within specific contextual knowledge of the  
184 clade and depositional environment.

## 185 **2. Literature review of the fossil record of moulting**

186 The fossil record of moulting consists mainly of specimens belonging to the phylum  
187 Arthropoda, or falling on the stem lineage to this phylum (e.g. lobopodians), however the smaller  
188 ecdysozoan phyla Priapulida, Tardigrada and Loricifera, and the vermiform cycloneuralian group  
189 Palaeoscolecida, also have preserved evidence of moulting. The ecdysozoan phyla Nematoda,  
190 Nematomorpha, and Kinorhyncha have poor or absent fossil records and no fossil moulting  
191 assemblages have yet been found. In taxonomic studies, individual trilobites are often  
192 distinguished as an empty moult or an unmoulted carcass, providing information on the ecdysial  
193 mode for that group and on growth and development. The ecdysial fossil record also provides  
194 insight into unique behaviours, such as mass moulting and reabsorption/retention of previous  
195 moults.

### 196 **2.1. Trilobite ecdysis**

197 The majority of literature published on ecdysis in the fossil record concerns patterns of  
198 moulting in Class Trilobita. This group was extremely long-lived and diverse, living from the  
199 Early Cambrian until their disappearance in the fossil record at the end-Permian mass extinction,  
200 following a drawn-out decline (Brandt, 2002). In addition to being geologically successful and  
201 geographically diverse, trilobites filled numerous niches, including as predators, scavengers and



202 filter-feeders. Trilobites have been variously interpreted as related to the mandibulates,  
203 chelicerates and as stem lineage arthropods (see Budd and Telford, 2009; Edgecombe, 2010 for a  
204 review), but regardless of their exact phylogenetic affinity, they are important as early arthropods  
205 owing to their abundance in Palaeozoic marine environments. Their thick cuticles had a high  
206 preservation potential; providing researchers with extensive collections of material with which to  
207 investigate biostratigraphy, biogeography, and their morphology, development and ecology.  
208 Trilobites were a key component of ancient marine ecosystems, with a complex evolutionary  
209 history shaped by their ability to ecdyse. Understanding their ecdysial behaviours is central to the  
210 study of the early evolution of Arthropoda and its evolution for the next 540 million years  
211 (Henningsmoen, 1975).

212 Trilobite moult configurations (Figs. 2, 3), the repeated patterns of fragmented exuviae  
213 preserved in the fossil record, demonstrate that the ecdysial behaviours employed by trilobites  
214 were highly varied. These behaviours have been reconstructed using the consistent patterns  
215 observed in empty moult configurations, because no specimens have yet been found that preserve  
216 a trilobite midway through the act of moulting. The most common methods of ecdysis across  
217 Trilobita are the opening of the facial sutures (Figs. 2-4) (sometimes including the rostral suture,  
218 figs. 4G-J), usually followed by the release and/or inversion of the librigenae (free cheeks), and a  
219 disarticulation between the cephalon and the thoracopygon (the rest of the body, including thorax  
220 and pygidium). Other behaviours have also been described in the literature (Henningsmoen, 1975),  
221 including: breaks at other points along the thorax (Figs. 2B, C, 3K, L); displacement of the  
222 pygidium (Fig. 3J); removal of the rostral plate and ventral exuviation of the animal; and release  
223 of the librigenae followed by dislocation of the cranidium from the thorax (Fig. 2F). These modes  
224 have been dissected into the resulting ‘characteristic’ configurations that are preserved in the fossil  
225 record (Budil and Bruthansová, 2005, fig. 3). For example, Salterian moulting (Henningsmoen,  
226 1975) consists of a break at the joint between the cephalon and the thorax during ecdysis, and the  
227 subsequent inversion of the cephalon to rest with the anterior edge towards the thoracopygon (Fig.

228 3I), resulting in Salter's Configuration (Richter, 1937). The trilobite would arch its body during  
229 ecdysis, angling the dorsal cephalon towards the substrate. This mode of moulting may also have  
230 produced different exuviae configurations, if the cephalic angle was too small for inversion (for  
231 example, in *Trimerus stelmophorus*, Busch and Swartz, 1985).

232 Many adult trilobite taxa were not restricted to a single method of ecdysis. The mode  
233 employed by the individual likely depended on a number of factors, including developmental stage  
234 and size, and ease of moulting in a particular environment (and associated risk). Some taxa seem  
235 to have the ability to account for failure of the usual moulting mode by employing an unusual  
236 method if needed (McNamara, 1986; Budil and Bruthansová, 2005; Paterson et al., 2007; Tortello  
237 and Clarkson, 2008). Additionally, there may have been morphological constraints, and some  
238 ecdysial characteristics may be constant for this reason. For example, the Salterian mode of  
239 moulting likely occurred more frequently in species with apparently inactive facial sutures, as in  
240 some phacopids (Henningsmoen, 1975). Other methods may have been key for species with more  
241 complex morphologies. We may also see trends in ecdysis through geological time, possibly in  
242 response to a phylogenetic signal. For example, Budil and Bruthansová (2005) found Middle  
243 Ordovician taxa displayed more variation in modes of moulting.

244 Trilobites may have been as likely to moult dorsal-up as ventral-up. This may be common  
245 across the Class; a close to equal ratio between the two moult positions has been noted in trilobites  
246 such as olenids and paradoxidids (Clarkson et al., 2003; Ebbestad et al., 2013). However, other  
247 species show a bias towards one orientation (Karim and Westrop, 2002). For example,  
248 inverted *Phacops* moults have been suggested to result from dorsum-down exuviation, this  
249 orientation being beneficial for opening of the ecdysial gape between cephalon and thorax (Speyer,  
250 1985, 1987). Whereas exuvia of *Greenops* are rarely found in this position, possibly indicating  
251 only dorsum-up exuviation (Speyer, 1985, 1987). Morphology may be key for determining moult  
252 orientation, although this is difficult to determine without preserved mass moult assemblages.  
253 Further, singular ventral-up specimens could result from taphonomic effects, such as inversion via

254 transport following ecdysis, rather than being informative for moulting behaviour. For orientation  
255 to inform exuvial behaviour, rapid burial and preservation would be required (Speyer, 1987).

256         The general characteristics of trilobite moulting do not seem to specifically align them to  
257 any modern arthropod group. The facial sutures of trilobites represent a system of ecdysial suture  
258 that is unique in its complexity, with no known equivalent amongst modern arthropods or other  
259 ecdysozoans (Ax, 1987; Paterson and Edgecombe, 2006). Trilobites show continuous, or  
260 indeterminate, growth, meaning that they continued to grow in size and moult after reaching their  
261 adult morphology (Hughes, 2007). Of extant arthropods, myriapods and crustaceans also continue  
262 to grow and moult as adults, whereas insects and arachnids show determinate growth, meaning  
263 they do not continue to grow and moult after reaching sexual maturity (Nijhout, 2013). Trilobites  
264 differ from extant arthropods in that there is no evidence for reabsorption of the old cuticle prior  
265 to moulting, as is seen in extant groups (Ewer, 2005; Nijhout, 2013). All preserved material also  
266 suggests trilobites exited their exuviae anteriorly, as is seen in modern xiphosurans and scorpions,  
267 but which is unlike other arthropods, such as spiders and crabs, which exit their exuviae posteriorly  
268 (Henningsmoen, 1975). Few ecdysial characteristics have been included in phylogenetic analyses  
269 of trilobite relationships beyond those associated with the morphology of facial sutures. Moulting  
270 behaviours for each trilobite Order are discussed below and summarised in Table 1.

### 271 2.1.1. Ecdysis in Redlichiida

272         Descriptions of ecdysial behaviour are more common in the literature for the speciose  
273 Orders Phacopida and Redlichiida (Fig. 3). Most *Redlichia* individuals would moult by opening  
274 of both the facial sutures (Fig. 3B) (Öpik, 1958; McNamara, 1986) and the rostral sutures, the  
275 latter of which was necessary to release the “stitched rostral shield” (Öpik, 1958, pg. 28) that  
276 interlocks with the cranidium by a series of small nodes. The cranidium also detaches (Fig. 3E),  
277 leaving the thoracic segments and pygidium as a cohesive unit that is often found preserved (Öpik,  
278 1958, 1970; McNamara, 1986). A moulted, but admittedly malformed, specimen of *R. hupehensis*

279 shows only the detachment of the librigenae, i.e. a complete axial shield (cranium, thorax and  
280 pygidium) (Han and Zhang, 1991). Specimens of *R. forresti* individually show inversion of the  
281 pygidium (McNamara, 1986, figs. 1A, D, H, I), thoracic segments (Öpik, 1958, pl. 2, figs. 2, 3)  
282 and librigenae (McNamara, 1986, fig. 1B), whereas *R. idonea* (McNamara, 1986, fig. 1E) and *R.*  
283 *micrograpta* (McNamara, 1986, fig. 1C) each only show inversion of thoracic segments or  
284 librigenae respectively.

285         McNamara (1986) highlights the unusual occurrence of inversion of part of the body (free  
286 cheeks, thoracic segments, and/or pygidium) during moulting. He focuses on three species of  
287 *Redlichia* with inverted elements and describes scenarios for each specimen that require partial  
288 enrolment of the specimen during ecdysis. This link between ecdysial moult configurations and  
289 enrolment behaviour was in contrast to previous suggestions that Cambrian micropygous trilobites  
290 were rigid and unable to enrol (Harrington, 1959; Bergström, 1973), although later studies have  
291 shown that at least flexing, if not entire enrolment, was possible in these trilobites (Esteve et al.,  
292 2011, 2013; Ortega-Hernández et al., 2013). McNamara (1986) stresses that inversions in  
293 *Redlichia* were “the exception, rather than the rule” (pg. 412), and should be considered in the  
294 context of the individual specimen (rather than generalised as behavioural differences between  
295 taxa). To account for the inverted body elements, McNamara (1986) invokes an ecdysial scenario  
296 that begins with a posterior movement of the trilobite in the early stages of exuviation, and suggests  
297 that this may have been used to separate the cephalon from the thorax in cases where the rostral  
298 suture failed to open. This implies a flexibility of ecdysial behaviour in *Redlichia* individuals and  
299 response to situations where the usual modes of moulting were unsuccessful.

300         Ebbestad et al. (2013) described redlichiid moults of two paradoxiid species, including  
301 one *Eccaparadoxides*, which also moulted using the cephalic sutures (Fig. 4). They particularly  
302 emphasise the open position of the facial sutures in all specimens (Ebbestad et al., 2013, figs. 3D-  
303 F), even where the librigenae are somewhat in place, and a total absence of *in-situ* hypostomes.  
304 Other paradoxiids, like *Paradoxides davidis*, also opened the cephalic sutures for moulting,

305 displacing the librigenae and rostral-hypostomal plate as in the first step for ecdysis in *Redlichia*  
306 (Whittington, 1990).

307 Particular redlichiid trilobite taxa demonstrate the variability in ecdysial behaviour seen  
308 within species of other trilobite Orders, employing multiple methods for moulting. *Olenellus*  
309 *gilberti* and *Nephrolenellus geniculatus* (Webster, 2007) seem to have moulted the hypostome and  
310 rostral plate before emergence ventrally through the resulting gap, but occasionally specimens of  
311 the former also show a dislocation and displacement of the thoracopygon beneath the cephalon  
312 (Webster, 2015, fig.10). This mode of ecdysis differs from other redlichiids, such as  
313 *Eccaparadoxides* and *Redlichia*, because olenelloids lack facial sutures around the librigenae  
314 (Webster, 2015). *Balcoracania dailyi* appeared to have employed the usual redlichiid style of  
315 ecdysis; strongly flexing the exoskeleton, pushing the spines into the sediment and allowing for  
316 opening of the cephalic sutures. The animal would emerge anteriorly, leading to the librigenae,  
317 rostral plate, hypostome and/or cranidium becoming dislodged (Paterson et al., 2007, figs. 8A, B,  
318 E, H). However, at least one moult of *B. dailyi* displays fragmentation between the first and second  
319 thoracic segments (Paterson et al., 2007, fig. 8C), prior to opening of the facial sutures. As in  
320 *Redlichia*, this may well reflect flexibility in behaviour to overcome a particularly difficult  
321 moulting period (McNamara, 1986), reinforcing the plasticity that some trilobite species can show  
322 during ecdysis.

### 323 2.1.2 Ecdysis in Phacopida

324 Budil and Bruthansová (2005) presented an initial exploration of the complicated nature of  
325 phacopid trilobite ecdysis, extolling the need for a more thorough analysis. In particular, there is  
326 great variability in ecdysial behaviours of dalmanitoid and acastoid phacopid trilobite taxa. The  
327 most common behaviour across all species described (and most other phacopid taxa) was complete  
328 disarticulation of the cephalon from the rest of the body (Fig. 3H), without the cephalon inversion  
329 involved in producing Salter's configuration (Fig. 3I) (Budil and Bruthansová, 2005, fig. 4).

330 However, particularly in *Ormathops*, as well as *Zeliszella*, *Dalmanitina* and *Kloucekia*, the break  
331 releasing the cephalon during ecdysis occurred several segments into the thorax (Fig. 3K).  
332 Thoraces broken into multiple segments in *Baniaspis (?) quadrata* (Budil and Bruthansová, 2005,  
333 figs. 6C, E, F) and *Zeliszella cf. oriens* (Budil and Bruthansová, 2005, fig. 7E), representing  
334 multiple gape sutures, may indicate instances of problematic moulting as in some described  
335 redlichiids.

336         Demonstrating the apparent versatility of dalmanitoid trilobite moulting habit, separation  
337 of the librigenae from the remainder of the axial shield via opening of the facial sutures was  
338 common in young individuals of *Dalmanitina proaeva elfrida*, *Dalmanitina proaeva proaeva*, and  
339 *Ormathops (Ormathops) atavus* (Budil and Bruthansová, 2005, figs. 7B, C). Some specimens of  
340 *Ormathops (Ormathops) atavus* also show the librigenae disconnected from the separated  
341 cranidium (Budil and Bruthansová, 2005, figs. 4E, 5C). However, Budil and Bruthansová (2005)  
342 state that free-cheek moulting (by opening of the facial sutures) was replaced by more 'advanced  
343 modes' (Budil and Bruthansová, 2005, pg. 376), with a loss of facial suture functionality into  
344 adulthood of these phacopid trilobites and ecdysis using the cephalic or thoracic disarticulations.

345         Cephalic sutures of *Trimerus stelmophorus* (Homalonotidae), like most phacopids, were  
346 non-functional during ecdysis. Phacopids instead utilised the common behaviour of separating the  
347 cephalon and thorax (Busch and Swartz, 1985, fig. 1.8; Speyer, 1985). This often resulted in  
348 preservation of moults in Salter's Configuration, suggesting arching of the body with the dorsal  
349 cephalon towards the substratum. *Plagiolaria poothai* (Cronier and Fortey 2006) and *Paciphacops*  
350 *sp.* (Rustán et al., 2011, fig. 2) also moulted in this way, although the last is interpreted differently.  
351 The species of *Paciphacops* figured by Rustán et al., (2011) may have utilised a gape suture  
352 between the cephalon and thorax for ecdysis while infaunal. *Phacops rana* and *Greenops boothi*  
353 both moulted by removing the cephalon, as determined by the prevalence of thoracopygidia,  
354 although Salterian configurations were rare or absent in these species (Speyer, 1985).

355 From a single, complete inferred exuvia, McNamara and Tuura (2011) suggest a total  
356 moulting sequence for *Greenops widderensis*. This begins with the familiar break of the join  
357 between cephalon and thorax, and leads to the disarticulation of the pygidium (McNamara and  
358 Tuura, 2011, fig. 1). This is also the case for *Plagiolaria nandanensis* (Wang and Han, 1997). As  
359 with most other phacopids described, the facial sutures were not employed, although *G.*  
360 *widderensis* ecdysis has only been interpreted from the one specimen.

361 However, *Flexicalymene retrorsa* (Calymenidae) exuviae indicate the functionality of  
362 facial sutures, and the release of the librigenae, for ecdysis in some phacopid taxa (Hunda et al.  
363 2006, fig. 9L). The subsequent rotation of the cranidium, they suggest, may reflect post-ecdysial  
364 disturbances (Hunda et al., 2006, fig. 9M). Some specimens of *F. retrorsa* showing an articulated  
365 thoracopygon without a cephalon have been interpreted as moults, suggesting they may have  
366 occasionally utilised a gape suture behind the cephalon, as most phacopid trilobites did (Hunda et  
367 al., 2006, fig. 9N).

### 368 2.1.3 Ecdysis in Ptychopariida

369 Like redlichiid taxa, ptychopariid trilobite exuviae emphasise the importance of cephalic  
370 sutures for ecdysis across the Order, often leading to the displacement of the hypostome and  
371 rostrum (Cederström et al., 2011, figs. 11C-F). This is certainly the case for moults of *Strenuaeva*  
372 *inflata*, although Cederström et al. (2011) consider the opened facial sutures and displaced  
373 librigenae to result from taphonomic processes, with the other cephalic sutures being more  
374 important for emergence.

