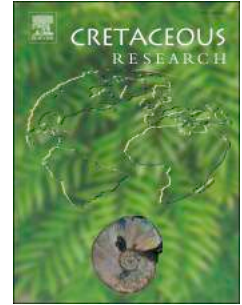


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Brachyoxylon fossil woods with traumatic resin canals from the Upper Cretaceous Cerro Fortaleza Formation, southern Patagonia (Santa Cruz Province, Argentina)

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Author Statement

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- Cosme F. Rombola prepared this manuscript, described and preliminary identified the fossil material, and wrote the first version.
- Carlos D. Greppi and Roberto R. Pujana supervised Cosme's work, discussed with him the wood anatomy, the taxonomy, and some aspects of the traumatic resin canals. In addition, Carlos D. Greppi made thin-sections of the fossil woods studied.
- Juan García Massini supervised Cosme's work and discussed with him all the aspects related to the traumatic resin canals.
- Eduardo S. Bellosi and Sergio A. Marensi wrote the geological aspects and discussed some interpretations, particularly referred to the paleoclimatic inferences. In addition, Sergio A. Marensi collected the samples in the field.

1 *Brachyoxylon* fossil woods with traumatic resin canals from the Upper Cretaceous Cerro
2 Fortaleza Formation, southern Patagonia (Santa Cruz Province, Argentina)

3

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16

17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Two silicified fossil woods from outcrops of the Cerro Fortaleza Formation (Campanian,
19 Upper Cretaceous) in Los Hornos Hill, Santa Cruz Province, Argentina are described. Based
20 on their anatomical characteristics, both specimens were assigned to a new species of the
21 fossil genus *Brachyoxylon* Hollick and Jeffrey, *B. patagonicum* sp. nov. They are
22 characterized by having distinct growth ring boundaries, absence of axial parenchyma,
23 uniseriate rays, mixed and uniseriate intertracheary radial pitting, and araucarioid cross-
24 fields with 1–8 circular half-bordered pits per cross-field. In turn, one specimen has three
25 rows of axial traumatic resin canals parallel to the growth rings were identified close to the
26 middle of the growth rings or close to the latewood. Approximately 45% of *Brachyoxylon*

27 species present traumatic resin canals, which suggests that they are a common feature of
28 this fossil genus. Alternatively, the specimen with the canals shows biological remains
29 (hyphae) and wood fungal degradation patterns, which may be thought as some of those of
30 possible organisms contributing to the formation of the resin canals. This record provides
31 fresh evidence attesting to the abundance and widespread distribution of Cheirolepidiaceae
32 in the Cretaceous of Patagonia.

33

34 *Keywords.* Wood anatomy; Conifer; Cheirolepidiaceae; South America; Austral Basin

35

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38

39 The Cretaceous was warmer and wetter compared to the Jurassic, probably because
40 the increase in atmospheric CO₂ and global changes in marine streams associated with the
41 rupture of Pangea (Arthur et al., 1988; Berner, 1990; Spicer and Corfield, 1992; Price et al.,
42 2013). This scenario favored the development and the diversification of the flora, even at
43 high latitudes, where numerous plant assemblages have been recorded (Passalia, 2004).

44 The flora of southern Patagonia was dominated during the Early Cretaceous by
45 conifers and ferns (Del Fueyo et al., 2007). Among the conifers, the most diversified groups
46 were the Cheirolepidiaceae and Podocarpaceae, whereas other groups of gymnosperms,
47 such as the Araucariaceae, cycads, bennettitaleans, and ginkgoaleans were well
48 represented (Del Fueyo et al., 2007). Conifers formed tall forests in fluvial, lacustrine and
49 deltaic paleoenvironments, whereas ferns, pteridosperms, and smaller plants, such as
50 cycads and bennettitaleans, developed in open areas (Del Fueyo et al., 2007). Early
51 angiosperms from the Barremian–Aptian represent a marginal group in fossil plant
52 assemblages (Archangelsky et al., 2009). However, Albian–Coniacian angiosperms were

53 much more diverse and abundant components of ancient ecosystems (Archangelsky et al.,
54 2009).

55 The paleobotanical record of Patagonia during the Cretaceous is based mainly on
56 palynological associations and fossil leaf remains (e.g., Del Fueyo et al., 2007; Prámparo,
57 2012; Prámparo et al., 2018; Romero et al., 2019). However, despite the abundance of
58 Cretaceous plant assemblages, studies on fossil woods are comparatively scarce and
59 focused mainly on the Early Cretaceous (e.g., Martínez and Lutz, 2007; Vera and Césari,
60 2015; Carrizo and Del Fueyo, 2015; Brea et al., 2016; Gnaedinger et al., 2017; Nunes et al.,
61 2018, 2019; Greppi et al., 2020, 2021). There are considerably fewer studies of conifer fossil
62 woods for the Late Cretaceous (Tortorelli, 1941; Nishida et al., 1992; Del Fueyo, 1998;
63 Martínez and Lutz, 2007; Pujana et al., 2007; Varela et al., 2016; Novas et al., 2019).
64 Assemblages of conifer and angiosperm fossil woods have been described from the Upper
65 Cretaceous Cerro Fortaleza and Puntudo Chico formations (Egerton et al., 2016; Vera et al.,
66 2019, 2020).

67 The Cheirolepidiaceae is one of the better represented conifer families in the
68 Mesozoic of Patagonia and it was most diverse and abundant during the Jurassic–
69 Cretaceous (Greppi et al., 2021). In Patagonia, the Cheirolepidiaceae apparently dominated
70 the canopy and formed monospecific or mixed forests with other conifers (e.g.,
71 Araucariaceae, Podocarpaceae) (e.g., Del Fueyo et al., 2007; Greppi et al., 2020, 2021).
72 *Classopollis* (Pflug) Pocock and *Jansonius* pollen grain of the Cheirolepidiaceae are
73 frequently found in association with *Classostrobus* Alvin, Spicer and Watson cones (e.g.,
74 Alvin et al., 1978; Axsmith et al., 2004; Rothwell et al., 2007; Hieger et al., 2015). In addition,
75 several fossil leaf (e.g., *Pseudofrenolopsis* Nathorst, *Brachyphyllum* Brongniart, *Hirmeriella*
76 Hörhammer, and *Tomaxellia* Archangelsky) are usually found in organic connection with
77 male cones with *Classopollis* pollen grains or by the presence of this pollen grain genus
78 dispersed in the sediments (e.g., Archangelsky, 1968; Alvin et al., 1978; Barbacka et al.,

79 2007; Du et al., 2013). *Brachyoxylon* is a fossil wood genus usually related to the
80 Cheirolepidiaceae (Alvin et al., 1981). *Pomperaugoxylon* Hickey, Hu and Skinner from the
81 Triassic of USA, is another fossil wood genus related to this extinct conifer family, and one
82 of the oldest of the family (Hickey et al., 2011). *Telephragmoxyton* Torrey, another fossil wood
83 genus related to the Cheirolepidiaceae (Iamandei et al., 2005), is not validly published
84 because it does not comply with the International Code of Botanical Nomenclature (Philippe
85 and Bamford, 2008).

86 Resin canals (=ducts) are postcambial tubular structures produced by the division of
87 groups of contiguous cells (schizogenesis) (Brown et al., 1949). Axial (=vertical) and
88 horizontal (=radial) resin canals in secondary xylem (wood) can be normal (=constitutive) or
89 of traumatic origin (Esteban et al. 2003). Axial resin canals in secondary xylem occur, in
90 conifers, mainly in certain extant Pinaceae and also more rarely in extant Cupressaceae
91 (Holden, 1913; Bailey and Faull, 1934; Hudgins et al 2004; IAWA Committee, 2004;
92 Vazquez-González et al., 2020). When horizontal resin canals occur, they always appear
93 inside the rays (Esteban et al., 2003; IAWA Committee, 2004).

