

1 Latest Permian chars may derive from wildfires not coal
2 combustion

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7 **ABSTRACT**

8 The Permian-Triassic extinction event was the largest biocrisis of the Phanerozoic. One
9 of the principle triggers for the ‘big dying’ is thought to be greenhouse warming resulting from
10 the release of CH₄ from basalt-coal interaction during the extensive Siberian Trap eruptions.
11 Observations of organic matter interpreted to be coal combustion products (fly ash) in latest
12 Permian marine sediments have been used to support this hypothesis. However, this
13 interpretation is dependent upon vesicular chars being fly ash (coal combustion-derived) and not
14 formed by alternative mechanisms. Here we present reflectance microscopy images of vesicular
15 chars from Russian Permian coals, as well as chars from modern tundra, peatland and boreal
16 forest fires, to demonstrate that despite a difference in precursor fuels, wildfires are capable of
17 generating vesicular chars that are morphologically comparable to end Permian ‘fly ash’. These
18 observations, coupled with extensive global evidence of wildfires during this time interval calls
19 into question the contribution of coal combustion to the end Permian extinction event.

20 **INTRODUCTION**

21 The Permian-Triassic boundary event decimated 80-96% of marine and 70% of terrestrial
22 life and is marked in the geological record by a significant 2–8‰ negative organic and carbonate

23 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion (Chen and Benton, 2012). One suggestion is that massive greenhouse warming
24 (Erwin, 1994) led to the most significant mass extinction event ever to occur on our planet. One
25 of the greenhouse contributors is thought to have been extensive CH_4 release from the
26 combustion of coals and organic-rich shales, during the emplacement of shallow intrusions, as
27 part of the Siberian Trap eruptions (Retallack and Jahren, 2008; Grasby et al., 2011; Ogden and
28 Sleep, 2012).

29 In modern coal-fired power stations char is produced during high temperature
30 combustion of pulverized coal. The coals undergo complex physical and chemical
31 transformations, giving off volatiles and producing solid residues (char). The resulting char
32 (termed 'coal fly ash' in Grasby et al. (2011)) is highly variable depending on the organic
33 constituents of the precursor coal (Bailey et al., 1990; Yu et al., 2007; Lester et al., 2010), and
34 the morphology of the char ranges from solid to vesicular. Vesicular chars in particular, in Late
35 Permian sediments from Lake Buchanan in Arctic Canada have been interpreted as definitive
36 evidence of coal combustion. These chars represent the only physical indicator of coal
37 combustion outside of Siberia and have been used extensively as evidence for global dispersal of
38 coal fly ash at the end Permian extinction event (Grasby et al., 2011; Ogden and Sleep, 2012;
39 Sanei et al., 2012; Knies et al., 2013; Kerr, 2013). In order to transport these coal combustion
40 chars 20,000 km from the Siberian Trap source, models imply that explosive interactions of coal
41 and magma would be required to propel coal-char-basalt mixtures into the stratosphere, thus
42 enabling global distribution of the resulting coal fly ash (Ogden and Sleep, 2012). Yet the lack of
43 documented coal fly ash elsewhere casts doubt on this transport mechanism. Until now, coal
44 combustion has been the only considered mechanism for char formation; however, vesicular
45 chars can also form naturally during modern wildfires (e.g. Fig. 1 E-J). Further, much of the

46 “coal fly ash” (illustrated in Grasby et al. (2011)) is described as deriving from inertinite
47 precursors. Inertinite is a coal petrography term for fossil charcoal (Glasspool and Scott, 2010).
48 Therefore, it should be evaluated whether these Late Permian chars in fact represent small
49 fragments of fossil charcoal produced in contemporaneous Late Permian wildfires (compare
50 figure 2 in Grasby et al. (2011) with images of inertinite in Fig. S1). Typically, inertinite is
51 described as having cellular structure (e.g., Figure 1B; Fig. S1G,I-J; ICCP, 2001), but inertinite
52 morphology can be highly variable (e.g., Fig. S1; Fig. S2A-C; ICCP, 2001), and charcoal only
53 represents one component in a continuum of products produced by wildfires (Masiello, 2004)
54 (Fig. 1). Wildfire-derived char can have a variety of morphologies (Fig. 1) and in this study we
55 will focus on one of these char products that we call vesicular char (otherwise referred to as
56 natural char in the coal literature e.g., Petersen (1998) and Kwiecińska and Petersen (2004)).
57 Vesicular chars have been documented previously in coals and carbonaceous mudstones of
58 Carboniferous, Permian, Jurassic, Cretaceous and Tertiary age (Kwiecińska and Petersen, 2004).
59 Here we document vesicular char from wildfire-derived charcoal assemblages, in modern
60 ecosystems as well as in Late Permian coals (Fig. 1; Figs. S1-S2) in order to demonstrate that
61 wildfires can produce vesicular char that is morphologically comparable to chars interpreted by
62 Grasby et al. (2011) to be coal fly ash from the Permian-Triassic event.

