

# 1      **Global mean surface temperature and climate sensitivity of the**

## 2                      **EECO, PETM and latest Paleocene**

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33 **Abstract:**

34 Accurate estimates of past global mean surface temperature (GMST) help to contextualise  
35 future climate change and are required to estimate the sensitivity of the climate system to CO<sub>2</sub>  
36 forcing through Earth history. Previous GMST estimates for the latest Paleocene and early  
37 Eocene (~57 to 48 million years ago) span a wide range (~9 to 23°C higher than pre-industrial)  
38 and prevent an accurate assessment of climate sensitivity during this extreme greenhouse  
39 climate interval. Using the most recent data compilations, we employ a multi-method  
40 experimental framework to calculate GMST during the three DeepMIP target intervals: 1) the  
41 latest Paleocene (~57 Ma), 2) the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM; 56 Ma) and  
42 3) the early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO; 53.3 to 49.1 Ma). Using six different  
43 methodologies, we find that the average GMST estimate (66% confidence) during the latest  
44 Paleocene, PETM and EECO was 26.3°C (22.3 to 28.3°C), 31.6°C (27.2 to 34.5°C) and  
45 27.0°C (23.2 to 29.7°C), respectively. GMST estimates from the EECO are ~10 to 16°C  
46 warmer than pre-industrial, higher than the estimate given by the IPCC 5<sup>th</sup> Assessment Report  
47 (9 to 14°C higher than pre-industrial). Leveraging the large ‘signal’ associated with these  
48 extreme warm climates, we combine estimates of GMST and CO<sub>2</sub> from the latest Paleocene,  
49 PETM and EECO to calculate gross estimates of the average climate sensitivity between the  
50 early Paleogene and today. We demonstrate that “bulk” equilibrium climate sensitivity (66%  
51 confidence) during the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO is 4.5°C (2.4 to 6.8°C), 3.6°C (2.3  
52 to 4.7°C) and 3.1°C (1.8 to 4.4°C) per doubling of CO<sub>2</sub>. These values are generally similar to

53 those assessed by the IPCC (1.5 to 4.5°C per doubling CO<sub>2</sub>), but appear incompatible with  
54 low ECS values (< 1.5 per doubling CO<sub>2</sub>).

## 55 **1. Introduction**

56 Under high growth and low mitigation scenarios, atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) could  
57 exceed 1000 parts per million (ppm) by the year 2100 (Stocker et al., 2013). The long-term  
58 response of the Earth System under such elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations remains uncertain  
59 (Stevens et al., 2016; Knutti et al., 2017; Hegerl et al., 2007). One way to better constrain  
60 these climate predictions is to examine intervals in the geological past during which  
61 greenhouse gas levels were similar to those predicted under future scenarios. This is the  
62 rationale behind the Deep-time Model Intercomparison Project (DeepMIP; [www.deepmip.org](http://www.deepmip.org))  
63 which aims to investigate the behaviour of the Earth System in three high CO<sub>2</sub> climate states  
64 in the latest Paleocene and early Eocene (~ 57–48 Ma) (Lunt et al., 2017; Hollis et al., 2019).

65         Sea surface temperature (SST) and land air temperature (LAT) proxies indicate that  
66 the latest Paleocene and early Eocene were characterised by global mean surface  
67 temperatures (GMST) much warmer than those of today (Cramwinckel et al., 2018;  
68 Farnsworth et al., 2019; Hansen et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2019; Caballero and Huber, 2013).  
69 Having a robust quantitative estimate of the magnitude of warming at these times relative to  
70 modern is useful for two primary reasons: (1) it allows us to contextualise future climate  
71 change predictions by comparing the magnitude of future anthropogenic warming with the  
72 magnitude of past natural warming; (2) combined with knowledge of the climate forcing, it  
73 allows us to estimate climate sensitivity, a key metric for understanding how the climate  
74 system responds to CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. Using different proxy data compilations (Hollis et al., 2012;  
75 Lunt et al., 2012), the Fifth IPCC Assessment Report (AR5) stated that GMST was 9°C to  
76 14°C higher than for pre-industrial conditions (*medium confidence*) during the early Eocene  
77 (~52 to 50 Ma) (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2014). However, subsequent studies indicate a wider  
78 range of estimates, from 9 to 23°C warmer than pre-industrial (Caballero and Huber, 2013;  
79 Cramwinckel et al., 2018; Farnsworth et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2019; Figure 1 and Table 1). It

80 is an open question whether this range arises from inconsistencies between the methods used  
81 to estimate GMST, such as selection of proxy datasets, treatment of uncertainty, and/or  
82 analysis of different time intervals. This methodological variability has thwarted robust  
83 comparisons between GMST methodologies for key intervals through the latest Paleocene to  
84 early Eocene.

