

Cretaceous-Palaeogene incumbent replacement of associations of mollusc plankton and giant filter feeders (#20400)

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Cretaceous-Palaeogene incumbent replacement of associations of mollusc plankton and giant filter feeders

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Owing to their great diversity and abundance, ammonites and belemnites represented key elements in Mesozoic food webs. Because of their extreme ontogenetic size increase by up to three orders of magnitude, their position in the food webs likely changed during ontogeny. Here, we reconstruct the number of eggs laid by adult females of these cephalopods and discuss these developmental shifts in their ecologic roles. Based on similarities in conch morphology, size, habitat and abundance, we suggest that juvenile ammonites and belemnites were ecologically replaced by holoplanktonic gastropods after the Cretaceous/ Palaeogene mass extinction. As primary consumers, these extinct cephalopod groups were important constituents of the plankton and a principal food source for planktivorous organisms. As victims or, respectively, profiteers of this case of ecological replacement, filter feeding chondrichthyans and cetaceans likely filled the niches formerly occupied by large pachycormid fish during the Jurassic and Cretaceous.

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ABSTRACT

Owing to their great diversity and abundance, ammonites and belemnites represented key elements in Mesozoic food webs. Because of their extreme ontogenetic size increase by up to three orders of magnitude, their position in the food webs likely changed during ontogeny. Here, we reconstruct the number of eggs laid by adult females of these cephalopods and discuss these developmental shifts in their ecologic roles. Based on similarities in conch morphology, size, habitat and abundance, we suggest that juvenile ammonites and belemnites were ecologically replaced by holoplanktonic gastropods after the Cretaceous/ Palaeogene mass extinction. As primary consumers, these extinct cephalopod groups were important constituents of the plankton and a principal food source for planktivorous organisms. As victims or, respectively, profiteers of this case of ecological replacement, filter feeding chondrichthyans and cetaceans likely filled the niches formerly occupied by large pachycormid fish during the Jurassic and Cretaceous.

Subjects Palaeontology, Developmental Biology, Evolutionary Studies, Marine Biology, Zoology

Keywords Ammonoidea, Belemnitida, Pachycormiformes, Holoplanktonic Gastropoda, Fecundity, Mass Extinctions, Cretaceous, Palaeogene, Filter Feeders

INTRODUCTION

The fate of individual groups of marine organisms at mass extinction intervals is ~~often~~ well-studied (*Jablonski & Raup, 1994; Jablonski, 2008*). By contrast, the disappearance of entire communities or ecological associations or food webs or important parts of any of these structures from the geologic past still requires a lot of palaeontological research (*Hautmann, 2014; Hoffmann et al., 2014; Roopnarine & Angielczyk 2015*). Extinctions of entire communities or ecosystems are most conspicuous during the great mass extinctions, when usually vast new ecospace was freed and thereby, new ecological niches could form.

Although it is not the most severe of the Big Five, the end-Cretaceous mass extinction is likely the most famous among those with the greatest severity (*McGhee et al., 2013*). This fame roots in the facts that popular groups of organisms such as dinosaurs (*Sloan et al., 1986; Archibald & Fastovsky, 2004*) and ammonites (*Goolaerts, 2010; Kennedy, 1993; Landman et al., 2015*) were erased by the consequences of an impact in Mexico and flood-basalt-eruptions in India (*Keller et al., 2009; Miller et al., 2010; Schulte et al., 2010; Tobin et al., 2012*).

Marine communities were heavily affected as reflected in the partial or total disappearance of major groups such as ammonoids and belemnites (*Doyle, 1992; Marshall & Ward, 1996; Iba et al., 2011; Olivero, 2012; Landman et al. 2014*) as well as foraminifers (*Alvarez et al., 1980; Smit, 1982*) and bivalves (*Jablonski & Raup, 1994*). Ammonoids were both highly diverse and


evolved a great disparity in the course of the Cretaceous (*Ward & Signor, 1983; Ward, 1996*); some of the most bizarre forms such as *Nipponites*, *Diplomoceras* and *Didymoceras* appeared. Additionally, the largest ammonoids of all times, members of the family Puzosiidae, also lived during Cretaceous times (*Landois, 1895; Olivero & Zinsmeister, 1989; Kennedy & Kaplan, 1995*). Puzosiids are not only gigantic but they also occurred worldwide and in great numbers.

