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# Earliest megafossils of scandent calamoid palms from the Deccan Intertrappean Beds of Central India and their paleobiogeographic implications

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**Abstract** Two well-preserved petrified palm stems from the latest Maastrichtian (Late Cretaceous) to earliest Danian (Early Paleocene) sediments of the Deccan Intertrappean Beds of Madhya Pradesh, Central India are described. Their significant anatomical characteristics include a Calamus-type general stem pattern, the presence of well-preserved fibrovascular bundles (fvbs) with two wide metaxylem vessel elements ( $230 \mu$ m $-250 \mu$ m) and one phloem strand, uniform density of fvbs, lack of continuity between protoxylem and metaxylem vessel elements, and an absence of centrifugal differentiation of sclerenchymatous fibrous parts. These features reveal a close resemblance to those of extant genera of scandent Calamoideae. The permineralized stems are described as a new species namely, *Palmoxylon calamoides* Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov. The fossils represent the oldest reliable fossil records of this family, supporting their Gondwanan origin, their importance in tracing their migration pathways from India to Europe and other continents after the docking of the Indian subcontinent with Eurasia during the Paleocene, and an "Out-of-India" dispersal hypothesis. Today the subfamily Calamoideae is disjunctly occurred in Africa, Asia, Australia, Europe, and South America, but the poor deep-time fossil record of this subfamily with a small number of Cenozoic fossils makes hypotheses concerning its origin and dispersal difficult to evaluate. The present study has significant implications for the origin and migration of this subfamily and the paleoclimate.

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# 1. Introduction

Calamoideae (previously known as lepidocaryoid palms), the second most species-rich palm subfamily comprising about twenty-two genera with 650 accepted species (Dransfield *et al.*, 2008), is an early diverging group of palms characterized by their overlapping scale-bearing fruits and frequent spiny armature (Tomlinson *et al.*, 2011). This subfamily is divided into three tribes and nine subtribes with a disjunct distribution in Africa, Europe, South America, Australia, and Asia with the greatest diversity in the wet tropical forests of Southeast Asia (Mathew and Bhat, 1997; Tomlinson *et al.*, 2011; Baker and Dransfield, 2016; Baker and Couvreur, 2013a, 2013b).

Recent morphological and molecular phylogenetic analyses for the entire palm family strongly support the monophyletic origin of the Calamoideae (Uhl et al., 1995; Baker et al., 1999; Asmussen, 2000), but relationships within the Calamoideae are difficult to interpret because of the wide spectrum of morphological diversity. Baker et al. (2000) established a basic phylogenetic hypothesis for the Calamoideae that is sustained by more recent analyses of global palm phylogeny (Asmussen et al., 2006; Baker et al., 2009). These studies recognize three tribal clades within the subfamily, namely 1) a monogeneric Eugeissoncac sister to all other Calamoideae; 2) Lepthree subtribes (Ancisidocaryeae, containing trophyllinae, Raphiinae, Mauritiinae); and 3) Calameae, containing six subtribes (Korthalsiinae, Salaccinae, Metroxylinae, Pigafettinae, Plectocomiinae, Calaminae) (Dransfield et al., 2008).

The Calamoideae subfamily includes massive tree palms, undergrowth palms, and acaulescent palms; but it is best known for its climbing members: the rattans (Baker *et al.*, 2000; Dransfield *et al.*, 2008). Rattans also exhibit an extraordinary variety of growth forms, but the climbing (scandent) habit is predominant (Uhl and Dransfield, 1987; Kissling *et al.*, 2019). The scandent habit in palms has multiple origins within the family, and further, some of these lineages have fundamental differences in their stem structure (Baker *et al.*, 2000; Tomlinson *et al.*, 2001; Tomlinson and

Spangler, 2002; Tomlinson and Zimmermann, 2003). This habit, generally characterized by long internodes and a narrow stem, has evolved in several unrelated groups of palms in the Calamoideae (Tomlinson and Fisher, 2000).

The climbing members of Calamoideae are ecologically diverse, mainly within forest communities, but exhibit a preference for wet conditions. Rattans can be viewed as weeds, by foresters, because they favour disturbed sites and establish best in treefall gaps. Their extreme morphological diversity illustrates their success in advancing well beyond any putative ancestral palm (Fisher and Dransfield, 1977). However, molecular evidence suggests that the Calamoideae is sister to all other palms (Asmussen and Chase, 2001; Asmussen et al., 2006; Baker et al., 2009; Faurby et al., 2016). Baker and Couvreur (2013a, 2013b) also suggested that Calamoideae diverged from other palms at the crown node of the family in Eurasia, expanding into Africa before its crown node divergence (80 Ma; 95% highest probability density).

