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**Coal petrology of the Yimin Formation (Albian) in the Hailar Basin, NE China:
paleoenvironments and wildfires during peat formation**

Shuai Wang^a, Longyi Shao^{a*}, Jiaxu Li^a, Jianan Li^a, Timothy Jones^b, Mingyu Zhu^a, Jiamin Zhou^a

^a State Key Laboratory of Coal Resources and Safe Mining, College of Geoscience and Survey Engineering, China University of Mining and Technology (Beijing), Beijing 100083, China

^b School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Cardiff University, Park Place, Cardiff, UK

Corresponding author: Longyi Shao, College of Geoscience and Surveying Engineering, China University of Mining and Technology (Beijing), D11 Xueyuan Road, Haidian District, Beijing 100083, China. E-Mail: ShaoL@cumtb.edu.cn

Abstract: Coal seams preserve continuous and high-resolution records of paleoenvironments and wildfires events during peat accumulation. In order to elucidate wildfire characteristics and terrestrial climate changes during the time of peat accumulation, petrographic characteristics of coals in the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation (Albian) in the Jiuqiao Sag, Hailar Basin, NE China were studied. Coal petrology analysis shows that the studied coal seams are characterized by dominant huminite (average 80.0 vol.%, mmf-mineral matter free), secondary inertinite (average 19.9 vol.%, mmf), and a very low mineral content (average 0.8 vol.%). These results suggest that the coal developed under waterlogged conditions in raised, ombrotrophic mires. The occurrence of moderate inertinite values in the coals implies that wildfires were frequent during the Albian. Burning temperature, ranging from 273 to 379 °C inferred from inertinite reflectances, indicates that wildfires during the Albian were

ground fires because of low plant heights. Vertical trends in inertinite and huminite compositional changes within the coal seams may reflect local-scale, cyclic fluctuations in wildfire occurrence during the development of the peat mires. The likely cause of these fluctuations was changes in temperature and rainfall. The presence of significant levels of inertinite in the coals and inferred high atmospheric oxygen levels suggest that the Albian was a highly fire-prone period in the Hailar Basin. The recurrent occurrence of palaeo-wildfires events in the studied succession in the Hailar Basin reinforce that fire was an important element reaching wetland biodiversity during the Albian, while diversification and spread of angiosperms was taking place globally. Increased surface runoff and erosion after the palaeo-wildfires in the Jiuqiao Sag during the Albian may have enhanced the flux and availability of nutrients and siltation with sediment washing into fluvial, lacustrine and ocean systems, more or less contributing to the Albian anoxic events.

35

Key words: Albian; Hailar Basin; lignite; coal petrology; inertinite; wildfire

37

38 **1 Introduction**

Coal seams preserve abundant palaeoclimatic and palaeobotanic information and are sensitive to environmental changes through geological time (Teichmüller, 1989; Diessel, 1992). Within the Hailar Basin, coal seams have a relatively shallow burial depth (mostly < 1000 m), low coal rank (Ro, max < 0.5%), and anomalous thickness (up to 40 m) (Guo et al., 2018). The coal seams preserve continuous and *in-situ* records of peat accumulation (Wadsworth et al., 2010). Almost all inertinite (Fusinite, semifusinite and inertodetrinite) is believed to be the products of incomplete combustion as a result of wildfire (Scott, 2002; Glasspool and Scott, 2010). Some maceral formation in inertinite may be related to microbial and fungal oxidation after burial, such as macrinite, micrinite and

47 funginite (Hower et al., 2013; O’Keefe et al., 2013). Vertical changes in inertinite and huminite in
48 coals across the Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary have been used to infer cyclic fluctuations in
49 wildfires (Jerrett et al., 2015).

50 Wildfires can impact on a large amount of biomass in many ecosystems, and can also play a
51 significant role in biogeochemical cycles and in the selection and evolution of terrestrial biotas
52 through geological time (Bowman et al., 2009; Belcher et al., 2010; He et al., 2012; Lamont and He,
53 2012; He et al., 2016; Lamont et al., 2019; He et al., 2019). Wildfire can be considered as a dominant
54 ecological and evolutionary force promoting and maintaining biodiversity over numerous
55 spatiotemporal scales through particular fire regimes (Bond and Keeley, 2005; He et al., 2019). In
56 some ecological settings, the species composition, structure and plant traits are dominated by fire
57 frequency and intensity (He et al., 2019). The spread of angiosperms in the Cretaceous was facilitated
58 by low-intensity surface fires under high temperature, seasonally dry climates and higher than current
59 atmospheric oxygen levels (Bond and Scott, 2010; Brown et al., 2012).

60 Fossil charcoal in sedimentary deposits has been widely used to study wildfires and their
61 implications for palaeoclimates in deep time after the first appearance of terrestrial plants in the
62 Silurian (Jones and Chaloner, 1991; Scott, 2002; Jasper et al., 2011; Petersen and Lindström, 2012;
63 Tanner et al., 2012; Jasper et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2017; Wagner et al., 2017; El Atfy et al., 2019; Yan
64 et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2020b). Experiments show that the minimum amount of oxygen needed to
65 ignite and maintain a self-sustaining wildfire is between 13% (Jones and Chaloner, 1991) and 16%
66 (Belcher et al., 2010). The abundance of charcoal in deposits is therefore partially controlled by the
67 atmospheric oxygen content and this proxy can be used to reconstruct the atmospheric oxygen content
68 over the past 450 million years (Glasspool and Scott, 2010; Shao et al., 2012; Glasspool et al., 2015).
69 Polished charcoal surfaces under reflected light microscopy are used to infer the burning temperature

70 and types of wildfire based on modern charring experiments (Jones et al., 1991; Guo and Bustin,
71 1998; Scott and Glasspool, 2005).

72 Cretaceous oceanic anoxic events have been widely recognised in the geological record by the
73 occurrence of widespread black shales and carbon isotope excursions in organic-rich and carbonate
74 rocks (Jenkyns, 2010; Jarvis et al., 2011; Baker et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2020a). An apparent increase
75 of wildfire activity inferred by the rise in charcoal abundances (from 189 particles per g/TOM (total
76 organic matter) to 5965 particles per g/TOM) at the initiation of Cretaceous anoxic events has been
77 observed (Baker et al., 2020). Wildfire and associated post-fire erosion have a significant impact on
78 the hydrological cycle through the burning of vegetation and litter layers and the erosion of soil after
79 a rainfall event (Shakesby and Doerr, 2006; Moody et al., 2008; Muir et al., 2015). The removal of
80 vegetation, litter and soil degradation can result in increased surface runoff and overland flow,
81 promoting more nutrients being flushed into rivers, lakes and oceans, leading to elevated productivity
82 and anoxic environments (Brown et al., 2012).

