



## Carboniferous isotope stratigraphy

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**Abstract:** We present an updated set of Carboniferous Sr, C and O isotope stratigraphies based on the existing literature, given the importance of chemostratigraphy for stratigraphic correlation in the Carboniferous. The Carboniferous  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  record, constructed using brachiopods and conodonts, exhibits five first-order phases beginning with a rapid decline from a peak value of c. 0.70840 at the Devonian–Carboniferous boundary to a trough (0.70776–0.70771) in the Visean followed by a rise to a plateau (c. 0.70827) in the upper Bashkirian. A decline to c. 0.70804 follows from the lowermost Gzhelian to the close of the Carboniferous. Contemporary carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  records exhibit considerable variability between materials analysed and by region, although pronounced excursions (e.g. the mid-Tournaisian positive excursion and the end-Kasimovian negative excursion) are present in most records. Bulk carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  records from South China and Europe, however, are generally consistent with those of brachiopod calcite from North America in terms of both absolute values and trends. Both brachiopod calcite and conodont phosphate  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  document large regional variability, confirming that Carboniferous  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records are invalid for precise stratigraphic correlation. Nevertheless, significant positive  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shifts in certain intervals (e.g. mid-Tournaisian and the Mississippian–Pennsylvanian transition) can be used for global correlation.

**Supplementary material:** Age-updated geochemical data used to build the figures are available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.c.5215784>

Isotope stratigraphy can be used for correlation and dating of sedimentary successions (e.g. Montañez *et al.* 1996; Saltzman *et al.* 2000; Chen *et al.* 2018; Garbelli *et al.* 2019), and thus it becomes increasingly important for searching for Global Stratotype Sections and Points (GSSPs). Isotope stratigraphy can also be used to identify stratigraphic completeness and discontinuities (Glumac and Spivak-Birndorf 2002; Chen *et al.* 2011; Z. Wang *et al.* 2020) and spatial variability in biogeochemical cycling of certain isotopes (e.g. Schiffbauer *et al.* 2017; Montañez *et al.* 2018). Therefore, isotope stratigraphy of different elements (e.g. Sr, C and O) is fundamental to integrative stratigraphic studies as well as Earth surface system studies.

Marine fossil taxa such as conodonts, foraminifers, fusulinids and ammonites are commonly used as index fossils for GSSPs of the Carboniferous (Wang *et al.* 2019). These fauna are, however, often facies dependent, thus hampering efforts for effective stratigraphic correlation (e.g. Groves *et al.* 2012; J. Chen *et al.* 2016; Cózar *et al.* 2019). Seawater  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values recorded in low-temperature marine precipitates are considered to have high potential for stratigraphic correlation and

for defining GSSPs (e.g. Saltzman *et al.* 2000, 2014; Chen *et al.* 2018; Garbelli *et al.* 2019). Although there are several existing Carboniferous  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records for Euramerica and South China, these records are characterized by considerable variability in spatial and/or temporal resolution and by the differing types of material analysed (e.g. Mii *et al.* 1999, 2001; Grossman *et al.* 2008; Brand *et al.* 2012; Chen *et al.* 2018; Montañez *et al.* 2018). In this paper, we review the existing Carboniferous Sr, C and O isotope stratigraphies with emphasis on intervals characterized by pronounced isotopic perturbations.

### Strontium isotope stratigraphy

Seawater strontium isotopic composition ( $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ) represents a mixture of two main sources: continent-derived, more radiogenic weathering flux and mantle-derived, less radiogenic volcanic and hydrothermal fluxes (Palmer and Edmond 1989; Davis *et al.* 2003; Allègre *et al.* 2010). Given the long residence time (2–5 myr) of Sr in the oceans relative to the short oceanic mixing time (1–1.5 kyr), at any

given time, seawater is thought to be homogeneous with respect to  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ . Exceptions, however, may include marginal-marine and estuarine settings with reduced salinities (e.g. Ingram and Sloan 1992; Sharma *et al.* 2007; Bryant *et al.* 2015; Montañez *et al.* 2018). Thus, with this caveat in consideration, seawater  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  has good potential for dating and correlating normal marine successions worldwide, particularly when biostratigraphy is limited and for those stratigraphic intervals characterized by a high rate of change in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  (e.g. Saltzman *et al.* 2014; Garbelli *et al.* 2019). Uncertainty in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ -based numerical age dating is dependent both on the uncertainty of the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  calibration curve and on the rate of change in the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  curve (McArthur *et al.* 2012). For example, a more precise age can be obtained if the uncertainty of the calibration curve is small and the rate of change in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  is rapid for a given time interval, whereas usage of  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  for age dating and stratigraphic correlation is invalid for intervals with invariable  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values or with a low rate of change.

#### *Choice of material and diagenesis*

For the use of the Sr isotope proxy, however, caution should be taken with respect to the choice of pristine material that can faithfully record the seawater isotopic signature. Given the high susceptibility of carbonates to diagenetic alteration and potential contamination of measured  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios by radiogenic Sr ( $^{87}\text{Sr}$ ) contributed from detrital aluminosilicate phases during acid digestion, bulk carbonates are not the preferential material for constructing palaeoseawater  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  when other diagenesis-resistant biogenic (calcitic and phosphatic) materials exist. Nevertheless, marine-cemented bulk carbonate is the most abundant of the available materials for Sr isotope studies throughout Earth history, and in particular there is no available fossil material in the Precambrian. Thus, carbonates have long been investigated for preservational potential and by acid leaching methods for  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  work. Based on comparison studies of contemporaneous conodont (Saltzman *et al.* 2014) and bulk carbonate (Edwards *et al.* 2015)  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  from the Ordovician in North America, Edwards *et al.* (2015, p. 1275) suggested that bulk carbonates may faithfully record seawater  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  if the samples meet certain screening criteria such as  $[\text{Sr}] > 300 \text{ ppm}$  and ‘minimal thermal alteration, with burial temperatures less than *c.* 150°C’. However, a one-on-one comparison of brachiopods and bulk carbonate  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  suggests that caution should be taken when using cut-off levels of contents and ratios of major and trace elements (e.g.  $[\text{Sr}]$  and  $[\text{Mn}]$ ) as screening measures (Zaky *et al.* 2019). On the other hand, a sequential carbonate leaching approach was

