1 Synchronous tropical and polar temperature evolution in the Eocene

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Understanding derived from palaeoclimate reconstructions of periods with warm climates and high atmospheric pCO₂ is crucial for developing better projections of future climate change. Deep-ocean^{1,2} and high-latitude³ palaeotemperature proxies demonstrate that the Eocene (56–34 million years ago; Ma) encompasses the warmest interval of the past 66 million years, which is followed by cooling towards eventual establishment of ice-caps on Antarctica. As Eocene polar warmth is well established, the main obstacle in quantifying evolution of key climate parameters, such as global average temperature change and its polar amplification, is a lack of continuous high-quality tropical temperature reconstructions. Here we present the first continuous Eocene equatorial sea surface temperature record, based on biomarker palaeothermometry applied on Atlantic Ocean sediments (Ocean Drilling Program Site 959). We compile this new record with the sparse existing data⁴⁻⁶ to construct a 26-Myr multi-proxy, multi-site stack of Eocene tropical climate evolution. We find that tropical and deep-ocean temperatures changed in parallel, over both long-term climate trends and short-lived events. This is consistent with the hypothesis that greenhouse gas forcing^{7,8} rather than changes in ocean circulation^{9,10} was the main driver of Eocene climate. Moreover, there is a strong linear relationship between tropical and deep-ocean temperatures, implying a constant polar amplification factor throughout the generally ice-free Eocene. Quantitative comparison with fullycoupled climate model simulations indicates that global average temperatures were ~29°C, 26°C, 23°C and 19°C in the early, early-middle, late-middle and late Eocene, respectively, compared to a preindustrial 14.4°C. Finally, combining model-based temperature estimates with available proxvand CO_2

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reconstructions⁸ yields estimates of Eocene Earth System Sensitivity of 0.9–2.3 K W⁻¹ m⁻² at 68% probability, consistent with the high end of previous estimates¹¹.

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It is well established that deep-ocean temperatures peaked during the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO; ~52–50 Ma) and had declined substantially by the latest Eocene (~34 Ma)^{1,2}. These trends are mimicked in sea surface temperature (SST) reconstructions from the southern high latitudes³ as Eocene deep-ocean temperatures reflect Southern Ocean winter surface conditions that are relaved to the abvss through deep-water formation¹². However, to unlock the unique promise of Eocene palaeoclimate records to answer fundamental questions about the relationship between pCO₂ and global temperature, and to quantify polar amplification of climate change, accurate reconstructions of tropical surface oceans are required. Moreover, tropical records are necessary to test the two competing hypotheses for Eocene deepocean and polar cooling: (1) decreasing greenhouse gas concentrations, CO₂ predominantly^{7,8}, and (2) changes in ocean circulation and meridional heat transport associated with opening of ocean gateways^{9,10}. Gateway opening cools the Southern and deep-ocean while warming the upper tropical ocean by a few degrees¹³, whereas CO₂ decline leads to global cooling at both the equator and the poles¹⁴ – albeit with predicted amplified polar temperature change relative to the tropics¹⁵. Importantly, this amplification factor affects ice sheet volume and extent and therefore global sea level, and is therefore critical to constrain, also for future projections. Yet, despite evidence for CO₂ decline over the Eocene⁸, existing tropical records⁴⁻⁶ are fragmentary and of low resolution and therefore insufficient to address these crucial questions.

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We generated new temperature reconstructions from a clay-bearing, micritic porcellanite sequence recovered at Ocean Drilling Program Site 959 in the eastern equatorial Atlantic Ocean (Figure 1). Site 959 was positioned at near-equatorial latitudes and deep bathyal water depths throughout the Eocene¹⁶ (Extended Data **Table 1a**). We augment the existing age-model¹⁶ with new biostratigraphic and chemostratigraphic constraints (Extended Data Table 1b, Extended Data Figure 1). While carbonate preservation is poor¹⁶, well-preserved, immature organic matter is present throughout¹⁷. We therefore employ the organic TEX₈₆ palaeothermometer to reconstruct SST. TEX₈₆ utilizes the temperature-dependent distribution of thaumarchaeotal membrane lipids. Fractional abundances of the various lipids at Site 959 indicate an upper water column (50-300 m) source (Methods), which allows confident SST interpretations from TEX₈₆. Several calibrations exist to translate TEX₈₆ into SST based on a modern core-top data set¹⁸. For biophysical and analytical reasons, we prefer conservative estimates of tropical temperature generated by the logarithmic TEX₈₆^H calibration¹⁸ (**Methods, Extended Data Figure 2**). In addition, we use the linear BAYSPAR calibration¹⁹ as a complementary analysis (Extended Data Figure 3).

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Our new equatorial record from Site 959 (**Figure 2**) shows latest Palaeocene (~58 to 56 Ma) SSTs of 31–33°C, mimicking time-equivalent SSTs derived from glassy-preserved planktonic foraminiferal δ¹⁸O and Mg/Ca ratios, and TEX₈₆ from a nearby section in Nigeria²⁰ – supporting the notion that TEX₈₆ accurately reflects SST at Site 959. The record further reveals 2–3°C of latest Palaeocene to earliest Eocene (58 to 53 Ma) warming to peak EECO temperatures of 34–35°C. Superimposed transient ~4°C warming to ~37°C occurred during the Palaeocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum

(PETM) at ~56 Ma²¹. A long-term ~7°C SST drop to ~28°C characterises the middle to late Eocene interval, and an additional ~2°C of cooling to ~26°C marks the Eocene-Oligocene transition (at ~34 Ma). Superimposed on long-term cooling is the first tropical SST reconstruction of the Middle Eocene Climatic Optimum²² (MECO) at ~40 Ma, displaying a ~4°C warming from background temperatures to a peak of ~33°C. This provides compelling evidence that the MECO was associated with global warming; surface warming was previously only recognized in extratropical regions of the Southern Hemisphere. We also record pre-MECO temperature variability of similar duration but lesser amplitude.

To assess if regional upwelling at Site 959⁽¹⁷⁾ influenced TEX₈₆-based SST variability, we consider published total organic carbon (TOC) contents¹⁷ and generate dinocyst assemblage data, as dinocysts are highly sensitive to upwelling in modern and Palaeogene oceans²³ (Extended Data Figure 4). The continuous presence of Protoperidiniaceae (derived from heterotrophic dinoflagellates) and elevated TOC within biosiliceous sediments¹⁶ indicate upwelling throughout the middle and late Eocene. The early Eocene is less well constrained but presence of Protoperidiniaceae and abundant biosilica suggest upwelling. An upper Eocene increase in TOC content¹⁷ might indicate upwelling intensification. Although this may exaggerate latest Eocene cooling at Site 959, the recorded magnitude (~2°C) is similar to previous work at tropical locations²⁴ (Figure 2). Apart from the late Eocene, however, variations in our SST record are not strongly correlated to changes in the abundance of upwelling-indicative dinocysts or TOC content. Regional upwelling may have muted SSTs by a few degrees. Indeed, our values are somewhat lower than the few time-equivalent data points from the warm pool sampled in Tanzania⁴, suggesting we for the first time

sampled the Eocene analogue to the 'cold tongue' in the modern ocean. Importantly, however, this analysis indicates that variations in the strength of upwelling were not a major factor governing SST change at the study site.

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We combine our equatorial Site 959 SST record with the available low-resolution data from a suite of SST proxies from the Indian, Atlantic, and Pacific tropical oceans (Figure 2, data sources in Extended Data Figure 5). Each of these proxies is subject to different systematic sources of error, thus the close correspondence in both absolute temperatures and trends between various organic and carbonate proxies indicates a robust convergent temperature signal. A LOESS model is applied to the resulting compilation to produce an estimate of Eocene mean tropical temperature (Figure 3a), yielding 4–7°C of cooling through the Eocene. Remarkably, long-term trends and sub-Myr (MECO and PETM) tropical SST variations mimic those from the Southern Ocean and the deep-ocean, based on an updated compilation of benthic foraminifer δ^{18} O-derived temperatures (**Figure 2**). A sensitivity study indicates that potential late Eocene Antarctic ice caps did not appreciably affect this deep-ocean temperature proxy (Methods, Extended Data Figure 6). The close correspondence between tropical and deep-sea temperatures provides solid proof that greenhouse gas forcing rather than ocean circulation change caused Eocene cooling, as suggested elsewhere^{5,7,8}.

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As an approximation of the pole-to-equator temperature difference, or meridional temperature gradient (MTG), we calculate the difference between tropical mean SST and deep-ocean temperatures (**Methods, Figure 3b**). Although different TEX₈₆ calibrations result in slightly different early Eocene MTGs (**Extended Data Figure**

3), the gradient generally increases with cooling climate and vice versa, reflecting polar amplification of temperature variability. Remarkably, regression analysis indicates a strong linear relationship between deep-ocean and tropical temperatures (**Figure 4a**; also between high latitude and tropical SST **Extended Data Figure 7**). Although uncertainty on the exact value is large due to uncertainties in temperature proxies and calibrations (**Figure 4b**; **Extended Data Figure 3**), this signifies a stable polar amplification factor throughout the Eocene. As the obtained values are consistent with polar amplification derived from a spatially better resolved analysis for the PETM event²⁰, this seems true for both short (10⁵ yr) and long (multi-million yr) timescales. In the absence of pronounced snow and ice albedo feedbacks, the polar amplification factor should be determined by atmospheric feedbacks²⁵. Therefore, importantly, the stable amplification factor implies that the strength of these feedbacks scales linearly with temperature in an ice-free world.

