Scott et al. New Mississippian Ovule

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2	A CHARCOALIFIED OVULE ADAPTED FOR WIND DISPERSAL AND
3	DETERRING HERBIVORY FROM THE LATE VISÉAN
4	(CARBONIFEROUS) OF SCOTLAND
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16	Premise of research. Mississippian (Lower Carboniferous) anatomically
17	preserved ovules are pivotal to our present understanding of the Paleozoic
18	primary seed plant radiation, but few are known from the late Viséan
19	stratigraphic interval approximately 330 million years ago. Here we document
20	an exceptionally well-preserved, mesoscopic charcoalified ovule from late
21	Viséan limestones that is potentially adapted for wind dispersal and deterring
22	herbivory.

23	Methodology. We use Synchrotron Radiation X-ray Tomographic Microscopy
24	(SRXTM) and Low Vacuum Scanning Electron Microscopy (LVSEM) to analyse
25	histological features not identifiable through traditional methods.
26	Pivotal results. The ovule is small, 2mm long and 1.25 mm in maximum diameter,
27	and has a dense covering of spirally arranged, long, slender, hollow hairs with
28	glandular apices and a distal papilla. The nucellus is fused to the integument up
29	to the nucellar apex and above this the integument comprises eight apical lobes,
30	each with a single vascular bundle. The nucellar apex has a domed pollen
31	chamber and large central column characteristic of hydrasperman-type
32	(lagenostomalean) pteridosperms, but lacks the distal salpinx seen in most
33	hydrasperman ovules, leaving an exposed distal opening to the pollen chamber
34	for pollination. Differences with existing taxa lead to the erection of
35	<i>Hirsutisperma rothwellii</i> gen. et sp. nov.
36	<i>Conclusions</i> . The apical glands presumably functioned as granivory deterrents;

coprolites (fossil faeces) from herbivorous arthropods are abundant in the
fossiliferous horizon and at this stratigraphic interval. The small ovule size and
its dense covering of hairs infers *Hirsutisperma* was adapted for wind dispersal
and was an R-selected species, producing large numbers of small offspring in
unstable or changing environments. Taphonomic implications are discussed
including preservational biases for charcoalification. *Hirsutisperma* provides the

43	first clear evidence for ecological niche partitioning in Mississippian
44	hydrasperman-type ovules.
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47	Keywords: Gymnosperm, seed, hydrasperman reproduction, hairs, herbivory,
48	plant:animal relationships, seed ecology, taphonomy, wildfire.
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50	Online enhancements: video of 3D rotating reconstruction in .avi, .mp4 and .mov
51	formats
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53	Introduction
54	The Paleozoic origin and primary radiation of seed plants represents a key
55	event in Earth history and terrestrialization, leading to the colonisation of drier and/or
56	upland (extrabasinal) habitats uninhabitable by free-sporing plants (e.g., Bateman and
57	DiMichele 1994; Bateman et al. 1998) as well as forming diverse communities in
58	Carboniferous wetlands. First appearing in the fossil record in the late Devonian
59	(Rothwell et al. 1989; Prestianni et al. 2014), seed plants underwent a rapid adaptive
60	radiation in which they diversified to become dominant in many Carboniferous and
61	stratigraphically younger floras. Particularly important to our present understanding
62	of early seed plants are the Tournaisian-Viséan (Mississippian) anatomically
63	preserved floras of Southern Scotland (see Scott et al. 1984, 1986; Galtier and
64	Meyer-Berthaud 2006; Bateman et al. 2016) that include a spectacular range of fossil

species often with exceptional levels of anatomical preservation. Foremost of these 65 are the remarkably diverse ovules extensively documented by the pioneering work of 66 A. G. Long (1915–1999) (e.g. Long 1960a, b). However, most of these ovules are 67 from the Tournaisian to the middle of the Viséan stages; remarkably few are known 68 from the Late Viséan with only Sphaerostoma ovale (Benson 1914) and Physostoma 69 sp. known from this stratigraphic interval in the Pettycur locality in Fife (Scott et al. 70 1984). Here we provide a detailed systematic account of an exceptionally well-71 preserved late Viséan ovule from the Kingswood locality near Pettycur (Scott et al. 72 1986; Meyer-Berthaud and Galtier 1986) preserved as a mesoscopic charcoal 73 (Glasspool and Scott 2013). The fossil is unusual in its morphology, being 74 significantly smaller than contemporaneous species, and in having a dense covering 75 of fine, long, integumentary hairs with glandular apices and an exposed nucellar 76 apex. It was briefly illustrated and had a summary description presented by Scott et 77 al. (2009) in a techniques paper that used it to introduce the combination of Low 78 Vacuum Scanning Electron Microscopy (LVSEM) and Synchroton Radiation X-Ray 79 Tomographic Microscopy (SRXTM), but a full systematic investigation was not 80 undertaken at that time. We describe and illustrate the fossil in detail for the first 81 time, then compare it to other Paleozoic ovule taxa and in doing so establish a new 82 genus and species based on its unique features. We also consider the evolutionary, 83 ecological and taphonomic implications of the new ovule. 84

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Geological setting

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On the southern coast of Fife in southern Scotland, the area around Pettycur 87 exposes the Kinghorn Volcanic Formation (Gordon, 1914; Allan 1924; Monaghan 88 and Browne 2010) of mid-late Viséan age (Mississippian, Carboniferous; Monaghan 89 and Parrish 2006; Monaghan and Browne 2010; Bateman et al. 2016). These rocks 90 outcrop in cliff sections at Pettycur and at Kingswood End to the west, as well as in 91 the intervening Pettycur Caravan site (Rex and Scott 1987). The nearby Pettycur 92 Limestone flora has been described in numerous publications (Scott et al. 1984; Rex 93 and Scott 1987; Neregato and Hilton 2019). Palynological dating of the Kinghorn 94 Volcanic Formation has indicated that it belongs to the NM and VF miospore zones 95 (Brindley and Spinner, 1989) of mid to late Asbian to early Brigantian regional sub-96 stages of the Viséan Stage (Monaghan and Pringle 2004) with absolute ages between 97 329 and 335 ma (Monaghan and Pringle 2004; Monaghan and Browne 2010). The 98 succession at Kingswood End (NS 265 864) comprises a sequence of basalt lavas, 99 dolerite sills, ashes, limestones and coaly shales and is cut by a small agglomerate-100 filled vent (Rex and Scott 1987). Outcrops just to the east in the Pettycur caravan site 101 expose a 6m sequence of agglomerates and ashes, which at the top contain beds and 102 lenses of limestones (the Kingswood Limestone) that show evidence of slumping. 103 Limestones of Bed 9 in this succession at locality 1 of Scott et al. (1986) contain the 104 charcoalified ovule described herein together with bands of abundant charcoal and 105 calcareous permineralizations (Meyer-Berthaud 1986, 1990; Meyer-Berthaud and 106 Galtier 1986; Scott et al. 1986; Scott 1990a). An additional outcrop (2) of ashes with 107

bedded Kingswood Limestone was later exposed in the upper part of the Caravan Site(Scott, 1990b).

