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Main Manuscript for 2

- The latitudinal temperature gradient and its climate-dependence as inferred from foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ over the past 95 million years 3
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27 Abstract

28 The latitudinal temperature gradient is a fundamental state parameter of the climate system tied 29 to the dynamics of heat transport and radiative transfer. Thus, it is a primary target for 30 temperature proxy reconstructions and global climate models. However, reconstructing the 31 latitudinal temperature gradient in past climates remains challenging due to the scarcity of 32 appropriate proxy records and large proxy-model disagreements. Here we develop methods leveraging an extensive compilation of planktonic foraminifera δ^{18} O to reconstruct a continuous 33 34 record of the latitudinal sea surface temperature (SST) gradient over the last 95 Myr. We find that 35 latitudinal SST gradients ranged from 26.5 to 15.3 °C over a mean global SST range of 15.3 to 36 32.5 °C, with the highest gradients during the coldest intervals of time. From this relationship, we 37 calculate a polar amplification factor (PAF, the ratio of change in >60° S SST to change in global 38 mean SST) of 1.44±0.15. Our results are closer to model predictions than previous proxy-based 39 estimates, primarily because δ^{18} O-based high-latitude SST estimates more closely track benthic temperatures, yielding higher gradients. The consistent covariance of δ^{18} O values in low- and 40 high-latitude planktonic foraminifera and in benthic foraminifera, across numerous climate states. 41 42 suggests a fundamental constraint on multiple aspects of the climate system, linking deep sea 43 temperatures, the latitudinal SST gradient, and global mean SSTs across large changes in 44 atmospheric CO₂, continental configuration, oceanic gateways, and the extent of continental ice 45 sheets. This implies an important underlying, internally-driven predictability of the climate system 46 in vastly different background states.

47 Significance Statement

The temperature difference between low and high latitudes is one measure of the efficiency of the global climate system in redistributing heat and is used to test the ability of models to represent the climate system through time. Here we show that the latitudinal temperature gradient has exhibited a consistent inverse relationship with global mean sea-surface temperature for at least the past 95 million years. Our results help reduce conflicts between climate models and empirical estimates of temperature and argue for a fundamental consistency in the dynamics of heat transport and radiative transfer across vastly different background states.

55 56

57 Main Text

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59 Introduction60

The global climate system acts as a giant heat engine, working to redistribute the

62 disproportionately large amount of incoming solar radiation per unit area at low latitudes to the

high latitudes, where incident radiation is less. The latitudinal temperature gradient (LTG, here

64 defined as the difference in sea-surface temperature between low (<30°) and high (>60°)

latitudes) is one measure of this process and helps determine the strength of atmospheric

66 circulation (1). The LTG is thus a key indicator for the behavior of the climate system in different

- background states and can serve as a test of how well climate models reproduce empirical
- 68 records through time.
- 69

70 While global climate models have long predicted polar amplification, i.e., that high latitudes

should experience greater warming than low latitudes in response to an increase in mean global temperature, the magnitude of this amplification has historically been much less than seen in

72 temperature, the magnitude of this amplification has historically been much less than seen in 73 most paleoclimate proxy records (2–7). Part of this discrepancy has arisen due to the challenges

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 temperatures, predicting a greatly reduced latitudinal temperature gradient (8–11). It is now clear

this was due to pervasive recrystallisation of foraminiferal δ^{18} O, which biased the original SST

respectively. Signal and rendered most prior δ^{18} O-based SST estimates unreliable (12, 13). Recent

