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# 1 Sea surface temperature contributes to marine

# 2 crocodylomorph evolution

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10 During the Mesozoic and Cenozoic, four distinct crocodylomorph lineages colonized the 11 marine environment. They were conspicuously absent from high latitudes, which in the 12 Mesozoic were occupied by warm-blooded ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs. Despite a 13 relatively well-constrained stratigraphic distribution, the varying diversities of marine 14 crocodylomorphs are poorly understood because their extinctions neither coincided with 15 any major biological crises, nor with the advent of potential competitors. Here, we test 16 the potential link between their evolutionary history in terms of taxic diversity and two 17 abiotic factors, sea level variations and Sea Surface Temperatures (SST). Excluding 18 Metriorhynchoidea, which may have had a peculiar ecology, significant correlations 19 obtained between generic diversity and estimated Tethyan SST suggest that water 20 temperature was a driver of marine crocodylomorph diversity. Being most likely 21 ectothermic reptiles, these lineages colonized the marine realm and diversified during 22 warm periods, then declined or became extinct during cold intervals.

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Crocodylomorphs today show relatively narrow temperature tolerances, and their

25 geographic distribution, whether on land or in the sea, is limited by temperature range. They 26 are essentially tropical to subtropical organisms (Alligator mississippiensis and Alligator 27 sinensis being also known from warm-temperate zones) and their distribution in ancient environments is usually taken as an indication of tropical to subtropical temperatures  $1^{-3}$ , a 28 crucial adjunct to climate models for the Cretaceous and Cenozoic<sup>4</sup>. This assumption that 29 30 crocodylomorphs are always tropical to subtropical indicators is based on their present 31 distribution. Indeed, crocodylomorphs are unique among Mesozoic marine reptiles because 32 some of them have living relatives. However, in the past, crocodylomorphs showed a far 33 wider range of habitats and adaptations than seen among their modern counterparts. Most 34 marine reptiles of the Mesozoic have no modern analogues, and processes affecting their rise 35 and demise have been much debated in the context of covariation of palaeodiversity and sampling proxies<sup>5-7</sup>. The bias hypothesis (i.e. errors induced by human collection or 36 37 geological preservation) was put forward as the main explanation for palaeodiversity variation in Mesozoic marine reptiles<sup>5</sup>. Closer analysis suggested differences in the fossil records of the 38 39 shelf and deep ocean, and that shallow marine tetrapod diversity was better explained by the extent of flooded continental areas than by sampling error<sup>6</sup>. More recently, it has been 40 41 proposed that the extended extinction of unrelated marine reptile clades over the early 42 Cretaceous could equally be explained by climatic or biotic factors exclusive to a given 43 clade<sup>7</sup>. Another possibility is that marine reptile diversity could indirectly result from global 44 changes in ocean chemistry, deeply scrambling the biomass and the structure of trophic chains, thus impacting again the diversity at the top of the food chain. There is therefore no 45 46 clear consensus about the role of extrinsic versus intrinsic factors on marine reptile 47 palaeodiversity in the Mesozoic.

In order to test the control of the two major factors, seawater temperature or sea-levelvariations, on the diversity of marine crocodylomorphs, we have established a diversity

database (Supplementary data 1) of marine crocodylomorphs at the generic level using all published occurrences worldwide from the Early Jurassic to the Late Eocene and compared them to published sea-level curves and to an updated sea surface temperature (SST) curve established from the oxygen isotope composition of fish teeth.

54 Our analyses recover significant support for the covariation of seawater temperatures 55 and the generic diversity of marine crocodylomorphs, excluding metriorhynchoids. A possible 56 interpretation of these findings is that the evolution of most marine crocodylomorphs depends 57 on environmental temperatures due to their ectothermic physiology. On the other hand, the 58 radiation of metriorhynchoids during cold SST intervals suggests a different ecological 59 strategy for this lineage.

60

#### 61 **Results**

62 **Palaeodiversity.** The stratigraphic ranges of marine crocodylomorphs across the studied time 63 interval do not overlap, with the exception of marine eusuchians and Dyrosauridae, both of 64 which appeared at the very end of the Cretaceous. No marine crocodylomorph has ever been 65 reported from two intervals of the Cretaceous, the Hauterivian-Albian and the Coniacian-Campanian. These gaps in the fossil record can be considered as true absences because marine 66 67 deposits of these ages are abundant (PaleoDB data) and have yielded remains of other marine reptiles including ichthyosaurs, plesiosaurs or mosasaurs<sup>5</sup>, but have never vielded any 68 69 crocodylomorphs.

