Exoskeletal microstructure and tensile behavior of the acorn weevil rostrum

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INTRODUCTION

[margin note: 670 words, reduce to 600 or less in revisions, structure of argument/narrative is good]

The exoskeleton of Coleoptera (beetles) is a hierarchically-structured fibrous composite characterized by variously arranged α-chitin (N-acetylglucosamine) nanofibrils embedded in a heterogeneous protein matrix. Although α-chitin is brittle and strongly anisotropic, beetle cuticle is simultaneously rigid and tough due to its unique laminate microstructure. Beetle cuticle is divided into two structurally and mechanically distinct regions, the (outer) exocuticle and (inner) endocuticle. The exocuticle is characterized by a transversely-isotropic helicoidal structure that is comparatively rigid (though brittle) and has been the subject of numerous prior studies. By contrast, the endocuticle of beetles is comprised of large, aligned bundles (macrofibers) of chitin that are strongly anisotropic. Arranged in unidirectional laminae, the macrofibers improve cuticle toughness by inhibiting crack formation and propagation between successive plies [11–13].

[margin notes: give some numbers here; give more numbers here; numbers and refs; numbers again]

In general, impact-prone areas and exaggerated structures, such as horns and legs exhibit cuticle organization that resists deformation and fracture. Acorn weevils in the genus *Curculio* are typified by an elongate structure of the head, called the rostrum (snout), which instead exhibits unusual distal flexibility. The rostrum is a hollow, strongly curved (over 90° in some species), cylindrical, exoskeletal extension of the otherwise nearly-spherical head, which bears at its apex the terminal chewing mouthparts. Despite being composed of the same material as other rigid body parts, the snout can be repeatedly bent without evident damage. This structure is used by the female to feed and to excavate sites for egg-laying (oviposition); the latter process causes significant, apparently elastic, deformation of the rostrum. By maintaining constant tension on the snout and rotating around the bore-hole, females are able to flex the rostrum into a near-perfectly straight configuration and thereby produce a linear channel into the fruit; a single female may prepare hundreds of such sites during the adult stage.

[margin note: as illustrated in figure 1c]

While this behavior has been observed in many species of *Curculio*, it was unclear how the rostrum of female acorn weevils can withstand the repeated, often extreme bending incurred during the process of egg-chamber excavation. In this study we characterize the composite profile of the rostral cuticle to account for the observed flexibility of the snout. We show that the relative layer thicknesses and fiber orientation angles of the exocuticle and endocuticle of the rostrum are strongly differentiated from the head capsule and other body parts, and we estimate the effect of these differences on the elasticity of the cuticle using Classical Laminate Plate Theory (CLPT).

Because recent studies have shown that the yield strength of the beetle exoskeleton is lower in tension than compression, we perform a comparative analysis of the ultimate tensile strength of the rostrum across species and snout morphotypes; we also report the results of displacement-controlled load cycling of the snout in a species with strongly curved morphology. We relate an observed increase in the volume fraction of endocuticle in the rostrum to higher tensile strength at the rostral apex in all tested species, and find that a strongly curved rostrum can be flexed repeatedly without harm to the structure.

We additionally describe the fracture mechanics of the snout, as pertains to both cuticle composite structure and tensile behavior, and consider how modification of the cuticle may reduce the risk of rostral fracture during oviposition. Based on our findings, we posit that the composite profile of the rostral apex enables the snout to be flexed until straight while remaining within the elastic limits of the material, mitigating the risk of structural damage, and without evident alteration of the mechanical properties of the individual components of the cuticle across the structure and between species. Thus, the flexibility and tensile strength of the rostrum appear to be derived *exclusively* from modification of the composite architecture of the exoskeleton. To our knowledge, this is the first time that a modified composite profile has been reported as a means of enhancing structural elasticity in

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the insect exoskeleton.

I. MICROSTRUCTURE OF THE *CURCULIO* ROSTRUM

In arthropods (including beetles), the exocuticle is comprised of numerous unidirectional laminae of chitin nanofibrils; each layer is the thickness of a single fiber (2-4 nm) embedded in a proteinaceous matrix. These layers are stacked at a more or less constant angle to each other, thus forming a quasi-isotropic laminate referred to as the Bouligand structure [7–9]. This layout effectively produces a transversely isotropic composite, mitigating the strong anisotropy of α-chitin to yield a versatile building material for the exoskeleton.

