Biochronology of Triassic bivalves

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Abstract: Substantial advances by numerous researchers over the past 20 years have made it possible to develop a composite biochronological scheme for the Triassic based on the bivalves *Claraia, Peribositria, Enteropleura, Daonella, Halobia, Eomonotis* and *Monotis*. These bivalves exhibit temporal durations nearly equal to ammonoids and conodonts. Widely distributed across the Tethys, Panthalassa and Boreal regions, these bivalves occur in a wide variety of marine facies and water depths, but are most notable for their thick shell accumulation in deeper-water oxygen deficient environments. They were most likely resting or reclining benthos, may have housed chemosymbionts, and were part of episodic opportunistic palaeocommunities in or near oxygen deficient settings.

A new biochronological zonation for bivalves is presented that encompasses the entire Triassic and is integrated with standard ammonoid schemes. The Lower Triassic is characterized by 2-3 zones of *Claraia*, most notably from the eastern Tethys representing the entire Induan and lower portion of the Olenekian. Later in the Olenekian, and most notably from the Boreal realm, species of *Peribositria* (included by some workers within *Bositra*) provide useful zonal indexes. The Middle Triassic is well represented by *Enteropleura* (Middle Anisian) and *Daonella* (Upper Anisian through Ladinian) in the Tethys and North America with significant occurrences throughout the circum-Pacific and Boreal realms. The Upper Triassic can be subdivided into 8-13 bivalve zones based on the succession of *Halobia*, *Eomonotis* and *Monotis sensu lato* species with best representation in the Tethys, Boreal and eastern Panthalassa regions.

Following the end-Permian mass extinction, benthic marine ecosystems underwent a remarkable reorganization associated with the post-extinction recovery and subsequent adaptive radiation during the Mesozoic. Among shelly benthos, this reorganization resulted in the diminishment of typical Late Palaeozoic brachiopod, pelmatozoan, and stenolaematid bryozoan dominated level-bottom marine communities in favor of communities characterized by bivalve and gastropod molluscs, bony fishes, gymnolaemate bryozoans, echinoids and certain crustaceans, representing an increase in trophic variety ranging from deep infaunal suspension feeders to active nektonic carnivores (Vermeij 1977; Sepkoski 1981). A significant component of this essentially modern fauna are bivalve molluscs, which in the Triassic dominate many level-bottom, reefal, and pelagic settings (McRoberts 2001; Fraiser & Bottjer 2007).

Among the bivalves of the Triassic radiation, those belonging to the genera *Claraia*, *Peribositria*, *Enteropleura*, *Daonella*, *Aparimella*, *Halobia* and *Monotis*, are arguably the most abundant macrofauna in deep-water marine facies of the Triassic (Fig. 1). Often referred to as 'flat clams' because of their very thin shell width and narrow valve convexity, these bivalves generally have widespread distributions and very high species turnover rates making them excellent biochronological macrofossils of the Triassic. Their biochronological value was recognized soon after their discovery, and within the past 30 years they have become standard components of biochronological schemes (e.g. De Capoa Bonardi 1984; Polubotko 1986; McRoberts 1997; Zakharov *et al.* 1997; Yin 2003). Even though bivalve zonations have been provided for specific regions and or limited portions of the Triassic, this paper provides the first global summary of bivalve zonation for the entire Triassic (Figs 1, 3, 5, 6).

Taxonomic and nomenclature issues

Perhaps the largest problem with the use of Triassic bivalves in biochronological studies is a combination of the multitude of available species names, many of which are in open nomenclature, and a high degree of uncertainty in species and higher taxonomy of this heterogeneous grouping of bivalves. These issues are due to several factors including: poor understanding of significant morphological traits and their variation in natural populations, their frequently poor preservation resulting in a misinterpretation of such traits, and palaeogeographical/palaeooceanographical provincialism that is in many cases unrecognized.

As construed herein, Triassic 'flat clams' represent a morphologically and taxonomically diverse group belonging to at least three separate bivalve



Fig. 1. Temporal distribution of Triassic flat clam bivalve genera with biochronological utility.

clades distributed across four family-group taxa: the Posidonidae, Halobiidae, Monotidae and Pterinopectinidae. Further compounding the taxonomic clutter has been the introduction of lower-level groups (genera and subgenera) which have proliferated in recent years but which have often been constructed on limited morphological evidence without regard to natural morphological variation within species or populations or phylogenetic considerations. The primary genus-group taxa used here are broadly construed (*sensu lato*) and include *Claraia*, *Ellesmerella*, *Enteropleura*, *Daonella*, *Halobia*, *Eomonotis*, and *Monotis*. Brief summaries of these accepted taxa and comments on group membership and affinities are provided in Appendix 1 and representative species are illustrated in Figures 4 and 7.

The sheer number of species in some of these genera is another subject of concern. For example, following Mojsisovics' (1874) impressive monograph, Kittl (1912) alone recognized 66 species of *Daonella* and 116 species of *Halobia*. More recent workers have not fared much better and the pace of naming species has accelerated. In the past 50 years, workers have introduced more than 50 new species of Monotis, more than 75 new species of Daonella, and more than 200 new species of Halobia. Not surprisingly, a vast majority of these new species are based on wholly inadequate material - either very small sample sizes of only one or two specimens and without regard to natural morphological variation within populations, or they are based on taphonomically compromised specimens. While a thorough assessment of individual species validity is beyond the scope of this paper, an attempt has been made to include only species that have biochronological value, are morphologically distinctive, are based on sufficient material, and are generally accepted by modern workers.

Palaeoecological and palaeogeographical controls on biochronology

Although the mean duration of bivalve species is estimated to be c. 15 Ma (Stanley 1979), Triassic flat clam species are closer to the average durations for ammonoid species (1–2 Ma or less). What makes these bivalves different from other level-bottom bivalves likely lies in their evolutionary palaeoecology which can, in the absence of modern analogs or genetic information, be inferred from morphological adaptations, their unique facies occurrence, and analogous yet anecdotal similarities from other non-pelagic bivalves.

Palaeoecology

A significant attribute of Triassic flat clams is their episodic occurrence in monospecific or paucispecific shell accumulations. Although many of these shell beds occur in deep-water oxygen deficient settings, they also occur in significant abundance in deep so called 'pelagic' or 'filamentous' limestone (e.g. Hallstatt facies) that represent fully oxygenated marine settings (McRoberts et al. 2008). In addition, many examples are known from presumably shallower-water environments from Russia, New Zealand and Japan among other regions (see Miroshinikov & Burii 1969; Ando 1987; Campbell 1994). Within these settings, Triassic flat clams occur within a continuum of accumulation modes that are interpreted to be nearly in situ to occasional or episodic shell accumulations with varying amounts of re-working and timeaveraging. Although some taxa (e.g. Claraia and Enteropleura) typically form thin shell beds less than 10 cm thick, the shell beds comprised of other taxa (e.g. Halobia and some Monotis) can achieve thicknesses of greater than 2 m (McRoberts et al. 2008; Grant-Mackie, pers. comm.). A ubiquitous

feature of the bivalve accumulations is that they are almost exclusively monospecific, or, more rarely, composed or two or three species. Similar shell beds are often labeled as 'stagnation deposits' (e.g. Seilacher *et al.* 1985) and may contain an admixture of palaeoecological and/or time-averaged associations. Following Kidwell & Bosence (1991), many are best described as either census assemblages or within-habitat time-averaged assemblages. These accumulations can be interpreted as *in situ* biogenic deposits representing episodic population expansion or immigration.

