



1 **Orbital-scale climate dynamics impacts on Gzhelian peatland wildfire activity in**
2 **the Ordos Basin**

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14 **Abstract**

15 The Carboniferous, an important coal-forming period in geological history, was characterized
16 by extensive vegetation and high oxygen levels. Numerous wildfire evidence suggests that high
17 frequency of wildfire occurred at that time, specifically in peatlands. However, the control
18 mechanisms for changes in wildfire activity in peatlands during this period are still not clearly
19 understood. In this study, evidence from the Gzhelian in the Ordos Basin, such as the
20 inertinite/vitrinite (I/V) ratio, indicated the existence of different frequencies of wildfire activity at
21 that time. The CaO/MgO and CaO/MgO • Al₂O₃ climate indicators revealed that high-frequency
22 wildfires mainly occur in warm and humid climates. Based on former age constraints, we deduced
23 that orbital cycles (long eccentricity) controlled the climate influence on peatland wildfires during



24 the Gzhelian. When eccentricity was high, abundant sunshine and frequent rainfall led to warmer
25 and more humid peatlands. The latter environments were more favourable for vegetation
26 development, leading to increased fuel loads, which in turn led to more frequent wildfires.
27 Moreover, the Gzhelian global wildfire records, showed that evidence of wildfire during this period
28 was mainly located in areas with abundant tropical vegetation, supporting the view that wildfire
29 activity during this period was mainly controlled by the fuel loads. Although Hg could be produced
30 by peatland wildfires, but our results show that Hg was mainly from frequent volcanic activity
31 during this period.

32 **Keywords:** Wildfire; Inertinite; Gzhelian; Hg; Long eccentricity

33 **1. Introduction**

34 In recent years, information about wildfires preserved in coal seams has been exposed (Robson
35 et al., 2015; Hou et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022). The macerals in the pyrogenic inertinite (fossil
36 charcoal in coal), such as fusinite, semifusinite, and inertodetrinite, have been widely used as direct
37 evidence to demonstrate the occurrence of paleo-wildfires (Scott, 2010, 2022; Jasper et al., 2013;
38 Belcher and Hudspeth, 2017; Uhl et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2023). The Carboniferous through
39 Permian were important coal-forming periods in geologic history where large deposits of coal
40 developed (Berner, 2003). Although wildfires of the period have been somewhat summarized by
41 previous authors (e.g., Scott, 2000; Glasspool and Scott, 2010; Glasspool et al. 2015; Jasper et al.
42 2021), there is a dearth of high-resolution wildfire records from the period. Glasspool et al. (2015)
43 concluded from the analysis of the inertinite in coal that the frequency of wildfires during the Late
44 Paleozoic was mainly due to the higher oxygen content in the atmosphere at that time. However,
45 more detailed controlled factors for Carboniferous through Permian wildfires need to be improved.

46 Many researchers have found that changes in charcoal abundance in sediments indicate



47 changes in orbital cycle forcing climate change, which in turn influences wildfire activity (Verardo
48 and Ruddiman, 1996; Thevenon et al., 2004; Hao et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2022).
49 Daniau et al. (2013) found that the past 170 kyr of grassland wildfire activity in southern Africa has
50 been controlled by precession. Zhang et al. (2020a, 2023) found that wildfire activity during the
51 Early to Middle Jurassic was influenced by changes in long eccentricity (405 kyr) and the
52 precession cycle. The orbital period (eccentricity, obliquity, and precession) forces climate change,
53 thus affecting the amount and flammability of vegetation fuels to control wildfire activity (Zhou et
54 al., 2023). The study of whether wildfire activity in Carboniferous to Permian peatlands was
55 controlled by changes in orbital cycles is unclear. Late Carboniferous Gzhelian global wildfire
56 records indicate that the wildfire records were all distributed in tropical climate zones. Tropical
57 climate zones have abundant fuel accumulation and orbital cycle forcing wildfire activity may be
58 more pronounced (DiMichele, 2014).

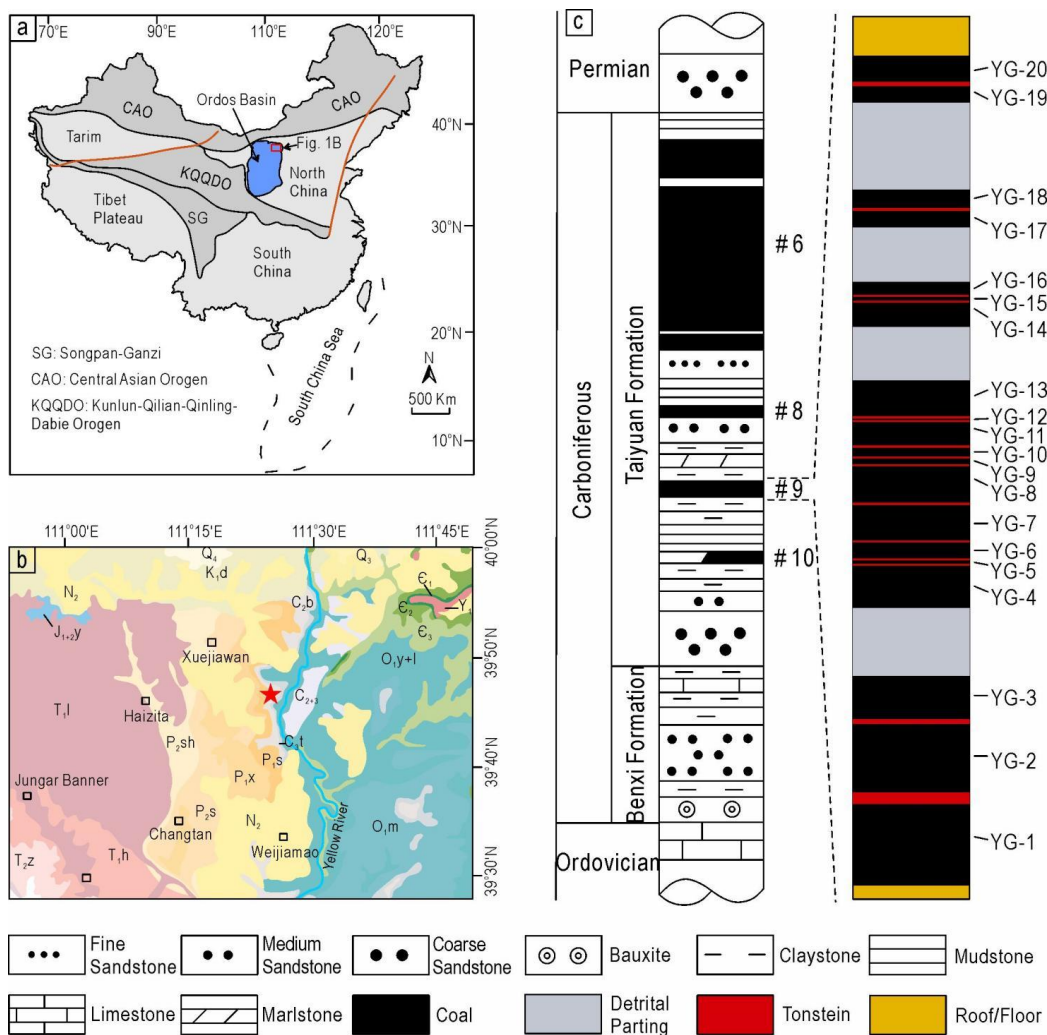
59 As the largest Late Carboniferous to Early Permian peat basin in China, the Ordos Basin
60 contained a large amount of coal seams, which were preserved with numerous volcanic ashes and
61 wildfire products in the coal seams (Wang, 2017; Xu et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2023; Zhang et al.,
62 2023a, 2023b). In this paper, the focus is on the No. 9 coal of the Yaogou Coal Mine in the Jungar
63 Coalfield of the Ordos torder to understand the occurrence of the Late Carboniferous wildfires and
64 the variation of burning temperatures. Employing the clear age constraints of the No.9 coal seam,
65 the possible role of long eccentricity orbital cycle changes in driving wildfires by means of wildfire
66 frequency and climate indicators at that time can be explored (Zhang et al., 2023a). Volcanic
67 activity, frequent wildfires, and other causes can lead to Hg enrichment, and this study also explores
68 the relationship between wildfire activity, volcanic activity, and Hg at that time, using changes in
69 Hg content in No. 9 coal.