110	Palynological data from outcrop 1 (see Scott et al. 1986) of the Kingswood
111	Limestone yielded a rich palynoflora that were consistent with the NM Zone (DP
112	subzone) that is of mid-late Asbian age (Mid/late Viséan). This date is in line with the
113	broader biostratigraphic review undertaken by Brindley and Spinner (1989).

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Materials and methods

More than 80 limestone blocks were collected from the original outcrop 1 at 116 Kingswood (Scott et al. 1986). Blocks were sliced into 1 cm thick slabs and from 117 each surface one reference peel was made (Galtier and Phillips 1999), etching 118 surfaces with 10% hydrochloric acid. Selected peels were mounted on glass slides for 119 microscopic examination and photography. Petrographic thin sections, some stained 120 with potassium ferricyanide and Alizarine red-S carbonate stain were prepared of the 121 limestones and some of the lavas. In addition, polished thin sections of selected areas 122 were made to provide data on the permineralization process and on the preservation 123 of the plants. In this study, selected slabs of block KIN957 were dissolved in dilute 124 20% hydrochloric acid. Residues were then sieved using a 180 mm polypropylene 125 sieve. The charcoal residue was further treated with 40% hydrofluoric acid, to 126 remove silica, and neutralized. The cleaned residue was stored in distilled water and 127 sorted in water using a binocular microscope with incident lighting. Specimens were 128 separated using 000 hair brushes and mounted into dry cavity slides (see Pearson and 129

130	Scott 1999 for techniques). The ovule described herein was picked from residues
131	from dissolving Block 957I. The dry specimen was mounted on a 3 mm diameter
132	brass pin using colloidal carbon in isopropanol.
133	The specimen was first analysed under Low Vacuum Scanning Electron
134	Microscopy (LVSEM) uncoated using a Hitachi S3000N variable pressure SEM at
135	Royal Holloway University of London (by ACS, under low vacuum and in
136	backscatter electron mode (see Scott et al. 2009 for details).
137	Following LVSEM analysis, the specimen was investigated using Synchrotron
138	Radiation X-Ray Tomographic Microscopy (SRXTM) in 2006 at the Tomography
139	Station of the Materials Sciences beam line (predecessor of the TOMCAT beam line,
140	Stampanoni et al. 2006) of the Swiss Light Source, Paul Scherrer Institut,
141	Switzerland (Stampanoni et al. 2002) as outlined by Scott et al. (2009). The ovule
142	was too large to fit on a single scan so the chalazal and apical regions were scanned
143	separately. In 2009 the data was analysed in Avizo version 5.0 (Mercury Computer
144	Systems Ltd, Chelmsford, MA, USA), but at that time the authors mistakenly thought
145	they only had an incomplete image stack when producing Figures 5 and 6 in Scott et
146	al. (2009). In 2018, the original SRXTM data was re-analysed in detail, with
147	individual images adjusted in ImageJ (<u>https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/</u>), using FIJI
148	(https://imagej.net/Fiji) for bulk image brightness/contrast editing and to run a
149	despeckle pass to reduce noise. Data was analysed and manipulated using AVIZO
150	version 9.1 and the ovule reconstructed using Drishti (ver. 2.6.4;
151	https://sf.anu.edu.au/Vizlab/drishti/index.shtml). Software improvements since the

earlier analyses enabled recognition of additional anatomical features within thedatasets.

154	After SRXTM analysis, the specimen became fragmented during transportation
155	due to its brittle nature. The remaining fragments were mounted on an SEM stub
156	using a carbon filter pad and analysed on a Thermofisher Phemon ProX SEM at
157	Birmingham Electron Analytical Microscope (BEAM) facility (University of
158	Birmingham). The specimen was uncoated and investigated at 15 kV, using two back
159	scatter detectors. The resultant digital SEM images were edited (cropped, brightness,
160	contrast, intensity and levels adjusted) in GIMP (ver. 2.8.16; <u>http://www.gimp.org</u>).
161	All figures were constructed in Inkscape (ver. 0.92; <u>https://inkscape.org</u>).
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163	Results
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164 165	Hirsutisperma gen. nov. J. Hilton, J. Galtier and A.C.Scott
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165	Hirsutisperma gen. nov. J. Hilton, J. Galtier and A.C.Scott Generic diagnosis. Very small hydrasperman ovule, radially symmetrical and
165 166	
165 166 167	Generic diagnosis. Very small hydrasperman ovule, radially symmetrical and
165 166 167 168	<i>Generic diagnosis</i> . Very small hydrasperman ovule, radially symmetrical and conical. Integument and nucellus adnate except at the apex where the nucellus forms
165 166 167 168 169	<i>Generic diagnosis</i> . Very small hydrasperman ovule, radially symmetrical and conical. Integument and nucellus adnate except at the apex where the nucellus forms the pollen chamber. Cylindrical pedicel progressively enlarging into the integument,
165 166 167 168 169 170	<i>Generic diagnosis.</i> Very small hydrasperman ovule, radially symmetrical and conical. Integument and nucellus adnate except at the apex where the nucellus forms the pollen chamber. Cylindrical pedicel progressively enlarging into the integument, showing longitudinal lobes. Above the plinth, integument lobes free, each containing

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Etymology. The generic name emphasizes the very distinctive hair-covering of thisovule which is interpreted as being of special adaptive significance.

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180 Species – Hirsutisperma rothwellii sp. nov. J. Hilton, J. Galtier and A.C.Scott
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Specific diagnosis. Conical ovule 2 mm long, up to 1.25 mm wide immediately above 182 pollen chamber. Base of ovule 270 µm diameter, gradually widens in basal 2/3 of 183 ovule length 800–900 µm wide, reaching up to 1.20 mm below plinth. Integument 184 thickness 180–220 µm; 8 free integument lobes, 330 µm maximum diameter. Hairs at 185 least 0.5 mm long, 10–20 µm in diameter. Glandular tips 35–45 µm long and 20–25 186 μm wide. Nucellus cavity obconical, up to 1400 μm maximum length and 625 μm 187 maximum width, containing only fragments of megaspore wall. Pollen chamber 188 dome-shaped, up to 400 µm wide and 200 µm high. Cells of the pollen chamber wall 189 190 rectangular, 20–25 µm in diameter and 60–80 µm long. Central column up to 240 µm wide and 160 µm high, made of small thin-walled cells, 15–20 µm wide and 40–60 191 µm high. Single vascular strand enters ovule at chalaza and divides below nucellus 192 into 8 bundles, one in each integumentary lobe. Integumentary bundles 20-30 µm 193 wide, composed of small tracheids 4–8 µm in diameter. 194

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196	Etymology. The specific epithet is in honour of Gar W. Rothwell for his pioneering
197	studies on the reproductive biology of Paleozoic ovules and for his seminal work
198	piecing together the ontogeny and functional morphology of hydrasperman-type
199	ovules.
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201	Locality. Kingswood, Fife, Scotland (UK National Grid Reference NS 265 864).
202	
203	Horizon. Kingswood Limestone, Kinghorn Volcanic Formation.
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205	Stratigraphic age. DP subzone of the NM miospore Zone; mid-late Asbian British
206	regional substage, corresponding to the middle to late Viséan Global Stage
207	(Mississippian, Carboniferous).
208	
209	Holotype. V 68764 (figs 1-7).
210	
211	Depository. Palaeontological collections, Natural History Museum, London.
212	
213	Remarks. The new genus is distinguished from all other hydrasperman-type ovules by
214	its small size and dense covering of hollow, spirally arranged hairs with apical glands
215	with papillae. Remaining parts of the holotype are mounted on an SEM stub (see
216	Materials and Methods).

