

# New records of immature aquatic Diptera from the Foulden Maar Fossil-Lagerstätte, New Zealand, and their biogeographic implications (#93110)

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# New records of immature aquatic Diptera from the Foulden Maar Fossil-Lagerstätte, New Zealand, and their biogeographic implications

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**Background.** The fauna of immature aquatic dipterans is described from freshwater diatomites of the Foulden Maar Fossil-Lagerstätte, New Zealand. Among Chironomidae, one pupal morphotype is attributed to *Coelotanypus* (Tanypodinae), today absent from the New Zealand and previously unknown from the fossil record in Australasia. **Methods.** This study is based on examination of the 30 specimens of the immature diptera from Foulden Maar. **Results.** One pupal morphotype and one larval morphotype are placed into Chironominae and one additional morphotype into Chironomidae incertae sedis. Chaoboridae are represented by a pupal morphotype congeneric or very close to the extant *Chaoborus*, today globally distributed except for New Zealand. Additional specimens are likely larvae and puparia of brachyceran flies but cannot be identified to a narrower range. These finds document an aquatic dipteran fauna in New Zealand in the earliest Miocene and highlight Neogene extinction as a factor in shaping the extant Dipteron fauna in New Zealand. Immature aquatic dipterans were a common and likely ecologically important component of the early Miocene Foulden Maar lake. Preservation of larvae and pupae may have been promoted by diatomaceous microbial mats and the light color of the diatomite likely facilitated spotting of these minute fossils in the field.

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18

## 19 Abstract

20 **Background.** The fauna of immature aquatic dipterans is described from freshwater diatomites of  
21 the Foulden Maar Fossil-Lagerstätte, New Zealand. Among Chironomidae, one pupal  
22 morphotype is attributed to *Coelotanypus* (Tanypodinae), today absent from the New Zealand  
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27 one additional morphotype into Chironomidae incertae sedis. Chaoboridae are represented by a  
28 pupal morphotype congeneric or very close to the extant *Chaoborus*, today globally distributed  
29 except for New Zealand. Additional specimens are likely larvae and puparia of brachyceran flies  
30 but cannot be identified to a narrower range. These finds document an aquatic dipteran fauna in  
31 New Zealand in the earliest Miocene and highlight Neogene extinction as a factor in shaping the  
32 extant Dipteron fauna in New Zealand. Immature aquatic dipterans were a common and likely  
33 ecologically important component of the early Miocene Foulden Maar lake. Preservation of  
34 larvae and pupae may have been promoted by diatomaceous microbial mats and the light color of  
35 the diatomite likely facilitated spotting of these minute fossils in the field.

36

## 37 Introduction

38 The isolation of New Zealand throughout geological time has resulted in an extremely unique  
39 and highly endemic flora and fauna of this southern land mass (Hennig, 1960; Brundin, 1966;  
40 Giribet & Boyer, 2010; Buckley, Krosch & Leschen, 2015). This uniqueness is particularly  
41 visible in the insect fauna, which contains many unusual radiations, relictual or depauperate  
42 lineages and unusual ecologies (Buckley, Krosch & Leschen, 2015; Macfarlane et al., 2010, and  
43 references therein). For instance, 91% of the ~3200 species of true flies (Diptera) known from  
44 New Zealand are endemic, illustrating just how unique the history of this biota is (Hennig, 1960;  
45 Macfarlane et al., 2010).

46 True flies play an important role for both ecosystems and humanity, due to their role as  
47 pollinators, decomposers of organic matter, parasitoids of agricultural pests and vectors of  
48 diseases (Marshall, 2012). One of the most intriguing phenomena in the New Zealand fauna is  
49 the absence of some highly mobile, widely distributed insect groups (Hennig, 1960). Such an  
50 absence is even more perplexing when these groups are present in Australia (Colles, 1986). One  
51 notable example is the group of phantom midges (Chaoboridae, Diptera). Globally distributed,  
52 though species-poor, phantom midges are important ecosystem engineers and principal plankton  
53 predators (Cook, 1956). Their absence from New Zealand freshwater ecosystems is apparently  
54 one of the causes for the unusual composition of the local plankton communities (Chapman &  
55 Green, 1987).

56 Another interesting case is the small, but highly endemic fauna of non-biting midges  
57 (Chironomidae) of New Zealand (Freeman, 1959; Hennig, 1960; Brundin, 1966; Macfarlane et  
58 al., 2010; Bothroyd & Forsyth, 2011). Non-biting midges are among the most widely distributed  
59 free-living insects in the world, with their representatives inhabiting depths of Baikal lake to  
60 1000 m, caves up to 980 m deep, mountain regions of the Himalayas over 5600 m altitude as  
61 well as arctic wastes and continental Antarctica (Kohshima, 1984; Armitage, Cranston & Pinder,  
62 1995; Ferrington, 2008; Andersen et al., 2016). Non-biting midges are important ecosystem  
63 engineers, influencing flux of organic matter and energy in both aquatic and terrestrial  
64 ecosystems, and they are important for carbon sequestering and water purification in freshwater  
65 and brackish ecosystems (Armitage, Cranston & Pinder, 1995; Gratton, Donaldson & Zanden,  
66 2008; Baranov, Kvifte & Perkovsky, 2016; Herren et al., 2017). In New Zealand non-biting  
67 midges are represented by 149 species, 94% of them endemic (Macfarlane et al., 2010). This  
68 relatively high diversity and diverse ecological adaptations among Chironomidae relative to

69 other dipteran groups suggest a long history of Chironomidae in New Zealand (Buckley, Krosch  
70 & Leschen, 2015). However, numerous ingroups of Chironomidae (“genera” – see comment on  
71 rankless taxonomy in the methods section) that are present in Australia are missing in New  
72 Zealand (Hennig, 1960; Ashe & O’Connor, 2009; Borkent, 2014). Despite numerous studies  
73 highlighting trans-Tasman biogeographic connections (Brundin, 1966; Cranston et al., 2010;  
74 Krosch et al., 2011; Krosch et al., 2022), more paleontological data are needed to elucidate the  
75 biogeographic history of non-biting midges and, indeed, the rest of the New Zealand dipteran  
76 fauna.

77 Currently, the fossil record of New Zealand dipteran consists of a single larvae of *Dilophus*  
78 *campbelli* Harris, 1983 (Bibionidae) from the Eocene, as yet formally undescribed (but  
79 mentioned and to a degree figured) larvae, pupae and adults from two Miocene maar lakes  
80 (Kaulfuss et al., 2015, 2018a) and several formally undescribed (but mentioned and to a degree  
81 figured) representatives of Cecidomyiidae, Ceratopogonidae, Chironomidae and Mycetophilidae  
82 from late Oligocene–early Miocene ambers (Schmidt et al., 2018). Additionally, there are  
83 subfossil records such as larvae of *Corynocera duffi* Deevey, 1955 (Chironomidae) and  
84 associated non-brachyceran dipteran larva from Holocene swamp deposits (Deevey, 1955). With  
85 such a relatively sparse fossil record it is difficult to attain a good understanding of the  
86 biogeographic history of Diptera in New Zealand.

87 The Foulden Maar Fossil-Lagerstätte in southern New Zealand preserves a diverse flora and  
88 fauna that provides insights into the diversity and ecology of a rainforest/lake ecosystem in  
89 southern Zealandia in the early Miocene (23mya) (Lee et al. 2016; Lee, Kaulfuss & Conran,  
90 2022). Among the insect fauna from Foulden Maar are representatives of groups with aquatic or  
91 semi-aquatic life cycles, including dragonflies (Odonata, cf. Aeshnidae), caddisflies  
92 (Trichoptera), water scavenger beetles (Hydrophilidae), flies (Diptera) and alderflies (Sialidae),  
93 the latter now absent from New Zealand, but present in Australia (Kaulfuss et al., 2015; Baranov  
94 et al., 2022a). Although the Foulden Maar fossil biota presents a rare opportunity for deciphering  
95 biogeographic connections of New Zealand’s flora and fauna (e.g. Lee, Kaulfuss & Conran,  
96 2022), the aquatic insects of this Miocene lake ecosystem have been little studied.  
97 Here, we describe new records of aquatic dipterans from the Foulden Maar fossil deposits and  
98 discuss these with regard to their paleoecology and to biogeographic patterns in the extant  
99 aquatic Diptera fauna of New Zealand. These records are allowing to further test existing

100 biogeographical hypothesis on fully or partially subgmerged New Zealand (Giribet & Boyer,  
101 2010).

102

### 103 GEOLOGICAL SETTING

104 Foulden Maar is a partly eroded maar-diatreme volcano of the Dunedin Volcanic Group, an  
105 intracontinental volcanic field in the east Otago region, South Island of New Zealand, which was  
106 intermittently active between 25 and 9 mya (Scott et al., 2020). The Fossil Lagerstätte is located  
107 on private farmland east of the township Middlemarch. The principle fossiliferous lithology is a  
108 varved diatomite that accumulated in small maar lake over a period of at least 130.000 years.  
109 Sedimentological and geophysical investigations indicate that the maar lake occupied a semi-  
110 circular crater up to 2400 m in diameter and 350 m deep, and was disconnected from streams and  
111 rivers by a rim of tephra deposited around the crater (Fox et al., 2015; Jones et al., 2017;  
112 Kaulfuss, 2017). Lateral continuous, undisturbed lamination of the diatomite in combination with  
113 the preservation of organic material and the absence of benthic organisms and bioturbation  
114 suggest meromictic conditions, with a mixed, well-oxygenated upper water body and an anoxic  
115 lower water column and lake floor unsuitable for aquatic life (Lindqvist & Lee, 2009). The  
116 slopes of the lake basin were generally very steep but swampy, shallow water edges during later  
117 stages of the lake's existence are evidenced by pollen from bur reeds, bulrushes, flaxes, jointed  
118 rushes and sedges in the diatomite (Mildenhall et al., 2014a). Plant fossils in the diatomite  
119 include palynomorphs, leaves, flowers, fruits, seeds and bark from plants of a diverse,  
120 Lauraceae-dominated, warm-temperate to subtropical rainforest growing on fertile volcanic soils  
121 around the lake, and a pollen signal from regional forests dominated by *Nothofagus* (southern  
122 beech), *Casuarina*, podocarps and araucarians in the hinterland (Bannister, Conran & Lee, 2012;  
123 Mildenhall et al., 2014a; Lee et al., 2016; Lee, Kaulfuss & Conran, 2022). The fossil fauna  
124 recovered to date includes mygalomorph spiders (Selden & Kaulfuss, 2018), insects of the  
125 groups Odonata, Blattodea, Hemiptera, Megaloptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera, Trichoptera and  
126 Diptera (Kaulfuss et al., 2015; Baranov et al., 2022a), and larval to adult specimens of *Galaxias*  
127 *effusus* Lee, McDowall & Lindqvist, 2007 in the Southern Hemisphere family Galaxiidae  
128 (Teleostei) (Lee, McDowall & Lindqvist, 2007; Kaulfuss et al., 2020).

129 The age of the Foulden Maar biota is earliest Miocene (23 ma), Aquitanian, New Zealand local  
130 stages late Waitakian–early Otaian, pollen zones: latest uppermost *Rhoipites waimumuensis*  
131 Zone to lower early *Proteacidites isopogiformis* Zone (Mildenhall et al., 2014a).

132

## 133 **Materials & Methods**

### 134 **Studied Material**

135 The 30 immature individuals of flies described herein (Figs. 1–6, 8–14) were collected in mining  
136 pit A (45.5269°S, 170.2191°E) at Foulden Maar (see Kaulfuss, 2017, fig. 1C), which exposes a  
137 ca. 10 m thick succession of fossiliferous diatomite representing a depositional period of ca.  
138 18.000 years. The site is registered as I43/f8503 in the New Zealand Fossil Record File  
139 (<https://fred.org.nz/>). Specimens were found randomly distributed throughout the stratigraphic  
140 section (no mass mortality layers were observed) and are always preserved on light-coloured  
141 diatomaceous laminae, which resulted from diatom blooms in warm seasons. No specimens were  
142 found in the dark, organic-rich laminae deposited in the cooler seasons.

143 All individuals are pale to dark brown, strongly compressed (compacted) specimens, mostly  
144 preserved as part and counterpart, although often only the part exhibits useful morphological  
145 details, whereas the counterpart is a faint outline or impression only. One specimen, mounted on  
146 a glass slide (Fig. 7), was recovered from the carbonaceous residue after dissolving the silica-  
147 component of diatomite samples with hydrofluoric acid (N. Butterfield, 2022, pers. comm.). All  
148 specimens are stored in the Museum of the Geology Department, University of Otago (OU);  
149 identifiers provided below consist of an OU collection number followed by an original field  
150 number in brackets.

151

### 152 **Imaging**

153 Specimens were photographed with a Canon T3 camera attached to a Nikon SMZ1000  
154 stereomicroscope. Wetting the specimens in ethanol improved the contrast between specimens  
155 and the diatomite matrix. The single slide-mounted specimen was imaged using a Keyence BZ-  
156 9000 fluorescence microscope with either 4×, 20×, 40× or 100× objectives. We have conducted  
157 observations using an emitted wavelength of 532 nm since it was the most compatible with the  
158 fluorescence capacities of the fossil specimen (Haug et al., 2011). Stacks of images were

159 digitally computed to single in-focus images using CombineZP (GNU) or Photoshop CS5.1  
160 software (Adobe Systems Inc.).