Thalattosuchians comprise the first marine radiation, with three genera recorded in the Toarcian, followed by a collapse in diversity during the Aalenian. This apparent peak is an artefact of preservation due to a typical Lagerstätte effect<sup>5</sup>, further expressed with the absence of record in the Aalenian, only recently recognized from new discoveries of other marine vertebrates<sup>8,9</sup>. A crocodylomorph assemblage containing both metriorhynchoids and 75 teleosaurids existed at least since the Bajocian when the first alleged metriorhynchoids are 76 recorded. From then, thalattosuchian diversity peaked in the Callovian with seven genera. A diversity drop is recorded between the Callovian and the Oxfordian. The metriorhynchoid 77 78 burst in diversification took place during the Kimmeridgian-Tithonian interval, with five and 79 seven genera recorded respectively. While metriorhynchoids flourished, the diversity of 80 teleosaurids for this same interval dwindled to only two genera, Machimosaurus and 81 Steneosaurus. No teleosaurid has been reported thereafter. Finally, metriorhynchoid diversity 82 dropped in the Berriasian with two genera and the clade disappeared during the early Hauterivian<sup>10,11,12</sup>. Thalattosuchians have never been reported from younger rocks. 83 84 The present data compilation shows a gap in the record of marine crocodylomorphs

from the early Hauterivian to the Cenomanian, when some pholidosaurids colonized the
marine environment in the Cenomanian. They are not recorded after the Coniacian.

The last radiation of crocodylomorphs into the marine environment is Maastrichtian, with five genera of Dyrosauridae and two genera of gavialoid eusuchians. Both Dyrosauridae and gavialoids survived the end-Cretaceous events, Dyrosauridae becoming extinct some time during the Ypresian. On the other hand, eusuchians seem to have radiated successively again during the Eocene, Oligocene and Miocene, as gavialoids.

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93 Tests of correlation. In comparisons of different data treatments, Spearman rank correlation 94 tests suggest some correlation of the palaeodiversity signal with the explanatory time series. 95 Out of the five explanatory time-series, SST show the greatest number (7) of significant 96 results for the correlation tests against the response variables (Table 1). This is closely 97 followed by the data for sea level reconstruction by Miller et al.<sup>13</sup>, with five significant 98 results. Then, the sea level estimate of Haq et al.<sup>14</sup> shows only one significant correlation with 99 the response variable. Finally, the two subsequent explanatory variables (PaleoDB marine 100 formations and COSUNA formations) show non-significant correlations with the response101 variables.

102 There appears to be no good match when either raw crocodylomorph species diversity 103 counts or phylogenetically corrected generic diversity counts are compared with SST. The 104 tested relations remain unmatched when applying various data transformations (time-scaling, 105 logarithmic, generalized differencing).

Significant correlations between SST and the response variables appear when 106 107 metriorhynchoid crocodylomorphs are excluded from the diversity count (NM dataset). In 108 terms of strength of correlation, Log<sub>10</sub> (NMcroc) offers the best result, which is as good as the correlation coefficients recovered for the sea level estimate of the Miller et al.<sup>13</sup> curve versus 109 the response variables. Nevertheless, SST stands out from the sea level estimate of Miller et 110 al.<sup>14</sup> when the response variables are phylogenetically corrected, with four significant 111 112 correlation coefficients (> 0.36) explained by SST, versus one significant correlation coefficient (0.405) for Miller sea level (Table 1). Noteworthy in the results are significant 113 114 positive correlation coefficients obtained when considering SST or the sea level estimate of Miller et al.<sup>13</sup> against generalized differences of the diversity dataset without 115 116 metriorhynchoids (GD NMcroc and PC GD NMcroc in Table 1). 117 After correction with the Benjamini-Hochberg multiple comparisons and Bonferroni

correction, we found that all significant correlations (Table 1) ceased to be significant.
Perhaps the correction was too harsh, or at least any correlations that exist between the marine
crocodylomorph fossil record and the putative physical drivers are weak. There are clearly
problems with the time bins and palaeodiversity sample sizes used here. The temporal
distribution of the fossil record of marine crocodylomorphs is not as resolved as that of the
SST data. This means that variations in temperatures within these time bins cannot be
compared to the evolution of diversity at a finer stratigraphic scale, simply because the

125 stratigraphic distribution of the marine vertebrates can only be inferred using ghost ranges.

