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Thermophysiologies of Jurassic marine crocodylomorphs inferred from the oxygen isotope composition of their tooth apatite

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Summary

ositions (expressed as $\delta^{18}O$ values) of tooth
We then compared them to the $\delta^{18}O$ values
and plesiosaurs, as well as ecto-poïkilother
ion of $\delta^{18}O$ values suggests that both teleos
mediate between those of typic Teleosauridae and Metriorhynchidae were thalattosuchian crocodylomorph clades that secondarily adapted to marine life and coexisted during the Middle to Late Jurassic. While teleosaurid diversity collapsed at the end of the Jurassic, most likely as a result of a global cooling of the oceans and associated marine regressions, metriorhynchid diversity was largely unaffected, although the fossil record of Thalattosuchia is poor in the Cretaceous. In order to investigate the possible differences in thermophysiologies between these two thalattosuchian lineages, we analysed stable oxygen isotope compositions (expressed as $\delta^{18}O$ values) of tooth apatite from metriorhynchid and teleosaurid specimens. We then compared them to the $\delta^{18}O$ values of coexisting endohomeothermic ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs, as well as ecto-poïkilothermic chondrichthyans and osteichthyans. The distribution of $\delta^{18}O$ values suggests that both teleosaurids and metriorhynchids had body temperatures intermediate between those of typical ecto-poikilothermic vertebrates and warm-blooded ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs, metriorhynchids being slightly warmer than teleosaurids. We propose that metriorhynchids were able to raise their body temperature above that of the ambient environment by metabolic heat production, as endotherms do, but could not maintain a constant body temperature compared to fully homeothermic ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs. Teleosaurids, on the other hand, may have raised their body temperature by mouth-gape basking, as modern crocodilians do, and benefited from the thermal inertia of their large body mass to maintain their body temperature above ambient one. Endothermy in metriorhynchids might have been a byproduct of their ecological adaptations to active pelagic hunting, and it probably allowed them to survive the global cooling of the Late Jurassic, thus explaining the selective extinction affecting Thalattosuchia at the Jurassic-Cretaceous boundary.

Introduction

b their rather conservative growth morpholon, and in the geologic record, extant and fost as climate proxies for more than a century en, 1850). Based on observations of extant 42, Markwick (1998) proposed that the occup M Extant crocodylians are archosaurs that rely on environmental sources of heat in order to raise and maintain their body temperature by behavioural thermoregulation in a restricted range bracketed by "critical minimum" and "critical maximum" temperatures (Cowles and Bogert, 1944; Pough and Gans, 1982). Within this critical range, crocodylians tend to keep their body temperature within a narrower activity range from about 25^oC to 40^oC as determined empirically for a few extant species (see Markwick (1998) for a review). Consequently, the spatial and temporal distribution of crocodylians is limited by the temperatures of their living environments and by their seasonal fluctuations. Due to their rather conservative growth morphology and their restricted latitudinal distribution today, and in the geologic record, extant and fossil representatives of the crown group have been used as climate proxies for more than a century (Berg, 1965; Crichton, 1825; Markwick, 1998; Owen, 1850). Based on observations of extant representatives of crown group Crocodylia Owen, 1842, Markwick (1998) proposed that the occurrence of fossil representatives imply a living Mean Annual Air temperature (MAT) ≥14.2°C and a Coldest Month Mean temperature (CMM) \geq 5.5°C. These minimum limits have been tentatively used to constrain the climatic environment of long-extinct crocodylomorphs (Amiot et al., 2011), as well as the more distantly related clade Choristodera (Tarduno et al., 1998).

The crocodylomorph clade Thalattosuchia became secondarily adapted to marine life during the Mesozoic, and is subdivided into the families Teleosauridae Saint-Hilaire, 1831 and Metriorhynchidae Fitzinger, 1843. While teleosaurids retained a morphology reminiscent of typical semi-aquatic longirostrine crocodylomorphs, in having extensive osteoderm coverage and limbs adapted for terrestrial locomotion (Eudes-Deslongchamps, 1869), metriorhynchids had a more hydrodynamic body plan, with a hypocercal tail, and hydrofoil-like forelimbs (Fraas, 1902; Young et al., 2010). The bone histology of Callovian teleosaurids and metriorhynchids has been used to hypothesize that thalattosuchians were ectothermic (i.e. they rely on environmental sources of heat in order to raise their body temperature) and poikilothermic (i.e. their body temperature vary along

with that of their environment), with teleosaurids being capable of mouth-gape basking on shore, whereas metriorhynchids thermoregulated differently by staying close to the water surface (Hua and De Buffrénil, 1996). Hua and de Buffrénil (1996) did note that young metriorhynchids may have had a faster growth rate than wild extant crocodylians.