Our temperature proxy compilations provide a concrete and robust test of the ability of models to reproduce past warm climates under increased greenhouse gas forcing. We have performed fully-coupled general circulation model simulations using the NCAR Community Earth System Model version 1 (CESM 1) applying a range of radiative forcings equivalent to a range of Eocene CO₂ concentrations (560, 1120, 2240 and 4480 ppm; simulations EO1–EO4, respectively) run to full equilibrium. The close correspondence between tropical, high latitude and deep sea temperature trends (**Figure 2**) supports model-based inferences that Eocene global mean temperature was relatively insensitive to variations in palaeogeography^{7,13,26}, so we did not vary palaeogeographic boundary conditions. The modelled deep waters derive primarily from polar surface waters¹², justifying our use of the modelled and proxy-derived

vertical gradient as an approximation for the MTG. The four simulations EO1–EO4 were associated with specific age ranges by matching the simulated deep-ocean temperatures to the proxy-based deep-ocean temperatures, thus leaving SST as the predicted variable. Crucially, the simulations closely approximate the multi-proxy, multi-location tropical SST compilation for these four time slices (Figure 3a). Therefore, the Eocene temperature gradients of 19-26°C as reconstructed from proxies are also closely reproduced (**Figure 3b**). This implies that current-generation climate models are capable of resolving the "low temperature gradient problem" of Eocene greenhouse climates provided sufficient forcing, albeit with two important exceptions. First, regional proxy-model data mismatches for absolute temperatures in the South Pacific¹² and Arctic²⁷ Oceans remain a conundrum, which this study does not resolve. Second, the model simulations do not fully reproduce the most reduced proxy-derived gradients of the early Eocene. Based on recent modelling experiments with tuned cloud parameters²⁸, one potential explanation could be that the early Eocene hothouse experienced different cloud behaviour and shortwave radiative feedbacks (simulation EO CP in Figure 3b). This simulation with tuned clouds produces a more reduced early Eocene MTG at lower pCO2, but those same parameters lead to a poorer simulation of the MTG during the PETM²⁸ (Extended **Data Figure 8**), indicating that this remains an unresolved problem.

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With the overall excellent match between ocean temperature proxy reconstructions and model simulations, we can use the latter to estimate global mean temperatures, required to calculate climate sensitivity to CO₂ forcing. Global mean temperatures were 29°C, 26°C, 23°C and 19°C during the early (54–49 Ma), early middle (48–46 Ma), late middle (42–41 Ma), and late Eocene (38–35 Ma), respectively, compared to

a preindustrial temperature of 14.4°C. These may be slightly underestimated if South Pacific^{3,12} and Arctic²⁷ temperature reconstructions represent accurate estimates of annually averaged SST. Crucially, however, our model requires much larger changes in CO₂ to produce the large and dynamic range of Eocene tropical SST and deep sea temperature than reconstructed from proxy data⁸. This implies that the emergent Earth System Sensitivity¹¹ (ESS) to doubling of *p*CO₂ of 3.5°C in the model is too low to create sufficient warmth. We consider available Eocene CO₂ reconstructions⁸ in combination with our proxy- and model-based temperatures (**Methods**) to estimate ESS between the various parts of the Eocene (**Extended Data Figure 9**). Our probabilistic analysis for the early to late Eocene cooling results in a calculated proxybased ESS range of 0.9–2.3 K W⁻¹ m⁻² (68% highest density interval; equivalent to 3.5–8.9°C per *p*CO₂ doubling) consistent with the high end of previous estimates¹¹.

The large range of Eocene tropical temperatures on both short and long timescales indicates that the tropics respond strongly to changes in greenhouse gases even at high temperatures. In addition to high absolute temperatures of up to ~35°C and ~37°C during the EECO and PETM²¹, respectively, this refutes the notion of stable tropical temperatures⁴, kept constant through a physical "thermostat" mechanism²⁹. Moreover, our results show that tropical SST varied in tandem with high-latitude and deep-ocean temperatures, with a stable Eocene polar amplification factor, consistent with a dominant role of CO₂ forcing in both long-term Eocene climate evolution and superimposed aberrations including the PETM and MECO. Tropical temperatures are expected to rise in response to anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. Given the consistency between our climate simulations and reconstructions, current-generation fully-coupled climate models are likely to perform adequately in predicting future

- 220 tropical SST change, although accurate determination of the sensitivity of global
- climate to CO₂ change remains a major challenge.

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297	Supplementary Information
298 299	Supplementary Table 1 Calcareous nannofossil counts.
300	See Supplementary Data Excel file.
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302	Supplementary Table 2 Fractional abundances of isoprenoid GDGTs.
303	See Supplementary Data Excel file.
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305	Supplementary Table 3 Relative and absolute abundance of upwelling-
306	indicative dinocysts.
307	See Supplementary Data Excel file.
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309	Supplementary Table 4 Selected temperature output of CESM simulations
310	EO1-EO4 and EO_CP.
311	See Supplementary Data Excel file.
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313	Supplementary Table 5 Eocene tropical sea surface temperature compilation
314	See Supplementary Data Excel file.
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Author contributions

M.J.C., A.S., and M.H. designed the study. M.J.C., F.P., S.S., I.J.K., J.F. and E.L.K. generated and/or analyzed organic geochemical data. M.J.C., A.S., P.K.B., J.F., I.J.K. and E.L.K. generated and/or analyzed palynological data. C.A. generated and analyzed nannofossil data. I.J.K., F.H., C.A., J.F., R.v.d.P. and M.J.C. developed the age model. M.H. and A.G. performed CESM model simulations. All authors

343	contributed to data and/or model interpretations. M.J.C., A.S. and M.H. wrote the text,
344	with input from all authors.
345	
346	Competing financial interests
347	The authors declare no competing financial interests.
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Main figure legends

Figure 1 | **Palaeogeographic reconstruction of 40 million years ago** showing the approximate palaeoposition of the studied site (ODP Site 959) and the main sites we use for producing a tropical SST compilation (ODP Site 865, 925, and 929; Tanzania Drilling Project TDP; Sagamu Quarry SQ and IB10B Core, Nigeria). Continental plates shown in dark grey. Light grey gridlines represent latitudes and longitudes with 30° spacing. Map generated with GPlates, using the rotation frame and tectonic reconstruction of Matthews *et al.*³⁰.

Figure 2 | **Eocene global climate evolution. a,** CO₂ record from boron isotopes from TDP (squares; 68% confidence intervals as uncertainty) and alkenones from ODP Sites 612 and 925 (circles; uncertainties from original studies); data sources in **Methods. b,** Site 959 TEX₈₆^H-based SST (°C) record (red) and additional tropical compilation (pink; see **ED Figure 5**). Dashed line represents a hiatus. Green diamonds (Site 1172) are high latitude TEX₈₆^H-based SST (°C) record³. **c,** δ ¹⁸O-based ice-free deep-ocean temperature (compiled in **Methods**), with fitted LOESS model (black line), and 95% confidence interval (dark shading). Age follows GTS2012. Pal. = Palaeocene, Olig. = Oligocene.

Figure 3 | **Proxy-model synthesis of Eocene temperatures. a**, Top: tropical SST compilation (red) and LOESS model (black line) with 95% confidence interval (gray shading). Bottom: deep ocean temperatures from Fig. 2c. Open squares are mean modelled tropical SST and deep ocean temperature of simulations EO1 (560 ppm CO₂), EO2 (1120), EO3 (2240), and EO4 (4480) and EO_CP²⁸; errors represent

seasonal range. Yellow shadings illustrate age ranges simulations are matched to. **b**, Calculated meridional temperature gradient based on LOESS fits of proxy data (line, propagated 95% confidence intervals) and model simulations EO1-4 and EO_CP (as in 3a). Age follows GTS2012. Pal. = Palaeocene, Olig. = Oligocene.

Figure 4 | **Linear relationship between deep-ocean and tropical sea surface temperature. a**, Proxy data (58-34 Ma in 1-Myr bins; errors are 1 stdev due to binning) and model results (open squares are model means for tropical compilation locations) of deep-ocean temperature against tropical SST. Slopes of Deming regressions (lines) represent polar amplification factor (□ 1 SE). The Site 959 55-56 Myr bin falls to the right of the regression line, because it includes much PETM data for Site 959 but less for the deep ocean. **b**, Density function of polar amplification factor with full propagation of errors (**Methods**) with hatched 68% highest density intervals.

Methods

Palynology

Freeze-dried sediments (96 samples) were crushed and treated with 30% HCl and twice with 38–40% HF to remove carbonates and silicates, respectively, after a known amount of *Lycopodium* spores (batch *no.* 1031, 20848 spores per tablet) was added to enable absolute quantification of palynomorphs. The 15–250 µm fraction was isolated using nylon mesh sieves and an ultrasonic bath. No oxidation procedure was applied. An aliquot of homogenized residue was mounted on slides and analysed using light microscopy (400x magnification) to a minimum of 200 identified dinocysts.

Organic geochemistry

Lipids were extracted from freeze-dried and powdered sediments (5–25 g dry weight, 118 samples) with dichloromethane (DCM):methanol (MeOH) (9:1, v:v) using a Dionex accelerated solvent extractor (ASE 350) at a temperature of 100° C and a pressure of 7.6×10^{6} Pa. Lipid extracts were separated into an apolar, ketone and polar fraction by Al₂O₃ column chromatography using hexane:DCM (9:1), hexane:DCM (1:1), and DCM:MeOH (1:1), as respective eluents. 99 ng of a synthetic C₄₆ (m/z 744) glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraether (GDGT) standard was added to the polar fraction, which subsequently was dissolved in hexane:isopropanol (99:1, v/v) to a concentration of ~3 mg/mL and passed through a 0.45 μ m polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) filter. This fraction was then analysed by high performance liquid chromatography/atmospheric pressure chemical ionization-mass spectrometry (HPLC/APCI-MS) using an Agilent 1260 Infinity series HPLC coupled to an Agilent 6130 single quadrupole MS at Utrecht University following Hopmans *et al.*³¹ to

measure the abundance of GDGTs. Branched versus Isoprenoid Tetraether (BIT) index and TEX₈₆ values were calculated according to Hopmans *et al.*³² and Kim *et al.*¹⁸, respectively. Based on long-term observation of the in-house standard, analytical precision for TEX₈₆ is \pm 0.3°C.