161

## 162 **Morphological terminology and identification**

163 In the course of our work we normally do not use Linnean ranks ('rankless taxonomy')  
164 (Baranov, Schädel & Haug, 2019; Baranov et al., 2022b; Haug et al., 2020). Ranks (or  
165 "categories" sensu Mayr, 1942, p. 102) are arbitrary constructs of the human-imposed structure  
166 that does not hold 'comparative values' (Mayr, 1942, p. 291, line 3). In our view such arbitrary  
167 constructs do not contribute to facilitation of the understanding of phylogenetic relationships  
168 between the organisms, including both species and higher phylogenetic groups, instead we are  
169 using rankles hierarchy of the monophyletic groups (Haug et al., 2020).

170

171 The morphological terminology is based on Marshall et al. (2017) and Borkent & Sinclair  
172 (2017), and specifically follows Borkent (2012) for culicomorphan pupae anatomy. In this paper  
173 we describe morphotypes, i.e., distinct morphological groups of organisms. Members of each  
174 morphotype are here assumed to represent the same species, although this is often impossible to  
175 ascertain for the fossils. Most of the fossils dealt with herein are pupal exuviae (integument left  
176 after the eclosion of the adult fly) but for convenience we treat all pupae fossils and their  
177 integuments as "pupae".

178 Specimens were identified using the keys provided by Wiederholm (1986), Langton (1991),  
179 Sæther (1970, 1997), Roback (1971), Forsyth (1971), Cook (1956), Colles (1983) and  
180 Winterbourn, Gregson & Dolphin (1989).

181

## 182 **Results**

### 183 **Systematic paleontology**

184

185 DIPTERA Linnaeus, 1758

186 CHIRONOMIDAE Newman, 1838

187 TANYPODINAE Thienemann & Zavřel, 1916

188 COELOTANYPUS Kieffer, 1913

189 *COELOTANYPUS* sp.

190 Material: specimens OU46609 (191), OU46626 (208), OU45541 (137), OU44933 (28),  
191 OU44930 (23), OU46641 (223) (Figs. 1–3).

192 Pupa. Habitus. Medium-sized. All specimens preserved in dorso-ventral aspect, thus precluding  
193 detailed observation of head and legs. Body length 4.5–5.4 mm ( $n = 2$ ); abdomen length 2.9–3.7  
194 mm ( $n = 2$ ); length of thorax 1.6–1.7 mm ( $n = 2$ ), body differentiated into presumably 20  
195 segments, ocular segment plus 19 post-ocular segments (Figs. 2A, B); anterior part of body  
196 composed of head and thorax, visible as single semi-circular structure; thorax with wings and  
197 ambulatory appendages (legs) (Figs. 1A–F, 2A–B); ocular segment and post-ocular segments 1–  
198 5 (presumably) forming a distinct capsule (head capsule); mouthparts located ventrally and thus  
199 not available for observation (Figs. 1A–F). Pupal cuticle of the head with prominent frontal  
200 apotome (frontal protrusion of the head), apparently bearing a pair of strong frontal setae (only  
201 right one is visible), sitting on the short tubercle (Fig. 3A).

202 Thoracic segments forming a single semi-globose structure closely enveloping the head of the  
203 pupa. Prothorax bears thoracic horns (modified first spiracle) (Figs. 2A–B, 3A, C, D), these  
204 mostly cylindrical, 4.7 times as long as wide, with a total length of 400  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $n=1$ , only one horn  
205 was preserved in a good condition) (Figs. 3C, D). Widest point of thoracic horn at base of  
206 plastron plate (surface for retention of the air film, providing a gas exchange interface), overall  
207 shape of the horn tapers slightly towards the base (Figs. 3C, D). Plastron plate ovoid, 90  $\mu\text{m}$  long  
208 and almost 90  $\mu\text{m}$  wide. (Figs. 3C, D). Thorax is very wrinkly, bearing no distinct sclerotized  
209 protrusions (i.e. thoracic combs, *sensu* Saether, 1980). Wings and their cuticular sheath barely  
210 visible, hidden under the body, only points of the wing attachment to the mesothorax discernible  
211 (Figs. 2A, B).

212 Abdomen (posterior trunk). Abdominal cuticle extremely wrinkly. First unit of abdomen with  
213 very strongly pigmented scar (Figs. 1A–F, 2A, B). Setae of abdominal units not preserved, but  
214 sturdy teca of some of them can be seen on some abdominal tergites. Abdominal tergites 3 and  
215 4 bearing teca of five dorsal setae each, abdominal tergite 5 with at least one pair of teca of  
216 dorsal setae (Fig. 2A). Traces of lateral setae on abdominal units 2–6 not discernible. Abdominal  
217 unit 8 with traces of bases of some lateral setae. Trunk end (abdominal unit 9 plus remnants of  
218 abdominal unit 10) bears anal lobes (paddles) (Fig. 2A), these semi-circular, broadly rounded,  
219 1.6 times longer than wide. Anal lobes bearing a fringe of soft, short setae, only small number of  
220 which are preserved (Figs. 2A, B, 3D).

221

222 Taxonomic attribution. These specimens are representatives of Chironomidae based on the  
223 following combination of pupal characters: thoracic horn with strong plastron plate; strongly  
224 sclerotized arches from the anterior parts of the abdominal tergites; terminus of trunk without  
225 articulated terminal paddles (Figs. 2A, 3D). Within Chironomidae, this morphotype most closely  
226 resembles representatives of the extant group *Coelotanypus* Kieffer (Tanyopodinae) based on the  
227 following combination of characters: thoracic horn mostly cylindrical, with ovoid plastron plate;  
228 plastron of the thoracic horn occupying about 10% of the internal volume of the entire structure;  
229 sac of the thoracic horn not perforated (Fig. 3C); thoracic comb absent (Fig. 3A), abdominal unit  
230 one with a strong longitudinal, sclerotized mark (scar) present on the tergite (Fig. 2A); no lateral  
231 filaments visible on abdominal units 2–6 without fringe of setae; anal lobes broadly rounded,  
232 with numerous lateral setae, forming a fringe (Fig. 3D). Anal lobes completely confluent and  
233 with overlapping inner edges (Fig. 3A) (Fittkau & Murray, 1986).

234

235 Remarks. *Coelotanypus* has so far not been recorded from New Zealand, but *Coelotanypus*  
236 *wirthi* Freeman, 1961 has been reported from Australia (Freeman, 1961; Ashe & O'Connor,  
237 2009; Cranston, 2019). There are no extant representatives of Tanyopodinae with morphologically  
238 similar pupae in New Zealand, but Forsyth (1971) reported a number of species of  
239 “*Anatopynia*”, of which some share a certain degree of similarity with this fossil morphotype. In  
240 particular, “*Anatopynia*” *antarctica* (Hudson, 1892) shares with the new fossil morphotype the  
241 broad, rounded shape of the anal lobes and the general structure of the thoracic horn (Forsyth,  
242 1971: fig. 2). However, “*A.*” *antarctica* has prominent distal protruding points on the anal lobes,  
243 which are absent from the new morphotype from Foulden Maar. Additionally, the inner edges of  
244 the anal lobes are overlapping in the new morphotype (Fig. 3A), which is characteristic for  
245 representatives of *Coelotanypus*, but not for any of the representatives of “*Anatopynia*” recorded  
246 from New Zealand (Forsyth, 1971; Fittkau & Murray, 1986). The overall shape of the anal lobes  
247 and thoracic horns is most similar to *C. scapularis* (Loew, 1866), distributed in the modern  
248 Nearctic and Neotropics (Roback, 1974; Ashe & O'Connor, 2009).

249

250 CHIRONOMINAE Macquart, 1838

251

252 Chironominae morphotype 1  
253 Material: OU47058 (252), OU46654 (236), OU46645 (227), OU46627 (209), OU46625 (207),  
254 OU46620 (202), OU45553 (149), OU45543 (139), OU47051 (245) (Figs. 4–6)  
255 Pupa. Habitus. Medium-sized, coma-shaped (in lateral aspect). Most of the specimens preserved  
256 in dorso-ventral aspect, thus precluding detailed observation of head and legs. Body length 4.7–  
257 6.2 mm (mean = 5.6 mm, sd = 430  $\mu$ m) (n = 8); abdomen length 3.6–4.5 mm (mean = 4.2 mm,  
258 sd = 355  $\mu$ m) (n = 8); length of thorax 1.3–2.3 mm (mean = 1.6 mm, sd = 330  $\mu$ m) (n = 8), body  
259 differentiated into presumably 20 segments, ocular segment plus 19 post-ocular segments (Figs.  
260 4A–H, 5A–H, 6A–E); anterior part of body composed of head and thorax, visible as single semi-  
261 circular structure; thorax bears wings and ambulatory appendages (legs) (Figs. 6A, B); ocular  
262 segment and post-ocular segments 1–5 (presumably) forming a distinct capsule (head capsule);  
263 mouthparts located ventrally and thus not discernible (Figs. 5A–H, 6A, B). Pupal cuticle of head  
264 with prominent frontal apotome (frontal protrusion of the head). Frontal apotome bears a pair of  
265 strongly curved, conical cephalic tubercles with a pair of strong frontal setae (Figs. 6A–C).  
266 Thorax with three pairs of ambulatory appendages (fore-, mid- and hindlegs) on the pro-, meso-,  
267 and metathorax, respectively. Thoracic segments forming a single semi-globose structure closely  
268 enveloping the head of the pupa. Forelegs folded around dorsal side of the wing (Figs. 6A, B).  
269 No traces of the thoracic horns were found, but specimen OU45543 (139) shows the presence of  
270 the tracheal scar (place where trachea is passing through the thorax cuticle into the thoracic  
271 horns). Mesothorax with a pair of wings and a pair of ambulatory appendages (midlegs). Midlegs  
272 situated medially to forelegs, looping around wing, distal part of the loop lying on the abdomen,  
273 beyond the distal end of the wing. (Figs. 6A, B). Metathorax with a pair of ambulatory  
274 appendages (hindlegs); halteres not discernible. Hindlegs almost entirely hidden behind wings  
275 (Figs. 6A, B).  
276 Abdomen (posterior trunk). Made up of 9 visible abdominal units. Tergal armament most  
277 complete and best preserved in specimens OU46654 (236), OU47051 (245) and OU47058 (252)  
278 (Figs. 5B, G, H, 6A, B). Abdominal tergite 1 bare. Abdominal tergite 2 with fine shagreen  
279 pattern and continuous row of hooks at posterior edge (Figs. 6A, B). Abdominal tergites 3–5 with  
280 uniform shagreen and strong oval patch of longer, dark spines located on the median line of  
281 tergite, touching the posterior edge of the segment. Tergite 6 apparently mostly bare, without  
282 visible shagreen, bearing similar medio-posterior patch of strong, dark spines (Figs. 6A, B).

283 Tergites 7 and 8 mostly bare, without visible shagreen (Figs. 6A, B). Abdominal unit 8 bearing  
284 two strong anal combs postero-laterally (Figs. 6D, E), these made up of 4 strong spines, the  
285 outermost being the longest and the rest getting shorter towards the innermost spine each. Anal  
286 lobes semi-circular, with strong fringe of at least 50 setae (difficult to count) on each lobe (Fig.  
287 6D). No other setae are preserved on the abdomen of this morphotype. In specimen OU46645  
288 (227), a part of a male hypopigium is visible through the cuticle of the genital sack. Strong, blunt  
289 anal point visible, alongside a long, curving gonostyle, joined to a gonocoxite (Fig. 5D).

290

291 Taxonomic attribution

292 Specimens of this morphotype are representatives of Chironomidae based on the following  
293 combination of pupal characters: strongly sclerotized arches from the anterior parts of the  
294 abdominal tergites; terminus of trunk without articulated terminal paddles (Figs. 5A–H, 6A, D).  
295 Within Chironomidae, this morphotype can be interpreted as an ingroup of Chironominae  
296 because of the diagnostic combination of characters: abdominal tergite 8 with a strong anal  
297 comb, anal lobes with a well-developed fringe of setae, gonostylus and gonocoxite conjoined  
298 rigidly, no articulation visible (Fig. 5D) (Wiederholm, 1989). Unfortunately, all the specimens  
299 are too poorly preserved for a more precise taxonomic attribution.

300

301 Chironominae morphotype 2

302 Material: OU47488 (268) (Fig. 7)

303

304 Larva. Habitus. A single specimen mounted on a glass slide (Figs. 7A–D). Larva with well-  
305 preserved body and head capsule cuticle, with many microscopic details such as structure of  
306 submentum or mandible apparent. Head capsule well developed, with complete sclerotization  
307 and overall non-retractable. Ocular segment and post-ocular segments 1–5 (presumably) forming  
308 a distinct capsule (head capsule). Head capsule without conspicuous labral fans and well-  
309 developed epipharyngeal complex (only premandibles are visible of which). Head capsule bears  
310 pair of mandibles. Mandibles with 'pronounced apical tooth and three internal teeth (Fig. 7 C-D).  
311 Premandibles with three apical teeth visible. Mentum (part of labium) well pronounced, with 7  
312 pairs of lateral teeth, with 1<sup>st</sup> part of the lateral teeth about 4 times shorter than second pair of  
313 lateral teeth, with wide gap between them.

314 Head and thorax not conjoined together; no suction discs at the abdomen; abdominal cuticle well  
315 preserved, but without visible setae; respiratory system lacking developed trachea or external  
316 spiracles (apneustic type); thorax segments well distinguishable; prothorax and abdominal unit 9  
317 with paired parapods; abdominal units 1 and 2 without parapods; group of strong, downward  
318 pointing preanal setae absent on the trunk end (Ekrem et al., 2018).