al., 2003b), but according to Fanti et al. (20
least the Hauterivian along the southern cc
ppear to have experienced an explosive rac
urassic until the Aptian (Chiarenza et al., 2
unclear. Young et al. (2010) hypothesized Martin et al. (2014) analysed the diversity of marine crocodylomorphs through the Mesozoic and Paleogene, and observed a significant correlation between Sea Surface Temperatures (SST) and generic diversity within four lineages, including the teleosaurids. Teleosaurids, at least European representatives, experienced a diversity crash at the end of the Jurassic during a global cooling of Tethyan waters (Lécuyer et al., 2003b), but according to Fanti et al. (2016) they may have continued to survive until at least the Hauterivian along the southern coast of the Tethys Sea. Metriorhynchids however, appear to have experienced an explosive radiation during the Callovian, surviving through the Late Jurassic until the Aptian (Chiarenza et al., 2015). When metriorhynchids became extinct is currently unclear. Young et al. (2010) hypothesized a two-step extinction for Metriorhynchidae, first a diversity crash at the end Jurassic, then a final extinction during the cold icehouse interval of the Valanginian (Pucéat et al., 2003). However, recent re-evaluations of Cretaceous fossils and updated phylogenetic studies have disproved both steps of this hypothesis, with post-Valanginian metriorhynchid specimens known and no fewer than four metriorhynchid lineages crossed the Jurassic-Cretaceous boundary (Chiarenza et al., 2015; Ősi et al., 2018; Young et al., 2014a). The global thalattosuchian fossil record however is still poor, the known diversity of this clade is still heavily biased by the European rock record, as well as global marine record sampling biases for specific time spans (e.g. Aalenian, Oxfordian, Early Cretaceous). Regardless of the geologic megabiases , there is still a conspicuous diversity mismatch within Thalattosuchia that raised the question whether metriorhynchids evolved a distinct thermoregulatory strategy, such as endothermic capabilities that would explain their diversity and survival under cool SSTs (Martin et al., 2014).

by the fractionation (Kohn, 1996; Langlois et
tite phosphate δ¹⁸O_p value to that of body v
e phosphate-water temperature scale previo
o) and recently updated by Lécuyer et al. (20
e range of invertebrate and vertebra In order to investigate the thermophysiology of metriorhynchids, we analysed the oxygen isotope composition of the enamel phosphate of their teeth ($\delta^{18}O_p$). Indeed, the $\delta^{18}O_p$ value of vertebrate apatite (the mineral constituting bone, teeth and some fish scales) depends on the animal's body water $\delta^{18}O_{bw}$ value, as well as its body temperature (Kohn, 1996; Longinelli and Nuti, 1973a; Luz et al., 1984). For air breathing vertebrates, the body water has a $\delta^{18}O_{bw}$ value controlled by oxygen input coming from drinking water, food and inhaled oxygen (through metabolic water production), as well as oxygen loss as water vapour through transcutaneous evaporation, sweat, exhaled vapour, and liquid water in urine and feces, some of these losses being associated with oxygen isotope fractionation (Kohn, 1996; Langlois et al., 2003). A fractionation equation that relates the apatite phosphate $\delta^{18}O_p$ value to that of body water and body temperature (T_b) can be adapted from the phosphate-water temperature scale previously established by Longinelly and Nuti (1973a) and recently updated by Lécuyer et al. (2013). Such equation has proven to be valid for a large range of invertebrate and vertebrate bioapatites (Kolodny et al., 1983; Lécuyer et al., 1996; Longinelli and Nuti, 1973b, 1973a):

$$
T_b(^{\circ}C) = 117.4 - 4.5(\delta^{18}O_p - \delta^{18}O_{bw})
$$
 (1)

This relationship is commonly used to reconstitute past SSTs based on fish apatite as most of them have a body temperature similar to that of their surrounding water, and a body water $\delta^{18}O_{bw}$ value equal to ambient one (Dera et al., 2009; Lécuyer et al., 2003b; Picard et al., 1998; Pucéat et al., 2003). Air-breathing vertebrates have a body water ¹⁸O-enriched relative to environmental water, the magnitude of which depends on the amount of body water loss through exhaled H_2O_{vapor} and transcutaneous evaporation. Direct measurements have shown that terrestrial mammals and birds have body water from about 4‰ to 7‰ ¹⁸O-enriched relative to their drinking water (Lazzerini et al., 2016; Longinelli, 1984; Wolf et al., 2013) whereas the body waters of semi aquatic

 $\mathbf{1}$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{4}$ $\overline{7}$

to aquatic crocodylians, turtles and birds are about 2‰ to 3‰ ¹⁸O-enriched relative to their drinking water (Amiot et al., 2007; Barrick et al., 1999; Lazzerini et al., 2016).