The great abundance, wide geographical distribution, extreme diversity, middle to giant size in combination with the likely high fecundity of ammonites raises questions (i) for Cretaceous marine food webs that partially relied on the adults as planktotrophic consumers, but particularly on their minute offspring as food source and (ii) what groups might have replaced ammonites, belemnites and their predators or had similar ecological roles including their positions in post-Cretaceous food webs.

METHODS

We estimated the fecundity of large Cretaceous ammonites such as *Parapuzosia seppenradensis* using the following facts, assumptions and measurements. (i) We know that the major part of egg-development happened in the body chamber (*De Baets et al., 2015; Mironenko & Rogov, 2015*); (ii) there is good evidence that the ammonitella represents the embryonic part of the conch (*De Baets et al., 2015*); (iii) we suggest that egg-size only slightly exceeded ammonitella-size because of their dense packing in fossils with embryos preserved in the body chamber (*De Baets et al., 2015; Mironenko & Rogov, 2015*); and (iv) we followed the proportion of 8% of the soft body volume being occupied by the gonads according to the proportions known from Recent *Nautilus* (*Tanabe & Tsukahara, 1987; Korn & Klug, 2007; De Baets et al., 2015*). As far as (iv) is concerned, there is some uncertainty because the proportions of the ovaries are poorly known

from ammonoids due to the extremely rare and fragmentary preservation of soft parts (Mironenko & Rogov, 2015; Lehmann, 1981; Lehmann, 1985; Klug & Lehmann, 2015; Klug et al., 2012). When regarding the specimens figured by Mironenko & Rogov (2015), one tends to assume that the gonads filled a much larger portion of the body chamber. This hypothesis finds further support in symmetric bulges in the posterior body chamber in mature *Pachydesmoceras* (Fig. 1) and scaphitid conchs (Kennedy, 1989). These bulges may have offered space for the growing ovaries. Owing to these materials and morphological adult modifications of ammonoid conchs, we calculated alternative maximum egg-numbers using a body chamber volume proportion occupied by gonads of 30%.

The largest specimen of the largest ammonite species *Parapuzosia seppenradensis* is incomplete (Landois, 1895; Kennedy & Kaplan, 1995). We estimated the adult body chamber volume and the surface area of the terminal aperture assuming a body chamber length of about 180 degrees because of shell traces of the missing conch part along the umbilical seam. Accordingly, the maximum diameter d_m can be reconstructed to have reached 2200 mm with a whorl height wh of about 800 mm and a whorl width ww of about 500 mm. The radiuses would then measure 1250 mm (r_1) at the terminal aperture and 950 mm (r_2) on the opposite side. Using the wh and ww values, we reconstructed a whorl cross section in CorelDraw and measured the area; accordingly, the cross section area K amounts to almost 320'000 mm² 

As demonstrated by De Baets et al. (2012), derived ammonoids likely had a high fecundity. This is corroborated by the great differences between embryo size and adult conch size. For example, in the largest specimen of *Parapuzosia seppenradense* from the Late Cretaceous of Germany, the embryonic conch measured about one millimeter in diameter at hatching, while the adult conch exceeded two meters in diameter (Kennedy & Kaplan 1995; De Baets et al., 2012;

De Baets et al., 2015; Korn & Klug, 2007; Landman et al., 1996; Tanabe et al., 2008). This implies a factor of at least 2000 in diameter increase between embryos and adult macroconchs. Embryonic conch size (ammonitella size) is well documented for most ammonoid clades (*De Baets et al., 2015*). In Cretaceous ammonoids, ammonitella size ranges between 0.5 and 1.5 mm with the average being smaller than 1 mm (*De Baets et al., 2015*).

In order to estimate the absolute gonad volume, we determined the body chamber volume VBC, which can be achieved by applying an equation introduced by *Raup & Chamberlain (1967)* and also used by *De Baets et al. (2012)*:

$$(1) V_{BC} = 2 / 3 * \pi * (K * Ra / \ln W) * (1 - W^{-3\theta/2\pi})$$

with K – area of the last aperture, Ra – distance coiling axis to center of mass (estimated 200 mm based on comparisons with species with similar conch shape: *Tajika et al. 2015; Naglik et al., 2016*), θ – angular length of the body chamber in radians (equals π here, because the body chamber is about 180° long), the whorl expansion rate for this particular body chamber length

$$(2) W = (r_1 / r_2)^{2\pi / \theta}$$

with r_1 – maximum conch diameter and r_2 – conch diameter 180° behind the aperture.

