Bayesian multi-proxy reconstruction of latitudinal temperature gradients: An early Eocene example

—

Kilian Eichenseer1 and Lewis A. Jones2

—

1Department of Earth Sciences, Durham University, South Road, DH1 3LE, Durham, United Kingdom

2Centro de Investigación Mariña, Grupo de Ecoloxía Animal, Departamento de Ecoloxía e Bioloxía Animal, Universidade de Vigo, 36310 Vigo, Spain.

—

**Corresponding author:** kilian.eichenseer@durham.ac.uk

¶ Abstract

Accurately reconstructing large-scale palaeoclimate patterns from sparse local records is critical for understanding the evolution of Earth’s climate. Challenges arise particularly from the patchiness and uneven sampling of palaeoclimate data, and from the disparate nature of the proxy data. Geochemical data usually provide temperature estimates via transfer functions informed by experiments, and transfer functions based on the climatic requirements of modern taxa exist for some fossil plant assemblages. In contrast, most ecological and lithological data, e.g. coral reefs and evaporites, only convey information on broad climatic requirements. Historically, most large-scale proxy-based reconstructions have been based on either geochemical or ecological data, but few approaches exist for combining multiple proxy types into a single, quantitative reconstruction. Large spatial gaps in existing proxy records have often been bridged by simple averaging, without taking into consideration the spatial distribution of the samples, leading to biased temperature reconstructions. Here, we present a Bayesian hierarchical model to integrate ecological data with established geochemical proxies into a unified quantitative framework, bridging gaps in the latitudinal coverage of proxy data. We apply this approach to the early Eocene climatic optimum (EECO), the interval with the warmest sustained temperatures of the Cenozoic. Assuming the conservation of thermal tolerances of modern coral reefs and mangrove taxa, we establish broad sea surface temperature ranges for EECO coral reef and mangrove sites. We integrate these temperature estimates with the EECO geochemical shallow marine proxy record to model the latitudinal sea surface temperature gradient and global average temperatures. Our results confirm the presence of a flattened latitudinal temperature gradient and unusually high polar temperatures during the EECO, which is supported by high-latitude ecological data. Integrating ecological data and adequate prior information has the potential to substantially reduce uncertainty in palaeoclimate reconstructions, allowing for unbiased temperature estimates from sparse data.

# Keywords

Palaeoclimate, latitudinal temperature gradients, temperature proxies, Eocene, spatial bias

# Introduction

Reconstructing past climate is essential to understanding the long-term evolution of the Earth’s climate system and contextualising current global warming (Royer et al., 2004; Burke et al., 2018). Geochemical proxies, such as oxygen isotopes (δ18O), are regularly used to provide quantitative palaeotemperature estimates for the geological past at a range of temporal and spatial scales (e.g. Liu et al., 2009; Wuchter et al., 2004). Recent advances in the synthesis of such data (e.g. Veizer and Prokoph, 2015; Hollis et al., 2019; Song et al., 2019; Grossman and Joachimski, 2022; Judd et al., 2022) are enabling a better understanding of the complex and dynamic nature of the Earth’s climate system. However, a fundamental challenge remains which must be addressed to exploit the full potential of these advances: the proxy record of past climate is spatially incomplete and biased by imperfect preservation and uneven sampling (Judd et al., 2020; Jones and Eichenseer, 2022; Judd et al., 2022).

Whilst geochemical proxy data can provide robust estimates of palaeotemperature at local scales, recent work has demonstrated that spatial biases in the geochemical proxy record can lead to spurious estimates of regional (e.g. latitudinal temperature gradients) and global temperatures (Judd et al., 2020; Jones and Eichenseer, 2022). At the most basic level, this can be driven by two factors: (1) missing data for some regions (e.g. no high-latitude data); or (2) overrepresentation of some regions (e.g. a high proportion of samples from tropical regions). The latter can be addressed through the down-sampling of data or restricting analyses to specific regions (e.g. Song et al. (2019)). However, in order to robustly infer regional or global-scale patterns from an incomplete record, spatial gaps must ultimately be bridged. One common approach, that requires no additional computation, is the spatial visualisation of proxy-derived temperatures against latitude, showing broad latitudinal temperature trends (Hollis et al., 2019; Vickers et al., 2021). Interpolation is also sometimes used to bridge spatial gaps in palaeoclimate data (Taylor et al., 2004), taking advantage of the autoregressive nature of climatic data: much of the information on the climate of any given location is contained in the climate data of nearby locations (Reynolds and Smith, 1994). Adding to this, some proxy-based reconstructions use statistical modeling to infer palaeoclimatic patterns. For example, polynomial regression (Bijl et al., 2009) and cosine functions (Inglis et al., 2020) have been used to reconstruct latitudinal temperature gradients, and 2D-reconstructions of surface temperatures have been created with Gaussian process regression (Inglis et al., 2020). These approaches work well for interpolating relatively well-sampled data, but the absence of constraints on the modelled parameters means that such models can produce unrealistic temperature estimates when extrapolating from sparsely sampled data. Statistical modeling in a Bayesian framework can help overcome this problem by requiring the explicit specification of priors for the model parameters, which can be used to express physical constraints (Chandra et al., 2021).

Spatial gaps in the record of past climate can also be addressed through the integration of additional data. For example, lithological and fossil data can be used to infer past climatic conditions based on analogous modern sediments (Chandra et al., 2021), or the premise that the climatic requirements of ancient taxa, biological traits, or ecological communities were similar to those of their nearest modern relatives (Peppe et al., 2011; Royer, 2012; Salonen et al., 2019). Despite this potential, the integration of geochemical proxy data with other sources of information (e.g. ecological data) is rare due to the absence of a quantitative framework (Burgener et al., 2023).