An extensive literature exists on the hypothesized living habit of Triassic flat clams (see Gruber 1976; Ando 1987; Wignall & Simms 1990; Campbell 1994; Schatz 2005; Waller in Waller & Stanley 2005 for useful summaries). While there certainly exists morphological disparity between genera, and no one-size-fits-all approach with respect to their autecology, Triassic flat clams are most likely either freely resting or reclining without byssal attachment (e.g. Peribositria, Enteropleura, Daonella and Halobia) or attached with a feeble or weakly functioning byssus (e.g. Claraia, Eomonotis, and Monotis). Although it has also been proposed that several of these genera were pseudoplanktonic and attached to drifting seaweed, wood, or other epiplanktic host (e.g. Jefferies & Minton 1965; Tozer 1982; Wignall & Simms 1990; McRoberts 1997), shell-bed attributes, facies occurrences, and lack of demonstrably attached specimens point to a benthic life mode for all of the genera considered here. A benthic living habit, however, does not in itself explain their unusual occurrence nor their biochronological utility.

It is also possible that some Triassic flat clams harbored symbiotic bacteria that enabled them to live in the presence of hydrogen sulfide in dysaerobic palaeoenvironments. Seilacher (1990) proposed that the anterior tube of Halobia served as a sulphur pump and perhaps served as the locus for chemosynthetic bacteria. This view was recently advocated by Waller (in Waller & Stanley 2005) who reinterpreted structures on Halobia's anterior tube interior as radial mantle muscle scars and thus suggesting open passage from the tube to the mantle cavity. It should be noted, however, that neither Daonella (ancestral taxon to Halobia) nor other halobiids, monotids, or claraids exhibit this shell tube, yet occur in similar settings and shell accumulation modes. It should be further noted that extant bivalves with sulphur-oxidizing or methanotrophic endosymbionts (e.g. lucinid, thyasirid and solemyid bivalves) typically have relatively large gills which host the endosymbionts which would not be accommodated in the slender valve cavity of the Triassic forms (most notably halobiids and claraids). Furthermore, known chemoautotrophic endosymbionts and methanotrophs occur where both sulfide and limited oxygen co-exist (Scott & Cavanaugh 2007), and that free oxygen is necessary for metabolic function employing glycolysis (Oschmann 1993).

Hydrothermal vent and, to a lesser extent, methane seep faunas are notably dominated by endemic species (Tunnicliffe 1991) which is atypical for these Triassic bivalves. Lastly, although the Triassic flat clams are notable for their denselypacked accumulations, which resemble some of the dense faunal communities surrounding methane seeps, the shell beds are laterally continuous in exposures up to one kilometer in lateral extent, which is atypical for modern chemo-symbiotic communities whose distribution is patchy.

Based on facies occurrences and shell-bed attributes, many of the Triassic flat clams can be best described as belonging to opportunistic populations which Levinton (1970) described as unstable populations that are not resource limited but primarily controlled by the physical and not the biotic environment. Opportunistic fossil populations appear to be a major component of the exaerobic biofacies (sensu Savrda & Bottjer 1987, 1991) that are characterized by organic-rich laminated sediments and epibenthic macrofossil assemblages in oxygen deficient (dysaerobic) benthic conditions. Claraids, halobiids and monotids in particular fit the opportunistic model in several ways as demonstrated by several empirical studies on similar biofacies. Wignall (1993) established a positive correlation between decreasing oxygen gradients and decreasing benthic diversity, reaching zero at essentially the anaerobic/dysaerobic boundary. Gradient analyses of Jurassic oxygen-deficient faunas by Etter (1995) demonstrate the macrofaunal succession of equilibrium species being displaced by low diversity, high abundance opportunistic species and again by low abundance higher diversity chemosynthetic specialists at the lower end of the dysaerobic/ anaerobic interface.

Many of these Triassic flat clam palaeocommunities are interpreted to have inhabited and dominated environments near a threshold oxygen minimum boundary which other shelly benthos found unsuitable. The spatial distribution and mode of occurrence of these bivalve palaeocommunities conform to an incumbent dominance model (e.g. Rosenzweig & McCord 1991; Sepkoski 1996) where the first individuals of a species to occupy a niche, dominate and hold the spot until replaced or removed from that niche. It has also been proposed that rapid fluctuations in environmental conditions tend to favor eurytopic species with high genetic diversity (Sanders 1968; Bretsky & Lorenz 1970). The episodic nature of many of the shell beds suggests that Triassic flat clams also appear to have exhibited low resistance to environmental perturbations but are resilient in being able to recover

quickly (see Tang 2001 for a review of resistant v. resilient species). With respect to flat clams in general, and *Monotis* in particular, Shaner & McRoberts (2000) proposed that once colonization occurs, the bivalve assemblages dominate substrate to the exclusion of other benthic organisms. This dominance may continue even if oxygen conditions become favorable. This model of episodic replacement of bivalve assemblages provides ample room for the repeated colonization of different flat-clam species and even genera along oxygen or other resource threshold boundaries.

Palaeobiogeography

The assembly of the supercontinent Pangaea by Triassic time had resulted in more than half of the Earth's surface being covered by the Panthalassa Ocean, which spread from pole to pole, and an eastwest tropical seaway – the Tethys (Fig. 2). Within these broad palaeogeographical constraints, geographical distribution of Triassic bivalves with biochronologic significance is controlled by the location of suitable environments. Major constraints in the distribution of bivalves are bathymetry, substrate, temperature, chemistry (e.g. dissolved oxygen), and oceanographical currents needed for dispersal.

Palaeocurrents within Panthalassa and the Tethys can be determined through actualistic principles applied to palaeogeographical reconstructions and have been summarized by several workers (e.g. Tollmann & Kristan-Tollmann 1985; Yan & Zhao 2001). In general, the major palaeocurrents of the Triassic can be summarized as: (a) a low latitude north and south equatorial current from the margin of Pangaea moving westwards across Panthalassa and into the Tethys with an equatorial counter current moving eastward; (b) a clockwise gyre in northern Panthalassa feeding warm currents along the northeast margin of Pangaea and a coldwater current moving down the northwest margin of Pangaea; and (c) a counterclockwise gyre in southern Panthalassa bringing warm water across southeastern Tethys, Australia and perhaps as far south as New Zealand and cooler water northwards adjacent to the Andean margin of Pangaea. It should be noted, however, that distributional patterns of many Triassic macrofauna are quite complex and may require additional dispersal models, such as the Pantropical model of Newton (1988) or tectonic displacement or some combination thereof (e.g. Silberling 1985; Stanley & González-León 1995).