85 Here we calculate GMST estimates within a consistent experimental framework for the  
86 target intervals outlined by DeepMIP: i) the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO; 53.3 to  
87 49.1 Ma), ii) the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM, ca. 56 Ma) and iii) the latest  
88 Paleocene (LP, ca. 57-56 Ma). We use six different methods to obtain new GMST estimates  
89 for these three time intervals, employing previously compiled SST and LAT estimates (Hollis  
90 et al., 2019) and bottom water temperature (BWT) estimates (Dunkley Jones et al., 2013;  
91 Cramer et al., 2009; Sexton et al., 2011; Littler et al., 2014; Laurentano et al., 2015; Westerhold  
92 et al., 2018; Barnet et al., 2019). We also undertake a suite of additional sensitivity studies to  
93 explore the influence of particular proxies on each GMST estimate. We then compile GMST  
94 estimates from all six methods to generate a ‘combined’ GMST estimate for each time slice  
95 and use these, with existing estimates of CO<sub>2</sub> (Gutjahr et al., 2017; Anagnostou et al., 2016)  
96 to develop new estimates of “bulk” equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS) during the latest  
97 Paleocene, PETM and EECO.

98

## 99 **2. Methods and Materials**

100 Three different input datasets are used to calculate GMST: 1) dataset  $D_{surf}$  which consists of  
101 surface temperature estimates, both marine (sea surface temperature) and terrestrial, 2)  
102 dataset  $D_{deep}$  which consists of deep-water temperature estimates, and 3) dataset  $D_{comb}$  which  
103 consists of a combination of surface- and deep-water temperature estimates. Here we make  
104 use of six different methodologies, which are described in detail below, to estimate GMST  
105 from these datasets.

106

## 107 **2.1. Dataset $D_{surf}$**

108 Dataset  $D_{surf}$  is version 0.1 of the DeepMIP database, as described in Hollis et al (2019)  
109 (Supplementary Information). It consists of SSTs and LATs for the latest Paleocene, PETM  
110 and EECO. The SSTs are derived from foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values, foraminiferal Mg/Ca ratios,  
111 clumped isotopes ( $\Delta 47$ ), and isoprenoid GDGTs ( $\text{TEX}_{86}$ ). Foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values and  
112 Mg/Ca ratios are calibrated to SST following Hollis et al., 2019 and Evans et al. (2018),  
113 respectively.  $\text{TEX}_{86}$  values are calibrated to SST using BAYSPAR (Tierney and Tingley, 2014).  
114  $\Delta 47$  values are reported using the parameters and calibrations of the original publications  
115 (Evans et al., 2018; Keating-Bitonti et al., 2011). LATs are derived from leaf fossils, pollen  
116 assemblages, mammal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values, paleosol  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values, paleosol climofunctions and  
117 branched GDGTs. LAT estimates are calculated using the parameters and calibrations of the  
118 original publications (see Hollis et al., 2019 and ref. therein). The locations of the proxy  
119 datasets are shown in Figure S1 using the paleomagnetic-based reference frame (Hollis et  
120 al., 2019). For each dataset, we utilise the uncertainty range of temperature estimates reported  
121 in Hollis et al. (2019).

122 Four methods ( $D_{surf-1}$ ,  $D_{surf-2}$ ,  $D_{surf-3}$  and  $D_{surf-4}$ ) are employed to calculate GMST from  
123 dataset  $D_{surf}$ . These methods employ parametric ( $D_{surf-1}$ ,  $D_{surf-2}$ ,  $D_{surf-4}$ ) or non-parametric  
124 ( $D_{surf-3}$ ) functions to estimate temperature. We calculate GMST on the mantle-based  
125 reference frame and employ the rotations provided in Hollis et al (2019). These differ very  
126 slightly from those utilised in the DeepMIP model simulations (Lunt et al, 2020). Each method  
127 conducts a 'baseline' calculation that uses the SST and LAT data compiled in accordance with  
128 the DeepMIP protocols (i.e. Hollis et al., 2019). Our baseline calculation ( $D_{surf-baseline}$ ; Table  
129 2) excludes  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values from recrystallized planktonic foraminifera because the resulting  
130 temperature estimates are biased by diagenesis toward significantly cooler temperatures than  
131 those derived from: i) the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value of similar aged and similarly located well-preserved  
132 foraminifera, ii) foraminiferal Mg/Ca ratios and iii)  $\Delta 47$  values from larger benthic foraminifera