375 *Ctenopyge (Eoctenopyge) angusta* utilised the facial sutures during moulting, as indicated  
376 by the preservation of separated yoked librigenae and hypostomes, with the cranidium also  
377 detached in some exuviae (Clarkson et al., 2003, pl. 8.1). Other olenids may have moulted  
378 similarly, releasing the librigenae with the axial shield remaining intact, including: *Acerocare*  
379 *ecorne* (Henningsmoen, 1957); *Parabolina frequens argentina* (Tortello and Clarkson, 2008, fig.

380 9.1); *Wujiajiania sutherlandi* (Chatterton and Ludvigsen, 1998, fig. 10); and *Aciculolenus palmeri*  
381 (Chatterton and Ludvigsen, 1998).

382 These Olenidae trilobite exuviae are often considered as preserved in ‘Harrington’s  
383 Configuration’ (Henningsmoen, 1975), with the shed librigenae found below the axial shield  
384 (Tortello and Clarkson, 2008). Ptychopariids may also show within-taxon variation in ecdysial  
385 pattern. For example, some moulted specimens of *Parabolina frequens argentina* have missing  
386 cranidia with the librigenae close to normal position (Tortello and Clarkson, 2008, figs. 8.7, 8.10,  
387 9.3, 9.10), as do those of the olenid *Cloacaspis dejecta* (Fortey, 1974, pl. 12.1). *Parabolina*  
388 *frequens argentina* also displays signs of employing alternative ecdysial behaviours such as  
389 disarticulated thoraces and displaced pygidia (Tortello and Clarkson, 2008, figs. 8-10) during  
390 difficult moulting periods, much like *Balcoracania dailyi* (Paterson et al., 2007) and *Redlichia*  
391 (McNamara, 1986). Unlike all other ptychopariids described, a lone *Burnetiella leechi* exuvia  
392 displays a Salterian mode of moulting (Chatterton and Ludvigsen, 1998, fig. 22.6).

#### 393 2.1.4. Ecdysis in Odontopleurida

394 Descriptions of ecdysial behaviour are sparse for the remaining trilobite Orders.  
395 *Odontopleura (Odontopleura) arctica* and *Odontopleura (Odontopleura) brevigena* opened the  
396 facial sutures for ecdysis, releasing the librigenae and hypostome (Adrain and Chatterton, 1990,  
397 fig. 7.5). Edgecombe and Sherwin (2001) also note the librigenae, hypostome and rostral plate of  
398 *Odontopleura (Sinespinaspis) markhami* detached during ecdysis (Edgecombe and Sherwin, 2001,  
399 figs. 3D, 4A).

#### 400 2.1.5. Ecdysis in Asaphida

401 Exoskeleton moulting in the Ordovician *Homotelus bromidensis* took place through  
402 disarticulation of the cranidium, with the librigenae yoked anteriorly (Karim and Westrop, 2002).  
403 Conversely, preserved moulting configurations of *Labiostria westropi*, and occasionally  
404 *Pterocephalia norfordi*, usually consist of complete axial shields with the librigenae nearby, in a



405 range of different positions (rotated, inverted, displaced), although some individuals may also have  
406 moulted the cranidium or cephalon (Chatterton and Ludvigsen, 1998, figs. 19, 29).

#### 407 2.1.6. Ecdysis in Corynexochida and Proetida

408         Chen et al. (2008) describe a similar scenario of moulting to *Balcoracania dailyi* (Paterson  
409 et al., 2007) for the corynexochid trilobite *Oryctocephalus indicus*, including a downwards flexing  
410 to produce a break between the cephalon and thorax, with the librigenae also becoming  
411 disarticulated during this process. The remaining cranidium then became inverted during full  
412 exuviation of the animal from the old exoskeleton. The moulting of *Telephina (Telephus)*  
413 *spiniferus* has been described as a very similar process to *O. indicus* (Fischer, 1946, fig. 1),  
414 involving shifting of the librigena and horizontal inversion of the cranidium (free cheeks “slightly  
415 shifted” with the glabella “overtured and carried forward”, Fischer, 1946, p. 566). Glaessner  
416 (1948) notes that this moult configuration seems to span several trilobite Families, but that  
417 preservation of all disarticulated moulted sclerites in position is extremely rare. A single moult of  
418 *Aulacopleura pogsoni* demonstrates that proetid trilobites could undergo ecdysis through  
419 disarticulation of the entire cephalon (Edgecombe and Sherwin, 2001).

#### 420 2.1.7. Ecdysis in Agnostida

421         Descriptions of ecdysial modes in the literature are also rare for Agnostida, considered by  
422 some research to be the earliest diverging trilobite Order (Cotton and Fortey, 2005) or as stem  
423 lineage mandibulates (Legg et al., 2013). *Pagetia significans* exuviae from the Cambrian Kaili  
424 Formation, China, suggest ecdysis only through opening of the facial sutures, and disarticulation  
425 of the librigenae (Lin and Yuan, 2009). Although entire cephalae seem common in the agnostoid  
426 fossil record. Whether Agnostida are trilobites, or close relatives of the Trilobita, greater  
427 knowledge of their moulting methods would allow better tracing of trends in arthropods with  
428 similar morphologies, and the origins of the patterns and variability in trilobite ecdysis.

#### 429 2.1.8. Summary of trilobite ecdysis

430 Ecdysis utilising gapes created through opening of the facial (and often anterior and rostral)  
431 sutures is commonly observed across trilobite Orders (Table 1) and through geological time (see  
432 Section 3.2). This is to the exception of most phacopid trilobites, which had inactive facial sutures;  
433 phacopid taxa typically exploit a gape suture created through the disarticulation of the cephalon  
434 from the thorax (Figs. 3G-L). As a generalisation, Redlichiida, Ptychopariida, Odontopleurida,  
435 Asaphida, and Agnostida all exhibit a high occurrence of facial suture moulting. Whereas some  
436 Redlichiida (*Redlichia*), Asaphida, and Corynexochida combine this with disarticulation of the  
437 cranidium. However, these are all very broad trends, and in reality those Orders with ample  
438 exuviae descriptive literature (Redlichiida, Phacopida, Ptychopariida) show considerable  
439 flexibility in which ecdysial method they employed. Whether the ecdysial methods discussed for  
440 Odontopleurida, Asaphida, Corynexochida, Proetida and Agnostida are representative of most taxa  
441 within their Orders is unclear, as these are based on few species descriptions. More detailed results  
442 from a preliminary quantitative analysis of these trends is presented in Section 3.2 of this work.

443 In a rare exploration of ecdysis and its broader evolutionary trends, Brandt (2002) analysed  
444 the interplay between trilobite moulting and geological survivorship. Brandt (2002) contrasted the  
445 extensive variation in trilobite ecdysial behaviour to the often-stereotyped moult styles  
446 characterising other arthropod groups. In this way, trilobites were described as having an  
447 “inefficient moult habit” (Brandt, 2002, pg. 399), which, when coupled with the apparent need to  
448 from a new calcitic exoskeleton after each moult without the benefit of reabsorption of old cuticle  
449 material, may have been evolutionary disadvantageous and contributed to their ultimate decline.  
450 Further, the taxonomic survivorship analyses of Brandt (2002) support an association between  
451 morphology and ecdysis; taxa with simpler morphologies (particularly fewer thoracic segments)  
452 and therefore easier ecdysis had longer chronological ranges. Our quantitative analysis (Section  
453 3) builds on the works of Brandt (2002) by investigating more specific ecdysial behaviours and  
454 considering the possible evolutionary advantage of flexibility in ecdysis. Öpik (1970) alternatively  
455 suggested a decline in the efficiency of ecdysial hormones and moulting success factored into the

456 extinction of *Redlichia* species. Ultimately, we know very little about the broader evolutionary  
457 impacts of moulting behaviour in trilobites, but there is huge potential to explore these implications  
458 thanks to their extensive fossil record. Elucidating such trends may be a challenge given that  
459 higher-level trilobite phylogenetic relationships are currently in a state of flux, with essentially no  
460 resolution despite numerous analyses (Adrain, 2011). However, further research along the lines of  
461 the preliminary analyses described in Section 3 could also help to resolve phylogenetic uncertainty  
462 within the group.

## 463 **2.2. Eurypterids**

464 The other main group of fossils from which ecdysis is relatively well known is the  
465 eurypterids (Figs. 1, 5). There has been much debate on whether various eurypterid fossils  
466 represent exuviae or carcasses, much of which has focused on the abundant and well-preserved  
467 specimens of the Bertie Waterlime in New York State. For example, Andrews et al. (1974)  
468 consider the Bertie eurypterids to be carcasses, whereas Braddy (2001) and Tetlie et al. (2008)  
469 thought they were exuviae. Tetlie et al. (2008) considered the presence of musculature and the  
470 midgut as the only internal structures that would indicate a carcass (as opposed to an empty moult),  
471 owing to the tendency for other structures (i.e. fore- and hindgut; book lungs) to be shed with the  
472 exoskeleton. The only definitive carcasses that meet his criteria are specimens from the Devonian  
473 Gogo Formation (Tetlie et al., 2004) and the Ordovician Soom Shale (Braddy et al., 1995, 1999),  
474 but he also suggested that generally most specimens preserving any part of the gut are quite likely  
475 to be carcasses rather than exuviae. Preservation of these internal structures is still very rare, and  
476 so the majority of eurypterid assemblages are considered to be exuviae rather than carcasses (e.g.  
477 Selden, 1981; Tetlie et al., 2008; Vrazo et al., 2014). In the Bertie Waterlime, the lack of evidence  
478 for scavenging is taken as further evidence for these specimens being exuviae (Clarke and  
479 Ruedemann, 1912), as is the presence of crumpling, flattening or distortions of the exoskeleton,  
480 superimposition of dorsal and ventral surfaces, and telescoping or other disturbance of  
481 disarticulated body elements (as in Selden, 1981).

482           As such, in eurypterid studies, the assumption seems to be that a specimen is a moulted  
483 exuviae unless it can be shown to be a carcass by the presence of very specific internal structures  
484 (i.e. midguts and musculature; Tetlie et al., 2008). As discussed in sections 1.1 and 4, these  
485 structures have a much lower preservation potential than the external exoskeleton, and so on their  
486 absence alone may not be enough to discriminate moults from carcasses. This assumption is built  
487 on the idea that because every eurypterid individual produces multiple exuviae during its lifetime  
488 but only one carcass upon death, so there is a much higher probability of finding an exuvium rather  
489 than a carcass (Braddy, 2001). This is coupled with a higher preservation potential because of a  
490 lower probability of scavengers disrupting the exuviae after deposition (Clarke and Ruedemann,  
491 1912; Braddy, 2001). This underlying assumption has important consequences for the  
492 understanding of eurypterid ecdysial processes. Tetlie et al. (2008), who take a quantitative  
493 approach to studying moulting patterns in a large sample of eurypterids from the Bertie Waterlime,  
494 began with the assumption that all specimens are empty exuviae and that the large number of  
495 complete and intact specimens must be indicating that eurypterids exuviae “behaved like  
496 horseshoe crab exuviae” (Tetlie et al., 2008, pg. 188) with ecdysial sutures closing after egress,  
497 leaving little evidence that moulting has taken place. An alternative, possibly simpler, hypothesis  
498 could be that the Bertie eurypterids represent a mix of carcasses and moulted exuviae.

499           The quantitative study of Eurypterid assemblages from the Bertie Waterlime was based on  
500 completeness estimates and counts of specimens showing characteristic combinations of body  
501 segments (Tetlie et al., 2008), making it possible to describe the moulting process in *Eurypterus*.  
502 This begins with the opening of suture joints between the ventral plates and the marginal carapace  
503 suture, followed by the separation of the head and first opisthomal segment as a single unit, after  
504 which the animal egressed anteriorly (Fig. 5) (Tetlie et al., 2008, fig. 10). This was based on an  
505 abundance of *Eurypterus remipes* assemblages that showed the cephalic carapace and first  
506 opisthomal segment together (228 specimens), however many specimens also showed the carapace  
507 in isolation (172 specimens), with the first 2 opisthomal segments (34 specimens), or rarely with

508 breaks elsewhere along the opisthoma, indicating that there was variation in where this suture  
509 opening formed, even within one species. Variation must also exist in moulting behaviour between  
510 species, as indicated by comparison with adelopthalmid eurypterids from the Dinas estate in  
511 Brecon, Wales in the collections at the OUMNH (Figs. 5D-F). Moulting ensembles of these  
512 eurypterids show a break between the cephalic carapace and the rest of the opisthomal segments  
513 during moulting (Fig. 5D), with many carapaces found in isolation without attached opisthomal  
514 segments (Figs. 5E-F).

515         The novel analytical approach employed by Tetlie et al. (2008) allowed for comparison  
516 with the moulting modes in aquatic chelicerates and scorpions, in line with a chelicerate affinity  
517 for the eurypterids. Further study is needed to identify if ecdysial mode provides insight into the  
518 phylogenetic uncertainty for the position of eurypterids within Chelicerata, namely whether they  
519 are most closely related to arachnids (Weygoldt and Paulus, 1979; Shultz, 1990, 2007; Kamenz et  
520 al., 2011; Lamsdell, 2013), and the scorpions in particular (Kjellesvig-Waering, 1986; Dunlop and  
521 Webster, 1999) or the more traditional view of being sister taxa with the xiphosurans (Woodward,  
522 1867, 1872; Strømmer, 1944, 1955) in Merostomata, which has also received recent support  
523 (Garwood and Dunlop, 2014). *Eurypterus* shares in common with modern *Limulus* the ventral  
524 anterior location of the prosomal suture and the tendency of the ecdysial suture to close after egress  
525 (Loveland, 2002; Shuster and Sekiguchi, 2004; Tetlie et al., 2008), but also shows similarity to  
526 scorpion ecdysis in that the more anterior opisthomal segments remain attached to the cephalic  
527 carapace during formation of the anterior ecdysial opening (Tetlie et al., 2008). Further  
528 documentation of ecdysial characters for eurypterids, and their inclusion in phylogenetic analyses  
529 may help resolve affinity disputes related to the position of these fossil chelicerates.

530         Tetlie et al. (2008) also attempted to determine if the eurypterids were moulting prone or  
531 supine (as seen in modern scorpions). Although evidence for supine ecdysis in the prevalence of  
532 ventral-up specimens in other collections had been reported (Tollerton, 1997), Tetlie et al. (2008)  
533 did not identify a statistically significant difference in the number of ventral-up versus dorsal-up

534 specimens, and interpreted this to mean that *Eurypterus* could moult in either position. It seems  
535 particularly difficult to identify eurypterid moulting orientation given the possibility that exuviae  
536 could have been reoriented by currents or other post-depositional processes (Tollerton, 1997;  
537 Tetlie et al., 2008). Given the conserved moulting behaviour within closely related modern  
538 scorpions, with different taxa consistently moulting either prone or supine (Rosin and Shulov,  
539 1962; De Armas, 1986; Gaban and Farley, 2002), it seems unlikely that the eurypterids had an  
540 “absence of preferred dorsal or ventral moulting posture” (Tetlie et al., 2008, pg. 189). Rather, it  
541 could be that the data currently available do not allow us to determine this quantitatively. Some  
542 scorpion taxa begin moulting in the prone position, but flip over onto the dorsal surface once the  
543 legs are freed to continue moulting in the supine position (Gaban and Farley, 2002). Given that  
544 the majority of the ventral-up specimens are relatively incompletely preserved, and so were more  
545 likely to have been affected by post-depositional reorientation, the data of Tetlie et al. (2008) seem  
546 to suggest that moulting in the supine position may not have occurred in *Eurypterus*, or at most  
547 was only occupied only very briefly during ecdysis.

548 Eurypterids form an exemplary case study for examining the evolutionary demands exerted  
549 on morphology by the ecdysial process. In eurypterids, mode of moulting may have imparted  
550 constraints on the size ratio of morphological features, owing to the necessity of large  
551 morphological features to pass through narrow spaces during egress (Tetlie et al., 2008). This is at  
552 odds with the ecological or functional morphological pressures to enlarge features such as the  
553 swimming paddles and telson (for greater lift, thrust and manoeuvrability during swimming) and  
554 the chelicerae (for increased predatory capability).

### 555 **2.3 Other Chelicerata**

556 Non-eurypterid chelicerates generally have a poor fossil record of moulting, and this is  
557 particularly true for the marine groups. In pycnogonids, moulting changes with instars during  
558 development owing to substantial change in morphology, and they exhibit determinate growth

559 such that they cease moulting after reaching adulthood (Nakamura, 1981; Tetlie et al., 2008). The  
560 thin cuticle and tendency to fragment means that all pycnogonid fossils have been interpreted as  
561 carcasses, not moults (Siveter et al., 2004; Tetlie et al., 2008). Horseshoe crabs (Fig. 1) also stop  
562 moulting at adulthood (Tetlie et al., 2008), so any moult of a horseshoe crab in the fossil record  
563 would have to represent a juvenile individual. Given that xiphosurans moult by exiting anteriorly  
564 through a wide suture along the prosoma that immediately closes after egress, the probability of  
565 distinguishing a xiphosuran exuvium is low (Babcock et al., 2000; Tetlie et al., 2008). It is also  
566 difficult to determine if fragmentary assemblages represent moults or carcasses that have  
567 disarticulated, particularly given the tendency for horseshoe crabs to moult in shallow, marginal  
568 marine environments with low preservation potential and high energy (Babcock et al., 2000;  
569 Rudkin and Young, 2009).

