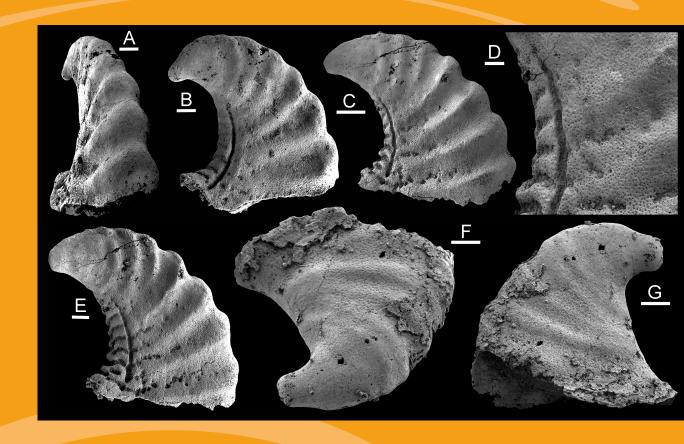
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Cover photo: Cambrian molluscs or mollusc-like fossils from the Henson Gletscher Formation, Peary Land, North Greenland. See this volume pp. 69–104: Peel, J.: Middle Cambrian (Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage) molluscs and mollusc-like microfossils from North Greenland (Laurentia).

Vertebral size ratios and the ichthyosaurian vertebral column – a case study based on Late Jurassic fossils from North-East Greenland

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Vertebral centra are some of the most common fossils from ichthyosaurs and thus valuable for understanding these marine reptiles. This study sets out to provide further information on the dimensional ratios of centra and how these might be used to obtain more information about an assemblage of Late Jurassic disarticulated centra found at Kingofjeldet on Kuhn Ø in North-East Greenland in 2017. The centra are used to test whether vertebral ratios (H:W and H:L) can be used to assign disarticulated and possibly weathered centra to a region in the vertebral column. In order to evaluate this, the ratios of the centra from Greenland were compared with those of five articulated and well-known ophthalmosaurid specimens, as well as classical traits based on morphology. Assigning the correct position in the vertebral column from ratios is, however, not straightforward. Firstly, comparing different ichthyosaur taxa gives different possible positions for the disarticulated centra. Secondly, centra from different vertebral regions commonly display similar ratios. Thirdly, ratios are sensitive to alteration by taphonomic processes. The ratios of the centra hints towards an ichthyosaur with a more regionalised vertebral column being present in the Late Jurassic sea of North-East Greenland. Further studies are needed to improve our understanding of the significance of the degree of regionalisation of the vertebral column among ichthyosaurs.

Keywords: Ichthyosaur, vertebrae, ratios, morphology, vertebral regionalisation, Ugpik Ravine Member, Kuhn \emptyset , Greenland.

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Ichthyosaurs first appeared during the Early Triassic (Olenekian) and existed until the early Late Cretaceous (Cenomanian), becoming one of the most successful groups of Mesozoic marine reptiles (Bardet 1992; Motani 2009; Motani *et al.* 2015; Jiang *et al.* 2016). Derived taxa were the first air-breathing vertebrates to adapt to a fully pelagic lifestyle, by developing fish-shaped bodies with a stiff trunk, a flexible tail with a vertical half-moon-shaped caudal fin and flipper-like front-and hind-limbs (Sander 2000; Buchholtz 2001; Motani 2005; Massare *et al.* 2006). Ichthyosaurs had a global distribution (Fernández & Maxwell 2012; Zammit

2012; Druckenmiller & Maxwell 2013; Delsett *et al.* 2017; Prasad *et al.* 2017). However, material from the world's largest island, Greenland, is scarce, hampering the understanding of palaeobiogeography and taxonomic relationships in northern latitudes (Marzola *et al.* 2018; Delsett & Alsen 2020). Newly described vertebrae from Late Jurassic ichthyosaurs from Kingofjeldet of North-East Greenland might answer these questions, but it has so far not been possible, as the assemblage only comprise vertebral centra (Delsett & Alsen 2020).

The robust vertebral centra are among the most

common fossil remains of ichthyosaurs, as they have a high preservation potential (McGowan & Motani 2003). Therefore, developing an understanding of vertebral centra and their usage in the studies of ichthyosaurs is of great interest and will allow more to be deduced about this group. Previous studies have used vertebral centra and the pattern of their changing dimensions along the vertebral column to describe ichthyosaurs and infer swimming style as well as possible taxonomic, intraspecific and/or ontogenetic variability (Buchholtz 2001; Massare et al. 2006; Fischer et al. 2012; Zammit et al. 2014; Delsett et al. 2017; Vakil et al. 2020). Many of the studies used relatively complete and articulated specimens, which are quite rare. It is far more common to find vertebrae isolated and/or disarticulated, such as the assemblage from Kingofjeldet, which is the focus in this study. Due to the high occurrence of isolated and/or disarticulated vertebrae, studies on these are also relevant and broadly applicable.

To effectively study the vertebral column of ichthyosaurs, the centra must be appropriately aligned along the vertebral column in their original positions. Normally, disarticulated vertebral centra from ichthyosaurs are assigned a position in the vertebral column (henceforth referred to as PVC) based on their morphology, which varies from region to region (McGowan & Motani 2003). Especially the position and appearance of the rib-facets on the lateral surfaces of the centra are used (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003; Massare et al. 2006). Among many ichthyosaur taxa, the ratios of vertebral centra (dorsoventral height:mediolateral width and height:anteroposterior length) also vary considerably through the vertebral column (Buchholtz 2001). This provides the possibility of using the ratios of disarticulated centra to help assign them PVCs. A method based on vertebral ratios will provide a quantitative method for assigning PVCs and it will help narrowing down the possible PVCs of a disarticulated vertebra. This will especially be of great use when having to assign PVCs to weathered or broken centra, missing their rib facets and other morphological features, or to centra with anomalously positioned rib-facets (e.g., Vakil et al. 2020). Correct positioning of such centra will allow for a larger number of centra being used to reconstruct the ichthyosaurian vertebral column and provide further knowledge of anatomy, locomotion and possibly taxonomic, intraspecific and/or ontogenetic variability.

This study uses the disarticulated Kingofjeldet centra as a case study to test and discuss the efficiency of the method of using ratios of ichthyosaur centra to assign PVCs to isolated, disarticulated vertebrae. Furthermore, the ratio method will be compared with

the classical method of using morphological features such as rib-facets. Therefore, this study serves to fill some of the gaps still present in our knowledge of how vertebrae can be used to study ichthyosaurs. The results will also be used to discuss vertebral anatomy and the possible taxonomy of the Kingofjeldet centra, thereby improving our poor understanding of ichthyosaurs from this region.

Geological setting and location

The assemblage of fossil vertebrae studied herein was collected from a stratigraphic level close to the base of the Ugpik Ravine Member (Bernbjerg Formation) on Kingofjeldet, Kuhn Ø, North-East Greenland (Figs 1–2). Kuhn Ø is situated in the northern part of the Wollaston Forland area and the associated Wollaston Forland Basin in North-East Greenland (Fig. 1a; Maync 1947; Surlyk 1977; Alsgaard *et al.* 2003). The Wollaston Forland Basin stretches from Hochstetter Forland in the north to Clavering Ø in the south.

The Wollaston Forland Basin is part of the late Palaeozoic to Mesozoic, East Greenlandic rift-basin complex, which was formed prior to and during the opening of the Atlantic, where Greenland and Norway ended up drifting apart (Surlyk 2003). During the Mesozoic, the area was situated at 45-50°N, at the western margin of a 500 km wide and 2000 km long epicontinental sea between Greenland and Norway (Surlyk 2003). The Wollaston Forland Basin was formed in the Middle Jurassic. Subsidence of the area resulted in marine transgression of the basement rocks (Surlyk 2003). Faulting during the Middle Jurassic to the earliest Cretaceous rifting resulted in the fragmentation of the Wollaston Forland - Kuhn Ø block that was divided into several smaller blocks (Surlyk 2003). Individual blocks rotated with a general dip in a W–SW-direction, forming several half grabens in the area (Alsgaard et al. 2003; Surlyk 2003). The whole Wollaston Forland area was covered by the sea from the Middle to Late Jurassic due to repeated transgressions (Surlyk 1977).

On Kuhn Ø, the Middle Jurassic Pelion Formation is resting directly on crystalline basement. The Pelion Formation is overlain by the Payerdal Formation, which is overlain by the Upper Jurassic Bernbjerg Formation. Only the lower sandy and grey mudstone-dominated Ugpik Ravine Member of the latter formation is preserved at the studied locality at Kingofjeldet, where the sedimentary succession is unconformably overlain by plateau basalts (Fig. 1b; Maync 1947). The Ugpik Ravine Member is sand-dominated at the base and becomes upwards progressively more fine-

grained and is dominated by laminated mudstones at the top (Maync 1947; Surlyk 1977). Therefore, the Ugpik Ravine Member represents a transition from the shoreface/shelf sandstone of the underlying Payer Dal Formation to the black, offshore mudstones of the Bernbjerg Formation. The Ugpik Ravine Member is approximately 43 m thick at Kingofjeldet (Maync 1947). At Kingofjeldet, the Ugpik Ravine Member con-

sists of seven sandy, heterolithic coarsening-upward cycles, which are 5–14 m thick, each representing a shallowing upward cycle from an offshore environment to a shoreface environment (Fig. 2; Alsgaard *et al.* 2003). The cycles are separated from each other by transgressive erosion surfaces and sometimes layers of belemnite-breccia (Maync 1947; Alsgaard *et al.* 2003).

The ichthyosaur vertebrae are assumed to be

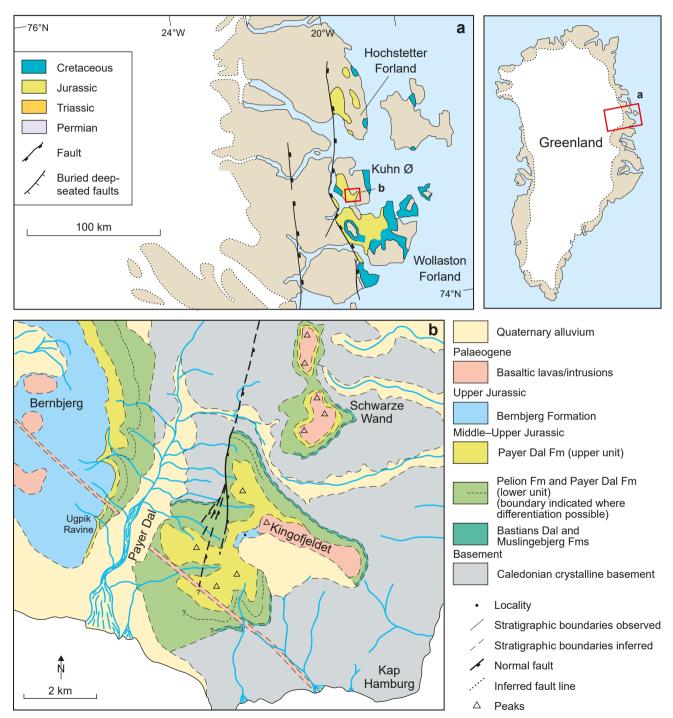


Fig. 1. a: Simplified geological map of the Kuhn Ø region in North-East Greenland. **b:** A more detailed geological map of the study area around Kingofjeldet. Modified from Alsgaard *et al.* (2003).

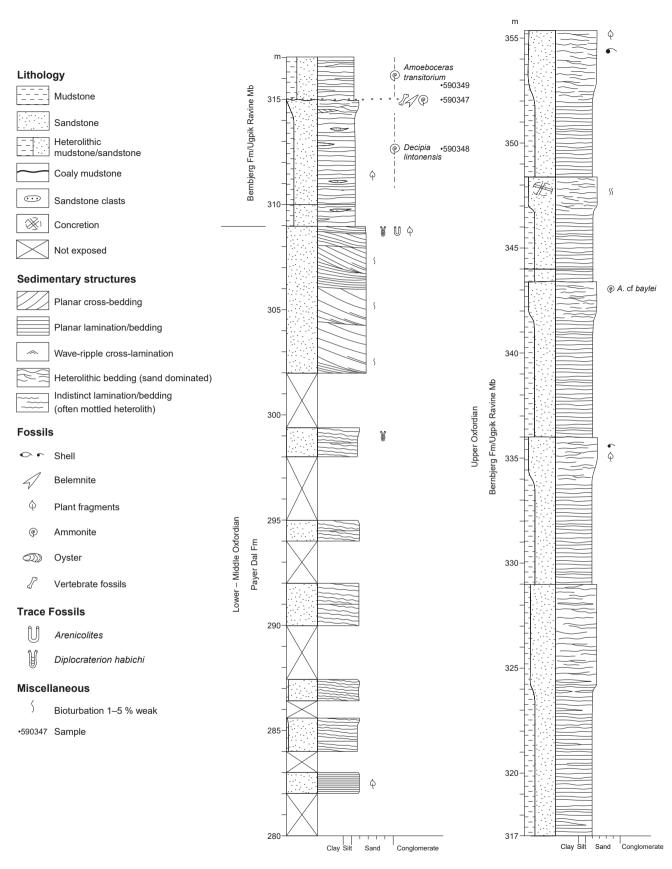


Fig. 2. Sedimentological log of the Payer Dal Formation and Bernbjerg Formation/Ugpik Ravine Member at Kingofjeldet on Kuhn \varnothing . The stratigraphic level yielding the fossil assemblage (GEUS 590347) is marked. The log was measured by Henrik Vosgerau in 1994.

from one of these shallow-marine, reworked layers (belemnite-breccia), as they were found together with an abundance of belemnites. The age of the fossil assemblage has been estimated to late Oxfordian based on the presence of the ammonites *Decipia lintonensis* (found as an imprint a few metres above the base of the unit) and *Amoeboceras transitorium* (found together with the fossil vertebrae; Delsett & Alsen 2020). These species are indicative of the Ilovaiskii subzone of the Glosense Zone (Callomon & Birkelund 1980).

Materials and methods

The vertebrae described by Delsett & Alsen (2020) were found on a weathered surface at Kingofjeldet on Kuhn Ø, North-East Greenland. They are all assumed to be from the same level in the succession and therefore of the same age (late Oxfordian; Delsett & Alsen 2020). A few of the centra were found embedded in the deposits, whereas most have been exposed to weathering. Several of the centra only consist of smaller frag-

ments, in seven cases successfully pieced together to complete centra. The assemblage was given the sample number GEUS 590347 and the individual centra were given sub-numbers 1–72. However, illustrated fossils will have their repository at the type collections of the Natural History Museum of Denmark (NHMD) and are therefore assigned NHMD numbers as well (Table 1). The centra are referred to as the Kingofjeldet centra.

The aim of this study is to assign a PVC to each of the centra based on their ratios, in order to evaluate whether this is a reliable method. As the Kingofjeldet centra are all disarticulated, their ratios will be compared with those of centra belonging to articulated ichthyosaur specimens, whose ratios and PVCs are known from the literature. Each Kingofjeldet centrum will be tentatively assigned to a PVC, based on their similarity to ratios of the articulated ichthyosaurs. These PVCs will be compared with the PVCs indicated by the morphological features of the Kingofjeldet centra, based on criteria outlined below. Thus, PVCs obtained from morphology are used to evaluate the PVCs obtained from dimensional ratios. Based on previous studies (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani

Table 1. Measurements, ratios and positions of the Kingofjeldet centra

GEUS no	NHMD no	Height	Width	Dorsal length	Ventral length	Mean length	H:W	H:L	PVC morphology
590347-01	657919	58.45	65.23	29.02	28.56	28.79	0.90	2.03	Cervical
590347-02	608564	46.82	46.40	17.46	18.19	17.83	1.01	2.63	Cervical
590347-03		33.78	34.58	13.46	11.38	12.42	0.98	2.72	Cervical
590347-05		68.03	61.85	28.18	28.33	28.26	1.10	2.41	Cervical
590347-06	608565	46.39	48.28	22.40	19.02	20.71	0.96	2.24	Cervical
590347-07	657920	44.72	46.89	17.16	18.68	17.92	0.95	2.50	Posterior dorsal
590347-08		30.12	32.36	11.85	13.32	12.59	0.93	2.39	Cervical
590347-09		38.56	41.53	13.97	17.26	15.62	0.93	2.47	Cervical
590347-10	657921	50.59	52.00	11.68	13.42	12.55	0.97	4.03	Preflexural caudal
590347-11		46.11	43.20	18.05	17.99	18.02	1.07	2.56	Posterior dorsal/
									prefexural caudal
590347-12	657922	44.54	47.04	14.55	15.11	14.83	0.95	3.00	Preflexural caudal
590347-13		29.19	32.98	11.50	12.02	11.76	0.89	2.48	Cervical
590347-14	657923	32.51	38.11	10.19	10.11	10.15	0.85	3.20	Preflexural caudal
590347-15		48.92	47.96	15.31	16.02	15.67	1.02	3.12	Preflexural caudal
590347-16	657924	23.10	35.66	13.92	12.96	13.44	0.65	1.72	Preflexural caudal
590347-17	608566	71.28	75.73	29.50	28.13	28.82	0.94	2.47	Preflexural caudal
590347-18		49.32	52.27	14.60	16.11	15.36	0.94	3.21	Preflexural caudal
590347-19		32.79	32.63	10.47	11.26	10.87	1,00	3.02	Preflexural caudal
590347-20		38.27	44.13	15.50	16.17	15.84	0.87	2.42	Preflexural caudal
590347-21	657925	46.66	52.14	16.73	17.72	17.23	0.89	2.71	Preflexural caudal
590347-22	657926	38.06	39.83	12.91	13.92	13.42	0.96	2.84	Posterior dorsal/
									preflexural caudal
590347-23	608567	35.72	42.42	13.23	13.31	13.27	0.84	2.69	Preflexural caudal
590347-24	657927	20.71	18.31		11.72	11.72	1.13	1.77	Postflexural caudal
590347-25		23.63	22.01	12.62	12.25	12.44	1.07	1.90	Postflexural caudal

Measurements are in mm, and the positions in the vertebral column (PVC) are based on morphology.

2003), the morphology of the Kingofjeldet centra are assumed to give a good indication of where in the vertebral column the centra were actually placed, which is referred to as the correct PVC. If the two methods yield the same PVC, it could indicate that ratios are a good indicator of the PVCs of the centra.

Different terminologies have been used to subdivide the ichthyosaurian vertebral column into different regions (Fig. 3; Kirton 1983; Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003). In this study, the vertebral column of ichthyosaurs will be divided into five different regions: cervical, anterior dorsal, posterior dorsal, preflexural caudal (tail stock) and postflexural caudal (fluke; Fig. 3). The two latter regions are often combined into the caudal region. It is not possible to define sharp boundaries between the

different regions, as the transition from one region to another and the change in centrum morphology happen gradually (McGowan & Motani 2003). A method of using the morphology of vertebral centra to assign disarticulated vertebrae to one of the vertebral regions have been well-known for a long time and thoroughly described by for example Buchholtz (2001) and McGowan & Motani (2003). The following criteria for morphology are commonly used:

 Cervical centra: two rib facets (diapophysis and parapophysis) sit dorsally high on each lateral surface with the diapophyses being confluent with the neural arch facets and the parapophyses positioned further ventrally. Some of these centra have a ventral keel, giving them a pentagonal/heart shape in ante-

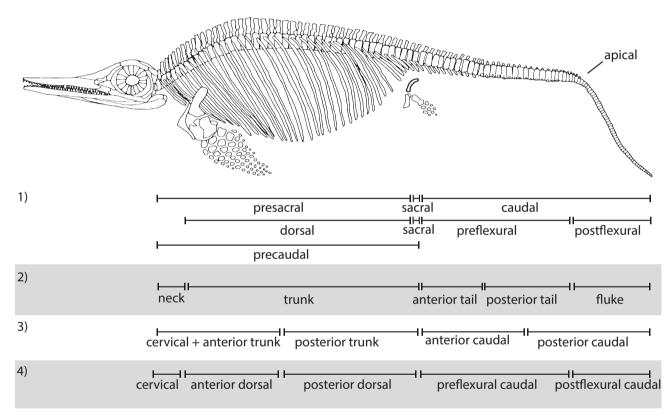


Fig. 3. Summary of the different terminologies used for subdivision of the ichthyosaurian vertebral column. Several of these definitions are sometimes used in other combinations. 1) McGowan & Motani 2003. Presacral vertebrae = from the atlas to the centrum at the distal end of the ilium. Dorsal = presacral vertebrae posterior to the level of the anterior margin of the pectoral girdle. Preflexural = caudal vertebrae anterior to apex of tailbend. Postflexural = posterior to apex of tailbend. Precaudal is used for the combination of presacral and sacral vertebrae. 2) Buchholtz 2001. Trunk = starts at the rapid increase in centrum width and height and includes the sacral vertebrae at the approximate location of the pelvis or where the ribs are rapidly decreasing in length. Anterior tail = the highest and widest centra, nearly round in cross section. Posterior tail = height decreases abruptly into dorsoventrally compressed centra with greater relative length. Fluke = starts at the change into laterally compressed centra. 3) Kirton 1983. No clear separation between cervical and anterior trunk vertebrae. Division between anterior and posterior trunk vertebrae is where the neural arch facet loses contact with the diapophysis. The anteriormost caudal vertebra is the one where the diapophysis and parapophysis merge to form a single rib facet and is associated with a sudden increase in centrum height. Posterior caudal vertebrae are small, slightly laterally compressed. 4) The subdivision of the ichthyosaurian vertebral column used in this study. See main text for explanations of the different regions.

rior and posterior view (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003).

- Anterior dorsal centra: the rib facets are placed in an increasingly ventral position on the lateral surfaces in more posteriorly placed vertebrae, resulting in the diapophyses losing contact with the neural arch facets and the centra are generally round in anterior and posterior view (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003).
- Posterior dorsal centra: the rib facets are positioned on the ventral half of the lateral surfaces and the centra are round in anterior and posterior view (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003).
- Preflexural caudal centra: only one rib facet (apophysis) found on the ventral half of each lateral surface and the centra are very disc-shaped and increasingly dorsoventrally compressed in the posterior part of this region (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003).
- Postflexural caudal centra: these are positioned posterior to the tail bend and are typically laterally compressed with no rib facets (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003).

The dimensions of the Kingofjeldet centra were measured with a digital caliper. Width, height as well as dorsal and ventral length were measured for each centrum, if allowed by their preservational state. Centrum width (W) was measured as the maximum mediolateral width without rib facets. Centrum height (H) was measured as the maximum dorsoventral height without diapophyses and neural arch facets. The dorsal length (DL) was measured as the maximum dorsal anteroposterior length and always within the mediolateral extent of the pit of the neural canal. The ventral length (VL) was measured as the maximum ventral anteroposterior length. Mean lengths (L) of the centra were calculated from the dorsal length and ventral length measurements. From the measurements, H:W and H:L ratios were calculated.

In order to assign PVCs, the ratios of the Kingo-fjeldet centra were compared with the ratios of centra from five well-known Late Jurassic/Cretaceous ichthyosaur specimens, which have larger parts of their vertebral column preserved. As these specimens are more or less articulated, the correct PVCs of their centra are known. *Keilhauia nui* (PMO 222.655) consists of an articulated, partial skeleton with dorsal and preflexural caudal vertebrae preserved (Delsett et al. 2017). Zverkov & Prilepskaya (2019) considered *Keilhauia nui* a nomen dubium, referring it to Arthropterygius instead. The necessary H:W and H:L ratios were provided for five dorsal vertebrae and 20 preflexural caudal vertebrae (Delsett et al. 2017). H:W and H:L ratios were read from a plot (Delsett et al. 2017, fig.

6) with a margin of error of ± 0.05 . Ophthalmosaurus icenicus (PMAG R340) consists of a nearly complete skeleton with 101 vertebrae running continuously from the atlas to the mid of the postflexural caudal region (Buchholtz 2001). The necessary H:W and H:L ratios were provided for nine cervical, 27 dorsal, 36 preflexural caudal and 25 postflexural caudal vertebrae (Buchholtz 2001). H:W and H:L ratios were read from a plot (Buchholtz 2001, fig. 4A) with a margin of error of ±0.01. Ophthalmosaurus natans (UW 24205 and UW 34786) consists of a composite vertebral column going from the cervical region to the postflexural caudal region (Massare et al. 2006). The necessary H, W and L measurements needed for H:W and H:L ratios were provided for ≈ nine cervical, ≈ 25 dorsal and 34 preflexural caudal vertebrae (Massare et al. 2006). H, W and L measurements were read from a plot (Massare et al. 2006, fig. 3A) with a margin of error of ± 1 mm. Platypterygius americanus (UW 5547) consists of a partially complete skeleton with 65 centra, the anterior dorsal region being partially disarticulated and with some of the mid-dorsal region missing (Maxwell & Kear 2010). The necessary H, W and L measurements needed for H:W and H:L ratios were provided for 16 cervical, 14 dorsal and 35 preflexural caudal vertebrae (Maxwell & Kear 2010). H, W and L measurements were read from a plot (Maxwell & Kear 2010, fig. 3A) with a margin of error of ±0.5 mm. Sveltonectes insolitus (IRSNB R269) consists of a nearly complete skeleton with a discontinuous series of 76 vertebrae (Fischer et al. 2011). The necessary H:W and H:L ratios were provided for 23 cervical, 16 dorsal, 22 preflexural caudal and 11 postflexural caudal vertebrae (Fischer et al. 2011). H:W and H:L ratios were read from a plot (Fischer et al. 2011, fig. 3A) with a margin of error of ± 0.05 . The measurements shown on plots were more precisely read with the described margins of errors by adding additional gridlines to the plots.

Comparisons of ratios with the Kingofjeldet centra were carried out by making bivariate plots of ratios in the statistical software PAST (version 4.03; Hammer et al. (2001)). The bivariate plots show the distribution of the centra from the different regions of the vertebral column of the known ichthyosaur specimens based on their ratios (H:W and H:L), together with the ratios of the Kingofjeldet material. Convex hulls in the bivariate plots each represent a vertebral region of the known ichthyosaur specimen and contains all H:W/H:L ratio pairs for the centra of that particular region. For each bivariate plot, a PVC for each Kingofjeldet centrum was assigned based on a qualitative assessment of which region-field its ratios most closely resembled. Close resemblance was considered to be the case if the ratios of a Kingofjeldet centrum were within the convex hull of a certain region. If the ratios of a

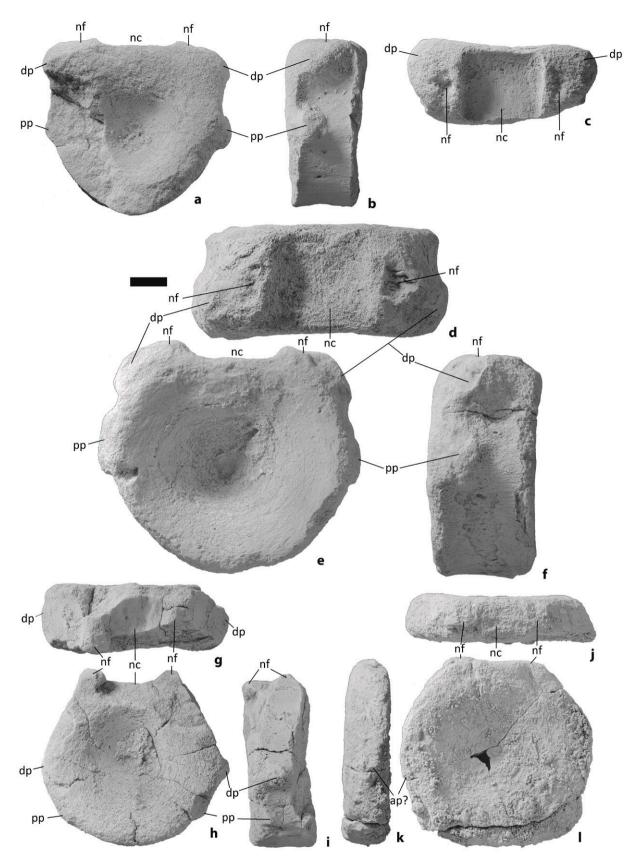


Fig. 4. Selected vertebral centra of GEUS 590347, coated with ammonium chloride. NHMD 608565 (cervical) in anterior **(a)**, left lateral **(b)** and dorsal **(c)** view. NHMD 657919 (cervical) in dorsal **(d)**, anterior **(e)** and left lateral **(f)** view. NHMD 657920 (posterior dorsal) in dorsal **(g)**, anterior/posterior? **(h)** and lateral **(i)** view. NHMD 657921 (preflexural caudal) in dorsal **(j)**, lateral **(k)** and anterior/posterior? **(l)** view. Scale bar is 1 cm. ap: apophysis, dp: diapophysis, nf: neural arch facet, nc: neural canal, pp: parapophysis.

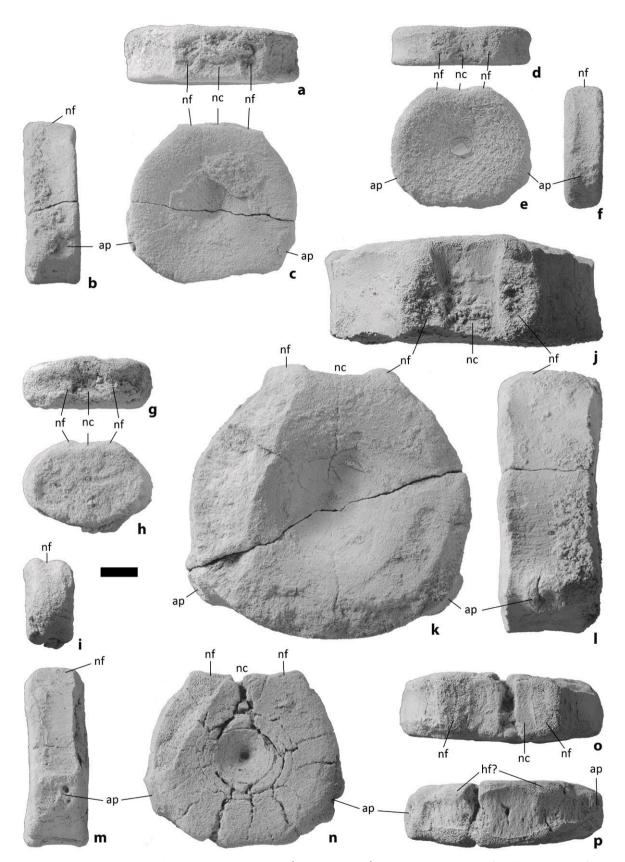


Fig. 5. Selected vertebral centra of GEUS 590347, coated with ammonium chloride. NHMD 657922 (preflexural caudal) in dorsal (a), lateral (b) and anterior/posterior? (c) view. NHMD 657923 (preflexural caudal) in dorsal (d), anterior/posterior? (e) and lateral (f) view. NHMD 657924 (preflexural caudal) in dorsal (g), anterior/posterior? (h) and lateral (i) view. NHMD 608566 (preflexural caudal) in dorsal (j), anterior/posterior? (k) and lateral (l) view. NHMD 657925 (preflexural caudal) in lateral (m), anterior/posterior? (n), dorsal (o) and ventral (p) view. Scale bar: 1 cm. ap: apophysis, hf: haemal arch facet, nf: neural arch facet, nc: neural canal.

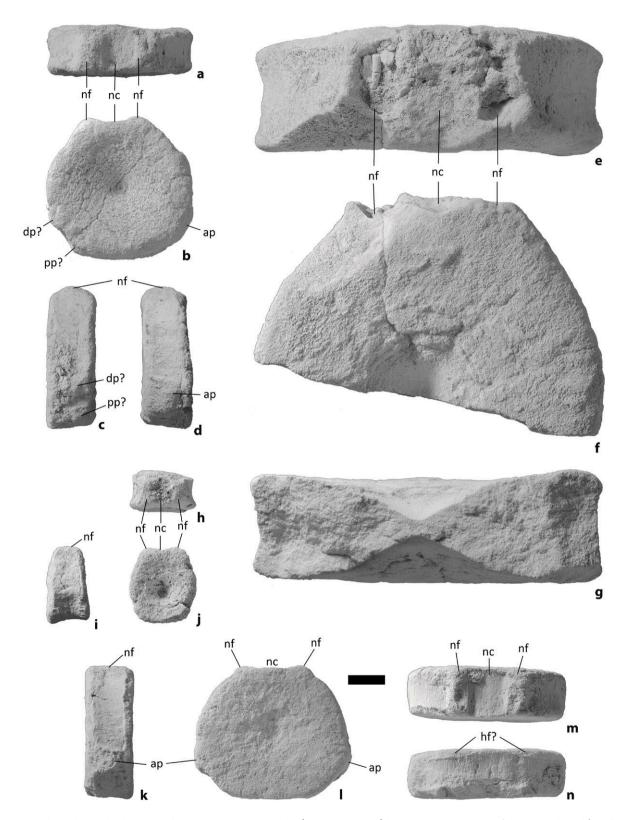


Fig. 6. Selected vertebral centra of GEUS 590347, coated with ammonium chloride. NHMD 657926 (posterior dorsal/preflexural caudal) in dorsal (a), anterior/posterior? (b) and lateral (c-d) view. NHMD 657928 (preflexural caudal) in dorsal (e), anterior/posterior? (f) and ventral (g) view. NHMD 657927 (postflexural caudal) in dorsal (h), lateral (i) and anterior/posterior? (j) view. NHMD 608567 (preflexural caudal) in lateral (k), anterior/posterior? (l), dorsal (m) and ventral (n) view. Scale bar: 1 cm. ap: apophysis, dp: diapophysis, hf: haemal arch facet, nf: neural arch facet, nc: neural canal, pp: parapophysis.

Kingofieldet centrum were outside the convex hulls of the different regions, comparison of ratios was not possible and no PVC was given based on ratios. When comparing PVCs based on ratios with the PVCs based on morphology, the two PVCs were considered to be in agreement, if they indicated the same vertebral region. The ratios of some of the Kingofjeldet centra were within the convex hull of multiple vertebral regions in the bivariate plots, indicating multiple possible PVCs for these centra. In these cases, the PVC based on ratios was considered inconclusive and could not be matched with the PVC based on morphology.

Results

Description of the fossils

Ichthyosauria *indet*. (Reptilia: Ichthyopterygia)

Referred specimens. Twenty-five complete and 44 incomplete vertebral centra (GEUS 590347-01-590347-25 and GEUS 590347-31-590347-72). Some of the betterpreserved centra are illustrated in Figs 4-6. The referred specimens have previously been described by Delsett & Alsen (2020) who suggested that they represent several ichthyosaur specimens. The vertebrae likely belong to the family Ophthalmosauridae, although the material cannot be referred to this family with certainty because of the lack of skull, flipper and girdle material (Delsett & Alsen 2020). Based on this assumption the Kingofjeldet centra have been compared with centra from other ophthalmosaurids.

Taphonomy. The vertebral centra vary in preservation: some are well preserved, whereas others are weathered, broken into several pieces; and some are incomplete, missing half or more of the centrum. For some vertebrae, one or both neural arch facets have been heavily eroded. This is also the case for some rib facets on the lateral surfaces of some of the centra. Only the complete and nearly complete, three-dimensional centra (GEUS 590347-01 to 590347-25, except 590347-04) are used in the analysis and are in a suitable condition for having their height, width and length measured.

Vertebral region based on morphology. Based on the morphological features of the centra, it was possible with some certainty to assign the 24 most well-preserved specimens to regions of the vertebral column (Table 1; Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003). The vertebrae assigned to the cervical region possess a diapophysis positioned in the dorsal portion on the lateral surface, close to the dorsal surface of the centra. The parapophysis is situated below the diapophysis in the dorsal half (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003). In some of the vertebrae, the diapophysis is clearly confluent with the neural arch facet (GEUS 590347-01, -02, -03 and -06, Fig. 4a-f), whereas this is less apparent on others due to weathering and erosion (GEUS 590347-05, -08, -09 and -13). The cervical vertebrae are approximately oval (GEUS 590347-01, -08 and -13, Fig. 4d-f) or almost heart-shaped (GEUS 590347-02, -03, -06 and -09, Fig. 4a-c) in anterior/posterior view, the heart-shape resulting from a ventral keel. The rib facets of these vertebrae tend to lie at/be confluent with the anterior margin of the lateral surface of the centrum. The posterior surface of GEUS 590347-09 is eroded to such a degree that it is no longer concave.

Only one vertebra (GEUS 590347-07, Fig. 4g-i) was confidently assigned to the posterior dorsal region based on the presence of a diapophysis in the middle of the lateral surface and the parapophysis positioned even further ventrally. It is approximately circular in anterior and posterior view (Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003). Due to its circular appearance in anterior and posterior view and the apparent lack of rib facets on the dorsal half of the lateral surfaces, GEUS 590347-11 might also be a posterior dorsal vertebra. Because it is heavily eroded and misses part of one lateral surface, a preflexural caudal position cannot be excluded.

The majority of the Kingofjeldet centra were assigned to the preflexural caudal region, based on the presence of only one apophysis on the ventral half of each lateral surface and the generally circular and disc-shaped appearance in anterior and posterior view, for example GEUS 590347-10, -12 and -17 (Figs 4j-l, 5a-c, 5j-l; Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003). Some of the centra are dorsoventrally compressed, which give them a characteristic ellipseshaped appearance in anterior and posterior view, for example GEUS 590347-14, -16, -21 and -23 (Figs 5d-i, 5m-p, 6k-n). Some of the preflexural caudal centra (GEUS 590347-12, -16, -19, -21 and -23) have a thick anterior and posterior margin laterally on the ventral surface, which narrows anteroposteriorly in a medial direction, thereby outlining a spindle-shaped depression on the mid-ventral surface (Figs 5p, 6n). This might be haemal arch facets, as also proposed by Prasad et al. (2017). GEUS 590347-15 was assigned to the preflexural caudal region, in contrast to its dorsal position suggested by Delsett & Alsen (2020). In contrast to the other centra, GEUS 590347-16 is not biconcave and has a flat anterior and posterior surface, without preserved rib facets, which might be due to erosion (Fig. 5g-i). A larger, but broken preflexural caudal centrum (GEUS 590347-31, Fig. 6e-g), is also identified, without rib facets on the dorsal half. GEUS 590347-22 is identified as a preflexural caudal vertebra. However, it might also belong to the posterior dorsal region, as one lateral surface seems to have two separate rib facets on the ventral half, whereas the other lateral surface has one elongate rib facet on the ventral half (Fig. 6a–d). The latter is possibly the result from the fusion of the diapophysis and parapophysis.

Two vertebrae (GEUS 590347-24 and -25) were assigned to the postflexural caudal region, based on their mediolaterally compressed shape in anterior

and posterior view and lack of rib facets (Fig. 6h-j; Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003). GEUS 590347-24 is only concave on one side (Fig. 6j), the other is flattened.

Measurements, plots of ratios and positioning of centra

The height, width and length measurements of GEUS 590347-01–590347-25 are shown in Table 1 together

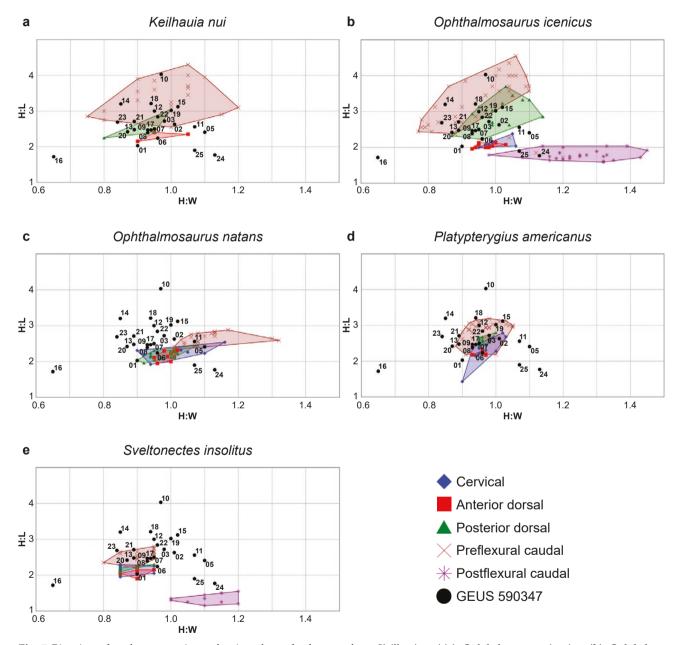


Fig. 7. Bivariate plots for comparison of ratios of vertebral centra from *Keilhauia nui* (a), *Ophthalmosaurus icenicus* (b), *Ophthalmosaurus natans* (c), *Platypterygius americanus* (d) and *Sveltonectes insolitus* (e) with GEUS 590347. The bounded region-areas are based on ratios of vertebral centra from the known ophthalmosaurids. GEUS 590347-01–590347-25 are plotted according to their H:W and H:L ratios and have been assigned positions based on which region-field they lie within on the plots. The plots are based on data from Delsett *et al.* (2017; a), Buchholtz (2001; b), Massare *et al.* (2006; c), Maxwell & Kear (2010; d) and Fischer *et al.* (2011; e).

with the ratios (H:W and H:L). The ratios of the Kingofjeldet centra were compared with those of *K. nui*, *O.* icenicus, O. natans, P. americanus and S. insolitus (Fig. 7). For *O. icenicus*, a few centra plotted far away from the rest of the centra from the same region and were considered anomalous for the respective regions and therefore not included in the bounding of the different vertebral region-fields (Fig. 7b). This included a cervical vertebra, which plotted outside of the displayed ratio-intervals of Fig. 7 and three preflexural caudal vertebrae. For O. natans, cervical centra were included in the trunk region in Massare et al. (2006). It was therefore uncertain how many centra were in fact cervical centra. By comparison with the vertebral column of O. icenicus, which has approximately the same number of vertebrae, it was estimated that the first eight to ten centra in the vertebral column of *O*. natans are cervical centra (Fig. 7c).

The different ophthalmosaurid taxa show different ratios in the different vertebral regions, even though the ratios of the same vertebral regions in the different ophthalmosaurids to some extent overlap each other (Fig. 7). The five taxa show different degrees of overlap between the vertebral regions of its own vertebral column (Fig. 7). The vertebral regions of O. natans, P. americanus and S. insolitus exhibit considerable overlap, whereas the vertebral columns of K. nui and O. icenicus exhibit lesser overlap between regions. The H:L ratios of the vertebral centra of K. nui and O. icenicus become progressively higher and more extreme compared with the H:L ratios of O. natans, P. americanus and S. insolitus when moving posteriorly from the cervical to the preflexural caudal region (Fig. 7). The plotting of the Kingofjeldet centra show that these centra have dispersed ratios, with values and a distribution more similar to the ratios of K. nui and O. icenicus than to the ratios of O. natans, P. americanus and S. insolitus (Fig. 7).

The assigned PVC for each Kingofjeldet centrum based on ratios and how it compares to the PVC based on morphology can be seen in Table 2. Comparison of Kingofjeldet centrum ratios with those of K. nui and

Table 2. Assigned position in the vertebral column (PVC) for each vertebral centrum of GEUS 590347

GEUS no	NHMD no	Keilhauia nui	Ophthalmosaurus icenicus	Ophthalmosaurus natans	Platypterygius americanus	Sveltonectes insolitus	PVC (morphology)
590347-01	657919	NA	NA	PD	NA	C/AD	С
590347-02	608564	PrC	PD	NA	C/PrC	NA	С
590347-03		PrC	PD	NA	PD/PrC	NA	С
590347-05		NA	NA	C/PrC	NA	NA	С
590347-06	608565	AD	PD	C/PD	C/AD/PrC	NA	С
590347-07	657920	PD	PD	NA	C/PD/PrC	PrC	PD
590347-08		PD	PD	NA	PrC	PrC	С
590347-09		PD	PD	NA	PrC	PrC	С
590347-10	657921	PrC	PrC	NA	NA	NA	PrC
590347-11		NA	NA	PrC	NA	NA	PD/PrC
590347-12	657922	PrC	PD/PrC	NA	PrC	NA	PrC
590347-13		PD	PD/PrC	NA	PrC	PrC	С
590347-14	657923	PrC	PrC	NA	NA	NA	PrC
590347-15		PrC	PD	NA	PrC	NA	PrC
590347-16	657924	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	PrC
590347-17	608566	PD	PD	NA	PrC	PrC	PrC
590347-18		PrC	PrC	NA	NA	NA	PrC
590347-19		PrC	PD	NA	PrC	NA	PrC
590347-20		PD	PrC	NA	NA	PrC	PrC
590347-21	657925	PrC	PrC	NA	NA	PrC	PrC
590347-22	657926	PD/PrC	PD/PrC	NA	PrC	NA	PD/PrC
590347-23	608567	NA	PrC	NA	NA	NA	PrC
590347-24	657927	NA	PoC	NA	NA	NA	PoC
590347-25		NA	PoC	NA	NA	NA	PoC

Column three to seven show the ratio-based PVCs of each centrum depending on which ophthalmosaurid they were compared with. NA marks cases where the ratios of the centrum in question did not plot within the ratios of the different vertebral regions of the ophthalmosaurid, which it was compared with. The last column shows the PVC of the centra based on their morphology. Colours: green: PVC based on ratios matches with the PVC based on morphology, blue: PVC based on ratios does not match with the PVC based on morphology. AD: anterior dorsal, C: cervical, PD: posterior dorsal, PoC: postflexural caudal, PrC: preflexural caudal.

O. icenicus gave the highest number of PVCs agreeing with the PVCs based on morphology, which is nine and ten correctly positioned centra respectively. Some of the Kingofjeldet centra were assigned more than one possible PVC for each ophthalmosaurid they were compared with (Table 2). The analysis and bivariate plots show that when multiple PVCs are possible, it is not necessarily two adjacent regions within the vertebral column, but it might also be two non-adjacent regions (Fig. 7; Table 2). For example, four Kingofjeldet centra were assigned to a cervical position and a posterior dorsal or a preflexural caudal position when compared with either O. natans or P. americanus (Table 2). Cervical, posterior dorsal and preflexural caudal to some degree overlap with each other at lower H:L values (e.g., Fig. 7c-e). The ratio-based PVCs of each Kingofjeldet centrum also show that cervical centra (based on morphology) are often assigned a posterior dorsal or preflexural caudal position based on ratios (Table 2).

Discussion

Ratio-based positioning of the vertebral centra

Comparison with *O. icenicus* gave the highest amount of correctly positioned centra based on vertebral ratios (ten correct PVCs). That the highest amount of correctly positioned centra based on ratios represents just under half of the Kingofjeldet centra suggest that ratios cannot always be used on their own to assign centra to a vertebral region with certainty. Several factors seem to complicate the process of using vertebral centrum ratios to position disarticulated centra within the different regions of the vertebral column.

Firstly, the ratios for a certain vertebral region vary between the different ophthalmosaurid taxa to which the Kingofjeldet centra were compared. This will result in different possible PVCs for a disarticulated centrum, depending on which ophthalmosaurid it is compared with, which influences the analysis of the Kingofjeldet centra. This problem can be solved if comparisons of the ratios of disarticulated centra are restricted to centra from taxa known to have approximately the same degree of regionalisation of the vertebral column. Obviously, comparing with the same species is optimal, but when only looking at a few disarticulated centra, it is close to impossible to know the species and the degree of regionalisation. In addition, even among individuals of the same species, variation in ratios occurs within the same vertebral region, for example observed for Acamptonectes densus and Platypterygius australis (Fischer et al. 2012; Vakil et al. 2020). Such variation might represent ontogenetic stages, sexual dimorphism, intraspecific variation, or differential weathering and/or deformation of the centra.

Secondly, a gradual transition between the different vertebral regions and the lack of a unidirectional change in ratios along the vertebral column means that centra of adjacent and non-adjacent regions may have similar, overlapping ratios. This is clearly seen in Fig. 7 and is also apparent from previous studies of ichthyosaurian vertebral columns (e.g., Buchholtz 2001; McGowan & Motani 2003; Massare et al. 2006; Vakil et al. 2020). Therefore, a disarticulated centrum may be assigned to multiple regions based on its ratios, as was the case in this study. Some centra were here assigned both to the posterior dorsal and preflexural caudal regions or the cervical, posterior dorsal and/or preflexural caudal regions (Table 2). The postflexural caudal region seems to be the only clearly distinguishable region based on both ratios and morphology of the centra, for example in O. icenicus and S. insolitus (Fig. 7b, e). GEUS 590347-22 serves as an example on how difficult it can be to mark a sharp boundary between different regions based on ratios but also morphology. GEUS 590347-22 could be part of the transitional area from the posterior dorsal region to the preflexural caudal region, indicated by its ratios when compared with *K. nui* and *O. icenicus* and by its morphology. The distinction between the different regions of the vertebral column based on ratios becomes even less apparent in less regionalised ichthyosaurs. Thus, it may be even more difficult to assign a disarticulated centrum to one specific region based on its ratios when comparing it with less regionalised taxa.

Thirdly, several of the Kingofjeldet centra plotted outside of the defined regions based on the ratios of the five known ophthalmosaurids, which meant that assigning a PVC based on ratios was inconclusive (Fig. 7; Table 2). This might be a result of inadequate data for comparison caused by a relatively sparse set of measured centra from more or less articulated specimens. Inconclusive ratios can also be a result of weathering and/or deformation/compression. Such processes can alter the dimensions and ratios of the centra, causing them to plot differently than they would without being affected by these processes. The Kingofjeldet centra were found in the muddy sandstone deposits of the Ugpik Ravine Member, which might have been subject to some compression. It is common for disarticulated vertebrae to be compressed in an anteroposterior direction (e.g., Delsett et al. 2016), causing them to attain higher H:L ratios. Besides causing the centra to plot differently, this might also explain why so many cervical centra were identified as posterior dorsal and preflexural caudal vertebrae based on their ratios. The posterior dorsal region and especially the preflexural caudal region tend to have higher H:L ratios than the cervical region (Fig. 7). Possible dorsoventral compression could also explain the very low H:W and H:L ratio of GEUS 590347-16, which plots far from all the other Kingofjeldet centra and the centra of the five known ophthalmosaurids.

Biological implications of the vertebral centra

Previous studies have used centrum ratios, their gradual change through the vertebral column and regionalisation as a way to distinguish between different ophthalmosaurid taxa (Massare et al. 2006; Maxwell & Kear 2010; Vakil et al. 2020). Based on the bivariate plots in this study, it is fairly easy to distinguish the more regionalised ophthalmosaurids from the less regionalised ophthalmosaurids (Fig. 7). Keilhauia nui and O. icenicus have more strongly regionalised vertebral columns (Buchholtz 2001, fig. 4A; Delsett et al. 2017, fig. 5) with more dispersed and less overlapping regions (Fig. 7a-b). A more complete vertebral column of K. nui is required to give a more precise estimate of the regionalisation of the vertebral column and the dispersal of regions within a bivariate plot. Ophthalmosaurus natans, P. americanus and S. insolitus show a weaker degree of regionalisation of the vertebral column (Massare et al. 2006, fig. 3A; Maxwell & Kear 2010, fig. 3; Fischer et al. 2011, fig. 3B) with less dispersed and more overlapping regions (Fig. 7c-e). Changes in H:L ratios and not H:W ratios, seem to cause the greatest variation between the different regions of the vertebral column and between the more regionalised and less regionalised ophthalmosaurids. Vakil et al. (2020) showed a similar importance of centrum length and used it to distinguish between different specimens of P. australis. H:W ratios only seem to be important in the postflexural region related to the extreme mediolateral compression of vertebrae in this region.

In this study, comparisons with less regionalised ophthalmosaurids (O. natans, P. americanus and S. insolitus) result in more inconclusive PVCs of the Kingofjeldet centra than comparison with the stronger regionalised ophthalmosaurids (K. nui and O. icenicus; Table 2). This is because the Kingofjeldet centra have ratios that are less similar to those of less regionalised ophthalmosaurids than to those of more regionalised ophthalmosaurids. The ratios of the Kingofjeldet centra show values and a distribution similar to the ratios of K. nui and O. icenicus. Comparison with these two taxa also resulted in the highest amounts of Kingofjeldet centra being assigned a PVC based on ratios that matched the PVC suggested by morphology (Fig. 7, Table 2). This could indicate that the Kingofjeldet centra are from an ophthalmosaurid with a more regionalised vertebral column, bearing in mind that the Kingofjeldet centra might have been subjected to

taphonomic processes. As mentioned earlier, this could have slightly altered their ratios through weathering and deformation, causing some centra (e.g., GEUS 590347-10) to appear more like those from more regionalised ichthyosaurs than is the case.

Despite the clear difference between more regionalised and less regionalised ophthalmosaurids in the bivariate plots, regionalisation does not seem to bear any taxonomic signal, at least not above species level. This is indicated by the similarities between the plots of K. nui and O. icenicus (Fig. 7a-b) and the similarities between the plots of O. natans, P. americanus and S. insolitus (Fig. 7c-e), the only exception being the preflexural caudal region of O. natans. These similarities are probably a consequence of regionalisation being an adaptive trait associated with locomotion and preferred swimming style (Buchholtz 2001) and is therefore a character affected by homoplasy (Paparella et al. 2017).

Generally, the taxonomic value of isolated centra have been questioned (McGowan & Motani 2003; Zammit 2010). However, it is worth noting that the ratios of the Kingofjeldet centra resemble those of *O. icenicus*. Only four centra are outside the range of the ratios of O. icenicus (Fig. 7b) and ten out of 24 centra were correctly positioned when compared with O. icenicus (Table 2). The morphology of the Kingofjeldet centra also have a certain resemblance to the vertebral centra of O. icenicus (Moon & Kirton 2016). This is especially the case for GEUS 590347-02, -06, -12, -14, -17, -21 and -23.