133 (Pearson et al., 2001; Hollis et al., 2019 and ref. therein). For each method, we also conduct  
134 a series of illustrative sub-sampling calculations relative to  $D_{surf-baseline}$ , based on varying  
135 assumptions about the robustness of different proxies (Table 2). The first sensitivity  
136 experiment ( $D_{surf-Frosty}$ ; Table 2) includes  $\delta^{18}O$  values from recrystallized planktonic  
137 foraminifera. The second sensitivity experiment ( $D_{surf-NoTEX}$ ; Table 2) removes  $TEX_{86}$  values  
138 as these give slightly higher SSTs than other proxies, especially in the mid-to-high latitudes  
139 (Bijl et al., 2009; Hollis et al., 2012; Inglis et al., 2015). The third sensitivity experiment ( $D_{surf-}$   
140  $NoMBT$ ; Table 2) removes MBT(')/CBT values derived from marine sediment archives as they  
141 may suffer from a cool bias (Inglis et al., 2017; Hollis et al., 2019). The fourth sensitivity  
142 experiment ( $D_{surf-NoPaleosol}$ ; Table 2) removes mammal/paleosol  $\delta^{18}O$  values and paleosol  
143 climofunctions as these proxies may suffer from a cool bias (Hyland and Sheldon, 2013; Hollis  
144 et al., 2019). For each method, GMST is calculated for: i) the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum  
145 (EECO; 53.3 to 49.1 Ma), ii) the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (ca. 56 Ma) and iii) the  
146 latest Paleocene (LP; ca. 57-56 Ma).

147

#### 148 2.1.1. $D_{surf-1}$

149 Method  $D_{surf-1}$  was first employed by Caballero and Huber (2013) to estimate GMST from  
150 early Eocene surface temperature proxies after it was recognised that pervasive  
151 recrystallization of foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}O$  could overprint the original SST signal (e.g. Pearson et  
152 al., 2001; Pearson et al., 2007). That study used data compilations (Huber and Caballero,  
153 2011, Hollis et al., 2012) which were the predecessors to the DeepMIP compilation (Hollis et  
154 al., 2019).

155 Here, the anomalies of individual proxy temperature data points with respect to modern  
156 values at the corresponding paleolocation are first calculated. The time period used is between  
157 1979 and 2018 and we used a climatology of the full ERA-interim period (Dee et al., 2011).  
158 The calculation involves binning into low, mid, and high latitudes (30°N to 30°S, 30°N/S to  
159 60°N/S, and 60°N/S to 90°N/S), and calculating the unweighted mean anomaly within these

160 bins between the median reconstructed value at a given locality and the temperature in the  
161 modern system (from reanalysis). The geographically binned means are then weighted  
162 according to relative spherical area to calculate a globally weighted mean temperature  
163 anomaly between the paleo-time slice and modern. All samples are treated equally and  
164 considered independent. The associated errors are added in quadrature with the inter-sample  
165 standard deviation. These two sources of error were combined and normalized by the square  
166 root of the number of samples. This method is intended as an unsophisticated, brute force  
167 approach to estimating GMST when dealing with many localities with poorly characterized  
168 errors in which there is a large difference between the reconstructed temperature at a given  
169 location and the modern equivalent. It is not intended to identify small changes in GMST; nor  
170 is it expected to work well under conditions in which temperature gradients are stronger than  
171 today, continents are far removed from their current configuration, or in situations in which  
172 systematic errors are not readily mitigated by large sample size (i.e. when there are  
173 correlations in systematic errors between proxies). It is designed to be relatively  
174 straightforward to interpret and simple to reproduce without relying overly on climate models  
175 or sophisticated statistical models.

