1	Muscle systems and motility of early animals highlighted by cnidarians from the basal Cambrian
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25	Abstract
26	Although fossil evidence suggest that various animal groups were able to move actively through their

27 environment in the early stages of their evolution, virtually no direct information is available on the 28 nature of their muscle systems. The origin of jellyfish swimming, for example, is of great concern to 29 biologists. Exceptionally preserved muscles are described here in benthic peridermal olivooid 30 medusozoans from the basal Cambrian of China (Kuanchuanpu Formation, ca. 535 Ma) that have 31 direct equivalent in modern medusozoans. They consist of circular fibers distributed over the bell 32 surface (subumbrella) and most probably have a myoepithelial origin. This is the oldest record of a 33 muscle system in cnidarians and more generally in animals. This basic system was probably co-opted 34 by younger early Cambrian jellyfish to develop capacities for the jet-propelled swimming within the 35 water column. Additional lines of fossil evidence obtained from ecdysozoans (worms and 36 panarthropods) show that the muscle systems of early animals underwent a rapid diversification 37 through the early Cambrian and increased their capacity to colonize a wide range of habitats both 38 within the water column and sediment at a critical time of their evolutionary radiation.

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40 Introduction

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42 Cnidarians are generally seen as the sister group to bilaterians (Brusca et al., 2016; Erwin et al., 2011;

43 Leclère and Röttinger, 2017; Zapata et al., 2015) and are represented by a huge variety of jellyfish, sea 44 anemones, corals, sea fans, hydrozoans (including the colonial siphonophores) and less familiar 45 parasitic groups (Raikova, 1988). Although often sessile (polyps) or parasitic, many of them are motile 46 animals and a large proportion of them (such as jellyfish) use their muscles to move very actively 47 through the water column. In contrast with bilaterians, cnidarians owe most of their contractile 48 power to epitheliomuscular or myoepithelial cells that line both epithelial body layers (Brusca et al., 49 2016; Schmidt-Rhaesa, 2007). These specialized cells contain interconnected contractile basal 50 extensions (myonemes or myofilaments) that altogether form longitudinal or circular sheets and play 51 virtually the same role as the muscle layers of other animals. Epitheliomuscular cells are connected to 52 nerve cells via chemical synapses (Westfall et al. 1971). Cnidarian muscles are characterized by 53 multifunctional capacities and plasticity and perform key functions in locomotion, defense from 54 predators, feeding and digestion at all stages (planula, polyp and medusa stages; see ref Leclère and 55 Röttinger, 2017). In medusae, locomotion is performed by the rhythmic pulsation of circular sheets of 56 epithelial striated muscles located around the bell margins and over the subumbrellar surface. These 57 contractions are counteracted by the elastic properties and antagonistic force of the mesoglea and 58 result in expelling water from beneath the bell and thus moving the medusa via jet propulsion (Brusca 59 et al., 2016).

60 The Precambrian fossil record of cnidarians remain patchy and controversial although molecular 61 models often predict a very ancient (e.g. pre-Ediacaran) origin of the group (Erwin et al., 2011). For 62 example, Haootia quadriformis from the Ediacaran (Fermeuse Formation; ca. 560 Ma; Newfoundland, 63 eastern Canada) roughly resembles modern stalked jellyfish, such as staurozoans, and bears very fine 64 wrinkles interpreted as putative coronal muscles (Liu et al., 2014; 2015). Whether this external 65 network corresponds to underlying muscles is uncertain and seems at odd with the assumed sessile 66 lifestyle of the animal. Numerous circular forms with a radial pattern have been described in the 67 Ediacaran (e.g. Cyclomedusa; Ukraine, Russia; see refs. Zaika-Novatskii et al., 1968; Fedonkin, 1981). 68 Although some of them may potentially represent bell imprints of jellyfish, others probably have a 69 different origin (e.g. circular holdfasts of non-cnidarian sessile organisms or possible gas-escape 70 sedimentary structures; see ref. Sun, 1986). In contrast, convincing evidence for ancestral 71 medusozoans comes from the early Cambrian Chengjiang Lagerstätte (ca. 521 Ma; Yunnan Province 72 China) and is best exemplified by Yunnanoascus haikouensis that shares a set of morphological 73 features with modern jellyfish such as a tetramerous symmetry, rhopalia, long tentacles around the 74 bell margin, and a possible manubrium in the central part of the bell (Han et al., 2016a). Although 75 Chengjiang fossils usually show extremely fine details of soft animal tissues and organs (including 76 digestive, nervous and reproductive systems), muscles remain elusive, and no trace of possible 77 coronal muscles can be seen in Yunnanoascus. Other jellyfish from the mid-Cambrian Marjum 78 Formation (ca. 505 Ma, Utah, USA; see ref. Cartwright et al., 2007) display fine recognizable 79 anatomical details such as the exumbrella and subumbrella, tentacles and relatively well-preserved 80 coronal muscles that suggest swimming capacities.

The Kuanchuanpu Formation (ca. 535 Ma, lowermost Cambrian Fortunian Stage; Shaanxi Province,
south China) yields a great variety of three-dimensionally preserved microfossils including cnidarians
such as Olivooidae (Dong et al. 2013, 2016; Han et al. 2013, 2016b; Liu et al. 2014; 2017; Steiner et al.,
2014). The developmental sequence of *Olivooides* starts with a spherical embryo that, after hatching,

85 gives rise to conical juveniles (Bengtson and Yue, 1997), suggesting a direct development (Han et al., 86 2013; Steiner et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2020) with no counterpart among modern cnidarians that all 87 grow via planula larval stage. However, microtomography clearly show that post-embryonic 88 Olivooides do have anatomical features typical of modern cnidarians, a radial symmetry, single body 89 opening, exumbrella and subumbrella, interradial septa (internal ridges), gonads, manubrium, oral 90 lips, apertural lobes, tentacles, frenula and velaria (Dong et al. 2013, 2016; Han et al. 2013, 2016b; 91 Wang et al., 2020), which collectively support a placement of Olivooides and its related forms within 92 Medusozoa (Dong et al. 2013, 2016; Han et al. 2013, 2016b; Liu et al. 2014; 2017; Wang et al., 2020). 93 Wang et al. (2017) reported possible coronal muscles around the aperture of Sinaster (Olivooidae) but 94 did not investigate their organization and possible function. We describe here secondarily 95 phosphatized muscle fibers preserved in three dimensions, in post-embryonic stages of olivooids from 96 the early Cambrian (Fortunian) Kuanchuanpu Formation. They represent the oldest occurrence of 97 muscle tissue in cnidarians and more generally in animals. We also address the nature (e.g. 98 myoepithelial) and function of this muscle system through detailed comparisons with modern 99 jellyfish.

100 These new findings prompted us to re-examine and integrate fossil data obtained from other early 101 Cambrian groups such as ecdysozoans (e.g. worms, lobopodians; see Budd, 1998; Vannier and Martin 102 2017; Young and Vinther, 2017; Zhang et al., 2016) that altogether shed light on the diversity and 103 functions of muscle systems in early animals.

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105 Results

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107 The twelve fossil specimens studied here have the diagnostic features of post-embryonic olivooids 108 (Dong et al., 2013; 2016; Han et al., 2013; 2016b; Wang et al., 2017; 2020), such as an ovoid shape 109 with a pentaradial symmetry and the presence of a periderm, apertural lobes, exumbrella, perradial 110 ridges and interradial furrows (Figures. 1 and 2A-E—figure supplements 1-3). They also display a 111 well-preserved network of circular fibers (Figures. 1 and 2A-E), tentatively interpreted as coronal 112 muscles by Wang et al. (2017) in a pilot study.

113 The body has a consistent ovoid shape and size (diameter between 560 and 580 μ m) and is enclosed 114 by a smooth periderm (5-10 µm in thickness) (Figure 1A-figure supplements 2A and 3C, E-H). 115 Centripetal, triangular projections, termed perradial apertural lobes (see refs. Han et al., 2013; Wang 116 et al., 2020) can be seen around the oral aperture of most specimens. They correspond to perradii 117 and display a pentaradial symmetry (Figures 1A and 2A, D-figure supplements 1-3). The partial loss 118 of the periderm and perradial apertural lobes in numerous specimens reveals a fine network of 119 underlying closely packed, circular fibers, that are best developed around the oral aperture where 120 they form four or five separate concentric bundles (individual thickness between 9 and 15 μ m), each 121 consisting of numerous (possibly up to eight) individual fibers (Figures 1B, C and 2B, C, E, F). These 122 fiber rings run around the oral aperture, have a consistent thickness and do not seem to be 123 interrupted (Figures 1A and 2A, D-figure supplements 1 and 2A, B). Comparable fibers occur all over 124 the body, but seem to be sparser towards the aboral pole (figure supplements 1B, C and 3A-F) and 125 not organized in well-defined bundles (Figures 1D-G and 2A-figure supplements 1 and 3). Individual 126 fibers are cylindrical (diameter ca. 2 µm), lying mostly parallel to each other although oblique

V-shaped interconnections (angle ca. 20-30°) may occur locally (Figure 2C). Fibers are finely and evenly coated with microcrystalline (ca 0.4 μm) calcium phosphate (Figure 1B, C, E). Circular fibers clearly extend into the triangular perradial apertural lobes (figure supplement 1A, E, F). The circular fiber network seems to be overprinted by faint longitudinal depressions in the aboral half (figure supplement 1D) that may correspond to interradial furrows.