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Glycerol Dialkyl Glycerol Tetraether (GDGT) distributions

Of the 118 samples analysed for GDGTs, 5 Early Eocene samples did not yield sufficient concentrations of GDGTs to determine TEX86. Additionally, 4 samples were excluded because either GDGT-2 (2 samples) or crenarchaeol (2 samples) could not be reliably identified. For the remaining 109 samples we evaluated the sources of GDGTs and the reliability of TEX₈₆. The branched and isoprenoid tetraether (BIT) index³², a means of quantifying the relative abundance of soil- and river-derived GDGTs relative to marine GDGTs, is low throughout the entire Eocene (all <0.25, with 90% of values <0.07) and there is no significant correlation between BIT index and TEX₈₆ (p>0.3). Thus, our TEX₈₆ values are likely not biased by terrestrial input. Both Methane Index (MI) and GDGT-2/Cren ratios show normal marine values (<0.20 and <0.12, respectively), so there is no indication for high abundance of methanotrophic archaea relative to Thaumarchaeota^{33,34}. Furthermore, GDGT-0/Cren is low (<0.31), so there are no indications for enhanced contributions of methanogenic archaea to the pool of isoprenoid GDGTs used in TEX₈₆⁽³⁵⁾. Finally, GDGT-2/GDGT-3 ratios are <4.5, ruling out significant impact of deep water production of GDGTs³⁶. Together, these ratios indicate that GDGT distributions were likely not significantly affected by either GDGT-producing soil bacteria, methanotrophic or methanogenic archaea, or deep-dwelling Thaumarchaeota, thereby designating upper water column Thaumarchaeota as the main source and favouring the interpretation of TEX_{86}^{H} as a

SST proxy³⁷. Another recently described ratio focuses on the different GDGT distribution as produced by modern Thaumarchaeota in the Red Sea⁵. Based on coretop datasets, fractional abundances of Red Sea GDGTs are known to differ from other oceanic settings, notably in containing relatively more crenarchaeol regio-isomer (Cren')³⁸. This causes a different relationship between TEX₈₆ and SST. Inglis et al.⁵ proposed the %GDGT_{RS} (Cren'/(GDGT-0+Cren')*100%) as a means of evaluating whether a "Red Sea-type" GDGT distribution was present in the geological record. In our tropical Eocene record, TEX86 is strongly driven by fractional abundance of Cren', therefore there is also a strong correlation between TEX₈₆ and %GDGT_{RS}. However, as Inglis et al. already noted, the particular Red Sea GDGT distribution cannot be distinguished from a high temperature (>30°C) distribution, so %GDGT_{RS} does not provide a way to disentangle the effects of high temperature versus Red Seatype GDGT distribution at this site. However we note that the several reasons that have been proposed to account for the aberrant Red Sea GDGT distribution are not likely to have played a role at Site 959. There is no environmental similarity between Eocene Site 959 and the modern Red Sea that could account for a similarly adapted population of endemic Thaumarchaeota, as the setting is not comparable oceanographically or geomorphologically. Furthermore, our dinocyst record shows no indication of high salinity or strong stratification throughout the record. Based on this, we conclude that there is no reason to assume a similar TEX₈₆ to SST relationship between Site 959 and the modern Red Sea. Finally, we note that our new equatorial record shows late Palaeocene TEX₈₆ SST estimates of 31–33°C, identical to timeequivalent SSTs derived from glassy-preserved Morozovella acuta δ¹⁸O and Mg/Ca ratios and TEX₈₆ from nearby sections in Nigeria²⁰, confirming accurate proxy estimated SSTs at the study site.

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TEX₈₆ calibrations

471 *Calibrations*

Different calibrations have been proposed to translate TEX₈₆ into SST. Of note is also a recent paper by Ho and Laepple³⁹, who propose that the sedimentary GDGTs derive from the deep-ocean and TEX₈₆ therefore reflects deep (>500m) subsurface temperatures rather than SST. However, their conclusions are controversial, as the assumptions are inconsistent with all modern ocean and microbiological evidence, and the statistical method is questionable⁴⁰. Within the TEX₈₆-to-SST calibrations, a first division can be made between calibrations based on core-top samples and those based on mesocosm experiments. Here, we focus on applying different calibrations based on core-top datasets^{18,41}, as these implicitly include ecological, water column and diagenetic effects that are not incorporated in mesocosm experiments. Several linear and non-linear core-top calibrations have been developed. Of these, the global non-linear (logarithmic) TEX₈₆ calibration of Kim et al. 18 and the spatially-varying linear Bayesian TEX86 (BAYSPAR) calibration of Tierney and Tingley 19,41 are particularly applicable and most commonly chosen for higher temperature settings such as the Eocene. By treating TEX₈₆ as the dependent variable, BAYSPAR is the only calibration that does not suffer from regression dilution bias. For these calibrations, the differences in absolute temperature and relative temperature change in studies reporting TEX₈₆ values between 0.5 and 0.75 are mostly within the error of the proxy^{18,19,41}. Significant differences only appear with TEX₈₆ values above those occurring in modern oceans (i.e. TEX₈₆>0.73) for which the TEX₈₆ to SST calibration has to be extrapolated. This is illustrated in **Extended Data Figure 2A**, which shows that SST estimates based on the TEX₈₆ and BAYSPAR calibration for Site 959 are

within error between TEX_{86} values of 0.67 and 0.80. However, the difference between the calibrations increases at higher TEX_{86} values. For assessing temperature change in a high temperature setting such as the equatorial Eocene, the choice of calibration therefore becomes an important factor.

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Biophysical considerations

For the modern ocean, a linear calibration results in a better statistical correspondence between TEX₈₆ and SST in the temperature range of 5°C to 30°C^(18,42). However, the question remains if a linear calibration is the best choice for much warmer Eocene oceans considering the biochemical mechanism underlying the TEX86-SST relationship. Hyperthermophilic archaea in culture synthesize an increasing proportion of GDGTs with an increasing number of cyclopentane moieties with increasing temperature^{43–45}, most likely as a homeoviscous adaptation of the cell membrane⁴⁶. However, the GDGTs included in the TEX₈₆ ratio (GDGT1-3 and the crenarchaeol isomer; equation 1 below) constitute a minor part of the membrane lipids of Thaumarchaeota. The dominant GDGTs are GDGT-0 and crenarchaeol^{47–49}. Indeed, in the global core top data set, higher crenarchaeol and lower GDGT-0 are recorded with higher temperatures, although their response is less strong than that of the GDGT isomers included in TEX₈₆ (fig. 4 in Kim et al. 18). Thus, TEX₈₆ does not capture the full membrane adaptation of Thaumarchaeota to changing temperatures. Interestingly, the ratio of crenarchaeol/GDGT-0 versus TEX86 shows a strongly nonlinear relationship in the global core top data (Extended Data Figure 2C). This trend is similar to that observed between the TEX86 and the ring index (Extended Data Figure 2D), which is the average number of cyclopentane rings of GDGTs 0-3,

crenarchaeol and its regio-isomer (**equation 2** below), and which also shows a strong relationship to temperature⁵⁰.

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$$TEX_{86} = \frac{[GDGT - 2] + [GDGT - 3] + [Cren']}{[GDGT - 1] + [GDGT - 2] + [GDGT - 3] + [Cren']}$$
 (1)

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$$RI = 0 \times [GDGT - 0] + 1 \times [GDGT - 1] + 2 \times [GDGT - 2] + 3$$

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$$\times [GDGT - 3]$$
 (2) + 3 $\times [GDGT - 3]$ + 4 $\times [Cren + Cren']$

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In **ED Fig. 2C** and **2D**, both in terms of TEX₈₆ versus ring index, and TEX₈₆ versus Cren/GDGT-0, the Eocene data from Site 959 overlap the core top dataset, on both Red Sea and tropical latitude core-top data. This non-linear relationship indicates that at high temperatures, the TEX₈₆ shows a relatively small response to temperature change relative to the amount of crenarchaeol versus GDGT-0 and the ring index. This suggests that with increasing temperatures, adaptation of the Thaumarchaeotal membrane is increasingly regulated through crenarchaeol and GDGT-0 rather than the GDGTs included in TEX₈₆. This should lead to a flattening of the slope between SST and TEX₈₆ and therefore provides support for a logarithmic relationship. Additional support for this hypothesis comes from recent culturing experiments on three different Thaumarchaeota strains⁴⁹. These show that for two strains, *Nitrosopumilus maritimus* and strain NAOA6, both the TEX86 and ring index (mainly driven by GDGT-0 and crenarchaeol) correlate with incubation temperature. However, in the third strain (NAOA2), the ring index but not TEX₈₆ changes with growth temperature. This third strain had the highest growth temperature optimum and the strongest change in ring index from 28°C to 35°C. This suggests that, at temperatures >28°C, membrane

adaptation to temperature in certain (high temperature) Thaumarchaeota may not be well reflected in the TEX₈₆ ratio. It should be noted that a non-linear response was not found in mesocosm experiments at temperatures of up to 40°C⁽⁵¹⁾. However, this calibration is substantially different from that of the global core top calibrations due to the unusually low amounts of the crenarchaeol regio-isomer⁵². A similarly low abundance of the crenarchaeol regio-isomer was noted for *Nitrosopumilus maritimus* and strain NAOA6⁽⁴⁹⁾. In strain NAOA2⁽⁴⁹⁾ abundances of crenarchaeol regio-isomer were higher and did increase with temperature, suggesting it may be a better representation for high temperature-adapted marine Thaumarchaeota. Based on the above lines of biophysical evidence we argue that the slope of the TEX₈₆ to temperature is likely to flatten at temperatures above the surface sediment dataset, such as the TEX₈₆ values recorded in the Eocene of Site 959.