Dispersion of bivalve species across Panthalassa and the Tethys would most likely have been through passive transport of larvae via surface currents. Although some Triassic flat clams may have had planktotrophic larvae (McRoberts 2000), almost nothing is known about the larval development of most species. Regardless, even short-lived planktic



Fig. 2. Biogeographical distribution of significant occurrences of Triassic bivalves. Abbreviations for informal regions include: WT, Western Tethys; NIM, Northern Indian Margin (e.g. Salt Range, Kashmir); CI, Cimmeria (e.g. Tibet); NC, North China; SC, South China; IND, Indonesia; JP, Japan; MA, Maori; AN, Andean; EP, Eastern Panthalassa including pericraton regions (e.g. Nevada and northeastern British Columbia) and allochthonous terranes (e.g. Wrangallia, Stikinia); BO, Boreal (Arctic Alaska, Arctic Canada, Greenland, Svalbard, northern Siberia); OK, Okhotsk (e.g. northeastern Siberia). Palaeogeographic reconstructions modified from Blakey (2005).

larva could be transported great distances – for example, larvae having a pelagic stage of 2-6weeks could be transported up to 500 km by only moderate coastal currents; longer pelagic larval stages (e.g. 3 months or more) could effectively cross entire deep ocean basins (e.g. Sheltema 1977).

Except for the broadly construed Tethyan, Panthalassan, and Boreal realms, Triassic seas are

not easily differentiated into biogeographical provinces. With few notable exceptions discussed later. Triassic flat clams are distributed across most regions in which marine strata are preserved. Although too numerous to list here in detail, Triassic pelagic bivalves commonly occur in the Western Tethys (including the northern and southern Alps, Sicily, Carpathians, and into the Balkans). Major occurrences in the central and eastern Tethys are also significant, with many species known from both the southern branch of the Tethys northern Indian margin (e.g. Salt Range) as well as from the central and northern branches (e.g. Caucasus, Crimea, Kashmir, Spiti, Nepal and Tibet). In the far eastern Tethys, significant occurrences of flat clams are also known from both the North and South China Blocks, Timor, and in many localities in what is now southeast Asia (e.g. Thailand, Vietnam, etc.). The Boreal region appears to be a center of diversity among bivalve species having significant occurrences in northern and northeastern Siberia, northern Alaska, the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, northeast Greenland and Svalbard. The northwest margin of Panthalassa includes Primorye and the terranes of Kamchaka and Koravak. Many of these regions contain mixtures of faunas from more than one province. For example, bivalves of low to mid palaeolatitudes of western offshore Pangaea (e.g. Nevada and northeastern British Columbia) contain a mixture of Boreal

and Tethyan elements (see discussion in Silberling 1985; Newton 1988).

Biochronology and bivalve zones of the Triassic

This section presents a summary of the temporal distribution and global/interregional correlation of bivalve (chiefly flat clam) occurrences having demonstrably biochronological significance during the Triassic. These data are based on an extensive literature compilation and first-hand study of field and museum collections, and integrated, to the extent possible, with other biochronologically important fossils, most notably ammonoids and conodonts. The temporal ranges of species are depicted here as zones and, except where noted, these are total range zones and are based on the ranges of individual species. These zones, however, remain tentative and informal as they lack appropriate stratal and geographical definitions. Where possible, the bivalve ranges are resolved to standard ammonoid zones as depicted in the zonal charts (Figs 3, 5 & 6). In species whose range is demonstrably shorter than an ammonoid zone (e.g. uppermost Olenekian Ellesmerella, uppermost Anisian Daonella or uppermost Norian *Monotis*) the zonal limits may be artificially extended upwards and downwards for the entire interval.

	STAGE		AMMONOID ZONES			BIVALVE ZONES					
			North American	Tethys	Eastern Tethys		North America	Boreal			
		an	Keyserlingites subrobustus	Neopopanoceras haugi				Ellesmerella aranea			
			Olenikites pilaticus	Prohungarites-Subcolumbites							
		Spathi		Procolumbites				Decile solition site is a			
	AN			Columbites parisianus				Pendositria sibirica			
	NEK			Tirolites cassianus							
SIC	OLE	Smithian	Anawasatchites tardus	Anawasatchites / Anasibirites			"Pseudomonotis" occidentalis	"Pseudomonotis" occidentalis			
RIAS			Euflemingites romunderi	Meekoceras gracilitatis				Peribositria mimer			
LOWER T				Euflemingites				Peribositria borealis			
			Hedenstroemia hedenstroemi	Flemingites griesbachi				11 (Control of Control			
	INDUAN			Rohillites rohilla							
		nerian	Vavilovites sverdrupi	Prionolobus							
		Die	Proptychites candidus	Gryonites frequens	Claraia aurita						
		Griesbachian		"Pleurogryonites" planidorsatus							
			Bukkenites canstrigatus	Discophiceras rotelliformis	Clar	aia stachei	Claraia stachei	Claraia stachei			
			Ophiceras tibeticum		Claraia wangi						
			Ophiceras commune	Otoceras woodwardi	[Claraia dieneri					

Fig. 3. Bivalve zones of Early Triassic *Claraia, Peribositria* and *Ellesmerella* for the western and eastern Tethys (including both northern Indian margin and South China), and Boreal realm. Sources for bivalve zonation discussed in text. Ammonoid zones modified from Orchard & Tozer (1997), Zakharov *et al.* (1997) and Kozur (2003).

Temporal assignments rely on integration of several zonal schemes from various taxa taken across widely distributed regions as discussed in each appropriate section below. Stage and substage nomenclature and definitions are largely taken from Ogg (2004) and in several cases have been modified as recent advances in selection of GSSPs in defining the standard chronostratigraphic scale of the Triassic.

Early Triassic

As with other parts of the Triassic, biochronological schemes of the Early Triassic are largely based upon conodonts and ammonoids. Following the formal definition of the base of the Triassic with the first occurrence of the conodont Hindeodus parvus from the base of bed 27c at Meishan South China (Yin et al. 2001), the Triassic Subcommission on Stratigraphy has recently adopted the use of subdividing the Early Triassic into two stages, the Induan and Olenekian. Progress has been made at defining the base of the Olenekian at the Mud section of Spiti by the first occurrence of the conodont Neospathodus waageni sensu lato which is less than one metre above the base of the Rohillites rohilla ammonoid Zone (Krystyn et al. 2007a). The Lower Triassic is subdivided into between 10 and 15 ammonoid zones (Kozur 2003) and recent estimates suggest that the entire Early Triassic was of only 5 Ma or so (Mundil et al. 2004; Ogg 2004) in duration.