Calamoideae has a relatively limited megafossil record, with most fossils reported from the Cenozoic fossil floras of East Africa, Europe, New Zealand, and North America (Table 1; Stur, 1873; Jablonszky, 1914; Chandler, 1957, 1963; Dechamps and Maes, 1987; Pan *et al.*, 2006; Hartwich *et al.*, 2010; Teodoridis *et al.*, 2015). To date, there is no megafossil evidence of Calamoideae from India. Although one leaf fossil assigned to Calamoideae has been reported from the Plateau (Cherra) sandstones of Jaintia Hills, Assam, India (Barman and Daura, 1970), the identification is insecure.

In the present study, we report a new calamoid fossil palm species *Palmoxylon calamoides* sp. nov. from the latest Maastrichtian—earliest Danian sediments of the Deccan Intertrappean Beds of Madhya Pradesh, India (Table 1). This is the earliest megafossil record of Calamoid palms from India and offers valuable insights into its diversity and evolution during the latest Cretaceous—Early Paleocene time, before the first evidence of contact between greater India and Eurasia (61 Ma; An et al., 2021), and when most of India was still located south of the Equator (Molnar and

Table 1       The megafossil record of Calamoideae.									
Fossil calamoid palm species	NLR (Nearest Living Relative)	Organ	Age	Locality	Reference				
Palmoxylon calamoides Kumar. Rov et Khan sp. nov.	Scandent calamoid palms	Stem	Late Cretaceous to Early Paleocene	Deccan Intertrappean Beds, Madhva Pradesh. India	Present study				
Calamoides pikopiko Hartwich et al.	Calamus L.	Leaf	Late Eocene	South Island, New Zealand	Hartwich et al. (2010)				
Lepidocaryopsis zeylanicus Hartwich et al.	Calamus L.	Fruit	Late Eocene	South Island, New Zealand	Hartwich et al. (2010)				
Calamus daemonorops Chandler	Calamoid palm	Fruit	Oligocene	Lignite deposits, UK	Chandler (1957, 1963)				
Palmoxylon daemonoropsoides Velitzelos et al.	<i>Daemonorops</i> Blume ex Schult. f.	Stem	Late Oligocene	Evros region, Greece	Velitzelos et al. (2019)				
Eremospatha chilgaensis Pan et al.	Eremospatha dransfieldii Sunderl.	Leaf	Late Oligocene	Chilga Woreda, Ethiopia	Pan <i>et al</i> . (2006)				
Calamus noszkyi Jablonszky	Calamus L.	Leaf	Early Miocene	Czech Republic	Jablonszky (1914)				
Lepidocaryopsis westphaleni Stur	Calamoideae	Fruit	Miocene	Germany	Stur (1873)				
Phoenicites sp. Teodoridis et al.	cf. Calamus sp.	Leaf	Miocene	Capo di Fiume site, Italy	Teodoridis et al. (2015)				
Lepidocaryopsis sp. Berry	Calamoideae	Fruit	Miocene	Colombia	Berry (1929)				
Raphia Dechamps	Raphiinae	Stem	Late Miocene	Sirt Basin, Libya	Dechamps and Maes (1987)				

Stock, 2009). We review the fossil history of calamoid palms and discuss their paleobiogeographic patterns.

# 2. Geological setting

The Deccan Intertrappean Beds (within the Deccan Volcanic Province, DVP; Fig. 1) are unique as their large volume ( $\sim 2.5 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^3$ ), temporal proximity to the Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary (K-Pg) and the dominance of tholeiitic basaltic lava covering the western, central and southern regions of peninsular India (Kale, 2020). Geographically, the DVP is divided into three main subprovinces, namely the Malwa Lobe subprovince, the Mandla Lobe subprovince, and the Central Deccan subprovince. The present palm stem fossils studied here come from the Mandla Lobe, a 900 m-thick package of 29 flows dated as primarily belonging to Chron 29R (Pathak et al., 2017). Lava poured out through numerous fissures bounding the K-Pg transition and in so doing flooded and created a range of terrestrial and lacustrine environments (Nair and Bhusari, 2001). The fissures occurred in separate episodes with intermittent guiescent periods which marked the accumulation of Intertrappean sediments comprising lacustrine shale, silt, and carbonate deposits hosting floral and faunal fossils (Khosla and Verma, 2015; Verma and Khosla, 2019).

The age of Deccan Intertrappean sediments in Madhya Pradesh is considered to be the latest Maastrichtian—earliest Danian (close to the base of Chron 29R) based on radiometric  $^{40}$ Ar/ $^{39}$ Ar dating, planktonic foraminifera, and magnetostratigraphy (Venkatesan *et al.*, 1997; Khosla, 1999; Hofmann *et al.*, 2000; Sheth *et al.*, 2001; Chenet *et al.*, 2007; Keller *et al.*, 2009; Shrivastava *et al.*, 2015; Renne *et al.*, 2015; Schoene *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 2015).