Implications

The use of the non-linear TEX $_{86}^{H}$ calibration results in somewhat lower temperature estimates compared to the linear BAYSPAR calibration (**Extended Data Figure 2B**) for Site 959 in the early Eocene and late Palaeocene. Notably, for the Palaeocene, such estimates agree better with SSTs derived from glassy-preserved planktonic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ and Mg/Ca records from nearby sections in Nigeria²⁰. Additionally, the Site 959 TEX $_{86}^{H}$ estimates fit well with the other SST constraints we use in our tropical Eocene compilation (**Extended Data Figure 5**). Finally, similarly reduced sensitivity of TEX $_{86}$ (i.e. non-linearity) at the low end of the temperature range is undisputed as it is apparent in both mesocosm experiments⁵², but also in the global core-top dataset^{18,53}. We therefore apply the TEX $_{86}^{H}$ calibration in our main analysis presented in the main manuscript. Nevertheless, the absolute temperature

estimates and magnitude of change obtained from the extrapolated part of the TEX₈₆ calibration curve should always be interpreted with care. For completeness, we also present the results for the meridional temperature gradient and polar amplification analysis using BAYSPAR in Extended Data Figure 3. This confirms that the use of TEX₈₆ rather than BAYSPAR implies a conservative estimate of middle-late Eocene cooling and MECO warming at Site 959 and thus a low estimate of (early Eocene) meridional temperature gradients and a maximum estimate of polar amplification compared to BAYSPAR. Crucially, however, the choice of calibration does not affect the trends in tropical surface temperatures (Extended Data Figure 3A), or the fact that they parallel deep-ocean temperatures - and therefore does not affect our conclusion regarding the drivers of Eocene climate change. The larger Eocene range of tropical temperatures reconstructed using BAYSPAR does imply that sea surface temperatures at Site 959 varied more than deep sea temperatures during the Eocene, suggesting tropical rather than polar amplification. Regardless, the relation between tropical and deep sea temperatures remains linear, reflecting a constant polar amplification factor (Extended Data Figure 3C).

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Age model Site 959

Eocene sediments from Site 959 were too weakly magnetized to yield reliable palaeomagnetic results¹⁶. Our age model is therefore based on a combination of bio-and chemostratigraphy and supported by cyclic variations in sediment coloration (**Extended Data Figure 1**). Although the dinoflagellate cyst assemblages support an Eocene age of the analysed material, they did not yield many biostratigraphic events with a well-calibrated age in the tropics⁵⁴. A total number of 76 additional standard smear slides (**Supplementary Data**) were analysed for calcareous nannofossil and

allowed for improvement of the initial biostratigraphic framework⁵⁵. Biochronological estimates from the low latitude nannofossil biozonation⁵⁶ were converted to the Geologic Time Scale 2012 (GTS2012)⁵⁷ using the relative position of each biohorizon within the respective magnetochron. In total, 10 robust nannofossil tie-points were used (Extended Data Table 1). The Base and Top of Chiasmolithus gigas could not be used at this site due to extremely low abundance of this species. Therefore, alternative biohorizons among the evolutionary lineage Sphenolithus furcatolithoides morph. A – Sphenolithus cuniculus – S. furcatolithoides morph. B were used. Based on the co-occurrence of two non-synchronous bio-events (Base Nannotetrina alata gr. and Base Nannotetrina cristata) at the same depth (between 740.95 and 741.63 mbsf) and supported by a sudden shift in the nannofossil assemblage, the presence of a hiatus was inferred in Core 35R at ~741 mbsf. The presence of Nannotetrina alata sensu strico in combination with Sphenolithus perpendicularis and transitional forms of sphenoliths in at 740.95 mbsf suggests that the sediments just above the hiatus are very close in age to the actual base of *N. alata* group. Therefore, we also include this biohorizon in our age model. The lower boundary of the hiatus is based on linear extrapolation of the underlying sedimentation rate of 1.27 cm kyr⁻¹. This approach results in a hiatus of 1.5 Myr (48.0-46.5 Ma). To further constrain the age model, several chemostratigraphic tie-points were used. The onset of the carbon isotope excursion marking the Palaeocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (~56 Ma) was recently identified at 804.09 mbsf²¹. In addition, the previously identified late Eocene minimum in osmium isotope ratios⁵⁸ (¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os) at 458.65 mbsf has an age of 34.4 Ma in the GTS2012 based on correlation to the Os isotope record at well-dated ODP Site 1218 and 1219⁽⁵⁹⁾. These age constraints indicate that our data spans the entire Eocene. The age model is further supported by calculated sedimentation rates from

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selected intervals, where high-resolution colour logs showed >4 easily distinguishable cycles. Sedimentation rates were calculated by assuming that these smallest-scale alternations are precession-forced, and were thus assigned a duration of 21 kyr per cycle. These sedimentation rates (blue lines in **Extended Data Figure 1**) correspond closely to those based on chemostratigraphy and biostratigraphy. Our age model implies that the warming interval 590–565 mbsf reflects the Middle Eocene Climatic Optimum (MECO), which is further supported by a shift in osmium isotope ratios that was also identified within the MECO at Sites 1263 and U1333 (RvdP, D. Selby, MJC, Y. Li, SMB, J. J. Middelburg, AS. Middle Eocene greenhouse warming facilitated by diminished weathering feedback. *Nat. Comm.* In Review). Due to a lack of nannofossils in the poorly recovered upper part of Hole 959D, linear extrapolation was used for the data points <466 mbsf. This places the Eocene-Oligocene boundary at 447.5 mbsf, which is in good agreement with the placing of the Oil glacial event based on the osmium isotope recovery after the 34.4 Ma minimum by Ravizza and Paquay⁵⁸.

Age models other sites

ODP Site 1172

The TEX₈₆-based SST record from Site 1172^{3,60,61} was plotted (**Figure 2**) on an age model based on the magnetostratigraphy of Bijl *et al.*⁶², in turn largely grounded on the original interpretation by Fuller and Touchard⁶³. This was supplemented with three well-calibrated dinocyst events from Dallanave *et al.*⁶⁴ (top and bottom range *Charlesdowniea edwardsii*, and top range *Wilsonidium ornatum*) instead of the uncertain magnetochron reversals for this interval (552-578 mbsf).

642 Dahomey Basin, Nigeria

For the Sagamu Quarry and IB10B Core, Nigeria, published biostratigraphic and chemostratigraphic age constraints²⁰ were used. Specifically, Bot *Morozovella subbotinae*, Bot *Acarinina soldadoensis* were used for SQ and Bot *Acarinina soldadoensis*, Top *Morozovella acuta*, CIE onset and top CIE recovery were used for IB10B as age-depth tie-points.

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Tropical sea surface temperature compilation

For the presented compilation, we integrate the new ODP Site 959 TEX₈₆-based SST record with several existing SST proxy records, specifically δ^{18} O of photosymbiontbearing planktonic foraminifera Morozovella spp. (upper mixed layer) and Acarinina spp. (mixed layer) from the Sagamu Quarry (SQ), Nigeria²⁰ and Tanzania Drilling Project (TDP) sections^{4,65}, and near-surface dwelling *Turborotalia ampliapertura* from TDP⁶⁶; Mg/Ca of Morozovella spp. from ODP Site 865⁽⁶⁷⁾ and SQ²⁰, Acarinina spp. from SQ²⁰, and *T. ampliapertura* from TDP⁶⁸; TEX₈₆ from ODP Site 925^(24,69), $929^{(5,24)}$, TDP⁴, SQ and the IB10B Core, Nigeria²⁰; and clumped isotope (Δ_{47}) thermometry of shallow-dwelling large benthic foraminifera from Evans et al.⁶ (Supplementary data). We did not include data from South Dover Bridge⁵ and Walvis Ridge⁷⁰, because plate tectonic reconstructions place them outside of the 30°– 30° latitude band. Age models for all sites were converted to GTS2012 using published age-depth tie-points. For the Mg/Ca proxy, (normalised) Mg/Ca compositions were converted to SST using the Anand et al.⁷¹ calibration, using the Eocene seawater Mg/Ca reconstruction from Evans et al.⁶ and using H=0.42⁽⁷²⁾ to correct for power law dependence of test Mg/Ca on changing seawater Mg/Ca⁽⁷³⁾. δ¹⁸O to temperature conversion was done following Erez and Luz⁷⁴, assuming a

constant ice-free global $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ of -1.2% VPDB⁷⁵ and (constant) latitudinal corrections for TDP and SQ of 0.83% and 0.61%, respectively⁷⁶. A +2°C correction to convert reconstructed T. ampliapertura temperatures to SST, as used in the original publication⁶⁸, was omitted here. It should be noted that different seawater chemistry assumptions for the $\delta^{18}O$ and Mg/Ca proxies may result in shifts in reconstructed temperatures, but do not qualitatively change trends or the correspondence between trends. Multiple measured specimens per sample in the original studies have been averaged into one value for this compilation. For the TEX86-based records, samples with aberrant GDGT ratios were removed following Inglis et al.⁵. The logarithmic Kim et al. 18 TEXH calibration was used in the main text and a full supplemental analysis is provided using the linear BAYSPAR¹⁹ calibration. For the BAYSPAR calibration, the default search tolerance (2 standard deviations of raw TEX₈₆ dataset) was used for Site 959, 925 and 929, which yields a representative set of low-latitude calibration localities. The search tolerance was stretched to 0.15 TEX units for the Dahomey basin and TDP records to not only sample the possibly anomalous modern Red Sea³⁸ but to include a broad representative sample of low-latitude localities.

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Global deep-ocean temperature compilation

We base our deep-ocean temperature compilation on the benthic isotope stack previously compiled by Zachos *et al.*² and supplement this with several high-resolution benthic isotope records, specifically from ODP Site 690^(77,78), ODP Site 748⁽²²⁾, ODP Site 1218⁽⁷⁹⁾, ODP Site 1209⁽⁸⁰⁾, ODP Site 1258⁽⁸¹⁾, ODP Site 1262⁽⁸²⁾, and ODP Site 1263⁽⁸³⁾. After the respective species-specific corrections for disequilibrium vital effects⁸⁴ were applied, δ^{18} O to temperature conversion was done following Erez and Luz⁷⁴, assuming a constant ice-free global δ^{18} O_{sw} of -1.2‰

VPDB⁷⁵. Age models for all sites were converted to GTS2012 using published agedepth tie-points.

CO₂ compilation

The compiled CO₂ record plotted in **Figure 2** derives from boron isotopes from TDP^{8,85}, with 68% confidence intervals as reported in Foster *et al.*⁸⁶, and alkenones from ODP Site 612⁽⁸⁷⁾ and 925⁽⁶⁹⁾.

Meridional temperature gradients

As an approximation for the pole-to-equator temperature difference or meridional temperature gradient (MTG), we calculate the difference between tropical mean SST and deep-ocean temperatures. The latter are better constrained than high latitude SSTs and exclude potential summer temperature biases that might plague available high latitude SST records. We use deep-ocean temperatures based on δ^{18} O, as these are better constrained than those based on Mg/Ca, particularly because of the large uncertainties regarding seawater Mg/Ca values as well as larger uncertainty between different calibrations and corrections used to convert Mg/Ca to temperature. We note that our approach of using the LOESS-fitted data provides robust estimates of long-term changes in MTG, but is less appropriate for considering transient events, as fitted event MTGs, e.g. for the PETM and MECO, are very dependent on the bandwidth of the fit and the specific records used (**Extended Data Figure 8**).