RESULTS

Estimating ammonoid fecundity

Applying the data and calculations listed in the methods section to the lectotype of *Parapuzosia seppenradense*, we obtain a whorl expansion rate W of 1.73 and then an according body chamber volume V_{BC} of 137'075'470 mm³. Depending on the proportion of the gonads (between 8 and 30%; see discussion in methods), we obtain gonad volumes varying between about 10'000'000 mm³ and 40'000'000 mm³. Assuming an egg-volume of 1 mm³, we obtain numbers of

10'000'000 to 40'000'000 eggs per adult female *Parapuzosia seppenradensis* if they were semelparous. If we assume iteroparity, these numbers increase by the factor of the number of reproductive cycles. Also, if we assume that the eggs and embryos continued to grow after they were laid, ammonoid fecundity would further increase, but evidence for this is missing in ammonoids (Mironenko & Rogov, 2015). For an adult female of half the diameter, we would obtain egg-numbers of between 3'000'000 (8% gonad volume) and 10'000'000 eggs (30% gonad volume) at semelparity. Puzosiids and other large Cretaceous ammonoids in the size range between 500 and 1000 mm are quite common worldwide (e.g. *Pachydesmoceras*).

The role of r-strategy in ammonite and belemnite ecology

Depending on the proportional gonad size and whether or not ammonites were semelparous or iteroparous, it appears likely that adult females of the largest puzosiid ammonites such as *Parapuzosia seppenradensis* laid between 10'000'000 and 100'000'000 eggs and ammonoids about half the size still over 1'000'000 eggs. The simple calculation above itself highlights the likelihood that derived ammonites were extreme r-strategists, which produced vast amounts of offspring, likely contributing an important part of the plankton in size at the limit from micro- to macroplankton. High fecundity corresponded with high mortality and it is likely that hatchlings and juveniles of ammonites formed a major source of food in the marine realm.

As far as belemnites are concerned, their global abundance had decreased in the Late Cretaceous already, freeing ecospace for, e.g., other coleoids (Iba et al., 2011). Nevertheless, coleoids with conical phragmocones such as belemnites, diplobelids, *Groenlandibelus* or *Naefia* share a small initial chamber and likely small embryonic conchs (Bandel et al., 1984). Accordingly, we can assume that their fecundity was also high, although much lower than those

of the puzosiid ammonites because of the much lower size difference between adults and embryos (about 100 to 1000 eggs per female).

Which animals ate ammonites?



Evidence for successful and unsuccessful predation on medium to large-sized ammonites is not rare but identifying the actual predator is possible only in very few cases (*Keupp, 2012; Hoffmann & Keupp, 2015*). Additionally, most hard parts of ammonites (conch and lower jaw) were likely crushed by the predators and quickly dissolved in the digestive tract, making ammonites as fossilized stomach contents improbable, although a few cases have been reported where juvenile ammonoid remains are preserved in stomachs of Jurassic ammonites (*Klug & Lehmann, 2015*). It is even more difficult to find evidence for predators that fed on hatchlings and neanic juveniles of ammonites ($dm < 10\text{ mm}$), which must have occurred in vast numbers in the world's oceans of the Mesozoic. These early post-hatching developmental stages probably lived in the water column because their conchs already had functional phragmocones and they are often found in black shales, which were deposited under hypoxic to anoxic bottom water conditions and therefore, a strictly benthic mode of life was impossible (*Nützel & Mapes, 2001; Mapes & Nützel, 2008*). Thus, pelagic nektonic animals (including older growth stages of ammonites) are the likeliest candidates as predators feeding on these young ammonites (Fig. 2). For abundant and easy prey like juvenile ammonites, a broad range of predators can be hypothesized. Like plankton today, these masses of juvenile ammonites represent perfect food sources for medium-sized to large suspension feeders (invertebrates and vertebrates). From the Cretaceous, giant planktivorous bony fishes (pachycormids: *Friedman et al., 2010*) have been suggested to be nektonic suspension feeders, which might have fed on plankton comprising a

wealth of juvenile ammonites. In the SOM of their paper, *Friedman et al. (2010)* show a fragment of the gill rakers; their filaments have a spacing of about 1 mm, which is suitable to filter out hatchlings and juvenile ammonites with conchs of a few millimeter diameter (Fig. 3). This trophic relationship is further corroborated by the extinction of ~~this group~~ synchronous with the demise of the Ammonoidea and Belemnitida ~~but direct evidence is missing~~. Taking the direct fossil evidence from the Jurassic into account, it appears likely that ammonites also played a role as micropredators feeding on early juvenile ammonite offspring (*Klug & Lehmann, 2015; Keupp, 2012; Kruta et al. 2011*).