# 3. Material and methods

The permineralized fossil stem specimens described in the present study were collected from surface exposures of Deccan Intertrappean Beds at Umariya Ryt (22°46′26″N, 80°32′19″E, Elevation of 490 metre), a medium-sized village located in Dindori District, Madhya Pradesh, Central India (Fig. 1). The Deccan Intertrappean Beds preserved remnants of many lineages of angiosperm plant species (Srivastava et al., 2014; Manchester et al., 2016; Matsunaga et al., 2019; Roy et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2023). The intertrappean sediments of Madhya Pradesh are rich in permineralized woods (Mahabale, 1958; Lakhanpal et al., 1979; Ambwani and Mehrotra, 1989; Bonde et al., 2008; Khan et al., 2019, 2020a, 2020b), but also yield a few leaves and seed remains (Srivastava et al., 2014; Manchester et al., 2016; Matsunaga et al., 2019; Roy et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2023).

The detailed anatomy of the fossil stems described here was revealed following the standard thin sectionmaking method (cutting, grinding, polishing, and mounting) of Hass and Rowe (1999) for permineralized (silicate) materials. The thin sections were examined using a transmitted light compound microscope with a photographic attachment (Leica DM 2500) and images of the specimen's external morphological features were made using a digital camera (NIKON D3300) (Fig. 2). For identification, details revealed by the prepared slides were compared with those in published xylotomical databases, a palm website (http://www. infosyslab.fr/Palm-ID/Thomas, 2011) and articles (Tomlinson, 1961; Tomlinson et al., 2011; Thomas and Franceschi, 2013). The holotype specimen (SKBU/PPL/ U3) and additional specimen (SKBU/PPL/U4) with prepared slides (SKBU/PPL/U3/T1 and SKBU/PPL/U4/ T1) are deposited at the repository in the Department



Fig. 1 Map showing the surviving extent of the Deccan Volcanic Province (DVP), and the star showing fossil locality (modified after Smith *et al.*, 2015).



Fig. 2 Recovered fossilized palm stems in A) specimen SKBU/PPL/U3 and B) specimen SKBU/PPL/U4 (scale bar = 1 cm); C) The enlarged view of A and D) The enlarged view of B on the cross-section, white circles showing the fibrovascular bundles (scale bar = 0.5 cm).

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# 4. Results — Systematic description of fossil stems

Family: Arecaceae Schultz, 1832. Subfamily: Calamoideae Beilschmied, 1833. Genus: Palmoxylon Schenk, 1882.

**Species:** *Palmoxylon calamoides* Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov. (Figs. 3 and 4).

**Etymology:** The specific epithet "*calamoides*" recognizes similarities of our palm stem specimens with calamoid palms.

**Specific diagnosis:** Calamus-type general stem organization; mostly uniform density and regularly oriented fibrovascular bundles (fvbs) with two large-sized metaxylem vessels throughout the cortical and central zone, presence of gum residues within vessels; the fibrous part or dcap (the outer fibrous part of fibrovascular bundle) not pronounced; reniform-shaped (mostly) to sagittate-shaped dcap; both tabular and radiating parenchyma absent; fibrous



**Fig. 3** Transmitted light compound microscopic images of a transverse section of the outer sub-cortical zone (SZ), the sub-dermal central zone (SD) and the inner central zone (IN) of the fossil palm stem, *Palmoxylon calamoides* Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov. (Specimen No. SKBU/PPL/U3). **A**) Fibrovascular bundles with wide metaxylem vessel showing gum residue (black arrow) and ground tissue in the SZ (Scale bar = 500  $\mu$ m); **B**) Enlarged view of a fibrovascular bundle in the SZ (Scale bar = 200  $\mu$ m); **C**) Fibrovascular bundles in the SD (Scale bar = 500  $\mu$ m); **D**) Transverse section showing an enlarged view of a fibrovascular bundle with a single phloem strand and two wide vessels (Scale bar = 200  $\mu$ m); **E**) Fibrovascular bundles in the IN showing gum residue (black arrow) (Scale bar = 500  $\mu$ m); **F**) Fibrovascular bundles showing gum residue (black arrow) in a metaxylem vessel (Scale bar = 200  $\mu$ m). Abbreviations: mx: metaxylem; px: protoxylem; phloem strand.

bundles absent; no centrifugal differentiation of fibrous part of fvbs; zone of transition between sub-cortical zone (SZ) and central zone (CZ) absent.