Beetle endocuticle, however, is unique among arthropods and is comprised of large (1-5 μm diameter) unidirectional bundles of chitin, called macrofibers. Chitin macrofibers are orthotropic (axial: $E_1 = 8.5$ GPa, transverse: $E_2 = E_3 = 0.52$ GPa [1]) and arranged in unidirectional plies, seen in Figs. [12, 13]. Typically, adjacent macrofiber plies are paired and pseudo-orthogonal (i.e., angled approx. 90° to each other, see Figs.), with a constant stacking angle *between* pairs , although other configurations have been observed [11, 12]. This geometric sequence of the macrofiber laminae yields an approximately transversely isotropic composite, similar to the Bouligand structure. Notably, the resulting laminate is less rigid than the exocuticle, but exhibits greater toughness because the pseudo-orthogonal plies effectively inhibit crack formation and propagation between successive layers [11–13].

Serial thin sectioning and scanning electron microscopy of fractured *Curculio* specimens have revealed that endocuticle in the head capsule fits this general profile, with an angle of approximately 30° between successive pairs of pseudo-orthogonal plies. Additionally, in the head capsule, the thickness of the exocuticle in cross section is nearly equal to that of the endocuticle. However, we have also found that the cuticle composite lay-up of the rostral apex differs from that of the head capsule (see Fig.). Distally the exocuticle is reduced to a thin shell, with the endocuticle thickened to offset this reduction and maintain a constant cuticle thickness in the head. Moreover, the endocuticular macrofibers exhibit no rotation between successive pseudo-orthogonal plies, which are all oriented at approximately ±45° to the longitudinal axis of the snout (i.e., an antisymmetric [±45°] angle-ply laminate).

In previous work we identified these modifications to the composite structure of the cuticle within a single species, *C. longinasus* Chittenden, 1927 [1?]. This composite profile has now been uncovered in the rostral apex of six additional, phylogenetically disparate, species (detailed in methods), indicating that this is likely a genus-wide trait. In all examined species, the portion of the snout between the head capsule and apex of the scrobe exhibits a gradual transition in composite profile along an anterior-posterior gradient.

To investigate the effect of these cuticle modifications, we estimated uni-axial membrane and transverse flexural Young's moduli of the cuticle in both the rostral apex and head capsule using Classical Laminate Plate Theory (CLPT), as detailed in our methods. We previously derived the effective elastic constants of the cuticle regions of *C. longinasus*, which we used here to construct constitutive equations for the entire cuticle of that species. The cuticle was estimated to have membrane and flexural moduli of $E_m = 4.77$ GPa and $E_f = 6.04$ GPa, respectively, in the head capsule; however, in the rostral apex we found that these values were reduced by approximately 72% and 60%, respectively ($E_m = 1.36$ GPa, $E_f = 2.44$ GPa).

To assess the individual contributions of layer thickness and stacking angle sequence to cuticle flexibility in the rostral apex, two hybrid cuticle lay-ups were also modeled, each with only one of the modifications. A hybrid configuration with the angle stacking sequence of typical cuticle (i.e., in the head capsule) but possessing the layer thicknesses of the rostral apex had effective moduli $E_m = 3.73$ GPa, $E_f = 4.31$ GPa, representing 22% and 29% decreases from unmodified cuticle, respectively. Similarly, a hypothetical cuticle with the layer thicknesses of ordinary cuticle but possessing the angle stacking sequence of the rostral apex (i.e., ±45° angle-ply in the endocuticle) exhibited elastic moduli $E_m = 3.77$ GPa, $E_f = 5.76$ GPa, representing 21% and 4.7% decreases from unmodified cuticle, respectively.

Each of the cuticle modifications noted in the rostral apex individually decreased the elastic moduli of the cuticle; however, they appear to have a synergistic combined effect on cuticle elasticity, rather than a simple additive effect. This result suggests that both modifications are necessary in order for the snout to function properly in the living animal, where the combined effect allows the rostrum to bend until completely straight without fracture.