- compilations indicate higher tropical SSTs from warm intervals (>30–35°C; 5, 6, 14, 15), using a mix of organic (TEX₈₆) and inorganic temperature proxies (δ^{18} O, Mg/Ca, Δ_{47}) from exceptionally
- 80 mix of organic (TEX₈₆) and inorganic temperature proxies (o O, Mg/Ca, Δ₄₇) from exceptiona
 81 well-preserved samples. However, quantitative proxy estimates of latitudinal temperature
- gradients in warm climate states like the Eocene (4, 6, 7, 14, 16–18) and Cretaceous (5, 7, 19–
- 25) remain relatively flat due, in part, to surprisingly warm high-latitude SSTs. While more recent
- climate models are better able to replicate polar amplification than previous-generation models
- 85 (e.g., 26–28), and some discrepancies relate to identifiable regional phenomena (29),
- temperature gradients predicted by models in extreme climate states can remain up to ~10°C
- higher than those derived from these empirical compilations (5, 26, 26, 27, 30–34).
 - 88

89 Here we revisit planktonic foraminifera δ^{18} O records to take advantage of their spatial and 90 temporal coverage relative to other proxies and apply a number of new approaches to overcome 91 acknowledged limitations of the proxy. Using a new global compilation of δ^{18} O measurements 92 from surface-dwelling planktonic foraminifera, we generate a continuous, high-resolution record of 93 low and high latitude SSTs, and the corresponding latitudinal temperature gradient, over the last 95 Myr. We explore the sensitivity of LTG to changing boundary conditions, providing an 95 emergent constraint for global climate models used to predict future climate states.

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- 96 97

98 Approach99

100 We infer low- and high-latitude SSTs for the last 95 Myr and provide a continuous record of LTGs 101 and polar amplification during the Cenozoic and late Mesozoic using SSTs derived from 102 planktonic foraminiferal δ^{18} O (see Methods). To do so, we objectively screened a large 103 compilation of planktonic foraminiferal δ^{18} O data (Fig. 1; 30,646 measurements, of which 4,238 104 are ultimately used to infer SSTs) and updated some of the methods used to infer SSTs.

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The interpretation of foraminiferal δ^{18} O is complicated by changes in the δ^{18} O of seawater, as well 106 107 as by biological vital effects and by diagenesis (35, 36). We apply methodological innovations to 108 account for several previously under-constrained aspects of this system. To correct for local geographic variation in the δ^{18} O of seawater (δ^{18} O_{sw}) – a major control on foraminiferal δ^{18} O that 109 is usually unaccounted for or approximated using modern data (9, 37) - we use isotope-enabled 110 runs of the Community Earth System Model (CESM) (38), aggregated into 10ºx10º patches 111 112 around each site to account for shifting current boundaries and interpolated across climate states to account for the climate-dependence of $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ gradients (see Methods and SI). This method, 113 which is similar in some respects to the method demonstrated by (37), provides a spatially 114 115 resolved and climate-sensitive update to the "classical" correction (9) and can be readily updated as new isotopically enabled GCM runs become available. We additionally correct for the vital 116 effect of seawater $[CO_3^2]$ on foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ (39–41). This effect is rarely considered when converting planktonic $\delta^{18}O$ to SST, despite longstanding evidence for its importance in both 117 118 119 biological and inorganic calcification (e.g., 39, 42, 43). Finally, to work around the relative sparsity of exceptionally preserved planktonic foraminifera, we demonstrate and exploit the strong 120 correlations between benthic and planktonic δ^{18} O (Fig. 1) to generate continuous estimates of 121 SST from the comparatively data-dense record of benthic δ^{18} O (Fig. 2). These relationships are 122 123 discussed in more detail in the following sections.

124 125

126 Results

127 128 Our data confirm that low latitude ($\pm 0-30^{\circ}$ paleolatitude) planktonic foraminifera are most prone to 129 diagenetic alteration (as in 12), with the best-preserved specimens consistently recording the 130 lowest δ^{18} O values relative to benthic δ^{18} O for the same time intervals and climate states (Fig. 131 1A). In contrast, at high latitudes (>60°S paleolatitude), planktonic δ^{18} O values closely track benthic δ^{18} O values regardless of preservation status (Fig. 1A, R² = 0.98), likely due to the similarity between surface and bottom-water temperatures in the high latitudes. Our results for low latitudes are therefore based only on foraminifera with "Excellent" (glassy) preservation, while our results for the Southern Ocean use all preservation types.