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219	Description
220	Gross morphology
221	The following description is based on a single ovule with exceptional
222	preservation that is 2 mm long and has a maximum diameter of 1.25 mm (fig. 1 <i>a</i>).
223	The ovule has a dense covering of thin, spirally arranged, hairs that envelope the
224	outer body of the integument and give the ovule an asymmetrical appearance (fig. 1a,
225	1b). Apically, the integument comprises eight terete integumentary lobes that
226	surround an exposed nucellar apex (fig. $1c$). The nucellar apex comprises a pollen
227	chamber with a large apical opening and within it occurs a central column (fig. $1c$,
228	1 d). In contrast to the asymmetrical hairs on the exterior of the integument, the inner
229	parts of the integument including the free lobes and also the nucellar apex show the
230	ovule is radially symmetrical in transverse section (fig. $1c$). The shape, organisation
231	and tissue compositions of the ovule are best characterized from analysis of the three-
232	dimensional SRXTM dataset in longitudinal (fig. 2) and transverse (fig. 3) sections.
233	Longitudinal sections show the integument is conical, widening gradually in the basal
234	2/3 of the ovules length before gradually narrowing (figs. $2a$, $2b$). Longitudinal
235	paradermal sections show the organisation of the integument protruding beyond the
236	apex of the nucellus (fig $2c$, $2d$). In transverse sections, the integument is entire in the
237	basal c. 50% of the ovule where it gradually widens below the level of the nucellus
238	and the structure of the integument (fig. $3a$, $3b$). Integumentary lobes develop distally
239	from the chalaza (fig. $3c-i$) and remain attached to the nucellus for some of their

length (fig. 3c-d), but become free from the nucellus apically (fig 3e-h). The nucellar apex is exposed between the projecting integumentary lobes (fig. 3e-h) with the lobes extending beyond the end of the nucellus (fig. 3i) but are taphonomically incomplete with irregular distal margins.

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Integument

The most distinctive feature of the integument is the dense covering of long, 246 slender, filamentous hairs on the outside of the integument (fig 1a, 1b). These 247 originate from the outer epidermis from vertically elongated, rectangular cells that are 248 approximately 50 μ m long and 20 μ m wide (fig. 4*a*–*d*). Individual hairs are at least 249 500 µm long (fig. 1*a*; fig. 4*d*, 4*f*) and where complete have swollen, glandular 250 terminations often with a small apical papillae and spiralled rectangular cells (fig. 4e-251 g). Hairs are approximately 10–20 μ m thick (fig. 4*f*–*h*), with those at the base of the 252 ovule typically more slender than those positioned apically (fig 1a, 1b). The hairs 253 appear to be multicellular, evidenced by broken hairs having internal wall divisions 254 (fig. 4*h*) from very oblique wall endings. Hairs arise in bundles and twist around each 255 other (fig. 4i), and tend to have a dominant vertical trend in their orientation when 256 viewed in in longitudinal sections (fig. 1*a*; fig. 4*a*). However, when viewed in 257 transverse section a spiralled arrangement of the hairs is dominant, best seen in the 258 SRXTM dataset (fig. 5a-c) and especially in the SRXCT virtual transverse sections 259 (fig. 6c-d). At the base of the ovule where lobes are absent (fig. 1a), hairs appear to 260 be uniformly distributed judging from SEM images (fig. 1a, 1b; fig. 4a-c) and in 261

transverse sections from the SRXCT data (fig 5a, 5b). Where hairs are absent at the 262 base of the ovule it is most likely due to taphonomic loss as broken hair bases or gaps 263 in the epidermal cells where individual hairs originate are clearly visible (fig. 4a). By 264 contrast, where the integument is lobate, hairs are distributed on the external faces of 265 the integumentary lobes only (fig. 5d, 5e), with no hairs occurring in the zone 266 between adjacent lobes where they are starting to separate from each other. Hairs 267 arise in bunches (fig. 4i; fig. 5d-f) and intertwine with one another (fig. 4i). 268 The integument is differentiated into distinct tissue zones with a uniseriate 269 external epidermis (fig. 4a-d; 5a-e) of rectangular cells, $3.5-5 \mu$ m thick, and zones 270 of thick-walled and thin-walled cells apparent inside the epidermis. Immediately 271 within the external epidermis is a thin zone, 10–15 µm thick comprising 2-3 rows of 272 small, thick-walled cells (fig. 5d-f) that appear to represent sclerotesta. Individual 273 sclerotesta cells are $4-6 \mu m$ in transverse direction and are $6-8 \mu m$ wide, with thick 274 cell walls that the scanned data (fig.7c) do not allow us to characterise further. On the 275 inner surface of this zone occurs larger, irregularly spaced cells (fig. 5 e, 5f), typically 276 20–40 µm in diameter with thin walls that appear to be parenchymatous and represent 277 endotesta. Vascular bundles are situated in the centre of each integumentary lobe and 278 are surrounded by large, thin-walled cells which in some sections appear to be 279 radially organised (fig. 5f) or often decayed (fig. 7c), but in others are less clear and 280 the entire lobe appears to be bilaterally symmetrical (fig. 5h). In paradermal views 281 through the integument (fig. 2d) the thick-walled cells on the exterior of the 282 integument are longitudinally elongated, 40–60 µm long. 283

In the previous report of the Kingswood ovule, Scott et al. (2009) considered the inner surface of the integument to have a covering of fine hairs. Here we reinterpret these features (fig. 7a, 7b) as either decayed tissues of the integument or microbial filaments draped over the tissues of the integument.