Conclusion

The ratios of 24 disarticulated vertebral centra from Ugpik Ravine Member, Greenland, were compared with those of five different ophthalmosaurids and based on this the centra were assigned positions in the vertebral column (PVCs). Multiple factors complicated the assigning of the correct PVCs to the centra when only ratios were considered. Firstly, it is uncertain which ophthalmosaurid is most suitable for the comparison. Comparison with arbitrary ophthalmosaurids in this study often resulted in inconclusive PVCs. Secondly, it is possible to obtain multiple different PVCs for a centrum due to weak regionalisation of the vertebral column and/or due to gradual transitions and a lack of a unidirectional change in ratios from one vertebral region to another. Thirdly, the method is sensitive to taphonomic alterations of the ratios through weathering and/or compaction, potentially causing centra to attain anomalous ratios or ratios resembling that of centra from other vertebral regions. Postflexural caudal centra were the only centra with

ratios clearly separating them from the other regions. A prerequisite for assigning PVCs to disarticulated centra based on their ratios, is that they belong to an ichthyosaur with a relatively regionalised vertebral column, which seems to be the case for the Kingofjeldet centra, bearing in mind potential diagenetic alterations of ratios. If the vertebral column is only weakly regionalised, it becomes difficult to place the centra and it will be more precise to use morphology. In conclusion, effective positioning of centra based on their ratios requires strongly regionalised vertebral columns where the ratios of the different regions can be clearly distinguished from each other. However, the studied ophthalmosaurids show that this is rarely the case. Yet, the pattern and difference in overlap of vertebral regions in the bivariate plots for more regionalised columns and less regionalised columns is interesting to note. More studies into these differences might help to better distinguish between more regionalised ichthyosaurs and less regionalised ones and improve our understanding of their different adaptive traits and the related locomotory importance.

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New record of the genus *Ptychodus* Agassiz, 1834, (Chondrichthyes, Elasmobranchii) from the Upper Cretaceous of Bornholm (Denmark)

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Nine shark teeth were collected at Arnager in the south-western part of the island of Bornholm (Baltic Sea, Denmark). They all come from the basal conglomerate of the Coniacian (Upper Cretaceous) Arnager Limestone Formation and belong to the genus Ptychodus Agassiz, 1834. Three different species are identified: P. altior, P. latissimus and P. mammillaris, which were hitherto unknown in Denmark.

Keywords: Ptychodus, shark tooth, Late Cretaceous, Coniacian, Bornholm, Denmark.

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Nine shark teeth belonging to the genus Ptychodus Agassiz, 1834 (see Giusberti et al. 2018; Brignon 2019) were collected by three amateur palaeontologists (Mette Hofstedt [7 teeth: DK 858 A-G], Marianne Nattestad [1 tooth: DK 858 I] and Niels Hemmer [1 tooth: DK 858 H]) in the south-western part of the island of Bornholm at Arnager (Denmark, 55°03'N, 14°46'E; Fig.

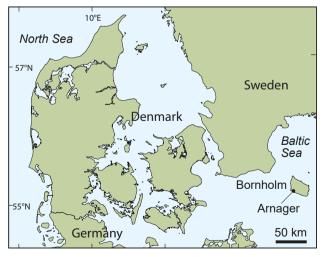


Fig. 1. Map showing the location of Arnager on Bornholm Island.

1). The whole set was declared 'Danekræ' in 2016 as the 'Danekræ' law that was enacted in 1989 stipulates that "Whoever in Denmark finds a botanical or zoological object of fossil or sub-fossil origin or a geological object of unique scientific or display value, shall offer the object to the State [...]. If the State wishes to acquire the object, the finder or owner shall be paid a reward" (Christensen & Hald 1990). Until now, only the species Ptychodus rugosus Dixon, 1850 had been officially recorded from Denmark (Blume 1979; Radwanski & Marcinowski 1996), excluding Greenland from where a tooth of Ptychodus decurrens Agassiz, 1835 was described from the late Turonian–Early Coniacian by Hoch (1992). In addition, one tooth from the collection of the Natural History Museum of Denmark (NHMD) is attributed to P. rugosus (Fig. 2). It was deposited, and probably identified, on May 5th 1950 by A. Rosenkrantz under the number 1950.150, that was later registered as NHMD 167591. According to the original label, it also comes from Arnager.

Teeth of *Ptychodus* are easily recognizable due to their peculiar morphology. The crown is divided into two parts: the marginal area and the cusp. In most species the cusp is ornamented with distinct transverse ridges, whereas the marginal area is variously ornamented, ranging from a granular texture to fine ridges. A few species display radiating ridges instead of transverse ridges. The cusp is dome-shaped and elevated to varying degrees, dependent on the species and position of the teeth in the jaws. This general morphology suggests that this shark was durophagous. It was a large shark that could reach up to 10 m in length (Shimada et al. 2010; Hamm 2020). Ptychodus is a genus known from the Middle Cenomanian to the Early Campanian in North and South America, Europe, Africa, Asia and Australia (Hamm 2020). Its phylogenetic affinities among elasmobranchs have long been a point of contention (Cuny 2008), however a consensus that Ptychodus was a neoselachian shark seems to have emerged (Hoffman et al. 2016; Hamm 2020). Its precise relationships among neoselachians remain, however, enigmatic, although it has been suggested that it could be related to Lamniformes (Rozefelds 1993; Hamm 2010).



Fig. 2. Tooth of *Ptychodus latissimus* in apical view (NHMD 167591), originally ascribed to *P. rugosus*, with its original label. Scale bar = 10 mm.

Geological setting

All nine teeth were recovered from the basal phosphorite conglomerate of the Arnager Limestone Formation near Arnager Pynt in the south-western part of Bornholm. The formation is 12-20 m thick at this location, but can reach up to 40 m towards the north-west along Stampe A. The basal conglomerate is, however, only visible near Arnager Pynt. The Arnager Limestone Formation has been dated as Early to Middle Coniacian and was deposited in a rather deep outer shelf environment, although not far from the coastline (Schiøler 1992; Hart et al. 2012; Svennevig & Surlyk 2019). Svennevig & Surlyk (2019) noted that the Arnager Limestone occupied a much more proximal position than most other Upper Cretaceous Chalk in North-West Europe. The presence of a conglomerate at the base of the Arnager Limestone, which is separated from the underlying Arnager Greensand by a hiatus (Svennevig & Surlyk 2019), suggests a high-energy environment indicative of a period of regression/ lowered sea level. This certainly explains why some specimens are fragmentary.

Material and method

All nine teeth are housed in the Danekræ collection (DK) of the Natural History Museum of Denmark (NHMD) at the University of Copenhagen under the collection number DK 858 A-I. Because of the peculiar arrangement of the teeth in the oral cavity, where they form straight, parallel tooth files directed anteroposteriorly (cranio-caudally), the typical vocabulary to describe elasmobranch teeth is adapted. The usual mesial and distal sides are replaced by anterior (facing anteriorly) and posterior (facing caudally) sides, whereas the lingual side faces towards the inside of the mouth and the labial one towards the outside of the mouth (Hamm 2020). All the teeth were photographed at the NHMD by Sten Lennart Jakobsen. All measurements were made using a calliper with an accuracy of a tenth of a millimetre. Important characters in the description of a Ptychodus tooth are the elevation of the cusp, the shape and number of the transverse ridges and the ornamentation pattern of the marginal area. A transverse ridge is defined here as a continuous unit crossing the apex of the crown from the lingual to the labial side. Observation of the details of the ornamentation was made using a stereomicroscope Leica MZ7.5. Specimen DK 858 B was broken during manipulation after it was photographed. The cusp was separated from the marginal area and part of the basal part of the cusp was lost. The systematic scheme adopted here follows Hoffman et al. (2016) and Hamm (2019) in attributing the genus Ptychodus to neoselachian sharks and Hamm (2019) in attributing it to the Order Ptychodontiformes.

Systematic palaeontology

Class Chondrichthyes Huxley, 1880 Subclass Elasmobranchii Bonaparte, 1838 Subcohort Neoselachii Compagno, 1977 Order Ptychodontiformes Hamm, 2019 Family Ptychodontidae Jaeckel, 1898

Genus Ptychodus Agassiz, 1834

General description. The teeth measure between 5 and 14.5 mm antero-posteriorly. A posterior sulcus, which allows the tooth to be oriented, is visible only when the tooth is complete and/or well preserved. However, for every specimen described below, either the tooth is broken, or part of the tooth is hidden in the matrix. No root is visible. We could therefore not differentiate the lingual side from the labial one. Thus, they are defined as lateral sides. The apical surface is flat or convex and represents the best-preserved region in each tooth. It bears three to eight transverse ridges. Three main morphologies of the crown can be defined:

Morphotype 1: The apical part of the cusp is ovoid, but it is less elongated antero-posteriorly than in morphotype 2 below. The antero-posterior length of the central elevation exceeds its height.

Morphotype 2: The apical part of the cusp is ovoid in outline, longer antero-posteriorly than labio-lingually. The antero-posterior length of the central elevation does not exceed its height.

Morphotype 3: The apical part of the cusp is square and the associated central elevation is low.

Ptychodus mammillaris Agassiz, 1835

Material. DK 858 D (Fig. 3B), DK 858 F (Fig. 3C), and DK 858 I (Fig. 3A).

Description. These three teeth belong to morphotype 1. Their apical surface is flat to slightly convex. Six to eight thick transverse ridges cross the whole of the cusp labio-lingually. Their extremities are discontinuous, forming an alignment of tubercles that merge with

the ornamentation of the marginal area. The labial and lingual extremities of the posterior ridges curve anteriorly whereas those of the anterior ridges curve posteriorly. The transverse ridges of DK 858 F (Fig. 3C) appear distinctly thinner than those of DK 858 D (Fig. 3B) and DK 858 I (Fig. 3A). The ornamentation of the marginal area is composed of discontinuous tubercles that can be quite elongate, forming a concentric pattern around the cusp in apical view.

Comparison. The orientation of the extremities of the transverse ridges described above is reminiscent of that seen in NHMD 167591 (Fig. 2). Nevertheless, the cusp is not as high and NHMD 167591 belongs to morphotype 3 (see below). The presence of six to eight parallel, thick and clearly delineated transverse ridges in DK 858 I (Fig. 3A) and DK 858 D (Fig. 3B) is in agreement with P. mammillaris, the teeth of which usually show five to ten ridges in medial and lateral files (Hamm 2020). The wide marginal area of DK 858 I, the only tooth in our sample in which this area is preserved, displays a coarse and concentric ornamentation, also characteristic of P. mammillaris (Hamm 2020). Teeth of this species can reach up to 45 mm labio-lingually (Longbottom & Patterson 2002), whereas our largest and best-preserved tooth (DK 858 I) measures 14.5 mm labio-lingually. This suggests that these teeth belong to the 2nd-4th tooth file position in the jaw (S. Hamm, personal communication October 2021).

Ptychodus altior Agassiz, 1835

Material. DK 858 A (Fig. 3D), DK 858 B (Fig. 3E), and DK 858 E (Fig. 3F).

Description. These three teeth belong to morphotype 2. The crown is flared at the base and can be subdivided into three main units: the marginal area, the base and the apex of the cusp. The lateral and posterior sides of the base of the cusp are very abrupt, almost vertical, whereas the anterior side is less steep. There are three or four straight to wavy transverse ridges, roughly parallel to each other, that cross the convex apex of the cusp labio-lingually before fading away, leaving the lateral sides of the cusp devoid of ornamentation. On the other hand, the anterior and posterior sides may display faint, irregular ridges or tubercles in DK 858 A (Fig. 3D) and DK 858 E (Fig. 3F). The transition between the base of the cusp and the marginal area is sharp, the latter being ornamented by discontinuous ridges displaying a concentric pattern around the cusp.

Comparison. Four species of Ptychodus possess teeth belonging to morphotype 2: Ptychodus altior, P. rugosus, P. anonymus Williston, 1900 and P. whipplei Marcou,

1858. Teeth of *P. anonymus* display transverse ridges that are closely spaced and extend to the base of the cusp. Moreover, this species has so far only been reported from the Cenomanian (Hamm 2020). The apical cusp of P. whipplei teeth display a more circular outline compared to DK 858 A (Fig. 3D), DK 858 B (Fig. 3E) and DK 858 E (Fig. 3F), and the transverse ridges reach the marginal area (Hamm 2020). Teeth of Ptychodus rugosus differ from the Danish specimens by displaying more irregular transverse ridges that cross the apex of the cusp (Radwanski & Marcinowski 1996; Hamm 2020). DK 858 A (Fig. 3D), DK 858 B (Fig. 3E) and DK 858 E (Fig. 3F) are therefore attributed to P. altior based on their transverse ridges that are confined to the apex of the cusp and their smooth lateral sides (Amadori et al. 2019). Ptychodus altior has so far only been recovered from Europe and Angola (Amadori et al. 2019).

Ptychodus latissimus Agassiz, 1835

Material. NHMD 167591 (Fig. 2), DK 858 C (Fig. 3G) and DK 858 H (Fig. 3H).

Description. These teeth belong to morphotype 3. A complete marginal area is not preserved in any of the three samples. In anterior or posterior view the cusp is slightly convex. Six thick transverse ridges, the extremities of which point posteriorly in DK 858 H (Fig. 3H), cross the whole of the cusp labio-lingually. In NHMD 167591 (Fig. 2) and DK 858 C (Fig. 3G) only the first three transverse ridges point posteriorly. The extremities of some of the transverse ridges are discontinuous, forming an alignment of tubercles that merge with the ornamentation of the marginal area. The tubercles are predominantly elongated

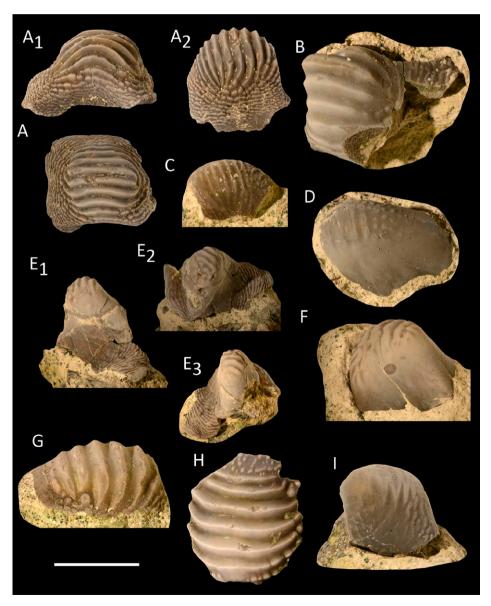


Fig. 3. Ptychodus teeth from Bornholm Island. A-C: Ptychodus mammillaris. A: DK 858 I; A₁, posterior view; A2, lateral view; A3, apical view. B: DK 858 D, latero-apical view. C: DK 858 F, latero-apical view. **D-F**: Ptychodus altior. **D**: DK 858 A, latero-apical view. E: DK 858 B; E₁, lateral view; E₂, posteroapical view; E3, antero-apical view. F: DK 858 E, latero-apical view. G-H: Ptychodus latissimus. G: DK 858 C, latero-apical view. H: DK 858 H, apical view. I: Ptychodus sp. DK 858 G, lateral view. Scale bar for A, E, H, I = 10 mm. Scale bar for B, C, D, F, G = 5 mm.

and irregular, both in shape and orientation. There is a gradual transition between the cusp and the marginal area.

Comparison. NHMD 167591 (Fig. 2) was attributed to P. rugosus, probably by A. Rosenkrantz based on its original museum label; to the best of the authors' knowledge this specimen was never published. However, this tooth is not as high and its transverse ridges are better developed and more regular than typically seen in P. rugosus (Radwanski & Marcinowski 1996; Hamm 2020). This identification must therefore be rejected. The number and the morphology of the curved transverse ridges of NHMD 167591, as well as of DK 858 C (Fig. 3G) and DK 858 H (Fig. 3H), are more reminiscent of the species P. latissimus. The latter species possesses three to eight thick and widely spaced ridges across a low cusp (Hamm 2020). The ornamentation pattern of DK 858 D (Fig. 3B) is also reminiscent of that of *P. latissimus*, but the crown is too high for that tooth to be attributed to the latter species. Adult teeth of P. latissimus can reach 60 mm (Longbottom & Patterson 2002), whereas the largest tooth in our sample, NHMD 167591 (Fig. 2), is roughly 24 mm antero-posteriorly.

Ptychodus sp.

Material. DK 858 G (Fig. 3I).

Description. This tooth belongs to morphotype 2. Only the cusp is preserved. The transverse ridges are almost completely worn away, but four straight ridges parallel to each other can be observed. They do not reach the base of the cusp (Fig. 3I). Anterior and posterior sides are ornamented with discontinuous and irregular ridges. Lateral sides are ornamented with thinner, sparse and irregular ridges.

Comparison. DK 858 G (Fig. 3I) displays four ridges on the apex that do not reach the base of the cusp. However, contrary to the teeth of *P. altior*, the lateral faces of the cusp are not completely smooth, even when their ornamentation is sparse. The tooth cannot be assigned to the species P. mammillaris because the transverse ridges do not reach the marginal area. In addition, teeth of *P. mammillaris* display at least five transverse ridges, and the crown of DK 858 G is too high to correspond to a posterior tooth with a reduced number of ridges (Hamm 2020). Morphologically, DK 858 G (Fig. 3I) appears to be an intermediate between P. altior and P. mammillaris, although admittedly closer to the former than to the latter. Because of the incomplete nature and worn appearance of the single specimen available, it is treated here in open nomenclature.

Discussion

Ptychodus latissimus and P. mammillaris have frequently been described from the same stratigraphic levels (Welton & Farish 1993; Trbušek 1999; Longbottom & Patterson 2002), so their association in the Bornholm specimens is not surprising. All teeth described above are small and certainly come from lateral tooth files. According to the geological setting (Svennevig & Surlyk 2019) the conglomerate's genesis was likely due to lowered sea level, hence higher energy, allowing disarticulation and winnowing of teeth of specimens into a lower energy environment. Efficient sorting has concentrated teeth of similar size, between 5 and 15 mm labio-lingually, in the conglomerate. This explains the absence of large lower symphysial and upper paramedial teeth from the collection.

Although NHMD 167591 (Fig. 2) cannot be attributed to *Ptychodus rugosus*, the tooth illustrated by Radwanski & Marcinowski (1996: pl. 2, fig. 6), which displays a high cusp crossed by irregular ridges, is indeed typical of P. rugosus. Unfortunately, the whereabouts of this tooth are unknown and no details were given by the authors. Blume (1979) figures a single tooth of *Ptychodus* that was not identified to species level. The cusp displays at least nine ridges and is not elevated, which excludes the possibility that it could belong to *P. rugosus*, as the elevated cusp of *P.* rugosus never displays more than six ridges (Hamm 2020). Although the tooth illustrated by Blume (1979) may superficially look similar to NHMD 167591 (Fig. 2), its transverse ridges are too numerous and closely spaced for this tooth to be attributed to *P. latissimus*. The same character indicates that this specimen can also not be assigned to either P. altior or P. mammillaris. It is therefore likely that there is at least one more species, and perhaps two if we take into account DK 858 G (Fig. 3I), present in the Upper Cretaceous of Bornholm, but a precise identification based on a single photograph is premature, and without access to the specimen further conclusions are unattainable.

Ptychodus altior is reported for the first time from Denmark. This species has predominantly been reported from Europe, with a single report from south-western Africa (Amadori et al. 2019). Ptychodus latissimus and P. mammillaris on the other hand have a more cosmopolitan distribution (Hamm 2020). The three species have been found together in Angola (Antunes & Cappetta 2002) and in the English Chalk (Dixon 1850).

The Arnager Limestone has been dated as Early to Middle Coniacian based on dinoflagellate cysts (Schiøler 1992). This date has been supported by ammonites and inoceramid bivalves (Kennedy & Christensen 1991). The three species of Ptychodus

described above have a stratigraphic range restricted to the Middle Turonian–Early Coniacian interval (Hamm 2020), which is in good agreement with the accepted age for the Arnager Limestone. Interestingly, *P. rugosus* first appeared in the Late Coniacian and has never been recovered in association with the three other species documented herein (Hamm 2020). This casts some doubt on the exact origin of the *P. rugosus* tooth that was initially reported from the Arnager Greensand (Radwanski & Marcinowski 1996), which is Cenomanian in age (Svennevig & Surlyk 2019). One possibility is that this tooth was instead retrieved from the Bavnodde Greensand on Bornholm, but without access to the specimen such a hypothesis is untestable.

Conclusion

Three species are described among the nine teeth declared 'Danekræ' from Bornholm: *Ptychodus altior, Ptychodus latissimus* and *Ptychodus mammillaris*. The identification of DK 858 G (Fig. 3I) is more difficult and is therefore left in open nomenclature. Even though *Ptychodus rugosus* has not been described here, this species is present on Bornholm (Radwanski & Marcinowski 1996) although, based on its known stratigraphic range, it is unlikely that it belongs to the same assemblage as the three species described here.

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U-Pb zircon and titanite age of the Christiansø granite, Ertholmene, Denmark, and correlation with other Bornholm granitoids

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A granitic sample from the Danish island of Christiansø in the Ertholmene island group north of Bornholm is described petrographically and geochemically, and dated using U-Pb in zircon and titanite. Zircon systematics in the sample are complicated by abundant Pb loss and a large population of zircons interpreted as being inherited. Removal of highly disturbed zircons, imprecise analyses, and assumed inherited zircons yield an upper intercept date of 1500 ± 18 Ma (MSWD = 13, n = 58). Removal of zircons with high common Pb from this population yields an identical result of 1500 \pm 22 Ma (MSWD = 8, n = 34). Zircons that are ≤3% discordant give a weighted average $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age of 1458 ± 12 Ma (MSWD = 3.0, n = 18), and a weighted average 207 Pb/ 206 Pb age of 1495 \pm 14 Ma (MSWD = 4.7, n = 19). Titanites from the sample yield a lower intercept age of 1448 ± 15 Ma (MSWD = 6.8, n = 45). The sample contains a significant number of inherited grains indicative of ages around 1.7-1.8 Ga. The relatively large MSWDs for these age determinations indicate geological complexity, likely reflecting Pb loss, and the possible presence of inherited zircons which suffered major Pb loss during incorporation in the granitic magma. The zircon and titanite dates agree reasonably well with previous age determinations on felsic lithologies from the Bornholm mainland, as well as from the Blekinge Province of southern Sweden. Petrographically and geochemically, the Christiansø granite is indistinguishable from, and can be correlated with, the A-type granites and gneisses which occur on Bornholm. The high abundance of disturbed and inherited zircons (c. 1.7–1.8 Ga) may indicate that the granite was intruded into and assimilated a nearby region of unexposed Transscandinavian Igneous Belt rocks. The somewhat altered nature of the rock, and overall disturbance of U-Pb zircon systematics, suggest alteration associated with fluid-flow along nearby faults defining the northern margin of the Sorgenfrei-Tornquist Zone.

Keywords: Granite, Bornholm, Ertholmene, U-Pb zircon, titanite.

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Christiansø is a small island (c. 0.25 km²) that is part of the island group Ertholmene, located c. 20 km northeast of Bornholm, in the southern Baltic Sea (Fig. 1A). The island group has a long and rich human history, and although it is generally acknowledged that the

basement block making up Ertholmene is geologically related to Bornholm, to our knowledge no detailed geological investigations have been published on the rocks of the island group. The islands are the only emergent portion of a horst that forms part of the

Bornholm-Skåne segment of the Sorgenfrei-Tornquist Zone (Fig. 1A), a major intracontinental fault zone separating the East European Platform and the Baltic Shield in the north from the sedimentary rocks of the Danish-Polish Trough to the south (e.g. EUGENO-S Working Group 1987; Krzywieca et al. 2003; Graversen 2009). The islands of Christiansø and Frederiksø are dominated by a reddish granitic gneiss. Outcrops of dolerite dykes and green sandstone dikes, as also observed on Bornholm (e.g. Katzung 1996; Holm et al. 2010) have also been noted (Kofoed 1961). In this contribution, we present a petrographic description, geochemical analysis, and U-Pb zircon and titanite age for a representative granite sample collected from the southern end of Christiansø (Fig. 1B).

Methods

Whole rock geochemistry of the sample was determined at ACTLABs using the 4LithoRes protocol, a combination of lithium metaborate/tetraborate fusion ICP-OES and ICP-MS analysis for major and trace element analysis, respectively. U-Pb geochronology on titanite was carried out on a double-polished thin section by laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICPMS) at the Geological Survey of Denmark and Greenland (GEUS), using a NWR 213 frequency-quintupled solid state Nd:YAG laser system from Elemental Scientific Lasers (ESL) mounted with a standard TV2 ablation cell coupled to an ELEMENT 2 double-focusing single-collector magnetic sector-field

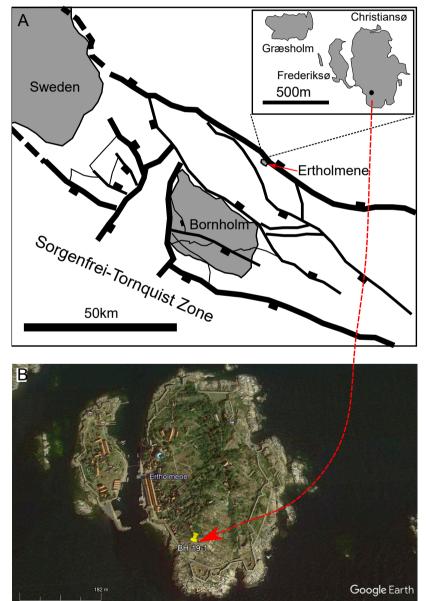


Fig. 1. A: Location map showing position of Bornholm and Ertholmene within the Sorgenfrei-Tornquist Zone (modified from Graversen 2009), tickmarks show downthrown side of fault blocks. B: Image of Christiansø and Frederiksø from Google Earth showing sample location.

ICPMS from Thermo-Fisher Scientific. The mass spectrometer is equipped with a new jet interface pump system and detector amplifier and employed Ni jettype sampler and H-type skimmer cones. Operating conditions and data acquisition parameters are listed in the electronic appendix. Prior to loading, the thin section and standards were carefully cleaned with ethanol to remove surface contamination. To ensure stable laser output energy, the laser was heated prior to operation, providing a stable laser power and flat ablation craters by a 'resonator-flat' laser beam. The mass spectrometer was run for at least one hour before analysis to stabilise and minimise the background signal. The ablated material was swept by the helium carrier gas and mixed with argon gas c. 0.5 m before entering the mass spectrometer.

Before the start of analysis, the ICP-MS was optimised for dry plasma conditions through continuous linear ablation of the GJ-1 zircon standard. The signal-to-noise ratios for the heavy mass range of interest (i.e. 202Hg to 238U), emphasising on 238U and ²⁰⁶Pb, were maximised, while simultaneously opting for the lowest oxide production level by minimising the ²⁵⁴UO₂/²³⁸U ratio. To minimise instrumental drift, a standard-sample-standard analysis protocol was followed, bracketing 7–8 sample spots by 2–3 standard measurements. Standard analyses and results were validated by analyses of the natural titanite standards A1772 and A968 (provided by Y. Lahaye, GTK), the Seiland standard titanite (provided by \emptyset . Skår, NGU), and the Plešovice (Slama et al. 2008) and GJ-1 (Jackson et al. 2004) zircon standards, which all were analysed regularly throughout the analysis sequence. All standards demonstrated an averaged age accuracy within 3% deviation (20) from reference values, and internal uncertainties on individual spots of < 2-3%(2σ). Data processing was performed off-line using the software Iolite v. 2.5 (Hellstrom et al. 2008; Paton et al. 2010, 2011) with the VizualAge data reduction scheme (Petrus & Kamber 2012). Data were corrected for background, session drift and down-hole isotopic fractionation by using MKED1 as primary reference material (Spandler et al. 2016).

Data were acquired from single spot analyses using a laser spot size of 25 µm for the analyses and a pre-ablation spot size of 40 µm. A laser fluence of 3.5 to 4.4 J/cm² and a pulse rate of 5 Hz was applied. The acquisition sequence included 5 pre-ablation bursts followed by a 15 sec. background measurement, then laser ablation for 35 sec., and finally washout for 30 sec. Factory-supplied software was used for the acquisition of the transient data, obtained through an automated running mode of pre-set analytical locations. Analyses spots on the grains were placed at clear and inclusionfree locations free of cracks.

Titanites often contain a high proportion of common Pb, as shown by low 206Pb/204Pb and 207Pb/204Pb ratios and compositions that plot above the concordia in Tera-Wasserburg plots. An assumption that the common Pb ratio is invariant will mean that any error in the isotope ratios assigned to common Pb will result in a consistent bias, rather than a random variation, of the calculated ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U and ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb radiogenic ratios (Ludwig 1998). Thus, using a "SemiTotal-Pb/U isochron" approach (Tera & Wasserburg 1972), the background- and session-drift corrected ratios can be plotted on a Tera-Wasserburg concordia diagram without correction for common Pb. If (and only if) the true ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U and ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb radiogenic isotope ratios represent comparable dates, the non-common Pb corrected data will be dispersed along a line whose lower intercept with the concordia curve defines the age of their crystallisation or resetting (Ludwig 1998; see for example Spencer et al. 2013 and Chew et al. 2014). This is the case for the titanite grains in this study, and thus the lower intercept age reported here for the titanites is not corrected for common Pb, and assumed to represent the U/Pb isotopic age of the titanite resulting from a specific geological event.

U-Pb dating of zircon was performed at GEUS by LA-ICPMS (same instrumentation as above) using methods described in detail in Waight et al. (2017). Common Pb corrections were made using the method of Andersen (2002). For both titanites and zircons, diagrams and statistical information were produced using Isoplot 3.70 (Ludwig 2008). All age data are plotted and presented at 2 sigma level.

Results

The sample (BH19-1) was collected from blasted outcrops near Kongens Bastion at the southern end of Christiansø (Lat. 55°19′6.10″N, long. 15°11′17.64″E). In outcrop, the rock is a reddish, leucocratic, fine to medium-grained, equicrystalline granitic gneiss (sensu lato) with a foliation defined by a weak alignment of mafic phases (Fig. 2). No significant variations in the texture or mineralogy of the granite were noted in reconnaissance investigations of Christiansø and Frederiksø.

In thin section, the sample comprises abundant subhedral to anhedral quartz and anhedral microclinetwinned alkali feldspar up to 1 mm in diameter (Fig. 3). Some granophyric intergrowths are also observed. Plagioclase occurs as larger but subordinate subhedral crystals up to 3 mm in length, showing weak albite twinning and common alteration with many inclusions of fine-grained epidote. No primary biotite is preserved in the rock, instead biotite has been altered to flakes of green chlorite up to 1 mm in length and showing anomalous purple interference colours. Rounded to square opaque phases (presumably magnetite) up to 0.5 mm in diameter are common, and often associated with anhedral titanite crystals of

approximately the same size. Fine-grained hematite is evident along many grain boundaries and presumably contributes to the reddish colour of the rock.

A bulk geochemical analysis of the sample is presented in Table 1 and compared to analyses of granites and gneisses from Bornholm (Johansson *et*

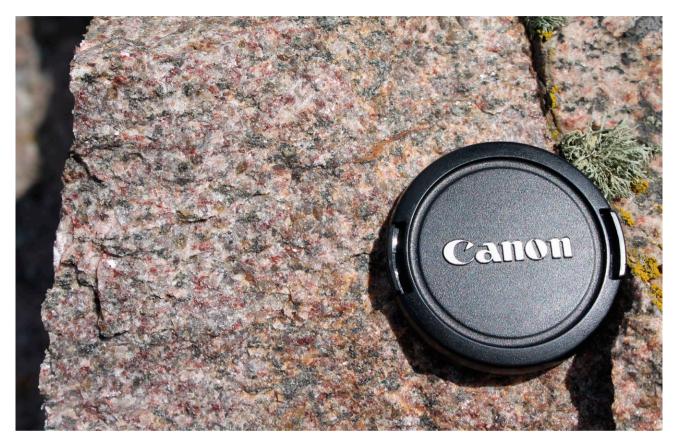


Fig. 2. Close up of Christiansø granite from sampling location. Note the red colour which resembles leucocratic granite varieties on Bornholm (e.g. Hammer and Almindingen Granites).

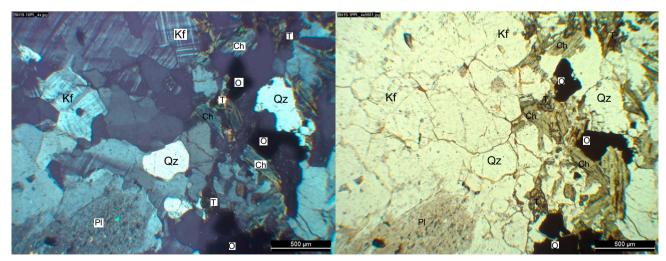


Fig. 3. Photomicrographs of sample BH19-1 (left = cross-polarised light, right = plain polarised light). Kf = alkali feldspar, Qz = quartz, Pl = plagioclase feldspar, T = titanite, Ch = chlorite, O = opaque.

Table 1. Geochemical analysis of sample BH19-1. Major elements are in weight percent, and trace elements in μg/g

SiO2	71.01	Sc	8	Sr	137	Ce	143	Lu	1.02
Al2O3	13.15	Be	4	Υ	57.5	Pr	15.9	Hf	9.8
Fe2O3(T)	4.07	V	24	Zr	382	Nd	57.5	Та	2.13
MnO	0.07	Cr	< 20	Nb	21	Sm	10.8	W	580
MgO	0.66	Co	75	Мо	< 2	Eu	1.94	TI	0.6
CaO	1.67	Ni	< 20	Ag	0.9	Gd	9.2	Pb	25
Na2O	3.14	Cu	< 10	In	0.1	Tb	1.56	Bi	< 0.1
K20	4.98	Zn	70	Sn	4	Dy	9.49	Th	21.4
TiO2	0.65	Ga	18	Sb	< 0.2	Но	1.93	U	5.34
P2O5	0.16	Ge	1.5	Cs	1.2	Er	5.9		
LOI	0.78	As	< 5	Ва	1038	Tm	0.933		
Total	99.56	Rb	181	La	71.2	Yb	6.39		

al. 2016) in Fig. 4. The Christiansø granite has 71 wt.% SiO_2 , plotting in the granite field in the total alkalies – silica diagram modified for plutonic rocks by Middlemost (1994; Fig. 4A). The rock is metaluminous (molar $Al_2O_3/(CaO+Na_2O+K_2O)=0.97$), ferroan, and alkali-calcic (Figs 4B, C). The rock also shows similar trace element and rare earth element (REE) patterns as the granitoids and gneisses from Bornholm and is characterised by high field strength element (HFSE) enriched compositions such that it plots in the A-type / within-plate granite field in tectonic discrimination diagrams (Figs 4D, E, F).

A total of 137 zircons from the sample were analysed for U-Pb geochronology. The full data set is available as an electronic appendix to this article. Common Pb contents are variable, and a common Pb correction was applied when the estimated fraction of common Pb was over 0.05. Many of these analyses were subsequently discarded from age calculations on other grounds. The resultant data were highly scattered with many discordant analyses and evidence for open system behaviour and Pb loss. Consequently, filtering of the data was necessary. As the first part of this process, a purely mathematical approach was taken so as not to introduce any human-bias into the data sorting process. All analyses with negative correlation coefficients (n = 12) and/or internal errors on measured $^{207}\mbox{Pb}/^{235}\mbox{U}$ or $^{206}\mbox{Pb}/^{238}\mbox{U}$ greater than 10% (2 S.E.) (n = 47) were excluded from the data set. The data were separated visually into a group which we assume represent the original magmatic zircons (dark blue shaded and orange symbols in Fig. 5, n = 58), a second group we assume represents an inherited zircon population (green symbols in Fig. 5, n = 14), and a third group of highly discordant analyses likely also to represent older inherited zircons (possibly c. 2 Ga) that are excluded from further discussion (red symbols in Fig. 5, n=5). The first group yields a Model-2 upper intercept date of 1500 ± 18 Ma (MSWD) = 13), with a lower intercept of c. 130 Ma (Fig. 5). These zircons have ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb dates ranging from 1144 to

1596 Ma. Exclusion of zircons with a fraction of common Pb > 0.01 from this population (orange symbols in Fig. 5) yields an identical Model-2 upper intercept date of 1500 ± 22 Ma (MSWD = 8; n = 34 – blue shaded symbols in Fig. 5). The second presumed inherited population yields a Model 2 upper intercept date of $1727 \pm 79 \,\mathrm{Ma} \,\mathrm{(MSWD} = 6.0)$, with a lower intercept also at c. 130 Ma (Fig. 5; green symbols) and is suggestive of an older population of zircons which have suffered partial lead loss. These zircons have ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb dates ranging from 1672–1864 Ma. Those zircons within the first group that are within 3% of concordance yield a weighted average ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb age of 1495 ± 14 Ma (MSWD = 4.7, n=19, Fig. 6A) and a weighted average $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date of 1458 ± 12 Ma (MSWD = 3.0, n = 18, Fig. 6B). The relatively high MSWDs for all these results clearly indicate a heterogeneous zircon population, which complicate determining a precise crystallisation age for this rock.

Fifty spot analyses were made in multiple grains of visually inclusion-free titanite in the polished section of BH19-1; the full data set is available as an electronic appendix to this article. These results define a line which plots above the concordia in a Tera-Wasserburg diagram, reflecting variable contents of common Pb. Following exclusion of six analyses (reflecting analytical challenges – i.e. have reverse slope of the semimajor axis on the ellipses and unusual eccentricity), and assuming an invariant initial Pb composition, the remaining analyses define a lower intercept date of $1448 \pm 15 \, \text{Ma}$ (MSWD = 6.8, n = 44) (Fig. 7), which is in good agreement with the weighted average $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date for concordant, non-inherited zircons.

Discussion

U-Pb zircon analyses of granitoids and gneisses from Bornholm demonstrate that all felsic basement rocks were emplaced between 1470 and 1445 Ma (Zariņš & Johansson 2009; Waight *et al.* 2012). No age distinction is possible between the largely undeformed granitoids and pervasively deformed gneisses within analytical uncertainty. However, ages for a gneiss sample of potentially supracrustal origin and a quartz-rich xenolith in the Svaneke Granite of *c.* 1480 Ma are slightly older and thus far the oldest ages determined for any rocks from Bornholm (Waight *et al.* 2017). The range

of ages on Bornholm is in good agreement with age determinations of *c*. 1.45 Ga on granites in the Blekinge Province in southern Sweden and in the southern Baltic Sea (Åberg 1988; Kornfält 1993, 1996; Čečys *et al.* 2002; Čečys 2004; Obst *et al.* 2004; Krzeminska *et al.* 2021). Johansson *et al.* (2016) showed that the Bornholm granitoids and gneisses are ferroan, potassic rocks with features typical of A-type granitoids, and

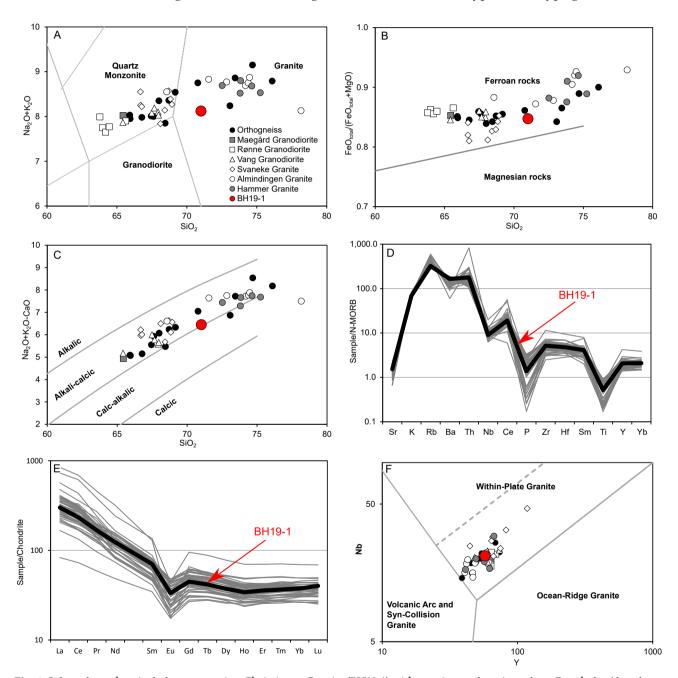


Fig. 4. Selected geochemical plots comparing Christiansø Granite (BH19-1) with granites and gneisses from Bornholm (data from Johansson *et al.* 2016). **A:** Total alkalies silica diagram from Middlemost (2003), **B:** FeO* vs SiO₂ classification plot of Frost & Frost (2008), **C:** Modified alkali-lime index classification plot of Frost *et al.* (2001), **D:** MORB-normalised multi-element diagram and **E:** Chondrite-normalised REE diagram (normalising values for MORB and Chondrite from Sun & McDonough (1989), various plutons are not distinguished for simplicity), **F:** Tectonic discrimination diagram of Pearce *et al.* (1984).

our new data indicate that the Christiansø granite has identical geochemical signatures. Combined, the geochronological and geochemical data indicate that the Bornholm and Blekinge Province rocks (including Christiansø) were generated in an intracontinental setting and are linked to the Danopolonian event in SE Sweden, Bornholm, Poland and Lithuania (e.g. Bogdanova et al. 2006). The relationship between this event and the penecontemporaneous tectonomagmatic Hallandian event in the Eastern Segment of the Sveconorwegian Orogen (e.g. Söderlund et al. 2002; Ulmius et al. 2015) remains unclear.

The complex nature of the U-Pb zircon data for the Christiansø granite complicate estimation of a precise crystallisation age. Both the weighted average zircon $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age of 1458 ± 12 Ma and the lower intercept titanite age of 1448 ± 17 Ma agree with the range of ages for granitoids and gneisses previously determined on Bornholm. However, we note that the weighted average ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U date may have been moved to a somewhat younger date due to small amounts of Pb loss and discordance. The upper intercept zircon date of 1500 ± 18 Ma and the weighted average 207 Pb/ 206 Pb date of 1495 ± 14 Ma are significantly older than the ages obtained for other Bornholm granitoids and gneisses, although interestingly these dates are within error of the gneiss and xenolith ages presented in Waight et al. (2017). We note that we have made no

attempt to remove potentially older zircons from the 'magmatic' population in sample BH19-1, and some of those zircons could represent potentially inherited zircon mineral grains (xenocrysts/restite) that lost large amounts of Pb during incorporation into the host magma. Incorporation of such zircons would shift results to slightly older ages. Because of the dominance of zircon analyses clustering towards the upper intercept, any geological significance of the lower intercept zircon ages for both the inherited and magmatic zircons is poorly constrained.

The Christiansø granite has a geochemical composition that is a perfect match for felsic basement rocks from Bornholm. The sample shows most petrographic and geochemical similarity to more silica-rich lithologies on Bornholm, specifically the Hammer and Almindingen granites and the more leucocratic red variants of orthogneisses present on Bornholm, to which the Christiansø granite also bears a strong physical resemblance. Therefore, we conclude that the basement rocks on Ertholmene can be confidently linked to basement rocks on Bornholm.

The relative abundance of potentially inherited zircons (19 out of 77 accepted analyses) in the Christiansø granite is unusual compared to most felsic basement rocks from Bornholm. In general, the abundance of inherited zircons on Bornholm is low (<5%). However, those that are found mostly have ages between 1.6 and

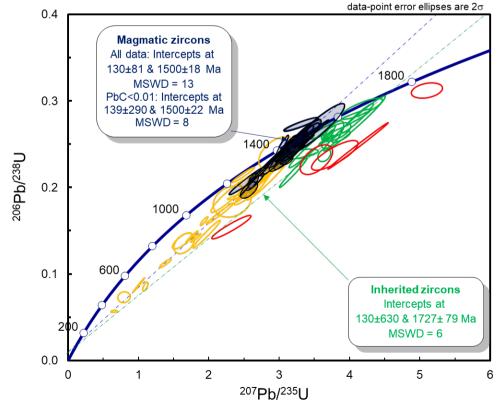


Fig. 5. Wetherill U-Pb Concordia diagram for zircons from sample BH19-1 (excessively discordant analyses, and all analyses with internal 2. S.E. errors > 10 % are excluded). Dark blue shaded ellipses (fraction of common Pb < 0.01) and orange ellipses (fraction of common Pb > 0.01) are interpreted as magmatic and are used to define the upper and lower intercept ages for the 'magmatic' zircons shown. Green ellipses are interpreted as inherited and are used to define the upper and lower intercept ages shown for inherited zircons. Red ellipses likely represent older (c. 2 Ga?) inherited zircons, but are not included in any age calculations. MSWD = the Mean Square of the Weighted Deviates (MSWD) for the isochron fit.

1.8 Ga (Waight *et al.* 2012), which is consistent with the involvement of Transscandinavian Igneous Belt rocks as an important source component (Johansson *et al.* 2016). We note that many zircons identified as potentially inherited in BH19-1 have U-Pb systematics consistent with dates of around 1.7–1.8 Ga, and subsequent relatively recent Pb loss (Fig. 5). No rocks of this timespan have been observed on Bornholm. However, they do occur to the north in the Blekinge Province (Johansson *et al.* 2006; Johansson 2016). The abundance of inherited zircons in the Christiansø sample suggests that this granite was emplaced into and contaminated by similar Blekinge or Transscandinavian Igneous Belt rocks.

The degree of disturbance of the zircon population in BH19-1 is also distinct from most felsic rocks from Bornholm where zircons are mostly relatively 'well-behaved', although zircons in a few samples

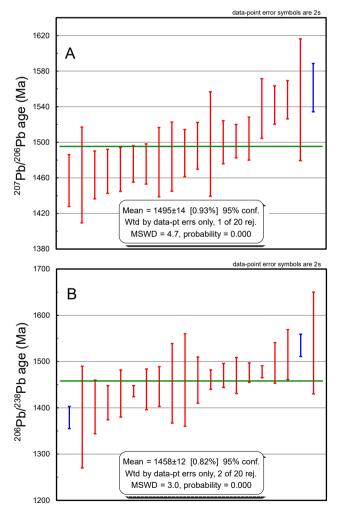


Fig. 6. Weighted mean of **(A)** 207 Pb/ 206 Pb and **(B)** 206 Pb/ 238 U dates for zircons that are within 3 % of concordance (Wetherill plot). Red bars are ages included in the mean, analyses in blue are excluded.

show some evidence for Pb loss (Zarinš & Johansson 2009; Waight et al. 2012). We note that some zircons in the Almindingen sample (BH8) analysed by Waight et al. (2012) showed significant Pb loss. However, this Pb loss was relatively well-constrained to have occurred at around 400 Ma and likely reflected local disturbance related to intrusion of a nearby dike interpreted to be post-Silurian based on mineralogy and orientation (Jensen 1989). An additional sample from the same quarry dated by Zarinš & Johansson (2009) showed limited evidence for disturbance. Dated gneisses and granitoids from Bornholm are generally fresh and show only minor evidence for alteration (e.g. sericitisation of feldspars). We suggest that the more pronounced disturbance of the U-Pb isotopic system in the zircons from Christiansø, coupled with petrographic evidence for more extensive and higher temperature alteration (i.e. chloritised biotite and saussuritised plagioclase), is related to fluid flow along a nearby major fault, which defines the northern edge of the Christiansø Horst, and the northern margin of the Sorgenfrei-Tornquist Zone (Krzywieca et al. 2003; Graversen 2009). Although poorly constrained and of uncertain geological significance, lower intercept ages are consistent with this disturbance occurring during Mesozoic or younger movement on the Sorgenfrei-Tornquist Zone (e.g., Mogensen & Korstgård 2003).

The general agreement in dates calculated for the near-concordant zircons and the titanites is evidence that both determinations are robust indicators of crystallisation age (albeit with relatively large uncertainties) and shows significant promise for expanded use of combining information from U-Pb in zircon and titanite as a geochronological tool. Titanite can provide important additional geological information due to its somewhat lower closure temperature (c. 500–650 °C; e.g. Cherniak 1993), a feature which has been used in for example cooling and metamorphic history studies (e.g. Willigers et al. 2001; Kirkland et al. 2017). We note, however, that several studies indicate that under some circumstances the closure temperature for Pb in titanite can be considerably higher (e.g. Kohn 2017; Hartnady et al. 2019) and thus it can also record crystallisation ages. Titanite can also form as a hydrothermal mineral, and can thus be used to constrain alteration and mineralisation events (e.g., Bell et al. 2017; Hart-Madigan et al. 2020). This is not the case on Bornholm and Christiansø where petrographic relationships indicate the titanite is a primary phase. U-Pb titanite dates from other felsic rocks from Bornholm are typically within error to 20 Ma younger than zircon dates from the same sample (Zariņš & Johansson 2009) and are consistent with initially rapid cooling, coupled with evidence from other geochronometers for subsequent relatively slow post-crystallisation cooling on Bornholm (Waight *et al.* 2012). Given the relatively large errors on both the titanite and zircon dates for Christiansø, it is not possible to evaluate any discrepancies related to cooling history and differences in closure temperature between zircon and titanite, but the ages are consistent with crystallisation followed by initially rapid cooling.

The abundant evidence for Pb loss and disturbance in the zircons is interestingly not observed in the titanites, suggesting that the latter phase is more robust to Pb loss. It is beyond the scope of this contribution to discuss this in detail; however, it has been noted that diffusion rates for Pb in titanite are relatively slow and ineffective at temperatures below c. 800°C (Kohn 2017) and we speculate that the robust age obtained here may reflect the larger grain size of the titanite crystals compared to zircon, such that the larger crystal volumes of titanite mean that any effects of Pb loss are restricted to smaller grains or the rims of larger crystals (Kirkland et al. 2016). We also suggest that the apparent robustness of titanite U-Pb systematics may also reflect generally lower U contents in titanite than zircon and thus less radiation damage. Diffusion experiments in zircon suggest that it should be robust to Pb loss by diffusion alone even at high temperatures (Cherniak & Watson 2001). However, this is clearly not the case at lower temperatures, as U-Pb discordance in zircons is commonly attributed to Pb loss and can be

related to degree of radiation damage, particularly if the zircons have been at relatively low temperatures (below natural annealing temperatures of c. 360° C) for long periods (e.g., Cherniak & Watson 2001). This is consistent with Rb-Sr ages for mica indicating the Bornholm granites have not been at temperatures over $300-350^{\circ}$ C since c. 1.37 Ga (Waight et al. 2012). Finally, higher common Pb contents in titanite compared with zircon likely reflect the crystal lattice of titanite being more accommodating for incorporation of Pb. Therefore, the radiogenic Pb produced by U decay in titanite is more tightly bound to the crystal lattice than in zircon and less prone to Pb loss.

Conclusions

A sample of the granite making up the small islands of Christiansø and Frederiksø north of Bornholm was investigated petrographically and geochemically and dated isotopically using U-Pb in zircon and titanite. The sample is a reddish, equigranular, leucocratic biotite granite with evidence for alteration (epidote in plagioclase and biotite altered to chlorite). The granite is ferroan, metaluminous, alkali-calcic and has essentially identical major and trace element characteristics to other felsic basement rocks on Bornholm.

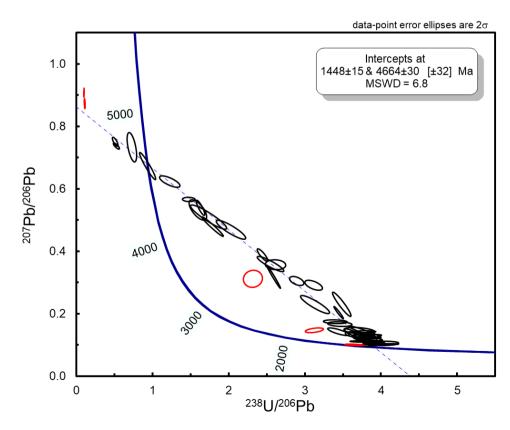


Fig. 7. Tera-Wasserburg plot for titanites from sample BH19-1. Black ellipses are used to define the lower intercept age shown, red ellipses are analyses excluded from the age calculation.

Zircon U-Pb systematics in the sample are complex, and include a significant number of zircon grains considered to be inherited. Many of the zircons have suffered relatively recent Pb loss. Removal of highly disturbed and imprecise analyses, and of inherited zircons, yields a poorly constrained upper intercept age of 1500 ± 18 Ma (MSWD = 13). Weighted average ages of 1495 ± 14 Ma (MSWD = 4.7) (207 Pb/ 206 Pb) and $1458 \pm 12 \text{ Ma (MSWD} = 3) (^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U})$ are obtained from those zircons that are within 3% of concordance. The discrepancy between these ages likely reflects inclusion of inherited zircons that suffered large degrees of Pb loss during incorporation in the host magma, and small amounts of Pb loss. U-Pb systematics in titanite yield an age of 1448 ± 15 Ma (MSWD = 6.8) that is within error of the weighted average ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U zircon age. The disturbance of the zircons, and the alteration of the granite, are likely the result of the proximity to the major fault zone defining the northern edge of the Sorgenfrei-Tornquist Zone. Titanite does not show the same effects of Pb loss as zircon, suggesting that in this location it has been more robust during the Pb loss event. Most of the inherited zircons have suffered Pb loss, however they are mostly c. 1.7–1.8 Ga in age, consistent with inherited zircon ages observed on Bornholm. The greater abundance of inherited zircons compared to Bornholm may suggest intrusion into, and contamination by, nearby unexposed Transscandinavian Igneous Belt rocks.

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Macrofossil studies of Lateglacial sediments from Regstrup, north-west Sjælland, Denmark

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Studies of macrofossils indicate that the vegetation near Regstrup in north-west Sjælland, Denmark, from *c*. 13 600 to 13 500 cal. years BP was dominated by dwarf-shrub heaths. *Betula pubescens* (downy birch) arrived at *c*. 13 500 cal. years BP and became common after *c*. 13 200 cal. years BP. Open forests with *B. pubescens* and *Populus tremula* (aspen) dominated until *c*. 12 500 cal. years BP, indicating that an Allerød-type environment persisted for *c*. 350 years after the cooling at the onset of the Younger Dryas, which is dated to *c*. 12 850 years BP in ice cores from Greenland. Betula nana was common after *c*. 12 500 cal. years BP, indicating a return to a tundra-like landscape with dwarf-shrub heaths. The fauna included *Rangifer tarandus* (reindeer), *Castor fiber* (Eurasian beaver) and possibly *Lemmus lemmus* (Norway lemming). The lake deposits contain remains of many species of aquatic plants and animals, including three species of fish. The flora and fauna indicate that the lake water was fairly nutrient-rich and alkaline.

Keywords: Lateglacial, Allerød, Younger Dryas, vegetation history, fauna history, Denmark.