83 Although numerous studies have focused on the sedimentology, sequence stratigraphy and coal
84 accumulation in the Early Cretaceous coal-bearing series of the Hailar Basin (Li, 1988; Zhang and
85 Long, 1995; Guo et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018b), few studies have dealt with the
86 Early Cretaceous paleo-wildfires that occurred during peat formation in the Hailar Basin (Wang et al.,
87 2019b). The paleo-fire events were inferred from the inertinite in the coals of the Early Cretaceous
88 Yimin Formation and the atmospheric oxygen levels are suggested to be high at the time of peat
89 accumulation (Wang et al., 2019b). Regionally, the Yimin Formation can be correlated with the
90 Yingcheng Formation of the Songliao Basin by the *Ruffordia-Dryopterites* floral assemblages (Deng
91 et al., 2012). The Yingcheng Formation contains volcanic and volcanoclastic rocks that have been
92 assigned to 105–112 Ma by zircon U-Pb dating (Huang et al., 2011), therefore the Yingcheng

93 Formation and Yimin Formation can be attributed to the Albian. In order to better understand the role
94 of wildfires on Cretaceous plant evolution and anoxic events, it is essential to identify the occurrences
95 and characteristics of fossil charcoal (inertinite) and to interpret the mire settings in Cretaceous
96 terrestrial deposits from the Hailar Basin, northeastern China. This study systematically documents
97 the vertical changes in the petrological composition of mire deposits (coal seams) of the Jiuqiao Sag
98 of the southeastern Hailar Basin, and interprets the paleoenvironments of these coal seams. This
99 enables inferences to be made on the wildfire characteristics during times of peat accumulation and
100 to interpret the possible relationships between wildfire and plant evolution, and anoxic events during
101 the Albian.

102

103 **2 Geological setting**

104 The Hailar Basin is a large Mesozoic-Cenozoic continental fault-bounded basin developed on
105 Hercynian folded basement (Guo et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020a). It is situated on the western flank of
106 the Great Xing'an Range and the southern Mongol-Okhotsk Suture (Han et al., 2018). The basin is
107 characterized by a mainly northeast-trending structural grain, 4000–5000 M thickness of late
108 Mesozoic–Cenozoic non-marine deposits and 16 sags that formed synchronously in an extensional
109 tectonic regime (A et al., 2013). The basin can be divided into five tectonic units (Figure 1), from
110 west to east consisting, respectively, of the Zalainuor Depression, Cuogang Uplift, Beirhu Depression,
111 Bayanshan Uplift and Huhehu Depression (Guo et al., 2018). Lower Cretaceous coal-bearing strata
112 comprise the Tongbomiao, Nantun, Damoguaihe, and Yimin formations from bottom to top (Figure
113 2), corresponding to early syn-rift, rift climax, late syn-rift and post-rift phases, respectively (Song et
114 al., 2019). Sandy conglomerates, sandstones, siltstones, mudstones and lignites comprise the Lower
115 Cretaceous strata (Guo et al., 2018). Palynology records from the Lower Cretaceous Yimin Formation

116 in the Hailar Basin show that vegetation was mainly composed of coniferous forest and shrub, such
117 as hygrophilous *Cyathidites* and *Pilosiporites*, indicating that a humid tropical climate prevailed
118 (Zhang and Long, 1995; Wang et al., 2008).

119 This study focuses on the Jiuqiao Sag, which is located in the southeastern Hailar Basin, NE
120 China (Figure 1). The Jiuqiao Sag is a graben with an area of approximately 2650 km², bounded by
121 syn-depositional faults to the north-west and south-east (Zhang et al., 2018b). The Yimin Formation
122 comprises conglomerates, sandstones, mudstones and lignites, which were deposited in fluvial-
123 lacustrine environments (Zhang et al., 2018b). Thick-bedded conglomerates and sandy conglomerates
124 with erosional surfaces, intercalated with thin-bedded siltstones and mudstones, are typical of braided
125 fluvial depositional systems (Zhang and Long, 1995; Zhang et al., 2018b). Thick-bedded sandstones
126 with planar and trough cross-beddings, interbedded with thick-bedded siltstones and mudstones, can
127 be interpreted as fluvial delta depositional systems (Zhang and Long, 1995; Zhang et al., 2018b).
128 Thick-bedded siltstones and mudstones with horizontal laminations, intercalated with fine-grained
129 sandstones, typify lacustrine depositional systems (Zhang et al., 2018b). Coal seams A, B and C were
130 developed in the braided delta plain depositional environment. The sediments underlying and
131 overlying Seam A are siltstones. Seam B is underlain by siltstones and overlain by medium sandstones.
132 The sediments underlying and overlying Seam C are fine sandstones (Figure 3).

133 Thick Albian coal seams are widely distributed in the Yimin Formation (Zhang and Long, 1995).
134 The thicknesses of seams A, B and C are 12.8 m, 5.8 m and 0.6 m, respectively (Figure 3). Maximum
135 huminite reflectance values of coal from the seams in the Jiuqiao Sag range from 0.34% to 0.43%
136 with an average of 0.38% (Shao et al., 2020), indicating that the rank of coal seams A, B and C is
137 lignite according to ASTM D388-05 (2005).

138

139 3 Sample and analytical methods

140 A total of 23 coal samples were collected from 3 coal seams at the H1 borehole (Figure 3). All
141 samples were stored immediately in airtight plastic bags to protect them from contamination and
142 oxidation. Sample number and location are shown in Figure 3. Maceral analyses were carried out on
143 all the samples. Macroscopic charcoal fragments found in the coal samples were examined following
144 the charcoal identification methods of Scott (2010). The small coal fragments were mounted on a stub
145 and observed under Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM).