319

320 Taxonomic attribution. This morphotype falls within Chironomidae based on the combination of  
321 the following characters: larva with well-developed, complete and non-retractable head capsule;  
322 head capsule without conspicuous labral fans and well-developed epipharyngeal complex; head  
323 and thorax not conjoined together; no suction discs at the abdomen; respiratory system lacking  
324 developed trachea or external spiracles (apneustic type); thorax segments well distinguishable;  
325 prothorax and abdominal unit 9 with paired parapods; abdominal units 1 and 2 without parapods;  
326 group of strong, downward pointing preanal setae absent on the trunk end (Ekrem et al., 2018).

327 Within Chironomidae, this larva falls within Chironominae based on the following combination  
328 of characters: antenna not retractable, non-annulate, labrum without row of the overlapping  
329 lamellae, premandible present, submentum with 15 teeth in three distinct groups, symmetrically  
330 distributed on submentum (Wiederholm, 1983; Cranston, 2019).

331 The preservation of the head capsule is not conducive for further identification of the specimen  
332 but the general habitus is highly reminiscent of that of *Chironomus* Meigen, currently  
333 represented in New Zealand by at least six species (Boothroyd & Forsyth, 2011).

334

335 CHIRONOMIDAE Incertae Sedis

336 Chironomidae morphotype 1

337 Material: OU45549 (145), OU46608 (190) (Fig. 8)

338

339 Pupa. Both specimens are too poorly preserved for a detailed description (Figs. 8A–D).

340 Taxonomic attribution. These two specimens of pupae belong to a separate morphotype, which is  
341 difficult to place due to the missing characters of the distal end of the abdomen, yet their overall  
342 habitus is highly reminiscent of that of Chironomidae. Defining feature of this morphotype is a  
343 strong, protruding spine on the posterior edge of tergite II (Figs. 8A–D).

344

345 CHAOBORIDAE Edwards, 1912  
346 Chaoboridae morphotype 1  
347 Material: Specimens OU47487 (163), OU46642 (224), OU46631 (213), OU46651 (233),  
348 OU46653 (235) (Figs. 9–13).  
349 Pupa. Habitus. Medium-sized, coma-shaped (in lateral aspect). Body length 5.2–6.0 mm ( $n = 3$ ,  
350 mean = 5.5 mm,  $sd = 490 \mu\text{m}$ ); abdomen length 3.8–4.3 mm ( $n = 3$ , mean = 4.0 mm,  $sd = 320$   
351  $\mu\text{m}$ ); length of thorax 1.3–18.8 mm ( $n = 4$ , mean = 1.5 mm,  $sd = 220 \mu\text{m}$ ), body differentiated  
352 into presumably 20 segments, ocular segment plus 19 post-ocular segments (Figs. 13A, B);  
353 anterior part of the body composed of head and thorax, visible as a single globose structure;  
354 thorax bears wings and ambulatory appendages (legs) (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B, 13A, B);  
355 mouthparts located ventrally and short, ending before attachment of first ambulatory appendages  
356 (forelegs) (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B, 13A, B). Ocular segment recognizable by its appendage  
357 derivative, clypeo-labral complex, and a pair of large compound eyes. Labrum and clypeus  
358 present, but their shape obscured by deformation of the specimens, since all of the pupae are  
359 preserved in lateral aspect (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B). Antennae curved around the head, ending  
360 beneath the head, at about mid-length to 0.8 of the length of the wings. Antennae attached to the  
361 massive, rounded pedicellus (antennal element 2) (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B). Maxilla recognizable  
362 by maxillary palpus. Palpi are poorly preserved in the available specimens. Post-ocular segment  
363 5 is recognizable by its appendages, forming the labium [conjoined left and right maxillae].  
364 Labium mostly obscured in all specimens, with no details visible (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B). Thorax  
365 bears three pairs of ambulatory appendages (fore-, mid- and hindlegs) on the pro-, meso-, and  
366 metathorax, respectively. Thoracic segments forming a single semi-globose structure, closely  
367 enveloping the head of the pupa. Ambulatory appendages of the thorax folded around and under  
368 the wings (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B). Prothorax bears thoracic horns (modified first spiracle).  
369 Thoracic horns (respiratory organs) absent on all the specimens. Prothorax bears first thoracic  
370 appendages (forelegs). Forelegs running posteriorly, upwards anteriorly to the upper edge of the  
371 eye and then downward to the apical edge of the wing (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B, 13A, B).  
372 Mesothorax bears a pair of wings and a pair of ambulatory appendages (midlegs). Midlegs  
373 situated medially to foreleg, looping around the wing, distal part of the loop lying on the  
374 abdomen, beyond the distal end of the wing. Distal parts of the midlegs loop again under the

375 wing (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B, 13A, B). Hindlegs almost entirely hidden behind the coxae of the  
376 fore- and midlegs and wings (Figs. 11A, B, 12A, B, 13A, B).  
377 Abdomen (posterior trunk). Abdominal units 1–8 with setae of the pharate adult tergites visible  
378 through the pupal cuticle. Setae radiating from the median line of the abdomen diagonally, so as  
379 to form pointed bundles of setae at the postero-lateral part of tergites 1–8 (Figs. 11A, B, 13A,  
380 B). Trunk end (abdominal unit 9 plus remnants of abdominal unit 10) bears hypopigium (male  
381 genitalia) (only visible on specimen OU46653 (235)). Hypopigium consists of paired  
382 gonocoxites (II) of abdominal unit 9 and paired gonostyli articulated at the distal end of the  
383 gonocoxites (Figs. 13C, D). Gonocoxites ca. 250 µm, gonostyli ca. 430 µm. Gonostyli straight,  
384 ending with short, rounded apical setae (megaseta) (Figs. 13C, D). Gonocoxites densely covered  
385 with strong setae. No traces of anal lobes present on the trunk end (Figs. 13C, D).

386

387 Taxonomic attribution. We interpret this new morphotype as an ingroup of Chaoboridae based  
388 on the specific combination of the following characters: Pupa: mouthparts short, not reaching  
389 beyond coxae of anterior legs; bundles of the diagonally oriented setae visible on the tergites of  
390 the abdominal units (the latter character is a autapomorphy of Chaoboridae) (Figs. 11A, B, 13A,  
391 B) (Borkent & Grimaldi, 2004; Borkent, 2012). Some characters of the adult male were available  
392 for examination through the cuticle of a pharate adult (inside the pupa) in specimen OU46653  
393 (235) (Figs. 13C, D). However, the poor preservation does not allow for a closer taxonomic  
394 attribution as characters of the adult legs and wings are not discernable in this specimen. All the  
395 available specimens of Chaoboridae from Foulden Maar are missing anal lobes and thoracic  
396 horns. These characters are crucial for diagnosis and taxonomic attribution of representatives of  
397 Chaoboridae (Cook, 1956; Sæther, 1970). Therefore, we cannot attribute this new morphotype to  
398 any ingroup of Chaoboridae, although the general shape of the pupa and shape of the  
399 hypopigium are very similar to pupae of *Chaoborus* Lichtenstein (Cook, 1956; Sæther, 1970,  
400 1997; Borkent, 2012). We thus suggest that the Chaoboridae morphotype from Foulden Maar is  
401 either a representative of *Chaoborus* or closely related to it. To further validate this assumption,  
402 we will require additional material with preserved anal lobes and thoracic horns. The loss of anal  
403 paddles in pupae from the finely laminated Foulden Maar diatomite is likely due to the fragility  
404 of the “paddle” attachments (anal lobe). A similar preservation is present at the Eocene  
405 Kishenehn Formation, USA, and the Miocene McGrath Flats Formation, Australia, where

406 otherwise exquisitely preserved Chaoboridae pupae are frequently missing their anal “paddles”  
407 (anal lobes) (Baranov et al., 2022b; McCurry et al., 2022).

408

409 **BRACHYCERA (?)**

410 Material: OU44944 (43), OU44981 (90), OU44982 (91), OU44996 (105), OU45559 (155),  
411 OU46644 (226), OU46652 (234), OU46655 (237) (Fig. 14)

412 The examined material contains eight specimens, seemingly immatures of a holometabolous; all  
413 share similar dark-brown or reddish-brown colours (Figs. 14A–H). All specimens have at least  
414 11 body units and some have their supposed tergites split in half, giving an impression of the  
415 post-eclosion pupal exuvia (Figs. 14C, D, H). Tergites are split in the middle. Some specimens  
416 have strong setae on the edges of the tergites (Figs. 14B, D, F). Specimens OU44944 (43) and  
417 OU44996 (105) are more of a spindle-shape and have of an overall appearance of dipteran  
418 larvae, rather than pupal exuvia or puparia (Figs. 14A, G). Unfortunately, there are no diagnostic  
419 characters allowing for a closer taxonomic placement of these specimens. Based on the habitus  
420 similarity, we hypothesize that these specimens represent larvae and puparia (larval last stage  
421 exuvia, covering a pupa of brachyceran flies) of brachyceran flies, likely representatives of  
422 Cyclorrhapha (i.e. see Ferrar, 1987, vol 2 fig. 6.155 (p. 568)).

## 423 **Discussion**

### 424 **Paleontological significance and paleoecology**

425 Fossil deposits in southern New Zealand document the presence of various lentic habitats and  
426 associated freshwater faunas during the early and middle Miocene (e.g. Douglas, 1986; Pole,  
427 Douglas & Mason, 2003; Lee et al., 2016; Kaulfuss et al., 2018a, 2020). Previously reported  
428 fossils of the groups Odonata, Megaloptera, Coleoptera, Diptera and Trichoptera provide a  
429 glimpse of the aquatic insect fauna in these paleo-habitats (Kaulfuss et al., 2015, 2018a, b;  
430 Schmidt et al., 2018; Baranov et al., 2022a), but the diversity, biogeography and ecological role  
431 of individual groups remain to be explored in detail. Our study gives insights into the aquatic  
432 dipteran fauna in a small, isolated maar lake in southern New Zealand in the earliest Miocene (23  
433 mya), shortly after maximum marine inundation of most land area at ~25 mya. The larvae and  
434 pupae described here from the Foulden Maar diatomite indicate the presence of a dipteran fauna  
435 consistent in its taxonomic richness with the diversity of merolimnic flies recorded in other  
436 Paleogene and Neogene lacustrine deposits: Kishenehn Formation, Eocene, USA, 8 morphotypes

437 (Baranov et al., 2022b), McGrath Flats, Miocene, Australia, 5 morphotypes (McCurry et al.,  
438 Messel, Eocene, Germany, 8 morphotypes (Paleobiology Database, 2023), Randecker  
439 Maar, Miocene, Germany, one morphotype (Paleobiology Database, 2023).  
440 Among the non-brachycerans, non-biting midges (Chironomidae) include *Coelotanypus* sp. in  
441 Tanypodinae, two separate morphotypes in Chironominae and a further non-biting midge  
442 morphotype of uncertain identity. The only non-biting midge fossils previously reported from  
443 New Zealand are four adult specimens of *Bryophaenocladius* Thienemann (Orthocladiinae) from  
444 late Oligocene amber (Schmidt et al., 2018). Phantom midges (Chaoboridae) are represented by a  
445 pupal morphotype congeneric or closely related to the widespread and speciose extant group  
446 *Chaoborus*. These pupae are the first fossil record of phantom midges from New Zealand.  
447 Intriguingly, phantom midges are absent in the extant fauna of New Zealand (see below). Adult  
448 life stages of non-biting and phantom midges have not yet been found in the Foulden Maar  
449 diatomite. The presence of immature aquatic brachycerans in the Foulden Maar paleo-lake is  
450 documented by eight larvae and puparia of uncertain systematic position. Rare isolated wings of  
451 adult brachyceran flies (either representatives of Muscidae or Acalyptrata) have previously been  
452 reported from the fossil site (Kaulfuss et al., 2015), but affiliation of these with any of the  
453 immature aquatic specimens cannot be established due to incomplete preservation.  
454 The comparatively small sample of identifiable insects (n=253) from Foulden Maar includes a  
455 relatively high proportion of immature aquatic dipterans (16%), suggesting that these life stages  
456 were a common component in this limnic paleo-ecosystem. Of these, non-biting pupae are most  
457 common (63% of immature dipterans), followed by the brachyceran-type (20%) and by phantom  
458 midge pupae/larvae (17%). Together with other Crustaceans forms, they likely provided a food  
459 source for fish, in particular for *Galaxias effusus*, which is commonly found as larvae, juvenile  
460 and adult specimens in the diatomite (Lee, McDowall & Lindqvist, 2007; Kaulfuss et al., 2020).  
461 The most common type of coprolite at Foulden Maar is most likely derived from *Galaxias*  
462 *effusus* and consists of mineral grains, plant material and common euarthropodan fragments  
463 (Kaulfuss, 2013). The latter are yet to be studied in detail and it is currently not known if non-  
464 biting or phantom midge remains are present in these coprolites. In any case, the occurrence of  
465 euarthropodan remains in these coprolites conforms to a diet of aquatic and terrestrial insects  
466 observed in most extant *Galaxias* species in New Zealand (McDowall, 2010). Immature  
467 dipterans are also commonly preyed on by various groups of aquatic eurthropodan aimals such as

468 water mites, dragonflies and damselflies larvae, aquatic bugs and beetles (e.g. Armitage,  
469 Cranston & Pinder, 1995; Martin & Gerecke 2009; Ferrington, 2008; Klecka & Boukal, 2012).  
470 Although this probably was the case in the Foulden Maar lake, the available fossil data are  
471 insufficient for establishing specific predator-prey relations.  
472 Assuming the ecology of the Chaoboridae midges from Foulden Maar concurs with that of extant  
473 relatives (e.g. Macdonald, 1956; Rudstam, 2009; Hare & Carter, 1986), its larvae may have been  
474 abundant in the pelagic and littoral zones of the maar lake, feeding on small eucrustaceans (e.g.  
475 of the groups Copepoda and Cladocera), benthic organisms and dipteran and other insect larvae,  
476 and possibly also ingesting readily available phytoplankton. As in extant species of *Chaoborus*,  
477 late stage larvae (3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> instar), probably exhibited diurnal vertical migration, preying in the  
478 epilimnion at night and migrating into deeper, oxygen-depleted zones of the monimolimnion or  
479 sediment to avoid fish predators during day (Macdonald, 1956; Hare & Carter, 1986).