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After sub-setting the data by preservation and correcting for other controls on foraminiferal δ^{18} O. 137 138 we find that low- and high-latitude SSTs co-vary with bottom-water temperature with ordinary 139 least-squares linear regression slopes of 0.53 ± 0.11 and 1.07 ± 0.13 , respectively (Fig. 1E; R² = 0.88 and 0.93, respectively; slopes are unitless). By applying these regression relationships to the 140 141 benthic δ^{18} O record, we infer a continuous record of SSTs at low and high latitudes (Fig. 2). 142 Regression-based high-latitude SSTs for the Southern Ocean are statistically indistinguishable 143 from bottom-water temperatures (multivariate distance of coefficients $D^2 = 1.52$, p = 0.22; Fig. 2). 144 Predicted mean annual tropical SSTs for the Early Eocene (56-47.8 Ma) range from 30.7-37.6 145 °C within 95% confidence intervals. Maximum mean annual tropical SSTs of 33.8–38.6 °C occur 146 at the start of our compilation in the Late Cretaceous (95% CI range at 91.8 Ma). Regressionbased SST trends are consistent within error with individual SST measurements for 98% of 147 tropical δ^{18} O data, 95% of high-latitude δ^{18} O data, 88% of tropical clumped-isotope data shown, 148 76% of high-latitude clumped-isotope data shown, and the modern mean values (two-sample T-149 150 tests of points vs. prediction, $\alpha = 0.05$; Fig. 2). However, these regression-based trends predict 151 colder high-latitude temperatures than clumped isotopes for the Eocene (mean residual = $2.5 \,^{\circ}$ C) and slightly warmer high-latitude temperatures than clumped isotopes for the Late Cretaceous 152 153 (mean residual = -3.6 °C). Predicted mean global SSTs for the EECO (49.1-53.4 Ma) and latest 154 Paleocene (57 Ma) are within error of estimates from (44).

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As indicated by the difference in slopes, the Southern Ocean is significantly more sensitive to changes in global temperatures than low latitudes (two-sample T-test of slope distributions, p < 0.01), allowing us to estimate polar amplification through time (Fig. 3). Because the relationships between SSTs and bottom-water temperatures are approximately linear (Fig. 1E), combining these regressions yields an inferred relationship between LTGs and bottom-water temperatures that is also linear, i.e.

$$LTG = -0.481(\pm 0.133) \times BWT + 25.25(\pm 1.68)$$
(1)

where LTG (in °C) is the difference in regression-predicted SST between low (±30°) and high
latitudes (>60°S) and BWT is the bottom-water temperature in °C after the method of (45). Errors
are 95% Monte Carlo confidence intervals based on all input uncertainties. Expressed as a
function of mean global SST (Fig. 3), this relationship is

$$LTG = -0.658(\pm 0.213) \times GMSST + 36.53(\pm 5.14)$$
(2)

where GMSST is mean global SST (in °C). Predicted LTG across the last 95 Ma spans 16.5–26.5
°C (Fig. 3), while predicted mean global SST spans 15.3–32.5 °C, over a benthic temperature
range of -2.4–20.9 °C (45). Expressed as a polar amplification factor (PAF), this is

$$\frac{\Delta \text{SST}_{>60^{\circ}\text{S}}}{\Delta \text{SST}_{mean}} = 1.44(\pm 0.15) \tag{3}$$

Table 1 compares our results to prior proxy- and model-based estimates. Error terms are 95%
 Monte Carlo confidence intervals from the error on all calibration steps.

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We find that omitting the carbonate-ion effect correction results in SSTs that are 1.4 °C colder at

174 100 Ma, 1.1 °C colder at 40 Ma, and 0.6 °C colder at 10 Ma compared to the corrected values,

175 with the difference decreasing over time as seawater $[CO_3^2]$ increases towards modern values.