126 Nevertheless, these results do not invalidate the simple observation that marine

127 crocodylomorphs are present in the marine environment when warm SST prevail, but are

absent when cold SST are recorded. These are discussed below.

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### 130 Discussion

131 No significant correlation between marine crocodylomorph diversity and PaleoDB marine 132 formations is observed, under any manipulation of the time series, therefore suggesting that 133 the ups and downs in marine crocodylomorph diversity are not dominated by geological sampling, but indicate some aspects of the original diversity signal and ought to be explained 134 135 by other external factors. The absence of significant correlation between marine crocodylomorph diversity and the metric for continental flooding (COSUNA) contrasts with 136 137 previously published results, although it should be noted that the present diversity data sets 138 are necessarily small. A strong negative correlation was found between non-flooded surface area and the taxic diversity of shallow environments<sup>6</sup>, a result predicted by the inverse 139 140 relation between non-flooded surface area and the number of shallow marine habitats. As predicted by these results<sup>6</sup>, a positive and significant correlation would be expected in our 141 142 results between COSUNA and marine crocodylomorph diversity, but this is not the case. Our 143 dataset focuses on one group, marine crocodylomorphs, versus all marine reptiles in the case of Benson and Butler<sup>6</sup>, who lump marine crocodylomorphs among shallow marine tetrapods. 144 Broad feeding scope and enhanced mobility in marine crocodylomorphs are strong indications 145 146 that their diversity should not have been significantly influenced by habitat modification, 147 despite significant modifications of the palaeogeography during the time under investigation. 148 Moreover, because of their freshwater origin, marine crocodylomorphs were certainly able to live in freshwater drainages, as identified in some cases<sup>15</sup>, and could use the various food 149

150 resources available in the freshwater habitat. The combined role of ecology, physiology or 151 behaviour may therefore explain why marine crocodylomorph diversity does not show good correlation with continental flooding. Pierce et al.<sup>16</sup> suggested that thalattosuchian extinction 152 in the Early Cretaceous was driven by sea level fall. The present results show that marine 153 154 crocodylomorph diversity is at least partly affected by sea level variations. It is indeed 155 expected that coastal palaeogeography can be significantly modified by sea-level changes, 156 resulting in the appearance of new habitats and marine barriers, differing in size and marine connection through time (e.g.<sup>17</sup>). How this is affecting crocodylomorph diversity is unknown 157 158 but should be considered. Correlations computed on the total diversity dataset of marine 159 crocodylomorphs with the sea level estimates are not significant. On the other hand, exclusion 160 of metriorhynchoids from the dataset leads to five significant correlations with the sea level estimates of Miller et al.<sup>12</sup> and a single significant correlation with the sea level estimates of 161 Hag et al.<sup>14</sup>. These results underline that marine crocodylomorphs with varying adaptations 162 163 for offshore (e.g., teleosaurids) or pelagic swimming (metriorhynchoids) may be affected 164 differently by sea level variation. For instance, metriorhynchoid diversity alone seems to be 165 affected by sea level variation of Miller et al. (Fig. 1B), but there is no correlation (Spearman's rho = 0.577, p = 0.13), and perhaps the narrow temporal range (Pliensbachian-166 Valanginian) prevents meaningful statistical testing. However, this hypothesis is unequally 167 supported by the two available sea level datasets (the one from Miller et al.<sup>13</sup> being 168 169 incomplete from the Hettangian to Aalenian) and loses much support when the dataset is phylogenetically corrected (Table 1). While sea level variation might partly explain the 170 171 diversity of marine crocodylomorphs, it is noteworthy that sea level is both influenced by 172 global tectonic activity (tectonoeustasy) and the growth and decay of polar ice caps 173 (glacioeustasy). As the extension of the polar ice is ultimately controlled by global climate, a drop in sea level could be related indirectly to a drop in marine crocodylomorph diversity, but 174

175 the underlying cause would be temperature change (Fig. 1C).