recently developed to isolate the least diagenetically altered carbonate phases from detrital aluminosilicate Sr contamination (Bellefroid *et al.* 2018). Their bulk limestone  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values, obtained using the sequential leaching method on samples of Mid-Carboniferous Bird Spring carbonates (Arrow Canyon, Nevada, USA), were near identical to the coeval, well-preserved calcite brachiopod  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values (Bellefroid *et al.* 2018). Lastly, well-preserved, early marine cements are considered to more faithfully record seawater  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  (cf. Zhou *et al.* 2020). Application of early marine cements, however, requires that specific lithofacies (e.g. grainstone and microbialites) occur in the succession of interest and the use of systematic diagenetic screening and micro-drilling techniques. Diagenetic screening typically involves a stepwise process of plane-light petrography, scanning electron microscopy, cathodoluminescence microscopy, and major and trace element evaluation.

Diagenetically screened brachiopods are widely regarded as ideal material for developing  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  as well as for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records (e.g. Bruckschen *et al.* 1999; Mii *et al.* 1999, 2001; Veizer *et al.* 1999; Grossman *et al.* 2008; Prokoph *et al.* 2008; Brand *et al.* 2009, 2012; Garbelli *et al.* 2019; Zaky *et al.* 2019). However, continuous and high temporal resolution sampling of brachiopods is not possible in many stratigraphic successions, although near continuous sampling of brachiopods at the metre to sub-metre scale is plausible for certain stratigraphic intervals in some carbonate successions (Brand *et al.* 2012; W.-Q. Wang *et al.* 2020). Furthermore, composite isotopic records of brachiopods can be compromised by uncertainties in stratigraphic correlation between sections and regions (Korte and Ullmann 2018).

Conodonts, fossil teeth of nektonic animals, are present in nearly all the Paleozoic marine successions of either shallow- or deeper-water depositional environments, in contrast to benthic brachiopods, which mostly lived on shallow-water shelves. Thus, conodonts have the potential to provide an optimum medium for reconstruction of continuous records of  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ . Besides, conodonts are also regarded as being the most resistant to diagenesis based on evaluation of oxygen isotopes (Wenzel *et al.* 2000; Joachimski *et al.* 2009), despite the absence of diagenetic evaluation techniques comparable to those applied to carbonates. Previous studies have shown that conodonts with relatively low to even high colour alteration index ( $\text{CAI} \leq 4-5$ ) may preserve pristine seawater geochemistry if properly chemically treated (Ruppel *et al.* 1996; Armstrong *et al.* 2001; John *et al.* 2008; Saltzman *et al.* 2014; Dudás *et al.* 2017; Chen *et al.* 2018; Montañez *et al.* 2018), whereas others show that conodonts can have more radiogenic  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values than

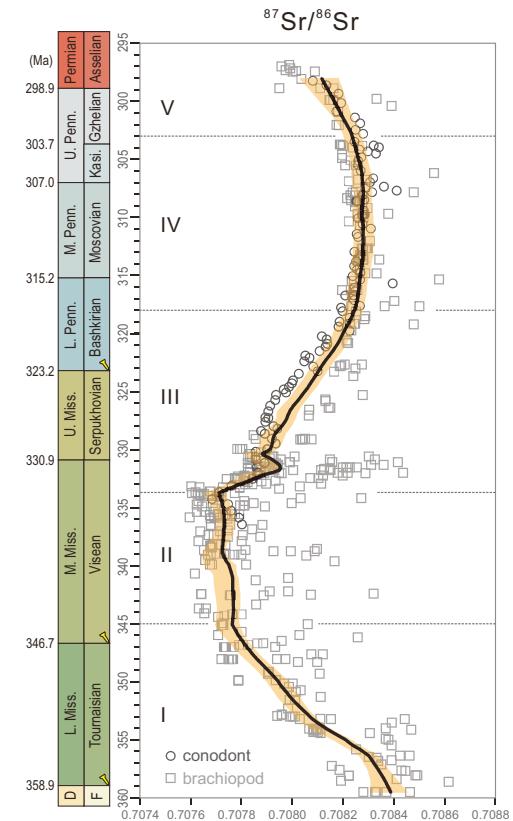
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coeval, well-preserved brachiopods (e.g. Woodard *et al.* 2013; Korte and Ullmann 2018). Conodonts from epicontinental and marginal sea settings may further complicate the construction of seawater Sr isotope records as their  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values are influenced by sea-specific environmental processes (e.g. riverine influx, long residence times of water masses, evaporation and enhanced stratification) (Montañez *et al.* 2018). Furthermore, conodonts extracted from shales may be problematic given that the high content of easily exchangeable radiogenic Sr in clay minerals can potentially alter the depositional signal (Ebneth *et al.* 1997). In contrast, conodonts extracted from a limestone matrix (with much less radiogenic Sr) generally show similar or lower values compared to coeval brachiopods (e.g. Saltzman *et al.* 2014; Dudás *et al.* 2017; Chen *et al.* 2018), suggesting that conodonts have high potential for  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  studies. Where differences occur in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values between presumed coeval conodonts and brachiopods, these differences could be due to uncertainties of stratigraphic correlation and age assignment for individual samples, or they could 'reflect real differences in how conodonts and brachiopods preserve seawater  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ' (Saltzman *et al.* 2014, p. 1563).