Here, we present a novel Bayesian hierarchical model that combines quantitative proxies and ecological constraints into a fully quantitative model of the latitudinal gradient of sea surface temperatures, bridging spatial gaps in sparsely sampled climate data. This model expands upon existing, spatially explicit reconstructions of palaeoclimate by allowing for the integration of (1) prior information based on physical principles and on the observed, modern sea surface temperature distribution, and of (2) geochemical and ecological climate proxies in a common, quantitative framework. We use a generalised logistic function to infer the shape of the temperature gradient despite a patchy latitudinal coverage, and test the robustness of this method using a down-sampled record of modern SSTs. We apply this model to the record of the early Eocene climatic optimum (EECO), combining a compilation of geochemical proxies (Hollis et al., 2019), mangrove communities (Popescu et al., 2021), and coral reefs (Zamagni et al., 2012), using a nearest-living-relative approach (see e.g. Greenwood et al., 2017) to establish broad temperature ranges for the ecological data. Whilst we primarily do so to demonstrate an application of the model, the EECO represents an interval with the warmest sustained temperatures of the Cenozoic (Pross et al., 2012), and a potential analogue for extreme climate warming scenarios (Burke et al., 2018).

# Materials & Methods

## Modern sea surface temperatures

## Geochemical data

Geochemical climate proxy data were extracted from a latest Paleocene and early Eocene compilation (Hollis et al., 2019). This compilation provides data on four different geochemical proxies for reconstructing seawater temperature: δ18O, Δ47, Mg/Ca and . For our analyses, this dataset was restricted to the EECO and samples from the continental shelf. Recrystallised δ18O samples were also excluded as secondary diagenetic calcite precipitated after deposition can bias isotope measurements and offset temperature values (Schrag, 1999). This filtering resulted in most δ18O samples being excluded from the dataset (retaining 8 out of 152). After data filtering, 308 geochemical proxy samples remained. For a detailed description of each proxy see (Hollis et al., 2019).

## Ecological data

**Coral reefs.** Today, shallow warm-water coral reefs are limited to tropical and subtropical latitudes (~34N–32S), with minimum sea surface temperature (~18C) tolerances being the primary constraint on this distribution (Johannes et al., 1983; Kleypas et al., 1999; Yamano et al., 2001). As coral reefs reside at the upper thermal limit of the oceans today, their maximum sea surface temperature tolerance is less well-constrained with some studies suggesting up to 35.6C in the geological past (Jones et al., 2022). Nevertheless, coral reefs have frequently been recognised as tracers of past (sub-)tropical conditions (Ziegler et al., 1984; Kiessling, 2001). During the Eocene, coral communities and reefs expanded across tropical and temperate latitudes, with some communities found up to palaeolatitudes of 43 N (Zamagni et al., 2012). Using a compilation of Paleocene–early Eocene coral reefs and community localities (Zamagni et al., 2012), we generate quantitative sea surface temperature estimates for the ECCO. To do so, we extract localities from the compilation that are inferred to be Ilerdian (early Eocene) coral reefs, and that can be confidently assigned to the EECO. We exclude coral knobs and coral-bearing mounds which might have broader climatic limits than coral reef ecosystems. This filtering resulted in four unique coral reef localities remaining for the EECO, all of which conform to the modern latitudinal range of coral reefs (<34 N). Subsequently, we use statistically derived temperature limits (minimum = 21C, average = 27.6C, maximum = 29.5C) from the published literature (Kleypas et al., 1999) to define a normal probability distribution of potential temperature values for coral reef localities. This normal probability distribution was defined with a mean of 27.6 and a standard deviation of 2.125, placing 97.5% of the probability density above the minimum. As the distribution of modern corals is skewed towards warmer temperatures, this approach results in 16.5% of the probability being placed on temperatures > 29.5C, allowing for the possibility that Eocene coral reefs were adapted to warmer conditions than present-day coral reefs.

**Mangroves.** Mangroves are distributed throughout the tropics and subtropics today. While factors beside SST influence the distribution of mangroves, empirical, lower temperature limits have been established for the genera *Avicennia* (15.6C) and *Rhizophora* (20.7C) (Quisthoudt et al., 2012). Both *Avicennia* and members of the Rhizophoraceae family were widespread in the early Eocene, but only *Avicennia* occurred at polar latitudes (Suan et al., 2017; Popescu et al., 2021). Assuming that Eocene members of these mangrove taxa conform to the same climatic requirements as their modern relatives, the presence and absence of *Avicennia* and Rhizophoraceae pollen can be used as a palaeotemperature indicator. For this analysis, published mangrove occurrence data were taken from Popescu et al. (2021), and converted to quantitative temperature estimates. From this data, we identify two types of pollen assemblages which we ascribe different temperature distributions:

1. *Avicennia*-only assemblages (): the absence of Rhizophoraceae is indicative of temperatures being between 15.6C (lower temperature limt of *Avicennia*) and 20.7 (lower temperature limit of *Rhizophora*). However, a value of 22.5C is ascribed as the upper temperature limit here as *Rhizophora* is rare below this temperature. We define the *Avicennia*-only temperature distribution as a normal distribution with a mean of 19.05C and a standard deviation of 1.725, resulting in 95% of the probability density being placed within the temperature limits.
2. *Avicennia* and Rhizophoraceae assemblages (): the presence of both groups suggests that the locality should have a minimum temperature of 20.7C (lower temperature limit of *Rhizophora*). As the upper thermal limits of *Aviciennia* and *Rhizophora* are not well established in Quisthoudt et al. (2012), we assign the same maximum temperature limits (29.5C) as coral reef localities as mangroves are also widely distributed throughout tropical regions. Consequently, we define the temperature distribution for this locality as a normal distribution with a mean of 25.1 and a standard deviation of 2.2, with 95% probability density within the temperature limits.

|  |
| --- |
| Figure 1: Palaeogeographic distribution of the geochemical and ecological data compilation used in this study. Palaeocoordinates of samples were estimated via the palaeoverse R package ver. 1.2.0 (Jones et al., 2023). To do so, the Merdith et al. (2021) Global Plate Model was used to palaeorotate present-day coordinates to 51.2 Ma. Map is presented in the Robinson projection (ESRI:54030). |

## Palaeogeographic reconstruction

The palaeogeographic distribution of geochemical and ecological data was reconstructed using the Merdith et al. (2021) plate rotation model via the palaeoverse R package ver. 1.2.0 (Jones et al. (2023)). The midpoint age of the EECO (51.2 Ma), along with the present-day coordinates of geochemical and ecological data, were used for palaeogeographic reconstruction.