176 Although based on now obsolete diversity counts, strong evidence for the influence of climate on the evolution of crocodylomorphs has previously been detected<sup>4</sup>. It is expected that 177 crocodylomorphs, as ectotherms, are affected by temperature changes; this is reflected in the 178 179 marine environment by the temperature of their living medium (SST). No correlation between 180 SST and total marine crocodylomorph diversity is observed (Table 1), a result drastically 181 different when metriorhynchoids are excluded from the dataset (Table 1). In this case, 182 significant correlations are observed both with and without phylogenetic correction. The 183 average significant correlation value for SST is 0.380. Such a value implies that SST can only 184 partially explain the diversity of some marine crocodylomorphs and suggests that, with the 185 exclusion of metriorhynchoids, they were only able to colonize the marine environment when ambient temperatures were favourable. According to present knowledge of the fossil record, 186 187 the marine environment was left vacant twice for several million years by crocodylomorphs, 188 in the Hauterivian-Albian and Coniacian-early Campanian intervals. Possibly, the marine 189 environment was not habitable. It is notable that crocodylomorphs colonised the marine 190 environment at the beginning of warming phases, with Thalattosuchia in the Toarcian, 191 Pholidosauridae in the Cenomanian and Eusuchia and Dyrosauridae in the Maastrichtian. On 192 the other hand, some drops in crocodylomorph diversity correspond to temperature declines 193 such as that of the Callovian affecting thalattosuchian diversity or the Valanginian-194 Hauterivian boundary affecting metriorhynchoids. Concerning the extinction of 195 Pholidosauridae in the Turonian and Dyrosauridae in the Ypresian, a clear match between 196 SST and diversity is absent, even when considering fine-scale SST variations reconstructed using other proxies<sup>18,19</sup>. Among the considered marine crocodylomorph lineages, the 197 198 metriorhynchoids clearly stand out with an explosive radiation at the end of the Jurassic, 199 when SSTs continued to decrease. Comparatively, the other thalattosuchian group, the

200 teleosaurids, did not radiate and even went extinct before the Berriasian. Metriorhynchoids 201 appear to be morphologically different from any other marine crocodylomorphs, thus inviting 202 discussion about physiological adaptations in these different lineages (see below). The 203 statistical assessments retrieved in this study did not yield 1:1 correlations between SST and 204 marine crocodylomorph diversity, and as discussed below other factors might be involved in 205 the fluctuations in marine diversity. The aim of this study is not to prove that SST could 206 solely account for evolutionary patterns in climate-sensitive lineages, but rather to stress the 207 existence of a window of optimal temperatures in which these marine animals could thrive, as defended in earlier studies<sup>4</sup>. 208

209 SST can be interpreted as a limiting factor, allowing crocodylomorphs to colonise new environments when temperatures become favourable; or preventing crocodylomorphs from 210 211 widely thriving when temperatures fall. It is noteworthy that increasing marine water 212 temperatures also boost both biomass and biodiversity, thus increasing the amount of 213 resources for marine crocodylomorphs. Within that frame, other factors, including biotic ones 214 could impede speciation. One factor coming to mind is competition for resources or territory among predators<sup>20</sup>. Illustrating this, the demise of Pholidosauridae, and then of Dyrosauridae 215 216 might be paralleled with the rise of other large marine predators: mosasaurs in the mid-217 Cretaceous or archaeocete marine mammals in the Paleogene. However, explaining the 218 turnover of vertebrates by competition for resources or territory should take into account the body size factor. Body size is responsible for niche partitioning in large predators<sup>21</sup> and it is 219 unlikely that pholidosaurids or dyrosaurids might have been worried by the small size of the 220 221 first mosasaurs and the first archaeocetes. Moreover, there are numerous instances of marine crocodylomorphs coexisting with other large marine reptiles<sup>7,9</sup>. Invoking competition for 222 223 resources or territory appears therefore unlikely as an explanation for the demise of marine crocodylomorphs. Physiological specificities could represent other factors explaining the 224

