

1 **Title: Habitat availability, Jurassic and Cretaceous origins of the deep-**
2 **bodied shark morphotype, and the rise of pelagic sharks**

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26 **Abstract**

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28 Macroevolutionary trends in morphology fundamentally shape our understanding of marine
29 ecosystems through deep time. Sharks (Elasmobranchii: Selachii) have been suggested to
30 broadly exhibit two discrete body forms: one ‘shallow-bodied’ form associated with slow-
31 moving benthic species, and a ‘deep-bodied’ form typified by highly active pelagic taxa.
32 Until now, the validity or evolution of these body forms have not been tested in a
33 phylogenetic framework. In this study, we reconstruct the evolutionary history of shark body
34 form and provide statistical evidence to suggest three broadly discrete body forms among
35 extant species. We find support for a benthic origin of sharks, with four discrete transitions to
36 a pelagic-type morphology occurring during the Jurassic and Cretaceous. Increased habitat
37 availability during this time, driven by a combination of elevated sea temperature, eustatic
38 sea level rise, continental fragmentation, and diversification trends of actinopterygians and
39 marine reptiles could have facilitated the colonisation of the pelagic realm by Mesozoic
40 sharks, and the repeated independent evolution of body form consistent with extant pelagic
41 species. We also propose that habitat availability and its taphonomic consequences may
42 explain discordance between origination times suggested by molecular phylogenies and the
43 fossil record.

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48 **Introduction**

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50 Modern sharks (Elasmobranchii: Selachii) are thought to have originated at least 200 million
51 years ago (Janvier and Pradel, 2015). Despite substantial fluctuations in diversity, they
52 remain a functionally important component of modern ecosystems from an ecological
53 perspective (Guinot and Cavin, 2016, 2020; Ferretti et al., 2010; Heithaus et al., 2010; Janvier
54 and Pradel, 2015). The ecological diversity of extant sharks is substantial (Ferretti et al.,
55 2010; Heithaus et al., 2010; Munroe et al., 2014), facilitated at least in part by morphological
56 disparity (Gayford and Jambura, 2025). Adult body size varies amongst sharks by ~8,000%
57 (Ebert et al., 2021), and various peculiar morphologies exist, such as the cephalofoil of
58 hammerheads (Sphyrnidae) and the elongated caudal fin of thresher sharks (Alopiidae).

59 Comparative phylogenetic studies have shown that morphological diversity and disparity in
60 different components of shark morphology are associated with distinct patterns of ecological
61 and phylogenetic signals (Bazzi et al., 2021; Gayford et al., 2024; López-Romero et al., 2023;
62 Sternes et al., 2024). Examples of such patterns include correlations between cranial and
63 pectoral morphology with depth and sea surface temperature, respectively (Gayford et al.,
64 2024; Sternes et al., 2024). These correlations provide important insights into potential
65 ecological drivers of trait evolution and morphological disparity, and the extent to which
66 these drivers may differ across different morphological features (Gayford et al., 2024).

67

68 Despite the highly specialised morphologies of some species, the body form of sharks is
69 strongly conserved, with extant taxa falling into a small number of broad morphotypes
70 delineated by ecological lifestyle. Early work by Thomson and Simanek (1977) suggested the
71 presence of four principal body forms: the fast-swimming pelagic morphotype, the
72 generalised carcharhinid morphotype, the benthic morphotype, and the squalomorph
73 morphotype. Subsequently, Sternes and Shimada (2020) performed a revised analysis of body
74 form in sharks using a substantially enlarged dataset, confirming the close relationships

75 between ecological lifestyle and body form (Wainwright, 1991). However, this later study
76 recovered only two morphotypes: 1) a shallow-bodied shark with a more posteriorly placed
77 first dorsal fin, and a caudal fin with a more horizontal upper lobe, lower aspect ratio
78 ($\text{span}^2/\text{area}$) (Group A), and 2) a deep-bodied shark with a more anteriorly placed first dorsal
79 fin, and a caudal fin with a more upright upper lobe, and higher aspect ratio (Group B).
80 Although exceptions do exist, the former of these two morphotypes consists primarily of
81 benthic and benthopelagic taxa, whereas the latter contains the vast majority of pelagic sharks
82 (Sternes and Shimada, 2020). Whilst these studies (Sternes and Shimada, 2020; Thomson and
83 Simanek, 1977) were valuable to our understanding of morphological evolution in
84 cartilaginous fishes and posed several hypotheses regarding the evolutionary history of shark
85 body form, they did not utilise comparative phylogenetic methods. This represents a major
86 limitation as phylogenetic non-independence can influence perceived relationships between
87 morphology and ecology. Moreover, a lack of empirical analyses to estimate ancestral states
88 means that we have only limited understanding of how and when shark body forms have
89 changed over geological time.

90

91 Throughout the Mesozoic and Cenozoic eras, genetic and fossil data indicate that the
92 taxonomic diversity of sharks underwent substantial changes (Brée et al., 2022; Guinot and
93 Cavin, 2016, 2020; Maisey et al., 2004). Similar shifts in diversity are observed in other
94 marine vertebrate lineages during this time, including both actinopterygians and marine
95 reptiles (Cavin et al., 2007; Guinot and Cavin, 2016; Stubbs and Benton, 2016). Faunal
96 turnover of this nature is often linked, at least in part, to broad-scale shifts in environmental
97 conditions, including continental fragmentation, sea level and sea surface temperature (Cavin
98 et al., 2007; Tennant et al., 2016; Zaffos et al., 2017). However, to date, no study has
99 explicitly examined how these factors may have influenced the evolution of body form in

100 sharks. Here, we estimate the timing of past evolutionary transitions in shark body form to
101 better understand the potential evolutionary drivers of these shifts. We also test the supposed
102 relationship between shark body form and ecological lifestyle (Sternes and Shimada, 2020)
103 using an empirical phylogenetic framework. We consider each of the three environmental
104 parameters discussed above (eustatic sea level, continental fragmentation and sea surface
105 temperature) as well as faunal turnover, and how they may have influenced the evolution of
106 pelagic and benthic morphotypes observed in modern shark lineages, both directly and
107 indirectly. These results not only improve our understanding of trait evolution and
108 diversification in sharks but also provide insights into the eco-evolutionary dynamics
109 operating in past marine ecosystems.

110

111 **Methodology**

112 **Data Collection**

113 We extracted body form data for 452 extant shark species (including representatives from all
114 orders) from Sternes and Shimada (2020). Sternes and Shimada (2020) used a geometric
115 morphometric approach to studying body form (including 13 fixed type II landmarks and 50
116 semilandmarks, cumulatively accounting for variation in the shape of the lateral body profile,
117 the head, and fins), arguing for the presence of two broad categories of body form (Group A
118 and Group B) on the basis of apparent clustering in morphospace. The authors noted that
119 Group B contains most of the extant pelagic species, whereas benthic species comprised a far
120 greater proportion of Group A (Sternes and Shimada, 2020). However, no statistical analysis
121 was performed to support the groupings adopted in this study. Hence, to eliminate the need
122 for any a priori assumptions, we extracted raw principal component values (specifically the
123 first 222 principal components, cumulatively explaining over 99.9% of the observed
124 variance) for each species.