570         Of the terrestrial chelicerates, the scorpions have the best fossil record of moulting, partly  
571 because they possess an extra proteinaceous hyaline layer to their cuticle not present in other  
572 arthropods, which is thought to increase fossilisation potential (Selden and Jeram, 1989; Jeram,  
573 2001; Gaban and Farley, 2002). Kjellesvig-Waering (1986) concluded that most scorpion fossils  
574 are moulted exuviae rather than carcasses, based on highly detailed examinations of numerous  
575 scorpion fossils. These exuvial fossils typically include booklung lamellae, pectines with sensory  
576 pegs, and bristles, hairs and sensilla on other parts. Taphonomic experiments conducted on modern  
577 scorpions moults and carcasses have established a set of criteria for distinguishing between them  
578 (McCoy and Brandt, 2009), and when applied to a collection of Late Silurian and Middle  
579 Pennsylvanian scorpions, approximately 89% met the criteria of being fossil moults. This supports  
580 the qualitative observation of Kjellesvig-Waering (1986) on the abundance of moults in the  
581 scorpion fossil record. The four main criteria for identifying fossil scorpion moults are (1) splayed  
582 walking leg posture; (2) distinctive position of the pedipalps with chelae angled inwards toward  
583 each other; (3) a curved body line; and (4) extended chelicerae (McCoy and Brandt, 2009). More  
584 fragmentary scorpion material was also thought to be derived from exuviae because they are

585 delicate and easy to disperse (Wills, 1959; Jeram, 2001), however the taphonomic experiments of  
586 McCoy and Brandt (2009) showed that there is no significant difference in the time required for  
587 moults to disarticulate as compared to carcasses. For fossil scorpions, anatomical features related  
588 to the positioning of body elements during ecdysis are more useful for identifying moults than  
589 examination of the degree of exoskeleton disarticulation. Other examples of moulting in the  
590 scorpion fossil record include a specimen of *Compsoscorpius buthiformis* with distortion of the  
591 carapace thought to have occurred during ecdysis (Kjellesvig-Waering, 1986), and a tritonyph of  
592 a Cheliferoidea pseudoscorpion from the Lower Cretaceous amber of Archingeay, France, which  
593 was found partly enclosed in a layer of silk and is thought to represent the first fossil record of a  
594 moulting nest (Judson, 2009).

595 Other arachnid fossil evidence of moulting is scarce, perhaps owing to the relatively poor  
596 terrestrial record of arthropods in general. The preservation of spider exuviae in amber suggest  
597 that they may have moulted in a similar manner to modern spiders, whilst hanging from silk  
598 threads, leaving the exuvia hanging in the web, as was seen for the fossil taxon *Amaurobius*  
599 *succinic* (Petrunkevitch, 1942). Exuviae of this taxon were identified as such based on the presence  
600 of broken appendages and general disarticulation. The Devonian *Palaeocteniza crassipes* from the  
601 Rhynie Chert is thought to represent a moulted specimen, owing to its general condition of being  
602 crumpled and folded, the presence of a detached carapace in close proximity to the rest of the  
603 specimen, and the absence of the distal portions of the palps (Selden et al., 1991). The Permian  
604 spider *Permarachne novokshonovi* from the Ural Mountains, Russia, is also thought to represent  
605 a moulted exuviae owing to general displacement of the specimen and lateral orientation of the  
606 collapse chelicerae on top of one another (Eskov and Selden, 2005).

#### 607 **2.4. Crustaceans**

608 The crustacean (Fig. 1) fossil record provides much insight for understanding ecdysis in  
609 this group of arthropods. The decapod crustacean moulting fossil record is best known and is



610 described in detail in section 2.4.2. However, even the earliest fossil record of the crustaceans  
611 contains information on moulting. Three-dimensionally preserved phosphatised fossils from the  
612 Upper Cambrian Orsten fauna of Sweden largely represent individual carcasses of larvae and adult  
613 arthropods <2mm in size (e.g. Waloszek 1993, 2003; Waloszek and Maas, 2005; Hughes et al.,  
614 2008), and the occasional specimen found with a wrinkled and shrivelled appearance may  
615 represent an individual that died during ecdysis or shortly afterwards during the phase when the  
616 freshly moulting cuticle has not yet hardened (Müller, 1979; Müller and Waloszek, 1985).  
617 Additionally, the presence and position of moulting sutures in the Orsten fossils has proved useful  
618 for deciphering the affinity of enigmatic taxa, as in the identification of head shield sutures as one  
619 of the synapomorphic characteristics placing *Cambropycnogon kalusmuelleri* with Pycnogonida  
620 (Waloszek and Dunlop, 2002). The ontogenetic patterns and number of moulting stages in the  
621 Orsten bradoriid *Rehbachella* were used to help identify its affinity within Branchiopoda  
622 (Waloszek, 1995).

623         The Bradoriids are another group of Early Palaeozoic taxa for which information is known  
624 about their moult stages. These small marine arthropods are characterised by a bivalve carapace,  
625 and were abundant in the fossil record in the Cambrian to early Ordovician (Shu et al., 1999; Duan  
626 et al., 2013). Their affinity has been debated, but they probably represent either stem or crown  
627 group crustaceans (e.g. Hou et al., 2010). The abundance of bradoriid bivalved carapaces in the  
628 fossil record, and the lack of obvious suture lines anywhere on the body, suggest that bradoriids  
629 may have moulted by directly shedding the old valves. The moulting behaviour and ontogeny of  
630 two supposed bradoriids from Australia was examined and found to be taxonomically informative  
631 (Zhang, 1987). A quantitative analysis of the size of *Phaseolella dimorpha* carapaces showed that  
632 these fossils do not segregate into well-defined size categories, as would be expected for a  
633 periodically moulting individual, suggesting that this taxon could actually belong to another group  
634 of bivalved arthropods, Phosphatocopida, which also produced moults continuously and at short  
635 intervals during their lives (Müller, 1979). *Phaseolella dimorpha* has since been synonymised with

636 *Dabashanella hemicyclica* and placed within the Order Phosphatocopida (Hou et al., 2001). On  
637 the other hand, *Houlongdongella xichuanensis* shows at least nine distinct moulting stages (Zhang,  
638 1987), in a manner that seems typical for the bradoriids, with other fossil taxa such as *Kunmingella*  
639 *douvillei* reported to have at least five distinct moulting stages (Zhang, 2007; Duan et al., 2013).

640 Ostracods are the most abundant arthropod in the fossil record and thousands of species  
641 have been identified from their characteristic bivalved carapaces, the valves of which populate the  
642 fossil record from the Ordovician onwards (Siveter et al., 2003). Soft parts are extremely rare  
643 (Siveter et al., 2003, 2014) and it is difficult to distinguish fossil moults from decayed carcasses.  
644 Ostracods show determinate growth and moult up to nine times in total during their life (Turpen  
645 and Angell, 1971). Given the abundance of ostracod valves in the fossil record, it is possible to  
646 reconstruct the ontogeny and development of fossil taxa using their different moult stages (e.g.  
647 Shaver, 1953; Tinn and Meidla, 2003). Removal of the valves during ostracod moulting is usually  
648 complete (Turpen and Angell, 1971), however an enigmatic group probably belonging to  
649 Ostracoda, the Eridostracina, show an unusual moulting physiology and valve morphology  
650 (Olempska, 2012). These Middle Ordovician to Middle Carboniferous aged crustaceans produce  
651 a multi-layered calcified carapace by retaining unshed moults during growth and development.  
652 Successive newly deposited cuticles are larger than the previous carapace, such that they are  
653 visible on the external surface as growth bands. Retention of moults is thought to strengthen the  
654 carapace, while the characteristic number and arrangement of retained moults has useful  
655 taxonomic relevance (Olempska, 2012). Other arthropods exhibiting retention of moults include  
656 the spinicaudatan (conchostracan) branchiopod crustaceans, which are found in the fossil record  
657 from sites such as the Upper Carboniferous deposits of France and Ireland (e.g. Orr and Briggs,  
658 1999; Vannier et al., 2003; Orr et al., 2008) and the Lower Devonian Willwerath Lagerstätte of  
659 Germany (Gross, 1934).

660 Early Devonian branchiopods such as *Lepidocaris rhyniensis* and *Castracollis wilsonae*  
661 from Rhynie Chert likely represent exuviae, whereas the oldest notostracan from the Upper

662 Devonian Strud Locality, *Strudops goldenbergi*, likely represent whole body carcasses (Lagebro  
663 et al., 2015). This was determined based on the presence of a gut and its content, and owing to the  
664 intact nature of the body parts in most specimens. The preservation potential of notostracans have  
665 been studied using experiments where both carcasses and empty moults of modern notostracans  
666 were observed during decay under controlled conditions (Hegna, 2012). It was concluded that a  
667 carcass does come to resemble a moulted exoskeleton if decay is allowed to proceed to a certain  
668 point. These experiments confirmed that the presence of a gut can be used as evidence of a carcass,  
669 as can an undisturbed position for the thoracic appendage, abdominal segments and telson (Hegna,  
670 2012).

#### 671 2.4.1. Isopod crustaceans

672 The rest of the crustacean fossil record of moulting is focused on Mesozoic specimens,  
673 with little input from the fossil record of the later Palaeozoic. Decapods form the bulk of the  
674 crustacean ecdysis fossil record during the Mesozoic (Section 2.4.2), but it is also important to  
675 consider moulting when examining the fossil record of isopods. Living isopod crustaceans exhibit  
676 biphasic moulting, with the posterior part being moulted as an intact unit several days before the  
677 fragmentary moulting of the anterior carapace. Given that the majority of fossil isopods are of the  
678 posterior region of the body only, it is thought that they represent empty moults (Wieder and  
679 Feldmann, 1989; Feldmann, 2009). The near absence of anterior sclerites is likely owing to the  
680 fragmentation of these structures during moulting, such that the head, various limbs and the  
681 thoracic segments are disarticulated from each other. This fragmentation may be contributing to  
682 the poor fossil record of this group as a whole, leading to taxonomic confusion, as the posterior  
683 regions tend to be similar between separate species and it is likely that many species named only  
684 from posterior parts could be incorrectly included in the same fossil genus (Wieder and Feldmann,  
685 1989). Only unusually are isopods found with anterior and posterior sections intact, such as in a  
686 single specimen of *Palaega goedertorum* from the late Oligocene Pysht Formation in Washington  
687 State (Wieder and Feldmann, 1989), some Early Cretaceous specimens including *Archaeoniscus*

688 *arangthyorum* from the Tlayúa Formation in Mexico (Feldmann et al., 1998), and a scavenging  
689 assemblage of complete *Brunnaega tomhurleyi* from the Toolebuc Formation of Queensland,  
690 Australia (Wilson et al., 2011). Another single specimen of the criolanid isopod *Cirolana*  
691 *garassinoi* is thought to have been preserved in the pre-moult condition owing to the presence of  
692 three pairs of dermoliths (sites of calcium and phosphorous storage during the pre-moult condition  
693 of modern isopods) and a thin, apparently transparent cuticle (Feldmann, 2009). This shows a  
694 highly specific moulting behaviour in a fossil that had previously only been known from living  
695 taxa.

#### 696 2.4.2. Decapod crustaceans

697 The decapod fossil record is particularly good owing to their heavily calcified skeletons,  
698 with lobsters and crabs having a greater abundance of fossilised moulted exuviae as compared to  
699 crayfish/shrimp, owing to the tendency of the latter to eat their own exuviae after moulting (Bishop,  
700 1986). Moulted exuviae are so readily identifiable and abundant at many localities that it is  
701 generally thought that they may be biasing the fossil record of decapod crustaceans by inflating  
702 their overall numbers (Schäfer, 1972). Sure moults in the fossil record could outnumber carcasses  
703 by about five to one for decapod crustaceans (Mertin, 1941).

704 Many decapod exuviae fossils are preserved in a characteristic assemblage known as ‘Open  
705 Mould Position’ (or Salterian Position, or Salter’s Position), which varies slightly for crabs and  
706 lobsters. In extant lobsters, moulting begins with the separation from the first abdominal segment,  
707 followed by a dorsal splitting of the carapace along the median line, through which the animal  
708 emerges, leaving a characteristic exuvial arrangement with the carapace displaced nearly 90° to  
709 the abdomen (Glaessner, 1969). The Lobster Open Mould Position refers to exuviae preserved on  
710 the side, with the carapace split medially and raised posteriorly relative to the abdomen (Figs. 6A-  
711 D), as is seen in moults of *Oncoparia*, *Linuparus* and *Hoploparia* from the Late Cretaceous Carlile  
712 fauna (Bishop and Williams, 1986) and *Oosterinkia neerlandica* from Middle Triassic Anisian

713 sediments of the Winterswijk quarry in the Netherlands (Klompaker and Fraaije, 2011). A  
714 specimen of the fossil lobster *Meyeria pueblaensis* from the Aptian deposits of the San Juan Raya  
715 Formation in Mexico is preserved in the Lobster Open Mould Position with its walking legs  
716 displaced; its identification as a moult is reinforced by its fully compressed preservation, and the  
717 fact that it exhibits less morphological detail on the carapace than carcass specimens from the same  
718 site (Feldmann et al., 1995). Another species of this genus, *Meyeria magna*, is also preserved in  
719 the characteristic Lobster Open Mould Position (González-León et al., 2014) (Figs. 6A-D). Other  
720 taxa preserved in this position include *Palaeohomarus* from the Upper Cretaceous, and *Glyphea*  
721 and *Protaxius* from the Jurassic (Glaessner, 1969).

722         When a crab moults, the carapace splits open along the posterior and sides (the pleural  
723 sutures), hinging near the mouth such that the carapace is pushed upwards and forward as the  
724 animal exits posteriorly. This Open Mould Position can be recognised in the fossil record by the  
725 carapace making an angle of approximately 90° to the sternum, and the splitting of the carapace  
726 along the pleural sutures such that parts of the carapace outside the pleural sutures remain attached  
727 to the sternal plastron (Fig. 6E, F). The crab *Carcineretes planetarius* is found abundantly as  
728 moults with articulated appendages in the Maastrichtian deposits of the Ocozocoautla Formation  
729 in Chiapas, southeastern Mexico (Vega et al., 2005). Other crab taxa showing Open Mould Position  
730 include *Ranina*, *Notopocorystes*, *Coeloma*, *Potamon* and *Macrophthalmus* (Glaessner, 1969;  
731 Bishop, 1972, 1986).

732         Given that the articulation between the cephalothorax and the abdomen tends to be a  
733 particularly weak joint, it had also been suggested that the arrangement of fossil lobsters in Open  
734 Mould Position alone was not enough to definitively identify the specimen as a moult (Bishop,  
735 1986), particularly as it had long been thought that fossil crustacean cuticles did not preserve  
736 structures distinguishing between exuviae and unmoulted carapace (Glaesser, 1969; Schäfer,  
737 1972). However, detailed examination of the cuticular ultrastructure of fossil specimens of  
738 *Hoploparia stokes* from the Maastrichtian of the Lopez de Bertodano Formation on Seymour

739 Island, Antarctica, showed that moults can be distinguished from carcasses (Feldmann and Tshudy,  
740 1987). Owing to reabsorption of the cuticle prior to moulting, exuviae are characterised by  
741 deterioration or complete loss of lamination in the inner endocuticle only (as compared to loss of  
742 laminations in other regions of the cuticle reflecting diagenetic alteration). These fossil moults  
743 tend to be extremely well preserved as compared to carcasses, probably owing to a higher rate of  
744 disturbance to the carcasses from post-mortem scavenging. Based on this ultrastructure, Feldmann  
745 and Tshudy (1987) were able to conclude that specimens found in the Salterian position were  
746 indeed moults, as were many of the more fragmented specimens. Other specimens from Antarctica  
747 have been identified as moults, such as *Metanephrops jenkinsi* from the Cretaceous and Paleocene  
748 of Seymour Island, which is preserved in the Salterian position (Feldmann, 1989), and a single  
749 specimen of *Antarctidromia infalta* from the early Miocene of Cape Melville, in which the  
750 abdominal structures are articulated but rotated out of their life-plane and remain attached to the  
751 cephalothorax only in a small region (Feldmann and Gaździcki, 1998).

752 Another characteristic moult assemblage for decapod crustaceans consists of the carapace  
753 preserved upside-down and rotated on the sternum, known as the Overturned-Carapace Moult  
754 Position (Bishop, 1972, 1986). Fossils found in this Position include specimens of the crab  
755 *Dakotiocancer overanus* from the Upper Cretaceous Pierre Shale in South Dakota (Bishop, 1972).  
756 Specimens of the fossil lobsters *Pseudoglyphea* cf. *P. spinosa* and *Clytiopsis argentoratensis* from  
757 Middle Triassic Anisian sediments of the Winterswijk quarry in the Netherlands preserve the  
758 cephalothorax upside down and separated from the abdomen, with occasional splitting of the  
759 cephalothorax along the median line (Klomp maker and Fraaije, 2011).