176 Various sanity checks have been performed to determine if the method is likely to  
177 produce useful results for a given sampling distribution and what corrections should be applied  
178 to optimize it. For example, if the modern temperature field is sampled using a geographic  
179 sampling distribution for a given time interval, what would the reconstructed modern  
180 temperature be? Sampling the modern global annual average surface temperature field in the  
181 reanalysis product ERA-5 yields a mean value of 15.1°C but when resampled at the equivalent  
182 geographic distribution of our samples from the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO yields  
183 mean values for the modern of 16.9°C ( $\pm 1.8^\circ\text{C}$ ), 14.2°C ( $\pm 1.7^\circ\text{C}$ ), and 15.2°C ( $\pm 1.1^\circ\text{C}$ ),  
184 respectively. Thus, for the sampling densities and spatial structure of the early Paleogene, this  
185 method can approach the true value within  $\sim 1.5^\circ\text{C}$  and the error propagation adequately  
186 characterizes the error, in this 'perfect knowledge' scenario. Seeking precision beyond that  
187 range is unwarranted and as indicated above, systematic biases are a serious concern.

188 However, estimating the latest Paleocene and early Eocene GMST may be somewhat easier  
189 than estimating the modern GMST because temperature gradients were much reduced from  
190 modern. Huber and Caballero (2011) estimate a reduction to less than half the modern  
191 temperature gradient whilst Evans et al (2018) constrain the low-to-high latitude SST gradient  
192 to at least ~30% (+/- 10%) weaker than modern (Evans et al., 2018).

193         Alongside modern observations, we can also use paleoclimate model results to  
194 characterise how well the existing palaeogeographic sampling network will impact results  
195 (Figure 2). Here we utilize two CESM1 simulations, as described in Cramwinckel et al., (2018;  
196 EO3 and EO4). The two cases are chosen to minimize the magnitude of the correction to  
197 GMST and the final result is not sensitive to the choice of reference simulation between these  
198 two (Supplementary Information). For each interval, the difference between reconstructed  
199 global temperatures and the true paleoclimate model mean is <1 to 3°C. These comparisons  
200 demonstrate that this method produces estimates that are within random error given otherwise  
201 perfect knowledge. The errors introduced by limited paleogeographic sampling can be  
202 alleviated by incorporating the offset in mean values between the true paleoclimate model  
203 GMST and the sampled paleoclimate model GMST outlined above (Figure 2). We utilise this  
204 offset to correct for systematic errors, but this is the only component in which paleoclimate  
205 model information is included in this GMST estimation methodology. This approach is best  
206 applied within the context of studying the random and systematic error structure as described  
207 above and caution should be taken in using systematic corrections that are significantly bigger  
208 than the estimated random error. The underlying assumption is that the bias in the global  
209 mean estimate that exists due to uneven sampling is the same in the 'proxy' Eocene world as  
210 in the 'model' Eocene world, i.e. that the zonal and meridional gradients are well characterised  
211 by the model, even if the absolute temperatures are not.

212         We note that the magnitude of the global correction could be sensitive to different  
213 models and/or boundary conditions. To explore this further, we performed the same analysis  
214 using Community Earth System Model version 1.2 (CESM1.2) at 6x CO<sub>2</sub>. This model  
215 simulation offers a major improvement over earlier models (Zhu et al., 2019) due to the

216 improved treatment of cloud microphysics and is able to reproduce key features of the early  
217 Paleogene (e.g. the meridional SST gradient; Zhu et al., 2019; Lunt et al., 2020). We find that  
218 CESM1 (8x and 16x CO<sub>2</sub>) and CESM1.2 (6x CO<sub>2</sub>) yield similar GMST estimates during the  
219 PETM, EECO and latest Paleocene. For example, GMST values (obtained using  $D_{surf}$ -  
220 baseline) during the EECO average 24.5°C, 24.6°C and 25.2°C for CESM1 (x8 CO<sub>2</sub>), CESM1  
221 (x16 CO<sub>2</sub>) and CESM1.2 (6x CO<sub>2</sub>), respectively. This indicates that the final result is not overly  
222 sensitive to the choice of reference simulation, at least within the CESM model family. In the  
223 following sections, we only discuss CESM1 simulations to avoid circularity if the results from  
224 this paper are used to evaluate more recent simulations (e.g. CESM1.2; Lunt et al., 2020).