125

126 We also gathered ecological lifestyle data from *Sharks of the World: A Complete Guide*
127 (Ebert et al., 2021), categorising species as either pelagic, benthic, or benthopelagic,
128 following the approach of Sternes et al. (2024). We coded each species as ‘benthic’ based on
129 habitat keywords of ‘benthic,’ ‘on muddy bottom,’ ‘on sediment,’ ‘bottom on insular
130 continental shelves.’ Species were coded as ‘benthopelagic’ based on the key terms of
131 ‘demersal,’ ‘near bottom,’ or ‘near continental shelves.’ Species were coded as ‘pelagic’
132 based on the keywords of ‘pelagic,’ ‘epipelagic,’ ‘bathypelagic,’ ‘open ocean,’ or ‘oceanic’
133 (note: functionally, water depth is not critical for classification of pelagic). This classification
134 scheme is not free of limitations and is likely an oversimplification, where previous studies
135 have identified over 20 shark ecomorphotypes (Compagno, 1990; White et al., 2022).
136 However, *Sharks of the World* (Ebert et al., 2021) is the most comprehensive and rigorous
137 source of data regarding ecological lifestyle in extant sharks, comparable in scope and detail
138 to the Fishbase database (Froese and Pauly, 2010), which is commonly used as a source of
139 ecological data for comparative phylogenetic studies of morphology. Moreover, *Sharks of the*
140 *World* (Ebert et al., 2021) is standardised, as it has been compiled by the same authors and
141 using fixed criteria, as opposed to a variety of sources as in Fishbase.

142

143 To assess the extent to which macroevolutionary shifts may be associated with shifts in
144 habitat availability and global climate, we extracted data for Mesozoic and Cenozoic eustatic
145 sea level, continental fragmentation and sea surface temperature from Haq (2014, 2018),
146 Scotese et al. (2021) and Zaffos et al. (2017) respectively.

147

148 All analyses were based on the molecular phylogeny proposed by Stein et al. (2018). The
149 original tree file contained 10,000 trees and 10 calibration points. We pruned each tree to

150 match the taxa in our analyses (see above, and supplementary data) using the *drop.tip*
151 function in the R package *ape* (Paradis and Schliep, R Core Team, 2024). The pruned trees
152 were then loaded into TreeAnnotator in Beast 2.7.1 (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007) to
153 generate a maximum clade credibility tree using the default settings (burn-in percentage = 10;
154 posterior probability limit = 0.0; node heights = common ancestor heights). The resulting tree
155 contained 452 taxa of modern sharks (Selachii).

156

157 **Data analysis**

158 All analyses were performed in the R statistical environment (R Core Team, 2024).

159 To assess statistical support for discrete body form groupings (such as those proposed in
160 Sternes and Shimada (2020)), we performed an optimal cluster analysis using the principal
161 component data, in the *nbclust* package (Charrad et al., 2014). We used a k-means algorithm
162 for clustering, grouping species into clusters such that the distance between data points and
163 their associated cluster centre is minimised. We compared the fit of cluster alignments
164 ranging from 2 to 10 clusters to determine the global optimum cluster alignment.

165

166 Using the optimal cluster groupings (see results) as a discrete variable, we calculated a
167 generalised form of Blomberg's K statistic ' K_{mult} ' (Adams, 2014) to test the influence of
168 phylogenetic non-independence on body form in sharks using the *phylosig* function in the
169 *phytools* package (Revell, 2024). K_{mult} values greater than 1 are associated with strong
170 phylogenetic signal, whereas values lower than 1 suggest that phylogeny has little influence
171 on observed trait distribution relative to Brownian Motion expectations (Adams, 2014).

172

173 To test for statistical associations between habitat and body form in sharks within a
174 phylogenetic framework, we performed a series of phylogenetic ANOVAs in the *phytools*

175 package (Revell, 2024). This is a simulation-based method of fitting phylogenetically-
176 informed ANOVAs, following the approach of Garland et al. (1993). The model fit is
177 compared to 1000 simulations to obtain a p value. Body form (the optimal groupings
178 recovered from our cluster analysis) and ecological lifestyle were coded as discrete variables.
179 As ecological lifestyle consists of three categories, two separate ANOVAs were fitted, one
180 treating benthopelagic species as benthic and another treating them as pelagic. Fitting both of
181 these ANOVAs helps alleviate the intrinsic uncertainty associated with definitions of
182 'benthopelagic'. Three additional phylogenetic ANOVAs were then fit, testing for correlation
183 between body form and the presence/absence of each ecological lifestyle.

184

185 To estimate the timing and direction of past transitions in shark body form and habitat, we
186 performed ancestral state reconstruction using a stochastic character mapping approach and
187 assuming a Mk model of trait evolution. The Mk model describes a discrete k-state Markov
188 process in which evolutionary changes between discrete states can occur at any time, and the
189 rate of change depends only on the current state and not on any previous states (Revell and
190 Harmon, 2022). We fit six different Mk models, three modelling the rate of change among
191 body form groupings, and three modelling the rate of change among habitat groupings. In
192 both cases, we fit the following models: an equal rates (ER) model that assumes that the
193 transition rates between all pairs of states are equal, a symmetrical (SYM) model that
194 assumes transition rates within state pairs are equal but can vary between different state pairs,
195 and an 'all rates different' (ARD) model that does not assume any transition rates to be equal.
196 We compared the fit of these models on the basis of AIC values.

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198 To calculate the posterior probability of respective habitat and body form states at each node
199 of the phylogeny, we finally simulated 10,000 stochastic character maps using our MCC