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Prior to the extension of the Holbæk highway towards the west, Museum Vestsjælland conducted archaeological investigations. South of the village Regstrup, two small basins with Lateglacial sediments were encountered (Fig. 1). During the excavations, a fragment of a small antler and a mandible of reindeer (Rangifer tarandus) were found, as well as jaws with teeth of pike (Esox lucius), bones and scales of perch (Perca fluviatilis) and a leaf of Dryas octopetala. The fauna and flora, thus, indicated a Lateglacial age and finds of a scraper of flint and some flint flakes show that hunters visited the area.

The basins probably formed after the last deglaciation by melting of bodies of buried stagnant ice. Plant and animal remains were well-preserved and it was decided to conduct macrofossil analyses of samples that had been collected during the archaeological field

work. The samples were taken from open sections from trenches.

Studies of the vegetation history of Denmark go back almost 200 years, but many details of Lateglacial and Holocene vegetation and environmental changes are still poorly known (Bennike & Mortensen 2018). The aim of this paper is to describe and interpret the results of the macrofossil studies of the sediments from Regstrup, from small basins in north-west Sjælland, Denmark. The study is the first radiocarbon dated macrofossil study of Lateglacial deposits from this region (Mortensen *et al.* (2014a). We compare the results with other recent detailed palaeoecological studies of Lateglacial deposits in Denmark (Bennike *et al.* 2004; Mortensen *et al.* 2011, 2014a, b; Fischer *et al.* 2013; Bennike & Mortensen 2018; Wiberg-Larsen *et al.* 2019).

Study area

The studied basins are located in north-western Sjælland, *c*. 9 km south-west of Holbæk (Fig. 1). The basins are small and measure only some tens of metres across. Because of the small size of the basins, they are suitable for plant macrofossil analyses. The sites are located *c*. 32 m above sea level and the basins may have formed as bodies of stagnant ice melted – or perhaps simply as groundwater filled depressions in the glacial landscape. The geographical coordinates of the sites are 55.66°N, 11.61°E (site 1, all samples except JP335) and 55.66°N, 11.64°E (site 2, sample JP 335). The distance between the basins is 1400 m.

The region was glaciated during the last glacial maximum and was deglaciated about 17 000 years BP, according to cosmogenic surface exposure dating of large erratic boulders from the region (Houmark-Nielsen et al. 2012). However, bodies of stagnant ice characterised the region for a long time after active glacier ice disappeared. The pre-Quaternary strata of the region are dominated by Paleocene clay, but Danian limestone and Cretaceous chalk is found to the north and east (Håkansson & Pedersen 1992) and the tills in the region are rich in fragments of limestone and chalk. The Regstrup area is dominated by clayey till with small areas of glaciofluvial sand (Milthers 1943) and nowadays by farmland with villages and it has probably been deforested for several millennia. The natural vegetation would probably be Fagus sylvestris dominated forests on well-drained soils and Alnus glutinosa dominated forests on wet soils. The climate is temperate; the mean July temperature was 16.2°C and the mean annual precipitation was 584 mm during the period from 1961 to 1990 (DMI 2019).

Methods

Profiles through the Lateglacial lake sediments were exposed by excavating trenches through the basins and the sediments were mapped and described by archaeologists from Museum Vestsjælland. Samples were collected from open sections. The samples consisted of a 1 m long sediment monolith and several kg-large bulk sediment samples. The monolith was carefully cleaned, and 50 contiguous samples of 2 cm length were taken for macrofossil analysis. The samples were wet sieved on 0.4 and 0.2 mm sieves and sub-samples on a 0.1 mm sieve. The residues left on the sieves were transferred to petri dishes and analysed using a dissecting microscope. Plant and animal remains were identified using reference material as well as keys and illustrations in various books and scientific papers such as Kaiser (1977), Henderson (1990), Brooks et al. (2007) and Rinne & Wiberg-Larsen (2017).

Selected identified macrofossils of terrestrial plants from four levels from the monolith and from one of the bulk samples were dried and submitted for accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) radiocarbon dating. Dating was carried out at the Ångström Laboratory, University of Uppsala and at Aarhus AMS Centre, Aarhus University. The samples were treated with HCl to remove carbonates and with NaOH to remove humic acids, which may represent contamination

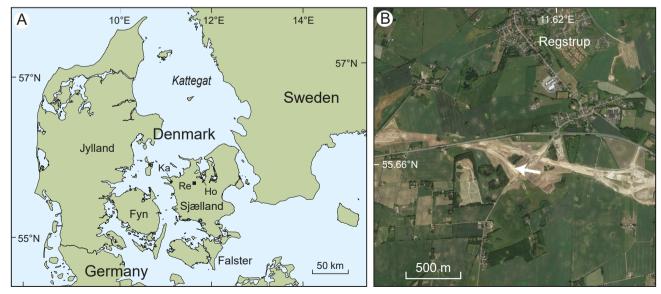


Fig. 1. A. Map of Denmark showing the location of the study sites. Re: Regstrup, Ho: Holbæk, Ka: Kalundborg. **B.** Google Earth satellite image of the study area.

Table 1. AMS radiocarbon age determinations from Regstrup, north-west Sjælland, Denmark The samples are from site 1, except JP335 that is from site 2

Laboratory number	Depth cm/sample	Layer	Species	Age (¹⁴ C years BP) ¹	Calibrated age (years BP) ²	Cal. age (yrs BP) ³	Cal. age (years BC) ²
Ua-58868	38–40	8	Menyanthes trifoliata	10514 ± 43	12206-12678	12550	10257-10729
Ua-58869	55–56	8	Betula pubescens	10663 ± 44	12514-12738	12691	10565-10789
Ua-58870	76–78	9	Betula pubescens	10838 ± 44	12728-12833	12766	10779-10884
Ua-58871	96–98	12	Betula pubescens	11726 ± 47	13482-13746	13568	11533-11797
Ua-58872	JP 314	10	Arctostaphylos uva-ursi	11367 ± 45	13164-13323	13244	11215-11374
AAR-29889	JP 335	6	Menyanthes trifoliata	10912 ± 48	12743-12918	12815	10794-10969
Ua-59941	1082x200		Rangifer tarandus	5853 ± 33	6560-6746	6674	4611–4797
Ua-59941	1082x200		Rangifer tarandus	5775 ± 99	6318–6791	6575	4369-4842

¹Radiocarbon ages are reported in conventional radiocarbon years BP (before present = 1950; Stuiver & Polach (1977)).

from younger deposits. A reindeer antler was also dated, using the collogen fraction. The radiocarbon ages were calibrated to calendar years before present (BP) using the CALIB program (Stuiver *et al.* 2021), which calibrates to calendar years according to the INTCAL20 calibration curve (Reimer *et al.* 2020). The widespread occurrence of carbonate-rich glacial deposits in Denmark results in large hard-water effects, and thus it is important to use remains of terrestrial plants or animals for dating. Four samples from the monolith and one sample from the bulk sample were dated (Table 1).

Results and discussion

Sediments, dating and sedimentation rates

The Lateglacial sediments consisted of mineral-rich and organic-rich sediments. The organic-rich sediments were described as peat in the field, but the occurrence of numerous remains of fish and other aquatic animals and plants show that the sediments should be classified as coarse detritus gyttja. The succession at site 1 consisted of sand and gravel, clayey gyttja, calcareous gyttja, detritus gyttja, sandy clay, decomposed peat and clay. At site 2 the succession consisted of grey gyttja, coarse detritus gyttja and decomposed peat.

Four samples from the monolith from site 1 were dated, yielding median probability ages between 12 550 and 13 568 cal. years BP (Table 1). Calibrated ages for the monolith are plotted versus depth in Fig. 2. According to the age–depth curve the sedimentation rate was *c*. 0.25 mm/year in the lower part of the suc-

cession, and *c*. 1.52 mm/year in the middle and upper part. The chronology in the middle and upper part of the dated succession is well constrained, whereas the chronology of the lower part of the succession is more uncertain. An endocarp of *Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* from bulk sediment sample JP 314 gave a median probability age of 13 244 cal. years BP, corresponding to the Allerød period. Dating of seeds of *Menyanthes trifoliata* from bulk sample JP 335 from site 2 gave a median probability age of 12 815 cal. years BP, corresponding to an earliest Younger Dryas age (Table 1). Finally, a cast reindeer antler fragment gave a Mid-Holocene age (Bennike *et al.* 2021).

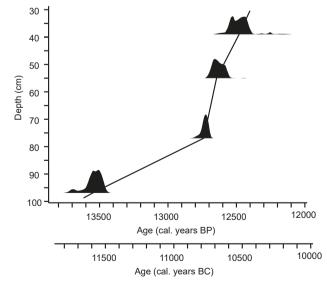


Fig. 2. Age-depth model for the succession from site 1 from Regstrup, north-west Sjælland.

The C ages have been corrected for isotopic fractionation by normalizing to a δ^{13} C value of –25 ‰.

²Calibration to calendar years BP/BC is according to the INTCAL20 data (Reimer et al. 2020). ³Median probability ages.

Macrofossils

The results of the macrofossil analyses are presented in a macrofossil concentration diagram (Fig. 3) and in Table 2. The diagram is divided by visual inspection into four local macrofossil assemblage zones that are described and discussed in the following. The upper part of the succession did not contain any macrofossils, hence the diagram only covers *c.* 70 cm.

Zone 1 (13 500-13 600 cal. years BP)

Zone 1 is characterised by the woody plants *Dryas* octopetala and Betula nana. In addition, a few remains of Salix sp. were found. Herbaceous plants are represented by Minuartia sp. and bryophytes are represented by Distichium sp. and Ditrichum sp., which are often pioneer species on calcareous soils. The bryophyte Tomentypnum nitens and the rush Juncus sp. often grows in wet soil. Remains of macrolimnophytes are rare and represented by a few endocarps of Potamogeton natans, P. perfoliatus and Stuckenia filiformis (syn. Potamogeton filiformis). Aquatic invertebrates are represented by chironomids (head capsules), Sialis sp. (alder fly, mandibles) and the small bivalve *Pisidium* sp. Plants and invertebrates began to colonise the small lake and decreasing content of clay, silt and sand in the sediment shows that inwash of minerogenic sediment to the lake decreased. The vegetation around the lake was characterised by dwarf-shrub heaths with D. octopetala, B. nana and Salix sp., with some *B. pubescens*.

Zone 2 (12 650-13 500 cal. years BP)

Betula pubescens remains dominate this zone and in addition, rare remains of *Populus tremula* are found. Remains of *Dryas octopetala* were found in two samples; other woody plants are represented by *Salix* sp. and a single endocarp of *Rubus saxatilis*.

Herbaceous plants are represented by Minuartia sp., Thalictrum alpinum and Taraxacum sp. Plants characteristic of wet soils include Selaginella selaginoides that is represented by two megaspores and several species of bryophytes. Aquatic plants are dominated by Carex rostrata, in addition fruits of Ranunculus sect. Batrachium sp., Hippuris vulgaris and five species of Potamogeton were found. Remains of aquatic invertebrates include egg cocoons of the leaches Erpobdella sp. and Piscicola geometra, mandibles of the alder fly Sialis sp., shells of gastropods and numerous shells of Pisidium spp. and statoblasts of the bryozoan Cristatella mucedo. The common remains of macrolimnophytes and freshwater invertebrates clearly show that the deposit is of lacustrine origin. The lake housed a rich flora and fauna that indicate that the water was alkaline. Only little clay, silt and sand was washed out into the basin. The vegetation around the lake was dominated by open birch forests with scattered Populus tremula, Dryas octopetala and other woody plants, herbs and mosses.

Zone 3 (12 500–12 650 cal. years BP)

This zone is also dominated by *Betula pubescens*; in adition remains of *Betula nana* are found and *Populus*

Table 2. Macrofossils in bulk samples from Regstrup, Denmark. The samples are from site 1, except JP335 that is from site 2

	Terrestrial plants	Swamp plants	Aquatic plants	Aquatic invertebrates
	Betula nana Betula pubescens Populus tremula Salix sp. Arctostaphylos uva-ursi Potentilla sp. Papaver sect. Scapiflora Urtica dioeca Selaginella selaginoides Distichium sp.	Comarum palustre Climacium dendroides Tomenthyphum nitens	Chara sp. Batrachium sp. Menyanthes trifoliata Carex rostrata Alisma plantago-aquatica Nuphar pumila Myriophyllum sp. Hippuris vulgaris Sparganium erectum Potamogeton natans Potamogeton perfoliatus Potamogeton praelongus Potamogeton praelongus Potamogeton praelongus Potamogeton pusillus Stuckenia filiformis	Erpobdella sp. Piscicola geometra Valvata cristata Valvata piscinalis Hippeutis complanatus Stagnicola palustris Amiger crista Pisidium sp. Cristatella mucedo
JP 314	- a 12 - 2 1 - c	- 1 -	a 1 1 6 - 5 8	2 - 1 1 2 a c
JP 320	2 a - 1 1 -		r – – a – – 1 1 – – – – – –	1 - c c a -
JP 321	- a 2 1		1 a 1 - 1 c - 2 r	- 2 1 c c a
JP 322	a a c r - 5 r	1	a 1 a a – – – 1 2 c 5 – 1 – – 1	1 r 2 r a
JP 332	2 4	1	r 1 – a – – – – 8 – 4 – – – 1	ca3
JP 334	- c 1		r 1 6 c 1 3 5	1 r
JP 335	- c 1 6		r 10 2 c - 1 - 7 - c c 1 c -	1 1 r c - 2 - c 3

r: rare, c: common, a: abundant

tremula remains are surprisingly common. Herbaceous plants are only represented by two achenes of *Potentilla* sp. Remains of aquatic plants are also in this zone dominated by achenes of *Carex rostrata* and in addition, seeds of *Menyanthes trifoliata* are frequent, whereas *Myriophyllum* sp. remains are rare. *Potamogeton* spp. are represented by the same five species as in zone 2. Invertebrate remains are confined to an egg capsule of *Erpobdella* sp., a few mandibles of *Sialis* sp. and some statoblasts of *Cristatella mucedo*. The vegetation around the lake was still dominated by *Betula* forests, but *Populus tremula* played an important role. Dwarf shrubs and herbs were apparently rare and the forests around the lake may have been so dense that heliophytes became rare.

It should be noted that no remains of *Pinus sylvestris* were recorded. In Danish Lateglacial deposits pollen grains of *Pinus* are often abundant, and it has been proposed that pine had immigrated to Denmark during the Allerød period (Iversen 1947, 1954, 1973). However, so far no macrofossils of pine have been reported (Mortensen *et al.* 2014a) even though macrofossil studies have been conducted from a fairly large number of Lateglacial sites in Denmark. Thus it appears that pine did not grow in Denmark during the Lateglacial.

Zone 4 (12 400-12 500 cal. years BP)

In zone 4 only few remains of *Betula pubescens* were found. Instead, remains of *Betula nana* are common, and *Populus tremula* is missing. A few remains of

Potentilla sp. and Selaginella selaginoides were found. Macrolimnophytes are represented by Ranunculus sect. Batrachium sp., Menyanthes trifoliata and Carex rostrata that are found in the lower part of the zone, where Cristatella mucedo also occurs. Apparently, macrolimnophyte vegetation disappeared from the lake during zone 4, and the sediment changes from gyttja to poorly sorted gravel that was probably deposited in the lake basin due to solifluction. The vegetation around the lake became more open and tree birch was replaced by dwarf birch; the warmth-demanding P. tremula disappeared. The area was, thus, characterised by an open tundra landscape with dwarf shrub heaths, presumably due to cooling during the Younger Dryas period.

The shift from *Betula pubescens* dominated forests with *Populus tremula* to *Betula nana* dominated tundra is dated to *c*. 12 500 cal. years BP. In the Greenland ice cores the shift from the relatively warm Greenland Interstadial 1 to the cold Greenland Stadial 1 is dated to *c*. 12 850 years BP. This raises the following questions: Are the dates from Regstrup too young or did the climate change occur at different times in Greenland and Denmark? Or did birch forests persist for some time into the Younger Dryas period?

There are only few well-dated Lateglacial sites from eastern Denmark. However, Mortensen *et al.* (2014b) studied Lateglacial sediments from Hasselø on Falster and dated the transition from an Allerød-type vegetation to a Younger Dryas-type vegetation to *c.* 12 575 cal. years BP, close to the result from Regstrup.

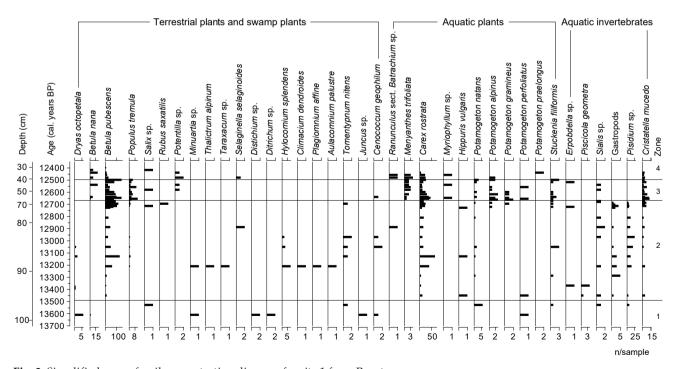


Fig. 3. Simplified macrofossil concentration diagram for site 1 from Regstrup.

Analyses of bulk samples

The results of analyses of large bulk samples appear from Table 2. The common occurrence of fresh water aquatic plants and animals show that the samples consist of detritus gyttja. Because of the large sample size, a number of species was found that did not appear in the monolith samples. Among the plants are *Arctostaphylos uva-ursi*. Endocarps of this dwarf-shrub are fairly frequent in Lateglacial deposits, in particular from the Allerød period. A radiocarbon age of 13 244 cal. years BP was obtained on *A. uva-ursi* endocarps from Regstrup (Table 1).

Achenes of the bog plant Comarum palustre are also fairly common in Lateglacial depsoits in Denmark. In contrast, fruits of Sparganium erectum have to our knowledge not previously been reported from Lateglacial deposits in Denmark. There is only a single previous record of Alisma plantago-aquatica from Lateglacial deposits; from Trollesgave near Holmegårds Mose in southern Sjælland (Fischer et al. 2013). The latter two species are relative warm demanding, but it is not surprising that they grew in Denmark because other species with similar temperature requirements have been reported (Johansen 1904; Iversen 1954). Based on beetle remains it is estimated that the mean summer temperature was 9 to 11°C during the Allerød period, and somewhat higher during the Bølling period (Coope et al. 1998).

Because remains of *Rangifer tarandus* (reindeer) and *Esox lucius* (pike) were found during the excavation

we hoped that more vertebrate remains would turn up in the samples. However, in addition to *E. lucius* remains, we only found a pelvic spine of the small fish *Gasterosteus aculeatus* (stickleback).

The bulk sample JP 335 from site 2 that was dated to 12 770 cal. years BP (early Younger Dryas) was rich in remains of insect larvae (Table 3). The fauna was dominated by head capsules of larvae of chironomids (non-biting midges), but the sample also contained frequent remains of Trichoptera (caddisflies), Sialis (alderflies) and oribatid mites. The fauna resembled an invertebrate fauna recorded from submarine Lateglacial lake deposits from the Kattegat (Wiberg-Larsen et al. 2019). The lake deposit at site 2 near Regstrup was of limited extent, but the insect fauna indicates that the lake may have been fairly large. The record of Simulium cf. equinum, confined to running waters, indicates the presence of an inlet stream that might have been fairly large (as this species primarily inhabits larger streams). Several of the taxa such as Sialis sordida, Micropsectra insignilobus-type, Micropsectra radialis-type and Zalutschia type B can be classified as northern taxa that indicate lower temperatures than at present, pointing at cooling in the beginning of the Younger Dryas period. *Corynocera ambigua*, which was the most common chironomid has also been considered an indicator of cold conditions, but the species is common in Denmark at the present (Brodersen & Lindegaard 1999).

Table 3. Arthropod remains from sample JP 335 from Regstrup, Denmark. The sample was dated to c. 12 800 cal. years BP

Group	Taxon	Remains	Notes
Oribatida	Oribatidae A, cf. <i>Hydrozetes</i>	4 exoskeletons	
	Oribatidae B	7 exoskeletons	Large, dark
Megaloptera	Sialis sordida *	4 frontoclypea	
	Sialis sp.	22 mandibles	
Trichoptera, Polycentropodidae	Cyrnus flavidus	1 frontoclypeus	
Trichoptera, Phryganeidae	Agrypnia cf. varia	3 frontoclypea	
Trichoptera, Limnephilidae	Chaetopteryx sahlbergi/villosa	1 frontoclypeus	
	Limnephilus A	15 pronotae	The frontal 1/3 part is darker than the rest
	Limnephilus B	5 frontoclypea	Asynarchus cf. lapponicus *
Simuliidae	Simulium cf. equinum	1 frontoclypeus	
Chironomidae ¹	Chironomus anthracinus-type	21 head capsules	
	Corynocera ambiqua (*)	65 head capsules	
	Micropsectra insignilobus-type *	18 head capsules	
	Micropsectra radialis-type *	3 head capsules	
	Chaetocladius type B	1 head capsule	
	Psectrocladius sordidellus-type	1 head capsule	
	Zalutschia type B *	1 head capsule	

¹ The nomenclature of Chironomidae follows Brooks et al. (2007). * Northern taxon.

Notes on selected species

Species living on land

Betula pubescens was represented by numerous nutlets and catkin scales. Hence, bulk samples JP 314 and JP 322 each contained at least 100 nutlets and 50 catkin scales. The rich occurrence of the species shows that the vegetation around the lake was characterised by birch forests during the time period from c. 13 200 to c. 12 500 cal. years BP. The lowest sample from the monolith contained a few remains of *B. pubescens*; this sample is dated to c. 13 600 cal. years BP. At Slotseng in southern Jylland the oldest macrofossils of B. pubescens were dated to c. 13 500 cal. years BP (Mortensen et al. 2011), at Hasselø on Falster to c. 13 600 cal. years BP (Mortensen et al. 2014b), at Staalsø near Kalundborg in north-west Sjælland to c. 13 700 cal. years BP (Mortsensen & Bennike, unpublished data), at Martin Holms Mose on the island of Samsø in central Denmark to c. 13 600 cal. years BP (Mortensen et al. 2014a), and at Søndre Kobberdam in north-east Sjælland to c. 13 330 cal. years BP (Bennike & Mortensen 2018). These ages imply that the species arrived in Denmark during the mid-Allerød. Betula pubescens was the first tree species that colonised Denmark after the last deglaciation, however, the species can occur as a fairly large tree, a small tree or a bush, depending on the local growth conditions. It is impossible to determine the growth form from fossil nutlets or catkin scales.

Danish lake deposits rich in remains of Betula pubescens are usually referred to the Allerød period. However, the radiocarbon ages from Regstrup show that Betula pubescens was also common in the early part of the Younger Dryas period at this site. Mortensen et al. (2014b) showed that the Allerød environment in Falster in south-eastern Denmark continued until c. 12 575 cal. years BP before the ecosystem collapsed and was replaced by a Younger Dryas type vegetation. The same appears to be the case in the Regstrup region in north-west Sjælland. It also appears that Betula pubescens survived into the Younger Dryas near Birkerød in north-east Sjælland (Mortensen et al. 2014a).

Betula nana was also represented by numerous nutlets and catkin scales. The species does not grow in Denmark anymore, but it occurs in bogs in southern Sweden and is common in heaths in northern Scandinavia and in low arctic regions. Remains of this shrub are common in Lateglacial deposits in Denmark and Betula nana was among the first woody plants to immigrate after the last deglaciation. There are also a few Early Holocene finds of this light-demanding species from Denmark (Jensen 1985; Bennike & Jensen 2011).

Populus tremula remains were surprisingly common in the samples from Regstrup. Until now only few fossils of this species were found in Lateglacial deposits in Denmark. A few pollen grains were reported from a clay pit near Ruds-Vedby in western Sjælland (Krog 1954) and a few scattered finds of macrofossils have been reported (e.g., Nielsen & Sørensen 1992; Bennike & Mortensen 2018). All securely dated finds from Denmark come from the Allerød period. However, at Regstrup the species continued to grow until 12 500 cal. years BP, i.e. in the early part of the Younger Dryas period. The beginning of cold conditions is dated to *c*. 12 850 years BP in ice cores from Greenland (Rasmussen et al. 2009) and the invertebrate fauna from sample JP 335 also indicate relatively cold conditions at c. 12 800 cal. years BP, as mentioned above.

Danish Lateglacial finds of P. tremula are confined to the southern and eastern part of Denmark, where summer temperatures are higher than in the northwestern part of the country. The samples from Regstrup only contained bud scales - no catkin scales were found. This implies, together with the sparse occurrence of pollen grains reported in earlier studies of Lateglacial deposits that flowering and in particular fruiting were uncommon. Vegetative reproduction is currently common in *P. tremula* near the northern range limit of the species; it was probably also a common phenomenon in Lateglacial populations of the species in Denmark.

A single fruit stone of *Rubus saxatilis* was recorded. The species has previously been reported from Allerød-period layers from the classical Allerød site, from Frihedens Mose and from Hasselø on Falster in south-eastern Denmark (Hartz 1902; Jessen 1920; Mortensen et al. 2014b).

Arctostaphylos uva-ursi was represented by four endocarps. The species is rare in Denmark at present, but common in northern Scandinavia where it grows in dwarf-shrub heaths. Fruit stones of the species are fairly frequent in Allerød layers from Denmark, but it is also recorded from Younger Dryas layers (Bennike & Jensen 1995; Bennike et al. 2004a). Five finds from eastern Denmark have been dated to the mid-Allerød (Bennike et al. 2020; Bennike unpublished data).

A few leaf fragments of Dryas octopetala were found in the lower part of the monolith. Dryas octopetala is a common plant in Arctic regions, but the species may also grow in open non-shaded areas south of the Arctic. It prefers carbonate-rich soil and it can thrive in nutrient-poor conditions because it lives in symbiosis with nitrogen-fixating micro-organisms. The species was common in Denmark during the Lateglacial, but the forest in the southern and eastern parts of the country were so dense during the Allerød period that the species almost disappeared. In the north-western part of Denmark, the species was one of the dominating plants throughout the Allerød period (Bennike et

al. 2004b; Mortensen et al. 2014a). From north-western Sjælland the species has been reported from Vinde-Helsinge Mose near Gørlev, Ruds-Vedby (Krog 1954) and Raklev near Kalundborg (Bennike & Barry 2009).

Ten small achenes of *Potentilla* could not be identified to species. Most species of *Potentilla* are small herbs that grow in dry soils. The genus *Potentilla* includes many species in Arctic and northern boreal regions.

Papaver sect. *Scapiflora* sp. (arctic poppy) was represented by a single seed. To our knowledge it is the first record of this taxon from Lateglacial deposits in Denmark.

Six achenes of *Urtica dioeca* (common nettle) were found in sample JP 335. The species is rare in Lateglacial Danish deposits (Jensen 1985); it is nitrophilous and indicate nutrient-rich soils. Such soils may have formed locally due to the presence of reindeers or roosting birds.

A single achene belonged to *Comarum palustre* that grows in wet soil in bogs and along lake shores, in boreal or low-arctic climates. The species has been recorded from several Lateglacial sites in Denmark.

Thalictrum alpinum was also represented by a single achene. Thalictrum alpinum is a small heliophilous herb that today grows in heaths and copses in arctic and alpine regions (Fig. 4). Achenes of the species are rare in Lateglacial deposits, but they have been reported from Hasselø on the island of Falster in south-eastern Denmark, from sediments dated from 12 600 to 14 200 cal. years BP (Mortensen et al. 014b) and from sites

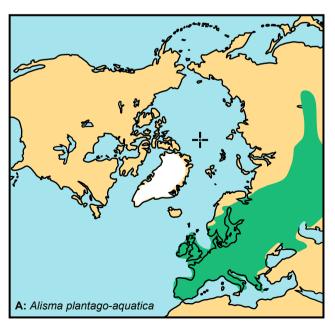
in England and elsewhere in north-western Europe (Tralau 1963).

Taraxacum sp. was represented by a fragment of a nutlet. *Taraxacum* is a rare record for Lateglacial deposits in Denmark, but it has likewise been reported from Hasselø, in a sample dated to *c*. 13 700 cal. years BP. *Taraxacum* spp. are today fairly common in arctic regions, often growing in pioneer communities

A few megaspores of the small plant *Selaginella* selaginoides were found, the megaspores are fairly common in Danish Lateglacial deposits. The species grows in moist or wet sites, for example in calcareous mires.

The flora from Regstrup includes the bryophytes Climacium dendroides, Hylocomium splendens, Aulacomnium palustre, Tomentypnum nitens, Calliergon sp., Ditrichum sp., Distichium sp., Plagiomnium affine, Bryum sp. and Sphagnum sp. that have previously been recorded from a few Lateglacial sites in Denmark (Jessen 1924; Odgaard 1981). Most of the species grow in mires and several of them, especially Distichium sp., are calciphiles. Remains of Sphagnum are rare in Lateglacial deposits, presumably because most species of the genus grow in acid soils, which were rare during the Lateglacial.

Rangifer tarandus (reindeer). During the excavation two fragments of R. tarandus were found in layer 7. One is a fragment of a lower jaw of an animal that was $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$ years old (Magnussen 2019). The other is a fragment of a small, slender cast antler probably from a female reindeer that was found in the uppermost part of layer 7. The antler was dated to c. 6600 cal. years



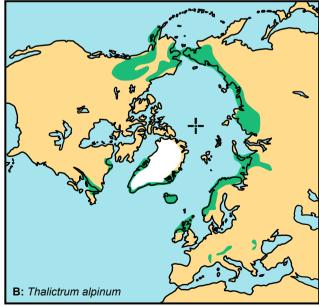


Fig. 4. Modern-day distribution of a warmth-demanding species (A: Alisma plantago-aquatica) and a cold-adapted species (B: Thalictrum alpinum), of which remains were found in the Lateglacial sediments from Regstrup. Modified from Hultén & Fries (1986).

BP (Table 1). This most surprising age for a Danish reindeer find was discussed by Bennike *et al.* (2021). The identification based on a visual inspection of the antler fragment was confirmed by protein sequencing by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/-MS). The reindeer antler may have come to Sjælland from Norway or Sweden as a result of trade.

Layer 7 with the jaw fragment is dated to the Younger Dryas. The former presence of reindeer in Denmark was discussed by Degerbøl & Krog (1959) and by Aaris-Sørensen *et al.* (2007). Radiocarbon dating of reindeer remains shows that the species lived in Denmark during the time period from *c.* 14 500 to 10 300 cal. years BP. This means that it persisted in Denmark into the early part of the Holocene. During this period temperatures were increasing but the increase was interrupted by the cold Preboreal oscillation centred at *c.* 11 400 cal. years BP (Björck *et al.* 1997). Several reindeer remains have previously been reported from north-west Sjælland, but only one find has been radiocarbon dated; it gave an age of *c.* 11 800 cal. years BP (Aaris-Sørensen *et al.* 2007).

Castor fiber (Eurasian beaver) was represented by a lumbar vertebra from layer 8. Two samples of plant macrofossils from this layer yielded ages of *c*. 12 550 and 12 690 cal. years BP (Table 1), corresponding to a mid-Younger Dryas age. Bones of beaver or beavergnawed branches have been reported from a few localities with Lateglacial sediments in Denmark. None of these finds are directly dated but they are referred to the Allerød period (Aaris-Sørensen 1995). Thus, the find from Regstrup may be the first record of bones of the species from Younger Dryas sediments. The beaver is primarily a boreal species that lives in rivers and streams, where it constructs dams.

?Lemmus lemmus (Norway lemming). A humerus fragment of a small rodent was with hesitation referred to Lemmus lemmus. Remains of the species have previously been recorded from Middle and Late Weichselian deposits in Denmark (Bennike *et al.* 1994; Heiberg 1995; Aaris-Sørensen 1995).

Aquatic plants

Three fruits of *Sparganium erectum* were found; the species appears to be new to the Lateglacial flora of Denmark. *Sparganium erectum* is a fairly warmth-demanding species but there are scattered finds of it from northern Sweden and northern Finland (Hultén & Fries 1986).

One fruit of *Alisma plantago-aquatica* was recorded, the species is another warmth-demanding plant, extending north almost to the arctic tree line (Fig. 4). It grows in shallow water along the shores of nutrient-rich lakes, in ponds and streams, and it is often one of the first water plants to colonise newly formed ponds

(Moeslund *et al.* 1990). The species has been recorded from Lateglacial deposits from Holmegårds Mose in southern Sjælland (Fischer *et al.* 2013).

Three seeds of *Nuphar pumila* were found in JP 335. This species of water-lily is rare in Lateglacial deposits in Denmark (Jensen 1985). It is relatively warmth-demanding, but the geographical range extends to the arctic treeline.

Seven species of pondweeds (*Potamogeton* and *Stuckenia*) were found – all of them have been recorded from Lateglacial deposits in Denmark before (Jensen 1985).

Fruits of *Carex* were abundant in some of the samples. Some of the fruits had the perigynium preserved and could be identified to *Carex rostrata*, and most of the fruits without perigynium probably also belong to this species. The species grows in shallow water in lakes or in mires. Fruits of *C. rostrata* are common in Lateglacial deposits from Denmark.

Aquatic animals

Aquatic invertebrates included gemmules of Spongillidae indet., egg cocoons of leaches (*Erpobdella* sp. and *Piscicola geometra*). These taxa are common in Lateglacial deposits in Denmark.

Cladocerans were represented by ephippia of *Daphnia pulex, Simocephalus vetulus* and head shields and shells of *Chydorus sphaericus*. *Daphnia pulex* and *Chydorus sphaericus* remains are common in Lateglacial deposits, whereas *Simocephalus vetulus* remains are rare. Ephippia of *S. vetulus* have previously been reported from southern Sjælland (Poulsen 1944).

Ostracodes were represented by *Candona* sp., *Limnocythere* sp., *Cyclocypris laevis* and *Herpetocypris reptans*. The latter species appears to be new to the Lateglacial fauna of Denmark, but it has been reported from Lateglacial deposits in Germany (Absolon 1973). It is a warmth-demanding species that is found today to the north to Trondheim in Norway (Sars 1925). It mainly lives in nutrient-rich ponds and small lakes rich in macrophytes.

Freshwater molluscs were represented by several species of gastropods and bivalves such as *Valvata cristata*, *V. piscinalis*, *Ampullaceana balthica* (syn. *Radix balthica*, *Lymnaea peregra*), *Stagnicola palustris* (syn. *Lymnaea palustris*), *Gyraulus laevis*, *Hippeutis complanatus*, *Armiger crista*, *Pisidium* spp. and *Sphaerium* sp. All species have previously been recorded from Danish Lateglacial lake deposits (Johansen 1904), although *Stagnicola palustris* only rarely.

Statoblasts of three bryozoan taxa were found: *Cristatella mucedo, Plumatella* sp. and *Fredericella* sp. The latter is rarely recorded but the statoblasts are common in lake deposits. The taxa have wide geographical ranges but in the Arctic they are confined to the low arctic.

Finally, remains of three fish species were recorded:

Gasterosteus aculeatus, Esox lucius and Perca fluviatilis. G. aculeatus (three-spined stickleback) was represented by a pelvic spine in sample JP 320. Remains of the species have been reported from the classical Lateglacial Bølling site in Jylland (Rosenlund 1976) and from northern Sjælland (Bennike & Mortensen 2018; Bennike et al. 2020). Gasterosteus aculeatus can be found in large numbers in shallow, vegetation-rich water of lakes where it is an important prey for larger fish and birds. It is widely distributed in temperate and low-Arctic regions in the northern Hemisphere.

Esox Lucius (pike) was represented by 127 bones, which represent at least four individuals. The total length of the individuals was about 30 to 70 cm. *Perca fluviatilis* (perch) was represented by 454 fragments, of which 400 were scales. Remains of at least three individuals are present in the material – one of them was *c*. 32 cm long, the others somewhat smaller. Both pike and perch have been reported from fairly many sites with Lateglacial deposits in Denmark (Rosenlund 1976; Skousen 2008). Pike and perch may be found in a wide range of habitats, but they are most common in vegetation-rich lakes. They do not occur in the Arctic.

Further discussion

Lateglacial deposits with remains of arctic plants were first demonstrated in Denmark by the Swedish geologist Alfred Nathorst (Nathorst 1914). Later, in a clay pit south of Allerød in northern Sjælland, signs of a warm period during the Lateglacial were found (Hartz & Milthers 1901) and some decades later an older warm period was described from Bølling Sø in Jylland (Iversen 1942, 1954). These warm periods were partly recognised from sedimentological criteria. In the Allerød clay pit, the major part of the Lateglacial sediments consisted of clay, but during the Allerød period organic-rich gyttja was deposited. In Bølling Sø the Lateglacial deposits are dominated by sand and sandy clay and silt, but during the Allerød period gyttja rich in microalgae accumulated. In the Allerød pit the clay layers contained leaves of Betula nana, Dryas octopetala and other arctic plants, whereas leaves of Betula pubescens (downy birch) were found in the gyttja layer. In Bølling Sø the mineral-rich layers contained pollen of B. nana, whereas the gyttja layer contained pollen of tree birch, according to Iversen (1942).

The earliest analyses of plant remains from the Lateglacial were based on studies of macrofossils (Hartz 1902), but after the introduction of pollen analysis plant macrofossils have often been ignored. However, plant macrofossils have some advantages compared to pollen: macrofossils can often be identified to spe-

cies. It is for example not possible to identify pollen grains of *Thalictrum* to species, whereas fruits can be identified. Hence, it is possible to decide if fruits belong to *T. alpinum* or the more warmth-demanding *T. flavum*, both of which occur in Lateglacial deposits in Denmark.

Another problem about pollen analysis is that some species produces vast quantities of pollen and some pollen types are being spread far by the wind. During the Lateglacial when the local pollen production was relatively small this means that a large part of the pollen rain may come from non-local trees. This problem is specially pronounced for *Pinus*, the pollen of which are abundant in Danish Lateglacial deposits, even though no macrofossils of this tree has so far been found.

Pollen grains can also be subject to reworking and redeposition, which may hamper interpretation of Lateglacial pollen diagrams. In Bølling Sø it was estimated that up to 80% of the pollen grains were reworked from older deposits (Iversen 1942). Some types of macrofossils, such as seeds and fruits with hard walls may also be reworked, but usually such fossils become worn. Fragile plant macrofossils such as leaves can hardly survive reworking.

Finally, pollen analysis only gives information about plants that produce pollen and spores. Macrofossil analysis also provides information about the animal life of the past. In the samples from Regstrup, we found remains of many animals, which bear witness about a rich life in and around the former lake basins.

Based on pollen analysis it was proposed that all of Denmark was dominated by birch forests during the Allerød period (Iversen 1973). However, analyses of macrofossils indicate that the northern and western parts of Denmark were dominated by dwarf-shrub heaths with *B. nana* (Mortensen et al. 2014a). Clearly, it is important to conduct analyses from different parts of the country if we want to achieve a better understanding of regional variations in vegetation and fauna that may be determined by differences in climate, soil and immigration history.

Conclusions

The analyses from the basins near Regstrup indicate that the area was covered by open forests during the younger part of the Allerød period and the older part of the Younger Dryas period. The forests were dominated by *B. pubescens*, but *Populus tremula* was also quite common, until it disappeared *c.* 200 years into the Younger Dryas period. The area also housed light-demanding species such as *Dryas octopetala*,

Rubus saxatilis, Minuartia sp., Potentilla sp., Thalictrum alpinum and Taraxacum sp. Plants growing on wet and moist ground included several species of bryophytes, Carex sp. and Comarum palustre. Shallow water near the margin of the basins housed a rich vegetation dominated by Carex rostrata and including Ranunculus sect. Batrachium sp., Hippuris vulgaris, Myriophyllum sp., Menyanthes trifoliata, Alisma plantago-aquatica and Sparganium erectum. The flora in deeper water included charophytes and several pondweed species. The vertebrate fauna included Rangifer tarandus, Castor fiber and a small rodent, probably Lemmus lemmus.

The basins housed a rich fauna of invertebrates, including two species/genera of leeches, water fleas, ostracodes, larvae of beetles, chironomids, alderflies, caddisflies, gastropods, bivalves and bryozoans. The invertebrates are well-know prey for fish and remains of perch, pike and three-spined stickleback were found.

The common presence of bud-scales of the fairly warmth-demanding plant *Populus tremula* and finds of fruits of *Alisma plantago-aquatica* and *Sparganium erectum*, as well as other finds of warmth-demanding plants in south-eastern Denmark indicates that summer temperatures during the Allerød and early Younger Dryas periods were higher in the southern and eastern parts of Denmark than in the the northern and western parts of the country. Before and after the forested period the area around the basins were characterised by dwarf-shrub heaths with *Dryas octopetala*, *Betula nana*, herbs and mosses.

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An Eocene conger eel (Teleostei, Anguilliformes) from the Lillebælt Clay Formation, Denmark

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© 2022 the authors. Re-use of material is permitted, provided this work is cited. Creative Commons License CC BY: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/ Carnevale, G., Schwarzhans, W., Schrøder, A.E. & Lindow, B.E.K. 2022: An Eocene conger eel (Teleostei, Anguilliformes) from the Lillebælt Clay Formation, Denmark. Bulletin of the Geological Society of Denmark, Vol. 70, pp. 53–67. ISSN 2245-7070. https://doi.org/10.37570/bgsd-2022-70-05-rev

A conger eel (Anguilliformes, Congridae) is described from the lower Lutetian concretionary nodules of the Lillebælt Clay Formation exposed at Trelde Næs, eastern Jutland, based on two partially complete articulated cranial skeletons. One of the cranial specimens exhibits an otolith void from which a cast was taken, used by Schwarzhans (2007) to describe the extinct Pseudoxenomystax treldeensis, which is placed herein within the new genus Smithconger gen. nov. Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans, 2007) is characterized by well-developed lateral processes on the frontals, supraoccipital crest absent, sphenotic spine rather large, anteriorly pointed and exposed on the flattened surface of the skull roof, otic bullae considerably reduced, maxilla almost straight and distally pointed, maxillary and dentary teeth numerous and arranged in multiple rows, dentary with slightly convex ventral profile, opercle with smooth posterior margin and subopercle short. The otoliths of Smithconger treldeensis show high dorsal rim, broad and deep dorsal depression, no ventral furrow, sulcus straight, shallow, centrally positioned with anteriorly reduced colliculum, and ostial channel at anterior tip of colliculum short, not reaching the predorsal rim. The otolith-based species Bathycongrus waihaoensis Schwarzhans, 2019 from the Kaiatan (Bartonian/Priabonian) of New Zealand is also assigned to the genus Smithconger. Smithconger is tentatively referred to the congrid subfamily Congrinae due to the lack of hypohyals in the hyoid bar. This new Eocene genus of conger eel shows a certain degree of similarity with the extant Bassanago. The diversity and relationships of other Eocene congrids is also briefly discussed.

Keywords: Anguilliformes, Congridae, Smithconger gen. nov., Eocene, Lutetian, Lillebælt Clay Formation, eastern Jutland.

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Eel-like fishes of the order Anguilliformes constitute a distinctive lineage of elopomorph teleosts that comprises more than 900 extant species arranged in 19 families (Anguillidae, Chlopsidae, Congridae, Cyematidae, Derichthyidae, Eurypharyngidae, Heterenchelyidae, Monognatidae, Moringuidae, Muraenesocidae, Muraenidae, Myrocongridae, Nemichthyidae, Nettastomatidae, Ophichthidae, Protanguillidae, Saccopharyngidae, Serrivomeridae, Synaphobranchidae), which occupy a variety of environments from freshwaters to shallow marine biotopes, to abyssal depths (Nelson *et al.* 2016). The extremely elongate anguilliform body

plan is unique within the Teleostei, being characterized, among the other features, by dorsal and anal fins confluent with caudal fin, ethmoid fused with the vomer, palatine absent, gill arches free from the neurocranium and displaced posteriorly, uppermost branchiostegal rays curving dorsally behind the opercle, and a ribbon-like 'leptocephalus' larva (e.g., Regan 1912; Trewavas 1932; Robins 1989; Johnson *et al.* 2012). The appearance of anguilliforms in the fossil record dates back to the late Cenomanian (about 94 Ma; Marramà et al. 2016), with several taxa collected from the Sannine Limestone in Lebanon (Hav 1903; Belouze 2002; Belouze et al. 2003a, b; Forey et al. 2003). However, the origin of the extant lineages took place primarily at the end of the Cretaceous and during the Palaeogene (e.g., Santini et al. 2013), being well documented by the diverse anguilliform assemblage of Monte Bolca (Blot 1978, 1984; Pfaff *et al*. 2016), but also by the fossils from other localities (e.g., Bonde 1966; Casier 1967; Taverne & Nolf 1978; Young 1993; Bannikov & Parin 1997; Belouze 2002). The otolith record of anguilliforms is relatively rich and diverse, especially that of the Congridae (Schwarzhans 2019b), whose members appear to be present since the Campanian (Nolf & Dockery 1990) and are well documented since the Maastrichtian (Schwarzhans 2010). Conversely, the skeletal record of congrids is rather poor and the earliest skeletal remains of conger eels are represented by four species (Bolcyrus bajai, Bolcyrus formosissimus, Paracongroides heckeli, Voltaconger latispinus) from the late Ypresian of Monte Bolca (Blot 1978), plus some isolated bones referred to Paraconger sauvagei from the Lutetian Sables de Lede (Taverne & Nolf 1978), where otoliths assigned to the same species were reported by Stinton & Nolf (1970). In addition, partially complete articulated skeletons of conger eels are also known from Oligocene of Northern Caucasus, Russia, with the species Pavelichthys daniltshenkoi, and from the Oligocene of Apsheron Peninsula, Azerbaijan, with the species P. perekischylika (Prokofiev 2007). The goal of this paper is to describe the skeletal remains pertaining to the family Congridae discovered in the concretionary nodules of the Eocene Lillebælt Clay Formation, Denmark. One of these specimens, a partially complete neurocranium, exhibits an otolith void in situ, thereby providing a unique opportunity to link the skeletal and otolith records of an Eocene conger eel and to define in much detail its distribution in space and time (Schwarzhans & Carnevale 2017).

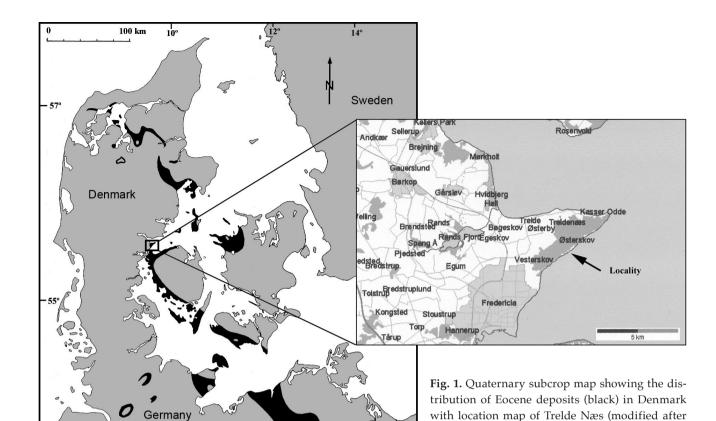
Geological setting

The specimens documented herein primarily consist of incomplete and partially articulated skeletal remains embedded into concretions collected along the south-eastern coast of Trelde Næs, a small peninsula in the eastern Jutland, close to the town of Fredericia (Fig. 1). The fossils were collected from the Lillebælt Clay Formation, an Eocene fossiliferous grey-green, non-calcareous clay that commonly includes mixed carbonate and phosphatic concretions (Heilmann-Clausen et al. 1985), which is well-exposed along the coastal cliffs at Trelde Næs. Heilmann-Clausen et al. (1985) subdivided the Lillebælt Clay Formation into six lithological units, of which the first two are considered of late Ypresian age. According to Schnetler & Heilmann-Clausen (2011), the transition between the second and third lithological units seems to define the boundary between Ypresian and Lutetian. Concretions occur in the third, fourth, fifth and (possibly) sixth lithological cycles (Heilmann-Clausen et al. 1985). There is no information about the lithological cycle from which the concretionary nodules containing the fossils described herein were collected (see also Collins & Jakobsen 2003), but it is reasonable to conclude that they date back to the early Lutetian. The fine-grained sediments of the Lillebælt Clay Formation accumulated in the North Sea Basin, about 300 km from the Swedish coasts (Thomsen *et al.* 2012) at depths between 100 and 350 meters (Schnetler & Heilmann-Clausen 2011; Carlsen & Cuny 2014).

The fossiliferous content of the Lillebælt Clay Formation is quite abundant. Bonde (1968) reported the occurrence of brachiopods, echinoderms, annelids, molluscs (e.g., Schnetler & Heilmann-Clausen 2011) and crustaceans (e.g., Collins & Jakobsen 2003) at Trelde Næs. Vertebrates are represented by cartilaginous and bony fishes. Hansen et al. (2013) described associated skeletal and dental remains of an odontaspidid shark, while Carlsen & Cuny (2014) provided a detailed analysis of a diverse elasmobranch assemblage, comprising more than 30 taxa. Bony fishes are represented by isolated teeth (Carlsen & Cuny 2014) and bones (Heilmann-Clausen et al. 1985), as well as by otolith voids from which casts were taken (Schwarzhans 2007) and rare partially complete articulated skeletal remains (Bonde et al. 2008) preserved in the concretionary nodules, including those described in this study.

Material and methods

The present study is based on four specimens, a single partially complete neurocranium (Fig. 2) (which includes the impression of an otolith; Fig. 3A), an incomplete articulated skeleton represented by the head and the anterior portion of the abdominal region (Fig. 4), plus two otolith casts housed in the collections of



Gravesen 1993).





Fig. 2. Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans 2007) from the Eocene of Trelde Næs, eastern Jutland, Denmark. Holotype, NHMD-625030. A: Neurocranium in dorsal view. B: Neurocranium in right lateral view, with a large hollow cavity originally occupied by the saccular otolith. Scale bar 10 mm.

the Natural History Museum of Denmark, Copenhagen. The skeletal material was studied using a WILD Heerbrugg stereomicroscope equipped with a camera lucida drawing arm. The incomplete articulated skeleton required matrix removal before examination to allow investigations of its structure in as much detail as possible; this was achieved using thin entomological needles. During examination, the skeletal remains were moistened with alcohol to enhance some details of their anatomy. Measurements were taken with a dial caliper to the nearest 0.1 mm. Comparative morphological and osteological data were derived mainly from the literature.

Anatomical abbreviations: aa, anguloarticular; ach, anterior ceratohyal; bo, basioccipital; br, branchi-

ostegal rays; bsp, basisphenoid; cl, cleithrum; ctb, ceratobranchial; d, dentary; ect, ectopterygoid; epb, epibranchial; epi, epioccipital; etv, ethmovomerine complex; exo, exoccipital; f, frontal; h, hyomandibula; iop, interopercle; lep, lateral ethmoid process; lfp, lateral frontal process; lvp, lateral vomerine process; mx, maxilla; op, opercle; pa, parietal; pas, parasphenoid; pch, posterior ceratohyal; pop, preopercle; pro, prootic; pte, pterosphenoid; pto, pterotic; q, quadrate; soc, supraoccipital; sop, subopercle; sph, sphenotic; uh, urohyal; v, vertebra.

Institutional abbreviations: MCSNV, Museo Civico di Storia Naturale, Verona; MGUH, Museum Geologica Universitas Hafniensis, Copenhagen; MNHN, Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris; NHMD,

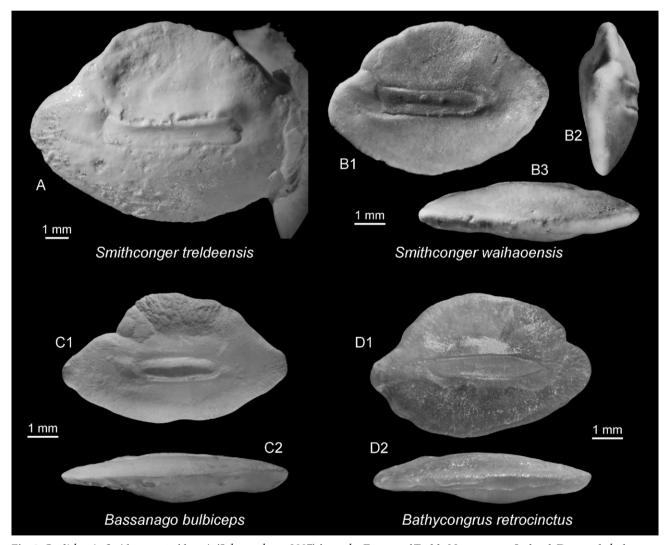


Fig. 3. Otoliths. A: Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans 2007) from the Eocene of Trelde Næs, eastern Jutland, Denmark, holotype, MGUH 28368. B: Smithconger waihaoensis (Schwarzhans 2019) from the Kaiatan (Bartonian/Priabonian) of the Waihao River banks, New Zealand South Island, holotype, NMNZ S.46736; B1 inner face, B2 anterior view, B3 ventral view. C: Bassanago bulbiceps Whitley 1948, Recent, off Wellington, New Zealand, coll. Schwarzhans; C1 inner face, C2 ventral view. D: Bathycongrus retrotinctus (Jordan & Snyder 1901), Recent, off Dong-gang, Taiwan, ZMUC P2396514, leg. Ho; D1 inner face, D2 ventral view.