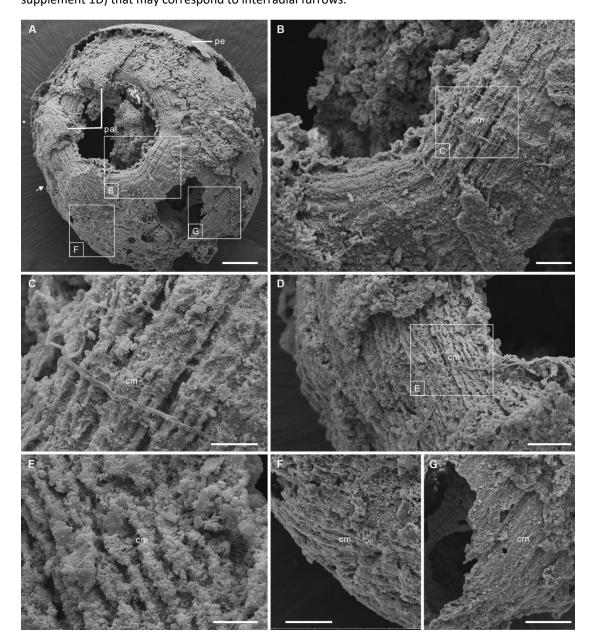
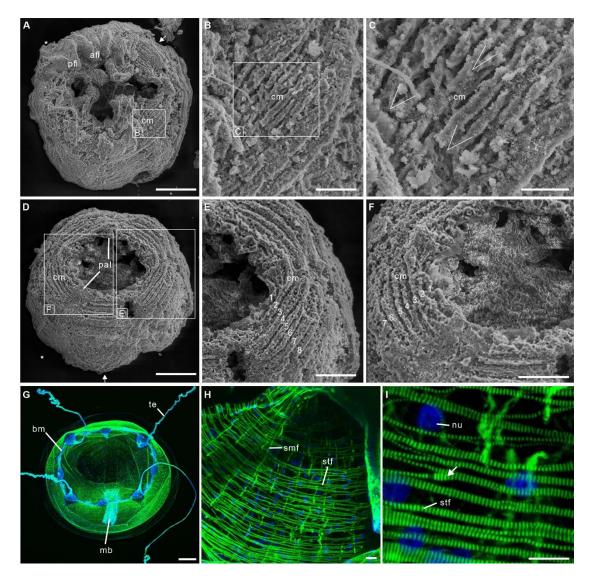




Figure 1. Post-embryonic stage of Olivooides sp. from the early Cambrian Kuanchuanpu Formation 133 134 (ca. 535 Ma; South China), showing exposed muscle fibers. ELISN150-278. (A) General view of oral 135 side. (B) Details of fiber bundles around aperture (see close-up location in A). (C) Close-up showing 136 individual fibers within each bundle. (D) Dense network of fibers (see location in A). (E) Close-up of 137 individual fibers coated with fine grains of calcium phosphate. (F), (G) Circular fibers approximately 138 half way between the oral and aboral poles. All Scanning electron micrographs. Abbreviations: cm, 139 circular muscle; pal, perradial apertural lobe; pe, periderm; *, perradii; →, interradii. Scale bars: 100 140 μm in (A); 20 μm in (B); 10 μm in (C), (E); 20 μm in (D), (F) and (G).



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142 Figure 2. Post-embryonic stage of Olivooides sp. from the early Cambrian Kuanchuanpu Formation 143 (ca. 535 Ma; South China), showing exposed muscle fibers (A-F) and myoepithelial muscle network 144 in extant hydrozoan jellyfish (G-I). (A-C) ELISN052-33. General view of oral side and details of 145 apertural circular muscle fibers and the V-shaped interconnection between the fibers in (C). (D-F) 146 ELISN061-19. General view of oral side and details of apertural, circular muscles fibers. (G-I) Eirene sp. 147 (Hydrozoa) young medusa, general oral view, circular muscles along subumbrella and details of 148 striated fibers; white arrow (I) indicates bifurcating fibers. Green and blue colours in (G-I) correspond 149 to actin (phalloidin) and DNA (Hoechst) staining. (A-F) Scanning electron micrographs. Abbreviations: 150 afl, adradial fold lappet; bm, bell margin; cm, circular muscle; mb, manubrium; nu, nucleus; pal, 151 perradial apertural lobe; pfl, perradial fold lappet; smf, smooth (radial) muscle fiber; stf, striated 152 (circular) muscle fiber; te, tentacle *, perradii; \rightarrow , interradii. Scale bars: 200 µm in (A), (D); 100 µm in 153 (G); 20 μ m in (B), (E) and (F); 10 μ m in (C), (H) and (I).

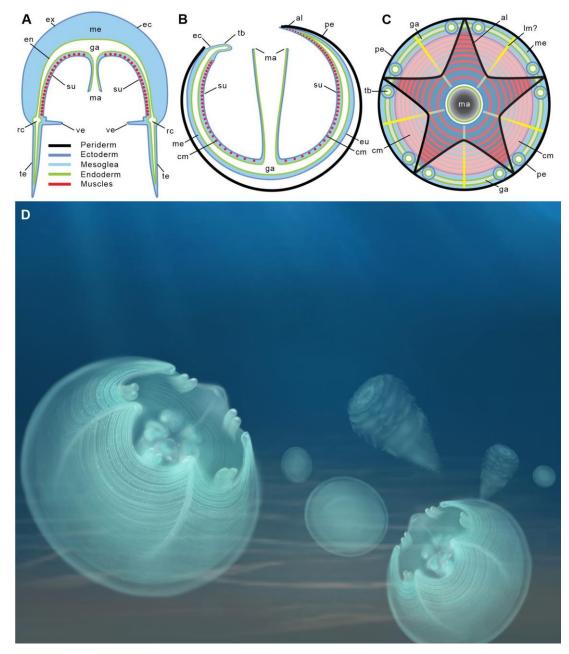
- 154
- 155 Discussion
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- 157 Myoepithelial muscles in cnidarians from the basal Cambrian

158 The close-knit circular fibers found in the bell of Olivooidae sp. can be confidently interpreted as 159 epithelial muscle fibers based on their individual cylindrical shape, size range (ca. 2 μm in diameter), 160 regular arrangement in bundles (e.g. possibly five more around bell margin), and closely-packed 161 distribution over a single anatomical surface represented by the subumbrella (Figures 1 and 2-figure 162 supplement 4). Our interpretation is also strongly supported by close similarities with the muscular 163 system of modern cnidarians (myoepithelial cells; MEC). For example, the medusae of hydrozoans 164 (Figure 2G-I) display a continuous network of circular striated and radial smooth muscles over the 165 inner layer of their bell (subumbrella). These ca. 1-to-4-µm-thick individual fibers show oblique 166 interconnections (Figure 2G-I-figure supplement 4), and sparser radial smooth fibers run 167 perpendicular to them (Leclère and Röttinger, 2017). A very similar configuration can be seen in early 168 Cambrian olivooids that display both continuous circular fibers (transverse markings imprinted on 169 circular bundles; see Figures 1, 2 and 3A-C). Microscopic series of functional units (sarcomeres) that 170 characterize striated muscles and give them a typical striated appearance (Figure 2G-I-figure 171 supplement 4) are not discernible in the muscle network of Cambrian olivooids, making it impossible 172 to distinguish their original nature, either striated or smooth (Schmidt-Rhaesa, 2007). The muscles of 173 olivooids seem to be more developed and concentrated around the bell margin, as seen in modern 174 jellyfish, such as Clytia, Pelagia and Chrysaora (Figure 2G-I-figure supplement 4). Other olivooids 175 from the Kuanchuanpu Formation such as Singster have a comparable concentration of strong 176 muscles around the oral aperture (possibly five bundles; see Wang et al., 2017) but, unlike those of 177 the present specimens, seem to be interrupted by interradial structures. The muscle fibers of 178 olivooids distribute over a surface interpreted as the inner layer of the bell (subumbrella), as in 179 modern medusae. In contrast with bilaterians, modern cnidarians are characterized by myoepithelial 180 cells that are fully integrated into the ectodermal and endodermal epithelial tissues. Although the 181 cellular organization cannot be seen in Cambrian olivooids we hypothesize that their muscular system 182 was similarly composed of myoepithelial cells that emitted myofilaments from their basal part. The 183 circular network of olivooids seems to have been supplemented by possibly longitudinal muscles 184 accommodated within adradial furrows (figure supplement 2B). However, no clear individual fiber can 185 be seen in these adradial areas. Paired features interpreted as tentacular buds occur around the oral 186 rim of some olivooids (Han et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2020). Their external annulations may represent 187 underlying muscle fibers (Wang et al., 2020), or, more likely, anchoring features of nematocysts. The 188 tentacles of modern cnidarians have longitudinal muscles but lack circular fibers (Hyman, 1940).

189 The current well-accepted hypothesis is that olivooids developed from an ovoid post-embryonic form 190 (present material) into a conical corrugated polyp-like structure (Bengtson ang Yue, 1997; Dong et al., 191 2016; Han et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014; Steiner et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2020). The transition to polyps 192 is characterized by the gradual increase of external ornamented ridges that most probably resulted in 193 a complete anatomical reorganization, as commonly seen in the development cycle of modern 194 cnidarians. Unfortunately, very little is known of the internal anatomy of these polyps, except that 195 they secreted a tubular feature (periderm) comparable with that of some extant scyphozoans (figure 196 supplement 6) and had possible oral lobes. Although rare, clear traces of circular fibers do occur in the 197 polyps of Olivooides mirabilis (see ref. Steiner et al., 2014; fig. 12), suggesting that key features of the 198 muscle system were conserved through the lifecycle.

199 In summary, the close-knit fibrous network described here in post-embryonic olivooids is the oldest

200 record of a muscular system in cnidarians and more generally in animals.



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202 Figure 3. Location of epithelial muscles in extant hydromedusae (A) and early Cambrian Olivooidae medusozoans (B, C). (A), (B) are simplified radial sections through body. (C) is seen in oral view. (D) 203 204 Artistic reconstruction of 535-million-year-old olivooid cnidarians showing eggs (no opening, 205 background), post-embryonic (foreground) and polyp (background) stages. The circular muscle system 206 is visible through the translucent periderm. Abbreviations: al, apertural lobe; cm, circular (coronal) 207 muscle; ec, ectoderm; en, endoderm; ga, gastrovascular cavity; lm?, possible longitudinal muscle; ma, 208 manubrium; me, mesoglea; pe, periderm; rc, radial canal; su, subumbrella; tb, tentacular bud; te, 209 tentacle; ve, velum. Not to scale.