146 Coal samples were crushed to less than 1 mm diameter and a portion of each sample was
147 embedded in epoxy resin. After curing, the samples were polished according to standard methods
148 (ISO 7404/2, 2009). Maceral classification and terminology in this study follow the conventional
149 procedures (ICCP, 2001; Sýkorová et al., 2005) and the Chinese National Standard Method for
150 Determining Maceral and Minerals in Coal (GB/T 8899-2013). Maceral analyses and inertinite
151 reflectance measurements were carried out under white reflected and fluorescent light, with a 50x oil-
152 immersion objective using a Leica DM4500P LED microscope (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany). For
153 maceral analyses, a total of approximately 500 points in each polished block were counted (ISO
154 7404/3, 2009). For inertinite reflectance measurements, Yttrium Aluminum Garnet (YAG) (0.903%),
155 Gadolinium Gallium Garnet (GGG) (1.719%), sapphire (0.590%) and optically black (zero) standards
156 at 23 °C were employed, with a total of approximately 60 points counted in each polished block (ISO
157 7404/5, 2009). The testing results were converted into percentage values for each maceral and average
158 inertinite reflectance values.

159 The temperature of wildfire combustion could be inferred from the measured inertinite
160 reflectance values using the following equation: $T = 184.10 + 117.76 \times \%Ro$ (coefficient of
161 determination $r^2 = 0.91$), where T is the burning temperature and %Ro is the measured inertinite

162 reflectance (Jones 1997).

163

164 **4 Results**

165 The coal seams are well banded and are composed of bright, semi-bright, semi-dull, and dull
166 coal lithotypes. Macroscopic charcoal fragments in the coals are characterized by black colour, visible
167 streaks and silky luster, and show anatomical preservation under a hand lens. They are brittle and
168 fragile.

169 Table 1 shows the maceral (vol. %, mmf) and mineral (vol. %) contents of coal seams A, B and
170 C. Huminite is the most abundant maceral (63.8 vol.% to 97.4 vol.%) with an average of 80.0 vol.%.
171 The main huminite macerals are eu-ulminite (Figures 4A, 4B), textoulminite (Figure 4C), and gelinite
172 (Figure 4D), with average contents of 13.8 vol.%, 13.3 vol.%, and 47.1 vol.%, respectively. Inertinite
173 content varies between 2.6 vol.% to 36.2 vol.%, with an average of 19.9 vol.% and is dominated by
174 semifusinite and fusinite (Figures 4E, 4F, 4G) with average content of 11.9 vol.% and 7.3 vol.%,
175 respectively. Inertodetrinite (Figure 4H) is also be found in the coals. Semifusinite and fusinite have
176 visible homogenized cell walls (Figure 5), showing the anatomical characteristic which is consistent
177 with the identification of angiosperms (Oakley and Falcon-Lang, 2009; Scott, 2010). Liptinite content
178 is less than 1.5 vol.% with an average of 0.1 vol.%. Mineral content ranges from 0 to 2.6 vol.%, and
179 average 0.8 vol.%. Different sized fragments of charcoal are found in coals, including micro-charcoal
180 ($< 180\ \mu\text{m}$) (Figures 4G), meso-charcoal ($180\ \mu\text{m}$ –1 mm) (Figures 4E, 4F) and macro-charcoal (> 1
181 mm) (Scott, 2010).

182 The vertical profiles of huminite and inertinite in each coal seam studied (Figure 6) show an
183 obvious inverse relationship between huminite and inertinite. By subdividing coal seams into
184 depositional units that exhibit either increasing-up or decreasing-up trends in huminite and inertinite

185 content, the vertical trends of these indices in the three coal seams could be determined. As a result
186 of this analysis, seams A, B and C are subdivided into 2 (A1 and A2), 3 (B1, B2 and B3) and 3 (C1,
187 C2 and C3) depositional units, respectively.

188 The measured inertinite reflectance of the studied coals are shown in Figure 7. The inertinite
189 reflectance ranges from 0.76%Ro to 1.66%Ro with an average value of 1.18%Ro. Calculated burning
190 temperatures of the wildfires are 273–379 °C with an average value of 322 °C, indicating lower
191 temperature smoldering fires rather than high-temperature infernos.

192

193 **5 Discussion**

194 **5.1 Mire environments during the Albian**

195 The huminite, inertinite and mineral components in coals have been commonly used as
196 indicators of paleoenvironmental conditions in ancient mires (Diessel, 2007; Jerrett et al., 2011;
197 Petersen and Ratanasthien, 2011; Wang et al., 2019a; Wang et al., 2020). Huminite, mainly derived
198 from the humification of vascular plant material, implies anaerobic conditions and indicates rapid
199 burial of plant material. Liptinite is derived from hydrogen-rich plant components such as spores,
200 resins, waxes and cuticles. Inertinite consists of the same plant material as huminite and liptinite, but
201 underwent charring prior to humification (Scott, 2002). Mineral matter, represented by ash yields, is
202 transported into the mires mainly through fluvial or marine inundation. Coals with a low mineral
203 content and thus low ash yields (typically < 10% by volume) are interpreted as the product of raised,
204 ombrotrophic mires and coals with high mineral matter (typically > 10% by volume) are interpreted
205 as the product of low-lying, rheotrophic mires (Jerrett et al., 2015).

206 High levels of huminite (79.3 vol.%) and very low mineral (0.8 vol.%) contents of all the studied
207 coal seams (Table 1) indicate waterlogged conditions prevailed in the raised, ombrotrophic mires,

208 which can also be inferred from low ash yields (8.3%–22.7%) (Shao et al., 2020). The dynamics of
209 modern ombrotrophic peats suggest that climate, especially rainfall, has a significant effect on their
210 development (Opluštil and Sýkorová, 2018), which may be analogous to the mires that formed these
211 Early Cretaceous coals. In SE Asia, ombrotrophic mires are characterized by annual rainfall between
212 2800 and 4700 mm, with an average of approximately 3600 mm (Page et al., 2006), which means the
213 ombrotrophic mires can be maintained under high rainfall conditions. Therefore, it can be inferred
214 that the precursor mire of coal seams A, B and C in Hailar Basin developed under high annual rainfall
215 conditions.