225 diversity pattern of marine crocodylomorphs. The prediction that ancient marine 226 crocodylomorphs were sensitive to seawater temperature variation is partly but not entirely recovered in our results. That ancient marine crocodylomorphs were, as extant ones, 227 228 ectotherms, would require a full match between SST evolution and patterns of radiation-229 extinction of the different crocodylomorph groups. Of particular relevance to the recovered 230 mismatch are Metriorhynchoidea, whose diversity does not match SST evolution. Indeed, the 231 Metriorhynchoidea appeared to radiate in the pelagic environment when Teleosauridae died 232 out and SST dropped at the end of the Jurassic. Whether metriorhynchoids retained 233 ectothermic characteristics is questionable and unanswered but could equally be linked to drastic physiological changes such as reproductive strategies. Metriorhynchoidea display 234 extreme adaptations to marine life, with hypocercal tails and paddle-like limbs<sup>22</sup>, the latter 235 clearly not suited for land crawling. Extant crocodylomorphs need to come back onto land to 236 237 lay eggs, but if this could not be achieved by metriorhynchoids, a whole suite of physiological 238 adaptations would have been required, including live birth. As speculative as it may be, this 239 could explain their explosive radiation after the Callovian-Oxfordian temperature drop and 240 their survival after the end-Jurassic, while Teleosauridae drastically declined in diversity and then disappeared. Live birth was widespread among ichthyosaurs<sup>23</sup> and has only recently been 241 reported for plesiosaurs<sup>24</sup> and mosasaurs<sup>25</sup>. In the first two groups,  $\delta^{18}$ O values of bone 242 phosphate tissue support the hypothesis of body temperature regulation<sup>26</sup>. Whether 243 244 metriorhynchoids had some sort of endothermic capability would be consistent with our results, also supported by their inferred hypercarnivorous diet<sup>27</sup>, fulfilling the high metabolic 245 demand for protein. Although this remains to be tested (for example by analysing the  $\delta^{18}$ O 246 247 composition of metriorhynchoid bone phosphate), an intermediate metabolism could explain 248 both the delayed reaction to SST drops when teleosaurids disappeared, and also their demise 249 at the Hauterivian-Valanginian boundary when SST may have dropped below

250 metriorhynchoid tolerance. The temperature tolerance of metriorhynchoids would have been 251 better suited for cold temperatures than that of other marine crocodylomorphs, but remained 252 unparalleled to that of plesiosaurs and ichthyosaurs living in high-latitude cold environments<sup>28,29,30</sup>. No marine crocodylomorphs have ever been reported in these high-253 latitude marine environments of the Jurassic and Cretaceous, whereas they were abundant in 254 255 contemporaneous lower latitude assemblages. This provides support for the first assumption 256 that marine crocodylomorphs were ectotherms, and therefore their capacity to diversify in the 257 marine environment was ultimately constrained by the evolution of sea surface temperatures.

258

#### 259 Methods

**Diversity counts.** Marine crocodilian diversity counts were assessed at species and genus 260 261 level. Occurrences extend over the Hettangian to the Rupelian (Supplementary Data 1). To begin with, species counts were retrieved from the literature for the Dyrosauridae and the 262 Eusuchia and updated from Benson et al.<sup>5</sup> for the Thalattosuchia and Pholidosauridae. The 263 264 species raw count was included in the statistical analysis and a second set of analyses 265 excluded metriorhynchoids from the species count. In order to reduce taxonomic bias as much as possible, another set of data considered only genera. This is because, across the different 266 lineages of marine crocodilians considered here, two have recently been revised in depth 267 268 leading to a burst of previously overlooked species diversity<sup>33</sup>. Species diversity, and to a lesser extent generic diversity, are unbalanced when comparing recently revised groups such 269 as metriorhynchoids or dyrosaurids, versus other groups such as the Teleosauridae, whose 270 taxonomic content has not been revised recently<sup>34,35</sup>. Therefore, considering only genera in 271 272 the dataset allows smoothing out diversity counts across different lineages. An additional 273 approach was applied to this generic dataset for further refinement of the diversity: 274 phylogenetic correction, superimposed on the stratigraphy by filling ghost ranges of genera

275 (Supplementary Data 1). Phylogenetic corrections follows the topology recovered for Thalattosuchia<sup>33</sup> and the topology recovered for Dyrosauridae<sup>36</sup>. Pholidosauridae (2 marine 276 genera) are in comparison to Thalattosuchia and Dyrosauridae a relatively small marine 277 radiation with a larger ancestral freshwater stock. For this reason, no phylogenetic correction 278 279 could be applied here and only their ghost occurrence was added to the stratigraphic series. 280 Finally, phylogenetic correction was not applied to marine Eusuchia due to their controversial phylogenetic relationships at the heart of the *Gavialis/Tomistoma* debate<sup>37</sup>. Therefore, only 281 282 ghost ranges were added according to the stratigraphic distribution of taxa.