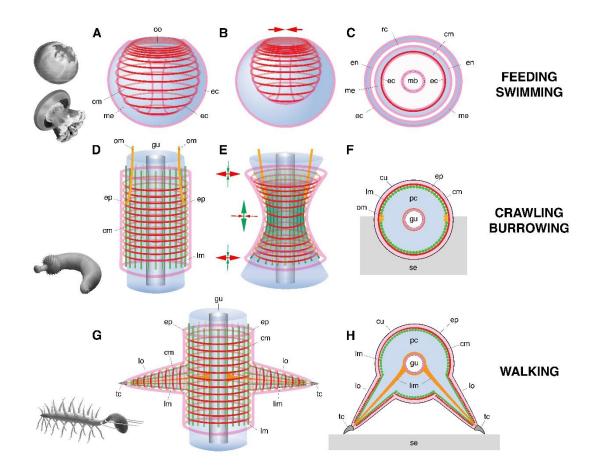
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211 Functions of muscles in post-embryonic olivooids

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213 The occurrence of strong muscles around the bell aperture and inside the perradial apertural lappets 214 suggests that olivooids could contract their bell as do modern medusae (Figures 3A-C and 4A-C). In 215 extant jellyfish, these contractions are counteracted by the elastic properties and antagonistic force 216 of the adjacent mesoglea. As a result, water is rhythmically expelled from beneath the bell and drives 217 the medusa through the water column via jet propulsion (Brusca et al., 2016). Although olivooids 218 share important external and internal morphological features with medusozoans (Dong et al., 2013; 219 Han et al., 2013; 2016b; Wang et al., 2017; 2020), they are distinguished by an unusual pentaradial 220 symmetry and life cycle (ovoid post-embryonic stage to sessile polyp crest-bearing conical polyp). This 221 life cycle has no direct counterpart in modern medusozoans (e.g. ref. Brusca et al., 2016) that develop 222 from a motile planula larva into a polyp and eventually a juvenile medusa through various processes 223 (e.g. strobilation generating ephyrae in scyphozoans; see ref. Gershwin, 1999). It has been suggested 224 (Wang et al., 2020) that the post-embryonic stage of olivooids combined the characters of a medusa 225 with those of a polyp and thus would resemble a juvenile sessile jellyfish almost encased within a 226 periderm, with its bell aperture facing upwards. At first sight, these circular muscles may suggest a 227 role in locomotion, as in modern medusae. However major structural differences separate modern 228 jellyfish from Cambrian olivooids (see above). Whereas the movement of modern medusae is 229 unconstrained, that of olivooids was most probably strongly hindered by its periderm (Bengtson and 230 Yue, 1997; Steiner et al., 2014). The assumed mesoglea layer of olivooids seems to have been very 231 thin (narrow gap between ex- and subumbrella; see Han et al., 2013, 2016b; Dong et al., 2016; Wang 232 et al., 2017, 2020) thus limiting its dynamic capacity. Swimming efficiency of modern medusae 233 depends on the power and distribution of muscles but also largely on the flexibility of the bell margin, 234 a condition that is not found in olivooids. Powerful muscle contractions may have been able to propel 235 the animal over a very short distance but are unlikely to have sustained dynamic locomotion through 236 the water column. This hypothetical "clumsy" locomotion would have probably created more 237 disadvantages (e.g. energy cost) than advantages to the animal. Moreover, it is unlikely to have 238 generated any adequate escape reaction (e.g. from predators) or effective feeding technique. We 239 favour an alternative option. One of the most vital requirements for post-embryonic olivooids was 240 probably to obtain sufficient food. Modern medusae feed on small soft-bodied prey by using 241 nematocyst-laden tentacles and oral arms that convey food to the mouth (Brusca et al., 2016). 242 Post-embryonic olivooids had tentacular buds that were not enough developed to capture food. 243 Feeding may have been achieved by a different method, such as the rhythmic contractions of their 244 circular muscles, especially those bordering the bell aperture (Figure 4A-C). Such contractions may 245 have resulted in pumping and engulfing sea water containing potential food particles. Extant jellyfish 246 such as Aurelia feed by using a comparable mechanism (Costello and Colin, 1994). The aperture 247 lappets of olivooids may have played the key roles in closing the aperture after contraction in locking 248 away food particles within the bell cavity before being transferred to the mouth and preventing 249 foreign matters from entering the bell. Besides, the remarkable plasticity of modern cnidarians to 250 transformation and rearrange their muscle system (e.g. transition from polyp to medusa stages; 251 Brusca et al., 2016) may have played in this evolution and diversification. Interestingly, muscle fibers 252 primarily assigned to feeding (olivooids) may have been used for other functions such as active 253 propulsion, escape reaction during evolution while maintaining an important role in prey capture. In

- this context, we could make a bold speculation that the origin of the medusae swimming, associated
- 255 by the subsequent loss of periderm, is an evolutionary inheritance of rhythmic feeding and respiration
- among benthic periderm-dwelling medusozoans, probably during Ediacarian-Cambrian period (Figure
- 257 3D).



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259 Figure 4. Basic muscle systems in early Cambrian animals and their main functions. (A-C) Contractile 260 epithelial muscles (MEC, myoepithelial, predominantly circular) and antagonistic mesoglea 261 exemplified by olivooiids and free-swimming jellyfish; idealized relaxed (A) and contracted (B) states 262 and simplified transverse section (C). (D-F) Grid-like network of circular and longitudinal subepidermal 263 muscle fibers (HMS) around cylindrical body filled with antagonistic internal fluid (hydroskeleton) 264 exemplified by scalidophoran worms; idealized relaxed state (D), peristaltic contractions along body 265 (E) and transverse section (F). (G-H) Longitudinal and circular muscles and extrinsic retractor muscles 266 in limbs; idealized relaxed state (G); transverse section (H). Images (from top to bottom) represent an 267 olivooid cnidarian, an extant jellyfish, the scalidophoran worm Ottoia (see ref. Vannier, 2012) and the 268 lobopodian Hallucigenia (see refs. Smith and Caron, 2015; Smith and Ortega-Hernández, 2014). 269 Drawings and images not to scale. Abbreviations: cm, circular muscle; cu, cuticle; ec, ectoderm; en, 270 endoderm; ep, epidermal layer; gu, gut; lc, lobopod claw; lim, limb muscle; lm, longitudinal muscle; lo,

lobopod (soft leg); mb, manubrium; me, mesoglea; om, oblique muscle; oo, oral opening (bell
 margin); pc, primary cavity filled with fluid; rc, radial canal; se, sediment; tc, terminal claw.

273 Early evolution of muscle systems

274 The shift of the actin-myosin system from strictly intracellular to intercellular functions seems to have 275 occurred in the early stages of metazoan evolution (Schmidt-Rhaesa, 2007). Although the most basal 276 metazoans lack true muscles they do have the capacity to contract their body or part of it. For 277 example, sponges have myocytes around the osculum that play a role in expelling wastes (Bagby, 278 1966). The fiber cells of placozoans such as Trichoplax adherens have contractile extensions packed 279 with actin filaments that link the ventral and dorsal epithelia (Armon et al., 2018). Although the 280 gliding motility of placozoans is mainly performed by ciliated epithelial cells, fiber cells seem to be 281 involved in active body deformation and invagination possibly related to feeding (Smith and 282 Mayorova, 2019). The integration of the actin-myosin system within a dense network of myoepithelial 283 cells as seen in Cambrian and modern cnidarian is likely to have been a major innovation that 284 provided animals with new capacities for powerful movements (e.g. swimming, feeding, respiration, 285 etc.). We suggest that the myoepithelial fiber network seen in post-embryonic olivooids may 286 represent one of the oldest and basic types of animal muscle systems that probably finds its origin in 287 the late Precambrian. Larger jellyfish from the early (e.g. Chengjiang, Han et al., 2016a) and 288 mid-Cambrian (Marjum Lagerstätte; coronal muscles, Cartwright et al., 2007) are likely to have 289 co-opted this basic system for more diverse functions such as swimming within the water column (e.g. 290 active jet propulsion) and prey capture as seen in modern jellyfish such as Aurelia.

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292 Diversity of muscle systems and locomotion modes in early Cambrian animals

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294 Ecdysozoans (worms and panarthropods) provide additional evidence on the diversity of muscle295 systems in early Cambrian animals.

296 Scalidophoran worms were diverse and numerically abundant in the Cambrian (e.g. 297 Burgess-shale-type Lagerstätten). Modern representatives of the group such as Priapulus have a 298 close-knit network of circular and longitudinal muscle linning the inner surface of the body wall, that 299 is surrounded by ECM (Figure 4D-F—figure supplement 7) and often termed "Hautmuskelschlauch" 300 (HMS; see Schmidt-Rhaesa, 2007). The enclosed mass of incompressible fluid (hydroskeleton) that fills 301 the primary cavity of such worms is the principal antagonist for muscular action (Figure 4). Dynamic 302 interactions between HMS and hydroskeleton allow them to perform repeated body contraction and 303 extension for burrowing (Figure 4D-F) (e.g. ref. Vannier et al., 2010) and feeding. The eversion of the 304 introvert is a process of pumping body fluids into the anterior body region whereas its invagination is 305 performed by extrinsic oblique retractor muscles. Based on remarkable anatomical and functional 306 similarities with modern priapulids (Figure 4D-F-figure supplement 7), we posit that Cambrian 307 scalidophorans also had a HMS-type musculature and possible retractors. This hypothesis is 308 supported by abundant crawling and burrowing traces found in the basal Cambrian (e.g. treptichnid 309 burrow systems; see refs. Kesidis et al., 2019; Vannier et al., 2010) and the late Precambrian (e.g. refs. 310 Evans et al., 2020; Gehling et al., 2001) that could not have been made without the action of HMS on

a hydrostatic skeleton (Figure 4D-F—figure supplement 7). HMS clearly differs from the musculature
of olivooid cnidarians in at least two key features: 1) it does not consist of myoepithelial cells and 2)
the antagonist onto which muscular force is transferred is not the primary cavity filled with fluid but
the mesoglea (Leclère and Röttinger, 2017).

315 Lobopodians (e.g. Ortega-Hernandez, 2015) is an informal group of ecdysozoans with an annulated 316 cuticle and paired soft legs (lobopods), that is crucial for understanding the remote ancestry of 317 euarthropods. They are best exemplified by iconic Cambrian forms such as Hallucigenia (Smith and 318 Caron, 2015; Smith and Ortega-Hernández, 2014) and Microdictyon (Pan et al. 2018). Most recent 319 phylogenetic trees (Aria et al., 2021; Giribet and Edgecombe, 2019) have resolved Cambrian 320 lobopodians as an "intermediate" group between scalidophoran worms and arthropods with an 321 arthrodized exoskeleton. The inner surface of their body wall was lined with closely packed circular 322 and longitudinal muscle fibers that seem to have extended into the limbs (see Tritonychus in Zhang et 323 al., 2016; Figure 4G, H-figure supplement 5A, B). This configuration strongly recalls that of 324 ecdysozoan worms (see above). In Paucipodia from the Chengjiang Lagerstätte (see Vannier and 325 Martin 2017; see supplement figure 5C-E) a connecting strand runs between the terminal claw of the 326 limbs and the area surrounding the gut, and is interpreted here as a possible retractor muscle (see 327 analogues in extant onychophorans (De Sena Oliveira and Mayer, 2013). Although unsegmented as in 328 smaller lobopodians, larger Cambrian lobopodians such as Pamdelurion from the Sirius Passet 329 Lagerstätte (ca. 520 Ma) are characterized by a more complex musculature with paired, lateral, 330 ventral and dorsal longitudinal muscles. Well-developed bundles of extrinsic and intrinsic limb 331 muscles presumably controlled leg motion as in modern onychophorans (Budd, 1998; Hoyle and 332 Williams, 1980; Young and Vinther, 2017; see Figure 4G, H).