In this study we estimate the body temperatures of metriorhynchid and teleosaurid thalattosuchians recovered from five Jurassic localities in England and France. By comparing T_b of thalattosuchians to those of associated ichthyosaurs or plesiosaurs, as well as to their ambient SST, we show that metriorhynchids may have evolved some degree of endothermic-like thermophysiology, whereas teleosaurids retained a more typical ecto-poikilothermy.

Materials and methods

Sample collection

eight fossil teeth of Jurassic fish and marin
phate ($\delta^{18}O_p$), as well as for their oxygen (ite carbonate. The first English locality is S
part of the Kimmeridge Clay Formation dat
econd English locality is the Oxford We analysed eighty-eight fossil teeth of Jurassic fish and marine reptiles for their oxygen isotope composition of phosphate ($\delta^{18}O_p$), as well as for their oxygen ($\delta^{18}O_c$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}C_c$) isotope composition of apatite carbonate. The first English locality is Smallmouth Sands, Dorset (**Figure 1**), from the lower part of the Kimmeridge Clay Formation dated as lower Kimmeridgian (Young et al., 2014b). The second English locality is the Oxford Clay Formation Peterborough clay pits, a world-famous fossiliferous collection of sites, dated to the middle Callovian, which has yielded a rich marine fauna along with terrestrial elements (Martill and Hudson, 1991). The first French locality is "Les Vaches Noires" of Normandy, dated as upper Callovian, where the "Marnes de Dives" Formation crops out, consisting of marls where a rich fauna composed of marine and terrestrial elements have been recovered (Lebrun and Courville, 2013). The second French locality is the excavation of "Les Lourdines" near the eponymous quarry, dated as middle Callovian, which is composed of white limestone (calcaire des Lourdines) where a marine fauna and some terrestrial plants have been recovered (Barale et al., 1974). Finally, the locality of Cintheaux dated as Bathonian consists of the "Pierre de Caen" limestone that has yielded a marine fauna with some terrestrial elements (Rioult, 1963). Studied tooth specimens include those of metriorhynchid and teleosaurid thalattosuchians, ichthyosaurs, plesiosaurs, as well as of chondrichthyans and

osteichthyans (S**upplementary table 1**). When possible, tooth enamel was sampled using a spherical diamond-tipped drill bit. For smaller teeth, the bulk enamel and dentin were ground using an agate mortar and pestle.

Analytical techniques

Oxygen isotope analysis of biogenic apatite phosphate

For a partite as silver phosphate (Ag₃PO,
nge resin. For each sample, 20-30 mg of er
F₂ residue was separated by centrifugation a
L of 2 M KOH. AmberliteTM IRN 78 anion
ate the PO₄³⁻ ions. After 24 hours, the so Apatite powders have been treated following the wet chemistry protocol described by Crowson et al. (1991) and slightly modified by Lécuyer et al. (1993). This protocol consists in the isolation of phosphate (PO_4^3) from apatite as silver phosphate (Ag_3PO_4) crystals using acid dissolution and anion-exchange resin. For each sample, 20-30 mg of enamel powder was dissolved in 2 mL of 2 M HF. The CaF₂ residue was separated by centrifugation and the solution was neutralized by adding 2.2 mL of 2 M KOH. Amberlite™ IRN 78 anion-exchange resin beads were added to the solution to isolate the $PO₄³$ ions. After 24 hours, the solution was removed, the resin was rinced with deionized water and eluted with 27.5 mL of 0.5 M NH₄NO₃. After 4 hours, 0.5 mL of $NH₄OH$ and 15 mL of an ammoniacal solution of $AgNO₃$ were added and the solutions were placed in a thermostated bath at 70 °C for 7 hours allowing for the precipitation of Ag₃PO₄ crystals. Oxygen isotope compositions were measured using a high temperature elemental analyzer interfaced in continuous flow mode to an isotopic ratio mass spectrometer (Fourel et al., 2011) at the Plateforme d'Ecologie Isotopique du Laboratoire d'Ecologie des Hydrosystèmes Naturels et Anthropisés (LEHNA – UMR5023, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1). For each sample, 5 aliquots of 300 μg of Ag3PO4 were mixed with 300 μg of pure graphite powder loaded in silver foil capsules. Pyrolysis was performed at 1450 °C using a varioPYROcubeTM Elemental Analyzer (Elementar GmbH) interfaced in Continuous Flow mode with an IsoprimeTM Isotopic Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Elementar UK Ltd). Measurements have been calibrated against silver phosphate precipitated from the NBS120c (natural Miocene phosphorite from Florida), as well as against the NBS127 (Barium sulfate precipitated using seawater from Monterey Bay, California, USA). The