94 The presence of traumatic resin canals (TRC) in conifer fossil wood, in secondary
95 xylem, has been documented from the Late Triassic to the Late Pleistocene, mostly in the
96 Northern Hemisphere. Fossil wood genera related to the Pinaceae (*Cedroxylon* Kraus,
97 *Keteelerioxylon* Shilkina, *Lariciaxylon* Greguss, *Piceoxylon* Gothan, *Pinoxylon* Knowlton,
98 *Protocedroxylon* Gothan, *Protopiceoxylon* Gothan, and *Lesbosoxylon* Süss and Velitzelos)
99 more commonly have TRC than fossil genera of other conifer families (e.g., Shimakura,
100 1937; Blokhina et al., 2006; Blokhina and Afonin 2009; Selmeier and Grosser, 2011; Ding et
101 al., 2016; Sakala et al., 2018; Akkemik et al., 2020). Also, TRC were described in fossil
102 genera related to the Taxodiaceae (*Glyptostroboxylon* Süss and Velitzelos, *Oguraxylon*
103 Nishida and *Taxodioxyton* Hartig), and to a lesser extent to the Cupressaceae (*Sequoioxylon*
104 Torrey) (e.g., Nishida, 1974; Süss and Velitzelos, 1997; Oh et al., 2011; Afonin, 2013).

105 Presence of TRC was described in *Agathoxylon* Hartig from the Upper Cretaceous of Egypt,
106 but these are not clearly observable in the original publication (Youssef et al., 2000).

107 In this contribution, we describe in detail two fossil wood specimens attributable to
108 the Cheirolepidiaceae collected from Los Hornos Hill (southwestern Santa Cruz Province,
109 Argentina) in sediments of the Cerro Fortaleza Formation (Upper Cretaceous). These are
110 compared to similar conifer woods and the TRC are described and discussed.

111

112 **2. Geological setting**

113

114 The Austral-Magallanes Basin, in southern South America, contains a nearly
115 continuous record of Middle Jurassic–Cenozoic deposits (Quattrocchio et al., 2006;
116 Schwarz et al., 2011), which were deposited during three main tectonic stages: a rift stage
117 (Late Jurassic), a thermal subsidence stage (Early Cretaceous), and a foreland stage
118 (Aptian–Miocene) (Biddle et al., 1986; Robbiano et al., 1996; Cuitiño et al., 2019). The infill
119 of the basin during the Late Cretaceous is represented by a regressive sequence that
120 allowed for the progradation of continental deposits to the southeast (Spalletti and Franzese,
121 2007).

122 The Cerro Fortaleza Formation corresponds to the foreland stage. It was defined by
123 Arbe and Hechem (1984) and extends along the margins of the La Leona and Turbio rivers,
124 Hondo Canyon and the lower reach of the Guanaco River (Kraemer and Riccardi, 1997). It
125 is equivalent to the “Dinosaurs Beds” or the “Pari Aike Beds” (Feruglio in Fossa Mancini et
126 al., 1938; Feruglio, 1944), to the Chorrillo Formation (e.g., Leanza, 1972; Furque, 1973,
127 Nullo et al., 1981; Oviedo, 1982; Novas et al., 2019), and to the Pari Aike Formation (e.g.,
128 Riccardi and Rolleri, 1980; Kraemer and Riccardi, 1997; Novas et al., 2002). Varela (2015)
129 mapped these Cretaceous dinosaur-bearing beds in the area of the Viedma Lake (including
130 Los Hornos Hill) as the Mata Amarilla Formation, but we consider that this unit is not exposed

131 in this area, and we prefer to separate the Cerro Fortaleza and the Mata Amarilla formations
132 as different stratigraphic units. Consequently, Sickmann et al. (2018) correlate some
133 deposits previously assigned to the Cenomanian Mata Amarilla Formation (e.g., Riccardi
134 and Rolleri, 1980; Varela et al., 2012) with the Cerro Fortaleza Formation. The Cerro
135 Fortaleza Formation rests in concordance on the marine sandstones of the La Anita
136 Formation and is unconformably covered by the La Irene Formation (Macellari et al., 1989;
137 Kraemer and Riccardi, 1997).

138 The Cerro Fortaleza Formation is poorly consolidated and greenish gray in color. It
139 consists predominantly of lenticular beds of cross-bedded sandstones (fluvial channel
140 deposits), interbedded with tabular beds of laminated tuffaceous mudstones, carbonaceous
141 claystones and siltstones, very weakly-developed paleosols and volcanic ash deposits
142 (Novas et al., 2002; Egerton et al., 2016). In the upper section, which includes the studied
143 woods, the fine-grained deposits (floodplain facies) are prevalent. Channel bodies are wider
144 than in the lower section, show lateral accretion surfaces and frequently include dinosaur
145 remains and large fossil trunks (Novas et al., 2002). The Cerro Fortaleza Formation records
146 the fluvial sedimentation in a coastal plain during a regressive phase. The marine
147 intercalations at the base and towards the south indicate a transitional environment in this
148 sector of the basin (Novas et al., 2002). Sedimentological features suggest a southwestern
149 oriented meandering fluvial system, with extended and poorly-drained floodplains (Maceralli
150 et al., 1989; Novas et al., 2002; Egerton et al., 2016; Sickmann et al., 2018).

151 From the paleontological point of view, the Cerro Fortaleza Formation contains
152 marine and continental invertebrates (Riccardi and Rolleri, 1980; Oviedo, 1982; Arbe and
153 Hechem, 1984; Sickman et al., 2018), marine trace fossils (Sickmann et al., 2018), marine
154 and continental phytoplankton (Oviedo, 1982; Povilauskas et al., 2006) and other
155 palynomorphs (Oviedo, 1982; Archangelsky in Riccardi 1984; Povilauskas et al., 2006),
156 plant remains (trunks and leaves) (Riccardi and Rolleri, 1980; Arbe and Hechem, 1984;

157 Maceralli et al., 1989; Kraemer and Riccardi, 1997; Villar de Seoane in Novas et al., 2002;
158 Povilauskas et al., 2006; Egerton et al., 2016; Sickmann et al., 2018; Tettamanti et al., 2018),
159 as well as marine (Sickmann et al., 2018) and continental vertebrates (e.g., Feruglio, 1944;
160 Arbe and Hechem, 1984; Novas et al., 2002, 2004, 2008; Marensi et al., 2003; Ezcurra et
161 al., 2010; Lacovara et al., 2014; Sickmann et al., 2018).

162 The age of the Cerro Fortaleza Formation was inferred from its stratigraphic
163 relationship with the underlying La Anita Formation, dated as Campanian based on marine
164 invertebrates (Riccardi, 1983; Maceralli, 1988) and detrital zircon ages (Sickmann et al.,
165 2018, 2019); and by the Maastrichtian age of the overlying La Irene Formation according to
166 its stratigraphic position and palynological content (Maceralli et al., 1989; Kraemer and
167 Riccardi, 1997; Povilauskas et al., 2008). Recently, Sickmann et al. (2018), using U-Pb data
168 on detrital zircons (76.2 ± 1.6 Ma and 78.4 ± 2.4 Ma), suggested a Campanian age for the
169 Cerro Fortaleza Formation in the area between the Viedma Lake and Argentino Lake.

170

171 **3. Material and methods**

172

173 Two fossil woods were collected from Los Hornos Hill, upper section of the Cerro
174 Fortaleza Formation ($49^{\circ}49'47''$ S, $72^{\circ}06'56''$ W; Fig. 1), Santa Cruz Province by SAM in
175 2003. This locality is now known as “Bosque Petrificado La Leona” (La Leona Petrified
176 Forest), and is a tourist attraction. The specimens are silicified secondary xylem and are
177 housed in the paleobotany collection of the Museo Provincial Padre Jesús Molina (MPM PB)
178 in Río Gallegos, Santa Cruz Province, Argentina, under accession numbers 18277 and
179 18278. We prepared thin sections (transverse, TS; tangential longitudinal, TLS; radial
180 longitudinal, RLS) in the Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales (MACN) following standard
181 techniques (Hass and Rowe, 1999). Thin sections bear the specimen number followed by a
182 lowercase letter. Slides were examined using light microscopy (Leica DM2500 and DM500)

183 and the photographs were taken with a Leica DFC295 and ICC50HD digital cameras. Both
184 specimens were observed with scanning electron microscopy (Philips XL30 of MACN) after
185 being gold-coated. At least 20 measurements were taken for each character. Measurements
186 are expressed as the weighted mean of both specimens followed by the range and weighted
187 mean standard deviation (sd) in parentheses.