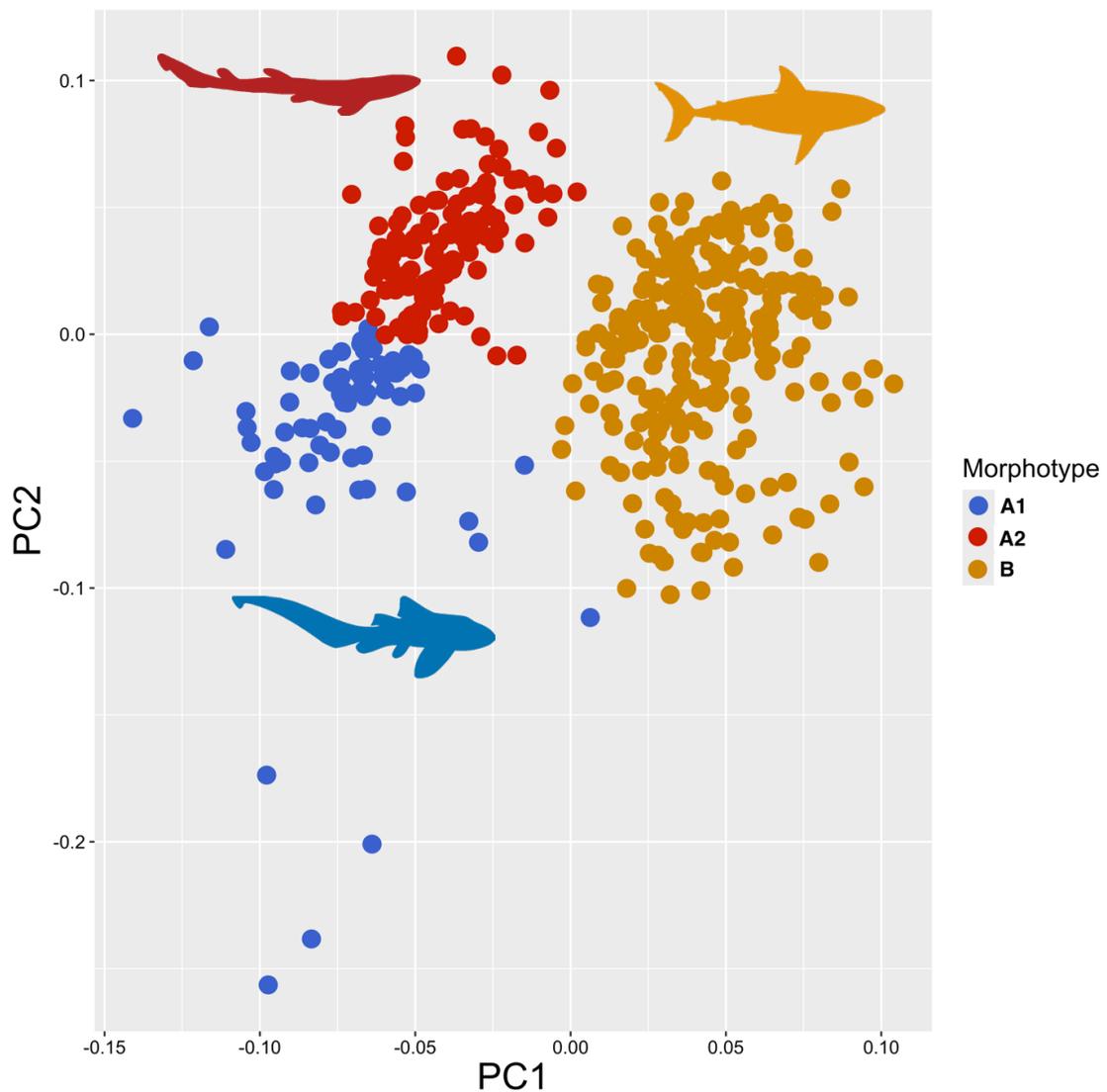
200 phylogeny in the package *phytools* (Revell, 2024). We assumed the model of trait evolution
201 (either ER, SYM, or ARD) with the lowest AIC value and used a Bayesian approach to
202 sample the transition matrix q from its prior distribution.

203

204 **Results**

205 **Cluster analysis**

206 K means cluster analysis indicated that the distribution of body form principal component
207 data among extant shark species is best explained by a three-category partition (Figure 1).
208 These three categories broadly mirror the two body forms described by Sternes and Shimada
209 (2020) and hence we name these categories as follows: Categories A1 and A2 (Figure 1)
210 correspond to ‘Group A’ as described by Sternes and Shimada (2020), consisting of ‘shallow
211 bodied’ species. These categories are both overwhelmingly represented by benthic taxa and can
212 be distinguished by the relative aspect ratio of the caudal fin, as described in Sternes and
213 Shimada (2020). Category B corresponds to ‘Group B’ as described by Sternes and Shimada
214 (2020), consisting of ‘deep bodied’. Importantly, most pelagic species are found in this
215 category. For a complete list of species in each category, please refer to the supplementary
216 material (Table S1) associated with this article. Whilst the results of this cluster analysis are
217 broadly consistent with the original results of Sternes and Shimada (2020), they are not
218 identical. Besides the presence of three (rather than two) body form categories, our analysis
219 also suggests that thresher sharks (*Alopias* spp.) fall in the A1 category (see supplementary
220 material), and not the B category (Group B) as initially proposed.



221

222 **Figure 1: Plot showing shark body form morphospace occupation for all species included in the analysis.**

223 **Species are coloured by the optimal body form category as recovered in the cluster analysis. Silhouettes**

224 **are of representative species from each morphotype as follows: Orange (morphotype B, *Carcharodon***

225 ***carcharias*), blue (morphotype A1, *Stegostoma tigrinum*), red (morphotype A2, *Scyliorhinus canicula*).**

226

227 **Phylogenetic signal**

228 The phylogenetic signal underlying body form variation in sharks was weaker than expected

229 under Brownian Motion evolution ($K_{mult} = 0.151299$, $p < 0.096$). Thus, phylogenetic non-

230 independence does not appear to be a significant determinant of body form variation amongst

231 the species included in this study. This result does not support the notion of conservatism in
232 shark body form, rather suggesting that similar body forms may have evolved convergently in
233 multiple lineages.

234

235 **Ecological signal**

236 All phylogenetic ANOVAs revealed non-significant correlations between body form and
237 habitat, with very low effect sizes (Table 1). However, all models besides that including the
238 presence/absence of benthopelagic lifestyle as a covariate were only weakly non-significant
239 (Table 1). Importantly, this result is not unexpected, due to reliance on a Brownian Motion
240 model of trait evolution and the inability of any single variable to account for the true
241 multidimensional spectrum of ecological lifestyles exhibited by extant sharks. Additionally,
242 there is clearly one-to-many mapping of form to function (Wainwright, 2005) in shark body
243 form, as evidenced by the deep-bodied form of the predominantly benthic Heterodontiformes
244 (Ebert et al., 2021). However, this does not prevent the evolution of certain body forms
245 through deep time being a necessary or sufficient precursor for subsequent shifts in
246 distribution and ecology of a given lineage (see below for further discussion in conjunction
247 with shifts in the abundance of shallow marine environments).