63 **METHODS**

64 Polished blocks containing Permian, modern tundra, modern peatland and Holocene
65 Alaskan boreal forest vesicular chars (see supplementary material for detailed sampling
66 information) were studied under oil using reflected-light microscopy. The peatland and Holocene
67 samples were studied using a Leica DM2500P reflectance microscope at $\times 200$ and $\times 500$
68 magnifications, at Southern Illinois University Carbondale, USA. Images were taken using a

69 Leica DFC 400 digital camera and Leica Application Suite imaging software. The Permian coal
70 and tundra samples were analyzed at Royal Holloway University of London, UK, using a Leica
71 DM2500P reflectance microscope at $\times 200$ magnification. Representative color
72 photomicrographs (2560×1920 pixel resolution) were taken using a 5-megapixel camera
73 attached to the reflectance microscope and Prog-Res Capture Pro 2.7 software.

74 **RESULTS**

75 Vesicular char is thought to form from the burning of gelified plant material during
76 ground or surface fires in ancient mire environments (Petersen, 1998). The Permian chars in this
77 study originate from a peat-forming environment in the Kuznetsk Basin, Siberia (Fig. 1A-D; Fig.
78 S1), supporting the formation of vesicular chars in mire ground/surface fires. However, we
79 further document the occurrence of vesicular chars in charcoal assemblages from Holocene
80 boreal forest (Fig. 1E-F), and modern tundra (Fig. 1G-H) ecosystems in Alaska, as well as a
81 modern peat bog in Ireland (Fig. 1I-J), thus demonstrating that vesicular char can form
82 irrespective of fuel or ecosystem type, and emphasizing that the mechanisms of char formation
83 are still not fully understood. This might explain why vesicular chars, despite their common
84 occurrence in coals and carbonaceous mudstones, are an often overlooked signature of wildfires.
85 These wildfire-derived vesicular chars vary in morphology as the plant material undergoes a
86 plastic deformation phase when rapidly heated; losing cellular structure and generating tar (Cetin
87 et al., 2005). The volatile matter becomes trapped during combustion and produces bubbles,
88 which then form irregularly distributed vesicles after devolatilization (Petersen, 1998) (Fig. 1;
89 Fig. S2). The Late Permian (Fig. 1A-D; Fig. S1), and modern tundra (Fig. 1G-H) vesicular chars
90 are dense and contain fewer vesicles, possibly indicative of slower volatile release caused by
91 longer heating durations or lower maximum temperatures reached. Whereas, the boreal forest

92 (Fig. 1F) and modern peatland (Fig. 1I-J; Fig. S2I-K) vesicular chars are highly vesiculated,
93 suggestive of rapid heating, or higher temperatures reached during char formation. Vesicles have
94 also been observed in low reflecting, hence low temperature chars (Jones et al., 1991), in modern
95 tundra, peatland and experimentally charred inner bark (Fig. 1G-H; Fig. S2D,E,H) suggesting
96 that processes other than formation temperature may influence char morphology. For instance,
97 vesicles observed in charred degraded inner bark (Fig. S2D-G), and charred degraded plant
98 material from a modern peat bog (Fig. S2J-K), suggest that the type and degree of degradation
99 may influence the resulting char morphology. The degree of degradation that the original plant
100 material has undergone prior to charring also prevents determining the original botanical affinity
101 of these vesicular chars, which may further limit their identification in the fossil record. These
102 results indicate that vesicular chars may be products of wildfire, irrespective of geological time
103 interval, vegetation, ecosystem type, or fire behavior. It is likely that differences in morphology
104 can be attributed to variations in heating temperature and duration, the precursor fuels, and
105 degree of degradation prior to charring.

106 **DISCUSSION**

107 Late Permian peat-forming environments covered large swathes of Pangaea (now coal
108 deposits in modern day southeastern Africa, India, Australia, China, Antarctica, South America,
109 and Russia). Wildfire was a frequent disturbance in these ancient peat-forming environments, as
110 is evidenced in the fossil record by coeval high fossil charcoal (inertinite) contents (mean 38.9
111 vol. %) observed in Late Permian coals, compared to modern peats (mean 4.3 vol. %) (Glasspool
112 and Scott, 2010). The ignition potential of the Permian peat would have been greatly enhanced
113 due to elevated atmospheric oxygen levels at the time (Belcher et al., 2010; Glasspool and Scott,
114 2010), resulting in higher temperature fires with more rapid spread rates (Belcher et al., 2010;

115 Hadden et al., 2013), beyond those seen in modern peat fires. These factors may explain why
116 coals with high inertinite contents, such as those from the Late Permian, contain more vesicular
117 char (Kwiecińska and Petersen, 2004).