The extreme differences in size (up to three orders in magnitude) between adults and juveniles in large ammonites indicate that the range of potential predators changed significantly throughout the life history of these cephalopods. As hatchlings and small juvenile planktonic forms, moderate-sized to large suspension feeders and small predators likely used them as a food source but for adult puzosiids, only large predators such as mosasaurs, pliosaurs and large fishes can be considered, although the seeming direct evidence for such a trophic relationship is still under debate (*Kauffman & Kesling 1960*). Late Cretaceous ammonites were probably not the primary food source of ichthyosaurs since the latter ~~became extinct already~~ in the Cenomanian whereas ammonites persisted ~~to be~~ diverse and abundant; ~~in spite of a better link of their demise~~ with the extinction of belemnites in the North Pacific near the end of the Early Cretaceous (*Iba et al. 2011*), belemnite decline in the Tethys at the CTB (*Doyle, 1992; Christensen, 2002*) and direct evidence for a trophic relationship between phragmocone-bearing coleoids and ichthyosaurs (*Kear et al., 1995*, and references therein), *Acikkol (2015)* suggested that a link between the severe reduction of belemnite diversity and ichthyosaur extinction is unlikely.

Which groups filled the ecospace freed by the extinction of ammonite hatchlings and planktivorous actinopterygians?

Association of the extinctions of large marine reptiles, large planktivorous fish and ~~those of~~ ammonites suggest trophic relationships between these groups; their extinction freed ecospace for both small zooplankton and suspension feeders. This association coincides with other major changes in the planktonic realm, especially the rise of holoplanktonic gastropods. Although a few Early Jurassic to Cretaceous heteropods are known (*Bandel & Hemleben, 1995; Nützel, 2014; Teichert & Nützel, 2015; Nützel et al. 2016*), the major expansion of heteropods and ‘pteropods’ falls into the Cenozoic (*Tracey et al., 1993*).

In size and their coiled form, many fossil Limacinidae (Thecosomata, planktonic opisthobranch gastropods) resemble ammonites. Similarly, the conchs of fossil Creseidae morphologically and in size (at least roughly) correspond to hatchlings of belemnites, diplobelids and other phragmocone-bearing coleoids of the Cretaceous (*Bandel et al., 1984; Lokho & Kumar, 2008*). In addition to these morphologic similarities, these groups shared the planktonic habitat. According to *Janssen & King (1988, 2013)*, ‘pteropods’ were already present as early as the latest Palaeocene. A number of Eocene pteropod occurrences is known worldwide (*Bristow et al., 1980; King, 1981; Curry, 1982; Zorn, 1991; Hodgkinson et al., 1992; Janssen et al., 2007; Lokho & Kumar, 2008; Ando et al., 2009; Cahuzac & Janssen, 2010*). An early Palaeogene origin is supported by a combination of palaeontological and molecular clock data published by *Corse et al. (2013)*. The latter authors even compare the uncoiling of the conch of Thecosomata with the coiling of ammonites, but they did not discuss macroecological implications. As far as abundance of these fossils is concerned, pteropods are much less frequent than subadult to adult ammonites and belemnites, while their hatchlings are similarly rare. This is

probably due to the combination of their small body size as well as their thin and fragile aragonitic shells (*Janssen & King, 1988*), which did not provide a high fossilization potential. The great majority of these thin aragonitic shells ~~was~~ undoubtedly rapidly dissolved during early diagenesis and as a consequence not fossilized. Nevertheless, the fact that quite a few pteropods have been reported from the Eocene implies that they were abundant and widely distributed since that ~~period of~~ time.