760 Decapod moults do not always take the form of one of the three Moult Positions described  
761 above. Specimens of *Carcineretes woolacotti* from the Maastrichtian Ocozocuautila Formation in  
762 Mexico were identified as moults based on the thickness of the carapace and displacement of the  
763 sternal plastron. This collection also includes six pairs of specimen found in close association,  
764 consisting of a smaller moult and a larger carcass, interpreted as a freshly moulted individual

765 preserved with its recent exuvia (Vega et al., 2001). In all three pairs, the carcass was  
766 approximately 16% larger than the exuvia. Several specimens of the crab *Dakoticancer australia*  
767 from the Maastrichtian Difunta Group in Mexico are thought to represent moults owing to a lack  
768 of carapace material and preserved appendages, and displacement of the sternal plate (Vega and  
769 Feldmann, 1991). Similar sternal plate dislocation was used to determine that *D. australis*  
770 specimens found articulated in burrows at a nearby locality also represent moults, perhaps  
771 indicating a behaviour for these crabs of moulting in their burrows (Vega and Feldmann, 1991).  
772 The crab *Longusorbis cuniculosus* from the Upper Cretaceous Spray Formation of Vancouver  
773 Island, British Columbia, was found associated with filled burrows and encased in burrow-fill  
774 lithology, from which it was suggested that the specimens may have dug these burrows and  
775 moulted in enlarged terminal chambers (Richards, 1975). A specimen of carcineretid crab from  
776 the Late Cretaceous Point Loma Formation of San Diego, California has also been described in  
777 the terminal chamber of an burrow, but it is unknown if this specimen represents a moult or a  
778 carcass (Bishop, 1972). Additionally, specimens of the mud lobster *Thalassina* from Pleistocene  
779 deposits in northern Australia, New Guinea and Japan (Förster and Barthel, 1978; Murray and  
780 Hanley, 1986; Bishop and Williams, 2005) preserved in Lobster Open Mould Position have been  
781 found in the ends of tunnels, suggesting they may also moult in their burrows.

782         Polz (1995) reported the discovery of a fossil phyllosoma (lobster larval stage) being  
783 caught in the act of moulting, based on the presence of larval and “post-larval” features in the same  
784 specimen. Haug et al. (2009) alternatively suggest that this specimen, and another possible  
785 scyllarid larva, could actually be very late larval stages that already exhibit some “post-larval”  
786 characters. These specimens therefore need not represent crustaceans preserved mid-moult.

## 787 2.5 Hexapods

788         Moulted exuviae have been found in the hexapod fossil record. These empty moults may  
789 have a shrivelled appearance indicating partial desiccation, or deformations in the head or thorax.

790 The exuvial fissure is usually located dorsally in the anterior region of the body (Rasnitsyn, 2002).  
791 These may also have a “composite nature” (Kukalova, 1968, pg. 311) owing to the dorsal and  
792 ventral surfaces pressing together during preservation such that impressions of structures from  
793 both surfaces are superimposed onto both part and counterpart. Moulded cuticles identified in the  
794 literature include specimens of the mayfly nymph *Protereisma* from the Lower Permian of  
795 Oklahoma, USA, and Moravia, Czech Republic (Kukalova, 1968); a single specimen of the  
796 palaeodictyopteran *Lycocerus goldenbergi* from the Upper Carboniferous shales of Commentary,  
797 France (Kukalova, 1969; Kukalova-Peck, 1975); as well as numerous specimens of the mayfly  
798 *Ephemeropsis melanurus*, the beetle *Coptoclava longipoda* and the dragonfly *Hemeroscopus*  
799 *baissicus* in the Early Cretaceous of Baissa in Siberia (Rasnitsyn, 2002). A *Coptoclava* beetle  
800 specimen from the last locality has even been preserved mid-moult (Rasnitsyn, 2002, fig. 24).  
801 These published occurrences of fossil insect moults are preserved as compressions and  
802 impressions on fine-grained sediment, rather than preserved in amber.

803         The preservation of abundant moults in the insect fossil record could be effecting the  
804 ecological interpretation of assemblages by biasing the size and frequency distributions. In the  
805 lacustrine assemblage of the Early Cretaceous locality at Baissa, Siberia, where moults are  
806 abundant, dragonfly fossils are found two to ten times (and occasionally over 100 times) more  
807 frequently than beetles. Given that the assemblage is dominated by moulted exuviae, this  
808 discordance in abundance is likely reflecting the fact that dragonflies moult several more times  
809 during their lifetime than do beetles, rather than indicating that dragonflies were actually more  
810 abundant (Zherikhin, 1997; Rasnitsyn, 2002). Taphonomic experiments on extant decapod  
811 crustacean assemblages have suggested that a large abundance of empty moults in an assemblage  
812 can greatly affect the the size-frequency distributions of samples in comparison with living  
813 populations, with moults outnumbering carcasses by 15:1 under some mortality regimes (Hartnoll  
814 and Bryant, 1990).

## 815 **2.6. Other arthropods**



816           The Cambrian record of soft-bodied taxa preserved in fossil lagerstätten such as the  
817 Burgess Shale have yielded abundant arthropod fossils, some of which help illuminate the early  
818 fossil record of ecdysis. The best example of a fossil preserved mid-moult is seen in a single  
819 specimen of the extremely abundant arthropod *Marrella splendens* (García-Bellido and Collins,  
820 2004). An ecdysial suture is present at the anterior end of the head shield, through which the  
821 individual can be seen emerging (Fig. 7C). The wide lateral spines are folded inwards and  
822 backwards, indicating it was softer than usual during egress. Given the placement of this taxon in  
823 the stem lineage to mandibulata (Legg et al., 2013), its ecdysial behaviour can help identify the  
824 plesiomorphic condition for crustaceans and hexapods.

825           Other examples of arthropod moulting in the Cambrian fossil record are more  
826 circumstantial. For the trilobite-like arthropod *Naraoia* from the Chengjiang biota in China, the  
827 presence of isolated appendages, head shields, and pygidium elements are thought to indicate post-  
828 depositional disarticulation, possibly in connection with moulting (Hou et al., 1991). A single  
829 incomplete and partially degraded specimen of the stem lineage chelicerate *Sidneyia* from the  
830 Burgess Shale is preserved surrounded by numerous specimens of the scavenging priapulid-like  
831 worm *Ottoia* (Bruton, 2001). It was suggested that this assemblage could represent a dead, freshly  
832 moulted individual of *Sidneyia* that was providing a food source for the *Ottoia* worms (Bruton,  
833 2001), although upon re-examination Vannier (2012) pointed out that the carcass appears quite  
834 decayed, making it difficult to ascertain if it really was a freshly moulted individual. *Sidneyia*  
835 specimens typically preserve guts, digestive glands and abdominal pockets in phosphate,  
836 indicating that specimens are carcasses rather than empty moults (Zacai et al., this volume). A  
837 third example of possible moults from the Burgess Shale includes the highly disarticulated  
838 assemblages of the cephalic structures of the anomalocaridid *Hurdia*. This possible predator has a  
839 head bearing numerous partially sclerotized structures, including an oral cone with many plates, a  
840 pair of segmented appendages, a triangular central head shield element, and two lateral head shield  
841 elements (Daley et al., 2009, 2013). Disarticulated assemblages of these sclerotised head structures

842 are found in consistent orientation in many specimens, suggesting that they may represent moult  
843 ensembles (Daley et al., 2013, pg. 749).

844 Large fossils surfaces covered in numerous empty moults of the stem-lineage arthropods  
845 *Canadaspis* and *Alalcomenaeus* from the Burgess Shale are thought to be indicative of mass  
846 moulting behaviour (Fig. 8A, B, F). This synchronized moulting is similar to that seen in a wide  
847 variety of modern crustaceans, insects and arachnids (Haug et al., 2013). The reasons for  
848 synchronized moulting are discussed in Section 2.7. A notable Cambrian mass moulting locality  
849 is the Mount Stephen Trilobite Beds of the Burgess Shale, where abundant trilobite exuviae (Fig.  
850 8D) are found associated with numerous frontal appendages of the Cambrian apex predator  
851 *Anomalocaris canadensis* (Fig. 8C). It has been suggested that this predator was taking the  
852 opportunity of the mass moulting event to feast on the freshly moulted trilobites before their  
853 exoskeletons had the chance to completely harden after moulting (Rudkin, 1979, 2009).

## 854 **2.6. Other ecdysozoans**

855 The moulting fossil record of other ecdysozoans (Fig. 1) is mostly confined to the  
856 Cambrian, with specimens of lobopodians, Loricifera, palaeoscolecids and Priapulida providing  
857 insight into moulting behaviour in non-arthropod ecdysozoans. Sub-fossil Holocene moults from  
858 tardigrades have also been described (Gibson et al., 2007). The other ecdysozoan phyla  
859 Kinochyncha, Nematoda, and Nematomorpha have a very poor (or non-existent) fossil record  
860 generally, such that the odds of finding moults are low.

### 861 **2.6.1. Loriciferans**

862 As one of the most recently discovered metazoan phyla (Kristensen, 1983), it is not  
863 surprising that the fossil record of Loricifera is sparse and poorly known. These tiny marine  
864 animals live in the sediment inside a protective outer case called a lorica. The only plausible  
865 palaeontological record of loriciferans consists of the macrofossils *Sirilorica carlsbergi* and  
866 *Sirilorica pustulosa* from the early Cambrian Sirius Passet biota of Greenland (Peel, 2010).

867 Although it is the less common of the two species, a single specimen of *S. pustulosa* has been  
868 preserved in the process of moulting (Peel et al., 2013). A nearly complete animal, including its  
869 anterior thorax with denticles, the loricated abdomen, and part of the anal field, is seen emerging  
870 from an opening between the anterior and posterior plate circlets of the lorica of the exuvia (Fig.  
871 7A). This is exactly the same moulting behaviour observed in the modern loriciferan taxon  
872 *Rugiloricus* (Higgins and Kristensen, 1986; Peel et al., 2013). The fossil specimen is thought to  
873 represent a moult not only because of this orientation, but also because of the distorted and  
874 ruptured exuvial lorica, and the lack of an introvert in the exuvia.

### 875 2.6.2. Lobopodians

876 Lobopodians are soft-bodied Cambrian animals with an annulated body bearing paired  
877 limbs, distinguished by a variety of specialised appendages anteriorly and dermal sclerites along  
878 the body (Chen et al., 1995; Liu and Dunlop, 2014; Ma et al., 2014). As an abundant fossil of the  
879 Cambrian, studies of their phylogenetic affinities are revealing them to be early stem lineage  
880 members of both Arthropoda and Onychophora (Smith and Ortega-Hernández, 2014). Their fossil  
881 record consists of both full-body preservation in Cambrian lagerstätten such as the Chengijiang  
882 Biota in China and the Burgess Shale in Canada, and of sclerotized dermal sclerites that make up  
883 a large proportion of the mineralised microfossil record. A single body specimen of the xenusiid  
884 lobopodian *Hadranax* from the Sirius Passet biota of North Greenland was suggested to be a  
885 moulted exuvia because of its distorted preservation, and it has been suggested that xenuxian  
886 lobopodians in general shed their cuticle through a mid-ventral split in the body (Dzik and  
887 Krumbiegel, 1989; Bergström and Hou, 2001). However, Zhang and Aldridge (2007) considered  
888 these specimens as inconclusive evidence of ecdysis.

889 The dermal sclerites of lobopodians provide much more information on ecdysis in this  
890 group. These help illustrate lobopodian ontogeny, with the identification of discrete instars  
891 showing characteristic changes in morphology during growth, suggesting that lobopodians

892 moulted as they grew, rather than having incremental growth (Zhang and Aldridge, 2007). The  
893 lobopodian sclerite fossil record also reveals specimens thought to have been preserved just prior  
894 to moulting, before the old sclerite was shed from the body. These conjoined specimens consist of  
895 a larger plate attached to the underside of a smaller plate, with the larger being in the range of 13-  
896 20% for *Microdictyon sinicum* from the Chengjiang Biota (Chen et al., 1995), and 24% in  
897 *Onychodictyon* sp. from North Greenland (Fig. 7B) (Topper et al., 2013). In the *Microdictyon*, at  
898 least five full body specimens show multiple conjoined plates along the body of the lobopodian  
899 (Chen et al., 1995). Rare conjoined plates have also been found in large collections of isolated  
900 sclerites of *Microdictyon jinshaense*, *Microdictyon chinense* and *Quadratopora zhenbaensis*,  
901 showing that this type of ecdysis behaviour, with the new plate growing in underneath the old  
902 plate, is widespread in lobopodians. No indication of reabsorption was found in these conjoined  
903 sclerite specimens, with the old one showing no sign of deformation or wrinkling as compared to  
904 the new one (Zhang and Aldridge, 2007).

905 A different mode of moulting has been described for the Cambrian lobopodian  
906 *Hallucigenia* from the Burgess Shale, which has sclerites in the form of appendicular claws and  
907 dorsal spines. These sclerites have a unique “cone-in-cone construction” (Caron et al., 2013, pg.  
908 5), which consists of a stack of three to five elements that are separated from each other along a  
909 logarithmic curve and grow from a basal accretional zone (Smith and Ortega-Hernández, 2014).  
910 These have been shown to have fundamentally the same construction as the claws in the extant  
911 onychophoran *Euperipatoides* (Caron et al., 2013; Smith and Ortega-Hernández, 2014). In both  
912 *Euperipatoides* and *Hallucigenia*, internal constituent elements are future replacements of the  
913 outermost elements, which are discarded during ecdysis. After the outermost element is discarded,  
914 a new innermost element is secreted and the bases of all existing elements are extended. This  
915 represents an ecdysial behaviour that is distinct from other ecdysozoans, being quite different from  
916 the direct replacement seen in some lobopodians (Zhang and Aldridge, 2007) and from the retained  
917 exuviae in Eridostracina ostracods (Olempska, 2012) where overlying moults are retained during

918 ontogeny and accumulate as the organisms grows, without removal by ecdysis. Owing to this  
919 shared moulting behaviour, Smith and Ortega-Hernández (2014) suggest an onychophoran affinity  
920 for the enigmatic Cambrian taxon *Hallucigenia*.

### 921 2.6.3. Palaeoscoleoids

922 Palaeoscoleoids are a lower Palaeozoic group of vermiform animals that have a widely  
923 debated affinity, but are generally aligned with Cycloneuralia (ie. non-Panarthropoda  
924 ecdysozoans), and specifically either with Priapulida or Nematomorpha (García-Bellido et al.,  
925 2013). Their cuticle was annulated and covered in rows of sclerites, fragments or elements which  
926 are often found as 3-dimensionally preserved phosphatic small shelly fossils (SSF). Complete  
927 body fossils may also show soft-bodied preservation in fine-grained shales (e.g. Burgess Shale-  
928 type localities), and one such specimen of *Wronascolex antiquus* from the Emu Bay Shale in South  
929 Australia (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) is thought to represent an empty moult. It is distinctive in  
930 possessing a break through its middle and a pronounced wrinkle across its width, while also being  
931 strongly compressed with weakly expressed annulations and lacking surficial relief (García-  
932 Bellido et al., 2013, fig. 3D , E). The authors thought it unlikely that the tear through the trunk  
933 represented the position of the exuvial opening, based on comparison to the location of the rupture  
934 at the base of the introvert, and not in the middle of the trunk, in the extant *Priapulius caudatus*.  
935 Palaeoscoleoid material from the middle Cambrian Georgina Basin of Queensland, Australia, is  
936 preserved as 3-dimensional Orsten-type fossils, two of which show a double-layer structure of the  
937 phosphatised cuticle with sclerites (Müller and Hinz-Schallreuter, 1993, text-figs. 12B, 14C). This  
938 has been interpreted to represent individuals preserved shortly before moulting (Müller and Hinz-  
939 Schallreuter, 1993; García-Bellido et al., 2013), in a manner similar to that described in section  
940 2.6.2 for lobopodian dermal sclerites.

### 941 2.6.4. Priapulida

942 Stem lineage priapulid body fossils are relatively abundant in some Cambrian Burgess  
943 Shale-type localities, while isolated microfossils of the spines lining the pharynx and introvert are  
944 widespread in Cambrian deposits. A detailed study of body fossils of *Ottoia prolifica* from the  
945 Burgess Shale revealed that the majority of published specimens were carcasses rather than moults,  
946 as indicated by the presence of gut structures and other internal organs (Conway Morris, 1977).  
947 Moulting capability in *Ottoia prolifica* is indicated by the frequent detachment of the body wall  
948 and cuticle, visible in the fossil as a contracted area of highly reflective body wall that has pulled  
949 away from the outer cuticle, which is left in place as an unreflective area that still maintains the  
950 original body outline (Conway Morris, 1977). One specimen in particular was described as “on  
951 the threshold of moulting” (Conway Morris, 1977, pg. 11) because its anterior end appears to have  
952 withdrawn, leaving behind a dark area. The cuticle seems to have been more resistant to decay  
953 than the internal structures, and some specimens consist of a collapsed and folded outer cuticle  
954 with an absence of nearly all internal organs, except for traces of the gut, which indicate that these  
955 fossils are decayed remnants of carcasses rather than moults (e.g. Conway Morris, 1977, text-figs.  
956 49, 52, 64). Some specimens that are exceptionally well preserved seem not to have been affected  
957 by decay at all, and these have the body wall preserved as a highly reflective film that obscures  
958 details of the internal anatomy (Conway Morris, 1977, text-fig. 67). The lack of visible internal  
959 anatomy in these specimens could lead to them being interpreted as empty moults, however  
960 consideration of contextual information such as their completeness, lack of distortion and  
961 presence of some traces of internal anatomy should prevent them from being misidentified as  
962 moults. The only specimens suggested to actually represent moults of *Ottoia prolifica* are a few  
963 specimens consisting of the anterior proboscis only (e.g. Conway Morris, 1977, pg. 31, text-figs.  
964 47, 48), based on comparisons to the moulted cuticle of the modern taxon *Priapululus*, where the  
965 anterior proboscis is everted and detached from the specimen during moulting (Lang, 1948).  
966

967           The only other published description of moulting in the fossil record of Priapulida is a  
968 specimen of *Eximipriapululus globocaudatus* from the Chengjiang biota that has been interpreted as  
969 an empty moulted cuticle, based on the complete absence of internal anatomical features and its  
970 contracted and wrinkled appearance (Ma et al., 2014, figs. 1.5a, 1.5b , 2.7). This is inconsistent  
971 with the type of specimens described as moults by Conway Morris (1977), highlighting the need  
972 for more detailed study on moulting in Cambrian priapulid worms.