As mentioned earlier, the Early Triassic is dominated by low diversity but locally abundant bivalve faunas, which largely include representatives of Permian hold-over clades (e.g. Permophoridae, Myalinidae and Pterinopectinidae). Included in this group are species *Eumorphotis* and *Promyalina*, and most importantly the flat clam Claraia that has long been recognized as a zonal taxon for the Early Triassic. Although Claraia has often been regarded as a cosmopolitan taxon, a majority of its species are of local or regional importance. It should also be noted that Claraia species are quite rare in the lowermost Triassic Otoceras beds and are often found above the disaster fauna (e.g. microbialites and Lingula zone) associated with the end-Permian mass extinction. Furthermore, individual species ranges (and subsequent zones) for Claraia are somewhat long when compared to ammonoid ranges of the same interval, yet they are comparable to bivalve zones of the Middle and Late Triassic. In spite of this, zonal schemes for Claraia have been developed for a number of Tethyan, Boreal, and circum-Pacific regions (Fig. 3).

Of the numerous successions, those of the eastern Tethys, including the Northern Indian Margin and South China are the best known and integrated into other biochronological scales using

conodonts and ammonoids. Nakazawa (1977, 1981) developed a zonation based on Claraia from the uppermost Permian through Lower Olenekian (Meekoceras beds of the Smithian) from Kashmir and Iran. Nakazawa listed 33 Claraia species belonging to 4 species groups. A complimentary zonation from south China was provided by Yin (1985, 1990) who identified six Claraia acme zones distributed across much of the Lower Triassic. Presented here is a composite zonation beginning with a zone of Claraia dieneri Nakazawa correlative to the Otoceras woodwardi Zone that is well established in Kashmir, South China, and the Perth Basin of Australia (Nakazawa 1977; He et al. 2007). A zone of C. wangi Patte associated with the conodont Isarcicella isarcica and the ammonoid Ophiceras sinense and largely restricted to South China and Vietnam is in part correlative with C. dieneri Nakazawa, yet ranges into somewhat younger strata (Yin 1990; Tong & Yin 2002). Claraia griesbachi (Bittner) and C. concentrica (Yabe) also occur in the Lower Induan (Ophiceras-Lytophiceras ammonoid Zone) of Anhui Province China (Tong et al. 2004). Claraia wangi Patte has been reported from several localities in south China and is frequently associated with the ammonoid Ophiceras and the conodont Isarcicella isarcica but never with lowermost Induan ammonoids Otoceras woodwardi nor the conodont Hindeodus parvus. This east Tethyan zone can be correlated to the western-Tethys, where at the Tesero section in the Italian Dolomites, Claraia griesbachi (Bittner) first appears about 15-20 m from the base of the Mazzin Member of the Werfen Formation (e.g. Broglio Loriga et al. 1986; Broglio Loriga & Cassinis 1992; Wignall & Hallam 1992). Tethyan Claraia can be correlated to North America, where several species including C. clarae (Emmrich) (Fig. 4h) and C. stachei Bittner occur in the central Rocky Mountains in the western United States (Newell & Kummell 1942; Ciriacks 1963; Newell & Boyd 1995) and also northern Rocky Mountains in British Columbia and Alberta Canada (Tozer 1970). It should be noted, however, that reports of Permian C. stachei (e.g. Muromtseva 1984) have not been adequately illustrated, and their validity remains in question. Generally above the sequence of C. stachei Bittner is a zone of C. aurita (Hauer) that has proven to be of regional significance extending from the western Tethys eastward into the Praecaucasus, the northern Indian Margin, South China and northeastern Russia and with a little more precision to the Tirolites harti ammonoid Zone (Gavrilova 2004).

Above the *Claraia* zones of the Induan and lowermost Olenekian are several demonstrable zones of *Peribositria* that are largely relegated to the Boreal realm. Several *Peribositria* species are



Fig. 4. Representative Lower and Middle Triassic pelagic bivalves. All scale bars = 1 cm. (**a**) *Daonella elegans* McLearn, Upper Ladinian, *Frankites sutherlandi* Zone from Toad Formation, Halfway River area, British Columbia, Canada (SUCP collection). (**b**) *Daonella subarctica* Popov, Upper Ladinian, Botneheia Formation, Svalbard (SM M1285, from Campbell 1994, pl. 5, fig. 2). (**c**) *Daonella moussoni* (Merian), Upper Ladinian, *Prototrachyceras gredleri* Zone (PIMZ collection, from Rieber 1969, pl. 2, fig. 3). (**d**) *Daonella cf. D. sturi* (Benecke), Upper Anisian, *Parafrechites meeki* Zone, Favret Formation, Lone Peak, Nevada (SUCP collections). (**e**) *Enteropleura jenksi* Hopkin & McRoberts, Middle Anisian, *Balatonites shoshonensis* Zone, from Favret Formation, New Pass Range, Nevada (USNM 526057, from Hopkin & McRoberts 2005, fig. 3.1). (**f**) *Peribositria mimer* (Oberg). Upper Olenekian (Smithian) Svalbard (SM G1281, from Tozer & Parker 1968, pl. 25, fig. d). (**h**) *Claraia clarae* (von Hauer), Lower Induan, Brazeau River, Alberta (GSC 14196, from Newell & Boyd 1995, fig. 17.7; see also Tozer 1961, pl. 28, fig. 3).

relegated to the lower Olenekian including the most common forms P. borealis Kurushin & Trushchelev and P. mimer Oeberg (Fig. 4f), which comprises two distinctive zones of the upper Smithian. Tozer (1963) reports P. mimer Oeberg from the Euflemingites romunderi Zone of the Toad Formation of northeastern British Columbia, from the same interval in the Blind Fiord Formation of Ellesmere Island in Arctic Canada and likely from the Yukon area. Other species of Peribositria, including P. backland (Wittenburg) from the lower Olenekian from Siberia and Svalbard (Kurushin & Trushchelev 1989), are rather poorly constrained but are known to co-occur with the ammonoids Arctoceras blomstrandi and Euflemingites and Hedenstroemi equivalents of the Early Olenekian (Kurushin & Trushchelev 1989). Somewhat longer in duration

is *P. siberica* Kurushin (1980) which seems to have some biochronological value (Zakharov *et al.* 1997), yet it is long-ranging, encompassing nearly the entire Spathian (*Bajarunia euomphala* through *Parasibirites grambergi* ammonoid Zones) from central Siberia, Arctic Canada, and British Columbia (Kurushin & Trushchelev 1989).

