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A high-latitude Gondwanan lagerstätte: The Permian permineralised peat biota of the Prince Charles Mountains, Antarctica

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A B S T R A C T

The Toploje Member chert is a Roadian to Wordian autochthonous–para-autochthonous silicified peat preserved within the Lambert Graben, East Antarctica. It preserves a remarkable sample of terrestrial life from high-latitude central Gondwana prior to the Capitanian mass extinction event from both mega- and microfossil evidence that includes cryptic components rarely seen in other fossil assemblages. The peat layer is dominated by glossopterid and cordaitalean gymnosperms and contains moderately common herbaceous lycophytes, together with a broad array of dispersed organs of ferns and other gymnosperms. Rare arthropod–plant and fungal–plant interactions are preserved in detail, together with a plethora of fungal morphotypes, Peronosporomycetes, arthropod remains and a diverse coprolite assemblage. Comparisons to other Palaeozoic ecosystems show that the macroflora is of low diversity. The fungal and invertebrate–plant associations demonstrate that a multitude of ecological interactions were well developed by the Middle Permian in high-latitude forest mires that contributed to the dominant coal deposits of the Southern Hemisphere. Quantitative analysis of the constituents of the silicified peat and of macerals within adjacent coal seams reveals that whilst silicified peats provide an unparalleled sample of the organisms forming Permian coals, they do not necessarily reflect the volumetric proportions of constituents within the derived coal. The Toploje Member chert Lagerstätte provides a snapshot of a rapidly entombed mire climax ecosystem in the closing stages of the Palaeozoic, but prior to the onset of the protracted crisis that engulfed and overthrew these ecosystems at the close of the Permian.

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1. Introduction

The Permian was a crucial period in the history of terrestrial life; the Cisuralian (Early Permian) saw the diachronous demise of the Carboniferous-style wetland floras that had dominated equatorial Euramerica during the Carboniferous and Cathaysia during the Asselian–Kungurian (Knoll, 1984; Hilton et al., 2002; Hilton and Cleal, 2007). In the Southern Hemisphere, the Permian witnessed the flourishing of glossopterid cool-temperate swamp forests, which dominated southern Gondwana until their extinction at the end of the period (e.g. White, 1998; McLoughlin, 2011b). Our knowledge of the diversity, vegetation structure, ecology, biotic interactions, and trophic links within these ecosystems is unfortunately limited by a paucity of konservat lagerstätten (sites of exceptional preservation of organisms) in comparison to other time periods in Earth history (e.g. Briggs and Gall, 1990; Selden and Nudds, 2004; Cascales-Miñana, 2011). This preservational bias has hindered our understanding of the developments in austral terrestrial ecosystems during the Permian. A more detailed picture of the trophic complexity and inter-relationships between plants, insects and soil microorganisms would enhance our understanding of how terrestrial communities evolved in the wake of the Gondwanan glaciations up to the end-Permian biotic crisis. The end-Permian mass extinction, which purportedly eradicated up to 95% of all life (Benton and Twitchett, 2003), marks the most significant reduction of diversity in the Phanerozoic. Unlike the Cretaceous/Palaeogene (K/Pg) extinction event 66 Ma, which was likely precipitated by an instantaneous impact mechanism (Alvarez et al., 1980; Vajda and McLoughlin, 2007), the terrestrial biotic turnover at the end of the Palaeozoic appears to have developed as a multiphase series of extinctions (Racki and Wignall, 2005; Yin et al., 2007; de la Horra et al., 2012) that were not necessarily synchronous between disparate regions (Rees, 2002). Evidence from several sources including brachiopod, bivalve, foraminiferal and plant extinctions, shows that major biotic disruptions began in the Capitanian (although often erroneously referred to as the ‘end-Guadalupian extinction’) and this was followed by a protracted diachronous decline in Palaeozoic life throughout the rest of the Permian (Yin et al., 2007; Bond et al., 2010). Discussion of the timing and proposed causes of the extinction(s) beginning in the Capitanian can be found in several sources
and include diverse triggers and mechanisms for biotic turnover, such as the massive outpourings of flood basalts, which now form the Siberian Traps, climatic warming, increased aridity, loss of coastal habitats, ocean anoxia or a combination of these mechanisms (Racki and Wignall, 2005; Retallack et al., 2006; Yin et al., 2007; Clapham et al., 2009; Isozaki, 2009, 2010; Ali, 2010; Bond et al., 2010; de la Horra et al., 2012; Benton and Newell, 2013; Retallack, 2013).

The Roadian–Wordian-aged Toploje Member chert of the Prince Charles Mountains (PCMs) preserves, in exceptional three-dimensional detail, the permineralised remains of a terrestrial mire ecosystem prior to the biotic decline that began in the Capitanian and continued through the Lopingian until the Permo-Triassic transition (Retallack et al., 2006; Yin et al., 2007; Bond et al., 2010; de la Horra et al., 2012; Retallack, 2013). The Toploje Member chert offers a snapshot of the final phases of ‘stable’ terrestrial life before the crisis that engulfed and overthrew these ecosystems.

Aside from its significance in recording a key episode in terrestrial life, the Toploje Member chert also preserves an important in situ community of macro- and micro-organisms that constituted part of the high-latitude Glossopteris mire flora that typified vast expanses of southern Gondwana during the Permian (e.g. Anderson et al., 1999; Pigg and Nishida, 2006; McLoughlin, 2011b) and contributed to the Southern Hemisphere’s major economic coal resources. The structure of Gondwanan coal is relatively well understood in terms of maceral content and distribution (e.g. Navale and Saxena, 1989; Diesell and Smyth, 1995; Osório et al., 2006; Kalkreuth et al., 2010; Van de Wetering et al., 2013), but how this relates to the taxonomic representation of plant constituents and their component parts is less well resolved, since the transition from peat to coal involves significant volumetric and compositional changes due to differential compaction of plant parts and diagenetic loss of volatiles. Quantitative comparison of the constituents of the Toploje Member permineralised peat and coals from the same stratigraphic unit provide a means of evaluating the original composition of the coal-forming biota and the changes in coal composition with diagenesis.

The diversity of species in ancient terrestrial ecosystems is inherently difficult to assess. Although not without taphonomic filtering, marine deposits tend to offer a much richer sampling of the shelly biota in the environment as a consequence of bioclastic persistence and sedimentary sorting (see Cleal et al., 2012). Therefore, it falls to the patchy occurrences of terrestrial konservat lagerstätten to provide a more accurate picture of what life was like at any one place in time on land. Exceptional preservation occurs elsewhere in Antarctica during the Late Permian with silicified plant remains known from two main deposits in the central Transantarctic Mountains. The Skaar Ridge and Collinson Ridge silicified peats of the Transantarctic Mountains appear to be derived from small lenses or possibly fluvially rafted mats of peat associated with volcanioclastic sediments (Taylor et al., 1989; McManus et al., 2002), in contrast to the laterally extensive Toploje Member chert representing a large autochthonous mire community preserved in a succession lacking volcanogenic sediments.

We employ a battery of techniques to elucidate the biotic constituents of a typical peat-forming mire community in Gondwanan high latitudes during the Middle Permian. Further, we assess the taphonomy, quantitative representation of components, and evidence of biotic and other physical interactions to elucidate the depositional setting and palaeoecology of the coal-forming mires of the Lambert Graben. We also survey the fossil record of plant–arthropod interactions across Gondwana to assess the diversity and importance of disparate herbivory strategies in high-latitude glossopterid-dominated communities prior to the end-Permian biotic crisis. Finally, we contrast these findings with the results of a maceral analysis of associated coals to assess whether the petrography of the coals provides a meaningful representation of the original peat community structure.

### 2. Material and methods

Samples of a range of sizes were collected from multiple localities along a low ridgeline exposing the Toploje Member chert (Fig. 1). A variety of palaeobotanical techniques were then used to investigate the contents of the peats; blocks of the chert were sectioned using a Buehler Isomet 5000 linear precision saw. Following sectioning, acetate peels were produced from the blocks using the technique outlined by Galtier and Phillips (1999). The surface of each block was polished and then submerged in a shallow bath of cold 30% hydrofluoric acid solution for approximately 90 s in order to etch away the silica matrix and leave a thin layer of organic matter standing proud of the surface. Each block was then rinsed with distilled water, dried, then covered with acetone before laying a cellulose acetate sheet on the surface to create a peel that was then studied using a transmitted light microscope. Peels were found to be inferior to thin sections for the study of fungi, Peronosporomycetes and coprolites in accordance with the findings of Taylor et al. (2011) and, where possible, thin sections were preferentially produced for the study of these elements. Several samples from a range of localities across the peat outcrop were selected for bulk maceration in a cold 30% hydrofluoric acid solution. Samples were left in the solution for two weeks and then the remaining organic debris was extracted using a 150 micron nylon sieve. Sieved organic remains were then placed into a petri dish of distilled water and studied using an optical stereomicroscope. Plant, arthropod and fungal remains were then picked while hydrated using a fine art brush. Elements of interest were then mounted on aluminium stubs and sputter-coated with gold to enhance conductivity for imaging with a Hitachi S-4300 field emission scanning electron microscope at the Swedish Museum of Natural History (Naturhistoriska riksmuseet). Several elements of the flora extracted via bulk maceration were also analysed using synchrotron X-ray tomographic microscopy. X-ray microtomography was conducted at the TOMCAT beamline of the Swiss Light Source, Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland (Slater et al., 2011) using the techniques described by Donoghue et al. (2006). Illustrated material is registered in the palaeobotany collections of the Swedish Museum of Natural History, Stockholm (prefix RNM) and Geoscience Australia (prefix CPC).

Quantitative analysis of the silicified peat was made by point counting across 20 randomly selected thin sections at 200 μm increments for 4000 points. In addition, four thin sections made from charcoal-rich samples were selected for point counting to analyse variation in peat composition between regular and wildfire-affected microfacies within the Toploje Member chert.

The organic petrology of a selected set of Middle to Upper Permian coal samples from the Bainmedart Coal Measures was carried out by a commercial coal analytical contractor (Keiraville Konsultants Pty Ltd, Wollongong, Australia). Results from proximate analyses of these samples were presented by Holdgate et al. (2005); only the data on maceral proportions in the coals are presented here.

### 3. Geological setting and palaeogeography

Antarctica occupied a central position within Gondwana through the late Palaeozoic and early Mesozoic (McLoughlin, 2001; Fig. 1). This location endowed Antarctica with a key role in floristic interchange between the various peripheral regions of the supercontinent (McLoughlin, 2001; Ryberg, 2010). Outside the Transantarctic Mountains, the only Permo-Triassic sedimentary succession in East Antarctica is preserved in the Lambert Graben within the Prince Charles Mountains region. The Lambert Graben has been interpreted to represent the southern extension of the Mahanadi Graben in India in pre-breakup palaeogeographic reconstructions of Gondwana (Fedorov et al., 1982; Stagg, 1985; Veevers, 2004; Harewoodfield et al., 2005; Boger, 2011; Slater et al., 2011), although alternative alignments with the Godavari Graben have also been mooted (Holdgate et al., 2005). Throughout the Early and Middle Permian, the

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Fig. 1. Map of Gondwana for the Permian showing the distribution of sedimentary basins of that age (grey) and sites yielding evidence of plant–herbivore interactions (see Appendix 1); base map from McLoughlin (2001). Inset map shows the geology of the Radok Lake area, Prince Charles Mountains, with the sites sampled for permineralized peat at the top of the Tolpoje Member.
northern Prince Charles Mountains (Fig. 1) occupied a palaeolatitude of ~65–70°S (McLoughlin et al., 1997), similar to its modern position.

The studied chert constitutes the silified uncompressed upper portion of a coal seam, which forms the uppermost bed of the 303 m thick Toploje Member (Fig. 2) of the lower Bainmedart Coal Measures in the northern Prince Charles Mountains, East Antarctica (McLoughlin and Drinnan, 1997a). The chert bed is locally up to 40 cm thick and is exposed over a strike length of 3 km (Fig. 1). The Bainmedart Coal

**Fig. 2.** Stratigraphic column of the Permian and Triassic strata in the Prince Charles Mountains (Lambert Graben) showing the position of the Toploje Member chert lagerstätten.
Measures represent the middle unit of the Permian–Triassic Amery Group (see Fielding and Webb, 1996; McLoughlin and Drinnan, 1997a, for detailed stratigraphic sections of this unit). The coal measures rest disconformably or partially unconformably on the Radok Conglomerate of Kungurian to early Roadian age, and are in turn conformably overlain by the Flagstone Bench Formation of Triassic age (McLoughlin and Drinnan, 1997b). The Baimedart Coal Measures are dominated by thick cross-bedded sandstones, siltstones and coals deposited in a cyclic pattern, which has been attributed to the action of Milankovitch-induced changes to sediment supply (Fielding and Webb, 1996).