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Nucellus, nucellar apex and megaspore

The nucellus is thin and fused to the integument for the bottom half of the 290 ovule, becomig free from the integument where the lobes start to separate from one 291 another. At this level the nucellus and integument are only conjoined at the inner 292 most parts of the lobes (i in fig. 3d and fig. 5f). The nucellar apex comprises a plinth 293 at which level the nucellus narrows below the pollen chamber (fig. 2b; fig. 3e; fig. 294 5g). The pollen chamber forms a wide dome 280 μ m wide at its base, widening to 295 400 µm apically, and up to 200 µm high. It comprises rectangular, thick-walled cells 296 that are readily distinguished from the SRXTM dataset (fig. 2b, 2c; fig. 5i–l), ranging 297 from 20–25 µm wide and 60–80 µm high. Cells of the nucellus get smaller towards 298 the apical opening and bend inwards into the centre of the pollen chamber when 299 viewed from above (fig. 1c, 1d; fig. 5l) or in longitudinal section (fig. 2b; fig. 6h) and 300 the pollen chamber opening appears to have a complete margin. The pollen chamber 301 lacks a distal, tubular salpinx emanating from the roof of the pollen chamber, with the 302 apical opening of the pollen chamber being 95–110 µm in diameter. Centrally within 303 the pollen chamber occurs a large central column comprising small, variably sized 304 polygonal cells, thin-walled cells (fig. 2b; fig. 5i-l) elongated longitudinally that 305

306	appear to be parenchymatous. The conical central column has a concave base, with a
307	maximum diameter of 240 μ m and is up to 160 μ m high (fig. 2b; fig. 5i). The apex of
308	the central column sits immediately below the pollen chamber opening, leaving a 20-
309	70 µm wide gap for pollen to enter. Pollen has not been identified in the nucellar
310	apex. The megaspore membrane is in most places adnate the nucellus but in some
311	places has separated from it (fig. $3d$; fig. $5c$, $5e$). The megaspore wall is extremely
312	thin and impossible to measure from the SRXTM dataset. Tissues of the
313	megagametophyte are absent.
314	
315	Vascularization
316	A single vascular strand enters the ovule centrally at the chalaza (fig. 2a; fig.
317	3 <i>a</i> ; fig. 5 <i>a</i>) and divides below the nucellus (fig. 3 <i>b</i> ; fig. 5 <i>b</i>) into eight, radially
318	organised integumentary bundles, with each bundle corresponding to the position of a
319	single integumentary lobe. Integumentary bundles extend to the end of the preserved
320	length of the lobes (fig. $1c$; fig. $5e$; fig. $7c$, $7d$), but as the lobes are in each case
321	incomplete, their full length like the length of the integumentary lobes themselves is
322	unknown. At the apex of the integument, integumentary lobe bundles are terete,
323	approximately 20–30 μ m wide in transverse section, comprising 15–25 hexagonal
324	tracheids varying in size from 4–8 μ m wide (fig. 7 <i>c</i> , 7 <i>d</i>). The smallest (?protoxylem)
325	tracheids are abaxially mesarch. In longitudinal section (fig. $7d$); tracheids are
326	approximately 2–4 µm wide with scalariform pitting.

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Discussion

Taphonomy

The Kingswood Limestone occurs as slumped blocks in a succession of 330 volcanic ashes exposed in a faulted block within the Pettycur Caravan Site. The base 331 of the section comprises a series of coarse and fine ashes but the top of the unit also 332 contains limestone layers that range in thickness from 5-50 cm thick and in some 333 cases are lense-shaped. These show evidence of crude bedding but also evidence of 334 slumping. The limestone blocks are supported within a matrix of mud, silt, ash and 335 basalt fragments and have a calcite micritic groundmass, with some areas containing 336 scattered permineralized plants (Scott 1990b). There may be also scattered charcoal 337 fragments. However, most of the charcoal is found in distinctive zones within the 338 limestone. The charcoal ranges in size from a few mm to larger charcoalified wood 339 fragments up to one or two cm in length. The charcoal fragments were well mixed in 340 terms of size and comprise a range of plant organs – pollen organs, leaves, stems, 341 wood and the ovule described herein, together with abundant arthropod coprolites. 342 Rare arthropod cuticles are also found, as well as occasional fish bones (Scott et al. 343 1986). 344

Charcoal may be produced both from the activity of wildfire (Scott 2010) but also from plants being entombed in hot volcanic ashes (Scott and Glasspool 2005; Scott 2010). However, in the case of plants charred by entombment in hot volcanic ashes such as pyroclastic flows, the wood charcoal is often found as whole stems or trunks, in some cases 10s or 100s cms in length (Scott 2010). In wildfire charcoal, the 350 size range is much smaller (Scott 1989) as the charcoal is formed by incomplete combustion (Scott 2010). The Kingswood charcoal is most likely to have been 351 formed by the activity of wildfire. At Kingswood it has been previously noted that 352 the taxa preserved as charcoal are quite different from those preserved as calcareous 353 permineralizations (Scott et al. 1986). Charcoalified fragments were produced from 354 the activity of wildfire and could form from plants subjected to fire as part of the 355 living vegetation or as litter. The occurrence of large numbers of charred coprolites 356 suggest that the litter has been charred as the coprolites are typical of arthropod 357 coprolites produced by detritivores in the litter layer (Scott and Taylor 1983; Scott et 358 al. 1992). However the large number of pollen organs present which still contain 359 pollen (Meyer-Berthaud 1989) suggest that living vegetation was also subjected to 360 fire, possible low temperature surface fires. The ovule is also likely to have been 361 charred whilst still attached to the living plant. If this was the case, the effect of the 362 fire upon the morphology and anatomy of the ovule needs to be considered. 363

Change in the dimensions of plant tissues in experimental charcoalification 364 suggests that increasing the temperature of the wildfire can cause plant tissues to 365 shrink, perhaps up to 50% (Lupia 1995; Belcher et al. 2005; McParland et al. 2007; 366 Henry and Théry-Parisot 2014). However, many of these experiments expose the 367 plants to high temperatures of > 450 °C for one or several hours. In the case of low 368 temperature surface fires, temperatures may have been between 300 and 400 °C for 369 minutes rather than hours (Scott et al. 2000; Belcher and Hudpith 2016) and hence 370 may not have undergone such a significant level of shrinkage. In hotter crown fires, 371

leaves and fertile organs from the living plants tend to be consumed by the fire and 372 any leaf charcoal is predominantly produced in the litter (Scott 2010). By contrast, in 373 long-time charring experiments (> 1 hour) with flowers and seeds, shrinkage has 374 been observed up to 50% (Lupia 1995). In the case of the ovule described here it is 375 unlikely that this level of shrinkage took place, as there is no evidence of any residual 376 high temperature features such as bubbling (Scott 1989). However, it has been noted 377 that in non-woody plant axes that even at 500°C different plant tissues may char 378 differently causing separation and differential shrinkage (McParland et al. 2007). In 379 wet specimens of wood rapid heating may cause instantaneous evaporation of water 380 and this may cause the sudden expansion of tissues (Harris 1958). We conclude that 381 the measurements provided for the ovule here are likely to be within 80% of the 382 original size and that morphological features seen have not been significantly 383 modified from their original condition. As such, Hirsutisperma would still have been 384 a very small seed prior to charcoalification, possibly up to 2.5 mm long and 1.5 mm 385 wide assuming an 80% size reduction. However, an interesting possibility might be 386 that different tissues in Hirstutisperma reacted differently to charcoalification. For 387 instance, the parenchymatous central column may have shrunk more than the robust 388 cells of the pollen chamber wall surrounding it, potentially making an ontogenetically 389 mature ovule in which the pollen chamber was sealed by the central column appear to 390 be in a pollination configuration with a gap for pollen to enter into the pollen 391 chamber due to taphonomy. 392