70 **2. Geological setting**

71 The Ordos Basin, located at the western margin of the North China Craton, is the second
72 largest terrestrial sedimentary basin in China (Ao et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2023a). The Jungar
73 Coalfield is in the southwestern part of the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region of China and in the
74 northeastern part of the Ordos Basin, which contains about 26.8 Gt of coal reserves, which is one of
75 the richest coal reserves in northern China (Dai et al., 2006,2008,2012; Li et al., 2016). The
76 coalfield contains coal-bearing sequences of the Carboniferous and Permian systems (Wang et al.,
77 2011).

78 This study was conducted in the Yaogou Mine, in the northeastern part of the Jungar Coal
79 Field (Fig. 1b). The coal-bearing sequences in the Yaogou Mine include the Benxi Formation,
80 Taiyuan Formation, and Shanxi Formation, with a total thickness of 84~200 m (Zhang et al., 2023a).
81 The Benxi Formation, with a total thickness of 84~200 m (Zhang et al., 2023a), lies unconformably
82 on the Middle Ordovician Majiagou Formation, with a thickness of about 17~28 m. The Taiyuan
83 Formation is underlying by the Benxi Formation. The Taiyuan Formation, with a thickness of about
84 31-75 m (average 58 m), conformably overlies the Benxi Formation. The Taiyuan Formation
85 consists mainly of grey and gray-white quartz sandstone, siltstone, mudstone, and five coal beds
86 marked from top to base as No. 6 to No. 10 (Fig. 1c) (Zhang et al., 2023a). Zhang et al. (2023a)
87 determined by U-Pb zircon from altered volcanic ashes at the top and bottom of No. 9 coal that the
88 Taiyuan Formation in this study area belongs to the Gzhelian stage of the Late Pennsylvanian. The
89 Shanxi Formation with a thickness of about 35-97 m is mainly terrigenous coal-bearing clastic
90 rocks, dominated by sandstones and coal seams (Zhang et al., 2023a).



91
 92 **Fig. 1** Comprehensive geologic map of the Yaogou coal mine in the Ordos Basin, northern China. (a) Map
 93 showing the location of the Ordos Basin and the study area. (b) Geologic map of the study area showing the
 94 location of the study area (red stars). (c) Sedimentary sequence of the Jungar Coal Field and columnar map of the
 95 No. 9 coal seam. The No. 9 coal occurs in the Taiyuan Formation. Q₄-Holocene, Q₃-Pleistocene, N₂-Pliocene,
 96 K_{1d}-Dongsheng Formation (Fm.), J_{1+2y}-Yan'an Fm., T_{2z}-Zhifang Fm., T_{1h}-Heshanggou Fm., T_{1l}-Liujiagou Fm.,
 97 P_{2sh}-Shiqianfeng Fm., P_{2s}-upper Shihezi Fm., P_{1x}-lower Shihezi Fm., P_{1s}-Shanxi Fm., C_{3t}-Taiyuan Fm.,
 98 C_{2b}-Benxi Fm., O_{1m}-Majiagou Fm., O_{1y+I}-Yeli and Liangjiashan Formations. Figure modified from Zhang et al.
 99 (2023a).



100 **3. Material and methods**

101 **3.1 Sampling**

102 In this study, a total of 20 coal samples were collected from the exposed face of the No. 9 coal
103 at the Yaogou Mine, with a cumulative thickness of the profile of about 6.1 m. To minimize
104 contamination and oxidation, the samples were all immediately stored in plastic bags. From bottom
105 to top, all coal samples were marked YG-1 to YG-20 (Fig. 1c).

106 **3.2 Analytical method**

107 The analytical methods used in this study to demonstrate wildfire characteristics included
108 petrographic analysis, coal rock micro component identification, fusinite reflectance measurements,
109 and scanning electron microscopy (SEM).

110 The collected fossil charcoal fragments were crushed to a < 20 top size and the crushed
111 samples were embedded in epoxy resins. The reflectance of the fusinite was measured by the oil
112 immersion at room temperature and determined using an MSP UV-VIS2000 spectrophotometer
113 (Petersen and Lindström, 2012; Xu et al., 2020). To estimate the wildfire burning temperatures
114 represented by the experimental samples, calculations were based on the correlation proposed by
115 previous works:

$$116 T=184.1+117.76\times\%R_o, \quad (1)$$

117 with R_o represents the reflectance of the inertinite (Jones, 1997; Petersen and Lindström, 2012).

118 Based on the model of oxygen content proposed by Glasspool (2010, 2015), the oxygen content in
119 the atmosphere was predicted for the period of this study:

$$120 I=(0.5-0.5\cos[\pi(O-O_{\min})/(O_{\max}-O_{\min})])^n, \quad (2)$$

121 with I as the average inertinite content, O as the oxygen content, O_{\max} as the oxygen content when
122 the inertinite content reached 100%, and O_{\min} as the oxygen content when was no inertinite.



123 The microstructure of fossilized charcoal samples was observed by SEM to make a clearer
124 observation of fossilized charcoal samples. The samples were observed under vacuum conditions
125 using a 10 kV accelerating voltage, standard beam light, and a secondary electron probe. All the
126 above experiments were completed at the Shandong Provincial Key Laboratory of Depositional
127 Mineralisation and Sedimentary Minerals, Shandong University of Science and Technology.

128 To determine the coal rock components, the coal samples taken were measured according to
129 the National Standard GB/T8899-2013. The reflectivity of the vitrinite group of the coal samples
130 was measured according to the National Standard GB/T 6948-2008. To improve the quantification
131 of charcoal abundance in each single sample, the ratio between inertinite maceral and vitrinite
132 macerals (I/V), was calculated to determine the frequency of wildfires (Zhang et al., 2022). All of
133 the latter experiments were completed in Xi'an Coal Science and Technology Ltd. All samples were
134 analyzed for Total Organic Carbon (TOC) according to the National Standard GB/T19145-2003. All
135 samples were analyzed for Hg concentration according to the National Standard GB/T
136 22105.1-2008. All above experiments were completed at the Beijing Qingchen Huanyu Petroleum
137 Geological Technology Co. Ltd.

138 ***3.3 Data Synthesis***

139 To build a reliable database of the Gzhelian wildfire evidence, data was compiled from
140 peer-reviewed journal publications following the program of Lu (2021) and Lv (2024). Personal
141 data and unpublished materials were not included in our study. We used the keywords 'Gzhelian
142 wildfire', 'charcoal', 'inertinite', 'fusain', 'fusinite', and/or 'PAHs' to search papers in Google
143 Scholar, Web of Science, ScienceDirect, and JSTOR. Literature searches were conducted by the end
144 of April 2024.

145 To minimize the possibility of low credible/reliable wildfire data, the data published in the



146 original article was double-checked and evaluated before inclusion in our database. The evidence
147 for fossil charcoal in the database is based on the standardized guidelines in Scott (2000,2010,2020).
148 The distinction between sources of PAHs (pyrogenic and petrogenic) was made according to Yunker
149 et al. (2002), and only records of pyrogenic PAHs were included. For example, Hower et al. (2022)
150 had two inertinite data that did not have details of where samples were taken, so they were
151 discarded. The inertinite in Presswood et al. (2016) was due to magmatic intrusion, so it was
152 discarded.