The chert bed represents the upper part of a peat profile that was impregnated with silica prior to any significant sedimentary loading or compression, hence the entombed plant remains have avoided coalification (Slater et al., 2011). Palynological correlation to the Australian Didicirrilites ericianus Zone gives a Roadian–Wordian age for the Toploje Member chert (Lindström and McLoughlin, 2007). Flooding with mineral-rich lake waters and then permineralisation isolated the peat-forming process. The conformably overlying Dragons Teeth Member consists of a series of sideritic shales and minor sandstones deposited in a lacustrine setting (Fielding and Webb, 1996).

Data and findings of this study of the Toploje Member chert will now be presented and discussed.

4. Biota

4.1. Composition of the silicified peat

The macrofloral diversity within the silicified peats is relatively low, being dominated by the constituent dispersed organs of arborescent glossopterid and cordaitalean gymnosperms. Matted leaves of both Glossopteris (Glossopteridales) and Noeggerathia (Cordaitales), together with roots (Vertebraria) and stem wood (Australaxonylon) are the most prominent constituents of the peat (McLoughlin and Drinnan, 1996; Holdgate et al., 2005). However, the crypto mic- and mesofossil components of the peat reveal a much greater biotic diversity in the mire ecosystem than is evident from the macroscopic remains. The fossil micro-organism assemblage includes a broad range of fungal hyphae and reproductive structures together with superficially similar organisms such as Peronosporomycetes (Slater et al., 2013). Although arthropod exoskeleton fragments are sparse, disarticulated and fragmentary, a rich entomofauna is indicated by the wealth and diversity of invertebrate feeding traces and coprolite morphotypes, both distinct in the peat matrix and preserved within specific plant organs (Weaver et al., 1997; Holdgate et al., 2005; Slater et al., 2012; see Table 1 for a list of the biota found to date in the peat). The preservation of groups such as saprotrophic Peronosporomycetes (Oomycoctia) add to the sparse, but growing fossil record of these important elements of terrestrial ecosystems (Schwendemann et al., 2009; Klings and Taylor, 2011; Slater et al., 2013). These, together with a broad diversity of fungal interactions, show that the glossopterid plant was the primary host of a ‘component community’ of saprotrophs, herbivores and detritivores at high latitudes until the end–Permain extinction of this plant group. The roles of soil-inhabiting microorganisms in modern high-latitude peats are still poorly understood (Tvet et al., 2012), so additional investigation of fossil occurrences will improve our knowledge of the evolution of such ecosystems (Adi et al., 2010). The dispersed palynoflora in the silicified peat has not yet been fully documented but includes a broad range of fern, phanerophytes, and lycophytes spores and cymado phyte and pteridosperm pollen that attest to a much higher floristic diversity in the immediate vicinity of the mire ecosystem. Diverse glossopterid pollen morphotypes are also evident within the peat but significant intrastratigraphic variation of the grains has been recorded within Arberiella (glossopterid) sporangia from the peat layer (Lindström et al., 1997) suggesting that apparent levels of glossopterid diversity in the ecosystem based on dispersed pollen floras are inflated. Although Paracalamites australis (phanerophytes) axes occur sparsely as impressions
Table 1
Summary of the biota preserved in the Toploje Member silicified peat.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species/organism/organ/trace</th>
<th>Affinity</th>
<th>Occurrence</th>
<th>Relative abundance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sinopteris hystricosa</td>
<td>Megaspore (heterosporous Lycophyta)</td>
<td>Dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Common; &gt; 50 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dusosporites lambertensis</td>
<td>Megaspore (heterosporous Lycophyta)</td>
<td>Within peat matrix</td>
<td>Rare; 2 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bankosporites antarcticus</td>
<td>Megaspore (heterosporous Lycophyta)</td>
<td>Within peat matrix</td>
<td>Rare; 2 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herbaceous lycophyte</td>
<td>Heterosporous Lycophyta</td>
<td>Dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Common; &gt; 40 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fern sporangia</td>
<td>Ferns (several taxa)</td>
<td>Dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Relatively abundant; present in ~50% of samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vertebraria (at least two anatomical types)</td>
<td>Roots of the Glossopteris plant</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix, commonly in dense ramifying mats</td>
<td>Abundant; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austrolyson (two species)</td>
<td>Wood of the Glossopteris (and possibly Noeggerathiopsis) plant</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix, some microfossils are clearly rich in wood</td>
<td>Common; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glossopteris (possibly several species)</td>
<td>Leaves of the Glossopteris plant</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix, commonly as thick deposits of matted leaves</td>
<td>Abundant; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noeggerathiopsis sp.</td>
<td>Leaves of Cordaitales</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix, commonly as thick deposits of matted leaves</td>
<td>Common; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trichome-fringed cuticle</td>
<td>Gymnosperm with brachyparacytic stomata</td>
<td>Occurs sparsely dispersed throughout the peat matrix</td>
<td>Rare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed morphotype 1</td>
<td>Small (-1 mm) spinose seed: indeterminate gymnosperm</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix, commonly in dense deposits of matted leaves</td>
<td>Relatively abundant; present in ~40% of samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed morphotype 2</td>
<td>Small (-1 mm) smooth seed: indeterminate gymnosperm</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix, commonly in dense deposits of matted leaves</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed morphotype 3</td>
<td>Small (-1 mm) winged seed: indeterminate gymnosperm</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix, commonly in dense deposits of matted leaves</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 1: non-septate/aseptate hyphae</td>
<td>Zygomyccota</td>
<td>Dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Common; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 2: septate hyphae</td>
<td>Gloeomycota?</td>
<td>Occur dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Common; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 3: hyphae with swellings</td>
<td>Gloeomycota?</td>
<td>Occur dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Common; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 4: smooth-weakly ornamented spores</td>
<td>Smallest, smooth forms are probably chytrid zoosporangia</td>
<td>Occur dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Common; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 5: large smooth-weakly ornamented spores</td>
<td>Gloeomycota? Commonly have small chytrid fungi adhering to the external surface</td>
<td>Occur dispersed throughout peat matrix in samples rich in Vertebraria roots</td>
<td>Common; present in almost all samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 6: spinose oblong spores</td>
<td>Ascosporae (Ascomycota)</td>
<td>Occur dispersed throughout peat matrix commonly in clusters</td>
<td>Relatively abundant; present in ~50% of samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 7: fungi within pollen</td>
<td>Chytrid? Sapromorphic fungi (Chytridiomycota)?</td>
<td>Occur within or on the surface of bisaccate pollen</td>
<td>Relatively abundant; present in ~50% of samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 8: disc-like clusters of small fungal cells</td>
<td>Chytrid? Sapromorphic fungi (Chytridiomycota)?</td>
<td>Occur dispersed throughout peat matrix</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 9: complex fruiting bodies</td>
<td>Sclerosporus sporocarp?</td>
<td>Occur dispersed throughout peat matrix in samples rich in Vertebraria roots</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fungal morphotype 10: sclerotia</td>
<td>Fungal resting body</td>
<td>Occur in isolation and in rows where the peat is layered</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combresomycites caespitosus</td>
<td>Peronosporomycetes (water moulds)</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix in association with a wide range of plant tissues and organic debris</td>
<td>Common; &gt; 50 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combresomycites rarius</td>
<td>Peronosporomycetes (water moulds)</td>
<td>Occurs throughout the peat matrix in association with a wide range of plant tissues and organic debris</td>
<td>Common; &gt; 40 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragment of exoskeleton</td>
<td>Indeterminate arthropod</td>
<td>Within peat matrix</td>
<td>Rare; 2 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coprolites in Vertebraria and Austrolyson (dark)</td>
<td>Wood-boring arthropod</td>
<td>Roots, wood</td>
<td>High; &gt; 1000 in some slides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coprolites in Vertebraria and Austrolyson (light)</td>
<td>Probably oribatid mites</td>
<td>Roots, wood</td>
<td>High; &gt; 1000 in some slides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coprolites in leaves</td>
<td>Possible leaf-mining or detritivorous arthropod</td>
<td>Between anastomosing veins of Glossopteris leaves</td>
<td>Relatively common; &gt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coprolite within fern sporangium</td>
<td>Small palynophagous arthropod</td>
<td>Inside fern sporangium</td>
<td>Single occurrence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated large coprolites</td>
<td>Indeterminate arthropod</td>
<td>Amongst matted leaf remains</td>
<td>Relatively common; &gt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated small coprolites</td>
<td>Indeterminate arthropod</td>
<td>Isolated in peat matrix, amongst matted leaf remains</td>
<td>Relatively common; &gt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coprolites containing fungi</td>
<td>Fungivorous arthropod</td>
<td>Roots, wood and isolated in the peat matrix</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coprolites containing pollen</td>
<td>Palynophagous arthropod</td>
<td>Isolated in the peat amongst Glossopteris-dominated debris</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coprolites with coarse contents</td>
<td>Probably generalist detritivorous arthropod</td>
<td>Indeterminate arthropod</td>
<td>Relatively uncommon; &lt; 10 specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirally ornamented coprolite</td>
<td>Indeterminate arthropod</td>
<td>Isolated in the peat matrix</td>
<td>Rare; single specimen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vertebraria

- Fern sporangia: Ferns (several taxa) | Dispersed throughout peat matrix | Relatively abundant; present in almost all samples

- Herbaceous lycophyte
- Austrolyson
- Glossopteris
- Noeggerathiopsis sp.
- Trichome-fringed cuticle

- Seed morphotypes
- Fungal morphotypes
- Fungi within pollen

- Fungal morphotypes
- Fungal morphotypes
- Fungal morphotypes

- Combresomycites

- Fragment of exoskeleton

- Coprolites in leaves

- Coprolites within fern sporangium

- Isolated large and small coprolites

- Coprolites containing fungi

- Coprolites containing pollen

- Coprolites with coarse contents

- Spirally ornamented coprolite

Liptinite (waxy and resinous plant components) makes up 9.07–23.97% of the coal [9.6–(32.32)–42.49% on a mineral free basis]. The great majority of this is represented by sporinite (5.8–42.25% on a mineral free basis), with consistently low levels of cutinite (Fig. 4). Suberinite, resinite, alginit and liptodetrinite are represented only in trace amounts.

Inertinite and liptinite broadly increase through the Roadian–mid-Wuchiapingian interval (Toploje Member–Grainger Member) associated...
with a corresponding decline in vitrinite (Fig. 4). No clear trend is evident amongst maceral groups for the uppermost Permian (mid-Wuchiapingian–Changhsingian: McKinnon Member), although both inertinite and liptinite levels remain high.

5. Palaeoecology

5.1. Vegetation structure

Vegetation stratification is evident in the assemblage of plants preserved in the Toploje Member chert. Autochthonous upright stumps with a height of 30 cm and diameter of up to 20 cm are locally preserved in the chert together with more abundant parautochthonous axes generally <20 cm in diameter preserved parallel to bedding (Holdgate et al., 2005). These stumps and stems attest to the presence of abundant arborescent gymnosperms. Two stem wood morphospecies, *Australoxylon bainii* and *Australoxylon mondii*, were recognised by Weaver et al. (1997) and clearly correspond to two similar gymnosperms; the most likely affiliations being with glossopterids or cordaitaleans based on the co-preserved leaf genera (*Glossopteris* and *Noeggerathiopsis*). *Australoxylon mondii* stem wood cannot be distinguished anatomically from *Vertebraria* (glossopterid) root wood, apart from the absence of...
schizogenous cavities, suggesting that they likely originated from the same glossopterid plant (Weaver et al., 1997; McLoughlin, 2011b; see Bateman and Hilton, 2009). Two morphotypes of Vertebraria roots were recognised and described from the peats by Neish et al. (1993), categorised as ‘polyarch’ and ‘solid cylinder’ based on their ontogeny and architecture (Fig. 5A). The polyarch and solid cylinder roots may correspond to two distinct plant species or may be functionally different roots belonging to the same parent glossopterid plant (Neish et al.,

Fig. 5. Range of biota found in thin sections of the Toploje Member silicified peat. A. NRM 5087800, Vertebraria solid-stele and polyarch roots colonised by fungal spores and hyphae in the peat matrix, scale = 1 mm. B. NRM 5088061, young Vertebraria root tip in longitudinal section, scale = 1 mm. C. NRM 5087847, transverse section through a silicified gymnosperm stem with fungal pocket rot, scale = 1 cm. D. NRM 5089551, large coprolite between matted Glossopteris leaves [similar to that figured by Baxendale (1979), plate 65, figure 1] and akin to Baxendale’s (1979), plate 65, figure 8] ‘type B’ coprolites from Pennsylvanian coal balls, scale = 1 mm. E. NRM 5089553, matted Noeggerathiopsis leaves with prominent abaxial trichome-bearing furrows, scale = 500 μm. F. CPC34952, transverse section through the axis of a herbaceous lycophyte, scale = 500 μm. G. NRM 5087932-01-03, pyrite crystals amongst plant debris embedded in silica matrix, scale = 500 μm.
A broad range of dispersed bisaccate, monosaccate, monosulcate and polyplicate pollen within the peat denotes an additional range of shrub- to tree-sized gymnosperms in the vicinity of the mire.