188 The descriptive terminology is based on the recommendations of the IAWA
189 Committee (2004). For the generic classification of the woods, we followed the key proposed
190 by Philippe and Bamford (2008). Indices for measuring and quantifying the intertracheary
191 radial pitting arrangement (Cp and Si) are those of Pujana et al. (2016). Si = 1.00 indicates
192 that all the intertracheary pits are uniseriate, Si > 1.00 indicates that there are two- or more-
193 seriate pits, Cp = 0% that no pits touch and Cp = 100% that all pits touch (Pujana et al.,
194 2016). We replaced the term used by Philippe and Bamford (2008) "oculipores" with half-
195 bordered pits.

196

197 **4. Systematic paleontology**

198

199 Fossil genus *Brachyoxylon* Hollick and Jeffrey, 1909.

200 Type species. *Brachyoxylon notabile* Hollick and Jeffrey, 1909, p. 54, pl. 13, figs. 2–6, pl. 14,
201 fig. 2.

202

203 *Brachyoxylon patagonicum* sp. nov. Rombola, Greppi and Pujana

204 Fig. 2–5

205

206 *Derivation of the name.* The specific epithet refers to Patagonia, the region where the
207 material was recovered.

208 *Holotype.* MPM PB 18277 (2 TS, 3 RLS, and 1 TLS).

209 *Paratype*. MPM PB 18278 (2 TS, 2 RLS, and 1 TLS).

210 *Type locality*. Los Hornos Hill, Santa Cruz Province, Argentina.

211 *Stratigraphic horizon*. Cerro Fortaleza Formation (Upper Cretaceous).

212 *Diagnosis*. Secondary xylem composed of tracheids and rays. Growth ring boundaries
213 distinct, latewood with 1–4 rows of tracheids. Intertracheary radial pitting mixed and
214 exclusively uniseriate. Cross-fields with usually 1–8 half-bordered, mostly contiguous and
215 alternate, pits per cross-field (araucarioid cross-fields). Rays uniseriate, height medium.
216 Horizontal and end walls of ray parenchyma cells smooth. Axial parenchyma absent.

217

218 *Description*. MPM PB 18277 (Fig. 2A) was taken from a tree that had a minimum diameter
219 of 20 cm, and MPM PB 18278 from a tree of minimum diameter of 26 cm and is laterally
220 compressed (Fig. 2B). In specimen MPM PB 18277 a branch scar is observed, that
221 apparently departed ca. 90° from the trunk (Fig. 2A). Thin sections were made in the outer
222 portion of both specimens, (i.e., 8–13 cm from the center).

223 Pycnoxylic secondary xylem with distinct growth ring boundaries, latewood with 1–4
224 rows of tracheids (Fig. 3A–B). Growth ring width is difficult to measure because of the
225 presence of false rings. Clearly identified growth rings have a width of ca. 1100–2800 μm .
226 Cells are roundish to polygonal as seen in transverse sections (Fig. 3B–C). Intertracheary
227 pitting on radial walls is mixed, uniseriate ($S_i = 1.00$), mostly contiguous ($C_p = 68.9\%$) (Fig.
228 3D–E, Fig. 4A–B). Intertracheary radial pits are roundish and 13.8 μm (10.6–17.2, $sd = 1.4$)
229 μm in vertical diameter (Fig. 3D–E, Fig. 4A–B). Tracheid tangential diameter is 26.4 (17.1–
230 34.8, $sd = 4.3$) μm and radial diameter is 29.6 (21.1–37.5, $sd = 4.2$) μm in the earlywood
231 and 16.3 (10.6–18.4, $sd = 2.7$) μm in the latewood (both diameters measured in transverse
232 section). Pits on tangential walls were not observed. Cross-field pitting is araucarioid with
233 2.8 (1–8) contiguous half-bordered pits per cross-field (Fig. 3G, Fig. 4C). Cross-field pits are
234 circular with the border wider than the aperture (cupressoid) and 7.6 (4.0–10.9, $sd = 1.5$) μm

235 in vertical diameter (Fig. 3G, Fig. 4C). Rays are homocellular, with horizontal and end walls
236 of ray parenchyma cells smooth (Fig. 3F). Many ray cells and occasionally some tracheids
237 near the rays have dark contents, probably resiniferous (Fig. 3B–C). Average ray height is
238 medium; 5.6 (1–18, sd = 3.9) cells high and 128 (23–376, sd = 76) μm . Rays are exclusively
239 uniseriate (Fig. 3H–I), and have a frequency of 6.5 (4–10, sd = 1.4) rays per mm.

240 There are numerous traumatic resin canals (TRC) in specimen MPM PB 18277.
241 These are arranged concentrically forming tangential rows (parallel to the growth rings) and
242 only interrupted by the rays (Fig. 5A–C). The position in the growth ring is difficult to establish,
243 because of the presence of false growth rings, but they seem to be in the middle of the ring
244 or close to the latewood. There are rows of TRC in two successive growth rings, one of them
245 laterally faint (Fig. 5A). There is one more row of TRC in another section of the wood (Fig.
246 5B). TRC are radially elongated, 127 (92–158, sd = 16) μm x 98 (56–134, sd = 33) μm as
247 seen in transverse sections (Fig. 5C–D). They have one or two layers of subsidiary cells, 2–
248 5 cells wide (Fig. 5D–F). The subsidiary cells are sub-rectangular to sub-squarish as seen
249 in transverse sections (Fig. 5C–D), radially elongated, 21 (14–31, sd = 5) μm x 42 (16–98,
250 sd = 21) μm ; they are 33 (14–67, sd = 13) μm high and are thick-walled (walls are thicker
251 than the lumen and ca. 8–11 μm in thickness) in longitudinal section (Fig. 5F). Epithelial cells
252 were not observed.

253 Specimen MPM PB 18277 (the one with TRC) shows decay of the wood. At lower
254 magnification it is possible to identify large areas of the woody tissue in transverse and
255 longitudinal sections with highly deformed cells partial or completely disconnected from
256 neighboring cells due to degradation of the middle lamella (Fig. 6A, B). In other areas of the
257 wood, the cells do not show any structural changes of the wall layers and have opaque
258 compounds in the cell lumens (Fig. 6C). In those cells in which the middle lamella is
259 selectively degraded, it is possible to identify hyphae in the cell lumen (Fig. 6D). The hyphae

260 have hyaline walls, a diameter of ca. 3–8 μm , and transverse septa (Fig. 6D, E). In some
261 cases, hyphae branches dichotomously (Fig. 6F)

262

263 *Comparisons with fossil woods.* These two woods are characterized by: (1) distinct growth
264 ring boundaries, (2) absence of axial parenchyma, (3) mixed tracheid radial pitting, (4)
265 uniseriate radial pitting, (5) uniseriate rays, and (6) araucarioid cross-fields with 1–8 circular
266 half-bordered pits per cross-field. These characteristics match *Brachyoxylon* following
267 Philippe and Bamford (2008).

268 Hollick and Jeffrey (1909) included fossil woods in *Brachyoxylon* with the following
269 characters: tracheid radial pits not all alternate or flattened, but more frequently rounded and
270 not contiguous, normal resiniferous canals absent (only TRC) and cross-fields araucarioid.
271 This fossil genus is characterized by a mixed type of radial pitting, generally circular uni- to
272 multiseriate radial pits, araucarioid cross-fields and predominantly uniseriate rays (Bamford
273 and Philippe, 2001; Philippe and Bamford, 2008).

274 *Agathoxylon* and *Shimakuroxylon* Philippe, Boura, Oh and Pons resemble
275 *Brachyoxylon* in having araucarioid cross-fields, but they differ mainly by the radial pits
276 arrangement. *Agathoxylon* has araucarian radial pits that, according to Philippe and
277 Bamford (2008), is when more than 90% of pits on the radial wall of tracheids are contiguous
278 with neighbouring pits. In this state pits are often somewhat flattened and when multiseriate
279 are always alternately arranged. *Shimakuroxylon* has at least 10% of radial pits of the
280 japonicum type, which is opposite to slightly sub-opposite and mutually flattened pits, which
281 gives them a squarish outline (Philippe et al., 2014). Two more genera have mixed radial
282 pitting like *Brachyoxylon*, but cupressoid cross-fields: *Zonaloxylon* Grauvogel-Stamm,
283 Mayer-Berthaud and Vozenin-Serra, and *Protocupressinoxylon* Eckhold. This cupressoid
284 cross-field type has spaced half-bordered pits, mostly ordered and never clearly alternate

285 (Philippe and Bamford, 2008); alternatively, cross-fields with continuous, unordered, and
286 often alternate, half-bordered pits (araucarioid) characterize *Brachyoxylon*.