#### Carboniferous $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ trend

The existing Carboniferous seawater  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  record, reconstructed from bulk carbonates and brachiopod calcite (Denison *et al.* 1994b; Bruckschen *et al.* 1999), remains moderately resolved, limiting its chronostratigraphic and proxy potential. The resolution of the existing record reflects stratigraphic uncertainties and discontinuities, inaccurate correlation among multi-basin records, limited biostratigraphic (temporal) resolution and variable degrees of diagenetic alteration (Cummins and Elderfield 1994; Denison *et al.* 1994a; Bruckschen *et al.* 1999; Veizer *et al.* 1999; McArthur *et al.* 2012; Edwards *et al.* 2015). In contrast, the conodont  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  record from a continuous carbonate slope succession (Naqing, South China) (Chen *et al.* 2018) exhibits substantially less variability between contemporaneous samples and generally good consistency with the lower limit of a compilation of brachiopod  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  data (Prokoph *et al.* 2008), except for a significant offset between proxy values in the interval between 330 and 320 Ma (Fig. 1). Given the superiority of both brachiopods and conodonts in recording the seawater  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ , the generally overlapping values of the two archives suggest a robust seawater signature.

The Carboniferous  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  trend based on brachiopods and conodonts shows generally five phases through time (Fig. 1) that are broadly consistent with those presented in the *Geological Time Scale 2012*



**Fig. 1.** Carboniferous  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  record constructed using brachiopod dataset (compiled by Prokoph *et al.* 2008) and conodont dataset (Chen *et al.* 2018). The trend line (black) is LOESS regression with 2.5 and 97.5% bootstrapped errors (orange shading). I–V are the five phases of Carboniferous  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  first-order trend discussed in the main text. Ages of all geochemical data are normalized to those of the International Chronostratigraphic Chart (version 2019; <http://www.stratigraphy.org>). D, Devonian; F, Famennian; Miss, Mississippian; Penn, Pennsylvanian; Kasi, Kasimovian; L, Lower; M, Middle; U, Upper.

(McArthur *et al.* 2012). Differences do exist in absolute values within certain intervals reflecting the use of only biogenic material in the compilation presented here. In the first phase,  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values at c. 360 Ma, proximal to the Devonian–Carboniferous boundary (358.9 Ma), define a peak (c. 0.70840) for much of the Devonian and Mississippian periods (McArthur *et al.* 2012). The  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  subsequently declines rapidly (average rate of 0.000043/myr) and near linearly over a c. 15 myr period, from peak values down to c. 0.70776 at 345 Ma (lowermost Visean). Phase 2 is a trough in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values and persists over c. 11 myr of the Visean (345–334 Ma), with values decreasing slightly from

0.70776 to 0.70771 in the upper Visean. In the third phase,  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  increases over a *c.* 16 myr period (334–318 Ma) of the Serpukhovian through Bashkirian from *c.* 0.70771 to *c.* 0.70827. There is, however, a short-lived decline from 0.70795 to 0.70788 between 331.7 and 330.4 Ma, close to the Visean–Serpukhovian boundary. To what degree this decline is robust needs to be further tested by high temporal resolution data. A fourth phase is defined by a  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  plateau, which exists over a *c.* 15 myr period (318–303 Ma) of the upper Bashkirian to lowermost Gzhelian, with an average value of *c.* 0.70827. In the final phase,  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  declines through the remainder of the Carboniferous from the plateau to a value of *c.* 0.70814 at the Carboniferous–Permian boundary (298.9 Ma).

## Carbon isotope stratigraphy

The carbon isotopic composition of marine carbonates ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ ) has been extensively analysed from successions ranging in age from Precambrian to the present, and is widely used as a tool for stratigraphic correlation, particularly for periods with pronounced positive or negative excursions (Saltzman and Thomas 2012).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  values, however, are influenced not only by carbon cycle–climate perturbations, but also by a number of local to regional factors such as mineralogical variability, differences in circulation and residence times of water masses, vital effects, salinity, as well as diagenesis (Algeo *et al.* 1992; Patterson and Walter 1994; Panchuk *et al.* 2005; Swart and Eberli 2005; Batt *et al.* 2007; Swart 2015; Schiffbauer *et al.* 2017; Li *et al.* 2018). Stratigraphic hiatuses may also mask original  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  stratigraphic features or trends (Glumac and Spivak-Birndorf 2002; Saltzman *et al.* 2004b; Chen *et al.* 2011; Roark *et al.* 2017; Maharjan *et al.* 2018a; Z. Wang *et al.* 2020). It has been suggested that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  excursions of greater magnitude than 1 to 2‰ are those that can be more confidently used for global stratigraphic correlation (Saltzman and Thomas 2012). Furthermore, detailed sedimentological and petrographic study provide the necessary framework in which to evaluate the most robust  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  data.