The limestone at Kingswood has been interpreted as being deposited at the 393 margins of a crater lake (Scott et al. 1986; Scott 1990b). In such a case the plants 394 preserved as charcoal may have been living higher on the flanks of the crater or on 395 the crater rim and following a wildfire, post-fire erosion washed the slurry of 396 sediment and charred plants (Scott 2010; Scott et al. 2014) in to the lake. This fits 397 with the interpretation of *Hirsutisperma* being an *r*-selected species living in an 398 unstable environment with low competition pressures as outlined below. The range of 399 charcoal sizes and organ types suggests that the plants have not been subjected to 400 extensive transport (see Nichols et al. 2000; Scott 2010) and the evidence of distinct 401 bands of charcoal that also contains charred litter and coprolites together with rock 402 fragments supports this conclusion. 403

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Comparisons

The gross morphology of the ovule and in particular its exposed nucellar apex 406 with a central column and dome-shaped pollen chamber, and its lobate integument, 407 firmly places the Kingswood ovule within the hydrasperman (=lagenostomalean-408 type) pteridosperms (Rothwell 1986; Hilton and Bateman 2006). Features that 409 separate it from previously recognized hydrasperman ovules are its small size and its 410 dense covering of long, slender, intertwined and twisted hairs. The very dense and 411 spiral arrangement of hairs is especially striking in Figure 6c and 6d and unlike all 412 other recognised Paleozoic ovules. Other Mississippian ovules have hairs on the 413 exterior of the integument, but in each case these are interpreted as straight, solid and 414

415 lacking glandular apices, for example in Salpingostoma (Gordon 1941), Dolichosperma (Long 1975), and Tantallosperma (Barnard & Long 1973). 416 Stamnostoma oliveri is small, 3.1mm long and 1.5 mm wide and is reported to have 417 short papillae (Rothwell and Scott 1992), but again the nature of its preservation and 418 method of study may make this difficult to interpret. The stratigraphically younger 419 420 ovule Physostoma elegans (Oliver 1909) has a dense growth of club-shaped hairs on the external surface of integument and lobes, but its hairs are considerably thicker 421 and are neither helically arranged nor have glandular apices. Like the Kingswood 422 ovule, P. elegans appears to lack a salpinx (Oliver 1909), but the ovule is larger at 423 5.5–6 mm long and up to 2 mm wide, and has 10 integumentary lobes. 424 From the Mississippian of Scotland there are three previously known ovule 425 species that like *Hirsutisperma* have longitudinal ridges on the seed body that 426 develop apically into integumentary lobes; Salpingostoma (Gordon 1941), 427 Tantallosperma (Long 1973) and Dolichosperma (Long 1961). All are considerably 428 larger than Hirsutisperma (Table 1) and have integuments with sparse hairs, with 429 Salpingostoma distinguished by its trumpet-shaped salpinx, while Tantallosperma 430 and Dolichosperma each have a wide, funnel-shaped salpinx. Although less well-431

432 preserved in comparison to *Hirsutisperma*, the integument of *Tantallosperma* (Long

433 1973) also comprises a multiseriate endotesta lacking secretory, and a thin zone of

434 sclerotesta comprising 1-2 rows of small, dense cells on the external margin of the

435 ovule (see Long 1973, fig. 33). We consider *Hirsutisperma* to be more closely related

436 to *Tantallosperma*, *Salpingostoma* and *Dolichosperma* than to other hydrasperman

type ovules based on the presence of longitudinal ridges below the level of theintegumentary lobes and their integumentary hairs.

The structure of the nucellar apex in the Kingswood ovule is unusual amongst 439 hydrasperman taxa that typically have an elongate, tubular salpinx emanating from 440 the apex of the pollen chamber (Rothwell 1986; Hilton and Bateman 2006). In the 441 Kingswood ovule the pollen chamber terminates abruptly with a large opening 442 through which the central column is visible but does not protrude from. The apical 443 cells of the pollen chamber are complete (Fig. 1d; Fig. 2b, Fig. 5l) from which we 444 consider it unlikely that the salpinx has been lost taphonomically. The occurrence of 445 thickened walls in the epidermal cells of the pollen chamber that show a gradient in 446 decreasing size towards the opening (see fig. 2b, fig. 5l) is a strong argument 447 supporting a mature stage, rather than inferring the nucellar apex to be immature 448 from which a salpinx has yet to develop. Further development of such a tissue 449 constituting thickened (? lignified) cells is hardly conceivable. 450

Despite the evidence presented above, we cannot fully exclude the possibility that a tubular salpinx in *Hirsutisperma* was destroyed taphonomically; this is discussed below. Ovules of *Salpingostoma* are somewhat comparable to *Hirsutisperma*; in his description of *Salpingostoma* ovules contained in *Calathospermum* cupules, Walton (1949, Plate III, fig. 22) illustrated detail of the pollen chamber with thickened, dome cells similar to those of our specimen but these are in continuity with a central tubular salpinx. In *Salpingostoma*, the salpinx is very

458	thin with cells hardly distinguishable and would certainly be very fragile, if not
459	protected by the surrounding integument lobes (Walton 1949; Gordon 1941).
460	A similarly broad dome-shaped pollen chamber lacking a salpinx as seen in
461	Hirsutisperma is known in other Mississippian ovules including the stratigraphically
462	contemporaneous species Sphaerostoma ovale from Pettycur (Benson 1914; Table 1).
463	Our views from above the pollen chamber (e.g. fig. 1 <i>d</i> , fig. 5 <i>l</i>) are similar to
464	Benson's Text-Fig. 2b and Plate II, figs. 7 and 10 that show the roof of the pollen
465	chamber in surface view and the central column. In Sphaerostoma, like in the
466	Kingswood ovule, the pollen chamber cells possessed thickened walls, which have
467	been compared by Benson (1914) to a fern "multiseriate annulus". Most importantly,
468	Benson (1914) was able to compare ontogenetically mature and younger ovules from
469	Sphaerostoma; in younger ovules epidermal cells are thin walled and the overlying
470	parenchyma is undergoing lysigenic degeneration. She proposed a summary of
471	development stages, namely: " special thickening of the roof-cells of the pollen
472	chamber. Concomitant lysigenic degeneration of the subjacent tissue leading to the
473	excavation of the pollen chamber. Circumsessile dehiscence and consequent
474	formation of a stomium by the upward movement of the free margin of the roof. The
475	retention of the pollen by the downward curvature of the roof" (Benson 1914, pg.
476	12). Such an interpretation may be applied to our new ovule for which this would
477	represent a distinct condition within the hydrasperman pollination syndrome and
478	inferring a close relationship of the Kingswood ovule with Sphaerostoma.