**Description:** Two permineralized stems are brownish and well-preserved; both are anatomically

divisible into an outermost cortical zone (CT), an outer sub-cortical zone (SZ), and a central zone (CZ), and exhibit a Calamus-type general stem organization. Fibrovascular bundles (fvbs) are uniformly distributed; a zone of transition (TZ) is absent between the SZ and



**Fig. 4** Transmitted light compound microscopic images of a transverse section of the outermost cortical zone (CT), the outer sub-cortical zone (SZ) and the sub-dermal central zone (SD) of the fossil palm stem, *Palmoxylon calamoides* Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov. (Specimen No. SKBU/PPL/U4). **A**) Fibrovascular bundles with wide metaxylem vessels in the CT (Scale bar = 500  $\mu$ m); **B**) Enlarged view of a fibrovascular bundle in the SD with gum residue (black arrow) in the metaxylem vessel and several protoxylem vessels (Scale bar = 200  $\mu$ m); **C**) Fibrovascular bundles in the SD (Scale bar = 500  $\mu$ m); **D**) Transverse section showing an enlarged view of a fibrovascular bundle with gum residue (black arrows) (Scale bar = 200  $\mu$ m); **E**) An inverted fluorescence microscope image showing a transverse section of the SZ (Scale bar = 500  $\mu$ m); **F**) Enlarged inverted fluorescence microscope image of a single fibrovascular bundle showing gum residue (white arrows) (Scale bar = 200  $\mu$ m). Abbreviations: mx: metaxylem; px: protoxylem; ph: phloem strand; pp: paravascular parenchyma.

the CZ; the fibrous part of fvbs has no centrifugal differentiation and is not pronounced. Based on the orientation, the distribution of fvbs, and the nature of the ground tissue, the CZ is divided into three subzones termed dermal (D) central zone, sub-dermal (SD) central zone, and inner (IN) central zone. In D, SD as well as IN central zones, fvbs are more or less similar in size ranging from 600  $\times$  500  $\mu m$  to 750  $\times$  650  $\mu m$ , and similar in shape as oval, and uniformly distributed (Figs. 3 and 4). A more or less

Table 2         Comparative anatomical chart of modern calamoid taxa with Palmoxylon calamoides sp. nov. (Based on Thomas and Franceschi, 2013).										
Calamoideae	Stem anatomical characters									
	Von Mohl-type classification	Shape of the fibrous part in TS	Developed cortex	Fibrous bundles in central cylinder	Auricular sinus	Number of vessel elements/ fibrovascular bundles	Number of phloem strands	Radiating parenchyma	Tabular parenchyma	Centrifugal differentiation of fibrous parts
<i>Metroxylon</i> or <i>Pigafetta</i> (Calameae)	Mauritia-type	Sagittata and Reniforma	Absent	Absent	Angular and absent in central zone	1	1	Absent	Absent	Present
Eugeissona (Eugeissoneae)	Mauritia-type	Reniforma	Absent	Present	Angular and absent in central zone	[1(2)]	1	Absent	Absent	Present
Raphia or Mauritia or Mauritiella (Lepidocaryeae)	Mauritia-type	Sagittata and Reniforma	Absent	Absent	Angular and absent in central zone	[1(2)]	1	Absent	Absent	Present
Lepidocaryum (Lepidocaryeae)	Mauritia-type	Reniforma	Absent	Absent	Angular and absent in central zone	1	1	Absent	Absent	Present
Scandent Calamoideae	Calamus-type	-	Absent	Present or Absent	-	1	1 and 2	Absent	Absent	Absent
Palmoxylon calamoides sp. nov.	Calamus-type	Sagittata and Reniforma	Absent	Absent	Seemingly angular	2	1	Absent	Absent	Absent

constant density of fvbs also occurs throughout the central cylinder. The vascular part of each fvb has two wide prominent metaxylem vessels, and characteristically one phloem strand, with three to six narrow, small protoxylem vessels observed in some fvbs. Gum residues are prominently in the wide metaxylem vessels (Figs. 3F, 4B, 4D). Diminutive fvbs, as well as fibrous bundles, are absent. The fvbs have the following mean dimensions: Hmax (maximal height of the fvb) = 650  $\mu$ m; Lmax (maximal width of the fvb) = 500  $\mu$ m; Hvasc (height of the vascular part) = 500  $\mu$ m; Lvasc (width of the vascular part at the auricular sinus level) = 150  $\mu$ m; and, vessel mean diameter = 230-250 µm. A reniform- to sagittateshaped dcap is present adjacent to the single phloem strand. The dcap has thick-walled, sclerenchymatous type cells (Figs. 3 and 4). A very narrow ventral fibrous sclerenchymatous part (vcap) is adjacent to the xylem of some fvbs. The median sinus is not clear and the auricular sinus is seemingly angular, without stegmata or radiating and tabular parenchyma. In the D central zone, the fvbs are somewhat sparsely placed and their frequency is slightly more than those in SD and IN central zones. The frequency of fvbs in the D central zone varies from 40 per  $cm^2$  to 50 per  $cm^2$ . In the SD central zone, the fvbs are slightly larger, more sparsely placed, and their frequency is less than those in the D central zone. The frequency of fvbs in the SD central zone varies from 35 per  $cm^2$  to 45 per  $cm^2$ . The ground tissue is not well-preserved, and in the central zone, some round to oval parenchymatous cells with diameters of 50  $\mu$ m $-80 \mu$ m are present (Fig. 3A).