153 Three types of Gzhelian wildfire evidence were included in the database: charcoal type I
154 (pyrogenic inertinite macerals from coals), charcoal type II (fossil charcoal from clastic sediments),
155 and pyrogenic PAHs. The location (e.g., country, state/province, city, latitude, longitude, etc.),
156 palaeogeographical localities (e.g., palaeocontinents, palaeolatitude, and palaeolongitude),
157 stratigraphic unit (e.g., formation, group), and rock type (e.g., coal, sandstone, mudstone) were
158 integrated for each wildfire record. When multiple studies reported wildfire data from the same
159 geologic unit in the same location (e.g., section, region, or basin), they were considered as one
160 record (Lu et al., 2021). Depending on the type of evidence, wildfire occurrences in the same study
161 site can be identified in different studies and recorded as one occurrence.

162 The GPlates 2.2.0 model constructed by Scotese (2008) was used to estimate paleolatitudes
163 and paleolongitudes data for wildfire occurrence. To provide a visual representation of the spatial
164 distribution, the occurrence of wildfires was projected on a paleogeographic map of Gzhelian by
165 Scotese (2021) (Fig. 9).

166 **4. Results**

167 ***4.1 Coal rock micro component and geochemical characterization***

168 The microscopic component contents of the coal samples collected in the mineral-free state

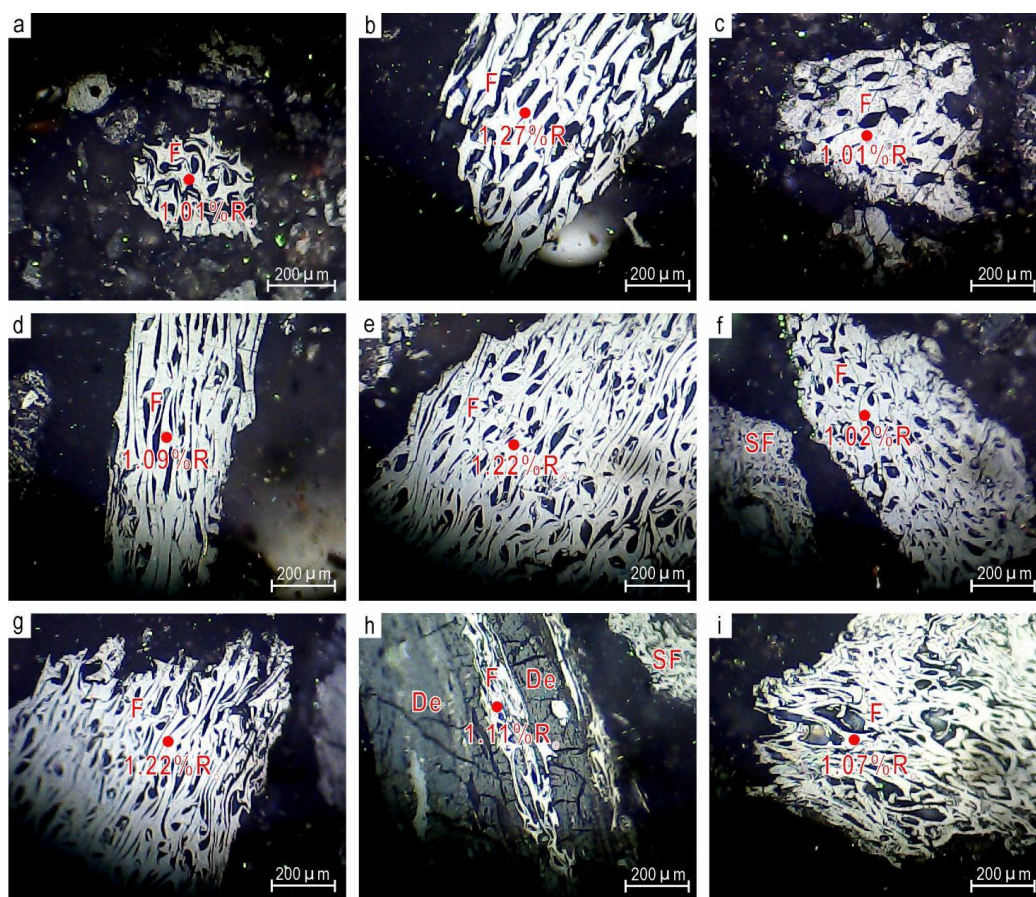


169 from No.9 coal of Yaogou Mine are shown in Table 1. Of all the samples, the vitrinite was dominant,
170 with contents ranging from 64.5% to 84.7% (average = 73.5%). The inertinite content of the coal
171 samples ranged from 14.1% to 30.8%, with an average content of 22.3%. The liptinite had the
172 lowest content, ranging from 1.3% to 8.7%, with an average content of 4.2%. Nearly all inertinite
173 preserved in coal was defined as an incomplete combustion product, comparable to fossil charcoal
174 (Scott 2000, 2010; Scott and Glasspool 2006, 2007; Diessel, 2010). Because of this, subcomponent
175 analyses were analyzed for the inertinite in the coal samples Table 1. In the 20 coal samples, the
176 main component of the inertinite was semifusinite, with contents ranging from 7.4% to 17.2% with
177 an average content of 11.5%. The content of inertodedetrinite was rather low, ranging from 1.8% to
178 13.4%, with an average content of 6.6%. The contents of fusinite, macrinite, and micrinite were low,
179 with average contents of 1.2%, 2.3% and 0.7%. Among the 20 samples, the variation of
180 inertinite/vitrinite ranged from 0.17 to 0.47, with a mean value of 0.31. The reflectance (R_{vo}) of the
181 vitrinite of the 20 coal samples ranged from 0.37% to 0.66.

182 The TOC content of the 20 coal samples from the Taiyuan Formation ranged from 27.82% to
183 48.07%, with an average content of 39.49% (Table 2). The Hg content of the 20 samples varied
184 greatly, ranging from 29.5 ppb to 393 ppb, with an average of 134.96 ppb (Table 2). Zhang et al.
185 (2023a) analyzed the sulfur content, Al_2O_3 content, and ash yield of 20 coal seams in the Taiyuan
186 Formation in this study area (Table 2). The Spearman correlation analysis showed that the
187 correlation between Hg and Al_2O_3 in the 20 coal samples from Taiyuan Formation is highly
188 significant, with positive correlation, the correlation coefficient is +0.529, and the significance is
189 0.016 (Fig. 6a). The correlation between Hg and sulfur is not significant with the correlation
190 coefficient of -0.175 and significance of 0.46 (Fig. 6b). The correlation between Hg and TOC is
191 significant, with a correlation coefficient of -0.659, and the significance is 0.002 (Fig. 6c). Since the



192 source of elemental aluminum in coal is mainly clay minerals, the correlation between elemental Al
193 and ash yield was analyzed. The correlation between elemental Al and ash yield in the coal samples
194 of this study was highly significant with a correlation coefficient of +0.776 and significance of 0.
195 The correlation between elemental Hg and ash yield was significant and positive with the
196 correlation coefficient of +0.481 and significance of 0.032 (Fig. 6d).



197
198 **Fig. 2** Features of fossil charcoal in the Ordos Basin Taiyuan Formation observed under the oil immersion optical
199 microscopy. F-fusinite; SF-semifusinite; Red circles show the test points, and numbers show the reflectance
200 values of the points.