Stems and microphylls of diminutive herbaceous lycophytes are moderately common within the peat and are co-observed with three genera and species of megaspore (Slater et al., 2011). These appear to have been centimetre-scale Paurodendron-like heterosporous lycophytes that grew on the consistently moist peat surface (Fig. 5F). Roots of these plants occur sporadically within the leaf debris microfacies of the peat.

Fern sporangia with intact contents are relatively common in both thin sections and bulk macerations of the Toploje Member chert, though no leaves or stems of these plants have yet been discovered. The abundance of sporangia and paucity of fern vegetative remains may be the result of: (1) an extremely delicate nature of the plants resulting in their low preservational potential; (2) an epiphytic habit, with ferns residing high on the stems of Glossopteris trees and retaining their foliage there until decay; or (3) transport of sporangia and spores into the mire via wind or water from hinterland plant communities. Small epiphytic ferns of Tubicaius sp. are known from Early Permian deposits from Chemnitz in Saxony, Germany (Rößler, 2000). These epiphytes appear among the assemblage of plants that grew in close association with a mantle of adventitious roots of the well-studied tree-fern Psaronius (Rößler, 2000). No direct evidence of epiphytes has yet been found associated with glossopterid remains, though they are a common feature of most modern moist forest communities (Barrels and Chen, 2012).

Adaptations for the high-palaeolatitude environment include a deciduous habit for glossopterids based on the numerous thick mats of leaves that occur as compression fossils and in the silicified peat representing seasonal leaf-shedding events (Retallack et al., 1995; Krull, 1998; Retallack, 1999; Holdgate et al., 2005; McLaughlin, 2011b). Such mats of apparently monospecific glossopterid leaves are common features of the Toploje Member chert (Fig. 5D). Austrauroxylon bainii and A. mondii woods found in the peats also have distinct growth rings that terminate abruptly, indicating a swift transition to winter dormancy (Weaver et al., 1997; Gulbranson et al., 2012), seasonal water regimes (Francis, 1986), or both.

Special anatomical adaptations to a waterlogged environment are expressed in the architecture of the preserved gymnosperm axes. Vertebria roots contain large schizogenous chambers (Figs. 5A, B, 6B, 7C–E) that possibly functioned to aid respiration in the anoxic or dysoxic peat environment (Retallack and Dilcher, 1988; Neish et al., 1993; Decombeix et al., 2009). Vertebria is very characteristic of pallid to dark paleaeols immediately underlying coal seams throughout Gondwana. These soils developed in dysoxic waterlogged environments and commonly host great densities of horizontal and low-angle root (Vertebria) systems (Schopf, 1982; McLaughlin, 1993; Slater et al., 2012). Austrauroxylon mondii also has notable gaps between the ray cells that may have functioned as an aeration system in the lower stem wood of the glossopterid plant (Weaver et al., 1997). Dense horizontally extensive Vertebria root mat systems may also have helped to stabilise the glossopterid poor in cohesive waterlogged soils by intermeshing with the roots of neighbouring trees, as occurs in extant plants that inhabit boggy soils, e.g. Kahikatea (Dacrycarpus dacrydioides) of New Zealand (Wardle, 1974; Wardle, 1991).

Other adaptations to moist or semi-aquatic environments amongst the PCM plants include the elaborately ornamented surface of the most abundant megaspore species, Singhisporites hystrix (Figs. 6I, 7H, I). Its furcate spines may have functioned to aid dispersal through hydrochores in saturated environments and to facilitate entrapment of conspecific micropores in water (Tewari et al., 2009; Slater et al., 2011). The weakly spiny micropores associated with S. hystric can be seen to interlock with the complex ornamentation of the megaspore in X-ray synchrotron tomographic images (Slater et al., 2011). Lycopsids were typical of wetland habitats or riparian areas from the Devonian to present (Falcon-Lang, 2003).

Modern high-latitude forests occupying the Boreal biome are limited in their distribution primarily by temperature and the proximity of permafrost to the surface, which hampers water and nutrient uptake (Sayre, 1994). The Glossopteris forests of the mid-Permian would have been subject to similar light regimes, but ambient temperatures were probably much higher than at their equivalent modern latitudes (Angiolini et al., 2009). Hence, permafrost development was unlikely to have limited water supply for plant growth.

5.2. Fungi and fungi-like organisms

In contrast to the low-diversity macroflora, there is a notably high diversity of fungi and fungi-like organisms in the Toploje Member silicified peat (Figs. 5A, C, 6D–F). This is consistent with models of modern high-latitude forests dominated by deciduous trees (Wu et al., 2011), where the soil can be rich in leaf litter and other plant detritus exploitable by fungi. Examples of fungi in the peat matrix and within dispersed plant organs within the Toploje Member chert include septate and non-septate hyphae, a range of fungal spores, saprotrophic chytrid fungi, fungal sclerotia, and possible mycorrhizal associations (Figs. 5A, 6D, E, F). Regularly (seasonally) distributed pocket rot (Weaver et al., 1997) occurs within the Austrauroxylon wood (Fig. 5C). Appositions are evident in secondary xylem cells of sub axial axes, presumably representing a plant response to fungal invasion (Bhuiyan et al., 2009). Other fungi-like microorganisms include two species of Peronosporomycetes or ‘water moulds’ represented by distinctive fuscate spinose oogonia, Combresomyces caesiposus and Combresomyces rarus (Slater et al., 2013). These were likely saprotrophic rather than parasitic forms, and such organisms are very common in modern moist terrestrial habitats (Jobard et al., 2010).

5.3. Plant–animal–fungal interactions

The Toploje Member chert is one of only a few Palaeozoic–Mesozoic deposits from which a detailed survey of the arthropod–plant interactions has been undertaken (McLaughlin et al., 2011; Slater et al., 2012) and one of only a small number of assemblages across Gondwana for which multiple forms of herbivory on Permian plants has been documented (Fig. 1; Appendix 1). The majority of past records are examples of folivory traces on the margins of Glossopteris leaves but a few records reveal attack on other parts of the Glossopteris plant and on other gymnosperms and pteridophytes in the flora (Appendix 1). Most of these plant–animal interactions have been documented from compression-impression floras (Appendix 1). Other Palaeozoic and Mesozoic assemblages from which invertebrate–plant relationships and coprolite suites have been extensively documented include those from the Silurian and Lower Devonian deposits in the Welsh Borderland (Edwards, 1996; Edwards et al., 2012), the Rhynie Chert (Habgood et al., 2004), the Pennsylvania coal balls of the United States (Baxendale, 1979), the ‘component community’ of invertebrate feeders on the Palaeozoic tree fern Psaronius (Rößler, 2000; D’Rozario et al., 2011a, 2011b), and the Upper Triassic permineralised peat of Hopen in the Svalbard archipelago (Strullu-Derrien et al., 2012). The identification of feeding traces in the roots (Vertebria), stems (Austrauroxylon) and leaves (Glossopteris) of the arborescent Antarctic glossopterid whole-plant, integrated with records of feeding traces from other assemblages (see Appendix 1 and references therein), illustrates that all major organs of the glossopterid plant were attacked by a community of invertebrates (Slater et al., 2012). Arthropod coprolites inside fern sporangia show that exploitation of plant food sources was not limited to glossopterids. The herbaceous lycophytes of the understory (Slater et al., 2011) may also have provided an important source of food or egg-hosting sites for invertebrates based on the extra-Gondwanan occurrence of Triassic Isoetites bearing oviposition scars on their leaves (Moisan et al., 2012).

Small faecal pellets attributed to orbitalid mites are the most abundant coprolites in the Toploje Member silicified peat (Fig. 6C). These
small coprolites commonly occur in dense clusters and are dimensionally and morphologically identical to those of extant oribatid mites (Rusek, 1975; Vegter, 1983; Slater et al., 2012). Molecular dating has placed the origin of the oribatid mites at 571 ± 37 million years ago (Schaefer et al., 2010). This predates their first occurrence in the fossil record by a large ‘mite gap’ of ∼130–90 ± 40 million years (Schaefer
et al., 2010). There must have been significant pre-Devonian radiation and adaptation of oribatid mites since the group was already moderately diverse by the Devonian (Norton et al., 1988) and complex land based food webs already existed in the Silurian (Edwards, 1996), including some mite-like microarthropod coprolites (Hagström and Melhqvist, 2012). Hence, microcoprolite studies offer the potential to not only track the early history of some arthropod clades in the absence of body fossils, but also to assess patterns of food consumption and guild/trophic complexity.

Alongside being potential early colonisers of the terrestrial environment, oribatid mites and other soil-dwelling microarthropods were likely important drivers in the development of the soil-based ecosystems in which Palaeozoic vascular plants thrived. A diverse and abundant invertebrate soil fauna including oribatid mites is known to be important for macro-vegetation in the recycling of nutrients from decaying plant matter, and for enhancing soil aeration and water retention through increased porosity (Bardgett, 2005). Recent studies of extant oribatid mites have revealed that they play a role in dispersing the spores of ectomycorrhizal fungi within the soil via their faeces and through entrapment of spores in the hairs of their exoskeleton (Lilleskov and Bruns, 2005). The presence of oribatid mites likely also supported a community of soil micro-predators such as pseudoscorpions, which prey upon extant mites and also have a fossil record extending to the Devonian (Shear et al., 1998b). The abundance of oribatid mite coprolites in the Toploje Member chart attests to their key role in recycling organic matter and opening up pathways for fungal decomposers in the plant litter and dead wood of high-latitude Gondwanan coal-forming mires. Modern boreal forests that include a significant proportion of deciduous trees have been shown to house a high diversity of soil organisms comparable even to that of tropical rainforests (Wu et al., 2011). The exceptional preservation in the Toploje Member chart provides an opportunity to assess the invertebrate diversity and trophic guilds in these mires prior to the onset of ecosystem decline that began in the Capitanian, and could aid our understanding of the impact of the end-Palaeozoic floral turnover on the associated terrestrial invertebrate biota (Anderson et al., 1999; Labandeira, 2005; Slater et al., 2012).

The remains of animals are probably more common in silicified plant-bearing deposits than has been generally documented (Smoot and Taylor, 1985), since it is inherently difficult to identify an arthropod body fossil in thin section amongst densely packed plant remains, particularly since plant and arthropod cuticles look similar in thin section (Bartram et al., 1987). Further, distinctive waxy citellate annelid egg cases have not yet been recorded from any Palaeozoic peats, which is surprising given that these remains are readily recognisable and common in Mesozoic to modern floodbasin deposits (Manum et al., 1991; Jansson et al., 2008; Tosolini and Pole, 2010; Bomfleur et al., 2012). More extensive use of the bulk maceration technique on silicified peats and other organic-rich sediments offers the potential to extract more taxonomically informative components of arthropod exoskeletons (e.g., wings) and annelid egg capsules.

Sparse trace fossils occur in the Permian–Triassic Amery Group fluviatile sediments of the Prince Charles Mountains including Planolites trails and short vertical burrows (McLoughlin et al., 1997) that attest to the presence of vermiciform invertebrates. Permian–Triassic strata elsewhere in Antarctica host a variety of non-marine arthropod ichnogenera giving clues to the stream and entomofoana; e.g., Diplodichnites and Diplonichites myriapod traces were reported from the Permian–Triassic sediments of the central Transantarctic Mountains, together with an interpreted resting trace of a jumping insect (Briggs et al., 2010).

Tetrapods are currently unknown from Permian strata of the Prince Charles Mountains as either body fossils or ichnofossils (McLoughlin et al., 1997). The fossil record of Gondwanan Permian terrestrial vertebrates is poor beyond the confines of the Karoo Basin in South Africa (Rubidge et al., 1995; Lucas, 2004). It is possible that macro-herbivores were relatively sparse in southern high latitudes during the Permian, particularly in forest mire communities. The deciduous habit of the dominant woody plants, coupled with strongly seasonal climatic fluctuations at high latitudes, probably made conditions unfavourable for large populations of herbivores without special physiological adaptations or the capacity to migrate long distances (Collinson and Hammer, 2007).