Materials: Two well-preserved fossil stems.

Holotype: SKBU/PPL/U3.

Paratype: SKBU/PPL/U4. Type horizon and age: Deccan Intertrappean Beds; latest Maastrichtian (Late Cretaceous)—earliest Dan-

ian (early Paleocene).
Type locality: Umariya Ryt village (location: 22°46′26″N, 80°32′19″E, elevation of 1607.61 ft a.m.s.l) in Dindori District, Madhya Pradesh, Central India.

**Repository:** Department of Botany, Sidho-Kanho-Birsha University, West Bengal, India.

# 5. Discussion

# 5.1. Comparison

For the taxonomic placement of the fossil specimens reported here, we follow the scheme of stem anatomical descriptors for modern palms compiled by Thomas and Franceschi (2013) and the book entitled

"The Anatomy of Palms" by Tomlinson et al. (2011). The major anatomical characteristics of the present Deccan fossil specimens are as follows: a Calamus-type general stem pattern; the presence of well-preserved fvbs with two wide metaxylem vessel elements (230  $\mu$ m-250  $\mu$ m) and one phloem strand; lack of continuity between protoxylem and metaxylem vessel elements; and an absence of centrifugal differentiation in sclerenchymatous fibrous parts. The diagnostic stem anatomical features of climbing calamoid palms are as follows: a Calamus-type general stem pattern; a uniform density of their fvbs and disproportionately wide metaxylem vessels up to 400  $\mu$ m as compared to other palms; one or two large metaxylem vessels in the central axial portion of each vascular bundle; and a lack of continuity between protoxylem and metaxylem vessel elements and central fvbs with one or two phloem strands (Tomlinson and Fisher, 2000; Fisher, 2002; Tomlinson et al., 2011). However, nonscandent calamoid palms (Metroxylon Rottb. of Calameae, Eugeissona Griff. of Eugeissoneae, Raphia P. Beauv. and Lepidocaryum Mart. of Lepidocaryeae) generally exhibit Mauritia-type general stem patterns, showing the centrifugal differentiation of fibrous parts of fvbs (Thomas and Franceschi, 2013). Based on the Calamus-type general stem organization with no centrifugal differentiation of fibrous parts, combined with the structure of the fvbs (reniform- to sagittatashaped dcap), the number of fvbs (mostly 2) and wide metaxylem vessel elements (230  $\mu$ m-250  $\mu$ m) in each fvb with one phloem strand, our Deccan fossil stem specimens are most similar in terms of stem anatomy to modern scandent calamoid palm genera, and are distinct from non-scandent calamoid palms (Table 2).

The number of metaxylem vessel elements per fvb is an important anatomical character at the subfamily level (Thomas and Boura, 2015). An affinity to arecoid palms can be ruled out because they mostly have one metaxylem vessel (rarely two), highly lacunose ground tissue, and well-developed massive fibrous parts. However, our specimens do possess relatively poorly developed fibrous parts. Coryphoid palms have one, two, or more metaxylem elements per fvb (Couvreur et al., 2011) and these metaxylem vessels are smaller in comparison to those of our specimens. In addition, members of the Coryphoideae generally exhibit a Cocos-type stem pattern (fvbs are uniformly distributed throughout the cross-section) or Coryphatype stem pattern (a progressive decrease of the fibrous parts of fvbs). In some members of coryphoid palms, tabular parenchyma (around the vcap of the fvb) and radiating parenchyma (around the dcap of the fvb) are present. Thus, an affinity to our palm