value of NBS120c was fixed at 21.7‰ (V-SMOW) according to Lécuyer et al. (1993), and that of NBS127 set at the certified value of 9.3‰ (V-SMOW; (Halas and Szaran, 2001; Hut, 1987)) for correction of instrumental mass fractionation during CO isotopic analysis. Silver phosphate precipitated from standard NBS120c along with the silver phosphate samples derived from fossil bioapatites was repeatedly analyzed $(\delta^{18}O_p = 21.72 \pm 0.22\%$, n = 20) to ensure that no fractionation occurred during the wet chemistry. Data are reported as $\delta^{18}O$ values with respect to V-SMOW (in ‰ δ units).

Oxygen and carbon isotope analysis of biogenic apatite carbonate

isotope analysis of biogenic apatite carbol
otential organic contaminants as well as see
ler was pre-treated following the protocol c
a 2% NaOCl solution to remove organic main and air-dried at 40 $^{\circ}$ C for 24 hours. In order to remove potential organic contaminants as well as secondarily precipitated calcite, about 10 mg of apatite powder was pre-treated following the protocol of Koch et al. (1997). Powders were washed with a 2% NaOCl solution to remove organic matter, then rinsed five times with double deionized water and air-dried at 40 °C for 24 hours. 0.1 M acetic acid was then added and left for 24 hours, after which the powder was again rinsed five times with double deionized water and then air-dried at 40 °C for 24 hours. The powder/solution ratio was kept constant at 0.04 g mL-1 for both treatments. Stable isotope compositions of carbonate oxygen and carbon were carried out at the Plateforme d'Ecologie Isotopique du Laboratoire d'Ecologie des Hydrosystèmes Naturels et Anthropisés (LEHNA – UMR5023). The measurement were performed using an isoFLOW system connected on line in continuous flow mode to a precisION mass spectrometer (Elementar UK Ltd). For each sample, two aliquots of 2 mg of pretreated apatite powder were loaded in LABCO Exetainer® 3.7 mL soda glass vials, round bottomed with exetainers caps (LABCO UK Ltd) and were reacted with anhydrous phosphoric acid. The reaction took place at \degree C in a temperature regulated sample tray. The CO₂ gas generated during the acid digestion of the carbonate sample was then transferred to the mass spectrometer via the centrION interface. A calibrated CO_2 gas was used as a monitoring gas. Typical reproducibilites are 0.05% and 0.07% respectively for $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ measurements. For tooth apatite, the acid fractionation factor α

(CO2-apatite carbonate) of 1.00773 determined for the NBS120c phosphate rock reference material has been selected (Passey et al., 2007). Calibrated material used is Carrara Marble ($\delta^{18}O_{V-PDB}$ = -1.84‰; δ¹³C_{V-PDB} = +2.03‰; (Fourel et al., 2016) NBS18 (δ¹⁸O_{V-PDB} = -23.2‰; δ¹³C_{V-PDB} = -5.01‰) and NBS120c ($\delta^{18}O_{V-PDB}$ = -1.13‰; $\delta^{13}C_{V-PDB}$ = -6.27‰; (Passey et al., 2007) Isotopic compositions are quoted in the standard δ notation relative to V-SMOW for oxygen and V-PDB for carbon.