## 973 **2.7. Mass moulting behaviour**

974           Ecdysis may constitute a significant social behaviour in fossil ecdysozoans. Synchronised  
975 mass moulting events have been observed in many modern crustaceans, insects and arachnids.  
976 These are variously triggered abiotically (for example circadian rhythms in aphids; Johnson et al.,  
977 1957) or through active communication (pheromones) (Haug et al., 2013). These mass moultings  
978 were succinctly reviewed in Haug et al. (2013) for extinct arthropod groups. Mass moulting  
979 assemblages include trilobites from the Cambrian (Fig. 8E) (Paterson et al., 2007; Ebbestad et al.,  
980 2013), Ordovician (Karim and Westrop, 2002) and Devonian (Speyer and Brett, 1985); the soft-  
981 bodied arthropods *Canadaspis* and *Alalcomenaeus* from the Cambrian Burgess Shale (Fig. 8A, B,  
982 F) (Haug et al., 2013); eurypterids from the Silurian (Braddy, 2001; Vrazo and Braddy, 2011); and  
983 shrimps from the Jurassic (Polz and Tischlinger, 2000), all of which consist of large numbers of  
984 empty exuviae in close proximity. These assemblages show no evidence for abiotic transport,  
985 reworking or time-averaging, and so are generally accepted to represent actual biological mass  
986 moulting events. Another example of a supposed mass moult of mantis shrimps from the  
987 Carboniferous (Schöllmann, 2004) has been shown to co-occur with complete carcasses (Haug et  
988 al., 2013) and so may not represent a mass moult assemblage.

989           Haug et al., (2013) also discuss the possible evolutionary functions of coordinated  
990 moulting. In extant arthropods, mating is often synchronised with moulting, particularly at the  
991 moult stage when the organism reaches sexual maturity (e.g. Kamio et al., 2014), as the associated

992 gregarious behaviour of many individuals in close proximity would decrease the predation  
993 pressure on any one individual (Haug et al., 2013). Synchronised moulting, mating and spawning  
994 in adults would also lead to synchronised development in offspring, which would then benefit  
995 from a similar reduction of predation pressure in crowded nursery habitats. This may explain  
996 trilobite (Speyer and Brett, 1985; Karim and Westrop, 2002; Paterson et al., 2007) and eurypterid  
997 (Braddy, 2001; Vrazo and Braddy, 2011) mass moult assemblages. However, Haug et al. (2013)  
998 and other researchers (for example Tetlie et al., 2008) reject this idea, although note that it may  
999 explain clusters of *Canadaspis perfecta* exuviae. The ‘mass-mate-moult’ hypothesis suggested for  
1000 eurypterids (Speyer and Brett, 1985; Braddy, 2001), where females remain in shallow water post-  
1001 mating and deposit their eggs prior to moulting, is dependent on the system of gender recognition.  
1002 As pointed out by Haug et al. (2013), this hypothesis is influenced by comparisons to the extant  
1003 horseshoe crab *Limulus*, which generally does not couple moulting with mating (Loveland, 2002;  
1004 Shuster and Sekiguchi, 2004) even if large numbers of individuals aggregate during mating.  
1005 Despite uncertainties about the motivation behind it, the repeated occurrence of mass moulting  
1006 within trilobites and other Palaeozoic arthropods suggests that this behaviour may have been  
1007 common within early ecdysozoans, and even ancestral to Trilobita.

### 1008 **3. Quantitative analysis of the trilobite fossil record of moulting**

1009 Our review of the literature indicates that an abundance of information on moulting has  
1010 been accumulating in publications on fossil ecdysozoans, with a particular focus on moulting  
1011 methods within trilobites. Many of these publications are isolated reports on the taxonomy or  
1012 systematics of particular groups, where identification of moult assemblages is included as part of  
1013 the descriptive work, or they examine moulting behaviour within a particular trilobite group or  
1014 geological time period (e.g. Whittington, 1990). Reviews examining patterns in moulting  
1015 behaviour amongst all trilobites are rare (Henningsmoen, 1975; Speyer, 1990) but highly  
1016 informative for examining large-scale trends in the evolution of trilobite ecdysis (Brandt, 2002).  
1017 Enough published work has now accumulated that quantitative analyses are possible, and the



1018 prevalence of different moulting behaviours can be identified within trilobite Orders (Table 1) and  
1019 traced throughout geological time. We amassed all published information on trilobite moulting  
1020 behaviour into a database (Appendix 1) and subjected it to a series of statistical analyses designed  
1021 to reveal the evolutionary patterns of this important behaviour and validate trends described  
1022 qualitatively in previous publications (Henningsmoen, 1975; Speyer, 1990).

### 1023 **3.1. Methods**

1024 To facilitate visualisation and statistical analysis of the trends in trilobite moulting, a  
1025 summary data set was produced from the literature (see Appendix 1). This scored the presence of  
1026 six ecdysial behaviours preserved for a range of trilobite taxa across eight Orders from the Early  
1027 Cambrian to Late Carboniferous. This included: opening of the facial sutures; removal of the  
1028 rostral plate; removal of the cephalon; removal of the cranidium; displacement of the pygidium;  
1029 and disarticulation along the thorax. We used Brandt (2002, table 2) as a starting point, adding  
1030 omitted descriptive literature and work published post-2002 with information about trilobite  
1031 moulting. Only adult specimens specifically described as exuviae were included. A single taxon  
1032 could display multiple ecdysial behaviours between or within specimens (e.g. opening of the  
1033 facial sutures followed by disarticulation of the cranidium); this has been indicated when noted  
1034 in the literature (Appendix 1). This produced a larger sample size of total occurrences (of  
1035 ecdysial behaviours) than the total number of trilobite taxa sampled. For each entry in the  
1036 database, the geological age of the specimen was determined from the publication where  
1037 moulting was described, if this was easily translated to the most recent International  
1038 Chronostratigraphic Chart (ICS) (Gradstein et al., 2012). For specimens where the given locality  
1039 date did not correspond directly with the current Stages/EPOCHS of the ICS (e.g. Middle  
1040 Cambrian), more recent literature or occurrence data (in the Palaeobiology Database) were  
1041 consulted to place the localities in the current ICS framework and gather them into time bins  
1042 corresponding to geological Periods (Fig. 10) and Series (Fig. 11).

1043           Graphs created in R (R Development Core Team 2008) display the variation in occurrence  
1044 of the six different ecdysial behaviours between trilobite Orders and through geological time (Figs.  
1045 9-11).  $\chi^2$  analyses were performed in PAST3 (Hammer et al., 2001) for each behaviour using  
1046 the observed data paired with expected numbers of observations. Uneven sample sizes were  
1047 corrected for in calculating the expected observations. Agnostida (n=1) was removed for analyses  
1048 testing the differences in mode of ecdysis between trilobite Orders. We tested  $H_0$  = no significant  
1049 difference in ecdysial behaviour across geological Periods or Series, or between the trilobite  
1050 Orders.

1051           Specimens were photographed by a Canon EOS 500D digital SLR under incident and  
1052 polarised lighting. The camera was fitted with a Canon EF-S 60 mm Macro Lens, and remotely  
1053 operated by the EOS Utility 2.8.1.0 program. Adobe Photoshop and Illustrator CS6 were used to  
1054 make minor adjustments to the exposure of the images and removed unwanted background, and  
1055 to make figures.

### 1056 **3.2. Results**

1057           Figure 9 shows clear differences in ecdysial behaviour between and within the different  
1058 trilobite Orders (summarised in Table 1), providing initial support for a link between phylogeny  
1059 and moulting in Trilobita. Phacopid taxa show a significantly higher occurrence of cephalon  
1060 removal during ecdysis ( $p=5.8 \times 10^{-7}$ , Table 2) as compared to other moulting methods, although  
1061 facial suture utilisation is also prevalent. Opening of the facial sutures during ecdysis, usually  
1062 accompanied by removal of the librigenae, was the prevalent behaviour in all Orders excepting  
1063 Phacopida (Fig. 9A). This produced an insignificant result when applying the  $\chi^2$  test ( $p=0.378$ )  
1064 because there is no clear difference between which Orders display the behaviour. Redlichiida also  
1065 show a tendency towards removal of the rostral plate (possibly followed by ventral exuviation of  
1066 the moult;  $p=0.00234$ , Table 2) (Fig. 9A). The  $\chi^2$  test applied to all Orders with sample sizes  $>5$   
1067 also determined a significant difference in which Orders employed disarticulation of the cranium  
1068 (following detachment of the librigenae) during ecdysis ( $p=0.0418$ , Table 2). Odontopleurida and

1069 Phacopida rarely, if ever, show this behaviour (Fig. 9A). Overall, Redlichiida and Ptychopariida  
1070 display the greatest variation in ecdysial behaviour. This may be an artefact of their larger sample  
1071 sizes, however it could also be reflecting the greater morphological plasticity of these trilobites  
1072 during the Cambrian as compared to later trilobite groups (Webster, 2007).

1073 Family-level variation in ecdysial behaviour for Phacopida indicates the secondary  
1074 utilisation of facial sutures during moult exuviation is owing to the high prevalence of this  
1075 moulting method in Calymenidae, Dalmanitidae and Encrinuridae (Fig. 9B). The other five  
1076 Families show removal of the cephalon in 100% of the taxa sampled. Family-level data for  
1077 Redlichiida reveals extensive variation in ecdysial habit within the Order (Fig. 9C). Four of the  
1078 Families show removal of the rostral plate in 100% of taxa (Fallotaspidae, Olenellidae,  
1079 Wanneriidae, Xystroderidae), and four employment of the facial sutures in 100% of taxa  
1080 (Emuellidae, Gigantopygidae, Redlichiidae, and Xystroderidae) (Fig. 9C).

1081 The results also suggest patterns in ecdysis varied through geological time. As expected,  
1082 cephalic disarticulation and opening of the facial sutures were the most common methods of  
1083 ecdysis throughout the majority of the Early Cambrian to Late Carboniferous (Fig. 10, 11). These  
1084 show an opposing pattern due to being mutually exclusive behaviours. The continued utilisation  
1085 of the facial sutures resulted in an insignificant Chi<sup>2</sup> result ( $p=0.051$  and  $0.7$ ) (Fig. 10, 11).  
1086 Cephalon removal for ecdysis was at its peak during the Devonian (92% of taxa), resulting in only  
1087 8% of trilobite taxa displaying opened facial sutures (Fig. 10). This behaviour was also common  
1088 during the Ordovician (48% of taxa, 71% in Late Ordovician) (Fig. 10). This temporal variation  
1089 in a cephalon-thorax fracture during moulting is considered statistically significant ( $p=2.18 \times 10^{-6}$ ,  
1090 Table 2).

1091 Removal of the cranidium (necessitating release of the librigenae) for ecdysis is  
1092 widespread (present in >25% of taxa) during the Cambrian, Ordovician and Carboniferous As  
1093 expected this somewhat tracks trends in utilisation of the facial sutures (Fig. 10, 11), although this

1094 was not significant. Loss of the rostral plate for ecdysis is common in the Cambrian (39% of taxa,  
1095 >70% during the first half), but declines in frequency until its absence in the Devonian and  
1096 Carboniferous (Fig. 10, 11). This trend is statistically significant ( $p=0.0084$ , Table 2). The other  
1097 two ecdysial behaviours are less common. Pygidium displacement is present in 50% of taxa during  
1098 the Middle Devonian (Fig. 10, 11), but is otherwise rare or absent. Thoracic dislocation is very  
1099 rare from the Middle Ordovician (present in 17% of taxa at this time).

### 1100 **3.3. Discussion:**

1101 The preliminary results presenting variation in trilobite ecdysial behaviour suggest some  
1102 chronological and taxonomic signal resides in the moult fossil record. Generally, modes of ecdysis  
1103 that vary significantly across trilobite Orders (disarticulation of the cephalon, and of the cranidium,  
1104 Table 2) agreed with those qualitatively summarised in the literature review (Section 2.1.). Further,  
1105 the lack of significant taxonomic variation in facial suture moulting was expected from the  
1106 prevalence of this behaviour across all Orders (Fig. 9A). The Family-level variation in phacopids  
1107 and redlichiids described in the literature is also captured in Figure 9B and 9C. Overall the results  
1108 clearly support the well-known inter- and intraspecific variability in trilobite moulting. This high  
1109 variability in the moulting method used by different trilobite individuals belonging to the same  
1110 Family, Genus or even Species is in opposition to the “canalised ecdysial habit” of other arthropods  
1111 (Brandt, 2002, pg. 399), where moulting method is robust and consistent for all members of a  
1112 Genus, Family or higher taxonomic classification (e.g. the “Open Mould Position” of decapod  
1113 crustaceans such as lobsters and crabs (Glaessner, 1969; Bishop, 1972, 1986). In these extant  
1114 arthropods, taxa with a similar overall morphology will moult using the same method, whereas  
1115 trilobite taxa sharing similar overall morphology may moult using many different methods. This  
1116 lack of consistency in moulting behaviour within trilobites may have affected the evolutionary  
1117 success and survivorship of the clade (Brandt 2002), although these links are far from  
1118 straightforward. Our results suggest that a quantitative approach to studying large-scale  
1119 evolutionary trends of trilobite ecdysis is feasible and warrants further investigation.

1120           However, low sample sizes for several of the Orders (particularly Agnostida,  
1121 Corynexochida, Odontopleurida, and Proetida) and during the Carboniferous indicate the need for  
1122 more extensive sampling of trilobite moulting patterns before more rigorous statistical analysis.  
1123 Perhaps fewer significant trends would be observed if all Order sample sizes were greater, and the  
1124 full range of within-Order variation in ecdysis could be observed. Significant trends in variation  
1125 of ecdysial behaviours through geological time may also be attributable to fluctuations in  
1126 biodiversity and abundance of certain trilobite clades. For example, Phacopida trilobites moult by  
1127 cephalon removal, and so a peak in this method of moulting is seen during the Ordovician  
1128 coincidental with the origin and radiation of the Order.

1129           The analysis presented exploring trends in trilobite moulting should be extended to  
1130 encompass a much larger sample size, but also similar ventures made into detailing and  
1131 quantifying the ecdysial patterns preserved in the fossil records of other arthropods. Following  
1132 from the work of Brandt (2002), many other lines of inquiry may prove associations between  
1133 ecdysial mode in different ecdysozoan groups to broader-scale macroevolutionary processes, such  
1134 as development and body size, particular environmental cues, or phylogeny.

#### 1135 **4. Conclusions:**

1136           The focus on trilobite ecdysis in this paper reflects the bias to this group in the moult fossil  
1137 record descriptive literature. However, we have detailed what information does exist for ecdysis  
1138 in other marine arthropods (particularly Eurypterida and Crustacea), as well as for non-arthropod  
1139 ecdysozoans. Work focusing on moulting in these groups is sparse, and in most cases limited to  
1140 very few specimens of loriciferans, palaeoscolecids, priapulids, and lobopodians from the early  
1141 Palaeozoic. Even rarer glimpses of exuviation preserved mid-moult (e.g. García-Bellido and  
1142 Collins, 2004) have the potential to identify the taxonomic affinity of enigmatic fossils (Peel et al.,  
1143 2013; Smith and Ortega-Hernández, 2014).

1144           Methods of studying moulting in the fossil record are highly dependent on the group under  
1145 examination, and no canonised set of rules or assumptions exists across Ecdysozoa generally. In  
1146 some sclerotised taxa, such as eurypterids (Tetlie et al., 2008; Vrazo and Braddy, 2011; Vrazo et  
1147 al., 2014) and decapods (Mertin, 1941; Schäfer, 1972), moults are thought to be more prevalent  
1148 than carcasses in the fossil record, and specimens are assumed to be moults unless proven  
1149 otherwise. Fossils of carcasses in these taxonomic groups are relatively rare. In Eurypterids, this  
1150 is influenced by comparisons to modern taxa, such as *Limulus*, where the exuvial suture closes up  
1151 after moulting, although this may not be the most appropriate analogue given the uncertain affinity  
1152 of eurypterids (Tetlie et al., 2008) and the great expanse of geological time separating them. On  
1153 the other hand, Mesozoic crustacean fossils benefit from having direct modern analogues, and so  
1154 detailed information on their ultrastructure can provide more confidence in identifying moults in  
1155 the fossil record.