## Bayesian framework

**Model structure (Fig 2).** We model the mean temperature () at location as a function of absolute latitude () with a logistic regression (also known as growth curve or Richard’s curve) of the form:

where and denote the lower and upper asymptote, respectively, specifies the latitude of maximal growth, i.e. the latitude around which temperature falls most steeply with latitude, denotes the growth rate (Fig. 2), denotes the residual standard deviation, and denotes the number of locations.

We infer from individual temperature observations , derived from geochemical data, at location as

where is the number of observations at each location, and is the estimated standard deviation of the temperatures at location .

Similarly, is inferred for locations with ecological proxies from the associated normal temperature distributions with a given mean and standard deviation, and , as

This structure implies that is not fixed at the mean proxy temperature at location , , but is drawn towards the overall logistic regression curve, i.e. towards . The pull towards tends to be high when is low, when the observations are scattered, i.e.  is high, and/or when the overall standard deviation is low. In practice, this has the desirable consequence that locations with few observations and large temperature differences between observations have less influence on the overall regression than well-sampled locations with consistent temperature observations.

**Priors.** In the Bayesian framework, priors need to be placed on the unknown parameters of a model. We placed weakly informative, conjugate inverse-gamma priors on and :

We set , allowing these priors to be quickly overwhelmed by the data as and increase, as we have little *a priori* knowledge of these parameters.

In contrast, we put informative priors on the regression coefficients , , and , based on physical principles, and vaguely based on the modern climate system:

**A.** Predicted seawater surface temperatures are not allowed to be , the freezing point of sea water. The highest prior density of is placed around , and it slowly tapers off towards higher temperatures. This shape is achieved by placing a skew-normal prior on the lower asymptote, specified as

where , , and are the location, scale and shape parameters.

**K.** Input of solar energy decreases from the tropics to the poles. Hence, the latitudinal temperature gradient is broadly negative, i.e. temperature decreases with absolute latitude. This is achieved by setting . The prior on the upper asymptote is a truncated normal distribution with the mean set to of the modern SST gradient, with a broad standard deviation:

The distribution is truncated to the left at , but not truncated to the right ().

**M.** The steepness of the gradient is presumed to be highest in mid-latitudes; this is expressed with a normal prior on with the mean set to of the modern SST gradient:

**B.** The steepness or growth rate of the gradient is constrained to be and to not be exceedingly high, as oceanic and atmospheric heat transfer is bound to prevent very abrupt SST changes across latitudes. A gamma-distributed prior of the form

was placed on . The shape and rate parameters and were chosen such that the highest prior density is at of the modern SST gradient, .

## Model validation

To test whether our logistic regression model can adequately describe different latitudinal temperature gradients at various sample sizes, we generated four idealised gradients that emulate potential climatic states throughout Earth’s geological history: extreme icehouse, icehouse, greenhouse and extreme greenhouse (REF). We then randomly sampled (1000 iterations) these gradients using increasing sample sizes (5, 10, and 20) and reconstructed the latitudinal temperature gradient using our model for each of these sample sizes and gradient types. Using the same idealised gradients, we also tested whether our model could accurately reconstruct latitudinal temperature gradients using the palaeogeographic distribution of Eocene samples (n = 34), providing an empirical example distribution that captures both limited sample size and skewed geographic distributions. To assess how well the modeled gradients reconstructed from limited sampling fit the idealised gradients, we calculated an R^2 for Bayesian regression models (Gelman et al., 2019). For every iteration from the posterior, we intercepted the modeled and the idealised gradient in intervals of 1 latitude, and calculated the R^2 based on these values. We report the median, and 2.5th and 97.5th percentile of the resulting R^2 measures.

To test whether out model can accurately model the the modern sea surface temperature gradient, and to facilitate comparison with the Eocene gradient, we applied our model to annual sea surface mean temperatures from Bio-Oracle (Assis et al., 2018), down-sampled to a raster (n = 46,131). The R^2 for the modern gradient was calculated as described above, comparing the modeled gradient and the empirical temperature averages in 1 latitude bins. Only the medians are reported for the modern gradient, as the 95% credible intervals are extremely narrow due to the high precision of the posterior estimates.

To reconstruct the idealised gradients and the modern gradient, we used a simplified, non-hierarchical version of our model, as every location is associated with only one temperature value, making the hierarchical structure superfluous. We thus substituted temperature () for in [Equation 1](#eq-mu) and [Equation 5](#eq-sigma).

## Parameter estimation

We estimated the posterior distributions of the model parameters using a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm, written in R. Specifically, we sampled the unknown parameters , , and with Metropolis-Hastings, and used Gibbs sampling to estimate all other unknown parameters (see Gilks et al., 1995; Gelman et al., 2013). Posterior inference on the modern gradient is based on four chains with 60,000 iterations each, 10,000 of which were discarded as burn-in. Every 10th iteration was retained, resulting in a total of 20,000 iterations with low autocorrelation. The re-sampled, simulated gradients were modeled in one chain with 10,000 iterations for each of the 1,000 random samples. 5,000 iterations each were discarded as burn-in, and every 25th iteration was kept, resulting in a total of 200,000 iterations across all 1,000 model runs. For the simulated gradients with an Eocene sampling distribution, a single chain with 250,000 iterations was used, thinned to 10,000 iterations after burn-in. For the Eocene model, we ran four chains with 600,000 iterations each, discarding 100,000 as burn-in and keeping every 100th iteration, as the hierarchical model structure results in higher autocorrelation of the chains. The Eocene posterior inference is thus based on a total of 20,000 iterations with low autocorrelation (effective multivariate sample size for , , and is > 18,000). Trace plots of the MCMC chains indicate convergence and good mixing of the chains (Supplementary Figure S1).

## Processing of model results

Modeled sea surface temperature estimates were generated with [Equation 2](#eq-nu), calculating the sea surface temperatures at any latitude with the parameter estimates of each iteration from the posterior. The median, and percentiles of temperatures where then taken from all temperature estimates obtained at the latitude of interest.

The latitudinal gradient is calculated as the difference between the modeled temperature at the equator (0 latitude) and at the poles (90 absolute latitude). Given the sigmoidal shape of the modern as well as the Eocene gradient (see Fig. 4), this results in only slightly higher estimates of the gradient than when comparing e.g. the zonal average of equatorial and high-latitude temperatures, as is done in some earlier studies (e.g. Evans et al., 2018).