216 **5.2 Wildfire in the Albian peatland**

217 The presence of moderate inertinite levels (19.8% vol.%) in the coal seams of the Jiuqiao Sag
218 provides evidence of regular wildfires during deposition of the mire. Inertinites are characterized by
219 relatively high reflectance, little or no fluorescence, high carbon and low hydrogen contents, and
220 strong aromatization (Teichmüller, 1989; Scott, 2002). Fusinite and semifusinite are frequently
221 found in inertinites. Both fusinite and semifusinite, as major maceral types of inertinite, have visible
222 plant cellular structure (Figure 5), implying an origin as charcoal from paleo-wildfires (Scott, 2002).
223 Cycles recorded by the vertical variations in abundance of inertinite and huminite composition of
224 coals in the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin (Figure 6) may reflect local-scale cyclic fluctuations in
225 wildfires during the development of the peat mires. The occurrence of wildfires is typically
226 facilitated by increased temperature and limited rainfall, although lightning for ignition, wind and
227 sufficient fuel are also required (McKenzie et al., 2004; Daniau et al., 2012). For example, the
228 regional-scale cyclic nature of inertinite and vitrinite distribution within the Cretaceous-Paleogene
229 coals in western Canada suggests regional-scale cyclic changes in temperature and rainfall (Jerrett
230 et al., 2015). The local and cyclic fluctuations in wildfires during the Albian are likely caused by

cyclic fluctuations in temperature and rainfall.

Reconstructions of paleo-atmospheric oxygen levels based on diverse proxies demonstrated that, during the Albian, the atmospheric oxygen content was globally high (Bergman, 2004; Glasspool and Scott, 2010; Wang et al., 2019b). Atmospheric oxygen levels during the Albian could have been up to 29% (Glasspool and Scott, 2010), contributing to regular occurrence and distribution of wildfires in terrestrial ecosystems. With high atmospheric oxygen levels, wet vegetation could be more easily burnt, which could result in a higher frequency of fire events than in the present day. The records of inertinite in coals of the Jiuqiao Sag and inferred high atmospheric oxygen content are consistent with the assumption that the Albian was a high-fire period.

5.3 Wildfire and angiosperm evolution

The fossil record show that angiosperms were increasingly important plants during the Cretaceous and became dominant in the Late Cretaceous (Brown et al., 2012; Tao et al., 2013). Early flowering angiosperms were characterized by understory herbs and shrubs with little woody tissue until at least the Albian (Bond and Scott, 2010; Zhang et al., 2018a). Angiosperms had much higher maximum leaf vein densities and maximum photosynthetic rate than ferns and gymnosperms during the Cretaceous (Brodribb and Feild, 2010). Angiosperms had typically faster life cycles than gymnosperms so that the angiosperms could make fuller use of the essential nutrients released by wildfires (Zhang et al., 2018a). Rapid accumulation of biomass from angiosperms with high rates of primary productivity during the Early Cretaceous (Brown et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018a) would provide ample fuel for the occurrence and high frequency of wildfires under high atmospheric oxygen concentrations (He and Lamont, 2018), further facilitating the spread of angiosperms. Therefore, frequent fires would have increased the mortality rates and reduced the re-growth rates of trees. Therefore frequent wildfire could open up these enclosed forests, which provided more open sunlit

environments for the expansion of the early angiosperms (Bond and Scott, 2010). Angiosperms are also capable of rapidly growing and surviving in disturbed environments, such as active stream systems or wet to aquatic environments (Feild et al., 2004; Brown et al., 2012).

All inertinites in Albian coals from the Jiuqiao Sag of Hailar Basin have a low inertinite reflectance (0.76%–1.66%) and low charcoal-forming burning temperature (273–379 °C) indicating that they were derived from ground fires (Scott, 1989) and favouring the fast recovery of low-stature plants after a burn. Low-intensity ground fires do not typically kill the roots of plants. The weedy angiosperms were well adapted to ground fire, being able to resprout quickly from their roots (Brown et al., 2012). The charred angiosperms (Figure 5) in the Hailar Basin indicate early angiosperms provided fuels for the occurrence of wildfires. The evidence is consistent with angiosperms taking advantage of regular fire regimes resulting in their spread and diversification (Bond and Scott, 2010). Therefore, the recurrent occurrence of palaeo-wildfire events in the Hailar Basin strengthen that fire was an important element reaching wetland biodiversity during the Albian, while diversification and spread of angiosperms was taking place globally.

5.4 Wildfire and anoxic events

When fires damage the soil structure and vegetation cover, this promotes surface water runoff and erosion leading to increased transport and deposition (Shakesby and Doerr, 2006; Shakesby, 2011; Brown et al., 2012). Post-fire erosion can contribute to enhanced weathering production and the flux and availability of nutrients such as phosphorous from land to rivers, lakes and oceans (Kump, 1988; Lenton and Watson, 2000; Glasspool et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2019). This potentially promotes the rapid growth of plankton that in turn can lead to anoxic lacustrine and oceanic environments (Berrocoso et al., 2010; Kraal et al., 2010; Brown et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2020b). Fire can also supplement the supply of phosphorous through aerosol inputs in the atmosphere as smoke, resulting

277 in phosphorous open ocean deposition (Baker et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2019). Albian marine anoxic
278 events coincided with high atmospheric oxygen levels (estimated about 25%) (Wang et al., 2019b)
279 and the contemporaneous coals in the Hailar Basin contain moderate inertinite levels that suggest
280 periods of frequent wildfire activity. Increased surface runoff and erosion after the palaeo-wildfires
281 in the Jiuqiao Sag during the Albian may have played a key role in the flux and availability of nutrients,
282 and the sedimentation in the related fluvial, lacustrine and marine systems, more or less resulting in
283 the Albian marine anoxic events. Therefore, it is possible that Albian anoxic events are related to
284 wildfires (Figure 8). Further study of fire records in black shales and contemporary coals are required
285 to establish the importance of fires during Cretaceous anoxic events.

286

287 **6 Conclusions**

- 288 (1) Coal petrology shows the coals of the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation in the Jiuqiao Sag of
289 the Hailar Basin are dominated by huminite, with inertinite and a low mineral content, indicating
290 waterlogged conditions prevailed in raised, ombrotrophic paleo-mires. Vertical huminite and
291 inertinite compositional changes within the coals in the Jiuqiao Sag may reflect local cyclic
292 fluctuations in temperature and rainfall during the development of the peat mires.
- 293 (2) The record of inertinite in coals and inferred high atmospheric oxygen levels suggest that the
294 Albian Hailar Basin was highly fire-prone. Burning temperatures ranged from 273 to 379 °C
295 inferred from inertinite reflectance, suggesting that the wildfires during the Albian were low-
296 temperature ground fires.
- 297 (3) The recurrent occurrences of palaeo-wildfire events in the studied succession in the Hailar Basin
298 reinforce that fire was a significant element reaching wetland biodiversity during the Albian,
299 while diversification and spread of angiosperms was taking place globally.

