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1 **Body size trends and recovery amongst bivalves following the end-Triassic**
2 **mass extinction**

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6 **Abstract**

7 **Fossils in the immediate aftermath of mass extinctions are often of**
8 **small size, a phenomenon attributed to the Lilliput Effect (temporary, size**
9 **reduction of surviving species). There has been little attempt to study size**
10 **trends during subsequent recovery intervals nor has the relationship between**
11 **size, diversity and environmental controls been evaluated. Here we examine**
12 **the recovery following the end-Triassic mass extinction amongst bivalves of**
13 **the British Lower and Middle Lias. Three distinct phases of size change are**
14 **seen that are independent of other recovery metrics: initially bivalves are small**
15 **but the Lilliput Effect is a minor factor, the majority of small taxa belong to new**
16 **species that undergo a later within-species size increase (the Brobdingnag**
17 **Effect) throughout the subsequent Hettangian Stage. New species that**
18 **appeared during the Hettangian were also progressively larger and Cope's**
19 **Rule (size increase between successive species) is seen – notably amongst**
20 **ammonites. The size increase was reversed during the Sinemurian Stage,**
21 **when bivalves once again exhibited small body sizes. During the**
22 **Pliensbachian Stage another phase of size increase occurred with further**
23 **evidence of the Brobdingnag Effect. These three phases of size change are**
24 **seen across all suspension feeding ecological guilds of bivalve but are not**

25 **expressed among deposit feeders. Local environmental conditions explain**
26 **some aspects of size patterns, but factors such as temperature, marine**
27 **oxygenation and sea level, do not correlate with the long-term size trends. The**
28 **Brobdingnag Effect may reflect increased availability/quality of food during the**
29 **recovery interval: a factor that controlled bivalve size but not evolution.**

30

31 **Keywords: Brobdingnag Effect; Lilliput Effect; Cope's Rule; Lower Jurassic**
32 **palaeoenvironments**

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 The causes and nature of size changes during mass extinction events have
36 been much debated (Atkinson et al., 2019; Brayard et al., 2010; Brom et al., 2015;
37 Chen et al., 2019; Harries and Knorr, 2009; Metcalfe et al., 2011; Sogot et al., 2014;
38 Song et al., 2011; Twitchett, 2007; Wiest et al., 2018). Species that survive mass
39 extinctions are often unusually small and are termed “Lilliput taxa” (Urbanek, 1993),
40 although the more general term “Lilliput Effect” is used to describe the prevalence of
41 smaller species at this time. The cause of the size reduction is often unclear and
42 there are several possible mechanisms including preferential extinction of large taxa,
43 dwarfing of species that cross the extinction boundary and proliferation of small,
44 fecund species (opportunists) in the high stress conditions of the extinction interval
45 (Batten and Stokes, 1986; Harries and Knorr, 2009; Payne, 2005; Twitchett, 2007).
46 Implicit in the Lilliput concept is that species return to larger sizes in the subsequent
47 post-extinction interval as the stressful conditions ameliorate. However, a recent
48 study of sizes changes in limid bivalves in the aftermath of the end-Triassic mass

49 extinction revealed a prolonged size increase of species that first appeared after the
50 extinction but with no precursory size reduction (Atkinson et al., 2019). This has
51 been termed the Brobdingnag Effect, after the race of giants in *Gulliver's Travels*,
52 and its importance during post-extinction recovery remains unexplored. The
53 Brobdingnag Effect is an intraspecific size increase and is thus distinct from Cope's
54 Rule which is an increase in size between successive species in a lineage (Alroy,
55 1998; Cope, 1887; Jablonski, 1997; Rensch, 1948).

56 Here we examine the size-recovery relationships of the bivalve fauna from the
57 British Rhaetian (Upper Triassic) to Pliensbachian (Lower Jurassic) to determine the
58 extent of the Brobdingnag Effect and its possible causes following the end-Triassic
59 mass extinction event. Body size of marine invertebrates is influenced by factors like
60 water temperature, dissolved oxygen content, salinity and nutrient availability (e.g.
61 Atkinson, 1994; His et al., 1989; Rhoads and Morse, 1971; Wacker and von Elert,
62 2008). It is likely that each species responds to environmental changes in their own
63 unique manner with each species having a different optimal body size for a certain
64 environment (Carey and Sigwart, 2014; Hallam, 1965).

65 Oxygen restriction has been demonstrated as a cause of reduced body sizes
66 (Rhoads and Morse, 1971; Richmond et al., 2006) due to reduced metabolic and
67 growth rates (Richmond et al., 2006), although some low-oxygen tolerant species
68 can increase in size as oxygen levels decline (Wignall, 1990). Temperature exerts a
69 control on the concentration of dissolved gasses within the waters, but it can also
70 affect body size directly. Perhaps the most renowned temperature-size trend is
71 Bergmann's Rule, although this is strictly a positive correlation with body size and
72 latitude – taken as an approximation of temperature (Bergmann, 1847; Blackburn et
73 al., 1999; James, 1970). As the current study has little in the way of a latitudinal

74 gradient it is perhaps better, in order to avoid confusion, to refer to the rather
75 unambiguously named Temperature-Size Rule (Atkinson, 1994; Atkinson and Sibly,
76 1997). This rule explains how growth rates and development rates are affected
77 unequally by temperature with the latter being more sensitive. For example, under
78 low temperatures both growth and development rates are slowed, the latter more so
79 thereby delaying sexual maturity allowing an increased duration of growth which can
80 result in larger animals.

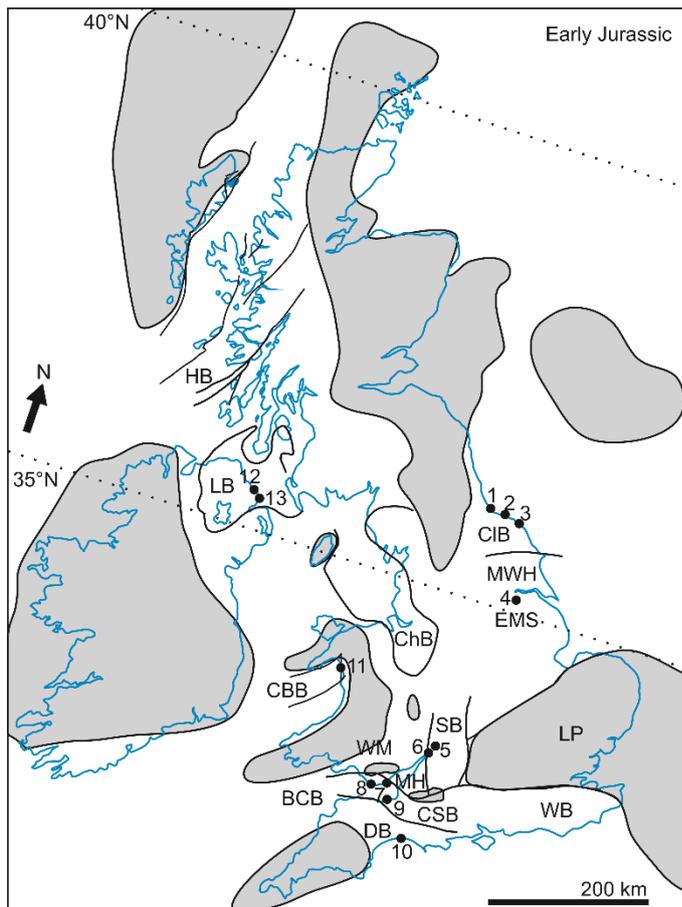
81 Food availability and quality are known controls on body size (von Elert et al.,
82 2003; Wacker and von Elert, 2003). Amongst bivalves, red algae (dinoflagellates)
83 are preferable for good growth over green algae (prasinophytes and acritarchs)
84 because the latter are smaller which reduces the capture rate by the gills of bivalves,
85 and also green algae lack key long-chained polyunsaturated fatty acids essential for
86 growth (Brown et al., 1997; von Elert et al., 2003; Weiss et al., 2007). Turbidity of the
87 water has also been suggested as a factor affecting body size because it lowers
88 filtration rate in the bivalves, and causes them to spend more time with valves closed
89 (Loosanoff and Tommers, 1948).

90 Single species distributed over a broad range of water depths are often
91 (although not exclusively) smaller at greater bathymetries (Attrill et al., 1990;
92 Kaariainen and Bett, 2006; Olabarria and Thurston, 2003). This is likely a
93 manifestation of numerous depth-linked factors such as food and dissolved oxygen
94 concentrations (Peck and Harper, 2010; Shi et al., 2016; Shirayama, 1983).

95 Most of the size-control factors that are outlined above can be evaluated in
96 the geological record and are considered here in order to distinguish environmental
97 controls from temporal trends in bivalve body size in the Lower Jurassic following the
98 end-Triassic mass extinction.

100 **2. Geological setting**

101 During the Rhaetian and Lower Jurassic the British Isles formed part of an
102 epicontinental sea that extended across much of northwest Europe (Hallam, 1960).
103 The Rhaetic sea was likely of variable salinity, as it lacked stenohaline taxa (Hallam
104 and El Shaarawy, 1982; Swift, 1999). Fully marine conditions developed around the
105 Triassic-Jurassic boundary and persisted into the Lower Jurassic. Many islands
106 dotted this Jurassic sea, and consequently a range of depositional environments are
107 recorded across different basins in relation to proximity to these landmasses (Fig. 1).
108 For example the Bristol Channel Basin passes onto the Welsh Massif, where
109 Carboniferous limestones are overlapped by marginal facies (Sheppard, 2006).
110 Likewise, there are similar facies around the Shepton Mallet area of Somerset
111 (Simms, 2004).



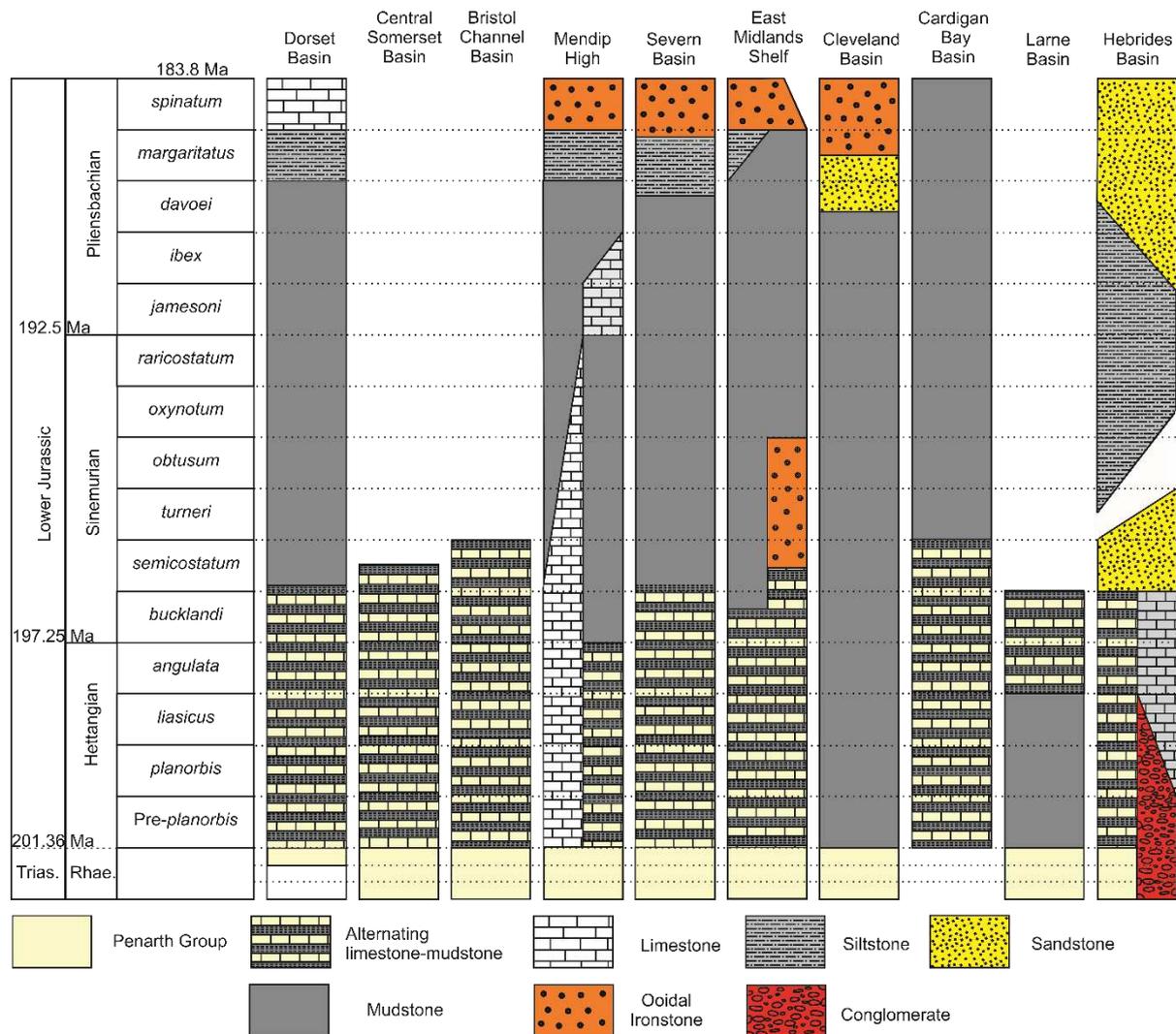
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113 **Fig. 1 Palaeogeography of the British Isles with Hettangian landmasses**
 114 **(indicated by shaded regions) and sedimentary basins. Based on Copestake**
 115 **and Johnson (2014); Deconinck et al. (2003); Lindström et al. (2017); Martill et**
 116 **al. (2016); Simms et al. (2004). Codes as follows: HB – Hebrides Basin; LB –**
 117 **Larne Basin; CIB – Cleveland Basin; MWH – Market Weighton High; EMS –**
 118 **East Midlands Shelf; ChB – Cheshire Basin; CBB – Cardigan Bay Basin; BCB –**
 119 **Bristol Channel Basin; CSB – Central Somerset Basin; SB – Severn Basin; WM**
 120 **– Welsh Massif; WB – Wessex Basin; MH – Mendips High; DB – Dorset Basin;**
 121 **LP – London Platform. Location numbers (numbers in parenthesis after**
 122 **locality names use British National Grid reference systems): 1 – Redcar, North**
 123 **Yorkshire (NZ 613 253); 2 – Staithes, North Yorkshire (NZ 781 190); 3 –**
 124 **Hawsker Bottoms (NZ 952 076) and Robin Hood’s Bay, North Yorkshire (NZ 971**

125 **028); 4 – Conesby Quarry, Scunthorpe (SE 889 145); 5 – Robin’s Wood Hill**
126 **Quarry, Gloucestershire (SO 835 148); 6 – Hock Cliff, Gloucestershire (SO 725**
127 **093); 7 – Lavernock Point, Glamorgan (ST 188 682 – ST183.679); 8 – Nash**
128 **Point, Glamorgan (SS 911 692 – SS 921 679); 9 – Doniford (ST 083 431), St**
129 **Audire’s Bay (ST 103 434 – ST 099 433), East Quantoxhead to Kilve (ST 134 442**
130 **– 142 444), and Lilstock (ST 178 453), Somerset; 10 – Pinhay Bay to Charmouth**
131 **(SY 317 907 – SY 970 929), Devon/Dorset; 11 – Llanbedr (Mochras Farm)**
132 **borehole, north Wales (SH 553 259); 12 – Larne (NW 558 582) and Portmuck**
133 **Harbour (NW 558 582) County Antrim; 13 – Cloghfin Port (NW 624 490) and**
134 **Cloghfin Point (NW 608 454), County Antrim.**

135

136 There were, broadly speaking, four phases of sedimentation in the British
137 Rhaetian to Middle Lias (outlined below). Between the basins and shelves these
138 intervals are correlated using a well-defined ammonite biostratigraphy (Fig. 2).