201 **Table 1**

202 The coal micro component contents of 20 seams of No. 9 coal from Yaogou Mine in Ordos Basin

Sample No.	Percentage of the total organic macerals (vol.%)				Percentage of the total inertinite macerals (vol.%)				TOM (vol.%)	Total minerals (vol.%)
	Vitrinite	Inertinite	Liptinite	Fusinite	Semifusinite	Macrinite	Micrinite	Inertode trinite		
YG-1	79.6	14.6	5.8	1.1	9.3	0	0.2	4	53.9	46.1
YG-2	80.5	16	3.5	2.4	10.6	0.6	0.6	1.8	60.4	39.6
YG-3	68.3	27.4	4.3	0.9	14.1	1.5	2.6	8.3	81.2	18.8
YG-4	64.5	26.8	8.7	0.4	13.3	2.4	0.4	10.3	84.8	15.2
YG-5	84.7	11.9	3.4	0.4	7.4	1.5	0.2	2.4	84.9	15.1
YG-6	65.2	30.8	4	0	14.6	2.4	0.4	13.4	86.2	13.8
YG-7	72.2	23	4.8	3	10.7	3	0.8	5.5	87.1	12.9
YG-8	70.8	21.5	7.7	2.5	12.2	1.5	0.2	5.1	81.8	18.2
YG-9	78.4	19.1	2.5	0	9.8	2.5	0.4	6.4	80.1	19.9
YG-10	66.1	27.4	6.5	3.8	13.1	3.2	0.6	6.7	83.9	16.1
YG-11	75.2	23.5	1.3	0.6	12	3.4	0.2	7.3	79.6	20.4
YG-12	72.1	25.1	2.8	0.9	15.4	2.2	0.4	6.2	73.9	26.1
YG-13	65.8	30.2	4	0.8	17.2	4.1	1.8	6.3	86.2	13.8
YG-14	82	14.1	3.9	0	8.3	2.1	0	3.7	81.3	18.7
YG-15	80.2	18.4	1.4	0	11.2	0.8	0.6	5.8	77	23
YG-16	81.8	16.5	1.7	0	10.4	1.2	1.2	3.7	85.2	14.8
YG-17	78.1	18.4	3.5	2.7	9	1.7	0.5	4.5	59.5	40.5
YG-18	66.8	28.9	4.3	0.8	11.3	4.7	0	12.1	59.9	40.1
YG-19	73	24.9	2.1	1.1	8.9	2.9	0.4	11.6	71.5	28.5
YG-20	65	27.2	7.8	3.2	11	4.1	2	6.9	81.8	18.2

203



204 **Table 2**

205 The chemical element data of 20 coal seams from the No. 9 coal of the Yaogou coal mine in the Ordos Basin. The
206 Al₂O₃, TS, and TOC were from Zhang et al. (2023a).

Sample	Hg (ppb)	Al ₂ O ₃ (%)	TS (%)	TOC (%)
YG-1	255	16.33	0.23	27.82
YG-2	145	11.94	0.39	29.92
YG-3	63.2	7.67	0.44	47.30
YG-4	118	9.46	0.77	44.14
YG-5	58.6	8.96	0.32	48.07
YG-6	70.4	12.75	0.41	42.04
YG-7	85.1	7.44	0.57	44.72
YG-8	35.4	7.42	0.52	48.04
YG-9	43.5	11.87	0.45	41.17
YG-10	269	10.5	0.59	41.51
YG-11	88.5	10.53	0.48	38.10
YG-12	83.9	10.74	0.5	35.33
YG-13	34.5	9.57	0.48	46.26
YG-14	156	12.77	0.35	40.37
YG-15	352	16.48	0.42	32.35
YG-16	237	14.23	0.32	36.72
YG-17	393	12.42	0.36	29.26
YG-18	152	17.88	0.29	32.05
YG-19	29.5	13.53	0.3	37.95
YG-20	29.6	7.57	0.44	46.68

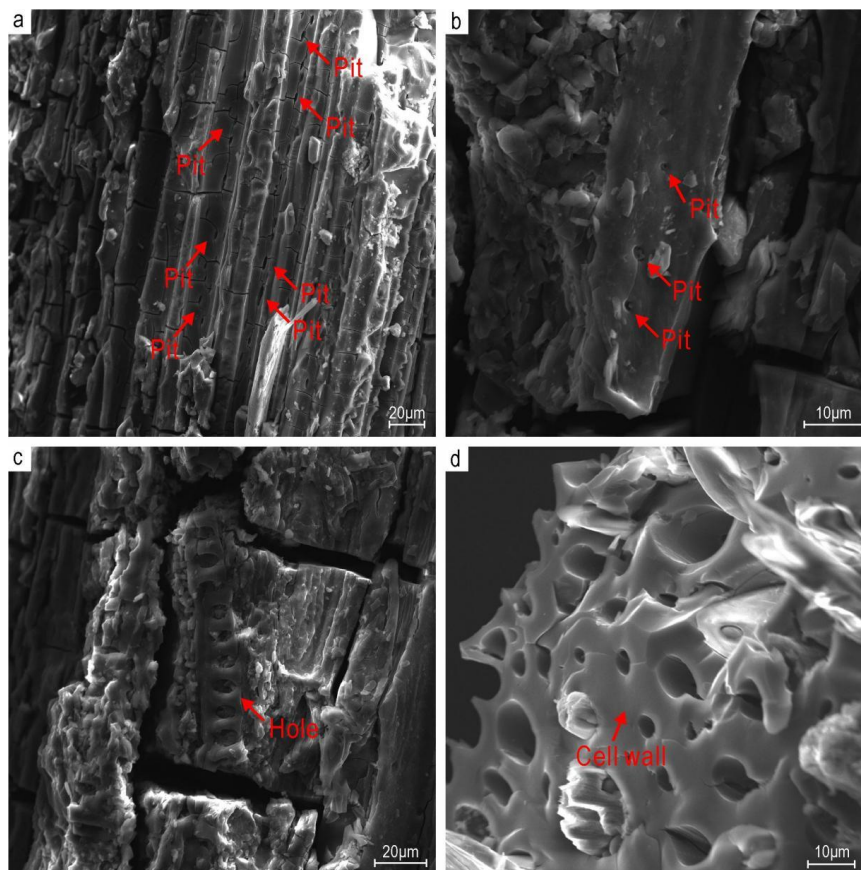
207 **4.2 Microscopic observations of fossil charcoal**

208 Under the oil-immersion reflected-light microscope, a large amount of semifusinite was
209 observed in the coal samples of the Taiyuan Formation. Some representative micrographs are
210 provided in Fig. 2. The pore sizes of the semifusinite ranged from 40 - 120 μm, with a small
211 variation in pore size. The measured reflectance of the inertinite of 20 coal samples from the
212 Taiyuan Formation ranged from 1.01% to 2.07%, with the average value of 1.66%.

213 The structural features of the fibre structure and the cell wall in the fossil charcoal fragments
214 can be observed by SEM. The majority of the cellular structures were crushed or broken (Fig. 3a,c).
215 As shown by the radial structure, the tubular cells were straight and 10-20 μm wide (Fig. 3a). There
216 was one single row of circular or elliptical pitting with 0.5-2 μm width (Fig. 3b). And the cell walls



217 of the samples showed homogenization (Fig. 3d).



218

219 **Fig. 3** Scanning electron microscope electron probe image of fossilized charcoal. (a-b) Red arrows point to
220 uniseriate pits. (c) Red arrow points to larger holes in the cell wall that may represent pits, which were
221 diagenetically enlarged during charring. (d) Red arrow points to homogenized cell wall.

222 **4.3 The Gzhelian wildfire record in geologic context**

223 Published wildfire records for the Gzhelian were compiled in Table S1. Based on the type of
224 evidence these can be divided into five groups: 23 records of charcoal type I (79.4% of the total
225 records), two records of charcoal type II (6.9%), one record of pyrogenic PAHs (3.4%), two records
226 of charcoal type I and charcoal type II (6.9%), and one record of charcoal type II and pyrogenic
227 PAHs (3.4%). The published Gzhelian wildfire data were observed in 19 geologic units (or



228 formations), with two record from an unclear unit.