In high to mid northerly latitudes, *Ellsemerella aranea* (Tozer) (Fig. 4g) comprises the youngest bivalve zone of the Olenekian and is fairly well constrained by ammonoids of the *Keyserlingites subrobustus* ammonoid Zone. Tozer (1973) summarized the distribution of this species which is now known from several localities in Svalbard (Tozer & Parker 1968), and Ellesmere Island in the Canadian Arctic (Tozer 1961, 1967), northeastern British Columbia (Tozer 1963, 1970) and northeastern Siberia

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	STAGE		AMMONO	ID ZONES	BIVALVE ZONES					
			North American	Tethys	West Tethys	North America	Boreal			
	LADINIAN	U	Frankites sutherlandi	Frankites regoledanus	Daonella lommeli	Daonella elegans	Daonella subarctica			
			Maclearnoceras maclerni	Prototrachyceras archelarus		Opposition pittingen				
			Meginoceras meginae	Prototrachyceras longobardium	Daonella picheri	Daonena munae				
				Prototrachyceras gredleri			Daonella frami			
SSIC			Tuchodiceras poseidon	Prototrachyceras margaritosum	Daonella moussoni	Daonella rieberi				
TRIA		-	Eoprototrachyceras matutinum	Eoprototrachyceras curionii	<u>.</u>		Daonella lindstroemi			
DLE	ANISIAN	U	Frechites occidentailis	Nevadites sacedensis	Daonella elongata	Daonella dubia	Daonella dubia			
MID			Parafrechites meeki	0 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 -		Daonella cf. D. sturi				
			Gymnotoceras rotelliformis	Heitzites reitzi		-	Daonella americana			
			Gymnotoceras mimetus	Kellnerites felsoersensis Paraceratites trinodosus	Daonella sturi	Daonella americana				
			Gymnotoceras weitschati	Schreyerites binodosus						
		м	Balatonites shoshonensis	Balatonites balatonicus	Enteropleura bittneri	Enteropleura jenksi				
			Nevadisculites taylori	Nevadisculites taylori						
			Acrochordiceras hyatti	Acrochordiceras ismidicus	8					
		L	Paracrochoriceras americanum							
			Lenotropites caurus	Lenotropites caurus						
			Silberlingites mulleri	Silberlingites mulleri						
		10	Pseudokeyserlingites guexi	Pseudokeyserlingites guexi						
			Japonites welteri	Japonites welteri						

Fig. 5. Bivalve zones of Middle Triassic *Peribositria, Enteropleura* and *Daonella* for the western Tethys, North America and Boreal realms. Sources for bivalve zonation discussed in text. Ammonoid zones modified from Mietto & Manfrin (1995), Orchard & Tozer (1997), Zakharov *et al.* (1997), Kozur (2003) and Monnet & Bucher (2005).

14	STAGE		AMMONOID ZONES			BIVALVE ZONES						
			North America		Tethys		West Tethys	North America			Boreal	
UPPER TRIASSIC	RHAETIAN		Choristoceras crickmayi		Choristoceras marshi Vandaites stuerzenbauni		100 572 5 510					
							Rhaetavicula contorta				Tosapecten efimovae	
			Cocholoceras ameonum		1855	Sagentites reticulatus	Monotis rhaetica					
	NORIAN	U	Gnomohalorites cordillernus		an Sage	entites quinquepunctatus	Monotis salinaria	Mono	tis subcircularis	Monotis ochotica		
		M		IV III	. ,	lalorites macer	Halobia distincta	<u> </u>	Eomonotis pinensis		Eomonotis scutiformis	
			Mesohimavites columbianus	11	Hi	mavatites hogarti	Halobia norica	, C	Halobia fallax			
					Hir	navatites watsoni	Halobia balorica	- Mean			Halobia obruchevi	
			Drepanites rutherfordi		Crytopleurites bicrenatus		2000.0000000000	= cord	Halobia halorica			
			Juvavites magnus		Juvavities magnus		Halobia darwini	falobi		nsis	Halobia verchojanensis	
			Malayites dawsoni		Malayites paulcki		Halobia mediterranea			digirer	Verter of the second	
			Stikinoceras kerri		Guembelites jandianus		Halobia beyrichi	Halobla beyrichi		H. in	Halobia kawadai	
	CARNIAN	U	Klamathites macrolobatus		Anatropites	Gonionotites italicus	Havoola radiata	-	naiobia rabiata	ereda	Halobia kiparisovae	
			Tropites welleri		Discotropites plinii	Halobia lenticularis	Halob	ia superba	asp	Halobia omkutchanica		
				1	Tro	ppites subbullatus		Halobi	a omatissima	±		
			Tropites dilleri		Tropites dilleri		Halobia superba				Halobia ornatissima	
		Ľ	Sirenites nanseni		Austrotrachyceras austriacum			T				
			Austrotrachyceras obesun	7			Halobia rugosa	Hal	obia rugosa	Halobia popowi		
			Trachyceras desatoyense	81	T. aonoide	T. aonoides T. aon	1			Halobia zhilnensis Halobia zitteli		

Fig. 6. Stratigraphical ranges of Late Triassic, *Halobia, Eomonotis,* and *Monotis* for western Tethys, North America and Boreal realms. Ammonoid Zones modified from Orchard & Tozer (1997) Zakharov *et al.* (1997), Kozur (2003) and Gallet *et al.* (2007).

(Vozin & Tikhomirova 1964; see also Zahkarov et al. 1997).

Middle Triassic

The Middle Triassic comprising the Anisian and Ladinian stages lasted approximately 10–12 Ma (Brack *et al.* 2005; Lehrmann *et al.* 2006; Ovtcharova *et al.* 2006). The Anisian, whose base is as yet undefined, contains 7–13 ammonoid zones (Silberling & Tozer 1968; Tozer 1994; Mietto & Manfrin 1995; Orchard & Tozer 1997; Monnet & Bucher 2005). As shown in Figure 5, the Ladinian, whose base is now accepted to be the first occurrence of *Eoprotrachyceras curionii* (Brack *et al.* 2005), can be subdivided into approximately seven standard ammonoid zones (Tozer 1994; Mietto & Manfrin 1995).

No global or regionally applicable bivalve zones have been identified for the Lower through Middle Anisian. The first globally useful bivalve zone of the Middle Triassic occurs in the upper part of the Middle Anisian (*Balatonites shoshonensis* ammonoid Zone) where several species of *Enteropleura* (Fig. 4e) appear in different and widely-spaced regions including the west Tethys, North America and China (Waller in Waller & Stanley 2005; Hopkin & McRoberts 2005; Chen & Stiller 2007).

Beginning at the base of the Gymnotoceras weitschati ammonoid Zone, a succession of Daonella species permits subdivision of the Upper Anisian through uppermost Ladinian into approximately 5-7 Daonella zones of regional and global significance. Perhaps the best-represented succession of daonellas is known from the Monte San Giorgio section, Switzerland (Rieber 1968, 1969; Schatz 2004), and from the Italian Dolomites (Brack & Rieber 1993). A composite succession begins with Daonella sturi (Benecke) in the Upper Anisian (Paraceratites trinodosus Zone) overlain by the Daonella elongata Mojsisovics group (co-occurring with D. pseudomoussoni Rieber) that dates as uppermost Anisian and lower Ladinian (Reitziites retzi through Eoprototrachyceras curionii Zones). Above this is a distinct zone containing D. moussoni (Merian) (Fig. 4c) which ranges close to the base of the upper Ladinian (Prototrachyceras gredleri Zone), although it may extend a short time above its uppermost boundary. This is in turn followed by two successive Daonella zones: D. picheri Mojsisovics overlain by D. lommeli (Wissmann) that are well represented in the Southern Alps and provide useful correlations to elsewhere in the Tethys and North America.