333 Early euarthropods that co-existed with lobopodians and scalidophoran worms (e.g. 334 Burgess-shale-type Lagerstätten) had already acquired rigid exoskeletal elements (sclerotized 335 cuticular elements jointed by an arthrodial membrane, such as body sclerites and appendage 336 podomeres) that were operated by a lever-like system of segmentally arranged antagonistic muscles 337 as seen in *Kiisortogia* and *Camparamuta* from the Sirius Passet Lagerstätte (Young and Vinther, 2017). 338 This suggests that the rise of euarthropods was associated with a profound rearrangement of the 339 muscle system inherited from lobopodian ancestors, such as the reduction of the circular HMS 340 musculature that lost its primary hydrostatic function and peristaltic capabilities because of 341 exoskeletal rigidity (Young and Vinther, 2017).

In summary, both fossil and indirect evidence presented here indicate that different types of musculature co-existed among early Cambrian animals: (1) myoepithelial circular (MEC) muscles in cnidarians, (2) grid-like and subepidermal (HMS) muscles in scalidophoran worms, (3) HMS and extrinsic muscles to control leg motion in lobopodians and (4) segmentally arranged muscles tightly integrated to exoskeletal elements in early euarthropods.

347 Whereas the myoepithelial system appears as the most basic one, that of ecdysozoans seems to have

348 undergone considerable changes and diversification over a relatively short time interval during the

349 early Cambrian. This remarkable diversity and plasticity of muscle systems allowed a great variety of

- animals to explore and colonize new environments and can be seen as one of the driving forces of the
- animal radiation.

352 Geological setting, materials and methods

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354 All studied fossils come from phosphatic limestones collected from the Kuanchuanpu Formation at 355 the Shizhonggou section, (Ningqiang County, Shaanxi Province, China; see figure supplement 8). 356 Biostratigraphy (Anabarites – Protohertzina – Arthrochities zone, the Siphogonuchites – Paragloborilus 357 zone and Lapworthella – Tannuolina – Sinosachites zone; refs. Qian, 1977; 1999) indicates that these 358 rocks correspond to the Meishucunian Stage that is the equivalent of the lowermost Cambrian 359 Terreneuvian Stage. Radiochronology (U-Pb method; refs. Sawaki et al., 2008; Peng et al., 2012) 360 confirms that the Kuanchuanpu Formation is approximately 535 Ma. Secondarily phosphatized fossils 361 were extracted from rocks via a standard acid digestion in 7% acetic acid. Dried residues with a 362 grain-size >60 µm were sorted and picked under a binocular microscope. Twelve specimens of 363 Olivooidae (Cnidaria) bearing well-preserved muscle fibers were selected for the present study and 364 mounted for SEM (FEI Quanta 400 FEG scanning electron microscope at Northwest University, China; 365 Au-coating, high-vacuum). They belong to Sinaster petalon Wang et al. (2017) (ELISN115-39), 366 Hanagyroia orientalis Wang et al. (2020) (ELISN107-470) and Olivooidae sp. (ELISN150-278, 367 ELISN111-54, ELISN052-33, ELISN045-143, ELISN012-16, ELISN061-19, ELISN087-64, ELISN088-48, 368 ELISN087-33 and ELISN098-19). All specimens are deposited in the collections of the Shaanxi Key 369 Laboratory of Early Life & Environments and the Department of Geology, Northwest University, China. 370 Data concerning these specimens are available on request from JH and XW.

371 Two-week-old Clytia hemisphaerica medusae, newly released Eirene sp. medusae, one-month-old 372 Chrysaora colorata and Pelagia noctiluca metaephyrae were raised in the laboratory 373 (Villeranche-sur-mer) following Lechable et al. (2020) and Ramondenc et al. (2017) culture protocols. 374 Fixation followed by Phalloidin (actin) and Hoechst (nuclei) staining were performed on the four 375 species as described for Clytia hemisphaerica in Sinigaglia et al. (2020). Samples were mounted in 50% 376 citifluor AF1 antifadent mountant and imaged using Leica SP8 confocal and Zeiss Axio-Observer 377 microscopes.

Extant priapulid worms (*Priapulus caudatus*) (see figure supplement 7) were collected (JV) from near
the Kristineberg Marine Station (Sweden), fixed with glutaraldehyde and dried (Critical Point) for SEM
observations (Univ. Lyon).

381

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383

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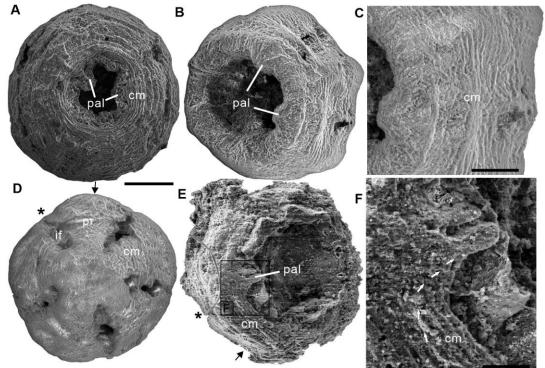
400 Author contributions

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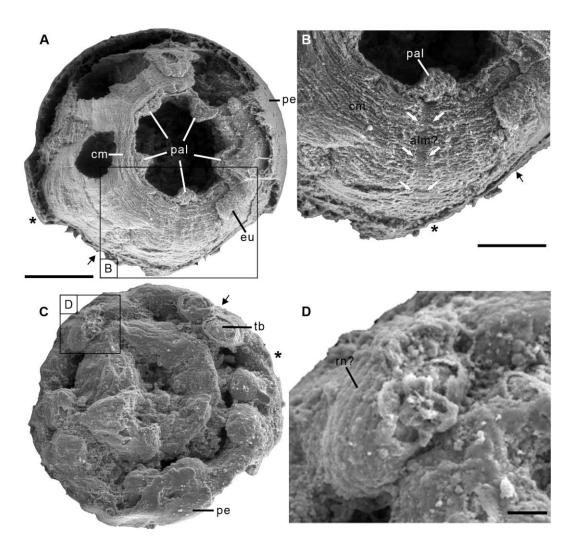
X. W., J. V. and J. H. designed the research. X. W., X.-G. Y and J. H. collected rocks (Shizhonggou section, Shaanxi Province, China) and analyzed fossils. X. W. wrote the manuscript with input from all other co-authors. L. L. provided comparative data and images of modern cnidarians and Q. O. made insightful remarks on the MS.

406

407 Supplements

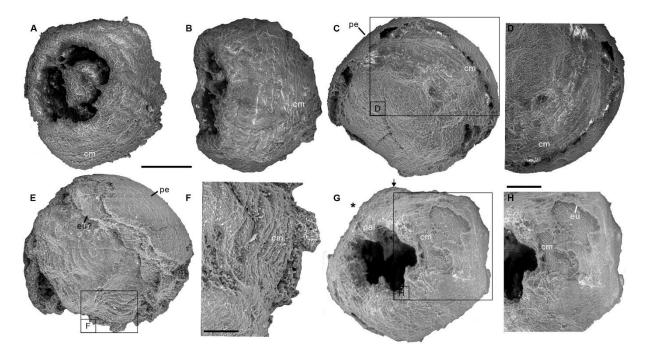


409 figure supplement 1. The three scanning electron micrographs of the Olivooides specimens 410 ELISN012-16, ELISN045-143 and ELISN111-54 from the Kuanchuanpu Formation, south China. (A) Oral 411 view showing the external morphology of ELISN045-143 without periderm. (A), (D) ELISN012-16. 412 General view of oral side (A), details of muscles fibers in perradial apertural lobes and general view of 413 aboral side (D). (B) Oral view showing the external morphology of ELISN045-143 without periderm. (C) 414 Close-up view of a showing the circular muscles. (E) Oral view showing the external morphology of 415 ELISN111-54. (F) The enlarged view of c showing that the circular muscles extending into the 416 triangular perradial apertural lobes marked by the giant white arrows. Abbreviations: cm, circular 417 muscle; pal, perradial apertural lobe; *, perradii; \rightarrow , interradii. Scale bars represent: 200 µm in (A), 418 (**B**), (**D**) and (**E**); 50 μm in (**C**); 25 μm in (**F**).



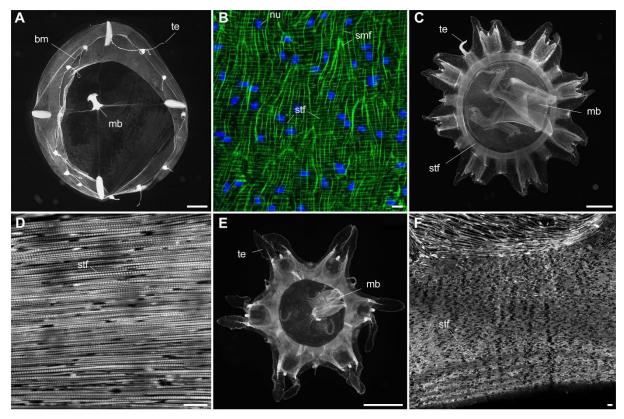
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420 figure supplement 2. The two scanning electron micrographs of the Olivooides specimens 421 ELISN115-39 (Sinaster petalon; Wang et al. 2017) and ELISN107-470 (Hanagyroia orientalis; Wang et 422 al. 2020) from the Kuanchuanpu Formation, south China. (A) Oral view showing the external 423 morphology of ELISN115-39. (B) Close-up view of (A) showing the possible longitudinal muscle bands 424 marked by the two rows of giant white arrows. (C) Oral view showing the external morphology of 425 ELISN107-470. (D) The enlarged view of (C) showing the possible rings of nematocysts on the 426 tentacles. Abbreviations: alm?, the possible longitudinal muscle bands at adradii; cm, circular muscle; 427 eu, exumbrella; pal, perradial apertural lobe; pe, periderm; *, perradii; \rightarrow , interradii. Scale bars 428 represent: 200 μm in (**A**), (**C**); 50 μm in (**B**); 25 μm in (**D**).