248

249 **Table 1: Phylogenetic ANOVAs fail to provide support for a close relationship between shark body form**
250 **and ecological lifestyle. Body form and ecological lifestyle are coded as discrete variables (see**
251 **Methodology).**

Covariate	Sum of squares	Residual sum of squares	F value	p value
Ecological lifestyle	4.58	51.1	20.1	0.287

(benthopelagic = benthic)

Ecological lifestyle (benthopelagic = pelagic)	34.6	207.6	37.4	0.169
Presence or absence of pelagic lifestyle	4.58	51.1	20.1	0.318
Presence or absence of benthic lifestyle	15.0	82.0	41.0	0.119
Presence or absence of benthopelagic lifestyle	3.74	59.5	14.1	0.403

252

253

254 **Ancestral state reconstruction**

255 In the case of both habitat and body form, an ER (equal rates) transition matrix returned a
 256 better fit ($dAIC > 2$) model of discrete trait evolution than either ARD (all rates different) or
 257 SYM (symmetrical) matrices (Table 2). This indicates that transition rates between different
 258 habitat and body form categories are approximately equal through evolutionary time (Figure
 259 2).

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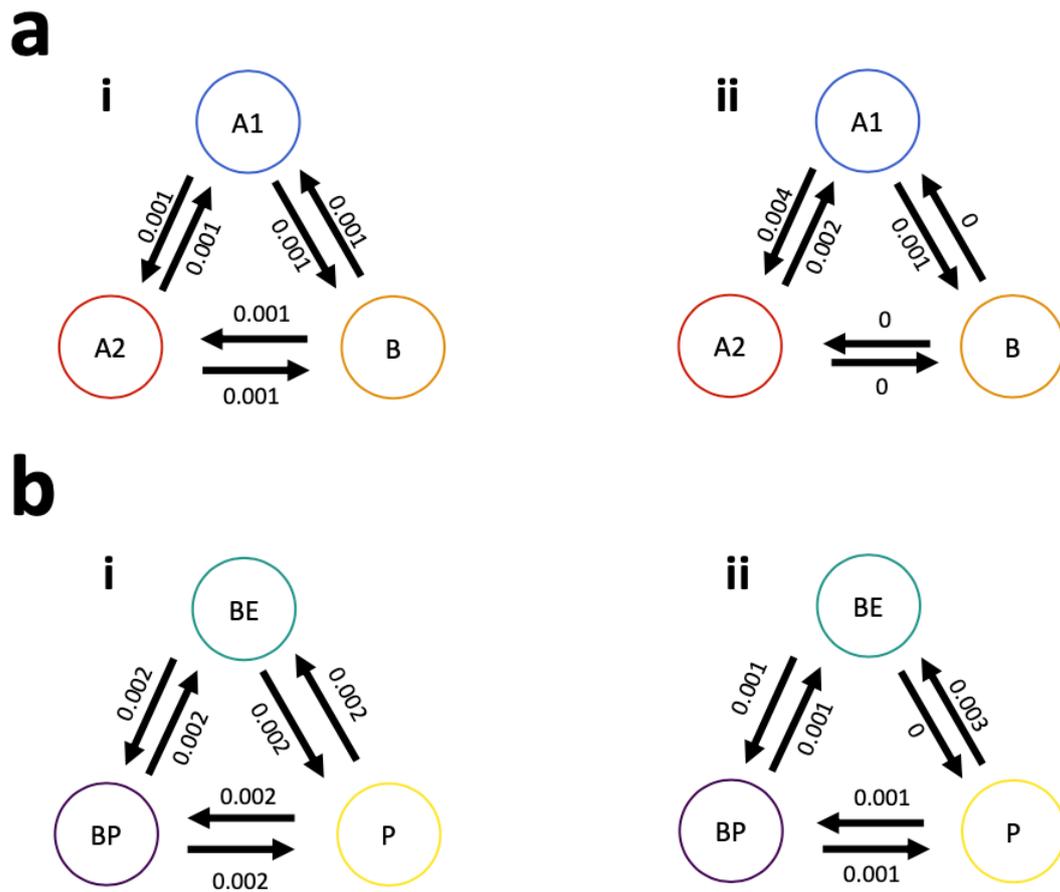
261 **Table 2: Comparison of fit for Mk models of discrete character evolution for both body form and habitat,**
 262 **incorporating different varieties of transition matrices.**

Discrete trait	Model	Log likelihood	AIC
Body form	ER	-156.5	314.91
Body form	ARD	-132.1	276.2969
Body form	SYM	-138.5	283.0637
Habitat	ER	-277.7	557.4081

Habitat	ARD	-239.0	489.9576
Habitat	SYM	-260.2	526.3594

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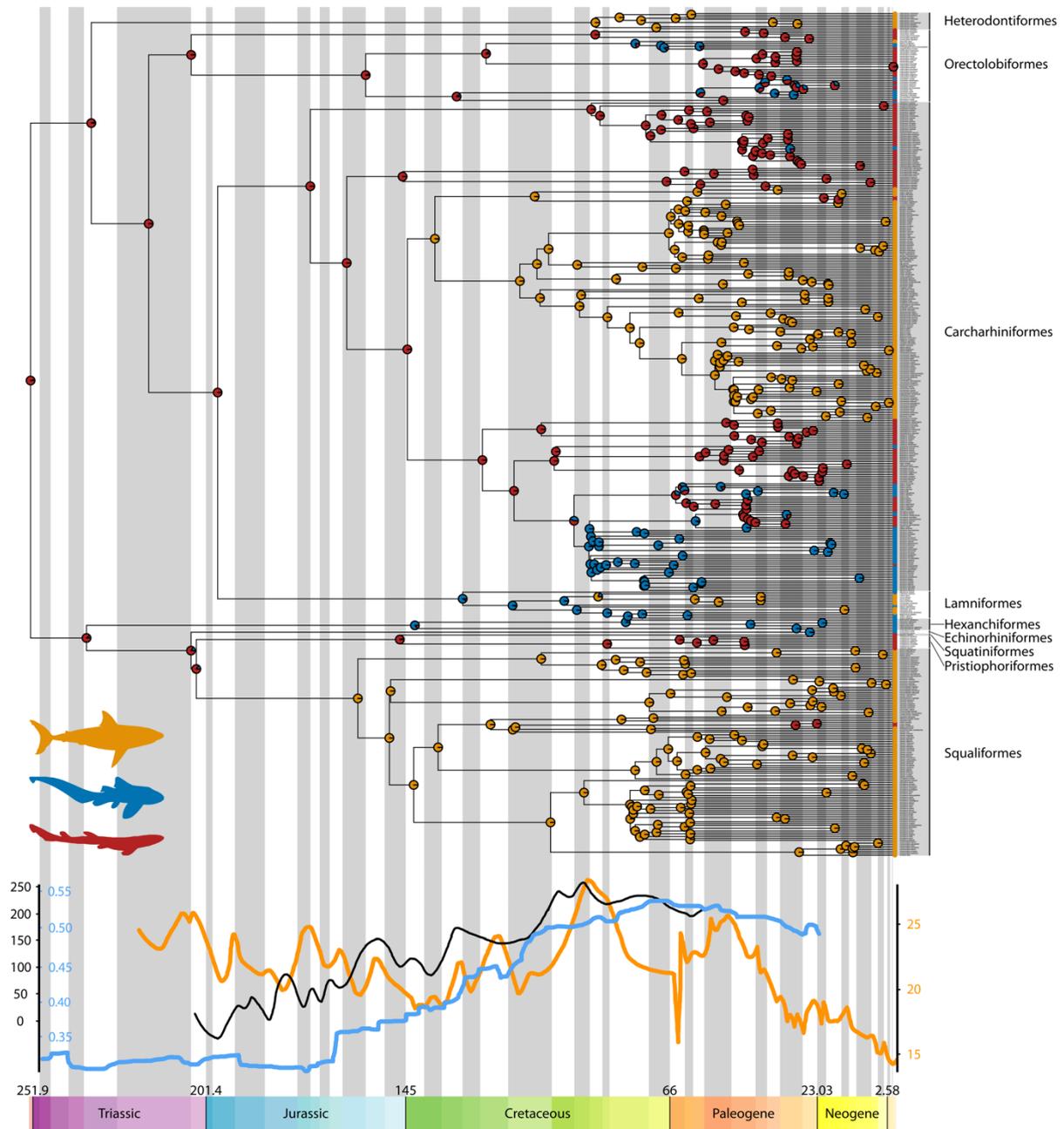
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Figure 2: Visual representation of the ER (i) and ARD (ii) maximum likelihood estimates for the transition matrix, q , underlying models of body form (a) and habitat (b) evolution. Body form categories are labelled as per the cluster analysis, and habitat categories are labelled benthic (BE), benthopelagic (BP) and pelagic (P).