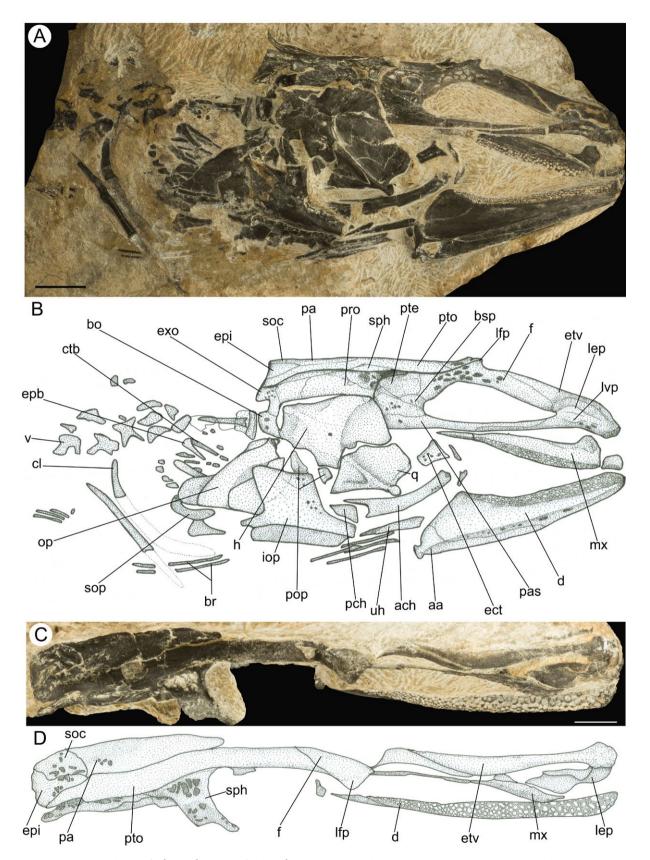


Fig 4. *Smithconger treldeensis* (Schwarzhans 2007) from the Eocene of Trelde Næs, eastern Jutland, Denmark. Paratype, NHMD-625415. **A**: Head and anterior portion of the axial skeleton, right lateral view. **B**: interpretative reconstruction. **C**: Neurocranium in dorsal view. **D**: interpretative reconstruction. Scale bars 10 mm.

Natural History Museum of Denmark, Copenhagen; NHMUK, Natural History Museum, London; NHMW, Naturhistorisches Museum, Vienna; NMNZ, Museum of New Zealand Te Papa Tongarewa, Wellington; ZMUC, Zoological Museum of the University of Copenhagen.

Systematic palaeontology

Order Anguilliformes Regan, 1909 Family Congridae Kaup, 1856

Genus Smithconger gen. nov.

Type species. Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans 2007), syn. *Pseudoxenomystax treldeensis* Schwarzhans 2007.

Etymology. Named in honour of the American ichthyologist David G. Smith (plus the generic name *Conger*), in recognition of his outstanding contribution to the study of anguilliform fishes.

Diagnosis. A genus of Congridae unique in having the following combination of characters: frontals with well-developed lateral processes; supraoccipital crest absent; sphenotic large and anteriorly pointed, exposed on the flattened surface of skull roof; otic bullae considerably reduced; maxilla elongate, nearly straight, distally pointed, bearing a large paddle-like dorsal process on its anterodorsal extremity; oral jaw teeth numerous, arranged in multiple rows; ventral profile of the dentary convex; mandible not projecting anteriorly beyond the upper jaw; opercle with smooth posterior margin; subopercle short; otoliths oval with high dorsal rim, broad and deep dorsal depression, no ventral furrow; sulcus straight, narrow, shallow, centrally positioned with anteriorly reduced colliculum; ostial channel at anterior tip of colliculum short, not reaching the predorsal rim.

Discussion. Schwarzhans (2007) described the species *Pseudoxenomystax treldeensis* from the Lillebælt Clay based on three otolith casts. One of these otoliths, selected as the holotype (Fig. 3A), was found as a void *in situ* from a partially preserved neurocranium, which was not described nor figured by Schwarzhans (2007). Despite the inadequate preservation of the holotypic neurocranium (Fig. 2), a suite of morphological features reveals a substantial similarity in the overall proportions and general configuration with that of the paratype NHMD-625415. Due to the distinctiveness of these features, especially the relative size and orientation of the sphenotic spine and of the robust

laterally-directed frontal process, these specimens are regarded herein as conspecific.

The extant genus *Pseudoxenomystax* was originally created by Breder (1927) and subsequently discussed by Castle (1960) and is currently not considered as valid with its formerly referred species assigned to the genera *Bassanago* and *Bathycongrus* (e.g., Smith 1989; Castle 1995). The neurocranial morphology of both these genera differs from that of the Eocene fossil from the Lillebælt Clay Formation described herein, thereby supporting its attribution to a new separate genus within the family Congridae.

Composition. Two fossil species are referred to the genus Smithconger; the type-species Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans, 2007) from the early Lutetian of the Lillebælt Clay Formation of Denmark and Smithconger waihaoensis (Schwarzhans 2019), an otolithbased species (Fig. 3B) described by Schwarzhans (2019a) as Bathycongrus waihaoensis from the Kaiatan (Bartonian/Priabonian) of the Waihao River, South Island of New Zealand.

Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans, 2007) (Figs 2–3A, 4–5).

Holotype. NHMD-625030, a partially complete neurocranium exhibiting a large hollow cavity originally occupied by the saccular otolith (Fig. 2), measuring about 44.9 mm in length. The otolith (Fig. 3A) is registered with the number MGUH 28347.

Paratypes. NHMD-625415, a partially complete articulated skeleton represented by the head and a poorly preserved anterior portion of the abdominal region of the body (Fig. 4). Paratypic otoliths are registered with the numbers MGUH 28346 and 28357.

Type locality and horizon. Trelde Næs near Fredericia, eastern Jutland, Denmark, Lillebælt Clay Formation, Middle Eocene, early Lutetian.

Measurements (of the paratype NHMD-625415). Neurocranial length: 76.2 mm; neurocranial depth (measured at midlength of the orbit): 14.8 mm (19.4 % of neurocranial length); preorbital length: 13.6 mm (17.8 % of neurocranial length); orbital length: 28.7 mm (37.6 % of neurocranial length); postorbital length: 34.0 mm (44.6 % of neurocranial length); maxillary length: 33.9 mm (44.4 % of neurocranial length); mandible length: 44.8 mm (58.7 % of neurocranial length); lateral extension of the sphenotic spine: 7.5 mm (9.8% of neurocranial length).

Description. The holotypic neurocranium is inade-

quately preserved to allow an appropriate description of its structure (Fig. 2). Therefore, the descriptive osteology is mostly based on the paratype NHMD-625415 (Fig. 4). Overall, the paratypic specimen NHMD-625415 is largely incomplete, lacking most of the axial skeleton. The head skeleton is partially complete and most of the bones are in some ways displaced from their original position (Figs 4A–B). The axial skeleton is solely represented by at least five incomplete and poorly preserved (abdominal) vertebrae, a partially complete crescent-shaped cleithrum and some fragments of the pectoral-fin rays.

The neurocranium is elongate, slender and somewhat dorsally flattened (Figs 4A–B, 5); its depth measured at the midlength of the orbit reaches about one fifth of the neurocranial length. It is robust anteriorly and projects beyond the lower jaw. The orbit is elongated and occupies more than one third of the entire neurocranial length. Overall, the neurocranium is solidly ossified and some of the bones are ornamented by irregular and deep pits, which are quite abundant on the ventral surface of the frontal in the central and posterior sector of the orbit, but also on the prootic and the ventral surface of the sphenotic; due to the extensive ornamentation of certain neurocranial

bones, it is very difficult to recognize the foramina for nerves. The original sutures between the bones are difficult to recognize due to considerable overlapping, as well as of inadequate preservation of the surface of certain bones.

The ethmovomerine complex is thick and bears a broad lateral ethmoid process with almost linear lateral margins emerging just in front of the orbit. The anteroventral portion of the ethmovomerine complex, which apparently comprises the entire dentigerous area, is slightly curved downwards (Figs 4A-B, 5). A small lateral vomerine process can be observed just below the lateral ethmoid process. The frontals are only partially exposed and form most of the dorsal border of the orbit (Figs 4-5). The two frontals are fused to each other into a single bone, which can be easily recognized in the holotype (Fig. 2). A prominent and thick triangular process projects laterally from the dorsal surface of the frontals (Figs 4C–D, 5). As reported above, the ventral surface of the frontals just above the origin of the prominent lateral process is extensively pitted. The parietals are rather large and articulate anteriorly with the fused frontals, laterally with the pterotic and posteriorly with the epioccipital and the small supraoccipital. There is no

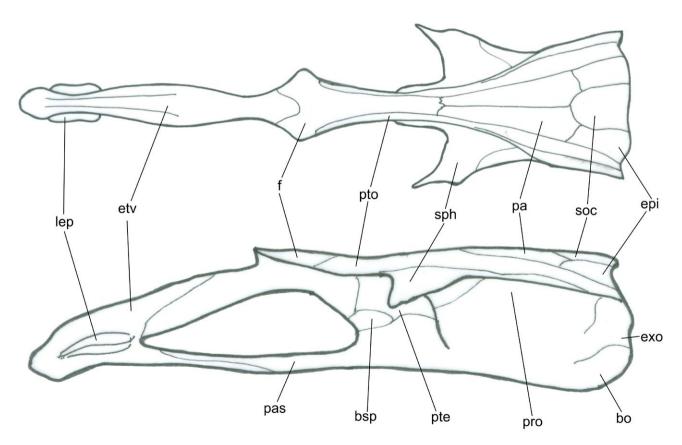


Fig. 5. Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans 2007) from the Eocene of Trelde Næs, eastern Jutland, Denmark. Reconstruction of the neurocranium in dorsal (above) and lateral (below) view.

supraoccipital crest. The epioccipital occupies a small triangular surface in the posteriormost portion of the skull roof where it articulates with the parietal and supraoccipital medially and with the pterotic laterally. As in other anguilliform fishes, the pterotic is the major lateral longitudinal bone of the neurocranium; based on its overall morphology, with a smooth and solid outer surface, it is reasonable to hypothesize that the temporal sensory canal was enclosed within this bone. Due to the flattened dorsal aspect of the neurocranium, the sphenotic is clearly exposed on the skull roof (Fig. 5), showing a very high position on the neurocranium compared to most congrid taxa (Fig. 6), in which it contributes to form the lateral wall of the neurocranium (e.g., Smith 1989). The sphenotic is almost triangular in dorsal outline and projects antero-laterally as a pointed blade-like process; it articulates medially and posteriorly with the pterotic and ventrally with the pterosphenoid and prootic. The articular facet for the anterior articular head of the hyomandibula is clearly recognizable in NHMD-625415. The pterosphenoid forms part of the lateral wall of the neurocranium; it articulates with the frontal anteriorly, with the basisphenoid anteroventrally, with the sphenotic and pterotic dorsally, with the prootic posteroventrally, and with the parasphenoid ventrally. The basisphenoid is small and can be easily recognized along the posterior border of the orbit. The parasphenoid is greatly elongate, extending from the basioccipital almost to the anterior tip of the orbit. The prootic is mostly not exposed, covered by the hyomandibula in the paratype NHMD-625415. Although the prootics are only partially exposed in the holotype (Fig. 2), it seems that the otic bullae were consistently reduced in size in origin, resembling the condition observed in Conger (e.g., Takai 1959; Asano 1962; Smith 1989). The stout basioccipital forms the posteroventral corner of the neurocranium. The basioccipital articulates dorsally with the large exoccipital.

While the otolith is not preserved in the holotype, its outline is impressed in the cavity allowing the production of a cast (Fig. 3A) that was described by Schwarzhans (2007) as follows: "Large oval otoliths up to about 14 mm length. Ventral rim gently curving, smooth, deepest at its middle; dorsal rim more strongly curving, highest, most expanded just anterior of the middle, this portion sometimes slightly undulated. Anterior tip moderately pointed at its middle; posterior tip symmetrical, not completely preserved. Inner face markedly convex. Sulcus medial, narrow, straight, with well-marked, anteriorly reduced colliculum. Anterior part of ostium indistinctly outlined, without colliculum and thus colliculum centrally positioned on inner face. Ostial canal short, indistinct, beginning near anterior tip of colliculum, not reaching dorsal rim.

Dorsal depression wide, deep; no ventral furrow. Outer face nearly flat to slightly convex, smooth".

Based on the relative size of the jaw bones and the limited forward inclination of the suspensorium, it is reasonable to conclude that the mouth gape was moderately large (Figs 4A–B). The upper border of the mouth gape is formed by the thick and robust maxilla. The maxilla is elongate, nearly straight, distally pointed and bears a large paddle-like dorsal process on its anterodorsal extremity that comprises the maxillaethmovomeral facet on its medial surface. The alveolar surface of the maxilla is fully covered by relatively small circular tooth sockets arranged in multiple rows. The mandible is solid, almost linear and nearly triangular in outline, and does not project anteriorly beyond the upper jaw. It is constituted by the dentary and the anguloarticular. The dentary is very large and bears a well-developed coronoid process posterodorsally. The alveolar surface of the dentary is completely covered by tooth sockets arranged in multiple rows identical to those of the maxilla (Fig. 4).

Although only partially complete, the suspensorium appears to be wider than deep, inclined forward and characterized by a very large hyomandibula (Figs 4A–B). The hyomandibula has an irregular trapezoid outline and possesses two prominent condyles for the cranial articulation. What appears to be a foramen can be observed on the main vertical shaft of the hyomandibula. The opercular process of the hyomandibula is extremely short and thick. The quadrate is large, fanshaped, with an irregular dorsal margin. The dorsal margin of the quadrate fits well with the ventral margin of the hyomandibula, suggesting that these bones were remarkably consolidated into a strong functional complex. Only a fragment of the ectopterygoid, probably representing a disarticulated posterior extremity can be observed in the fossil.

The bones of the opercular apparatus are displaced from their original position and overlapped to each other (Figs 4A–B). Of the preopercle only some fragments can be recognized. The interopercle is platelike, roughly trapezoid in outline. The opercle is only partially exposed; it appears to be fan-shaped, with a gently convex dorsal margin and a rounded and continuous posterior margin. The subopercle is sickle-shaped.

Of the hyoid arch (Figs 4A–B), a partially preserved hyoid bar with anterior and posterior ceratohyals, a largely incomplete urohyal and at least six incomplete branchiostegal rays can be recognized. There are no hypohyals.

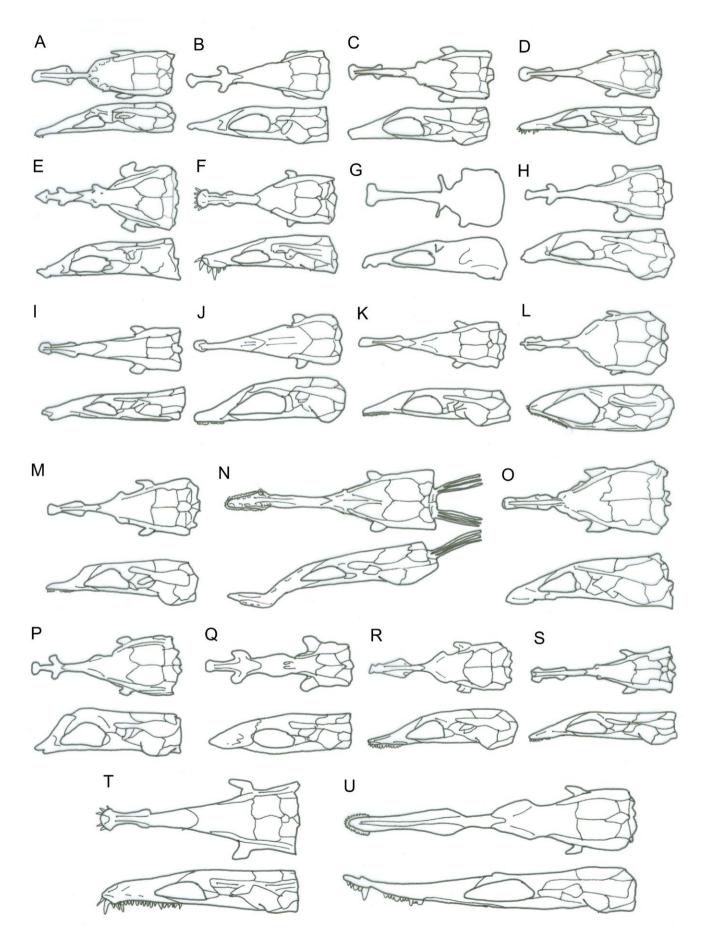
Gill arches are represented by fragments of the ventral and dorsal portions, including what appear to be incomplete epibranchials and ceratobranchials (Figs 4A–B).

The affinities of Smithconger treldeensis (Schwarzhans, 2007)

In his fundamental study on the classification of eellike fishes, Regan (1912) emphasized the diagnostic role of separated vs fused frontals in the subdivision of modern anguilliforms into well-defined groups. The shared possession of fused frontals allowed the recognition of a speciose and morphologically diverse lineage traditionally referred to as the Congroidei (Robins 1989), which includes, among the others, the families Congridae, Derichthyidae, Muraenesocidae, Nettastomatidae and Ophichthidae (Nelson et al. 2016). Within this group, the family Congridae is one of the largest and most diverse, currently comprising 194 species arranged in 30 extant genera (Fig. 6). A definition of the Congridae is problematic to provide because of the generalized morphology and substantial uniformity of the overall appearance of most of its members (Smith 1989). Although this family has been considered as non-monophyletic by molecular studies (e.g., Inoue et al. 2010; Johnson et al. 2012; Santini et al. 2013), the co-occurrence of certain morphological traits is almost exclusive of these fishes, making it possible to refer fossil taxa to this family. Therefore, despite the incompleteness of the available material, both the skeletal structure and otolith morphology concur to support the attribution to the anguilliform family Congridae. In particular, the combination of laterally compressed and massive ethmovomer, fused frontals, large sphenotics, otoliths with shallow sulcus, anteriorly reduced colliculum and broad dorsal depression, and forward inclined suspensorium substantially support the placement of the fossils described herein within the family Congridae (e.g., Asano 1962; Smith 1989; Ramon-Castro et al. 2021). Primarily based on the criteria proposed by Asano (1962), Smith (1989) subdivided the Congridae into three subfamilies, the Bathymyrinae, Congrinae and Heterocongrinae (the latter recognized as a subfamily by Böhlke 1957). The subfamily Bathymyrinae consists of seven genera (Ariosoma, Bathymyrus, Chiloconger, Kenyaconger, Parabathymyrus, Paraconger, Rostroconger; Smith & Karmovskaya 2003; Smith 2018), the subfamily Heterocongrinae contains two genera (Gorgasia, Heteroconger; Böhlke 1957), while at least 21 genera (Acromycter, Bassanago, Bathycongrus, Bathyuroconger, Castleichthys, Conger, Congrhynchus, Congriscus, Congrosoma, Diploconger, Gnathophis, Japonoconger, Lumiconger, Macrocephenchelys, Poeciloconger, Promyllantor, Pseudophichthys, Rhynchoconger, Scalanago, Uroconger, Xenomystax; Table 1) are implicitly referred to the subfamily Congrinae, considering that Karrer & Smith (1980) suggested that the genus Blachea might deserve a separate subfamilial

status. According to Smith (1989), the Bathymyrinae and Heterocongrinae form a sister pair, supported by at least two synapomorphies, possession of a strut-like lateral ethmoid process (lost in *Heteroconger*; Fig. 6L) and unsegmented fin rays. This sister-group relationship has also been confirmed by a comparative study of their otoliths (Schwarzhans, 2019b).

As discussed above, there is no evidence of a strutlike lateral ethmoid process in Smithconger (Fig. 5), thereby excluding it from any possible attribution to the Bathymyrinae and Heterocongrinae. Moreover, Smithconger differs from the members of the Bathymyrinae by having a supraoccipital, which is reduced but present in the bathymyrine genera Chiloconger and Paraconger (Fig. 6Q; Table 1). The heterocongrines, commonly known as garden eels, are a specialized clade with a slender and greatly elongate body, a shortened head and a caudal fin stiffened for burrowing on sandy bottoms. These fishes are characterized by unique suite of features that clearly separate them from the other congrids, including a short and oblique mouth and lower jaw projecting beyond the upper one (Böhlke 1957; Rosenblatt 1967; Smith 1989); all of these features have not been observed in Smithconger. The Congrinae is the largest of the currently recognized subfamilies. Smith (1989) suggested the loss of hypohyals as a possible synapomorphy for the congrines. As described above, there is no evidence of hypohyals in Smithconger, thereby supporting its attribution to this subfamily, which can be also justified by the possession of a moderately large mouth gape and absence of a strut-like lateral ethmoid process. Within the congrines, Smithconger resembles in many ways Bassanago (see Fig. 6C, Table 1), especially in the well-developed laterally directed frontal processes, absence of a supraoccipital crest, convex ventral profile of the dentary, smooth posterior margin of the opercle, short subopercle and, more generally, in the overall proportions of the neurocranium (e.g., Smith et al. 2020). The otoliths of Smithconger resemble those of Bassanago (Fig. 3C) and, to a lesser extent, those of Bathycongrus (Fig. 3D) in having a horizontally positioned and anteriorly reduced sulcus with a single, centrally positioned colliculum, as well as for the presence of a distinctive and wide dorsal depression. However, Smithconger clearly differs from Bassanago in having considerably reduced (vs large) otic bullae, nearly straight and distally pointed (vs slightly curved and distally expanded) maxilla, basisphenoid with anterior smooth margin (vs with a distinct process) (see Smith *et al.* 2020). The otoliths of *Smithconger* show an indistinct and short ostial channel that is interpreted as plesiomorphic compared to the otoliths of the extant Bassanago (and Bathycongrus) in which the ostial channel is completely atrophied.



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Table 1. Synopsis of selected morphological characters for fossil and extant genera of the family Congridae

	supraoccipital	strut-like lateral ethmoid process	lateral process of the frontal	teeth in jaws lo	wer jaw projecting beyond upper	posterior opercular margin
Acromycter	present	absent	present or absent	multiple rows	no	lobate/fimbriated
Ariosoma	absent	present	present or absent	multiple rows	no	smooth
Bathymyrus	absent	present	present	single row	no	smooth
Bassanago	present	absent	present	multiple rows	no	smooth
Bathycongrus	present	absent	absent	multiple rows	no	serrated
Bathyuroconger	present	absent	absent	two or three rows	no	with strong spines
Blachea	present	absent	present	single row	no	smooth
Bolcyrus	present	absent	absent	multiple rows	yes	smooth
Castleichthys	?	?	?	single row	no	?
Chiloconger	present	present	absent	two or three rows	no	smooth
Conger	present	absent	present or absent	one or two rows	no	smooth
Congrhynchus	?	7	?	multiple rows	no	7
Congriscus	absent	absent	absent	one or two rows	no	smooth
Congrosoma	?	?	7	?	no	?
Diploconger	?	?	?	one to three rows	no	?
Gnathophis	present	absent	absent	multiple rows	no	smooth
Gorgasia	present	present	absent	multiple rows	yes	smooth
Heteroconger	present	absent	absent	multiple rows	yes	smooth
Japonoconger	present	absent	present, very short	multiple rows	no	weakly serrated
Kenyaconger	?	7	?	one or two rows	yes	7
Lumiconger	present	absent	present, very short	multiple rows	no	smooth
Macrocephenchelys		absent	absent	multiple rows	no	with strong spines
Parabathymyrus	absent	present	present	one or two rows	no	smooth
Paraconger	present	present	present	one or two rows	no	smooth
Paracongroides	?	?	?	?single row	no	smooth
Pavelichthys	present	present	absent	multiple rows	yes	?smooth
Poeciloconger	?	?	?	multiple rows	no	?
Promyllantor	?	?	?	multiple rows	no	: ?
Pseudophichthys	absent	absent	present	multiple rows	no	with strong spines
Rhynchoconger	present	absent	present	multiple rows	no	serrated
Rostroconger	?	?	?	one or tow rows	no	?smooth
Scalanago	: ?	: ?	;	?	no	?smooth
Smithconger	present	absent	present	multiple rows	no	smooth
Uroconger	present	absent	absent	two rows	no	smooth
Voltaconger	present	absent	absent	single row	yes	smooth
Xenomystax	present	absent	present	three rows	no	smooth

Includes new data and data from Asano (1962), Blot (1978), Böhlke (1957), Castle (1960, 1963, 1968, 1988, 1995), Castle & Paxton (1984), Eagderi & Adriaens (2014), Ho et al. (2018), Kanazawa (1958, 1961), Karmovskaya (2006, 2011), Karmovskaya & Smith (2008), Karrer & Smith (1980), Prokofiev (2007), Ramos-Castro et al. (2021), Robins & Robins (1971), Rosenblatt (1967), Smith (1989, 2004, 2018), Smith & Kanazawa (1977), Smith et al. (2018, 2020), Smith & Karmovskaya (2003), Takai (1959).

◀ Fig. 6. Neurocranium of selected conger eel species in dorsal (above) and left lateral (below) view. A: Acromycter perturbator (Parr, 1932), redrawn from Smith (1989); B: Ariosoma balearicum (Delaroche, 1809), redrawn from Smith (1989); C: Bassanago albescens (Barnard, 1923), redrawn from Smith et al. (2020); D: Bathycongrus thysanochilus (Reid, 1934), redrawn from Smith (1989); E: Bathymyrus smithi Castle, 1968, redrawn from Castle (1968); F: Bathyuroconger vicinus (Vaillant, 1888), redrawn from Smith (1989); G: Blachea xenobranchialis Karrer & Smith, 1980, redrawn from Karrer & Smith (1980); H: Chiloconger dentatus (Garman, 1899), redrawn from Smith & Karmovskaya (2003); I: Conger oceanicus (Mitchill, 1818), redrawn from Smith (1989); J: Congriscus megastoma (Günther, 1877), redrawn from Asano (1962); K: Gnathophis bathytopos Smith & Kanazawa, 1977, redrawn from Smith (1989); L: Heteroconger halis (Böhlke, 1957), redrawn from Smith (1989); M: Japonoconger carribeus Smith & Kanazawa, 1977, redrawn from Smith (1989); N: Lumiconger arafura Castle & Paxton, 1984, redrawn from Castle & Paxton (1984); O: Macrocephenchelys branchialis Fowler, 1934, redrawn from Smith (1989); Q: Paraconger caudilimbatus (Poey, 1867), redrawn from Smith (1989); R: Pseudophichthys splendens (Lea, 1913), redrawn from Smith (1989); S: Rhynchoconger gracilior (Ginsburg, 1951(, redrawn from Smith (1989); T: Uroconger syringinus Ginsburg, 1954, redrawn from Smith (1989); U: Xenomystax bidentatus (Reid, 1940), redrawn from Smith (1989).

Compared to the Eocene congrid genera from Monte Bolca *Bolcyrus*, *Paracongroides* and *Voltaconger* and to the Oligocene *Pavelichthys*, *Smithconger* exhibits a substantially different neurocranial morphology (Fig. 7; Table 1), mandible not projecting beyond the upper jaw (Table 1), and different oral jaw teeth arrangement (Table 1). In particular, the neurocranium of *Smithconger* clearly differs from that of *Bolcyrus* (Figs 7A–B) by having a different outline and general proportions, well-developed (vs absent) laterally-directed frontal process, skull roof flattened (vs not flattened) bearing a large and acute sphenotic spine, and supraoc-

cipital crest absent (vs present). In addition, *Bolcyrus* is characterized by mandible projecting anteriorly beyond the upper jaw (Fig. 7C; Table 1) and by a single hypohyal in the hyoid bar (Blot 1978). As far as *Paracongroides* is concerned (Fig. 7F), it clearly differs from *Smithconger* by having jaw teeth arranged in a single row (Table 1; see also Blot 1978). *Pavelichthys* differs from *Smithconger* in having a strut-like lateral ethmoid process and mandible projecting beyond the upper jaw and by lacking laterally-directed frontal processes (Table 1; see also Prokofiev 2007). Finally, *Voltaconger* is characterized by a different neurocranial morphology,

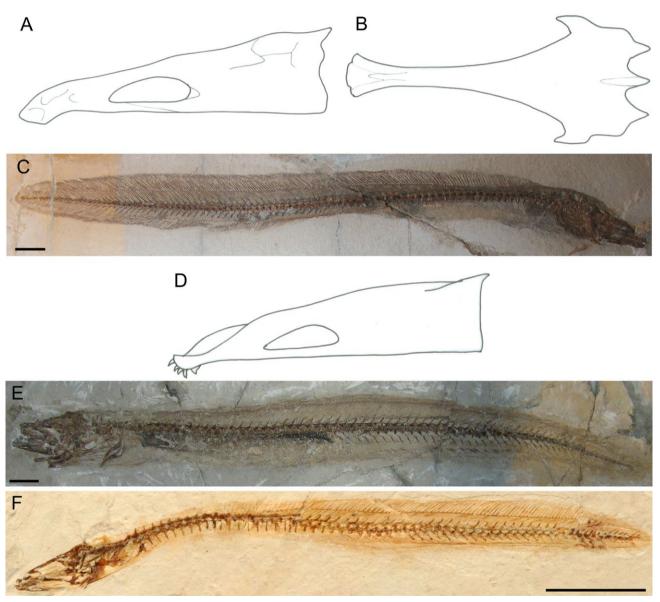


Fig 7. Eocene conger eels from Monte Bolca, Italy. A–C: *Bolcyrus formosissimus* (Eastman, 1905), reconstruction of the neurocranium in left lateral (A, based on MNHN 109609) and dorsal view (B, based on MCSNV IG24496); C: MCSNV T.442, right lateral view. D–E, *Voltaconger latispinus* (Agassiz, 1839); D: reconstruction of the neurocranium in left lateral view; E: NHMUK P17024, left lateral view. F: *Paracongroides heckeli* Blot, 1978, NHMW 1855/VI/70 – A3382, left lateral view. Scale bars 20 mm

which includes the lack of laterally-directed frontal processes and the presence of a supraoccipital crest (Fig. 7D), and by lower jaw projecting anteriorly beyond the upper one (Fig. 7E; Table 1).

The possible subfamilial attribution of these Palaeogene congrid genera was cursorily discussed by Prokofiev (2007), who concluded that Bolcyrus and *Voltaconger* may pertain to the Congrinae, whereas Paracongroides and Pavelichthys belong to the Bathymyrinae. However, while the attribution of *Paracon*groides and Pavelichthys to the Bathymyrinae seems to be reasonably supported by morphological evidence (preanal length of the body exceeding 40% of TL, fin rays not segmented, caudal fin reduced and apparently stiffened, and strut-like lateral ethmoid process in Pavelichthys; Blot 1978, Prokofiev 2007), the attribution of *Bolcyrus* and *Voltaconger* to the Congrinae appears to be much elusive. Both these genera are characterized by mandible projecting anteriorly beyond the upper jaw, plus a suite of generalized features commonly considered as diagnostic of the Congrinae (Smith 1989), including ectopterygoid stout, abdominal vertebrae representing less than 40% of the entire vertebral column, myorhabdoi absent, dorsal- and anal-fin rays segmented, caudal fin not reduced, and pectoral fin well-developed (Blot 1978). Moreover, Voltaconger lacks hypohyals in the hyoid bar, while *Bolcyrus* has a single hypohyal (Blot 1978). As discussed above, Smith (1989) considered the loss of hypohyals as a synapomorphic feature of the congrines, thereby suggesting that Bolcyrus cannot be confidently placed within the Congrinae; according to Johnson *et al.* (2012), however, hypohyals can probably be present in certain congrids. In summary, based on the available data, the subfamilial placement of Bolcyrus and Voltaconger appears to be not fully resolved. In this context, it is interesting to note that these two genera were placed outside the Congridae, associated with the genera of the extinct family Anguilloididae (Anguilloides, Veronanguilla), in the phylogenetic analysis published by Belouze (2002).

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Middle Cambrian (Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage) molluscs and mollusc-like microfossils from North Greenland (Laurentia)

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Diverse assemblages of helcionelloid molluscs and mollusc-like microfossils are described from the upper Henson Gletscher Formation (Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage) of Lauge Koch Land and western Peary Land, North Greenland (Laurentia). The fauna compares closely to an assemblage of similar age from the Coonigan Formation of Australia, although the latter is preserved as silica replicas while the North Greenland fossils are dominantly preserved as phosphatized internal moulds. These internal moulds often retain a detailed impression of the inner surface of the shell, with a fine pitted texture typically present. Prominent deep grooves on the sub-apical surface in the erect helcionellids *Dorispira* and *Erugoconus*, corresponding to ridges on the shell interior, seem to be associated with control of water flow through the mantle cavity. Well-developed shell pores, preserved as tubercles on the internal mould, are common in species of the laterally compressed Mellopegma. New taxa: Dorispira avannga sp. nov., Dorispira septentrionalis sp. nov., Dorispira tavsenensis sp. nov., Dorispira tippik sp. nov., Erugoconus acuminatus gen. et sp. nov., Scenella? siku sp. nov., Sermeqiconus gen. nov., Tavseniconus erectus gen. et sp. nov., Vendrascospira troelseni gen. et sp. nov., Vendrascospira frykmani gen. et sp. nov.

Keywords: Molluscs, Henson Gletscher Formation, Miaolingian Series (Wuliuan Stage), North Greenland, Laurentia.

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It was a surprise when the middle Cambrian microfossil Protowenella was reported from Denmark (Berg-Madsen & Peel 1978) and northernmost Greenland (Peel 1979) shortly after its original description by Runnegar & Jell (1976) from the Coonigan Formation and Currant Bush Limestone (Gowers Formation) in Australia, half a world away. However, since that time, Protowenella and various mollusc-like fossils from the Queensland and New South Wales assemblages described by Runnegar & Jell (1976, 1980) have been widely reported (MacKinnon 1985; Peel 1986, 2021a, b; Brock 1998; Gubanov et al. 2004; Vendrasco 2010, 2011; Kouchinsky et al. 2011). Their distribution demonstrates that the diversity of molluscs in assemblages of small shelly fossils described from the early Cambrian, originally mainly by Russian and Chinese

workers (summaries of extensive literature by Geyer 1986; Bengtson *et al.* 1990; Skovsted 2004; Parkhaev & Demidenko 2010; Parkhaev 2019; Li *et al.* 2021), was maintained into the middle Cambrian (Miaolingian Series).

The present paper describes molluscs and mollusc-like fossils (Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage; *Ptychagnostus gibbus* Zone) from the Henson Gletscher Formation of Lauge Koch Land and western Peary Land, North Greenland (Figs 1, 2). The diverse assemblages (Figs 3–16) are compared with the fauna of the Coonigan Formation of similar age. The Greenland fossils are mainly preserved as phosphatized internal moulds in contrast to the silica replicas of the Coonigan Formation, although phosphatized material has been described from the slightly younger Gowers

Formation (Drumian Stage; Runnegar & Jell 1976; Vendrasco *et al.* 2010, 2011). Numerous macromolluscs ('knock-out' specimens) have been described from the Miaolingian in North America (Geyer 1994 for references), but the present material represents the first substantial small shelly molluscan fauna of this age described from Laurentia.

The affinities of two conspicuous members of the Henson Gletscher Formation assemblage were reinterpreted recently and they are no longer considered to be molluscs, although their morphologies are mollusclike (Fig. 3). Ironically, the isostrophically coiled *Protowenella* was transferred to Hyolitha by Peel (2021a) following the description of an inplace operculum of orthothecid type. The bivalved stenothecoids, which Yochelson (1968, 1969) established as a new class of molluscs, are now accepted as being more closely related to brachiopods on account of their inferred pedicle attachment (Rozov 1984; Johnston 2019; Peel 2021c; Johnston & Streng 2021a).

Anisostrophically coiled shells of pelagiellids are also prominent in the Henson Gletscher Formation assemblage. Pelagiellids are perhaps the most commonly reported and widely distributed mollusc-like small shelly fossils from the Cambrian, with Parkhaev (2001a) noting 30 named species. They have been assigned to various non-molluscan and torted or untorted molluscan groups, as summarized by Thomas *et al.* (2020) and Landing *et al.* (2021), although most modern workers have favoured placement within the molluscs (Kouchinsky *et al.* 2011; Li *et al.* 2017, 2021; Parkhaev 2019).

The remarkable description of bristles (setae) protruding from the aperture in specimens of *Pelagiella exigua* Resser & Howell, 1938 from the Kinzers Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of Pennsylvania prompted Thomas *et al.* (2020) to interpret *Pelagiella* as a mollusc and a member of Total group Gastropoda Cuvier, 1797. However, Landing *et al.* (2021) restricted *Pelagiella* Matthew, 1893 to the type species, *Pelagiella atlantoides* Matthew, 1893 from the Hanford Brook Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of New Brunswick, which they considered to be a mollusc. In a controversial action, Landing *et al.* (2021) interpreted other members of the *Pelagiella* morphological group as annelids. This opinion is not followed here, largely

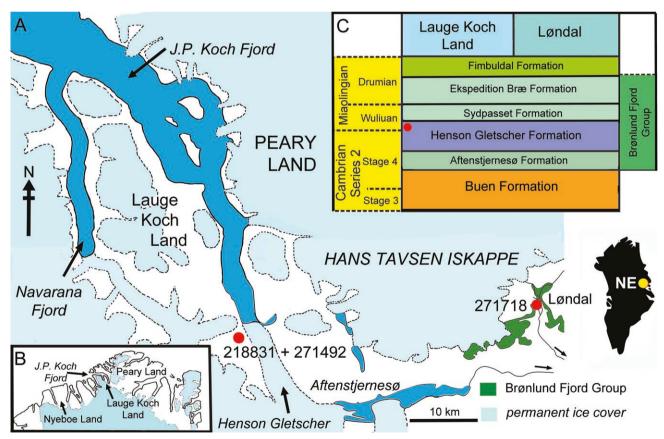


Fig. 1. Locality maps for GGU samples. **A**, southern Lauge Koch Land and Løndal region of southern Peary Land showing sample localities (filled circles), with inset of Greenland indicating North-East Greenland. **B**, overview of northern Greenland. **C**, Cambrian stratigraphy in Lauge Koch Land and Løndal, indicating derivation of GGU samples from the Henson Gletscher Formation (filled circle).

on account of descriptions of shell structure in pelagiellids by Kouchinsky (2000a), Vendrasco *et al.* (2010) and Li *et al.* (2017, 2021).

Geological background

The Henson Gletscher Formation in the Peary Land– Lauge Koch Land region of North Greenland (Fig. 1) is a highly fossiliferous unit within a prograding complex of shelf carbonates and siliciclastic sediments, referred to the Brønlund Fjord Group (Higgins *et al.*)

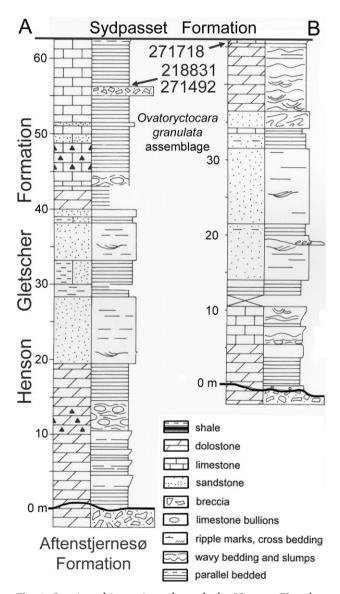


Fig. 2. Stratigraphic sections through the Henson Gletscher Formation at its type section in southern Lauge Koch Land (A) and in Løndal (B) showing derivation of GGU samples (after Jon R. Ineson).

1991; Ineson & Peel 1997; Geyer & Peel 2011; Peel *et al.* 2016). The formation is composed mainly of dark, recessive, bituminous and cherty limestones, dolostones and mudstones, with a middle member of pale fine-grained sandstones (Fig. 2). Thin carbonate debris flows occur sporadically. At its type locality in southern Lauge Koch Land, from which GGU samples 218831 and 271492 were collected, the Henson Gletscher Formation is 62 m thick (Figs 1A, 2A), but it

GGU samples	218831	271492	271718
Phylum uncertain Class Hyolitha Order Orthothecida <i>Protowenella flemingi</i>	•	•	•
Phylum uncertain Class Stenothecoida Stenothecoides cf. elongata Stenothecoides terraglaciei Stenothecella cf. sibirica		•	•
Phylum Mollusca Class uncertain Order Pelagiellida Costipelagiella cf. nevadense		•	•
Class Helcionelloida Dorispira accordionata Dorispira cf. arguta Dorispira avannga		•	•
Dorispira septentrionalis Dorispira tavsenensis Dorispira tippik Dorispira? cf. penecyrano		?	• • •
Erugoconus acuminatus Helcionella? sp. Helcionellid spp. indet. Mellopegma chelata Mellopegma cf. georginense	•	•	•
Mellopegma schizocheras Mellopegma sp. 'Obtusoconus' sp. Parailsanella sp.		•	•
Scenella? siku Sermeqiconus polaris Tavseniconus erectus Vendrascospira troelseni Vendrascospira frykmani	•	•	•

Fig. 3. Faunal list of molluscs and mollusc-like species from the Henson Gletscher Formation, North Greenland, Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

thins to 47 m in Løndal in south-western Peary Land, to the east (Figs 1A, 2B).

Fossil assemblages from the Henson Gletscher Formation in southern Lauge Koch Land and Løndal range in age from Cambrian Series 2 (Stage 4) to the Miaolingian Series (Wuliuan Stage; Ptychagnostus gibbus Biozone), but Drumian Stage strata occur in Nyeboe Land along the northern coast of North Greenland (Higgins et al. 1991; Robison 1994; Blaker & Peel 1997; Ineson & Peel 1997; Geyer & Peel 2011; Fig. 1B). Trilobite faunas from the Henson Gletscher Formation have a dominantly Laurentian character but the assemblages include agnostoids and taxa that are important for international correlation with Siberia, the Altai Sayan foldbelt and South China (Blaker & Peel 1997; Geyer & Peel 2011). Elements of the diverse associated fauna were described by Clausen & Peel (2012), Peel et al. (2016) and Peel (2017, 2019, 2021c).

Derivation of samples. GGU samples 218831 and 271492 were collected at 56.5 m above the base of the Henson Gletscher Formation (thickness 62 m) at its type locality in Lauge Koch Land, in scours on the top of a 1 m thick mass flow deposit (82°10′N, 40°24′W; Ineson & Peel 1997, fig. 31; Geyer & Peel 2011, fig. 3; Figs 1A, 2A). GGU sample 218831 was collected by Peter Frykman on 24th June 1979; processed weight about 200 g. GGU sample 271492 was collected by J.S. Peel on 25th June 1978; processed weight about 2 kg.

GGU sample 271718 was collected by J.S. Peel on 15th July 1978 from a thin-bedded, phosphatized, dark dolomitic limestone occurring about 1 m below the top of the formation on the west side of Løndal (82°18′N, 37°03′W; Clausen & Peel 2012, fig. 1; Figs 1C, 2B), where the formation has thinned to 47 m. About 5 kg of limestone were processed.

Material. Specimens were hand-picked from wet sieved residues of limestone dissolved in 10% acetic acid prior to examination and imaging of selected specimens by scanning electron microscopy. The initial images were assembled in Adobe Photoshop CS4.

Preservation. Almost all examined specimens recovered from the acid residues are phosphatic internal moulds that display details of the inner surface of the original shell with great fidelity (Fig. 4A–C,E,G). The apertural margin is rarely preserved, indicating that phosphatization was usually confined to the earlier growth stages of the shell. The moulds have thin walls, with a granular or spherulitic inner surface, and the inner cavity is generally filled with phosphatized sediment (Fig. 4A). Exceptionally, encrustation on the shell exterior, in conjunction with the internal mould, provides an indication of the thickness of the

dissolved calcareous shell (Figs 4H, 5D). However, the shell itself is not preserved and phosphatized details of its internal structure, as described by Kouchinsky (2000a, b) and Vendrasco *et al.* (2010, 2011), generally are not known. Rare specimens retain patches of phosphatized shell attached to the internal mould that show details of the ornamentation of the shell exterior such as fine spiral ribs and comarginal growth lines not usually visible on the internal moulds (Figs 4F,H,I, 5G). Transverse rugae are more acutely presented on the shell exterior than in corresponding internal moulds (Fig. 4F,H,I). As noted by Runnegar (1985, fig. 1) and Skovsted (2004, figs 3M,N,5R), rugae on internal moulds are not always expressed on the shell exterior in helcionelloids, as is also the case with the circumbilical channels on internal moulds of Protowenella (Fig. 5A-D).

Internal structures

Features of the surface of internal moulds include muscle scars (Fig. 6A,B,E,F) and a complex of spiral grooves and associated transverse segments deeply impressed into the subapical surface of several helcionelloids (Fig. 4A–C,E–H). Tubercles representing pores in the shell are characteristic of *Mellopegma* Runnegar & Jell, 1976 (Fig. 14), while development of a finely pitted surface is widespread (Figs 10L, 16D).

Spiral ridge and groove complex

Grooves on the sub-apical surface of internal moulds, corresponding to ridges on the internal surface of the helcionelloid shell, were described by Runnegar & Jell (1976) and Peel (1991a, fig. 23) in silicified specimens of Dorispira merino (Runnegar & Jell, 1976) from the Coonigan Formation of New South Wales. Similar structures were reported in Miaolingian material from Utah by Robison (1964) and by Hu et al. (2021) from China. Two deep grooves on the internal mould are usually present, but some specimens show four grooves that may even be flanked by a third, discontinuous pair (Fig. 4A,C). Peel (1991a) noted that the grooves appear suddenly on the sub-apical surface of the internal mould (Fig. 4A), were often L- or T-shaped in cross-section (Fig. 4E) and terminated just within the apertural margin (Fig. 4I). Runnegar & Jell (1976) and Peel (1991a) concluded that the ridges reflected folding in the mantle that probably helped control water currents to the mantle cavity. This function may parallel, or be partially equivalent to, the development of a snorkel on the subapical surface in yochelcionellid helcionelloids (Peel 1991a, 2006). However, the surface of the internal mould in the area between the

innermost pair of grooves often carries numerous transverse grooves representing ridges on the shell interior that intuitively are difficult to reconcile with the notion of control of longitudinal folding attributed to the larger spiral ridges (Fig. 4A,C, 9C-E). Large pits set into the finely pitted texture of the internal mould of some specimens, on the lateral surfaces of the shell adjacent to the ridges, appear to represent diagenetic crystal growth on the shell interior (Figs 4F,G).

Parkhaev (2000) rejected the mantle control function and suggested that the ridges and separating channels served to steer and support muscle threads that were attached to the shell in the sub-apical region, drawing comparison with the columellar folds of many gastropods. Such a function implies substantial extension of the soft parts beyond the shell margin in the subapical region since there would be little need for extensive muscle control if soft parts were restricted to the inner part of the shell without extension and withdrawal. Extension and withdrawal of the head-foot complex into the shell is a general

adaptation against predation in heliciform gastropods but in cap-shaped forms, such as patelliform gastropods, tryblidiids and probably most helcionelloids, the soft parts do not extend substantially beyond the apertural margin and defence is achieved by clamping the shell down against the substrate. Restriction of the supposed muscle channels to the sub-apical surface does not suggest effective clamping at the supra-apical margin, but this would not be required in a model where soft parts were withdrawn into the shell. However, withdrawal would require that the principal muscle scars were attached deep within the shell, as in most heliciform gastropods and the morphologically similar isostrophic bellerophontoids (Peel 1976, 1982, 1991a, 1993, 2004), whereas the ridges on the shell interior in the present material terminate almost at the apertural margin (Figs 4H, 9E).

Circumbilical channels on the internal mould are a diagnostic character of Protowenella (Berg-Madsen & Peel 1978). The broad, rounded thickenings of the internal shell wall are distinct from the acute ridges

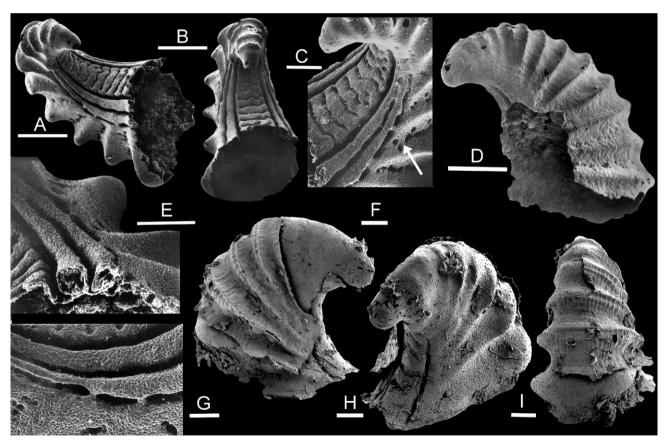


Fig. 4. Preservation of helcionelloids from the upper Henson Gletscher Formation, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage. A-E, G: Dorispira tippik sp. nov., MGUH 19561 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal, internal mould with details of groove complex on subapical surface. Arrow (C) indicates diagenetic crystal growth on shell interior. D: Dorispira accordionata (Runnegar & Jell, 1976), PMU 39172 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land, phosphatic composite replica with trace of apical termination of spiral groove. F, H, I: PMU 39173 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal, internal mould with patches of thin phosphate encrustation formed on the outer surface preserving ornamentation. Scale bars: 500 µm (A, B), 400 µm (D), 200 µm (C, E), 100 µm (F-I).

seen in Dorispira. The channels in Protowenella were interpreted as possible sinuses in the apertural margin that might be related to inhalant currents entering the mantle cavity (Berg-Madsen & Peel 1978). Peel (2021a) noted that the channels did not result in sinuses on the outer shell surface and discounted a relationship to mantle currents. He suggested that the broad circumbilical thickenings may have acted as a support for the internal margin of the operculum, which also may have hinged against the termination of the ridges on opening. Peel (2021a) compared the channels on the internal mould of Protowenella to longitudinal furrows developed on the dorsal surface of some hyoliths (Malinky 2002; Marek et al. 1997).

There are only few published descriptions of muscle scars in helcionelloids. Parkhaev (2002) described muscle attachment scars on the supra-apical surface of Bemella Missarzhevsky in Rozanov & Missarzhevsky, 1966 and on the sub-apical surface of Anhuiconus microtuberus Zhou & Xiao, 1984, but these are low shells that expand rapidly in the direction of growth without sub-apical ridges. Li et al. (2021) described well preserved muscle scars in Figurina figurina Parkhaev, 2001a, which also has a low shell. Vendrasco et al. (2010) described a pair of muscle scars near the apex on the supra-apical surface of Yochelcionella snorkorum Vendrasco, Porter, Kouchinsky, Li & Fernandez, 2010 from the Miaolingian Gowers Formation of Australia, which is a tall shell but also lacks the ridges on the sub-apical surface.

Columellar folds in marine gastropods are often associated with burrowing high-spired forms at the present day (Signor & Kat 1984), but not exclusively so (Vermeij 2017). While some helcionelloids develop strong lateral compression that suggests a semi-infaunal mode of life (Gubanov et al. 1999; Peel 1991a), the wider aperture in most forms, including the present material, and often slightly flared margins are inconsistent with burrowing. A study of columellar muscle attachment in neogastropods by Price (2004) suggested that columellar folds did not guide the muscles as the snail extended or withdrew its soft parts.

Terrestrial snails often develop apertural barriers of teeth to resist predation and desiccation (Gittenberger 1994; Sulikowska-Drozd et al. 2014). The restriction of the ridges in the present marine material just to a small segment of the sub-apical apertural margin clearly refutes an effective defensive function in terms of the apertrure as a whole. Predation on helcionelloids was present in Cambrian seas, as documented by injuries described by Skovsted (2004) and Vendrasco et al. (2011), and illustrated here (Figs 7D,G, 14F).

The presence of the sub-apical ridges in such morphologically diverse taxa as the various species of the strongly rugose *Dorispira* (Figs 4, 7–9) and the smooth Erugoconus gen. nov. (Fig. 16F-K) may suggest that these forms comprise a distinct phylogenetic group of Miaolingian helcionelloids. However, it is considered premature to formalize such a step, with reference to the conclusions of Price (2004) that columellar folds in neogastropods evolved convergently on several occasions and that their function is not understood. The nature of the adaptation in helcionelloids remains problematic.

Pits, pores and polygons

A large proportion of the examined internal moulds displays a surface pattern of closely spaced fine pits with a diameter of 2–3 μm (Figs 4G, 9D, 10L). Occasionally, the pits are seen to be oriented in rows separated by low ridges (Fig. 14L) or lie centrally within a network of low ridges (Fig. 10D). Often, the apical area of specimens is smooth while the pitted texture is developed on the flanks (Fig. 10E). Bengtson et al. (1990) suggested that similar pits may reflect boring by endoliths, and traces of such activity may be widespread in Cambrian fossils (Runnegar 1985; Stockfors & Peel 2005), but not with the density, fineness and wide distribution seen here.

Vendrasco *et al.* (2010) described a similar pitted structure on internal moulds of molluscs and mollusclike fossils from the Gowers Formation (Drumian) of Australia, which they considered to result from replacement of organic matrix associated with the prismatic microstructure of the shell, or as moulds of the crystal prisms after degradation of the organic meshwork. Li et al. (2021) illustrated similar pitting on internal moulds from the Xinji Formation (Cambrian Series 2) of North China. However, the pitting in some of the illustrated Australian specimens does not appear to show a high degree of correlation with prism boundaries and passes through several foliations (Vendrasco et al. 2010, pl. 4, figs 6-8, pl. 5, fig. 8). Furthermore, the pits are usually circular in cross-section in contrast to the polygonal form of the prisms. Peel (2021c) interpreted somewhat coarser pits in the apical area of juvenile stenothecoids to be the attachment sites of pedicle fibres, but such an interpretation is clearly not applicable to the widely distributed pits of the present context.

Internal moulds of Tavseniconus erectus gen. et sp. nov. (Fig. 16A–D) preserve a zone of larger pits (transverse diameter 5 μ m) near the apertural margin that is set against a background of the fine pits on the flanks of the shell; the apical area is smooth (Fig. 16D). These larger pits slope down and inwards towards the apertural plane, giving them an elliptical shape on the mould surface, whereas the finer background pits penetrate perpendicular to the surface (Fig. 16D).

Internal moulds of Mellopegma show conical to sub-

cylindrical tubercles 5–8 μm in diameter, often with a blunt termination, that represent pores in the shell surface (Fig. 14D,E,I,K). The structures were described in detail by Vendrasco et al. (2011). They may be distributed randomly or follow a comarginal pattern associated with rugae (Fig. 14H). Vendrasco et al. (2011) considered that the pores extended through much or all of the shell wall and noted that similar structures had been described by Kouchinsky (2000a), Parkhaev (2006) and Feng & Sun (2006) in a variety of Cambrian helcionelloids. While some pores opened to the shell exterior, others appear to have been connected with the organic components of the shell structure and periostracum. Vendrasco et al. (2011) noted that the pores in Mellopegma were most similar to those developed in bivalves (Taylor et al. 1969) and suggested that shell pores might be a primitive character of the Phylum Mollusca.