139
 140 **Fig.2 Schematic lithostratigraphy of studied sedimentary basins with**
 141 **ammonite chronozone scheme and geological stages. Modified from Ivimey-**
 142 **Cook (1971); Simms et al. (2004); Simms and Jeram (2007). Stage boundary**
 143 **ages from Ruhl et al. (2016); Weedon et al. (2019); Wotzlaw et al. (2014).**

144

145 Rhaetic sedimentation in the British Isles is recorded in the Penarth Group,
 146 consisting of the shallow-water, quasimarine Westbury and Lilstock formations. The
 147 Lilstock Formation comprises the Cotham and Langport members with the end-
 148 Triassic mass extinction occurring in the Cotham Member during a regressive
 149 interval (Wignall and Bond, 2008). Subsequent deposition saw progressive

150 deepening, although a minor sea-level fall occurred at the top of the Group (Wignall,
151 2001). An alternative lithostratigraphical scheme has been proposed for the Rhaetian
152 stratigraphy by Gallois (2009) whereby the Cotham Member has been elevated to
153 rank of formation and the Langport Member is disbanded into two formations: the
154 White Lias and Watchet Mudstone.

155 Pre-planorbis to bucklandi chonozones sees the onset of the Blue Lias
156 Formation, a cyclic limestone-marl-shale unit that represents offshore deposition
157 (Hallam, 1960; Moghadam and Paul, 2000; Weedon, 1986). In the liasicus
158 Chronozone limestone beds are rarer – likely due to deepening (Ivimey-Cook, 1975;
159 Weedon et al., 2018). The cycles reflect orbitally-paced climate oscillations and
160 approximately correspond to fluctuations in marine redox (Atkinson and Wignall,
161 2019; Moghadam and Paul, 2000; Ruhl et al., 2010; Weedon et al., 2019, 2018). The
162 Blue Lias Formation is found chiefly in southern regions of Britain, and passes
163 northwards into mudstone-dominated successions (Fig. 2; Simms and Page 2004).
164 However, the Blue Lias is also developed in the Hebrides Basin of north-west
165 Scotland where it passes laterally into the shallower-water bioclastic limestones of
166 the Breakish or Broadford Formation (Oates, 1978).

167 Mudstone dominates sedimentation from the semicostatum to davoei
168 chronozones (e.g. the Charmouth Mudstone, Redcar Mudstone and Pabay Shale
169 formations; Fig. 2). Within the semicostatum to obtusum interval deposition within the
170 Dorset Basin is characterised by sediments of high organic carbon content and
171 evidence for sea-floor anoxia, these being the Shales-with-Beef and Black Ven Marls
172 of the Charmouth Mudstone Formation (Gallois, 2008; Wignall and Hallam, 1991).
173 Similarly the obtusum Chronozone of the Mendips is represented by dark laminated
174 limestones (Simms, 2004). To the north of this region lithologies are more variable.

175 The northern part of the East Midlands Shelf (EMS) is especially distinct during the
176 semicostatum to obtusum chronozones with the deposition of the Frodingham
177 Ironstone Member of the Scunthorpe Mudstone Formation (Hallam, 1963).
178 Deposition in the Hebrides Basin during this interval was dominated by siltstones of
179 the misleadingly named Pabay Shale Formation (Morton, 1989; Oates, 1978).
180 Deposition here occurred under shallower water depths than seen in several basins
181 at this time and was above the storm wave-base (Morton and Oates, 2004).

182

183 Siltstone deposition dominated the davoei to margaritatus interval across
184 much of the British Isles (Fig. 2). Once again in the Hebrides Basin conditions were
185 shallower than elsewhere indicated by the Scalpay Sandstone Formation (Donovan
186 et al., 2005; Hesselbo et al., 1998; Radley, 2003). Within the Cleveland Basin the
187 later part of this interval saw the Staithes Sandstone Formation replaced by the
188 Cleveland Ironstone Formation, that shows coarsening-up cycles capped by oolitic
189 ironstone beds (Howard, 1985; Howarth, 1955). Indeed, many basins show an
190 overall coarsening upwards during this interval that culminates in the spinatum
191 Chronozone (Fig. 2). This is not expressed in the Cardigan Bay Basin however,
192 where siltstone dominates the succession from the jamesoni Chronozone upwards
193 (Ivimey-Cook, 1971).

194

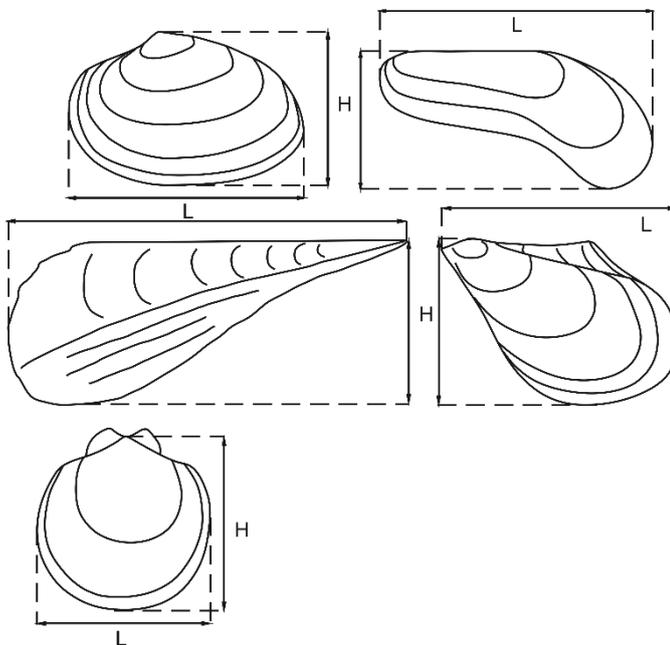
195 **3. Materials and methods**

196 Bivalve size data were collected from the Westbury Formation to the topmost
197 spinatum Chronozone, encompassing the Rhaetian, Hettangian, Sinemurian and
198 Pliensbachian stages. The bivalves *Plagiostoma giganteum* J. Sowerby and all
199 species of *Gryphaea* were excluded from our analysis because their size trends are

200 already well-documented (Atkinson et al., 2019; Hallam, 1978; Johnson, 1994).
201 Latest Rhaetian and Liassic (Lower to Middle) bivalve data were collected via two
202 methods: direct field observations and museum collections. Field collections were
203 made from coastal locations in Devon, Dorset, Somerset, Glamorgan, North
204 Yorkshire, and County Antrim, a river cliff section and quarry in Gloucestershire, a
205 quarry in north Lincolnshire and material retrieved from the Llanbedr (Mochras Farm)
206 borehole, Wales housed in the British Geological Survey, Keyworth, Nottingham
207 (Fig. 1). These sections represent the full spectrum of sedimentary basins and
208 depositional settings of the epicontinental sea that covered much of the British Isles
209 in the Early Jurassic. For softer lithologies (mudstones, siltstones, shales and marls),
210 fossils were measured and collected from freshly split surfaces from approximately
211 equal volumes of rock (50 x 50 cm area and 20-30 cm depth). For the harder
212 limestone and ironstone beds, which could not easily be split, fossils were measured
213 in situ from upper bedding surfaces or from scree if zonal affinity could be confirmed.

214 Museum collections include specimens with sufficient biostratigraphic context
215 from the following institutes: National Museum of Wales, Cardiff (NMW);
216 Warwickshire Museum, Warwick (WARMS); Bristol City Museum and Art Gallery,
217 Bristol (BRSMG); Yorkshire Museum, York (YORYM); Whitby Museum, Whitby
218 (WHITM); Bath Royal Literary and Scientific Institute, Bath (BRLSI). In addition,
219 personal collections made by Michael Oates and JWA from the Hebrides Basin,
220 material from Blockley Station Quarry, Long Itchington Quarry and Somerset
221 collected previously by PBW housed in the School of Earth and Environment,
222 University of Leeds and specimens from Northern Ireland donated by Michael
223 Simms, are included. These are amalgamated under 'museum collections' as no
224 conscious effort to avoid size biased sampling could be guaranteed.

225 For each specimen a series of measurements were recorded (Fig. 3) using a
226 pair of digital callipers with a measurement error of +/-0.02 mm. For inequivalved
227 species the larger valve was measured. Growth line spacing was measured from
228 high resolution photographs in order to assess changes in growth rates. Height and
229 length measurements were used to calculate geometric mean body size (GMBS).
230 This being the square root of the product of height and length. For incomplete
231 specimens the missing values are calculated based on height to length ratios of
232 coeval, complete specimens.



233

234 **Fig. 3 Measurement schematic for a variety of bivalve morphologies.**

235

236 GMBS is used for size analysis as it provides a better representation of a
237 specimen's overall size than a single linear measurement, and correlates well with
238 other, more complex, body size measurements, whilst being easy to obtain (cf.
239 Kosnik et al., 2006).

240 Ammonite chronozones are selected for time bins providing a high-resolution
241 age model suitable for both museum specimens (with sufficient context), and field
242 observations. In some instances, data from the semicostatum and turneri
243 chronozones were pooled, owing to low sample sizes. Durations of ammonite
244 chronozones (including Pre-planorbis Beds) are primarily from astrochronological
245 timescales of Ruhl et al. (2016) and Weedon et al. (2019) with the exception of the
246 interval spanning the semicostatum to oxytonum chronozones, duration for these
247 chronozones are based on the assumption of equal duration of subchronozone. For
248 the Rhaetian, which lacks ammonites, the Westbury Formation, Cotham Member
249 (equivalent to Cotham Formation) and Langport Member (equivalent to White Lias
250 and Watchet Mudstone formations) are used as time bins, although these are of
251 uncertain durations. The resultant floating chronology is tied using the U-Pb
252 radiometric dates for the end-Triassic mass extinction and Triassic-Jurassic
253 boundary of Wotzlav et al. (2014).

254 Size plots feature mean GMBS and maximum GMBS per time bin. Error bars
255 on mean body size depict 95% confidence interval, representing the range of
256 population body sizes. Maximum body size is herein referring to mean of the largest
257 10% of the population, rather than the single largest specimen and is only calculated
258 when $n \geq 10$. This approach was used in order to reduce the effects of abnormally
259 large outliers (Johnson, 1994). Percentage size changes are quoted relative to the
260 size in the previous time bin, unless otherwise stated. The autecology of each
261 species is assigned using a modified version of the scheme presented in Ros-Franch
262 et al. (2014) (See supplementary appendix 1).

263 Where sufficient sample sizes are available from an ammonite chronozone,
264 size differences between locations (and thereby environment) are considered. For

265 species present within the Blue Lias Formation there is a further test as a single
266 ammonite chronozone at a single location may encompass a variety of lithologies
267 (Atkinson and Wignall, 2019). In order to test for the effects of lithology related
268 variation on body size, specimens were divided into samples from limestones, pale
269 marls, dark marls and shales:- the succession of lithologies seen in the Blue Lias
270 Formation that broadly correspond to progressively decreasing oxygenation
271 (Atkinson and Wignall, 2019; Moghadam and Paul, 2000).

272 Additionally, body size of specimens housed in museum collections are
273 compared to field observations in order to test for size bias and assess the usability
274 of the wealth of material housed in museums for these such studies. Statistical
275 significance of size changes between time bins is shown using a Kolmogorov-
276 Smirnov test (K-S test) and for correlations a Spearman's Rank test, p-values are
277 quoted with a 95% significance threshold ($p < 0.05$). These analyses were carried
278 out using PAST 3.12 statistical software (Hammer et al., 2001). All other analyses
279 were carried out using Microsoft Office Excel 2013.