287 *Brachyoxylon patagonicum* was compared to most similar species of *Brachyoxylon*
288 in Table 1. According to Philippe et al. (2014) and Iamandei et al. (2018), the following
289 species should not be included in *Brachyoxylon*: *B. boureauii* Serra, *B. desnoyersii*
290 Lemoigne, *B. nipponicum* Nishida, *B. nonakai* Yamazaki and Tsunada, *B. orientale* Serra
291 and *B. urkutense* Greguss.

292 It is worth to mention that *B. raritanense* Torrey from the Upper Cretaceous of North
293 America shares most of the diagnostic characteristics with *B. patagonicum* (absence of axial
294 parenchyma, radial pits uniseriate and mixed, uniseriate rays, and araucarioid cross-fields
295 with ca. 1–8 pits per cross-field). However, *B. raritanense* is characterized by its indistinct
296 (or absent) growth ring boundaries (Table 1). Torrey (1923) described poorly marked growth
297 rings for this species, sometimes delimited by a slight narrowing of tracheids, but he
298 indicated that they could be false rings. In the Cerro Fortaleza specimens, the growth rings
299 boundaries are distinct; these are delimited by a few cells (1–4 rows of flattened and
300 thickened tracheids). *B. patagonicum* could be included in *Brachyoxylon* sp. cf. *B. currumilii*
301 described by Vera et al. (2019) from Patagonia, since it shares all the diagnostic characters
302 with it, and differs only by the presence of axial parenchyma in the holotype described by
303 Bodnar et al. (2013). *B. patagonicum* also shares most of its characters with *Brachyoxylon*
304 *trautii* (Barale) Philippe, including the presence of false rings and resiniferous tracheids.
305 However, in *B. trautii* cross-fields usually have more pits, and growth rings are 95% false
306 according to Philippe (1995).

307 Traumatic resin canals in *Brachyoxylon* cannot be considered of diagnostic value as
308 these are only secondary formed in response to biotic or abiotic elicitors (see discussion).

309

310 **5. Discussion**

311

312 *5.1 The Cheirolepidiaceae*

313

314 *Brachyoxylon* has been related to various conifer families including Araucariaceae,
315 Cupressaceae, and Protopinaceae (e.g., Hollick and Jeffrey 1909; Seward, 1919; lamandei
316 and lamandei, 2005). However, it is assumed to belong to the Cheirolepidiaceae based on
317 its frequent co-occurrence with other fossil genera assigned to this family (e.g., pollen, seed
318 cones, leaves) (Alvin et al., 1981; Alvin, 1982; Zhou, 1983; Machhour and Pons, 1992;
319 Rothwell et al., 2007; Limarino et al., 2012; Hieger et al., 2015). Patagonian records of this
320 fossil genus are mostly related to the Cheirolepidiaceae (Bodnar et al., 2013; Vera and
321 Césari, 2015; Greppi et al., 2020, 2021). However, *Brachyoxylon* is not the unique fossil
322 wood genus associated with this family, and other, such as *Telephragmoxyylon*,
323 *Pomperaugoxyylon*, and some species of *Protocupressinoxylon*, *Protopodocarpoxyylon*
324 Eckhold and *Agathoxyylon* have been also considered to be in this family (Harris, 1979; Alvin
325 et al., 1981; Zhou, 1983; lamandei et al., 2005; Hickey et al., 2011).

326 This extinct family had a cosmopolitan distribution, mainly in low latitudes, from the
327 Late Triassic (e.g., Norris, 1965; Playford and Dettmann, 1965) to the Cretaceous-
328 Paleogene boundary (Barreda et al., 2012), showing greater diversity during the Jurassic-
329 Cretaceous (Alvin, 1982; Greppi et al. 2021). Fossils have been found in riparian
330 environments with marine influence to purely continental environments (Vakhrameev, 1970,
331 1981; Barnard and Miller, 1976; Batten, 1996). Cheirolepidiaceae were more common in
332 arid and semi-arid environments, in subtropical to tropical climates (Doyle et al., 1982;
333 Watson, 1988; Vakhrameev, 1991; Abbink et al., 2004). However, its frequent presence
334 along with Araucariaceae in the same fossil assemblages indicates that the
335 Cheirolepidiaceae was also present in temperate climates (Vakhrameev, 1981).

336 *Brachyoxylon* has been documented from the Permian to the Late Cretaceous, and
337 is more frequent in northern latitudes (e.g., the United States, Tunisia, Japan, Cambodia,
338 Thailand, France and Romania) than in Gondwana (Philippe et al., 2004). The affinity of
339 Permian *Brachyoxylon* spp. have been questioned (e.g., Kurtzawe and Merlotti, 2010;
340 Kurtzawe et al., 2012) based on the lack of enough diagnostic features to distinguish them
341 from other fossil woods with similar anatomy. In Argentina, it has been recorded from
342 sediments of the Lower–Middle Jurassic to the Upper Cretaceous of central and southern
343 Patagonia (Bodnar et al., 2013; Vera and Césari, 2015; Vera et al., 2019; Greppi et al., 2020,
344 2021).

345 Fossils of the Cheirolepidiaceae in Mesozoic paleofloristic associations in Patagonia
346 also include leaves (e.g., *Tomaxiella biforme* Archangelsky; Archangelsky, 1968), cones
347 (e.g., *Pararaucaria delfueyoae* Escapa, Cúneo, Rothwell and Stockey; Escapa et al., 2013)
348 and *Classopollis*-type pollen grains (e.g., Archangelsky et al., 1981; Archangelsky and
349 Archangelsky, 2004). The widespread occurrence of Cheirolepidiaceae in Jurassic and
350 Cretaceous deposits in Patagonia is consistent with the great diversity and abundance of
351 fossils and prominence of this family in a wide array of habitats with different ecological
352 requirements (Greppi et al., 2021). Based on the analysis of a palynological sequence from
353 the Paleocene that contains *Classopollis*-like pollen, some species of the family
354 Cheirolepidiaceae may have been early colonizers of disturbed environments (Barreda et
355 al., 2012).

356

357 5.2 Cerro Fortaleza Formation paleobotany

358

359 Egerton et al. (2016) described conifer and angiosperm fossil woods from the Cerro
360 Fortaleza locality (Fig. 1 in Egerton et al., 2016). Among the conifers, they described three
361 taxonomic units with mixed radial pitting: *Planoxylon* sp., *Taxodioxylon* sp. 1, and

362 *Taxodioxyton* sp. 2. A specimen was assigned to *Planoxyton* sp. mainly because of the
363 presence of ray cell walls pitted or thickened (*Abietineentüpfelung*). These thickenings are
364 present on the transverse walls of the ray cells. This character is difficult to observe in the
365 microphotographs Fig. 4G–H of Egerton et al. (2016) and is the only character that
366 differentiates it from *Brachyoxylon patagonicum*. *Taxodioxyton* sp. 1 has, according to the
367 description, 2–6 pits per cross-field, but illustrations show that it frequently has one or two
368 (Fig. 6C–D in Egerton et al., 2016), less than in *B. patagonicum*. In addition, *Taxodioxyton*
369 has axial parenchyma, and taxodioid cross-field pits (which are not clearly illustrated) that
370 are not observed in *B. patagonicum*. *Taxodioxyton* sp. 2 has axial parenchyma, sometimes
371 biseriate pits, and taxodioid cross-field pits (Egerton et al., 2016), which are characters that
372 have not been observed in *B. patagonicum*. In addition, Varela et al. (2016) assigned one
373 specimen (MPM PB 1568, pmLPPB1937) from Los Hornos Hill (in Mata Amarilla Formation,
374 suggested as equivalent to the Cerro Fortaleza Formation) to *Podocarpoxyton garciae* Del
375 Fueyo, but the specimen was not illustrated.

376 Pollen grains and microplankton palynomorphs were described from the middle and
377 upper levels of the Puesto La Asunción of the Cerro Fortaleza Formation (Oviedo, 1982).
378 Archangelsky in Riccardi (1984) recognized tricolporate, triporate and tricolpate pollen
379 grains (angiosperms) in deposits along the eastern bank of the La Leona River on Cerro
380 Fortaleza. Povilauskas et al. (2006) also described a palynoflora to the south of Viedma
381 Lake and close to the La Leona River. These authors highlighted the presence of spores of
382 bryophytes and ferns, pollen grains of gymnosperms and angiosperms, and colonies of
383 *Pediastrum* Meyen, and sparse microplankton. However, they mentioned that the recovered
384 palynomorphs are not diagnostic indicators of the age of the deposits.