225

### 226 2.1.2. $D_{surf-2}$

227 GMST estimates are calculated using the method described in Farnsworth et al. (2019), in  
228 which a transfer-function is used to calculate global mean temperature from local proxy  
229 temperatures. The transfer function is generated from a pair of early Eocene climate model  
230 simulations, carried out at two CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The first simulations are the same 2x CO<sub>2</sub>  
231 and 4x CO<sub>2</sub> HadCM3L Eocene simulations from Farnsworth et al (2019). The second  
232 simulations are the x 4CO<sub>2</sub> and 8x CO<sub>2</sub> CCSM3 simulations of Huber and Caballero (2011),  
233 also discussed in Lunt et al (2012). The two models are configured for the Eocene with  
234 different paleogeographies (Supplementary Table S1). We provide a final estimate based on  
235 the mean of our two models.

236 The principal assumption of this approach is that global temperatures scale linearly  
237 with local temperatures, and that a climate model can represent this scaling correctly (see  
238 below). The resulting GMST estimate is therefore independent of the climate sensitivity of the  
239 model but dependent on the modelled spatial distribution of temperature. For a single given  
240 proxy location with a local temperature estimate ( $T^{proxy}$ ), Farnsworth et al. (2019) estimate  
241 global GMST ( $\langle T \rangle^{inferred}$ ) as:

242

$$\langle T \rangle^{inferred} = \langle T^{low} \rangle + (T^{proxy} - T^{low}) \frac{\langle T^{high} \rangle - \langle T^{low} \rangle}{T^{high} - T^{low}} \quad (1)$$

244

245 where  $\langle T^{low} \rangle$  and  $\langle T^{high} \rangle$  are the global means of a low- and high-CO<sub>2</sub> model simulation  
 246 respectively, and  $T^{low}$  and  $T^{high}$  are the local temperatures (same location as the proxy) from  
 247 the same simulations.  $T^{low}$  and  $T^{high}$  represent local modelled SSTs or local modelled near-  
 248 surface LATs (in contrast to Farnsworth et al. 2019, who only used local modelled near-surface  
 249 LATs to calculate  $T^{low}$  and  $T^{high}$ , even if  $T^{proxy}$  was SST). If the proxy temperature is greater  
 250 than  $T^{high}$  or cooler than  $T^{low}$ , then the inferred global mean is found by extrapolation rather  
 251 than by interpolation and is therefore more uncertain (Figure 3). This will be sensitive to the  
 252 choice of model simulation; models that simulate less polar amplification (e.g. HadCM3L) are  
 253 more likely to obtain  $\langle T \rangle^{inferred}$  (i.e. GMST) via extrapolation. We repeat this process for each  
 254 proxy data location (Figure 4) and take an average over all proxy locations as our best estimate  
 255 of global mean temperature.

256 Recent work has demonstrated that CESM1.2 and GFDL model simulations offer a  
 257 major improvement over earlier models (Zhu et al., 2019; Lunt et al., 2020). As such, we also  
 258 calculated GMST using CESM1.2 (3x and 6x CO<sub>2</sub>; Zhu et al., 2019; Table S1) and GFDL (3x  
 259 and 6x CO<sub>2</sub>; Hutchinson et al., 2018; Lunt et al., 2020; Table S1). We find that all four  
 260 simulations (i.e. HadCM3L, CCSM3, CESM1.2 and GFDL) yield similar GMST estimates. For  
 261 example, GMST during the PETM ranges between 32.3 and 34.5°C (Supplementary  
 262 Information). This demonstrates that  $D_{surf-2}$  is not overly sensitive to the climate model  
 263 simulation. However, as CESM1.2 and GFDL have greater polar amplification than other  
 264 models (e.g. HadCM3L), GMST is more likely to be found by interpolation (c.f. extrapolation).  
 265 To explore whether GMST scales linearly with local temperatures, we used CESM1.2 to re-  
 266 calculate GMST using the same method as above but using the 9x CO<sub>2</sub> simulation in place of  
 267 the 6x CO<sub>2</sub> simulation. We find that GMST estimates are very similar ( $\pm 0.4^\circ\text{C}$ ). This is  
 268 because, although the relationship between GMST and CO<sub>2</sub> is non-linear (Zhu et al, 2019),  
 269 the relationship between local and global temperature is relatively constant. In the following

270 sections, we employ CCSM3 and HadCM3 simulations to avoid circularity if the results from  
271 this paper are used to evaluate more recent simulations (e.g. CESM1.2, GFDL; Lunt et al.,  
272 2020).