II. FORCE-CONTROLLED LOADING TO FRACTURE

To better characterize the mechanical behavior of the rostrum at failure, we performed tensile testing on the snouts of six *Curculio* species, representing a mixture of closely and distantly related taxa. Heads of female specimens of each species were rehydrated by immersion in de-ionized water for 24 hours to simulate the condition of the living tissue (but see Klocke and Schmitz 2009). Each specimen was subjected to force-controlled, uniaxial loading to fracture at a constant stress rate of 0.05 N $\cdot$ s^{-1} (detailed in Methods). We then examined the correspondence between composite structure and mechanical behavior of the snout, using phylogenetic linear mixed effects models to account for phylogenetic non-

independence in the residual variances of the models.

In general, the specimens exhibited a non-linear viscoelastic response curve characterized by a sharp increase in stress at higher strains, terminating in apparently brittle fracture after a period of strain hardening. We believe that strain hardening prior to fracture is a consequence of stiff longitudinal axis of the macrofibers becoming more closely aligned to the longitudinal axis of the rostrum, thereby resisting tension more directly at higher strains. We observed that the maximum force sustained at the site of failure was strongly correlated with the cross-sectional area of the endocuticle, and not the exocuticle, at that site. Consequently, there was a positive correlation between ultimate tensile strength of the specimen and the ratio of endocuticle to exocuticle cross-sectional area at the site of fracture.

Although CLPT predicts a positive association between the proportion of exocuticle and stiffness of a generalized cuticle, we found no correspondence between the cross-sectional properties of the fracture site and the gross behavior of the entire rostrum. Because the cross-sectional areas of the cuticle regions vary across the length of the head along an anterior-posterior gradient, it is not possible to correlate measurements from the fracture surface to the properties of the entire snout. Instead, we found that the uniaxial elastic modulus of the snout under low strain (E-low) was inversely correlated with the ultimate strain and toughness of the snout (as was the secant modulus, E-sec) These associations were all found to be statistically significant and independent of species membership.

Additionally, we observed a moderate, stiffening size-effect with respect to rostral length. This observation was initially quite puzzling, as we had expected that a longer (and typically more strongly curved [insert ecomorph paper ref here]) snout would need to be more flexible to avoid fracture during oviposition. Based on preliminary confocal microscopy data, we speculate that this may be the result of a longer transition gradient from the basal profile to the apical profile in longer rostra. We hypothesize that a decrease in exocuticle thickness along a longer portion of the base might reinforce the snout against buckling; however Young's modulus of the rostrum would be comparatively higher in these species because of the greater volume fraction of exocuticle.

From these tests, we infer that the gross elastic behavior of the cuticle is consistent across the genus, in agreement with our current understanding of cuticle mechanobiology. It is therefore unlikely that differences in sclerotization or chitin composition within the cuticle are responsible for the mechanical behavior of the rostrum in different species; instead, a single mechanism (i.e. the modified composite profile) confers increased flexibility and tensile strength to the rostral apex in the genus *Curculio.* he endocuticle demonstrably contributes more to rostral tensile strength than the exocuticle, likely because of its organization into large bundles of aligned, anisotropic fibers. Consequently, the altered composite profile of the cuticle in the rostral apex makes the rostrum simultaneously more flexible and fracture resistant.

III.   LOAD CYCLING OF *CURCULIO CARYAE*

To confirm that repeated, proscribed straightening of the rostrum does not result in damage to the cuticle, we performed displacement-controlled fatigue testing on a typical female specimen of *Curculio caryae*, a species that exhibits extreme $(80 - 90°)$ rostral curvature. The head was removed and rehydrated for 24 hours in de-ionized water, then coated in grease to prevent loss of moisture and stiffening of the specimen during the duration of the test. The specimen was then aligned so that uniaxial tension would induce elongation of the apical portion of the rostrum. The strain per cycle was fixed at an amplitude sufficient to completely elongate the snout and generate a tensile load equal to $0.2\times$ the average tensile strength of conspecifics in the straightened configuration, at a frequency of $0.33\,\mathrm{Hz}$. The test was terminated after a period of two weeks (ca. 400K cycles) when the strain amplitude appeared to reach an asymptotic minimum.