Differences between Eocene and modern temperatures at a certain latitude were calculated by randomly pairing all iterations of the posterior from the Eocene and modern temperature gradient model, calculating the Eocene and modern temperature using the respective iterations, taking the difference, and then calculating the median (, percentile) from all pairs of iterations.

Global average temperatures were calculated by taking the weighted mean of the median (, percentile) temperature estimates in 1 latitudinal bins. The weights were set to the proportion of global surface area in each latitudinal bin, i.e. decreasing with increasing latitude as:

where is the upper, and is the lower latitudinal boundary of bin .

# Results

## Model validation and modern gradient

|  |
| --- |
| Figure 2: Model reconstructions of simulated latitudinal temperature gradients at various sample sizes. Each column depicts a different reconstruction for given sample sizes: 5, 10, 20, and 34 (EECO sample size). Each row depicts a different simulated latitudinal temperature gradient that represents idealised climatic states: extreme greenhouse, greenhouse, icehouse, extreme icehouse. The black line illustrates the simulated gradient. The blue line depicts the reconstructed gradient represented by the median sea surface temperature value estimated from 1000 model runs. The blue shading depicts the 90%, 95%, and 99% credible intervals. Bold black text within each panel depicts the coefficient of determination (*R*2 value) for estimating goodness of fit between the simulated and modeled gradient. The median (50%) *R*2 value along with the 2.5% and 97.5% confidence intervals from the 1000 model runs are shown. Each gradient is depicted in absolute latitude. |

|  |
| --- |
| Figure 3: Estimate of the present-day latitudinal temperature gradient using the Bayesian hierarchical model. The present-day empirical (black line) latitudinal temperature gradient (mean sea surface temperature) and that estimated by the Bayesian hierarchical model (green line) when using all cell values from the Bio-ORACLE grid of mean sea surface temperature. Grey points depict the individual cell values of the Bio-ORACLE grid. |

Our Bayesian model is able to accurately model a range of idealised temperature gradients, ranging from extreme icehouse to “super greenhouse” scenarios (Fig. 2). Random latitudinal sampling results in highly accurate reconstructions already at a sample size of 10 for the icehouse scenarios (95 % CI of R^2 > 0.9). Greenhouse scenarios require more random samples to accurately predict high-latitude temperatures. This is because in the absence of high-latitude samples, the modeled gradient is heavily influenced by the priors, which we based on the modern, the only empirically known latitudinal temperature gradient. A sampling distribution resembling that of the early Eocene data set used in this study allows for a highly accurate reconstruction of even the extreme greenhouse scenario (95 % CI of R^2 > 0.95).

The average, modern temperature gradient can be closely approximated with our model when using the full modern SST dataset (Fig. 3); almost all of the variation in the empirical median temperatures in bins of 1 absolute latitude is explained by the modeled gradient (). The empirical gradient spans 29.3C from the equator to the poles, the modeled gradient is only very slightly higher at 29.6C. The modern, global men sea surface temperature based on our modeled gradient is 17.6C.

## EECO reconstruction

The modeled Eocene temperature gradient is starkly different from the modern (Fig 4). Modelled, median equatorial temperatures are 4.2 (0.2 - 8.3)C higher for the EECO, and polar temperatures are higher by 25.0 (17.0 - 29.1)C. This results in a flattened latitudinal temperature gradient of 9.0 ( 2.5 - 17.8)C for the EECO, as opposed to 29.6C for the modern. To facilitate the comparison with latitudinal gradients reported in the literature, which sometimes do not report temperatures in very high latitudes, we report also the EECO gradient between the equator and the modern-day polar circle (66.6), which is slightly lower at 7.8 ( 2.2 - 13.7)C.

The high variability of EECO palaeotemperature proxies, particularly in the mid-latitudes, and the scarcity of high-latitude data, result in substantial uncertainties in the modeled temperature gradient. This is reflected in the residual standard deviation () of the EECO gradient, 4.9 (3.8 - 6.5)C, more than twice as high than of the modern gradient, 2.2. This signifies that the early Eocene data fit less well to the logistic, latitudinal gradient model, which can also be seen from the drastic departure of some of the proxy data from the gradient estimates (Fig. 4).

The early Eocene GMsST is estimated at 28.7 (26.7 - 30.7)C, 11.1C higher than the modern. A model run excluding the ecological proxies increases the GMsST by 1.6 (-1.8 - 4.8)C. The median latitudinal gradient is similar when excluding the ecological proxies, with a median of 9.2C, but with a 20% wider 95% CI (Supplementary materials). This indicates that the ecological proxy data are broadly in agreement with the geochemical proxies, while providing additional constraints on the shape of the early Eocene temperature gradient.

Due to the limited spatial coverage of the early Eocene proxy record, and due to the added model complexity of simultaneously estimating a model across both hemispheres, we pooled the proxy data across both hemispheres. Applying the model separately to each hemispheres results in substantial differences in hemispherical, average temperatures, with the southern hemisphere being warmer by 6.5 (3.5 - 9.4)C. The inferred latitudinal gradient is somewhat steeper in the northern hemisphere ( 4.8C, although the 95% CI spans -6.6 to 14.3C), but the large uncertainties associated with both gradients, and the lack of polar proxy data in the southern hemisphere preclude a more precise statement (Fig. S3).

|  |
| --- |
| Figure 4: Estimates of the early Eocene climatic optimum and the present-day latitudinal temperature gradient using the Bayesian model. The estimated present-day (turquoise line) and early Eocene climatic optimum (purple line) latitudinal temperature gradient. The respective ribbons (green and purple shading) depict the 95% credible intervals of the estimated gradients. Points within the plot depict the palaeolatitudinal distribution of geochemical (e.g. δ18O) and ecological (e.g. mangroves) data. Geochemical data are plotted by their point estimate temperature value. Ecological data are plotted at the mean temperature values of their respective normal distributions. |

# Discussion

## Improved reconstruction of temperature gradients and global average temperatures

The Bayesian model presented herein accurately reconstructs the modern, latitudinal SST gradient from a patchy and relatively small (n = 34) sample of temperature data. This is an advancement over previously used linear or quadratic approximations (e.g. **Refs?**), which are inherently unable to capture the sigmoidal shape of the modern SST gradient. Our generalised logistic function is flexible enough to approximate the shapes of all of those functions. As such, our model presents an alternative to non-parametric methods for inferring latitudinal temperature gradients, which are sometimes favoured as they can very flexibly follow the shape of an unknown temperature gradient (e.g. Zhang et al., 2019; Jones and Eichenseer, 2022). However, when used for interpolation or prediction outside the proxy range, non-parametric methods such as Gaussian process regression strictly respond to the data (e.g. Inglis et al., 2020), and the resulting large-scale patterns are informed by the idiosyncracies of a patchy proxy record.