283 Poorly known taxa from marginal setting. A number of problematic crocodilians were not included in the marine crocodilian diversity count because of uncertain taxonomic identity 284 and limited occurrence at a single locality in a marginal marine setting. These taxa are: 285 Aigialosuchus villandensis Persson, 1959<sup>38</sup> from the early Campanian of Blaksudden Ivö. 286 287 which is fragmentary and may well have been washed out in marginal marine deposits together with dinosaurian teeth found in the same deposits. Moreover, according to the 288 289 morphology described by Persson (1959), Aigialosuchus villandensis can be considered similar to contemporaneous freshwater eusuchians. Crocodileimus robustus Jourdan 1862<sup>39</sup> 290 291 from the Kimmeridgian of Cerin, France, possibly belongs to the Pholidosauridae but this has 292 not been substantiated yet. Crocodileimus robustus occurs in a lagoonal mudstone and the 293 presence of atoposaurids in the same locality points to episodes of continental wash out into this environment. Although Pholidosauridae diversified during the early Cretaceous, they 294 295 were restricted to freshwater environments. The genus Anglosuchus from the Great Oolith (Bathonian) of Peterborough, UK has previously been referred to the Pholidosauridae<sup>40,41,42</sup> 296 297 but these referrals have never been substantiated. The youngest teleosaurid was recorded from the Valanginian of southern France<sup>43</sup>. This specimen has recently been revised<sup>44</sup> and now 298

referred to a metriorhynchid. The youngest record of Teleosauridae is therefore Tithonian inage, no record being substantiated for this group in the Cretaceous.

301 Seawater temperature curve establishment. Sea surface temperature curve for the 302 Hettangian – Rupelian interval has been established using both published<sup>26,45,46,47,48,49,50,51,52,53</sup> and new oxygen isotope composition of fish teeth 303 304 recovered from European, American, North African and Middle East localities 305 corresponding to the Western Tethys realm (Supplementary Data 1). In order to be comparable,  $\delta^{18}O_p$  values were all normalized to the most recently accepted value of 306 21.7% for the international standard NBS 120c<sup>54</sup>. Values with maximum resolution at 307 308 the substage level were selected and an average value for the whole stage was 309 calculated. Seawater temperatures were then computed using the Phosphate-water temperature scale<sup>54</sup> assuming an average  $\delta^{18}$ O value of the ocean of -1‰: 310

311 
$$T(^{\circ}C) = 117.4(\pm 9.5) - 4.50(\pm 0.43)^{*}(\delta^{18}O_{PO4} - \delta^{18}O_{H2O})$$

Statistical assessment. This dataset is then compared to the Sea Surface Temperature (SST) 312 curve (Fig. 1A) based on the compilation of new and published  $\delta^{18}$ O values of fish tooth 313 apatite phosphate recovered from low to mid-latitude localities, and to sea level (Fig. 1B), 314 which was recalculated for each stratigraphic interval defined in Gradstein et al.<sup>31</sup> along with 315 the values obtained from Hag et al.<sup>14</sup> (Hettangian-Rupelian) and Miller et al.<sup>13</sup> (2005) 316 317 (Bajocian-Rupelian). Marine crocodylomorph diversity is also confronted with another physical factor, which is a metric for continental flooding<sup>5</sup> compiled from MACROSTRAT 318 (COSUNA<sup>32</sup>). Finally, in order to test possible taphonomic bias on the diversity of marine 319 crocodylomorphs, the number of marine geological formations was compiled from the 320 321 Paleobiology Database (PaleoDB) and compared to the diversity dataset. The stratigraphic framework of Gradstein et al.<sup>31</sup> is adopted here. We carried out a series of correlation tests to 322 determine the relationship between marine crocodilian diversity and paleoclimate. We 323

324 considered four forms of the diversity data, and for each of those, four variants on the data.