385 Finally, there are a few mentions of fossil leaf fragments, which are poorly preserved
386 and could not be identified (Riccardi and Rolleri, 1980; Arbe and Hechem, 1984; Maceralli
387 et al., 1989; Kraemer and Riccardi, 1997; Tettamanti et al., 2018). In addition, Villar de

388 Seoane in Novas et al. (2002) reported the presence of poorly preserved imprints of cycads
389 and conifers from Los Hornos Hill.

390

391 5.3 Growth ring boundaries

392

393 The study of growth rings contributes to infer the paleoclimate and the
394 paleoenvironmental characteristics of ancient ecosystems (Creber and Chaloner, 1984;
395 Francis, 1984; Francis and Hill, 1996; Morgans et al., 1999). The presence of distinct growth
396 ring boundaries indicates seasonality, whereas their absence indicates lack of climatic
397 seasons (Creber, 1977; Brison et al., 2001; Pujana et al., 2007, 2020). The fossil woods
398 recovered from Los Hornos Hill locality have distinct growth ring boundaries, suggesting
399 seasonality.

400 The growth ring width in fossil woods has been used as an indicator to characterize
401 the growing season (Fritts, 1976). The development of growth rings depends fundamentally
402 on environmental factors (e.g., temperature, rainfall, available water, among others), which
403 may vary depending on the year (Fritts, 1976). Wide rings indicate rapid growth, which is
404 typical of favorable environmental conditions, whereas narrower rings in the same taxa of
405 similar ontogenic age represent slower growth, and unfavorable environmental conditions
406 (Fritts, 1976). Based on the width of the growth rings, *B. patagonicum* shows a growth of ca.
407 3.2 mm of annual diameter and a maximum of 5.6 mm (average growth ring width is 1.6 mm
408 and the widest is 2.8 mm). This indicates that they would have grown more than the global
409 mean ring width of the extant conifers, estimated at approximately 1.1 mm (Falcon-Lang,
410 2005).

411 A minimum age, based on the width of the rings and the diameter, was estimated for
412 the specimens of *B. patagonicum* of ca. 70 years. Based on the diameter of the specimens,
413 and using the formulae of Niklas (1994) and Mosbrugger et al. (1994), we can infer that the

414 woods were part of trees of ca. 10–20 m of height. Consequently, the studied specimens
415 were mature trees.

416

417 5.4 Traumatic resin canals

418

419 Traumatic resin canals (TRC) may be formed in the secondary xylem on extant
420 conifers, as in Pinaceae and a few Cupressaceae and some Taxodiaceae, and also in the
421 phloem and primary xylem, as in Araucariaceae (Hudgins et al., 2004; Krokene et al., 2008).
422 TRC originate in genera of the Pinaceae that also have normal resin canals (*Cathaya* Chun
423 and Kuang, *Keteleeria* Carrière, *Larix* Mill, *Nothotsuga* Hu, *Picea* Link, *Pinus* Linneo and
424 *Pseudotsuga* Carrière), as well as in those that lack them (*Abies* Mill, *Cedrus* Trew,
425 *Pseudolarix* Gordon and *Tsuga* Carrière) (IAWA Committee, 2004; Esteban, 2020). In turn,
426 TRC have been cited in some Cupressaceae (*Sequoia* Endlicher, *Metasequoia* Hu and
427 Cheng, *Sequoiadendron* (Lindley) Buchholz, *Microbiota* Komarov and *Tetraclinis* Masters)
428 that lack normal resin canals (Jeffrey, 1903; Bailey and Faull, 1934; Benkova and
429 Schweingruber, 2004; Esteban et al., 2015; Vazquez-González et al., 2020). TRC can be
430 both axial and horizontal (IAWA Committee, 2004). The uniseriate layer of cells adjacent to
431 the resin canal is called the epithelium, whereas the remaining parenchyma and chain
432 tracheids outside the epithelium are the subsidiary cells (Wiedenhoef and Miller, 2002).
433 Apparently, in *B. patagonicum* only subsidiary cells preserved their structure.

434 TRC originate in response to various biotic (e.g., attacks by pathogenic insects or
435 fungi) or abiotic disturbances, such as fire and frost damage and geomorphological events
436 (e.g., avalanches, rock falls or floods) (Franceschi et al., 2002; Hudgins et al., 2004; Krokene
437 et al., 2008).

438 TRC are produced in the same way as normal axial canals, by schizogenesis
439 between incipient epithelial cells when they are still close to the cambial zone and are

440 sometimes surrounded by parenchymal cells filled with grains of starch and phenolic
441 compounds (Krokene et al., 2008). When the inducing stimulus for the formation of TRC is
442 strong, it can produce a complete tangential ring as occurs in fir (Christiansen et al., 1999)
443 and apparently as in *B. patagonicum*. The occurrence of discrete tangential rows,
444 concentrically arranged parallel to the growth rings in the secondary xylem in *B.*
445 *patagonicum* is similar to how these are formed after a traumatic stimulus, as in Pinaceae,
446 Cupressaceae and Taxodiaceae (IAWA Committee, 2004; Esteban, 2020). On the other
447 hand, in other genera (*Abies*, *Tsuga*, *Cedrus* and *Pseudolarix*) TRC are formed mainly in
448 the vicinity of the wounds (Bannan, 1936; Wu and Hu, 1997).

449 In addition to the presence of a series of conspicuous tangential rows of TRC in *B.*
450 *patagonicum*, their irregular contours are also consistent with a traumatic origin (IAWA
451 Committee, 2004). Moreover, the presence of unaltered cells with lumens blocked by
452 opaque compounds in areas of the fossil woods also with presence of fungal hyphae may
453 be interpreted as a chemical response by the host. (Otjen and Blanchette, 1982, 1984). This
454 evidence and the presence of TRC in the analyzed wood could indicate possible natural
455 defensive barriers against invasive fungi (Otjen and Blanchette, 1982; Krekling et al., 2004;
456 Krokene et al., 2008). Alternatively, the TRC may be formed as response to abiotic factors,
457 such from breakage of windblown branches and trunks.

458 About 45% of the species of *Brachyoxylon* have one or more rows of TRC, which is
459 a frequent characteristic of this fossil genus (e.g., Torrey, 1923; lamandei and lamandei,
460 2005; lamandei et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2020). Presence of TRC was documented in
461 *Telephragmoxylon*, another fossil genus related to Cheirolepidiaceae (Torrey, 1921;
462 lamandei et al., 2005). The size and shape of the TRC in *Brachyoxylon* are very similar in
463 many of the species of the genus, and they are also usually arranged in tangential rows as
464 in *B. patagonicum* (e.g., *B. comachense* Torrey, *B. lagonense* (Laudoueneix) Duperón-
465 Laudoueneix, *B. woodworthianum* Torrey and *B. zhouii* Jiang, Wu, Tian, Wan and Xie).

466 However, sometimes TRC are significantly bigger (*B. sp.* Oh, Kim, Paik, Lim) or smaller
467 (*B. avramii lamandei* and *lamandei*, and *B. notabile*) than in *B. patagonicum*. These
468 differences may correspond to a greater or lesser biosynthesis of resin and energy invested
469 by the plant at the time of generating a defensive barrier, as it occurs in extant conifers
470 (Arbellay et al., 2014). Higher resin levels are related to an increase in the size of canals,
471 whereas lower levels correspond to canals of increasingly lower sizes (Arbellay et al., 2014).
472 Finally, there are some species such as *B. holbavicum lamandei*, *lamandei* and Grădinaru
473 and *B. saurinii* Boureau and Serra that present isolated TRC (Boureau and Serra, 1961;
474 *lamandei* et al., 2018).

475 In extant conifer woods, TRC are mainly distributed in the latewood; although, in
476 some species they show up in the earlywood (Esteban et al., 2003). It is difficult to determine
477 the position of the TRC identified in *B. patagonicum* because of the presence of false growth
478 rings. However, they apparently develop in the middle of the ring or close to the latewood.