Similarities in size, overall morphology, habitat, abundance as well as the timing of their respective extinction and origination suggest that hatchlings and small individuals of ammonites as well as belemnites were ecologically replaced by planktonic opisthobranchs (Thecosomata) and other holoplanktonic gastropods. In turn, the ecological ~~instalment~~ of the Thecosomata contributed to the dietary basis for the evolution of new groups of large planktivorous suspension feeders. As suggested by *Friedman et al. (2010)*, the Cretaceous ‘giant planktivorous bony fishes’ found an ecological replacement in both large suspension-feeding chondrichthyans and baleen whales. Several of these groups are known to take in important amounts of planktonic gastropods, although not exclusively. Today, thecosomes may contribute up to 50% of the zooplanktonic biomass and thus are ecologically important (*Mackas & Galbraith, 2012*). ~~However, today’s Manta rays (Mobulidae) are known to feed predominantly on small Crustaceans, and the same holds true for several baleen whales. Nevertheless, it is somewhat unclear what these early Palaeogene suspension feeders ate, but at least~~ the filter mesh spacing of both planktivorous chondrichthyans and several baleen whales fits well with the size range of thecosomes.

CONCLUSIONS

233 Large late Cretaceous ammonites such as puzosiids reached sizes exceeding two meters in
 234 diameter. Their offspring has a conch size that is in stark contrast to the adult size; the embryonic
 235 conchs of many Cretaceous ammonites measure only about 1 mm in diameter at the time of
 236 hatching. This size relationship, conch geometry and anatomical proportions allow estimates of
 237 the number of offspring per female. Accordingly, the largest females might have laid between
 238 10'000'000 (semelparity, small gonads) and 100'000'000 eggs (iteroparity, large gonads). Apart
 239 from this extreme example, the great abundance of ammonites, many of them of considerable
 240 size as adults, throughout the Mesozoic and the generally small size of their offspring implies
 241 that juvenile ammonites and belemnites played a fundamental role near the base of Mesozoic
 242 food webs, both as primary consumers and as food source for secondary consumers. We assume
 243 that Mesozoic oceans were full of small hatchlings and juveniles of ammonites and belemnites in
 244 the mm to cm size range. This part of the planktonic food chain vanished with the extinction of
 245 ammonites and belemnites but may have enabled the evolutionary and ecological rise of
 246 holoplanktonic gastropod, which occupy a similar size range, conch morphologies (coiled and
 247 straight) and trophic role. This underlines the importance of ecological differentiation between
 248 different ontogenetic stages. Gill raker filament spacing in huge pachycormids correspond in size
 249 to these juvenile ammonites, suggesting a trophic link in the light of the synchronous extinction
 250 at the end of the Cretaceous.



251 Here, we suggest that the ecospace formerly occupied by ammonite and belemnite juveniles
 252 was filled during the post-Mesozoic rise of holoplanktonic gastropods like, e.g., the Palaeocene
 253 expansion of the Thecosomata (holoplanktonic heterobranchs). As far as the incumbent
 254 replacement of the pachycormids is concerned, it is a bit more difficult. During the early
 255 Palaeogene, three important large planktivorous lineages of chondrichthyans occur; however,

modern mobulids (Manta rays), for instance, are known to feed on planktonic Crustaceans. Perhaps, stomach contents of exceptionally preserved specimens of Palaeogene planktivorous chondrichthyans will shed more light on the suspension feeders that, at least in their function as primary consumers, profited from the thecosomes that ecologically replaced juvenile ammonites. Independent of the filter feeder-side, we conclude that in r-strategists, the young offspring can play a more important ecological role than their large adults. This case of incumbent replacement underlines the significance of differences at which developmental stage the acme in ecological importance of an organism occurs.

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Competing Interests

All authors confirm that there are no competing financial interests.

Author contributions

- Amane Tajika wrote much of the first version and produced parts of the illustrations.
- Christian Klug formulated the initial hypotheses, contributed to the first draft and produced parts of the illustrations.
- Alexander Nützel provided data and information related to gastropods and wrote parts of the final version.
- All authors were included in several rounds of revisions of the manuscript.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1 Adult ammonites (A-C), juvenile ammonites (D, E), and an embryonic belemnite (F) compared to fossil conchs of Thecosomata from the Eocene of India (G-J). 0.1 mm-scale bar applies to figures D to J. Photo in A courtesy C. Steinweg, L. Schöllmann and J.-O. Kriegs (all Münster); D and E from *Tanabe et al. (2008)*; F from *Bandel et al. (1984)*; G to J from *Lokho & Kumar (2008)*. A. *Parapuzosia seppenradensis*, Campanian, Seppenrade. B, C. *Pachydesmoceras* sp., Campanian, Hokkaido, diameter 1.3 m, D. Aiba (Mikasa) for scale. Note the symmetrical bulges in the posterior body chamber in C. D, juvenile conch of *Scaphites whitfieldi*, AMNH 44833, Turonian, U.S.A. E, embryonic conch of *Aconeceras* cf. *trautscholdi*, UMUT MM 29439–4, Aptian, Russia. F, embryonic conch of *Hibolithes* sp., GPIT Ce 1599, Callovian, Lithuania. G to J, Upper Disang Formation, Phek District, Nagaland. G, H, Limacinidae spp. I, J, Creseidae spp.