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Sphaerostoma is larger than the Kingswood ovule at 3.5 mm long and 2.2 mm
wide, and is further distinguished by its apical integument comprising eight short
integumentary lobes composed of large cells constituting a crest or "frill"
surrounding the micropyle (Table 1). A further difference is that *Sphaerostoma* was
borne inside a uniovulate cupule and thus, at the time of its description, was
considered comparable to the stratigraphically younger genus *Lagenostoma* (Oliver
and Scott 1904).

It is important to consider the ontogenetic stage of *Hirsutisperma* in relation to 486 other Mississippian ovules to consider if this explains the unusual features of its 487 nucellar apex and absence of the salpinx. Differences in size of the pollen chamber of 488 the ovules shown in Table 1 does not result from different degrees of ontogenetic 489 development; in all cases, the pollen chamber is "mature" with pollen chamber wall 490 cells thicknened. Comparison of the size of the pollen chamber in relation to the size 491 of the ovule (or of its nucellar cavity) is about the same (Table 1), suggesting that the 492 smaller ovules will not increase significantly in size on becoming "fully mature". The 493 next ontogenetic steps for maturity concern megagametophyte and archegonia 494 development. As the taxa in Table 1 lack cellular megagametophytes and 495 archaeogonia, all are in an immature growth stage, as demonstrated by Rothwell 496 (1986), hence at a similar ontogenetic stage. 497

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Seed ecology

500 Hirsutisperma appears to be in the pollination configuration of its hydrasperman reproduction life cycle (Rothwell 1986) in which the distal opening of 501 the pollen chamber remains open for pollen reception and retention prior to 502 fertilisation. This is distinct from the hydrasperman post-pollination configuration 503 where the central column is pushed outwards by the developing megagametophyte 504 and seals off the opening to the pollen chamber from within (Rothwell, 1986). This, 505 combined with the absence of tissues of the megagametophyte would suggest that the 506 ovule was ontogenetically immature, contradicting our earlier interpretation that it 507 was mature. The opening to the pollen chamber is 95–110 µm in diameter, but with 508 the central column in its current position a gap of 20–70 µm µm exists between the 509 two that would present a size barrier for (pre-)pollen of larger diameter to enter the 510 pollen chamber. 511

Although we do not know how Hirsutisperma was borne on the parent plant as 512 it was found isolated, existing evidence supports all hydrasperman-type ovules being 513 borne within a cupule; where hydrasperman-type ovules are known in attachment to 514 the parent plant they are cupulate. Cupules were either uniovulate such as 515 Pseudosporogonites (Prestianni et al. 2013), Sphaerostoma (Benson 1914), 516 Lagenostoma (Oliver and Scott 1904), uni- or biovulate like the minute Ruxtonia 517 (Galtier et al. 2007) or multiovulate such as *Elkinsia* (Rothwell et al. 1989),

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Xenotheca (Hilton and Edwards 1999), Stamnostoma (Long 1960b) and 519

Calathospermum (Barnard, 1960) amongst others. In most well documented cupules, 520

the ovule pedicel is very short and narrow, if not absent. This is in contrast with the 521

situation in *Calathospermum* that bear ovules of *Salpingostoma dasu* (Gordon 1941) 522 which possess a thin and long pedicel like *Genomosperma kidstonii* (Long 1960a) 523 and probably in our new ovule. This is of interest because the organization of the 524 *Calathospermum* cupule is quite distinct and may eventually suggest a dispersal of 525 the mature pedicellate ovules. If this was the case for the new ovule, the hairy 526 integument would represent an adequate adaptation. Our small new ovule was 527 certainly very light and the very dense and spirally arranged covering of hairs would 528 have presented a highly efficient adaptation to wind dispersal. An interesting 529 possibility might be that the spirally arranged hairs are in some way related to 530 dispersal of the ovule from a cupule, or perhaps for stopping arthropods entering into 531 the cupule. However, we have no ways of assessing these concepts based on the 532 single specimen available. 533

The small size of ovules of *Hirsutisperma* suggests that its parent plant was in 534 terms of the traditional ecological r/K selection continuum (Taylor et al. 1990) an r-535 selected species, producing large numbers of small propagules each with a low 536 potential of surviving to adulthood. R-selected species are adapted to life in less 537 crowded ecological niches with low competition pressure, and are considered as 538 pioneering species, often living in unstable or changing environments (MacArthur 539 and Wilson 1967), as previously interpreted for the Kingswood flora (Scott 2010; 540 Scott et al. 2014). By contrast, based on evidence from size, larger hydrasperman 541 ovules such as Genomosperma (Long 1960a) and Salpingostoma borne in cupules of 542 Calathospermum (Gordon 1941; Walton 1949; Barnard 1960) were more likely to 543

have been *K*-selection species, living in more established ecological settings with
higher competition pressures. For *K*-selective species it is advantageous to produce
fewer but larger propagules, providing each with a higher potential to reach maturity
and produce the next generation. *Hirsutisperma* suggests ecological niche
partitioning existed in Mississippian hydrasperman-type ovules.

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Plant: animal relationships

The ovule is characterised by spirally arranged glandular hairs that also have spirally twisted groups of hair. It is pertinent to ask what would the function of these be and how might this provide further paleoecological data. We see three alternatives, namely:

1. The glands contain repellent such as resin or other phytochemical (see 555 Farmer, 2014) to deter feeding arthropods from granivory. During the Mississippian 556 there are no records of flying insects but herbivores included millipedes, springtails 557 (Collembola) and mites (see Scott and Taylor 1983; Scott et al. 1992; Labandeira 558 1998, 2002, 2006, 2007). Millipedes are cms in size and tend to feed on dead plant 559 material; certainly some of the coprolites from Kingswood could have come from 560 them (Rothwell and Scott 1988; Scott et al. 1992). Collembola are much smaller and 561 could have been responsible for feeding on the living plants but would have been 562 unlikely to eat entire seeds, even as small as *Hirsutisperma*. Finally, mites are still 563 smaller (see Scott and Taylor 1983; Labendeira 2007) and might have bored into the 564 living plant tissues but would have been too small to eat it. We consider this the most 565

likely function for the glands, especially if the plant was living in an active volcanic 566 terrain in which perhaps removing toxins from the plant taken up through growth 567 may have been important. We consider it unlikely that these glands contained resin as 568 there appears not to be any solid residue preserved. It has been shown (Olivera et al. 569 2018) that if herbivory pressure is high enough then the plant may have evolved 570 glandular trichome secretions in response to it. This is even the case for very small 571 plant organs where there may be pressure from spider mites or other herbivores 572 (Walters 2017). Many secretions have also a duel role (Schnetzler et al. 2017) to be 573 both anti-herbivore but also anti-microbial (Farmer 2014). The tip of the gland could 574 act as a physical defence but when broken, for instance by an arthropod, could release 575 its toxins (Walters 2017). 576

2. The glands contain an attractant (see Aranguren et al. 2018 for an example) to promote visitation of an arthropod carrying pollen. We have no evidence of this. It is difficult to imagine one of these groups acting as a pollinator (see comments about the larger *Arthropleura* during the Pennsylvanian by Scott and Taylor 1983 and Labendeira 2002) and this contradicts existing evidence that suggests hydraspermantype ovules were wind pollinated (see below).