A North American sequence of daonellas can be constructed using the well documented succession from western Nevada (e.g. Silberling & Tozer 1968; Silberling & Nichols 1982) and northeastern British Columbia, Canada (e.g. Tozer 1967, 1970). The sequence provides several links to the Tethyan succession (e.g. *D. moussoni* (Merian) near the middle/upper Ladinian boundary) and with the Boreal Realm (e.g. *D. americana* Smith and *D. dubia* (Gabb) in the upper Anisian). In North America, the youngest *Daonella* of the Ladinian, *D. elegans* McLearn, is well constrained to the *Frankites sutherlandi* ammonoid zone from north-eastern British Columbia (Tozer 1967) and possibly from western Nevada (Balini et al. 2007). Although they remain poorly documented, several occurrences of *Daonella* are known from lower Carnian strata overlapping with true *Halobia*.

Upper Triassic

The Upper Triassic is subdivided into three stages: in ascending order Carnian, Norian and Rhaetian. The basal Carnian has recently been defined as the base of the *Daxatina canadensis* ammonoid Zone (Mietto *et al.* 2007). Several potential candidates are being considered for a base-Norian GSSP including ammonoids (e.g. *Stikinoceras kerri*) slightly above the first occurrence of *Epigondolella primitius* datum and below several other potential conodont-based levels including first occurrence of *Epigondolella quadrata* (see Orchard 2007). Of the three potential levels for the base Rhaetian, the conodont *Misikella posthernsteini* is the leading candidate (Krystyn *et al.* 2007*b*).

The Carnian through middle Norian can be subdivided into several zones based on Halobia species (Fig. 6). Zonal schemes are provided for the western Tethys Alpine-Mediterranean belt (taken from Gruber 1976; Cafiero & De Capoa Bonardi 1982; De Capoa Bonardi 1984), western North America including the allochthonous and autochthonous elements of British Columbia, southeastern Alaska, Oregon and Nevada (McRoberts 1997, personal observations), and the Boreal regions encompassing northeastern Siberia (Kiparisova et al. 1966; Polubotko 1980, 1984, 1986), Arctic Alaska (Blome et al. 1988; Dutro & Silberling 1988), Arctic Canada (Tozer 1961, 1967), and Svalbard (Campbell 1994). It should be noted that other regions including China (Chen 1964), SE Asia and Melanesia (e.g. Krumbeck 1924; Vu-Khuc 1991; Chonglakmani & Grant-Mackie 1993) and New Zealand (e.g. Marwick 1957; Campbell 1994) have significantly contributed towards our understanding of Halobia biochronology and provide valuable interregional and global correlations.

The Early Carnian *Trachyceras desatoyense* through *Sirenites nanseni* ammonoid zones and equivalents are rather poorly represented by pelagic bivalves in most regions. It is perhaps best represented by *Halobia zitteli* Lindstöm (Fig. 7k) in the Boreal regions of Russia, Canada, and

Svalbard (e.g. Tozer 1961; Polubotko 1980; Campbell 1994). In NE Siberia, H. zitteli Lindstöm may be restricted to the earliest Carnian (Trachyceras desatovense Zone) and is subsequently overlain by four halobiid zones including H. zhilnensis Polubotko with H. talajaensis Polubotko, H. popowi Polubotko, H. ornatissima Smith with H. subfallax Efimovae, and H. asperella Polubotko (Polubotko 1980, 1986; Zakharov et al. 1997). In western North America, however, H. zitteli Lindstöm is poorly represented, and H. rugosa Mojsisovics is more characteristic of the lower Carnian, yet it too may extend into the upper Carnian extending into the Klamathites macrolobatus Zone or even Stikinoceras kerri Zone where it co-occurs with H. superba Mojsisovics and H. radiata Gemmellaro (McRoberts 1997, 2007, personal observations).

The base of the Norian stage (as yet undefined, but here taken as the first occurrence of the ammonoid Stikinoceras kerri) closely corresponds to the first occurrence of Halobia styriaca (Mojsisovics) (Fig. 7i) and H. beyrichi (Mojsisovics) and similar species best represented in low palaeolatitudes with notable occurrences in the western and eastern Tethys and eastern Panthalassa (Gruber 1976; De Capoa Bonardi 1984; McRoberts 1997). A temporally-limited zone spanning the Carnian-Norian boundary is based on H. radiata Gemmellaro that is well represented across the Tethys, Boreal, and low to mid latitude strata in western North America (De Capoa Bonardi 1984; Nicora et al. 2007; McRoberts 2007). Above the zone of H. beyrichi (Mojsisovics) and H. styriaca (Mojsisovics) are a suite of similar forms referable to H. cordillerana Smith (Fig. 7g), H. obruchevi Kiparisova in NE Russia (e.g. Kiparisova et al. 1966; Polubotko 1984) and H. hochstetteri Mojsisovics in New Zealand (Campbell 1994). In the western Tethys, this interval is characterized by a sequence of zones in ascending order: H. mediterranea Gemmellaro, H. darwini Cafiero & De Capoa Bonardi, H. halorica Mojsisovics, H. norica Mojsisovics, and H. distincta Mojsisovics (Gruber 1976; De Capoa Bonardi 1984). Of particular importance is H. halorica Mojsisovics, a short-lived species found in the western Tethys, Russia and in North America which is well constrained to the middle Norian Drepanites rutherfordi into lowermost Mesohimavitites columbianus Zones and equivalents (De Capoa Bonardi 1984; McRoberts 1997).

Eomonotis contains at least 10 species, primarily in the circum-Pacific, and notably absent in the western Tethys, that are all largely restricted to the upper part of the Middle Norian (e.g. below the conodont *Epigondolella bidentata*). The oldest *Eomonotis*, *E. daonellaeformis* Kiparisova and slightly younger *E. pinensis* (Westermann) (Fig. 7e) are found in association with *Halobia* near the first appearance of the conodont *Epigondolella postera* and ammonoid equivalents (e.g. *Mesohimavitites columbianus* II Zone) in western North America and with *E. scutiformis* (Teller) at approximately the same level in far-east Russia and New Zealand (Westermann & Verma 1967; Bychkov *et al.* 1976; Grant-Mackie 1980; Grant-Mackie & Silberling 1990).