5.4. Energy pathways

Based on the composition of, and interactions between, the fossil biota, we reconstruct the energy pathways in this Middle Permian mire ecosystem (Fig. 8). In the absence of tetrapods, we interpret the high-latitude mire community to have been dominated by a low diversity of woody gymnosperms and sparse understory ferns and lycophytes that supported a broad range of invertebrate herbivores and detritivores. The primary producers were dominantly tree-sized glossopterid gymnosperms together with a significant proportion of Noeggerathioptis (Cordaitales) of similar stature. Less abundant understory elements of the flora included ferns and herbaceous lycophytes (Fig. 8). Detritivores were dominantly oribatid mites, but other larger forms of generalist- and specialist-feeding arthropods are evidenced by the diverse range of coprolites. Fungi and fungi-like organisms appear to have played key roles in nutrient cycling through saprotrophy, and possibly via mycorrhizal interactions with the plants. The Glossopteris trees themselves appear to have been the keystone species within the ecosystem, since many groups of arthropods and fungal saprotophous fed directly or indirectly on both the living and decaying tissues of the Glossopteris plant. Based on the high-latitude setting and evidence of pronounced annual growth increments in the gymnosperms, the energy flux and consumer activity in this ecosystem likely varied greatly on a seasonal basis. Abiotic factors that influenced this ecosystem included consistently saturated substrates (either high rainfall or groundwater supply) and regular fire events as evidenced by significant quantities of charcoal commonly occurring in distinct bands within the peats (Fig. 8).

6. Taphonomy

6.1. Accumulation model

The plant organs found in the peat lack signs of regular abrasion and are preserved relatively intact. The organic components of the peat also lack either imbrication or systematic sorting with the exception of a few discontinuous centimetre-scale bands that are enriched in macroscopic charcoal. The delicate structures preserved on some organs, such as fine trichomes in the stomatal grooves of Noeggerathioptis leaves (Fig. 5E), hirsute leaf margins (Fig. 6H), stomatal guard cells (Fig. 7F), and spines on lycophyte megasporangia and on the oogonia of Peronosporomycetes (McLoughlin and Drinnan, 1996; Slater et al., 2013) suggest that the bulk of the detached plant remains had not been transported any significant distance before incorporation into the peat. Some upright stumps

Fig. 6. Range of biota found in thin sections and bulk-macerations of the Toploje Member silicified peat. A. NRM S087932, Small seed, scale = 500 μm. B. NRM S089550, phytodebris within a schizogenous cavity of a Vertebrocoelia root, scale = 500 μm. C. NRM S089840, charcoalled wood and root fragments surrounded by mite coprolites, scale = 1 mm. D. NRM S08951-01, small smooth fungal spores, scale = 500 μm. E. NRM S087932-01-02, mass of fungal reproductive bodies and hyphae set amongst phytodebris, scale = 500 μm. F. CPC34952, septeat fungal hyphae penetrating Vertebrocoelia root cells, scale = 100 μm. G. NRM S089630, SEM image of arthropod cuticle with hollow setae, scale = 50 μm. H. NRM S089629, SEM image of an unidentified but distinctive leaf cuticle bearing prominent marginal trichomes, scale = 100 μm. I. NRM S089540, SEM image of megaspore Singhisporites hystrix the most common megaspore found in the peat, scale = 100 μm.
and intertwined Vertebraria roots in the peat profile denote that at least some glossopterid remains were preserved in growth position. This contrasts with some Late Permian silicified peats from the central Transantarctic Mountains that may represent rafted peat mats preserved out of context of the original depositional environment (Taylor et al., 1989). Rafting of peat loads by rivers and in lakes and by the action

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of ice is well known in modern environments (Argow et al., 2011), some organic mats, tussocks and floating islands of vegetation even being rafted across large marine water bodies (Houle, 1998). Floatation of peats has even been proposed as a mechanism for the accumulation of organic matter forming the lower Maastrichtian coals of the eastern Pyrenees of Catalonia, Spain (Villalba-Breva et al., 2012). The peats preserved in the Toploje Member chert are the silicified remains of an in situ mire, since they are laterally extensive (persisting over 3 km of outcrop) and preserve few siliciclastic grains (Holdgate et al., 2005; Slater et al., 2012).

6.2. Silicification and compaction

The silicification process in the uppermost Toploje Member appears to have occurred before any significant compression of the peats, since delicate and even hollow structures, such as small seeds and megaspores, are preserved in their original three-dimensional form (Slater et al., 2011). Soft tissues such as phloem are locally preserved, which suggests a rapid silicification process and inhibition of bacterial degradation. The strongly acidic nature of the original waterlogged peat profile probably suppressed decay prior to silicification. Pyrite is common through the peat matrix and occurs primarily as small crystals that appear to have developed contemporaneously with silicification (Fig. 5G). For the most part, these crystals do not impact on the quality of preservation of the organic matter and do not show preferential nucleation on any particular plant tissues. Some larger cavities within the peat (e.g., voids within Vertebraria roots) show weakly defined concentric infilling by cryptocrystalline silica but little textural or compositional differences between these chalcedony/moganite layers is apparent. Hand specimens of the chert show very few cross-cutting mineral veins. These factors suggest that the bulk of the chert's silica was introduced and precipitated in a short interval rather than in multiple phases over a longer time period, during which a greater range of textural and compositional variation would be expected in the precipitates.

The primary source of silica in the chert remains unresolved. No volcanic ash beds or other volcanogenic sediments are preserved in the Bainmedart Coal Measures, in contrast to silicified peat occurrences in other Permian strata of eastern Australia and the Transantarctic Mountains (Gould and Delevoryas, 1977; Taylor et al., 1989; McLoughlin, 1992; Pigg and McLoughlin, 1997). Further, no evidence of strong lateral or vertical textural or vegetational gradients within the silicified ecosystem is evident in contrast to typical sinter deposits (Trewin, 1994, 1996; Walter et al., 1998; Trewin et al., 2003; Channing and Edwards, 2004; Guido et al., 2010). The stratigraphic position of the chert bed immediately below the lacustrine sideritic shales of the Dragons Teeth Member, suggests that drowning of the peat surface by mineral-charged lake waters was key to the entombment process. Mineral-charged springs emanating from basin-margin faults offer one potential source of silica, with precipitation around the organic matter of the drowned peat.

Fig. 8. Schematic representation of energy pathways and nutrient cycling in the Toploje Member chert palaeoecosystem.
potentially being facilitated by strongly alkaline conditions in the high-palaeolatitude lake. The precursor to chert formation, silica gels, have been reported from some modern lacustrine settings, particularly in brine rich/saline playa lakes and also lagoonal environments (Peterson and Von Der Borch, 1965; Colinvaux and Goodman, 1971; Wheeler and Textoris, 1978; Wells, 1983). Such silica gels form in the sediments of modern lake beds when silica, derived from quartz or other sources, is dissolved into the lake water due to highly alkaline conditions and then precipitates out of solution when the pH drops sharply due to increased acidity because of the decay of plant matter in the lake (Hesse, 1989).

6.3. Wildfire

Abundant micro- and macro-charcoal is evident in some hand specimens and bulk-macerate residues of the Toploje Member chert (Fig. 3). Fire plays a significant role in shaping the structure, diversity and ecological succession of many modern plant communities (Crutzen and Goldammer, 1993). Wildfire has been a major factor in the environment since land vegetation produced a highly oxygenated atmosphere in the Carboniferous (Scott, 1989; 2000). Even earlier evidence of fire in the form of sparse but dispersed fusain and a few identifiable charcoalfied plant organs extends back to the dawn of terrestrial vascular plant communities (Scott and Glasspool, 2006). Jasper et al. (2013) argued that fire was a consistent feature of the Gondwanan Permian landscape and may have played an important role in vegetation turnover across the supercontinent.

Besides preserving a record of the distribution of wildfires through time, charcoalfication can aid plant preservation by transforming the cell walls of the plant material into almost pure carbon, which hinders the decay process and retains anatomical detail. Such charcoalfication of plant tissues occurs in wildfires with a specific temperature range (240–370 °C), providing insights into the style of wildfire propagation in palaeosystems (Scott and Jones, 1991; Collinson et al., 2007). The common presence of charcoal in the siliciified peats of the PCMs (measured at 1.2% organic volume by Holdgate et al., 2005, but locally in much higher proportions in this study: Fig. 3B) means that wildfires were a frequent feature of the Middle Permian high-latitude mire environment.

The charcoalfication of the PCMs plant material is also of importance taphonomically (Scott, 2000). Organic remains that have been charcoalfied in the Toploje Member chert include macroscopic fragments of Australoxlyon wood, gymnosperm seeds (Fig. 6A), Glossopteris leaf midribs, Vertebtraria axes (Fig. 7C–E), lycophyte axis fragments and microphylls, coprolites (Fig. 5D) and arthropod cuticle (Fig. 6G; Weaver et al., 1997; Holdgate et al., 2005). Some of these organs (e.g. seeds and lycophyte microphylls) are otherwise ill-preserved in the peats suggesting a taphonomic bias against their preservation in the absence of wildfire charring. The greater cohesion and particle strength endowed by the charcoalfication process aids the recovery of anatomical information from delicate plant tissues. Remains of charcoalfied Australoxlyon wood locally exceed 5 cm in diameter (Holdgate et al., 2005). The concentration of charcoal in bands within some chert samples (Figs. 3B, 7G) may be related to aqueous sorting of particles or accumulation of charcoal in ‘fire-pockets’ on the peat surface in the aftermath of burning events (Staub and Cohen, 1979).

7. Mire type

7.1. Depositional setting

Glossopteris gymnosperms have been documented from a wide range of terrestrial settings (Cúneo et al., 1993; McLoughlin, 1993). They ranged from periglacial to warm and intermittently dry temperate climates (Chandra, 1992), and are preserved in a diverse
array of deltaic, alluvial valley, lake- and lagoon-margin, and potentially even upland settings (Cúneo et al., 1993; McLoughlin, 1993; Rigby, 1993; Guerra-Sommer et al., 2008). Indeed the ubiquitous occurrence of *Glossopteris* leaves in Permian continental deposits of Gondwana suggests that they occupied most parts of the fluvial and deltaic landscapes from levees to floodbasin mires and well-drained valley fringes, but detailed quantitative studies of the partitioning of plants within alluvial systems of Gondwana have yet to be undertaken.

In the context of the Permian deposits of the Prince Charles Mountains, the Toploje Member was deposited in a narrow but very long (>1000 km) graben complex (the Lambert Graben) that developed as part of an incipient rifting phase in central Gondwana (Harrowfield et al., 2005). Deposition of basin-wide peats occurred in alternation with pluvial pulses depositing extensive blankets of channel sandstones within braided river systems (Fielding and Webb, 1996). We envisage glossopterids occupying predominantly fluvial levees and raised floodbasin mires, but also extending onto wetter parts of the valley flanks (Fielding and Webb, 1996; Holdgate et al., 2005).

### 7.2. Rheotrophic vs ombrotrophic mire

The peats preserved in the Toploje Member chert are interpreted to represent the product of an ombrotrophic mire as opposed to a rheotrophic mire (Slater et al., 2012). Ombrotrophic mires obtain their water and nutrient supply through high levels of precipitation, whereas rheotrophic (or minerotrophic) mires are supplied with water by streams or springs (Diesel, 1992). Rheotropic mires receive a higher nutrient supply and are characteristically richer in inorganic content than ombrotrophic mires (Diesel, 1992). The paucity of silicilastic grains coupled with the abundance of fungi and charcoal (and especially of charcoalfied roots) suggests the peat layer was the product of an ombrotrophic mire (Slater et al., 2012), since such deposits are raised above the regional water table and are subject to greater aerobic decay and sporadic burning than rheotrophic systems. Ombrotrophic mires generally also produce thicker organic accumulations than rheotrophic systems and this is consistent with the presence of some seams reaching 11 m thick within the Bainedart Coal Measures (McLoughlin and Drinnan, 1997a). Alternatively, there is the possibility that some of the thicker coal seams may be the product of stacked mires containing several episodes of peat formation. Stacked mires could potentially be identified through the recognition of vertical changes in palynological content and coal petrography of individual seams (Jerrett et al., 2011).