Ancestral state reconstruction of shark body form indicates that the common ancestor of all extant shark species exhibited a shallow-bodied (A2) morphotype, and that four major independent transitions from shallow-bodied morphotypes to the deep-bodied (B)

274 morphotype have occurred since the start of the Mesozoic: in Squaliformes during the
275 Oxfordian (~163.5-157.3 Ma), in Lamniformes during the Hauterivian (~132.6-125.8 Ma), in
276 Carcharhiniformes during the Albian (~113.0-100.5 Ma) and in Heterodontiformes during the
277 Coniacian (~89.1-86.3 Ma) (Figure 3). Each of these transitions occurs during periods of
278 pronounced increase in eustatic sea level (Haq, 2014, 2018), a trend that also broadly
279 coincides with periods of increased continental fragmentation (Figure 3). Two reversions to a
280 benthic morphotype (A2) from the pelagic morphotype (B) have subsequently occurred in
281 Squaliformes and Carcharhiniformes, respectively, during the Cenozoic (Figure 3). At least 7
282 independent transitions from the A2 morphotype to the A1 morphotype appear to have
283 occurred, namely in Carcharhiniformes, Lamniformes, Squaliformes, and Hexanchiformes.
284 There appear to have been no transitions from the A1 morphotype to the A2 morphotype.



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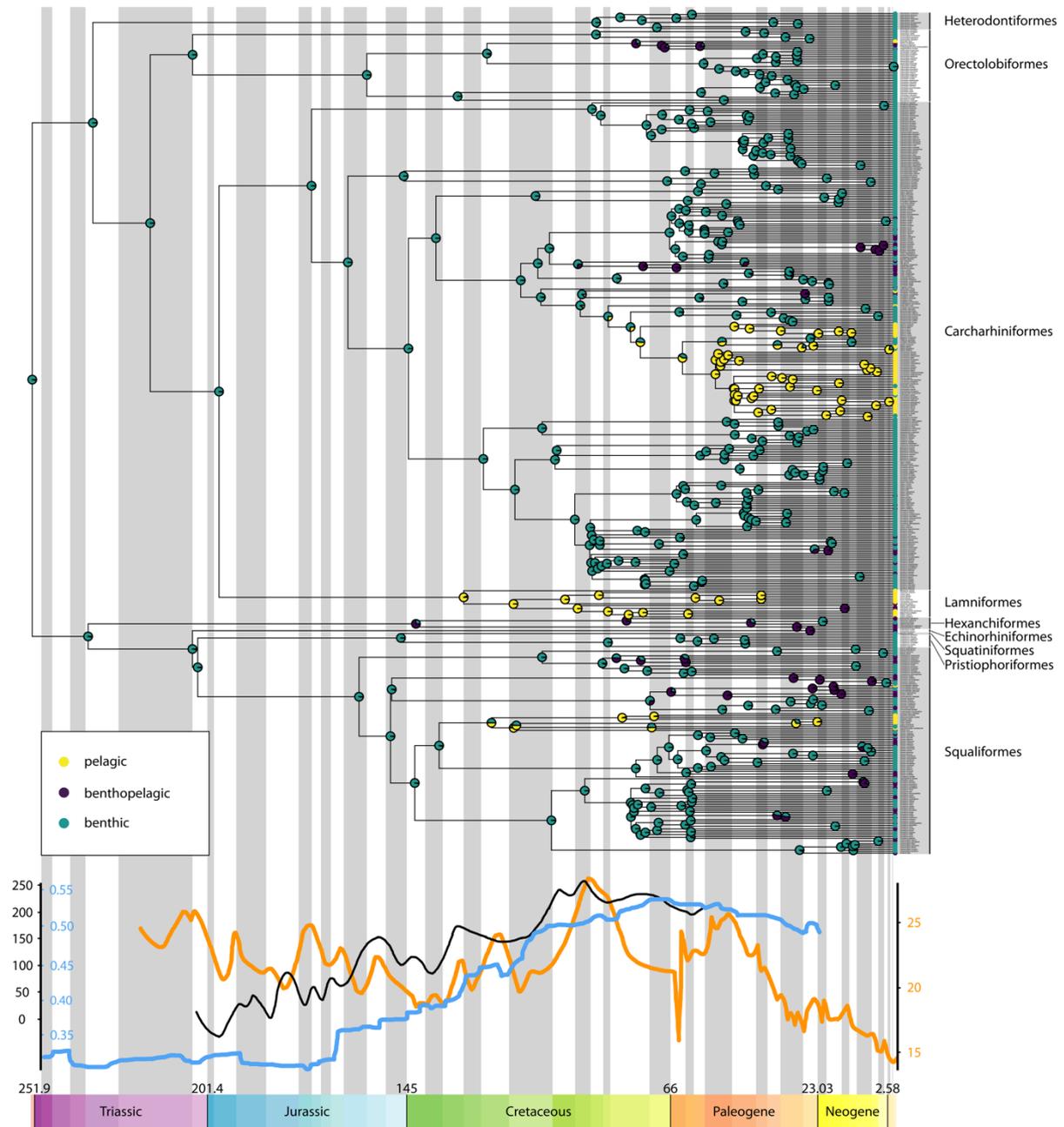
286 **Figure 3: ancestral state reconstruction showing evolutionary transitions in shark body form since the**
 287 **beginning of the Mesozoic, plotted against eustatic sea level (m, black line), continental fragmentation**
 288 **index (blue line) and sea surface temperature (°C, orange line). Coloured circles represent the most**
 289 **probable body form at each node of the phylogeny, where orange represents morphotype B, and blue and**
 290 **red represent morphotypes A1 and A2, respectively. The proportion of each circle coloured that is**
 291 **coloured indicates the level of support for the associated morphotype being present at a given node.**
 292 **Silhouettes are of representative species from each morphotype as follows: Orange (morphotype B,**

293 *Carcharodon carcharias*), blue (morphotype A1, *Stegostoma tigrinum*), red (morphotype A2, *Scyliorhinus*
294 *canicula*).