In our Bayesian, parametric model, informative priors on the model parameters improve the prediction of sea surface temperatures in the unsampled, very high latitudes: Notice that the upper limit of the credible interval does not increase beyond the range of the data, whereas unconstrained approaches such as splines, Gaussian processes or even standard linear regression could lead to unrealistically high upper bounds in this case (see Rasmussen and Williams, 2004). Prior information on the shape of latitudinal temperature gradients on Earth exists for all geological time periods, and should be used in any palaeoclimate reconstruction. For example, the greater amount of solar radiation per unit area in low latitudes causes Earth’s latitudinal temperature gradient to be broadly negative (Beer et al., 2008). The ease with which such prior information can be integrated is a major advantage of our method, as the shape of the modeled gradient is controlled by four parameters which clearly relate to its magnitude, steepness and the latitude of its greatest steepness.

Palaeoclimate reconstructions are often summarised as global mean surface temperatures (GMST), providing a standardised metric for characterising the state of the Earth’s climate (Royer et al., 2004; Inglis et al., 2020). However, the calculation of global mean surface temperatures from sparse proxy data is susceptible to bias (Jones and Eichenseer, 2022). By modeling the temperature variation across latitudes, a complete temperature distribution is obtained, filling in gaps in the proxy record through inter- or extrapolation. This eliminates the problem that specific climate zones may dominate the proxy record, as intersecting the modeled temperature gradient at narrow latitudinal intervals and accounting for the varying sizes of latitudinal bands by weighting provides unbiased GMST estimates. Some deep-time GMST reconstructions account for differential sampling by calculating zonal averages, but do not use the full latitudinal range of temperatures (Inglis et al., 2020). We anticipate that applying this improved will significantly alter Phanerozoic, proxy-based temperature curves, particularly when applied to intervals with small or biased samples of temperature proxies. (Royer et al., 2004; Veizer and Prokoph, 2015; Jones and Eichenseer, 2022).

## Incorporating ecological constraints in palaeoclimate reconstructions

Our results exemplify how incorporating quantified ecological temperature constraints can provide more precise temperature reconstructions than geochemical proxies alone, adding to the advances in palaeoclimate reconstructions achieved by integrating lithological data (Scotese et al., 2021). Combining the occurrences of climate-sensitive plant communities (Greenwood and Wing, 1995), reptiles (**Marwick2007?**), leaf shapes (Peppe et al., 2011), with geochemical proxies offers substantial potential for improving quantitative palaeoclimate reconstructions across the Phanerozoic. Our modeling framework offers a straightforward way of integrating ecological climate data with other proxy data: The hierarchical model structure accounts for variation of temperature estimates from proxies at individual localities, which is treated equivalent to the uncertainty associated with the ecological temperature proxies. A local temperature estimate, based on multiple geochemical proxies, thus has the same weight as a local temperature estimate obtained from the occurrence of a climate-sensitive plant community, whilst preserving the uncertainty associated with each estimate.

Our approach for deriving fully quantitative climate reconstructions from ecological data is borrowed from nearest living relative methods, commonly employed in terrestrial, Cenozoic climate reconstructions (Fauquette et al., 2007; Pross et al., 2012). These methods have the problem that the thermal preferences of taxa may have changed over time. More significantly, in the early Eocene, sea surface temperatures may have reached heights unknown in the modern world, and nearest living relative methods based on the modern are inherently unable to predict such elevated temperatures. This is especially true for taxa that inhabit the warmest part of the ocean today, e.g. coral reefs [@]. Although coral reefs are threatened by warming sea surface temperatures today [@], it is conceivable that Eocene reef corals were adapted to a warmer climate. The fossil record indicates that reef development may have been stunted in the early Eocene, but the few early Eocene coral reefs occur in low latitudes (Zamagni et al., 2012). Tropical temperatures predicted by the geochemical proxy record indicate hotter-than-modern tropical temperatures (Fig. S2), suggesting that the modern climate range of coral reefs may underestimate the early Eocene thermal niche for coral reefs. We have tried to account for that possibility by widening the temperature probability distribution for reef corals, but the predicted temperatures for the reef and mangrove sites still lie below the temperatures indicated by the geochemical proxy record (Fig. 4, Fig. S2).

This dilemma could be resolved in future studies by applying machine learning approaches to inferring quantitative temperatures from ecological and lithological proxies: If geochemical proxies and ecological or lithological data are derived from the same location and time interval, the climatic requirements of these taxa or sediments can be learned by using palaeotemperatures from that time interval, instead of or in addition to modern modern temperatures. This approach would ultimately rely on geochemical proxies providing absolute temperature estimates, but the resulting information could be exported to other locations lacking good coverage of geochemical proxies via their fossil or sedimentary record.

## Early Eocene climate

The geochemical proxy record and ecological data indicate that the latitudinal SST gradient of the early Eocene climatic optimum was significantly shallower than the modern (Huber and Caballero, 2011), but beyond that, there is little agreement. Evans et al. (2018) estimate the SST gradient at 32+-10% of the modern, which would correspond to ~20+- 3C, using the difference between the mean tropical and deep ocean data. The modeled SST of Tierney et al. (2017) using TEX86 is ~ 12C, when taking the difference between temperatures at the polar circles and the equator. Inglis et al. (2020) include both terrestrial air temperature and SST estimates in their model of the latitudinal temperature gradient in their Figure S4a; they model a polar circle to equatorial gradient of ~ 13C. All of those estimates are significantly lower than the SST gradient predicted by an EECO climate model ensemble Tierney et al. (2017), which predicts a polar circle to equatorial gradient of 26C. Keating-Bitonti et al. (2011) show a proxy-based SST gradient of ~ 13C, and Bijl et al. (2009) model a gradient of ~9C in the northern and only ~5C in the southern hemisphere for the early Eocene. Our polar circle to equatorial gradient is lower than most previous estimates at 7.8C, although the 95% credible interval overlap with several of the listed gradient estimates.