229 All of the 29 reported Gzhelian wildfires have occurred in the lower latitudes (30°N-30°S) (Fig.
230 9). According to Boucot et al.'s (2013) suggested paleoclimatic classification, the Gzhelian can be
231 divided into four different paleoclimatic zones: cool temperate, warm temperate, arid and tropical.
232 The Gzhelian wildfires all occurred in the tropical area (Fig. 9).

233 **5. Discussion**

234 ***5.1 Repeated wildfire in the Gzhelian of the Ordos Basin***

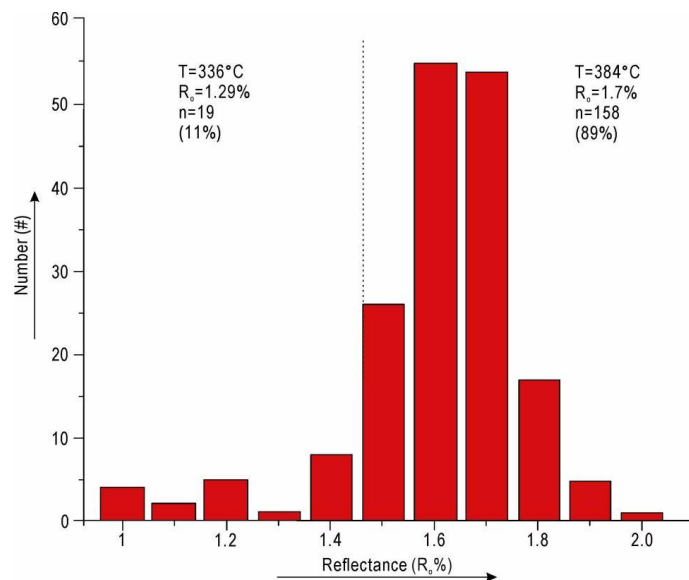
235 The origin of the inertinite in coal has been controversial, and it has been suggested that the
236 fusinite and semifusinite in the inertinite may be produced from fungal degradation of vegetation
237 tissues in oxidizing environments or influenced by other microbial activities (Beeston, 1987;
238 Teichmüller, 1989; Varma, 1996; ICCP, 2001). Some semifusinite in coal may also have been
239 formed during diagenesis (Hudspith and Belcher, 2020). Nevertheless, research suggests that the
240 fusinite and semifusinite in coal were equivalent to fossil charcoal (Scott and Glasspool, 2007;
241 Hudspith et al., 2012), which was produced by the incomplete combustion of vegetation by
242 wildfires (Scott, 2010; Liu et al., 2022). All coal samples from the Taiyuan Formation had low
243 levels of both macrinite and micrinite (Table 1). Both fusinite and semifusinite preserved complete
244 cellular structures (Fig. 2), suggesting that the fusinite and semifusinite in the study samples may be
245 products of vegetation combustion.

246 In addition, the low reflectance of the vitrinite in the coal samples, averaging 0.49%, indicated
247 that the samples were poorly metamorphosed, and was not enough to support the claim that the
248 semifusinite in the samples was due to diagenesis. Experiments had shown that the carbonization
249 temperature for homogenization of vegetation cell walls needs to be at least higher than 250 - 300
250 °C (Scott and Jones, 1991; Osterkamp et al., 2017). Obvious homogenization of the cell walls of the



251 fossil charcoal could be observed under the SEM (Fig. 3d), which more clearly suggested that the
252 fossil charcoal in the samples was caused by wildfire burning. The inertinite content of the Taiyuan
253 Formation coal samples showed a small range of variability (14.1% - 30.8%) and was dominated by
254 semifusinite (7.4% - 17.2%), which indicates the presence of frequent small wildfires during this
255 period. Under the SEM, it can be observed that the cellular structure of the fossil charcoal from the
256 Taiyuan Formation is obviously broken, and some cellular cavities in the charcoal appeared to have
257 different degrees of deformation (Fig. 3c), which may be due to the tectonic movement of the strata.

258 Scott (2010) divided wildfires into three types based on their strength: surface fire, ground fire,
259 and crown fire. Among these, surface fires whose fuels are mainly surface herbaceous, shrubs and
260 various biological wastes, burn at lower temperatures, usually below 400 °C. Ground fires whose
261 fuel is mainly the dry humus layer in the soil, which can burn thick layers of peat, burn at relatively
262 high temperatures, up to 600 °C. It has been demonstrated that the reflectance of the inertinite is
263 positively correlated with the combustion temperature, with higher inertinite reflectance indicating
264 higher combustion temperatures (Jones et al., 1991; Guo and Bustin, 1998; Scott and Glasspool,
265 2007; McParland et al., 2009). The reflectance of the inertinite in the Taiyuan Formation samples
266 varied in a small range (1.01%-2.07%), and it can be inferred that the Taiyuan Formation wildfire
267 burned at temperatures ranging was about 300 °C to 430 °C, with an average burn temperature of
268 379 °C (after formula Scott and Glasspool, 2015). This suggests that mainly low-temperature fires
269 occurred in the Ordos Basin during the Gzhelian (Fig. 4). Wildfire burning may have been fueled
270 primarily by low-growing vegetation or biological waste, which would be consistent with the
271 homogenization of fern cell walls observed under the SEM.



272

273 **Fig. 4** The inertinite reflectance histograms indicate calculated combustion temperatures (Shukla et al., 2023).

274 **5.2 Sources of elemental mercury in coal**

275 Soils are the largest global reservoir of Hg and forest ecosystems are one of the key areas in
276 the Hg cycle (Wang et al., 2019). Peatland vegetation can retain atmospheric Hg in their bodies by
277 absorbing it (Grigal, 2003), while humus and sulfides in peatlands have a high affinity for Hg,
278 which makes them important sinks for Hg (Yudovich and Ketris, 2005; Woerndle et al., 2018). In
279 the pre-anthropoc era, the main sources of Hg in the surface environment were volcanic eruptions,
280 intense continental weathering, and wildfires (Pavlish et al., 2003; Pyle and Mather, 2003; Selin,
281 2009; Shen et al., 2020).

282 In this study, Hg was negatively correlated with Total Organic Carbon (TOC) and Total Sulfur
283 (TS) (Fig. 6), indicating that Hg is not predominantly present in organic matter and sulfides.
284 Correlation of elemental concentration with ash yield may provide preliminary information on their
285 affinity with organic and inorganic (Eskanazy et al., 2010; Kortenski and Sotirov, 2002; Dai et al.,
286 2012a; Zhang et al., 2023a). Mercury has a relatively high correlation ($r=0.481$) with ash yield,
287 indicating a dominant inorganic affinity. There was a high correlation between Hg and Al_2O_3 in this



288 study ($r=0.529$), indicating that Hg was mainly enriched in clay minerals (Fig. 6). The Hg
289 concentrations in coal samples YG-1, YG-10, YG-15, YG-16, and YG-17 (237-352 ppb) were
290 generally higher than the average concentration of coals from around the world (100 ppb) and the
291 average concentration of Chinese coals (163 ppb) (Dai et al., 2012b). After normalizing for Al_2O_3 , it
292 still showed anomalously high values in these five coal samples, indicating that these five Hg peaks
293 are true Hg anomalies (Fig. 5) (Xie et al., 2022).