295

296 Ancestral state reconstruction of shark ecological lifestyle indicates that the common ancestor
297 of all extant shark species inhabited benthic environments with multiple subsequent
298 transitions towards benthopelagic and pelagic environments (Figure 4). Only in Lamniformes
299 do the estimated shifts towards pelagic morphotype and ecological lifestyle coincide
300 temporally, with no unequivocal pattern between body form and ecological lifestyle
301 throughout the majority of selachian phylogeny (Figures 3, 4). Shifts in ecological lifestyle
302 do occur during periods of high eustatic sea level, sea surface temperature, and continental
303 fragmentation (Figure 4), although the relationship between sea level and phenotypic
304 evolution is not as clear as that between sea level and body form (Figure 3).

305



306

307

Figure 4: Ancestral state reconstruction showing evolutionary transitions in shark ecological lifestyle

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since the beginning of the Mesozoic, plotted against eustatic sea level (m, black line), continental

309

fragmentation index (blue line) and sea surface temperature (°C, orange line). Coloured circles represent

310

the most probable body form at each node of the phylogeny, where yellow represents pelagic lifestyle,

311

purple represents benthopelagic lifestyle and green represents benthic lifestyle. The proportion of each

312

circle coloured that is coloured indicates the level of support for the associated morphotype being present

313

at a given node.

314

315 **Discussion**

316 The purpose of this study was to provide a statistical test to uncover the number of body
317 forms present among extant sharks, and then to elucidate the timing and nature of major shifts
318 in body form occurring through shark phylogeny. Most significantly, we found that extant
319 shark species fall into three discrete body form categories or morphotypes (Figure 1). The
320 morphotype B is distinguished from the other two morphotypes as species in this category
321 generally have deeper bodies as outlined in Sternes and Shimada (2020). This group also
322 contains the majority of extant pelagic species. The remaining two morphotypes (A1 and A2)
323 are distinguished by the relative aspect ratio of the caudal fin and comprise overwhelmingly
324 benthic species (see supplementary material). These morphotypes bear broad resemblance to
325 the two categories laid out in Sternes and Shimada (2020) but do exhibit several differences
326 as outlined in the results. Herein we refer to morphotype B as the pelagic (deep-bodied) body
327 form and morphotypes A1 and A2 as benthic (shallow-bodied) body forms, as the former
328 contains most extant pelagic species, and the latter two morphotypes are comprised
329 predominantly of benthic species.

330

331 Our results indicate that although body form is generally conserved across modern shark
332 species, at least four major independent shifts towards pelagic body form (i.e., morphotype
333 B) have occurred in the last 200 million years (Figure 3). A number of reversions from
334 pelagic to benthic body forms (A1 and A2) have occurred, as have shifts between the two
335 shallow-bodied benthic morphotypes (Figure 3). Notably, shifts towards pelagic-type body
336 forms appear to coincide with periods of eustatic sea level increase and increased continental
337 fragmentation (Figure 3). Maximum likelihood estimates for the transition matrix underlying
338 body form evolution indicate no difference in rates of reversion among groups (Figure 2),
339 although our ancestral state reconstruction analyses suggest that transitions from the ancestral

340 body form (A2) to the other benthic form (A1) are far more frequent than the reverse scenario
341 (Figure 3). Here, we consider the evidence for four putative biotic and abiotic drivers of these
342 shifts in body form, comparing our results to taxonomic and morphological diversification
343 trends in other marine vertebrate lineages and drivers of global environmental change. We
344 then synthesise this information to formulate a hypothesis for the timing and nature of each of
345 the four major shifts in shark body form.

346

347 **Interactions between sharks and Mesozoic marine reptiles**

348 Reduced ecological interactions between sharks and Mesozoic marine reptiles driven by
349 eustatic sea level changes provide one potential explanation for multiple independent
350 transitions towards the modern pelagic shark morphotype. Mesozoic marine reptiles
351 comprised several radiations including Ichthyopterygia (251-90 Ma), Plesiosauria (203-66
352 Ma) and Mosasauria (121-66 Ma) that underwent substantial shifts in distribution and
353 diversity prior to their extinction (Bardet, 1994; Motani, 2009). The exact nature of
354 ecological interactions between sharks and marine reptiles in Mesozoic ecosystems remains
355 unknown. However, the hypothesised trophic position of large-bodied marine reptiles
356 (Fröbisch et al., 2013; Polcyn et al., 2014; Sachs et al., 2023) and apparent convergence with
357 the pelagic shark morphotype (at least for ichthyosaurs and mosasaurs) (Lindgren et al.,
358 2010; Lingham-Soliar, 2016; Motani and Shimada, 2023) would indicate that both predatory
359 and competitive interactions are plausible. Indeed, these relationships may also have been
360 bidirectional, as Mesozoic sharks and marine reptiles were both represented by large ‘apex
361 predator’ taxa as well as smaller-bodied forms that may have been predated upon by the
362 former (Everhart, 2004; Rothschild et al., 2005; Schulp et al., 2013; Shimada, 1997). Whilst
363 some Mesozoic marine reptiles such as certain ichthyosaur and mosasaur taxa were possibly
364 capable of deep diving (Humphries and Ruxton, 2004; Motani et al., 1999; Schulp et al.,

365 2013), they were predominantly restricted to the surface waters as air breathers and would
366 have likely had comparatively little influence over deep-water benthic and benthopelagic
367 shark species.