[Table 1: Early Eocene latitudinal temperature gradients from the literature]

In latitudes beyond the polar circle, the discrepancy between our model predictions and those of earlier, proxy-based models increases, as those predict almost linearly decreasing SSTs towards the poles, whereas our median model prediction suggests only a slight decrease beyond the polar circle. However, the scarcity of temperature records in this range leads to widening credible intervals, including the possibility of stronger temperature decreases. Polar temperature estimates from our model are thus conservative in that they admit large uncertainty where data is absent, which is desirable. However, the presence of high proxy-derived temperature estimates at ~ 60 latitudes forces the modeled median temperature curve to be too high at ~ 24C, relative to the temperatures indicated by the high-latitude mangrove communities (15.6 - 22.5C). In contrast, the extrapolated polar temperatures of most previous proxy-based models are likely too low, given the abundance of ecological data indicating temperate or subtropical high-latitude climates during the EECO (Pross et al., 2012; Popescu et al., 2021)

The very high variability of the proxy record in mid-latitudes results in large uncertainties on the shape of temperature gradient and on the GMsST. Biases and errors in the proxy reconstructions likely contribute to the observed variability, as geochemical proxies reflect many other factors besides seawater temperature (Hollis et al., 2019). Despite excluding δ18O measurements from recrystallised fossils, systematic offsets remain between mostly warm temperatures derived from TEX86, and cooler temperatures derived from δ18O, Δ47, and the ecological proxies. Seasonality [Keating-Bitonti et al. (2011) and temporal changes within the EECO (Westerhold et al., 2018) may also contribute to the large variability of the EECO proxy data.

Recent GMsST estimates of the EECO and of the early Eocene range from 23.4 to 37.1C, with the lowest GMSTs being derived from d18O, and the higher estimates including TEX86 (Inglis et al., 2020). Many studies include both marine and terrestrial proxies to derive GMST estimates, but despite great differences in proxy selection and in the calculation of global average temperatures, many recent estimates fall in the range of 27 - 29.5C (Hansen et al., 2013; Caballero and Huber, 2013; Cramwinckel et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2019), similar to our GMsST estimate of 28.7C.

# Conclusions

The Bayesian hierarchical model presented herein is able to reconstruct latitudinal gradients from both geochemical and ecological proxy data, whilst reflecting the uncertainty associated with the ecological temperature proxies, and accounts for the variation of multiple temperature estimates at individual localities. Using informative prior information allows for accurate temperature reconstructions from records with geographically incomplete sampling. By providing temperature estimates across the entire latitudinal range, this method also facilitates the reconstruction of unbiased global average temperatures. Application of our model to the EECO confirms the existence of latitudinal temperature gradients that were flatter than predicted by most Earth system models and by the majority of proxy-based work. High-latitude pollen records support this interpretation. Our GMsST estimate is in good agreement with most existing estimates, indicating that broadly accurate GMsST reconstructions are possible even with substantial deviations in the shape of the latitudinal temperature gradient. Our new method opens the door for improving the accuracy of proxy-based palaeoclimate reoncstructions and Phanerozoic temperature curves, particularly in intervals with a patchy record, and mitigates the biases incurred from uneven sampling.

# Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to all those who have enabled this work by collecting, measuring, collating and screening geochemical and fossil data. The contribution of K.E. was supported by… The contribution of L.A.J. was supported by a Juan de la Cierva-formación 2021 fellowship (FJC2021-046695-I/MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033) from the European Union “NextGenerationEU”/PRTR.

# Author contributions

Both authors designed the study and carried out data preparation. K.E. programmed the model and conducted the analyses. L.A.J. generated the figures. Both authors contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

# Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

# Data accessibility

The data and code used to produce the results of this study are available via GitHub (<https://github.com/KEichenseer/PalaeoClimateGradient>) and the linked Zenodo repository (XXX).

# References

Assis, J., Tyberghein, L., Bosch, S., Verbruggen, H., Serrão, E. A., and De Clerck, O.: Bio-ORACLE v2. 0: Extending marine data layers for bioclimatic modelling, Global Ecology and Biogeography, 27, 277–284, 2018.

Beer, J., Abreu, J., and Steinhilber, F.: Sun and planets from a climate point of view, Proceedings of the International Astronomical Union, 4, 29–43, 2008.

Bijl, P. K., Schouten, S., Sluijs, A., Reichart, G.-J., Zachos, J. C., and Brinkhuis, H.: Early Palaeogene temperature evolution of the southwest Pacific Ocean, Nature, 461, 776–779, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature08399>, 2009.

Burgener, L., Hyland, E., Reich, B. J., and Scotese, C.: Cretaceous climates: Mapping paleo-köppen climatic zones using a bayesian statistical analysis of lithologic, paleontologic, and geochemical proxies, Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 111373, 2023.

Burke, K. D., Williams, J. W., Chandler, M. A., Haywood, A. M., Lunt, D. J., and Otto-Bliesner, B. L.: Pliocene and Eocene provide best analogs for near-future climates, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115, 13288–13293, <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1809600115>, 2018.

Caballero, R. and Huber, M.: State-dependent climate sensitivity in past warm climates and its implications for future climate projections, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 110, 14162–14167, 2013.

Chandra, R., Cripps, S., Butterworth, N., and Muller, R. D.: Precipitation reconstruction from climate-sensitive lithologies using Bayesian machine learning, Environmental Modelling & Software, 139, 105002, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2021.105002>, 2021.

Cramwinckel, M. J., Huber, M., Kocken, I. J., Agnini, C., Bijl, P. K., Bohaty, S. M., Frieling, J., Goldner, A., Hilgen, F. J., Kip, E. L., et al.: Synchronous tropical and polar temperature evolution in the eocene, Nature, 559, 382–386, 2018.