Above Eomonotis, the Upper Norian (Gnomohalorites cordilleranus Zone and equivalents) is characterized by numerous species of Monotis (sensu lato) that have proven to be of global biochronological significance (e.g. Ichikawa 1958; Westermann 1973; Bytchkov et al. 1976; Grant-Mackie 1978; Tozer 1980; Silberling 1985; Silberling et al. 1997). Although there are about 30 well-defined species of Monotis that demonstrably occur in the upper Norian, only a few are noteworthy because of their regional and global correlation potential. These include the distinctive M. subcircularis Gabb in the circum-Pacific. Monotis ochotica (Keyserling) across the circum-Pacific and into the Boreal Realm, and Monotis salinaria (Schlotheim) common in the Tethyan Province and perhaps elsewhere in the circum-Pacific. Some authors have differentiated an uppermost Norian into two zones, a lower consisting of M. subcircularis Gabb (Fig. 4f) and an upper zone of M. ochotica (Keyserling) and M. alaskana Smith in certain mid to high-latitude settings (e.g. Grant-Mackie & Silberling 1990; Silberling et al. 1997). It should be noted that both M. subcircularis and *M. ochotica* provide valuable correlations to the upper Norian of South America (e.g. Jaworski 1922; Westermann 1970; Geyer 1973) which are mostly lacking in marine strata during earlier Triassic times. It has been long assumed that Monotis experienced mass extinction close to the Norian/Rhaetian boundary as defined by first appearance of the conodont Misikella posthernsteini and its ammonoid equivalents (various *Paracochloceras* and perhaps Sagentites reticulatus). Recent finds in the Hallstatt limestone in Austria record two surviving and dwarfed species of Monotis above this event, one of which, Monotis rhaetica McRoberts et al. (Fig. 7d) is new (McRoberts et al. 2008).

Although species of *Otapiria* are known from strata as old as Carnian and continue through the Early Jurassic, they take particular temporal significance in the Norian and Rhaetian. For example, *Otapiria ussuriensis* (Voronetz) is the name bearer of a well established zone in the Middle Norian of Siberia (Kiparasova *et al.* 1966; Zakharov *et al.* 1997) and *Otapiria dissimilis* (Cox) is distinctive of the Rhaetian of New Zealand (Marwick 1957; Campbell 1997) and the closely related *Otapiria alpina* Zapfe (Fig. 7b) is restricted to the Rhaetian of the Austrian west-Tethys (Zapfe 1973).



Fig. 7. Representative Upper Triassic pelagic Bivalvia. All scale bars = 1 cm. (a) *Tosapecten efimovae* Polubotko, Rhaetian, Olomon River area, NE Siberia, Russia. (TsNIGR collection, same specimen as in Bychkov *et al.* (1976, pl. 71, fig. 4). (b) *Otapiria alpina* Zapfe, Rhaetian, Zlambach Formation, Rossmoosgraben, Austria (NHMW 1973/ 1623, from Zapfe 1973, pl. 1, fig. 1). (c) *Rhaetavicula contorta* (Portlock), Rhaetian, Kössen Formation, Hochalm, Austria (SUCP collection). (d) *Monotis rhaetica* McRoberts *et al.*, Lower Rhaetian, *Paracochloceras suessi* Zone, Hernstein, Austria (NHMW 2007z0111/0012, from McRoberts *et al.* 2008, pl. 1, fig.15). (e) *Eomonotis pinensis* (Westermann), Middle Norian, *Mesohimavites columbianus* III Zone, Peace River area, British Columbia, Canada (SUCP collection). (f) *Monotis subcircularis* (Gabb), Upper Norian, *Gnomahalorites cordilleranus* Zone, California (USNM 32492, see Martin, 1916, pl. 30, fig. 2). (g) *Halobia cordillerana* Smith, Middle Norian, *Drepanites rutherfordi* Zone, Peace River area, British Columbia, Canada (SUCP collection). (h) *Halobia beyrichi* Mojsisovics, Lower Norian, *Stikinoceras kerri* Zone, Vancouver Island, British Columbia, Canada (GSC 13712. (j) *Halobia styriaca* (Mojsisovics), Lower Norian, *Guembelites jandianus* Zone, Sommerkogel, Austria (SUCP collection). (k) *Halobia zitteli* Lindström, Lower Carnian, Axel Heiberg Island, Arctic Canada (GSC 85851).

Other Late Triassic bivalves of notable biochronological significance

With few exceptions, the uppermost stage of the Triassic is characterized not so much by the emblematic pelagic bivalves, but by level bottom bivalve assemblages with long-ranging species. A few notable species, however, have proven biochronologic value but are mostly relegated to the western Tethys or the Boreal realm of northeastern Russia.

The distinctive pteriid bivalve Rhaetavicula contorta (Portlock) (Fig. 7c) is perhaps the most commonly recognized bivalve and key index of the Rhaetian in shallow-water facies of the western Tethys, southern Germany and across northwestern Europe. Golebioski (1990) provided a most useful summary of the facies, geographical, and temporal distribution of R. contorta (Portlock). Based on recently published high-precision chemostratigraphic correlations between the NW European and Tethys sections (see Hesselbo et al. 2002; Kuerschner et al. 2007), and accepting the base of the Rhaetian to be the first occurrence of the conodont Misikella posternsteni (Krystyn et al. 2007b) which is present in the basal Hochalm Member of the Kössen Formation (Kozur 1996), all true R. contorta (Portlock) are now interpreted to be confined to the Rhaetian. Other claims of R. contorta in the eastern Tethys and circum-Pacific (e.g. Healey 1908; Muller & Ferguson 1939) may indeed be Rhaetian, but have yet to receive satisfactory study to warrant assignment to R. contorta (Portlock).

In the Boreal realm and in far-east Russia in particular, the Rhaetian is characterized by the pectinid Tosapecten. Although Tosapecten sensu stricto appears as early as the Carnian of Japan and other east-Asian, western Panthalassa, and Boreal regions, other representatives of the family group such as Janopecten and Nevadapecten occur in the Middle Triassic (see Arkhipov & Truschelev 1980; Waller in Waller & Stanley 2005). Tosapecten efimovae Polubotko (Fig. 7a) has been a key index for the Rhaetian strata of Boreal far-east Russia (e.g. Polubotko & Repin 1990). This zone encompassing the entire Rhaetian can be subdivided into a lower Camptonectes nanus subzone and an upper Tosapecten efimovae subzone (Polubotko & Repin 1990; Dagys & Dagys 1994). Zakharov et al. (1997) seem to have inverted the Tosapecten effimove and Camptonectes nanus subzones.

Conclusions

The reorganization of marine benthic communities following the end-Permian extinction marked the onset of an essentially modern fauna dominated

by bivalve molluscs during Triassic time. The radiation of bivalves during the Triassic coincided with the origination and proliferation of many pelagic 'flat clam' species, which, because of their high evolutionary turnover and widespread distribution, makes them one of the best macrofossils for biochronological studies. Based on more than a century of work on pelagic bivalves of the Triassic in conjunction with detailed taxonomic study, high-resolution stratigraphic sampling and integration with more traditional biostratigraphic schemes using ammonoids and conodonts, the Triassic Period can been temporally subdivided into more than 30 discrete bivalve zones with a mean duration of typically less than 2 Ma. These bivalve zones can be identified across most of the marine Triassic with significant occurrences in the Tethyan Panthalassa and Boreal realms. Still, there remain many uncertainties in taxonomy of the zonal bivalves and the temporal limits of the established zones.