300 (4) The increasing of surface runoff and erosion after the palaeo-wildfires in the Jiuqiao Sag during
301 the Albian may have influenced the flux and availability of nutrients, and the sedimentation as
302 well, in the related fluvial, lacustrine and marine systems, more or less contributing to the
303 Albian marine anoxic events.

304

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311

312 **Data Availability**

313 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in the manuscript.

314

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531 **Figures and Tables captions**

532

533 Figure 1 Map showing tectonic units of Hailar Basin (Zhang and Long, 1995).

534

535 Figure 2 Stratigraphic chart of the Hailar Basin (Zhang and Long, 1995).

536

537 Figure 3 Summary column showing sedimentary facies of the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation in
538 the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin from the H1 borehole.

539

540 Figure 4 Photomicrographs of typical coal macerals in the studied coals in the Early Cretaceous
541 Yimin Formation of the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin. Tex, textoulminite; Eu, euulminite; Ge,
542 gelinite; Fu, fusinite; Ma, macrinite; Id, inertodetrinite. Fusinite shows high reflectance and well-
543 preserved cellular structure. All scale bars are 50 μm .

544

545 Figure 5 Scanning electron microscope micrographs of inertinite in the studied coals in the Early
546 Cretaceous Yimin Formation of the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin. All micrographs show cross
547 section of angiosperm charcoal with structured and homogenized cell walls. (A) Overview of cross-
548 section of angiosperm vessels, showing the roundish shapes of tracheids (sample 121). Scale bar 20
549 μm . (B) Cross-section showing less roundish shapes of tracheids (sample 121). Scale bar 20 μm .
550 (C) Charcoalified angiosperm showing vessels and homogenized cell walls (sample 121). Scale bar
551 20 μm . (D) Cross-section showing deformed tracheids (sample 121). Scale bar 10 μm .

552

553 Figure 6 Coal petrological properties of the coal seams A, B and C from the Early Cretaceous Yimin

554 Formation in the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin. Seams A, B and C are subdivided into 2 (A1 and
555 A2), 3 (B1, B2 and B3) and 3 (C1, C2 and C3) depositional units, respectively, indicating cyclic
556 fluctuations in wildfire during the development of the peat mires.

557

558 Figure 7 Measured inertinite reflectance values and calculated burning temperatures ($T = 184.10 +$
559 $117.76 \times \%Ro$) of wildfires in the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation coals of the Jiuqiao Sag of
560 the Hailar Basin. Low inertinite reflectance values and low burning temperatures are interpreted to
561 suggest that wildfires were ground fires.

562

563 Figure 8 Schematic model showing possible relationships between wildfires and anoxic events

564

565 Table 1 Maceral and mineral contents of the coal seams from the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation
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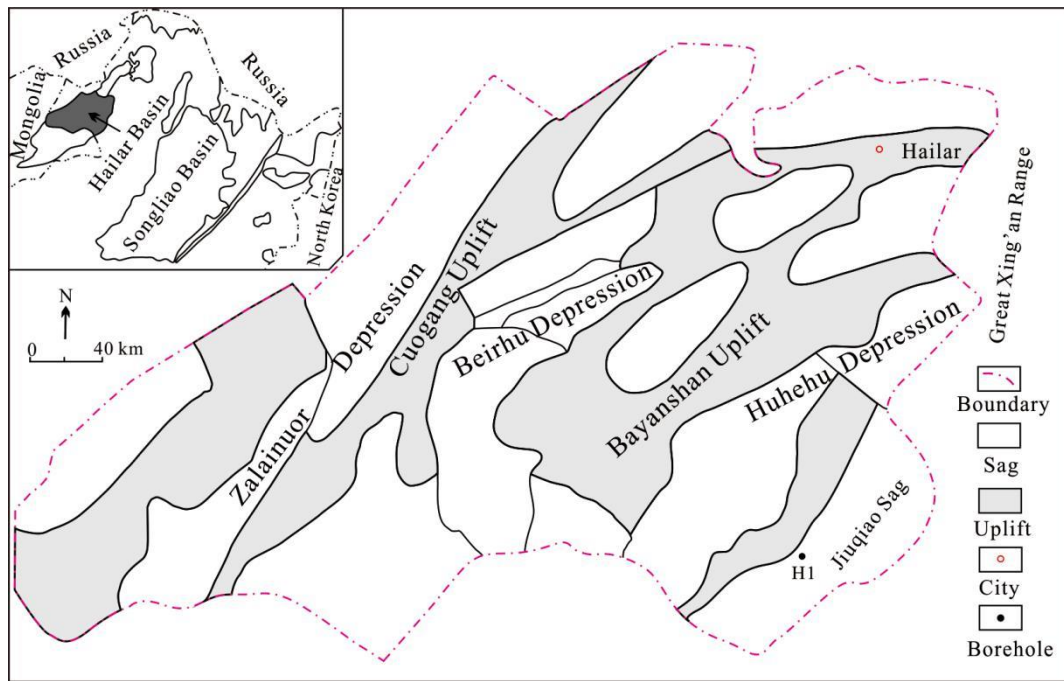


Figure 1 Map showing tectonic units of Hailar Basin (Zhang and Long, 1995).