1156           A different tact is employed when studying the trilobite fossil record of moulting – more  
1157 debate exists on deciding whether a specimen is a moult or not, with a tendency to assume  
1158 complete trilobites are carcasses. Debate here focuses on whether disarticulated materials  
1159 represent moult assemblages, or post-depositional disruption, meaning that more emphasis is  
1160 placed on understanding the depositional environment (Henningsmoen, 1975). In contrast to  
1161 eurypterids and even decapods, there is no published suggestion that trilobite ecdysial sutures  
1162 could close after moulting, giving the false appearance of a complete carcass. For example, once  
1163 the facial sutures opened in a trilobite, there is little chance they will close up again immediately  
1164 afterwards. This is partly due to the mineralised nature of the trilobite exoskeleton, as compared  
1165 to the sclerotized cuticles of other ecdysozoan taxa. As such, the trilobite fossil record of moulting  
1166 contains important signal on temporal and taxonomic variation of this major morphological  
1167 innovation.

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1181

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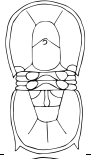
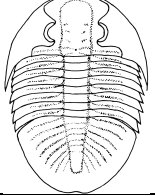
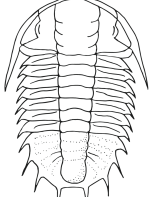
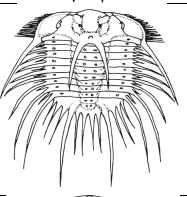
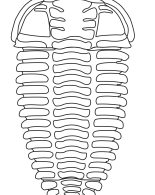
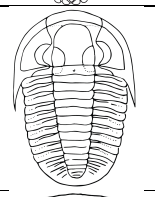
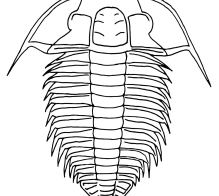
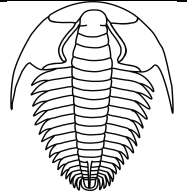
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1803 Table 1: Summary table of published descriptions of moulting behaviour in trilobite Orders

Order	Morphology	Moulting behaviour <sup>1</sup>	# of sp. <sup>2</sup>	Age range	Key References <sup>3</sup>
Agnostida e.g. <i>Girvanagnostus</i>		1. Facial sutures opened	1	Cambrian-Ordovician	Lin and Yuan (2009)
Asaphida e.g. <i>Ogygiocaris</i>		1. Facial sutures opened 2. Cranidium removed 3. Cephalon removed	9	Cambrian-Silurian	Chatterton and Ludvigsen (1998); Karim and Westrop (2002)
Corynexochida e.g. <i>Olenoides</i>		1. Facial sutures opened 2. Rostral plate removed 2. Cephalon removed 2. Cranidium removed	3	Cambrian-Devonian	Chen et al. (2008)
Odontopleurida e.g. <i>Odontopleura</i>		1. Facial sutures opened 2. Rostral plate removed 2. Pygidium displaced	4	Cambrian-Devonian	Adrain and Chatterton (1990); Edgecombe and Sherwin (2001)
Phacopida e.g. <i>Placoparia</i>		1. Cephalon removed 2. Facial sutures opened 3. Pygidium displaced 4. Thoracic dislocation 5. Cranidium removed	32	Ordovician-Devonian	Budil and Bruthansová (2005); Hunda et al. (2006); Rustán et al. (2011)
Proetida e.g. <i>Cyphoproetus</i>		1. Facial sutures opened 2. Cranidium removed 3. Cephalon removed	7	Cambrian-Permian	Edgecombe and Sherwin (2001)
Ptychopariida e.g. <i>Olenus</i>		1. Facial sutures opened 2. Cranidium removed 3. Thoracic dislocation 4. Pygidium displaced 5. Rostral plate removed 5. Cephalon removed	21	Cambrian-Ordovician	Chatterton and Ludvigsen (1998); Clarkson et al. (2003); Tortello and Clarkson (2008)
Redlichiida e.g. <i>Redlichia</i>		1 Facial sutures opened 2. Rostral plate removed 3. Cranidium removed 4. Thoracic dislocation 5. Pygidium displaced 6. Cephalon removed	24	Cambrian	McNamara (1986); Öpik (1958); Paterson et al. (2007)

1804 <sup>1</sup>In order of most common moulting behaviour (1) amongst individuals of species within that Order, to  
1805 least common.

1806 <sup>2</sup>Number of species from the Order in data set.

1807 <sup>3</sup>A selection of references that specifically describe ecdysis for species of each Order.

1808 Table 2: Chi<sup>2</sup> and p-values testing for variation in the six trilobite ecdysial behaviours, with  
 1809 significant results shaded in grey.

	Rostral plate removed	Facial sutures opening	Cephalon removed	Dislocation along thorax	Pygidium displaced	Cranidium removed
<b>Geological Periods (Cambrian-Devonian)</b>	<sup>1</sup> χ <sup>2</sup> =12.8	χ <sup>2</sup> =7.77	χ <sup>2</sup> =29.1	χ <sup>2</sup> =2.1	χ <sup>2</sup> =5.35	χ <sup>2</sup> =3.11
	p=0.0084	p=0.051	p=2.18E-06	p=0.552	p=0.148	p=0.375
	<sup>2</sup> n=19	n=56	n=33	n=13	n=13	n=22
<b>Geological Series (Terreneuvian-Late Ordovician)</b>	χ <sup>2</sup> =23.4	χ <sup>2</sup> =3.83	χ <sup>2</sup> =25.1	χ <sup>2</sup> =5.4	χ <sup>2</sup> =1.07	χ <sup>2</sup> =2.89
	p=0.00061	p=0.7	p=0.000328	p=0.494	p=0.983	p=0.823
	n=21	n=49	n=21	n=12	n=9	n=21
<b>Orders (without Agnostida)</b>	χ <sup>2</sup> =25.9	χ <sup>2</sup> =6.42	χ <sup>2</sup> =39.5	χ <sup>2</sup> =4.02	χ <sup>2</sup> =3.47	χ <sup>2</sup> =10.9
	p=0.000234	p=0.378	p=5.8E-07	p=0.674	p=0.748	p=0.0919
	n=19	n=57	n=32	n=13	n=13	n=22
<sup>3</sup> <b>Orders (without Agnostida, Corynexochida, Odontopleurida)</b>	χ <sup>2</sup> =25.5	χ <sup>2</sup> =4.91	χ <sup>2</sup> =38.2	χ <sup>2</sup> =3.1	χ <sup>2</sup> =2.55	χ <sup>2</sup> =9.92
	p=3.94E-05	p=0.296	p=1E-07	p=0.54	p=0.635	p=0.0418
	n=19	n=57	n=32	n=13	n=13	n=22

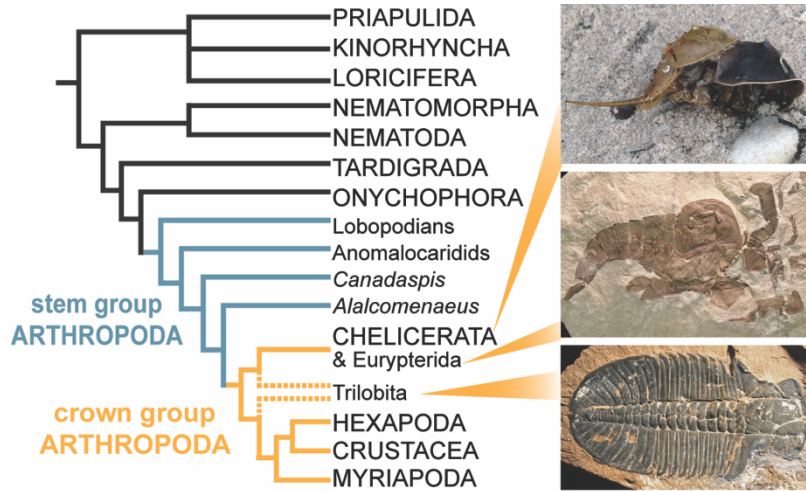
1810 1: Chi<sup>2</sup> value calculated in PAST3 (Hammer et al. 2001) for the observed versus expected  
 1811 observations of trilobite ecdysial behaviour. H<sub>0</sub> = no significant difference in ecdysial behaviour  
 1812 across geological Periods or Series, or between the trilobite Orders (see left-most column).

1813 2: Sample size (n) represents the number of occurrences of each ecdysial behaviour; this is greater  
 1814 than the number of taxa included because some specimens exhibit more than one behaviour.

1815 3: Chi<sup>2</sup> analyses run while excluding all trilobite Orders with a sample size of n=<5.

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1817 **Figure captions:**



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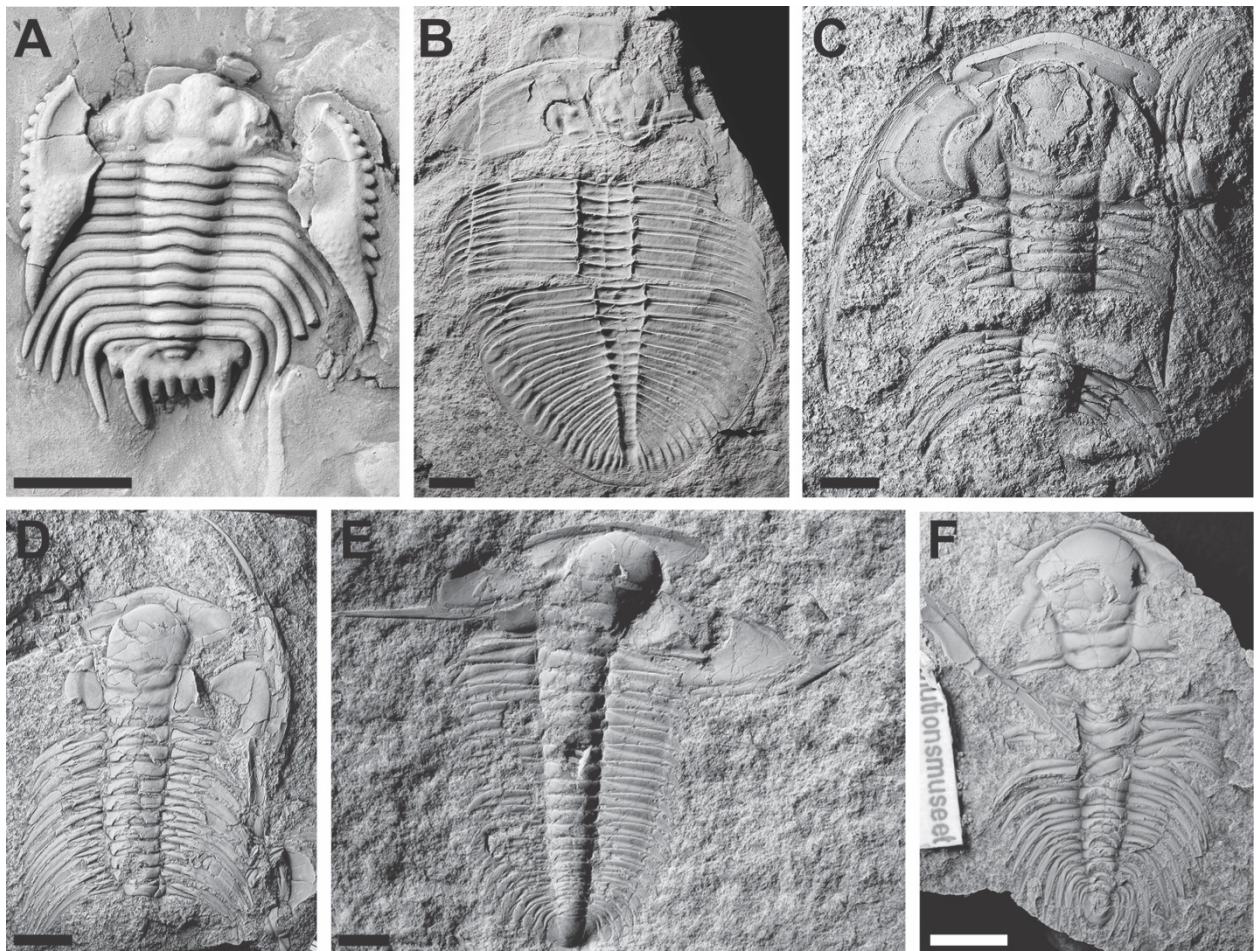
1819 **Fig. 1.** Generalised phylogeny of ecdysozoans, with extant phyla in ALLCAPS and fossil

1820 groups/taxa in lowercase lettering. Phylogeny based on Dunn et al. (2014), Rota-Stabelli et al.

1821 (2013) and Legg et al. (2013). Images from top: Horseshoe crab in the process of moulting (Image

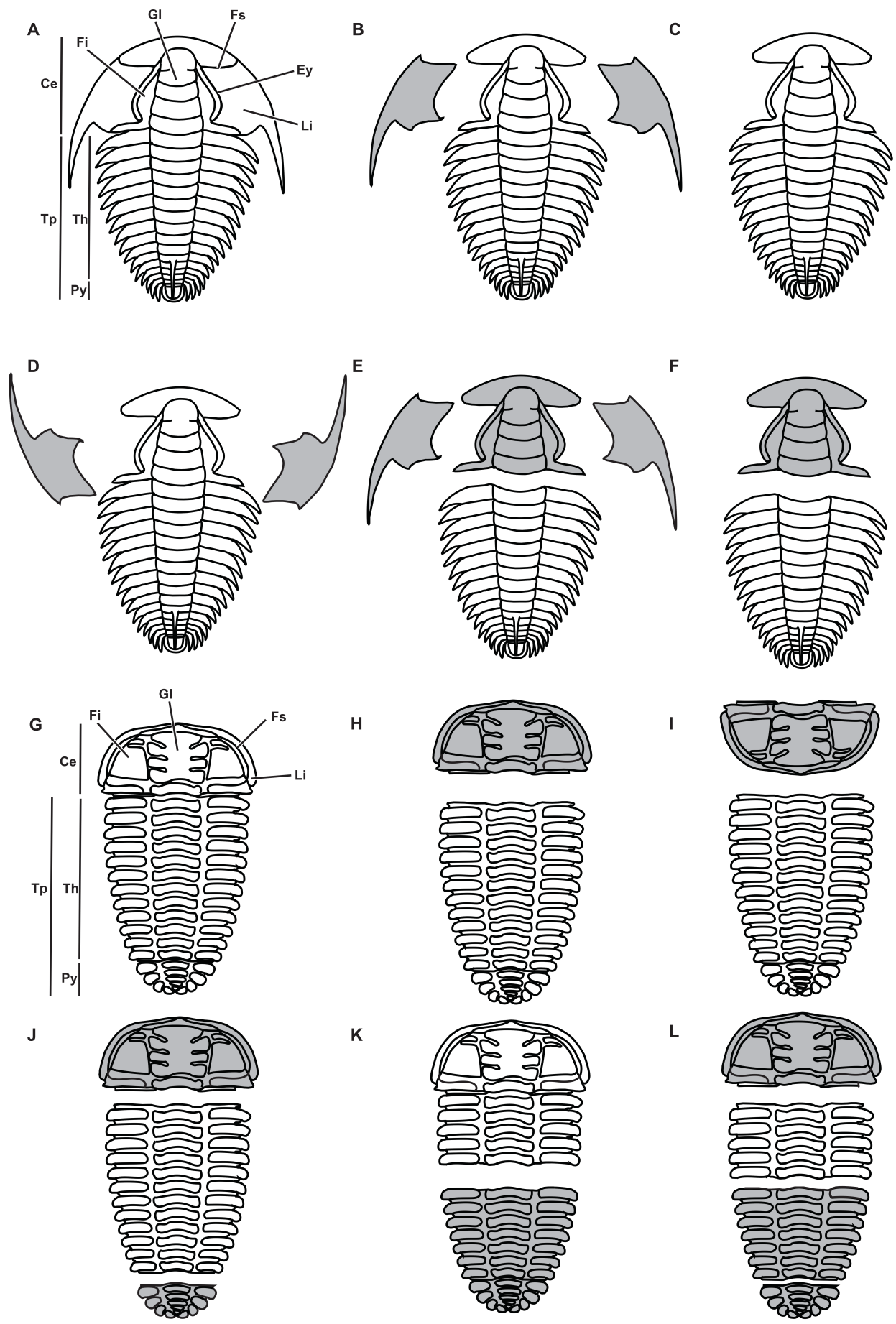
1822 credit: Wikimedia Commons); Eurypterid moulting ensemble, YPM 208303 (Image credit: J. Utrup);