### Carboniferous $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ trend

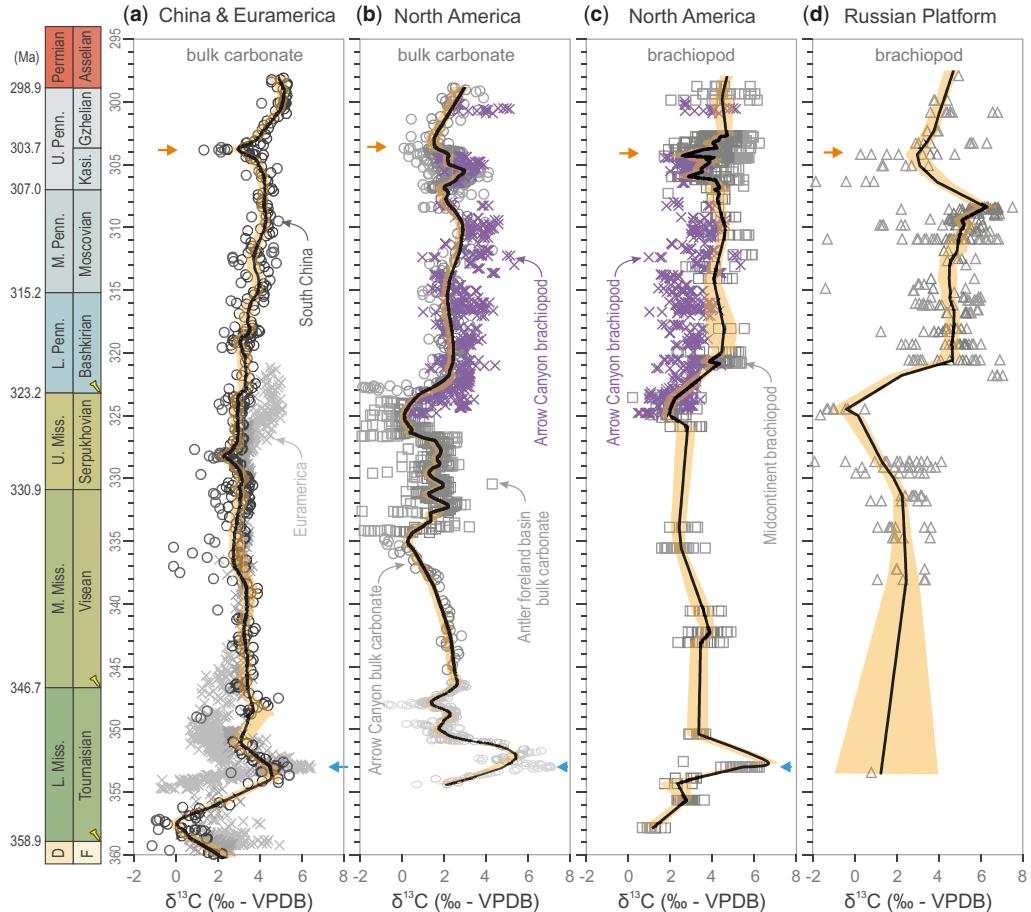
Many studies have evaluated the temporal and spatial variability in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  through the Carboniferous, in particular in North America and Russia. These studies are based on brachiopod calcite (e.g. Popp *et al.* 1986; Grossman *et al.* 1993, 2008; Bruckschen *et al.* 1999; Mii *et al.* 1999, 2001; Brand *et al.* 2012) and bulk carbonates (e.g. Saltzman 2002, 2003a, b, 2005; Batt *et al.* 2007; Dyer *et al.* 2015; Maharjan

*et al.* 2018a). Over the last decade, new records of Carboniferous  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  have been developed based on bulk or micro-drilled carbonates from South China (Buggisch *et al.* 2011; Qie *et al.* 2011, 2016; Liu *et al.* 2015, 2017; Yao *et al.* 2015; J. Chen *et al.* 2016; Tian *et al.* 2020).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  records from North America, Russia, and South China, however, exhibit moderate to poor agreement (Fig. 2). For example, bulk carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of *c.* 3‰ (VPDB, Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite) during the upper Visean to Serpukhovian in South China and Europe (Fig. 2a) are much higher than the coeval  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in between –2‰ and 2‰ in the Antler foreland basin and Arrow Canyon, North America (Fig. 2b). Such large differences in the coeval  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  values certainly make carbon isotopes invalid for stratigraphic correlation. In addition, there are large differences in the absolute  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ , trends in regional records, and magnitude of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  changes of records within North America as well as between continents (e.g. Batt *et al.* 2007; Grossman *et al.* 2008). The disparity in carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  for any given interval most likely reflects the aforementioned local to regional variability in palaeoenvironmental and diagenetic conditions and processes that imprint seawater  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signals (Brand *et al.* 2009; Swart 2015). It is also likely that uncertainties in stratigraphic correlation and age assignment between regions account for some of the disparity in datasets. For example, precise stratigraphic correlation between successions in the eastern Palaeo-Tethys Ocean (e.g. South China) and those in the eastern Panthalassic Ocean (e.g. Midcontinent of North America) has long been problematic due to the different conodont biofacies in the Mississippian and palaeogeographical endemism in Pennsylvanian conodonts as a result of closure of the Rheic Ocean (Wang *et al.* 2019). That said, carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  datasets indicate that on the longer term during the Carboniferous,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  rose rapidly from *c.* 0 to 1‰ to *c.* 5 to 7‰ in the earliest Mississippian, remaining high overall (*c.* 3–6‰) through the remainder of the Carboniferous and earliest Permian (i.e. the duration of the Late Paleozoic Ice Age), with superimposed relatively short-lived positive and negative excursions (Fig. 2; Saltzman 2003b; Grossman *et al.* 2008; Buggisch *et al.* 2011; Brand *et al.* 2012). The degree to which the shorter-term excursions are robust globally is under evaluated.

### Mid-Tournaisian positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ excursion

A pronounced positive excursion in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  (with peak values of *c.* 5–7‰) occurs in the middle Tournaisian Stage (roughly during the *Siphonodella isosticha* and *Gnathodus punctatus/G. typicus* conodont zones) and has been reported globally, referred to as the TICE (Fig. 2; Mii *et al.* 1999; Saltzman