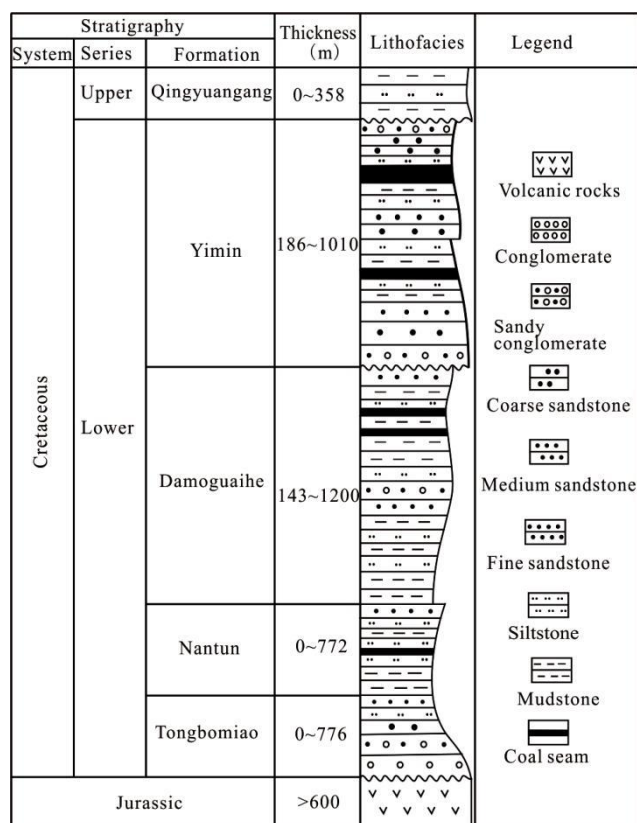


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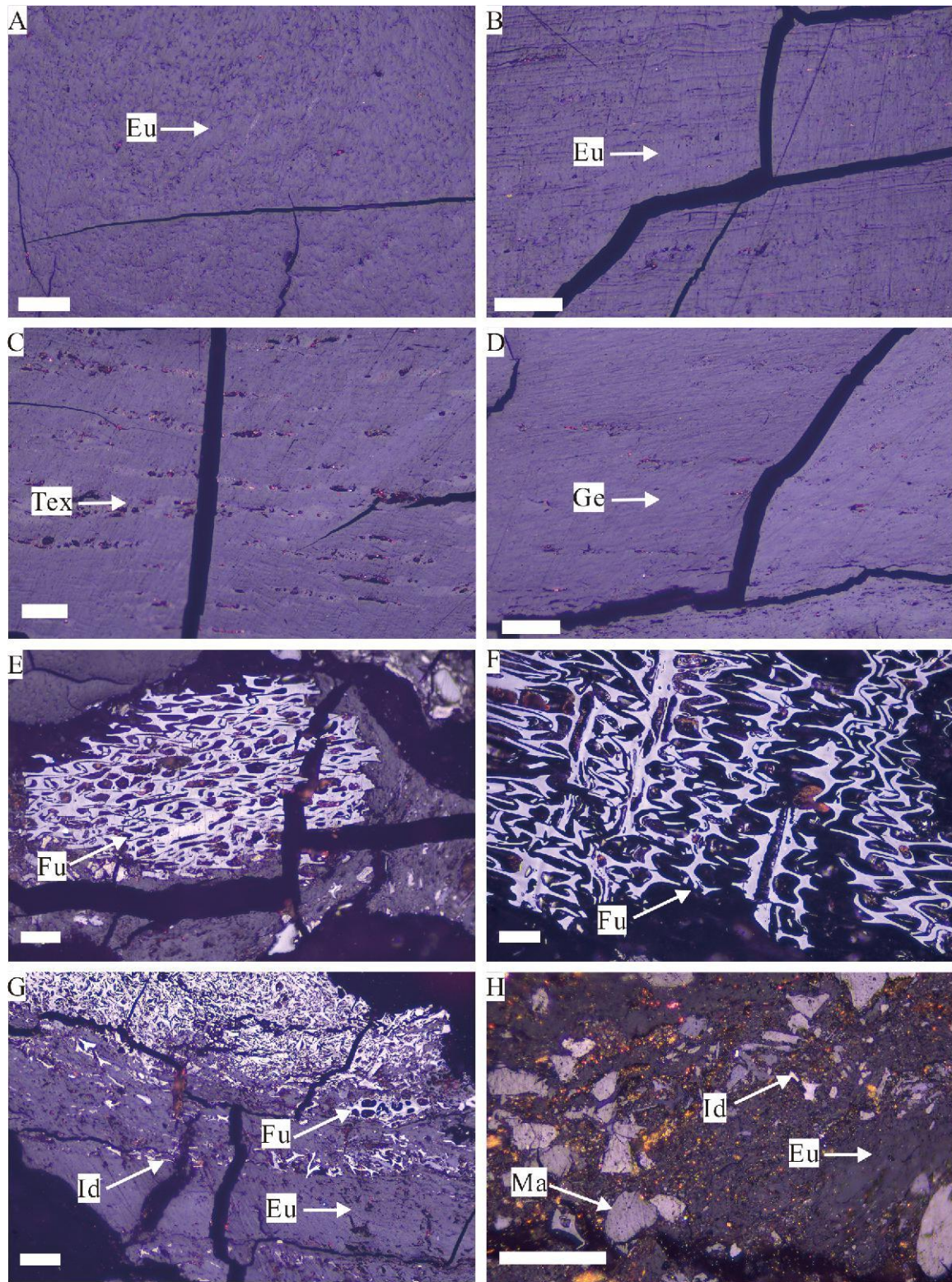


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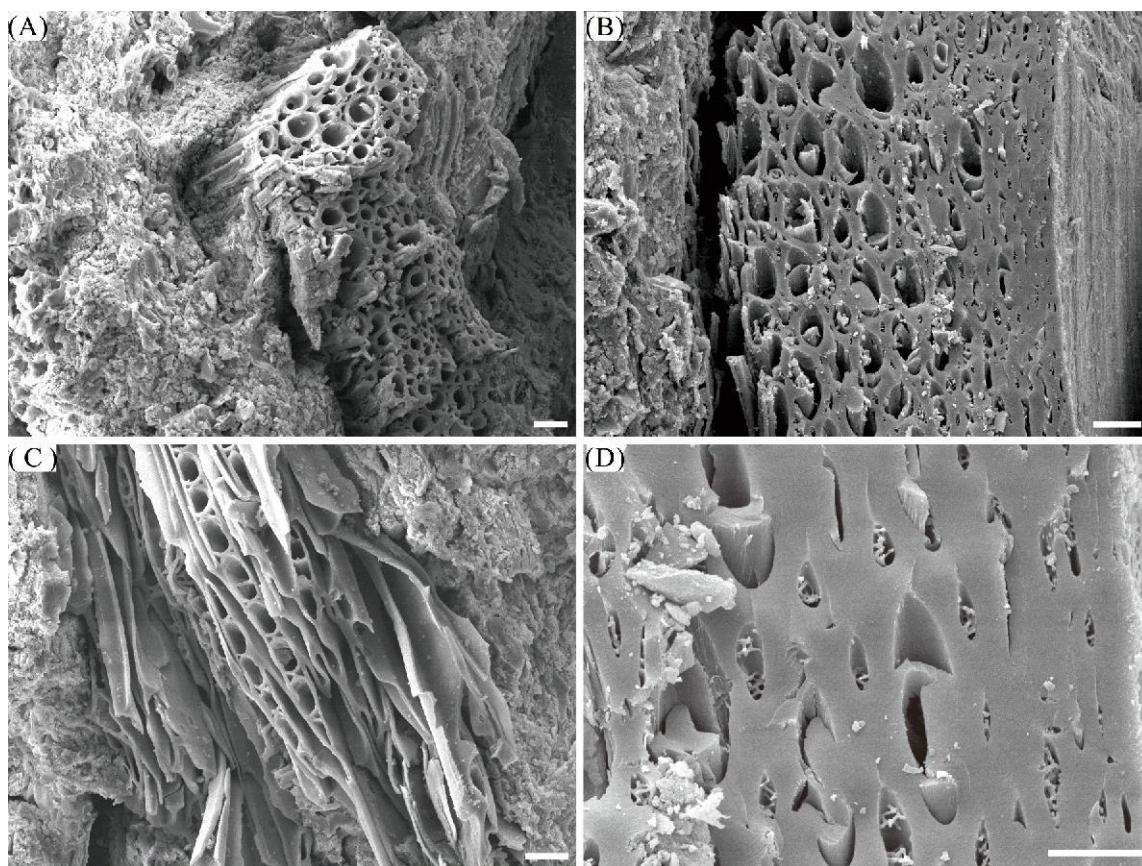