We observed viscoelastic behavior in the rostrum, as indicated by histeresis in the stress-strain relationship during each cycle. Strain amplitude decreased logarithmically with cycle number, and the specimen initially appeared to have deformed plastically during the test. We believed that this indicated damage to the specimen; however, after cleaning the specimen in a 24 hour wash with ethanol and water, we observed that rostrum returned to its original shape.

We cannot fully account for the stress relaxation of the rostrum after testing, but we speculate that it arose from the same mechanism as the viscoelastic behavior observed in tensile testing. The endocuticle is made of aligned α-chitin nanofibrils whose crystalline structure is enforced by hydrogen bonds between individual chitin chains along their length. The viscoelasticity of the cuticle is thought, in part, to come from slippage between these chains as the hydrogen bonds break and reform in response to shearing between the chitin molecules. We believe that repeated strain may have caused such slippage in the endocuticle of the rostral apex during the fatigue test; however, without sufficient time for the material to *completely* relax after deformation, the specimen would slowly accumulate strain and consequently deform viscoelastically (REF). After 24 hours soaking in ethanol and water, the hydrogen bonds would relax sufficiently to allow the specimen to return to its original configuration, dissipating the accumulated strain.

[stress history dependence paper]

The specimen did not show any evidence of fractures, micro-tears, or shear cusps anywhere in the surface of the exocuticle, and, furthermore, the tensile strength of the specimen was consistent with other members of its species $(F_max = 5.02\,\mathrm{N})$. Given this surprising result, it appears that the specimen was undamaged by the testing. We therefore expect that under normal conditions

in life, repeated bending of the snout does not exceed the yield strength of the cuticle, and the bending strain is purely elastic.

IV. FRACTOGRAPHY OF TEST SPECIMENS

Following tensile testing, the fractured specimens were subjected to fractographic analysis using light and scanning electron microscopy. Due to the complex failure modes evident upon examination of the fractured specimens, it was not always possible to identify void nucleation and crack initiation sites (both primary and secondary). Nonetheless, we observed several patterns characteristic of both the micro-scale behavior of the cuticle and the meso-scale behavior of the rostrum during uniaxial tensile failure, which we describe here.

In transverse view, the exocuticle consistently presented a nearly continuous fracture surface, indicative of comparatively brittle failure, due to the helicoidal arrangement of α-chitin laminae and resultant transverse isotropy of the Bouligand structure (REF). The exocuticle typically appeared to fracture at lower strains than the endocuticle, with shear-cusp formation evident both at the fracture surface and across unbroken endocuticle on the rostral surface adjacent to the plane of fracture. Conversely, the endocuticle exhibited severe delamination, off-axis ply-splitting, and fiber-pulling away from the fracture surface, indicating that endocuticular macrofibers are less brittle than the exocuticle, likely as a consequence of the unidirectional alignment of their α-chitin nanofibrils (REF). Because the exocuticle of weevils is anchored to the endocuticle by cross-linking fibers, the presence of exocuticular shear-cusp formation in uniaxial tension suggests extension-shear coupling within individual endocuticle laminae, which caused ply-splitting via mode II fracture between macrofibers at high strain. This intra-laminar extension-shear coupling also yielded off-axis, in-plane resultant forces as a function of lamina orientation angle; mode III shearing then occurred between laminae with opposing in-plane resultant forces, causing inter-ply delamination. Tensile failure of the macrofiber laminae would ultimately occur via mixed-mode I/II (transverse tension/intra-laminar shear) fracture due to an increase in applied stress caused by ply-splitting in adjacent laminae.

At the meso-scale, most specimens fractured along a single plane across and between the occipital sulci, which are cuticle invaginations that traverse the entire length of the rostrum. These sulci increase the volume fraction of exocuticle in the ventral part of the snout and contain large interfaces ideal for void nucleation. The exocuticle of the occipital sulci usually displayed shear cusps oriented outward from the center of the invagination, continuing dorsolaterally and ventromedially. Ventrally the cusps converged toward a prominent scarp where the crack fronts joined, although in specimens with large cross-sectional areas of endocuticle, this was often obscured by delaminated endocuticular macrofibers.