479

480 6. Conclusions

481

482 A new species, *Brachyoxylon patagonicum* is described. This has distinct growth ring
483 boundaries, uniseriate radial pitting, araucarioid cross-fields, uniseriate rays, and lacks axial
484 parenchyma.

485 One specimen has well-preserved axial TRC ordered in tangential rows. Formation
486 of the TRC may have been triggered by abiotic factors, such as breakage from windblown,
487 or else, that they may have formed as a response to a biotic trigger, in which case presence
488 of fungal remains and decay patterns may have been involved in it.

489 This record is consistent with the abundance and diversity of the Cheirolepidiaceae
490 in the Cretaceous of Patagonia, and adds an example that shows the presence of traumatic
491 resin canals, as is in other previously described *Brachyoxylon*.

492

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494

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499

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948 **Table 1.** Comparison of *Brachyoxylon patagonicum* with other species of *Brachyoxylon* with
 949 distinct to indistinct (not absent) growth ring boundaries, uni- to biseriate radial pitting, and
 950 exclusively or predominantly uniseriate rays. Abbreviations: GRB = Growth ring boundary;
 951 IPS = Intertracheary pitting seriation; PxCF = Pit per cross-field; RS = Ray seriation; RH =
 952 Ray height [cells]; AP = Axial parenchyma; C = Crassulae; TRC = Resin canal; D = Distinct;
 953 I = Indistinct; A = Absent; P = Present; ? = doubtful/unknown. Bold letter indicates
 954 coincidences with *Brachyoxylon patagonicum*. All the authorities' citations are in the
 955 references.

956

957 **Fig. 1.** Map showing the fossiliferous locality (green star).

958

959 **Fig. 2.** The two specimens studied. A, MPM PB 18277 with a branch scar, that apparently
 960 departed ca. 90° from the trunk. Scale bar: 2 cm. B, MPM PB 18278 laterally compressed.
 961 Scale bar: 2 cm.

962

963 **Fig. 3.** *Brachyoxylon patagonicum* sp. nov. A, distinct growth ring boundaries (transverse
 964 section, TS). MPM PB 18277 (b) Holotype. Scale bar: 500 µm. B, detail of distinct growth
 965 ring boundaries showing two or three rows of flattened tracheids (TS). MPM PB 18277 (b)
 966 Holotype. Scale bar: 200 µm. C, ray cells (white arrowhead) and some tracheids (yellow
 967 arrowhead) near the rays with dark, probably resiniferous, contents (TS). MPM PB (a) 18277
 968 Holotype. Scale bar: 100µm. D, uniseriate mixed radial pitting and a tracheid with
 969 resiniferous content (arrowhead) (radial longitudinal section, RLS). MPM PB (e) 18277
 970 Holotype. Scale bar: 50 µm. E, uniseriate mixed radial pitting (RLS). MPM PB (j) 18278
 971 Paratype. Scale bar: 50 µm. F, homocellular rays, with horizontal and end walls of ray
 972 parenchyma cells smooth (RLS). MPM PB (d) 18277 Holotype. Scale bar: 50 µm. G, cross-
 973 fields (RLS). MPM PB 18277 (d) Holotype. Scale Bar: 20 µm. H, uniseriate rays (tangential

974 longitudinal section, TLS). MPM PB 18277 (f) Holotype. Scale bar: 200 μm . I, uniseriate rays
975 with resiniferous content (arrowhead) (TLS). MPM PB 18277 (f) Holotype. Scale bar: 100
976 μm .

977

978 **Fig. 4.** *Brachyoxylon patagonicum* sp. nov. A–B, uniseriate mixed radial pitting (scanning
979 electron microscopy, SEM). MPM PB 18277 Holotype (A) and MPM PB 18278 Paratype (B).
980 Scale bars: 20 μm . C, cross-fields (SEM). MPM PB 18277 Holotype. Scale bar: 20 μm .

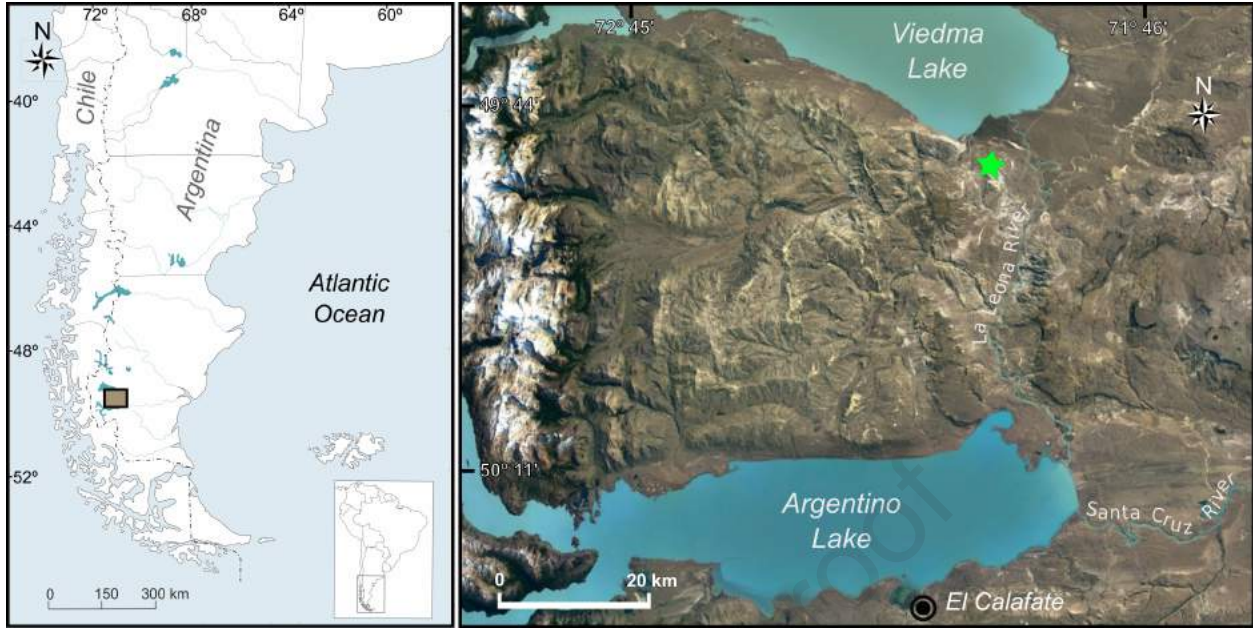
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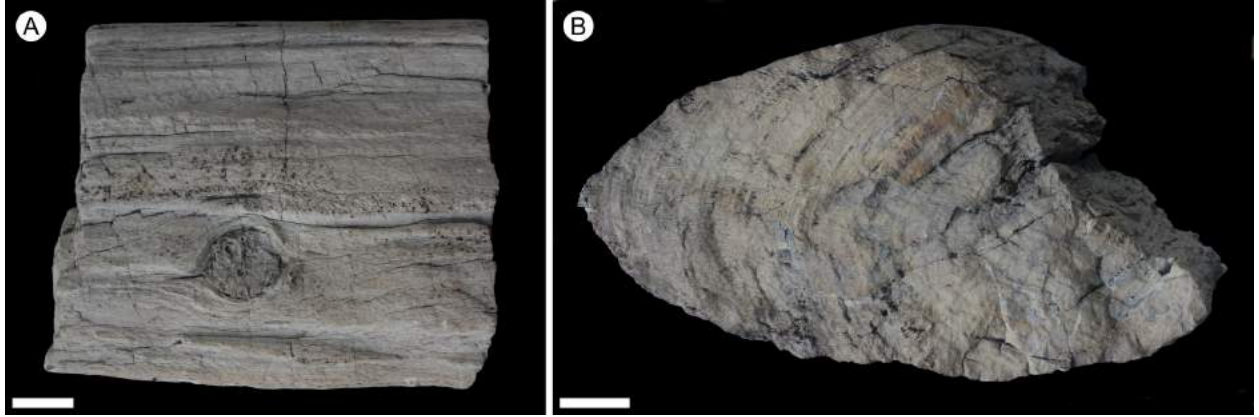
982 **Fig. 5.** Traumatic resin canals (TRC) of the specimen MPM PB 18277. A, two rows of TRC
983 in the secondary xylem (arrowhead) (transverse section, TS) (b). Scale bar: 1000 μm . B, a
984 row of TRC in another section of the wood (arrowhead) (TS) (a). Scale bar: 1000 μm . C,
985 detail of the row of TRC (TS) (a). Scale bar: 200 μm . D, detail of two TRC (TS) (a). Scale
986 bar: 100 μm . E, TRC and rays (radial longitudinal section, RLS) (e). Scale bar: 200 μm . F,
987 detail of a TRC (RLS) (e). Scale bar: 50 μm . Abbreviations: rc= resin content, sc= subsidiary
988 cell, t= tracheid and r= ray.