280

281 **4. Results**

282 4.1 All bivalves

283 A total of 6564 bivalve specimens, belonging to 147 species, were measured
284 (Supplementary appendix 2). When the entire dataset is plotted three distinct phases
285 of size change can be seen: the Westbury Formation to the angulata Chronozone;
286 bucklandi to oxynotum chronozones and raricostatum to spinatum chronozones. The
287 first phase is one of increasing body size (Fig. 4A). Over this interval maximum size
288 increases by 195%. Mean size increases also, this reaches a plateau of 23-25 mm

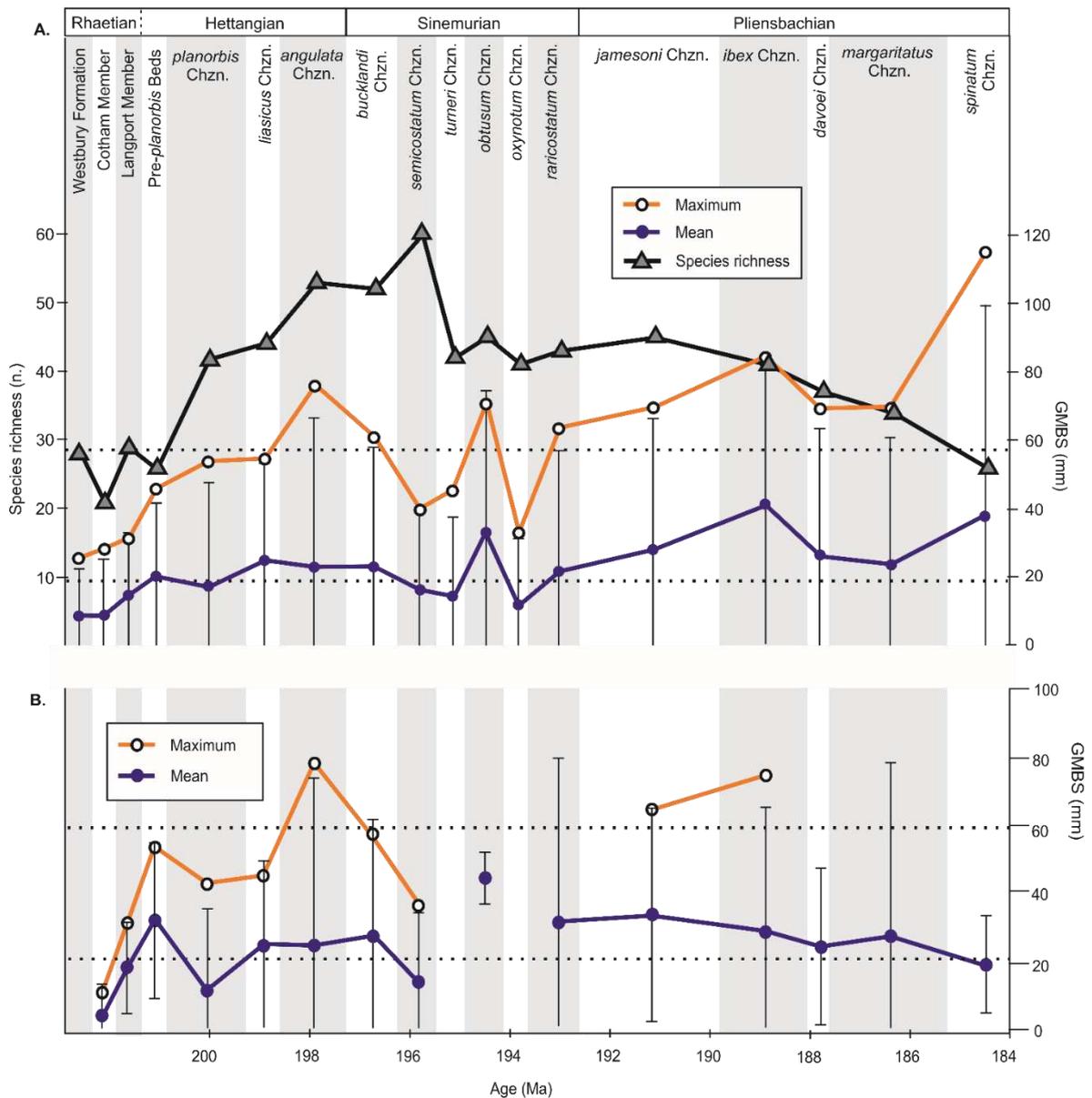
289 from the liasicus to bucklandi Chronozone. Between the Westbury Formation and the
290 liasicus Chronozone mean body size increases by 182%. During this phase newly
291 appearing taxa are typically larger within successive time bins (Fig. 4B).

292 The second phase spans much of the Sinemurian Stage. This period saw a
293 decline in maximum body size that began in the bucklandi Chronozone and
294 continued into the semicostatum Chronozone (Fig. 4A). From the body size peak in
295 the angulata Chronozone to the semicostatum Chronozone the maximum size of
296 bivalves fell by 47% resulting in a return to body sizes seen in the Pre-planorbis
297 Beds. Mean body size only decreases after the bucklandi Chronozone but still shows
298 a Sinemurian trough. The few newly originating species in this interval are typically
299 smaller than those that originated during the Hettangian (Fig. 4B). The prolonged
300 period of low body sizes is punctuated by a positive spike in both maximum and
301 mean size centred on the obtusum Chronozone (Fig. 4A). This produces a mean
302 body size 32% larger than the liasicus Chronozone and returns maximum body size
303 to a par with those seen during the angulata Chronozone.

304 The third phase corresponds broadly to the Pliensbachian Stage (but also
305 includes the last ammonite chronozone of the Sinemurian) and saw body size
306 increase again (Fig. 4A). Mean body size rises progressively from the oxynotum
307 Chronozone to the ibex Chronozone, increasing by 234%. Maximum size also shows
308 this increase into the ibex Chronozone increasing by 155%, however this is less
309 gradual with a near doubling of size occurring between the oxynotum and
310 raricostatum chrozones. There then follows a shallow depression of both mean
311 and maximum size (however these remain higher than much of the Hettangian and
312 Sinemurian) until the culmination of the Pliensbachian Stage size increase in the
313 spinatum Chronozone, when maximum size attained 115.2 mm.

314 During the entire study interval (Westbury Formation to spinatum
315 Chronozone) maximum size of bivalves increases by 347% and mean size by 328%,
316 with an overall average bivalve body size of 19.1 mm. The typical maximum size of
317 the same interval is 57.6 mm. The angulata, obtusum and raricostatum-spinatum
318 chronozones have a maximum size that is larger than the average for the Lower-
319 Middle Lias.

320 Body size and bivalve diversity exhibit no significant correlation (mean size
321 and diversity $r = +0.23$, $p = 0.35$; maximum size and diversity $r = +0.29$, $p = 0.25$;
322 Fig. 4A). Diversity drops in the Cotham Member due to the end-Triassic mass
323 extinction event and is followed by a diversity increase (albeit with a slight decline in
324 the Pre-planorbis Beds), that continues to the semicostatum Chronozone, after
325 which it declines to between 40-45 species. This stability continues to the davoei
326 Chronozone and then begins to decline.



327

328 **Fig. 4 Time-binned geometric mean size plots for all Rhaetian and Lower**
 329 **Jurassic bivalves, hollow circles depict maximum size (see methods), filled**
 330 **circles show mean bivalve size, error bars show 95% confidence interval**
 331 **representing range of sizes within a time bin. Dashed horizontal lines show**
 332 **Lower-Middle Lias average for maximum and mean size. A, All bivalves**
 333 **measured per time bin, additionally bivalve species richness per time bin (grey**
 334 **triangles). B, size of newly arriving bivalve species per chronozone.**

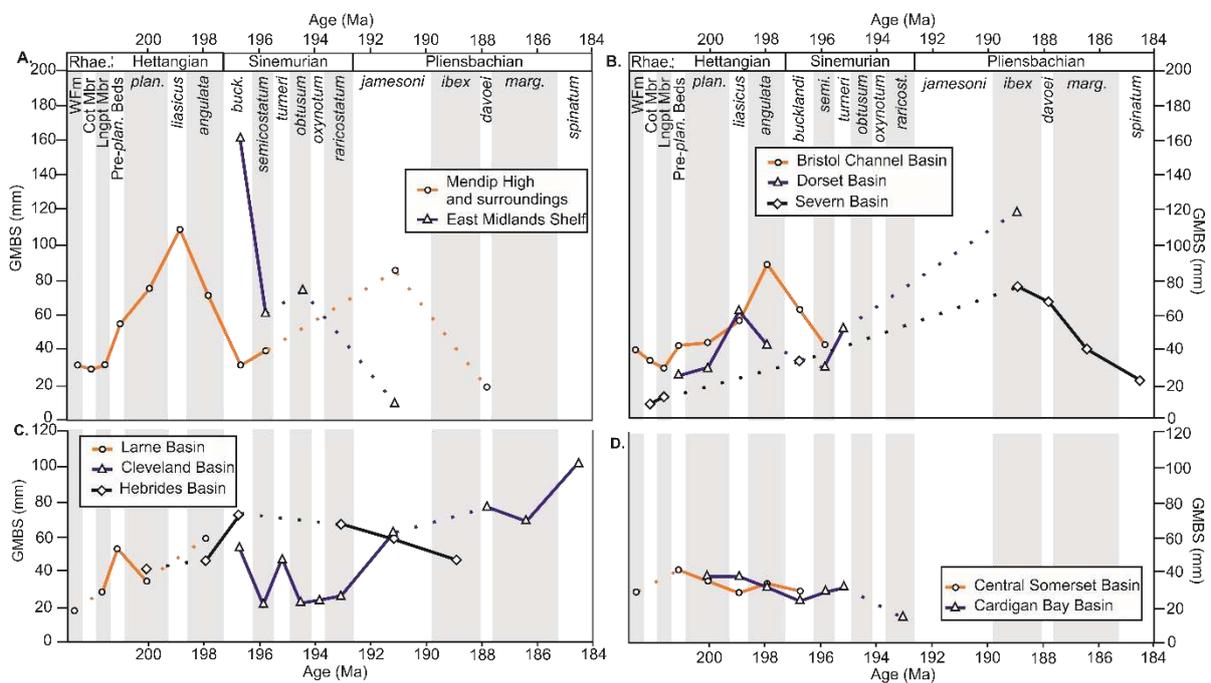
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336 4.2 Basin trends

337 A Rhaetian to latest Hettangian size increase is seen within most of the
338 basins studied, although the magnitude of the increase and precise timing of the
339 peak varies slightly (Fig. 5A-D). The Dorset Basin and Mendip High (and surrounding
340 areas) exhibit a peak size in the liasicus Chronozone, indeed bivalves from this latter
341 region are the largest of the entire study. For the Bristol Channel Basin – Welsh
342 Massif and Larne Basin the largest bivalves were encountered in the angulata
343 Chronozone, whilst in the Hebrides Basin and EMS these occur in the bucklandi
344 Chronozone. Large bivalves were not encountered in every basin, bivalves are
345 consistently small in the Central Somerset and Cardigan Bay basins and do not
346 show the Hettangian phase of size increase (Fig. 5D).

347 Size troughs are seen in many of the basins following the Hettangian (or
348 earliest Sinemurian) size maxima (Fig. 5A-D). There is a well-developed depression
349 in the mean body size of bivalves from the Cleveland Basin from the semicostatum
350 Chronozone to the raricostatum Chronozone although, in most basins, this decrease
351 is poorly constrained because the sample size diminishes after the semicostatum
352 Chronozone. Nonetheless the decline is seen in the Mendips, Bristol Channel Basin-
353 Welsh Massif and the Dorset Basin when bivalve size returns to values similar to
354 those of the Penarth Group. The size decrease is even noted on the EMS, following
355 a high in the bucklandi Chronozone (when bivalves are the largest of any of the
356 British basins). It should also be noted that even with a size reduction the bivalves of
357 the EMS from the semicostatum and obtusum chronozones remain the largest of any
358 of the basins and were collected from the Frodingham Ironstone Member of the
359 Scunthorpe Mudstone Formation.

360 A phase of size increase during the Pliensbachian is clearly seen in the
 361 Cleveland Basin, starting from the jamesoni Chronozone and culminating with
 362 bivalves over 100 mm from the spinatum Chronozone (similar spinatum Chronozone
 363 sizes are recorded from the Hebrides Basin). Although sampling is sporadic during
 364 the Pliensbachian from many of the basins, when sampled, there is a fairly
 365 consistent occurrence of large bivalves from the ibex Chronozone (Dorset, Severn,
 366 and Cardigan Bay basins).



367

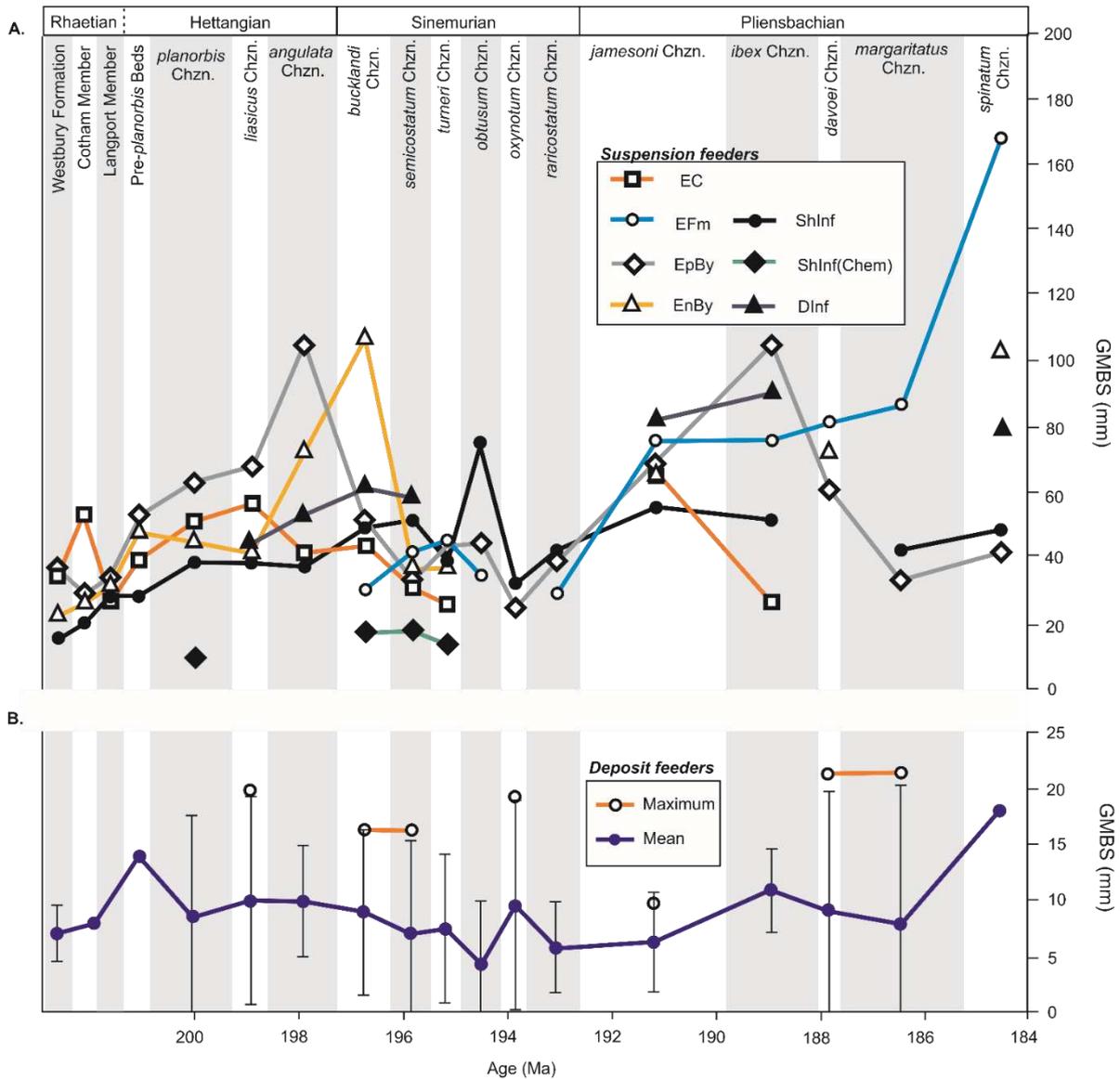
368 **Fig. 5A-D Maximum GMBS of bivalves per time bin per basin/shelf. Time bin**
 369 **abbreviations: WfM – Westbury Formation; Cot Mbr – Cotham Member; Lngpt**
 370 **Mbr – Langport Member; Pre-plan. Beds – Pre-planorbis Beds; plan. –**
 371 **planorbis Chronozone; buck. – bucklandi Chronozone; marg. – margaritatus**
 372 **Chronozone. See individual legends for basin information.**