The true error may be slightly larger, as the $[CO_3^{2-}]$ record appears to overestimate past seawater 176 pH (46 Fig. 6) and consequently underestimate biases due to the carbonate ion effect (41). 177

178 179

180 Discussion

182 Validating Models of Polar Amplification

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184 The last 95 Myrs spans among the warmest "hothouse" and coldest "icehouse" climates known. 185 and thus much of the dynamic range of global temperatures that the Earth System has witnessed 186 since the rise of complex animal life. Our study confirms and expands upon prior proxy work 187 suggesting a negative relationship between LTG and global SST, with the lowest LTGs during 188 intervals with the highest global SSTs (Fig. 3, this study, 4, 7, 14). However, prior compilations 189 have disagreed dramatically in their estimates of the slope and intercept of this relationship (Fig. 190 3), primarily due to differences in the input datasets used to calculate high-latitude SSTs. Prior compilations that include high-latitude SSTs from TEX₈₆ and/or Mg/Ca yield lower Eocene LTGs 191 192 (~6–14°C; 4, 7) than those predicted by a coordinated set of model simulations for the same time 193 period (Fig. 3, Table 1, 27). High-latitude SSTs inferred via TEX₈₆ also yield low LTGs during the 194 Cretaceous (21-24). In contrast, using bottom water temperatures (BWTs) to reconstruct high-195 latitude SSTs yields higher LTGs in warm climate states (>20°C; 6, 14), in better agreement with models (Fig. 3). This latter approach assumes that BWTs are able to approximate high-latitude 196 197 SSTs, which our results support (Fig. 1E).

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199 Our results exhibit a shallower slope than existing proxy-based relationships and more closely 200 resemble the global SST-LTG relationship predicted by models (Fig. 3), although discrepancies 201 remain, especially in warmer climate states. Of the simulations shown here (27), the NorESM and 202 CESM (version 1) families of models are best able to reproduce our inferred polar amplification, 203 consistent with prior work (26), although predicted LTGs in the warmest climate states remain 204 higher than our results. Other model families predict even higher LTGs and even less polar 205 amplification than our results. This improved concordance between proxies and models supports 206 the realism of the heat-transport dynamics and polar feedbacks in the current generation of 207 climate models. 208

209 Covariance of LTGs with Global Climate: Evidence and Limitations

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The observed correlation between planktonic and benthic δ^{18} O suggests a fundamental 211 consistency in the dynamics of latitudinal heat transport and polar amplification across vastly 212 213 different background states of continental configuration, ocean circulation, and ice volume. Our 214 reconstruction treats the relationship between SSTs and bottom-water temperatures as linear, an 215 assumption which appears to hold across the majority of the past 95 million years. However, 216 examination of the regression residuals through time (Fig. 4) highlights several intervals between the Late Cretaceous and the Late Eocene where SSTs may have diverged from this expectation 217 by 5°C or more. This is primarily the case in the high southern latitudes, where δ^{18} O-derived 218 219 SSTs from the Southern Ocean exhibit a less consistent relationship with bottom-water and clumped-isotope-derived temperatures than do δ^{18} O-derived SSTs from the tropics (Fig. 4; 220 221 standard deviation of residuals in the tropics before 30 Ma = $2.0 \,^{\circ}$ C, at high latitudes = $3.6 \,^{\circ}$ C). 222 These residuals are evidently large enough to overcome the effects of diagenetic overprinting, 223 which would otherwise tend to pull high-latitude SSTs towards bottom-water temperatures. 224

225 It is not presently known whether these intervals represent genuine deviations from linearity, or simply systematic biases affecting the individual SSTs, but several lines of evidence argue for the 226 latter option. One potential source of bias is local variation in seawater δ^{18} O in the Southern 227 228 Ocean, where - prior to the opening of the Drake Passage - models predict 1.3-3.4x greater variability in $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ than in the tropical Pacific (data from 47). There is similarly a strong likelihood 229