989

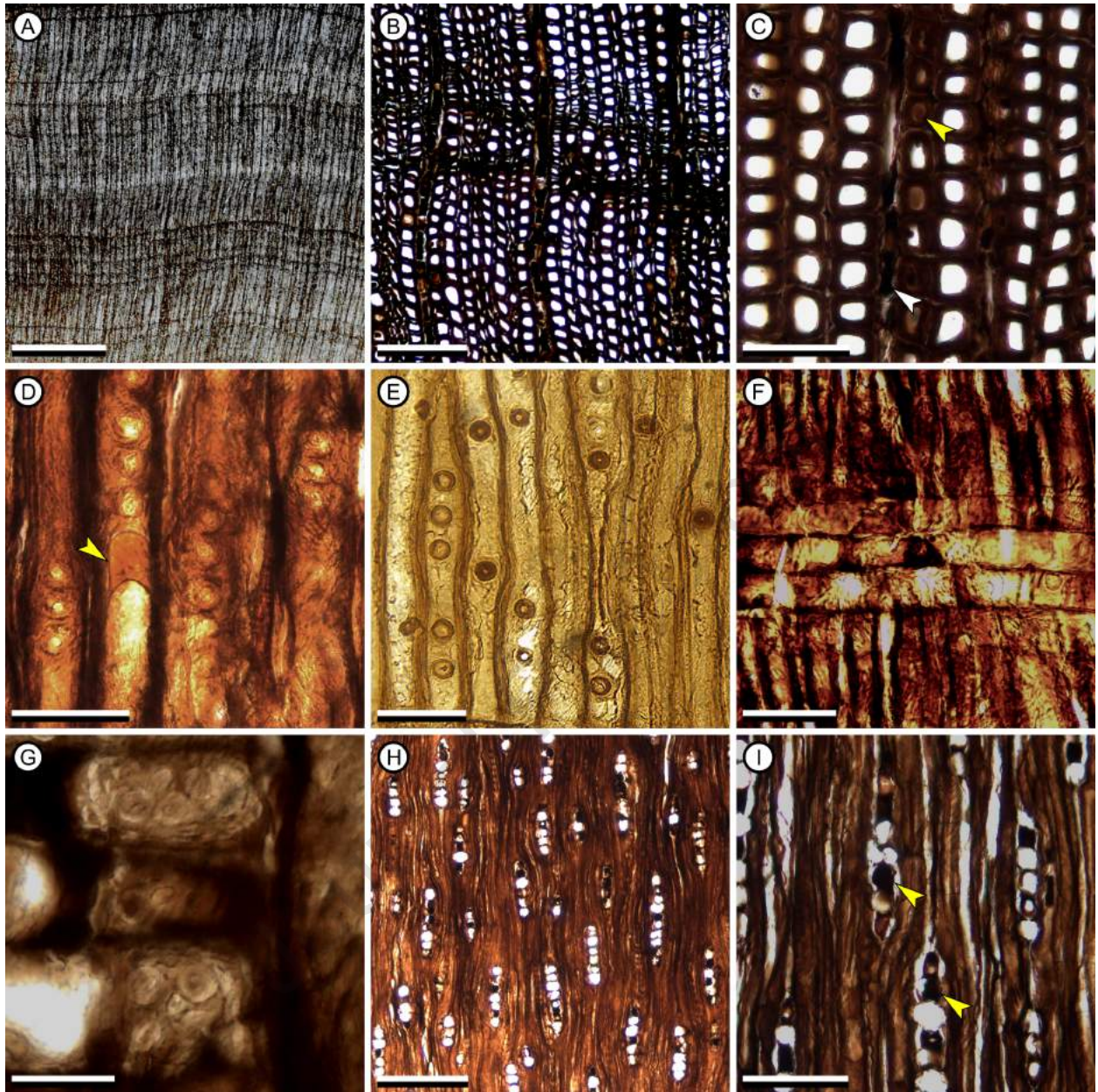
990 **Fig. 6.** Fungal evidence of the specimen MPM PB 18277. A, highly deformed and degraded
991 cells in transverse section (TS). Note how the middle lamella between neighboring cells was
992 completely removed (red arrowheads) (a). Scale bar: 50 μm . B, cells partially disconnected
993 by dissolution of the middle lamella (red arrowheads) in radial longitudinal section (RLS) (e).
994 Scale bar: 50 μm . C, cells without structural alteration and lumens blocked by opaque
995 substances (TS) (a). Scale bar: 50 μm . D, cells partially disconnected and degraded with
996 the presence of hyphae in their lumens (green arrowheads) and in the area where the middle
997 lamella was consumed (white arrowhead) (TS) (a). Scale bar: 20 μm . E, hypha with
998 transverse septa (yellow arrowhead) (RLS) (c). Scale bar: 10 μm . F, dichotomous branching
999 hypha (purple arrowhead) (TS) (a). Scale bar: 20 μm .

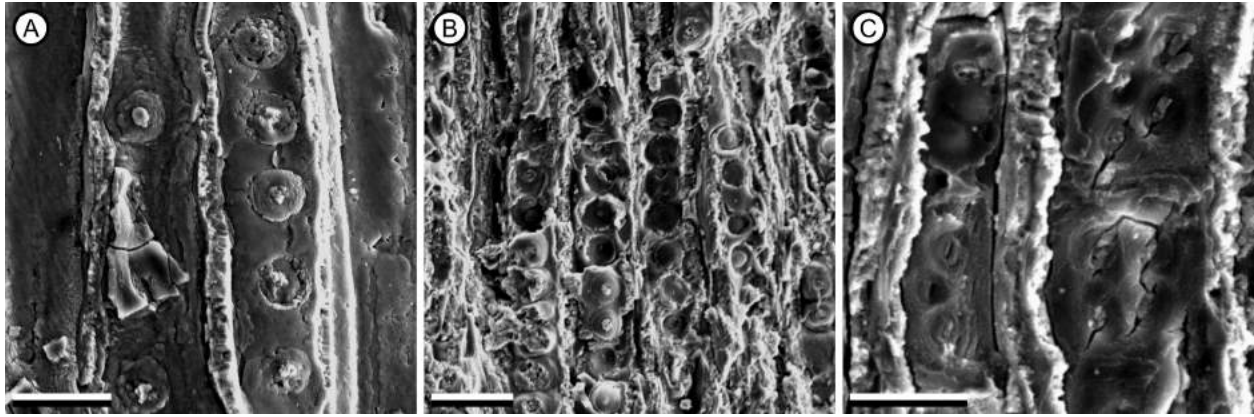
Fossil species	Age	Country	GRB	IPS	PxCF	RS, RH	AP	C	TRC	Other differences with <i>B. patagonicum</i>
<i>B. comanchense</i> Torrey 1923	Cretaceous	USA	D	1(2)s	Up to 12	1s, 1–6	A	?	P	Radial pits on large tracheids often horizontally elongate. Pith with sclerenchyma
<i>B. cristianicum</i> Iamandei, Iamandei and Grădinaru 2018	Lower Jurassic	Romania	D	1–2s	1–6	1(2)s, 1–20	P	A	A	
<i>B. curruimilii</i> Bodnar, Escapa, Cúneo and Gnaedinger 2013	Early–Middle Jurassic	Argentina	D	1(2)s	4–11	1s, 1–10	P	A	A	
<i>B. eboracense</i> (Holden 1913) Philippe 2002	Jurassic	England	D	1–2s	numerous	1s, low	A	A	A	Bars of Sahnio, undetailed description
<i>B. holvavicum</i> Iamandei, Iamandei and Grădinaru 2018	Lower Jurassic	Romania	I–D	1(2)s	1–6(9)	1–2s, 1–25	A	A	P	
<i>B. liebermannii</i> Philippe 1995	Jurassic	France	I	1s	5–12	1s, low	A	A	A	
<i>B. notabile</i> Hollick & Jeffrey 1909	Late Cretaceous	USA	D	1–2s	5–11	1s, 1–8	A	P	P	Crassulae
<i>B. nummularium</i> (White 1908) Kurzawe, Iannuzzi and Merlotti 2012	Permian	Brazil	I	1–2s	1–6	1(2)s, 1–39	A	A	A	
<i>B. raritanense</i> Torrey 1923	Cretaceous	USA	I?	1s	1–9	1s, 1–15	A	A	A	Indistinct (or absent) growth ring boundaries
<i>B. serrae</i> Philippe, Suttethorn and Buffetaut, 2011	Early Cretaceous	Thailand	D	1–2s	5–16	1s, 1–15	A	A	P	
<i>B. trautii</i> (Barale 1981) Philippe 1995	Middle Jurassic	France	I–D?	1(2)s	4–9	1s, 1–10	A	A	A	Numerous (at least 95%) false rings
<i>Brachyoxylon patagonicum</i> sp. nov.	Late Cretaceous	Argentina	D	1s	1–8	1s, 1–18	A	A	P	