### Carboniferous isotope stratigraphy



**Fig. 2.** Carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  exhibiting substantial variability regionally and between materials analysed through the Carboniferous. Trend lines (black) are LOESS regressions with 2.5 and 97.5% bootstrapped errors (orange shading). The mid-Tournaisian positive isotope excursion (TICE; blue arrows) and end-Kasimovian negative isotope excursion (orange arrows) are delineated by all curves except for the Russian Platform. (a) Bulk carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from South China (Buggisch *et al.* 2011; Liu *et al.* 2015; Qie *et al.* 2016) and Euramerica (Buggisch *et al.* 2008). Trend line based on South China data. (b) Bulk carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from Arrow Canyon, Nevada (Saltzman 2003a, b) and the Antler foreland basin, Idaho (Batt *et al.* 2007) used in *The Geological Time Scale 2012* (Saltzman and Thomas 2012). Trend line based on all bulk carbonate data. Contemporaneous brachiopod  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from Arrow Canyon (Brand *et al.* 2012) for comparison. (c) Brachiopod  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from North America: Midcontinent (Grossman *et al.* 2008) and Arrow Canyon (Brand *et al.* 2012). Trend line based on Midcontinent data. (d) Brachiopod  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from Russian Platform (Grossman *et al.* 2008). Note, the lighter grey circles in (b) and lighter grey squares in (c) represent a subset  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of Saltzman (2003a, b) and of Grossman *et al.* (2008) that are compressed (upward by c. 4 myr) and shifted (downward by c. 2.2 myr), respectively, in order to make the data consistent with the general timing (mid-Tournaisian) of the TICE as in (a). Calibration of ages and abbreviations as in Figure 1.

2002, 2003a, 2005; Saltzman *et al.* 2004a; Katz *et al.* 2007; Buggisch *et al.* 2008; Yao *et al.* 2015; Qie *et al.* 2016; Maharjan *et al.* 2018a). The TICE is contemporaneous with a positive excursion in brachiopod and conodont  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , suggesting major cooling and onset of glaciation (Mii *et al.* 1999; Buggisch *et al.* 2008). The TICE is also coincident with a negative excursion in carbonate  $\delta^{238}\text{U}$  (Cheng *et al.*

2020) and a positive excursion in carbonate-associated sulfate  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  and organic matter  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . These geochemical records suggest widespread oceanic anoxia associated with enhanced burial of organic C and pyrite, and water-column denitrification (Yao *et al.* 2015; Maharjan *et al.* 2018a, b; Cheng *et al.* 2020). There are, however, uncertainties with respect to the shape of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  curve, which

defines either single or double spikes during the TICE (see [Maharjan \*et al.\* 2018a](#)). Delineating the spatio-temporal architecture of the TICE is critical to better understanding the origin of this global C perturbation as well as for high-resolution stratigraphic correlation. Better delineation of the TICE architecture requires additional studies on stratigraphically expanded and near-continuous successions, which are also characterized by high-resolution biostratigraphy and/or high-precision U-Pb dating.

#### Mid-Carboniferous $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ trend

A positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  shift (by c. 1.5–3‰) across the mid-Carboniferous boundary (i.e. Mississippian–Pennsylvanian boundary, MPB) has long been recognized in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  records defined using calcite brachiopods ([Popp \*et al.\* 1986](#); [Grossman \*et al.\* 1993, 2008](#); [Bruckschen \*et al.\* 1999](#); [Mii \*et al.\* 1999, 2001](#)), although there are relatively sparse  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  data or even  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  stratigraphic gaps associated with the MPB interval. A relatively continuous brachiopod  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  record from Arrow Canyon exhibits a rapid increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ , from relatively low values (0.5–1‰) to background values (c. 3‰), immediately prior to the MPB ([Fig. 2b](#); [Brand and Brenckle 2001](#); [Brand \*et al.\* 2012](#)). Moreover, a high-resolution, composite bulk carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  record from six Euramerican sections indicates a c. 2‰ increase through the middle (c. 3‰) to upper Serpukhovian (c. 5‰), leading up to the MPB ([Buggisch \*et al.\* 2008](#)). In contrast, a high-resolution  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  time series developed from stratigraphically continuous carbonate slope successions in South China reveals only a c. 0.5–1.0‰ increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  across the MPB ([Fig. 2a](#); [Tian \*et al.\* 2020](#)). Some of the spatial variability in the magnitude of increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  across the MPB has been attributed to differing intensity of upwelling in the various regions due to differing palaeogeography ([Mii \*et al.\* 2001](#); [Liu \*et al.\* 2015](#); [Tian \*et al.\* 2020](#)).

In contrast, [Saltzman and Thomas \(2012\)](#) identified a negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  excursion in the upper Serpukhovian (to the lowermost Bashkirian), recorded in bulk carbonates from western Laurentia ([Fig. 2b](#); [Saltzman 2003b](#)) and recognized in a bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  composite record developed using deeper-water carbonate ramp successions in east–central Idaho ([Batt \*et al.\* 2007](#)). [Batt \*et al.\* \(2007\)](#) argued that their bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  composite record is not compromised by subaerial exposure or meteoric diagenesis, and their bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  compares well with a subset of coexisting brachiopod  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values. The latest Serpukhovian and MPB interval in the Arrow Canyon succession, SE Nevada, however, has been shown to include multiple subaerial exposure surfaces ([Bishop \*et al.\* 2009, 2010](#)). On the other hand, low

$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  values in the upper Serpukhovian interval of the Russian Platform brachiopod record ([Fig. 2d](#)) may reflect vital effects of the Strophomenata brachiopod, *Gigantoprotodus* (e.g. [Bruckschen \*et al.\* 1999](#); [Garbelli \*et al.\* 2014](#)). Overall, the Russian record shows more scattering and contains a greater proportion of lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$  values than the brachiopod-based  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  record from Laurentia ([Grossman \*et al.\* 2008](#); [Brand \*et al.\* 2012](#)). There are no obvious analogous low values in the bulk carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  records from South China ([Buggisch \*et al.\* 2011](#)) and Europe ([Buggisch \*et al.\* 2008](#); [Campion \*et al.\* 2018](#)), or the Laurentian brachiopod records ([Grossman \*et al.\* 2008](#)). One consideration, however, is that climate simulations for the Carboniferous and early Permian ([Montañez and Poulsen 2013](#); [Heavens \*et al.\* 2015](#)) indicate intensified upwelling on the eastern margin of the Panthalassan Ocean that would provide  $^{13}\text{C}$ -depleted seawater into the western regions of palaeotropical Laurentia and could explain the overall lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  values of western Laurentian records ([Saltzman 2003b](#); [Batt \*et al.\* 2007](#)) relative to those of the US Midcontinent and Palaeo-Tethyan locales ([Buggisch \*et al.\* 2008](#); [Grossman \*et al.\* 2008](#); [Tian \*et al.\* 2020](#)).