230 of spatial bias due to sites recording hotter or colder local conditions than the zonal mean. 231 Evidence for this can be found in our model results, where spatial SST biases predicted by CESM 232 (i.e., the difference between modeled SSTs for each site and the corresponding modeled zonal 233 mean SST for the same age) can explain 49.4% of the variability in the high-latitude residuals 234 shown in Fig. 4 and 12.9% of the variability in the low-latitude residuals (R² of ordinary least squares linear regressions; see supplement §1.12), δ¹⁸O-based SSTs from planktonic 235 236 foraminifera may also be biased by shifting seasonality and depth habitats, either to best exploit 237 their environment or to remain within their preferred thermal niche (48). Our SST calibration 238 implicitly accounts for these factors under modern conditions (49) and our analysis spans multiple 239 complete faunal turnovers, so small-scale changes in depth habitat are unlikely to significantly 240 affect our estimates of PAF, although they may be observable on shorter (<10 myrs) timescales. 241 The question of seasonality is more complex. In the tropics, for aminifer a fluxes most frequently 242 peak in late autumn (50), when temperatures are close to (or slightly above) mean annual SST 243 (e.g. 51), with seasonality decreasing as mean temperature increases (50). In the high latitudes, 244 seasonality in plankton communities is largely driven by fundamental geographic limitations on 245 light and nutrient availability (52), yielding one or two peaks in foraminifera flux in the spring and 246 fall (50). While it is possible for changing climate conditions to alter the seasonal timing of 247 foraminifera fluxes, niche-tracking tends to dampen rather than amplify the effects of seasonality 248 on proxies (48), and fundamental constraints on plankton growth (such as the lack of light during 249 high-latitude winters) decrease the likelihood that peak foraminifera production could have shifted 250 to occur during seasonal extremes. It is therefore unlikely that either our high- or low-latitude data 251 are strongly biased by changes in the seasonality of foraminifera production relative to the 252 modern. However, other species-specific trends may explain some of the most striking 253 divergences seen in Fig. 4. In particular, the lowest SSTs for the Late Paleocene and Early 254 Eocene (60-48 Ma) are associated with just one species, Subbotina triangularis, while other 255 species from the same sites yield SSTs in better agreement with our curve (Fig. 4). Ecological 256 assessments differ on whether S. triangularis actually lived within the mixed layer (53) or 257 occupied a deeper niche than co-occuring species (54). Similarly, the data from the late 258 Campanian and Maastrichtian (74-66 Ma) vielding higher SSTs than our curve represents only 259 one species, Archaeoglobigerina australis, at one site, ODP 690 (Fig. 4). The foregoing examples 260 suggest that the deviations from linearity observed in Fig. 4 may be the result of systematic 261 biases in the temperature reconstructions rather than genuine nonlinearities in the climate 262 system.

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While there is a strong need for more data from well-preserved foraminifera across several time intervals, particularly the Neogene and the Late Cretaceous (Fig. 2), it is important to note that our method does not rely on data coverage across time, but rather across climate states (Fig. 1). Additional data for the Neogene and Late Cretaceous would, however, help to test the validity of our hypotheses.

270 While prior analyses have often assumed that δ^{18} O-derived SSTs were more reliable at high 271 latitudes than in the tropics due to cooler temperatures and the close relationship between high-272 latitude SSTs and bottom-water temperature (e.g., 12, 14), our results suggest the opposite. The 273 sensitivity of foraminiferal δ^{18} O to local $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ also highlights the utility of the measurement-274 regression residuals (Fig. 4) as a tool for understanding Southern Ocean hydrography.

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276 Internal Consistency of Climate Models