Evans, D., Sagoo, N., Renema, W., Cotton, L. J., Müller, W., Todd, J. A., Saraswati, P. K., Stassen, P., Ziegler, M., Pearson, P. N., et al.: Eocene greenhouse climate revealed by coupled clumped isotope-mg/ca thermometry, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115, 1174–1179, 2018.

Fauquette, S., Suc, J., Jiménez-Moreno, G., Micheels, A., and JOSTS, A.: Latitudinal climatic gradients in the western european and mediterranean regions from the mid-miocene (c. 15 ma) to the, Deep-time perspectives on climate change: marrying the signal from computer models and biological proxies, 481, 2007.

Gelman, A., Carlin, J. B., Stern, H. S., Dunson, D. B., Vehtari, A., and Rubin, D. B.: Bayesian data analysis, CRC press, 2013.

Gelman, A., Goodrich, B., Gabry, J., and Vehtari, A.: R-squared for bayesian regression models, The American Statistician, 2019.

Gilks, W. R., Richardson, S., and Spiegelhalter, D.: Markov chain monte carlo in practice, CRC press, 1995.

Greenwood, D., Keefe, R., Reichgelt, T., and Webb, J.: Eocene paleobotanical altimetry of victoria’s eastern uplands, Australian Journal of Earth Sciences, 64, 625–637, 2017.

Greenwood, D. R. and Wing, S. L.: Eocene continental climates and latitudinal temperature gradients, Geology, 23, 1044, <https://doi.org/10.1130/0091-7613(1995)023<1044:ECCALT>2.3.CO;2>, 1995.

Grossman, E. L. and Joachimski, M. M.: Ocean temperatures through the phanerozoic reassessed, Scientific Reports, 12, 8938, 2022.

Hansen, J., Sato, M., Russell, G., and Kharecha, P.: Climate sensitivity, sea level and atmospheric carbon dioxide, Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences, 371, 20120294, 2013.

Hollis, C. J., Dunkley Jones, T., Anagnostou, E., Bijl, P. K., Cramwinckel, M. J., Cui, Y., Dickens, G. R., Edgar, K. M., Eley, Y., Evans, D., et al.: The DeepMIP contribution to PMIP4: Methodologies for selection, compilation and analysis of latest paleocene and early eocene climate proxy data, incorporating version 0.1 of the DeepMIP database, Geoscientific Model Development, 12, 3149–3206, 2019.

Huber, M. and Caballero, R.: The early eocene equable climate problem revisited, Climate of the Past, 7, 603–633, 2011.

Inglis, G. N., Bragg, F., Burls, N. J., Cramwinckel, M. J., Evans, D., Foster, G. L., Huber, M., Lunt, D. J., Siler, N., Steinig, S., Tierney, J. E., Wilkinson, R., Anagnostou, E., de Boer, A. M., Dunkley Jones, T., Edgar, K. M., Hollis, C. J., Hutchinson, D. K., and Pancost, R. D.: Global mean surface temperature and climate sensitivity of the early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO), Paleocene (PETM), and latest Paleocene, Climate of the Past, 16, 1953–1968, <https://doi.org/10.5194/cp-16-1953-2020>, 2020.

Johannes, R., Wiebe, W., Crossland, C., Rimmer, D., and Smith, S.: Latitudinal limits of coral reef growth., Marine ecology progress series. Oldendorf, 11, 105–111, 1983.

Jones, L. A. and Eichenseer, K.: Uneven spatial sampling distorts reconstructions of Phanerozoic seawater temperature, Geology, 50, 238–242, <https://doi.org/10.1130/G49132.1>, 2022.

Jones, L. A., Mannion, P. D., Farnsworth, A., Bragg, F., and Lunt, D. J.: Climatic and tectonic drivers shaped the tropical distribution of coral reefs, Nature communications, 13, 1–10, 2022.

Jones, L. A., Gearty, W., Allen, B. J., Eichenseer, K., Dean, C. D., Galván, S., Kouvari, M., Godoy, P. L., Nicholl, C., Buffan, L., Flannery-Sutherland, J. T., Dillon, E. M., and Chiarenza, A. A.: palaeoverse: a community-driven R package to support palaeobiological analysis, <https://doi.org/10.31223/X5Z94Q>, 2023.

Judd, E. J., Bhattacharya, T., and Ivany, L. C.: A Dynamical Framework for Interpreting Ancient Sea Surface Temperatures, Geophysical Research Letters, 47, e2020GL089044, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GL089044>, 2020.

Judd, E. J., Tierney, J. E., Huber, B. T., Wing, S. L., Lunt, D. J., Ford, H. L., Inglis, G. N., McClymont, E. L., O’Brien, C. L., Rattanasriampaipong, R., et al.: The PhanSST global database of phanerozoic sea surface temperature proxy data, Scientific data, 9, 753, 2022.

Keating-Bitonti, C. R., Ivany, L. C., Affek, H. P., Douglas, P., and Samson, S. D.: Warm, not super-hot, temperatures in the early Eocene subtropics, Geology, 39, 771–774, <https://doi.org/10.1130/G32054.1>, 2011.

Kiessling, W.: Paleoclimatic significance of phanerozoic reefs, Geology, 29, 751–754, 2001.

Kleypas, J. A., McManus, J. W., and Meñez, L. A.: Environmental limits to coral reef development: Where do we draw the line?, American zoologist, 39, 146–159, 1999.

Liu, Z., Pagani, M., Zinniker, D., DeConto, R., Huber, M., Brinkhuis, H., Shah, S. R., Leckie, R. M., and Pearson, A.: Global Cooling During the Eocene-Oligocene Climate Transition, Science, 323, 1187–1190, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1166368>, 2009.

Lunt, D. J., Dunkley Jones, T., Heinemann, M., Huber, M., LeGrande, A., Winguth, A., Loptson, C., Marotzke, J., Roberts, C., Tindall, J., et al.: A model–data comparison for a multi-model ensemble of early eocene atmosphere–ocean simulations: EoMIP, Climate of the Past, 8, 1717–1736, 2012.

Merdith, A. S., Williams, S. E., Collins, A. S., Tetley, M. G., Mulder, J. A., Blades, M. L., Young, A., Armistead, S. E., Cannon, J., Zahirovic, S., et al.: Extending full-plate tectonic models into deep time: Linking the neoproterozoic and the phanerozoic, Earth-Science Reviews, 214, 103477, 2021.