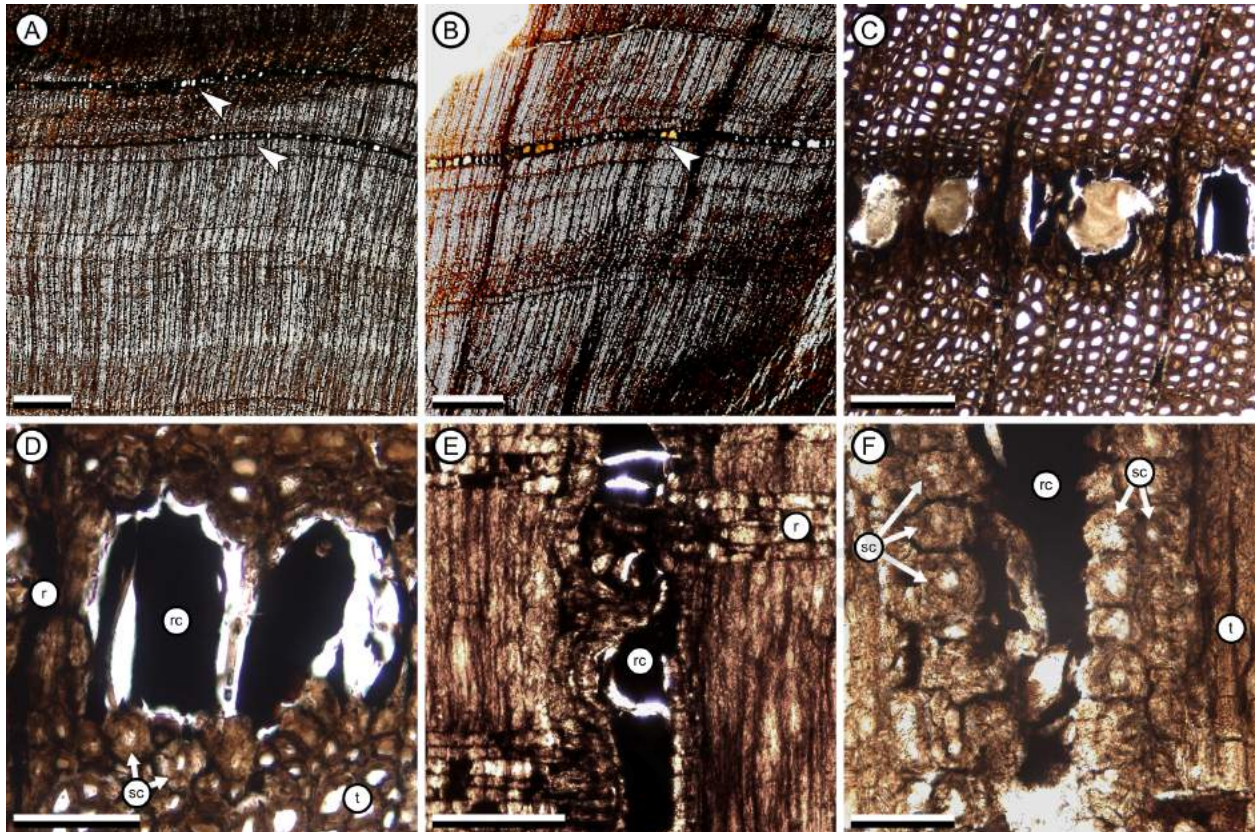


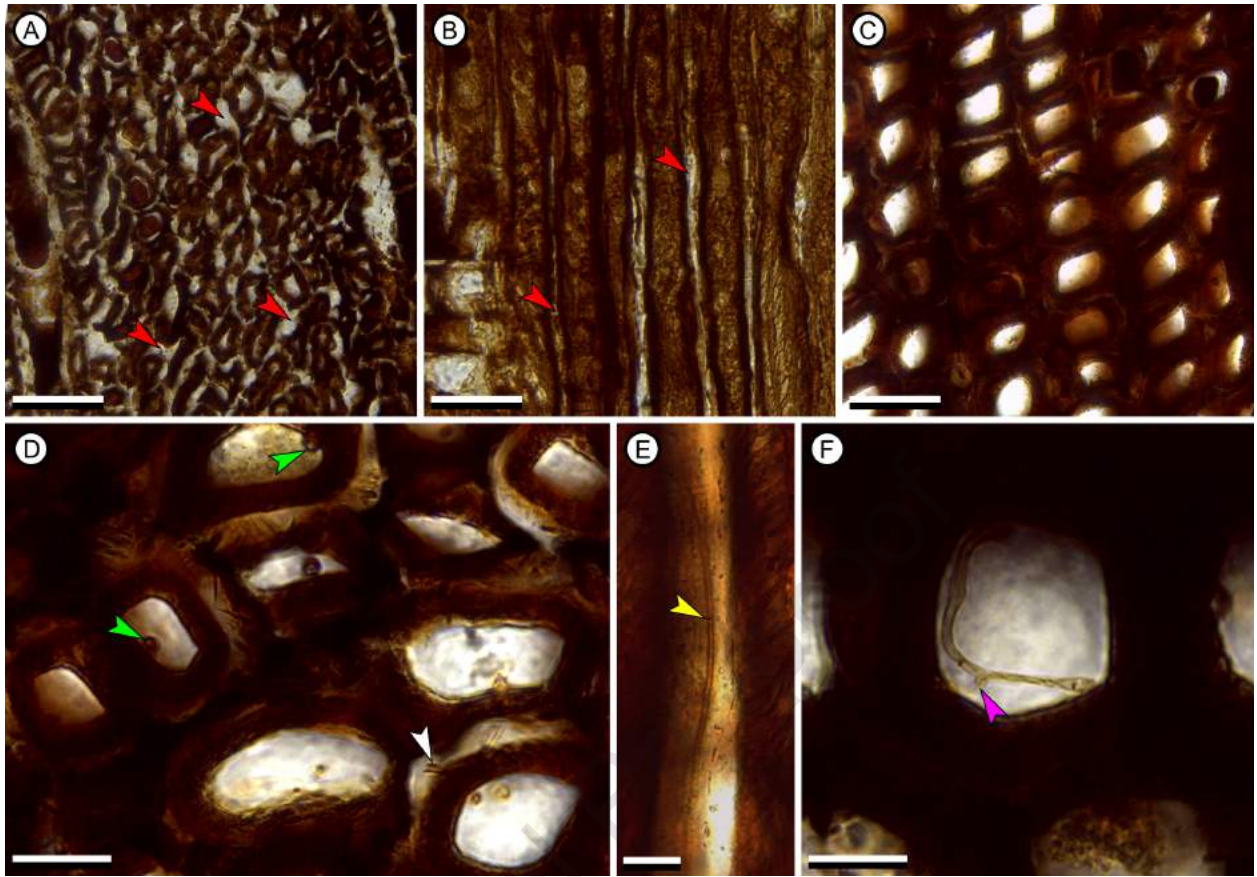
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Highlights

Two specimens of fossil woods were collected from the Cerro Fortaleza Formation (Upper Cretaceous of Patagonia).

A new species of *Brachyoxylon* is proposed.

One specimen has very well-preserved traumatic resin canals arranged in three tangential rows.

This record adds to the abundance of Cheirolepidiaceae in the Cretaceous of Patagonia.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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