480

481 Chironominae morphotype 2 is closely resembling larvae of the extant species of *Chironomus*  
482 and probably had a similar ecology, inhabiting soft sediments and relying on acquisition of food  
483 by bioirrigation, pumping water containing organic particles through their burrows in the  
484 sediment (Hamburger, Dall & Lindegaard, 1994). Tanypodinae is represented at Foulden Maar  
485 by specimens of the group *Coelotanypus*. Extant representatives inhabit fine-grained sediments,  
486 where they rely heavily on bioirrigation for food acquisition (Boesel, 1974; Matisoff & Wang,  
487 1998). The larvae also prey on other bioirrigating animals, such as worms of the group  
488 Tubificidae (Soster & McCall, 1989) and are capable of utilising other sources such as  
489 suspended organic particles and detritus (Boesel, 1974; Matisoff & Wang, 1998).

490 The immature dipterans at Foulden Maar are primarily exuviae of pupae, left after eclosion of the  
491 adult, terrestrial stage. Pupae of both non-biting and phantom midges are short-lived, lasting only  
492 for several hours to several days, but are ecologically important in providing large amounts of  
493 organic matter in pulses to the higher order consumers in lakes and rivers (Lehmann et al., 1998;  
494 Wagner, Volkmann & Dettinger-Klemm, 2012).

495

## 496 **Biogeography**

497

498 *Chironomidae*

499 The major ingroups (“subfamilies”) of Chironomidae originated between the mid-Triassic and  
500 the early Cretaceous (Cranston, Hardy & Morse, 2012) when Zealandia was connected to the  
501 great Southern landmass of Gondwana. Morphology-based studies recognised trans-Antarctic  
502 relationships among Southern non-biting midges and argued for vicariance origin via break-up of  
503 Gondwana. For instance, Brundin (1965) detected an “old Antarctic element of Southern lands”  
504 for some groups of Southern temperate non-biting midges and suggested a Mesozoic orogenic  
505 belt corresponding to present New Zealand, Western Antarctica and Western Patagonia as centre  
506 of evolution. Divergence dates from phylogenetic studies correlate with a vicariance origin for  
507 some South American and Australian groups but indicate a more complex history for non-biting  
508 midges of New Zealand (Cranston et al., 2010; Krosch & Cranston, 2013; Krosch et al., 2017).  
509 Some nodes separating Australian and New Zealand Tanypodinae and other ingroups of  
510 Chironomidae have been dated at ca. 50 mya and are indicative of Eocene dispersal, possibly via  
511 an archipelago connection provided by the Lord Howe Rise and/or the Norfolk Ridge northwest  
512 of New Zealand (Krosch et al., 2017; Krosch & Cranston, 2013). These reconstructed ancestral  
513 nodes post-date the separation of New Zealand from Gondwana at ~80 mya but they pre-date the  
514 Oligocene “drowning”, a period of near-complete (or complete, according to some authors)  
515 submergence of the New Zealand landmass 25–23 mya (Cooper & Cooper, 1995; Mildenhall et  
516 al., 2014b; Kamp, Vincent & Tayler, 2015; Wallis & Jorge, 2018). The non-biting midge fauna  
517 described here from a 23 million-year-old freshwater lake is contemporaneous or slightly  
518 younger than the late Oligocene maximum marine transgression. Together with specimens of  
519 *Bryophaenocladius* reported from late Oligocene (Duntroonian, 27.3–25.2 my) New Zealand  
520 amber (Schmidt et al., 2018), they argue for the presence of freshwater habitats and associated  
521 non-biting faunas during near-complete Oligocene inundation.  
522 For the other non-biting midges, which could not be identified to a narrower range, from Foulden  
523 Maar it impossible to establish closer biogeographic relationships. The only non-biting midge in  
524 our study that could be identified to a more precise level is a representative of *Coelotanypus*  
525 (Tanypodinae). This is the first fossil record of *Coelotanypus* for the Australasian region and  
526 documents local post-early Miocene extinction, as *Coelotanypus* is not present in New Zealand  
527 today. Earliest representatives of Tanypodinae originated in the late Jurassic to earliest  
528 Cretaceous, followed by divergence of further ingroups (“tribes”) during the Cretaceous (Krosch  
529 et al., 2017). Most extant species of *Coelotanypus* occur in America and two disjunct species are

530 known from South Africa and Australia, respectively (Roback, 1974). Relationships among the  
531 American species suggest an origin and diversification of *Coelotanypus* in the region of South  
532 America, followed by dispersal into Central America and the Caribbean and, relatively recently,  
533 into North America (Roback, 1974). No species of *Coelotanypus* are known from the Palearctic  
534 and Oriental regions. The known distribution is compatible with ancient southern vicariance and  
535 the find of *Coelotanypus* in the early Miocene of New Zealand further supports such an origin.  
536 However, our knowledge of *Coelotanypus* in South America is only fragmentary (Roback, 1974)  
537 and zoogeographical studies have suggested that species of *Coelotanypus* may eventually be  
538 discovered in the Palearctic and Oriental realms and other insufficiently sampled regions,  
539 perhaps even worldwide (Ashe, Murray & Reiss, 1987). The only other fossil records of  
540 *Coelotanypus* are from Oise amber (Doitneau & Nel, 2007) and Baltic amber (Seredszus &  
541 Wichard, 2007, 2010), and these indicate a palearctic distribution in the Eocene and a complex  
542 biogeographic history of *Coelotanypus*.

543

#### 544 *Chaoboridae*

545 Previously, *Corethrella novaezealandiae* Tonnoir, 1927 had been reported as the sole phantom  
546 midge from New Zealand, but this species is now generally accepted as a representative of  
547 Corethrellidae (frog biting midges; = sister group to Chaoboridae + Culicidae) (Wood &  
548 Borkent, 1989). Despite their (otherwise) cosmopolitan distribution no phantom midges are  
549 present in the New Zealand (Chapman & Green, 1987; Borkent, 2014). The neighbouring  
550 landmass of Australia has a small, but distinct fauna of Chaoboridae with seven extant species  
551 (Colless, 1986; Borkent, 2014) and fossil records from the Early Cretaceous and the Miocene  
552 (Jell & Duncan, 1986; McCurry et al., 2022).

553 Chaoboridae is an ancient group of Diptera with the oldest record dating back to the Triassic  
554 (Ladinian–Carnian, Madygen Formation in Kyrgyzstan; Lukashevich, 2022). Chaoboridae has a  
555 rich fossil record, including some of 41 species, which is almost exclusively from the Holarctic  
556 realm and suggests an East Asian origin of the group (Kalugina & Kovalev, 1985; Ogawa, 2007;  
557 Borkent, 2014). More complete fossil material of the *Chaoborus*-like fossils from Foulden Maar  
558 is needed for detecting possible relationships to other, extant or extinct species. For now, these  
559 fossils demonstrate that phantom midges were present in New Zealand freshwater habitats by the  
560 earliest Miocene. Yet, it is unclear whether this reflects an ancient vicariance origin or pre-

561 Miocene arrival from Australia or elsewhere. Likewise, there is no clear indication for a possible  
562 cause of the post-early Miocene extinction of phantom midges in New Zealand. Phantom midges  
563 are generally very adaptable animals with larvae successfully developing in a broad range of  
564 stagnant and slowly flowing water bodies, of which there is currently no lack in New Zealand  
565 (Colless, 1983, 1986; Chapman & Green, 1987) and very likely has not been since at least the  
566 Eocene and probably since its separation from Gondwana in the Cretaceous (Buckley, Krosch &  
567 Leschen, 2015, and references therein on pp. 7–8). It stands to reason that there is a great  
568 potential for phantom midges to thrive in aquatic habitats of New Zealand, and their absence  
569 from the region cannot be explained by a lack of suitable habitats. This record of the  
570 Chaoboridae from the modern New Zealand fauna is certainly extremely important for the  
571 critical re-evaluation of the submerged vs non-submerged New Zealand hypothesis.

572

### 573 **Taphonomy**

574 Immatures of the groups Chironomidae and Chaoboridae may be common in Mesozoic and  
575 Cenozoic lacustrine settings, concurring with their aquatic lifestyle (e.g. Sinichenkova &  
576 Zherikhin, 1996; Johnston & Borkent, 1998; Baranov et al., 2022b; McCurry et al., 2022).  
577 However, in Cenozoic maar lakes with well-documented insect faunas (>4000 studied  
578 specimens) immature aquatic midges (and other groups of aquatic insects) are typically absent,  
579 or only present in small numbers. This has been attributed to supposed unfavourable limnic  
580 conditions in these small but deep lakes or taphonomic biases, which favour the preservation of  
581 larger and more compact adult insects in the profundal sediments that are usually excavated for  
582 fossils (Lutz, 1991, 1997; Wedmann, 2000; Wedmann, Poschmann & Hörschemeyer, 2010;  
583 Wedmann et al., 2018; Wappler, 2003). At the Eocene Eckfeld Maar, for instance, the study of  
584 ~4600 insects yielded only two pupae and several larval cases of Chironomidae, and no  
585 chaoborid midges were found (Wappler, 2003). No aquatic stages of non-biting or phantom  
586 midges were reported from the rich insect faunas of the Oligocene Enspel Maar (Wedmann,  
587 Poschmann & Hörschemeyer, 2010) and the Paleocene maar of Menat (Wedmann et al., 2018).  
588 Immature non-biting or phantom midges body fossils are also absent in the ‘oilshales’ of the  
589 Messel Maar, although their remains are frequently encountered in fish coprolites, indicating  
590 ecologically important populations in this Eocene maar lake (Richter & Baszio, 2001; Richter &  
591 Wedmann, 2005; Wedmann & Richter, 2007). Exceptions appear to be the Miocene maar lakes

592 at Öhningen and Randeck, where aquatic insects including immature Diptera have been reported  
593 as being relatively common (Heer, 1865; Joachim, 2010).

594 At Foulden Maar, the proportion of immature aquatic dipterans is comparatively high, which  
595 may reflect preferential conditions for the preservation of small aquatic insects in this Miocene  
596 lake. Several taphonomic studies have highlighted the role of diatom mats in the exceptional  
597 preservation of fossil biotas (Harding & Chant, 2000; O'Brien, Meyer & Harding, 2008; Iniesto  
598 et al., 2016; Olcott et al., 2022). Diatomaceous microbial mats may facilitate fossilisation by  
599 entrapping and transporting macrobiota through the water column quickly and by stabilising the  
600 sediment surface on the sea/lake floor (Harding & Chant, 2000; Olcott et al., 2022).

601 Additionally, extracellular polymeric substances secreted by diatomaceous mats may form a  
602 chemical microenvironment (microbial sarcophagus) that enables fossilisation by delaying decay  
603 and inducing biomimicry of euarthropods, vertebrates and plants (Iniesto et al., 2016;  
604 O'Brien, Meyer & Harding, 2008; Olcott et al., 2022). At Foulden Maar, all euarthropodan  
605 fossils are preserved in laterally continuous, light-coloured laminae essentially composed of  
606 siliceous diatom frustules. The dominating species is *Encyonema jordaniforme* Krammer, 1997,  
607 a pennate and likely mucilaginous diatom that flourished in the upper water column of lake  
608 Foulden and formed annual diatom blooms over the lake's estimated life span of 130.000 years  
609 (Harper et al., 2019). Centric diatoms are present as minor constituents in the lake sediment  
610 (Kaulfuss, 2017). Although taphonomic processes for the Foulden Maar biota are yet to be  
611 studied in detail, it is likely that diatomaceous mats essentially composed of *E. jordaniforme*  
612 might have provided a taphonomic pathway for the preservation of small aquatic larvae/pupae  
613 and other macrobiota in the diatomite.

614 Sediment colour might also have an impact on the apparent proportion of aquatic dipterans and  
615 other small euarthropods in fossil deposits. The Cenozoic maars at Eckfeld, Messel, Enspel and  
616 Menat, where immature non-biting or phantom midges are absent or rare, are primarily made of  
617 dark, organic-rich clay and mudstones, which makes spotting small fossils of similarly dark  
618 colour difficult. For Messel Maar, Wedmann & Richter (2007) argued that phantom midge  
619 larvae are likely present in the sediment, but their weakly sclerotised, translucent body cannot be  
620 seen in the organic shales. At Foulden Maar, the light-coloured (white to beige) diatomaceous  
621 laminae exhibit a pronounced colour contrast to embedded, typically brown or black fossil  
622 organisms. This contrast likely facilitates spotting of small euarthropods such as dipteran pupae

623 in the field, and it might be one factor for the relatively high abundance of aquatic dipterans  
624 relative to most other maar-type Lagerstätten. The other two other Cenozoic maar lakes with a  
625 relatively high abundance of immature aquatic Diptera also consist of or at least include light-  
626 coloured lithologies. At the mid-Miocene Öhningen Maar, many insects were recovered from  
627 white limestones (“Weißer Schieferstein”) and light-grey marlstones (“Kesselstein”) (Rasser et  
628 al., 2023). Similarly, the main insect-bearing lithologies with immature aquatic dipterans at the  
629 mid-Miocene Randecker Maar appear to be calcareous and marly laminites and limestones of  
630 lighter colour (Westphal, 1963; Joachim 2010; Rasser et al., 2013).