430 figure supplement 3. The four scanning electron micrographs of the Olivooides specimens 431 ELISN087-64 (A, B), ELISN088-48 (C, D), ELISN087-33 (E, F) and ELISN98-19 (G, H) from the 432 Kuanchuanpu Formation, south China. (A) General view of oral side. (B) Lateral view. (C) General view 433 of aboral side. (D) The enlarged view of (C) showing the circular muscles. (E) Lateral view. (F) The 434 enlarged view of (E) showing that the circular muscles. (G) General view of oral side. (H) The enlarged 435 view of (G) showing the circular muscles. Abbreviations: cm, circular muscle; eu, exumbrella; pal, perradial apertural lobe; *, perradii; \rightarrow , interradii. Scale bars represent: 200 µm in (A-C), (E) and (G); 436 437 50 μm in (**F**), (**H**); 25 μm in (**D**).



439

440 figure supplement 4. Myoepithelial muscle network shown in extant medusozoan cnidarians. (A), 441 (B) Clytia hemisphaerica (Hydrozoa) mature medusa, general oral view and details of fiber network 442 (subumbrella). (C), (D) Pelagia noctiluca (Scyphozoa) metaephyra, general oral view and details of 443 closely-packed circular striated muscle fibers (subumbrella). (E), (F) Chrysaora colorata (Scyphozoa) 444 metaephyra, general oral view and details of circular striated muscle fibers. Green and blue colours 445 (B) correspond to actin (phalloidin) and DNA (Hoechst) staining. Specimens represented by black and 446 white images (A) and (C-F) were stained for actin (phalloidin). Abbreviations are as follows: bm, bell 447 margin; mb, manubrium; nu, nucleus; smf, smooth (radial) muscle fiber; stf, striated (circular) muscle

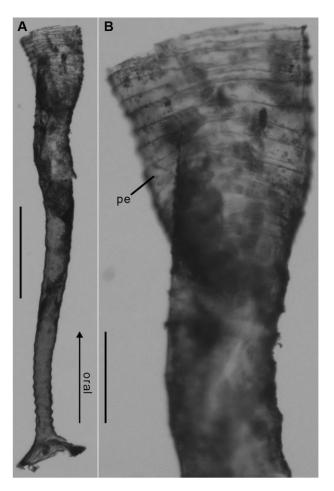
fiber; te, tentacle. Scale bars: 1000 μ m in (A), (C) and (E); 10 μ m in (B), (D) and (F).



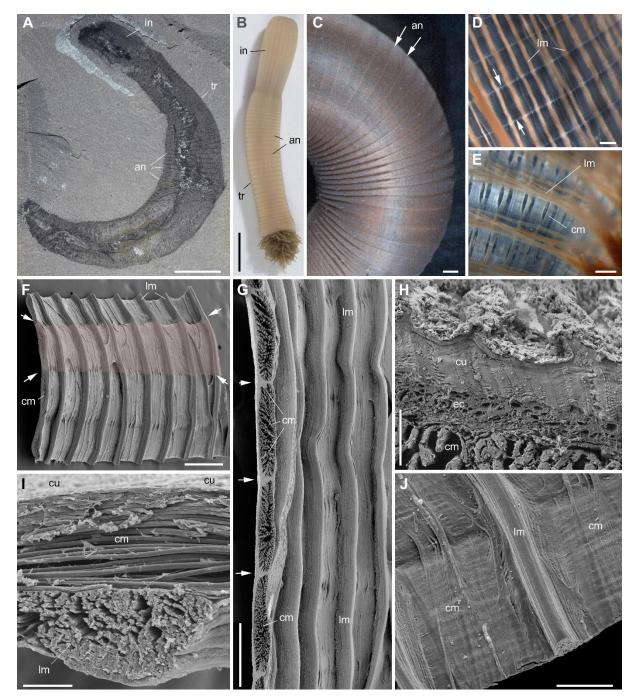
451 figure supplement 5. Muscle system in Cambrian lobopodians (Ecdysozoa, Panarthropoda). (A), (B) 452 *Tritonychus phanerosarkus* from the Yu'anshan Formation (Xiaotan section, Cambrian Series 2, Stage 453 3), Yongshan, Yunnan Province, China; general view and details of a secondarily phosphatized 454 specimen showing a pair of walking appendages (lobopods) and the inner body wall lined with muscle 455 fibers (see Zhang et al., 2016). (C-E) *Paucipodia haikouensis* from the Chengjiang Lagerstätte, 456 ELI-JS0001a (see Vannier and Martin, 2017); close-up of lobopod and terminal claw, and general view;

note muscle bridging claw to gut area. (A), (B) are SEM images (Courtesy Prof. Xiguang Zhang; see
Zhang et al., 2016). Abbreviations: an, annuli; cm, circular muscle; cu, cuticle; gu, gut; lm, longitudinal
muscle; lo, lobopod; mf, muscle fiber; mu, muscle; pc, primary cavity; rm, retractor muscle; tc,
terminal claw. Scale bars: 10 mm in (E), 5 mm in (C), 1 mm in (D), 200 μm in (A) and 100 μm in (B).

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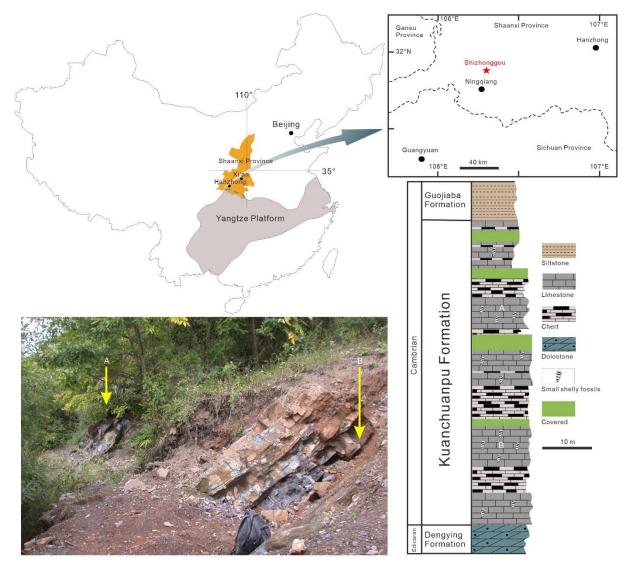
- 463 figure supplement 6. Polyp of Coronatae sp. from South China Sea showing the periderm. (A), (B)
 464 Lateral view and details showing corrugations. (Courtesy Dr. Xikun Song). Abbreviations are as
 465 follows: pe, periderm. Scale bars: 400 μm in (A); 100 μm in (B).
- 466





468 figure supplement 7. Muscle system in priapulid worms (Ecdysozoa). (A) Ottoia prolifica from the 469 mid-Cambrian Burgess Shale, general view showing annulated body. (B-J) Priapulus caudatus from 470 Sweden. (B) general view of live specimen in sea water. (C) annulated trunk. (D) muscles (trunk). (E) 471 muscles (introvert). (F) fragment of trunk showing the internal body wall with strong longitudinal 472 muscles (pink area corresponds to one annulation). (G) transverse section through circular muscles 473 (one bundle per annulation). (H) transverse section through body wall across cuticle, epithelial cells 474 and circular muscles. (I) transverse section through body wall showing circular muscles overlying 475 longitudinal ones. (J) inner wall of body showing both circular and longitudinal muscles. Small white 476 arrows indicate annulation boundaries. (A-E) are light photographs. (F-J) are SEM images. 477 Abbreviations are as follows: an, annulation; cm, circular muscle; cu, cuticle; ec, epithelial cells;

- 478 introvert; Im, longitudinal muscle; tr, trunk. Scale bars: 1 cm in (A), (B); 1 mm in (C); 500 μm in (D-G);
- 479 200 μm in (J); 50 μm in (I) and 10 μm in (H).