1823 Trilobite moulting exuvia, OUMNH AT.205 (Image credit: H. Drage).

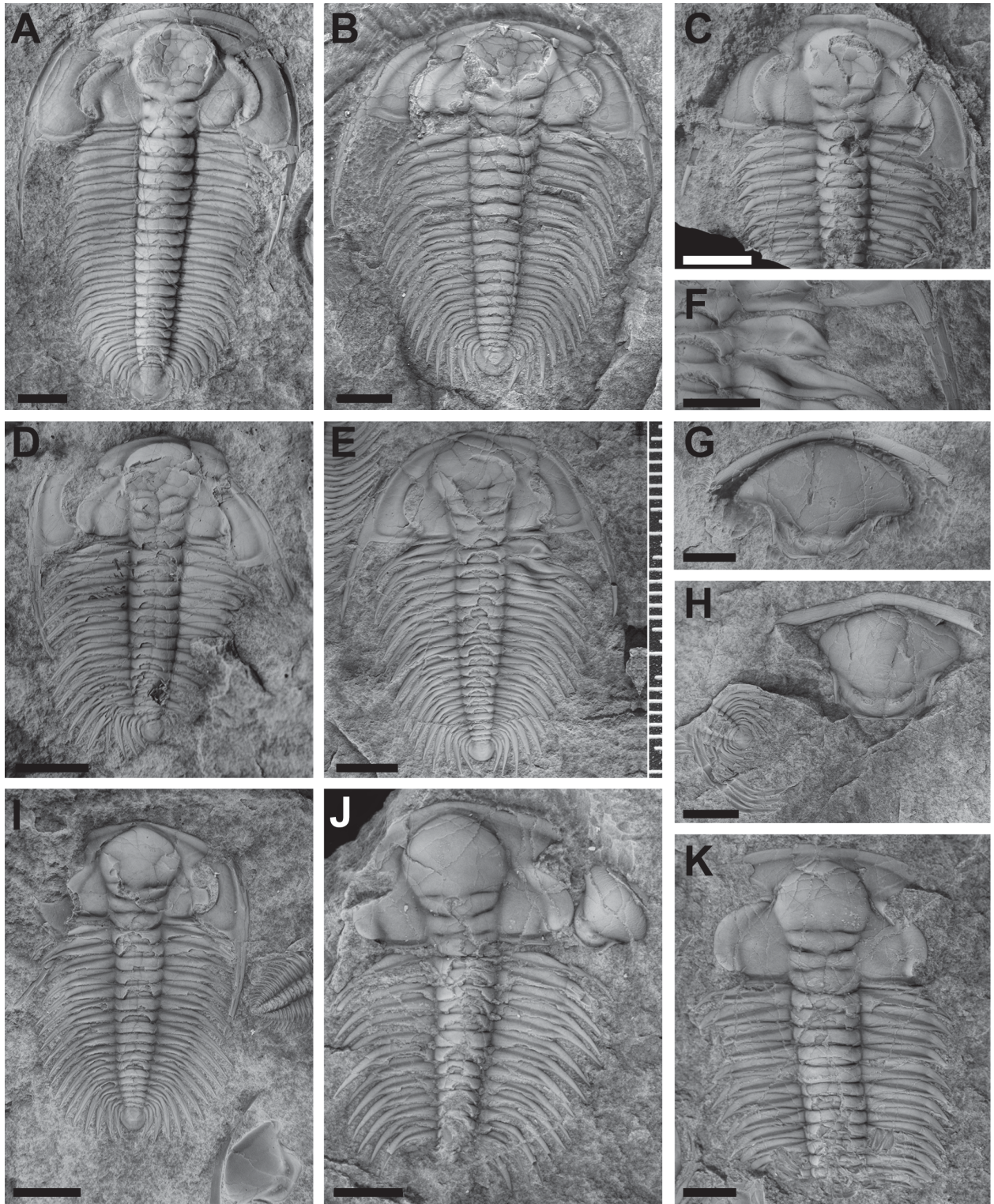


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1825 **Fig. 2.** Different moulting behaviours preserved as exuviae of trilobites. A: *Acidaspis coronata*  
1826 from the Silurian Wenlock Shale in Malvern, UK, facial sutures opened and displaced slightly  
1827 backwards. OUMNH C.17494. B: *Ogygiocarella debuchii* from the Ordovician Llandeilo Series  
1828 in Meadowtown, Shropshire, with cephalon displaced and break through the thorax. OUMNH  
1829 B.263. C-F: Cambrian trilobites from Jämtland, Sweden. C: *Acadoparadoxides* with left facial  
1830 suture opened, crushed glabella, and middle thoracic segments displaced and rotated 90° over the  
1831 right side of the cephalon. PMU 28736. D: *Acadoparadoxides* with left free cheek missing and  
1832 right free cheek inverted. PMU 25995. E: *Eccaparadoxides* showing both free cheek inverted.  
1833 PMU 25636. F: *Accadoparadoxides* with right free cheek missing, left free cheek flipped,  
1834 cephalon removed, and disrupted thoracic segments. PMU 25690. Scale bars 5 mm in A, C, E-F  
1835 and 10 mm in B, D.



1837 **Fig. 3.** Summary of the most common trilobite moult configurations preserved in the fossil  
1838 record, illustrated by *Redlichia* (A-F, usually moulted via the facial sutures and librigena) and  
1839 *Placoparia* (G-L, usually moulted via disarticulation of the entire cephalon). Exoskeleton  
1840 sections disarticulated during the moulting process shaded grey. A: Complete labeled dorsal  
1841 exoskeleton of *Redlichia*. B: Facial sutures opened and librigena displaced outwards. C: Facial  
1842 sutures opened and librigena missing. D: Facial sutures opened and librigena horizontally flipped  
1843 (possible if the individual arched during exuviation). E: Facial sutures and cephalothoracic join  
1844 opened, causing disarticulation of the librigena and cranidium. F: As in E, but librigena missing.  
1845 G: Complete labeled dorsal exoskeleton of *Placoparia*. H: Cephalon disarticulated, leaving  
1846 exuvial gape between cephalon and thorax. I: Cephalon disarticulated and flipped horizontally  
1847 (Salter's configuration). J: Cephalon and pygidium disarticulated. K: Disarticulation along the  
1848 thorax (unspecific location). L: Cephalon, thorax and pygidium disarticulated in the same  
1849 exuvia. Other combinations of these moult configurations can be found preserved in the fossil  
1850 record, for example disarticulation of the thorax with release of the librigena. Abbreviations: Ar,  
1851 axial ring; Ce, cephalon; Ey, eye; Fi, fixigena (fixed cheeks); Fs, facial suture; Gl, glabella; Gs,  
1852 genal spine; Li, librigena (free cheeks); Pl, pleura; Py, pygidium; Th, thorax; Tp, thoracopygon.  
1853 Cranidium is the cephalon minus the librigenae; axial shield is the cranidium plus the  
1854 thoracopygon.



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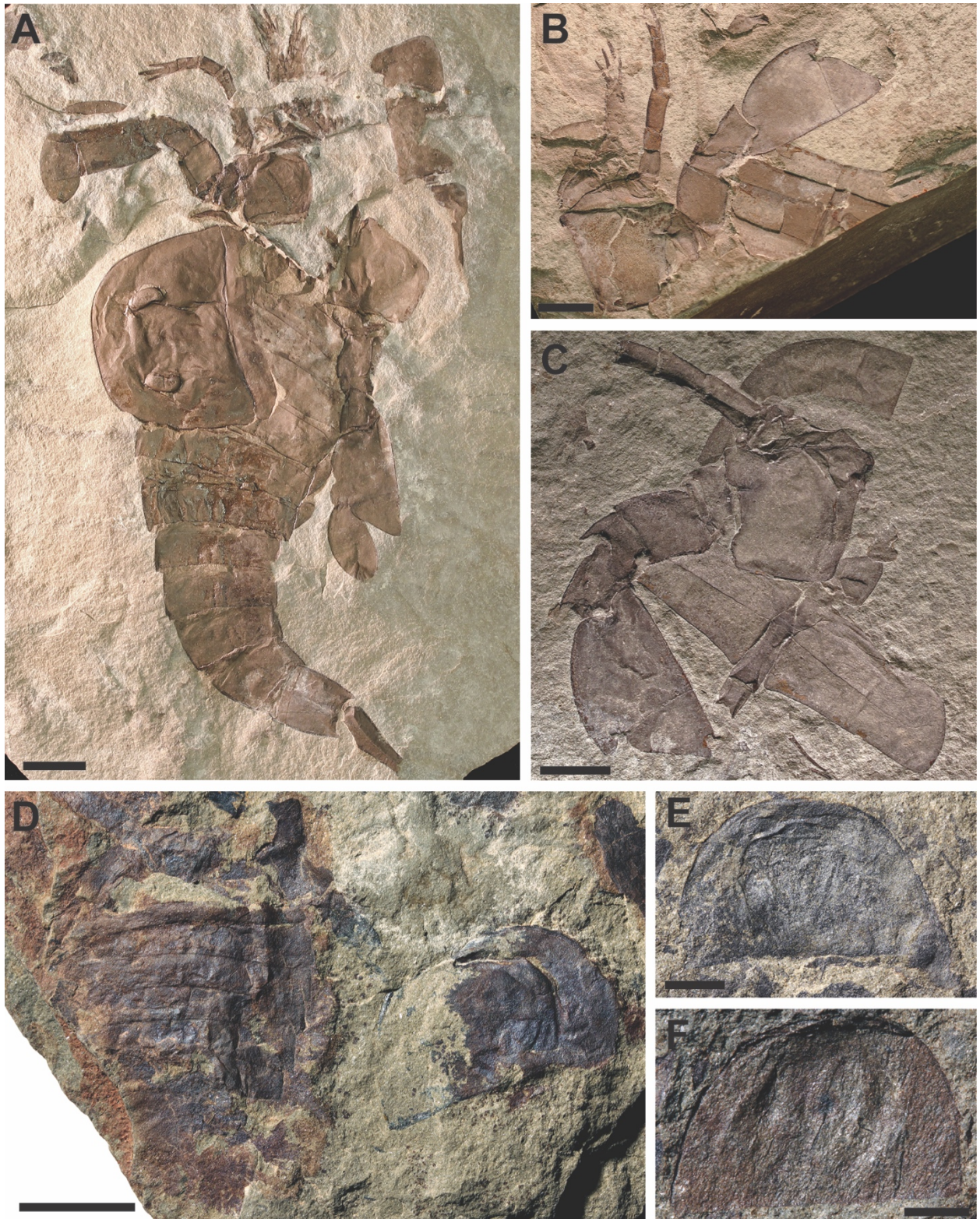
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**Fig. 4.** Moulded exuviae of paradoxiid trilobites from a mass moulting surface from the Cambrian of Jämtland, Sweden. A-B: Trilobites with facial sutures opened. A: PMU 25711/29. B: PMU 25711/09b. C-D: Trilobites with facial sutures opened and free cheeks slightly displaced. C: PMU 25711/59. D: PMU 25711/66. E-F: Specimen with facial sutures opened and damage to first thoracic segment on right side, probably caused by problems during moulting. PMU 25711/61. E:

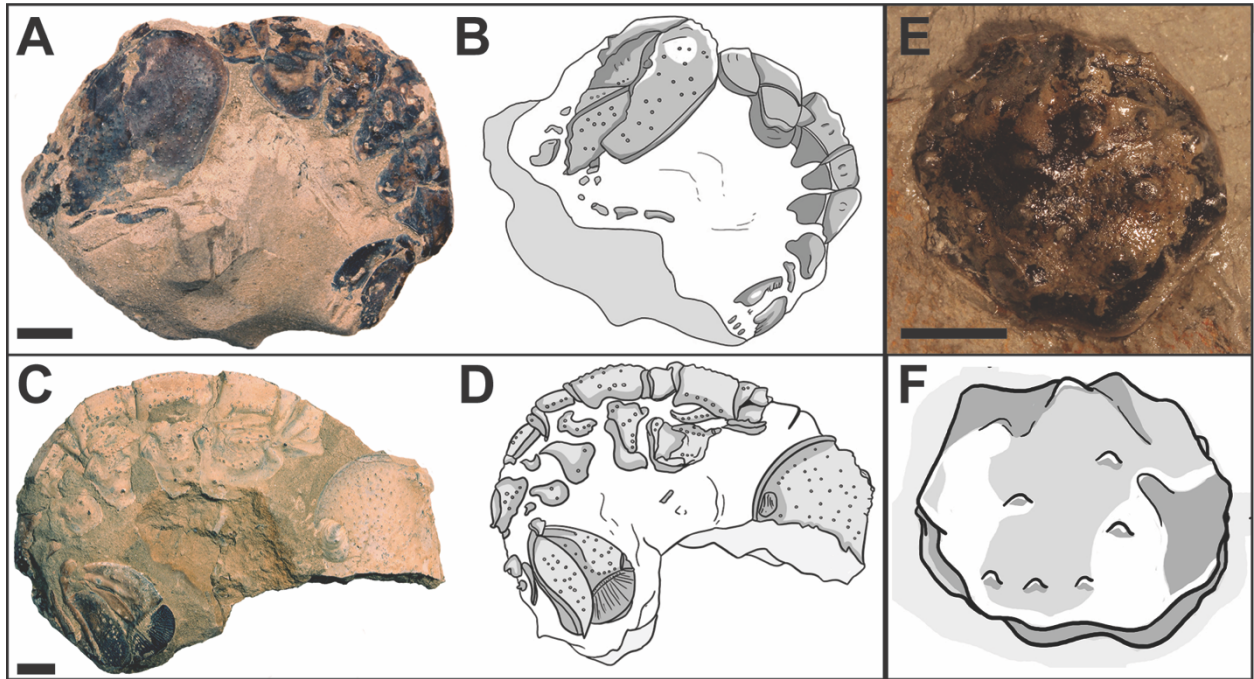
1861 Whole specimen. F: Closeup of damaged thoracic segment. G-H: Moulded hypostome and rostral  
1862 plate complexes. G: PMU 25711/45. H: PMU 25711/14. I: Facial sutures opened, left free cheek  
1863 flipped and right free cheek displaced. PMU 25711/67. J: Free cheeks absent and hypostome  
1864 displaced next to cephalon. PMU 25711/46. K: Free cheeks absent and break through thoracic  
1865 segments. PMU 25711/25. Scale bars 5 mm in A-B, D-E, G-I; 3 mm in C, F, J-K. All specimens  
1866 are latex casts except for A-B, H and K, which are rock. Photo credit for all images: J. Ebbestad  
1867 (Ebbestad et al., 2013).



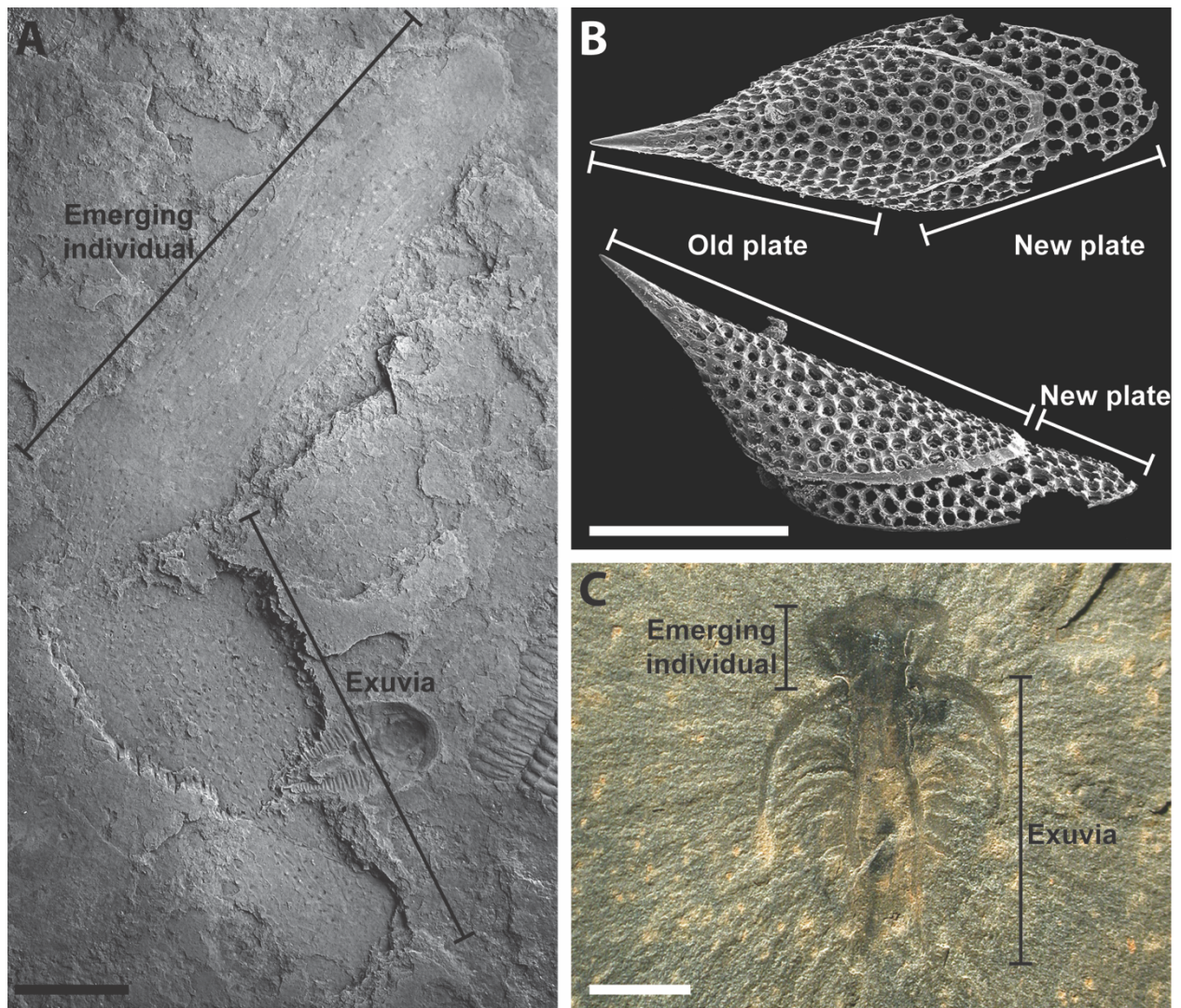


1868  
 1869 **Fig. 5.** Eurypterid moult assemblages. A-C: *Eurypterus lactustris* from the Williamsville  
 1870 Formation in Ridgemount Quarry, Ontario. Photo credit: J. Utrup. A: Mostly complete mouth  
 1871 ensemble with cephalic carapace and one opisthosomal segment dislocated and superimposed on  
 1872 the abdomen. YPM 208303. Scale bar 10 mm. B: Dissociated ventral plates with prosomal  
 1873 appendage attached. YPM 208456. Scale bar 10 mm. C: Ventral plate and swimming leg in moult