3. The glands contain a sticky substance that is exuded to help catch either
arthropod-carried pollen or more likely to catch wind-born pollen. Although
hydrasperman-type ovules were anemophilous (see Niklas 1981, 1985), pollen
needed to enter the nucellar apex to facilitate pollination for which a pollen drop
mechanism would have been beneficial. Pollen drops are widespread in extant seed

plants (e.g. Gelbart and von Aderkas 2002) and have been reported in the fossil
record in callistophytalean (Rothwell 1978) and medullosan ovules (Combourieu and
Galtier 1985), but are unknown in hydrasperman ovules. We consider that in very
hirsute integuments, only pollen received on the inner surface of the integument lobes
and above the pollen chamber had any chance of being trapped and subsequently
playing any role in pollination.

The balance of probability is that these glandular trichomes, which are hollow inside, may have produced a toxin or even acyl-sugars (Luu et al. 2017) that acted as an anti-herbivore or even against pathogenic fungi.

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Concluding remarks

Since the original studies of Scott et al. (1986), Meyer-Berthaud (1986) and 599 Meyer-Berthaud and Galtier (1986), the Kingswood flora was recognised as an 600 assemblage dominated by fusainized seed plant remains including stems, rachides, 601 distal parts of fronds and pollen organs as well as fragments of gymnospermous 602 wood. We present here the first description of a female gymnosperm organ as a 603 minute ovule attributed to a new taxon. The whole-plant relationship with one of the 604 stems, one of the five types of rachides, or one of the two pollen organs already 605 described from the assemblage remains to be resolved. However, it is of interest that 606 dislocated segments of a *Calathospermum*-type cupule have previously been 607 identified from the site; considering the similarity of Saplingostoma ovules born in 608 Calathospermum cupules to Hirsutisperma, this may represent another part of the 609

same whole-plant species. Of particular note is the presence of spirally arranged
glandular hairs (trichomes) that may have contained phytochemicals that could have
acted as an anti-herbivore or anti-fungal agent. The parent plant may have lived on
well-drained volcanic soil and was subjected to wildfire that preserved the ovule as
charcoal.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. LVSEM images of *Hirsutisperma rothwellii* gen. et sp. nov. showing gross 839 morphology. All images of the holotype (V 68764). a, Entire ovule in semi-oblique 840 lateral view showing narrow chalaza (C) at pedicel level, apically free integumentary 841 lobes (IL) and nucellar apex, and prominent integumentary hairs. Scale = $500 \mu m. b$, 842 Chalazal region of ovule showing dense covering of counter clockwise twisting, long, 843 slender integumentary hairs. Scale = $200 \ \mu m. c$, Apical transverse view showing long 844 hairs (H) on exterior of the integument and eight apically incomplete integumentary 845 lobes surrounding the exposed central nucellar apex. Scale = $200 \,\mu\text{m}$. d, Enlargement 846 of c showing large rectangular cells of the pollen chamber wall (PCW) with apical 847 opening and revealing cellular central column (CC) within. Scale = $100 \mu m$. 848

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Fig. 2. Virtual longitudinal tomographic sections from the SRXTM data of 850 *Hirsutisperma rothwellii* gen. et sp. nov., showing internal organisation and anatomy. 851 All images of the holotype (V 68764), scale bars = $250 \mu m. a$, Section through 852 chalaza (C) to base of the nucellar apex showing maximum height of the conical 853 nucellar cavity (NC). b, Section though distal part of ovule with integumentary lobes 854 (IL), and nucellar apex showing small-celled central column (CC) and pollen 855 chamber (PC) with decreasing cell size towards the distal opening. c, Vertical 856 paradermal view of the side of the domed pollen chamber wall (PCW) above the 857

nucellus (N) and megaspore (M) and longitudinal section of two integumentary lobes
(IL). *d*, Vertical and oblique to paradermal section of three integumentary lobes (IL).

Fig. 3. Virtual transverse tomographic sections from the SRXTM data of 861 Hirsutisperma rothwellii gen. et sp. nov., showing internal organisation and anatomy. 862 All images of the holotype (V 68764) and at same scale for comparison; scale bars = 863 200 µm. a, Ovule pedicel with central vascular strand (arrow) (section a900). b, Base 864 of nucellar cavity with initiation of 8 integumentary vascular strands (arrows) 865 surrounded by hairs (a700). c, Maximum diameter of the nucellar cavity and lateral 866 fusion of integumentary lobes (arrows) (a220). d, Coalescence of nucellus and 867 integumentary lobes (b550); conjoined (J) integument and nucellus (N), and distinct 868 megaspore (M). e, Nucellus (N) free from integument lobes below pollen chamber 869 (b510). f, Maximum diameter of the central column (CC) (b470). g, Maximum 870 diameter of the pollen chamber (PC) with uniseriate wall (b420). h, paradermal view 871 of top of the pollen chamber (arrow) (b400). *i*, Free integumentary lobes above pollen 872 chamber with few exterior hairs (b350). 873

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Fig. 4. LVSEM images of *Hirsutisperma rothwellii* gen. et sp. nov. showing organisation of the hairs on the exterior of the integument. All images of the holotype (V 68764). *a*, Portion of an integumentary lobe with many hairs removed revealing epidermal cells and hair bases. Scale = 100 μ m. *b*, Enlargement of *a* showing epidermal cells and basal regions of hollow hairs with twisted structure. Scale = 20 880 µm. c, Enlargement of a revealing elongate epidermal cells and hollow hairs with spiralled structure. Scale = $20 \mu m. d$, Outer epidermis of an integumentary lobe with 881 vertically elongated rectangular cells, and a complete hair with glandular tip (arrow). 882 Scale = 100 μ m. *e*, Enlargement of *d* showing glandular apex of hair with spirally 883 organised thickenings. Scale = $10 \mu m. f$, Hairs with hollow centres and spiralled, 884 glands with pointed, nipple-like apices. Scale = $50 \mu m. g$, Incomplete apical gland 885 with prominent spiralling. Scale = $10 \mu m$. h, Broken hairs with central bodies and 886 divisions. Scale = $10 \mu m$. *i*, Spirally arranged broken hairs organised in bundles. 887 Scale = $200 \mu m$. 888