480

figure supplement 8. Origin of the fossil material. Location map (Ningqiang area, Southern Shaanxi
Province, China), photograph of outcrop (Shizhonggou Section; see red star) and stratigraphic position
of fossil-bearing rock samples (A), (B) within the Kuanchuanpu Formation. Modified from Steiner et al.,
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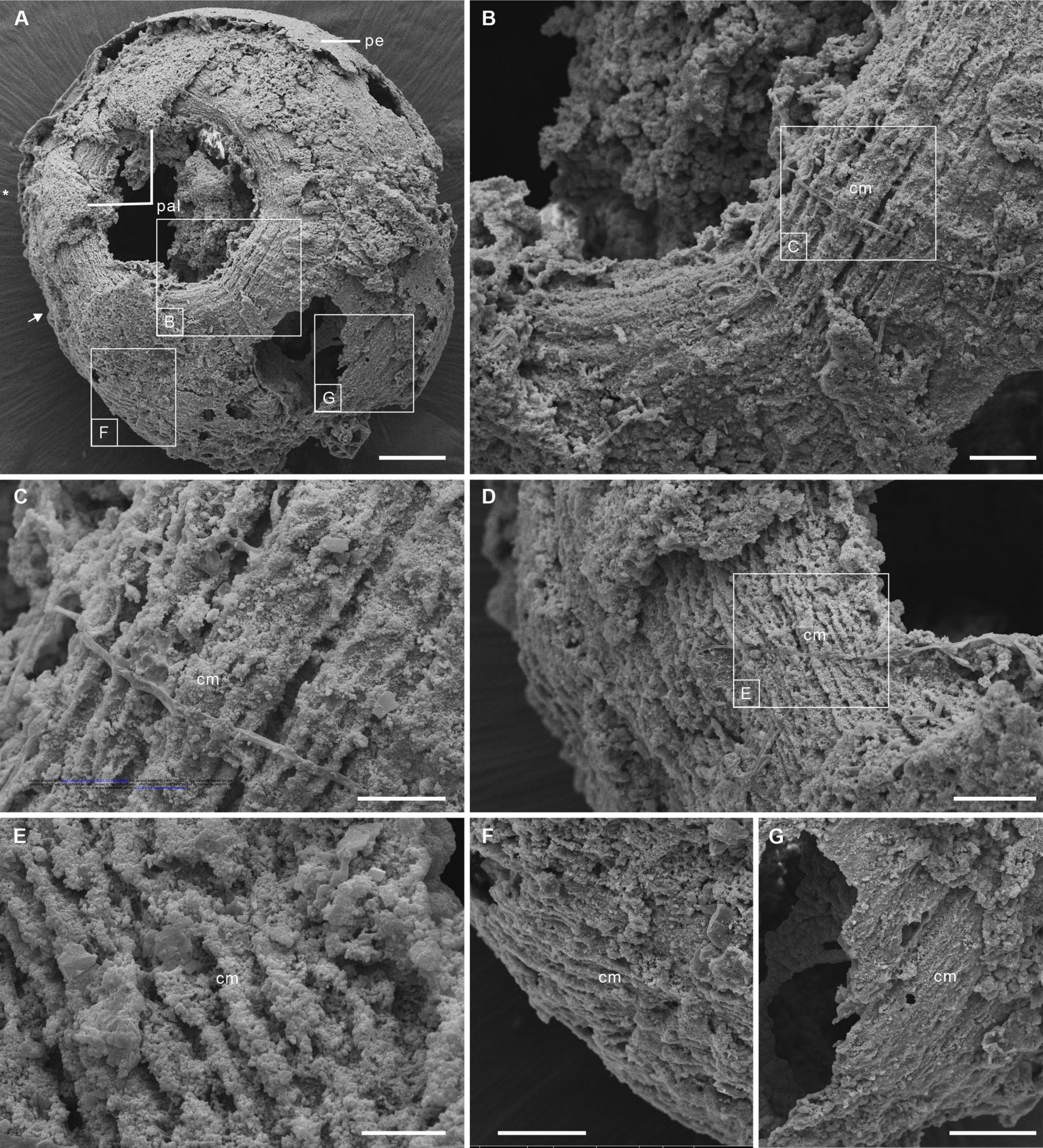
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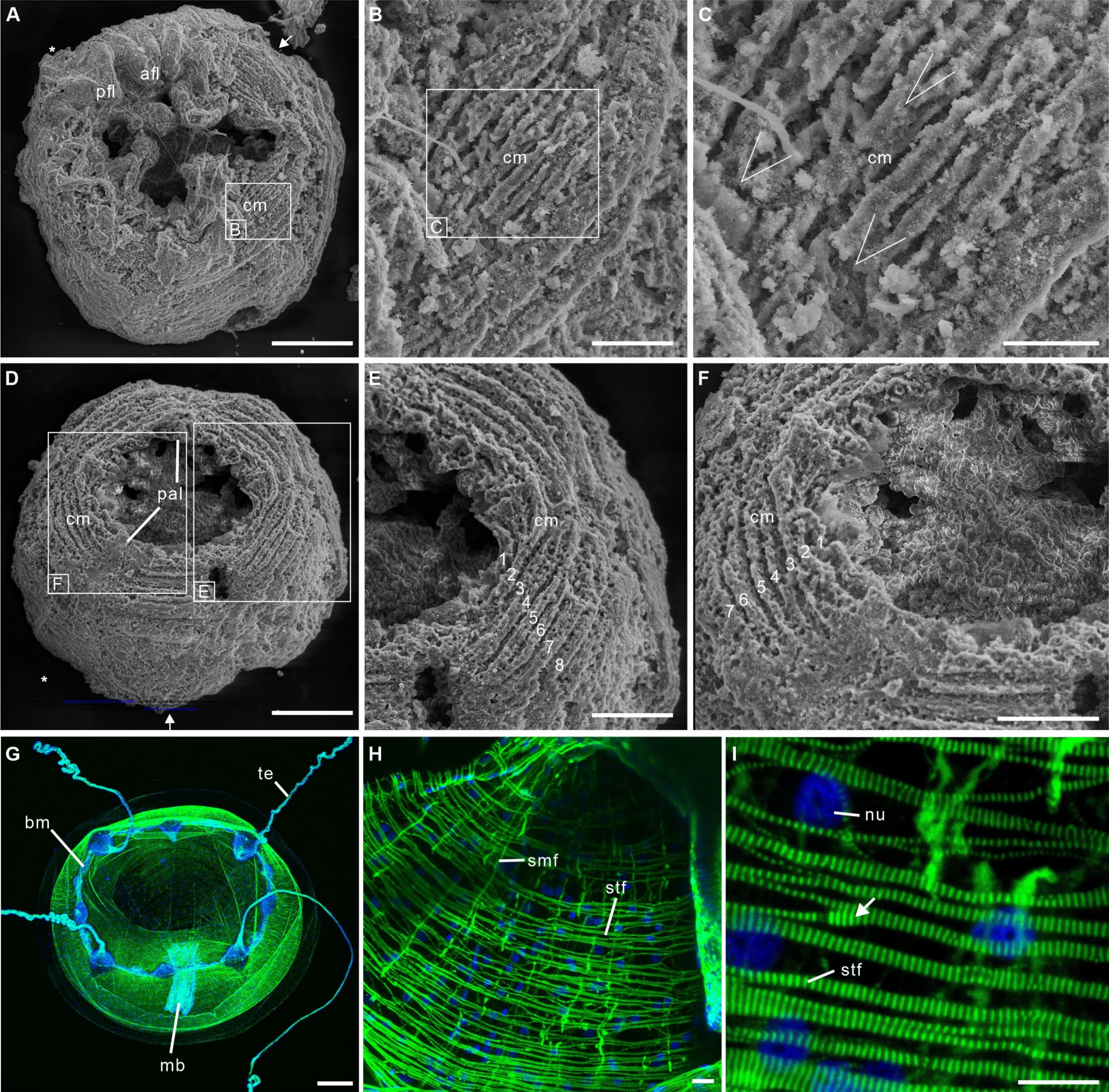
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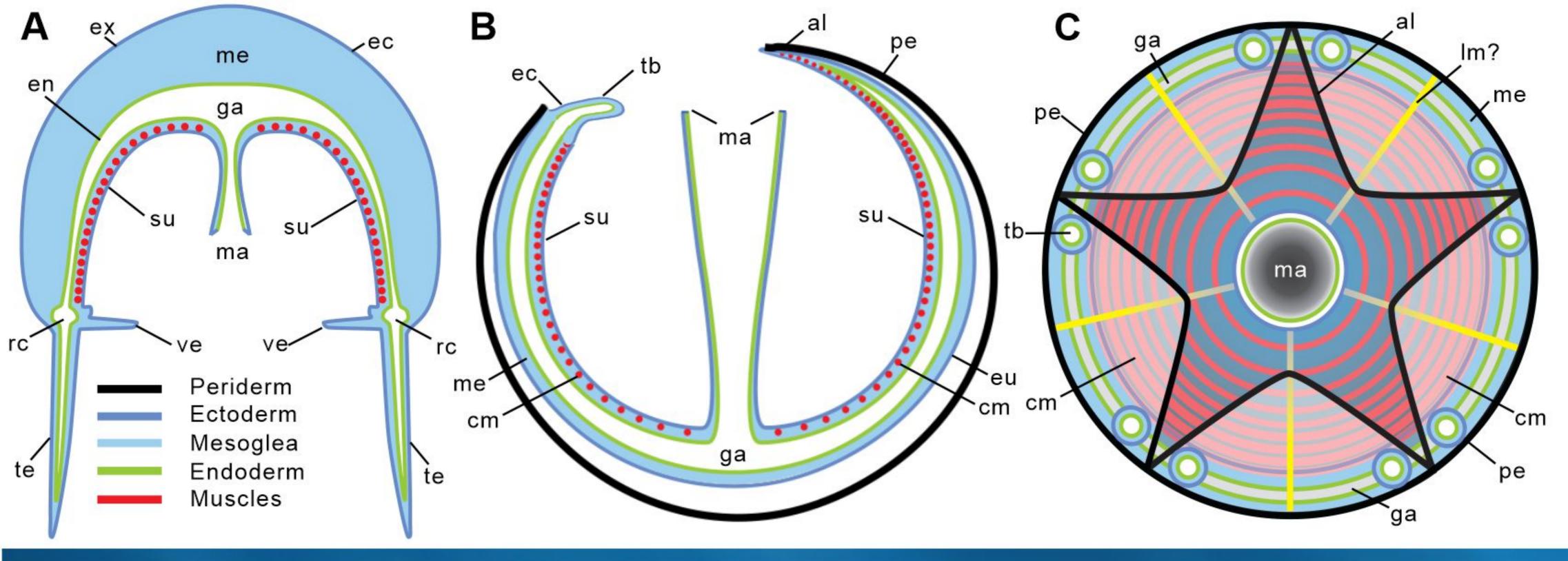
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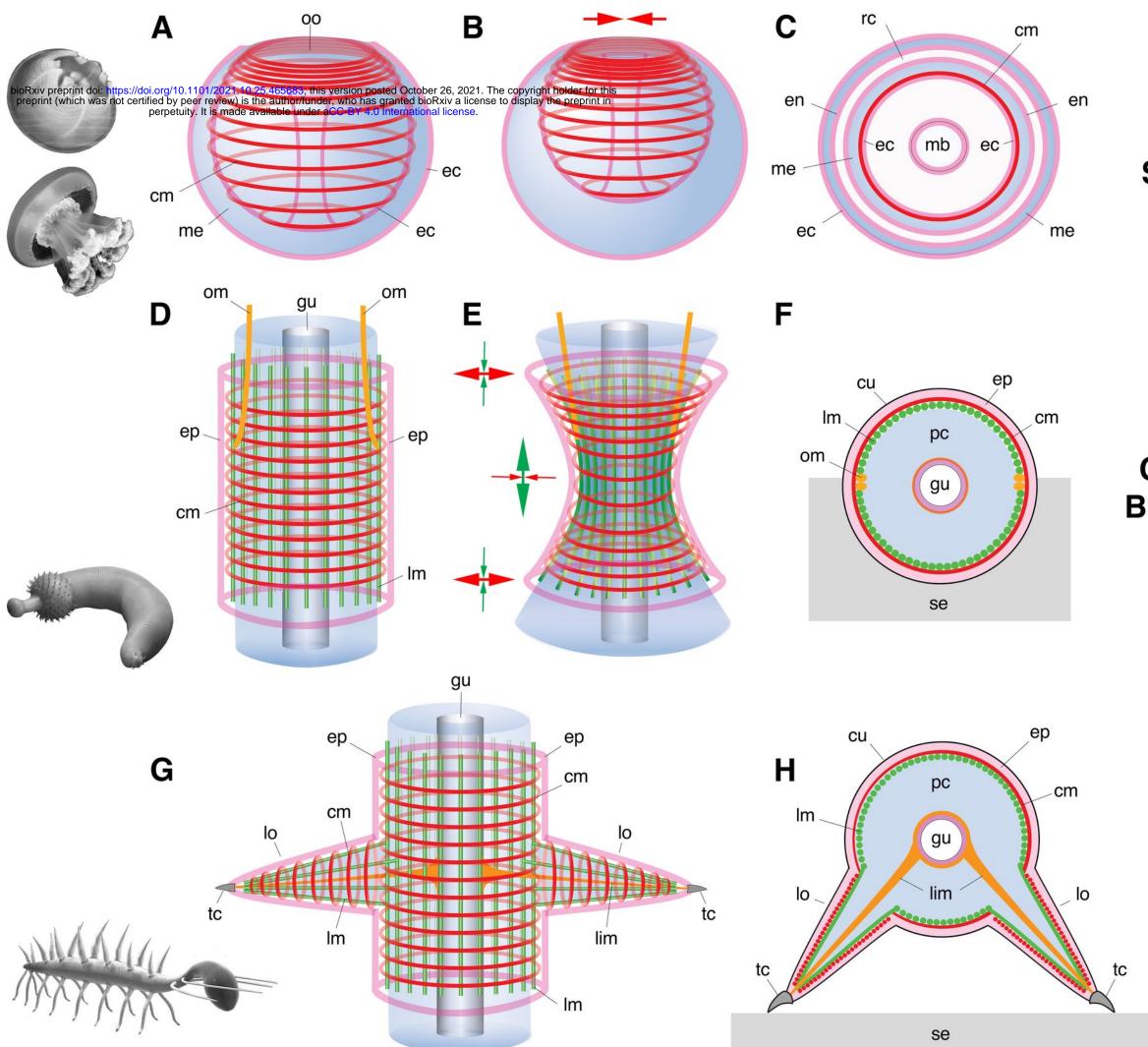