Euramerican late Palaeozoic coals that developed under palaeotropical climates tend to contain high percentages of vitrinite macerals (Mackowsky, 1975; Fig. 9) — a consequence of enhanced gelification of organic constituents. High-palaeolatitude Gondwana coals, especially those of Permian age, are renowned for their high inertinite content (Mackowsky, 1975), although this is not always the case (Diesel and Smyth, 1995). High inertinite concentrations are considered characteristic of ombrogenous peats, in which the upper part of the organic profile is subject to oxidation and regular burning due to a fluctuating water table (Moore, 1989; Teichmüller, 1989). The high inertinite levels in most coal samples from the Bainedart Coal Measures are consistent with proportions represented in other Gondwanan Permian (glossoptherid-derived) coals (Fig. 9). Further, the low sulphur content (0.38 to 0.81 wt.%: Holdgate et al., 2005) and dominance of inertodetrinite amongst the inertinite maceral component is consistent with the interpretation of the Lambert Graben Permian peat-forming environments as raised forest mires of alluvial valley settings subject to strongly fluctuating water tables (Tie and Esterle, 1991) and experiencing fine degradation and oxidation of plant components.

### 7.3. Structure (and reconstruction) of a glossopterid mire

Reconstructions of the food web, trophic levels and soil ecology of ancient forest ecosystems have been attempted in several studies of exceptionally preserved fossil assemblages (Habgood et al., 2004; Adl et al., 2010). Our reconstruction of the *Glossopteris*-dominated forest mire within the Lambert Graben valley system (Fig. 10) features the dominance of hygrophilous arborescent glossopterid gymnosperms and subsidiary cordaitaleans. Understorey vegetation within the glossopterid forests is represented by herbaceous lycophytes and ferns (Fig. 7A). Sphenophytes, more typical of the laciastre deposits of the Dragons Teeth Member, are envisaged to have occupied more open, lake-margin or disturbed settings similar to the habitats occupied by modern *Equisetum*. Abundant deadwood, hosting a range of fungal saprotrophs, and widespread waterlogged soil habitats would have characterised the landscape.

The topology of arborescent plants at higher latitudes tends towards tall tapered forms in order to maximise the collection of light for photosynthesis from low-angle solar radiation (Creber and Chaloner, 1985; McLoughlin, 2011b); thus we reconstruct the dominant trees to have a conical canopy shape (Fig. 10). Relatively open woodlands also characterise modern high-latitude woody vegetation, especially those areas close to the temperature-controlled tree-line (Doležal et al., 2006). Hence, we interpret these glossopterid communities to represent open deciduous forests and woodlands sensu many Carboniferous *Glossopteris*-dominated forest ecosystems have been attempted in several studies of exceptional preservation (Fielding and Webb, 1996; McLoughlin and Drinnan, 1997a) within an alluvial valley setting flanked by fault-delineated valley margins of considerable relief that were developed in Precambrian crystalline rocks (Boger, 2011).

### 7.4. Implications for coal geology

There is a notable contrast between some of the coal petrographic results (Fig. 4) and the composition of the silicified peat obtained via point counts of transects through various perminalised blocks (Fig. 3A). In general, the peat appears to contain much lower proportions of obviously oxidised components (charcoal) and waxy material (spores and cuticle) and higher proportions of non-oxidised woody and leaf mesophyll components than is registered in the coal.

Charcoalfied (oxidised) material typically has greater compactional resistance than other plant remains, hence its relative volumetric representation probably increases through the early stages of coalification. However, the very high levels of inertinite (up to 50%) in some coal samples are greater than would be expected from differential compaction alone. It is possible that the small selection of coal samples examined were preferentially enriched in charcoal through local fire events. Such bands in the perminalised peat show comparable levels of ~50% charcoal (Fig. 3B). Further, the preservation of the silicified peat differs from other organic accumulations in the Bainedart Coal Measures in that the peat surface was drowned rapidly by lake waters that saw deposition of the overlying Dragons Teeth Member. Hence, the upper part of this peat mound may not have developed to typical maturity or have been subjected to the prolonged oxidation and degradation by fungi, microbes and fires that was experienced by other raised peat (coal-
forming) deposits in this formation. We consider that this hypothesis best explains the differential representation of oxidised components.

The organic matter in the silicified peat has undergone relatively little compression before mineral entombment, whereas the associated coals of sub-bituminous to high-volatile bituminous rank (Holdgate et al., 2005) have probably experienced >80% loss of volume through compaction, gelification and diagenesis (Teichmüller and Teichmüller, 1982). Apart from the loss of pore space, much of this volume reduction was probably accomplished by compaction, loss of volatiles and mobilisation of organic gels from unoxidised wood and leaf mesophyll cellulosic cell walls. We suspect that this accounts for the high proportion of woody and leafy tissues in the silicified peat compared to the relatively modest levels of vitrinite in the coals.

The high proportion of liptinite macerals in the Bainmedart Coal Measure coals also appears anomalous with respect to the low volumetric proportion of spores, pollen and sporangia (<2%) in the permineralised peat (Holdgate et al., 2005). Low degrees of compaction for these dense waxy materials may account for somewhat higher percentages in the associated coals but it is unlikely to account for the very high levels of liptinite (up to 40%) in some coal samples. Holdgate et al. (2005) suggested several other factors that might account for the anomalously high spore content of the Lambert Graben coals in contrast to the silicified peat. These included potential misidentification of small cutinite fragments in the coal as sporinite, and the possibility that a considerable proportion of the finely dispersed unidentifiable organic matter in the peat represents unrecognised sporopollenin or degraded cuticle material. Cameron et al. (1989) noted that the proportion of liptinite commonly increases upwards in domed (ombrogenous) peats together with oxidised detrital matter. As per the explanation for depleted oxidised components, the abrupt termination of peat development at the top of the Toploje Member via flooding may indicate that the silicified peat capping this unit did not reach the optimal domed stage of other coals in the host formation. In general, high liptinite contents, in the absence of alginite, might also be diagnostic of coals derived from high-latitude alluvial valley forest mires dominated by low-diversity deciduous gymnosperm vegetation with high pollen production. In this respect, it is notable that Permian coals from the continental-interior, alluvial valley deposits of the Godavari–Son–Mahanadi Graben system in India also have relatively high liptinite contents and have the most similar proportions of maceral groups to the Lambert Graben coals (Navale and Saxena, 1989; Mishra, 1996; Fig. 9).

Quantitative analyses of the permineralised and coaled organic accumulations in the Bainmedart Coal Measures indicate that although silicified peats provide excellent details of the botanical constituents of coal-forming deposits, they do not always reflect the ultimate volumetric representation of macerals in the coals. In addition to differences in the oxidation state at the time of permineralization of silicified peats, significant losses of pore space, volatile components and mobilisation of organic gels during the peatification and coalification processes may markedly modify the volumetric proportions of some phytoclasts. Furthermore, permineralised peats, coal balls, and coal itself may not be fully representative of the standing biomass of the peat-forming community, since peats tend to be enriched in root material compared to subaerial parts of the vegetation (Raymond, 1987; DiMichele and Phillips, 1994).

8. Integrated discussion

The permineralised community represented in the Toploje Member chert shares many similarities with the Permian and Triassic peats of the Transantarctic Mountains that occur at marginally higher palaeolatitudes than those of the Prince Charles Mountains. The Permian palaeocommunity in the Transantarctic Mountains is also dominated by glossopterids, evidenced by a range of plant vegetative organs and megasporephyll and microsporophyll genera (Ryberg et al., 2012a), but differs in the absence of Noeggerathiops, which is common in the Toploje Member peats. Other notable shared features with the permineralized floras of the Transantarctic Mountains include the presence of herbaceous lycophytes in the Permian (Schwendemann et al., 2010; Ryberg et al., 2012b) and diverse fungal elements in both the Permian and Triassic peats (Stubblefield and Taylor, 1986; Krings et al., 2012).

Vertebraria roots were found to be the dominant component of the Toploje Member peats alongside significant quantities of matted Glossopteris and Noeggerathiops leaves (Fig. 3A), whilst charcoalled wood is locally dominant in particular peat microfacies (Fig. 3B). The paucity of arboreal components of the plants such as stem wood and fruiting bodies in comparison to the dominance of root tissues leads us to interpret that there was a taphonomic bias against incorporation of at least some subaerial organs into the peat profile. Similar proportions of floral elements were found in quantitative analysis of coal ball vegetation from Late Carboniferous wetland floras of Pennsylvania, USA, where root tissue was also found to be the dominant component of the preserved assemblage (Feng, 1989).

Lower-latitude Gondwanan permineralised assemblages, such as those from the Late Permian Fort Cooper Coal Measures of the Bowen Basin, Australia (Gould and Delevoryas, 1977; Nishida et al., 2007) are characterised by slightly higher macrofloral diversity, although those floras have yet to be fully described. Outside the Gondwanan phytogeographic province, silicified Permian terrestrial communities differ in their macrofloral composition; however many of the key microorganism groups are represented and invertebrate–plant interactions appear to have been established in a similar ecological structure throughout the late Palaeozoic world (Baxendale, 1979; Labandeira, 1998, 2013; Rößler, 2000).

Beyond the Permian, Triassic silicified peat from Hopen Island in the Svalbard Archipelago and deposited in northern high middle latitudes contains many of the soil microbe groups preserved in the Toploje Member chert (Strullu-Derrien et al., 2012); these include a diverse range of coprolites (Figs. 5D, 6C, 7B) indicating a rich soil entomofauna and a range of fungal morphotypes and interactions (Figs. 5A, 6D–F). Equivalent microbial communities, though associated with a more diverse macroflora, are evident in Late Triassic permineralised peats from the Transantarctic Mountains (Schwendemann et al., 2009; Krings et al., 2012).

Similar communities of microorganisms are also present in the Upper Pennsylvanian Grand-Croix cherts of France, including a diverse fungal inventory and examples of Peronosporomycetes (Krings et al., 2009). The Glossopteris component community of the Toploje Member chert also closely resembles the structure and resource partitioning evident in the Psaronius component community preserved in the early Late Pennsylvanian coal balls of the Illinois Basin (Labandeira, 1998), the earliest Permian Chemnitz fossil forest (Rößler, 2000), and the Permian Cathaysian coal measures of southwest China (He et al., 2008; D’Rozario et al., 2011a) with exploitation of every part of the dominant host plant by invertebrate herbivores and detritivores (Slater et al., 2012).

The relatively low diversity of the Prince Charles Mountains macroflora compared to paleotropical Euramerican late Paleozoic peat assemblages shows that, as is the case today, there was a latitudinal diversity gradient in the Permian. Even within Gondwana, greater floristic diversity at generic level is evident in adpreserved assemblages from lower palaeolatitudes of South America and southern Africa (Archangelsky and Arrondo, 1969; Anderson and Anderson, 1985) compared to higher palaeolatitude regions of eastern Australia and Antarctica (McLoughlin, 1992, 1994a, 1994b; Cúneo et al., 1993). The more pronounced seasonal light regime and presumably colder winters may have inhibited many (especially Euramerican) taxa from colonising the highest latitudes of Gondwana during the Permian. Cryptic and diminutive faunal elements that occur in similar permineralised assemblages include freshwater crustaceans known from the Rhynie Chert/Windyfield cherts and from an Early Mississippian
to Middle Pennsylvanian ex situ chert cobble from Yorkshire, UK (Anderson and Trewin, 2003; Fayers and Trewin, 2003; Anderson et al., 2004; Stevens et al., 2010; Haug et al., 2012; Womack et al., 2012), trigonoarbact arachnids known from the Silurian Přídlí Series of Ludford Lane in Shropshire, UK (Dunlop, 1996) and from the Rhynie Chert (Fayers et al., 2005), and harvestmen documented from the Rhynie Chert (Dunlop et al., 2004).

The absence of complete body fossils of aquatic crustaceans and other arthropods may be due to the speed of silicification and the environment the assemblages accumulated in. Unlike the Rhynie Chert or the ex situ Yorkshire cobble, the mode of entombment in the Toploje Member chert does not appear to be related to very rapid hydrothermal precipitation of silica that might have killed and preserved free-moving arthropods in their life positions (Guidry and Chafetz, 2003; Anderson et al., 2004; Womack et al., 2012). Instead, the Toploje Member peat represents a long-lived acidic mire environment, into which silica was subsequently introduced in high concentrations associated with flooding of the mire surface. Any arthropod remains would likely be represented by dissociated exoskeletons and exuviae from the moulding of ecdysozoans that were incorporated into the peat or trapped within excavations inside woody tissues. Fragments of such arthropod cuticle with attached setae were recovered by bulk maceration of the Toploje Member chert (Holdgate et al., 2005; Slater et al., 2012) and are also known from overlying Triassic sediments (McLoughlin et al., 1997). These fragments likely represent arthropod cuticle because the setae are hollow and are collapsed or flattened in places, whereas similar setae of annelid origin are solid (Orrhage, 1971). The setae may have served a mechanosensory function in life (Crouau, 1997; Keil, 2012). The cuticles are unlikely to be of collembolan affinity since the exoskeletons of that group are covered in distinctive granule structures of anti-adhesive function (Nickert et al., 2013). Beyond this, the arthropod fragments cannot be identified.