**Fig. 5** Fibrovascular bundles (fvbs) of different extant genera of Calamoideae (Scale bar =  $200 \ \mu$ m). A) *Plectocomia* Mart. ex-Blume; B) *Daemonorops* Blume ex Schult. f.; C) *Calamus* L.; D) *Laccosperma* (G. Mann & H. Wendl.) Drude; E) *Korthalsia* Blume; F) *Oncocalamus* (G. Mann & H. Wendl.) H. Wendl.; G) *Eremospatha* (G. Mann & H. Wendl.) Schaedtler; H) *Raphia* P. Beauv.; I) *Mauritia* L. f.; J) *Plectocomiopsis* Becc.; K) *Myrialepis* Becc.; L) *Palmoxylon calamoides* Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov. Abbreviations: dcap: the outer fibrous part of the fibrovascular bundle; mx: metaxylem; px: protoxylem; ph: phloem strand; pp: paravascular parenchyma.

specimens can be ruled out because they lack both tabular and radiating parenchyma like in the members of the Calamoideae. Ceroxyloideae members differ in having a Mauritia-type general stem pattern and exhibiting an abrupt decrease of the fibrous part from the periphery to the centre. However, in our specimens, no gradual differentiation occurs within the fibrous part of the fvbs from the periphery toward the centre. In addition, Ceroxyloideae has 2, 3, or  $\geq 4$ metaxylem vessels per fvb. However, the monotypic subfamily Nypoideae, represented by Nypa fruticans Wurmb, is distinguishable from our palm stem specimens because Nypa has diffusely arranged fvbs and very narrow metaxylem vessels. Therefore, based on the above anatomical characteristics, we regard Calamoideae as the most closely related extant subfamily to our fossil specimens.

To determine the generic affinity of these fossil specimens, we compared them with different modern genera of scandent calamoid palms such as Korthalsia Blume, Calamus L., Oncocalamus (G. Mann & H. Wendl.) H. Wendl., Eremospatha (G. Mann & H. Wendl.) Schaedtler, Myrialepis Becc., Plectocomiopsis Becc., Laccosperma (G. Mann & H. Wendl.) Drude, and Plectocomia Mart. ex-Blume (Fig. 5). Two calamoid palm genera, Korthalsia and Calamus, can be ruled out because they have central fvbs with two phloem strands and one wide metaxylem vessel. Laccosperma, Plectocomiopsis, and Plectocomia differ in having one wide metaxylem vessel in their central fvbs. Our specimens show the most anatomical similarity to the Southeast Asian calamoid palm genus, Myrialepis, and the Western African genera Oncocalamus and Eremospatha. This is based on the nature of fvbs (central fvbs with one phloem strand and two wide metaxylem vessels), the nature of the ground tissue, and the presence of gum residue in the metaxylem vessel (Tomlinson et al., 2011).

We compare our fossil specimens with earlier reported reliable Indian fossil species of Palmoxylon (Table 3). Our specimens differ from ten Indian Palmoxylon species (Palmoxylon mohgaonensis, Palmoxvlon penchense, Palmoxylon parapaniensis, Palmoxylon mandlaensis, Palmoxylon livistonoides, Palmoxylon arviensis, Palmoxylon dilacunosum, Palmoxylon phytelephantoides, Palmoxylon dindoriensis and Palmoxylon coryphaoides) in the absence of fibrous bundles. However, the above-mentioned Indian species have characteristic fibrous bundles in the central zone. Palmoxylon mohgaonensis, P. mandlaensis, P. livistonoides, P. arviensis, P. siltherensis, P. phytelephantoides, P. bhisiensis, P. lametaei, P. deoriensis, and P. dindoriensis exhibit tabular parenchyma around fibrous parts of fvbs. Radiating parenchyma

around vascular parts of fvbs are prominent in Palmoxylon livistonoides, P. kamalam, P. deoriensis, and P. phytelephantoides. However, the current fossil specimens lack both tabular and radiating parenchyma as in Palmoxylon penchense, P. parapaniensis, P. shahpuraensis, P. dilacunosum, P. ceroxyloides and P. coryphaoides. Some earlier reported species differ in their stem pattern. Five species namely, Palmoxylon parapaniensis, P. livistonoides, P. lametaei, P. deoriensis, and P. dindoriensis are distinct from the current specimens within the presence of Cocos-type general stem organization. The Corypha-type is noticed in P. mandlaensis and P. coryphaoides while the Mautitiatype is found in P. ceroxyloides. However, the present specimens show Calamus-type general stem organization.

To date, only one calamoid palm stem species *Palmoxylon daemonoropsoides* has been reported from the late Oligocene sediments of the Evros region, Greece, Europe (Table 1; Velitzelos *et al.*, 2019). Our specimens are different from the Greek Oligocene species because they possess much larger metaxylem vessels (230  $\mu$ m $-250 \mu$ m) than those of Greek species (50  $\mu$ m $-100 \mu$ m). Thus, given the distinction of the present Deccan fossil palm specimens from the hitherto recorded species of palm stem, it is preferred to describe it as a new palm species *Palmoxylon calamoides* Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov.