Results

positions of apatite phosphate ($\delta^{18}O_p$), apat
s of apatite carbonate ($\delta^{13}C_c$) are reported in
values of teeth and bones of marine vertebr
Bruyat et al., 2005). Analysed teeth have δ
, $\delta^{18}O_c$ values ranging Oxygen isotope compositions of apatite phosphate ($\delta^{18}O_p$), apatite carbonate ($\delta^{18}O_c$) and carbon isotope compositions of apatite carbonate $(\delta^{13}C_c)$ are reported in **Supplementary table 1** along with published $\delta^{18}O_p$ values of teeth and bones of marine vertebrates (Anderson et al., 1994; Bernard et al., 2010; Billon-Bruyat et al., 2005). Analysed teeth have $\delta^{18}O_p$ values ranging from 18.3‰ to 21.8‰ V-SMOW, $\delta^{18}O_c$ values ranging from 24.1‰ to 28.3‰ V-SMOW and $\delta^{13}C_c$ values ranging from -11.2‰ to 7.7‰ V-PDB. At the three sites of Smallmouth Sands, Peterborough and Les Vaches Noires, ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs have slightly lower mean $\delta^{18}O_p$ values than those of co-occurring thalattosuchians (**Supplementary table 2**).

For each locality, SST has been calculated from the $\delta^{18}O_p$ values of fish using equation 1 (**Supplementary table 2**) considering that $T_b \approx T_{sw}$, and that $\delta^{18}O_{bw} \approx \delta^{18}O_{sw}$ (Kolodny et al., 1983). Because average seawater $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ value may have varied between -1‰ and 0‰ V-SMOW depending on the amount of seawater stored as polar ice (Shackleton and Kennett, 1975), an average value of -0.5‰ was arbitrarily selected for temperature calculation, keeping in mind that the associated error in temperature calculation is about 2.3°C (based on the slope of 4.5 of equation 1).

The body temperature of studied marine reptiles have also been estimated using equation 1. and assuming a seawater-body water ¹⁸O-enrichement of 2‰, a general enrichment observed among semi-aquatic and aquatic air breathing vertebrates, including extant crocodylomorphs

(Amiot et al., 2007; Barrick et al., 1999; Lazzerini et al., 2016). While ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs have a body temperature within the 32-40°C range compatible with their known endo-homeothermy (Bernard et al., 2010), teleosaurids have lower T_b ranging from 27°C to 31°C, and metriorhynchids show intermediate body temperatures ranging from 29°C to 37°C (**Supplementary table 2**).

Discussion

Original preservation of the stable isotope compositions

patites, pristine preservation of the isotopic
ocesses leading to the decomposition, buria
ginal isotopic composition of bioapatite thro
or dissolution-recrystallization of bioapatit
er et al., 2003a; Trueman et al., 2003; Before discussing the thermophysiological significance of the oxygen and carbon isotope compositions of vertebrate apatites, pristine preservation of the isotopic record needs to be assessed. Indeed, biotic and abiotic processes leading to the decomposition, burial and fossilization of living organisms may alter the original isotopic composition of bioapatite through processes of secondary precipitation, ion adsorption or dissolution-recrystallization of bioapatite (Blake et al., 1997; Kolodny et al., 1996; Lécuyer et al., 2003a; Trueman et al., 2003; Zazzo et al., 2004a, 2004b). Although no method can definitely demonstrate whether the original isotope compositions have been kept, several ways to assess the preservation state of the isotopic record have been proposed (Fricke et al., 1998; Iacumin et al., 1996; Kolodny et al., 1996; Lécuyer et al., 2003a; Pucéat et al., 2004; Tütken et al., 2008; Zazzo et al., 2004b). In modern skeletal tissues of vertebrates, carbonate and phosphate precipitate close to equilibrium with body water, so the $\delta^{18}O_p$ and $\delta^{18}O_c$ values are positively correlated. Because isotopic exchange rates between carbonate-water and phosphatewater are significantly different, re-equilibration of both compounds during diagenesis is not expected and altered enamel should show isotopic shifts from the empirical $\delta^{18}O_p - \delta^{18}O_c$ line. Therefore, it is expected that the distribution of pristine $\delta^{18}O$ values of fish and reptile tooth enamel should follow a line with a slope close to unity mimicking those established between the $\delta^{18}O_c$ and $\delta^{18}O_p$ values of modern mammals (Bryant et al., 1996; Chenery et al., 2012; Iacumin et al., 1996; Lécuyer et al., 2010; Zazzo et al., 2004b). Despite the narrow range in the distribution of oxygen isotope compositions (**Figure 2**), both $\delta^{18}O_c$ and $\delta^{18}O_p$ values fall within the range observed in

extant and fossil marine vertebrates (Kolodny and Luz, 1991; Lécuyer et al., 2003b; Vennemann et al., 2001). This correlation shows that the oxygen isotope compositions of structural carbonate in both tooth and bone apatites have preserved to a certain degree its original record.