368

369 Our results indicate that prior to the Late Jurassic, all sharks exhibited benthic, shallow-
370 bodied morphotypes and likely inhabited the benthic realm (Figures 3, 4). This is largely in
371 accordance with the fossil record because all known Jurassic shark taxa are thought to be
372 benthic with the possible exception of *Sphenodus* (Thies and Reif, 1985). During this time,
373 eustatic sea level did not exceed 100 m above that of modern-day oceans [Figure 3; Haq,
374 2014, 2018]. Eustatic sea level rise occurring during the Oxfordian, Hauterivian and mid-
375 Cretaceous (Haq, 2014, 2018) (during which time each of the four major shifts to the modern
376 pelagic shark morphotype occurred) could have increased the proportion of pelagic
377 environments in the water column that was largely inaccessible to marine reptiles. This in
378 turn could have created vacant niches in these newly added deeper pelagic environments,
379 facilitating the radiation of previously benthic lineages and favouring the evolution of the
380 more ichthyosaur-like pelagic shark morphotype. Moreover, these shifts in body form also
381 coincide with the decline and eventual extinction of the ichthyosaurs (Motani, 2009; Stubbs
382 and Benton, 2016), which could have further contributed to increased pelagic niche
383 availability. However, the decline of ichthyosaurs alone is not sufficient to explain shifts in
384 shark body form, as many ichthyosaurs did not leave vacant niches but were presumably
385 excluded competitively by plesiosaurs (Sachs et al., 2023; Stubbs and Benton, 2016).

386

387 **Diversification of Actinopterygii**

388 The ecological diversification of actinopterygian fishes may also have offered ecological
389 opportunities that facilitated the evolution of the modern pelagic shark morphotype. The

390 same factors discussed above (increased eustatic sea level and the demise of Ichthyopterygia)
391 could have also favoured migration of benthic actinopterygian lineages into newly expanded
392 deeper pelagic habitats through reduced competition and predation. Diversification analyses
393 considering both Actinopterygii and Chondrichthyes suggest that increases in ‘fish’
394 taxonomic richness occurring over the Jurassic result from gradual ecological turnover and
395 opportunistic radiation into vacant niches (Friedman and Sallan, 2012; Kriwet et al., 2009).
396 Actinopterygian taxa represent a major prey source of modern sharks (Heithaus and Vaudo,
397 2004), a relationship that has likely persisted through geological time (Fanti et al., 2016;
398 Maisey, 1994). Hence the radiation of actinopterygian fishes into the widened pelagic zone as
399 oceans deepened may have further increased the ecological opportunity available to
400 Mesozoic sharks. There is also circumstantial evidence for competition between
401 actinopterygians and chondrichthyans shaping the diversity of both lineages. For example,
402 decline in the functional diversity of sharks appears to be associated with niche replacement
403 by actinopterygians (Cooper and Pimiento, 2024; Whitenack, 2022).

404

405 There are additional factors that may have favoured a pelagic lifestyle in actinopterygian taxa
406 during the Jurassic-Cretaceous interval accompanied by shifts towards a more pelagic
407 morphotype in sharks. Amongst these factors are whole genome duplication and the
408 evolution of oxygen-secreting swim bladders, both of which played key roles in the
409 morphological and ecological diversification of marine actinopterygians (Berenbrink et al.,
410 2005; Hurley et al., 2007). Whilst phylogenetic uncertainty has prevented consensus over the
411 exact timing of these key evolutionary events (Davesne et al., 2021), they may both have
412 occurred during the Jurassic-Cretaceous interval (Berenbrink et al., 2005; Hurley et al., 2007)
413 in line with shifts in shark body form (Figure 3). Moreover, the latter of these innovations is
414 intrinsically linked to pelagic environments given that it is the swim bladder that provides

415 buoyancy control in osteichthyan fishes (Alexander, 1982). These lines of reasoning lead us
416 to suggest that during the interval across which the modern pelagic shark morphotype arose,
417 actinopterygian prey sources in pelagic environments likely increased in diversity abundance,
418 and that this resulting ecological opportunity could have partially facilitated transitions
419 towards the pelagic morphotype.

420

421 **Continental fragmentation, sea level rise, and shallow benthic** 422 **environments**

423 The increasing availability of shallow benthic environments during the Jurassic-Cretaceous
424 interval may also have facilitated the evolution of novel shark morphotypes. Substantial
425 continental fragmentation and eustatic sea level rise occurred during this interval, both of
426 which resulted in the creation of abundant warm shallow seaways (Haq, 2014, 2018; Scotese
427 et al., 2021). Our results suggest that the timing of transitions towards the modern pelagic
428 shark morphotype occurred in conjunction with both eustatic sea level rise and continental
429 fragmentation (Figure 3). It is unlikely that sharks would have initially diversified into
430 emerging pelagic environments within these shallow ecosystems due to the abundance of
431 competing or predatory marine reptiles (including ichthyosaurs, plesiosaurs and
432 thalattosuchians) at this time (Stubbs and Benton, 2016). However, it is possible that
433 radiation into shallow benthic environments as a result of continental fragmentation and sea
434 level rise could have indirectly facilitated adaptation for life in the pelagic realm. These
435 shallow benthic environments, particularly coral reefs, are associated with elevated speciation
436 rates in sharks and other marine lineages (Sorenson et al., 2014). It may be the case that
437 character transitions associated with shifts from benthic to pelagic morphology in extant
438 species were initially driven by some other selective pressure in shallow benthic
439 environments, with the pelagic morphotype later co-opted for life out of the benthos

440 following the decline of other pelagic predators. Evidence for this one-to-many mapping of
441 form to function (Wainwright, 2005) comes from the fact that Heterodontiformes, a primarily
442 benthic lineage, exhibit the pelagic morphotype (Sternes and Shimada, 2020), with the
443 reverse case being presented by *Alopias* spp. (Figure 1). Indeed, many ostensibly pelagic
444 carcharhinid sharks also inhabit relatively shallow coastal environments (Ebert et al., 2021),
445 demonstrating that the pelagic morphotype performs well not only in true pelagic oceanic
446 settings. Furthermore, our results indicate that transitions from benthic morphotypes to the
447 pelagic morphotype precede ecological transitions from benthic to pelagic lifestyles (Figures
448 3, 4). Hence, morphology consistent with the pelagic morphotype likely evolved initially in a
449 benthic setting and later facilitated expansion into pelagic environments.

450

451 **Temperature**

452 The fossil record indicates that temperature has been a critical factor for shark evolution as
453 shark diversity increases during periods of warming whereas shark diversity declines during
454 periods of cooling (Brée et al., 2022; Condamine et al., 2019; Cooper and Pimiento, 2024;
455 Guinot and Cavin, 2020; Guinot and Condamine, 2023). Similar trends are observed in other
456 marine lineages, with multiple actinopterygian radiations linked to high sea surface
457 temperatures (Cavin et al., 2007; Guinot and Cavin, 2020). A recent study has shown that
458 warm sea surface temperatures along with ocean anoxic events may have driven some
459 benthic sharks into the pelagic zone, and once in the pelagic zone, sharks exhibited adaptive
460 evolution in their pectoral fins, a key morphological structure for locomotion (Sternes et al.,
461 2024). Similarly, our results indicate that shifts from the benthic to pelagic morphotype
462 occurred during time periods in which sea surface temperatures were much higher than in
463 modern oceans (Figure 3), although the transitions themselves do not occur during global or
464 local sea surface temperature optima. It is worth noting that temperature does not act in

465 isolation, and rising ocean temperatures result in the melting of ice caps and subsequent rise
466 in sea levels. Indeed, it is practically impossible to decouple the effects of the expansion of
467 shallow benthic regimes due to continental fragmentation from rising ocean temperatures on
468 the evolution of marine life. Nevertheless, ocean temperature has likely been of great
469 importance to the evolution of pelagic shark morphology, whether directly or indirectly.