# 5.2. Paleobiogeographic implications

The origin and immigration of the Calamoideae remain a mystery because of its very limited fossil record (Table 1). The discovery of our Deccan fossils, together with phylogenetic and paleobiogeographic analyses calibrated using earlier fossil records, supports a Gondwanan origin for Calamoideae.

Reliable megafossils with features similar to those of the Calamoideae have been recovered from late Eocene sediments of New Zealand, the Oligocene sediments of Europe and Africa, and the Miocene sediments of Europe and South America (Table 1; Fig. 6). They are mainly reported in the form of leaves (Pan et al., 2006; Teodoridis et al., 2015), fruits (Stur, 1873; Berry, 1929; Hartwich et al., 2010) and stems (Dechamps and Maes, 1987; Velitzelos et al., 2019). Our megafossils of scandent calamoid palm stems from the Deccan Intertrappean Beds of Central India, dated as the latest Maastrichtian-earliest Danian, are the oldest so far, confirming the Gondwanan presence of calamoid palms. They also indicate that this palm subfamily had already presented in India during the Late Cretaceous (Maastrichtian), about 4 million years before the collision between India and Eurasia. Earlier

Table 3         Comparative a	anatomical details	of earlier report	ted reliable fo	ossil species of Palmo	xylon with Pal	moxylon calam	noides sp. nov.			
Fossil species of	Stem anatomical characters									
Palmoxylon —	Von Mohl-type classification	Shape of the fibrous part in TS	Developed cortex	Fibrous bundles in central cylinder	Number of vessel elements/ fibrovascular bundles	Number of phloem strands	Radiating parenchyma	Tabular parenchyma	Centrifugal differentiation of fibrous parts	References
Palmoxylon mohgaonensis Trivedi and Surange	-	Cordata	Present	Present	2–3	Poorly developed	_	Present	Absent	Trivedi and Surange (1970)
P. penchense Trivedi and Verma	-	Reniforma	Present	Present	1—2	1	Absent	Absent	Absent	Trivedi and Verma (1972)
P. parapaniensis Lakhanpal et al.	Cocos-type	Reniforma to Lunata	_	Present	2, 3–4	-	Absent	Absent	-	Lakhanpal <i>et al</i> . (1979)
P. mandlaensis Lakhanpal et al.	Corypha-type	Reniforma to Cordate	_	Present	1—2, 2—3	?	Absent	Present	-	Lakhanpal <i>et al</i> . (1979)
P. livistonoides Prakash and Ambwani	Cocos-type	Reniforma	Present	Present	1–2	1	Present	Present	Absent	Prakash and Ambwani (1980)
P. arviensis Ambwani	-	Cordata to Reniforma	-	Present	1, rarely 2	-	Absent	Present	Absent	Ambwani (1981)
P. shahpuraensis Ambwani	-	Reniforma to Cordata	-	Absent	1—2, 3	-	Absent	Absent	-	Ambwani (1983)
P. dilacunosum Ambwani	_	Reniforma	Present	Present	1—2	-	Absent	Absent	Absent	Ambwani (1984a)
P. siltherensis Ambwani	-	Reniforma	Present	Absent	1	-	Absent	Present	Absent	Ambwani (1984b)
P. kamalam Datar and Patil	-	Complanata	Present	Absent	2	-	Present	-	-	Datar and Patil (2002)
P. phytelephantoides Chate et al.	_	Reniforma	Present	Present	Many xylem elements devoid of vessels	-	Present	Present	Absent	Chate <i>et al</i> . (2019)
P. bhisiensis Dutta et al.	-	Reniforma to Cordata	Present	Absent	2	1	Absent	Present	Absent	Dutta <i>et al.</i> (2007)
P. lametaei Dutta et al.	Cocos-type	Lunata and Vaginata	Present	Absent	2	1	Absent	Present	Absent	Dutta <i>et al</i> . (2011)
P. deoriensis Khan et al.	Cocos-type	Reniforma	Present	Absent	1—2	-	Present	Present	Absent	Khan <i>et al.</i> (2019)
P. dindoriensis Khan et al.	Cocos-type	Reniforma	Present	Present	2	1	Absent	Present	Absent	Khan <i>et al.</i> (2020a)
P. ceroxyloides Khan et al.	Mauritia-type	Reniforma	Absent	Absent	>4	1	Absent	Absent	Present	Khan <i>et al</i> . (2020b)

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Ali et al. (2023) **Present study** Absent Absent Absent Absent Absent Absent ¥ 1, 2, 2 Absent Present Absent Present Sagittata and Reniforma Vaginata to Lunata Calamus-type Corypha-type P. coryphaoides Ali Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov. calamoides Palmoxylon

fossil pollen records of Calamoideae from the Late Cretaceous sediments also favour a Gondwanan origin (Van Hoeken-Klinkenberg, 1964; Salard-Cheboldaeff, 1981; Schrank, 1994; Baker *et al.*, 2000; Harley and Baker, 2001).