273

### 274 2.1.3. $D_{surf-3}$

275 For  $D_{surf-3}$ , GMST estimates are calculated using Gaussian process regression (Figure 5;  
276 Bragg et al., in prep). In this method, temperature is treated as an unknown function of location,  
277  $f(x)$ . Many possible functions can fit the available proxy dataset. By using a Gaussian process  
278 model of the unknown function, we assume that temperature is a continuous and smoothly  
279 varying function of location, and once fitted to the data, the posterior mean of the model gives  
280 the most likely function form for the temperature. We use a Gaussian process prior and update  
281 it using the proxy data to obtain the posterior model which we can then use to predict the  
282 surface temperatures on a global grid. Prior specification of the model is via a mean function  
283  $E(f(x)) = m(x)$ , and a covariance function  $Cov(f(x), f(x')) = k(x, x')$  (which tells us how correlated  
284  $f(x)$  is with  $f(x')$ ). We also specify the standard deviation of the observation uncertainty about  
285 each data point ( $\sigma_i^2$ ). If  $\mathbf{f} = (f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n))^T$  is a vector of temperature observations at each  
286 location  $x_i$ , then the model is:

287

$$288 \quad \mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \quad (2)$$

289

290 where  $\mu_i = m(x_i)$  and  $\Sigma_{ij} = k(x_i, x_j) + \mathbb{I}_{i=j}\sigma_i^2$ . The proxy temperatures are expressed as  
291 anomalies to either the marine or terrestrial present-day zonal mean temperature at the  
292 respective paleolatitude. We subtract the mean temperature anomaly (weighted by the  
293 paleolatitude) for each time period and core experiment prior to the analysis and therefore fit  
294 the model to the residuals. This means the predicted field will relax towards the mean surface  
295 warming in areas of no data coverage. The covariance function – which considers the

296 clustering of proxy locations – describes the correlation between  $f(x_i)$  and  $f(x_j)$  in relation to the  
297 distance of  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ . We use a squared-exponential covariance function with Haversine  
298 distances replacing Euclidean distances so that correlation is a function of distance on the  
299 sphere.

300 A heteroscedastic noise model is used to weight the influence of individual proxy data  
301 by their associated uncertainty, i.e. the model will better fit reconstructions with a smaller  
302 reported error. Proxy uncertainties are taken from Hollis et al., (2019). Standard deviations for  
303 TEX<sub>86</sub>, Mg/Ca and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records are derived from the reported 90% confidence intervals (Hollis  
304 et al., 2019). A minimum value of 2.5°C for the standard deviation is assumed for all other  
305 methods. The output variances and length scale of the covariance function are estimated  
306 using their maximum likelihood values, obtained with the GPy Python package (GPy, 2012).  
307 We apply the method to the marine and terrestrial data separately and combine the masked  
308 fields afterwards to prevent mutual interference. We further constrain the lower bound of the  
309 lengthscale parameter to 2000 km to always fit a reasonably smooth surface, even in some  
310 continental areas with noisy proxy data (e.g. western North America). We note that our choice  
311 of the minimum lengthscale and the separation of land and ocean temperatures influence the  
312 predicted regional surface temperature patterns but do not significantly change our GMST  
313 estimates.

314 The Gaussian process approach provides probabilistic predictions of temperature  
315 values, i.e., uncertainty estimates of the predicted field. The uncertainty reported for an  
316 individual GMST estimate is calculated via random sampling. We generate 10,000 surfaces  
317 from a multivariate normal distribution based on the predicted mean and full covariance matrix  
318 and calculate the GMST for each sample. Uncertainty of the mean estimate is then defined as  
319 the standard deviation of the 10,000 random samples. Regional model uncertainty (expressed  
320 as standard deviation fields) is typically highest in areas with sparse data coverage (e.g. the  
321 Pacific Ocean and Southern Hemisphere landmasses; Figure S2). The lower uncertainty for  
322 the latest Paleocene relative to the PETM and EECO is related to the smaller reported

323 uncertainties in the proxy dataset rather than enhanced data coverage. The large spread in  
324 reconstructed terrestrial temperatures for North America during the PETM and EECO (Figure  
325 S2) propagates through into relatively large uncertainties in the GMSTs estimates for these  
326 intervals.