470

471 **Synthesis**

472 Ultimately, each of the four factors discussed above implicates habitat availability, either
473 directly or indirectly, as the major driving force of body form evolution in sharks. Our results
474 suggest discordance between the evolution of pelagic-type morphology and occupancy of
475 pelagic environments (Figures 3, 4), and thus the evolution of pelagic sharks can be separated
476 into two broad evolutionary ‘events’: the acquisition of the pelagic morphotype, and the
477 colonisation of pelagic environments. We hypothesise that both stages of pelagic shark
478 evolution depended critically on the availability of specific habitat types, in turn driven by
479 eustatic sea level rise, continental fragmentation, changes to sea surface temperature, and the
480 composition of marine communities. Eustatic sea level rise (in part driven by elevated sea
481 surface temperature) and continental fragmentation directly contributed to increased habitat
482 availability during the Jurassic and Cretaceous (Haq, 2014, 2018), in demersal and shallow
483 coastal zones, respectively. This increased habitat availability could have resulted in the
484 evolution of the pelagic shark morphotype either due to hydrodynamic differences between
485 these environments and the deep benthos, or due to selective pressures relating to the capture
486 and handling of new actinopterygian prey species radiating into these environments at a
487 similar time (Cavin et al., 2007). A third potential explanation, in the case of shallow coastal
488 environments, is that species diversification resulting from increased habitat availability
489 (Mull et al., 2022) increased the need for niche partitioning amongst benthic shark species,

490 consequently driving the evolution of novel, pelagic-type morphology. This mechanism of
491 selection may well explain the latter body form transitions observed in Carcharhiniformes
492 and Heterodontiformes (Figure 3) but is insufficient to explain the first two origins of the
493 pelagic morphotype in the Late Jurassic (Figure 3), a period of perceived stasis in
494 chondrichthyan diversification (Kriwet et al., 2009). The subsequent demise of the
495 ichthyosaurs during the Cretaceous (Bardet, 1994) would then have facilitated colonisation of
496 the pelagic realm by demersal and coastal lineages that had evolved pelagic-type
497 morphology. More broadly, the availability of shallow coastal environments has been a key
498 driver of several major diversification events among neoselachians (Gayford and Jambura,
499 2025; Sorenson et al., 2014).

500

501 **Congruence and consilience between molecular phylogenies and the fossil** 502 **record**

503 One of the curious paradoxes in the evolutionary history of sharks is the frequent lack of
504 congruence between the fossil occurrence data and origination times calibrated from
505 reconstructed phylogenies. Despite a near-total lack of corroborating fossil evidence in many
506 instances, many modern shark clades are suggested to have emerged during the Mesozoic on
507 the basis of molecular phylogenetic analyses (Heinicke et al., 2009; Marion et al., 2024;
508 Martin et al., 2002; Sorenson et al., 2014; Stein et al., 2018) and comparative morphological
509 studies (e.g., Shirai, 1996). One possible explanation for this discrepancy is that Mesozoic
510 members of these clades may have not yet been recognized as their ancestors. The fossil
511 record of sharks overwhelmingly consists of isolated teeth, and if ancestral taxa lack the
512 apomorphic dental characters of extant (or well-documented extinct) representatives, this can
513 both hamper the recognition of these taxa's presence in the fossil record and result in
514 underestimation of their first occurrences (Maisey et al., 2004; Shimada et al., 2015).

515 Although the rate of molecular evolution in sharks is known to be generally slower compared
516 to mammals (Martin et al., 2002; Sendell-Price et al., 2023), it has been suggested that the
517 rates between morphological and molecular evolution may not have been synchronous across
518 different shark taxa (Stone and Shimada., 2019). Indeed, our results provide some support for
519 this concept, with evolutionary transitions in shark body form not occurring until radiations
520 out of these vertically restricted benthic environments had occurred [Figures 3, 4].

521

522 Besides possible asynchronous evolution between morphology and molecules, our present
523 study also offers another plausible explanation for the observed differences between the
524 morphology-based fossil record and molecular-based origination times. Most notably, the
525 prevalence of benthic environments with a limited pelagic zone prior to major sea level rise
526 and continental fragmentation in the Late Cretaceous (and the predominant occurrence of
527 sharks within these environments, see Figure 4) implies that the position of the shorelines
528 (and thus depositional environments for fossilisation) before this time would likely have
529 extended well beyond the edge of the present-day continental shelves developed during the
530 Pleistocene (Cappetta, 2012). Thus, the scant fossil record of Mesozoic sharks before the Late
531 Cretaceous (Harris et al., 2016; Maisey, 2012) may simply result from pre-Late Cretaceous
532 Mesozoic marine rocks forming largely in isolation from the modern continental landmasses
533 from which the majority of the fossil record is drawn. This taphonomic bias not only would
534 explain the apparent scarcity of pre-Late Cretaceous Mesozoic shark remains but also would
535 account for the pre-Cenozoic origination times of many shark clades from molecular data that
536 have until now seemingly been overestimated. Our results, indicating that prior to the
537 Jurassic-Cretaceous interval, sharks were restricted to deep, benthic environments due to their
538 body form, biotic interactions with other lineages and biogeographical factors, have impactful
539 consequences on our understanding of shark diversification dynamics and the fossil record.

540

541 **Conclusions**

542 It is likely that no single factor drove the evolution of the pelagic shark morphotype to the
543 exclusion of all others, where eustatic sea level, continental fragmentation, the demise of
544 marine reptiles, diversification of actinopterygians, and elevated sea surface temperature all
545 played some role, either directly or indirectly in the evolution of pelagic-type morphology
546 and subsequent colonisation of the pelagic realm. Regardless of the specific drivers, basal
547 sharks were benthic in nature (Figure 4; Sternes et al., 2024), and the pelagic morphotype has
548 evolved independently on four occasions during the Late Jurassic and Cretaceous (Figure 3),
549 three of which preceded colonisation of pelagic environments (Figure 4). These findings
550 provide important insight into the timing of major morphological and ecological transitions
551 occurring in Mesozoic marine ecosystems and should form the basis of future work
552 incorporating additional information from the fossil record alongside further palaeoclimatic
553 studies. The relationships uncovered between body form and habitat availability also shed
554 new light on patterns of discordance between molecular phylogenies and the fossil record,
555 potentially contributing to the future resolution of phylogenetic uncertainty within the
556 selachian crown group.

557

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