example the derived from dissolved in
the managhey et al., 1997; Thorrold et al., 1997)
t, the weight percentage of carbonate in ana
es within the expected biological range of r
mark, 1967; Rink and Schwarcz, 1995; Ve
can A clue to the primary preservation of stable carbon isotope composition of apatite carbonate is the systematic and significant difference in $\delta^{13}C_c$ values between fish and marine reptiles (Figure **3**). Air breathing reptiles have $\delta^{13}C_c$ values mainly reflecting that of their diets with an isotope fractionation that depends on their digestive physiology (Passey et al., 2005), as expected. In aquatic environments, the relationship between fish carbonate and diet δ^{13} C values is complicated as a substantial amount of the carbon may be derived from dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) of their ambient water (McConnaughey et al., 1997; Thorrold et al., 1997) with a higher $\delta^{13}C$ value (Santos et al., 2011). Finally, the weight percentage of carbonate in analysed fossil apatites (**Supplementary table 1**) lies within the expected biological range of modern vertebrate apatites of 2-13% (Brudevold and Soremark, 1967; Rink and Schwarcz, 1995; Vennemann et al., 2001). From these lines of evidence, we can assume that oxygen isotope compositions of apatite phosphate and carbonate have kept at least a significant part of their original information, and might be interpreted in terms of seawater temperature and thermophysiology.

Body temperature reconstruction

In a previous study of marine reptile thermophysiology, Bernard et al. (2010) interpreted the oxygen isotope differences between marine reptiles and coexisting fish from a large range of water temperatures (estimated from 14 $^{\circ}$ C to 34 $^{\circ}$ C) in terms of T_b differences. They concluded that the three lineages Ichthyosauria, Plesiosauria and Mosasauridae were most likely endothermic and homeothermic marine reptiles, although for mosasaurids this was later debated (Harrell Jr et al., 2016; Motani, 2010). The method used in Bernard et al. (2010) cannot clearly identify the thermophysology of thalattosuchians (**Figure 4**). Indeed, the available sample-set of thalattosuchian specimens is restricted to five localities with a narrow range of low paleolatitudes from about 29°N

to 36°N (**Supplementary table 2**; palaeolatitudes calculated using the online application of van Hinsbergen et al. (2015)), as well as a narrow range of estimated paleotemperatures from 22 \pm 2°C to $27\pm2\degree$ C. Consequently, the sampled sites do not allow the two strategies of thermophysiology to be clearly distinguished. Most metriorhynchids and teleosaurids show intermediate values between the expected range for endotherms and ectotherms, with the exception of the metriorhynchids from the middle Callovian of Les Lourdines which fall within the expected range of endotherms, and one teleosaurid from the Bathonian of Cintheaux, which has a typical ectotherm signature (**Figure 4**).

eawater, both metriorhynchids and teleosation
ironmental one, metriorhynchids being slig
polementary table 2; Figure 5). However,
culated ones of co-occurring ichthyosaurs a
lated from the same equation 1 and using a
hians Using equation 1 and assuming that thalattosuchians have a $\delta^{18}O_{bw}$ value of about 2% more positive than their ambient seawater, both metriorhynchids and teleosaurids have a body temperature above their environmental one, metriorhynchids being slightly warmer than teleosaurids in average (**Supplementary table 2; Figure 5**). However, thalattosuchian T ^b are systematically below the calculated ones of co-occurring ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs for which the body temperature was calculated from the same equation 1 and using a body water $\delta^{18}O_{bw}$ value similar to that of thalattosuchians.

An endothermic-like thermophysiology interpreted from metriorhynchid $\delta^{18}O_p$ values seems likely according to their known morphology and ecology as active pelagic predators (Andrade et al., 2010; Fernández and Gasparini, 2000; Hua and De Buffrénil, 1996; Massare, 1987; Young et al., 2013, 2012). Active predation would require elevated metabolic rates compatible with an endothermic thermophysiology. This seems plausible considering the large suite of evidence for an endothermic ancestral condition for Archosauria, and a reversal within the crocodylomorph lineage to an ectothermic state coming from different fields of biology, including developmental biology (Seymour et al., 2004), physiology (Farmer and Sanders, 2010), anatomy (Summers, 2005), palaeohistology (de Ricqlès et al., 2008), and phylogenetic signal extraction (Legendre et al., 2016). Endothermy within metriorhynchids might have been inherited from their archosaur ancestors, and "reactivated" along with the acquisition of morphological adaptations to active pelagic predation. However, body temperature regulation seems to have been limited as observed T_b vary with varying seawater temperature (**Figure 5**). Limited thermoregulatory capacities would be compatible with the restricted range of paleolatitudinal occurrences compared to fully endo-homeothermic ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs having been found from equatorial to polar seas (Bardet et al., 2014).