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## 634 **Conclusions**

635 Our study of immature aquatic dipterans from the Foulden Maar provides new data on the fossil  
636 history of aquatic dipterans on the isolated landmass of New Zealand. From a earliest Miocene  
637 (~23 ma) lacustrine deposit, we identified several larval morphotypes of flies, including non-  
638 biting midges (of the ingroups Chironominae and Tanypodinae (*Coelotanypus*)) and phantom-  
639 midges (Chaoboridae) as well as several putative pre-imaginal morphotypes of Brachycera.  
640 Although widely distributed elsewhere, the groups *Coelotanypus* and Chaoboridae have no  
641 extant representatives in New Zealand today, indicating that Neogene extinction of some  
642 ingroups of Diptera played a role in shaping the extant dipteran fauna in New Zealand. A relative  
643 high abundance of aquatic pupae is likely the result of taphonomic pathways provided by  
644 diatomaceous mats and, perhaps, of the light sediment colour, which facilitated spotting of small  
645 fossils such as Diptera pupae in the field. Overall the New Zealand fossil record of merolimnic  
646 and other dipterans is still poorly known.

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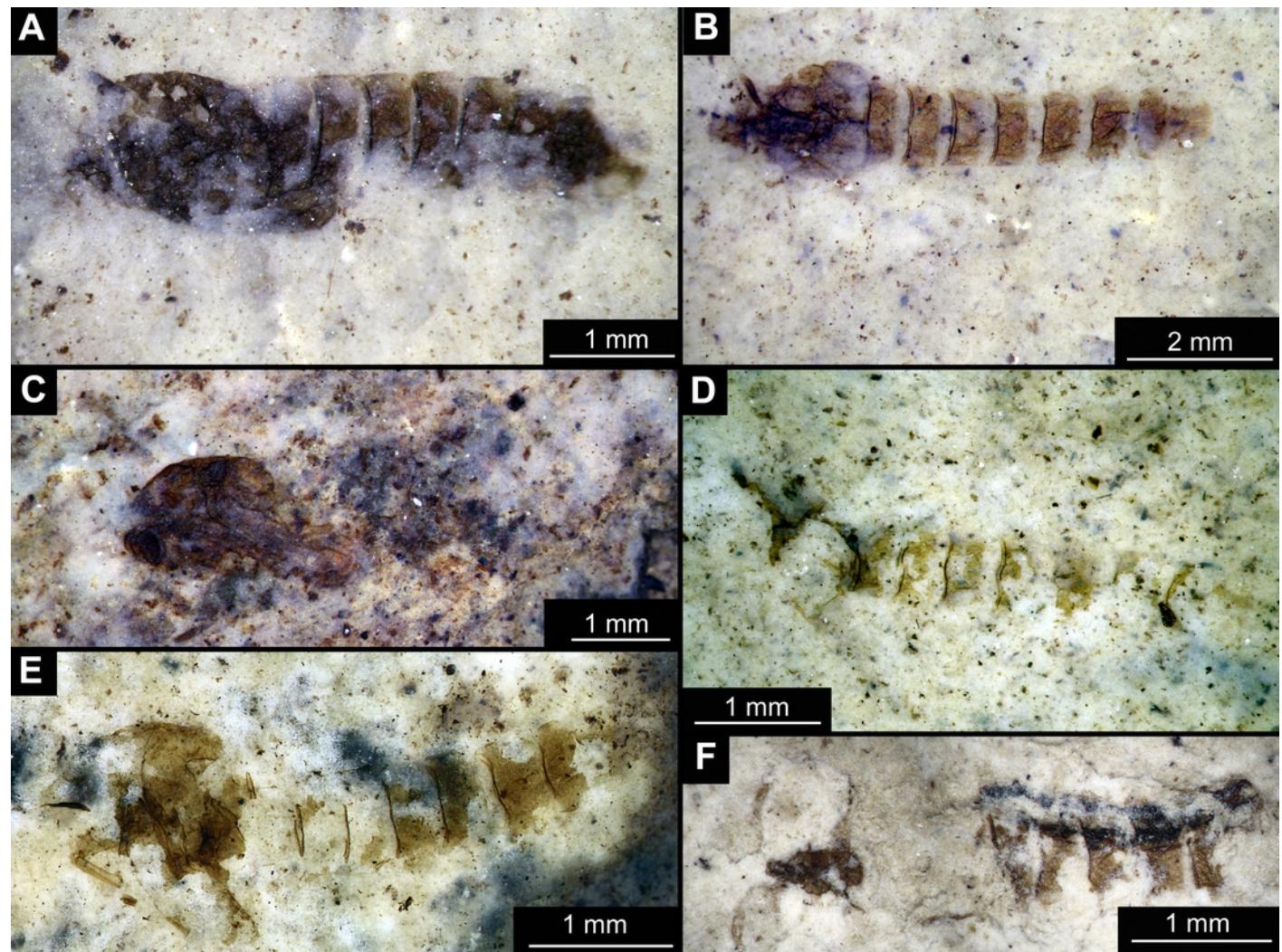
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# Figure 1

Figure 1: Habitus of representatives of pupae morphotype cf. *Coelotanypus* from Foulden Maar.

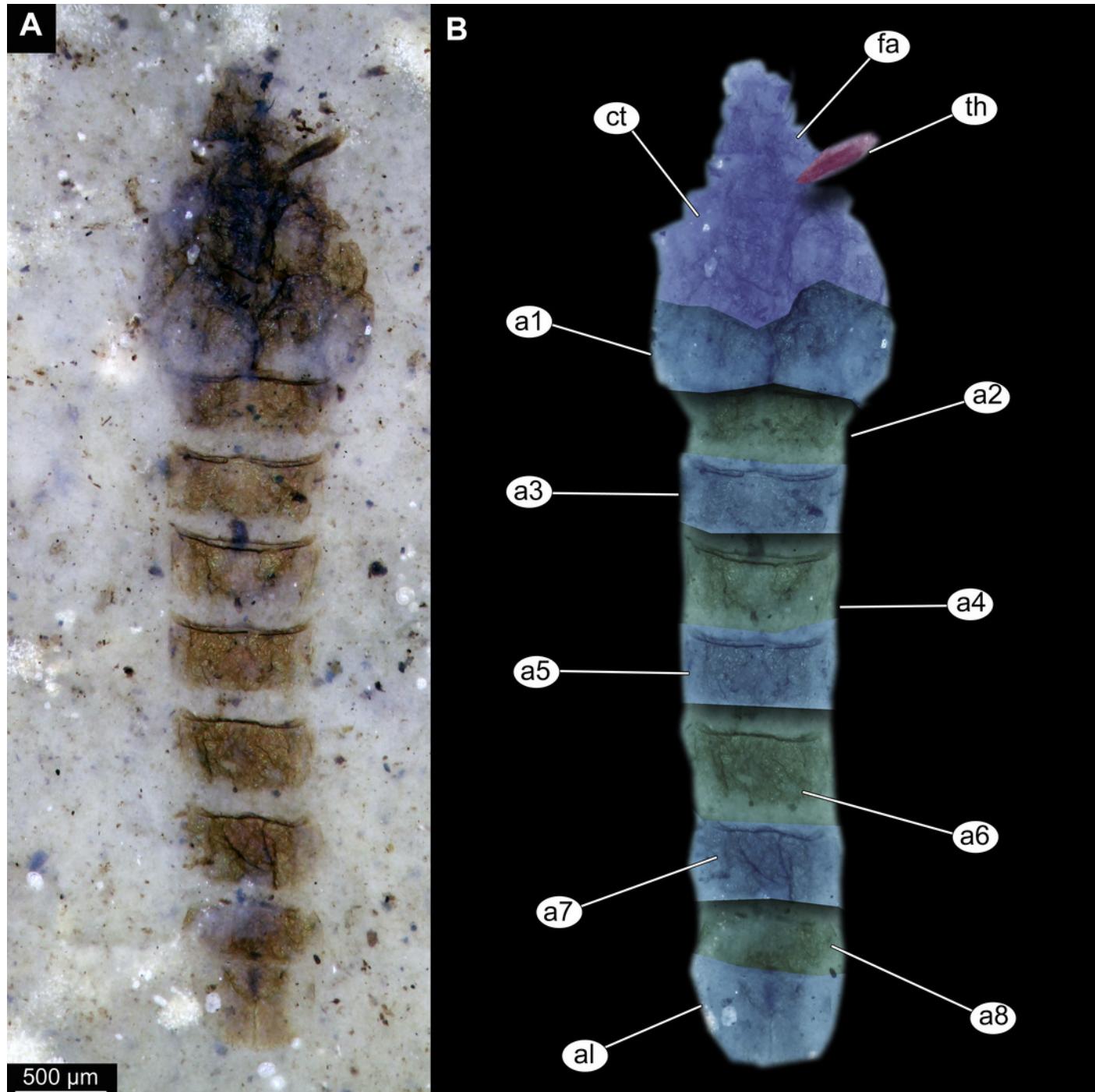
(A) Specimen OU46609 (191); (B) Specimen OU46626 (208); (C) Specimen OU46641 (223); (D) Specimen OU45541 (137); (E) Specimen OU44933 (28); (F) Specimen OU44930 (23).



## Figure 2

Figure 2: Pupae of morphotype cf. *Coelotanypus*, specimen OU46626 (208).

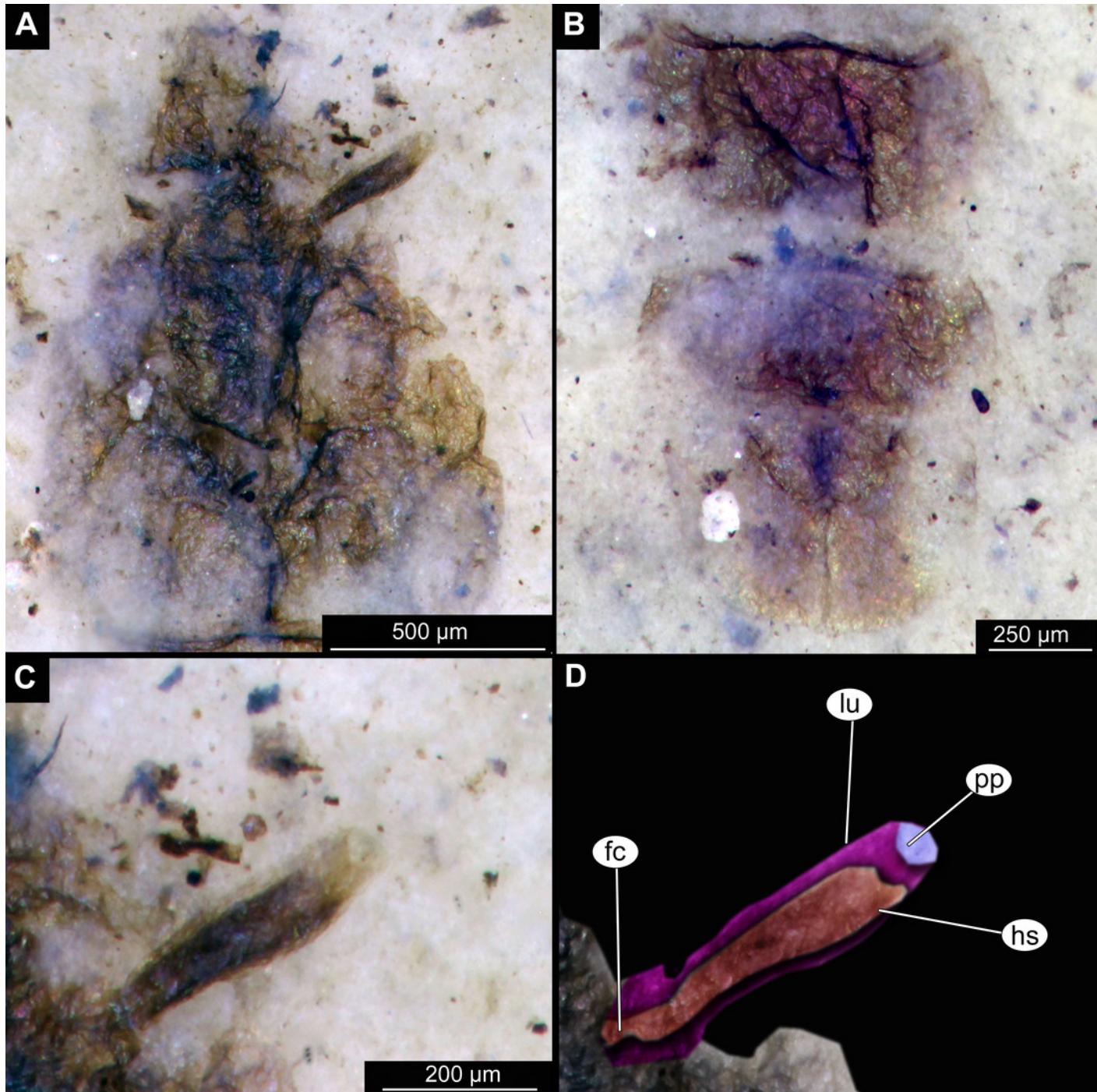
(A) Habitus, unmarked; (B) Habitus, marked. Abbreviations: *a1-a8*, abdominal units 1 through 8; *al*, anal lobes; *ct*, cephalothoracic cuticle (cuticle covering head and thorax); *fa*, frontal apotome; *th*, thoracic horn (respiratory organ).