Polygonal structures are widespread on phosphatized internal moulds of Cambrian helcionelloids (Parkhaev 2001; Skovsted 2004) and some may result from diagenesis. Ushatinskaya & Parkhaev (2005) suggested that they may represent imprints of the outer ephithelium of the mantle, and described similar structures in brachiopods, but a detailed review by Vendrasco et al. (2010, p. 125) concluded that the polygonal pattern of raised ridges or shallow grooves in Cambrian molluscs was a reflection of the organic framework of prismatic shell structure. Polygonal structures associated with muscle attachment areas in helcionelloids have been described by Parkhaev (2002), Vendrasco et al. (2010), Vendrasco et al. (2010) and Li et al. (2021).

Polygonal structures are not widely represented in the material from the Henson Gletscher Formation, but a weak pattern of polygonal grooves surrounding convex surfaces 8–10 μm in diameter is visible in some specimens of *Dorispira* and *Vendrascospira* gen. nov. (Figs 8E, H, 12D), comparable to that illustrated by Ushatinskaya & Parkhaev (2005, fig. 3) in Oelandiella korobkovi Vostokova, 1962 from the Tommotian of the Siberian Platform.

Age and faunal comparisons

Robison (1984) determined agnostoids from GGU sample 271492, including Onymagnostus seminula (Whitehouse, 1939), Ptychagnostus gibbus (Linnarsson, 1869) and specimens of Ptychagnostus intermedius (Tullberg, 1880) transitional to P. atavus (Tullberg, 1880), which were considered to be indicative of the Ptychagnostus gibbus Biozone (Wuliuan Stage). Subsequently, the last-named species was re-identified as Ptychagnostus sinicus Lu, 1957 (Ahlberg et al. 2007, p. 713). Poorly preserved agnostoids are present in GGU sample 271718 but this sample is considered to be a correlative of GGU sample 271492 on the basis of its lithostratigraphic position.

Strata of the upper Henson Gletscher Formation deposited during the Wuliuan Stage in Løndal and southern Lauge Koch Land yield diverse assemblages of molluscs and mollusc-like fossils (Figs 3-16). The main difference between the two areas concerns the abundance and diversity of Dorispira Parkhaev in Parkhaev & Demidenko, 2010 in GGU sample 271718 from Løndal relative to the samples from southern Lauge Koch Land. The mollusc faunas from the two areas are not closely similar, but this may result from the rarity of many individual taxa. Mollusc-like taxa such as Protowenella and stenothecoids occur in both

Molluscs are less conspicuous in a fauna from the Ovatoryctocara granulata assemblage (Cambrian Series 2, uppermost Stage 4) of the Henson Gletscher Formation in Løndal that was described by Geyer & Peel (2011) and Peel et al. (2016) from about 13 m below GGU sample 271718 (Fig. 2B). The assemblage lacks the abundant specimens of *Dorispira* that characterize GGU sample 271718. Helical shells of pelagiellids are conspicuous in both faunas. Yochelcionella Runnegar & Pojeta, 1974 is well represented in the lower assemblage, where it occurs together with Capitoconus Skovsted, 2004 and Mellopegma simesi (MacKinnon, 1985), but all three are absent from the Wuliuan assemblage. Rare specimens of Mellopegma sp. (Peel et al. 2016, fig. 13N) may be referred tentatively to Mellopegma georginense Runnegar & Jell, 1976, which is also present in GGU sample 271718. Coreospira sp. of Peel et al. (2016, fig. 14N, O), a rare constituent of the Ovatoryctocara granulata assemblage, was considered to more closely resemble Igorella Missarzhevsky in Rozanov et al., 1969 by Oh et al. (2021).

As in GGU sample 271718, an abundance of *Dorispira* is characteristic of the silicified fauna of the First Discovery Limestone (Coonigan Formation) of New South Wales (Runnegar & Jell 1976) of probable Ordian age, considered to be earliest middle Cambrian by Runnegar & Jell (1976), but late Cambrian Stage 4 by Geyer (2019). Percival et al. (2011) suggested that the formation was of slightly younger age (Templetonian Stage) but the age was regarded as uncertain, possibly Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4, by Smith et al. (2015, p. 44). The Coonigan Formation has also yielded three species of Yochelcionella but this genus is not known from the current Greenland material. However, Yochelcionella gracilis Atkins & Peel, 2004 occurs in Løndal within the Ovatoryctocara granulata assemblage (Cambrian Series 2, uppermost Stage 4) of the Henson Gletscher Formation and may be compared closely with *Yochelcionella ostentata* Runnegar & Jell, 1976 from the Coonigan Formation. The orthothecid hyolith *Protowenella* occurs in the Coonigan Formation and the current material from the Henson Gletscher Formation (Peel 2021a).

Mellopegma georginense Runnegar & Jell, 1976, from the Currant Bush Limestone (Gowers Formation) of the Georgina Basin, Australia (Runnegar & Jell 1976; Vendrasco et al. 2010) is tentatively identified from GGU sample 271718. In both areas, it occurs together with Mellopegma schizocheras Vendrasco, Kouchinsky, Porter & Fernandez, 2010, although the Australian occurrences are of Drumian age, compared to the Wuliuan material from the Henson Gletscher Formation in North Greenland. Protowenella flemingi Runnegar & Jell, 1976 and Pseudomyona queenslandica (Runnegar & Jell, 1976) also occur in the Currant Bush Limestone (Runnegar & Jell 1976). The former is present in the Wuliuan part of the Henson Gletscher Formation in North Greenland (Figs 3, 5A-D; Peel 2021b), whereas Pseudomyona Runnegar, 1983 occurs in the Ekspedition Bræ and Fimbuldal formations (Drumian) of North Greenland (Peel 2021b; Fig. 1C). Yochelcionella and Eotebenna Runnegar & Jell, 1976 occur in the Coonigan and Gowers formations (Runnegar & Jell 1976; Vendrasaco et al. 2010). While both genera occur in Cambrian Stage 4 strata of the Henson Gletscher Formation (Atkins & Peel 2004, 2008; Peel 1989; Peel et al. 2016), they are not recorded from the Wuliuan part of the Henson Gletscher Formation.

Brock (1998) described *Dorispira accordionata* (Runnegar & Jell, 1976) from Miaolingian limestone blocks within the Murrawong Creek Formation of New South Wales, associated with *Protowenella* and pelagiellids. A species assigned to *Mellopegma* is similar to *Mellopegma chelata* (Skovsted, 2006b) from GGU sample 271718. *Yochelcionella* described by Brock (1998) is not recorded from the present material but occurs in older and younger strata in North Greenland (Peel *et al.* 2016).

A diverse fauna of helcionelloids from Morocco and Spain was described by Geyer (1986). Moroccan material derived from the *Morocconus notabilis* and *Ornamentaspis frequens* biozones, corresponding to Cambrian Series 2, latest Stage 4 and the earliest Wuliuan Stage, respectively, contains *Marocella* Geyer, 1986, *Eotebenna* Runnegar & Jell, 1976 and *Yochelcionella* that are not represented in the current material from Greenland. *Protowenella*, pelagiellids and *Tavseniconus erectus* gen. et sp. nov. are present in both faunas. Strongly rugose helcionellids are common in both, although lower-shelled forms are more conspicuous in Morocco.

A silicified fauna derived from the Kuonamka Formation (upper Cambrian Stage 4–lower Drumian Stage) of northern Siberia shares *Costipelagiella* Horný, 1964 and *Protowenella* with the Henson Gletscher Formation (Gubanov *et al.* 2004; Kouchinsky *et al.* 2011), as well as *Pseudomyona queenslandica* (Runnegar & Jell, 1976) that occurs in Greenland in the Ekspedition Bræ Formation of Drumian age (Peel 2021b; Fig. 1C).

Systematic palaeontology

Institutional abbreviations and repositories. GGU prefix indicates a sample collected by Grønlands Geologiske Undersøgelse (Geological Survey of Greenland), now part of the Geological Survey of Denmark and Greenland (GEUS), Copenhagen, Denmark. Specimen repositories: Natural History Museum of Denmark, Copenhagen (MGUH prefix); Museum of Evolution, Uppsala University, Sweden (PMU prefix).

Unless otherwise stated, all figured specimens are derived from the upper Henson Gletscher, Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage, *Ptychagnostus gibbus* Biozone in Lauge Koch Land (GGU samples 218831 and 271492) or Løndal (GGU sample 271718) and located in Figs 1–3.

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Phylum uncertain

Class Hyolitha Marek, 1963 Order Orthothecida Marek, 1966

Family Protowenellidae Peel, 2021a

Genus Protowenella Runnegar & Jell, 1976

Type species. Protowenella flemingi Runnegar & Jell, 1976, Currant Bush Limestone (Gowers Formation), Queensland, Australia, Miaolingian Series, Drumian Stage.

Protowenella flemingi **Runnegar & Jell, 1976** Fig. 5A–D

1976 *Protowenella flemingi* Runnegar & Jell, p. 133, fig. 6B–K.

1978 *Protowenella flemingi*; Berg-Madsen & Peel, p. 119, figs 4C–E, 6.

2021 Protowenella flemingi; Li et al., p. 556, fig. 25a-j.

2021a *Protowenella flemingi*; Peel, figs 3, 4 (includes additional citations).

Figured material. PMU 39329 from GGU sample 218831 and PMU 39333 from GGU sample 271492, southern Lauge Koch Land; PMU 38330, PMU 38331 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Other material. More than 100 additional specimens

from GGU samples 271492 and 271718.

Discussion. Following its original description from Drumian strata in Queensland by Runnegar & Jell (1976), *Protowenella* was redefined by Berg-Madsen & Peel (1978) on the basis of a specimen from Bornholm

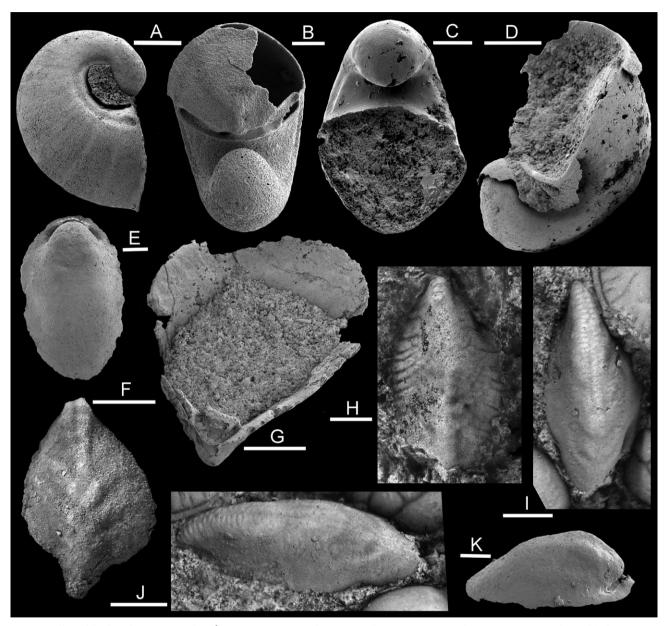


Fig. 5. Mollusc-like fossils, Henson Gletscher Formation, Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage; internal moulds from GGU sample 271718 unless stated. A–D: *Protowenella flemingi* Runnegar & Jell, 1976. A: PMU 38330, lateral view. B: PMU 39329, apertural view with operculum in place from GGU sample 218331. C: PMU 38331, apertural view. D: PMU 38333 from GGU sample 271492, oblique view of internal mould with phosphatization of external surface at apertural margin. E–G, K: *Stenothecoides terraglaciei* Peel, 2021b. E: PMU 38317 from GGU sample 271492, juvenile in plan view showing transverse sub-apical groove. F: PMU 38310. G: PMU 38322, holotype, internal view of ventral valve. K: PMU 38320 from GGU sample 271492, juvenile in lateral view showing sub-apical groove. H: *Stenothecoides* cf. *elongata* (Walcott, 1884), MGUH 33948 from GGU sample 271492 with lateral grooves on surface of internal mould. I, J: *Stenothecolla* cf. *sibirica* Aksarina in Aksarina & Pelman, 1978, MGUH 33949 from GGU sample 271492, in plan (I) and oblique lateral (J) views. Scale bars: 1 mm (G), 100 μm (A, C–E, K), 50 μm (B).

to include the diagnostic circumbilical channels on the internal mould (Fig. 5A-C). It was reported from the Henson Gletscher Formation (GGU sample 271718) by Peel (1979). The history of research and phylogenetic placement of the genus were reviewed by Peel (2021a) who transferred Protowenella to Class Hyolitha on account of the presence of an in-place operculum of orthothecid type. Protowenella is widely distributed in Cambrian Series 2 and the Miaolingian Series (Wuliuan and Drumian stages).

Phylum uncertain

Class Stenothecoida Yochelson, 1968

Discussion. The bivalved stenothecoids were established as a new class of molluscs by Yochelson (1968, 1969) but their inferred pedicle attachment to the substrate promotes a closer relationship to brachiopods (Rozov 1984; Johnston 2019; Peel 2021c; Johnston & Streng 2021a). Rozov (1984) proposed a Phylum Stenothecata.

Genus Stenothecoides Resser, 1938

Type species. Stenotheca elongata Walcott, 1884, Eureka District, Nevada, Miaolingian Series, late Wuliuan Stage.

Stenothecoides cf. elongata (Walcott, 1884) Fig. 5H

1954 Stenothecoides cf. S. elongata; Rasetti, p. 63, pl. 11, figs 6–10, pl. 12 figs 1–4.

1957 Stenothecoides cf. S. elongata; Rasetti, p. 972, pl. 12, figs 1, 2.

1969 Stenothecoides cf. elongata; Yochelson, p. 55, fig. 4A-C.

2021c Stenothecoides cf. elongata; Peel, p. 390, fig. 7.

Figured material. MGUH 33948 from GGU sample 271492, internal mould, Lauge Koch Land.

Discussion. Stenothecoides cf. S. elongata is rare in GGU sample 271492, but the distinctive grooves on the internal mould, corresponding to ridges on the interior surface of the shell, perpendicular to the margin (Fig. 5H) compare well with material from the Mount Whyte Formation of British Columbia (Rasetti 1954; Yochelson 1969; Peel 2021c).

Stenothecoides terraglaciei Peel, 2021c Fig. 5E-G, K

2021c Stenothecoides terraglaciei Peel, p. 388, figs 4-6.

Figured material. PMU 38317 and PMU 38320 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land; PMU 38310 and PMU 38322 (holotype) from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Discussion. Stenothecoides terraglaciei is common in GGU sample 271718. Internal moulds of numerous juveniles in GGU sample 271492, associated with rare specimens of Stenothecoides cf. S. elongata, cannot be distinguished from similarly preserved specimens in GGU sample 271718 and are therefore referred collectively to Stenothecoides terraglaciei (Peel 2021c).

Genus Stenothecella Aksarina in Aksarina & Pelman, 1978

Type species. Stenothecella sibirica Aksarina in Aksarina & Pelman, 1978, Kuznetsk Alatau, Altai-Sayan foldbelt, Siberia; Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4.

Stenothecella cf. sibirica Aksarina in Aksarina & Pelman, 1978

Fig. 5I, J

2021c Stenothecella cf. sibirica; Peel, p. 391, fig. 8.

Figured material. MGUH 33949 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land.

Discussion. The series of small muscle scars along the supra-apical surface of a well-preserved internal mould from GGU sample 271492 (Fig. 5I,J) compares well with the species described by Aksarina & Pelman (1978) from Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4, in Siberia (Peel 2021c). Several incomplete phosphatized internal moulds are also known from GGU sample 271718.

Phylum Mollusca Cuvier, 1797

Class uncertain

Order Pelagiellida MacKinnon, 1985

Genus Costipelagiella Horný, 1964

Type species. Costipelagiella zazvorkai Horný, 1964, Skryje Formation, Czech Republic; Cambrian, Miaolingian Series.

Costipelagiella cf. nevadense Skovsted, 2006b Fig. 6

Figured material. PMU 39174 – PMU 39178, PMU 39180

from GGU sample 271718, Løndal. PMU 39179 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land.

Discussion. Costipelagiella cf. nevadense is common in GGU sample 271718, but rare in GGU sample 271492. The material from the Henson Gletscher Formation resembles material from the upper Emigrant Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of Nevada described by Skovsted (2006b) in the presence of well-developed comarginal ribs on the upper whorl surface (Fig. 6C,D,I), whereas such ribs are limited to the whorl periphery and base in the type species illustrated by Horný (1964, pl. 2, figs 1-3). Specimens assigned to Costipelagiella by MacKinnon (1985) from the Tasman Formation of New Zealand are lower spired and have more numerous comarginal ribs.

Internal moulds of pelagiellids are widespread in samples from Cambrian Series 2 and the Miaolingian Series in North Greenland but only rarely preserve traces of external ornamentation. Costipelagiella kochi Peel, 1988 from the Holm Dal Formation (Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Guzhangian Stage) of western Peary Land, North Greenland, has a shell with a less inflated base and a more rounded whorl periphery (Peel 1988, fig. 20). In contrast, most specimens of Costipelagiella from the Henson Gletscher Formation have a flattened upper whorl surface and more angular periphery, although both features are variable. Peel et

al. (2016) reported pelagiellids with a fine reticulate ornamentation from the Henson Gletscher Formation in Løndal (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) about 12 m below GGU sample 271718. Skovsted (2004) described well preserved specimens from Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4, in North-East Greenland with sub-spiral ribs forming a deep V-shaped pattern at the whorl periphery, unlike the simple comarginal ribs of Costipelagiella (Fig. 6C,D).

A pelagiellid from the Kuonamka Formation of Siberia, which Kouchinsky et al. (2011) compared to Costipelagiella zazvorkai Horný, 1964, shows comarginal corrugation seen in the illustrated Henson Gletscher Formation specimens (Fig. 6) but it differs in the greater height of the aperture.

Internal moulds from GGU sample 271718 often preserve a muscle scar at the suture with the previous whorl (Fig. 6A(arrow), B(arrow), E, J). Traces of euendolithic borings within the original calcareous shell are often visible as cord-like ridges on the internal mould (Fig. 6J, arrows).

Class Helcionelloida Peel, 1991b

Diagnosis. Emended by Geyer et al. (2019, p. 212): 'Generally bilaterally symmetrical univalves in which the calcareous shell is usually coiled through up to several whorls; the whorls may be in contact or open coiled and are often laterally compressed. The aperture is

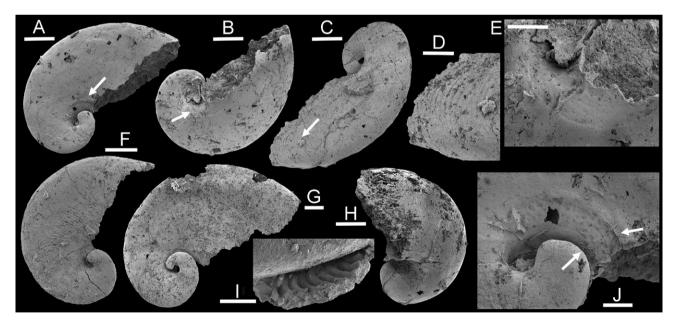


Fig. 6. Costipelagiella cf. nevadense Skovsted, 2006b, Henson Gletscher Formation, Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage; internal moulds from GGU sample 271718 in Løndal unless stated. A, J: PMU 39174, apical view with arrow in A showing location of muscle scar (J); arrows in J show infilling of euendolithic borings. B, E: PMU 39175, umbilical surface showing detail of muscle scar (E). C, D: PMU 39176, oblique apical view with arrow in C locating detail of comarginal ribs (D). F: PMU 39177, apical view with traces of transverse ornamentation. G: PMU 39178, apical view. H: PMU 39179 from GGU sample 271492 from Lauge Koch Land, umbilical view. I: PMU 39180, showing impression of comarginal ribs from external surface. Scale bars: 200 µm (A-C, F, G), $100 \mu m$ (D, E, H), $50 \mu m$ (I, J).

oval, without re-entrant, but the sub-apical surface may develop a median sinus which in some taxa is deep and slit-like or trematose, with a single perforation at the end of an elongate tube termed the snorkel. In some forms, the lateral areas of the aperture may become prosocyrt, extended into weak lateral fields and producing broad emarginations in both the supra-apical and sub-apical surfaces astride the plane of symmetry. Ornamentation may include both comarginal and spiral elements; prominent comarginal rugae are common (modified from Peel 1991)'.

Discussion. There is no general agreement concerning the placement of helcionelloids in molluscan systematics. A series of papers by Parkhaev (2001a, b, 2002, 2017, 2019), Parkhaev & Demidenko 2010 and Parkhaev in Bouchet et al. (2017) has proposed that they should be placed as a separate Order Helcionelliformes Golikov & Starobogatov, 1989 (= Order Helcionelloida sensu Golikov & Starobogatov 1975) within the gastropod Subclass Archaeobranchia Parkhaev, 2001a, despite their interpreted untorted anatomy. Bellerophonts, a group of isostrophically coiled molluscs (Peel 1991a, b; Frýda 1999; Harper & Rollins 2000; Frýda *et al.* 2008; Ponder et al. 2020) often considered to be gastropods or untorted relatives of helcionelloids (or a polyphyletic grouping of both) were placed in a separate gastropod subclass by Parkhaev in Bouchet et al. (2017). Geyer et al. (2019) did not accept Parkhaev's archaeobranchian thesis and instead supported an opposing view that helcionelloids formed a Class Helcionelloida Peel, 1991b of untorted molluscs (Peel 1991a, 1991b; Jacquet & Brock 2016; Li et al. 2021), which is followed here. Discussion of other proposals and a historical review were given by Peel (1991a) and Ponder et al. (2020).

Missarzhevsky (1989, p. 171) proposed a new Order Eomonoplacophora for exogastric monoplacophorans without the muscle scars characteristic of Tryblidium Lindström, 1880, Pilina Koken & Perner, 1925 and their relatives. However, muscle scars are now known in several helcionelloid or helcionelloid-like genera (Rasetti 1954; Geyer 1994; Parkhaev 2002; Vendrasco et al. 2011; Li et al. 2021). Peel (1991a) generally accepted the content of Eomonoplacophora as helcionelloids but rejected the interpretation as exogastric and maintained the concept of Class Helcionelloida Peel, 1991b as endogastric molluscs. Eomonoplacophora has not gained widespread acceptance. However, Parkhaev in Bouchet et al. (2017) elevated Eomonoplacophora to a subclass of Class Monoplacophora Knight, 1952 but retained within it only one family (Maikhanellidae Missarzhevsky, 1989) of the eight families originally placed there by Missarzhevsky (1989, table 2). Most of the other seven families were considered to be gastropods of Subclass Archaeobranchia Parkhaev, 2001a (Parkhaev 2001a, 2002; Bouchet *et al.* 2017, p. 368, footnote 6) and placed within Order Helcionelliformes.

Parkhaev (2002) gave a detailed and valuable overview of the families and their included genera that he placed within Order Helcionelliformes (gastropod Class Archaeobranchia). Later versions were given by Bouchet *et al.* (2017) and Parkhaev (2019). Despite differences in the naming, content and placement of constituent families, most core genera are common to Eomonoplacophora *sensu* Missarzhevsky (1989), Helcionelloida (Peel, 1991a, b) and Helcionelliformes *sensu* Parkhaev (2001a, 2002).

Note on terminology. At numerous places in their text, Parkhaev & Demidenko (2010, pp. 1051, 1053, 1054) referred to the described helcionelloid genera as not having a 'planospiral' shell. The term is used also by Parkhaev (2017). Their meaning of planospiral is indicated by Parkhaev & Demidenko (2010, p. 1029) as "... shell does not form a complete whorl, so that the shell is not planospiral", which appears to indicate that planospiral reflects the degree of coiling (through at least one complete whorl) of a shell coiled in a single plane. 'Planospiral' is thus not synonymous in the usage of Parkhaev & Demidenko (2010) with the widely used 'planispiral' that means a shell coiled within a single plane, irrespective of the number of whorls (Knight et al. 1960, p. I132, see also Parkhaev 2000, 2001a). Such planispiral shells are not necessarily bilaterally symmetrical about that plane, but if so, they are described as isostrophic. Neither planospiral nor planispiral were used in Parkhaev (2019). Planospiral is sometimes used mainly in older literature as a synonym of planispiral in molluscs and foraminiferans, e.g. Cushman (1910). Planospiral is not used herein, where the degree of coiling is given as fractions of a shell whorl. This is less than a full revolution in most helcionelloids, but in a few forms such as Coreospira Saito, 1936 more than a full whorl may be present (Oh et al. 2021).

Family Helcionellidae Wenz, 1938

Genus *Dorispira* Parkhaev *in* Parkhaev & Demidenko, 2010

Type species. Helcionella terraustralis Runnegar & Jell, 1976 from the Coonigan Formation of New South Wales, Australia; Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Dorispira accordionata (Runnegar & Jell, 1976) Figs 4D, 7A, E, F, J, N

1976 Latouchella accordionata Runnegar & Jell, p. 126, fig. 10C.1–C.18.

1998 Latouchella accordionata; Brock, p. 576, fig. 3.4–3.6.
 2010 Dorispira accordionata; Parkhaev in Parkhaev & Demidenko, 2010, p. 1060.

Figured material. PMU 39172 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land. PMU 339181 – PMU 39184 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Description. Tall, laterally compressed, isostrophic shell coiled through half to two thirds of a whorl with a rectangular aperture, numerous prominent angular comarginal rugae and fine spiral threads. The shell exterior is preserved in a single specimen from GGU sample 271492 (Fig. 4D) but all other specimens are internal moulds in which the comarginal rugae are more rounded in crosssection (Fig. 7A,E,F,J,N). Specimens vary in curvature from tightly coiled, in which the apex substantially overhangs the sub-apical margin, as preserved (Fig. 7F), to tall, relatively slender forms (Fig. 7J). In the internal mould, the rounded apex is delimited by a shallow constriction from later growth stages (Fig. 7J). Two deep spiral grooves representing sharp ridges on the shell interior are present on the sub-apical surface in the latest half whorl, as preserved (Fig. 7A,F).

Discussion. Dorispira accordionata is abundant in GGU sample 271718. Specimens similar in shape to the slender form (Fig. 7J) were described by Brock (1998) from the Murrawong Creek Formation (Drumian Stage) of New South Wales. The sub-apical margin is extended in the larger silicified specimens illustrated by Runnegar & Jell (1976, fig. 10C) from the Coonigan Formation such that the apex does not extend beyond it. Dorispira pearylandica (Peel, 1988) from the Holm Dal Formation (Guzhangian Stage) of western Peary Land has a lower rate of whorl expansion.

Specimens from the Top Springs Limestone and Gum River Formation (Ordian Stage; Cambrian Stage 4–Wuliuan Stage) of Northern Territory, Australia, illustrated by Kruse (1991, 1998) often show a greater degree of coiling and more widely spaced comarginal rugae than material from North Greenland here referred to Dorispira accordionata (Fig. 7E,F,J,N). In this respect they more closely resemble *Dorispira tippik* sp. nov. (Fig. 7M,O,R). Kruse (1998) noted that the comarginal rugae often did not cross over the mid-dorsum in specimens from the Gum River Formation, a feature he attributed to erosion or exfoliation. Gubanov & Peel (1998) noted that restriction of prominent rugae to the lateral areas was the diagnostic feature of Latouchella Cobbold, 1921 from the Comley Limestone (Cambrian Stage 2) of Shropshire, England, although the name has been extensively applied to rugose Cambrian helcionelloids.

Tall specimens identified as *Oelandiella* cf. *accordionata* were described from the Tsinghsutung Formation (Cambrian Stage 4) of Guizhou, South China by Yang *et al.* (2012) and from the Miaolingian of Henan Province, North China by Hu *et al.* (2021) without reference to the establishment of *Dorispira* by Parkhaev & Demidenko (2010). The coarse rugae and the form of the aperture suggest placement in *Dorispira tippik* sp. nov., described below.

Dorispira cf. *arguta* (Resser, 1939) Fig. 8A–H

Figured material. PMU 39192 – PMU 39194 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Description. Slowly expanding isostrophic cone coiled through half to two thirds of a whorl, with the uniformly curved supra-apical surface traversed by two broad, shallow constrictions (in available material) on the internal mould prior to the latest growth stage. Aperture subcircular, shell length about twice shell width, with shallow sub-apical fold along the median line. A pair of prominent spiral grooves extends from the first constriction to the aperture on the sub-apical surface of the internal mould, equivalent to sharp ridges on the shell interior. The apex of the internal mould is blunt, rounded, with slightly swollen apex. External ornamentation is not known, but the surface of the internal mould may show a pattern of low, meandering ridges (Fig. 8G,H).

Discussion. The few internal moulds placed here show the same pattern of broad comarginal rugae separated by narrow channels that is characteristic of Dorispira arguta (Resser, 1939) from the Miaolingian of Idaho (Geyer 1994, fig. 4). Type material of Dorispira arguta displays a fine reticulation of growth lines and spiral ridges on the shell exterior, whereas external ornamentation is not known in the Greenland specimens. In contrast, the spiral grooves on the sub-apical surface of the Greenland internal moulds have not been observed in material from Idaho.

The specimens from the Henson Gletscher Formation can be compared to the early growth stages of some specimens of *Dorispira merino* (Runnegar & Jell, 1976) from the Coonigan Formation of New South Wales (Runnegar & Jell 1976). Most illustrated specimens from the Coonigan Formation are silicified specimens that attain a length of about 6 mm, with the shell coiled through a full whorl. The dorsal and lateral areas of the shell surface are ornamented by prominent, pouch-like, transverse rugae, separated by deep channels. However, in the earliest half whorl of a partly exfoliated specimen illustrated by Runnegar

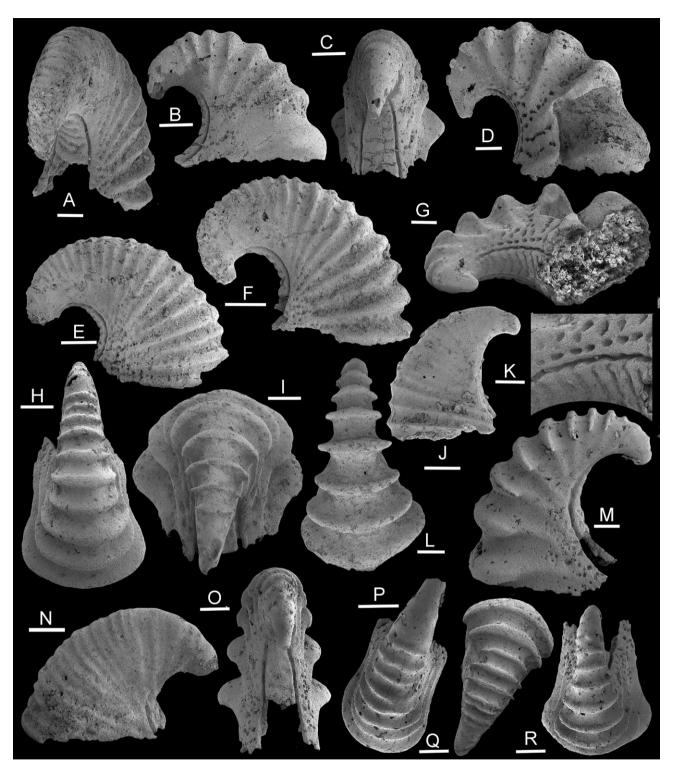


Fig. 7. Dorispira, upper Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, Peary Land, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage; internal moulds from GGU sample 271718. A, E, F, J, N: Dorispira accordionata (Runnegar & Jell, 1976). A, F: PMU 39181, oblique view of sub-apical surface. E: PMU 39182, lateral view. J: PMU 39183, lateral view. N: PMU 39184, lateral view. B, C, D, G–I, K, L, M, O–R: Dorispira tippik sp. nov. B, C; PMU 39185, lateral view (B) and sub-apical view with spiral grooves (C). D, G, K: PMU 39186, lateral view with repaired injury (D), oblique sub-apical view (G) with enlarged detail (K). H: PMU 39187, dorsal view. I, L: PMU 39188, dorsal (I) and supra-apical (L) views. M, O, R: PMU 39189, holotype in lateral (M), sub-apical (O) and dorsal (R) views. P: PMU 39190, dorsal view with concave lateral apertural margins. Q: PMU 39191, dorsal view. Scale bars: 400 μm (E, F, L), 200 μm (A–D, G–J, M–R), 100 μm (K).

& Jell (1976, fig. 9D.3), deep transverse channels on the internal mould are separated by broad transverse lobes that are lower in relief than the prominent lobes of the shell exterior at later growth stages This early stage closely resembles the small specimens (length about 1.3 mm) from the Henson Gletscher Formation (Fig. 8A-G).

Dorispira avannga sp. nov. Fig. 8K-N

Holotype. PMU 39197 from GGU sample 271718, Hen-

son Gletscher Formation, Løndal, western Pearv Land, North Greenland. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Figured material. PMU 39196 from GGU sample 271718.

Diagnosis. Species of Dorispira with a circular aperture and numerous, closely spaced, angular comarginal rugae.

Derivation of name. From the Greenlandic 'avannga' meaning from the north.

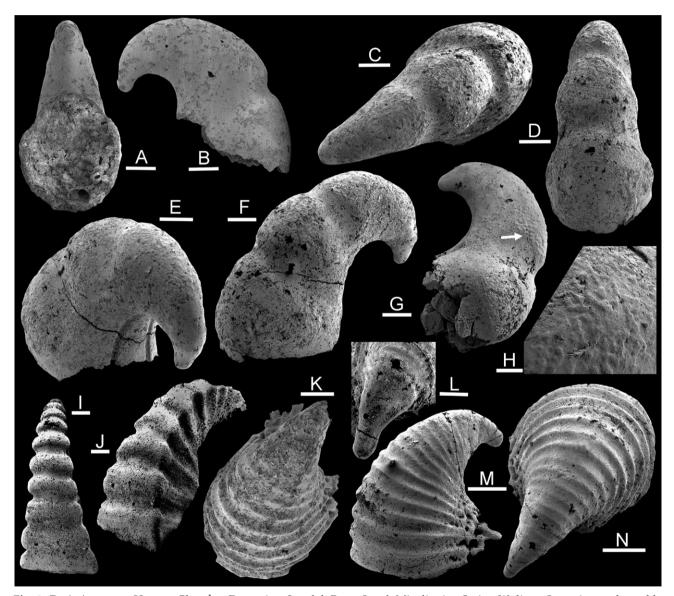


Fig. 8. Dorispira, upper Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, Peary Land, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage; internal moulds from GGU sample 271718. A-H: Dorispira cf. arguta (Resser, 1939). A, B: PMU 39192, apertural and lateral views. C-F: PMU 39193, dorsal (C, D) and oblique lateral (E, F) views. G, H: PMU 39194, lateral view, with detail of surface of internal mould (H, located by arrow in G). I, J: Dorispira tavsenensis sp. nov., PMU 39195, holotype, in dorsal (I) and dorso-lateral (J) views. K-N: Dorispira avannga sp. nov. K: PMU 39196. L-N: PMU 39197, holotype in oblique lateral (M) and dorsal (N) views with detail of early growth stage (L). Scale bars: 200 μm (A–G, I–K, M, N), 100 μm (L), 30 μm (H).

Description. Tall, isostrophic shell, coiled through half to two thirds of a whorl, in which the inflated shell has a circular apertural periphery (Fig. 8N). Supra-apical and lateral areas of the internal mould with numerous closely spaced, uniform, comarginal rugae, which become obscure on the subapical surface; traces of fine spiral ribs in the intervening concave channels. Apex strongly overhanging the sub-apical margin, with earliest growth stage smooth in the internal mould, subcylindrical and slightly constricted prior to transition to the rugose later growth stages (Fig. 8L). Two deep spiral grooves representing sharp ridges on the shell interior are present on the sub-apical surface of the internal mould in the latest half whorl, as preserved.

Discussion. Dorispira avannga sp. nov. is a rare species known only from internal moulds in GGU sample 271718. In terms of the shape and abundance of its comarginal rugae, Dorispira avannga closely resembles Dorispira accordionata. It is distinguished by the more inflated shell, with a circular aperture in plan view (Fig. 8N), when compared to the rectangular aperture of Dorispira accordionata. Dorispira pearylandica from the Holm Dal Formation (Guzhangian) of western Peary Land is more laterally compressed, with a lower rate of whorl expansion (Peel 1988).

Dorispira septentrionalis **sp. nov.** Figs 4F, H, I, 9A–E

Holotype. PMU 39173 from GGU sample 271718, Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, western Peary Land, North Greenland. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Other figured material. PMU 39198 and PMU 39199 from GGU sample 271718.

Derivation of name. From the Latin 'septentrionalis' meaning northern.

Diagnosis. Tall, laterally compressed species of *Dorispira* in which the aperture narrows towards the subapical margin. Ornamentation of coarser comarginal rugae, cords and ribs crossed by spiral ridges.

Description. The aperture in the tall, laterally compressed, isostrophic shell narrows towards the subapical margin. The earliest growth stage is smooth with a round termination, and may be delimited from the later shell by a shallow constriction on the internal mould (Fig. 9B). Comarginal rugae are prominent on the supra-apical and lateral areas of the internal mould but much reduced or absent immediately below the apex. Ornamentation of comarginal cords and ribs

crossed by spiral ridges to form a reticulate pattern. Internal mould with two deep spiral grooves on the sub-apical surface, its surface covered with fine pits (Fig. 9D).

Discussion. Dorispira septentrionalis sp. nov. differs from co-occurring species of Dorispira in terms of its greater lateral compression, with the aperture narrowing towards its sub-apical margin. Dorispira accordionata is distinguished by its more numerous, evenly developed and acute comarginal rugae (Fig. 4D). In silicified specimens of Dorispira merino illustrated from the Coonigan Formation by Runnegar & Jell (1976, fig. 9D), the shell is coiled through a full whorl and the comarginal rugae are more strongly developed, often pouch-like, with shallow emarginations on the lateral areas.

Dorispira tavsenensis sp. nov. Fig. 8I, J

Holotype. PMU 39195, partial internal mould from GGU sample 271718, Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, western Peary Land, North Greenland. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Derivation of name. From Hans Tavsen (Tausen) Iskappe, western Peary Land (Fig. 1A).

Diagnosis. Species of *Dorispira* in which the flattened dorsal surface is perpendicular to the flat or shallowly concave lateral areas. Ornamentation of prominent transverse channels and rugae of similar width, the latter slightly nodose as they cross from the lateral areas to the dorsum.

Description. Isostrophic, laterally compressed, with the flattened dorsal (supra-apical) surface perpendicular to the flat to shallowly concave lateral areas (Fig. 8J). Surface with prominent comarginal rugae separated by deep U-shaped channels, with greatest width at nodes at the junction between the dorsal and lateral surfaces. The nodes create the impression of a spiral ridge on each whorl shoulder emphasised by the intervening channels being deepest close to the transition from the dorsum to the lateral areas. Rugae with fine comarginal cords and obscure spiral lines.

Discussion. Dorispira tavsenensis sp. nov. is known only from rare internal moulds in GGU sample 271718, amongst which the holotype, although broken, most clearly displays the quadratic transverse whorl profile (Fig. 8I, J). Wakayella kandiingi Kruse, 1998 from the Ranken Limestone (Ordian Stage; Cambrian Stage 4–Wuliuan Stage) of Northern Territory, Australia, dis-

plays a similar quadratic dorsal profile, with nodes at the transition from the dorsum to the lateral areas, but differs in its cap-shaped, rapidly expanding, strongly laterally compressed shell (Kruse 1998, fig. 40B).

Coreospira Saito, 1936, originally described from the middle Cambrian of Korea, has a similar quadratic whorl profile but the angulation between the dorsum and lateral areas is marked by a continuous prominent spiral cord (Oh et al. 2021).

Dorispira tippik sp. nov. Figs 4A-C, E, G, 7B, C, D, G-I, K, L. M, O-R

Holotype. PMU 39189 from GGU sample 271718, Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, western Peary Land, North Greenland. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Other figured material. MGUH 19561 and PMU 39185 PMU 39188, PMU 39190 and PMU 39191 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Diagnosis. Species of Dorispira with the tall, laterally compressed shell coiled through about half a whorl and strongly defined comarginal rugae that are raised into turbercles at the transition from the supra-apical surface to the lateral areas.

Derivation of name. From the Greenlandic 'tippik' meaning the transverse supporting ribs of a boat, alluding to the prominent comarginal rugae.

Description. Tall, isostrophic, lateral compressed shell in which the aperture in later growth stages is keyshaped in plan view (Fig. 7H,P,R), with concave lateral areas. Apex of internal mould smooth, sometimes delimited from the later growth stages by a shallow constriction (Fig. 7O). Prominent, but narrow comarginal rugae originate at the junction between the sub-apical and lateral surfaces and increase in relief and become tuberculate as they cross the supra-apical (dorsal) surface (Fig. 7M). Sub-apical surface with one to three pairs of deep, continuous or slightly interrupted grooves (Fig. 4A) formed by ridges on the shell interior that may be L- or T-shaped in cross-section (Fig. 4E). Median area between the innermost pair of spiral grooves with comarginal grooves on the internal mould (Figs 4B, 7G). Surface of internal mould often covered with fine pits (Fig. 4G).

Discussion. Specimens of Dorispira tippik sp. nov. are abundant as internal moulds in GGU sample 271718 and rare specimens are identified tentatively on limestone surfaces from GGU sample 271492. Many specimens (Fig. 7L,M) have a similar erect shell with

prominent comarginal rugae to Dorispira iacobinica (Geyer, 1986) from the Morocconus notabilis zone (Cambrian Series 2, upper Stage 4; Agzdian regional stage) of Morocco (Geyer 1986, pl. 3, figs 29, 30), while other Greenland specimens show a greater rate of whorl expansion in lateral perspective (Fig. 7B,D). Dorispira iacobinica differs in that the comarginal rugae are uniformly developed all around the shell whereas the rugae are much more prominent across the supra-apical surface of *Dorispira tippik* than on the sub-apical surface. However, the Moroccan holotype illustrated by Geyer (1986, pl. 3, fig. 29) preserves the shell exterior, with fine details of spiral ornamentation and transverse growth lines, in contrast to the internal moulds from Greenland.

Yang et al. (2012) described Oelandiella cf. accordionata from the Tsinghsutung Formation (Cambrian Stage 4) of Guizhou, South China, without reference to Dorispira. The erect shell and protruding sub-apical surface clearly distinguish the illustrated specimens from Oelandiella from the early Cambrian of the Siberian Platform (Vostokova 1962; Rozanov et al. 2010), as discussed by Parkhaev & Demidenko (2010). The coarse rugae suggest placement in Dorispira tippik sp. nov. An accompanying specimen in the Chinese fauna (Yang et al. 2012, pl. 2, figs 7, 8) is only slightly coiled and resembles the species described as Helcionella callahani Resser, 1938 from Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4 in the southern Appalachians, USA (Resser 1938), a shell form not known from the present North Greenland collections.

Hu et al. (2021) assigned Miaolingian (Drumian-Guzhangian) fossils from Henan Province, North China, to Oelandiella accordionata also without reference to Dorispira. The erect shell clearly distinguishes the illustrated specimens from Oelandiella, as discussed by Parkhaev & Demidenko (2010), and illustrated by Rozanov et al. (2010) and the coarse rugae and form of the aperture suggest placement in Dorispira tippik sp. nov.

Dorispira? cf. penecyrano (Runnegar & Jell, 1976) Fig. 9F, G

Figured material. PMU 39200 from GGU sample 271718.

Discussion. This rare member of the assemblage from GGU sample 271718 is known from laterally compressed internal moulds that display subdued comarginal transverse corrugation and an overhanging apex. The arched sinus in the apertural margin on the sub-apical surface characteristic of the silicified material from the Coonigan Formation is not seen, but its absence may reflect the much greater size (length up to 3 mm) of the Australian specimens. The external ornamentation of fine spiral lirae illustrated by Runnegar & Jell (1976, fig. 10A) is not preserved on the internal moulds, which display the fine pits seen in many other specimens from the Henson Gletscher Formation material. The initial growth stage in the latter is blunt and delimited from the later parts of the internal mould by a shallow constriction (Fig. 9G).

Runnegar & Jell (1976) considered that the arched sinus in the apertural margin beneath the apex indicated a relationship to Yochelcionella Runnegar & Jell, 1974; it is not typically well developed in *Dorispira*. For this reason, and on account of the lack of spiral grooves on the sub-apical surface of the internal mould (Fig. 9F), the species is only tentatively assigned to Dorispira, where it was placed by Parkhaev (2019). Specimens from the Holm Dal Formation (Guzhangian Stage) of Peary Land described by Peel (1988) as Latouchella holmdalense Peel, 1988 are morphologically close to the Australian material described by Runnegar & Jell (1976). They differ from the specimens in GGU sample 271718 in having a prominent sub-apical arched sinus, coarser comarginal corrugation and a more overhanging apex, although these features may be in part be due to their greater size and preservation with retained

shell. Robison (1964, pl. 92, fig. 14) illustrated a similar silicified specimen with a proportionately longer shell from the Drumian Stage of Utah.

Genus Scenella Billings, 1872

Type species. Scenella reticulata Billings, 1872, Cambrian Series 2, Conception Bay, Avalonian southeastern Newfoundland, Canada.

Scenella? siku sp. nov. Fig. 10G, K, M–O

Holotype. PMU 39207, internal mould from GGU sample 271718, Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, western Peary Land, North Greenland, Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Other figured material. PMU 39205 and PMU 39206, internal moulds from GGU sample 271718.

Derivation of name. From 'siku', one of many Greenlandic words for ice.

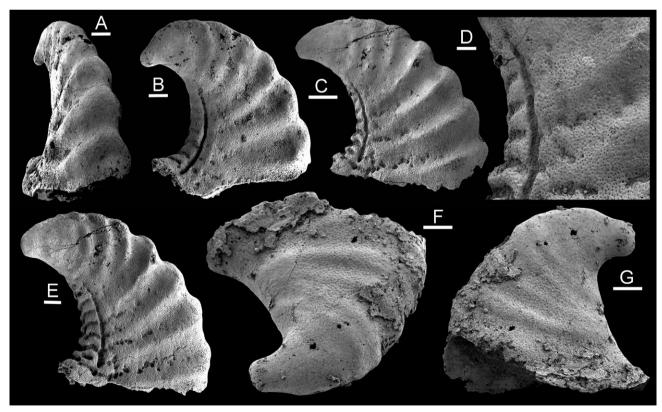


Fig. 9. *Dorispira*, upper Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, Peary Land, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage; internal moulds from GGU sample 271718. **A–E:** *Dorispira septentrionalis* sp. nov. **A, B:** PMU 39198, oblique lateral views. **C–E:** PMU 39199, oblique lateral (E) and lateral (C) views, with detail of pitted surface (D). **F, G:** *Dorispira? penecyrano* (Runnegar & Jell, 1976). PMU 39200, in lateral (G) and dorso-lateral (F) views. Scale bars: 200 μm (C), 100 μm (A, B, E–G), 50 μm (D).

Diagnosis. Tentatively a species of *Scenella* with an elongate form and the slightly overhanging apex lying close to the sub-apical margin.

Description. Isostrophic, low, limpet-like, in which the width of the elongate shell is about two thirds of its length. Apex lying close to the sub-apical margin, slightly overhanging the sub-apical wall. Supra-apical surface shallowly convex in lateral profile (Fig. 10G) with the point of greatest height above the apertural

plane lying at about one fifth of the distance from the sub-apical margin to the supra-apical margin. Surface of internal mould may retain low, widely spaced rugae (Fig. 10K). External ornamentation not known.

Discussion. The question of the relationship between *Scenella* and *Protoconchioides* Shaw, 1962 has been discussed in detail by Geyer (1994). In *Protoconchioides douli* Geyer, 1994, from the Miaolingian of Idaho, the apex of the oval shell is located almost centrally, in

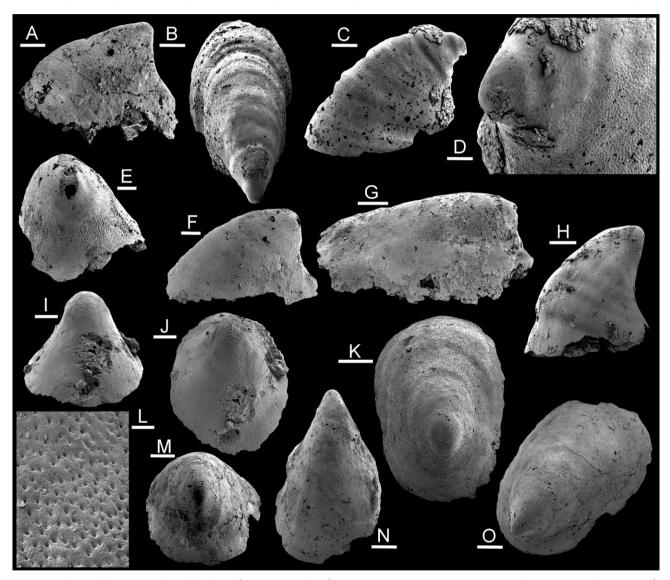


Fig. 10. Helcionellids, internal moulds from the Henson Gletscher Formation, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage, of Lauge Koch Land (GGU sample 271492) and Løndal (GGU sample 271718). A, E, F, H, Helcionellids spp. indet. A: PMU 39201 from GGU sample 271718, lateral view. E, F, PMU 39202 from GGU sample 271492, lateral view (F) and oblique view of sub-apical surface showing smooth surface around apex and pitted flanks (E). H: PMU 39203 from GGU sample 271718, lateral view. B–D: *Parailsanella* sp., PMU 39204 from GGU sample 271492, dorsal (B) and lateral (C) views with detail of early growth stage (D). G, K, M–O: *Scenella? siku* sp. nov. from GGU sample 271718. G: PMU 39205, lateral view. K: PMU 39206, apico-dorsal view. M–O: PMU 39207, holotype, in oblique apical (M), oblique dorsal (N) and oblique dorso-lateral (O) views. I, J, L: *Vendrascospira frykmani* gen. et sp. nov., PMU 39208 from GGU sample 271492, holotype, profile from supra-apical margin (I), dorsal view (J), detail of pitted surface (L). Scale bars: 200 μm (A–C, G, H, M–O), 100 μm (D–F, I–K), 20 μm (L).

contrast to its marginal position in *Scenella? siku*. This is also the case in *Protoconchioides? rasettii* Geyer, 1994, from the Mount Whyte Formation of British Columbia, originally described as Scenella sp. by Rasetti (1954). Described specimens of Scenella, including the type species (Knight 1941, pl. 2, fig. 5), also differ from Scenella? siku in having the apex placed more centrally and an oval to sub-circular dorsal plan. Comarginal rugae are only weakly developed, if present, and the shell exterior is ornamented with a fine reticulation of growth lines and radial ribs not known from Scenella? siku. Scenella amii (Matthew, 1902), abundant in the Burgess Shale of British Columbia, differs from Scenella? siku in the sub-circular dorsal plan and central location of the apex on the cap-shaped shell (Conway Morris & Peel 2013, fig. 1.6).

Genus Parailsanella Zhegallo in Voronova et al., 1987

Type species. Parailsanella acris Zhegallo in Voronova *et al.*, 1987 from Cambrian Series 2, Stage 3 (Montezuman Regional Stage) of Northwest Territories, Canada.

Discussion. Helcionella Grabau & Shimer, 1909 and Bemella Missarzhevsky in Rozanov & Missarzhevsky, 1966 are frequently cited helcionelloids with low cap-shaped shells and prominent comarginal rugae. Their relationship was recently discussed by Geyer et al. (2019) who discounted the significance of the globose apex overhanging the sub-apical margin that Missarzhevsky (in Rozanov et al. 1969) and Parkhaev (2001a, b) considered a diagnostic feature of *Bemella*. Instead, Geyer et al. (2019) placed emphasis on the differentiation of the early part of the shell from the later more strongly rugose teleoconch in Bemella jacutica Missarzhevsky in Rozanov & Missarzhevsky, 1966, as illustrated by Rozanov et al. (1969, pl. 4, fig. 3). The laterally compressed, early Cambrian genus Parailsanella Zhegallo in Voronova et al., 1987 also has a rugose shell but differs in that the apex is elevated above the plane of the aperture, such that a shallowly concave subapical wall is well developed (Kouchinsky et al. 2015, fig. 5). It is morphologically close to Capitoconus Skovsted, 2004, originally described from the Bastion Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of North-East Greenland, but the latter differs in terms of its strongly inflated protoconch (Skovsted 2004).

Parailsanella **sp.** Fig. 10B–D

Figured material. PMU 39204 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land.

Discussion. This single internal mould lacks the apertural margin. It is laterally compressed (Fig. 10B) and coiled through about one quarter of a whorl, with the apex overhanging the sub-apical surface (Fig. 10C). Irregular comarginal rugae are most strongly developed on the supra-apical and lateral areas. The early growth stage preserves two prominent comarginal channels on the internal mould that seem to delimit the early growth stage which Geyer et al. (2019) considered to be diagnostic of Bemella. This interpretation is supported by the surface pattern developed on the internal mould in ontogenetic stages approximately adapertural of the second comarginal constriction, but absent from the apical area (Fig. 10C,D), although this is also a feature of the internal moulds of other North Greenland species (Figs 10E,13B). Initially this pattern is a fine reticulation of ridges, but it gradually transforms to a structure of fine pits as the aperture is approached. However, the sub-apical wall is well developed, such that the apex in lateral perspective is raised high above the plane of the aperture, motivating assignment to Parailsanella. The lateral profile is thus closely similar to internal moulds illustrated by Kouchinsky et al. (2015, fig. 15) from the Emyaksin Formation (Atdabanian Stage) of northern Siberia, although these have broader, more regular comarginal rugae than the North Greenland specimen.

Capitoconus borealis Peel, Streng, Geyer, Kouchinsky & Skovsted, 2016, from the lower beds of the Henson Gletscher Formation in Løndal (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4, Ovatoryctocara granulata beds), has a similar shell form to Parailsanella sp. from GGU sample 271492, but its protoconch is more prominent and comarginal rugae are lacking. Growth lines are crossed by fine spiral threads that have not been observed in Parailsanella sp.