#### End-Kasimovian negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ excursion

A pronounced negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  excursion (by c. 2‰) occurs at the end-Kasimovian (*Streptognathodus zethus* or *Idiognathodus naraensis* conodont zone), recorded in particular in the South China carbonate slope succession ([Fig. 2a](#)), although recognizable in the bulk carbonate and brachiopod  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  records from Laurentia and Russia ([Fig. 2](#)). This short-lived negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  excursion is superimposed on an overall rise in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  that spans the early Pennsylvanian to early Cisuralian ([Buggisch \*et al.\* 2011](#)). The negative excursion was, however, not formally identified until the recent GSSP search for the base of the Gzhelian in South China ([Qi \*et al.\* 2020](#)). The end-Kasimovian negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  excursion, if proven worldwide, can serve as a reliable tool for chemo-stratigraphic correlation of the Kasimovian–Gzhelian boundary and as a powerful auxiliary stratigraphic marker for the GSSP of the Gzhelian base. The cause and consequences of the carbon perturbation at the end of the Kasimovian are now under study.

#### Oxygen isotope stratigraphy

Oxygen isotope ratios ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) preserved in marine authigenic carbonates (e.g. early marine cement) and marine carbonate or phosphate fossil skeletons are primarily dependent on temperature and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$

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of the ambient seawater (Epstein *et al.* 1953). Seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is in turn influenced by changes in continental ice volume and salinity, which is controlled largely by local evaporation/precipitation ratios and surface runoff fluxes to epicontinental seas or oceans. An increase in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  recorded in sedimentary archives can be interpreted as cooling, increased salinity and/or continental ice build-up, whereas a decrease may reflect warming, decreased salinity and/or deglaciation. Rapid changes in seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  or temperature can be recorded in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of marine authigenic and biogenic carbonates and could possibly be used as chemo-stratigraphic markers for regional and global correlation but solely provided that the seawater signal is not overprinted by subsequent geological processes.

#### Choice of material and diagenesis

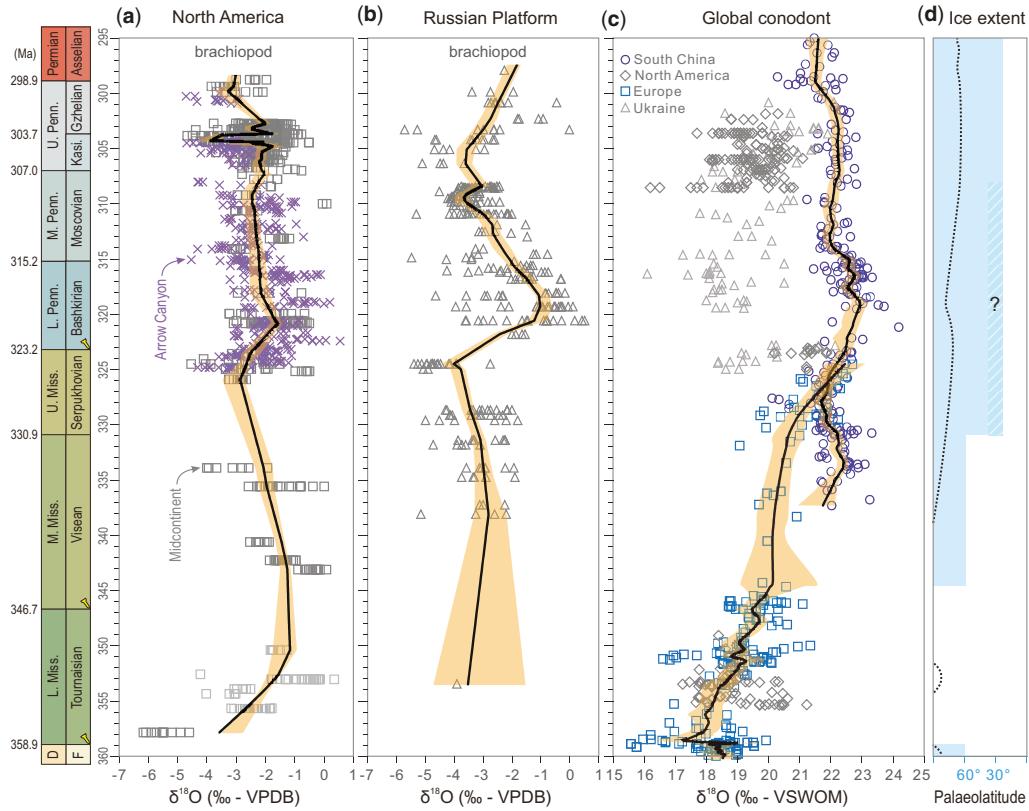
Bulk carbonates are easily altered with respect to their  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  by diagenetic fluids (Veizer and Hoefs 1976), and therefore they cannot be used for reconstruction of seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , although bulk carbonate  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values are often used to evaluate the potential of diagenetic alteration on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  (e.g. Algeo *et al.* 1992; Swart 2015; J. Chen *et al.* 2016; Cui *et al.* 2017). Articulate calcitic brachiopods, which are widely distributed in Phanerozoic strata, are composed of dense microstructures and low-Mg calcite, which are relatively resistant to diagenetic alteration (Compston 1960; Lowenstam 1961; Popp *et al.* 1986; Veizer *et al.* 1986; Brand *et al.* 2012; Garbelli *et al.* 2012; Casella *et al.* 2018). They are thus regarded as the preferential material for reconstruction of seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , particularly for the Paleozoic. Nevertheless, a suite of literature shows that kinetic and vital fractionation effects of brachiopods may also influence their oxygen (and carbon) isotopic composition regarding (non) equilibrium with ambient seawater (e.g. Auclair *et al.* 2003; Batt *et al.* 2007; Yamamoto *et al.* 2010; Cusack *et al.* 2012; Garbelli *et al.* 2014; Rollion-Bard *et al.* 2016, 2019), and thus as articulated in the 'Sr isotope stratigraphy' section, careful assessment of preservation is still necessary before interpreting the data as primary seawater signals.