Figure 2 Occurrences, extinctions, originations and diversity changes in plankton and large planktotrophic suspension feeders from the Cretaceous to the Palaeogene (mass extinction marked by red bar). Data from *Friedmann et al. (2010)*, *Bristow et al. (1980)*, *Corse et al. (2013)*, *Yacobucci (2015)* and *Jarman (2001)*.

Figure 3 Zooplankton size ranks and filter mesh spacing of planktivorous filter feeders.

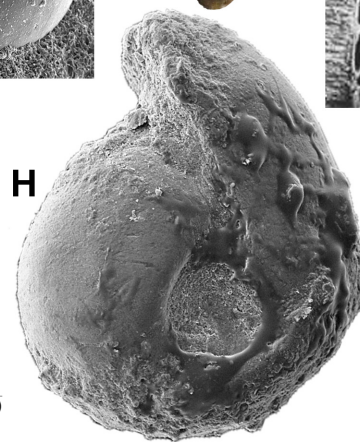
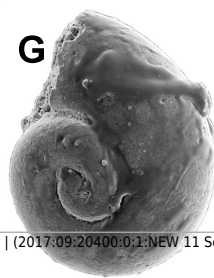
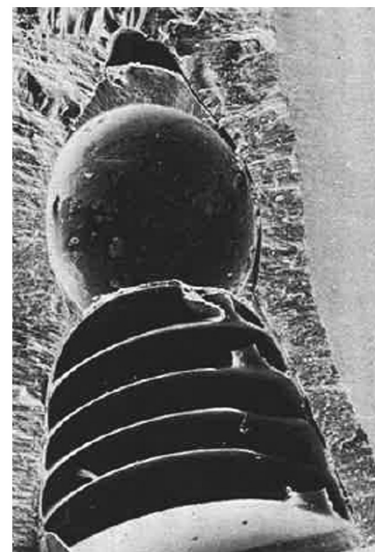
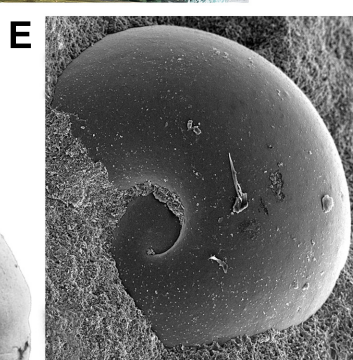
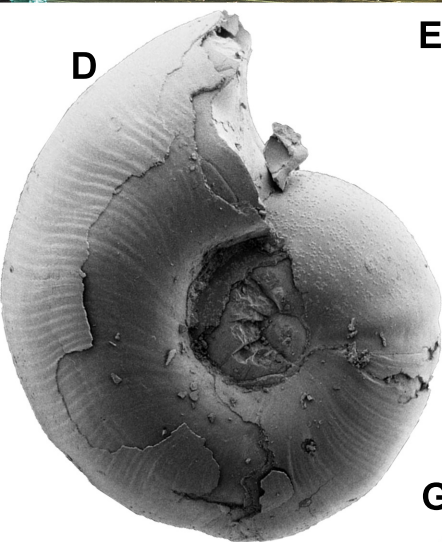
Modified after *Vinther et al. (2014)*, using data from *Lokho & Kumar (2008)*, *Friedman et al. (2010)* and *De Baets et al. (2015)*.

Figure 1(on next page)

Adult ammonites (A-C), juvenile ammonites (D, E), and an embryonic belemnite (F) compared to fossil conchs of Thecosomata from the Eocene of India (G-J).

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0.1 mm

Figure 2 (on next page)

Zooplankton size ranks and filter mesh spacing of planktivorous filter feeders.

Figure 3 Zooplankton size ranks and filter mesh spacing of planktivorous filter feeders. Modified after *Vinther et al. (2014)*, using data from *Lokho & Kumar (2008)*, *Friedman et al. (2010)* and *De Baets et al. (2015)*.