Sensitivity to late Eocene ice volume

The Cenozoic benthic foraminiferal δ^{18} O signal reflects both deep-water temperature and global ice volume changes. Although it is unlikely that large Antarctic ice sheets

were present in the warmest interval of the Cenozoic during the early Eocene, the extent of middle-late Eocene Antarctic glaciation is more uncertain (for discussion see e.g. Miller et al. 88, Barker et al. 89 and Gasson et al. 90). Recent work argues for possible early-middle Eocene glaciation⁹¹ but the dating of these sediments is highly uncertain. Although there might be evidence for glacial activity, the interpreted presence of early-middle Eocene large East Antarctic ice sheets is highly controversial, certainly in light of very warm temperatures on the East Antarctic margin⁹². Nevertheless, initial small ice caps in the middle-late Eocene would have had relatively enriched isotopic compositions of -20% to -35% VSMOW⁹³ relative to mean modern Antarctic ice of -54% VSMOW. We assess the effect of a range of middle-late Eocene ice volumes with different isotopic compositions on the mean δ^{18} O of Eocene seawater (**Extended Data Figure 6D**). This demonstrates that the effect of ice volume was likely not more than ~0.25%, or ~1°C in the latest Eocene. To further illustrate this, we present both the record of ice-free deep-ocean temperature evolution and a second line based on a linear build-up of late Eocene ice volume from 39.5 Ma (post-MECO) onwards to a latest Eocene (34.0 Ma) maximum of 10 * 10⁶ km^{3(94,95)} with an isotopic composition of -25% VSMOW⁹³ (Extended **Data Figure 6A).** This makes a maximum difference of about 0.8° C ($\Delta\delta^{18}$ O_{sw} of 0.18‰) in the latest Eocene. We further propagate this uncertainty into the analysis of meridional temperature gradients and polar amplification factors (Extended Data Figure 6B-C.)

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CESM 1 model simulations

We performed fully-coupled general circulation model simulations using the NCAR
Community Earth System Model version 1 (CESM 1)⁹⁶ applying a range of radiative

forcings equivalent to a range of CO₂ concentrations (560, 1120, 2240 and 4480 ppm; simulations EO1-EO4, respectively). The simulations share the same generalised Eocene palaeogeography to assess the effect of changing CO₂ by itself, and were all run for greater than 3,000 years to equilibrium. Simulations using an earlier, and generally similar version of this model were found to produce the best match to early Eocene proxy temperatures within a multi-model ensemble¹⁵ and preliminary comparison reveals that these new simulations are slightly improved over the earlier version for the early Eocene²⁰. Results from the lower CO₂ simulations (560 and 1120) and further information on the model can be found in Goldner et al.²⁶. This version of CESM has a modern "fast" climate sensitivity of 2.9°C for one pCO₂ doubling⁹⁶, and a nearly constant emergent "slow" climate sensitivity, or ESS, of 3.5°C per doubling in the Eocene simulations used here. For comparison with the proxies in this study, the four simulations with varying CO₂ were assigned specific ages by matching the simulated deep-ocean temperatures to the proxy-based deepocean temperature reconstruction curve. We then compare the resulting sea surface temperatures at the same localities as the main sites in our proxy compilation (ODP Site 865, 925/929, 959 and TDP) and surface-to-deep gradients to evaluate model performance (Supplementary Data). Temperature at the proxy data localities was sampled in a 4° radius. This approach avoids the circularity of adjusting the climate model radiative forcing to match surface temperature records, and also provides a target that circumvents the uncertainty introduced by the various errors and uncertainties in surface temperature records. In these simulations, bottom water temperatures in the 4480 ppm scenario (simulation EO4) are representative of a hot Early Eocene Climatic Optimum extreme (deep-ocean 13-14°C, following the conventions of Huber and Caballero¹⁴) whereas the 560 ppm scenario (simulation

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EO1) is comparable to the latest Eocene (deep-ocean 4–5°C), with intermediate simulations (EO2 and EO3) in between and comparable to the middle Eocene.

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Polar amplification factor calculations

First, to gain an estimate of the factor by which polar temperature change is amplified relative to the tropics (i.e. the polar amplification factor), we performed a Deming regression, accounting for error in both variables, of the Site 959 record against the deep sea stack of temperatures, with data binned into 1-Myr bins from 34–58 Ma. We did not include data from the EOT and earliest Oligocene, to exclude major effects of ice volume changes on seawater δ^{18} O. To assess the robustness of the single regression, we followed a probabilistic approach using Monte Carlo resampling with full propagation of errors. First, we generated 1000 iterations of both the tropical SST and deep-ocean temperature datasets. In these iterations, each data point is resampled within the 95% confidence limits of its propagated analytical plus calibration uncertainty, assuming Gaussian distribution of errors. Using these, we calculated 1000 iterations of a Deming regression of DWT against tropical SST, with data binned into 1-Myr bins from 34-58 Ma and propagated errors related to binning used in the regression. We plotted the resulting suite of 1000 slopes as a probability density function of the polar amplification factor. This exercise was performed using the full tropical temperature compilation and the single Site 959 record. We additionally performed a Deming regression of the Site 959 record against the high latitude Site 1172 record as a supplementary analysis. The latter analysis generates a similar polar amplification factor, but with larger scatter and uncertainty. This is due to the smaller amount of data points in the Site 1172 SST record relative to the benthic δ^{18} O stack,

and differences in the detailed pattern of Eocene cooling between Site 1172 compared to Site 959 and the deep-ocean temperature record.

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Earth System Sensitivity calculations

To provide estimates of Eocene ESS sensu Lunt et al. 97, we combined our proxy and model reconstructions of temperature with the few available CO₂ reconstructions based on boron isotopes⁸, involving 1 sample for the early (54–49 Ma), 2 samples for the middle (48–42 Ma), and 1 sample for the late Eocene (38–35 Ma). We derived temperatures by sampling the proxy compilation within the designated age brackets. We use tropical and deep-ocean temperature change (dT) as minimum and maximum estimates of dT. Between these, a uniform "flat" probability distribution is assumed. We convert changes in boron-based CO₂ estimates to radiative forcing in W m⁻² using the radiative forcing fit from Byrne and Goldblatt⁹⁸. With the above approach, we derived estimates of ESS in K W⁻¹ m⁻² for the early Eocene compared to the middle and late Eocene and to the pre-industrial. Uncertainties are based on propagated uncertainties of temperature change and radiative forcing derived by resampling these datasets 1000 times within their 95% confidence limits (propagated analytical plus calibration uncertainty for temperature, reported 95% confidence limits from the original work⁸ for CO₂). In this, we removed radiative forcings <0, *i.e.* we assume there is no negative forcing associated with increasing CO2. Given the good match between proxies and presented model simulations, we also calculated ESS using the model-derived global mean temperatures and CO₂ proxy data.

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Data availability statement

The authors declare that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and its Supplementary Information files. Original raw data (palynology counts and GDGT concentrations and chromatograms) are available from the corresponding author upon request. **Code availability statement** The model used in this study is the NCAR CESM1 with CAM4 atmosphere, which is freely available from NCAR (http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/cesm1.0/).

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Extended Data Legends

Extended Data Figure 1 | Augmented age model of Hole 959D. Age-depth plot showing calcareous nannofossil and chemostratigraphic tie-points (diamonds with error bars plotted between minimum and maximum depth of tie-point) as presented in Extended Data Table 1b. Abbreviation mbsf stands for meters below seafloor; B, BC, and T stand for Base, Base Common and Top, respectively. Blue shaded regions represent depth-intervals for which sedimentation rates (blue lines) were calculated. Hiatus of ~1.5 Myr in Core 35 indicated as red curly line. Epochs and ages in million years ago (Ma) following GTS2012.

Extended Data Figure 2 | Comparison between different TEX₈₆**-to-SST** calibrations and different GDGT ratios. a, TEX₈₆-SST calibration lines (trendlines for BAYSPAR) for one logarithmic and several linear calibrations. Plotted symbols are the Hole 959D TEX₈₆ record, to illustrate which part of the calibration is relevant for this study. Compared calibrations are: BAYSPAR^{19,41} with default settings (search tolerance 2 TEX₈₆ standard deviations; 0.13) (dark grey line, dark grey diamonds), BAYSPAR with increased search tolerance (0.2) (dashed line, light grey diamonds), Kim *et al.* linear core-top calibration (light blue line) Kim *et al.* linear subset core-top calibration without Red Sea and polar ocean data (dark blue line). It is of note that the logarithmic TEX^H₈₆ starts strongly diverging from the linear BAYSPAR and subset Kim *et al.* calibrations from TEX₈₆ values of >0.8. **b**, Hole 959D SST record using different TEX₈₆ calibrations. Same calibrations and line colours/types used as in panel a. **c**, Ratio of crenarchaeol divided by GDGT-0 against TEX₈₆, data from core-top

compilation⁴¹ (black circles; Red Sea subset purple circles) and our Hole 959D record (red squares). **d**, Ring index *sensu* Zhang *et al.*⁵⁰ against TEX₈₆, data from core top compilation (black circles; Red Sea subset purple circles) and our Hole 959D record (red squares). The exponential regression line of Zhang *et al.* through the core top data is plotted as a black line.