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278 Because our method of reconstructing surface $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ relies on GCM outputs, our proxy-inferred 279 LTG estimates are not fully independent of the GCMs we compare them to in Fig 3. Therefore, 280 our results can be more appropriately thought of as a test of the internal consistency of the model 281 physics, and of the consistency of the model physics with the available data, rather than as a 282 wholly independent validation dataset. The strengths and limitations of this approach can be seen 283 through a qualitative examination of alternate scenarios. If the $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ gradient were significantly 284 more climate-sensitive than predicted by the model, inferred high-latitude SSTs would fall out of agreement with bottom-water temperatures and the discrepancy between the δ^{18} O-predicted 285 LTGs and the GCM-predicted LTGs would increase. Conversely, if the $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ gradient were 286 significantly less climate-sensitive than predicted by the model, inferred mean annual Southern 287 288 Ocean SSTs would become colder than bottom water temperatures under the warmest climate states, which is physically improbable. The consistency between the δ^{18} O temperatures and the 289 290 GCM-simulated temperatures supports the accuracy of the simulation as a whole. This caveat 291 also applies primarily to only one model family (CESM), and other isotope-enabled simulations (e.g. HadCM3 for the Eocene, 55) yield similar predicted $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ trends (Fig. S3) despite large 292 293 differences in modeled LTGs. Our finding that high-latitude SST closely tracks bottom water 294 temperatures is consistent with the behavior of HadCM3 over the Phanerozoic (56 Fig. 6). 295 Even without correcting for the climate-state dependence of $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$, we would still infer lower 296

297 LTGs in warmer climate states because the underlying data show a steeper slope in the planktic:benthic δ^{18} O relationship at high latitudes than at low latitudes (slope 1.32 vs. 0.57 – Fig. 298 299 1A).

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302 Conclusions 303

Here we identify a consistent covariance between benthic and planktonic foraminifera $\delta^{18}O$ 304 305 across different latitudinal bands and exploit this relationship to infer a high-resolution sea surface temperature record at high and low latitudes for the last 95 Myr. To do so, we have developed 306 estimates of site-specific $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ by interpolating across isotope enabled global climate models. 307 Our approach fills in sparse data coverage and allows us to examine the evolution of latitudinal 308 309 temperature gradients over a wide range of climate states. In these records, the lowest latitudinal 310 temperature gradients occur during the intervals with the highest global SSTs (LTG = 26.5 °C for 311 a mean global SST of 15.3 °C, and LTG = 15.3 °C for a mean global SST of 32.5 °C), with an 312 apparently consistent relationship between sea surface LTGs and global temperature, regardless 313 of changing boundary conditions like continental configuration or global ice volume. Our 314 estimates are in closer agreement with some numerical climate models than previous proxy-315 based estimates, providing confirmation that these models can simulate climate states different 316 than the modern and supporting their use in forecasting future climate.

317 318

319 Methods

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We compiled planktonic foraminifera δ^{18} O measurements from published sources (Dataset S1; 321 references in supplement §1.1). We assessed paleo-latitude and paleo-longitude using GPlates 322 323 (57), assigned sites to 30° latitudinal bands, and gualitatively assigned each measurement to one 324 of five preservation categories (Excellent, Very Good, Good, Moderate, or Poor) used in 325 published work, with "Excellent" generally indicating glassy preservation (i.e., minimal diagenetic 326 alteration, suitable for estimation of absolute temperature; see 58). Only species and genera 327 identified as mixed-layer-dwelling in the literature were included in our primary analysis. Highlatitude data were restricted to the Southern Hemisphere due to the greater heterogeneity of 328 seawater δ^{18} O at high northern latitudes, which greatly increases the uncertainty of SST 329 conversions (Figs. S3, S10). Mid-latitudes were likewise excluded due to their comparative lack of 330 high-quality data (Fig. 1; see also Fig. S20). For benthic δ^{18} O and bottom-water temperatures, we 331 332 use the records and temperature estimates of (45), smoothed to 250 ka and extended into the Late Cretaceous with additional sources from the literature (references in supplement §1.1). 333

334

To convert δ^{18} O to SST, we corrected for: 1) the carbonate-ion effect (39) using the seawater 335 $[CO_3^{2-}]$ curve of (46) and the mean carbonate ion effect of four species of planktonic foraminifera 336