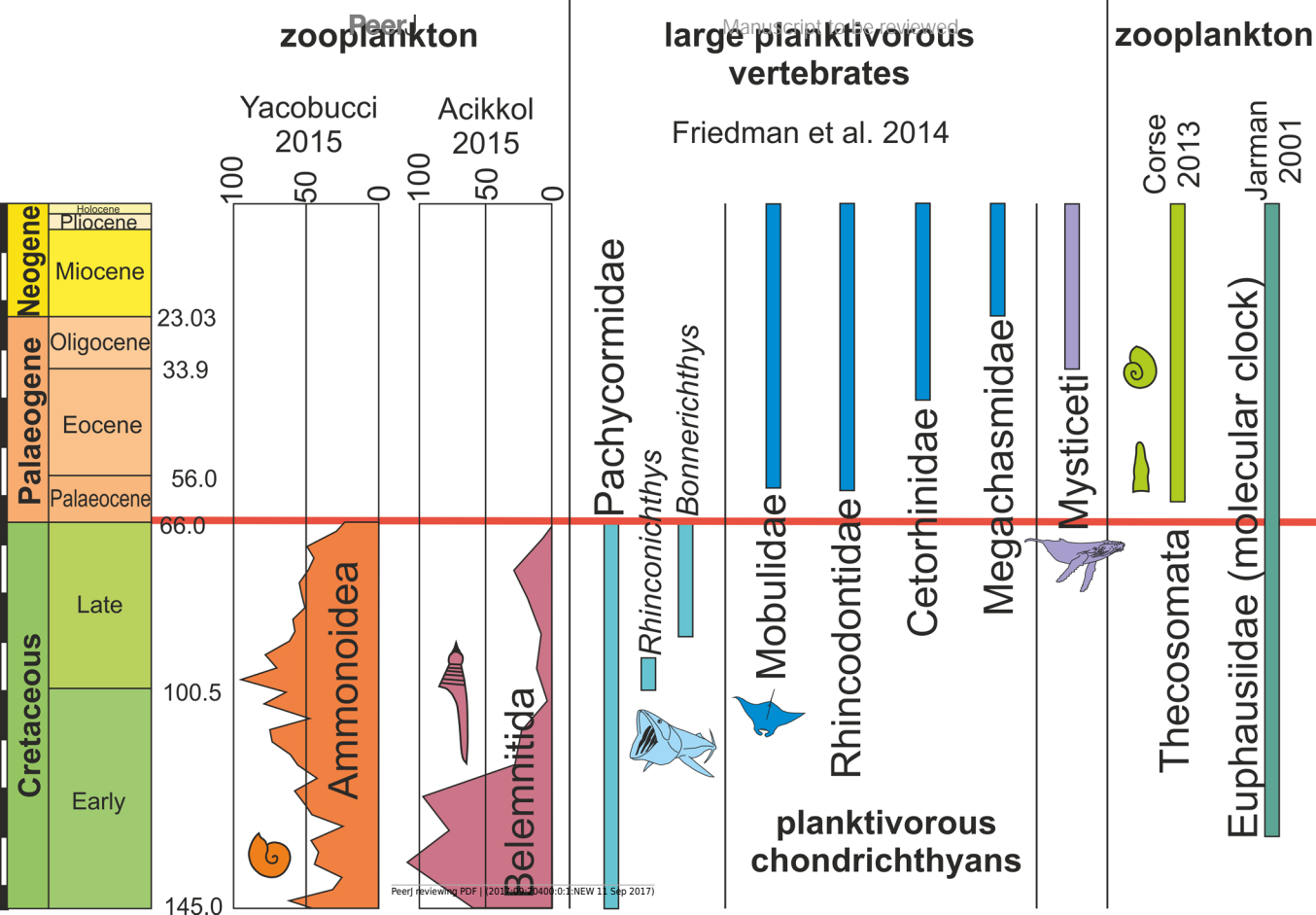


Figure 3 (on next page)

Occurrences, extinctions, originations and diversity changes in plankton and large planktotrophic suspension feeders from the Cretaceous to the Palaeogene

Figure 2 Occurrences, extinctions, originations and diversity changes in plankton and large planktotrophic suspension feeders from the Cretaceous to the Palaeogene (mass extinction marked by red bar).

Data from *Friedmann et al. (2010)*, *Bristow et al. (1980)*, *Corse et al. (2013)*, *Yacobucci (2015)* and *Jarman (2001)*.

Planktonic prey size