373

374 4.3 Trends within ecological groups

375 Within the majority of the ecological guilds employed by bivalves, the three
376 main size phases can be readily noted. All recorded suspension feeding guilds,
377 irrespective of attachment style or burrow depth show a size increase in both mean
378 and maximum body size from the Rhaetian and across the Hettangian (Fig. 6A). A
379 suppressed body size during the Sinemurian is best expressed in endo- and
380 epibyssate suspension feeding bivalves (Fig. 6A). This trend is weaker in shallow
381 infaunal suspension feeders and cementing bivalves, and is however first expressed
382 earlier during the angulata Chronozone. The brief obtusum Chronozone reversal of
383 the size decline is exhibited only in shallow infaunal and epibyssate suspension
384 feeders. The third phase, a Pliensbachian size increase is again seen in all
385 suspension feeding guilds of bivalve (except cementing bivalves), however
386 epibyssate bivalves show a maximum and mean peak size centred on the ibex
387 Chronozone, with later Pliensbachian members of this ecology being progressively
388 smaller.

389 Shallow infaunal, deposit feeding bivalves show fundamentally different size
390 trends to the suspension feeders (Fig. 6B). Thus, there is no Hettangian size
391 increase, instead mean size is similar between the planorbis and angulata
392 chronozones (~10 mm) whilst maximum size decreases slightly (18%). Mean body
393 size decreases from the angulata to the bucklandi Chronozone, while the maximum
394 size remains the same. During the obtusum Chronozone mean and maximum sizes
395 are comparable to the planorbis Chronozone and for the Pliensbachian mean body
396 size remains around 10 mm and maximum, as seen within the planorbis and
397 obtusum chronozones, remains around 20 mm, only seeming large due to a decline
398 in both mean and maximum size in the jamesoni Chronozone.



399

400 **Fig. 6 Maximum GMBS for bivalves per ecological guild. A, Suspension**
 401 **feeding bivalves. Ecological abbreviations as follows: EC – epifaunal**
 402 **cemented; EFm – epifaunal facultative motile; EpBy – epibyssate; EnBy –**
 403 **endobyssate; ShInf – shallow infaunal; ShInf(Chem) – shallow infaunal with**
 404 **chemosymbionts (primarily represented by *Lucinola limbata* Terquem &**
 405 **Piette); DInf – deep infaunal. B, Deposit feeding bivalves; see Fig. 4 caption for**
 406 **details.**

407

408 4.4 Within lineage trends

409 A subset of the 147 bivalve species studied herein have sufficient occurrence
410 data to examine both intraspecific and lineage size trends. For a full species-by-
411 species account see supplementary appendix 2.

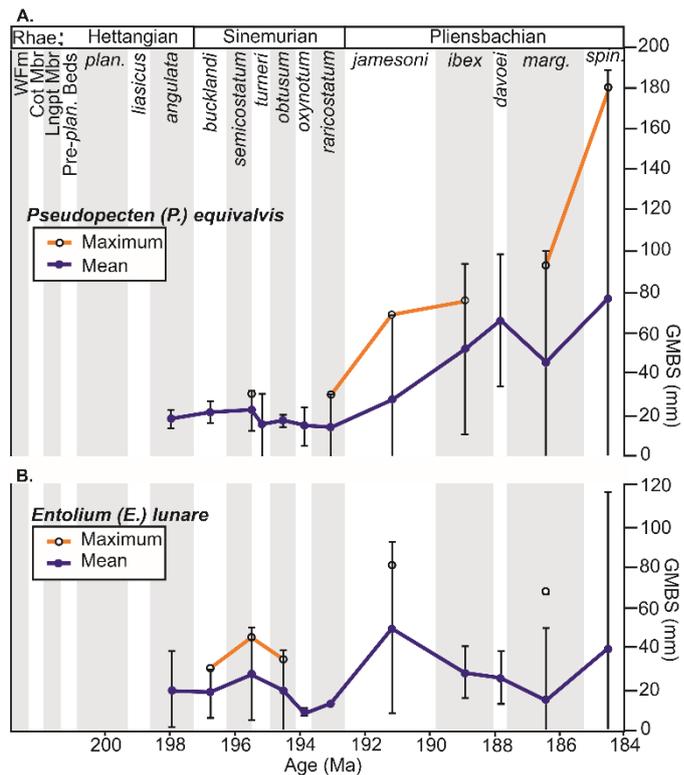
412 *Pseudopecten* (*Pseudopecten*) *equivalvis* J. Sowerby remains small in both
413 mean and maximum size throughout the Hettangian and Sinemurian, only to
414 increase dramatically in size during the Pliensbachian (Fig. 7A). There are three
415 pulses of size increase: the first is between the *raricostatum* and *jamesoni*
416 chronozones when there is a doubling in mean and 133% increase in maximum. The
417 next is only reflected in the mean with a 90% increase from the *jamesoni* to *ibex*
418 chronozones. And, lastly a 68% increase in mean size from the *margaritatus* to the
419 *spinatum* Chronozone and 94% increase in the maximum. Overall from the
420 *semicostatum* to *spinatum* chronozones there is an increase of 254% in mean and
421 476% increase in maximum. There are however also phases of size reduction,
422 between the *semicostatum* and the *raricostatum* there is a decrease in mean by 37%
423 although maximum stays around the same (2% decrease).

424 The size trend in *P. (P.) equivalvis* predominantly reflects changes within the
425 Cleveland Basin, although there is a similar but more subdued size change in the
426 Hebrides Basin around the Sinemurian and Pliensbachian and in both basins the
427 giants were found in the *spinatum* Chronozone. The size increase is independent of
428 lithology: initially small individuals are from the *semicostatum* Chronozone oolitic
429 ironstone facies – the Frodingham Ironstone Member – whilst the *raricostatum* and
430 *jamesoni* size increase in the Cleveland Basin occurs within mudstones and the
431 *margaritatus* to *spinatum* increase is within ironstones again. Museum and field

432 collections show the same trend for this species, although for the oxynotum and
433 raricostatum chronozones the largest specimens are found in museum collections.

434

435 Entolium (*Entolium*) *lunare* Roemer increases between the *bucklandi* and
436 *semicostatum-turneri* chronozones by 46% in mean size, 51% in maximum (p
437 <0.001 , Fig. 7B). This is however only temporary with mean size decreasing in the
438 subsequent chronozone by 29%, thereby returning the mean size to approximately
439 19 mm. The maximum size reflects the trends in the mean. Specimens are scarce
440 thereafter until the *jamesoni* Chronozone, when the largest mean and maximum
441 sizes were attained. The next time bin with >10 specimens is the *margaritatus*
442 Chronozone. At this interval the maximum size is 50% larger than that during the
443 early Sinemurian. Museum and field collections seldom have large numbers of *E.*
444 (*E.*) *lunare* from the same time, but nonetheless the trends in each collection are the
445 same. The *semicostatum-turneri* chronozone is the only zone that has a large
446 sample size in both collections, the museum specimens are however 43% larger
447 than the field collections.



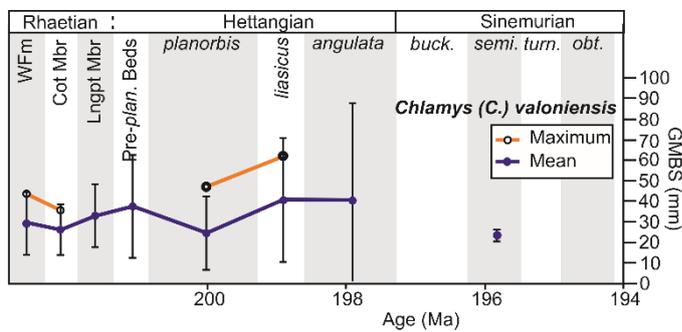
448

449 **Fig. 7 Time-binned GMBS plot for A, *Pseudopecten (P.) equivalvis* and B,**
 450 ***Entolium (E.) lunare*. See Fig.4 caption for details, time bin abbreviations as**
 451 **follows: WfM – Westbury Formation; Cot Mbr – Cotham Member; Lngpt Mbr –**
 452 **Langport Member; Pre-plan. Beds – Pre-planorbis Beds; plan. – planorbis**
 453 **Chronozone; marg. – margaritatus Chronozone; spin. – spinatum Chronozone.**

454 *Chlamys (Chlamys) valoniensis* (Defrance) is one of the few common species
 455 to survive the end-Triassic mass extinction in the study region. Initially very common
 456 in the Westbury Formation, and a basal shell bed of the Cotham Member, it is then
 457 absent from the remaining Cotham, before reoccurring in the Langport Member and
 458 is abundant again in the planorbis Chronozone. Specimens are plentiful from the
 459 Sutton Stone, a marginal/coastal facies. From the Westbury to Cotham mean body
 460 size declines by 10%. The communities of the planorbis Chronozone are 16%
 461 smaller than the Westbury and 7% smaller than the Cotham (Fig. 8), but only the
 462 former is a significant change ($p < 0.05$). The liasicus Chronozone populations from

463 marginal facies are significantly larger than those from the offshore Blue Lias
 464 planorbis Chronozone (75%, $p < 0.001$).

465 Due to the bountiful supply of specimens from the Westbury Formation
 466 variation between locations and collection styles can be tested for. The sizes are
 467 broadly consistent between locations, albeit with a slight northwards size increase:
 468 Somerset 26.1 mm, Glamorgan 27.2 mm, Aust 30.5 mm and Larne 34.0 mm. Both
 469 field and museum collections show comparable sizes.



470

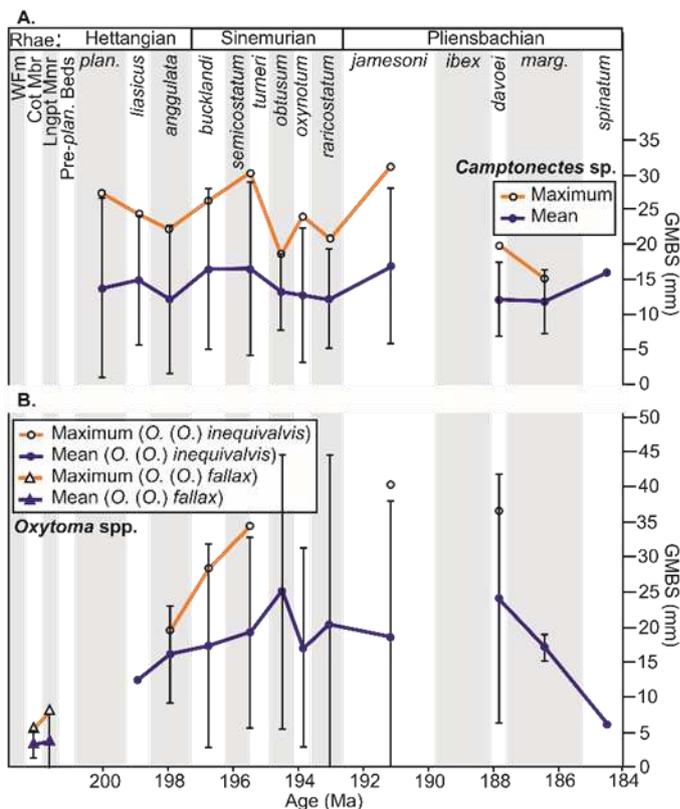
471 **Fig. 8 Time-binned GMBS plot for *Chlamys (C.) valoniensis*. See Fig. 4 caption**
 472 **for details. Time bin abbreviations as follows: WFm – Westbury Formation; Cot**
 473 **Mbr – Cotham Member; Lngpt Mbr. – Langport Member; buck. – bucklandi**
 474 **Chronozone; semi. – semicostatum Chronozone; turn. – turneri Chronozone;**
 475 **obt. – obtusum Chronozone.**

476 *Camptonectes* body size trends are here reported at the generic level as
 477 many specimens were not preserved with shell material, which contains the
 478 diagnostic ornament for species determination. This genus occurs commonly
 479 throughout the Lower Jurassic and its size trends are somewhat out of kilter with the
 480 overall Hettangian/earliest Sinemurian size patterns: maximum size progressively
 481 declining from the planorbis to angulata Chronozone by 19% before increasing into
 482 the semicostatum-turneri chronozones by 37% (Fig. 9A). Mean body size is broadly

483 similar showing a dip in the angulata Chronozone. Use of K-S tests defines three
484 intervals of significant size changes, the 20% ($p = 0.002$) decrease between the
485 semicostatum-turneri and obtusum chronozones. This initiates a period of reduced
486 body size within Camptonectes which is ended by a 38% ($p = 0.002$) increase
487 between the raricostatum and jamesoni chronozones. During the Pliensbachian
488 there is again a period of reduced body size there being a 28% decline between the
489 jamesoni and davoei chronozones.