A specimen from the Coonigan Formation described by Runnegar & Jell (1976, fig. 8A, 1-2) as Anabarella sp. was transferred to Bemella by Parkhaev (2019). The specimen is more than five times larger than Parailsanella sp. from North Greenland, more laterally compressed, with a well-developed sub-apical surface and flanks with coarser and more widely spaced rugae. Runnegar & Jell (1976, fig. 9A.1-9A.5) described as Vallototheca [sic] sp. a silicified, strongly rugose specimen from the Coonigan Formation that exhibits a similar lateral profile and elongate form to Parailsanella sp. from the Henson Gletscher Formation. The latter specimen lacks the prominent rugation of the Australian example, although in part this may reflect the preservation of Parailsanella sp. as an internal mould. Vallatotheca Foerste, 1914, originally described from the Late Ordovician of Manitoulin Island, Canada, has a globose shell more than ten times larger than Parailsanella sp., and was considered by Knight (1941) to be closely

related to the tergomyan Tryblidium Lindström, 1880.

A fragment from the Top Springs Limestone (Ordian Stage; Cambrian Stage 4-Wuliuan Stage) in the Georgina Basin of Northern Territory, Australia, illustrated by Kruse (1991, fig. 10K, L) as ?scenellid indet., has a similar shell form to Parailsanella sp. from North Greenland, but with coarser comarginal rugae. Both taxa have a prominent comarginal channel delimiting the earliest growth stage. Bemella wiri Kruse, 1998 from the Montejinni and Gum Ridge formations of similar age, also in Northern Territory, Australia, is based on larger, more strongly coiled specimens (length 1 cm) in which the apex is curved down close to the plane of the aperture (Kruse 1998). The sub-apical surface of Bemella wiri is therefore strongly concave in lateral profile when compared to the almost straight subapical surface below the elevated apex of Parailsanella sp. (Fig. 10C).

Parailsanella sp. is distinguished from Scenella? siku by its more tightly coiled shell with a lower rate of whorl expansion, in lateral view, protruding apex and strong rugae.

Genus Helcionella Grabau & Shimer 1909

Type species. Metoptoma? rugosa Hall, 1847 from the Browns Pond Formation, New York State, Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4.

Helcionella? **sp.** Fig. 11A, B

Figured material. PMU 39209 from GGU sample 218831, Lauge Koch Land.

Discussion. As preserved, width and length are about equal in this low internal mould, although the subapical surface is incomplete (Fig. 11B). The dorsal and lateral areas carry prominent, flared rugae and finer interspersed comarginal cords, the latter most prominent near the apex. Both are crossed by fine radial ribs (Fig. 11B, arrow). A similar low shell, but with more frequent rugae, was illustrated from the Currant Bush Limestone (Gowers Formation) by Runnegar & Jell (1976, fig. 9B.1–B.3) as *Vallatotheca*? sp.

Helcionellids spp. indet.

Figs 10A, E, F, H, 13A-C, E-H

Figured material. PMU 39202 and PMU 39216 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land. PMU 39201, PMU 39203, PMU 39213 – 39215, PMU 39217 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Discussion. Smooth internal moulds are common in

GGU sample 271718 from Løndal but are difficult to assign due to their variation and lack of distinguishing characters. The apex forms the highest part of the shell in a single internal mould from GGU sample 271718 in which a shallow comarginal constriction is preserved near the broken apertural margin (Fig. 10A). Rare internal moulds with an oval cross-section from GGU sample 271492 have the blunt apex located close to the sub-apical margin, above a vertical sub-apical wall (Figs 10F, 13G). The supra-apical wall is uniformly convex but more strongly curved than in Scenella? siku. The internal mould is smooth close to the apex, but otherwise covered with fine pits (Fig. 10E). Internal moulds with a similar profile were described by Kruse (1998) from the Ordian Stage (Cambrian Stage 4-Wuliuan Stage) of Northern Territory, Australia. The internal mould of *Parailsanella* sp. has a similar lateral profile, but the apex is overhanging and the surface is traversed by prominent comarginal rugae (Fig. 10C).

The lateral profile of a single internal mould from GGU sample 271718 (Fig. 10H) is similar to that of an upright internal mould illustrated by Runnegar & Jell (1976, fig. 10B.4, B.5) from the Coonigan Formation, although comarginal rugae in the latter specimen are more strongly expressed. The aperture is oval, but its margins are not preserved. The apical area is smooth, but the surface of the rest of the specimen is covered by fine pits.

The apex strongly overhangs the sub-apical margin in several laterally compressed internal moulds from GGU sample 271718 (Fig. 13A,B,C,F), as in *Erugoconus acuminatus* gen. et sp. nov. (Fig. 16F,H), but the rate of expansion in lateral view is greater. Rare internal moulds with a strongly overhanging apex show a conical early growth stage (Fig. 13E). A more tightly coiled internal mould (Fig. 13H) is similar to *Erugoconus acuminatus* (Fig. 16F,H) but the apex overhangs the elongate aperture by a proportionately shorter distance (Fig. 13H).

Genus Sermeqiconus gen. nov.

Type species. Figurina? polaris Peel, 2021d, Aftenstjernesø Formation, Navarana Fjord, northern Lauge Koch Land, North Greenland; Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4 (Peel 2021d).

Derivation of name. From the Greenlandic 'sermeq' meaning an active glacier, referring to the position of the collection locality immediately west of Henson Gletscher (Fig. 1A).

Diagnosis. Isostrophic, low, with oval plan, and swollen apex lying close to the sub-apical margin. Ornamentation of a few widely spaced ribs and finer striations,

the former most prominent on the supra-apical surface, crossed by slightly lamellose comarginal growth lines.

Discussion. Internal moulds from the Parara Formation (Cambrian Series 2) in South Australia, assigned to Figurina Parkhaev, 2001a by Parkhaev (2001a), are more laterally compressed, with a narrower, more strongly overhanging apex, and lack the prominent widely spaced radial ribs characteristic of Sermeqiconus. Calyptroconus Parkhaev, 2001a, also from the Parara Formation (Cambrian Series 2) in South Australia, has broad radial folds distributed all around the low, oval shell and a sub-central apex in contrast to the overhanging apex of Sermeqiconus. In North Greenland, Sermeqiconus ranges from Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4 (Aftenstjernesø Formation; Peel 2021d) to the Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage (Henson Gletscher Formation).

Sermeqiconus polaris (Peel, 2021d) Figure 11C, D

2021d Figurina? polaris Peel, p. 29, fig. 4.7, 4.8.

Figured material. PMU 39210 from GGU sample 218831, Lauge Koch Land.

Diagnosis. As for genus.

Description. The internal mould is isostrophic, low, oval, with width about two-thirds of length; the swollen apex lies above, but just within the sub-apical margin. Supra-apical surface shallowly convex in lateral view, flattening as the supra-apical margin is approached; sub-apical surface concave and steeply inclined (Fig. 11C). Initial growth stage forming one third of the preserved length; smooth, with a shallowly impressed pegma on the sub-apical surface at the junction with the ornamented later shell growth stage. Ornamentation consists of widely spaced,

prominent radial ribs with rounded upper surfaces and intervening fine striations, which are crossed by slightly lamellose comarginal growth lines. Fine pits are prominent on the sub-apical surface and lateral margins.

Discussion. Sermeqiconus polaris (Peel, 2021d) from the basal Aftenstjernesø Formation, northern Navarana Fjord, northern Lauge Koch Land, North Greenland (Fig. 1A; Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) was referred tentatively to Figurina by Peel (2021d). The distinctive widely spaced radial ribs located mainly on the dorsal area of the holotype of Sermeqiconus polaris (Peel, 2021d, fig. 4.7, 4.8) are clearly preserved in the specimen from the Henson Gletscher Formation (Fig. 11C,D). Sermeqiconus polaris has a wider shell than the laterally compressed Figurina figurina Parkhaev, 2001a, and its broader apex less strongly overhangs the sub-apical surface.

Figurina? groenlandica Skovsted, 2004 from the Bastion Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of North-East Greenland has a narrower shell than Sermegiconus polaris in which the supra-apical surface of the internal mould is more strongly curved in lateral view (Skovsted 2004). In lateral view, prominent grooves and ridges present on the half of the internal mould closest to the sub-apical margin slope obliquely, sub-parallel to the supra-apical surface. Similar ridges on the subapical surface of Sermegiconus polaris are confined to the sub-apico-lateral areas and run parallel to the sub-apical surface (Fig. 11C). Partial phosphate coating of the outer surface of the shell near the supra-apical margin in some specimens from the Bastion Formation shows weak traces of radial ribs reminiscent of Sermeqiconus (Skovsted 2004, fig. 6G).

Genus Vendrascospira gen. nov.

Type species. Vendrascospira troelseni gen. et sp. nov.

Derivation of name. For Michael J. Vendrasco in recognition of his studies of Cambrian molluscs.

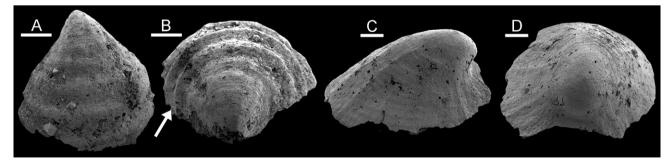


Fig. 11. Helcionelloids from GGU sample 218831, Henson Gletscher Formation, southern Lauge Koch Land, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage. **A, B:** *Helcionella*? sp., PMU 39209, dorsal (A) and apico-dorsal (B) views. **C, D:** *Sermeqiconus polaris* (Peel, 2021d), PMU 39210, internal mould in oblique lateral (C) and apico-dorsal (D) views. Scale bars: 300 μm (A, B), 100 μm (C, D).

Diagnosis. Isostrophic, laterally compressed to oval, erect, coiled through about one quarter of a whorl, with the blunt apex lying close to the sub-apical margin, slightly overhanging the concave (in lateral view) sub-apical wall of the internal mould. Apertural margin shallowly convex in lateral view, forming a shallow median fold and emargination below the apex. Internal mould surface may develop weakly expressed comarginal rugae and constrictions.

Discussion. Vendrasco et al. (2010) assigned this form to Figurina, originally described from the Parara Formation of the Stansbury Basin of South Australia (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4), on the basis of material from the Gowers Formation (Drumian) of the Georgina Basin. Figurina differs in its lower shell in which the pointed apex of the internal mould is hooked, overhanging the sub-apical margin. In Vendrascospira the crest of the bluntly rounded apex lies at about one quarter of the distance from the sub-apical margin to the supra-apical margin, lying within the shell periphery in dorsal view (Fig. 11A,K).

In terms of its erect and compressed shell form, Vendrascospira resembles some species of Davidonia Parkhaev, 2017, proposed as a replacement name for the pre-occupied Mackinnonia Runnegar in Bengtson et al., 1990 (see discussion in Peel 2021d, p. 26). While the outer surface of Davidonia is smooth, the internal surface is marked by prominent comarginal ridges that produce corresponding channels on the internal mould (Bengtson et al. 1990, fig. 159; Skovsted 2004, fig. 3). Such channels are not present in *Vendrascospira*, although the holotype of the type species, Vendrascospira troelseni gen. and sp. nov., preserves a low comarginal ruga near the apex (Fig. 11C). Capitoconus Skovsted, 2004, originally described from the Bastion Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of North-East Greenland, differs in possessing a swollen early growth stage delimited from the rest of the internal mould by a broad, shallow, constriction. Additionally, while the outer surface of Capitoconus varies from ribbed to smooth, the internal mould is ornamented by comarginal rugae.

Vendrascospira troelseni gen. et sp. nov. Fig. 12A-C, E, F

Holotype. PMU 39211 from GGU sample 271492, internal mould, Lauge Koch Land, Henson Gletscher Formation, Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Other figured material. PMU 39212 from GGU sample 271492, paratype.

Derivation of name. For Johannes C. Troelsen, who first

collected Cambrian fossils from southern Peary Land during the 1940s (Peel et al. 1974).

Diagnosis. As for genus, but laterally compressed, with aperture almost twice width (Fig. 12E).

Description. The isostrophically coiled shell is laterally compressed, erect, and coiled through about one quarter of a whorl. The apex of the internal mould is bluntly rounded and lies closer to the sub-apical margin, slightly overhanging the concave (in lateral view) sub-apical wall (Fig. 12A). In lateral view, the apertural margin is shallowly convex forming a shallow median fold and emargination below the apex (Fig. 12D,G). Weakly expressed comarginal rugae and constrictions may be present near the apex of the internal mould (Fig. 12C), the surface of which is covered, except for the apical area, with fine pits (Fig. 12D,F). Characters of the external surface are not known.

Discussion. Vendrascospira troelseni occurs only rarely in GGU sample 271492. MacKinnon (1985) grouped several similarly coiled shells from the Tasman Formation (Guzhangian Stage) of New Zealand into Helcionella sp. Three smooth specimens (MacKinnon 1985, fig. E-L) are similar to Vendrascospira in terms of height and the bluntly rounded apex, but MacKinnon (1985) stated that larger specimens developed transverse rugae. Such rugae are have not been seen in the North Greenland material. MacKinnon (1985) commented that the surface of his material was finely tuberculate but the North Greenland material (excluding the smooth initial growth stage) of the holotype and all the marginal areas of the paratype (Fig 11D, G–I) is finely pitted.

The apex in internal moulds of Davidonia taconica (Landing & Bartowski, 1996), as illustrated by Peel (2021d) from the Aftenstjernesø Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of northern Lauge Koch Land, barely protrudes beyond the line of the straight sub-apical wall, in contrast to Vendrascospira troelseni. Additionally, comarginal channels are well-developed distally, although typically absent in Vendrascospira troelseni. Specimens of Davidonia taconica illustrated by Skovsted (2004) from the Bastion Formation of North-East Greenland, and by Landing & Bartowski (1996) from the Browns Pond Formation of New York State, have a more steeply inclined supra-apical surface and more strongly developed channeling of the surface of the internal mould than the specimens from northern Lauge Koch Land (Peel 2021c).

Vendrascospira troelseni resembles Parailsanella sayutinae Parkhaev, 2004 from the Bystraya Formation (Botoman Stage; Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) of the Transbaikal region (Parkhaev 2004), but has a more

rounded apex and lacks comarginal rugae. Specimens referred to *Mellopegma uslonica* Parkaev, 2004 from the Botoman part of the Emyaksin Formation have a pointed apex and greater lateral compression (Kouchinsky *et al.* 2015). The latter specimens, and specimens illustrated by Vendrasco *et al.* (2011) are taller and with a more overhanging apex than the elongate specimens described by Parkhaev (2004) from the Bystraya Formation.

Vendrascospira frykmani gen. et sp. nov. Fig. 10I–L

Holotype. PMU 39208 from GGU sample 271492, internal mould, Lauge Koch Land, Henson Gletscher Formation, Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Derivation of name. For Peter Frykman, with thanks for his companionship in the field and help in the collection of material.

Diagnosis. Species of *Vendrascospira* with width of oval aperture about four fifths of length.

Description. The isostrophical shell is oval in plan view, with width about four fifths of length, and coiled through about a quarter of a whorl. The apex of the internal mould is bluntly rounded and lies close to the sub-apical margin (Fig. 10J). The surface of internal mould lacks comarginal rugae and is finely pitted (Fig. 10L). The apex displays an irregular pattern of closely spaced, low tubercles. Characters of the shell exterior are not known.

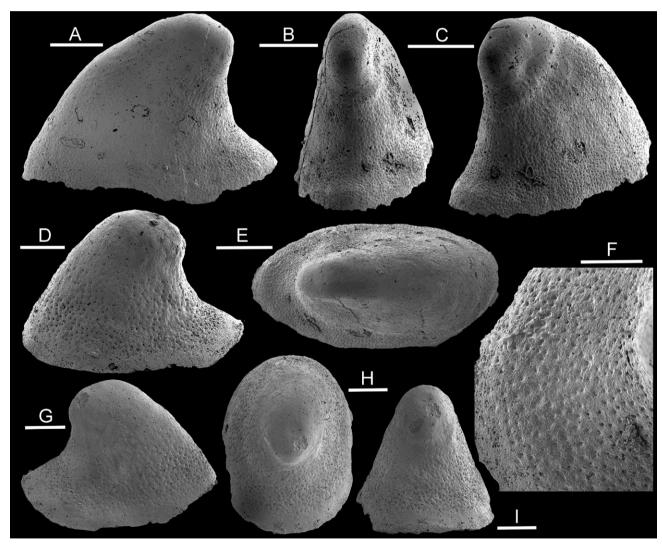


Fig. 12. *Vendrascospira troelseni* gen. et sp. nov., from GGU sample 271492, internal moulds, upper Henson Gletscher Formation, southern Lauge Koch Land, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage. **A–C**, **E**, **F**: PMU 39211, holotype in lateral (A), sub-apical (B), oblique lateral (C) and dorsal (E) views, with detail of sub-apical margin (F). **D**, **G–I**: PMU 39212, paratype in lateral (D, G) and sub-apical (H, I) views. Scale bars: $200\mu m$ (A–C, E), $100 \mu m$ (D, G–I), $50 \mu m$ (F).

Discussion. The apertural margin is not preserved in the single specimen of Vendrascospira frykmani from GGU sample 271492. It is distinguished from Vendrascospira troelseni by its less laterally compressed form and oval aperture in plan view (compare Fig. 10J with Fig. 12E). The conspicuous pattern of low tubercles on the apical area of Vendrascospira frykmani (Fig. 10I,J) is very weakly developed in the paratype of Vendrascospira troelseni (Fig. 12D).

Family Stenothecidae Runnegar & Jell, 1976 Genus Mellopegma Runnegar & Jell, 1976

Type species. Mellopegma georginense (= georginensis) Runnegar & Jell, 1976, Currant Bush Limestone (reassigned in part to the Gowers Formation (Miaolingian Series, Drumian Stage) of Queensland; see discussion in Vendrasco et al. 2010).

Discussion. Mellopegma was first noted from North Greenland by Peel (1986) from the Ekspedition Bræ Formation (Drumian Stage; Fig. 1C) and subsequently described from the Henson Gletscher Formation (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4) by Peel et al. (2016). A detailed review of the systematics, shell structure and ecology of Mellopgema species was given by Vendrasco et al. (2011).

Mellopegma schizocheras Vendrasco, Kouchinsky, Porter & Fernandez, 2011 Fig. 14A-F, H-J, M-O

2010 Mellopegma schizocheras Vendrasco, Kouchinsky, Porter & Fernandez, 2011, p. 9, figs 7.1–7.2, 8–9.

Figured material. PMU 39219 - PMU 39225 from GGU sample 271492, southern Lauge Koch Land.

Other material. More than 100 specimens from GGU sample 271492; uncommon in GGU sample 271718.

Description. Isostrophic, elongate, laterally compressed, with faint, variable, comarginal rugae on the internal mould that are obscure near the sub-apical and supra-apical margins and across the dorsum. Apex of internal mould bluntly rounded in lateral view (Fig. 14M), slightly bulbous in dorsal view (Fig. 14A,D), although it may seem sharp due to an apical tubercle (Fig. 14E,I). Supra-apical surface uniformly convex in lateral view with the concave sub-apical surface extended distally, becoming almost parallel with the dorsum (Fig. 14C,H). The convex apertural margin, in lateral view, may account for half of the total height (Fig. 14H,J,M). In apertural view, the aperture narrows medially (Fig. 14N) such that lateral areas of the shell may be slightly concave (Fig. 14J).

Tubercles are variably distributed over much of the surface of internal moulds, sometimes in comarginal bands (Fig. 14H), but typically they are most common along the sub-apical and supra-apical margins, including the apex (Fig. 14D), and along the rugae. Between tubercles, the internal mould surface is usually smooth, but it may be locally pitted (Fig. 14J) or with very fine papillae or ridges (Fig. 14C).

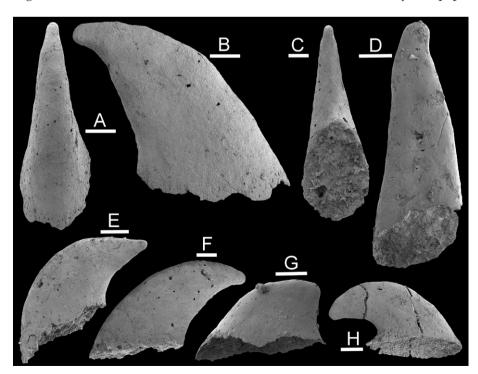


Fig. 13. Helcionellids, internal moulds from the Henson Gletscher Formation, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage. GGU sample 271718 (Løndal) unless stated. A-C, E-H: helcionellids spp. indet. A, B: PMU 39213, dorsal (A) and lateral (B) views. C, F: PMU 39214, sub-apical (C) and lateral views. E: PMU 39215, lateral view. G: PMU 39216 from GGU sample 271492, southern Lauge Koch Land, lateral view. H: PMU 39217, lateral view. D: 'Obtusoconus' sp., PMU 39218, lateral view showing sigmoidal form. Scale bars: 200 μm except G (300 μ m).

Discussion. Vendrasco et al. (2011) noted that Mellopegma schizocheras and the type species Mellopegma georginense Runnegar & Jell, 1976 occurred together in

the Gowers Formation but ruled out that they were ontogenetic variants of the same species or sexual dimorphs. Evidence of lamellar shell structures rep-

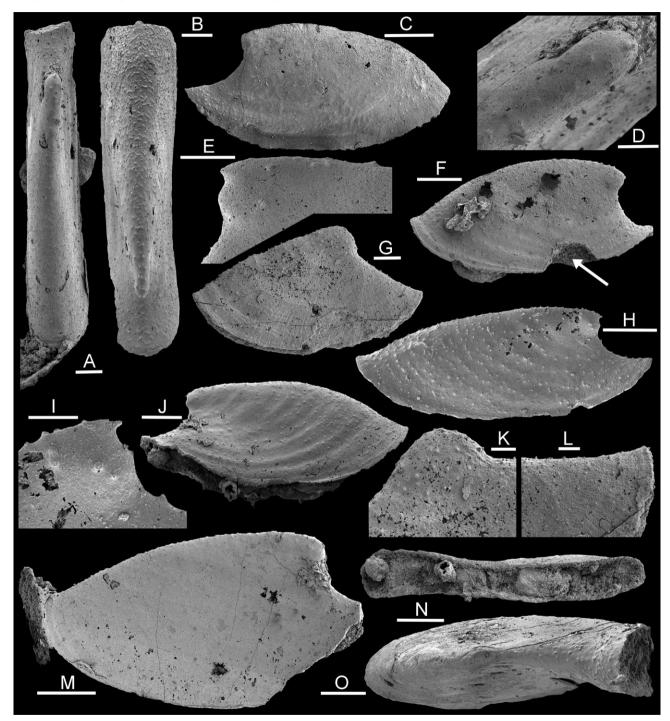


Fig. 14. *Mellopegma*, internal moulds from GGU sample 271492, southern Lauge Koch Land, upper Henson Gletscher Formation, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage. **A–F, H–J, M–O**: *Mellopegma schizocheras* Vendrasco, Kouchinsky, Porter & Fernandez, 2011. **A, D, M:** PMU 39219, dorsal (A) and lateral (M) views, with detail of apex (D). **B:** PMU 39220, dorsal view. **C, O:** PMU 39221, lateral (C) and oblique dorsal (O) views. **E:** PMU 39222, apex in lateral view. **F:** PMU 39223, lateral view with pre-fossilization fracture in apertural margin (arrow). **H, I:** PMU 39224, lateral view (H) with detail of apex (I). **J, N:** PMU 39225, lateral (J) and apertural view (N). **G, K, L:** *Mellopegma* sp., PMU 39226, lateral view (G) with details of apex (K) and sub-apical margin (L). Scale bars: 200 μm (C, F, H, J, M, N), 100 μm (A, B, G, O), 50 μm (D, E, I, K, L).

licated in the surface of internal moulds is generally absent, although a rudimentary pattern may occur locally (Fig. 14I). Vendrasco et al. (2011) described a polygonal network reflecting the imprint of prismatic shell structure in the sub-apical and distal supra-apical areas of internal moulds of Mellopegma schizocheras. Such structures are rarely visible in available material, where the surface is often very finely papillate.

Vendrasco et al. (2011) summarized observations by Kouchinsky (2000a), Parkhaev (2006) and Feng & Sun (2006) concerning tubercles rising perpendicular from the surface of the internal moulds in helcionelloids that were interpreted as pores entering into, or passing through, the shell. Comparable tubercles are widely and variably distributed in specimens of Mellopegma schizocheras from GGU sample 271492. They are often prominent on the apical area (Fig. 14B,E,I) and the sub-apical and supra-apical margins (Fig. 14J,O), but some specimens show tubercles in comarginal rows (Fig. 14H). Individual tubercles are usually conical in shape, with rounded apices, but some are truncated suggesting termination at a shell surface (Fig. 14I).

Mellopegma cf. georginense Runnegar & Jell, 1976 Figs 15A

Figured specimens. PMU 39227 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Discussion. Mellopegma georginense was originally described by Runnegar & Jell (1976) from the Currant Bush Limestone of Queensland (reassigned in part to the Gowers Formation, Drumian Stage, by Vendrasco et al. 2010). It is distinguished from Mellopegma schizocheras, with which it occurs in the Gowers Formation (Vendrasco et al. 2010), by its more prominent comarginal rugae that are continuous around the shell margins and across the dorsum (Fig. 15A), as is the case in an apical fragment illustrated by Peel et al. (2016, fig. 13N) from older strata of the Henson Gletscher Formation in Løndal (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4, Ovatoryctocara granulata beds). The single large specimen from GGU sample 271718 placed here preserves fine radial ridges on the supra-apical surface close to the apex (Fig. 15A, arrow) and a coarse, tuberculate, prismatic pattern in more distal areas.

Specimens from late Cambrian Stage 4 strata at Ville Guay, Québec, assigned to Mellopegma georginense by Landing et al. (2002, fig. 8.1, 8.2), are closely similar to the earliest growth stage of the Henson Gletscher Formation specimen (Fig. 15A). The much greater length and curved ventral profile of the latter specimen reflects its later ontogenetic stage. Caron et al. (2014, supplementary fig. 6r) illustrated a single specimen from the Burgess Shale Formation of Canada that is also comparable in shape to the early growth stages of the specimen from the Henson Gletscher Formation (Fig. 15A), although the comarginal rugae are less strongly expressed in the latter internal mould.

Mellopegma chelata (Skovsted, 2006b) Fig. 15B-D

2006b Anabarella chelata Skovsted, p. 489, fig. 2A-E.

Figured material. PMU 39228 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

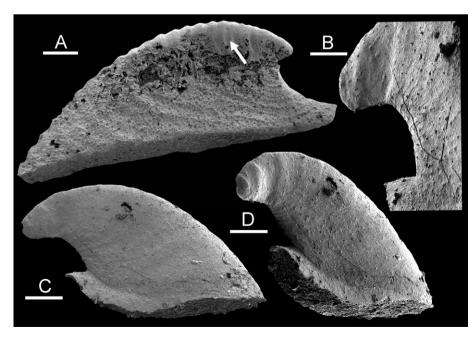


Fig. 15. Mellopegma, internal moulds from GGU sample 271718, Løndal, upper Henson Gletscher Formation, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage. A: Mellopegma cf. georginense Runnegar & Jell, 1976, PMU 39227, lateral view. **B-D:** *Mellopegma chelata* (Skovsted, 2006b), PMU 39228 from GGU sample 271718, in lateral (C) and apico-lateral (D) views, with detail of sub-apical surface (B). Scale bars: $300 \, \mu m$ (A), $100 \, \mu m$ (C, D), $50 \, \mu m$ (B).

Discussion. Mellopegma chelata from the basal Emigrant Formation of Nevada (Cambrian Series 2, Stage 4; upper Dyeran) resembles Mellopegma simesi (MacKinnon, 1985), originally described from the Tasman Formation (Guzhangian Stage) of New Zealand (MacKinnon 1985), but has a much lower shell in lateral aspect (Fig. 15C). Specimens of Mellopegma simesi illustrated from New Zealand by MacKinnon (1985), from Queensland by Vendrasco et al. (2011) and by Peel et al. (2016), the latter from the Henson Gletscher Formation (Cambrian Series, Stage 4) in Løndal, show greater convexity of the supra-apical surface in lateral view and have a hooked apex.

The single internal mould from GGU sample 271718 displays an incipient pegma at the angular junction between the sub-apical surface and the protruding sinuate marginal field (Fig. 15C, D). A shallow comarginal channel, representing a thickening of the shell interior, extends from the deepest point of this pegma towards the distal supra-apical margin. Constrictions and rugae on the apical area suggest periodic flaring of the aperture in the juvenile shell. Fine tubercles and traces of comarginal growth lines are present on the subapical surface.

Mellopegma sp. Fig. 14G, K, L

Figured material. PMU 39226 from GGU sample 271492, Lauge Koch Land.

Discussion. The rounded apex of several specimens from GGU sample 271492 forms the highest point on the dorsal surface (Fig. 14G), unlike the dominant, cooccurring specimens of Mellopegma schizocheras (Fig. 14C,H,J), and may suggest comparison to Stenotheca Salter in Hicks, 1872, although the type species of that genus is poorly known (Vendrasco et al. 2011). However, the tubercles and fine pits on the internal mould favour assignment to Mellopegma. The supra-apical and sub-apical slopes are flattened, and almost equal in inclination when viewed in lateral aspect (Fig. 14G). In addition to tubercles and the finely pitted intervening surface (Fig. 14G,K,L), these specimens show radial ridges and traces of acute, but wrinkled, comarginal growth lines that may reflect the periostracum. Similar radial ridges and growth lines were illustrated by Vendrasco et al. (2011, fig. 5.15, 5.18).

Family uncertain

Genus Erugoconus gen. nov.

Type species. Erugoconus acuminatus gen. et sp. nov., from the Henson Gletscher Formation of North Green-

land. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Derivation of name. From the Latin 'erugo' meaning without wrinkles, relating to the smooth shell.

Diagnosis. Isostrophic, slowly expanding cone coiled through slightly more than one quarter of a whorl. Laterally compressed, with width of the oval aperture about two thirds of its length. Protoconch small on internal mould, bulbous. Early growth stages slender and only slightly coiled, considerably overhanging the sub-apical margin. External surface seemingly smooth. Internal surface smooth, without comarginal rugae. Internal mould with a pair of deep channels on the sub-apical surface in late growth stages.

Discussion. The low rate of whorl expansion and rapid divergence of the logarithmic spiral of the shell in *Erugoconus* produce a widely open-coiled shell in which the apex strongly overhangs the subapical margin. Early growth stages have a tall, almost conical form but curvature increases with passage into the latest growth stage. In this respect, *Erugoconus* is clearly distinct from the tightly coiled hyolith *Protowenella* with which it occurs (Peel 2021a; Fig. 5A–D).

In lateral view, *Erugoconus* is similar in curvature to specimens from the Tommotian regional stage (Cambrian Stage 2) of the Siberian Platform assigned to Ceratoconus Chen & Zhang, 1980 by Missarzhevsky (1989), Rozanov et al. (2010) and Kouchinsky et al. (2017), but these are more strongly curved than the tall Chinese specimens illustrated by Chen & Zhang (1980, pl. 1, figs 29–32). However, the shell of *Ceratoconus* is more slowly expanding and less laterally compressed than Erugoconus. Ceratoconus Chen & Zhang, 1980 is a junior homonym of *Ceratoconus* Borgmeier, 1928, a parasitic dipteran from South America (Borgmeier 1928; Brown et al. 2017). Masculuconus Feng, Sun & Qian, 2000 from the Meishucunian (Cambrian Stage 2) of Yunnan, China, has similar curvature to Chinese specimens of Ceratoconus but differs by its greater rate of shell expansion and transversely elliptical aperture; it is much less strongly coiled than Erugoconus.

Mellopegma simesi (MacKinnon, 1985), as illustrated by Peel et al. (2016, fig. 14D–G) from the Henson Gletscher Formation (Cambrian Stage 4) in Løndal, has an extended and slender early growth stage overhanging the sub-apical margin, as in *Erugoconus acuminatus*, but differs in the proportionally longer and narrower aperture and incipient pegma.

Genus incertum et species incerta B of Geyer (1986, pl. 3, fig. 45) from Morocco displays similar curvature to *Erugoconus*, with a strongly overhanging apex, but the exterior is ornamented with rugae that are also present in a subdued form on the internal mould.

Erugoconus acuminatus gen. et sp. nov. Fig. 16E–N

Derivation of name. From the Latin 'acuminatus' referring to the pointed apex.

Holotype. PMU 39232 from GGU sample 271718, Henson Gletscher Formation, Løndal, western Peary Land,

North Greenland. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Other figured material. PMU 39230, PMU 39231, PMU 39233 – PMU 39235, paratypes, from GGU sample 271718.

Diagnosis. As for genus.

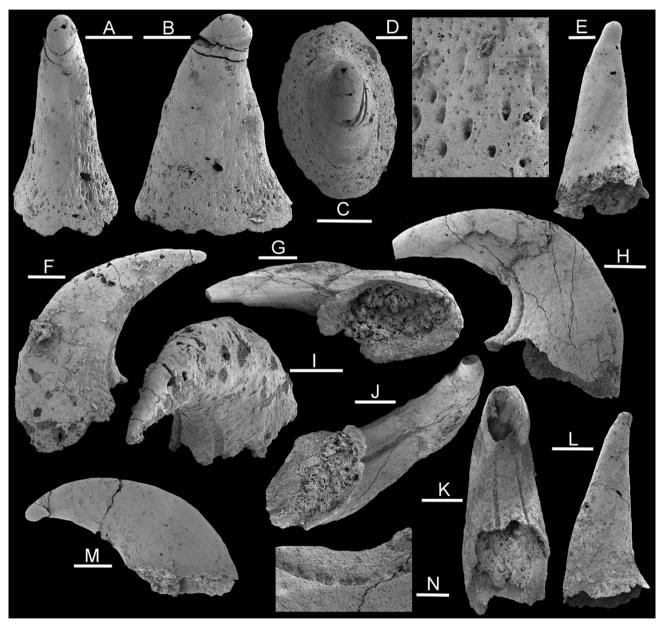


Fig. 16. Helcionellids, internal moulds from the Henson Gletscher Formation, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage. GGU sample 271718, Løndal. **A–D:** *Tavseniconus erectus* gen. et sp. nov., PMU 39229, holotype, in sub-apical (A), lateral (B) and apical (C) views, with detail of pitted surface (D). **E–N:** *Erugoconus acuminatus* gen. et sp. nov. **E:** PMU 39230, lateral view of early growth stage. **F, I:** PMU 39231, lateral (F) and oblique lateral view with sub-apical grooves (I). **G, H, J, N:** PMU 39232, holotype, in apertural (G), lateral (H) and oblique sub-apical (J) views, with detail of sub-apical groove (N). **K:** PMU 39233, sub-apical view showing grooves. **L:** PMU 39234, lateral view of early growth stage. **M:** PMU 39235, lateral view. Scale bars: 400 μm (F–M), 200 μm (A–C, E), 100 μm (N), 20 μm (D).

Description. Isostrophic, with the slowly expanding cone coiled through slightly more than one quarter of a whorl. Laterally compressed, with width of the oval aperture about two thirds of its length. The protoconch as preserved on internal mould is small and slightly inflated, with a shallow constriction separating it from the following growth stage (Fig. 16E). Early growth stage is slender and with only slight curvature, but the early part of the shell considerably overhangs the sub-apical margin by a distance exceeding the length of the aperture in available material (Fig. 16F,H,M). The external surface is seemingly smooth, as is the internal mould, without comarginal rugae. A pair of deep channels is present on the sub-apical surface of the internal mould in late growth stages. Surface of internal mould with abundant closely spaced fine pits in later growth stages. Larger pits close to the apertural margin on the internal mould, are directed obliquely in and towards the aperture (Fig. 16H).

Discussion. Erugoconus acuminatus is very common in GGU sample 271718. The slender early growth stage may develop a slight angulation on the sub-apical surface as it passes into the later shell (Fig. 16L). In its form it is reminiscent of tall specimens described as Obtusoconus foliaceus MacKinnon, 1985 from the Tasman Formation (Guzhangian Stage) of New Zealand, which Parkhaev (2001b) referred to Anuliconus Parkhaev, 2001b, although these show substantial variation in the rate of expansion and curvature of the shell cone when compared to the early stages of the holotype of Erugoconus acuminatus. Most of MacKinnon's (1985) specimens have a lamellose external ornamentation or pronounced comarginal rugae (MacKinnon 1985, fig. 2) not known in available material from Greenland.

Genus novum et species nova? G of Geyer (1986, pl. 2, fig. 27) from the Wuliuan part of the Jbel Wawrmast Formation of the Lemdad Syncline of Morocco, has a longer shell in lateral aspect than the early growth stage of *Erugoconus acuminatus*. It is here assigned to *Tavseniconus* gen. nov. *Tavseniconus erectus* gen. et sp. nov., from GGU sample 271718 differs from the early stages of *Erugoconus acuminatus* in its greater length in lateral view and more rounded apical termination (Fig. 16A–D).

Genus Tavseniconus gen. nov.

Type species. Tavseniconus erectus gen. et sp. nov., from the Henson Gletscher Formation of North Greenland. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Derivation of name. From Hans Tavsen Iskappe, the prominent ice field lying north-west of the type locality in Løndal (Fig. 1A).

Diagnosis. Isostrophic, tall, laterally compressed helcionelloid with a sub-conical shell; the rounded apex slightly overhanging the sub-apical surface.

Discussion. Genus novum et species nova? G of Geyer (1986, pl. 2, fig. 27), a mainly exfoliated internal mould about 3 mm tall from the lower part (of Wuliuan age) of the Lemdad Syncline) of the High Atlas, Morocco, has a closely similar shell form and can be assigned to *Tavseniconus*.

Tavseniconus erectus gen. et sp. nov. Fig. 16A–D

Holotype. PMU 39229 from GGU sample 271718, internal mould, Løndal, Henson Gletscher Formation, western Peary Land, North Greenland. Cambrian, Miaolingian Series, Wuliuan Stage.

Derivation of name. With reference to the upright form.

Diagnosis. As for genus.

Description. The upright, tall, slowly expanding isostrophic shell is slightly curved, such that the rounded apex of the internal mould slightly overhangs the subapical surface, but not the sub-apical margin. Length is about two thirds of height in lateral view (Fig. 16B). In plan view, apertural width is about two thirds of length (Fig. 16C). The surface of the internal mould is covered by fine pits except around the smooth apex. Larger, deeper pits close to the apertural margin slope obliquely inwards and down towards the aperture. External ornamentation not known.

Discussion. As with many other internal moulds from GGU sample 271718, the holotype internal mould of *Tavseniconus erectus* has a smooth apical area while the flanks are covered by closely spaced fine pits (Fig. 16A–D). Scattered, larger pits located close to the preserved apertural margin slope obliquely in and down towards the apertural plane (Fig. 16D), a pattern also seen in *Erugoconus acuminatus* gen. et sp. nov. (Fig. 16H).

The specimen illustrated by Geyer (1986, pl. 2, fig. 27) as Genus novum et species nova? G, from the Lemdad Syncline of Morocco, is here referred to *Tavseniconus*. In lateral perspective, it has a longer shell (height:length ratio of 1.2) than the holotype of *Tavseniconus erectus* (1.4).

Genus Obtusoconus Yu, 1979

Type species. Obtusoconus paucicistatus Yu, 1979 from the early Cambrian of Hubei, China.

'Obtusoconus' sp.

Fig. 13D

Figured material. PMU 39218 from GGU sample 271718, Løndal.

Discussion. In addition to the type species and other species illustrated by Yu (1979), several early Cambrian species were referred to Obtusoconus by Esakova & Zhegallo (1996) and Vasileva (1990). The single slender internal mould with an oval cross-section from GGU sample 271718 retains the slightly sigmoidal form characteristic of Obtusoconus, but no trace of the prominent comarginal ornamentation is seen in most described species. The swollen protoconch overlies a shallowly convex sub-apical surface, while the supraapical surface is initially convex before becoming shallowly concave (Fig. 13D). However, assignment of the Greenland specimen to 'Obtusoconus' is just a matter of convenience. It is not inconceivable that it represents the early growth stage of a species of *Eru*goconus gen. nov., although the sigmoidal form is not seen in Erugoconus acuminatus.

Tavseniconus erectus has a similar overall shape to 'Obtusoconus' sp. but its shell has a greater rate of whorl expansion in lateral perspective (Fig. 16B). The pits in the surface of the internal mould of Tavseniconus erectus (Fig. 16D) have not been observed in 'Obtusoconus' sp. (Fig. 13D).

Obtusoconus foliaceus MacKinnon, 1985 from the Tasman Formation (Guzhangian Stage) of New Zealand, shows substantial variation in the rate of expansion and curvature of the shell. Parkhaev (2001b) referred Obtusoconus foliaceus to Anuliconus but this assignment is rejected. Most of MacKinnon's (1986, fig. 2) illustrated specimens resemble Tavseniconus, but one shows a slightly sigmoidal, but more rapidly expanding shell than 'Obtusoconus' sp. (MacKinnon 1985, fig. 2B).

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Holocene development of Brabrand Fjord, eastern Jylland, Denmark

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The Brabrand Sø area west of Aarhus in eastern Jylland, Denmark, was deglaciated about 18 000 to 17 000 years ago. Coring in the present-day lake area revealed Early Holocene stream deposits overlain by marine deposits. The area was transgressed by the sea at c. 8500 cal. years BP and a 12 km long, narrow fjord was formed. In the beginning, the fjord housed a species-poor marine or brackish-water fauna with molluscs Hydrobia sp. (mudsnail), Littorina littorea (winkle), Mytilus edulis (blue mussel) and Cerastoderma sp. (cockle). This phase was followed by a phase during which the fjord housed a species-rich fauna that included Ostrea edulis (European flat oyster) and Ruditapes decussatus (palourde clam). During this phase the salinity and summer water temperatures were higher than in present day Aarhus Bugt and we also see evidence for strong bottom currents. This phase was probably characterised by a fairly large tidal amplitude. Two radiocarbon ages of O. edulis shells of c. 6250 and 6700 cal. years BP indicate that such conditions peaked during the period of the Ertebølle culture. The high-salinity phase was followed by a phase with a more species-poor fauna, this phase was also characterised by a high sedimentation rate - a feature seen in other fjords in the region. We suggest that the shift could be due to a decrease in tidal amplitude. Brabrand Fjord was eventually transformed into a lake due to land uplift and closure of the connection to Aarhus Bugt due to longshore sediment transport but the timing of the transition from fjord to lake is still unknown.

Keywords: Quaternary, Brabrand Sø, Littorina Sea, relative sea-level changes, tidal amplitude, *Ostrea*.

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During the Last Glacial Maximum, huge amounts of water was stored in continental ice sheets and global sea level was lowered by *c*. 130 m compared with the present (Lambeck *et al.* 2014). About 20 000 years ago, the sea level began to rise, and vast shallow-water areas were flooded. In Denmark, Storebælt, Lillebælt, Øresund and the North Sea were inundated. Large areas that were dry land or occupied by lakes were transgressed by the sea (e.g. Jensen *et al.* 2002; Bennike *et al.* 2021a). Stone Age settlements, forests and mires were flooded by the sea. However, in the northern part of Denmark, the glacio-isostatic uplift surpassed

the eustatic sea-level rise and raised marine deposits are widespread. In the Aarhus Bugt area, the marine limit is *c*. 2.5 m above present sea level (Mertz 1924). According to the deglaciation chronology of Denmark, the last active glacier ice disappeared from the Brabrand Sø region about 18 000 to 17 000 years ago (Houmark-Nielsen *et al.* 2012).

The Holocene history of Denmark has been studied for almost two centuries, but many details are still unknown. Development of radiocarbon dating by means of accelerator mass spectrometry means that it is now possible to date a single shell of a mol-

lusc, small remains of plants or even a single test of a foraminifer. Therefore, the timing of events in the Holocene history of Denmark can be better constrained than earlier. Detailed, high-resolution studies of continuous records are crucial for understanding the late Quaternary palaeogeographical evolution of southern Scandinavia. Here we report on studies of two sediment cores from the former Brabrand Fjord in eastern Jylland, Denmark (Figs 1, 2). We studied macroscopical remains of plants and animals and determined the age of selected samples to provide information on local environmental changes, which must have had a crucial impact on pre-historic people.

In 1900 Stone Age artefacts were found during digging of a ditch near Rugholm at the south-eastern end of Brabrand Sø and in 1903–1904 excavations were

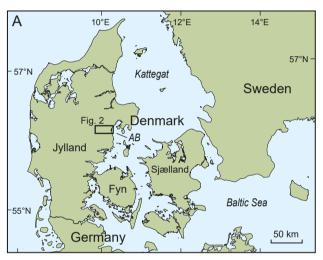


Fig. 1. Map of Denmark showing the location of the study area. AB: Aarhus Bugt. The position of Fig. 2 is indicated.

conducted by the Danish National Museum and the Geological Survey of Denmark (Thomsen & Jessen 1906). The artefacts were referred to the Ertebølle culture; they came from shallow-water, marine deposits. The deposits located in 1900 were dated by means of pollen analysis by Troels-Smith (1937). Troels-Smith dated the deposits to the late part of pollen zone VII and the early part of pollen zone VIII in the zonation scheme of Jessen (1935) and Troels-Smith (1937, 1942) concluded that the Ertebølle culture was partly contemporaneous with the Early Neolithic.

More recent radiocarbon dating indicates that the artefacts belong to the Ertebølle culture, which is now referred to the Late Mesolithic (Table 1; Fig. 3). The bone assemblage was dominated by Cervus elaphus (red deer) but included Sus scrofa (wild boar), Bos primigenius (aurochs), Capreolus capreolus (roe deer), Martes martes (pine marten), Halichoerus grypus (grev seal), Alces alces (elk), Lagenorhynchus albirostris (whitebeaked dolphin), Vulpes vulpes (red fox), Felis silvestris (wild cat), Ursus arctos (brown bear), Cygnus cygnus (whooper swan), Cygnus columbianus (tundra swan), Tetrao urogallus (capercaillie), Phalacrocorax carbo (great cormorant), Uria aalge (common guillemot), Morus bassanus (gannet) and Pelicanus crispus (dalmatian pelican). The bones were identified by Herluf Winge and the results published by Thomsen & Jessen (1906).

An updated list of vertebrate remains from Ertebølle sites in Brabrand Fjord was published by Laursen (2012), based on information from Kim Aaris-Sørensen from the Natural History Museum of Denmark. The list published by Laursen includes *Pagophilus groenlandica* (harp seal), *Aquila chrysaetos* (golden eagle) and *Pinguinus impennis* (great auk). *P. groenlandica* is an arctic species that was common in Danish waters

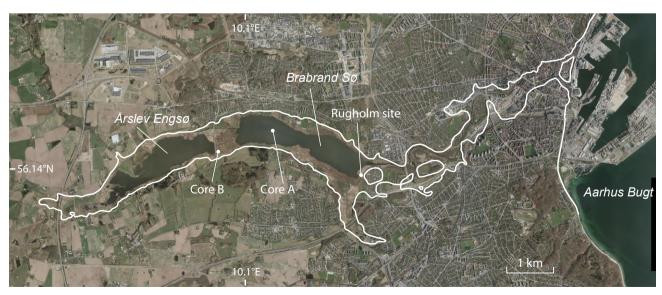


Fig. 2. Orthophoto with the former extension of Brabrand Fjord indicated, based on Rasmussen (2017).

Table 1. Selected radiocarbon ages from Brabrand Fjord and Aarhus, Denmark

Core/ site	N. lat.	E. long.	Laboratory number	Material	Depth (m)	Age (¹⁴C years BP) ¹	Cal. age (years BP) ²	Cal. age (y BP) ³	Ref.
A	56.146	10.109	AAR-30714	S. lacustris	2.22	148 ± 25	2–282	142	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30713	S. lacustris	2.74	134 ± 23	9–272	112	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30712	Leaf fragments	3.54	4554 ± 29	5052-5431	5169	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30711	Leaf fragments	4.62	4729 ± 32	5326-5579	5470	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30710	Leaf fragments	5.58	4755 ± 33	5330-5584	5519	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30709	Leaf fragments	6.54	4922 ± 27	5592-5716	5638	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30708	Ostrea edulis	7.10	6260 ±31	6495-6836	6669	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30707	Ostrea edulis	8.65	5862 ± 34	6079-6395	6240	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30706	Mytilus edulis	8.77	8512 ± 40	8967-9310	9130	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30705	Twig	8.90	9249 ± 40	10262-10560	10418	а
Α	56.146	10.109	AAR-30704	Populus tremula	8.98	9377 ± 37	10500-10702	10603	а
В	56.143	10.090	AAR-30093	S. lacustris	0.58	2831 ± 32	2853-3058	2934	а
В	56.143	10.090	AAR-30092	Cerastoderma sp.	0.62	5428 ± 33	5602-5909	5769	а
В	56.143	10.090	AAR-30091	Littorina littorea	2.16	7274 ± 36	7564–7848	7702	а
В	56.143	10.090	AAR-30090	Root, woody plant	2.24	6895 ± 39	7624–7834	7725	а
Rugholm	56.138	10.139	K-2651	Equus ferus		5500 ± 75	6016-6450	6299	b
Rugholm	56.138	10.139	Ua-32311	Bos primigenius		5425 ± 75	5999-6391	6216	С
Åby rens.	56.152	10.178	Aar-12828	Cerastoderma sp.	1.0	5179 ± 39	5325-5648	5503	d
Pustervig	56.158	10.208	Ua-4161	Littorina sp.	0.36	4885 ± 50	4943-5366	5167	е

¹ Radiocarbon ages are reported in conventional radiocarbon years BP (before present = 1950; Stuiver & Polach (1977)).

References. a: this study, b: Sommer et al. 2011, c: Gravlund et al. 2012, d: Kveiborg 2014, e: Heinemeier 1999.

during the Middle Holocene (Bennike *et al.* 2008). *P. impennis* is extinct but its bones are well known from Ertebølle sites in Denmark. *P. crispus* is a southern species that no longer lives in Denmark (Hatting 1963).

The bone material excavated by Thomsen & Jessen included two bones of horse, but Winge did not include this species in his list, presumably because he considered the age of them doubtful. Degerbøl (1933) discussed these horse bones and suggested that they represent Equus ferus (wild horse). This viewpoint has been confirmed by direct radiocarbon dating of one of the bones, which gave an age of c. 6300 cal. years BP, and which fits into a general central European repopulation of wild horse tracing the Neolithic expansion (Table 1; Sommer et al. 2011). Degerbøl & Fredskild (1970) discussed if some of the ox bones from Rugholm represent domestic cows but concluded that the bones likely come from *B. primigenius*. One of these bones has been dated to c. 6220 cal. years BP (Table 1; Gravlund et al. 2012), which predates the arrival of domestic cattle to Denmark (Sørensen 2015).

Data on the fossil marine mollusc fauna from a gyttja layer from the Rugholm excavation were provided by Thomsen & Jessen (1906). They reported the following 13 species of molluscs: *Ostrea edulis* (European flat oyster), *Mytilus edulis* (blue mussel), *Cerastoderma edule*

(common cockle), Parvicardium exiguum, Venerupis corrugate (= Tapes pullastra), Ruditapes decussatus (palourde clam), Scrobicularia plana, Macoma balthica, Littorina littorea (winkle), Hydrobia ulvae, Bittium reticulatum, Tritia reticulata (= Nassa reticulata) and Retusa truncatula. The fauna shows that a fjord with a rich and diverse marine mollusc fauna existed in the area during the Stone Age.

In 1944–1945 new excavations were carried out at the Rugholm site. The aim was to collect material for exhibitions in Aarhus (Haugsted *et al.* 1947), however, new pollen analyses were also carried out (Andersen 1947). The analysed samples were referred to the late part of pollen zone VII, corresponding to the late part of the Atlantic chronozone (Mangerud *et al.* 1974) or to *c.* 6000–7000 cal. years BP.

In recent years, archaeological excavations have been conducted in connection with urban development east of Brabrand Sø (Rasmussen 2009a, b, 2012, 2017; Kveiborg 2014) and it is clear that the Brabrand Fjord area has been an important area for pre-historic people. A shell of a marine bivalve (*Cerastoderma*) from the fjord gave an age of *c*. 5500 cal. years BP, and a shell of a marine gastropod (*Littorina*) from Aarhus, at the entrance to the fjord gave an age of *c*. 5170 cal. ka BP (Table 1). However, so far little information is available

² Calibration to calendar years BP (2 sigma) is according to the IntCal20 and Marine20 data (Reimer et al. 2020; Heaton et al. 2020).

³ Median probability ages.

on the duration of the fjord stage and no attempt to obtain continuous records of environmental changes has been carried out so far.

Study area

Brabrand Sø is located in a 2–3 km wide buried valley with a Quaternary succession that is over 100 m thick (Lykke-Andersen 1973). This incised valley is interpreted as a tunnel valley, where meltwater has eroded Quaternary and pre-Quaternary strata. The lake is fed by Aarhus Å draining a catchment of 310 km². In pre-historic times the Brabrand Sø area (Fig. 2) was a fjord, which was connected to Aarhus Bugt in the east. Brabrand Fjord was c. 12 km long, c. 700 m wide in the west and more in the east. At present, part of the former fjord is occupied by two lakes, Brabrand Sø and Årslev Engsø. Brabrand Sø is east—west-oriented, 2.8 km long and 300–600 m wide with an area of 154 ha. The maximum water depth was 1.8 m in 1979 (Høy

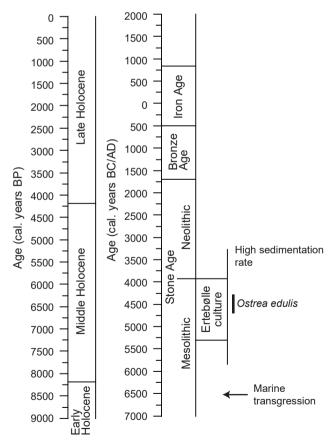


Fig. 3. Chronology and overview of Holocene changes at Brabrand Fjord. The division of the Holocene is from Walker *et al.* 2019 and the archaeological time periods are from Skousen (2008).