Peppe, D. J., Royer, D. L., Cariglino, B., Oliver, S. Y., Newman, S., Leight, E., Enikolopov, G., Fernandez-Burgos, M., Herrera, F., Adams, J. M., et al.: Sensitivity of leaf size and shape to climate: Global patterns and paleoclimatic applications, New phytologist, 190, 724–739, 2011.

Popescu, S.-M., Suc, J.-P., Fauquette, S., Bessedik, M., Jiménez-Moreno, G., Robin, C., and Labrousse, L.: Mangrove distribution and diversity during three Cenozoic thermal maxima in the Northern Hemisphere (pollen records from the Arctic regions), Journal of Biogeography, 48, 2771–2784, <https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14238>, 2021.

Pross, J., Contreras, L., Bijl, P. K., Greenwood, D. R., Bohaty, S. M., Schouten, S., Bendle, J. A., Röhl, U., Tauxe, L., Raine, J. I., Huck, C. E., van de Flierdt, T., Jamieson, S. S. R., Stickley, C. E., van de Schootbrugge, B., Escutia, C., and Brinkhuis, H.: Persistent near-tropical warmth on the Antarctic continent during the early Eocene epoch, Nature, 488, 73–77, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11300>, 2012.

Quisthoudt, K., Schmitz, N., Randin, C. F., Dahdouh-Guebas, F., Robert, E. M. R., and Koedam, N.: Temperature variation among mangrove latitudinal range limits worldwide, Trees, 26, 1919–1931, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00468-012-0760-1>, 2012.

Rasmussen, C. E. and Williams, C. K.: Gaussian processes in machine learning, Lecture notes in computer science, 3176, 63–71, 2004.

Reynolds, R. W. and Smith, T. M.: Improved global sea surface temperature analyses using optimum interpolation, Journal of climate, 7, 929–948, 1994.

Royer, D. L.: Climate reconstruction from leaf size and shape: New developments and challenges, The Paleontological Society Papers, 18, 195–212, 2012.

Royer, D. L., Berner, R. A., Montañez, I. P., Tabor, N. J., Beerling, D. J., et al.: Co~ 2 as a primary driver of phanerozoic climate, GSA today, 14, 4–10, 2004.

Salonen, J. S., Korpela, M., Williams, J. W., and Luoto, M.: Machine-learning based reconstructions of primary and secondary climate variables from north american and european fossil pollen data, Scientific reports, 9, 15805, 2019.

Schrag, D. P.: Effects of diagenesis on the isotopic record of late paleogene tropical sea surface temperatures, Chemical Geology, 161, 215–224, 1999.

Scotese, C. R., Song, H., Mills, B. J. W., and van der Meer, D. G.: Phanerozoic paleotemperatures: The earth’s changing climate during the last 540 million years, Earth-Science Reviews, 215, 103503, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2021.103503>, 2021.

Song, H., Wignall, P. B., Song, H., Dai, X., and Chu, D.: Seawater Temperature and Dissolved Oxygen over the Past 500 Million Years, Journal of Earth Science, 30, 236–243, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12583-018-1002-2>, 2019.

Suan, G., Popescu, S.-M., Suc, J.-P., Schnyder, J., Fauquette, S., Baudin, F., Yoon, D., Piepjohn, K., Sobolev, N. N., and Labrousse, L.: Subtropical climate conditions and mangrove growth in Arctic Siberia during the early Eocene, Geology, 45, 539–542, <https://doi.org/10.1130/G38547.1>, 2017.

Taylor, S. P., Haywood, A. M., Valdes, P. J., and Sellwood, B. W.: An evaluation of two spatial interpolation techniques in global sea-surface temperature reconstructions: Last Glacial Maximum and Pliocene case studies, Quaternary Science Reviews, 23, 1041–1051, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2003.12.003>, 2004.

Tierney, J. E., Sinninghe Damsté, J. S., Pancost, R. D., Sluijs, A., and Zachos, J. C.: Eocene temperature gradients, Nature Geoscience, 10, 538–539, 2017.

Veizer, J. and Prokoph, A.: Temperatures and oxygen isotopic composition of Phanerozoic oceans, Earth-Science Reviews, 146, 92–104, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2015.03.008>, 2015.

Vickers, M. L., Bernasconi, S. M., Ullmann, C. V., Lode, S., Looser, N., Morales, L. G., Price, G. D., Wilby, P. R., Hougård, I. W., Hesselbo, S. P., et al.: Marine temperatures underestimated for past greenhouse climate, Scientific reports, 11, 1–9, 2021.

Westerhold, T., Röhl, U., Donner, B., and Zachos, J. C.: Global extent of early eocene hyperthermal events: A new pacific benthic foraminiferal isotope record from shatsky rise (ODP site 1209), Paleoceanography and Paleoclimatology, 33, 626–642, 2018.

Wuchter, C., Schouten, S., Coolen, M. J., and Sinninghe Damsté, J. S.: Temperature-dependent variation in the distribution of tetraether membrane lipids of marine crenarchaeota: Implications for TEX86 paleothermometry, Paleoceanography, 19, 2004.

Yamano, H., Hori, K., Yamauchi, M., Yamagawa, O., and Ohmura, A.: Highest-latitude coral reef at iki island, japan, Coral Reefs, 20, 9–12, 2001.

Zamagni, J., Mutti, M., and Košir, A.: The evolution of mid paleocene-early eocene coral communities: How to survive during rapid global warming, Palaeogeography, palaeoclimatology, palaeoecology, 317, 48–65, 2012.

Zhang, L., Hay, W. W., Wang, C., and Gu, X.: The evolution of latitudinal temperature gradients from the latest Cretaceous through the Present, Earth-Science Reviews, 189, 147–158, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2019.01.025>, 2019.

Zhu, J., Poulsen, C. J., and Tierney, J. E.: Simulation of eocene extreme warmth and high climate sensitivity through cloud feedbacks, Science advances, 5, eaax1874, 2019.

Ziegler, A., Hulver, M., Lottes, A., and Schmachtenberg, W.: Uniformitarianism and palaeoclimates: Inferences from the distribution of carbonate rocks, Geological journal. Special issue, 3–25, 1984.