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Fig. 5. Anatomy of the integument and nucellus of *Hirsutisperma rothwellii* gen. et 890 sp. nov. from transverse SRXTM data of the holotype (V 68764). Section numbers 891 indicated in parentheses; scale bars a-d, $f = 100 \mu m$, e, $g-l = 50 \mu m$. a, Pedicel 892 showing bundles of hairs, uniseriate epidermis (EP), and single vascular strand 893 (a0933). b, Base of nucellus (N) with two layered integument and with uniseriate 894 epidermis (EP) and bundles (B) of radiating hairs (a0801). c, Denser covering of 895 hairs envelops uniseriate epidermis and integument with outer zone of small cells and 896 inner one of larger cells. Integumentary lobes starting to develop, with eight 897 integumentary vascular bundles (arrows) and a small nucellar cavity (NC) (a0700). d, 898 Incipient integumentary lobes with hairs restricted to lobe exteriors, and nucellus (N) 899 fused to integument and megaspore (M) visible (a0413). e, Four integumentary lobes 900 with uniseriate epidermis, exterior zone of small cells (1) bounded by larger cells on 901

902	the interior (2). Nucellus fused to integument and megaspore in places attached to
903	nucellus (b0633). f, Incipient integumentary lobes (still in narrow contact with the
904	nucellus, arrows) with central zone (2) of radiating, large, thin walled cells and outer
905	zone of small cells (1) (a0127). g , Basalmost section of the free nucellus
906	corresponding to the constricted "plinth" region (b510). h, Single integumentary lobe
907	showing central vascular stand surrounded by thick walled cells, and radiating small
908	cells (a0080). <i>i</i> , Base of the pollen chamber (PC) showing domed central area and
909	thick, rectangular cells of the pollen chamber wall (PCW) (a0053). <i>j</i> , Widest part of
910	the central column (CC) with uniseriate pollen chamber wall (PCW) (b0470). k ,
911	Widest section of the pollen chamber with smaller central column (CC) and large
912	space (or annular cavity) inside the pollen chamber (PC) (b0420). <i>l</i> , View from above
913	of the pollen chamber with central column (CC) approaching apical opening with
913 914	of the pollen chamber with central column (CC) approaching apical opening with smaller rectangular cells near the opening at right (b400).
914	
914 915	smaller rectangular cells near the opening at right (b400).
914 915 916	smaller rectangular cells near the opening at right (b400).Fig. 6. External morphology virtual reconstruction of <i>Hirsutisperma rothwellii</i> gen.
914 915 916 917	 smaller rectangular cells near the opening at right (b400). Fig. 6. External morphology virtual reconstruction of <i>Hirsutisperma rothwellii</i> gen. et sp. nov. from the 3-dimensional SRXTM dataset using Drishti (by A.R.T.
914 915 916 917 918	 smaller rectangular cells near the opening at right (b400). Fig. 6. External morphology virtual reconstruction of <i>Hirsutisperma rothwellii</i> gen. et sp. nov. from the 3-dimensional SRXTM dataset using Drishti (by A.R.T. Spencer). All images of the holotype (V 68764) and from dataset A; all scale bars =
914 915 916 917 918 919	smaller rectangular cells near the opening at right (b400). Fig. 6. External morphology virtual reconstruction of <i>Hirsutisperma rothwellii</i> gen. et sp. nov. from the 3-dimensional SRXTM dataset using Drishti (by A.R.T. Spencer). All images of the holotype (V 68764) and from dataset A; all scale bars = 250 μ m. <i>a</i> , External, lateral view of the basal-medial part of the ovule, showing dense
914 915 916 917 918 919 920	smaller rectangular cells near the opening at right (b400). Fig. 6. External morphology virtual reconstruction of <i>Hirsutisperma rothwellii</i> gen. et sp. nov. from the 3-dimensional SRXTM dataset using Drishti (by A.R.T. Spencer). All images of the holotype (V 68764) and from dataset A; all scale bars = 250 μ m. <i>a</i> , External, lateral view of the basal-medial part of the ovule, showing dense exterior covering of long, slender hairs with spiral arrangement. <i>b</i> , Virtual

spirally arranged hairs at level with incipient integumentary lobes. e. Apical view of 924 ovule showing three more complete integumentary lobes and more fragmentary 925 remains of the others. f, Oblique view of ovule with virtual transverse section through 926 the nucellar apex showing central column, pollen chamber and integumentary lobes 927 surrounded by thin mat of hairs. g. Virtual transverse section through pollen chamber 928 929 showing irregular, large cells in the pollen chamber wall, and base of the pollen chamber adjacent to the central column. h, Virtual longitudinal section through apex 930 of ovule revealing central column protruding from the apex of the pollen chamber 931 opening but with a gap between it and the pollen chamber roof. 932

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Fig. 7. LVSEM images of *Hirsutisperma rothwellii* gen. et sp. nov. showing inner 934 surface of the integumentary lobes and integumentary bundles. All images of the 935 holotype (V 68764); scale bars $a = 200 \mu m$, $b = 100 \mu m$, $c, d = 20 \mu m$. a, Internal 936 surface of the integumentary lobes showing fibrous texture; no hairs are attached to 937 the internal surface. b, Enlargement from a showing detail of the fibrous texture. c, 938 Fractured integumentary lobe apex revealing transverse section through an 939 integumentary xylem bundle (arrow) with mesarch organisation, surrounded by thin 940 walled cells. d, Fractured integumentary lobe showing an xylem bundle in 941 longitudinal section with scalariform thickening of tracheids (arrow). 942

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944 Table 1. Comparison of Misissippian aged ovules most similar to Hirsutisperma gen.
945 nov. All measurements in mm.

946 Supplementary data files.

- Hirsutisperma_rothwellii_video_dataset_b.avi
- Hirsutisperma_rothwellii_video_dataset_b.mov
- Hirsutisperma_rothwellii_video_dataset_b.mp4
- 950 3D reconstructions of *Hirsutisperma rothwelli from* SRXTM dataset 2 using Drishti
- by A.R.T. Spencer showing apical features of the ovule in different file formats. The
- 3D structure of the ovule apex is especially clear, as is the incomplete nature of the
- 953 apical integumentary lobes.

		Hirsutisperma gen. nov.	Dolichosperma sexangulatum	Salpingostoma dasu	Tantallosperma setigera	Sphaerostoma ovale
Ovule length		2	20	50	6	3.5
Ovule diameter		0.8–1.25	2.6	6	1.2	2.2
Integument and nucellus thickness		0.22	0.3–0.4	1–1.4	0.2	0.15
Integument lobe and vascular bundle number		8	6	6	4	8
Integument	Lobe length	>1	7.5	25	>2	? <0.5
-	Lobe diameter	0.3	0.4	1.4	0.4	? 0.2
	Hair length	>0.5	> 1.15	> 2–3	>1	
Nucellar	Shape	Obconical	Obconical	Obconical	Obconical	Ovoid
cavity	Length	1.4	8	12	>3	>2
	Diameter	0.6	2	4	<1	1.4
Pollen	Width	0.4	1.5	1.6	0.6	0.75
chamber	Height	0.2	0.8	1	0.2-0.29	0.23
Central	Width	0.24	0.7	?	0.2	<0.3
column	Height	0.16	0.3	?	0.1	0.2
Salpinx length		Absent ?	0.5	6	0.3	Absent
Source publications		This paper	Long (1975)	Gordon (1941)	Barnard and Long (1973)	Benson (1914)

Table 1