## Figure 3

Figure 3: Pupae of morphotype cf. *Coelotanypus*, specimen OU46626 (208).

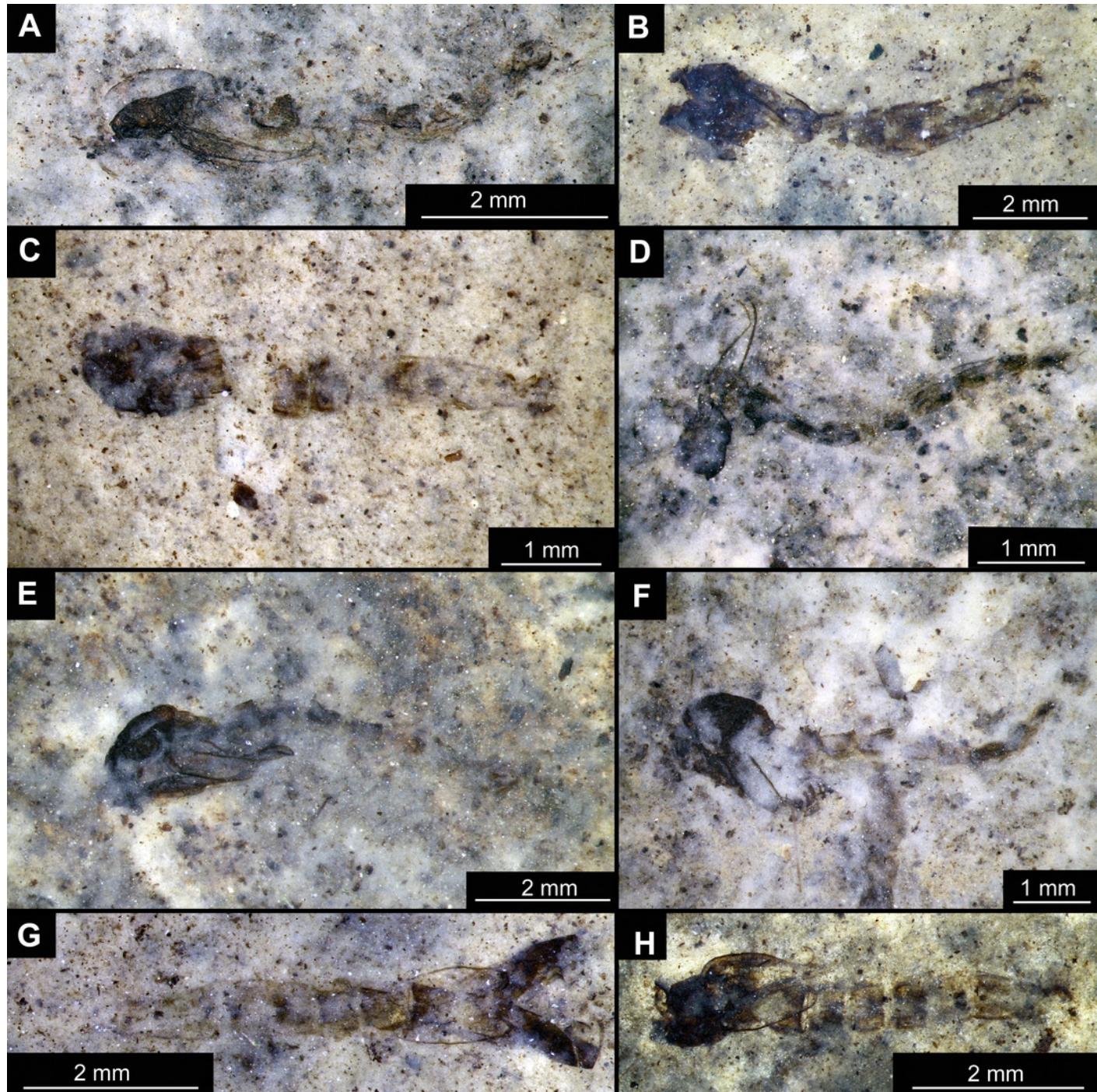
(A) Head and thorax; (B) Anal lobes; (C) Thoracic horn (respiratory organ), unmarked; (D) Thoracic horn, marked. Abbreviations: *fc*, felt chamber; *hs*, horn sack, *lu*, lumen of the horn; *pp*, plastron plate.



## Figure 4

Figure 4: Chironominae morphotype 1, pupal exuviae, habitus overview.

(A) Specimen OU45543 (139); (B) Specimen OU47058 (252); (C) Specimen OU45553 (149);  
(D) Specimen OU46645 (227); (E) Specimen OU46627 (209); (F) Specimen OU46620 (202);  
(G) Specimen OU46654 (236); (H) Specimen OU47051 (245).

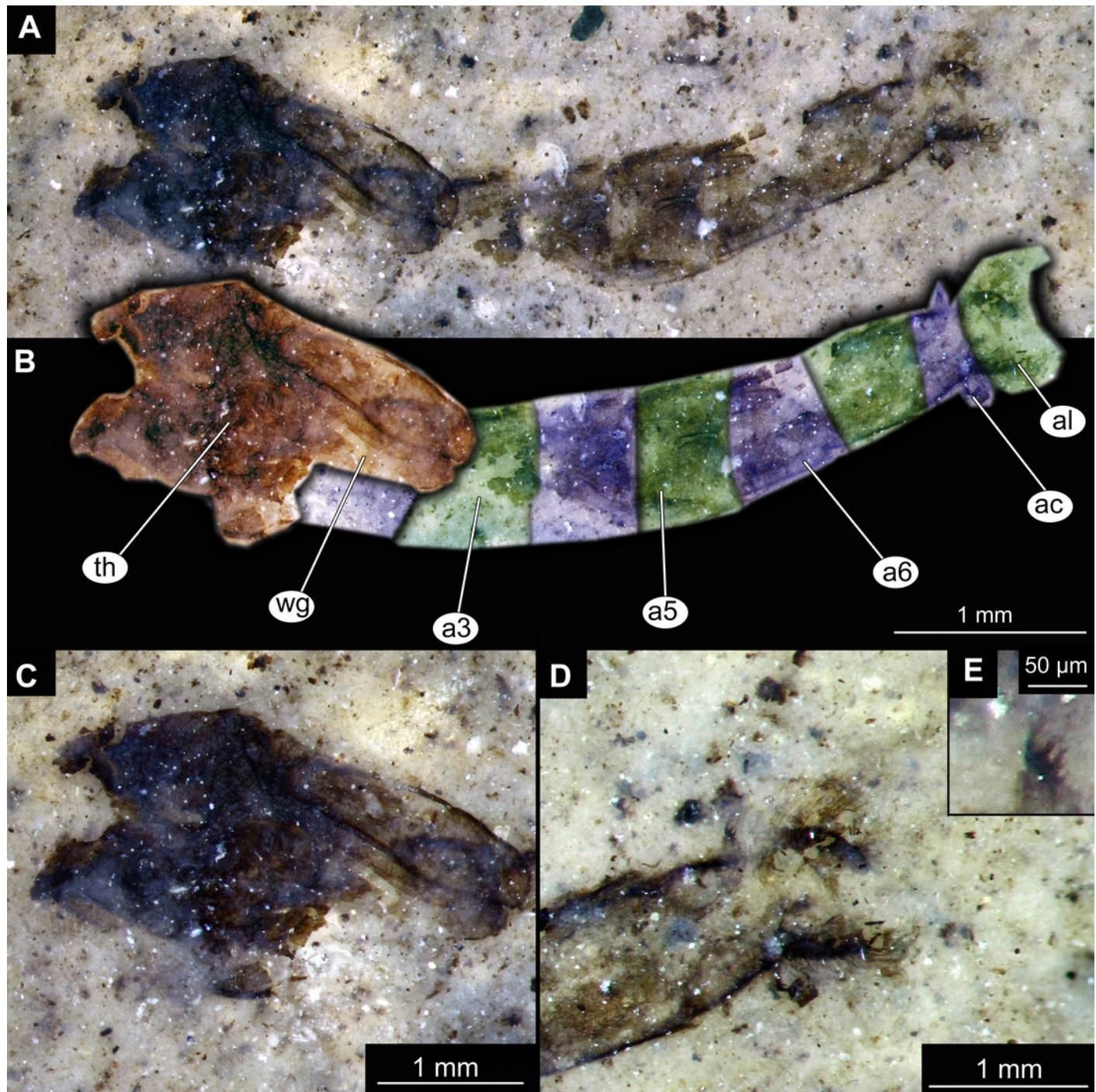


## Figure 5

Figure 5: Chironominae morphotype 1, specimen OU47058 (252), pupal exuvium.

(A) Habitus, unmarked; (B) Habitus, marked; (C) Cephalothoracic cuticle; (D) Anal lobes.

Abbreviations: *a3-a6*, abdominal units three through six; *ac*, anal comb; *al*, anal lobes; *th*, thorax; *wg*, wings.

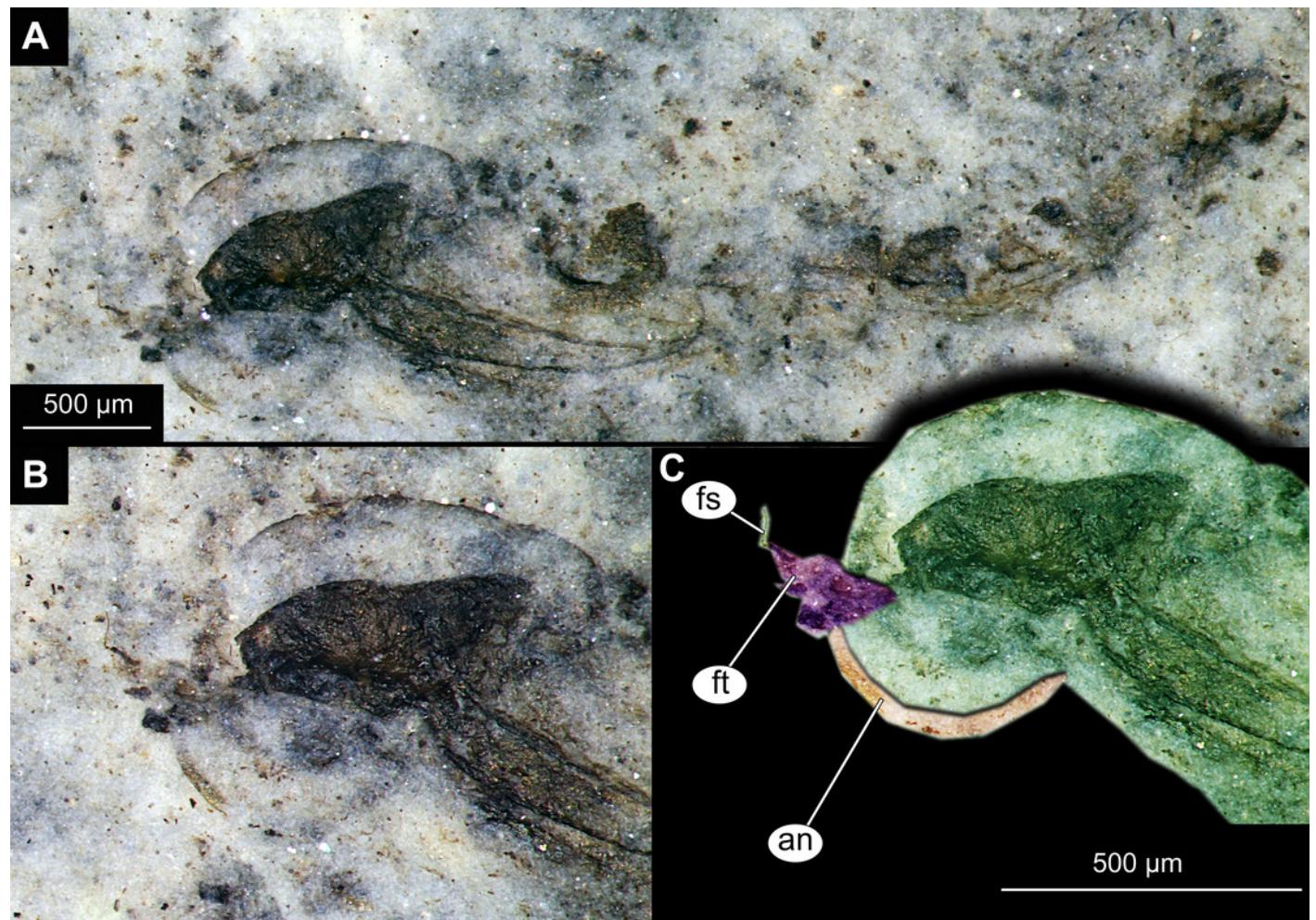


## Figure 6

Figure 6: Chironominae morphotype 1, specimen OU45543 (139), pupal exuvium.

(A) Habitus; (B) Cephalothoracic cuticle, unmarked; (C) Cephalothoracic cuticle, marked.