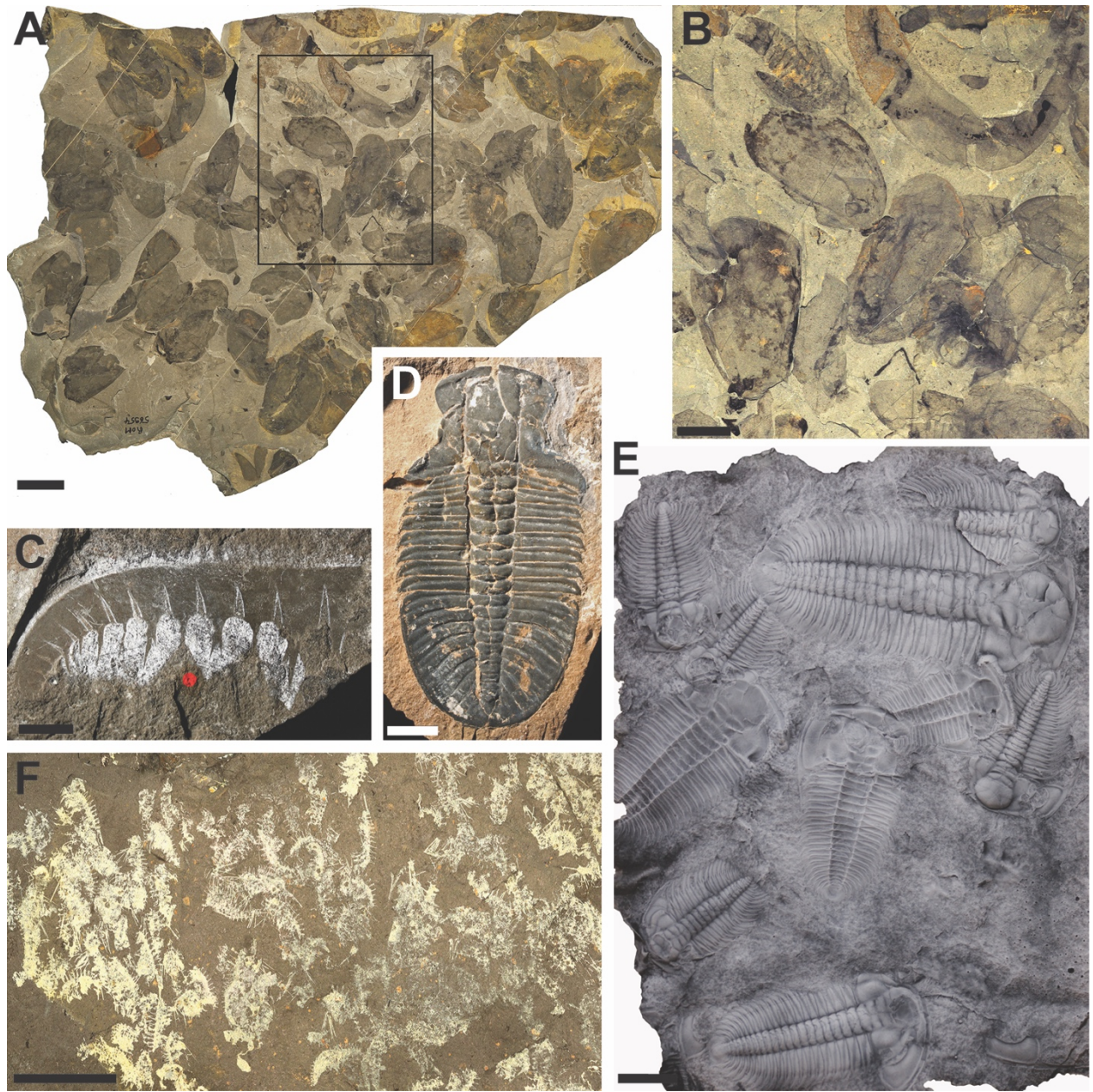
1874 ensemble. YPM 209023. Scale bar 10 mm. D-F: Adelophthalmid eurypterid from the Devonian  
 1875 Lower Old Red Sandstone of the Dinas Estate in Brecon, Powys, Wales. D: Moulting ensemble with  
 1876 cephalic carapace (right) dislocated from all opisthomal segments of the abdomen (left). OUMNH  
 1877 D.2184. Scale bar 10 mm. E-F: Dislocated cephalic carapaces preserved in isolation, without the  
 1878 first opisthomal segment. E: OUMNH D.2178. Scale bar 5 mm. F: OUMNH D.2173. Scale bar 3  
 1879 mm.



1880  
 1881 **Fig. 6.** Moulting in decapod crustaceans. A-D: Photographs and sketches of *Meyeria magna* from  
 1882 the Lower Greensand of Atherfield Clay, Isle of Wight, showing typical “Lobster Open Moulting”  
 1883 position, with carapace displaced from the abdomen. A-B: OUMNH K.756. C-D: OUMNH K.755.  
 1884 E-F: Photograph and sketch of *Necrocarcinus labeschii* from the Cretaceous Gault Clay,  
 1885 Folkestone, UK, with disarticulated carapace broken along the pleural sutures. OUMNH K.64003.  
 1886 Scale bars 5 mm.

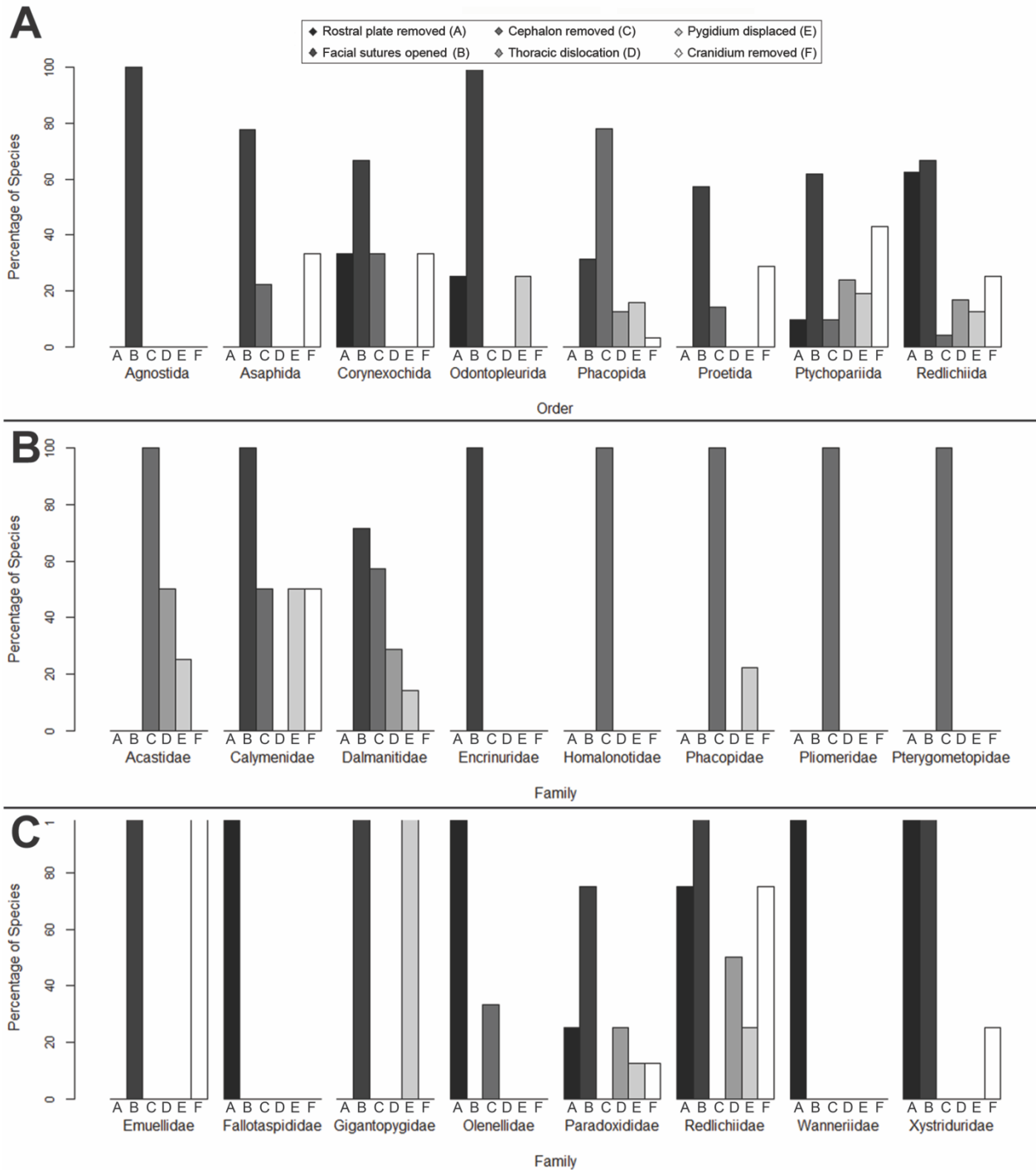


1887  
 1888 **Fig. 7.** Rare examples of Cambrian fossil preservation during ecdysis. A: The stem-lineage  
 1889 loriciferan *Siriloricapustulosa* from the lower Cambrian Sirius Passet fauna of North Greenland,  
 1890 with a compressed specimen emerging from an exuvia. Scale bar 10 mm. Photo credit: J. Peel  
 1891 (Peel et al., 2013). B: Conjoined plates of the lobopodian *Onychodictyon* sp. from the lower  
 1892 Cambrian of North Greenland in plan (top image) and lateral (bottom image) view. The new, larger  
 1893 plate underlies the smaller, older plate. Scale bar 500  $\mu\text{m}$ . Photo credit: T. Topper (Topper et al.,  
 1894 2013). C: The arthropod *Marrella splendens* from the middle Cambrian Burgess Shale. Scale bar  
 1895 5 mm. Photo credit: D. García-Bellido (García-Bellido and Collins, 2004).



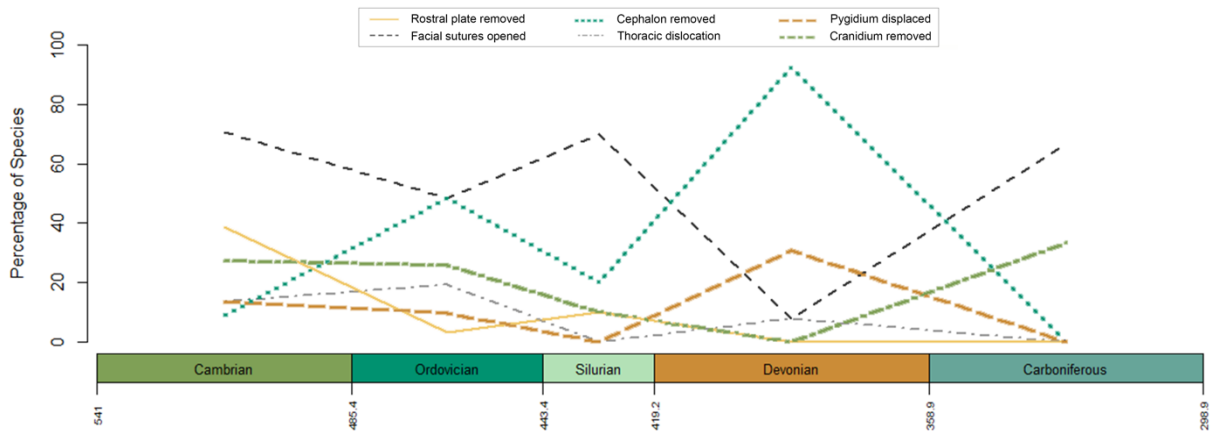
1896  
 1897 **Fig. 8.** Mass moulting in the Cambrian fossil record. A: Complete slab showing synchronized  
 1898 moulting in *Canadaspis* from the Burgess Shale. ROM 62274. Scale bar 10 mm. Photo credit: J.  
 1899 Haug (Haug et al., 2013). Black box indicates closeup in B. C: Frontal appendage of *Anomalocaris*  
 1900 *canadensis* found with supposed trilobite mass moulting event in the Mount Stephen trilobite beds.  
 1901 GSC 3418a. Scale bar 10 mm. D: Exuvia of *Ogygopsis klotzi* from mass moulting event at the  
 1902 Mount Stephen trilobite beds. OUMNH AT205. Scale bar 5 mm. E: Cluster of paradoxidid  
 1903 trilobites preserved on a mass moulting surface from Jämtland, Sweden. PMU 25711/4-6, 74-79.  
 1904 Scale bar 10 mm. Photo credit: J. Ebbestad (Ebbestad et al., 2013). F: Synchronized moulting slab

1905 of megacheiran specimens from the Burgess Shale. ROM 62275. Scale bar 5 mm. Photo credit: J.  
 1906 Haug (Haug et al., 2013).

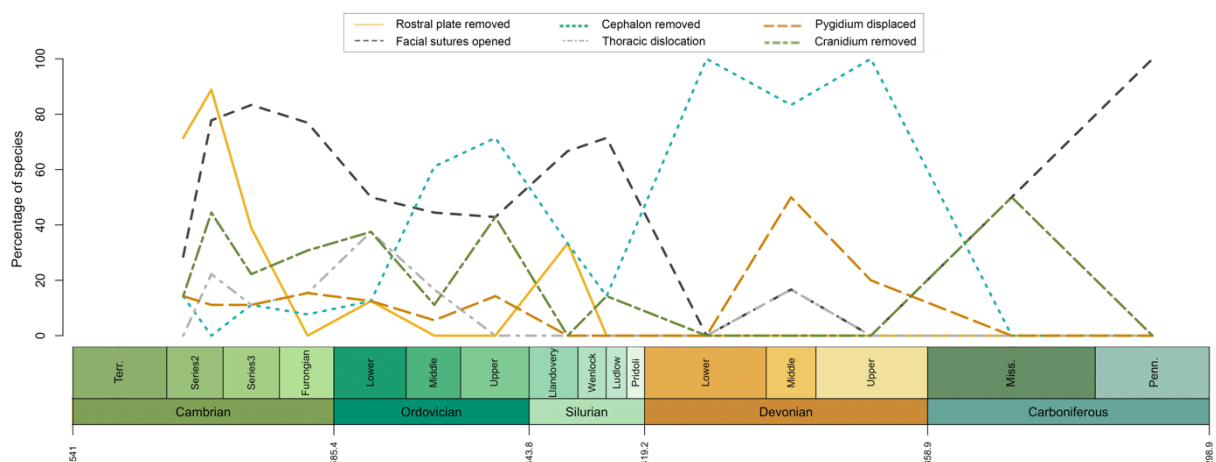


1907  
 1908 **Fig. 9.** Ecdysial behaviour displayed by trilobite Orders and Families. A: The percentage of  
 1909 trilobite species within different Orders displaying each of the six ecdysial behaviours. However,  
 1910  $n < 5$  for Agnostida, Corynexochida and Odontopleurida. B: The percentage of phacopid trilobite  
 1911 species within different Families displaying each of the six ecdysial behaviours. However,  $n < 5$

1912 for all Families but Dalmanitidae and Phacopidae. C: The percentage of redlichiid trilobite species  
 1913 within different Families displaying each of the six ecdysial behaviours. However,  $n < 5$  for all  
 1914 Families but Paradoxididae. These behaviours are not mutually exclusive (ie. one species may  
 1915 show two or three ecdysial behaviours), and so totals may add up to more than 100% for each  
 1916 Order.



1917  
 1918 **Fig. 10.** The percentage of trilobite species across all eight Orders displaying each of the six  
 1919 ecdysial behaviours, through geological Periods from the Cambrian to Carboniferous. These  
 1920 behaviours are not mutually exclusive (ie. one species may show two or three ecdysial behaviours),  
 1921 and so totals may add up to more than 100% for each time Period. Time scale after Gradstein et  
 1922 al. (2012). Abbreviations: Terre., Terreeneuvian; Miss., Mississippian; Pennsylv., Pennsylvanian.



1923  
 1924 **Fig. 11.** The percentage of trilobite species across all eight Orders displaying each of the six  
 1925 ecdysial behaviours, through geological Series, from the Terreeneuvian (Early Cambrian) to  
 1926 Pennsylvanian (Late Carboniferous). These behaviours are not mutually exclusive (ie. one

- 1927 species may show two or three ecdysial behaviours), and so totals may add up to more than
- 1928 100% for each geological Series. Time scale after Gradstein et al. (2012). Abbreviations: Terre.,
- 1929 Terreneuvian; Miss., Mississippian; Pennsylv., Pennsylvanian.