118 The size of vesicular chars is highly variable and can range from 30 - 900 μ m
119 (Kwiecińska and Petersen, 2004), unlike the typical 50 μ m size observed in Grasby et al. (2011).
120 Numerous charcoal taphonomy studies have demonstrated that charcoal particle size distribution
121 can indicate the distance to source; with the microscopic fraction (particles 20–50 μ m in size)
122 typically being windborne over long distances (Clark, 1988; Patterson et al., 1987). Moreover,
123 during periods of enhanced fire activity and/or exceptional fire weather, intense convection from
124 modern wildfires can transport smoke plumes (particulates and gaseous emissions) to the
125 stratosphere (Fromm et al., 2000), thus enabling global dispersal of microscopic wildfire-derived
126 particulates (Fromm et al., 2000); however, these high elevation smoke plumes are typically
127 latitudinally restricted (Siddaway and Petelina, 2011). If vesicular chars were indeed produced in
128 Permian peatland wildfires, and assuming that transport behavior of Permian smoke plumes was
129 analogous to that seen today, in order to transport the char to the Buchanan Lake site the fires
130 would need to be at a comparable paleolatitude. The predominant Permian paleowind direction
131 was thought to be Westerly (e.g., Gibbs et al., 2002). This means that paleowildfires occurring in
132 the extensive peat-forming environments of Angara and Cathaysia could represent viable sources
133 of this vesicular char.

134 Our interpretation of vesicular char production in Late Permian wildfires, and the global
135 transport of wildfire-derived products in high elevation smoke plumes, is further supported by
136 the occurrence of high concentrations of wildfire-derived black carbon (including charcoal and
137 soot), and biomass burning-derived polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), observed in

138 numerous Northern Hemisphere Permian-Triassic boundary sections across Meishan, China, E.
139 Greenland and the Peace River Basin, Canada (Nabbefeld et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2011). The
140 latter is ~3000km distant from the documented occurrence of char in the Sverdrup Basin, Canada
141 (Fig. 1 in Beatty et al. (2008)). These combined lines of evidence suggest that chars observed in
142 Grasby et al. (2011) could have formed in latest Permian wildfires.

143 In addition to char occurrence, other chemical signatures have also been associated with
144 'fly ash loading events' (Grasby et al., 2011), such as anomalously high mercury levels (Sanei et
145 al., 2012). Volcanic emissions account for the majority of modern perturbations in the mercury
146 cycle and high mercury levels at the Permian-Triassic are likely explained by Siberian Trap
147 volcanism (Sanei et al., 2012). In addition, vegetation, and peat in particular, have been shown to
148 strongly bond mercury, causing peat-forming environments to become syngenetically enriched in
149 mercury (Yudovich and Ketris, 2005). Peak accumulation rates of mercury have also been
150 directly correlated with volcanic events (Roos-Barraclough et al., 2002). Modern forest fires are
151 capable of re-emitting substantial quantities of atmospherically deposited mercury to the
152 atmosphere (Friedli et al., 2009). Within the timeframe of the Permian-Triassic extinction
153 interval (60 ± 48 ka) (Burgess et al., 2014) it is feasible that volcanic-derived heavy metals and
154 mercury became sequestered by plants and peat, which then could have been remobilized to the
155 atmosphere in smoke plumes during subsequent wildfires.

156 The compelling evidence for widespread wildfire activity throughout the Permian and
157 leading up to the extinction event, suggest that wildfires may have also contributed a minor
158 amount to the greenhouse crisis; sustained peat combustion has been shown to increase CO₂
159 emissions significantly enough to generate a pronounced negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion (Finkelstein et
160 al., 2006), and negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ shifts are noted after each 'fly ash loading event' (Grasby et al.,

161 2011). In order generate the negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotope excursion by coal combustion alone modeling
162 suggests that all of the carbon in 1000 km^3 of coal would need to be extracted (Ogden and Sleep,
163 2012). The extent of coal-magma interaction cannot be verified due to the lack of
164 metamorphosed coal exposures at the surface therefore we reason that latest Permian chars were
165 more likely produced by wildfires, and do not represent conclusive evidence for 'fly ash' (in
166 Grasby et al. (2011)). Further, recent work has suggested that methane release from microbial
167 metabolic activity alone could have generated the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion (Rothman et al., 2014). This
168 combined with the wildfire-derived char evidence casts doubt on the fly ash hypothesis, and
169 therefore the contribution of coal combustion to the greenhouse crisis at the end Permian
170 extinction event.