Figure 5 Scanning electron microscope micrographs of inertinite in the studied coals in the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation of the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin. All micrographs show cross section of angiosperm charcoal with structured and homogenized cell walls. (A) Overview of cross-section of angiosperm vessels, showing the roundish shapes of tracheids (sample 121). Scale bar 20 μm . (B) Cross-section showing less roundish shapes of tracheids (sample 121). Scale bar 20 μm . (C) Charcoalified angiosperm showing vessels and homogenized cell walls (sample 121). Scale bar 20 μm . (D) Cross-section showing deformed tracheids (sample 121). Scale bar 10 μm .

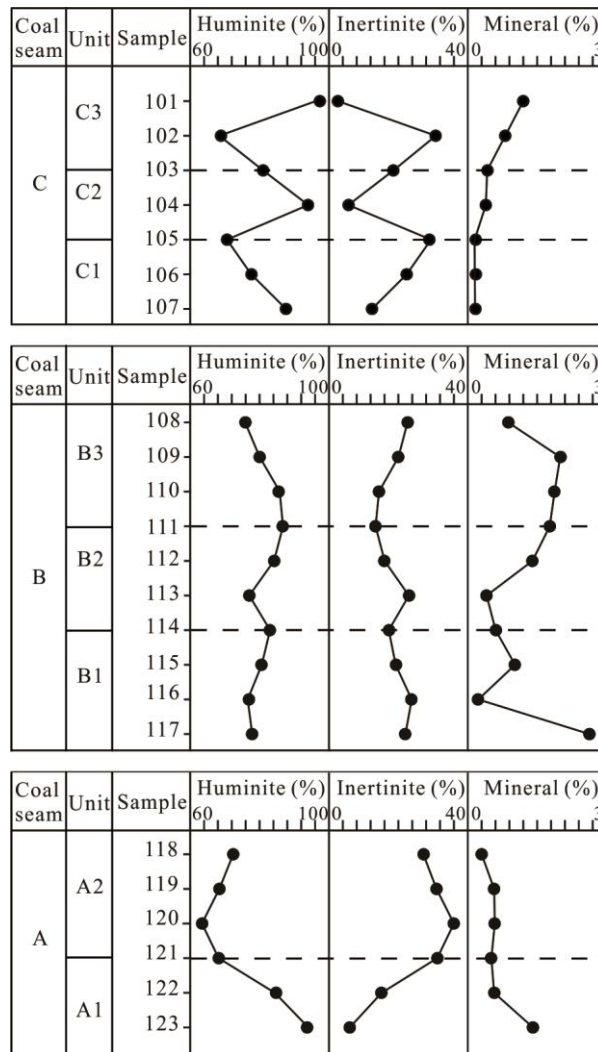


Figure 6 Coal petrological properties of the coal seams A, B and C from the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation in the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin. Seams A, B and C are subdivided into 2 (A1 and A2), 3 (B1, B2 and B3) and 3 (C1, C2 and C3) depositional units, respectively, indicating cyclic fluctuations in wildfire during the development of the peat mires.

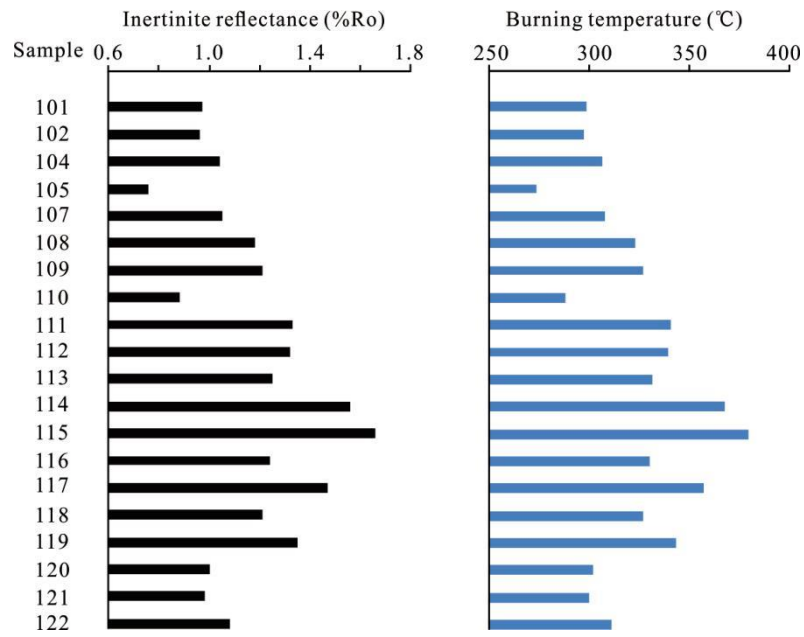


Figure 7 Measured inertinite reflectance values and calculated burning temperatures ($T = 184.10 + 117.76 \times \%Ro$) of wildfires in the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation coals of the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin. Low inertinite reflectance values and low burning temperatures are interpreted to suggest that wildfires were ground fires.