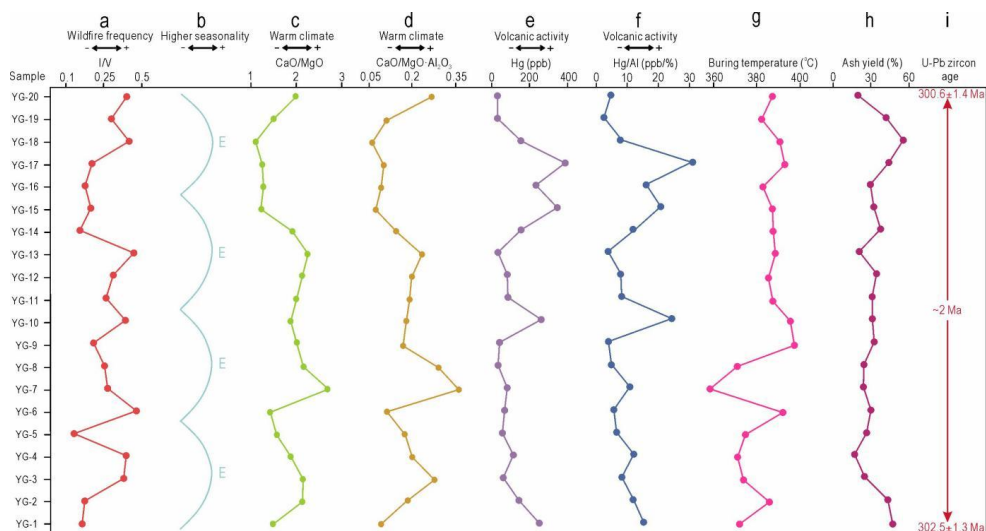
294 Xie et al. (2022) demonstrated that wildfire burning resulted in the release of most of the Hg
295 accumulated in vegetation and soils to the atmosphere, and that atmospheric Hg accumulated
296 quickly in peatlands, leading to Hg anomalies enrichment in peatlands. Comparing the Hg levels of
297 the samples in this study with the frequency of wildfires has not shown that the anomalously high
298 values of Hg are well correlated with the frequency of wildfires (Fig. 5). There were even
299 anomalously high values of Hg in samples YG-15, YG-16, and YG-17, but the frequency of
300 wildfires was significantly reduced. This indicates that the anomalous enrichment of Hg in this
301 study was not caused by wildfire burning.

302 The mass of Hg in forest vegetation is about 0.1 mg/m^2 , however, the mass of Hg in peatlands
303 is about 20 mg/m^2 , which is much greater than the amount in vegetation (Grigal, 2003; Turetsky et
304 al., 2006). The types of wildfire burning in Xie et al. (2022) were primarily ground and surface fires.
305 Ground fires were fueled primarily by a dry humus layer in the soil (Scott, 2010), which can burn a
306 thicker layer of peat, resulting in the release of Hg from the peatland. In this study, the type of
307 wildfire burning was predominantly surface fires, with the primary fuels for surface fires were low
308 surface vegetation and biological litter (Scott, 2010), which coincides with the observation of ferns
309 as fuels in the SEM (Fig. 3). Ku et al. (2018) found that different wildfire intensities had different
310 effects on Hg volatilization from vegetation. Therefore, wildfire burning may not necessarily lead to



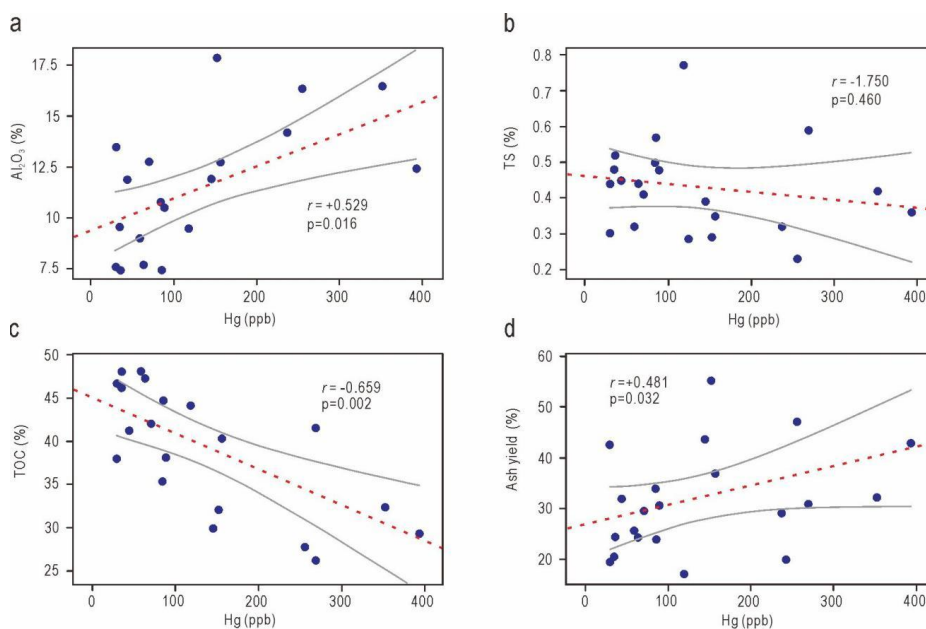
311 Hg enrichment, and wildfire types may not have the same effect on Hg. Mercury enrichment is
312 favored when wildfires were primarily ground fires, where burning of the peat layer resulted in the
313 release of large quantities of Hg, which were absorbed by the peatland.

314 Excluding the anomalous enrichment of Hg in coal due to wildfire activities, the known causes
315 of the anomalous enrichment of Hg in coal are mainly the volcanic activities during the early
316 peatland accretionary phase that led to the increase of Hg input (Roos-Barraclough et al., 2002;
317 Yudovich and Ketris, 2005), and the invasion of low-temperature hydrothermal and magmatic fluids
318 into coal-bearing strata (Sun et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2018). Zhang et al. (2023a) identified 15
319 altered volcanic ashes in this study area, demonstrating the frequent volcanic activity during this
320 depositional time. And it was confirmed that trace element enrichment in closed coal seams may be
321 due to the dipping of tonsteins by acid solutions. Correlation analysis of the Hg content of No. 9
322 coal with trace elements such as Ga, Zr, and Hf revealed a significant correlation ($r=0.581-0.705$).
323 Hg enrichment has been widely used as the indicator of volcanic sediment input (Shen et al., 2020),
324 so the anomalously high values of Hg in the study area may be attributed to the input of Hg
325 elements due to the frequent volcanic activities at that time, and the Hg in the tonsteins was leached
326 into the closing coals by leaching of the acid solution.



327

328 **Fig. 5** Comprehensive analysis map of No.9 coal in Yaogou Mine. (a) Inertinite/ Vitrinite variations in 20 coal
 329 samples. (b) Long eccentricity orbital cycle variation. (c) CaO/MgO trends in 20 coal samples. (d)
 330 CaO/MgO · Al₂O₃ trends in 20 coal samples. (e) Hg content trends in 20 coal samples. (f) Hg/Al trends in 20 coal
 331 samples. (g) Combustion temperature trends in 20 coal samples. (h) Ash yield trends in 20 coal samples. (i) Age of
 332 No. 9 coal, referred to Zhang et al. (2023a).



333

334 **Fig. 6** (a) Correlation between Hg and Al₂O₃. (b) Correlation between Hg and TS. (c) Correlation between Hg and
 335 TOC. (d) Correlation between Hg and Ash yield.



335 TOC. (d) Correlation between Hg and ash yield. Spearman's P and r values are shown. Red lines denote the
336 best-fit linear regression line. Gray curve lines denote the 95% confidence interval.

337 ***5.3 Gzhelian wildfires and climate change***

338 ***5.3.1 Regional wildfire trends***

339 Wildfire activity during geologic history has been influenced primarily by changes in
340 atmospheric oxygen levels, climate and vegetation (Belcher and Hudspith, 2017; Baker, 2022). For
341 example, Glasspool and Scott (2010) suggested that high levels of oxygen in the atmosphere
342 influence increased wildfire activity on different time scales. Baker (2022) found that past periods
343 of global climate change on Earth have been accompanied by increased wildfire activity. Vegetation
344 type changes also influence wildfire occurrence, for example, the rise of angiosperms during the
345 Cretaceous may have led to an increase in wildfire activity at that time (Lü et al., 2024).