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278 **FIGURE CAPTION**

279 Figure 1. Photomicrographs of vesicular chars. A-D Vesicular chars in Late Permian coals,
280 Kuznetsk Basin, Siberia. E-F chars extracted from Holocene lake sediments, boreal forest,
281 Yukon Flats, Alaska, G-H char from a modern tussock tundra fire, Alaska. I-J chars from a
282 modern peatland fire, Ireland.

283 ¹GSA Data Repository item 2014xxx, xxxxxxxx, is available online at
284 www.geosociety.org/pubs/ft2014.htm, or on request from editing@geosociety.org or Documents
285 Secretary, GSA, P.O. Box 9140, Boulder, CO 80301, USA.

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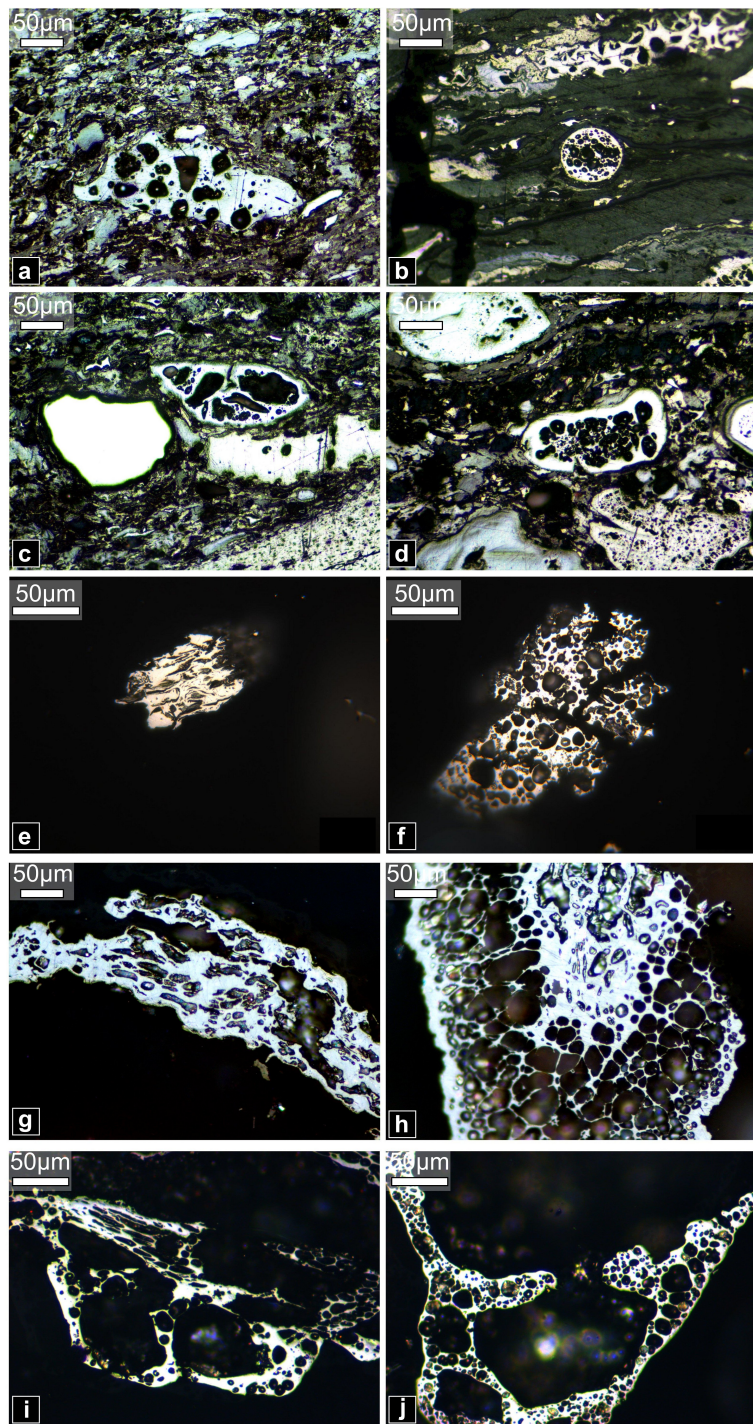
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300 Figure 1