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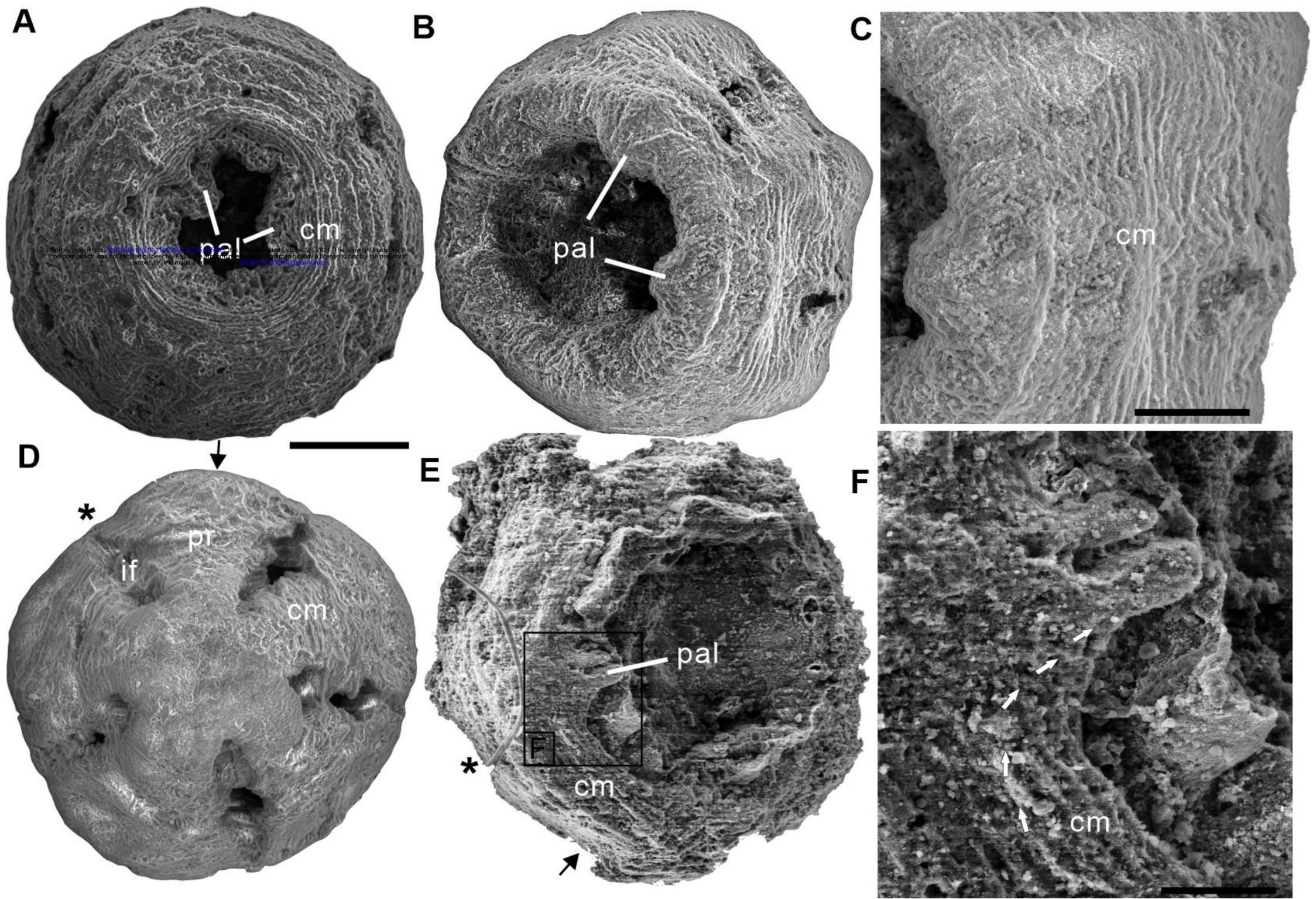