346 The level of oxygen in the atmosphere plays a key role in the occurrence of wildfires (Scott,
347 2000); when oxygen levels are below 15% it will not be possible to sustain vegetation burning, and
348 when levels are above 23% humid vegetation will continue to burn. Based on model predictions, the
349 oxygen level of 24.6% in the Gzhelian is higher than current oxygen levels and can sustain wildfire
350 burning in humidter environments (Fig. 7).

351 CaO/MgO can be used as an indicator for paleoclimate reconstruction (Chen and Wan, 1999;
352 Sun et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2018), and the ratio of $\text{CaO/MgO} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ can more
353 sensitively respond to the temperature changes at that time, with high values indicated for warm
354 periods, and low values indicated for cold periods (Chen and Wan, 1999; Fu et al., 2018; Zhang et
355 al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2021). In this study, periods of high wildfire frequency (e.g., YG-10, YG-11,
356 YG-12, YG-13) had higher values of CaO/MgO and $\text{CaO/MgO} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, indicated of a warm and
357 humid climate (Fig. 5). Periods of lower wildfire frequency (e.g., YG-14, YG-15, YG-16, YG-17)



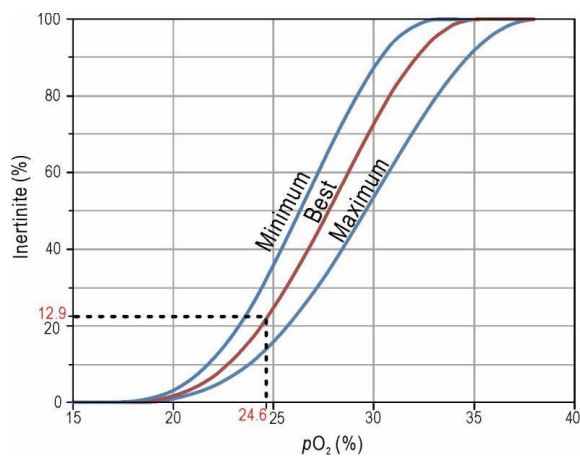
358 had lower CaO/MgO and CaO/MgO • Al₂O₃ values, indicated a cold and dry climate (Fig. 5).
359 Although wildfires were more easily caused when the climate was dry, cold climates with lower
360 temperatures were not favourable for vegetation development (Brovkin, 2002), and a dryer climate
361 meant less rainfall, both of which led to a decrease in fuels, hence a less frequent occurrence of
362 wildfires. However, in warm and humid climatic periods, where seasonal variations were stronger,
363 sufficient rainfall and suitable temperatures promote the development of vegetation, leading to a
364 significant accumulation of fuels, hence more favourable for wildfires to occur (Litt et al., 2014;
365 Stockhecke et al., 2016; Swain, 2021). Furthermore, previous research has found that high
366 frequencies of wildfire activity have occurred in moderately humid environments (Daniau et al,
367 2012; Marlon et al, 2013). This study predicts oxygen levels sufficient to sustain wildfires in humid
368 conditions for sustained burning, so sufficient fuel accumulation may have been a major factor in
369 the frequency of wildfires during this period.

370 Many scholars have examined charcoal abundance changes in Quaternary sediments to show
371 that orbital cycle forcing climate drives wildfire activity (Verardo and Ruddiman, 1996; Thevenon
372 et al., 2004; Zhou et al., 2007; Daniau et al., 2013, 2023; Kappenberg et al., 2019; Hao et al., 2020;
373 Shi et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2023b). Zhou et al. (2023), based on a high-resolution charcoal
374 fragment record from the Wushan Basin of the Tibetan Plateau during the Middle Miocene, found
375 that orbital period (short eccentricity, slope, and age difference) forced climate change to control
376 wildfire activity by influencing the amount of vegetative fuels and their combustibility. In this study,
377 Coal 9 has a floor age of 300.6 ± 1.4 Ma, a roof age of 302.5 ± 1.3 Ma, and a depositional age of
378 ~ 1.9 Ma (Zhang et al., 2023a). We explored the effect of the orbital cycle on wildfires using long
379 eccentricity. As shown in Fig. 5(b-d), the variation of the long eccentricity had a good correlation
380 with our climatic indicators (CaO/MgO, CaO/MgO • Al₂O₃). The maximum eccentricity is



381 associated with a warmer and more humid period, while the minimum eccentricity is associated
382 with a colder and dryer period. When the orbital cycle eccentricity is at maximum, the sun was at
383 perihelion and the amount of insolation was relatively abundant, leading to a sufficient
384 accumulation of fuels, which in turn led to an increase in wildfire activity (Kappenberg et al., 2019;
385 Hollaar et al., 2021; Qiu et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023b). This is consistent with the study by
386 Kappenberg et al. (2019) who found that orbital forcing leads to peak wildfire activity during warm
387 and humid periods.

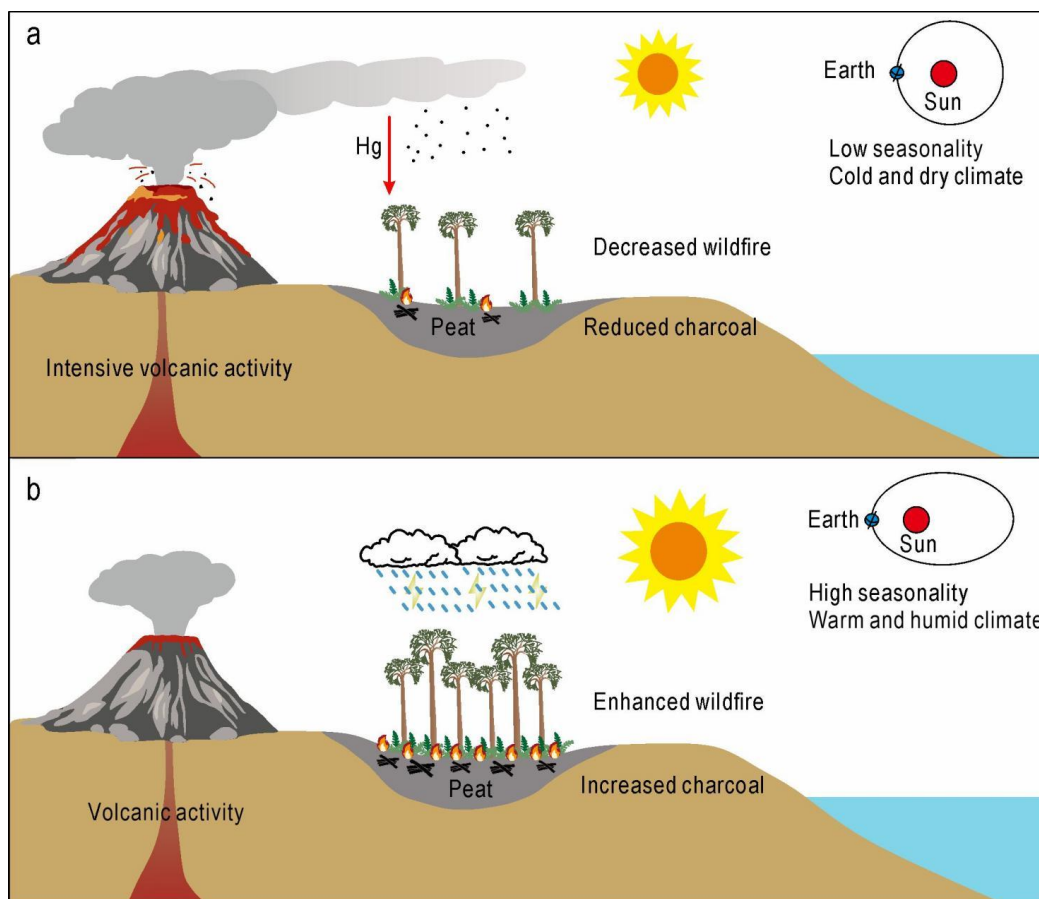
388 Combined with the above research, the factors controlling wildfires in this study area are
389 shown in Fig. 8. When the eccentricity was at a minimum, the Earth received insufficient insolation,
390 the climate was cold and dry, and seasonal variations were not evident (Hollaar et al., 2021; Huang
391 et al., 2024). The lack of suitable environments for survival at that time resulted the low amount of
392 vegetation. There may have been a low frequency of wildfires occurring at this stage, which
393 produced less charcoal preserved in the peatland (Fig. 8a). When the eccentricity was at a maximum,
394 the Earth received sufficient insolation, the climate was warm and humid, and seasonal variations
395 were evident (Hollaar et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2024). Suitable environments lead to the
396 proliferation of vegetation, which in turn accumulate large amounts of fuel. More rainfall was also
397 followed by more lightning, leading to increased chances of ignition. Thus there were more frequent
398 wildfires during the period, which produced more charcoal preserved in the peatlands (Fig. 8b). In
399 this study, intensive wildfires did not correlate to peaks in Hg concentrations, and the anomalous
400 enrichment of Hg was most likely due to the frequent volcanic activity occurring at that time. When
401 the volcano erupts, the ash can carry large Hg transport (Coufalik et al., 2018). When volcanic ash
402 passes through peatlands, the Hg it carried naturally settles and the strong adsorption of Hg by
403 peatlands leads to anomalous enrichment of Hg at that time (Fig. 8a) (Yudovich and Ketris, 2005).