490

491 Two main species of Oxytoma (Oxytoma) occur: O. (O.) fallax (Pflücker) and
492 O. (O.) inequivalvis (J. Sowerby). The former is present in Rhaetic-aged strata and
493 measurements are based entirely on museum collections, in most instances these
494 were shell-covered slabs. There is an increase of 49% in the maximum size between
495 the Cotham and the Langport members though only a slight but significant change in
496 the mean (increase by 10%, $p < 0.001$). O. (O.) inequivalvis is typically larger than its
497 predecessor, O. (O.) fallax, and is well-represented in our dataset from the angulata
498 Chronozone to semicostatum-turneri Chronozone, although it has a greater
499 stratigraphic range. This species shows an increase in both the mean and maximum
500 size, expressed best in the maximum size however (Fig. 9B). From the angulata
501 Chronozone to the jamesoni Chronozone maximum size increases by 107%, slightly
502 declining by 9% during the davoei Chronozone.



503

504 **Fig. 9 Time-binned GMBS plot for A, species of *Camptonectes* and B, species**
 505 **of *Oxytoma*, see in-figure legend for individual species present. See Fig.4**
 506 **caption for details, time bin abbreviations as in Fig. 7.**

507

508 Two species of Semuridia were recorded from the Lower Lias, *S. obliqua*
 509 Melville and *S. quadrata* Melville, size data for these are discussed here at the
 510 generic level owing to uncertainty regarding the validity of the two taxa, however
 511 most specimens bear a close resemblance to *S. obliqua*. Semuridia was first
 512 encountered within a 2 m thick blue-grey shale bed, associated with abundant
 513 *Psiloceras ammonites*. Specimens are common (n. 56) with the largest individual
 514 attaining a GMBS of 34.0 mm from this bed. During the liasicus Chronozone,
 515 specimens were found pyritised in a black shale associated with drift wood from St
 516 Audrie's Bay. Both mean and maximum body size is reduced at this point by 36%

517 and 27% respectively ($p < 0.05$). The *angulata* Chronozone specimens were
518 collected from a single shale bed in Pinhay Bay. Maximum size decreased while
519 mean size increased slightly by 13%.

520

521 *Parainoceromya ventricosus* (J. de C. Sowerby) is here recorded from
522 *semicostatum* to *margaritatus* chronozones. Greatest sizes occur in the *ibex*
523 Chronozone when maximum size attains 109.0 mm. There does not appear to be any
524 directional trends within this species, merely appearing in the British Lias as an
525 already large species.

526

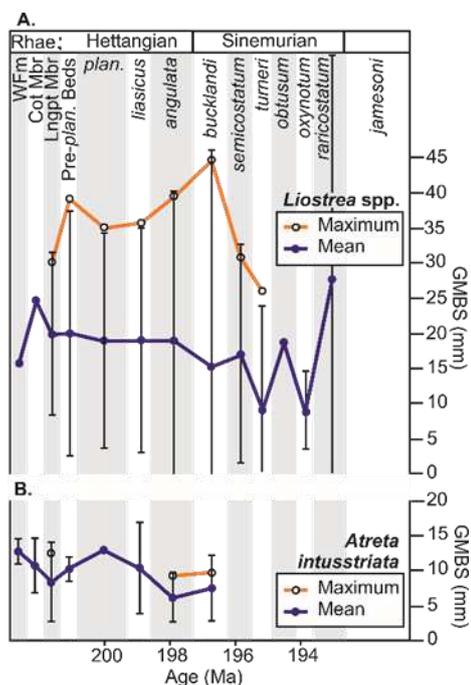
527 Analysis for *Liostrea* was only conducted at the generic level owing to the
528 plasticity of oyster morphology, and care was taken to avoid measuring forms of
529 *Gryphaea* with large attachment areas that can be confused for *Liostrea*. The genus
530 is well-represented with 379 specimens measured from the Westbury Formation to
531 the *jamesoni* Chronozone. They first appear in any significant numbers in the
532 Langport Member, becoming very abundant in the lower to middle Pre-planorbis
533 Beds. Mean body size remains fairly constant for the Hettangian between 18.8- 20
534 mm (Fig. 10A). Maximum size increases almost smoothly from the Langport to the
535 *bucklandi* Chronozone, with a total increase of 49% before declining in the
536 *semicostatum* Chronozone.

537 For the *liasicus*, *angulata* and *bucklandi* chronozones there is a good
538 relationship between host lithology in the Blue Lias Formation and body size: the
539 darker the lithology the smaller the bivalve. In the Pre-planorbis Beds specimens
540 come from laminated limestones and share similar body sizes to those from shales.

541 Museum and field collections show a good correspondence until the angulata and
 542 bucklandi chronozones when field collections show a declining mean size.

543

544 *Atreta intusstriata* (Emmrich) is common in the Langport Member (n. 57), and
 545 in the angulata Chronozone (n. 23). Between these two time bins there is a 26%
 546 decline in mean body size, mirrored by a 25% decline in the maximum ($p < 0.001$,
 547 Fig. 10B). Body size increases thereafter into the bucklandi Chronozone (mean by
 548 21%, this time not a significant change $p = 0.38$) and does not regain the shell sizes
 549 of the Langport community being still 10% smaller. The reduction in body size
 550 between the Rhaetian and Hettangian is accompanied by a change in attachment
 551 style. The Langport communities were by-and-large found as independent entities,
 552 cementing, presumably to a firm substrate, whereas specimens from the Blue Lias
 553 Formation were attached to larger shells, typically *Plagiostoma giganteum* or
 554 *Gryphaea* (G.) *arcuata* Lamarck.

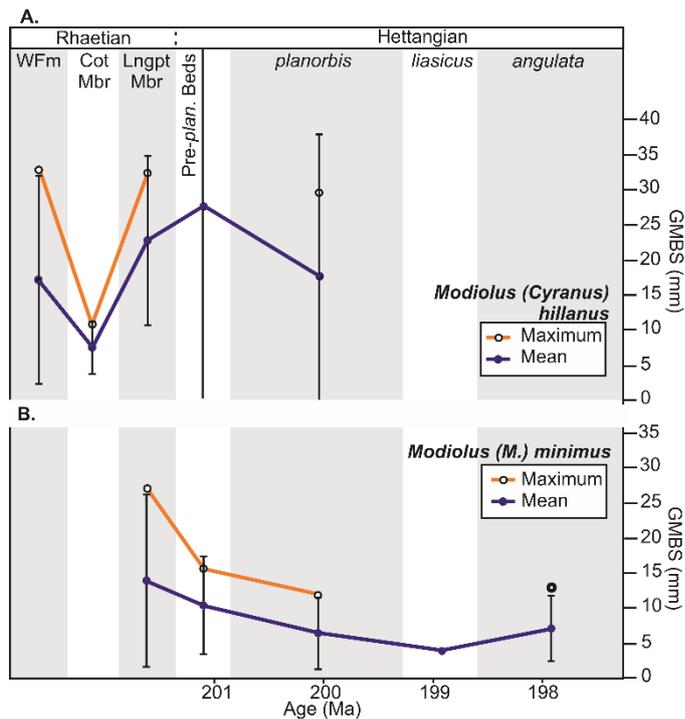


555

556 **Fig. 10 Time-binned GMBS plot for A, undifferentiated of species of Liostrea**
557 **and B, *Atreta intusstriata*. See Fig.4 caption for details and Fig. 7 for time bin**
558 **abbreviations.**

559 Two species of *Modiolus* have sufficient sample sizes to report within-species
560 changes: - *M. (Cyranus) hillanus* (J. Sowerby) and *M. (Modiolus) minimus* (J.
561 Sowerby). The former has a fairly constant maximum size, being around 30 mm in all
562 time bins (Fig. 11A). The exception to this being for the Cotham Member, where both
563 mean and maximum size decrease (59% and 67% respectively, $p < 0.001$). The
564 Langport Member specimens increase in size, to an average size 33% larger than
565 the Westbury Formation. Mean body size is reduced in the planorbis Chronozone,
566 down by 22% from the Langport Member.

567 *M. (M.) minimus* increases in abundance from the Langport Member to the
568 planorbis Chronozone and decreases in size over this same interval (mean size by
569 54% and maximum by 56%, Fig. 11B), and remain small until the angulata
570 Chronozone when their mean size increases insignificantly (11%, $p = 0.2$). There is
571 no relationship between the size of a specimen and its host lithology. Museum and
572 field collections show the same temporal trend in body size.



573

574 **Fig. 11 Time-binned GMBS plot for species of Modiolus. A, M. (Cyranus)**
 575 **hillanus and B, M. (M.) minimus. See Fig.4 caption for details and Fig. 7 for**
 576 **time bin abbreviations.**

577 Pteromya crowcombeia Moore is one of the few species to remain reasonably
 578 common across the end-Triassic crisis, it ranges from the Penarth Group to
 579 planorbis Chronozone. Mean body size decreases in the Cotham Member by 28%
 580 accompanied by a 24% decline in maximum size ($p = 0.02$; Fig. 12A). This is a brief
 581 decrease in size which is succeeded by an increase of 53% in mean and 111% in
 582 maximum size during the Langport Member. The trend continues in the Pre-
 583 planorbis interval, with mean body size rising by a further 43%.

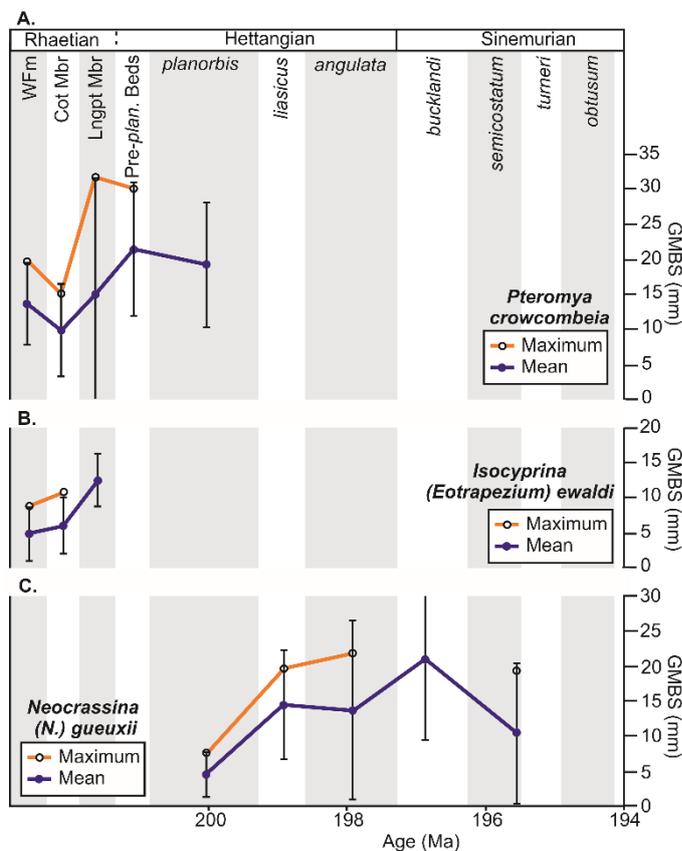
584

585 Isocyprina (Eotrapezium) ewaldi (Bornemann) is abundant in the Westbury
 586 Formation, forming shell pavements. From sections in Northern Ireland, bed-by-bed
 587 sampling shows this species increases in size through the Westbury Formation. This

588 trend is sustained into the Cotham Member, when using the time-binned approach,
 589 with mean size increasing by 24% (Fig. 12B). There is however a marked reduction
 590 in sample size at this time because it fell victim to the end-Triassic mass extinction.

591

592 Neocrassina (*Neocrassina*) *gueuxii* (d'Orbigny) undergoes an extraordinary
 593 increase in body size between the planorbis and liasicus chronozones of 215% (Fig.
 594 12C). This is followed by a slight decline into the angulata Chronozone, but
 595 maximum size continues to increase resulting in an overall 283% increase in
 596 maximum size between the planorbis to the angulata chronozones. The mean and
 597 maximum size then decrease in the semicostatum-turneri Chronozone by 24% and
 598 12% ($p < 0.05$) respectively.



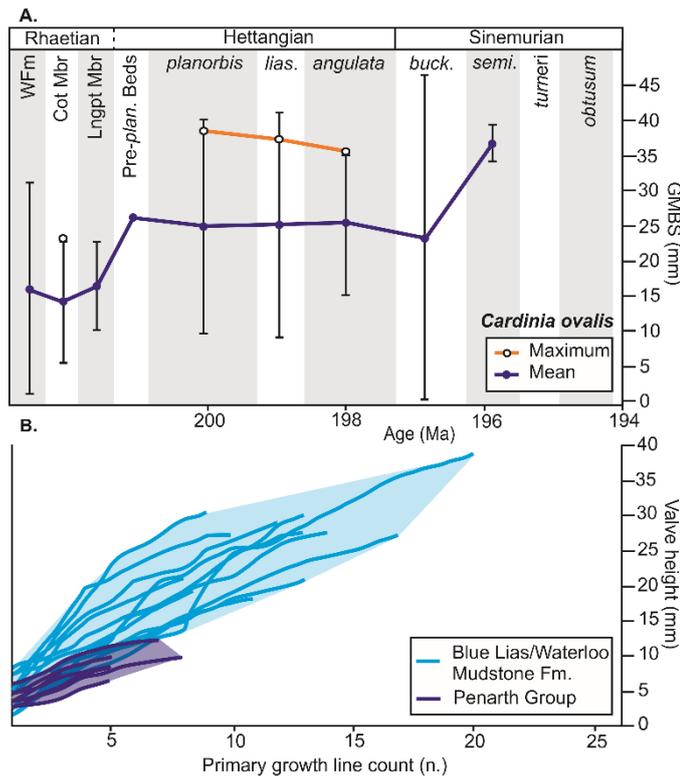
599

600 **Fig. 12 Time-binned GMBS plot for A, *Pteromya crowcombeia*, B, *Isocyprina***
601 **(*Eotrapezium*) ewaldi, C *Neocrassina* (N.) *gueuxii*. See Fig.4 caption for details,**
602 **time bin abbreviations as in Fig. 7.**

603 *Cardinia ovalis* (Stutchbury) survived the end-Triassic mass extinction event.
604 Size plot shows two distinct size classes, smaller individuals from the Penarth Group
605 and consistently larger ones from the Hettangian (Fig. 13A). Each population shows
606 little in the way of size variation but a single stepped increase in size between the
607 two with mean and maximum increasing by 75% and 67% respectively, between the
608 Cotham Member and planorbis Chronozone. Growth line analyses show the Cotham
609 specimens have fewer and more closely spaced primary growth lines than those of
610 the Blue Lias and Waterloo Mudstone formations (Fig. 13B).