The first layer of endocuticle usually fractured along the same plane as the exocuticle, and ventrally the endocuticle laminae typically converged toward a scarp-like region characterized by severe delamination and numerous de-bonded macrofibers. Additionally, macrofibers oriented in the direction of crack propagation exhibited extensive ply-splitting with intermittent transverse shearing, while macrofibers oriented against the direction of crack propagation primarily displayed fracture by transverse shear along the plane of ply-splitting in adjacent laminae. Because the laminae form a cylinder, contralateral fibers in the same lamina display opposing fracture modes. In addition, the ventrolateral surfaces often exhibited extensive inter-ply delamination and fiber de-bonding in scarp-like prominences, likely due to a combination of tensile failure and shearing along the dorsally-radiating crack front. Dorsally, the coalescent crack fronts often caused significant de-bonding and ply-splitting followed by broom-like tensile failure; in some specimens, the contralateral crack fronts were out of plane and coalesced via transverse shear through a large dorsal section of cuticle.

From these patterns we hypothesize that the exocuticle-rich occipital sulci are the most likely site for the initiation of void nucleation and catastrophic failure of the integrated rostral cuticle in cross section, as illustrated in Fig REF. According to this model, structural failure would take place as cracks propagate through the endocuticle from these sutures, which penetrate the entire thickness of the laminate. Although other, more complex failure modes have been observed, we posit that in live specimens this is the most likely mechanism of tensile failure because typical bending behavior generates tension only along the ventral surface of the rostrum.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The rostrum of *Curculio* is characterized by a discontinuous composite profile, wherein the cuticle is strongly differentiated along an anterior-posterior gradient. In particular, the cuticle in the apical portion of the rostrum exhibits marked reduction in relative thickness of the and in stacking-angle between pseudo-orthogonal plies of the endocuticle, which are aligned at $\pm 45°$ to the longitudinal axis of the snout. Constitutive models demonstrated that an idealized apical cuticle could theoretically achieve 72% and 60% reductions in the effective longitudinal membrane and flexural moduli, respectively, compared to the cuticle of the head capsule, thus accounting for the observed flexibility of the rostral apex in live specimens. However, these reductions could only be realized with both modifications to the cuticle, which have a non-additive effect on cuticle elasticity. Tensile testing data revealed that increased endocuticle thickness enhances the fracture toughness of the cuticle, raising the intriguing possibility that this system evolved via negative se-

lection of breakage, rather than positive selection of flexibility.

We confirmed that altered composite profile of the cuticle in the rostral apex makes the rostrum simultaneously more flexible and fracture resistant, and .

Based on fractographic analysis of test-specimens, we infer that the endocuticle deforms viscoelastically along the longitudinal axes of the macrofibers under uniaxial tension, causing ply-splitting and delamination at high strain. The overlying exocuticle then exhibits brittle fracture, at a comparatively low strain, due to shearing between the stretching endocuticle fibers to which it is anchored. This outcome is consistent with behavior shown in previous studies and is congruent with theoretical consideration of cuticle microstructure in CLPT, which predicts extension shear-coupling ($A_{16}, A_{26} \neq 0$) for individual off-axis macrofiber laminae.

To the best of our knowledge... had not previously been reported

VI. METHODS

Methods, including statements of data availability and any associated accession codes and references, are available in the online version of this paper.

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METHODS

Histological sectioning

Tensile and fatigue testing

Specimen imaging and microscopy

Cold-fracture of rostra

Constitutive modeling of the cuticle

General Approach

Cuticle profile of model   The cuticle of *C. longinasus* is 50 microns thick; we use *C. longinasus* because we have constitutive models for the cuticle regions of this species. We assumed equal layer thicknesses in the endocuticle of the basal cuticle, and equal thicknesses of exocuticle and endocuticle. In the apical cuticle we assumed the exocuticle and upper 8 layers of the endocuticle were each 5 microns thick, with 4 thinner layers of endocuticle, each $1.25\,\mu m$ thick. The angles of the endocuticle layers for both types of cuticle are as described above.