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Extended Data Figure 3 | Sensitivity of main results to TEX₈₆ calibration. a, Above: tropical SST (°C) compilation, proxy data as compiled in **Methods** (red symbols), with all TEX₈₆-based records converted to SST using the BAYSPAR calibration (default settings, search tolerance 2 standard deviations of the raw respective TEX₈₆ datasets). Fitted LOESS model plotted as black line, 95% confidence interval as gray shading. Below: ice-free deep-ocean temperature (°C) compilation, δ^{18} O-based proxy data as compiled in **Methods**. Fitted LOESS model plotted as black line, 95% confidence interval as dark blue shading. b, Calculated meridional temperature gradient MTG (°C) based on LOESS fits of proxy data (lines, propagated 95% confidence intervals as silhouettes). Black line with grey silhouette uses the tropical compilation with TEX₈₆ calibration; blue line with blue silhouette uses the BAYSPAR calibration. c, Proxy (blue diamonds, tropical compilation; red diamonds, Site 959) deep-ocean temperature (°C) against tropical sea surface temperature (°C) using the BAYSPAR calibration for TEX86-based records. Lines represent Deming regression analysis through proxy data (slope, or polar amplification factor 1.42 \square 0.14 (\square 1 SE) for tropical compilation; 0.75 \square 0.04 for Site 959). Proxy data grouped into 1-Myr bins from 34-58 Ma, with error bars representing standard deviation due to binning. This sensitivity analysis shows that calculated MTGs and the constant polar amplification factor are relatively robust to

the specific TEX₈₆ calibration used, although MTGs are somewhat less reduced in the early Eocene when using the BAYSPAR calibration. Polar amplification factors are lower, but reflect a linear relationship.

Extended Data Figure 4 | Regression analysis between reconstructed SST and abundance of upwelling indicators. a, TEX_{86}^{H} -based SST (°C) (red diamonds, upper left vertical axis), Protoperidinioid abundance (% of total dinocyst assemblage) (brown dots, right vertical axis), and total organic carbon TOC (% of sediment) (black dots, lower left vertical axis) records of ODP Site 959. Dashed lines represent a hiatus in Site 959. Plotted against age in millions of years ago (Ma), Geological Time Scale 2012. b, Regression analysis between SST and percentage of Protoperidinioid dinocysts of total dinocyst assemblage, showing a non-significant relationship with very low fit (brown line, 90% confidence interval as brown shading, $R^2 = 0.00$, p = 0.75) and a better fit ($R^2 = 0.35$) that is significant (p < 0.01) when only the late Eocene (post-MECO) part of the record is considered (blue-grey line, 90% CI as blue-grey shading). c, Regression analysis between SST and percentage of total organic carbon in sediment, showing a significant negative correlation for the whole record ($R^2 = 0.39$, p < 0.001; dark grey line, 90% CI as dark grey shading) and the late Eocene subset ($R^2 = 0.37$, p < 0.01; blue-grey line, 90% CI as blue-grey shading).

Extended Data Figure 5 | Eocene multi-proxy tropical SST compilation. Compilation as presented in Figure 2, here plotted per site and proxy, with data sources in legend. *Moro.*, *Aca.*, and *Turbo*. abbreviations for foraminifera genera *Morozovella*, *Acarinina* and *Turborotalia*, respectively. The dashed line in the Site 959 record represents a hiatus. Conservative estimates of propagated calibration and

analytical errors are ± 2.6 °C for TEX₈₆, ± 1.6 °C for δ^{18} O, and ± 1.3 °C for Mg/Ca (± 1 sd). Δ_{47} uncertainties as reported in the original study⁶, with minimum and maximum range. Uncertainties plotted on same relative vertical temperature scale as graph, to facilitate comparison. Plotted against age in millions of years ago (Ma), Geological Time Scale 2012, with age range of Epochs. Palaeocene and Oligocene abbreviated as "Pal." and "Olig.", respectively.

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Extended Data Figure 6 | Sensitivity of main results to late Eocene ice volume. Above: tropical SST (°C) compilation, proxy data as compiled in Methods (red symbols). Fitted LOESS model plotted as black line, 95% confidence interval as gray shading. Below: deep-ocean temperature (°C) compilation, δ^{18} O-based proxy data as compiled in Methods. Ice-free deep-ocean temperatures and fitted LOESS model as grey dots and line, respectively, and deep-ocean temperature compilation and fitted LOESS model including late Eocene ice volume effect (Methods) as blue dots and line. 95% LOESS confidence intervals as shading. b, Calculated meridional temperature gradient MTG (°C) based on LOESS fits of proxy data (lines, propagated 95% confidence intervals as silhouettes). Black line with grey silhouette uses the icefree deep-ocean temperatures; blue line with blue silhouette includes the late Eocene ice volume effect on deep-ocean temperature. c, Proxy (blue diamonds, tropical compilation; red diamonds, Site 959) deep-ocean temperature (°C) including late Eocene ice volume effect against tropical sea surface temperature (°C). Lines represent Deming regression analysis through proxy data (slope, or polar amplification factor 2.07 \square 0.25 (\square 1 SE) for tropical compilation; 1.19 \square 0.06 for Site 959). Proxy data grouped into 1-Myr bins from 34-58 Ma, with error bars representing standard deviation due to binning. **d**, sensitivity of δ^{18} O of Eocene

seawater (‰ VSMOW) to buildup of 0–10⁷ km³ ice with varying isotopic composition.

Extended Data Figure 7 | **Linear relationship between high-latitude and tropical sea surface temperature.** Site 1172 TEX₈₆-based SST (record plotted in **Extended Data Figure 5**) against Site 959 TEX₈₆-based SST. Lines represent Deming regression analysis through proxy data (slope, or polar amplification factor 1.66 □
0.57). Proxy data grouped into 1-Myr bins from 34-58 Ma, with error bars representing standard deviation due to binning. Peak PETM and peak MECO SSTs plotted as separate annotated points that fall within uncertainty of the regression line.

${\bf Extended\ Data\ Figure\ 8\ |\ PETM\ temperature\ gradient\ proxy-model\ comparison.}$

a, Above: tropical SST (°C) compilation, proxy data as compiled in Methods (red symbols). Fitted LOESS model plotted as red line, 95% confidence interval as pink shading. Below: ice-free deep-ocean temperature (°C) compilation, δ¹⁸O-based proxy data as compiled in Methods. GCV-optimized fitted LOESS model (as in Figure 3) plotted as gray line, 95% CI as gray shading. Alternative LOESS model with small bandwidth (0.25 * GCV-optimized span) that tracks deep-ocean PETM temperature more closely as blue line, 95% CI as blue shading. Plotted together with the PETM simulation of Kiehl and Shields²⁸ (black open squares, seasonal range error bars) with altered cloud parameters (CP_PETM). b, Calculated meridional temperature gradient MTG (°C) based on LOESS fits of proxy data and of model simulation CP_PETM. Gray line uses GCV-optimized fitted LOESS model, blue line uses smaller bandwidth deep-ocean LOESS model (propagated 95% confidence intervals as shading). Note that the PETM MTG pattern is complex due to sensitivity to the specific records, age

1140 models and filtering used, and might have evolved over the course of the event. 1141 Nevertheless, peak PETM MTG is well constrained and matches simulation CP PETM poorly. Plotted against age in millions of years ago (Ma), Geological Time 1142 1143 Scale 2012. 1144 Extended Data Figure 9 | Probability distributions of Eocene Earth System 1145 1146 Sensitivity. ESS estimates using proxy (a) and model (b) temperatures in 1147 combination with proxy-based CO2, derived as in Methods. Eocene ESS separated 1148 into late Eocene relative to EECO (red), middle Eocene relative to EECO (purple) and 1149 middle Eocene relative to late Eocene (blue). ESS estimates of EECO relative to pre-1150 industrial (black) have lower error due to high precision of pre-industrial CO2 and temperature, but include additional long-term non-CO2 effects. 1151