611 *C. ovalis* is common in the planorbis Chronozone of Northern Ireland, and the
612 liasicus Chronozone elsewhere in Britain. In the latter chronozone, samples from
613 Glamorgan have the largest average, followed by those from Mochras and smallest
614 being of the Somerset coast indicating a likely offshore decreasing size trend. In all
615 the time bins with sufficient material, museum and field collections have a
616 comparable mean size.

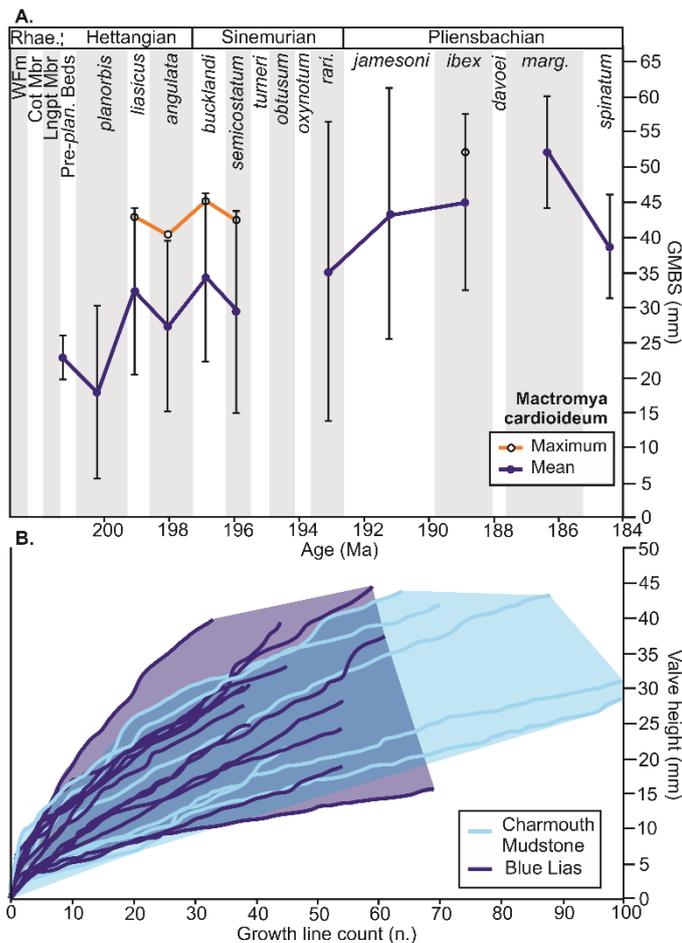
617 *Cardinia ovalis* is replaced by *Cardinia listeri* (J. Sowerby) in the Sinemurian,
618 with a bucklandi Chronozone maximum size 47% larger than its predecessor.



619

620 **Fig. 13 A, Time-binned GMBS plot for *Cardinia ovalis*, see Fig.4 caption for**
 621 **details, time bin abbreviations: WFm – Westbury Formation; Cot Mbr – Cotham**
 622 **Member; Lngpt Mbr – Langport Member; lias – liasicus Chronozone; buck. –**
 623 **bucklandi Chronozone; semi. – semicostatum Chronozone. B, Primary growth**
 624 **line plot for *C. ovalis* specimens from the Penarth Group and Blue**
 625 **Lias/Waterloo Mudstone formations.**

626 *Mactromya cardioideum* (Phillips) shows mean and maximum body size
 627 fluctuations in the Hettangian and early Sinemurian but without any long-term trends
 628 over that time. Subsequently, there is a 54% ($p < 0.001$) increase in mean size from
 629 the semicostatum Chronozone to the ibex Chronozone (Fig. 14A). The larger
 630 specimens, from the Blockley Quarry site in the Severn Basin, have more growth
 631 lines than their Blue Lias predecessor (Fig. 14B) indicating they achieved their
 632 greater size due to increased longevity.

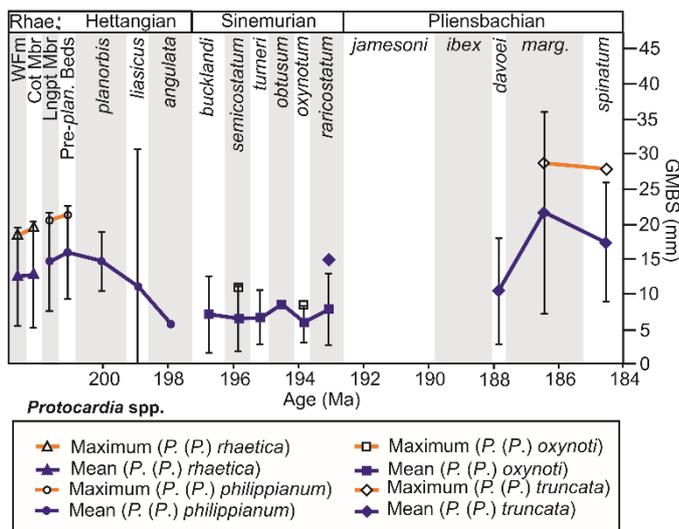


633

634 **Fig. 14 A, Time-binned GMBS plot for *Mactromya cardioideum*, see Fig.4**
 635 **caption for details, time bin abbreviations as in Fig. 7 with addition of rari. –**
 636 **raricostatum Chronozone. B, Growth line plot also for *M. cardioideum***
 637 **specimens from the Blue Lias Formation and from Blockley Quarry, Severn**
 638 **Basin (Charmouth Mudstone Formation).**

639 Four species of *Protocardia* (*Protocardia*) are present in the study interval and
 640 show minimal range overlap (Fig. 15). *P. (P.) rhaetica* (Merian) is abundantly
 641 recorded in the Westbury Formation before going extinct in the lower Cotham
 642 Member. There is no change in the mean nor the range of sizes. *P. (P.) philippianum*
 643 (Dunker) appears in the aftermath of the end-Triassic mass extinction and is plentiful
 644 in the Langport Member and Pre-planorbis Beds but dwindles in abundance rapidly

645 thereafter. Between the Langport Member and Pre-planorbis Beds there is no
 646 significant size change ($p > 0.05$) but the rarely occurring, geologically youngest
 647 individuals are far smaller, being around one third the size of those from the Pre-
 648 planorbis Beds. The next *Protocardia* species – *P. (P.) oxynoti* (Quenstedt) is also
 649 the smallest species, and was here found to range from the bucklandi to
 650 raricostatum chronozones. It is common in the Mochras core from the semicostatum
 651 to turneri chronozones and at Robin Hood's Bay from the turneri to raricostatum
 652 Chronozone but there is little change in size except in the oxynotum Chronozone
 653 where specimens are slightly smaller. *P. (P.) truncata* (J. de C. Sowerby) is the
 654 geologically youngest and largest species encountered in this study, and is common
 655 only in the margaritatus and spinatum chronozones, especially in the Staithes
 656 Sandstone and the Marlstone Rock formations. These were measured from museum
 657 collections with few from direct field observations. Between the margaritatus
 658 Chronozone and the spinatum Chronozone there is a 20% ($p < 0.001$) decrease in
 659 the mean whilst maximum is broadly similar.



660

661 **Fig. 15 Time-binned GMBS plot for species of Protocardia (Protocardia), see**
662 **figure legend for species details, and also see figure captions for Figs. 4 and 7**
663 **for details of error bars and abbreviations.**

664 *Gresslya galathea* (Agassiz) occurs during the Hettangian and early
665 Sinemurian but samples are almost entirely restricted to Glamorgan. This species
666 shows a single stepped increase in size between the *liasicus* and *angulata*
667 chronozones (30% mean, 58% max, Fig. 16A). Thereafter, mean body size is fairly
668 consistent. *G. galathea* is followed by the far larger *G. intermedius* (Simpson), which
669 has an average size of 40 mm compared to 20 mm of its predecessor, this species is
670 primarily seen in the *margaritatus* and *spinatum* chronozones.

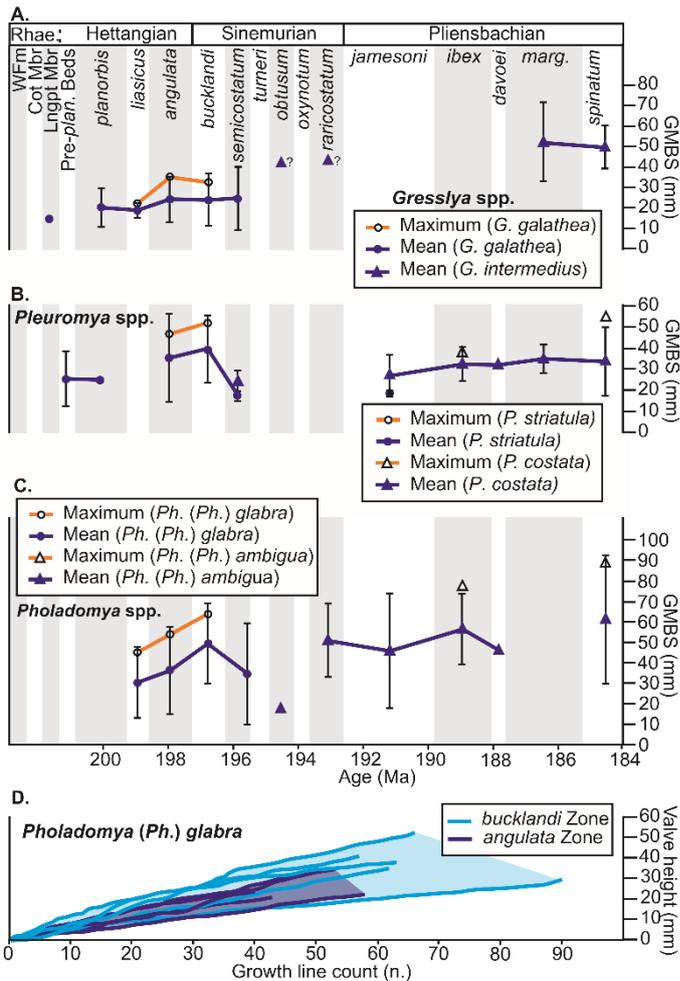
671

672 *Pleuromya striatula* Agassiz first occurs (rarely) in the Pre-planorbis Bed
673 becoming more abundant in the *angulata* and *bucklandi* chronozones, with an
674 insignificant ($p > 0.05$) increase in mean and maximum size of around 10%. *P.*
675 *striatula* is considered the ancestor of *P. costata* (Young & Bird), which has a first
676 questionable appearance in the *semicostatum* Chronozone (n. 3). There are
677 however only two times when the species is sufficiently abundant to make comment
678 on any size trends: *ibex* and *spinatum* chronozones when mean sizes are 32.5 mm
679 and 33.6 mm respectively. There is however quite a marked increase (43%) in the
680 maximum size 38.3 mm to 54.6 mm (Fig. 16B).

681

682 Two main species of *Pholadomya* (*Pholadomya*) were recorded in this study,
683 *P. (P.) glabra* Agassiz and *P. (P.) ambigua* J. Sowerby (a single specimen of *P. (P.)*
684 “*ovalis*” was also measured from the *ibex* Chronozone). *P. (P.) glabra* is chiefly

685 recorded from Glamorgan and has a mean body size around 30 mm which increases
686 from the liasicus Chronozone to the bucklandi Chronozone by 62%, accompanied by
687 a 41% increase in the maximum size (Fig. 16C). Between the angulata and
688 bucklandi chronozones there is a 36% increase in size which may be attributable to
689 an increase in growth rate and longevity. This is suggested by several of the
690 bucklandi specimens which attain a larger size for the same number of growth lines,
691 and continued to grow thereafter, thereby also show a greater number of growth
692 lines (Fig. 16D). *P. (P.) glabra* is replaced by *P. (P.) ambigua* during the late
693 Sinemurian. This later species shows little in the way of a with-species size change
694 with an 8% increase in the mean and a 15% in the maximum size between the ibex
695 and spinatum chronozones ($p > 0.05$). *P. (P.) ambigua* does however form part of a
696 long-term generic body size increase. Between the mean sizes of *P. (P.) glabra* in
697 the liasicus Chronozone to the mean size of *P. (P.) ambigua* during the spinatum
698 Chronozone there is a doubling of size.



699

700 **Fig. 16 Time-binned GMBS plot for A, species of Gresslya, B, species of**
 701 **Pleuromya, and C, species of Pholadomya (Pholadomya), see subfigure**
 702 **legends for individual species featured. See Fig.4 caption for details and Fig. 7**
 703 **for time bin abbreviations. D, Growth line plot for P. (Ph.) glabra from the Blue**
 704 **Lias Formation comparing specimens of the angulata and bucklandi**
 705 **chronozones.**

706

707 **5. Discussion**

708 **5.1 Body size trends**

709 **5.1.1 Lilliputians**

710 Of the 26 species discussed in detail there are only six species that survived
711 the mass extinction and have sufficient data to assess size trends. Of these, two
712 species could be considered to exhibit the Lilliput Effect: *Modiolus (Cyranus) hillanus*
713 and *Pteromya crowcombeia*, and possibly two others: *Chlamys (C.) valoniensis* and
714 *Cardinia ovalis*. In *M. (Cyranus) hillanus* and *P. crowcombeia* pre-extinction body
715 sizes were restored by the Langport Member, less than 0.15 Myr after the extinction.
716 It is questionable if *C. (C.) valoniensis* is an example of the Lilliput Effect because is
717 very rare post extinction it making it difficult to judge its size. It was not common
718 again until 2.3 Myr after the extinction, in the liasicus Chronozone, when it had re-
719 attained its pre-extinction size. *Cardinia ovalis* also cannot unequivocally be shown to
720 have a Lilliput trend, because the species is poorly known/very rare prior to the
721 extinction interval. During the Cotham Member (the extinction interval) *C. ovalis* is
722 small with specimens having few, closely spaced growth lines when compared to the
723 Hettangian when this species is bigger and has more growth lines that are typically
724 spaced at wider intervals. In summary, despite claims that the Lilliput Effect was
725 common during the end-Triassic mass extinction (Barras and Twitchett, 2007;
726 Clémence and Hart, 2013; Mander et al., 2008), it can only be clearly demonstrated
727 to have occurred for two species.