Permutations   We additionally calculated models for two hypothetical hybrid cuticles: one model has the layer thicknesses of the apex, but fiber orientations of the base, while the second has the fiber orientations of the apex, but the layer thicknesses of the base.

Classical Laminate Plate Theory   We begin by calculating the 2D reduced stiffness matrix for each part of the cuticle. For orthotropic materials with the principal axes parallel to the ply edges, the reduced stiffness matrix is defined as follows:

$$[Q] = \begin{bmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{12} & 0 \\ Q_{21} & Q_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & Q_{66} \end{bmatrix}, \tag{1}$$

and where:

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q_{11} &= \frac{E_1}{1 - \nu_{12}\nu_{21}}, \\
Q_{12} &= \frac{E_1\nu_{21}}{1 - \nu_{12}\nu_{21}} = Q_{21}, \\
Q_{21} &= \frac{E_2\nu_{12}}{1 - \nu_{12}\nu_{21}} = Q_{12}, \\
Q_{22} &= \frac{E_2}{1 - \nu_{12}\nu_{21}}, \\
Q_{66} &= G_{12}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{2}
$$

For each layer k, the reduced stiffness matrix is transformed to account for the layer orientation angle θ within the laminate coordinate system, yielding a reduced transformed stiffness matrix according to:

$$[\bar{Q}] = [T]^{-1}[Q][T]^{-T}, \tag{3}$$

where the transformation matrix $[T]$ is defined as:

$$[T] = \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2\theta & \sin^2\theta & 2\cos\theta\sin\theta \\ \sin^2\theta & \cos^2\theta & -2\cos\theta\sin\theta \\ -\cos\theta\sin\theta & \cos\theta\sin\theta & \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta \end{bmatrix}. \tag{4}$$

Using the lay-ups specified for the cuticle permutations, we calculate the extensional stiffness matrix $[A]$, bending stiffness matrix $[D]$, and bending-extension coupling matrix B for each laminate consisting of n layers at a distance z from the laminate mid-plane. The elements of these matrices can be found according to:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\bar{Q}_{ij})_k (z_k - z_{k-1}), \\
B_{ij} &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\bar{Q}_{ij})_k (z_k^2 - z_{k-1}^2), \\
D_{ij} &= \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\bar{Q}_{ij})_k (z_k^3 - z_{k-1}^3).
\end{aligned}
\tag{5}
$$

These stiffness matrices relate vectors of resultant forces $\{N\}$ and bending moments $\{M\}$ to mid-surface strains and curvatures $\{\epsilon^\circ\}$ and $\{\kappa\}$, respectively, in the laminate according to the following relationship:

$$\begin{Bmatrix} \{N\} \\ \{M\} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} [A] & [B] \\ [B] & [D] \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \{\epsilon^\circ\} \\ \{\kappa\} \end{Bmatrix}. \tag{6}$$

For symmetric laminates, $[B] = 0$, and therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \{N\} &= [A]\{\epsilon^\circ\}, \\ \{M\} &= [D]\{\kappa\}, \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

or, in expanded form:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\begin{Bmatrix} N_{xx} \\ N_{yy} \\ N_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{16} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{26} \\ A_{61} & A_{62} & A_{66} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \epsilon^\circ_{xx} \\ \epsilon^\circ_{yy} \\ \gamma_{xy} \end{Bmatrix}, \\
\begin{Bmatrix} M_{xx} \\ M_{yy} \\ M_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} D_{11} & D_{12} & D_{16} \\ D_{21} & D_{22} & D_{26} \\ D_{61} & D_{62} & D_{66} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \kappa_{xx} \\ \kappa_{yy} \\ \kappa_{xy} \end{Bmatrix}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{8}
$$

If we make the simplifying assumptions (see ref.) that **(1)** the laminate experiences pure axial loading and transverse bending (i.e., $N_{yy} = N_{xy} = 0$ and $M_{yy} = M_{xy} = 0$, respectively) and **(2)** the laminate is a beam of sufficiently high aspect ratio to minimize the Poisson effect and anisotropic shear coupling (i.e., below we effectively let $A_{12}^* = A_{16}^* = 0$ and $D_{12}^* = D_{16}^* = 0$), then

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we can calculate the in-plane effective flexural and axial Young's moduli of the laminate along the x-axis.