Relatively little attention has been directed towards arthropod cuticles extracted from coals, silicified peats and coal balls (Barratt et al., 1987), perhaps in part because these sediments are generally studied for their palaeobotanical content. The mode of preservation of such arthropod cuticles in silicified deposits and coals has been the subject of some debate (e.g. Stankiewicz et al., 1998; Appendix 2). Examples of scorpion exoskeleton have been described from Pennsylvania (Westphalian) coals of Yorkshire, UK (e.g. Barratt et al., 1987) and the Late Triassic Lower Keuper Sandstone of Bromsgrove, Worcestershire, UK (Dunlop et al., 2007). Cuticles of possible eurypterid affinity are also known from the Lower Devonian of Podolia, Ukraine (Filipiak et al., 2012) and the body of a trigonoarbact was also recovered via HF maceration from Přídlí shales of Shropshire, UK (Dunlop, 1996). Arthropod cuticles have also been recovered through HF maceration of early Silurian (Llandovery) terrestrial strata from Pennsylvania, providing some of the earliest direct evidence for land or freshwater animals (Gray and Boucot, 1994). Records of such arthropod cuticle and other invertebrate remains have been recovered from acid maceration of various sediments, primarily coals, clays, siltstones and cherts (Appendix 2). Exceptionally preserved Palaeozoic arthropods are also known from siderite concretions, particularly from Carboniferous sites such as Coseley, UK (Garwood and Sutton, 2010), Mazon Creek, Illinois (Carpenter, 1997) and the Montceau Lagerstätte, France (Garwood et al., 2012). Arthropods preserved in siderite concretions have increasingly been studied using X-ray synchrotron micromotography, which unveils exceptional detail in the fossil (Garwood et al., 2012). However, the maceration of silicified peats and scanning electron microscopy of residues could potentially yield comparable anatomical information and also be used to more accurately assess diversity through the comparison of different cuticle types in coals and other organic-rich lithologies. Several studies have also used the acetate peel technique to study the cuticle of arthropods such as eurypterids and scorpions in detail (Braun, 1999; Tettie et al., 2008). The potential of such fragmentary arthropod cuticle remains has recently been highlighted by employing a long-used palaeobotanical technique to extract animal fossils from Cambrian marine sediments (Butterfield and Harvey, 2012; Harvey et al., 2012a, 2012b) and this strategy might offer comparable results in unveiling cryptic arthropod diversity in late Palaeozoic terrestrial ecosystems.

9. Conclusions

The Toploje Member chert in the Bainmedart Coal Measures of the Lambert Graben, East Antarctica, contains a low-diversity Middle Pennsylvanian macrofossil dominated by arborescent glossopterids and subordinate cordaitaleans. A substantially greater floristic diversity is evident in meso- and palyno-fossil assemblages from the same bed. The chert preserves part of the profile of an ombrotrophic mire that was entombed with moderate rapidity by silica precipitated after flooding of the peat surface by mineral-rich lake waters. Diversity micro-organisms and coprolites, together with feeding traces and sparse exoskeleton fragments attest to a complex biota of primary producers, arthropod herbivores and saprotrophs inhabiting the peat-forming ecosystem. The peat deposit represents primarily autochthonous to parautochthonous accumulation of plant remains, which due to early silicification, have endured little compression or diagression. Fire was a common factor in the Middle Permian high-latitude mire ecosystem, and is locally evidenced by discrete charcoal bands within the peat profile. The glossopterid-dominated mire ecosystem of the Prince Charles Mountains is reconstructed to occupy valley flanks and floodbasin settings within a braided river complex in a fault-bound alluvial valley. The exceptional ultrastructural preservation of the macrofossil, the diverse microorganisms and the complex interactions between the invertebrates, plants and fungi make the Prince Charles Mountains silicified peat an important Permian Lagerstätte and a valuable source of information on terrestrial ecosystems in southern high latitudes during the late Palaeozoic. The Toploje Member chert provides a snapshot of a high-latitude Middle Permian terrestrial ecosystem and, thus, elucidates the composition and ecology of Gondwanan climax mire forests prior to the two major extinctions (Capitanian and end-Permian) at the close of the Palaeozoic (Retailack et al., 2006; Bond et al., 2010). Since the plants, microorganisms and fauna preserved in the Toploje Member chert inhabited an ombrotrophic mire rather than a sinter-pool habitat or other mineral-charged spring setting, they provide the opportunity to study the ecology of the more widespread peat-forming biotas of the late Palaeozoic in contrast to the specialised thermophilic biotas preserved three-dimensionally in hot spring habitats. In light of the discovery of invertebrate–plant–fungal interactions in the Toploje Member chert, there are significant opportunities for advancing knowledge of ancient terrestrial arthropod and micro-organism occurrences and trophic relationships through studies of other silicified organic deposits and via bulk maceration of organic sediments.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix 1. List of published records of probable arthropod damage on Gondwanan Permian plants. Publications marked with (C) document arthropod damage from compression/impression fossils, those marked with (AP) document arthropod damage from anatomically preserved specimens.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Formation and locality</th>
<th>Damage type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brongniart, 1830 (C)</td>
<td>Kungurian–Wordian or Lopingian</td>
<td>Barakar or Raniganj Formation, Raniganj Coalfield</td>
<td>Possible hole feeding or oviposition scars on Glossopteris indicus holotype (although this is not clear from the illustrations provided by Chandra and Surange, 1979 or Rigby et al., 1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunbury, 1861 (C)</td>
<td>Permian</td>
<td>Unit uncertain; Satpura Basin, Nagpur, Maharashtra, India</td>
<td>Oviposition scars or small hole-feeding scars on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tate, 1867 (C)</td>
<td>Permian</td>
<td>Ecca Group or Adelaide Subgroup</td>
<td>Probable oviposition scars on Rhipidiodendron/Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carruthers, 1872 (C)</td>
<td>Permian</td>
<td>Probably Bowen Basin, Queensland, Australia</td>
<td>Possible interveinal slot feeding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mitchell, 1872 (C)</td>
<td>Permian</td>
<td>Newcastle Coal Measures, northern Sydney Basin, New South Wales, Australia</td>
<td>Possible oviposition scars on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feistmantel, 1880a (C)</td>
<td>1Lopingian, 2Kungurian–Wordian</td>
<td>1Raniganj Formation, Raniganj Coalfield, West Bengal, India; 2Barakar Formation, Talchir Coalfield, Mahanadi Basin, Oriissa, India</td>
<td>1Possible scalloped margin feeding and deep longitudinal embayed feeding traces in leaves of Schizoneura gondwanensis; 2Possible scalloped apical feeding on leaves of Trzygia speciosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feistmantel, 1880b (C)</td>
<td>Permian</td>
<td>Nagpur, Satpura Basin, Maharashtra, India</td>
<td>Possible oviposition scars on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feistmantel, 1882 (C)</td>
<td>?Kungurian–Wordian</td>
<td>?Barakar Formation, Sohagpur Coalfield, Son Basin, Madhya Pradesh, India</td>
<td>Possible oviposition scars on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David, 1891 (C)</td>
<td>Artinskian</td>
<td>Greta Coal Measures, northern Sydney Basin, New South Wales, Australia</td>
<td>Possible oviposition scars on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zeiller, 1896 (C)</td>
<td>?late Sakmarian–late Artinskian</td>
<td>Probably Vryheid Formation, northern Karoo Basin, Gauteng, South Africa</td>
<td>Oviposition scars on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dolaniti, 1953a, 1953b (C)</td>
<td>Artinskian</td>
<td>Rio Bonito Formation, Bainhia, Paraíba Basin, Santa Catarina, Brazil</td>
<td>Possible apical and hole feeding on Glossopteris; possible deeply embayed margin feeding on Glossopteris or Rhodotamia; possible piercing and sucking damage, galls or mineral staining on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sen, 1955 (C)</td>
<td>Kungurian–Wordian</td>
<td>Barakar Formation, Sohagpur Coalfield, Son Basin, Madhya Pradesh, India</td>
<td>Possible isolated gall (Breviremia pluristadiae)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumstead, 1962, 1963; Melville, 1983a, 1983b (C)</td>
<td>late Sakmarian–Artinskian</td>
<td>Vryheid Formation; Breton Colliery, Karoo Basin, Mpumalanga, South Africa</td>
<td>Possible oviposition scars or sporangial impressions on gangamopterid scale leaf (= Lanceolatus bomairensis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menendez, 1962 (C)</td>
<td>Artinskian</td>
<td>Bonete Series, Buenos Aires Province, Argentina</td>
<td>Scalloped and continuous margin feeding on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumstead, 1963; Van Aneram, 1966; Stephenson and Scott, 1992; Scott et al., 1992; Labandeira, 2002, 2006 (C)</td>
<td>late Sakmarian–late Artinskian</td>
<td>Vryheid Formation; Vereeniging, Karoo Basin, Gauteng, South Africa</td>
<td>Scalloped and continuous margin feeding on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sen, 1963 (C)</td>
<td>?Kungurian</td>
<td>Lower Barakar Formation; Pachwara Coalfield, Bihar, India</td>
<td>Possible gall on Gangamopteris midrib</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cridland, 1963 (C)</td>
<td>Lopingian</td>
<td>Mount Glossopteris Formation; Ohio Range, Antarctica</td>
<td>Scalloped leaf-margin feeding on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maheshwari and Prakash, 1965 (C)</td>
<td>Lopingian</td>
<td>Permian exposures along Bansi River, Rajmahal Hills, Bihar, India</td>
<td>Scalloped leaf-margin feeding on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mairth, 1965, 1977 (C)</td>
<td>Artinskian</td>
<td>Karharbari Formation, Giridh Coalfield, Damodar Basin, Bihar, India</td>
<td>Possible galls, piercing scars or oviposition scars on indeterminate axis previously assigned to Biradiella and cf. Cyclendron</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plumstead, 1970; Bordy and Prevec, 2008 (C)</td>
<td>Lopingian</td>
<td>Emakwezini Formation, Lebombo Basin, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa</td>
<td>Scallopeld marginal feeding traces and oviposition scars on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bernardes de Oliveira and Pons, 1975 (C)</td>
<td>Sakmarian–Artinskian</td>
<td>Ecca Group equivalents, Zambezi Basin, Mozambique</td>
<td>Possible deeply embayed margin feeding on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appert, 1977 (C)</td>
<td>Sakmarian–Artinskian</td>
<td>Saka Series, Saka Basin, Madagascar</td>
<td>Possible apical feeding on Sphenoptylium; possible scalloped margin feeding, hole feeding and oviposition scars on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bernardes de Oliveira and Pons, 1977 (C)</td>
<td>Artinskian</td>
<td>Rio Bonito Formation, Bainhia, Paraíba Basin, Santa Catarina, Brazil</td>
<td>Scalloped apical or marginal feeding on Neoggerathrisporites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bose et al., 1977 (C)</td>
<td>Changsingsian</td>
<td>Flowermost Panchet Group, Ramkola-Tatapani Coalfield, Madhya Pradesh, India</td>
<td>Possible leaf-margin feeding on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kovács-Endrödy, 1977 (C)</td>
<td>late Sakmarian–late Artinskian</td>
<td>Vryheid Formation, Vereeniging, Karoo Basin, Gauteng, South Africa</td>
<td>Scallopeld margin feeding on Glossopteris and associated leaf arching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Srivastava, 1979 (C)</td>
<td>Lopingian</td>
<td>Raniganj Formation, Auranga Coalfield, Damodar Basin, Bihar, India</td>
<td>Possible apical feeding on gangamopterid scale leaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Dijk et al., 1978, 1979; Van Dijk, 1981 (C)</td>
<td>Lopingian</td>
<td>Normandies/Escourt Formation (Beaufort Group); Karoo Basin, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa</td>
<td>Scalloped leaf-margin feeding and interveinal surface feeding? on Glossopteris; possible hole feeding on Lidgettiosporites; leaf crypsis (?Homopteran wings)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kovács-Endrödy, 1981 (C)</td>
<td>late Sakmarian–late Artinskian</td>
<td>Vryheid Formation equivalent, Hammanskraal, outlier of northern Karoo Basin, Gauteng, South Africa</td>
<td>Possible oviposition scars flanking midrib of Glossopteris augurtifolu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Millan and Dolaniti, 1982 (C)</td>
<td>Sakmarian</td>
<td>Itaré Group, Itapera, Paraná Basin, São Paulo, Brazil</td>
<td>Scalloped apical feeding on Ruhidgea species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rohn, 1984 (C)</td>
<td>?Changhsingsian</td>
<td>Serrinha Member, Rio do Rasto Formation, Dorizon, Paraná Basin, Paraná, Brazil</td>
<td>Scalloped margin feeding, apical feeding on several Glossopteris species</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued on next page)
Appendix 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Formation and locality</th>
<th>Damage type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chauhan et al., 1985 (C)</td>
<td>Lopingian</td>
<td>Raniganj Formation, Raniganj Coalfield, West Bengal, India</td>
<td>Margin-feeding on Glossopteris and Belemnopteris leaves; Coprolites containing leaf cuticle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Anderson and Anderson, 1985 (C) | late Sakmarian–late Artinskian; Wuchiapingian | Vryheid Formation, Vereeniging, Karoo Basin, South Africa; Normandien/Estcourt Formation and equivalents (Beaufort Group); Karoo Basin, Vryheid Formation equivalents | Possible oviposition scar on Noeggerathia elongata; Possible apical feeding on Aulacogens ferrugistratum; Scalloped, notched and continuous margin feeding on several Glossopteris species; *
| Cúneo, 1986 (C) | Permian | Argentina | Leaf crypsis, potential arthropod pollination vector for conifers |
| Maheshwari and Tewari, 1986 (C) | Artinskian | Karharbari Formation, Shahdol district, Madhya Pradesh, India | Moheniwaraspinicormus (6 × 2.5 mm) with 0.75 mm long micropylar horns bearing reverse-orientated epidermal bars; possible seed transport or oviposition on Ginkgoites leaves |
| Cúneo, 1987 (C) | Cisuralian | Rio Genoa Formation; Tepuel-Genoa Basin, Chubut, Argentina | Possible arthropod borings (or fungal pocket rot) in late wood of Cotovryheidomylophale |
| Pant and Singh, 1987 (AP) | Lopingian | Raniganj Coalfield, West Bengal, India | Potential insect-mediated pollination mechanism in Ferugliocladus |
| Archangelský and Cúneo, 1987 (C) | Cisuralian | Arroyo Totoral Formation, La Rioja Province, Argentina. | Scalloped marginal or apical feeding on Ilexoidephyllum leaves |
| Rohn and Rösler, 1989 (C) | Lopingian | Rio do Rasto Formation, Reserva-Cândido de Abreu, Paraná Basin, Brazil | Continuous and isolated scalloped and notched margin-feeding, hole feeding, vein-parallel surface feeding, possible galls and/or piercing and sucking scars, and oviposition scars in various arrangements on several Glossopteris species; Apical margin feeding embayments between veins in Noeggerathia ferrugistratum |
| Srivastava, 1988, 1996, 2008; Srivastava and Agnihotri, 2011; Labandeira, 2006 (C) | Kungurian | Lower Barakar Formation; Raniganj Coalfield, West Bengal, India | Inferred leaf mines on Sapotea leaf [probably imprints of burrows in underlying sediment] |
| Maheshwari and Bajpai, 1990 (C) | Permian | Siltstone overlying Lalmia bottom coal seam, Hura Coalfield, Rajmahal Basin, Bihar, India | Arthropod borings in late-season wood of Agathoxylon (=Dadoxylon). Inferred increase in vertebrate herbivory towards end of Permian based on reduced size and increased lignin content (vein concentrations) of Glossopteris leaves [may alternatively have been climatically influenced] |
| McLoughlin, 1990a, 1990b; McLoughlin, 2011a (C) | late Sakmarian–late Artinskian; Wuchiapingian | Vryheid Formation, Vereeniging, Karoo Basin, South Africa; Normandien/Estcourt Formation equivalents (Beaufort Group); Karoo Basin, Burngrove Formation equivalents | Continuous scalloped margin and apical feeding |
| Chaloner et al., 1991; Scott et al., 1992 (C) | Permian (probably Changhsingian) | Australia (probably Illawarra Coal Measures, western Sydney Basin) | Arthropod borings and/or fungal pocket rot in both early- and late-season wood of Agathoxylon (=Dadoxylon). Several Glossopteris species with: Notched, scalled, deeply or narrowly embayed margin feeding; *
| Zavada and Mentis, 1992 (AP) | late Sakmarian–Changhsingian | Vryheid–Normandien/Estcourt formations, Karoo Basin, South Africa | Oviposition scars on Glossopteris leaves |
| Chandra and Singh, 1992 (C) | Changhsingian | Kamthi Formation, Mahanadi Graben, Dhenkanal, Orissa, India | Arthropod borings or fungal pocket rot in both early- and late-season wood of Agathoxylon (=Anscaranxylon) |
| McLoughlin, 1992 (AP) | Capitanian–Wuchiapingian | McMillan Formation, central Bowen Basin, Queensland, Australia | Several Glossopteris species with: Notched, scalled, deeply or narrowly embayed margin feeding; *Oviposition scars, *
| McLoughlin, 1994a, 1994b (C) | Wuchiapingian–Changhsingian; Wuchiapingian; Capitanian–Changhsingian; Wuchiapingian | Central Bowen Basin, Queensland, Australia; Burngrove Formation, Rangal Coal Measures, Bandanna Formation; Black Alley Shale, McMillan Formation, Burngrove Formation, Rangal Coal Measures, Gyraena Formation, Black Alley Shale, Burngrove Formation equivalents | Possible apex-feeding, Possible seed transport on Glossopteris leaves |
| Guerra-Sommer, 1995 (C) | Artinskian | Rio Bonito Formation, Parana Basin, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil | Scalloped and deeply embayed margin and ?apical-feeding on Glossopteris and Rubidgea leaves |
| Pant and Srivastava, 1995 (C) | ?Kungurian | Manjal Formation, Manjal Nala Section, Pahalgam, Kashmir Himalaya, India | Pouch-like galls on Glossopteris leaves |
| Holmes, 1995 (C) | Changhsingian | Illawarra Coal Measures; Western Sydney Basin, New South Wales, Australia | Deeply embayed margin feeding and possible galls on Glossopteris |
| Chandra and Singh, 1996 (C) | Aselian–Sakmarian | Talchir Formation, Talchir Coalfield, Mahanadi Basin, Orissa, India | Apical feeding and oviposition scars on Glossopteris; Possible see predation on Cordaicarpus |
| Rigby, 1996 (C) | Kungurian–Roadian | Afam Group, Irian Jaya | Scalloped and deeply embayed margin feeding on Glossopteris |
| Srivastava and Tewari, 1996 (C) | Kungurian–Wordian | Barakar Formation, Auranga Coalfield, Bihar, India | Possible apical feeding on several Glossopteris/Gammarophyllum species |
| Melchor and Césari, 1997 (C) | Lopingian | Carapacha Formation, Carapacha Basin, La Pampa, Argentina | Possible embayed margin feeding on Glossopteris |
| Rohn et al., 1997 (C) | Lopingian | Teresina Formation, Prudentópolis area, Paraná Basin, Paraná, Brazil | Hole feeding in Glossopteris |
| Weaver et al., 1997; Labandeira, 2002 (AP) | Wordian | Topmost Toploje Member, Bainsmedart Coal Measures, Lambert Graben, East Antarctica | Coprolites containing trachied fragments in Glossopteris stem wood (attributable to orbital mites) |