ortion), it is hypothesized that they were ectomost of their time motionless, and mouth-g
ing the late Kimmeridgian-early Tithonian
t became more pelagic (Foffa et al., 2019).
patite indicates that they kept a body temper Interpretation of the oxygen isotope composition of teleosaurid apatite in terms of body temperature may be strongly biased by their possible semi-aquatic and eurhyaline ecology, some species having been found in estuarine or freshwater environments (Buffetaut, 1982; Martin et al., 2019, 2016; Wilberg et al., 2019). As most teleosaurids retained a typical semi-aquatic crocodylomorph morphology (external mandibular fenestrae, extensive osteoderm cover and limbs adapted to terrestrial locomotion), it is hypothesized that they were ectothermic and poikilothermic ambush predators spending most of their time motionless, and mouth-gape basking like modern crocodylians. However, during the late Kimmeridgian-early Tithonian there is evidence for a subclade of teleosaurids that became more pelagic (Foffa et al., 2019). The oxygen isotope composition of teleosaurid apatite indicates that they kept a body temperature lower than that of ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs, but close to those of metriorhynchids. However, more estuarine living environments can be characterized by more negative δ^{18} O values as a result of the mixing between seawater and river waters having negative δ^{18} O values such as in the case of the San Francisco Bay (Ingram et al., 1996). In this example, waters from the Sacramento river having $\delta^{18}O$ values ranging from about -12‰ to -10‰ mix with seawater of 0‰ and results in estuarine waters that can have δ^{18} O values of -3‰ to -10‰. Keeping this in mind, then the calculated body temperature of teleosaurids living in estuarine environments would be lower, and their apatite $\delta^{18}O$ values would fit within the expected range of ectotherms. Moreover, the possible semi-aquatic lifestyle of teleosaurids could at least partly account for their elevated $\delta^{18}O_p$ values as a result of body water loss through transcutaneous evaporation. In the studied localities where teleosaurid specimens were found, fossil remains of continental vertebrates and plants have been found, indicating a proximity to landmasses and a possible estuarine origin of teleosaurids. Gigantothermy and behavioural thermoregulation may also account for the calculated body temperatures of teleosaurids close to

those of metriorhynchids. Today, large marine crocodylians, such as ~1000 kg adult individuals of the saltwater crocodile (*Crocodylus porosus*), are able to raise their body temperature well above ambient temperatures through mouth-gape basking behaviours and can retain this elevation by the thermal inertia of their large body size (Grigg et al., 1998; Seebacher et al., 1999). Large teleosaurids may have used a similar behavioural thermoregulation as extant marine crocodiles (*C. porosus*) and would have raised their body temperatures close to that of Jurassic metriorhynchids and maintained it within a narrow range. This would explain the apparent tendency of teleosauridfish isotope difference to parallel that of endo-homeothermic ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs **(Figure 4)**. Most metriorhynchid specimens were of smaller body-size than teleosaurids (Young et al., 2016, 2011), and metriorhynchids would have been unable to mouth-gape bask onshore (Young et al., 2010).

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obly that telever by the seem endothermic Based on the available isotopic dataset, it seems likely that teleosaurids retained a typical ecto-poikilothermic thermophysiology in agreement with their morphology and ecology, whereas metriorhynchids may have been endothermic, being able to raise their body temperature above an ambient one, and close to that of other warm-blooded marine reptiles. However, metriorhynchids could not have achieved efficient thermoregulation as suggested from their varying body temperature along with varying SST.