For axial Young's modulus of the laminate, we first define the average membrane stresses in the laminate as:

$$\{\bar{\sigma}^m\} = \frac{\{N\}}{z_1 - z_n}\,. \tag{9}$$

By substitution in Eq. 7, we find:

$$\begin{Bmatrix} \bar{\sigma}^m_{xx} \\ \bar{\sigma}^m_{yy} \\ \bar{\tau}^m_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} = \frac{1}{(z_1 - z_n)} \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{16} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{26} \\ A_{61} & A_{62} & A_{66} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \epsilon^m_{xx} \\ \epsilon^m_{yy} \\ \gamma^m_{xy} \end{Bmatrix}, \tag{10}$$

and, by inverting this equation (let $A^* = A^{-1}$) and substituting based on the assumptions above, we infer:

$$\epsilon^m_{xx} = (z_1 - z_n) A^*_{11} \bar{\sigma}^m_{xx}\,. \tag{11}$$

We therefore define Young's modulus for effective axial elasticity as:

$$E^m_{xx} = \frac{\bar{\sigma}^m_{xx}}{\epsilon^m_{xx}} = \frac{1}{(z_1 - z_k) A^*_{11}} \tag{12}$$

To find the transverse flexural Young's modulus of the laminate, we first specify the moment-curvature relation of an Euler-Bernoulli beam:

$$M = EI\kappa\,. \tag{13}$$

Along the x-axis, the second moment of area for a rectangular cross-section is:

$$I_{yy} = \frac{b(z_1 - z_n)^3}{12}\,, \tag{14}$$

Given the assumption that $M_{yy} = M_{xy} = 0$, the moment along the x-axis is related to the moment of the beam by:

$$M = M_{xx}b\,. \tag{15}$$

Thus, given the assumption that $D_{12} = D_{16} = 0$, Young's modulus for the effective transverse flexural elasticity of the laminate can be found by making Eq. 13 specific to transverse flexure of the x-axis and rearranging the terms:

$$E^f_{xx} = \frac{12M_{xx}}{(z_1 - z_n)^3 \kappa_{xx}} \tag{16}$$

From inversion of Eq. 7 (let $D^* = D^{-1}$) this reduces to:

$$E^f_{xx} = \frac{12}{(z_1 - z_n)^3 D^*_{11}} \tag{17}$$

Statistical analysis

General approach To explore the relationships between the composite structure and mechanical properties of the cuticle, we fit phylogenetic linear mixed-effects models to the data using maximum likelihood estimation. In order to control for phylogenetic non-independence in the data, we included the species of each specimen as a random effect in all models. We also allowed for correlation in the error term of the models, as specified by a variance-covariance matrix generated from a Brownian motion model of trait evolution along the phylogeny. Response variables and covariates were natural-log transformed, as needed, to ensure model residuals were normally distributed and homoscedastic. In all models, we tested whether the inclusion of phylogenetic correlation in the model error produced significantly better model fit, using a likelihood-ratio test and R^2_σ-difference test between the fully-specified model and a model lacking the phylogenetic effect.

Hypothesis testing The following three hypotheses were tested using PGLMMs fitted using ML estimation:

1. The maximum sustained tensile force is proportional to the cross-sectional area of the endocuticle, and *not* that of the exocuticle.

2. The ultimate tensile strength of the samples is inversely proportional to the ratio of exocuticle to endocuticle at the location of fracture.

3. Young's modulus of the samples is proportional to the length of the snout.

We fitted a fully-specified model with the cross-sectional area of endocuticle and exocuticle at the site of fracture as fixed effects, including an interaction term, and with maximum tensile force sustained prior to fracture as a response variable. This model was then compared to models with only cross-sectional area of either endocuticle or exocuticle as the sole fixed effect in the model. We then tested the first hypothesis by using likelihood-ratio tests and $R^2_{\beta*}$-difference tests between each of the three models.

The hypothesis that

Model selection and fitting

Estimating phylogenetic signal

Code availability

Data availability

REFERENCES

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