325 The time series of crocodilian diversity was presented in these four formats: (1) total species diversity; (2) phylogenetically corrected generic diversity, including ghost ranges; (3) 326 327 total species diversity minus metriorhynchids; and (4) phylogenetically corrected generic diversity minus metriorhynchids. Phylogenetic correction is commonly done for studies of 328 fossil vertebrates<sup>6,55</sup>: this consists of plotting a cladogram against geological time, and adding 329 330 Lazarus taxa (genera with a range above and below a time bin of interest) and ghost ranges 331 (minimal implied range at the base of a lineage implied by older fossils in the immediate 332 sister group).

Each of the four data formats was further considered in four forms: (1) raw data; (2) time-corrected (total figures divided by durations of time bins); (3) logarithm (total data); and (4) generalized-differenced total data. These modifications were to allow all possible corrections for variable time bin duration, for any large-scale deviations from the mean (logarithm transformation), and to distinguish overall trend from bin by bin variations (generalized-differencing).

339 Pairwise tests of correlation were carried out between the response variables (diversity time series) and the various possible explanatory time series (the new SST data, the Miller sea 340 level curve, the Hag sea level curve, PaleoDB marine formation counts, and COSUNA marine 341 342 formation counts). Pearson, Spearman, and Kendall correlation coefficients and significances were calculated using R software v.2.14.1 (R Development Core Team, 2011), as in earlier 343 studies<sup>56</sup>. Further, we recorded raw significance values, as well as those corrected for Type II 344 statistical errors, using the False Discovery Rate (FDR) approach<sup>57</sup>, using an R script given in 345 Benton et al.<sup>53</sup>, which runs numerous correlation tests with unadjusted and adjusted p values. 346 347

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496

#### 497 Author contributions

498 All authors collected, analysed the data and wrote the manuscript.

# 499 **Conflict of interest**

500 There is no conflict of interests.

## 501 Figure captions

## 502 Figure 1. Phylogenetically corrected generic diversity counts of marine

503 **crocodylomorphs.** SST curve (A) and sea level curve of Miller et al. (2005)<sup>13</sup> (B) plotted

against geological time. SST and sea level curve of Miller et al. (2005)<sup>13</sup> are compared (C),

505 showing a close but imperfect co-variation.

506

## 507 Table 1. Correlations of potential explanatory variables with different metrics

# 508 representing marine crocodylomorph diversity through the Mesozoic and Paleogene.

509 Spearman rank correlations. Spearman's rho values are given, together with an indication of

510 significance provided when p < 0.05. Abbreviations: All crocodiles, raw species diversity; All

511 croc/time: raw species diversity corrected for time; Log10(allcroc), raw species diversity

512 corrected for Log10; GD allcroc: raw species diversity corrected for generalized differenced;

513 PC: phylogenetically corrected diversity; NM: No Metriorhynchoids.

514

	SST	Miller sea level	Haq sea level	PaleoDB marine formations	COSUNA formations
All crocodiles	0.067	0.169	-0.006	0.176	0.013
All croc/time	0.239	0.203	0.183	0.255	0.196
Log10(allcroc)	0.075	0.130	-0.023	0.137	-0.031
GD alleroc	0.067	0.169	-0.006	0.176	0.013
PC alleroc	0.078	0.116	-0.065	0.070	-0.093
PC all croc/time	0.347	0.205	0.235	0.218	0.190
PC log10(allcroc)	0.061	0.076	-0.104	0.024	-0.126
PC GD allcroc	0.078	0.116	-0.065	0.070	-0.093
NM crocodiles	$0.366^{(0.0431)}$	$0.443^{(0.0125)}$	0.242	0.145	0.138
NM croc/time	0.253	0.466	0.331	0.203	0.298
Log10(NMcroc)	$0.430^{(0.0158)}$	0.397 <sup>(0.0271)</sup>	0.230	0.031	0.071
GD NMcroc	$0.365^{(0.0431)}$	$0.443^{(0.0125)}$	0.242	0.145	0.138
PC NM crocodiles	0.367 <sup>(0.0423)</sup>	0.321	0.126	0.014	-0.018
PC NM croc/time	$0.382^{(0.034)}$	0.405 <sup>(0.0239)</sup>	0.369 <sup>(0.0411)</sup>	0.205	0.274

PC log10(NMcroc) PC GD NMcroc	$0.382^{(0.0338)}$ $0.367^{(0.0423)}$	0.280 0.321	0.082 0.126	-0.080 0.014	-0.066 -0.018
TOTALS SIGNIF. TOTALS NEG.	7 0	5 0	1 6	0 1	0 7

516