728

729 5.1.2 Brobdingnagians

730 Alongside *Plagiostoma giganteum*, Atkinson et al. (2019) reported the
731 Brobdingnag Effect in two other species of limid bivalves, here a further five species
732 of bivalve exhibit a clear Brobdingnag trend in the aftermath of the mass extinction:
733 *Lucinola limbata* Terquem & Piette, *Neocrassina (N.) gueuxii*, *Oxytoma (O.)*
734 *inequivalvis*, *Gresslya galathea* and *Pholadomya (Ph.) glabra*. These all exhibit a

735 size increase over a similar interval of time to that of *P. giganteum*. From growth
736 lines analysis of *P. giganteum* it was found that the size increase reflected increased
737 growth rates and to some extent a greater longevity (Atkinson et al., 2019), a similar
738 case in point is seen with *Ph. (Ph.) glabra* although there is a greater overlap in
739 growth rates between specimens measured from the *angulata* and *bucklandi*
740 chronozones. The *bucklandi*-aged specimens often have a greater number of growth
741 lines, here likely indicating an increased life span. Species of *Liostrea* may also show
742 a Brobdingnag trend as the genus exhibits increasing maximum size following the
743 mass extinction, however improved taxonomy is required to show this.

744 A further three species show a size increase over the span of the study
745 interval, *Entolium (E.) lunare*, *Pseudopecten (P.) equivalvis* and *Mactromya*
746 *cardioideum*. These three differ in having a delayed size increase that does not
747 begin until the Sinemurian or Pliensbachian, some 9 Myr after the end-Triassic mass
748 extinction. The size increase of *M. cardioideum* was driven solely by greater
749 longevity as the larger Pliensbachian specimens have similar growth line spacing but
750 more growth lines than those in the Hettangian/earliest Sinemurian.

751 The Brobdingnag Effect was a significant feature in the aftermath of the end-
752 Triassic mass extinction and was still important 17 Myr later, at the end of the
753 Pliensbachian Stage. The generally large size of bivalves in the *spinatum*
754 Chronozone was caused by the culmination of long-term size increase trends
755 amongst species that appeared earlier. The average size of newly arriving bivalves
756 does not feature a size increase for this time (Fig. 4B).

757

758 5.1.3 Cope's Rule

759 The role of Cope's Rule during the Hettangian and Pliensbachian phases of
760 size increase is hard to assess accurately as the ancestry of the new species is not
761 always clear. If assumptions are made that a geologically younger species is the
762 descendant of a geologically older species of the same genus (in cases where there
763 are multiple potential ancestors the most morphologically similar is chosen) then size
764 changes between these can be assessed. As demonstrated above, the Hettangian
765 size increase is facilitated by both the appearance of increasingly large new taxa and
766 also larger new species of pre-existing genera. However, when broken down further
767 there are as many instances of new species of a lineage being smaller than their
768 potential ancestor as there are those that display a Cope's Rule pattern. The
769 succession of species within the genera *Gresslya*, *Pholadomya*, *Oxytoma* and also
770 *Cardinia* show perhaps the best candidates for Cope's Rule. Although insufficient
771 material was measured during this study, Hodges (2000) also found an increase in
772 size between *Dacryomya heberti* (Martin) and *D. gaveyi* Cox between the
773 Sinemurian and Pliensbachian, a size trajectory that appears to have been sustained
774 in to the Toarcian with *D. ovum* (J. de C. Sowerby) (Caswell and Dawn, 2019).

775 This therefore suggests that Cope's Rule did play a role in the size increase in
776 the Lower Jurassic, but the Brobdingnag Effect is more crucial to explain the large
777 bivalves of the spinatum Chronozone.

778

779 5.1.4 No trends

780 Not all bivalves show a size trend in the Lower Jurassic. Some simply do not
781 alter their size (either significantly or with any distinct direction) across the duration of
782 the study. Examples of this include most species of protobranchs and

783 *Parainoceromya ventricosus*. *Camptonectes* size fluctuates during the Lower
784 Jurassic, but only shows a distinct pattern during the Sinemurian, when they show a
785 size reduction.

786

787 5.1.5 Those that get smaller

788 Alongside the previously reported *Plagiostoma punctatum* J. Sowerby
789 (Atkinson et al., 2019), there are three cases of bivalves reducing in size over the
790 same interval that others show a Brobdingnag trend. These are *Semuridia* sp., *Atreta*
791 *intusstriata* and *Modiolus* (M.) *minimus*. These inverse-Brobdingnags are not
792 Lilliputians because they exhibit a progressive reduction in body size during the
793 recovery.

794 The Sinemurian is marked by a general suppression of body size in the
795 bivalves (excluding the obtusum Chronozone; Fig. 4A); a phase herein referred to as
796 the Sinemurian Small Episode (SSE). The lowest point of the SSE is in the oxynotum
797 Chronozone when the data are all from the Cleveland Basin. Although this particular
798 basin hosts bivalves that are usually smaller than most other basins until the
799 Pliensbachian, the SSE is not merely an artefact of the relative contribution of
800 material measured from each basin because the SSE in the Cleveland Basin is
801 bracketed by comparably larger bivalves in the *bucklandi* and *jamesoni*
802 chronozones. The Mendips, EMS, Dorset and Bristol Channel Basin all show the
803 SSE where it is primarily expressed as an initial size reduction following the *angulata*
804 Chronozone size peak. *Plagiostoma giganteum* also shows a decrease in body size
805 at this time (Atkinson et al., 2019).

806 Other taxa that show concurrent size reductions are: *Cardinia listeri*,
807 *Neocrassina* (N.) *gueuxii*, *Camptonectes* and *Liostrea*. The SSE is expressed not
808 only as an intraspecific size reduction but also, those species that originate during
809 this interval are smaller compared to those that originated in the *angulata*
810 Chronozone. Thus, *Entolium* (E.) *lunare* and *Pseudopecten* (P.) *equivalvis* both
811 originate at small body sizes during this interval and increase in size during the
812 Pliensbachian. Additionally, new species of *Protocardia* and *Modiolus* are smaller
813 than their Hettangian predecessors.

814

815 5.1.6 *Gryphaea*

816 The evolutionary lineage of the oyster *Gryphaea* (*Gryphaea* (G.) *arcuata* - G.
817 (G.) *mccullochi* J. de C. Sowerby – G. (G.) *gigantea* J. de C. Sowerby) has been
818 widely reported (Hallam, 1975, 1968; Johnson, 1994; Jones and Gould, 1999; Nori
819 and Lathuilière, 2003). G. (G.) *arcuata* first appeared in the *angulata* Chronozone
820 and increases in size into the *bucklandi* Chronozone before decreasing in the
821 *semicostatum* Chronozone (Johnson, 1994). It is then replaced by the G. (G.)
822 *mccullochi* which is larger than the youngest G. (G.) *arcuata* specimens but does not
823 exceed the sizes of *Gryphaea* in the *bucklandi* Chronozone. Ironically, G. (G.)
824 *gigantea* first appears at a smaller size than its predecessor: G. (G.) *mccullochi*,
825 before increasing in size from the upper *jamesoni* Chronozone onwards (Johnson,
826 1994). The *angulata* – *bucklandi* Chronozone size increase and subsequent
827 reduction during the *semicostatum* Chronozone seen within G. (G.) *arcuata* matches
828 that seen in other bivalve species featured in this study. There is a paucity of
829 measured *Gryphaea* samples from the interval of the SSE with the only sample in
830 the *obtusum* Chronozone.

831

832 5.1.7 Bivalve size changes across Europe and beyond

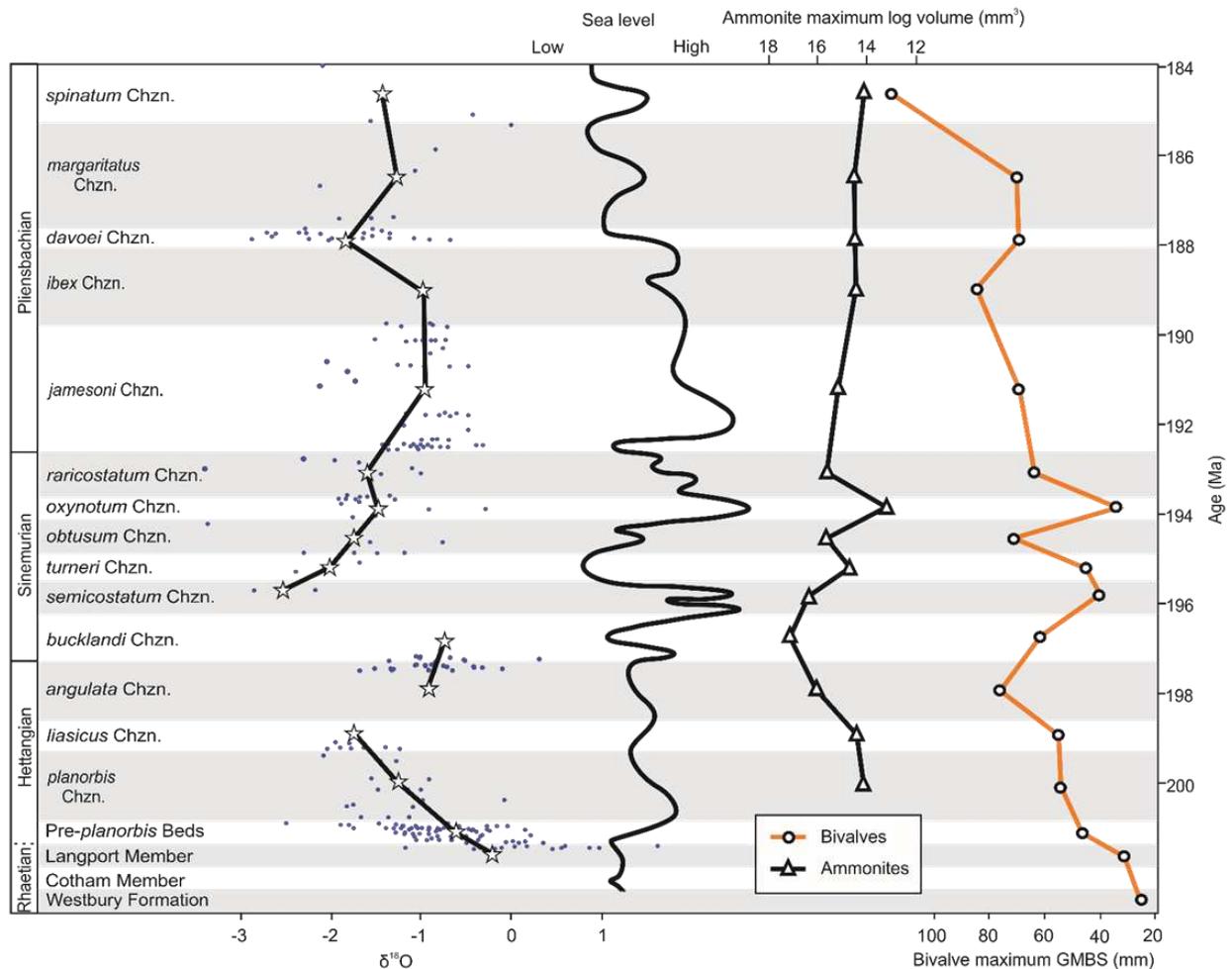
833 No other studies have systematically documented body size changes during
834 the Early Jurassic, but the available information suggest that the trends seen in
835 British bivalves are repeated elsewhere. Johnson (1984) reported size changes
836 within the Pectinidae and Propeamussidae and showed a size increase in *Entolium*
837 (*E.*) *lunare* and *Pseudopecten* (*P.*) *equivalvis* in Germany, *Camptonectes* and
838 *Chlamys* (*Chlamys*) *textoria* (Schlotheim) also show a size increase from the
839 Sinemurian to upper Pliensbachian of Germany. Data for the Hettangian are very
840 limited, only Hallam (1975) covers this interval albeit in scant detail: only the initial
841 and final maximum size of a species is documented. Hallam measured bivalves from
842 the collections of the British Museum (Natural History) that included collections from
843 Germany and France, and found a Hettangian to Pliensbachian size increase
844 indicating the trends occurred across the European shelf sea. Unfortunately there
845 are no other size data available from other regions such as the Tethyan realm,
846 although it is potentially noteworthy that sizes of Pliensbachian bivalves from Serbia
847 are comparable to those reported here (Radulović 2013).

848 Panthalassic records of bivalves from the South America have received
849 considerable attention (e.g. Aberhan, 1994; Damborenea, 1987a, 1987b;
850 Damborenea et al., 2017), although temporal size data is mostly absent.
851 Nonetheless, Damborenea's monographs (Damborenea, 2002, 1987a, 1987b)
852 present some 240 measured specimens from Argentina at Stage resolution but with
853 a dearth of Hettangian specimens. These indicate there is a size increase between
854 the Sinemurian and the Pliensbachian at the community level.

855

856 5.1.8 Size trends in other groups

857 Body size trend studies of other marine invertebrates are restricted to the
858 well-known Liassic ammonites. Dommergues et al. (2002) provide a compendium of
859 ammonite shell volumes per chronozone that can be compared to our bivalve
860 maximum body sizes (Fig. 17). For the Hettangian and Sinemurian, the two datasets
861 are remarkably consistent, both bivalves and ammonites show increasing maximum
862 sizes through the Hettangian. Peak ammonite size is attained in the bucklandi
863 Chronozone, slightly later than the bivalves (although if *Plagiostoma giganteum* data
864 of Atkinson et al. (2019) are included with our data herein the two maxima coincide).
865 Ammonites also show a size trough (the SSE) for much of the Sinemurian and
866 feature a brief renewal of size increase in the obtusum Chronozone, just as bivalves
867 do. The SSE is ended in both datasets by an increase in size from the oxynotum to
868 the raricostatum Chronozone. The remarkable congruence of bivalve and ammonite
869 data disappears in the Pliensbachian when ammonite shell volume decreased whilst
870 the bivalves showed two further increases in size during the ibex and spinatum
871 chronozones.