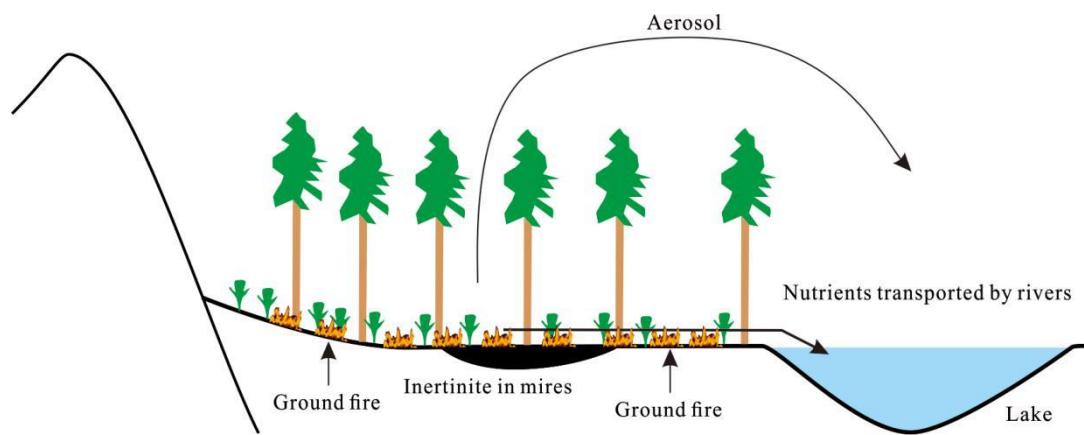


Figure 8 Schematic model showing possible relationships between wildfires and anoxic events

Table 1 Maceral and mineral contents of the coal seams from the Early Cretaceous Yimin Formation in the Jiuqiao Sag of the Hailar Basin.

Coal seam	Unit	Sample	Depth (m)	Huminite (vol.%, mmf)								Inertinite (vol.%, mmf)						Liptinite (vol.%, mmf)			Minerals (vol.%)			
				Te	Tex	Eu	At	De	Ge	Co	T-Hu	Fu	Sf	Fg	Ma	Id	T-In	Re	Su	T-Li	Cl	Ca	Qu	T-Mi
C	C3	101	150.6	2.3	10.6	27.4	1.2	0.0	55.6	0.3	97.4	1.7	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.2	2.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.3	0.0	1.2
		102	150.7	12.2	17.8	0.0	0.3	0.2	36.9	1.6	69.0	12.7	17.3	0.0	0.0	1.0	31.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.2	0.8
	C2	103	150.8	2.1	13.5	33.6	0.0	0.2	27.6	4.3	81.4	5.6	11.1	0.6	0.9	0.4	18.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.4
		104	150.9	2.9	37.2	0.0	0.4	0.0	52.8	1.0	94.3	3.1	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.2	5.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.4
	C1	105	151.0	4.2	13.2	8.1	0.0	0.0	45.1	0.0	70.6	11.7	17.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	29.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
		106	151.1	4.3	12.6	15.9	0.0	0.0	44.9	0.0	77.7	4.3	18.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	22.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
		107	151.2	3.8	18.5	1.0	0.3	0.8	63.3	0.0	87.6	2.8	6.1	0.0	0.0	3.5	12.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
B	B3	108	220.4	1.1	10.2	4.3	0.3	4.5	55.4	0.3	76.1	9.1	11.9	0.0	0.3	1.1	22.4	0.9	0.6	1.5	0.3	0.6	0.0	0.8
		109	221.0	6.8	23.7	0.8	0.2	1.0	46.5	1.0	80.1	9.5	9.3	0.0	0.0	1.2	19.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.8	0.2	2.0
		110	221.6	2.2	20.2	3.9	0.2	0.0	56.7	2.4	85.8	3.7	9.9	0.0	0.2	0.4	14.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.6	0.0	1.8
	B2	111	222.2	3.0	7.1	6.5	0.2	0.0	68.8	1.2	86.8	3.4	9.5	0.0	0.0	0.4	13.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.6	1.7
		112	222.8	1.4	9.0	13.3	0.0	0.2	59.8	0.7	84.3	5.9	8.6	0.0	0.5	0.7	15.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.3	0.2	1.4
		113	223.4	2.4	13.5	16.0	0.0	0.0	44.9	0.4	77.2	11.9	10.2	0.0	0.2	0.6	22.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.4
	B1	114	224.0	0.2	1.5	38.2	0.0	0.0	39.0	4.1	83.0	16.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	17.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.4	0.6
		115	224.6	2.2	12.3	16.7	0.0	0.0	49.1	0.6	80.9	7.6	11.3	0.0	0.0	0.2	19.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.2	0.2	1.0
		116	225.2	1.1	7.5	25.8	0.0	0.0	42.2	0.0	76.6	5.3	18.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	23.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2
		117	225.8	2.3	6.1	23.0	0.2	0.0	45.0	1.3	77.9	8.4	13.3	0.0	0.2	0.2	22.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.7	0.7	0.2	2.6
A	A2	118	328.5	1.2	6.5	22.9	0.0	0.0	42.1	0.0	72.6	8.1	18.3	0.0	0.8	0.2	27.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3
		119	330.5	12.2	9.9	6.5	0.0	0.0	39.0	1.3	68.8	12.2	17.9	0.0	0.6	0.6	31.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.6
		120	332.5	1.6	4.3	13.6	0.0	0.0	44.4	0.0	63.8	8.4	27.6	0.0	0.2	0.0	36.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.4	0.6

		121	334.5	20.3	17.4	0.3	0.0	0.0	28.4	2.2	68.6	10.8	19.4	0.0	1.0	0.2	31.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.5
	A1	122	336.5	8.5	11.9	16.0	0.0	0.0	48.5	0.0	84.8	2.5	12.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.4	8.5
		123	338.5	1.6	22.1	23.2	0.0	0.0	46.3	0.7	93.9	2.7	2.9	0.0	0.4	0.2	6.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	1.6

Te, textinite; Tex, textoulminite; Eu, euulminite; At, Attrinite; De, densinite; Ge, gelinite; Co, corpogelinite; T-Hu, total huminite; Su, suberinite; Re, resinite; T-Lp, total liptinite; Fu, fusinite; Sf, semifusinite; Fg, funginite; Ma, macrinite; Id, inertodetrinite; T-In, total inertinite; Cl, clay; Ca, Calcite; Qu, Quartz; T-Mi, total mineral; mmf-mineral matter free.