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### Appendix 1 (continued)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Formation and locality</th>
<th>Damage type</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Banerjee and Bera, 1998 (C)</td>
<td>Lopingian</td>
<td>Raniganj Formation, Jharia Coalfield, Mohuda Basin, West Bengal, India</td>
<td>Cretaceous-like gall on Glossopteris</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adami-Rodrigues and Januzzi, 2001; Adami-Rodrigues et al., 2004a, 2004b (C)</td>
<td>Artinskian; 2Late Artinskian–Kungurian or Guadalupian</td>
<td>1Río Bonito and 1Irati; Serra Alta Formations, Paraná Basin, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil</td>
<td>1Continuous irregular margin feeding, deep embayments, and intervellole hole feeding in Glossopteris (and possibly Gangamopteris); Possible leaf mining in Glossopteris; Oviposition scars on Glossopteris; Possible piercing and sucking damage on Glossopteris; Possible skeletonization of Glossopteris lamina; Possible galls on Glossopteris; Hole and discontinuous margin feeding on Noegettenia; Irregular margin and apical feeding on Glossopteris; Possible oviposition scars or galls (Bokaspermum mahaswari); Oviposition scars on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singh, 2002 (C)</td>
<td>Kungurian–Wordian</td>
<td>Barakar Formation, West Bokaro Coalfield, Damodar Valley, Jharkhand, India</td>
<td>Scalloped margin feeding and probable oviposition scars on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berthelin et al., 2003 (C)</td>
<td>late Roadian or early Wordian</td>
<td>Chppsingean</td>
<td>Scalloped margin feeding and probable oviposition scars on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kellogg and Taylor, 2004 (AP)</td>
<td>late Roadian or early Wordian</td>
<td>Chppsingean</td>
<td>Scalloped margin feeding and probable oviposition scars on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolzon et al., 2004 (AP)</td>
<td>Late Artinskian–Kungurian or Guadalupian</td>
<td>Serra Alta Formation; Paraná Basin, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil</td>
<td>Borings (or possibly fungal pocket rot) in gymnosperm wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McLoughlin et al., 2005 (C)</td>
<td>Guadalupian</td>
<td>Underformed shale unit at Fossilryggen, Vestfjella, Dronning Maud Land, Antarctica</td>
<td>Notched, scalloped and deeply embayed isolated and continuous margin feeding on Glossopteris; Oviposition scars on Paracoccolina axis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beattie, 2007 (C)</td>
<td>Guadalupian</td>
<td>Upper Newcastle Coal Measures, Belmont, New South Wales, Australia</td>
<td>Oviposition scars on Glossopteris; Scalloped margin feeding on Glossopteris, scale leaves, lycophyte axis, sphenophyte roots; Apical feeding on Glossopteris; Hole feeding on Glossopteris, scale leaves, sphenophyte roots, unidentified axes; Mine-like strip-feeding on Glossopteris; Skeletonization of Glossopteris leaves; Surface feeding on Glossopteris, scale leaves; Gall using on Glossopteris; Piercing and sucking scars on Glossopteris; Oviposition on Glossopteris, scale leaves and sphenophyte axes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevec et al., 2009 (C)</td>
<td>Guadalupian</td>
<td>Clouston Farm, Normandien Formation, northeastern Karoo Basin, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa</td>
<td>Scalloped margin feeding on Glossopteris, scale leaves, lycophyte axis, sphenophyte roots; Apical feeding on Glossopteris; Hole feeding on Glossopteris, scale leaves, sphenophyte roots, unidentified axes; Mine-like strip-feeding on Glossopteris; Skeletonization of Glossopteris leaves; Surface feeding on Glossopteris, scale leaves; Gall using on Glossopteris; Piercing and sucking scars on Glossopteris; Oviposition on Glossopteris, scale leaves and sphenophyte axes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pal et al., 2010 (C)</td>
<td>Chppsingean</td>
<td>Maitur Formation (lowermost Panchet Group), Raniganj Coalfield, Damodar Basin, West Bengal, India</td>
<td>Rectangular marginal feeding traces and various oviposition scars on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevec et al., 2010; Prevec, 2012 (C)</td>
<td>Chppsingean</td>
<td>Elandsberg Member, Balfour Formation, Wapadsberg Pass, southern Karoo Basin, Eastern Cape Province, South Africa</td>
<td>Rectangular marginal feeding traces and various oviposition scars on Glossopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cártilano and Gutiérrez, 2011 (C)</td>
<td>Wordian–Wuchiapiangian</td>
<td>Laguna Polina Member, La Golondrina Formation, La Golondrina Basin, Santa Cruz, Argentina</td>
<td>Scalloped, deeply embayed and continuous margin-feeding; hole feeding, oviposition scars on several Glossopteris species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Césari et al., 2012 (C)</td>
<td>Late Pennsylvanian–Cisuralian</td>
<td>San Ignacio Formation, San Juan, western Argentina</td>
<td>Coprolites within borings (attributed to mites) in gymnosperm (Cuyonley; possible cordaitalean) roots and stem wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McLoughlin, 2012 (C)</td>
<td>Mid-Sakmarian–late Artinskian</td>
<td>Reids Dome beds, GSQ Taroom 11 stratigraphic bore, south-western Bowen Basin, Queensland, Australia</td>
<td>Brood area of pitted damage to Glossopteris leaf (possible arthropod, fungal, physical, or diagenetic damage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pinheiro et al., 2012a, 2012b (C)</td>
<td>1Late Artinskian–early Kungurian, possibly Guadalupian; 2Sakmarian–Artinskian; *Early Sakmarian</td>
<td>1Irati; Serra Alta Formations; 2Siderópolis Member, Rio Bonito Formation; 3Paraiguaçu Member, Rio Bonito Formation; 4Taciba Formation, Itararé Group, southern Paraná Basin, southern, Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil</td>
<td>Margin feeding on Glossopteris; Hole, slot and margin feeding, surficial feeding, skeletonization, possible mining on Glossopteris; slot feeding, galls, oviposition scars on Gangamopteris; Hole feeding on Noegettenia; Scalloped, continuous and deeply embayed margin feeding, hole and slot/trough feeding on Glossopteris; margin feeding on Noegettenia; Margin, hole, slot and surface feeding on Glossopteris; margin and slot feeding on Gangamopteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slater et al., 2012 (AP)</td>
<td>Wordian</td>
<td>Upper Toploje Member, Baimedart Coal Measures, Lambert Graben, Prince Charles Mountains, East Antarctica</td>
<td>Coprolites with tracheid fragments in Vertebraria and Australooylog (boring and/or sapropoxylogy); Sub-rounded to angular coprolites containing dense- packed mesophyll cell wall fragments in cavities within Glossopteris mesophyll (leaf mining or detritivory); Ovoid coprolite in fern sporangium (palynivory); Isolated large ellipsoid to spherical coprolites with amorphous contents in leaf debris (?detritivory); Isolated small oblong or cylindrical coprolites containing pollen and spore fragments, cell walls, fungi in peat matrix (generalist ?detritivory); Spherical to ovoid coprolites containing fungal spores (?fungivory)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Appendix 2. List of Palaeozoic and Mesozoic records of arthropod cuticle recovered from bulk maceration of sedimentary rocks