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Appendix 1. Taxonomic Notes

Family Pterinopectinidae: Claraia sensu lato

Claraia Bittner is a cosmopolitan pectinoid genus originating in the Permian but achieving peak diversity in the Early Triassic. Stemming back to Bittner (1901), it was recognized as a key index of the Early Triassic, and since that time, there have been various opinions as to the familial affinity of Claraia. Most recent workers now consider them to be pectinoids aligned with the Pterinopectinidae (e.g. Zhang 1980; Gavrilova 1995, 1996; Newell & Boyd 1995; Waterhouse 2000, 2008). Following recent workers (e.g. Newell & Boyd 1995; Yang et al. 2001; He et al. 2007) Pseudoclaraia Zhang, and Claraioides Fang are considered to be junior synonyms for Claraia. Other newly proposed clariid genera are based on either surfical morphology (e.g. Rugiclaraia Waterhouse) or represented by poorly known endemic genus-group taxa (e.g. Periclaraia Li & Ding and Epiclaraia Gavrilova) and can be included within current concepts of Claraia. Of the approximately 75 species names for Claraia, 30 or so are considered valid.

Family Monotidae: Monotis sensu lato and Eomonotis

A diverse group of which several genus-level taxa have biochronological significance in mostly Upper Triassic strata Eomonotis Grant-Mackie and Monotis Bronn sensu lato (here including the subgenera Monotis Bronn, Entomonotis Marwick, Pacimonotis Grant-Mackie & Silberling and Maorimonotis Grant-Mackie) represent a coherent clade arising from a likely Meleagrinella ancestor during the Early or Middle Norian. Waller (in Waller & Stanley 2005) considered the Monotioidae to be a superfamily within the Pectinoida and included the families Asoellidae, Monotidae and Oxytomidae. Waterhouse (2001, 2008) relegated the Monotidae to suborder rank and suggested they were derived from a eurydesmatoid ancestor. Although it is acceptable practice to subdivide this species group into several subgenera and/or species groups that may have some phylogenetic significance (Ichikawa 1958; Grant-Mackie 1978; Grant-Mackie & Silberling 1990) none of the proposed genus-groups have been adequately tested with a rigorous cladistic analysis. Of these proposed names, this paper follows the lead of Tozer (1980) in recognizing two broadly construed genus-group taxa: Monotis and Eomonotis.

Family Posidoniidae: Peribositria *and* Ellesmerella

Waller (in Waller & Stanley 2005) elevated Posidoniodea to superfamily and included the families Posidoniidae and Halobiidae. Included in this clade are five genus-group taxa including the posidoniid Peribositria Kurushin & Trushchelev and the halobiid genera Enteropleura Kittl, Daonella Mojsisovics, Aparimella Campbell, and Halobia Bronn. As noted by several workers (e.g. Campbell 1994), the traditional classifications of the Posidonidae (sensu Cox & Newell 1969) contain an artificial grouping of several thin-shelled taxa that are now considered to belong to several different clades. Waterhouse (2008) placed some of these taxa within the Pterinopectinidae along with Claraia (e.g. Halobia, Aparimella, Daonella and some Enteropleura) and some (including true Jurassic Bositra) with several Enteropleura into his new genus Wallerobia (order Ostreoida). A more conservative approach used herein considers all to be pterioids.

The Early and Middle Triassic contains several flat clams which have global biochronologic utility and have been variously placed in *Posidonia* Bronn, *Peribositria* Kurushin & Trushchelev, *Bositra* de Gregorio, and even *Daonella* Mojsisovics (e.g. Kurushin 1980; Waller in Waller & Stanley 2005). Waller (in Waller & Stanley 2005) placed most of the species attributed to *Posidonia* and *Peribositria* into an expanded view of *Bositra*. Because of some outstanding issues regarding morphological detail of the ligament systems of the Triassic forms, and, less so, because the large stratigraphic gap between the Early and Middle Triassic forms and the Jurassic (Oxfordian) representatives, *Peribositria* is provisionally retained until further evidence can be brought to light. At present, about 15 species of *Peribositria* are known ranging from base of the Olenekian through the Middle Anisian.

Although most other species historically attributed to *Posidonia* are rather poorly known, the radial-ribbed *Posidonia aranea* Tozer from the Olenekian of the Boreal province is sufficiently distinct from other so called *Posidonia* and *Peribositria* to warrant recognition. Waterhouse (2008) used this species as the basis for his new aulacomyellid genus *Ellesmerella* that he interpreted to be closely aligned to *Bositra* (etheripectinoid order Ostreoida). Although *Ellesmerella* appears to be valid (its sole species does not appear to belong in an existing genus-group taxon), it is perhaps better placed with the pterioid families Posidonidae or Halobiidae (*sensu* Waller in Waller & Stanley 2005).

Family Halobiidae: Enteropleura, Daonella, Aparimella *and* Halobia

Enteropleura Kittl, here considered to belong to the Halobiidae, is an interesting genus narrowly restricted to the late Middle Anisian. Like other Triassic flat clams, there is some controversy regarding its affinity, but most who have addressed this matter consider them to be the stem group for the Halobiiidae derived from the Posidoniidae (Encheva 1978; Campbell 1994; Waller in Waller & Stanley 2005; Chen & Stiller 2007). Departing from the generally accepted view, however, is Waterhouse (2008) who placed some Enteropleura (including the type species Enteropleura gumbelli Mojsisovics) with etheripectiniids in the Ostreoida and others, including his new Wallerobia (including Enteropleura jenksi Hopkin & McRoberts) within his new family Bositridae. Approximately five species of Enteropleura are known from Europe, Asia, and North America (Chen & Stiller 2007).

A complex evolutionary transition from Daonella Mojsisovics to Halobia Bronn (either directly or via Aparimella Campbell) occurred near the base of the Carnian. For example, Daonella elegans McLearn passes into Halobia gr. H. zitteli Lindström within beds that containing both of the ammonoids Trachyceras and Frankites. At about the same time Daonella nitainae McLearn is found below Halobia daonellaformis McRoberts from similar aged strata in British Columbia. The taxonomy of species groups, subgenera and genera here included within Halobia sensu lato are provided by Kittl (1912), Encheva (1978), Gruber (1976), Polubotko (1984, 1988), Campbell (1994) and McRoberts (1997). Although there exist more that 300 available species names for Halobia, slightly more than 30 species of Halobia are likely valid with significant occurrences in Alpine-Mediterranean (Austria, Italy, Balkans) and circum-Pacific (Canada).

Repository abbreviations

Repositories for illustrated specimens as follows: GSC, Geological Survey of Canada, Ottawa; NHMW, Naturhistorisches Museum, Vienna; PIMZ, Paläontologischen Instituts und Museum, University of Zurich; SM Sedgwick Museum, Department of Earth Sciences, Cambridge University; SUCP, SUNY Cortland Paleontology Collections, Cortland, New York; TsNIGR, Central Geological Research Museum, St. Petersburg; UNIMI, Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra 'Ardito Desio', Univeristy of Milano; USNM, National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C.

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