Fossil Calamoideae has been reported from the Oligocene and Miocene sediments of Europe (Table 1; Fig. 6; Stur, 1873; Jablonszky, 1914; Teodoridis *et al.*, 2015; Velitzelos *et al.*, 2019), our findings from the Late Cretaceous—Early Paleocene of India suggest this palm subfamily arrived in Europe via the "raft" of India. It may have migrated to Europe after the suturing of India and Eurasia following the formation of the initial connection around 61 Ma (An *et al.*, 2021), and possibly via the West Siberian Sea and Turgai Strait (Akhmetiev and Beniamovski, 2009).

Additional fossil evidence of Calamoideae from the late Oligocene sediments of Ethiopia (Pan *et al.*, 2006) and the Miocene sediments of the Sirt Basin of Libya, Africa (Dechamps and Maes, 1987) mark its dispersal from India to Africa. Various researchers (e.g., Briggs, 1989, 2003; Case, 2002; Rage, 2003; Chatterjee and Scotese, 2010; Clementz *et al.*, 2011) have suggested that the floral and faunal exchange between India and Africa could have been via Greater Somalia towards the end of the Cretaceous. Additionally, the Kohistan Ladakh Arc, which existed during the Late Cretaceous (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2013), may have facilitated the migration of Calamoid palms from India to Africa.

Evidence of Calamoid palms from the Eocene sediments of South Island, New Zealand (Hartwich et al., 2010) suggests long-distance trans-oceanic dispersal (LDD), possibly abiotically by ocean currents (Carlquist, 1967, 1983), and biotically by mammals or birds (Winkworth et al., 2002). Various animals may act as important LDD agents of calamoid fruits and seeds (Zona and Henderson, 1989). The spread of some scandent calamoid species of Laccosperma, Eremospatha, Calamus, and Plectocomia was likely facilitated by mammals, excluding bats because the scaly fruits and spiny infructescences of the Calamoideae may preclude bats as dispersers (Bartels, 1964; Dubost, 1984; Lahm, 1986), but several bird species such as Anthracoceros convexus, Ducula spilorrhoa, and Casuarius may have played a key role in the long-distance seed dispersal of some members of Calamoideae (Crome, 1975, 1976; Dransfield, 1981; Stocker and Irvine, 1983). If this is the case then it explains the arrival of calamoid palms in South America by the Miocene (Morley, 1998, 2003), but does not explain why they did not transfer to Europe preceding the docking of India at around 60 Ma.



Fig. 6 Extant fossil distribution of Calamoideae (Modified base maps from https://www.odsn.de/odsn/services/paleomap/paleomap.html).

Further fossil evidence is needed for the origin and dispersal routes of the Calamoideae.

#### 5.3. Paleoclimatic implications

Calamoid palms generally grow in high-rainfall tropical or subtropical areas with average annual temperatures mostly >15 °C (Xu et al., 2000; McClatchey et al., 2006). The presence of Calamoideae palm stems from the latest Maastrichtian-earliest Danian sediments of the Deccan Intertrappean Beds of Madhya Pradesh indicates that the temperature was warm enough to allow tropical or subtropical plants to grow during the time of deposition. This inference is also consistent with earlier reported qualitative (Prasad et al., 2013; Srivastava et al., 2014; Manchester et al., 2016; Baas et al., 2017; Kapgate et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2021) and quantitative (Bhatia et al., 2021) climate data (Climate Leaf Analysis Multivariate Program) based on plant megafossils recovered from the same locality.

# 6. Conclusions

This study presents a new species of *Palmoxylon calamoides* Kumar, Roy et Khan sp. nov. from the latest Maastrichtian (Late Cretaceous) to earliest Danian (early Paleocene) (Chron 29R) sediments of the Deccan Intertrappean Beds of Central India. This is the earliest megafossil record of scandent calamoid palms from India. The presence of scandent Calamoideae in India at the very beginning of the Cenozoic suggests they were likely an important immigrant that went on to become a characteristic component of the wet tropical forests of Southeast Asia. For a better understanding of the calamoid palm biogeography, further fossil discoveries in deep time are required.

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### Availability of data and materials

Data supporting the findings of this research are available upon request from the corresponding author.

### Authors' contributions

Sanchita Kumar: Data curation, Methodology, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. Kaustav Roy: Data curation, Resources. Robert A. **Spicer:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Mahasin Ali Khan:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

#### Declaration of competing interest

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.

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