As an alternative, conodont apatite has been increasingly used to reconstruct the Paleozoic seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  trends over the last two decades (e.g. Wenzel *et al.* 2000; Joachimski and Buggisch 2002; Joachimski *et al.* 2006; Trotter *et al.* 2008; Sun *et al.* 2012; B. Chen *et al.* 2013, 2016; Bartlett *et al.* 2018; Jin *et al.* 2018; Montañez *et al.* 2018). Biogenetic phosphates are thought to be more resistant to diagenetic alteration than biogenetic carbonates (e.g. Wenzel *et al.* 2000; Joachimski *et al.* 2009), which may be attributed to extremely slow rates of oxygen isotope exchange between

phosphates and water at ambient temperatures via inorganic reactions (Blake *et al.* 1997). Diagenetic alteration is, however, still possible when the oxygen exchange is mediated by enzymes (Zazzo *et al.* 2004) or at high temperatures (Pucéat *et al.* 2004). Unfortunately, diagenetic evaluation methods for calcitic shells are found to have limited application to conodont apatite (Buggisch *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, conodonts are assumed to be nektonic animals that could have thrived in both deep- and shallow-water settings (Orchard 1996; Lai *et al.* 2001), in contrast to brachiopods that normally lived in benthic habitats of relative shallow-water settings. Conodonts, unlike benthic brachiopods, could also easily swim to their preferred settings, and thus a given taxa could record invariant seawater-temperature signals, although secular changes in seawater temperature should be discernible as long as glacio-eustatic and/or salinity changes were minimal (cf. W.-Q. Wang *et al.* 2020). Therefore, different habitats of conodonts need be considered when using their  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records to reconstruct seawater temperatures or seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  as a proxy of the magnitude of glacio-eustasy (Hermann *et al.* 2015).

#### Carboniferous $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ trends

The Carboniferous witnessed dramatic glaciation in the southern hemisphere (Gondwana) (Isbell *et al.* 2003, 2012; Fielding *et al.* 2008; Montañez and Poulsen 2013; Griffis *et al.* 2018, 2019), with large magnitude  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shifts interpreted to record major climatic cooling and/or ice volume changes (e.g. Popp *et al.* 1986; Grossman *et al.* 1993; Mii *et al.* 1999, 2001; Joachimski *et al.* 2006; Buggisch *et al.* 2008; B. Chen *et al.* 2016). The most complete Carboniferous  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records are composite and built primarily on brachiopods from the North American Midcontinent and the Russian Platform (Fig. 3a and b; Mii *et al.* 1999, 2001; Grossman *et al.* 2008), whereas continuous conodont apatite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records are constructed mainly based on data from South China and Europe (Fig. 3c; Buggisch *et al.* 2008; B. Chen *et al.* 2016; Montañez *et al.* 2018). It is notable that the compilation of Carboniferous conodont  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records exhibits large regional differences (Fig. 3c), with data from a more open-water setting (South China) yielding overall higher and less variable values compared to those from epicontinental seas (US Midcontinent and Donets Basin, Ukraine). These differences may be attributed to spatial variability in seawater salinity and thus seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  gradients in epicontinental seas relative to the more open waters of South China (Rosenau *et al.* 2014; Joachimski and Lambert 2015; Montañez *et al.* 2018). However, differential diagenetic overprint on conodonts from different basins cannot be excluded, although systematic diagenetic screening



**Fig. 3.** Carbonate and phosphate  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  trends through the Carboniferous. Trend lines (black) are LOESS regressions with 2.5 and 97.5% bootstrapped errors (orange shading). (a) Brachiopod  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from the Midcontinent (Grossman *et al.* 2008) and Arrow Canyon, Nevada (Brand *et al.* 2012). Trend lines based on Midcontinent data. Note, the lighter grey squares represent a subset  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of Grossman *et al.* (2008) that are shifted (downward by c. 2.2 myr) based on correlation by the TICE. (b) Brachiopod  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from the Russian Platform (Grossman *et al.* 2008). (c) Conodont  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from South China (B. Chen *et al.* 2016), North America (Joachimski *et al.* 2006; Wallace and Elrick 2014; Joachimski and Lambert 2015), Europe (Buggisch *et al.* 2008) and Ukraine (Montañez *et al.* 2018) exhibiting large regional variations in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ . Two sets of trend lines are based on data from B. Chen *et al.* (2016) and Buggisch *et al.* (2008), respectively. (d) Qualitative estimate for spread of glacial ice (dot line; Crowell 1999) and palaeolatitude of ice extent (blue shade; Frakes and Francis 1988). Calibration of ages and abbreviations as in Figure 1.

is not plausible. In the overlapping interval (upper Visean to lower Serpukhovian), the South China and Europe conodont  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records show a c. 2‰ offset, which may be a consequence of the regional differences in seawater salinity and regional climate. Nevertheless, all of the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records, including the Donets epicontinental sea record (Fig. 3c), delineate two major, widely recognized trends: (1) a positive shift in the middle Tournaisian (358.9–350 Ma) and (2) a positive shift across the MPB (c. 325–320 Ma).