872

873 **Fig. 17 Temperature and sea level changes in relation to maximum GMBS of all**
 874 **bivalves and maximum log volume of ammonites. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ isotope curve compiled**
 875 **from Korte et al. (2009); Korte and Hesselbo (2011); van de Schootbrugge et al.**
 876 **(2007); Weedon (1987). Hollow stars depict time bin average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. Sea**
 877 **level curve derived from Hesselbo (2008); Hesselbo and Jenkyns (1998) and**
 878 **Wignall and Bond (2008). Maximum GMBS of bivalves from this study and**
 879 **maximum log volume of ammonites per ammonite chronozone from**
 880 **Dommergues et al. (2002).**

881

882 5.2 Possible causes of size change

883 5.2.1 Sea level, sediments and size

884 Three phases of size change occur amongst Rhaetian and Lower Jurassic
885 bivalves whereas there are four distinct phases of sedimentation in the British Isles.
886 The faunas of the Penarth Group lack any large bivalves, never exceeding 60 mm.
887 This has been attributed to abnormal salinities (Hallam and El Shaarawy, 1982;
888 Márquez-aliaga et al., 2010), as large bivalves are found elsewhere in normal marine
889 settings at this time (Hallam, 2002). The reduced body size seen in three species
890 during the extinction interval recorded in the Cotham Member could be linked to a
891 salinity control because this unit likely accumulated in hypersaline, brackish or even
892 freshwater conditions (Wignall and Bond, 2008), but other causes are considered
893 below.

894 Maximum size increases markedly from the Penarth Group to the Blue Lias
895 Formation and coincides with the development of normal marine conditions (Hallam
896 and El Shaarawy, 1982; Hesselbo et al., 2004). This change may have played a role
897 in bivalve size increase as demonstrated by *Cardinia ovalis*, which exhibited stunting
898 of growth and size during deposition of the Penarth Group but both improved during
899 the onset of fully marine conditions with no subsequent size change thereafter. The
900 change from the Lillstock to the Blue Lias Formation is also a change in substrate
901 consistency and this may explain the size reduction seen in *Atreta intusstriata*
902 because, during periods of firm substrate this species is found attached to the
903 seabed, something unachievable on soupy substrates when *A. intusstriata* could
904 attach only to other shells. This change is accompanied by a size reduction, perhaps
905 owing to limitations of space thus imposed.

906 For the remainder of the Hettangian, size increase occurs within the same
907 formation (the Blue Lias) whilst sea levels were fluctuating (Fig. 17). In itself these
908 sea level changes seem unlikely to have been responsible for the increased size

909 although bivalves generally decrease in size in deeper waters as shown by the
910 smaller average size of bivalves in deeper water setting of the Central Somerset
911 Basin. Oxygen deficiency was more prevalent in deeper waters, which may account
912 for the undersized nature of the bivalves there (Atkinson and Wignall, 2019). The
913 temporal size increase of bivalves in the Hettangian is superimposed on this
914 proximal-distal size trend and is not related to relative water depth changes.

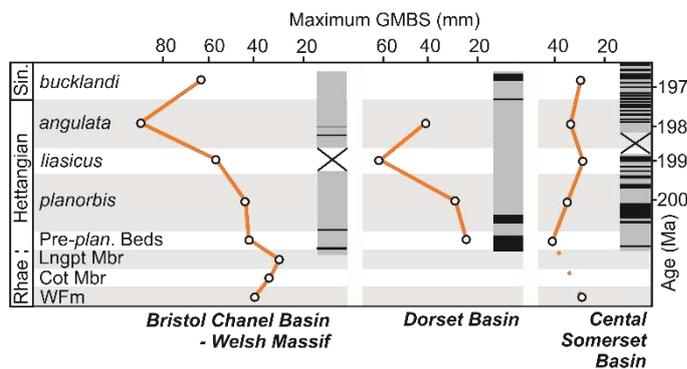
915 The initiation of the SSE is largely coincident with deepening (Hesselbo,
916 2008), and so could represent a depth control on size. This is supported during the
917 *turneri* Chronozone when a brief shallowing is coincident with a temporary size
918 increase seen in both the Dorset and Cleveland basins. The total bivalve database
919 (Fig. 17) shows this size increase continues into the *obtusum* Chronozone but this is
920 only seen on the EMS and is likely an effect of the Frodingham Ironstone, discussed
921 below. The end of the SSE coincides with a lowering of sea levels. But this tenuous
922 link to sea level falls apart in the *jamesoni* Chronozone when there is a significant
923 deepening and no consequent size reduction.

924 It seems apt to here summarize the relationship between large body sizes and
925 ironstones. For the *obtusum* Chronozone the largest bivalves occur in the
926 Frodingham Ironstone Member and likewise the largest bivalves from the *spinatum*
927 Chronozone are mostly from ironstone facies. Such sediments are thought to have
928 accumulated slowly on seafloor highs or shoals (Hallam and Bradshaw, 1979). The
929 well-aerated, clear waters together with increased nutrient supply likely favoured
930 bivalve growth in such settings (Johnson, 1984; Nicol, 1967). However, there
931 remains a question over the size increase seen in *Pseudopecten* (*P.*) *equivalvis* and
932 *Entolium* (*E.*) *lunare* between the *obtusum* and *spinatum* chronozones, which
933 occurred within similar ironstone facies, suggesting some other influence at play.

934

935 5.2.2 Redox

936 The degree of oxygenation within the Hettangian and earliest Sinemurian of
937 the British Isles has been assessed using pyrite framboid populations (Atkinson and
938 Wignall, 2019). These record a considerable degree of oxygen restriction throughout
939 the interval with no significant improvements or trends between the planorbis and
940 bucklandi chronozones. Bivalve sizes increased at this time (Fig. 18), indicating
941 there was little or no overall redox control. The deeper waters of the Central
942 Somerset Basin do however show more frequent intense intervals of water column
943 anoxia/dysoxia than seen in the shallower Glamorgan sections, which may account
944 for the smaller size of bivalves measured in the former location.



945

946 **Fig. 18 Maximum GMBS trends for the Bristol Channel Basin-Welsh Massif,**
947 **Dorset and Central Somerset basins and oxygenation states for each of the**
948 **three basins from Atkinson and Wignall (2019). Hollow circles show maximum**
949 **GMBS, from this study. Redox states are depicted as alternating grey and**
950 **black bars, the former indicate periods with dysoxic/oxic framboid size**
951 **distributions, black bars anoxic distributions, regions crossed out lack data.**
952 **Time bin abbreviations same as Fig. 5. Time scaled to Weedon et al. (2019).**

953

954 5.2.3 Temperature

955 The relationship between temperature and size is difficult to evaluate because
956 of a paucity of Lower Jurassic proxy data. The release of large volumes of
957 greenhouse gases during emplacement of the Central Atlantic Magmatic Province is
958 suggested to have caused intense global warming during the end-Triassic mass
959 extinction (Beerling and Berner, 2002). Evidence from decreasing leaf stomatal
960 density at the time suggests 3-4°C of atmospheric temperature increase across the
961 extinction interval (McElwain et al., 1999). Subsequent temperature fluctuations in
962 the Lower Jurassic are ill constrained, but the available data indicate no major
963 changes (Fig. 17). Korte et al. (2009) suggest sea-floor temperatures of between 7-
964 14°C for the upper Langport Member (and ostensibly a dramatic cooling from the
965 preceding hot conditions during Cotham deposition, presuming salinity has not
966 affected these results), rising to 12-22°C for the planorbis and lowermost liasicus
967 chronozones based on oxygen isotope ratios from oyster calcite. Oxygen isotope
968 data from the angulata and bucklandi chronozones indicate temperatures still within
969 this range (Weedon, 1987; Weedon et al., 2018), suggesting temperatures did not
970 drive the contemporaneous size increases.

971 The later Sinemurian to Pliensbachian has a more continuous oxygen isotope
972 record that indicates potentially warmer conditions (Korte and Hesselbo, 2011).
973 Temperature estimates for the semicostatum and turneri chronozones are 19-25°C ,
974 however these progressively cool to values that are again similar to the Hettangian
975 (13-21°C, Korte & Hesselbo, 2011), again suggesting that temperature was not the
976 cause of the SSE.

977 The patterns of size changes seen in the Pliensbachian are also unlikely to be
978 related to temperatures as no covariation is seen. Sizes increase in both mean and

979 maximum towards the ibex Chronozone, but temperature is poorly constrained at
980 this time (Fig. 17). The succeeding davoei Chronozone is considered a period of
981 brief warming (Dera et al., 2009; Gómez et al., 2016), prior to cooling in the latest
982 Pliensbachian (Bailey et al., 2003; Korte and Hesselbo, 2011; Rosales et al., 2004;
983 Suan et al., 2010) but bivalves show no significant body size change over this
984 interval.

985

986 5.2.4 Food availability

987 Food supply is a major factor affecting body size in modern marine molluscs
988 (Berke et al., 2013; Linse et al., 2006; Munroe et al., 2013; Olabarria and Thurston,
989 2003; Smith et al., 2008) and some authors use the size of bivalves as a proxy for
990 primary productivity (e.g. Vermeij 2011). To simply use a “size = productivity”
991 approach in this study would clearly be a case of circular reasoning. However, there
992 are other patterns that suggest improved food supply may have been a factor for the
993 size increase amongst Lower Jurassic bivalves. It is noteworthy that the deposit
994 feeding bivalve species, whose nutrition comes from within-sediment organic
995 detritus, do not show the increasing sizes seen amongst suspension feeding
996 bivalves. This trend could reflect an increased total abundance of suspended organic
997 matter at the seafloor or a change in the quality of the organic matter to larger
998 planktonic forms such as dinoflagellates. The works of van de Schootbrugge and
999 colleagues (van de Schootbrugge et al., 2007; van de Schootbrugge and Gollner,
1000 2013) suggest major changes amongst algal communities during the early
1001 Hettangian when green algae dominated. The latter provide poor-quality food for
1002 bivalves because of their small size and lack of essential nutrients (Brown et al.,
1003 1997; von Elert et al., 2003; Weiss et al., 2007). The intervals of green algal

1004 dominance also coincided with periods of black shale deposition (van de
1005 Schootbrugge et al., 2013, 2007; Xu et al., 2017) suggesting a possible influence of
1006 redox conditions but, as shown above, prevalence of dysoxia/anoxia correlates with
1007 neither size trends, nor recovery dynamics (Atkinson and Wignall, 2019). This
1008 suggests that improved food supply/quality may be a key control on size. This
1009 hypothesis requires testing with further studies of algal composition in the Lower
1010 Jurassic from understudied, younger intervals.

1011

1012 5.3 Body size and biotic recovery

1013 The importance of the Lilliput Effect in producing small bodied assemblages in
1014 the aftermath of a mass extinction was recently questioned (Atkinson et al., 2019),
1015 owing to its requirement for a species to survive the extinction to be considered a
1016 true Lilliput (Urbanek, 1993). Instead the Brobdingnag Effect was proposed, whereby
1017 new species originate during recovery at small a size and subsequently increase in
1018 size, thereby producing not only the small faunas in the immediate aftermath but also
1019 the increasing size suggested as a feature of biotic recovery (Atkinson et al., 2019).
1020 Following the end-Triassic mass extinction the Brobdingnag Effect has been shown
1021 for 11 (possibly 12) bivalve species whilst the Lilliput Effect only occurred in two
1022 (possibly three). The Brobdingnag Effect therefore dominated in the aftermath of the
1023 end-Triassic mass extinction and, in conjunction with Cope's Rule, produced bivalve
1024 communities of increasingly large sizes.

1025 Size increase provides an indicator of marine recovery that is unconnected
1026 with other factors that have been used to monitor post-extinction progress. Thus,
1027 ecological tiering recovers rapidly, in the early Hettangian, whilst bivalve diversity

1028 increase continued into the Pliensbachian (Atkinson and Wignall, 2019; Hallam,
1029 1996). Body size increase follows neither of these trends and is clearly monitoring a
1030 different and under-explored aspect of environmental recovery or change. As
1031 discussed above, temperature may exert some control on body size although food
1032 supply is potentially more important. The role of such factors and their significance
1033 during the recovery from other extinction crises remains to be explored.

1034

1035 **6. Conclusions**

1036 The recovery of bivalve communities following the end-Triassic mass
1037 extinction saw substantial, intraspecific size increase amongst many bivalves that
1038 persisted for 17 Myr and saw some bivalves increase their size by up to 476%. Such
1039 trends have been traditionally attributed to the Lilliput Effect: – the stunting of species
1040 in the harsh environmental conditions of the extinction interval and their subsequent
1041 size increase during recovery. However, this effect was minor, only 2-3 Lilliput
1042 species were found, instead the size trend is caused by the Brobdingnag Effect: – a
1043 within-species size increase of newly originated taxa. The Brobdingnag effect has
1044 been demonstrated for 11 filter-feeding species displaying diverse lifestyles but is not
1045 manifest amongst the deposit-feeding bivalves. In conjunction with this, newly
1046 appearing species are also progressively larger, with some aspect of this relating to
1047 Cope's Rule evolution (seen also in ammonite lineages). The mollusc populations of
1048 the Hettangian show an increase in average and maximum body size that was
1049 followed by a phase of reduced body size, here referred to as the Sinemurian Small
1050 Episode, before renewed size increase during the Pliensbachian. The geographic
1051 distribution of these size trends remains uncertain although the evidence available

1052 suggests that it occurred across much of the European shelf seas and possibly in the
1053 Tethys and Panthalassa oceans.

1054 Local environmental factors can be linked to size changes (small bivalves in the
1055 deeper, less well-ventilated waters, large bivalves in the ironstones) but they cannot
1056 explain secular trends in body size of both benthos and nekton. The size trends
1057 appear unrelated to temperature and redox trends but may link to improvements in
1058 food supply (both abundance and quality) available to filter-feeding bivalves. Body
1059 size trends in the aftermath of the end-Triassic mass extinction occurred over longer
1060 time scales compared to other recovery metrics such as diversity and ecological
1061 complexity, with the latter recovering in less than a million years (Atkinson and
1062 Wignall, 2019). Future investigations of long-term body size trends following other
1063 crises may reveal the legacy of such crises is considerably longer than appreciated.

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1078

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