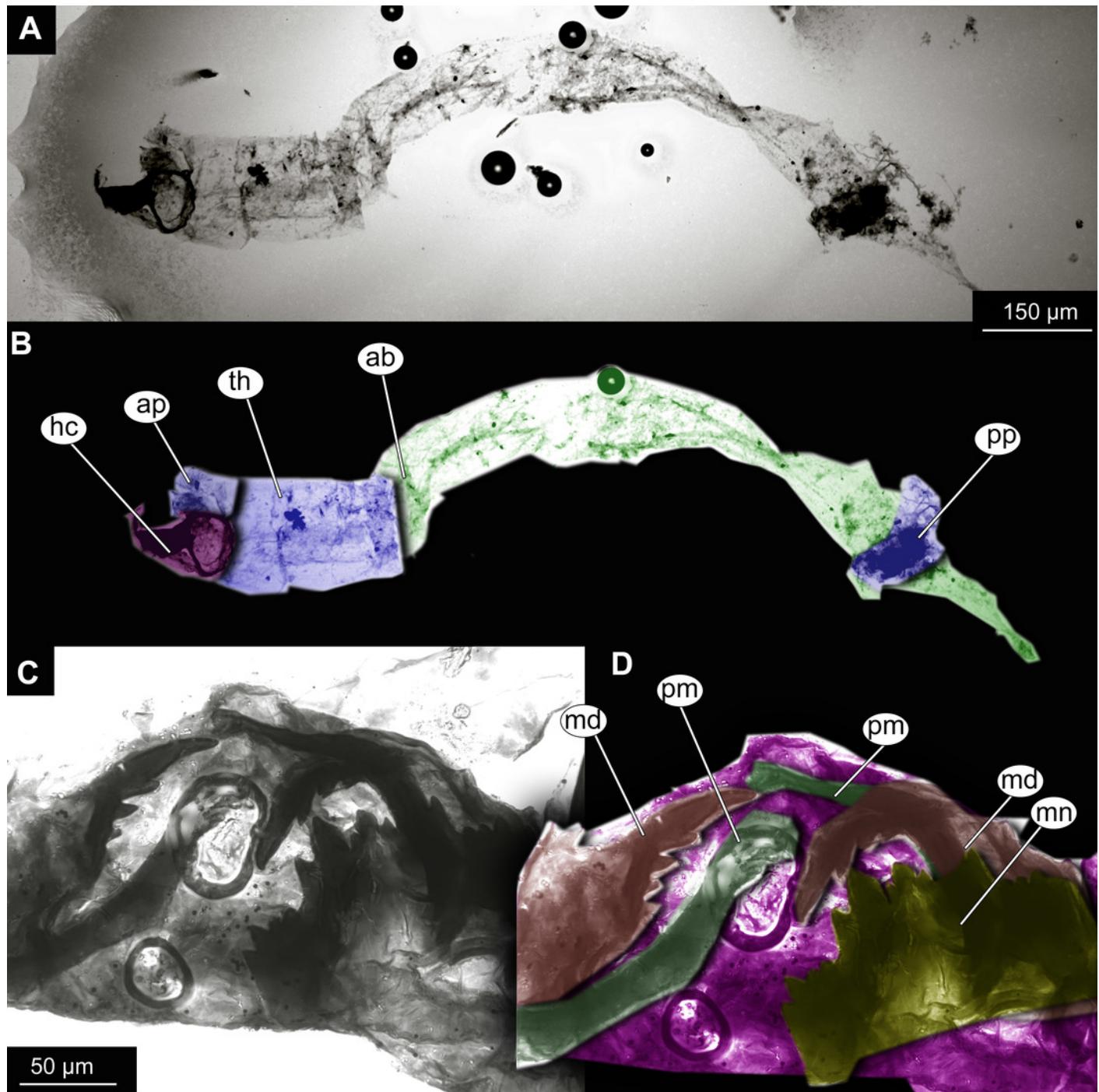
Abbreviations: *an*, antenna; *fs*, frontal setae.; *ft*, frontal tubercles.



## Figure 7

Figure 7: Larval cuticle of Chironominae morphotype 2, specimen OU47488 (268), extracted from the laminated diatomite.

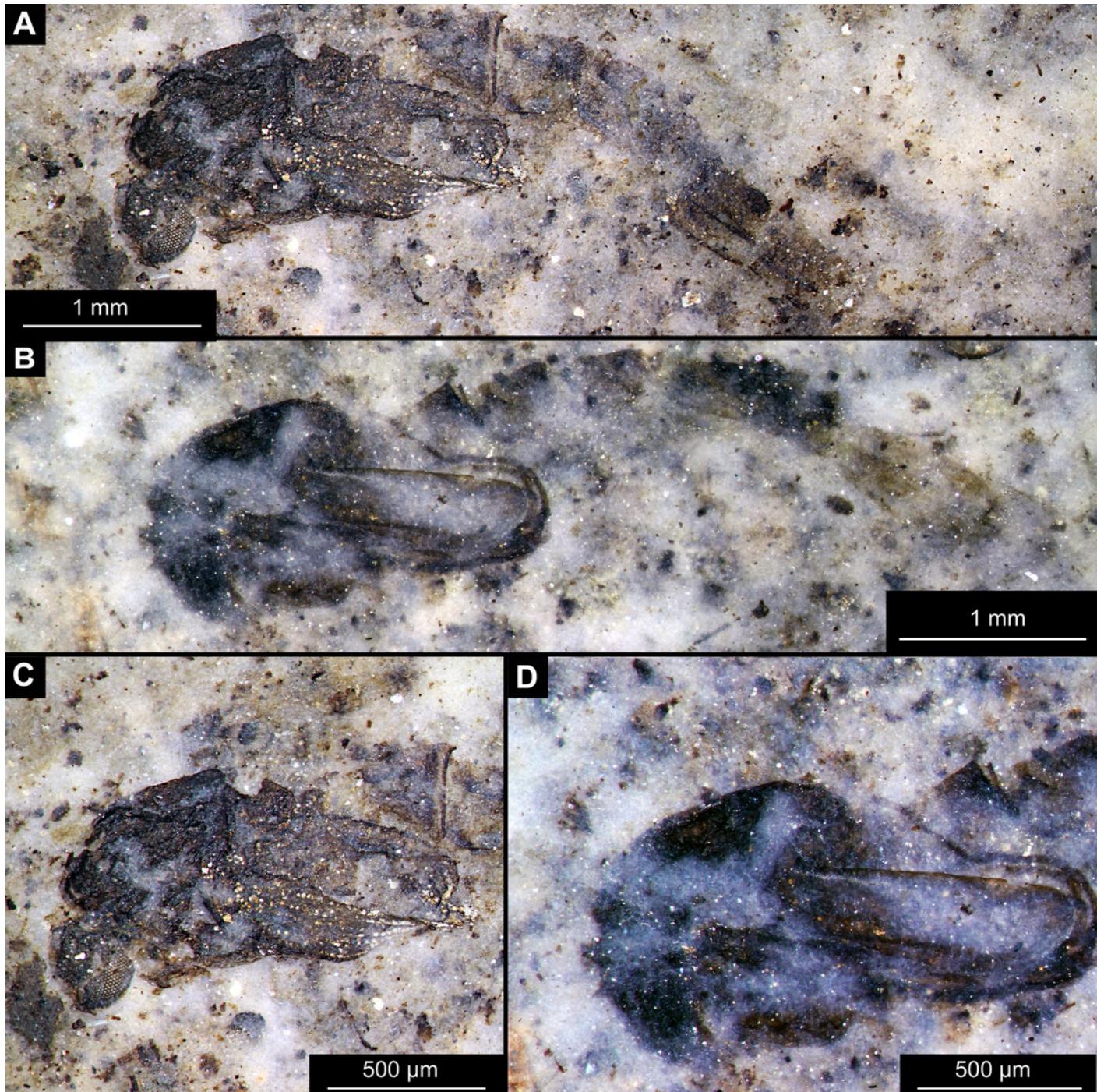
(A) Habitus, unmarked; (B) Habitus, marked; (C) Mouthparts, unmarked; (D) Mouthparts, marked. Abbreviations: *ap*, anterior parapods; *ab*, abdomen, *hc*, head capsule; *md*, mandible; *mn*, mentum; *pm*, premandibles; *pp*, posterior parapods; *th*, thorax.



## Figure 8

Figure 8: Chironomidae morphotype 1, pupae, habitus overview.

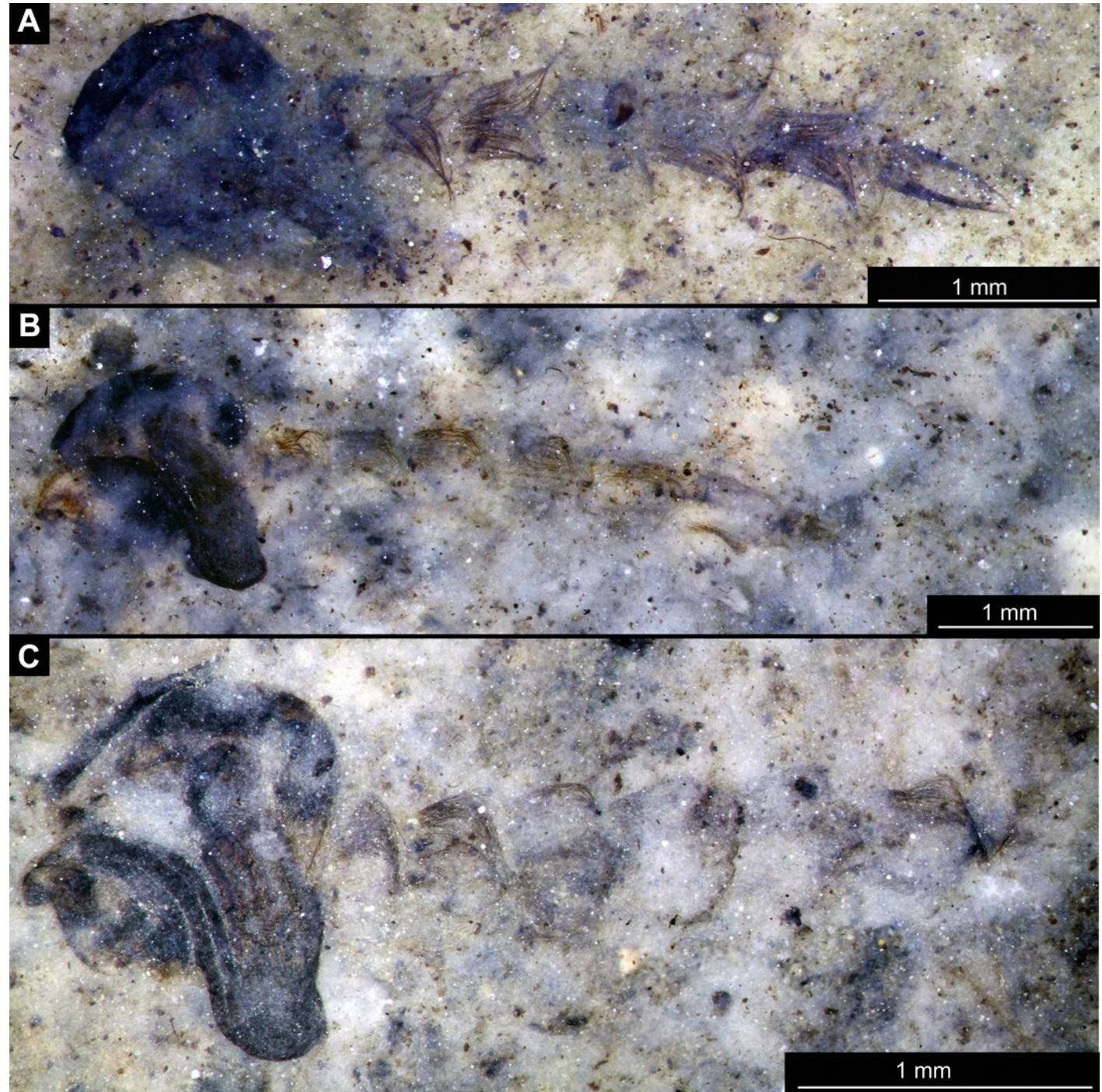
(A, C) Specimen OU45549 (145); (B, D) Specimen OU46608 (190). (A) Habitus; (B) Habitus; (C) Thorax and head; (D) Thorax and head.



## Figure 9

Figure 9: Chaoboridae morhoptype 1, pupae, habitus overview.

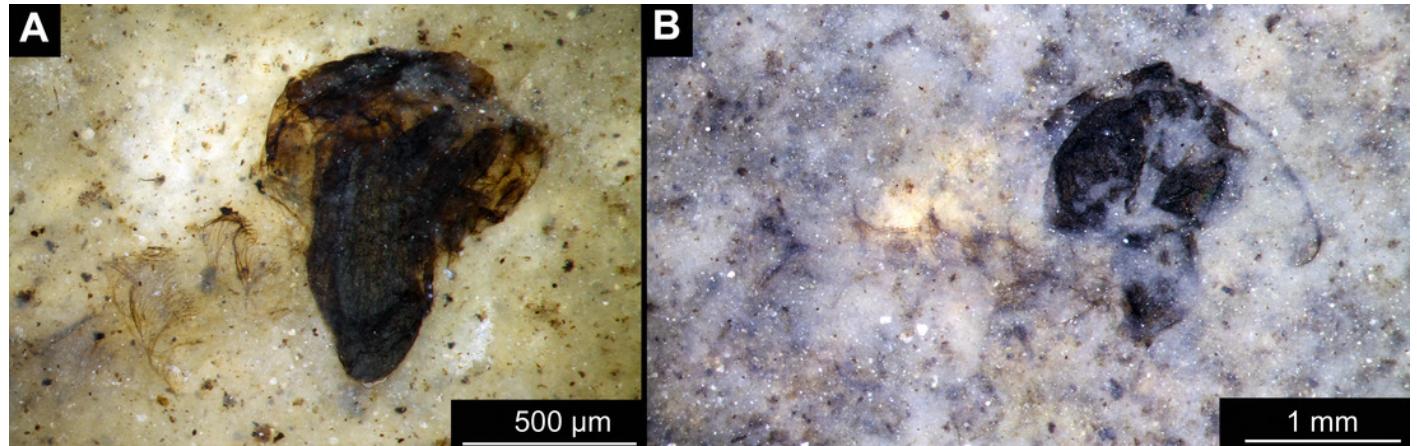
(A) Specimen OU46653 (235); (B) Specimen OU46651 (233); (C) Specimen OU46642 (224).