1979). According to historical maps, 200 years ago the lake was approximately 1 km longer than at present. Lake level lowering and deposition of sediment have reduced the size of the lake. During the period from 1988 to 1995 about 500 000 m³ of sediment was dredged from the lake, in order to improve the water quality of the eutrophic lake and to prevent overgrowth of the lake. Årslev Engsø is an artificial, shallow lake that was created in 2003. The level of Brabrand Sø is 0.7 m above sea level (Høy 1979). The tidal range in Aarhus is about 40 cm during spring tide (DMI 2021), but sea level variations during stormy weather may exceed 150 cm (Kystdirektoratet 2019).

During the Late Holocene, the former Brabrand Fjord turned into the present lake because the relative sea level gradually fell *c*. 2.5 m (Mertz 1924). Raised marine deposits have been mapped at some sites along the shores of Brabrand Sø (Jupiter 2019).

Methods

Coring was carried out from a platform on the lake (May 2019) and at a site on land (March 2019), using a Russian peat corer (Jowsey 1966). The chamber was 1 m long and had a diameter of 5 cm. The corer was pushed or hammered into the sediment. The water depth at the lake site was 1.6 m (site A, Fig. 2). The site on land is located south-west of Brabrand Sø, at an elevation of c. 1 m above sea level (site B in Fig. 2). Whole cores were brought to the laboratory where they were cleaned and subsampled. Contiguous 4 cm thick samples were taken for macrofossil analyses. Sediment samples were wet sieved on 0.4, 0.2 mm sieves, and the residue left on the sieves was transferred to a petri dish. Macroscopic remains of plants and animals were identified and counted using a dissecting microscope. The numbers in the macrofossil diagrams refer to the number of shells per sample, however, many of the shells represent small juvenile specimens. Many of the shells, especially of M. edulis, were fragmented - in this case, hinge fragments were counted. In general, preservation was good to excellent, but at some levels carbonate shells were somewhat dissolved. This means that thin-shelled organisms may be under-represented at these levels. A total of 320 samples were analysed for macrofossils.

Selected remains were dried and submitted for radiocarbon dating using accelerator mass spectrometry. Dating was carried out at the Aarhus AMS Centre, Aarhus University. Radiocarbon ages were calibrated to calendar years before present (BP) using CALIB v. 8.2 with the IntCal20 or Marine20 calibration curves (Reimer *et al.* 2020; Heaton *et al.* 2020). For

marine samples, we used a ΔR value of –150 years, which corresponds to a reservoir age of 400 years. However, the local reservoir age may have varied in the past (Olsen *et al.* 2009), and ages of marine shells are therefore more uncertain than ages of remains of terrestrial plant.

Results and discussion

Sediments

Simplified logs are shown in Figs 4, 5. The sediments at core site A consisted, from the bottom upwards, of (1) 40 cm light-grey homogenous clay and silt, (2) 55 cm brown sand, layered fine- and medium-grained sand in the lower part and homogenous coarse-grained sand in the upper part, (4) 39 cm grey, homogenous shell-rich sand, (5) 8 cm grey silt and fine-grained sand. This layer was almost completely lost during coring. It was followed by (6) 100 cm grey, homogenous shell-rich sand, (7) 428 cm dark olive-grey homogenous gyttja with abundant well-preserved leaves of

deciduous woody plants and with scattered marine shells, (8) 80 cm dark-grey homogenous detritus gyttja.

At core site B we found (1) 30 cm grey poorly sorted sand and fine gravel with *in situ* roots in the upper part, (2) 155 cm marine sediments consisting of brown shell-rich sand in the bottom, dark-brown homogenous sandy gyttja with shells and homogeneous gyttja with marine shells and remains of *Phragmites*, (3) 85 cm alternating layers of fine-grained sand and coarse detritus gyttja, and (4) 75 cm brown peat, decomposed in the upper part.

Radiocarbon ages and sedimentation rates

A total of 15 samples were dated (Table 1; Figs 4, 5). At site A a *Populus tremula* (aspen) bud scale and a twig provide ages of the terrestrial vegetation that covered the deeper parts of the fjord before it was inundated by the sea; these samples gave ages of *c*. 10 400 and 10 600 cal. years BP. The oldest dated marine shell yielded an age of *c*. 9100 cal. years BP, however, this age appears to be somewhat too old, according to the relative sea-level curve for the area (Bennike *et al.* 2021b). It is possible that the local reservoir age was

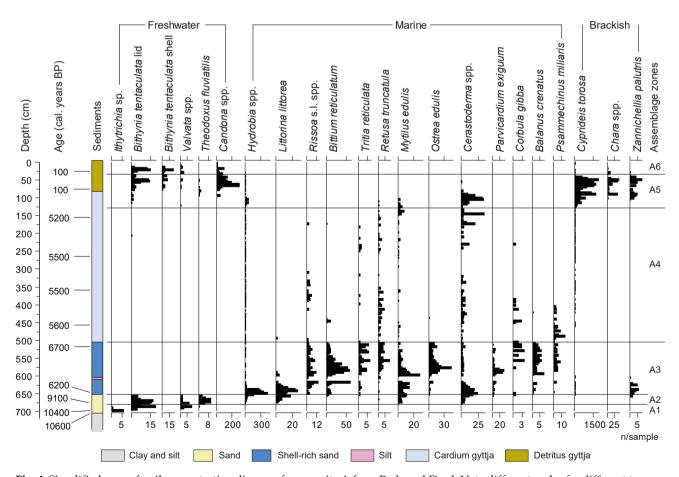


Fig. 4. Simplified macrofossil concentration diagram for core site A from Brabrand Fjord. Note different scales for different taxa.

larger than 400 years during the initial marine transgression and we suggest that the fjord was inundated c. 8500 cal. years BP. Dating of two shells of O. edulis gave ages of c. 6300 and 6700 cal. years BP, however, the ages are reversed, indicating that the shell-rich sandy sediment was deposited during a time period with strong currents that led to reworking of shells. Four samples of leaves from the next layer gave ages between c. 5600 and 5100 cal. years BP, indicating a very high sedimentation rate. The high sedimentation rate may be the reason that the leaves were wellpreserved. Thus usually, only the veins of the leaves are found in Holocene sediments. Finally, two samples from the upper part of the succession gave young ages. The ages show that the succession is characterised by major hiati and it was not possible to reconstruct an age-depth curve from the dated samples.

At site B a small *in situ* root and a shell of *L. littorea* both gave ages of *c.* 7700 cal. years BP, indicating that the site was inundated by the sea at that time. The youngest shell from the site was dated to *c.* 5800 cal. years BP and a sample of achenes of the reed plant *Schoenoplectus lacustris* (bulrush) gave an age of *c.* 2900 cal. years BP. This shows that a major hiatus is also found at site B.

Macrofossils

Core site A. The macrofossil diagram from core site A was divided into six local assemblage zones (A1–A6; Fig. 4).

Zone A1 is characterised by sand with a mixture of terrestrial, wet-ground and limnic plants such as *P. tremula*, *Betula* sect. *Albae* sp. (tree birch), *Schoenoplectus* spp., *Carex* sp. (sedge), *Urtica dioica* (common nettle), *Filipendula ulmaria* (meadowsweet), *Eupatorium cannabinum* (hemp-agrimony), *Menyanthes trifoliate* (bogbean) and *Nymphaea alba* (white water lily). A single tooth of a small rodent was also found. The lowest fossiliferous samples contained remains of larvae of the caddisflies *Ithytrichia* sp. (probably *Ithytrichia lamellaris*), *Hydropsyche pellucidula* and *Lepidostoma hirtum* and head capsules of larvae of Simuliidae (blackflies; Table 2).

Larvae of the recorded caddisflies and blackflies are typical inhabitants of rivers and streams with fairly fast-flowing water (Wiberg-Larsen et al. 2001; Bennike & Wiberg-Larsen 2002), and the sandy sediment is interpreted as a stream deposit. Larvae of non-biting midge Stenochironomus sp. are miners of macrophytes (Brooks et al. 2007). A bit higher up follows shells of the gastropods Valvata cristata, Valvata piscinalis, opercula of the freshwater gastropod Bithynia tentaculata, shells of the small bivalve Pisidium sp. and statoblasts of the bryozoan Cristatella mucedo. The gastropods are primarily inhabitants of lakes, but the presence of sandy sediment may indicate a at least partly lotic environment.

Zone A2 contains shells of the freshwater gastropods V. cristata, V. piscinalis, rare shells and common opercula of B. tentaculata and shells of Pisidium sp. Shells of the gastropod *Theodoxus fluviatilis* (river nerite) are common; this species is usually classified as a freshwater species and it is nowadays widely distributed in Aarhus Å (Wiberg-Larsen, unpubl.), but it also lives in brackish water. Zone A2 also contains shells of marine or brackish-water mollusc species, such as Hydrobia sp., L. littorea, M. edulis and Cerastoderma sp. The mixture of freshwater species and marine species may indicate that the salinity alternated between marine and freshwater conditions during the earliest stage of the marine inundation. It is also possible that the remains of freshwater species were transported into the fjord from a nearby stream (no doubt being a former Aarhus Å and its major tributary Lyngbygaards Å), but we consider this option less likely because the shells of the freshwater species are thin and hardly survives transport. The zone forms a transition from freshwater conditions to marine conditions.

Zone A3 contains numerous shells of marine molluscs, whereas shells of fresh-water species are absent. Remains of land plants and limnic plants are also absent. The fauna is dominated by the gastropods *Hydrobia* sp., *L. littorea*, *Rissoa* spp. (*R. parva* and *R. membranacea*) and *B. reticulatum* and the bivalves *M. edulis*, *O. edulis* and *Cerastoderma* sp. The fauna also comprises for example *Musculus discors*, *Mysella bidentata*, *Spisula subtruncata*, *Abra alba*, *R. decussatus*, *P.*

Table 2. Arthropod remains from assemblage zone A1, core site A from Brabrand Fjord, Denmark

Order/family	Genus/species	694 cm	698 cm
Oribatida	Hydrozetes?		2 exoskeletons
Trichoptera, Hydropsychidae	Hydropsyche pellucidula		1 frontoclypeal apotome
Trichoptera, Hydroptilidae	<i>Ithytrichia</i> sp.	1 case	7 cases
Trichoptera, Lepidostomatidae	Lepidostoma hirtum	2 genae, 1 pronotum	
Diptera, Simuliidae		6 head capsules	13 head capsules
Diptera, Chironomidae	Stenochironomus sp.	1 head capsule	1 head capsule
Diptera, Chironomidae	Micropsectra sp.		2 head capsules

exiguum, Corbula gibba, T. reticulata, Triphora adversa, R. truncatula, Onoba semicostata, Lacuna divaricata, the barnacle Balanus crenatus, the crab Carcinus maenas, the sea urchin Psammechinus milliaris and the polychaete worm Pomatoceros triqueter. Remains of crabs are rarely reported from Quaternary sediments, but the samples from Brabrand Fjord contained a few dactyls (moveable fingers from the claw) of crabs.

The lower part of the zone is characterised by abundant shells of *Hydrobia* spp., many shells of *L. littorea* and Cerastoderma sp., whereas shells of *O. edulis* are rare; the species becomes common in the upper part of the zone. The fauna is rich and diverse with a total of 24 taxa of molluscs. The fossil assemblage indicates shallow water influenced by currents and increasing salinity and water depth. The presence of *O. edulis* and *R. decussatus* is noteworthy as these species no longer live in the inner Danish waters; they indicate salinities and summer temperatures higher than pre-industrial values. Water plants are represented by fruits of *Zannichellia palustris* in the lower part of the zone and by rare fruits of *Ruppia* sp., both being common in shallow marine or brackish waters.

Zone A4 is characterised by gyttja with *Cerastoderma* sp., *M. edulis* and *Hydrobia* spp., whereas *Rissoa* spp., *B. reticulatum*, *T. reticulata*, *R. truncatula* and *C. gibba* are rare or fairly rare. The fauna also comprises for

example *S. subtruncata, M. bidentata, M. balthica,* jaws of the polychaete worm *Nereis* sp. A total of 15 taxa of molluscs were found in this zone. The fine-grained sediment indicates a low energy environment and the fauna indicate somewhat lowered salinity, although *B. reticulatum* indicates a salinity above 25 ‰.

Zone A5 is characterised by huge numbers of the ostracod *Cyprideis torosa*, fairly high numbers of *Cerestoderma* (in the lower part of the zone), *Chara* sp., *Z. palustris*, *B. tentaculata* and *Candona* sp. *Cyprideis torosa* is typical of brackish-water environments with fluctuating salinities (Pint *et al.* 2012), and we suggest that the sediments accumulated during the transition from fjord to lake. The plants *Chara* and *Zannichellia* are also typical of brackish water, although they may also grow in freshwater. *B. tentaculata* is a freshwater species, whereas some *Candona* species can live in brackish water. This zone marks a transition from fjord to lake.

Zone A6 contains shells of molluscs such as *B. tentaculata*, *V. cristata*, *V. piscinalis*, *Anisus contortus*, *Acroloxus lacustris*, *Pisidium* sp., shells of ostracods (*Candona* sp., *Darwinula stevensoni*, *Cyclocypris laevis*), the caddisfly *Orthotrichia* sp., the bryozoans *Cristatella mucedo* and *Fredericella* sp., the water plants *Ranunculus* sect. *Batrachium* sp., *Potamogeton perfoliatus* and *Callitriche* sp. This assemblage represents a limnic or

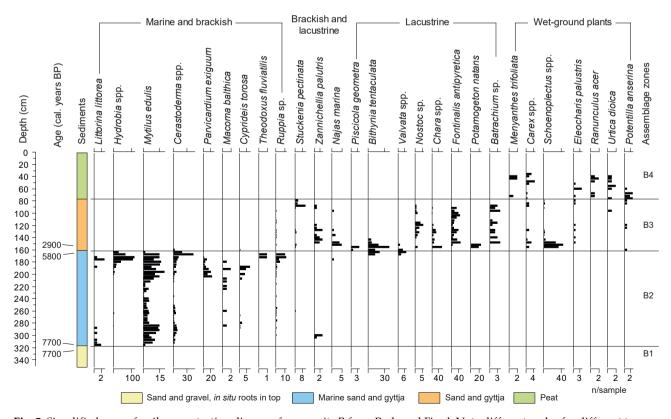


Fig. 5. Simplified macrofossil concentration diagram for core site B from Brabrand Fjord. Note different scales for different taxa.

lentic environment with macrolimnophytes and a rich fauna of invertebrates. The zone contains low numbers of *C. torosa* shells, which we interpret as reworked from zone A5.

Core site B. The macrofossil diagram from core site B was divided into four local assemblage zones (B1–B4; Fig. 5).

Zone B1 contains roots of woody and non-woody plants.

Zone B2 is characterised by shells of marine bivalves and gastropods, in particular *M. edulis* and *Cerastoderma* spp. Rare shells of *L. littorea* occur in the bottom and top of the zone, and shells of *Hydrobia* spp. are abundant in the top. Other marine molluscs comprised the bivalves *P. exiguum* and *M. balthica* and the gastropods *B. reticulatum* and *Aclis walleri*. There is a small peak of the ostracod *C. torosa* below the top of the zone, and two shells of the gastropod *T. fluviatilis* were found near the top of the zone. Remains of water plants are rare but fruits of the vascular plants *Ruppia* sp. and *Zannichellia palustris* were recorded. Shells of freshwater gastropods are found in the uppermost part of the zone. A total of 9 taxa of marine molluscs are recorded in zone B2.

Zone B3 is dominated by remains of water plants such as the vascular plants *Ruppia* sp. (rare), *Stuckenia* pectinata, *Z. palustris*, *Najas marina*, *Batrachium* sp., *Ceratophyllum demersum*, *N. lutea*, *Myriophyllum spicatum*, *Potamogeton perfoliatus*, the algae *Nostoc* sp. and *Chara* spp. and the bryophyte *Fontinalis antipyretica*. In the lower part of the zone shells and opercula of freshwater molluscs are found, the most common species are *B. tentaculata*, *V. cristata* and *V. piscinalis*. The zone also contains fruits of wet-ground plants such as the *Scirpus* s.l. spp., *Carex* spp. and *Eleocharis palustris*.

Zone B4 is dominated by vegetative remains of *Phragmites australis*. In the lower part rare fruits and seeds of wet-ground plants such as *Eleocharis palustris, Carex* spp., *M. trifoliata, Alisma plantago-aquatica, Ranunculus flammula, Ranunculus acer, U. dioeca, Caltha palustris* and *Cicuta virosa* occurred. Achenes of *Potentilla anserina* were also fairly common at the base of zone B4, perhaps due to trampling by domestic animals near the core site. The upper part of the peat did not contain fruits or seeds because the peat was decomposed.

Palaeoenvironmental reconstruction of Brabrand Fjord

The light-grey clay and silt at core site A is interpreted as a glaciolacustrine deposit and the poorly sorted sand and fine-grained gravel at core site B as a glacio-fluvial deposit. Both sediment types are likely from the last deglaciation of the region.

During the earliest Holocene, the region was covered by open woodland with Betula, Pinus and Populus (Odgaard 1994). A stream, probably the predecessor of present-day Aarhus Å that drained the area west of Aarhus Bugt was found at the bottom of the valley. The stream housed a fauna that included larvae of the caddisflies Ithytrichia sp. and Hydropsyche pellucidula, confined to rivers and major streams, and Lepidostoma hirtum, mainly recorded from major streams. There is no clear indication that a lake existed in Brabrand Fjord prior to the marine transgression, which may indicate that there is no threshold between Brabrand Fjord and Aarhus Bugt. When marine waters began to inundate the area at c. 8500 cal. years BP, a brackishwater phase followed, with *Hydrobia* sp., *L. littorea*, *M.* edulis and Cerastoderma sp. These taxa are common in shallow-water coastal areas with brackish water in the region at present (Muus 1967).

Somewhat later fully marine conditions with a rich fauna that included *O. edulis* and *R. decussatus*. Thomsen & Jessen (1906) noted that the *O. edulis* shells from the Rugholm site were up to 100–110 mm long. This can be compared with lengths up to 160 mm recorded from the Limfjord (Madsen *et al.* 1900; Nordmann 1903) and a maximum length of 53 mm for shells from southern Lolland (Bennike, unpublished data). The fairly species-rich marine fauna in the former Brabrand Fjord and the large size of *O. edulis* shells indicate favorable conditions with high salinities over 25 ‰, nutrient-rich warm waters and a tidal amplitude larger than at present. However, the conditions were not as favorable for *O. edulis* as in the Limfjord during the Middle Holocene.

Thomsen & Jessen (1906) reported on 13 species of molluscs, and we found a total of 24 taxa of molluscs. Two ages of 6300 and 6700 cal. years BP correspond to the Ertebølle culture (Fig. 3), during which shell middens dominated by *Ostrea edulis* shells accumulated in the region (Andersen 2007). The shell-rich sandy sediments indicate a high-energy environment with strong bottom currents, which was probably caused by a fairly large tidal amplitude.

In the Early Neolithic, fine-grained marine gyttja accumulated in Brabrand Fjord at a high rate, indicating a marked shift to a low-energy environment. A shift to higher sedimentation rates is seen in several other fjords in the region (Lewis *et al.* 2016) and in the former Arrefjord in north-east Sjælland a shift in sedimentation from sand to gyttja occurred (Bennike *et al.* 2017). The shift in Arrefjord was dated to between 6700 and 6200 cal. years BP, apparently earlier than the shift registered in Brabrand Fjord. Lewis *et al.* (2016) discussed if the change in sedimentation rate dated to *c.* 5900 cal. years BP could be due to forest clearance by early farmers. However, only minor changes

in soil erosion rates are seen in lake records from the region during the relevant time interval (Bennike et al. 2021c). Increased sedimentation rates could also be caused by a relative sea level fall, which could lead to increasing erosion in the streams entering the fjords but it appears that increasing sedimentation rates occurred prior to sea level fall. Lewis et al. (2016) suggested that gradually falling temperatures following the Holocene thermal maximum as reconstructed by for example Brown et al. (2011) led to increasing sedimentation rates, but we find it difficult to see how falling temperatures could have a strong influence on sedimentation rates. We suggest that a decline in the tidal amplitude could be the factor that allowed fine-grained sediment to accumulate at a high rate in Brabrand Fjord in the Early Neolithic and caused a major shift in sedimentation rate in other fjords in the region.

We have not been able to provide a precise age for the transition from the fjord stage to the current lake stage, but bracketing ages from the core sites indicate that the shift occurred between 5200 and 2900 cal. years BP. The transition was caused by relative sealevel fall and longshore sediment transport along the shores of Aarhus Bugt, closing off the mouth of the fjord. There is a large hiatus in the upper part of the succession from core site A in Brabrand Fjord. This hiatus could be caused by the dredging of sediments from the lake.

The terrestrial fauna during the time of the Ertebølle culture included the mammals *B. primigenius* (aurochs), *E. ferus* (wild horse) and the bird *T. urogallus* (capercaillie). The presence of the latter two species may indicate that the forests in the area were fairly open. By the time of the Ertebølle culture, aurochs had died out on the Sjælland and Fyn, perhaps the forests on these islands had become too closed for this species. The marine fauna included *P. groenlandica* (harp seal) and *P. impennis* (great auk), bones of which have been recorded from many Middle Holocene sites in Denmark. Overall, the marine invertebrate and vertebrate faunas during the Middle Holocene were rich, reflecting higher than present-day temperatures, more salty water – and probably a larger tidal amplitude.

Conclusions

This macrofossil study of the palaeoenvironmental history of Brabrand Fjord shows that the area has a complex Holocene history. A stream drained the region that was transgressed by the sea at about 8500 years BP. The early marine fauna was species-poor, but during the Ertebølle culture a rich marine fauna with *Ostrea*

edulis (oyster) was found in the fjord. The fauna and the presence of sandy sediments in the fjord indicate strong bottom currents, which were likely due to a high tidal amplitude. In the Early Neolithic, fine-grained gyttja accumulated rapidly in Brabrand Fjord and other fjords in the region. We suggest that a marked decrease in the tidal amplitude could be the reason. We could not date the transition from fjord to lake, probably because of dredging of sediments in the lake.

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First occurrence of a frog-like batrachian (Amphibia) in the Late Triassic Fleming Fjord Group, central East Greenland

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During the Triassic, Batrachia diverged into ancestors of frogs (Salientia) and salamanders (Caudata). Fossils of Triassic batrachians are rare and found only in a few outcrops, such as the Middle Sakamena Formation of Madagascar (Induan). Only three Triassic taxa have been described, the two early frogs *Triadobatrachus* and *Czatkiobatrachus* and the early salamander *Triassurus*. Here we describe a right ilium, collected in 1991, attributed to the first batrachian from the Late Triassic Carlsberg Fjord Member (Ørsted Dal Formation, Fleming Fjord Group) in the Jameson Land Basin, located in central East Greenland. The fossil specimen only displays the proximal part of a right ilium, missing its shaft. After a thorough comparison with several clades (lizards, temnospondyls, salamanders and frogs), we consider the specimen as a lissamphibian sharing feature with salientians and anurans: squarish acetabular region, deeply concave acetabular surface, laterally projecting acetabular rim, flat mesial surface. It is the youngest Triassic specimen of Batrachia to date and one of the northernmost of the Late Triassic.

Supplementary file: Features potentially used for differentiating ilia of anurans and urodeles with updated nomenclature and specimen NHMD-154502, *Triadobatrachus, Czatkobatrachus, Triassurus* and *Kokartus*. https://doi.org/10.37570/bgsd-2022-70-08s1

Keywords: Lissamphibia, frogs, salamanders, ilium, Late Triassic, Fleming Fjord Group.

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Late Triassic lake and fluvial deposits from the Jameson Land Basin of central East Greenland have provided many vertebrates (e.g. Jenkins *et al.* 1994; Clemmensen *et al.* 2016; Agnolin *et al.* 2018; Marzola *et al.* 2018; Sulej *et al.* 2020; Beccari *et al.* 2021). In addition, trackways of archosaurs, including dinosaurs, are known from the same deposits (Jenkins *et al.* 1994; Klein *et al.* 2016; Lallensack *et al.* 2017), as well as coprolites (Hansen *et al.* 2016; Milàn *et al.* 2021) and abundant invertebrate trace fossils (Bromley & Asgaard 1979).

There have been several expeditions to study the Late Triassic deposits of the Jameson Land Basin in East Greenland since the 19th century (Marzola *et al.* 2018). Many expeditions focused on Mesozoic strata in Jameson Land during the late 1960s and early 1970s, leading to the discovery of rare vertebrate fossils from Triassic deposits, most of them being temnospondyl remains (Clemmensen 1980b). From 1988 to 2001, the Late Triassic of the Jameson Land Basin was the subject of successive vertebrate palaeontological expeditions to sample fossil tetrapods by Harvard University

(HU), Massachusetts, USA, in collaboration with the University of Copenhagen (UC), Denmark and the Natural History Museum of Denmark (NHMD). The team from the 1991 expedition recovered a large number of vertebrate fossils. Among them, we identify and describe an amphibian ilium in this paper.

The Triassic period witnessed the development and appearance of most tetrapod groups that constitute modern vertebrate fauna, such as mammaliaforms, squamates, crocodylomorphs and lissamphibians (Jenkins *et al.* 1997; Irmis *et al.* 2013; Ascarrunz *et al.* 2016; Simões *et al.* 2018; Sulej *et al.* 2020).

However, Batrachia Latreille, 1800 is rarely preserved in the fossil record from the first half of the Mesozoic. The cladogenesis of Anura Duméril, 1805 (frogs) and Urodela Duméril, 1806 (salamanders) is obscure, and their divergence is still debated but often estimated as Early Permian (Pyron 2011; Marjanović & Laurin 2014, 2019). The earliest batrachians have been recovered in the Olenekian of Madagascar, with the sub-complete specimen Triadobatrachus massinoti (Piveteau, 1936) and Poland, with disarticulated remains of Czatkobatrachus polonicus Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka, 1998. Both are members of the clade Salientia Laurenti, 1768, also known as protofrogs (Piveteau 1936; Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 1998, 2009a; Rage & Roček 1989; Ascarrunz et al. 2016). In Kyrgyzstan, the earliest Caudata Scopoli, 1777 (protosalamanders) is Triassurus sixtelae Ivakhnenko, 1978, known from Middle to Upper Triassic (Ladinian/ Carnian), with two reasonably complete specimens (Ivakhnenko 1978; Schoch et al. 2020). Recently, some new specimens of Salientia have been reported from the lower part of the Tiki Formation of India (possible Carnian in age), an incomplete jaw of an indeterminate Eodiscoglossus sp. (Kumar & Sharma 2019) and from the Chinle Formation of the United States, in Arizona, consisting of several ilia and a partial maxilla from the Late Triassic (Carnian/Norian; Stocker et al. 2021). The indeterminate Eodiscoglossus sp. identification remains dubious based on the resemblance of the material to one of Grigorescu et al. (1999), which had been later reassigned to Paralatonia transylvanica Venczel & Csiki, 2003 (see Venczel et al. 2016).

Here, we describe the first batrachian remains from the Carlsberg Fjord Member (Ørsted Dal Formation) in the Late Triassic Fleming Fjord Group in the Jameson Land Basin in central East Greenland (Clemmensen *et al.* 2020). This find adds new knowledge to the palaeogeographical distribution of the clade and adds to the diversity of the Late Triassic Greenland vertebrate fauna.

Taxonomic definition

Batrachia includes Salientia (frogs and proto-frogs) and Caudata (salamanders and proto-salamanders).

Salientia includes Anura (extant frogs) and every taxon closer to Anura than Urodela (Milner 1988).

Caudata includes Urodela (extant salamanders) and every taxon closer to Urodela than Anura (Milner 1988).

Geological setting

The Jameson Land Basin is situated in Jameson Land and Scoresby Land in central East Greenland, around 71° N (Clemmensen et al. 2020; Fig. 1). Its boundaries are the Stauning Alper in the west, the Liverpool Land area in the east, the fracture zones in the Kong Oscar Fjord region in the north and the Scoresby Sund in the south (Guarnieri et al. 2017; Clemmensen et al. 2020). During the Late Triassic period, East Greenland was located at 41° N on the northern rim of the supercontinent Pangaea, bordered by the Boreal Sea to the North (Clemmensen 1980a, b; Clemmensen et al. 1998; Kent & Tauxe 2005; Nøttvedt et al. 2008; Kent et al. 2014; Andrews & Decou 2018). The Jameson Land Basin was situated at the southern end of the East Greenland rift system, which formed part of a larger rift complex separating Greenland from Norway before the Atlantic opened (Ziegler 1988; Nøttvedt et al. 2008; Guarnieri et al. 2017). Since the Late Triassic, the basin has rotated 45° clockwise and translated 30° northward relative to present-day meridians (Kent & Tauxe 2005).

The Jameson Land Basin contains a relatively thick succession (~1.0 to 1.7 km) of Lower Triassic to Lower Jurassic continental sediments, including alluvial fan, braided river, aeolian dune, flood plain, saline playa lake and freshwater lake deposits (Clemmensen 1980a; Dam & Surlyk 1993; Clemmensen et al. 1998; Nøttvedt et al. 2008; Clemmensen et al. 2020). In the uppermost part of the Triassic succession (the Fleming Fjord Group), freshwater lake deposits are particularly well exposed on steep cliff sides facing the Carlsberg Fjord (Clemmensen et al. 2016, 2020). The Fleming Fjord Group, which has a thickness of about 350 m, consists of the basal Edderfugledal Formation, the middle Malmros Klint Formation and the uppermost Ørsted Dal Formation, including the Carlsberg Fjord Member (Clemmensen et al. 2020). Vertebrate fossils have primarily been found in lake and mudflat deposits from the two uppermost formations (Jenkins et al. 1994; Marzola et al. 2017; Clemmensen et al. 2020).

Material and Methods

Institutional Abbreviations: BSM: Bavarian State Collection for Palaeontology and Geology (Bayerische Staatssammlung für Paläontologie und historische Geologie), Munich, Germany; DMNH: Dallas Museum of Natural History (Perot Museum of Nature and Science), Dallas, Texas, United States; FMNH: Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, Illinois, United States; GIN: Geological Institute of the Russian Academy of Sciences (Geologicheskiy Institut Ran), Moscow, Russia; JAM: Jósef Attila City Library and Museum Collection (Jósef Attila Városi Könyvtár és Muzeális Gyűjtemény), Komló, Hungary; HU: Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, United States; MMP: Municipal Museum of Natural Sciences 'Lorenzo Scaglia' (Museo Municipal de Ciencias Naturales 'Lorenzo Scaglia'), Mar del Plata,

Argentina; MNHN: National Museum of Natural History (Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle), Paris, France; NOVA: NOVA University Lisbon (Universidade NOVA de Lisboa), Lisbon, Portugal; NHMD: National History Museum of Denmark (Statens Naturhistoriske Museum), Copenhagen, Denmark; PEFO: Petrified Forest National Park; PIN: Palaeontological Institute of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia; TMP: Royal Tyrell Museum of Palaeontology, Drumheller, Alberta, Canada; UC: University of Copenhagen (Københavns Universitet), Copenhagen, Denmark; UMNH: Utah Museum of Natural History, Salt Lake City, Utah, United States; ZPAL: Institute of Palaeobiology, Polish Academy of Sciences (Instytut Palaeobiologii, Polskiej Akademii Nauk), Warsaw, Poland; ZIN PH: Palaeoherpetollogical Collection, Zoological Institute, Russian Academy of Sciences, St Petersburg, Russia.

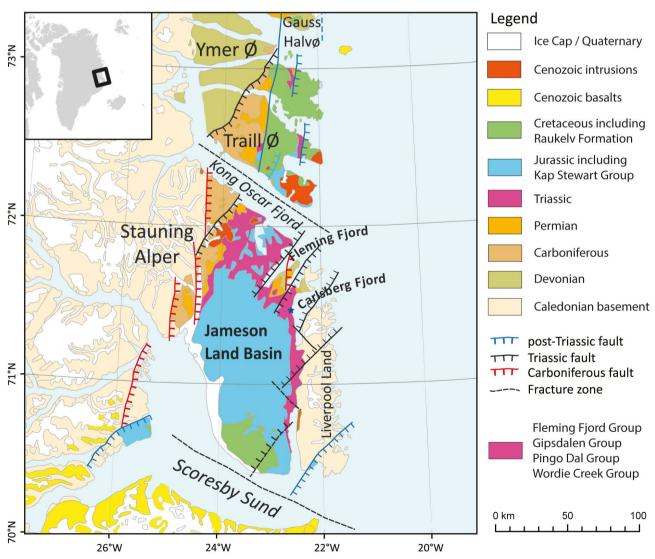


Fig. 1. Geological map of central East Greenland with the Jameson Land Basin. The blue star indicates the location of Tait Bjerg (from Clemmensen *et al.* 2020, modified).

The material presented here (NHMD-154502) was collected in 1991 during an expedition involving collaborations between the NHMD, the UC and HU (Jenkins *et al.* 1994). The specimen described here was sampled at Tait Bjerg from a thin bone bed 50 m above the base of the Carlsberg Fjord Member (Jenkins *et al.* 1994; site 62/91/G). The thin bone bed is situated within chron E15 (Kent & Clemmensen 2021), dating the specimen to approximately 212.5 Ma. The Carlsberg Fjord Member has recently been dated by magnetochronology and covers a period between 214 and 211 Ma within the Norian (Kent & Clemmensen 2021; Mau *et al.* 2022).

The material was photographed with a digital microscope (Dinolite pro AM4111T (R4)) and with an autonomous camera (FLEXACAM C1) fixed to a stereomicroscope (Leica M165 C) by stacking multiple pictures (~50) with the software Leica Application Suite X (LAS X) at the NOVA.

Terminology: We follow herein the terminology of Gómez & Turazzini (2016), slightly modified to adapt the comparison with non-salientian taxa. We decided to use 'acetabular surface' instead of 'acetabular fossa' since it can be flat and add three new terms: 'lateral oblique groove', 'posterior margin' and 'anterior margin'. The specimen has been compared with multiple materials representing various taxa.

Systematic palaeontology

Amphibia Linnaeus, 1758

Lissamphibia Haeckel, 1866

Batrachia Latreille, 1800

?Salientia Laurenti, 1768 (sensu Milner 1988) (aff.)

Specimen referred. Proximal part of a right ilium, NHMD-154502.

Locality. The specimen was collected during the 1991 American-Danish expedition to the eastern margin of the Jameson Land Basin, along the west slope of Tait Bjerg (71°28′34″ North 22°40′43″ West).

Horizon. A thin bone bed over- and underlain by purple, massive lake mudstone (Jenkins *et al.* 1994). Carlsberg Fjord Member of the Ørsted Dal Formation in the Fleming Fjord Group, Late Norian 212.5 Ma.

Description. The specimen (NHMD-154502) is a right ilium with a broken shaft. The acetabular surface

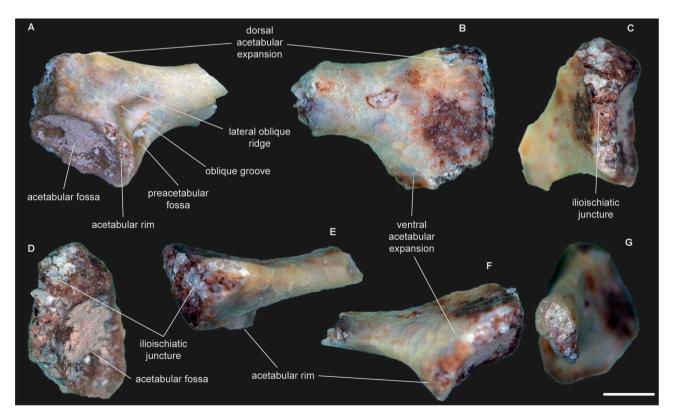


Fig. 2. Right ilium of the Greenland ?Salientia NHMD-154502. A: lateral view. B: medial view. C: proximal view. D: proximo-lateral view. E: ventral view. F: dorsal view. G: distal view.

forms a 1 mm wide (from the posteroventral edge to the acetabular rim) and 2 mm long (from posterior to ventral extremity) semi-circular deep concavity in the lateral view, sunk into the bone. It is bordered dorsally, anteriorly and ventrally by a convex acetabular rim strongly projected laterally, easily discernible anteriorly and ventrally (Figs 2A, E-F). Unfortunately, the posterior part of the dorsal acetabular expansion is not preserved, preventing us from fully understanding the actual shape of the ilial body. The dorsal acetabular expansion is well developed and triangular, while the ventral acetabular expansion is absent. The preacetabular zone is visible anterior to the acetabular surface. It is a circular fossa 0.5 mm broad and 0.1 mm deep (Fig. 2A). The medial surface is flat and slightly concave, with no interiliac tubercle (Figs 2B–C, E–F). In a proximal view, the ilioischiatic juncture is asymmetrical, its thickness varying mediolaterally, with the most dorsal part being 1 mm wide and the most ventral part 0.5 mm wide (Figs 2C-D). This difference in wideness is due to the dorsal acetabular expansion and acetabular rim participation and the absence of a ventral acetabular expansion in the shape of the ilioischiatic juncture. Its lateral half part is triangular with a roughened surface with its lateral tip joined by the acetabular rim. The rest of the ilioischiatic juncture surface has been damaged, not allowing us to understand how the ilium was attached to the ischium. The dorsal margin of the body between the shaft and the dorsal acetabular expansion is straight, lacking any dorsal prominence or dorsal tubercle (Figs 2A, F). The lateral surface exhibits two anterodorsally to posteroventrally inclined ridges, oblique to the shaft direction, anterior to the acetabular rim and dorsal to the preacetabular surface on the lateral surface (Fig. 2A). The most ventral ridge borders the preacetabular zone dorsally. It may be difficult to distinguish the dorsal lateral ridge from surface bone as it lacks any discernible process. The most notable features are its height and its flattened shape. The two short ridges are separated by a rectangular groove of 1 mm in length, 0.5 mm in width and as deep as the preacetabular zone (0.1 mm deep). The shaft cross-section is oval, with a height of 1.3 mm and a width of 0.7 mm; its ventral margin is mediolaterally compressed (Fig. 2G).

Discussion

The attribution to Lissamphibia was based on comparisons with several vertebrates known from the Late Triassic of the Jameson Land Basin and nearby

localities (see Marzola *et al.* 2018). Despite differences in dimensions, it shares an overall similarity (ilial body and shaft) with several groups of Temnospondyli von Zittel, 1887 and Lepidosauromorpha Benton, 1983.

Comparison to Lepidosauromorpha

The shaft represents less than 50% of the body width in lateral view (Fig. 2A), being thinner than in lepidosauromorphs (Borsuk-Białynicka 2007, fig. 3; Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 2009b, figs 11A, 11C1; Paparella *et al.* 2019, figs 1A–1C, 1G). Squamates display three distinct processes: the posterior process (or posterior iliac-blade), the preacetabular process and the anterior supracetabular process, lacking in some lepidosauromorphs, like *Sophineta cracoviensis* Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 2009a, from the Early Triassic of Poland (Paparella *et al.* 2019). None of these features appears in the Greenland specimen, which has a deeper acetabular surface.

Comparison to Temnospondyls

Comparison to large Triassic Temnospondyls

Many temnospondyl specimens have been found in the Jameson Land Basin, lacking an ilium for comparison (see Marzola *et al.* 2018). The material was compared to specimens from other crops in the Early Mesozoic, mostly from Capitosauria Yates & Warren, 2000 and Trematosauria Yates & Warren, 2000, the two main groups that lived during the Late Triassic (Warden & Snell 1991; Yates & Warren 2000; Maisch *et al.* 2004). Since within temnospondyls, the shape of the ilium is highly variable between each clade (Schoch 1999), the specimen was compared to both groups individually (Figs 3A–C).

For Capitosauria, three species have been selected: Paracyclotosaurus davidi Watson, 1958, Stanocephalosaurus pronus (Howie, 1970) and Mastodontosaurus giganteus Jaeger, 1828. Their ilium is a short and stout piece of the pelvic girdle, comprising two parts expanded anteroposteriorly, as in most capitosaurs (Watson 1958, fig. 12; Howie 1970, fig. 18; Schoch 1999, fig. 46). Watson (1958) did not describe the ilium of Paracyclotosaurus; it is very similar to Stanocephalosaurus, which is described as a dorsoventrally short bone with an elongated, flattened shaft that expands distally (Howie 1970). The shaft is longer in Mastodontosaurus (Schoch 1999; Fig. 3B). The cross-section of the shaft is oval to nearly round ventrally and flattens dorsally. The proximal region, bearing most of the acetabulum, is also well expanded anteroposteriorly, especially on the posterior side, with the acetabular surface almost entirely on the ilium and consisting

of a little round concavity (Watson 1958; Howie 1970; Schoch 1999).

Comparison with Trematosauria is based on ilia from two trematosauroids: an indeterminate trematosaurid from the Middle Jurassic (Maisch et al. 2004) and Trematolestes hagdorni Schoch, 2006, from the Middle Triassic. In addition, we compared NHMD-154502 with two brachyopoids from the Late Triassic, Compsocerops cosgriffi Sengupta, 1935 and Pelorocephalus mendozensis Cabrera, 1944. Finally, two metoposauroids from the Late Triassic, Metoposaurus diagnosticus krasiejowensis Sulej, 2002 and Apachesaurus gregorii Hunt, 1993 were also used for comparison. The ilium is very similar to what is seen in Lissamphibia, especially for metaposaurids, with a long shaft, barely expanded to unexpanded anteroposteriorly, corresponding to more than 60% of the total length of the ilium, whereas the ilial body is extended on either side of the acetabular surface (Sengupta 1935, fig. 14; Marsicano 1993, fig. 10; Maisch et al. 2004, fig. 2; Schoch 2006, fig. 6; Sulej 2007, figs 58, 59; Spielmann & Lucas 2012, figs 26, 27). Metoposaurus differs by having a sinusoidal shaft oval to round in cross-section (Sulei 2007; Fig. 3C). The trematosauroids possess a well-defined acetabulum, though smaller than in the Greenland specimen (Maisch et al. 2004, figs 1, 2A; Schoch 2006, fig. 6). Pelorocephalus does possess two ridges on its lateral surface running along the shaft and joining each other at mid-length, and only one is close to the acetabular surface, which is limited by a sizeable nail-shaped rim (Marsicano 1993, fig. 10). Compsocerops has an acetabular surface that is more similar to our specimen. Its centre is under the edge of the base of the ilium; however, it is confined on both sides of its dorsal edge by two deep grooves (Sengupta 1935, fig. 14). The base of the ilium of metaposaurids has a right-angle shape, the lateral edge being the hypotenuse (Sulej 2007, fig. 59), a considerably different base compared to the Greenland specimen (Figs 2C, D).

Comparison to Amphibamiformes

To help in the allocation of NHMD-154502 to a clade, we also compared it with three representative specimens of Amphibamiformes Schoch, 2019: *Doleseryeton*

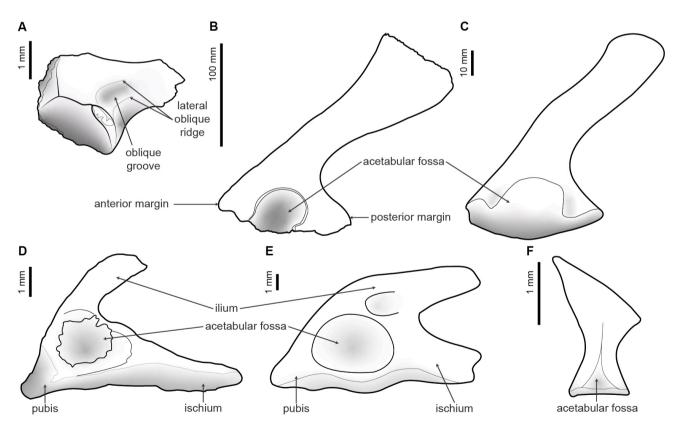


Fig. 3. Compilation of ilia, NHMD-154502 and temnospondyls. A: Right ilium of Ørsted Dal Formation specimen (NHMD-154502), Norian. B: Left ilium (inversed) of *Mastodonsaurus giganteus*, Ladinian, after Schoch (1999). C: Right ilium of *Metoposaurus diagnosticus krasiejowensis*, (ZPAL AbIII/632), Norian, after Sulej (2007). D: Right pelvis (ilium, pubis and ischium) of *Doleserpeton annectens*, (FMNH UR1379), Lower Permian, after Sigurdsen & Bolt (2010). E: Right pelvis (ilium, pubis and ischium) of *Micropholis stowi*, (BSM 1934 VIII 43C), Induan, after Schoch & Rubidge (2005). F: *Tungussogyrinus bergi*, (PIN 4262/4a), Late Permian to Early Triassic, after Wernerburg (2009).

annectens Bolt, 1969 (a Lower Permian amphibamid), *Micropholis stowi* Huxley, 1859 (a Lower Triassic micropholid) and *Tungussogyrinus bergi* Efremov, 1939 (a Late Permian – Early Triassic branchiosaurid); this clade, although mainly known in the Permian, is phylogenetically close to lissamphibians according to several analyses. We could not compare our specimen to *Gerobatrachus* due to a lack of details on the ilium of the specimen in the original publication.

The 4 mm long ilium of *Doleserpeton* is fused with pubis and ischium and has a dorsal blade oriented posterolaterally as large as two-thirds of the acetabular surface (Sigurdsen & Bolt 2010; Fig. 3D). The authors have lightly described the ilium of Doleserpeton in itself; the drawing suggests that the concave acetabular surface occupies a large part of the body of the ilium, and the anterior margin is fine and straight, although the posterior margin is concave and skinny. It reminds NHMD-154502 if we consider the dorsal acetabular expansion as the posterior margin, the main difference being that Doleserpeton has a wider ilial shaft, corresponding to two-thirds of the width of the acetabular surface, and a thinner anterior margin. The shaft of NHMD-154502 only represents half of its acetabular surface, and its dorsal acetabular expansion is extremely large (Fig. 3A). According to the drawing and the authors, no lateral structure has been spotted.

Similarly, *Micropholis* has an ilium fused with the other pelvic belt bones (Schoch & Rubidge 2005; Fig. 3E). The body is vast, the acetabulum occupying about 55% with a skinny and angular posterior margin forming a slope with the dorsal margin of the blade and an extensive anterior margin. The dorsal blade, shorter, is more inclined horizontally and narrows ventrodorsally at the tip. The bone has an oval fossa positioned anterodorsally to the acetabulum on the lateral surface, but Schoch & Rubidge (2005) did not mention it.

Tungussogyrinus has an ilium shaped like an hourglass (Fig. 3F). It is shaped like an isosceles triangle and framed by anterior and posterior margins of the same width. The dorsal shaft extends in the anteroposterior axis, especially in the anterior direction (Werneburg 2009). The acetabulum occupies only a tiny proportion of the body.

NHMD-154502 differs from the typical ilia of Triassic temnospondyls. First, there is an essential variation in size between the multiple temnospondyl taxa and NHMD-154502. For example, the ilia of *Mastodontosaurus* are around 25 cm long (Fig. 3B), while the ilia of *Metoposaurus* vary from 6 cm to 10 cm long (Sulej 2007). NHMD-154502 is closer to amphibamiforms in size (e.g. Doleserpeton: 4 mm long). As seen before, temnospondyl ilia have an anteroposteriorly expanded dorsal blade and a massive anteroposteriorly

expanded ventral part bearing the dorsal part of the acetabular surface (Warden & Snell 1991). The acetabular surface is mainly centred in large temnospondyls (Schoch 1999, fig. 46; Maisch *et al.* 2004, fig. 1; Sulej 2007, figs 58, 59). On the other hand, this surface is offset in amphibamiforms and the Greenland specimen (Figs 3A, D–F), as in many salientians (Shubin & Jenkins 1995; Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 1998; Ascarrunz *et al.* 2016; Stocker *et al.* 2019). Moreover, most temnospondyls lack any structure on the lateral surface of the ilium, as seen in the specimen presented here (Fig. 3A), refuting the possibility of attribution of the Greenland ilium to this group.

Comparison to Caudata/Urodela

The ilium of salamander and frog are very alike. Thanks to a few papers, it is now easier to differentiate the two groups when only scattered fragments are present, such as, for example, the ilium. For salamanders, this element shares some similarities with ilia of non-lissamphibian temnospondyls (Fig. 4).

Comparison to Caudata

Unfortunately, among the few ilia of stem-Caudata preserved, they are generally flattened due to the preservation, making it difficult to appreciate their actual shapes. Among the caudate species known in the bibliography, only ilia of *Triassurus sixtelae* and *Kokartus honorarius* Nesov, 1988 could have been observed, the other taxa missing this element (see Skutschas *et al.* 2018 for *Kulgeriherpeton*; Evans *et al.* 1988 for *Marmorerpeton*; Skutschas & Krasnolutskii 2011 for *Urupia*). The ilium of *Triassurus* is very similar to those of temnospondyl, looking like an hourglass in lateral view, with a triangular acetabular region (Schoch *et al.* 2020: figs 1C, 2B).

Seven ilium fragments have been identified for *Kokartus*, preserving only the acetabulum region and the base of the shaft (Averianov *et al.* 2008; Fig. 4B). According to the authors, the acetabular surface has the shape of a kidney and is bordered anteriorly and posteriorly by slit-like depressions. The ilioischiatic juncture is asymmetrical and convex, thickened anteriorly in a similar way to NHMD-154502, although it is thickened dorsally for the latter (see Averianov *et al.* 2008: fig. 7O). The authors did not mention the form of the acetabular surface, but it seems shallowly concave. The presence of a protuberance projecting laterally at the dorsal margin of the acetabular surface distinguishes it from our specimen.

Comparison to Urodela

The ilium of Urodela does not differ significantly from stem-Caudata: a triangular acetabular region in lateral

view, with posterior and anterior margins almost subequally developed, with a smooth medial surface, either flat or convex and a thin asymmetrically concave ilioischiatic juncture with lateral edge excavated and grading into the acetabular surface (Gardner et al. 2010). The acetabular surface of Urodela varies highly in shape: generally, distally elongate, longer than larger (kidney-shape), subtriangular or semi-circular (Gardner et al. 2010; Figs 4C–E). The acetabular surface varies from shallowly concave or flat to flat saddle-shaped or sinuous (Gardner et al. 2010; Roček et al. 2012). Kokartus shows that the acetabular surface can be delimited by a low rim that does not extend laterally (Averianov et al. 2008). In some cases, the portion closest to the base of the shaft can project laterally in a ramp-like structure (Roček et al. 2012), as seen in Andrias scheuchzeri (Holl, 1831) and the indeterminate Urodela (Roček et al. 2012, fig. 2S; Szentesi et al. 2020; Figs 4D-E).

Comparison to Salientia/Anura

Contrary to salamanders, the pelvic girdle of frogs and their relatives had changed significantly from its ancestral state to allow the jumping locomotion specific to the group. Instead of projecting globally dorsally in salamanders, their elongated ilia display a shaft oriented anteriorly to anterodorsally (Milner 1988; Ford & Cannatella 1993) temnospondyls. This condition is present among the earliest salientians, *Triadobatrachus* and *Czatkobatrachus*, in the Chinle specimens and anurans (Gardner *et al.* 2010), although the shaft is shorter in the former. Due to this rotation, the

acetabular surface turns posterolaterally to laterally in extant frogs (Gardner *et al.* 2010; Roček *et al.* 2012). We note a similar condition in *Triadobatrachus*, where the acetabulum faces more laterally (Ascarrunz *et al.* 2016). Since the Greenland specimen is only an isolated ilium without its shaft, we can only suggest the putative direction of the acetabular surface being oriented posterolaterally and ventrally if considering the shaft is oriented laterally as in Salientia (Ford & Cannatella 1993).

Comparison to Salientia

In contrast to Caudata, isolated ilia of Salientia have been found multiple times and described. The outline of their ilial body in lateral view, excluding the acetabulum fossa, is triangular as in Triadobatrachus and the Chinle specimens, or squarish as seen in Czatkobatrachus, with a dorsal acetabular expansion well developed and barely developed (or absent) ventral acetabular expansion for all three (Figs 5B–E). The acetabular surface on their ilia is semi-circular and concave (Rage & Roček 1989; Stocker et al. 2019), whereas in Czatkobatrachus, the whole surface is subtriangular and shallow (Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 2009). The acetabular rim does not stand out in Czatkobatrachus while it is easily discernible anteriorly and ventrally for *Triadobatrachus* and the Chinle specimens (Stocker et al. 2019; Figs 5B, D–E).

The medial surface is smooth, flat (or slightly concave) and does not bear any trace of an interiliac tubercle in *Triadobatrachus* and *Czatkobatrachus*, while it is not visible in the Chinle specimens (Rage & Roček

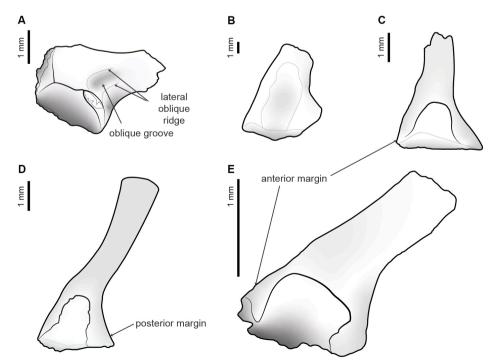


Fig. 4. Compilation of ilia, NHMD-154502 and salamanders. A: Right ilium of Ørsted Dal Formation specimen (NHMD-154502), Norian. B: Left ilium of Kokartus honorarius, (ZIN PH 48/47), Bathonian, after Averianov et al. (2008). C: Left ilium of Urodela indet., (TMP 96.78.199), Campanian, after Roček et al. (2012). D: Left ilium of Ambystoma mexicanum, (TMP 2010.30.06), Recent, after Gardner et al. (2010). E: Left ilium of Andrias scheuchzeri, (JAM 2006.185.47), Miocene, after Szentesi et al. (2020).

1989; Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 2009; Stocker *et al.* 2019: see supplementary file).

The ilioischiatic juncture has not been described or shown for *Triadobatrachus*, *Czatkobatrachus* or the Chinle specimens. For the first, ilia and ischia junctions are obscured because of overlapping in the fossil (Ascarrunz *et al.* 2016) In the case of *Czaktobatrachus*, the ilia are fused with the ischia, preventing any accurate description of the juncture (Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 2009). Furthermore, for the Chinle specimens, this area is too damaged for accuracy (Stocker *et al.* 2019).