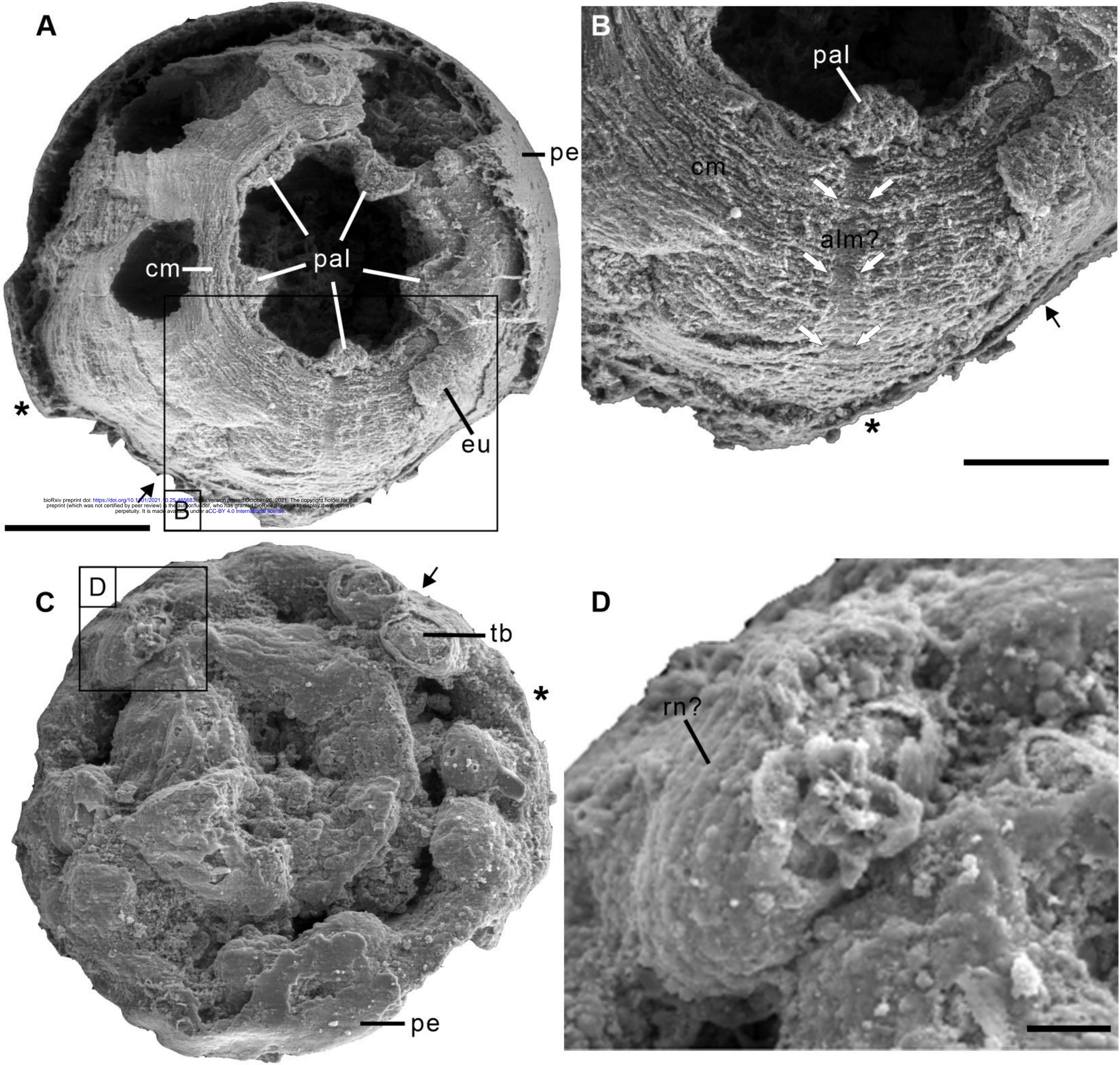


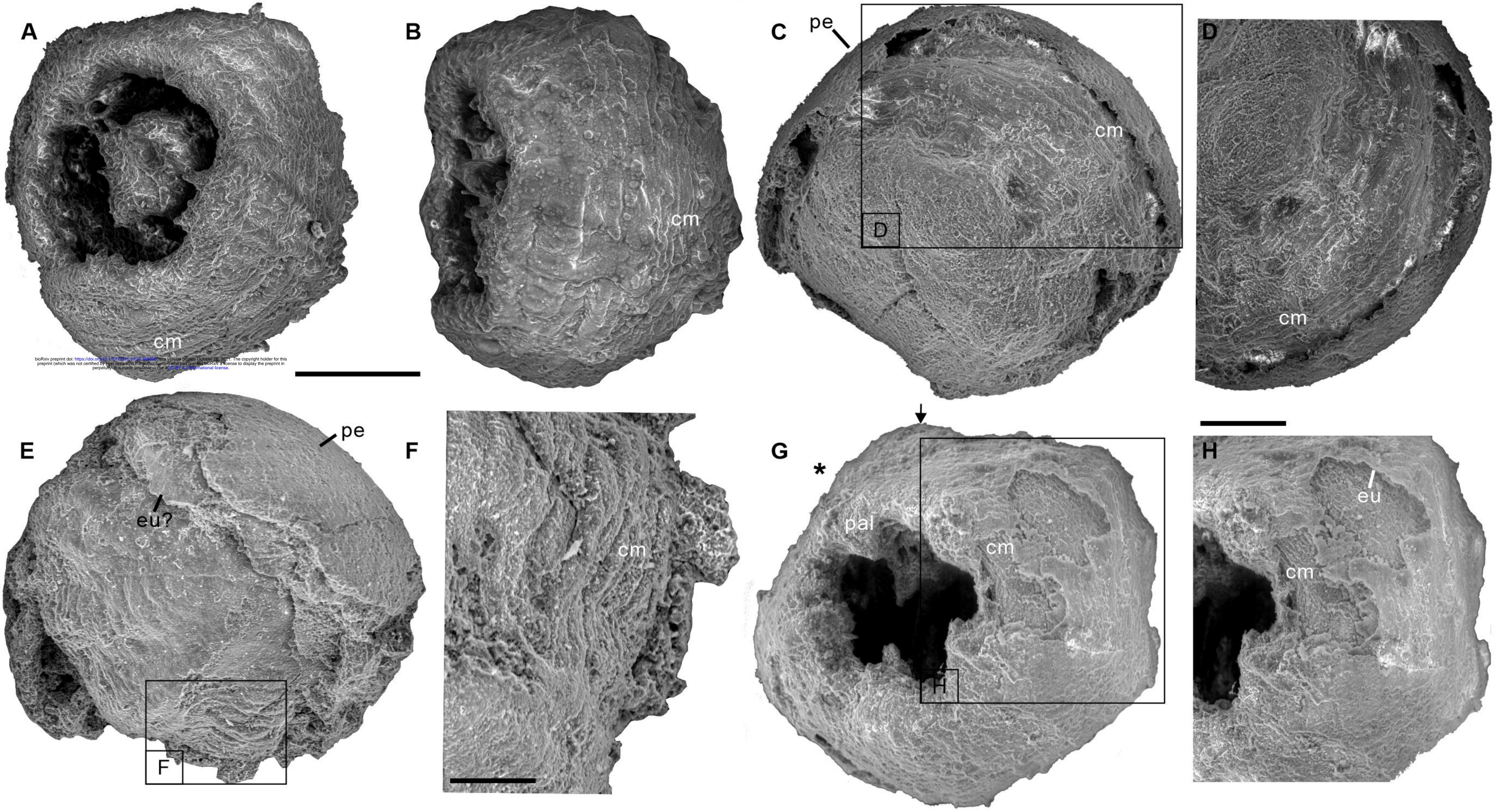
FEEDING SWIMMING

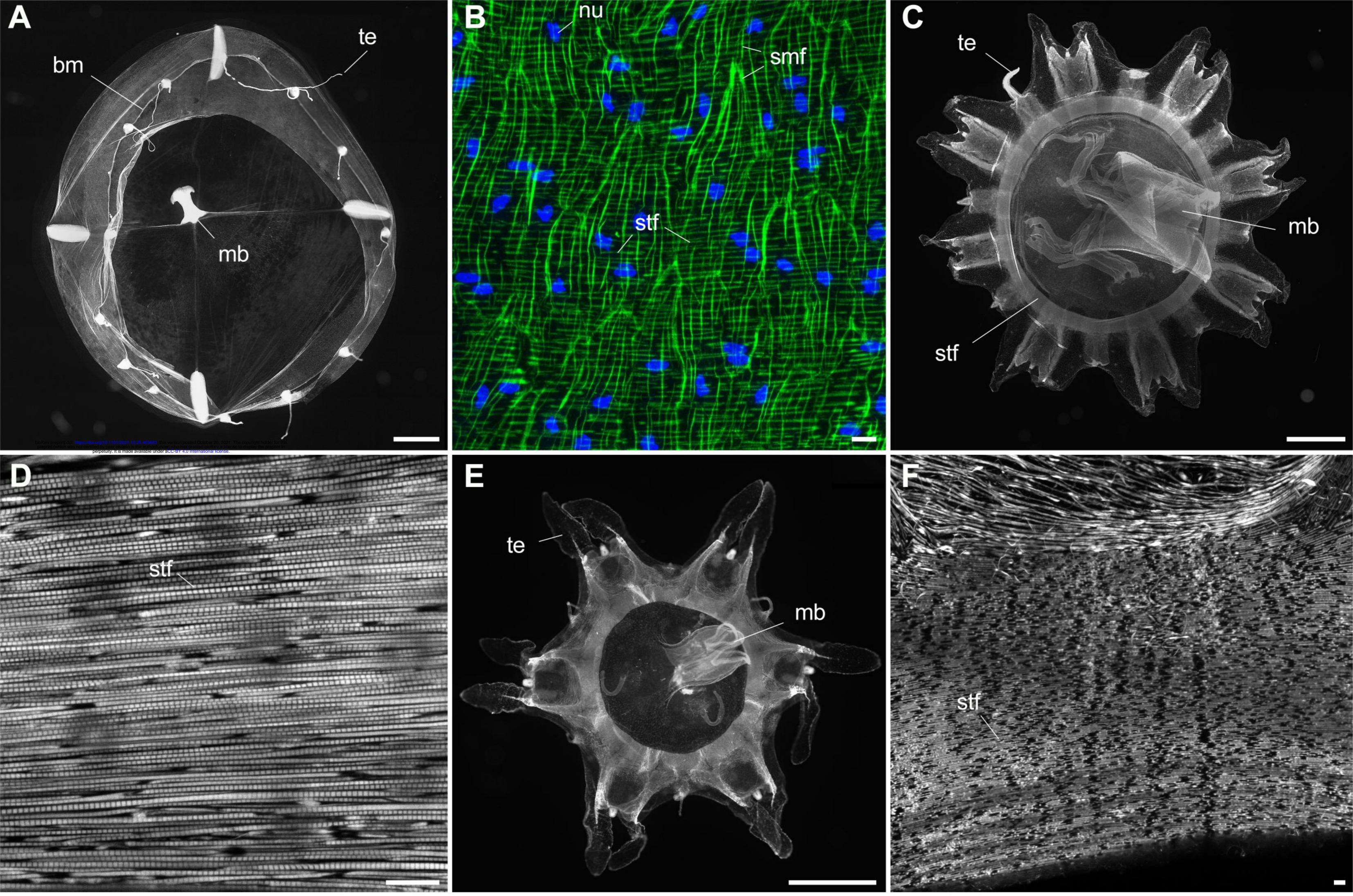
CRAWLING BURROWING

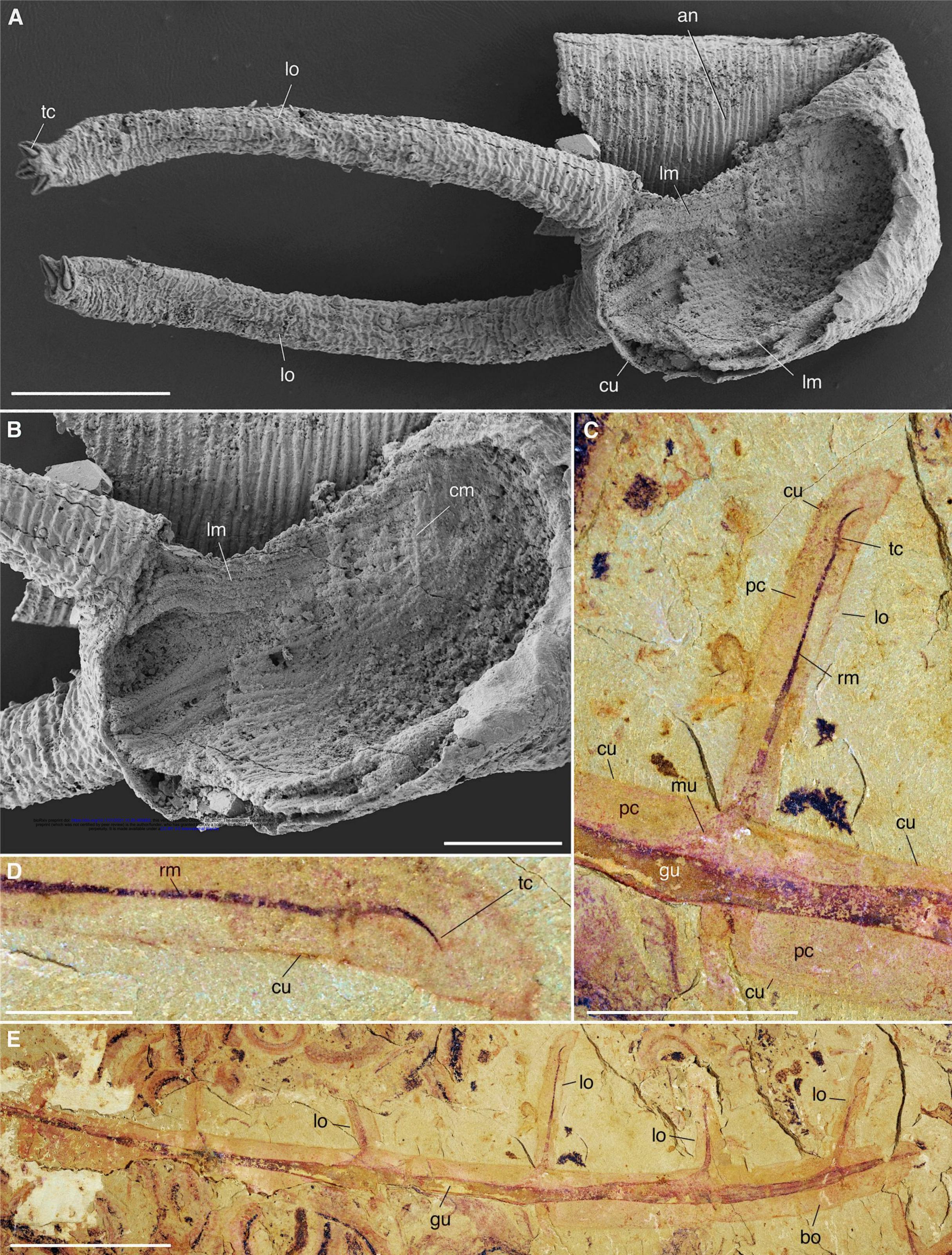
WALKING











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