(40); 2) global variations in the δ^{18} O of seawater due to ice cover by subtracting seawater δ^{18} O 337

inferred by (45) (Fig. 1B); and 3) local seawater δ^{18} O by subtracting modern seawater δ^{18} O 338 (Pliocene to modern: median of 10°x10° patches, 59) or using modeled seawater δ^{18} O 339 (Cretaceous to Miocene: median of 10°x10° patches) from isotope-enabled runs of the 340 341 Community Earth System Model (CESM) (Fig. 1C). To infer local seawater δ^{18} O from the Cretaceous-Eocene, we used published CESM runs with Eocene paleogeography (47); for data 342 343 from the Oligocene–Miocene, we used new isotope-enabled CESM runs with Miocene 344 paleogeography (see supplement §1.9). We account for uncertainty in the reconstruction of site 345 location, current boundaries, and evolving oceanography on local seawater δ^{18} O estimates by averaging seawater δ^{18} O in relatively large spatial patches (10°x10°) and interpolating these 346 347 patches between model runs using natural splines and the high-latitude temperature predicted by 348 each model run (see supplement §1.4). (Local seawater corrections for each site in 5-million-year 349 time steps are provided in Dataset S3; a general polynomial approximation is given as Eq. S9.) 350 Corrected 5¹⁸O values were then converted to SSTs using the pooled bayfox Bayesian calibration 351 (49). Our temperature estimates are robust to uncertainties in species calibrations, with 352 calculations based on inorganic precipitates differing from bayfox-based temperature 353 reconstructions by <2 °C (Fig. S6).

354

355 To select preservation criteria for low and high latitudes, and to infer planktonic SSTs over 356 sparsely sampled intervals, we first calculated the relationship between planktonic and benthic δ^{18} O within different preservation states by binning planktonic δ^{18} O values into 0.25‰ intervals of 357 the benthic δ^{18} O values corresponding to their ages and fitting ordinary least-squares linear 358 regressions to the bin medians (Fig. 1A). At low latitudes, planktonic foraminifera with "Excellent" 359 preservation exhibit the lowest δ^{18} O values, indicating the least diagenetic overprinting with 360 benthic values, while they simultaneously show the strongest covariance with benthic $\delta^{18}O$ 361 362 compared to other preservation states (Fig. 1A). At high latitudes, all planktonic foraminifera 363 exhibit a similar covariance with benthic foraminifera regardless of preservation (Fig. 1A). Based 364 on these results, we continued our analysis using only SSTs derived from "Excellent" foraminifera 365 in low latitudes, but all foraminiferal-based SSTs in high latitudes. As before, we calculated the 366 relationship between surface- and bottom water temperatures (Fig. 1D-E) by binning calculated 367 SSTs into 1°C intervals of benthic temperature. The resulting linear regressions were then used 368 to infer low- and high-latitude SSTs across our entire interval of study using the benthic record of 369 bottom-water temperature (Fig. 2).

370

371 We performed Monte Carlo error estimation on all calculations by randomizing all parameters 372 within distributions defined by i) the published estimated error on $[CO_3^2]$ and ice cover (see supplement §1.7), ii) the standard deviation of δ^{18} O within each 10°x10° patch in our CESM runs, 373 iii) the uncertainty distribution of each SST conversion estimated by bayfox (49), iv) the standard 374 375 deviation of referenced slopes for the carbonate ion effect, and v) a temporal error term in Fig. 1 of ±1 bin (0.25‰ or 1°C). To account for the effect of systematic error on bin medians (such as 376 the possibility that seawater δ^{18} O could be offset in the same direction for an entire record), 377 random offsets on $[CO_3^2]$ and seawater $\delta^{18}O$ were treated on a record-by-record basis within 378 379 each Monte Carlo run. Initial data exploration also indicated that reconstructions of latitudinal 380 temperature gradients were potentially sensitive to the inclusion or exclusion of particular 381 datasets. To account for this data coverage effect, we also bootstrapped which measurements 382 were included in our regressions and propagated this error through to the calculations of 383 uncertainty on latitudinal gradients and polar amplification.