Both earliest salientians, *Triadobatrachus* and *Czaktobatrachus*, share a dorsal prominence positioned between the dorsal acetabular expansion and the ilial shaft (Rage & Roček 1989; Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 2009), which differs them from NHMD-154502.

Comparison to Anura

Frogs possess an ilium remarkably similar to stem-Salientia: a triangular to squarish ilial body in lateral view, with strongly divergent dorsal and ventral acetabular expansions; a small to a large semi-circular or subtriangular acetabular surface whose deepness varies from deeply concave to bowl-shaped and partially sunk into the bone; the medial surface is smooth and flat to shallowly concave and may bear an interiliac tubercle; an ilioischiatic juncture flat or shallowly convex with a sharp posterolateral edge to distinct itself from the acetabular surface (Gardner *et al.* 2010).

Concerning the interiliac tubercle, anurans may bear a triangular one on the medial surface of the ilial body (Gardner *et al.* 2010; Roček *et al.* 2012), confirmed by Gómez & Turazzini (2016), who stated its absence in neobatrachians (except two genera), and that it is significantly developed only in aquatic taxa (e.g. pipids and palaeobatrachids). In extant frogs, the ilioischiatic juncture is thickened mediolaterally in most pipimorph and narrow in most other anurans (Gómez & Turazzini 2016), meaning that its thickness does not help in the differentiation between Anura and Urodela, as stated by Gardner *et al.* (2010) and Roček *et al.* (2012), even more, if we consider that both papers contradict them on that point.

As the description shows, NHMD-154502 displays various features on its lateral surface, like two ridges and a groove. A single lateral oblique ridge has been spotted in several pipimorphs (see Báez *et al.* 2012, figs 3B, 4A; Gómez & Turazzini 2016, fig. 3D; Fig. 5H). More

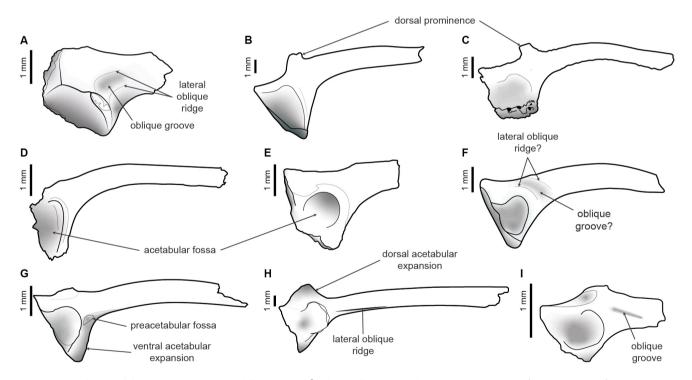


Fig. 5. Compilation of ilia, NHMD-154502 and frogs. A: Right ilium of Ørsted Dal Formation specimen (NHMD-154502), Norian. B: Right ilium of *Triadobatrachus massinoti*, (MNHN.F.MAE126), Induan, after Ascarrunz *et al.* (2016). C: Right ilium of *Czatkobatrachus polonicus*, (ZPAL AbIV/114), Induan, after Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka (2009a). D–E: Right ilia of Chinle Formation specimens (D, DMNH 2018-05-0002; E, PEFO 41743), Norian, after Stocker *et al.* (2019). F: Right ilium of *Prosalirus bitis*, (MCZ 9324A), Pliensbachian, after Jenkins & Shubin (1998). G: Left ilium (inversed) of *Bufo viridis*, (GIN-11142/120), early Middle Pleistocene, after Tesakov *et al.* (2019). H: Right ilium of a pipid from Daireaux (MMP M-5121), Upper Pleistocene, after Báez *et al.* (2012). I: Left ilium (reversed) of Dakota Formation specimen (UMNH 13158), late Cenomanian, after Roček *et al.* (2010).

interestingly, Prosalirus bitis Shubin & Jenkins, 1995, an early Jurassic anuran, possesses two lateral oblique ridges, although they are located more dorsally and are inclined in the opposite directions, perpendicular to the ilial shaft (Shubin & Jenkins 1995; Gardner et al. 2010; Fig. 5F). The groove separating the two lateral ridges is reminiscent of a similar wider and shorter structure described in anurans from the Late Cretaceous of Utah (Roček et al. 2010, figs 5J-K; Fig. 5I). NHMD-154502 shows both types of structures, ridges and a groove; thus, both structures could be present on other specimens, but their presence means nothing concerning the inclusion of NHMD-154502 in Anura since they have not been considered in numerous phylogenetic analyses, except Báez et al. (2012), and are typically absent in the majority of anuran (Gómez & Turazzini 2016).

Summary of the comparison

The supplementary file (adapted from Gardner *et al.* 2010, Appendix 1) helps to differentiate the ilia of anurans, urodeles, NHMD-154502, two salientians (*Triadobatrachus* and *Czatkobatrachus*) and two caudates (*Triassurus* and *Kokartus*). The specimen shares more features with salientians and anurans than any other clade: squarish acetabular region, deeply concave acetabular surface, laterally projecting acetabular rim and flat mesial surface. Triassic caudates are incomplete

or not detailed enough, and the features concerning the shaft cannot be treated for NHMD-154502. Based on these statements, NHMD-154502 is considered as a batrachian closer to Salientia than to Caudata.

Triassic lissamphibians are poorly documented, with only three well-known genera: *Triadobatrachus*, *Czatkobatrachus* and *Triassurus* (Piveteau 1936; Ivakhnenko 1978; Evans & Borsuk-Białynicka 1998). The Greenland specimen is the first lissamphibian reported from the Jameson Land Basin in East Greenland. Therefore, it is one of the northernmost Triassic occurrences of Lissamphibia and most likely the youngest, dated to 212.5 Ma (Fig. 6). The earliest frogs (including at least a complete ilium) described from the Late Triassic are the Chinle specimens from Arizona, dated from 217 Ma to 213 Ma (Stocker *et al.* 2019).

Conclusion

This study describes the first lissamphibian discovered from the Triassic of the Jameson Land Basin, Greenland, based on an incomplete right ilium from the Norian of the Carlsberg Fjord Member (Ørsted Dal Formation) in the Fleming Fjord Group.

The ilium has been compared to various taxa such as lepidosauromorphs, temnospondyls, salamanders and frogs. It is identified as a batrachian displaying

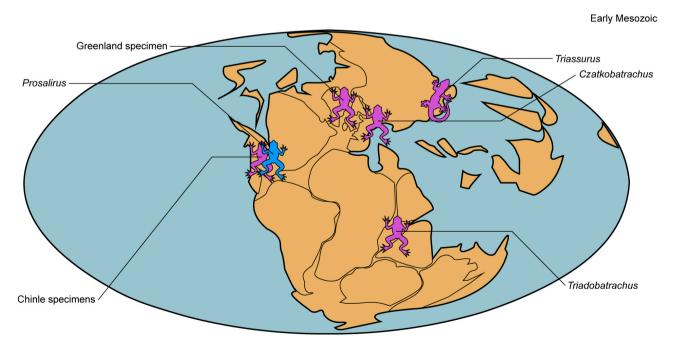


Fig. 6. Triassic palaeogeography, with localities of Triassic batrachian and the Greenland specimen. Frog and salamander icons mark the location of each specimen; purple for a Triassic locality and blue for an Early Jurassic locality (Paleobiology Database; Authorizers: M. Carrano, R. Butler, T. Cleary and J. Alroy).

several features suggesting an affinity with salientians: a squarish acetabular region, deeply concave acetabular fossa, laterally projecting acetabular rim, and flat mesial surface. This study reinforces the view that, during the Late Triassic, batrachians were more widespread than previously known and reached as far north as 41° palaeolatitude. It is also one of the northernmost occurrences of Batrachia from the Late Triassic.

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Cutting through sponge and time – a new record of *Koptichnus rasmussenae* (trace fossil) from the Kerteminde Marl (middle Paleocene), Denmark

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A new trace fossil, *Koptichnus rasmussenae*, was recently reported from the Cretaceous of Denmark. This burrow is thickly lined with cuboids that the tracemaker cut from siliceous sponges. A newly discovered specimen from the lower Selandian Kerteminde Marl, found in a loose boulder in the Gundstrup gravel pit (Fyn, Denmark), extends the stratigraphical range of this ichnotaxon from the previously known Coniacian to the middle Paleocene and demonstrates that this distinct behaviour of harvesting and shaping building material survived the K-Pg extinction event.

Keywords: domichnia, armoured burrow, sponge, Selandian, K-Pg extinction event.

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The trace fossil *Koptichnus rasmussenae* was recently described by Vallon *et al.* (2020). It is an armoured burrow system (Buatois *et al.* 2017) similar to *Ophiomorpha* Lundgren, 1891, but using cuboids (cubelike polyhedra) of siliceous sponges instead of sediment nodules as lining material. These building blocks are characterised by having a fairly uniform size and shape and they are interpreted as being cut from sponges by an arthropod tracemaker (Vallon *et al.* 2020).

Previous records of this peculiar trace fossil from Denmark include the Coniacian (Arnager Limestone; Bornholm) and Maastrichtian chalk localities at Stevns Klint (Sjælland) and northern Jylland (Fig. 1; Vallon *et al.* 2020). Although the newly recovered specimen derives from ice-rafted loose material in a gravel pit, the specimen can be assigned with certainty to the Kerteminde Marl by lithological comparison. Micropalaeontological analyses of lithologically similar blocks from the same locality have proved that they represent the Kerteminde Marl (Schnetler & Nielsen 2018).

Geological setting

The Gundstrup gravel pit is located about 20 km north of Odense on Fyn (Fig. 1). There, glacially transported boulders represent the Kerteminde Marl, which crops out in the northern and eastern parts of Fyn (Gry 1935, Schnetler & Nielsen 2018). The boulders, therefore, are expected to have been transported less than 50 km (Schnetler & Nielsen 2018; see also Fig. 1). The Kerteminde Marl was deposited during the lowermost Selandian, immediately above the Danian–Selandian transition, and has a similar if not identical age as the Lellinge Greensand Formation of Sjælland (Schnetler & Nielsen 2018).

The Kerteminde Marl is predominantly a monotonous, light grey silty marl, in places with slightly silicified layers. It may contain pyrite (Gry 1935) and has been homogenised by intensive bioturbation (Heilmann-Clausen 1995), probably by meiofauna. Body fossils are diverse and common at the Gundstrup locality (Foraminifera, Porifera, Annelida,

Decapoda, Cirripedia, Bryozoa, Brachiopoda, Echinodermata, and Vertebrata including 'ganoid fishes', Elasmobranchii, Cheloniidae, and Aves). Only a few groups (e.g. molluscs: Schnetler & Nielsen 2018 and some vertebrates, e.g. Myrvold *et al.* 2018) have been treated systematically. Trace fossils have so far only been briefly mentioned in other studies (e.g. *Teredolites* by Schnetler & Nielsen 2018; *Lepidenteron* by Schwarzhans *et al.* 2021).

In the palaeoenvironmental interpretation of Clemmensen & Thomsen (2005), the Kerteminde Marl was deposited under fully marine conditions at a water depth between 100 and 150 m (see also King 1994, 2016, who inferred an outer to middle neritic setting). Compared to those of other localities, the silicified boulders from Gundstrup are of coarser sediment than the typical Kerteminde Marl and have a higher content of benthic fossils (Heilmann-Clausen & Surlyk 2017, p. 195). A relatively high sedimentation rate is indicated by reworking of Cretaceous chalk sediments from the uplifted Tornquist-Sorgenfrei Zone (Fig. 1; Heilmann-Clausen & Surlyk 2017). Slight silicification of the sediment (Gry 1935; Heilmann-Clausen 1995) might have its origin in the occurrence and dissolution of abundant siliceous sponges (Fig. 3; see also Gry 1935). According to Clemmensen & Thomsen (2005),



Fig. 1. Map of Denmark and adjacent countries with major tectonic units. The locality of the Gundstrup gravel pit (star) is shown within the outcrop of Selandian sediments. Previously documented localities from the Cretaceous are indicated with arrows. Modified from Schnetler & Nielsen (2018) and Schwarzhans *et al.* (2021) with additional data from Brandes *et al.* (2018) and Vallon *et al.* (2020).

the bottom water was well ventilated at least in more arenaceous and glauconitic strata of the Kerteminde Marl (Gry 1935, p. 77), but planktonic production was low, resulting in a reduction of benthic food supply to the depositional environment of the Kerteminde Marl. The seafloor was probably influenced by weak water currents, as deduced from small, patchy accumulations of molluscs, together with driftwood containing *Teredolites* isp. (Schnetler & Nielsen 2018). The other trace fossils, however, are deeper-tier structures that imply oxygen-depleted sediments – as is usual below the redox potential discontinuity within a soft substrate. Oxygen depletion below this discontinuity is also suggested by micropyrite (cf. Gry 1935; Wilkins & Barnes 1997).

Description of the specimen

The specimen (Fig. 2) was collected and donated by Mette Hofstedt and Peter Mortensen in 2019. It is preserved in full relief, split longitudinally into two slabs. As in the specimens from the Cretaceous Arnager Limestone (Vallon *et al.* 2020), the sponge spicules have completely dissolved and only their moulds are preserved. These moulds have a light orange stain from metal oxides.

The two halves of the rock sample (Fig. 2A) have approximately the shape of a triangular prism. The slightly larger piece has edge lengths of about 10 cm each and contains the burrow itself. The burrow is flattened and individual cuboids of the lining material are somewhat weathered. The preserved burrow stretch is fairly rectilinear and unbranched. It is about 73 mm long and about 12 mm wide. Individual cuboids are about 3–4 mm in edge length.

The slightly smaller other half of the rock sample (Fig. 2B) contains the outermost area of the lining and shows well-preserved moulds of bundles of monaxone sponge needles (Fig. 2C). According to Dorte Janussen (written communication, 2021), the spicules appear to be rather similar and potentially derive from the same sponge genus. The monaxones appear to be root tuft spicules, probably belonging to the order Lyssacinosida, perhaps to the modern family Rossellidae.

The surrounding sediment is slightly silicified and contains an abundance of small bioclasts, most of them indeterminable. Amongst the identifiable bioclasts are mollusc and echinoderm fragments and an abundance of isolated sponge spicule moulds (Fig. 3).

Both halves of the specimen are housed in the collection of the National Museum of Natural History of Denmark, Copenhagen: MGUH 34070.

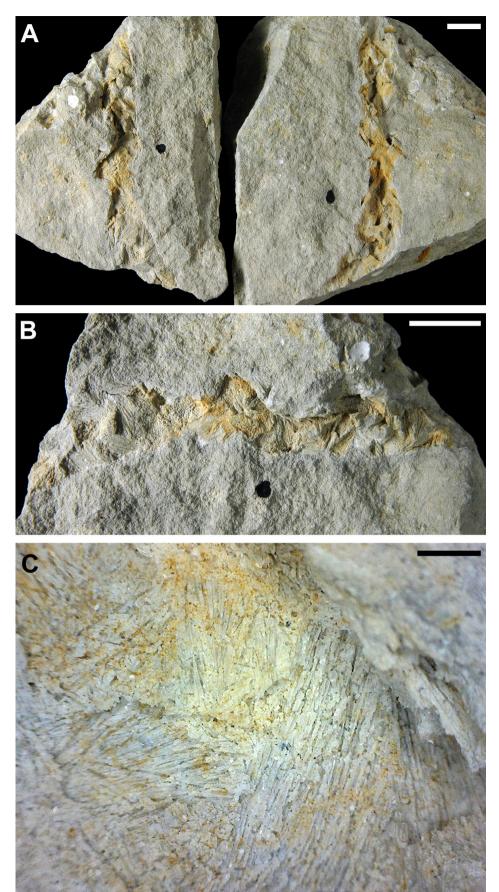


Fig. 2. Koptichnus rasmussenae (MGUH 34070) from the Gundstrup gravel pit. Scale bar: 10 mm. A: Overview of the two halves of the specimen. B: Smaller half. C: Detail of B. Imprints of monaxone spicular bundles cut into cuboids as building material for the burrow's lining.



Fig. 3. Detail of the surrounding sediment with numerous cross-cuts of unoriented sponge spicules and other bioclasts. Scale bar: 1 mm.

Interpretation

Vallon *et al.* (2020) inferred that *Koptichnus* is a shallow-tier trace fossil and that its thick lining was constructed to prevent collapse within soft chalk sediments. It particularly occurs close to small sponge accumulations or patch reefs. These not only provided the tracemakers with building material for the trace's lining, but also aided preservation of the burrows. At the previously described Cretaceous locations where *Koptichnus* occurs (Vallon *et al.* 2020), most other burrows lack such thick linings, suggesting that they were constructed in subsequently firmer substrates in the lower tier (Bromley & Ekdale 1984a; Ekdale & Bromley 1991). The preserved fauna, however, shows adaptations to softgrounds (e.g. cf. Heinberg 2012; Hansen & Surlyk 2014).

This apparent contradiction has its origin in continuous sedimentation. Most burrows from these locations were constructed in deep tiers below the seafloor, where the sediment was much firmer than in shallower tiers. With continuous sedimentation, the tracemakers and their burrows gradually moved upward. Under normal circumstances, bioturbation by these deep-tier burrowers erases the record of previous shallow-tier tracemakers (e.g. Howard 1978; Bromley 1996). However, the tiny sponge reefs were evidently impenetrable to these deep-tier burrowers and therefore acted, first, as shields against colonisation by deep-tier burrowers, and later as protection for shallow-tier traces that were made immediately below the sponge thickets.

The trace and body fossils occurring in the Kerteminde Marl indicate a very similar condition on the

Paleocene seafloor with softgrounds at the sediment-water interface grading into firmgrounds at some distance below the seafloor characterised by deep-tier trace fossils. The abundance of sponge spicules in the host sediment surrounding the new *Koptichnus* specimen points to a close proximity of sponges. These needles seem not to have been fused and therefore probably belong to the order Lyssacinosida. Most sponges associated with the previously described *Koptichnus rasmussenae* at Arnager (Vallon *et al.* 2020) also belong to the Lyssacinosida (e.g. Brückner 2006).

No systematic treatment of the Kerteminde Marl trace fossils is yet available, but in our own brief observations, the assemblage includes common *Chondrites* ispp., *Zoophycos* ispp. and very abundant *Lepidenteron mortenseni* (see also Schwarzhans *et al.* 2021). These deep-tier ichnotaxa generally are present below the redox potential discontinuity (e.g. Bromley & Ekdale 1984b; Ekdale & Mason 1988; Savrda 2007 and references therein). Typical trace-fossil taxa from upper tiers (except *Koptichnus*) have either been erased, eroded by glacial transport or have never been established. Together with *Koptichnus*, however, this association places the Kerteminde Marl in a transitional zone between the Seilacherian *Cruziana* and *Zoophycos* ichnofacies.

Seilacher (1964, 1967) recognised that certain trace fossils occur more frequently in specific environments because they express an assertive response (ethology) of their tracemakers to these particular environmental conditions (e.g. Buatois & Mángano 2011; MacEachern et al. 2012). The Cruziana ichnofacies is dominated by horizontal trace fossils, and inclined and vertical burrows occur subordinately. Its typical ethological trace-fossil groups belong to repichnia, fodinichnia, cubichnia, domichnia and pascichnia with a dominance of deposit- and detritus-feeding strategies. Most traces are produced by mobile organisms, but sedentary burrow-dwellers are present as well. The Cruziana ichnofacies is characterised by high ichnodiversity and abundance of trace fossils (Buatois & Mángano 2011). Only deep-tier trace fossils have been recovered so far in the Kerteminde Marl boulders from Gundstrup. Common ichnotaxa therefore belong to the fodinichnia and domichnia: e.g. Rhizocorallium commune and Thalassinoides paradoxicus? together with fanlike feeding burrows. The Cruziana ichnofacies is typically associated with medium-energy, sandy to silty substrates which can be found in shelf settings (Bromley 1996).

Originally, the *Zoophycos* ichnofacies was defined as dominated by deep-tier fodinichnia, ranging from relatively simple forms to rather complex structures having a spreite. Many of these deep-tier structures have been reinterpreted and are now regarded as

belonging to the recently introduced ethological category sequestrichnia (Uchman & Wetzel 2016, 2017; Uchman & Rattazzi 2017; Jurkowska et al. 2018; Rodríguez-Tovar et al. 2019; Uchman et al. 2019, 2020). This category comprises storage behaviour that is predominantly applied by tracemakers in deep-sea settings, where food availability fluctuates seasonally or episodically. In times of food abundance, the tracemakers store it within the deeper tiers, an activity that can be referred to as *stowing*, after Schäfer (1972); the tracemakers are then *stowers*. Here, the organic matter is preserved in poorly oxygenated sediments out of the reach of shallow-dwelling deposit feeders (Uchman & Wetzel 2016, 2017; for shallower environments see also Bromley 1996, pp. 100–101, fig. 4.25; Seilacher 2007, p. 54, pl. 18). Subordinately to sequestrichnia, pascichnia may also be present. The *Zoophycos* ichnofacies typically is dominated by deposit feeders and characterised by a low ichnodiversity with a high trace-fossil abundance (Buatois & Mángano 2011). In light of recent discoveries, stowing traces (sequestrichnia) should be added to the list (cf. Uchman & Wetzel 2016). Typical ichnotaxa of the Zoophycos ichnofacies that occur in the Kerteminde Marl are Zoophycos and Chondrites. This ichnofacies is characteristic of low-energy environments with muddy substrates in slope to abyssal settings (e.g. Bromley 1996).

Because elements of both Seilacherian ichnofacies are present, the Kerteminde Marl was likely deposited in the transitional zone between the *Cruziana* and *Zoophycos* ichnofacies. The trace-fossil content further supports previous palaeoenvironmental interpretations for the Kerteminde Marl as being deposited under fully marine conditions at water depths between 100 and 150 m (Clemmensen & Thomsen 2005; King 1994, 2016). Clemmensen & Thomsen (2005) inferred well ventilated bottom waters. Although the ichnocoenosis at hand was adapted to oxygen-depleted conditions, there is no contradiction. Most observed ichnotaxa derive from deeper tiers where oxygen availability was reduced (e.g. Bromley 1996).

Many shallow-tier tracemakers need to strengthen their burrows within the relatively soft sediment in order to prevent collapsing (e.g. Bromley 1996; Vallon *et al.* 2020). The use of bioclasts in such linings is rather uncommon compared to mucus-bound sediment because the tracemakers need to expend much time to collect, shape and assemble suitable material (Vallon *et al.* 2020). In *Koptichnus*, the collection and shaping of cuboids cut from hexactinellid sponges is unique (Vallon *et al.* 2020). Therefore, the range extension of *Koptichnus* across the K-Pg boundary suggests the persistence not only of an unusual behavior, but also of its makers, through the end-Cretaceous mass extinction. This is consistent with the hypothesis that

animals living in deep burrows were relatively well protected during this event (Robertson *et al.* 2004; Labandeira *et al.* 2016; Martin 2017).

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Further holocephalian remains from the Hasle Formation (Early Jurassic) of Denmark

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Oblidens bornholmensis, known from isolated upper posterior (palatine) and lower posterior (mandibular) tooth plates, was the first myriacanthid holocephalian to be described from the Hasle Formation (Pliensbachian, Early Jurassic) of Bornholm (Denmark). Further collecting in the Hasle Formation has yielded seven more specimens of myriacanthid tooth plates. Two mandibular tooth plates are assigned to Myriacanthus paradoxus, thereby extending both the geographical and stratigraphic range of the genus. In addition to new material of Oblidens bornholmensis, some distinctive myriacanthid palatine and mandibular tooth plates are described and left in open nomenclature. The Early Pliensbachian deposits of Bornholm preserve the most diverse myriacanthid fauna known to date.

Keywords: Bornholm, tooth plate, Holocephali, Myriacanthidae, Pliensbachian, Early Jurassic.

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Remains of holocephalians are much rarer in the fossil record than those of elasmobranchs, their chondrichthyan sister-group. Unlike elasmobranchs, in which the teeth are shed from the crest of the jaw continuously throughout life in a conveyor belt-like fashion, holocephalian teeth grow from their lingual surface throughout the life of the individual and are not shed. This means that a tooth plate specimen represents the death of an individual in holocephalians, whereas an isolated shark's tooth might represent loss during a single feeding episode.

Mesozoic holocephalians all belong to the Order Chimaeriformes, and can be classified into three suborders: the squalorajoids are represented only by the type genus (*Squaloraja*; Hettangian to Sinemurian of Europe); myriacanthoids range from the Rhaetian (Late Triassic) to the Tithonian (Late Jurassic) of Europe; true chimaeroids, whose oldest known representatives are *Eomanodon simmsi* and *Brachymylus latus* from the Pliensbachian of England and Germany respectively (Ward & Duffin 1989; Duffin 1996). The discovery of tooth plates of *Oblidens bornholmensis*, a

myriacanthid, on Bornholm (Duffin & Milàn 2017) marked the first record of the group in Pliensbachian deposits and the earliest point in the overlap of the ranges of the myriacanthoids and chimaeroids. Myriacanthoid remains seem to dominate the holocephalian fossil record in the Early Jurassic, but chimaeroid remains are more abundant and diverse by the Late Jurassic and Early Cretaceous.

Further specimens of myriacanthid holocephalian tooth plates have come to light since the initial work of Duffin & Milàn (2017). The purpose of the present paper is to describe and discuss this additional material and highlight holocephalian diversity in the Pliensbachian Hasle Formation.

Geological Setting

Bornholm (Fig. 1), a Danish island located south of Sweden in the Baltic Sea, is an upstanding, fault-bounded block. It is situated adjacent to the NW–SE-

trending Sorgenfrei-Tornquist Zone, separating the Danish Basin from the Baltic Shield, and whose movements had direct consequences for Mesozoic sediment supply and pulses of sedimentation. The type section for the Hasle Formation is exposed just south of Hasle town (Fig. 1B), approximately 1 km west of a fault line which controlled the shoreline geography during the deposition of the formation (Surlyk & Noe-Nygaard 1986; Milàn & Surlyk 2015). The formation is dominated by arenaceous deposits; reddish-brown, hummocky cross-stratified sandstones and swaley cross-stratified siltstones are interbedded with very fine sandstones (Duffin & Milan 2017, fig. 1C). Most of the vertebrate remains come from a fossiliferous conglomerate where they are mixed with basement rock clasts draping the bases of individual swales (Surlyk & Noe-Nygaard 1986; Larsen & Friis 2001).

The Hasle Formation is dated to the Early Pliensbachian based on its ammonite fauna, which places the formation within the lower Pliensbachian *Uptonia jamesoni* zone together with the *Acanthopleuroceras valdani* subzone of the overlying *Tragophylloceras ibex*

zone (Donovan & Surlyk 2003). Other invertebrates include several species of bivalves, scaphopods and belemnites (Malling & Grönwall 1909; Malling 1911, 1914, 1920; Höhne 1933; Donovan & Surlyk 2003). The Hasle Formation further yields a diverse vertebrate fauna comprising hybodont and neoselachian sharks (Rees 1998), isolated scales of as yet undetermined actinopterygians, and at least three plesiosaurian taxa (Milàn & Bonde 2001; Smith 2008). Recently remains of terrestrial animals have been described in the form of dinosaurian bone fragments and a mammalian tooth (Molin 2021), an osteoderm from a thallatosuchian crocodile (Milàn & Mueller-Töwe 2021), and a single, small theropod footprint (Milàn & Surlyk 2015).

Material and Methods

Six virtually complete holocephalian tooth plates were collected in 2019 and 2020 by Marianne Nattestad, and one specimen by Anton Wulff Jensen from the out-

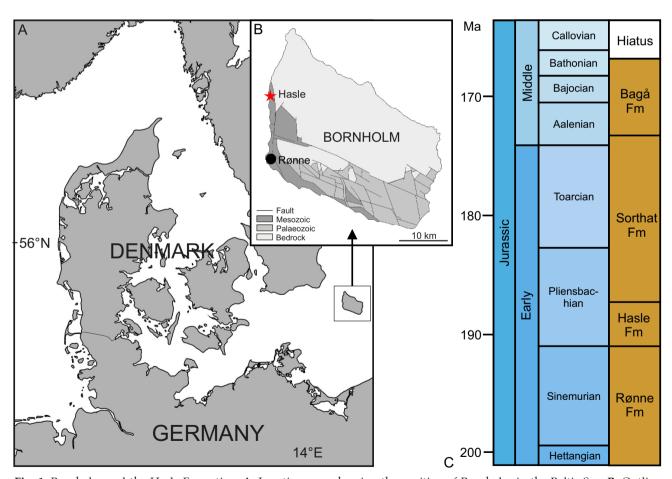


Fig. 1. Bornholm and the Hasle Formation. **A**: Location map showing the position of Bornholm in the Baltic Sea. **B**: Outline geological map of Bornholm, showing the location of Hasle. **C**: Late to Middle Jurassic stratigraphy of Bornholm, modified after Sandersen *et al.* (2014).

crop of Hasle sandstone just south of Hasle harbour, Bornholm. The specimens are declared Danekrae NHMD 633649–633653, NHMD 633654 and NHMD 873668. Danekræ are fossils, minerals or meteorites of exceptional scientific merit or value as items for exhibition purposes; the discoverer is rewarded for the material by the Danish state. All the specimens are now part of the collections of the Natural History Museum of Denmark (NHMD), Øster Voldgade 5-7, DK-1350 Copenhagen. The tooth plates were removed from the surrounding matrix by mechanical preparation using an air scribe.

Other institutional abbreviations used in this paper are as follows: NHMUK PV – Fossil Fish section, Earth Science Faculty, The Natural History Museum, Cromwell Road, South Kensington, London SW7 5BD, UK; SMNS – Staatliches Museum für Naturkunde in Stuttgart, Rosenstein 1-3, 70191 Stuttgart, Germany.

Myriacanthid holocephalians

Ranging in age from the Late Triassic (Rhaetian) to the Early Jurassic (Toarcian; Patterson 1965; Stahl 1999), members of the chimaeriform Family Myriacanthidae are characterised by the presence of a specialised hypermineralised tissue covering the greater part

of the occlusal surfaces of the single pair of upper (palatine) tooth plates and the single pair of lower (mandibular) tooth plates. Anterior to the palatine tooth plates, the paired vomerine tooth plates usually have the hypermineralised tissue arranged in distinct units or tritors. There is also a single medial tooth plate, the symphyseal tooth plate, anterior to the mandibular tooth plate pair. The hypermineralised dentine pillars sit upon a base of lamellar tissue. The occlusal surface of the tooth plate is often transected by a series of ridges with intervening depressions. These give rise to sufficient variation in occlusal surface topography to permit development of a sectorial component to the largely crushing function of the tooth plates. Recent work on the histology of the tooth plates of extant chimaeroids (Smith et al. 2019; Lijima & Ishiyama 2020; Johanson et al. 2021) has demonstrated that the phosphate mineral phase forming the dentinal pillars in the dental hypermineralised tissue of holocephalians is whitlockite (a magnesium and iron-rich calcium phosphate) rather than apatite. This has prompted the use of the term 'whitlockin' for the hypermineralised tissue formerly known as pleromin. Whilst the mineralogy of myriacanthid tooth plates has not vet been checked directly it is most likely to be identical to that of the chimaeroids. However, in the absence of definitive clarification of the chemical composition of the phosphate minerals forming the

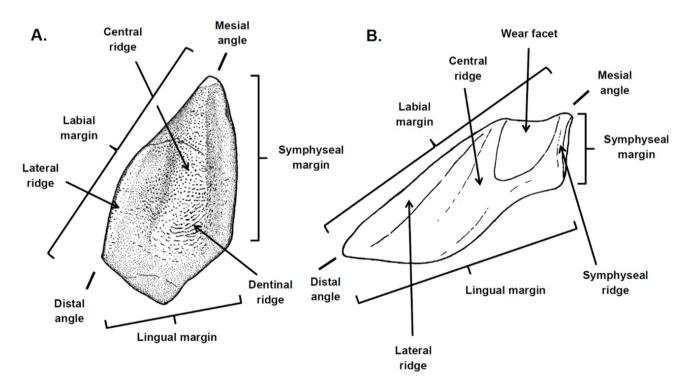


Fig. 2. Diagram showing the technical descriptive terms used in the text: **A:** NHMD 11740, a right upper posterior (palatine) tooth plate of *Oblidens bornholmensis* in occlusal view. **B:** NHMD 633652, a left lower posterior (mandibular) tooth plate of *Myriacanthus paradoxus* in occlusal view.

hypermineralised tissue of the tooth plates described here, the term 'pleromin' is the name retained here.

The most common myriacanthid fossils are isolated tooth plates whose robust structure favours preservation. Unlike the teeth of sharks, holocephalians do not shed their teeth during life, so the discovery of a tooth plate represents the death of an individual fish. Like their elasmobranch sister group within the chondrichthyans, holocephalians possess cartilaginous skeletons with a high organic content, and consequently low preservation potential. A few specimens preserving parts of the endoskeleton in varying degrees of articulation are known from certain conservation lagerstätten (Myriacanthus and Metopacanthus from the Hettangian to Sinemurian 'Lower Lias' of Lyme Regis in the UK, and Acanthorhina from the Toarcian Posidonienschiefer of SW Germany; Patterson 1965; Duffin 1983a). Dorsal fin spines are also commonly preserved as isolated elements. The Myriacanthidae currently contains 10 species distributed amongst eight genera, plus some material which remains in open nomenclature (Stahl 1999; Duffin & Milàn 2017).

A guide to the descriptive terminology used in this paper, originally developed by Duffin (1984), subsequently modified by Patterson (1992), and now in general use (Stahl, 1999) is given in Fig. 2.

Systematic Palaeontology

Class Chondrichthyes Huxley, 1880 Superorder Holocephali Bonaparte, 1832-1841

Order Chimaeriformes Obruchev, 1953

Suborder Myriacanthoidei Patterson, 1965

Family Myriacanthidae Woodward, 1889

Genus Myriacanthus Agassiz, 1836

Type species by monotypy. Myriacanthus paradoxus Agassiz, 1836, 'Lower Lias', Sinemurian (Early Jurassic) of Lyme Regis, Dorset, UK.

Myriacanthus paradoxus Agassiz, 1836

Fig. 3A, B

1822 "External defensive organ" De la Beche, vol. 1, p. 44, pl. 5 figs 1, 2.

1836 Myriacanthus paradoxus Agassiz, vol. 3, pl. 6.

1837 Myriacanthus paradoxus Agassiz, vol. 3, p. 38.

1837 Myriacanthus retrorsus Agassiz, vol. 3, 39.

1838 Myriacanthus retrorsus Agassiz, vol. 3, pl. 8a figs

1855 Chimaera (Ischyodon) johnsoni Terquem, p. 241, pl. 14 fig. 1.

1872 Prognathodus guentheri Egerton, p. 233, pl. 8.

1891 Myriacanthus paradoxus Woodward, p. 44, pl. 2

1906 Myriacanthus paradoxus Woodward, p. 2, pl. 1 figs 1-5.

1906 Myriacanthus paradoxus Dean, p. 143, text-figs 119, 119A, 142.

1965 Myriacanthus paradoxus Patterson, p. 128, text-figs 13-19, pl. 22 fig. 46, pl. 25 fig. 59, pl. 26 fig. 60, pl.

1992 Myriacanthus paradoxus Patterson, p. 45, figs 7A–C. 1993 Myriacanthus paradoxus Duffin & Delsate, textfig. 5f.

1994 Myriacanthus paradoxus Duffin, p. 12, figs 8a-b.

1995 Myriacanthus paradoxus Duffin & Delsate, p. 4, text-figs 3a, 4, pl. 1. figs a-b.

1999 Myriacanthus paradoxus Stahl, p. 120, figs 117C, 120-122, 123F.

1999 Myriacanthus paradoxus Duffin, p. 211, text-figs 23A-B.

2016 Myriacanthus paradoxus Duffin, p. 12, figs 8a.

2017 Myriacanthus paradoxus Duffin & Milàn, figs 4D, 5B.

Holotype. NHMUK PV P 6095, a dorsal fin spine (Agassiz, 1836 pl. 6 figs 1-2) from the Lower Lias (?Sinemurian, Early Jurassic) of Lyme Regis, Dorset, England.

Bornholm material. NHMD 633652, an isolated left lower posterior (mandibular) tooth plate freed from the matrix (Fig. 3A); NHMD 873668, an isolated right lower posterior (mandibular) tooth plate (Fig. 3B).

Horizon. Hasle Formation.

Age. 'Carixian', Early Pliensbachian, Early Jurassic (probably Uptonia jamesoni subzone to Acanthopleuroceras valdani subzone based on the Hasle Formation ammonite fauna collected from inland quarries; Donovan & Surlyk, 2003). No ammonites have been described from the coastal exposures.

Locality. Cliff section 100 m south of Hasle, Bornholm, Denmark; 55°10′44.18″N, 14°42′8.58″E.

Description of the Bornholm material. NHMD 633652 is an isolated left mandibular (lower) tooth plate measuring 27.5 mm across the diagonal from the mesial angle to the distal angle (Fig. 3A). The symphyseal margin is short (7.5 mm long) and straight, 4 mm deep and D-shaped in symphyseal view. It is marked



Fig. 3. The tooth plates of *Myriacanthus paradoxus* from the Hasle Formation (Early Pliensbachian) of Bornholm, Denmark. **A:** NHMD 633652 in occlusal and basal views. **B:** NHMD 873668 in occlusal and basal views. **C:** Left lower posterior (mandibular) tooth plate of *Myriacanthus paradoxus* (NHMUK PV P.477) from the Lower Lias (Sinemurian) of Lyme Regis, Dorset, UK, in occlusal view. The specimens are reproduced to the same scale.

by a slight symphyseal ridge. The occlusal surface of the tooth plate is completely covered with a carpet of hypermineralised hard tissue with the exception of a triangular wear facet with broad (6.5 mm long) edge lying along the labial border adjacent to the mesial angle. The straight distal margin of the triangular wear facet is parallel to the symphyseal margin of the tooth plate while the gently curved lingual margin sweeps toward the mesial angle from the wear facet apex. A long, well-developed longitudinal ridge defines the labial border of the tooth plate, widens distally, and has its origin adjacent to the distal limit of the wear facet on the labial border. A second ridge, the central ridge, arises from this same point of origin, flanks the distal margin of the wear facet and crosses the central part of the tooth plate toward the lingual margin. The labial and central ridges diverge at approximately 35° to each other from their common point of origin and are separated by a deep groove. The mesiolabial and mesiolingual borders of the tooth plate are subparallel to each other for a distance of approximately 7 mm.

In basal view it is clear that the mesial angle is sharply defined with fairly deep labial and symphyseal walls. The mesial angle itself is underlain by a deep circular pit. Vascular canals can be seen perforating the basal tissue of the root at low angles of entry.

NHMD 873668 is an isolated right mandibular tooth plate whose overall morphology agrees well with that of the holotype. Rather smaller, it measures 13.4 mm diagonally from the mesial angle to the (incomplete) distal angle (Fig. 3B). Like the holotype, it has a straight symphyseal margin, D-shaped in symphyseal view. The symphyseal margin is 6 mm long. The occlusal surface is covered with pleromin, except for the triangular or V-shaped wear facet occupying the mesiolabial portion of the tooth plate. A lateral ridge follows the labial margin of the plate, strengthening distally and is separated by means of a groove from the broad central ridge which crosses the tooth plate diagonally. The lateral and central ridges have closely adjacent points of origin at a point on the labial margin distal to the mesial angle and diverge from each other at an angle of approximately 30°. Growth lines are visible in the body of the tooth plate lingual to the wear facet.

Although trapezoid in shape, NHMD 873668 is much less gracile and rather broader labio-lingually than NHMD 633652. Also, the lateral ridge along the labial border is not as well developed as in NHMD 633652.

Comparisons. NHMD 633652 and NHMD 873668 clearly belong to the same taxon, based on their closely similar morphologies. The comparatively slender, elongate shape of the holotype is similar to that in *Alethodontus bavariensis* (Duffin 1983b) and

Acanthorhina jaekeli (Duffin 1983a); the mandibular tooth plates of *Halonodon* and *Agkistracanthus* are much broader labio-lingually (Duffin 1984; Duffin & Furrer 1981).

Several myriacanthid genera show topographic variation in the form of distinct ridges which either cross or border the occlusal surface. The specimens described above are similar to the mandibular tooth plate in *Alethodontus* in that the central and lateral ridges meet at a common point of origin on the labial border and diverge lingually from each other at an angle of 30°-35°. *Alethodontus* does not show any sign of a triangular wear facet, however. The type and only specimen of *Alethodontus bavariensis* (SMNS 51956) probably belongs to a juvenile, based on the sharply defined ridges and lack of any significant antemortem wear (Duffin 1983a).

Acanthorhina possesses a similar wear facet to that shown in the Bornholm material, but in the Toarcian specimen, two diagonal ridges arise from the labial margin just lateral to the mesial angle, converging lingually (Duffin 1983a).

Myriacanthus and *Metopacanthus* both have a fairly simple arrangement with a symphyseal, central and lateral ridge. The latter lacks the distinctive V-shaped wear facet shown in NHMD 633652 and NHMD 873668 (Stahl 1999, fig. 118). In the case of mandibular tooth plates of Myriacanthus paradoxus, however, some specimens show the development of a comparable wear facet. NHMUK PV P.477 consists of associated symphyseal, palatine and mandibular tooth plates (Fig. 3C). The mandibular tooth plate in this specimen is an excellent match for the Danish specimens described above, in spite of being much larger (measuring 80 mm across the diagonal from the mesial angle to the distal angle) and less slender in outline. The Bornholm specimens can therefore be attributed to M. paradoxus, thereby extending (1) the geographical range of the genus from the UK (Patterson 1965), France (Terquem 1855) and Belgium (Duffin & Delsate 1995) to Denmark, and (2) the stratigraphical range of the genus from the Rhaetian (Duffin 1994) and Sinemurian (Patterson 1965) into the Pliensbachian. The comparatively diminutive size of the Bornholm specimens in comparison to the Lyme Regis material suggests either that (1) the Danish tooth plates are both from juveniles, or (2) that a reduction in body size took place from Sinemurian to Pliensbachian times. Note also the differences in sedimentary facies at the two localities; the 'Lower Lias' consists of an interbedded sequence of marine near- and off-shore calcareous and organic-rich mudstones, whilst the arenite-dominated Bornholm sequence represents a higher energy nearshore environment with greater terrigenous clastic input.

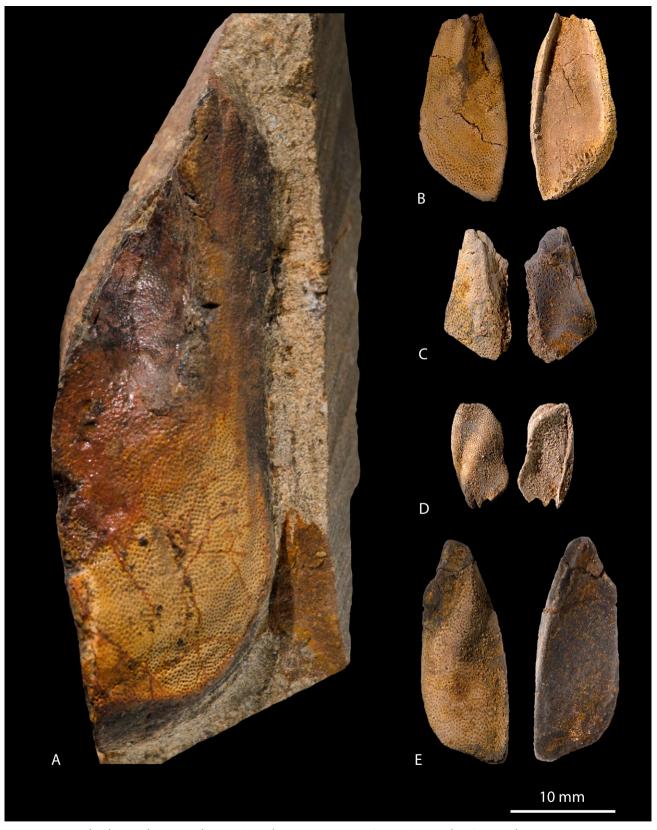


Fig. 4. Myriacanthid holocephalian tooth plates from the Hasle Formation (Early Pliensbachian) of Bornholm, Denmark. **A:** NHMD 633649 (note the left side is eroded) in occlusal view. **B:** NHMD 633651: left upper posterior (palatine) tooth plate of *Oblidens bornholmensis* in occlusal and basal views. **C:** NHMD 633650: probably a left upper posterior (palatine) tooth plate of *Oblidens bornholmensis* in occlusal and basal views. **D:** NHMD 633654: right lower posterior (mandibular) tooth plate of an undetermined myriacanthid holocephalian in occlusal and basal views. **E:** NHMD 633653: left upper posterior (palatine) tooth plate of an undetermined myriacanthid holocephalian in occlusal and basal views. The specimens are reproduced to same scale.

The mandibular tooth plates of *M. paradoxus* can be clearly distinguished from those of the coeval *Oblidens bornholmensis* on the basis of overall shape, and the fact that the latter species has only a single ridge which crosses the tooth plate in a central position (Duffin & Milàn 2017).

Genus Oblidens Duffin & Milàn, 2017

Type species. Oblidens bornholmensis Duffin & Milàn, 2017

Revised diagnosis. Myriacanthid genus known from isolated palatine (upper posterior) and mandibular (lower) tooth plates only. The palatine tooth plate is covered with pleromin (no tritoral areas) and possesses a prominent central ridge which expands lingually in juveniles and terminates in the central region of the tooth plate in mature individuals. A weak ridge flanks the labial margin of the palatine tooth plate, and a deep ovoid wear facet is developed on the mesio-labial flanks of the central ridge in mature individuals. The mandibular tooth plate is elongate mesio-distally, the occlusal surface is covered with pleromin (no tritoral areas) and transected by a convex central ridge running from the labial angle to the lingual angle, giving way laterally to flattened labial and lingual fields.

Oblidens bornholmensis

2017 *Oblidens bornholmensis* Duffin & Milàn, 2017; Duffin & Milàn, p. 164, figs 3A-E.

Fig. 4A-C

Material. NHMD 633649, an isolated partial right (?) palatine tooth plate (Fig. 4A); NHMD 633650, an isolated left palatine tooth plate (Fig. 4C); NHMD 633651, an isolated fragment of a left palatine tooth plate (Fig. 4B).

Stratigraphical position. Hasle Formation.

Age: 'Carixian', Early Pliensbachian, Early Jurassic (probably *Uptonia jamesoni* subzone to *Acanthop-leuroceras valdani* subzone).

Locality. Cliff section 100m south of Hasle harbour, Bornholm, Denmark; 55°10′44.18″N, 14°42′8.58″E.

Description. NHMD 633651 is the best preserved and most complete of the new specimens which can be assigned to *Oblidens bornholmensis* (Fig. 4B). Missing only the mesial angle, the specimen has been completely freed from the matrix and is a left palatine (upper

posterior) tooth plate whose preserved diagonal length is 17 mm. The preserved length of the straight symphyseal margin is 11 mm and that of the arcuate labial margin is 16 mm. These dimensions mean that it is slightly larger than the holotype (NHMD 117400). NHMD 633651 conforms well with the overall form of previously described palatine tooth plates belonging to the genus. The central ridge is clearly developed and extends around halfway toward the lingual margin of the plate from the broken mesial angle. A few dentinal ridges are developed on the symphyseal flanks of the central ridge centrally. The overall shape of the tooth plate is rather more oval than that of the holotype; the labial margin curves rather more gently toward the lingual angle and has a barely developed ridge, in contrast to the holotype. NHMD 633651 probably comes from an older individual than NHMD 11740. A shallow sub-oval wear facet has started to develop on the labial flanks of the central ridge but is still floored with hypermineralised tissue. This wear facet has limited the central expansion of the central ridge toward the center of the occlusal surface of the tooth plate. In basal view, the narrow labial wall and the slightly thicker symphyseal wall of the tooth plate can be clearly discerned. Longitudinal vascular canals enter the lingual underside of the root tissues at a shallow angle.

NHMD 633649 is another palatine tooth plate, this time from the right side (Fig. 4A). In overall morphology it agrees well with NHMD 633651. Still attached to matrix by its basal surface, the tooth plate has a broken labial margin. 66 mm long across the diagonal from the mesial angle to the point on the lingual margin closest to the position of the distal angle (now lost), the occlusal surface is completely covered with hypermineralised tissue. The central ridge is well developed and, as in NHMD 633649, extends to about the mid-point of the tooth plate. Dentinal ridges are missing in this specimen, all the individual pillars of pleromin being normal to the biting surface. The ovoid wear facet flanking the mesio-labial border of the central ridge forms a deeply excavated concavity. The symphyseal border of the tooth plate is not as straight as in the holotype and NHMD 633649, being slightly sinuous along its length. By far the largest of the specimens assigned to Oblidens bornholmensis, this example probably comes from a mature individual on the basis of both its size and the development of the wear facet.

NHMD 633650 is probably a fragmentary left palatine tooth plate of *Oblidens bornholmensis* (Fig. 4C). Triangular in shape in occlusal view, the pleromincovered occlusal surface shows no sign of either a symphyseal or a labial ridge. The maximum preserved diagonal is 14 mm long and there is faint evidence of

a short length of central ridge present near the mesial angle. The symphyseal margin is straight and measures 11.6 mm in length. No dentinal ridges are present.

Undetermined myriacanthid remains

NHMD 633654 is an isolated right mandibular tooth plate which is trapezoid in shape measuring 10 mm across the diagonal from the mesial angle to the distal angle (Fig. 4D). The symphyseal margin of the tooth plate is incomplete but the preserved portion is straight and does not seem to be D-shaped in symphyseal view. The symphyseal ridge is weak to moderate. Pleromin covers the whole of the occlusal surface and no differentiated dentine ridges are present. A lateral ridge is present along the labial margin, getting stronger distally. Broader than in NHMD 633652, it is better developed than in NHMD 633653. A central ridge crosses the occlusal surface of the tooth plate diagonally, expanding distally. The lateral ridge and central ridge are separated from each other by a shallow groove mesially, and the two ridges do not meet or have a common origin anywhere on the labial margin. No wear facets are present on the tooth plate. In basal view, the tooth plate clearly possesses a deep labial wall, but details of the vascularisation are obscure.

This tooth plate is much less gracile and much broader labio-lingually than the mandibular tooth plates of *A. bavariensis, Acanthorhina* and *Metopacanthus*. The more robust tooth plate shape in NHMD 633654 is more reminiscent of that in *Myriacanthus, Halonodon* and *Akgistracanthus,* although the details of the wear facets and distribution of the pleromin on the occlusal surface is significantly different compared to these three genera. The outline of NHMD 633654 is markedly different to the situation in mandibular tooth plates of *Oblidens bornholmensis*.

NHMD 633653 is an isolated left palatine tooth plate, somewhat tear-dropped in shape, measuring 22 mm across the diagonal (Fig. 4E). The symphyseal margin is slightly concave, measures 5.4 mm in length, is not D-shaped in symphyseal view and is surmounted by a very weak symphyseal ridge. Similarly, a very weak lateral ridge marks the labial margin of the plate, becoming slightly stronger toward the distal angle. An increasingly broad central ridge crosses the tooth plate diagonally but does not meet the lateral ridge on the labial border of the tooth plate. No dentinal ridges are developed and no distinctive wear facets are visible in the pleromin, which covers the occlusal surface of the specimen. Basal view reveals a weak to moderately deep labial wall.

In terms of overall shape, NHMD 633653 is similar to NHMD 633651 (*O. bornholmensis*). In the latter specimen, however, the central ridge is developed

differently being limited to the mesial half of the occlusal surface and confined to the mid-line of the tooth plate (rather than crossing it diagonally). NHMD 633653 therefore does not belong to O. bornholmensis. Furthermore, the specimen does not pertain to Myriacanthus paradoxus, in which the occlusal surface is crossed by two diagonal ridges, or Halonodon, which has hypermineralised tissue concentrated in several tritoral areas. In Acanthorhina jaekeli, occlusal pleromin is restricted to two triangular areas (Duffin 1983a, p.9), whilst details of the occlusal surface of the palatine tooth plate of Agkistracanthus mitgelensis (Rhaetian to Hettangian of Switzerland) are lacking (Duffin & Furrer 1981, p. 818). The material of A. mitgelensis described from the British Rhaetian (Duffin 1994) is more oval in shape than the Danish specimen and shows the development of an oval wear facet in larger specimens (Duffin 1994, fig. 5).

NHMD 633654 and NHMD 633653 are left in open nomenclature for the moment, awaiting clarification from further discoveries before their potential relationships can be reassessed.

Conclusions

It used to be that the Pliensbachian marked a stage in the Early Jurassic where our knowledge of myriacanthid holocephalians was negligible. Indeed, the only known holocephalian taxa from the Pleinsbachian were the earliest true chimaeroids, represented by Eomanodon simmsi Ward & Duffin (1989) from the margaritatus zone of Gloucestershire, UK, and Brachymylus latus Duffin (1996) from the Amaltheus Shale (Pleuroceras spinatum zone, Late Pliensbachian) of Bavaria, Germany. The recent discoveries of myriacanthid tooth plates in the Early Pliensbachian of the cliff sections near Hasle on the Danish island of Bornholm (Duffin & Milàn 2017) have changed this situation dramatically; indeed, although only a relatively small number of tooth plates have been discovered in the succession, they now represent the greatest diversity of Jurassic holocephalians known to date.

The most recent finds of myriacanthid holocephalian tooth plates on Bornholm present a number of problems of interpretation. The mandibular tooth plates can clearly be separated into two groups based upon overall tooth plate shape, wear facet development and ridge development on the occlusal surface. Every myriacanthid taxon is based upon only a small number of specimens which means that there is only limited appreciation of tooth plate variation and ontogeny in the population; this somewhat restricts meaningful comparison and suggests that the dis-

covery of further material may require revision of the conclusions presented here. One of the two groups of mandibular tooth plates is here assigned to *Myriacanthus paradoxus*, previously known from the Rhaetian and Sinemurian of the UK, and the Sinemurian of France and Belgium. The other group of mandibular tooth plates is left in open nomenclature.

The newly discovered palatine tooth plates from Bornholm also fall into two groups – those belonging to *O. bornholmensis* and a further specimen currently left in open nomenclature.

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