## Figure 10

Figure 10: Chaoboridae morphotype 1, pupae, habitus overview.

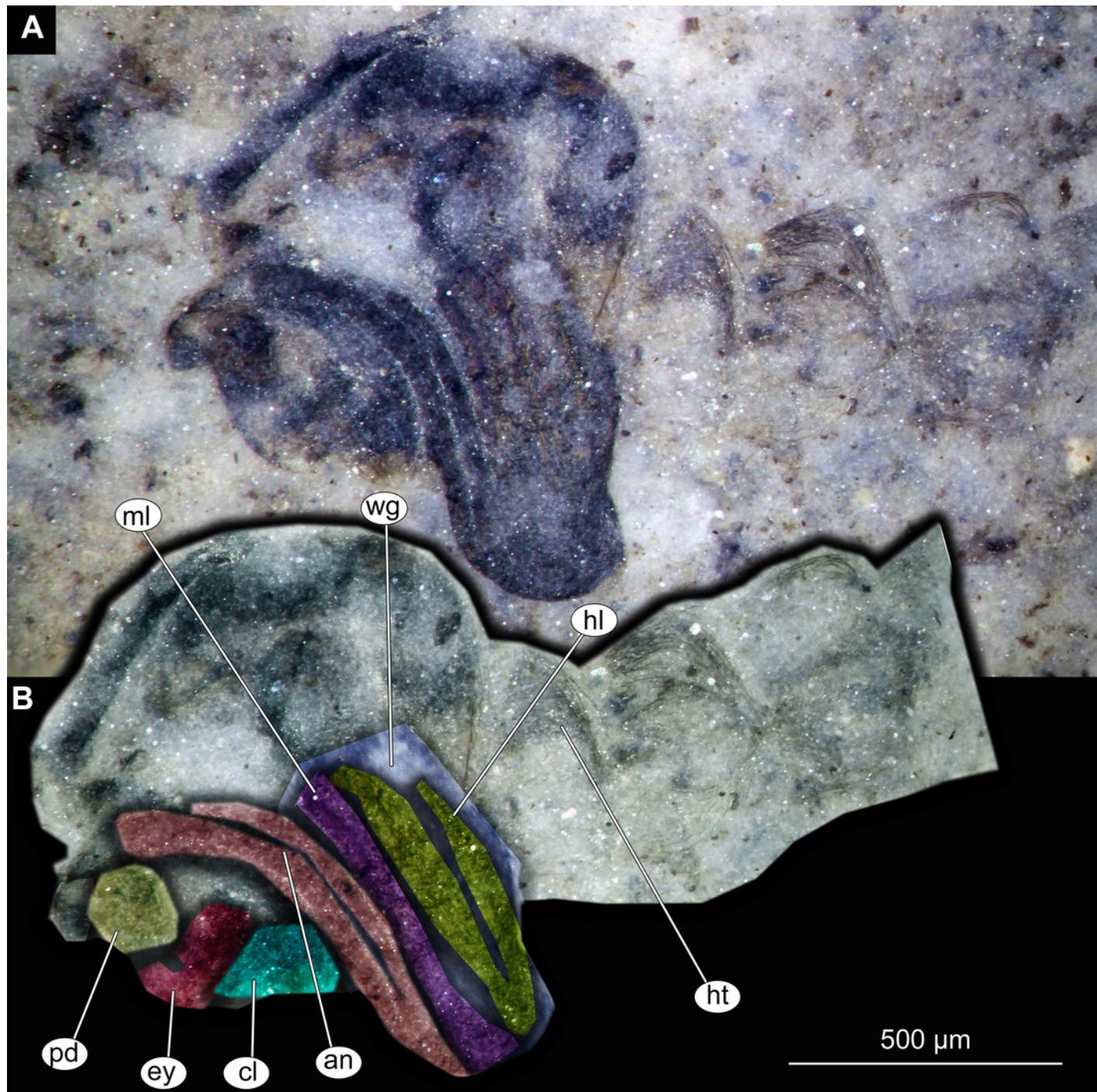
(A) Specimen OU47487 (163); (B) Specimen OU46631 (213).



## Figure 11

Figure 11: Thorax and head of Chaoboridae morphotype 1, specimen OU46642 (224).

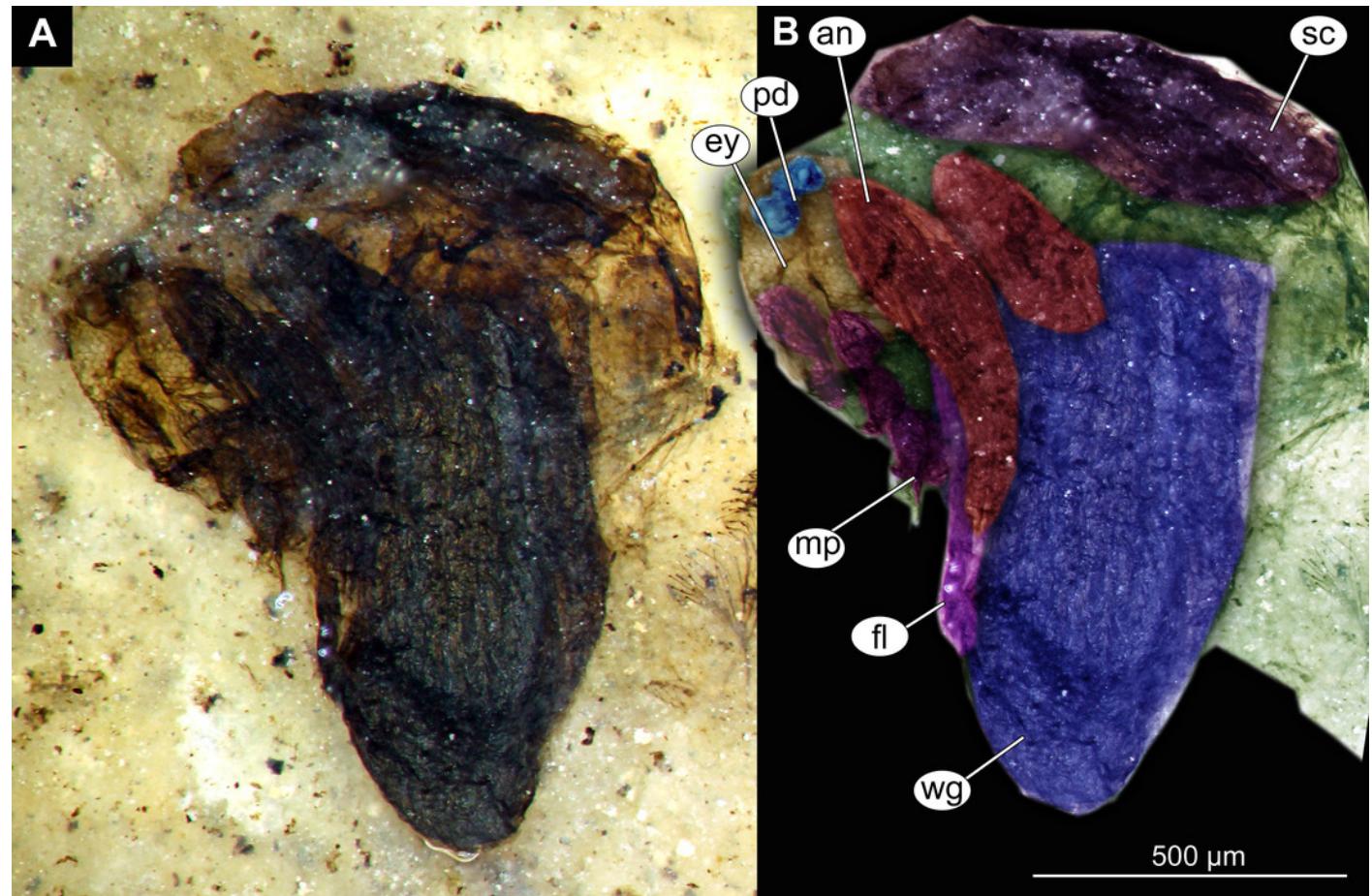
(A) Thorax and head, unmarked; (B) Thorax and head, marked. Abbreviation: *an*, antenna; *cl*, clypeus; *ey*, eye; *hl*, hind leg; *ht*, hair tufts of abdomen; *ml*, mid leg; *pd*, pedicellus; *wg*, wing.



## Figure 12

Figure 12: Thorax and head of Chaoboridae morphotype 1, specimen OU47487 (163).

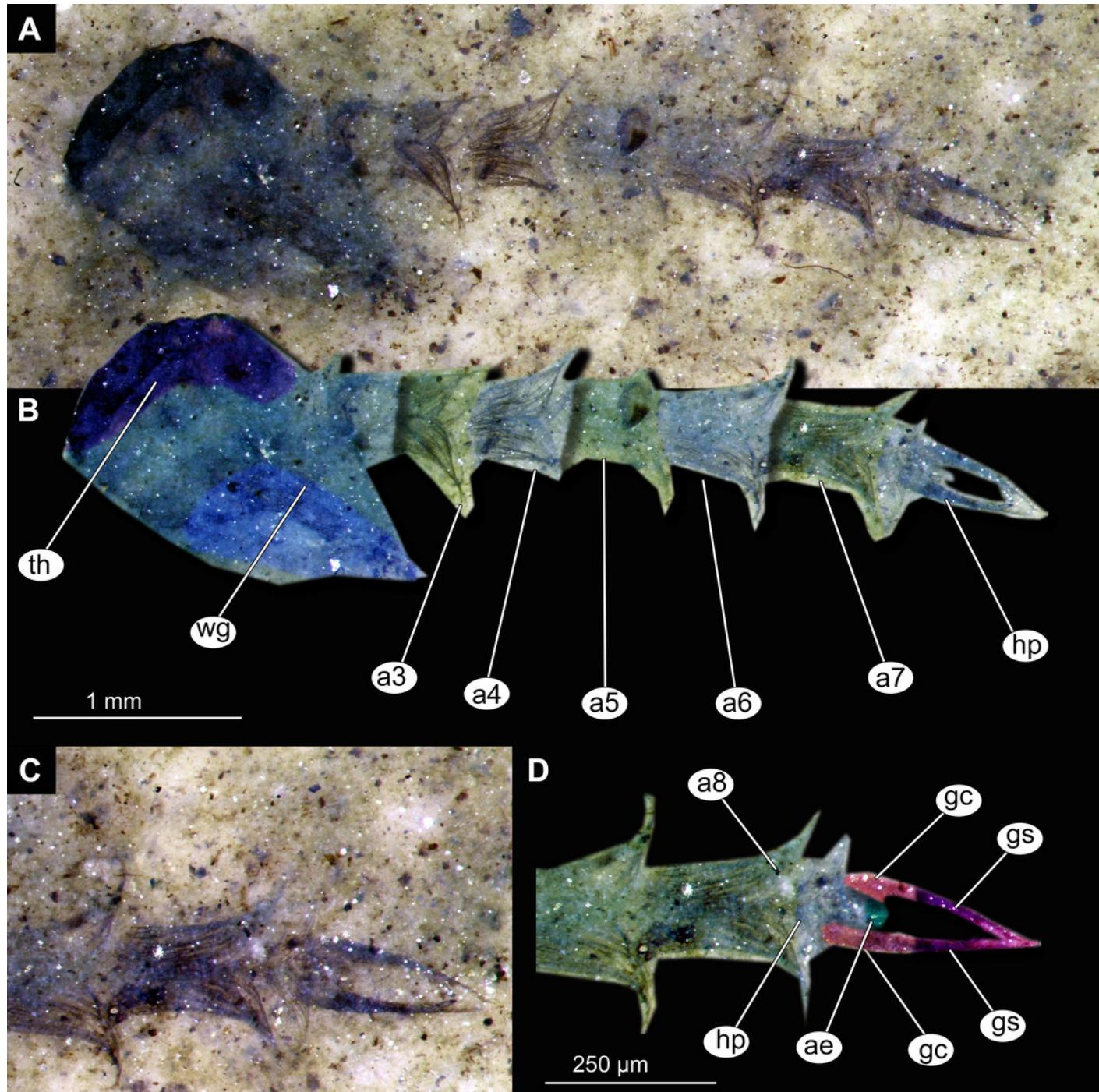
(A) Thorax and head, unmarked; (B) Thorax and head, marked. Abbreviation: *an*, antenna; *ey*, eye; *fl*, front leg, *mp*, maxilar palpi; *pd*, pedicellus; *sc*, scutellum; *wg*, wing.



## Figure 13

Figure 13: Chaoboridae morphotype 1, specimen OU46653 (235).

(A) Habitus, unmarked; (B) Habitus, marked; (C) Hypopigium visible through the cuticle, unmarked; (D) Hypopigium visible through the cuticle, marked. Abbreviations: *a3-a8*, abdominal units a3 through a8; *ae*, aedeagus of the hypopigium; *gc*, gonocoxite; *gs*, gonostylus; *hp*, hypopigium; *th*, thorax; *wg*, wing.



## Figure 14

Figure 14: Presumed brachyceran larvae and puparia from Foulden Maar.

(A) Specimen OU44996 (105); (B) Specimen OU44982 (91); (C) Specimen OU46644 (226); (D) Specimen OU46652 (234); (E) Specimen OU45559 (155); (F) Specimen OU44981 (90); (G) Specimen OU44944 (43); (H) Specimen OU46655 (237).