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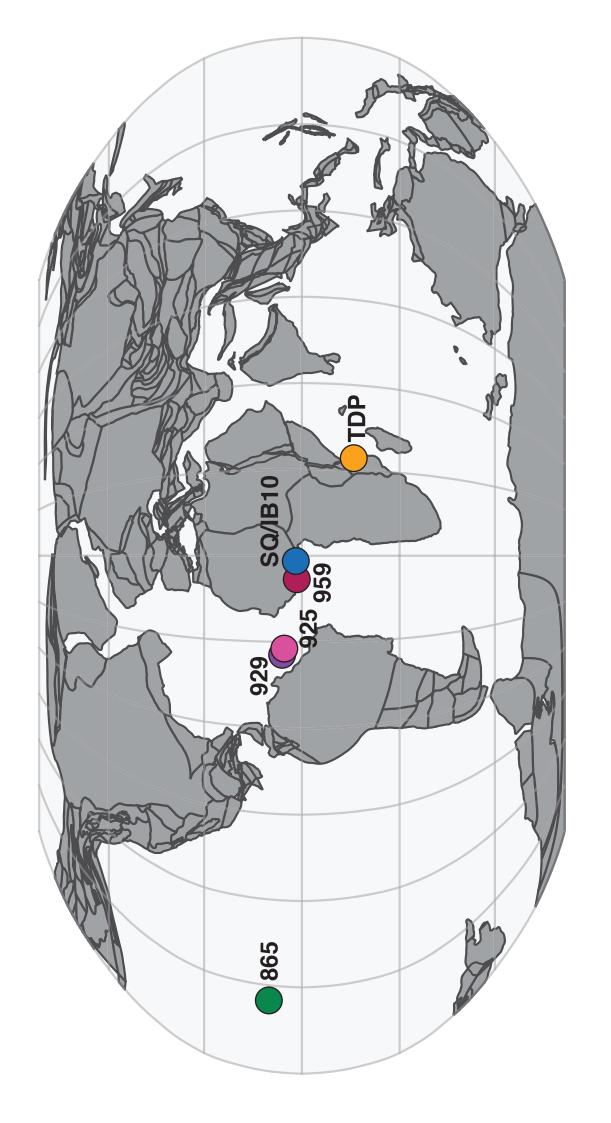
1153	Tables
1154	Extended Data Table 1 Palaeolatitude and age constraints of Site 959 over the
1155	Eocene. a, Palaeolatitudes reconstructed with GPlates using the hotspot reference
1156	frame of Matthews et al.30 and the palaeomagnetic reference of Torsvik et al.99.
1157	Present latitude 3.6276°N, longitude 2.7352°W. b, Bio- and chemostratigraphic age-
1158	depth tiepoints used in developing the age model for the Eocene of Site 959.
1159	Abbreviation mbsf stands for meters below seafloor; B, BC, and T stand for Base
1160	range, Base Common range and Top range, respectively.
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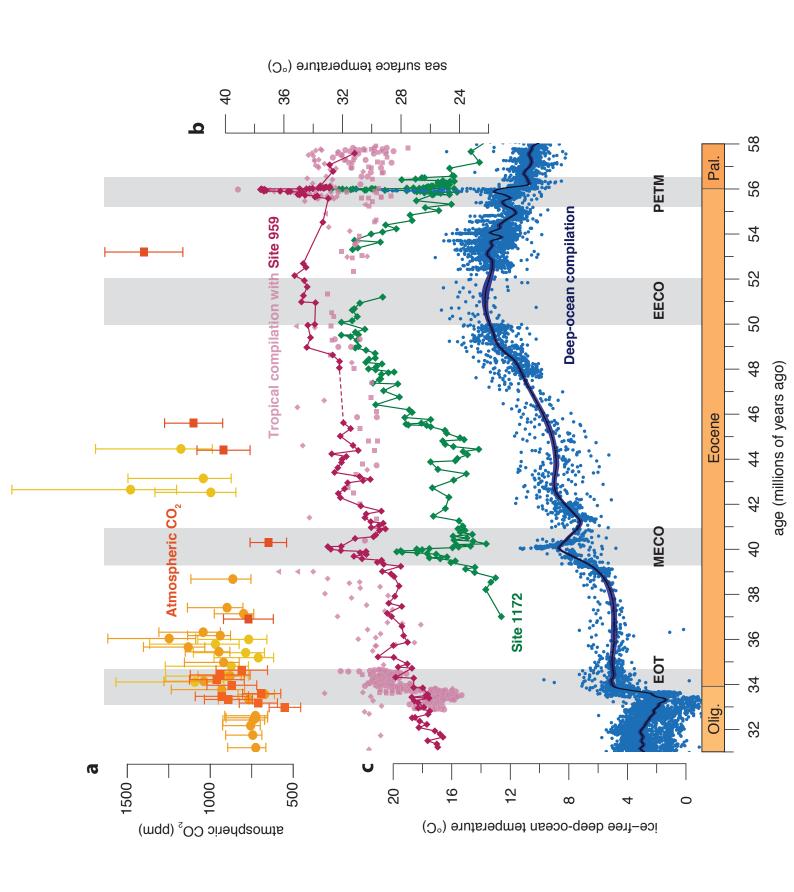
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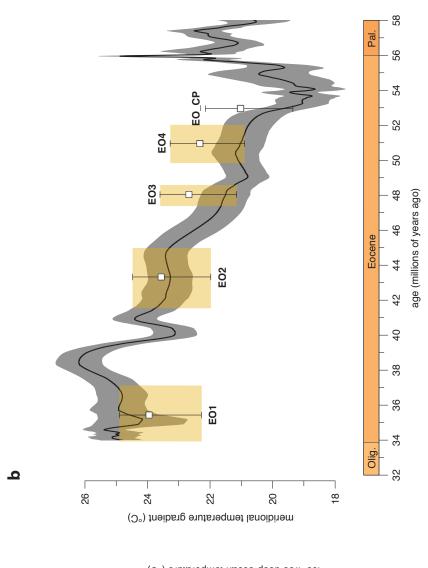
1163 99. Torsvik, T. H. et al. Phanerozoic polar wander, palaeogeography and

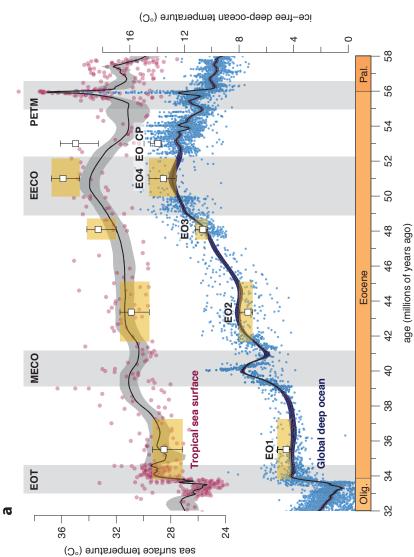
dynamics. Earth-Sci. Rev. 114, 325–368 (2012).

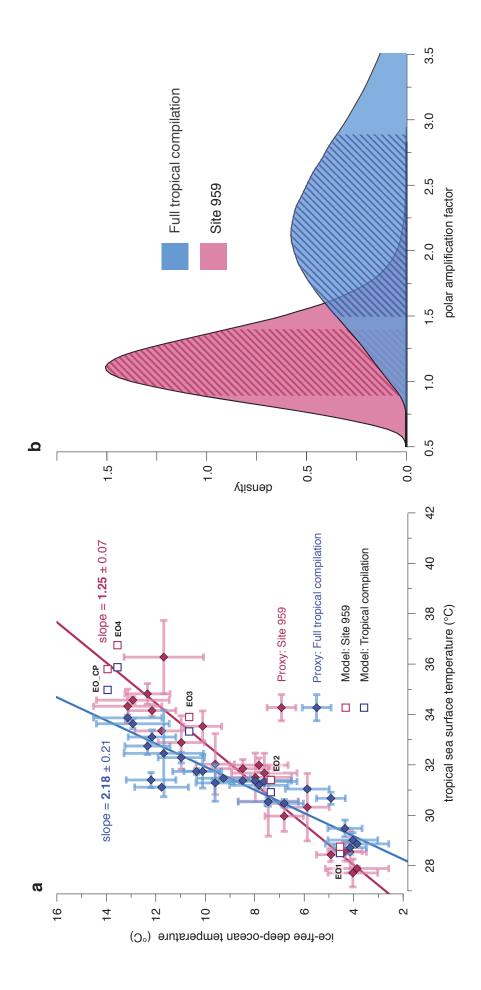
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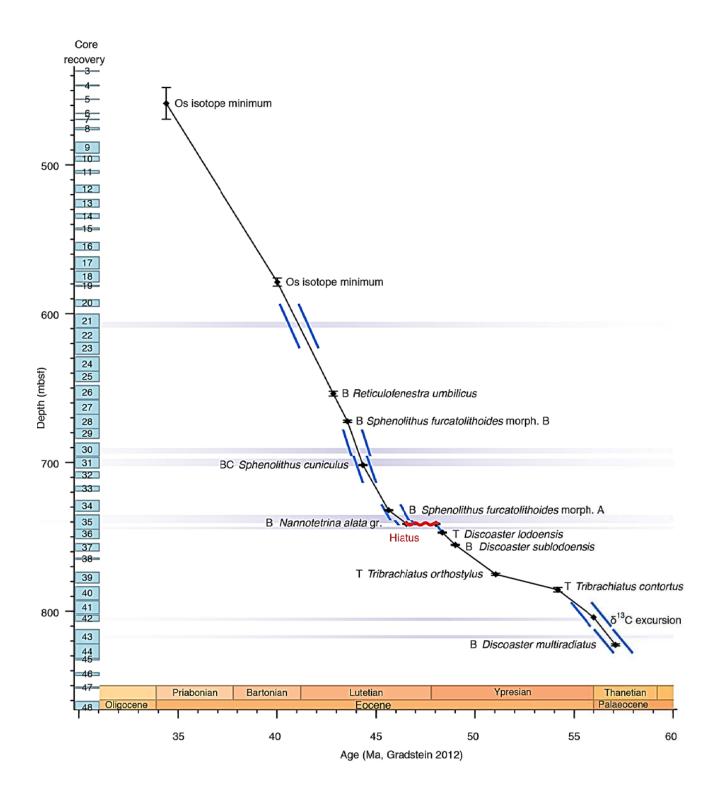