384

We test δ^{18} O-based SST reconstructions with modern SSTs from GLODAPv2 (60, 61) and clumped isotope SST estimates from the literature (6, 62–66). Our clumped isotope compilation excludes poorly preserved specimens (e.g., 67) and samples from known thermocline dwellers (e.g., 68). For Fig. 3 and Eq. 3, mean global SST was estimated from low- and high-latitude SSTs by area-weighting on a sphere (Eq. S5, following 69).

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393

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606 Figures and Tables

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Figure 1. Upper panels: raw δ^{18} O compilation (points) by age and latitude band, with colors indicating preservation and shapes indicating depth habitat. Black lines show the benthic δ^{18} O record. Lower panels A-E: All mixed-layer planktonic δ^{18} O data from the tropics and high southern latitudes, binned by benthic δ^{18} O or temperature and showing the series of corrections required to convert planktonic δ^{18} O to SSTs (as described in Methods). Clumped isotope SSTs are shown in blue for comparison. Filled circles are used in calculating the least-squares regressions, while unfilled circles are not used. Error bars represent 95% Monte Carlo confidence intervals.

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Figure 2. δ^{18} O-based SSTs and LTGs over the last 95 million years. Upper panel: Points are 616 617 individual δ^{18} O measurements converted to SST as in Fig. 1E. Bold lines are SSTs predicted 618 from the benthic temperature curve using the regressions in Fig. 1E. For all symbols, yellow 619 shades = tropical and blue shades = high-latitude, with dark and light bands indicating 50% and 620 95% Monte Carlo confidence intervals, respectively. The benthic temperature curve is shown in 621 black, partially covered by predicted high-latitude SST. Modern-day mean annual SSTs (large 622 circles) and clumped isotope SSTs (diamonds) are shown for comparison. Lower panel: 623 latitudinal temperature gradients (black line) obtained from the inferred continuous SSTs in the 624 upper panel, with dark and light bands indicating 50% and 95% Monte Carlo confidence intervals, 625 respectively.

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Figure 3. Calculated relationships between the latitudinal temperature gradient (LTG) and global
 mean sea-surface temperature. The red line shows our results, with dark and light bands
 indicating 50% and 95% Monte Carlo confidence intervals, respectively; other lines show linear
 least-squares regressions of prior estimates. References for prior estimates are given in Table 1.

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Figure 4. Residuals of individual measurements (points) from our continuous temperature
 reconstruction (horizontal axes, with dark and light bands indicating 50% and 95% Monte Carlo
 confidence intervals, respectively). Colors in the lower panel indicate species, as indicated.

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Table 1. Estimates of the LTG to mean global SST relationship and equilibrium polar amplification factor (PAF), converted using the assumptions in this paper. 95% confidence intervals on regressions are provided where possible.

		Slope	Intercept	PAF	Reference
	This paper	-0.66±0.21	36.53±5.14	1.44±0.15	This study
	Proxy-based estimates				
	Sijp compilation	-2.85	96.09	2.94	(4)
	Cramwinckel compilation	-0.86	43.41	1.62±0.16	(14)
	Zhang compilation	-1.60	52.03	1.55	(7)
	Model-based estimates (PI	iocene)			
	CESM2	-0.21	29.9	1.08	(70, 71)
	EC-Earth3	-0.28	29.6	1.14	(72, 73)
	GISS-E2	-0.26	31.4	1.01	(74, 75)
	HadGEM3	-0.03	25.5	0.98	(76, 77)
	NorESM	0.07	24.4	0.76	(78, 79)
	Model-based estimates (Ec	ocene)			
	Model mean	-0.39	33.17	1.27±0.06	(27)
	CESMv1.2	-0.37	31.07	1.25	(27)
	COSMOS	0.11	22.70	0.92	(27)
	GFDL	-0.30	30.00	1.20	(27)
	HadCM3	-0.25	30.58	1.17	(27)
	IPSL	-0.24	30.25	1.16	(27)
	NorESM	-0.75	41.5	1.51	(27)
Model-based estimates (Cretaceous/General)					
	100-myr HadCM3	-0.21	29.4	1.05	(56)
	Maastrichtian CCSM4	-0.31	32.0	1.18	(80)