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publication</th>
<th>Age/locality</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Al-Ameri, 1983</td>
<td>Silurian; Ghadames Basin, Tripolitania, Libya</td>
<td>Eurypterid cuticle from borehole macerals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartram et al., 1987</td>
<td>Late Carboniferous; Yorkshire; Pennsylvaniaian; Ohio, USA</td>
<td>Scorpion cuticles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batten, 1998</td>
<td>Lower Cretaceous; Weald Clay Formation, Surrey, England, UK</td>
<td>Insect fragments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braun, 2004</td>
<td>Various ages and locations:</td>
<td>Ventral eurypterid appendage, and setae.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braun and Butter, 2008</td>
<td>Early Devonian, early Emsian; Nellenköpfchen Formation, Alken an der Mosel, Germany</td>
<td>Near complete mite.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braun and Butter, 2008</td>
<td>Late Carboniferous; Saar, Germany</td>
<td>Front appendages of freshwater ostracod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butterfield and Harvey, 2012</td>
<td>Various ages and locations:</td>
<td>Wiwaxia sclerites, priapulid-like scalds, mollusc radulae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarke and Ruedemann, 1912</td>
<td>Devonian; New York State, USA</td>
<td>Eurypterid cuticle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalingwater, 1973</td>
<td>Silurian; 'Passage Beds' at Ludlow, Shropshire, England, UK</td>
<td>Eurypterid, Pterygotus (Pterygotus ludensis, cuticle ultrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalingwater, 1975</td>
<td>Silurian; Gotland, Sweden</td>
<td>Eurypterid cuticle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalingwater, 1980</td>
<td>Silurian; Gotland, Sweden</td>
<td>Scorpion cuticle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunlop et al., 2007</td>
<td>Late Triassic; Lower Keuper Sandstone, Bromsgrove, Worcestershire, England, UK</td>
<td>Entire Trigonotarbid body extracted from shales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunlop, 1996</td>
<td>Late Silurian; Pirildi; Welsh borderland, Shropshire, England, UK</td>
<td>Arthropod (?Eurypterid) cuticle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipiak and Zato, 2011</td>
<td>Early Devonian; Southern Poland</td>
<td>Eurypterid and possible scorpion cuticle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipiak et al., 2012</td>
<td>Cretaceous-Palaeocene; Anxiety Butte coal zone, Ravenscrag Formation, Saskatchewan, Canada</td>
<td>Arthropod cuticle extracted from coal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodarzi, 1984</td>
<td>Early Silurian, Llandovery; Tuscarora Formation, Pennsylvania, USA</td>
<td>Terrestrial deposits with fragments of arthropod (?Eurypterid): jaw fragment of annelid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gray and Boucot, 1994</td>
<td>Early Cambrian; Mount Cap Formation, Northwest Territories, Canada</td>
<td>Crustacean feeding apparatus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvey and Butterfield, 2008</td>
<td>Early Cambrian; Mount Cap Formation, Northwest Territories, Canada</td>
<td>Crustacean cuticles, sclerites, radulae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvey and Butterfield, 2011</td>
<td>Early-Middle Cambrian; Mount Cap Formation, Northwest Territories, Canada</td>
<td>Assorted cuticle remains including Wiwaxia sclerites, fragments of chancelloriids, brachiopods, hyolithids and a priapulid—like scaldiphoran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvey et al., 2012a</td>
<td>Middle Cambrian; Kaili Formation, Guizhou Province, China</td>
<td>Assorted crustacean mandibles and articulated limbs of likely branchiopod, copepod and ostracod affinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvey et al., 2012b</td>
<td>Middle to late Cambrian; Deadwood Formation, Saskatchewan and Alberta, Canada</td>
<td>Range of fragmentary remains of crustaceans, paraconodonts and several other taxa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 3. List of Palaeozoic and Mesozoic records of arthropod cuticle recovered from bulk maceration of sedimentary rocks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publication</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labandeira and Currano, 2013</td>
<td>Artinskian; Rio Bonito Formation, Bainha, Parana Basin, Brazil</td>
<td>Oviposition scars on glossopterid or Noeggerathiospis leaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labandeira and Prevec, in press</td>
<td>Changhsingian; Elandsberg; Member, Balfour Formation, Wapadburg Pass, southern Karoo Basin, Eastern Cape Province, South Africa; Emakwezini Formation, Kwa Yaya, Lebombo Basin, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa</td>
<td>Oviposition scars or surface feeding on glossopteris with associated pathogen infection; Apical damage, margin feeding, hole feeding, oviposition scars and galls on Glossopteris spp., all associated with fungal/bacterial damage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallego et al., in press</td>
<td>Cisuralian; Rio Gena Formation, Tepuel-Genoa Basin, Chubut, Argentina</td>
<td>Scalped and narrowly embayed margin feeding, on Glossopteris spp.; Hole feeding on Ginkgoites, Glossopteris spp.; Circular surface feeding in Ginkgoites, Glossopteris spp. and Noeggerathiospis spp.; Strip-like surface feeding in Glossopteris; Oviposition scars (at least 3 types) on Ginkgopteris and Glossopteris spp.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<th>Publication</th>
<th>Age/locality</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Haldgård et al., 2005</td>
<td>Permian, Guadalupian; Prince Charles Mountains, East Antarctica</td>
<td>Arthropod fragments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jaglin and Paris, 2002</td>
<td>Late Silurian; Northwest Libya</td>
<td>Arthropod fragments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jansson et al., 2008</td>
<td>Early Jurassic; Plenshiachian; Eastern Australia</td>
<td>Annelid cocoons; arthropod fragments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeram, 1990</td>
<td>Early Carboniferous; Dinantian; Limestone, East Kirkton Quarry, West Lothian, Scotland, UK</td>
<td>Scorpion cuticle, acid-etched to stand proud of the rock with HCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeram et al., 1990</td>
<td>Late Silurian, PфPholl; Welsh borderland, Shropshire, England, UK</td>
<td>Trigonotarbid, eurypterid, centipedes, scorpions, millipedes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kettleby et al., 1989</td>
<td>Middle Devonian; Gilboa, New York State, USA</td>
<td>Alcothriid mite</td>
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<tr>
<td>Labandeira et al., 1988</td>
<td>Early Devonian, Early Emsian, Battery Point Sandstone, Gaspé Peninsula, Québec, Canada</td>
<td>Head and thorax of a bristletail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manum et al., 1991</td>
<td>Various post-Triassic strata</td>
<td>Annelid cocoons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manum, 1996</td>
<td>Various post-Triassic strata</td>
<td>Annelid cocoons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McLoughlin et al., 1997</td>
<td>Triassic; Prince Charles Mountains, East Antarctica</td>
<td>Arthropod fragments</td>
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<tr>
<td>McLoughlin et al., 2002</td>
<td>Early Cretaceous (Valanginian–Hauterivian); lower Strzelecki Group, Gippsland Basin, Victoria, Australia</td>
<td>Arthropod exoskeleton fragments, coleopterans, arthropod head with palps/mandibles</td>
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<tr>
<td>McLoughlin et al., 2014</td>
<td>Early Jurassic; Plenshiachian; Eastern Australia</td>
<td>Arthropod fragments</td>
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<td>Mutvei, 1977</td>
<td>Silurian, Gotland, Sweden</td>
<td>Eurypterid cuticle</td>
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<td>Rolfe, 1962</td>
<td>Middle Silurian; Scotland, UK</td>
<td>Crustacean cuticle</td>
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<td>Scott, 1977</td>
<td>Late Carboniferous, Westphalian B; Swillington Brickpit, Yorkshire, England, UK</td>
<td>Scorpion fragments extracted from coal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scott, 1978</td>
<td>Late Carboniferous, Westphalian B; Swillington Brickpit, Yorkshire, England, UK</td>
<td>Scorpion fragments extracted from coal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott, 1984</td>
<td>Late Carboniferous, Westphalian B; Swillington Brickpit, Yorkshire, England, UK</td>
<td>Scorpion fragments extracted from coal</td>
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<td>Selden, 1981</td>
<td>Silurian, Gotland, Sweden</td>
<td>Eurypterid cuticle</td>
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<td>Selden et al., 2008a</td>
<td>Devonian; Gilboa and South Mountain localities, New York State, USA</td>
<td>Arachnid fragments, spider spinnersets, cheliceral flags, flagellar structure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Selden et al., 2008b</td>
<td>Jurassic, Upper Cuyllonian; Oxford Clay, South Cave Station Quarry, Yorkshire, UK</td>
<td>Iron Pyrite Replacement specimen, orbilid mite. Net cuticle, but specimen sieved out from sediments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Selden et al., 2010</td>
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<td>Shear and Bonamo, 1988</td>
<td>Middle Devonian; Gilboa, New York State, USA</td>
<td>Centipede, fragments and complete specimens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shear and Bonamo, 1990</td>
<td>Middle Devonian; Gilboa, New York State, USA</td>
<td>Centipede, fragments and complete specimens</td>
</tr>
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<td>Shear et al., 1985a</td>
<td>Middle Devonian; Gilboa, New York State, USA</td>
<td>Spider spinnerset</td>
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<tr>
<td>Shear et al., 1985b</td>
<td>Middle Devonian; Gilboa, New York State, USA</td>
<td>Pseudocopepod fragments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slater et al., 2012</td>
<td>Permian, Guadalupian; Prince Charles Mountains, East Antarctica</td>
<td>Arthropod fragments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stankevich et al., 1998</td>
<td>Carboniferous; North America</td>
<td>Discuss the molecular taphonomy of arthropod cuticles</td>
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<tr>
<td>Taussairoud, 1967</td>
<td>Silurian–Devonian; Sahara, Africa</td>
<td>Eurypterid cuticle</td>
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<td>Tosolini and Pole, 2010</td>
<td>Cretaceous and Cenozoic; Australia and New Zealand</td>
<td>Scale insect shields, annelid cocoons</td>
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<td>Wilson and Hoffmeister, 1956</td>
<td>Pennsylvaniaian (Desmoinesian); Crowburg Coal</td>
<td>Arthropod fragments</td>
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<td>Winslow, 1959</td>
<td>Late Mississippian and Pennsylvaniaian; Illinois, USA</td>
<td>Arthropod cuticle extracted from coal</td>
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<td>Wellman, 1995</td>
<td>Early Devonian; Old Red Sandstone, Scotland, UK</td>
<td>Possible eurypterid cuticle fragments</td>
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References


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