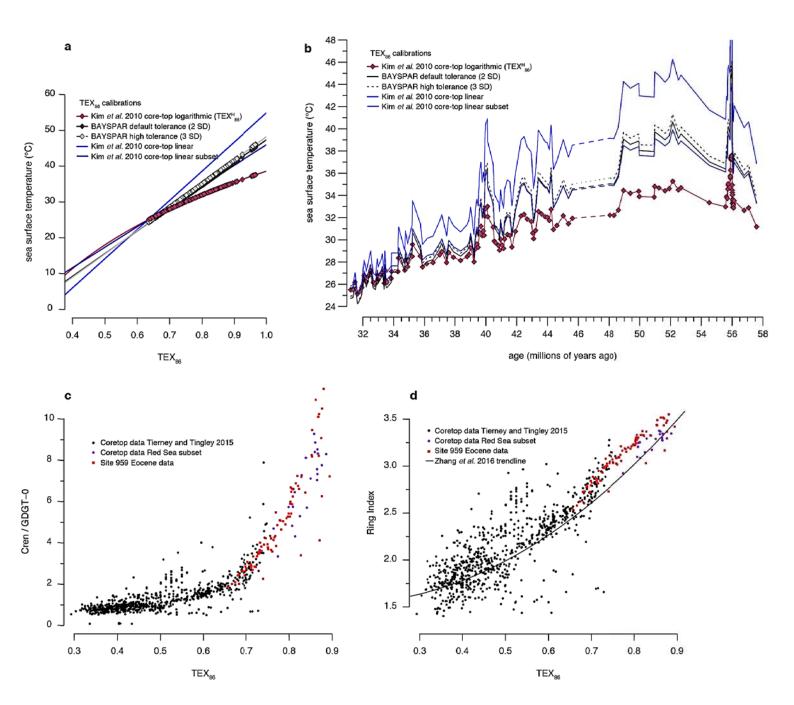


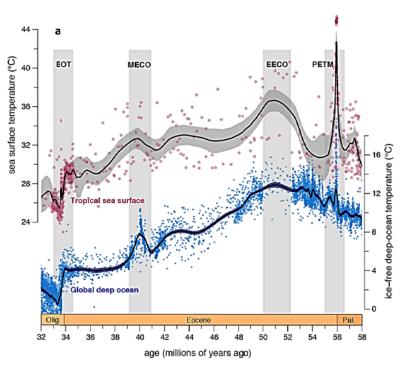


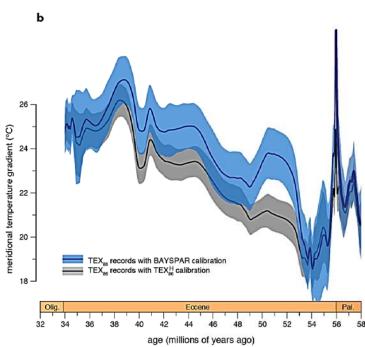


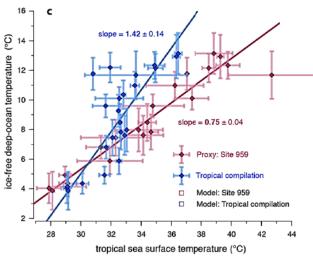


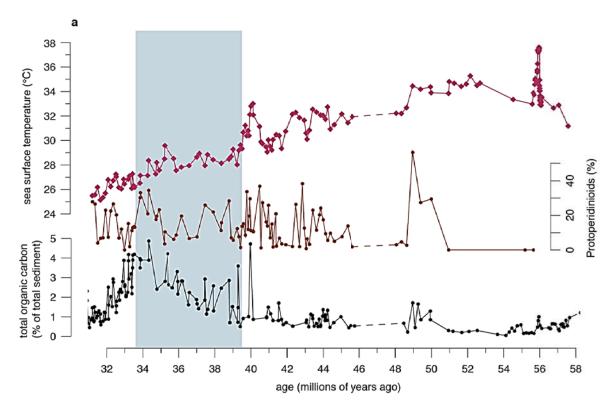


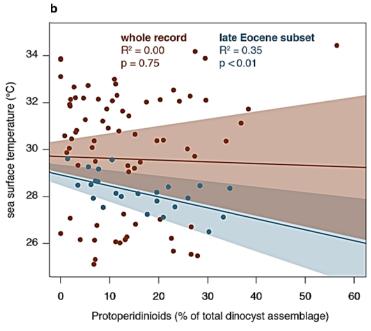


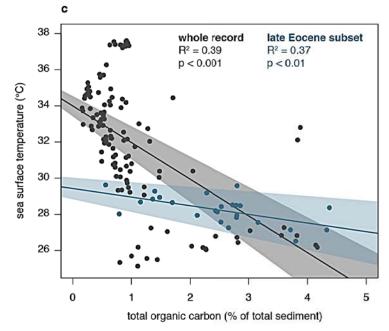


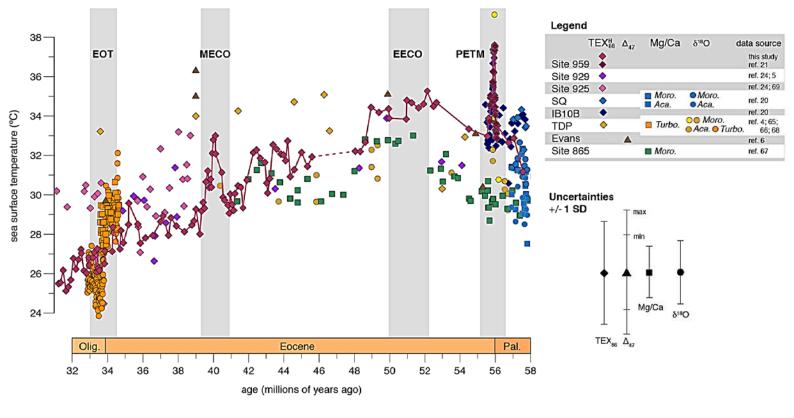


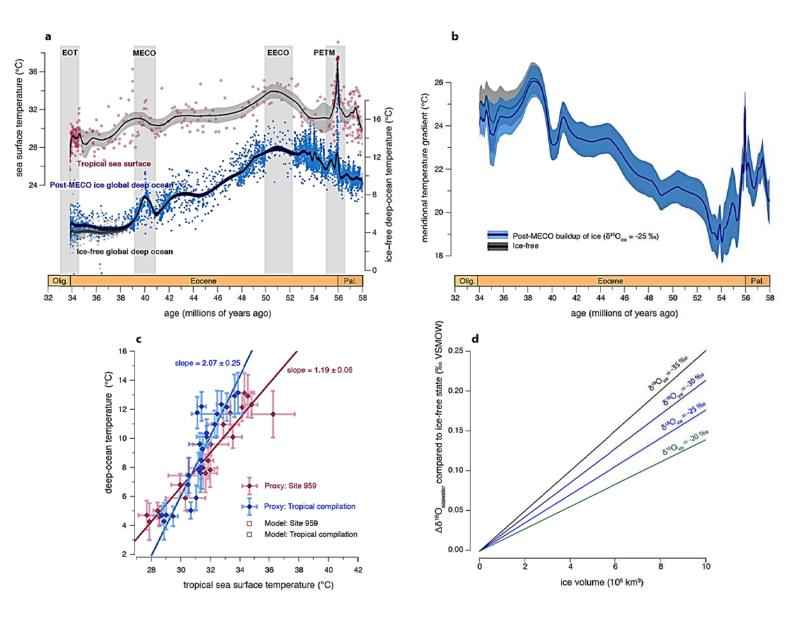


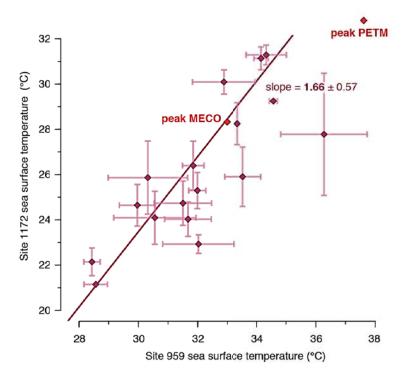


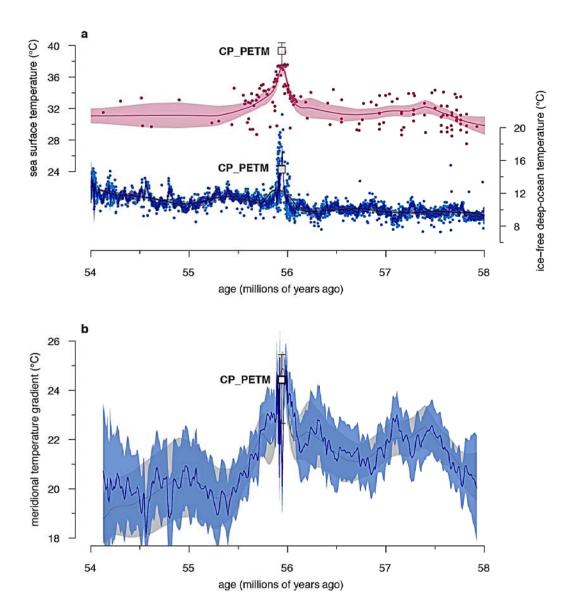


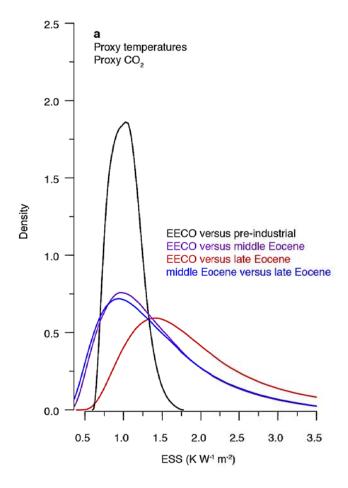


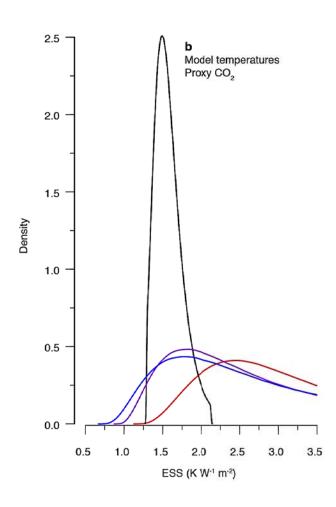












Palaeolatitude at	Matthews et al. 2016	Torsvik et al. 2012
60 Ma	0.982 °N	9.826 °S
55 Ma	0.779 °N	9.480 °S
50 Ma	0.581 °N	9.130 °S
45 Ma	0.587 °N	7.405 °S
40 Ma	0.600 °N	5.674 °S
35 Ma	0.942 °N	4.568 °S
30 Ma	1.291 °N	3.462 °S

b

Event	Species / Proxy	Minimum depth (mbsf)	Maximum depth (mbsf)	Mean depth (mbsf)	One- sided error (m)	Age GTS2012	Reference
Latest Eocene Os isotope minimum	¹⁸⁷ Os/ ¹⁸⁸ Os	448.00	469.30	458.65	10.65	34.40	Ravizza and Paquay 2008(⁵⁸)
MECO Os isotope minimum	¹⁸⁷ Os/ ¹⁸⁸ Os	576.05	581.51	578.78	2.73	40.02	van der Ploeg <i>et al</i> . in press(⁶⁰)
Base	Reticulofenestra umbilicus	652.12	655.34	653.73	1.61	42.84	Shafik <i>et al.</i> 1998(⁵⁵); this study
Base	Sphenolithus furcatolithoides morph. B	671.56	673.10	672.33	0.77	43.55	This study
Base common	Sphenolithus cuniculus	701.38	702.12	701.75	0.37	44.33	Shafik <i>et al.</i> 1998; this study
Base	Sphenolithus furcatolithoides morph. A	731.73	732.49	732.11	0.38	45.63	This study
Base	Nannotetrina alata group	740.95	741.63	741.29	0.34	46.55	Shafik et al. 1998; this study
Bot hiatus	-	740.95	741.63	741.29	0.34	48.03	This study
Тор	Discoaster Iodoensis	746.73	747.45	747.09	0.36	48.36	This study
Base	Discoaster sublodoensis	755.06	755.80	755.43	0.37	49.01	Shafik et al. 1998; this study
Тор	Tribrachiatus orthostylus	774.49	775.86	775.18	0.69	51.05	This study
Тор	Tribrachiatus contortus	784.05	787.03	785.54	1.49	54.17	Shafik <i>et al.</i> 1998
Onset PETM isotope excursion	δ ¹³ C	804.08	804.10	804.09	0.01	56.00	Frieling et al. 2018(²¹)
Base	Discoaster multiradiatus	821.92	823.26	822.59	0.67	57.10	Shafik <i>et al.</i> 1998