404

405 **Fig. 7** The atmospheric oxygen concentration during the Late Carboniferous Taiyuan Formation in the Ordos

406 Basin based on the prediction model proposed by Glasspool et al. (2015).



407

408 **Fig. 8** Illustration of wildfires activity forced by the long eccentricity orbital cycle in the study area.



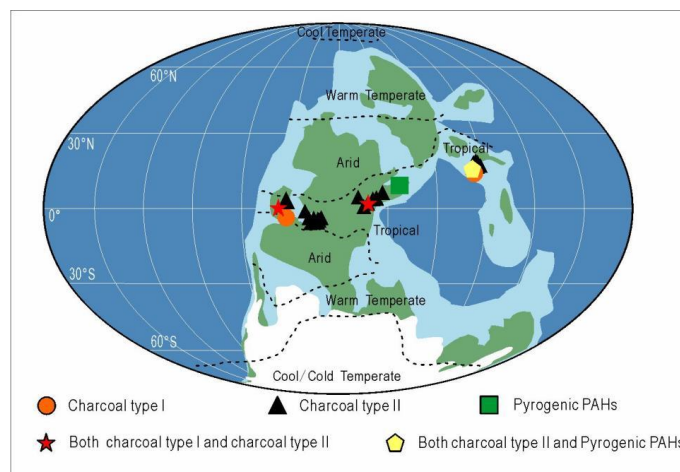
409 **5.3.2 The geographical distribution of published evidence in the Gzhelian**

410 The distribution of wildfires on Earth is not random, and the spatial distribution of wildfires in
411 the modern world is affected by vegetation, climate, topography, and human activities (Krawchuk et
412 al., 2009). Studies have shown that frequent wildfires in modern environments mainly occur in
413 tropical forests and savannas (Mouillot and Field, 2005; Giglio et al., 2006; Flannigan et al., 2009,
414 2013). In this study, based on the distribution of climate zones published by Boucot et al. (2013), it
415 was found that all of the wildfire records for the Gzhelian occurred in the tropical climate zone (Fig.
416 9). It was similar to the modern distribution of wildfires. In the tropics of the Gzhelian, different
417 biomes are distributed, mainly divided into humid to semi-humid wetland groups and semi-humid
418 to semi-arid wetland groups, and the peatlands were under alternating humid and dry changing
419 environments (DiMichele et al., 2010; DiMichele, 2014). In warm and humid environments,
420 vegetation grows densely and generates large fuel accumulations. And in arid environments, fuel
421 burnability is enhanced, which in turn promotes more frequent wildfires (Denis et al., 2017; Baker,
422 2022). Hence the frequent occurrence of wildfires in the tropics with alternating seasons.

423 In view of the spatial distribution, the Gzhelian wildfire records were all located at low
424 latitudes near the equator. In the Gzhelian, the southern part of the Gondwana was covered by a
425 large ice sheet, resulting in the lack of vegetation and the lack of fuel needed for wildfires to burn
426 (Scotese, 2021) (Fig. 9). Similarly in the northern part of the Gondwana and the northern part of the
427 Laurasia there were extensive arid climate zones spread across the mainland that lacked the fuels
428 needed for wildfire burning, resulting in the absence of wildfire records (Fig. 9). However, it is
429 worth noting that widespread biases, such as taphonomy, research preferences, and sampling bias,
430 may result in global wildfire data for the Gzhelian not representing the true situation at that time
431 (Brown et al., 2012; Hamad et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2021; Lü et al., 2024). For example, this study



432 found no evidence of wildfires that have been reported in warm temperate regions (Fig. 9).



433

434 **Fig. 9** Paleogeographic distribution of published wildfire occurrences during the Gzhelian. Plate reconstructions
435 from Scotese (2016) with paleoclimatic zones based on Boucot et al. (2013).

436 6. Conclusion

437 In this study, the detailed analysis of the inertinite in the No. 9 coal of the Yaogou coal mine in
438 the Ordos Basin, China, demonstrated that frequent wildfires had occurred in the region during the
439 Gzhelian of the Late Carboniferous and were mainly low-temperature fires. The frequency of
440 wildfires during this period may be related to the forcing of the long eccentricity orbital cycle,
441 where changes in the climate due to changes in the orbital cycle affect the fuel load. The review of
442 the global wildfire record of the Gzhelian that wildfires were concentrated in low-latitude tropical
443 climates, and the distribution of wildfires may have been limited by the climate and fuels available
444 at that time. The anomalous enrichment of Hg in No. 9 coal was probably due to inputs of Hg from
445 the frequent volcanic activity occurring at that time, and was not related to wildfire burning. The
446 different types of wildfire burning may limit the release and enrichment of Hg.

447 Author Contribution

448 All the authors have actively participated in the preparation of the manuscript. Wenxu Du was



449 responsible for data curation, methodology, and writing; Dawei Lv was responsible for funding
450 acquisition, project administration, and supervision; Zihui Zhang was responsible for funding
451 acquisition and methodology; Munira Raji was responsible for review; Cuiyu Song was responsible
452 for conceptualization and methodology; Luojing Wang was responsible for visualization and
453 investigation; Zekuan Li was responsible for investigation; Kai Cao was responsible for software
454 and validation; Ruoxiang Yuan was responsible for visualization and investigation; Yuzhuang Sun
455 was responsible for review. All authors read and approved the final proof.

456 **Competing Interests**

457 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

458 **Acknowledgement**

459 This work was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
460 (Grant No. 42102127) and the Natural Science Foundation of Shandong Province (Grant No.
461 ZR2021QD087), Shandong University of Science and Technology (Grant No. 2018TDJH101). We
462 think the Deep-Time Digital Earth program (DDE) to support this work. We thank Jincheng Xu to
463 helped with this study. We gratefully acknowledge Professor James C. Hower for his valuable
464 comments on this paper.

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