Concluding remarks

The possible difference in thermophysiologies between metriorhynchids and teleosaurids inferred from their stable oxygen isotope composition of apatite can at least partly explain the peculiar thalattosuchian biodiversity pattern of the Jurassic and Early Cretaceous (Martin et al., 2014; Young et al., 2014a). Teleosaurid diversity crashed at the end of the Jurassic, a time of global marine temperature decline, probably as a result of the temperature change or the global regression affecting their ecological niches (Bardet et al., 2014). Endothermy may have helped metriorhynchids to cope with global cooling, and due to their pelagic ecology, they might not have

been as affected by the marine regressions as teleosaurids. This may explain their success across the Jurassic-Cretaceous boundary (Chiarenza et al., 2015; Tennant et al., 2017; Young et al., 2014a). At this point, we cannot only speculate when metriorhynchids became extinction, or why. All we can mention is that Jurassic metriorhynchids had an imperfect endothermic and poikilothermic thermophysiology. We hope future studies will investigate whether the Late Jurassic pelagic subclade of teleosaurids began to develop endothermic capabilities, and test whether Cretaceous metriorhynchids, the most marine adapted of all thalattosuchians (Hua et al., 2000; Young et al., 2010), evolved toward enhanced thermoregulatory abilities.

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Figure Caption

Figure 1: Palaeogeography of Northwestern Europe during the Middle-Late Jurassic (modified from Pross et al. (2006). The red stars show the studied localities. 1: Peterboroug; 2: Smallmouth Sands; 3: Les Vaches Noires; 4: Les Lourdines excavation; 5: Cintheaux.

Figure 2: Oxygen isotope compositions of tooth phosphate reported against their corresponding oxygen isotope composition of structural carbonate, as well as published values of modern and fossil fish for comparison (Kolodny and Luz, 1991; Lécuyer et al., 2003b; Vennemann et al., 2001). The dashed line with a slope a=1 illustrates the correlation between oxygen isotope composition of phosphate and carbonate.

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of the differences in the $\delta^{18}O_p$ valu **Figure 3:** Carbon isotope compositions of apatite carbonates $(\delta^{13}C_c)$ from fish and marine reptile samples. For each locality, the sizable difference between fish and coexisting marine reptiles $\delta^{13}C_{c}$ values is considered as evidence for primary preservation of the stable isotope compositions of studied specimens.

Figure 4: Model variation of the differences in the $\delta^{18}O_p$ values of tooth phosphate between marine reptiles and fish against the variation of the $\delta^{18}O_p$ values of fish teeth, assuming (1) an ectothermic and poikilothermic reptile [body water $\delta^{18}O_{bw}$ values 2% enriched relative to a seawater value and body temperature (T) equal seawater temperature]; (2) an endothermic reptile with body temperature ranging from 35°C to 39°C and body water 2‰ enriched relative to a seawater value ranging from -1‰ to 0‰ (modified from (Bernard et al., 2010). For comparison, metriorhynchoids and teleosaurids values are reported, along with newly measured (black border) and published (grey border) ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs values.

Figure 5: Estimated body temperature of marine reptiles (left axis) and corresponding $\delta^{18}O_p$ values (right axis) are plotted against their environmental sea surface temperature estimated from fish $\delta^{18}O_p$ values.

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Figure 2: Oxygen isotope compositions of tooth phosphate reported against their corresponding oxygen isotope composition of structural carbonate, as well as published values of modern and fossil fish for comparison (Kolodny and Luz, 1991; Lécuyer et al., 2003b; Vennemann et al., 2001). The dashed line with a slope a=1 illustrates the correlation between oxygen isotope composition of phosphate and carbonate.

297x196mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Figure 3: Carbon isotope compositions of apatite carbonates (δ13Cc) from fish and marine reptile samples. For each locality, the sizable difference between fish and coexisting marine reptiles δ13Cc values is considered as evidence for primary preservation of the stable isotope compositions of studied specimens.

188x143mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Figure 4: Model variation of the differences in the δ18Op values of tooth phosphate between marine reptiles and fish against the variation of the δ 18Op values of fish teeth, assuming (1) an ectothermic and poikilothermic reptile [body water δ18Obw values 2‰ enriched relative to a seawater value and body temperature (T) equal seawater temperature]; (2) an endothermic reptile with body temperature ranging from 35°C to 39°C and body water 2‰ enriched relative to a seawater value ranging from -1‰ to 0‰ (modified from (Bernard et al., 2010). For comparison, metriorhynchoids and teleosaurids values are reported, along with newly measured (black border) and published (grey border) ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs values.

192x158mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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Figure 5: Estimated body temperature of marine reptiles (left axis) and corresponding δ18Op values (right axis) are plotted against their environmental sea surface temperature estimated from fish δ18Op values.

213x154mm (300 x 300 DPI)