#### Mid-Tournaisian positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ shift

Mii *et al.* (1999) found a major increase in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from −5‰ to −2‰ (VPDB) in the middle Tournaisian (358.9–350 Ma) based on brachiopods from North

America (Fig. 3a), which was interpreted as evidence of climate cooling and ice build-up (Mii *et al.* 1999). This shift, however, was not confirmed by the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record from the Russian Platform due to lack of time-equivalent brachiopods (Fig. 3b). Grossman *et al.* (2008) considered that the positive  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift may reflect an increase in regional seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  as a result of excessive evaporation in North American epicontinental seas. A similar increase (by c. 2‰, Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW)) in conodont apatite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  was subsequently found in low-latitude Euramerican sections (Fig. 3c; Buggisch *et al.* 2008), suggesting that the positive  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift is a global phenomenon. This  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  increase is coincident with a significant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  positive excursion (TICE). The concurrent  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  excursions

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are in good agreement with the widely held interpretation that increased organic carbon burial (Saltzman 2003b; Saltzman *et al.* 2004a) resulted in lowered atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  and triggered climate cooling (Mii *et al.* 1999; Buggisch *et al.* 2008).

#### Mid-Carboniferous positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ shift

A pronounced increase in brachiopod  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  has long been observed across the MPB in Euramerica (Fig. 3a and b; Mii *et al.* 1999, 2001; Grossman *et al.* 2008; Brand *et al.* 2012), which is also recorded in conodont apatite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from several Euramerican basins (Buggisch *et al.* 2008; Montañez *et al.* 2018) and from a carbonate slope succession from South China (B. Chen *et al.* 2016) (Fig. 3c), indicating that it is of global significance. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  increase coincides with a major glacio-eustatic fall recorded in low-latitude successions (Eros *et al.* 2012a, b; Tian *et al.* 2020) and the occurrence of widespread glacial depositional records in southern Gondwana (Gulbranson *et al.* 2010; Isbell *et al.* 2012), suggesting significant climate cooling combined with ice build-up across the MPB interval (Mii *et al.* 1999; Buggisch *et al.* 2008; Fielding *et al.* 2008; B. Chen *et al.* 2016). It has been hypothesized that MPB cooling was caused by increased burial of organic carbon, implied by previously reported large increases (by c. 3.0‰) in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  (e.g. Popp *et al.* 1986; Mii *et al.* 2001). However, there is no significant increase in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of bulk carbonates across the MPB from the Great Basin, USA (rather a negative excursion; Fig. 2b) (Saltzman 2003b) or from the Qian-Gui Bain, South China (Tian *et al.* 2020). Instead, a significant rise in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  (Chen *et al.* 2018) slightly predates the rise in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (B. Chen *et al.* 2016), suggesting that climate cooling might have been triggered mainly by enhanced silicate weathering driven by the influence of the Hercynian Orogeny on erosion rates and precipitation and surface hydrology (Goddéris *et al.* 2017; Richey *et al.* 2020), rather than increased burial of organic carbon (Tian *et al.* 2020).

### Concluding remarks

The Carboniferous saw the main pulses of Earth's penultimate icehouse, which was a time of low atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$ , extensive glaciation, major tectonic reconfiguration, radiation of palaeotropical rainforests, and a series of climatic and biotic perturbations. Carboniferous isotope geochemistry and stratigraphy play an important role in better understanding these events and their impacts on palaeoclimate and palaeoceanography as well as on biosphere. However, there are a number of environmental, vital and diagenetic factors that can imprint global

marine isotopic signatures, which are archived in low-temperature precipitates (carbonates and phosphates). Prior to stratigraphic correlation or chronostratigraphic dating of successions worldwide using Sr, C and O isotopes, diagenetic screening of pristine material as well as evaluation of overall depositional settings (e.g. seawater circulation and salinity, palaeobathymetry, and depositional and regional climate processes) should be carefully considered. In most cases, diagenesis increases the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios of low-temperature precipitates given the presence of easily exchangeable radiogenic Sr in sediment, although shifts to less radiogenic values has been documented. We take the LOESS regression line of brachiopod and conodont  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  data as the smoothed  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  curve, but there is a big cloud of more radiogenic data (above the regression line), especially for the interval between the upper Tournaisian to the upper Visean. Caution should be taken particularly when dealing with a small dataset for stratigraphic correlation. Large regional differences in carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and phosphate  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  datasets hamper using absolute values for stratigraphic correlation or dating. That said, the existence of multiple, widely recorded and significant excursions in Sr, C and O isotope compositions (e.g. the mid-Tournaisian and end-Kasimovian) offer high potential for stratigraphic correlation. Further refinement of these Sr, C and O isotope records through the Carboniferous, in particular if integrated with efforts to radioisotopically date or astrochronologically constrain the successions, can provide not only robust tools for stratigraphic correlation but also fundamental datasets for biogeochemical modelling of Earth's penultimate icehouse.

**Acknowledgements** We thank S. Lucas and J.W. Schneider for the invitation to prepare the paper and for their editorial handling. We also appreciate the helpful comments from C. Garbelli and an anonymous reviewer, which greatly improved the manuscript. We thank M. R. Saltzman, W. Qie, L. Yao and C. Liu for sharing their published or compiled Carboniferous  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data. Discussions with K. Hu on Carboniferous conodont biostratigraphy were helpful.

**Author contributions** JC: conceptualization (lead), writing – original draft (lead), writing – review & editing (lead); BC: writing – original draft (supporting); IPM: writing – review & editing (supporting).

**Funding** This research was supported by the Strategic Priority Research Program of the Chinese Academy of Sciences grant XDB26000000 (to JC), the National Natural Science Foundation of China grants 42072035, 41672101 and 41630101 (to JC), and the US National Science Foundation grants EAR1338281 and EAR1554897 (to IPM).

**Data availability** The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.c.5215784>, or upon request from the corresponding author.

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