327

#### 328 2.1.4. $D_{surf-4}$

329 For  $D_{surf-4}$ , GMST estimates are calculated using a simple function of latitude ( $\theta$ ), tuned to  
330 best fit the proxy data:

331

$$332 \quad T(\theta) \approx a + b\theta + c \cos \theta \quad (3)$$

333

334 where  $T(\theta)$  is the Eocene zonal-mean temperature, and the coefficients  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are chosen  
335 to minimize the sum of the squared residuals relative to  $D_{surf}$  (i.e. the SST and LAT data from  
336 Hollis et al. 2019). This new model represents  $T(\theta)$  well in the modern climate (Figure S3)  
337 when supplied with similar number of data points as are in the Hollis et al (2019) dataset, and  
338 it ensures a global solution that is consistent with the physical expectation that temperature  
339 should decrease - and the meridional gradient in temperature should increase - from the  
340 tropics toward the poles (Figure S3).

341 For each data point, we account for three types of uncertainty (i.e. temperature,  
342 elevation, latitude). For temperature, we assume a skew-normal probability distribution based  
343 on the stated 90% confidence intervals. Where uncertainty estimates are not given, we  
344 assume a (symmetric) normal distribution with a 90% confidence interval of  $\pm 5K$ . For elevation,  
345 we assume a skew-normal distribution with a 90% confidence interval equal to the lowest and  
346 highest elevations of adjacent grid points in the paleotopography data set of Herold et al.  
347 (2014), with a lower bound of zero.

348  $T(\theta)$  was estimated by sampling temperature, elevation, and latitude from their  
349 respective distributions at each location (Figure S4) and a lapse-rate adjustment of 6°K/km  
350 was applied. Then, using a standard Monte Carlo bootstrapping method, the same number of  
351 data points were resampled via replacement, and the coefficients in Equation 3 were found  
352 that best fit the sub-sampled data. This procedure was repeated 10,000 times to find a  
353 probability distribution of  $T(\theta)$ . The uncertainty associated with an individual GMST estimate  
354 is the standard deviation.

355

## 356 **2.2. Dataset $D_{deep}$**

357 Dataset  $D_{deep}$  consists of benthic foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -derived bottom water temperatures  
358 (BWTs) for the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO. The benthic foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  dataset is  
359 based on previous compilations (Dunkley Jones et al., 2013; Cramer et al., 2009), updated to  
360 include more recently published datasets (Sexton et al., 2011; Littler et al., 2014; Laurentano  
361 et al., 2015; Westerhold et al., 2018; Barnet et al., 2019). The EECO dataset is sourced from  
362 eleven sites, providing spatial coverage of both the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian Oceans  
363 (DSDP/ODP Sites 401, 550, 577, 690, 702, 738, 865, 1209, 1258, 1262, & 1263). The PETM  
364 and latest Paleocene datasets are sourced from a compilation of nine and seven sites,  
365 respectively, differing from Dunkley-Jones et al. (2013) in that: i) more recent datasets were  
366 added, and ii) PETM sites with a muted CIE magnitude ( $< 1.5 \text{‰}$ ) were excluded as these  
367 datasets may be missing the core PETM interval (Table S2). Benthic foraminifera  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values  
368 are adjusted to *Cibicidoides* following established methods (Cramer et al., 2009), allowing  
369 temperature to be calculated using Eq. 9 of Marchitto et al (2014):

370

$$371 \quad (\delta_{cp} - \delta_{sw} + 0.27) = -0.245 \pm 0.005t + 0.0011 \pm 0.0002t^2 + 3.58 \pm 0.02 \quad (4)$$

372

373 where  $t$  is bottom water temperature in Celsius,  $\delta_{cp}$  is  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of  $\text{CaCO}_3$  on the Vienna-  
374 Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) scale, and  $\delta_{sw}$  is  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of seawater on the Standard Mean Ocean  
375 Water (SMOW).  $\delta_{sw}$  is defined in accordance with the DeepMIP protocols ( $-1.00\text{‰}$ ; see Hollis  
376 et al., 2019).

377

### 378 2.2.1. $D_{deep-1}$

379 For  $D_{deep-1}$ , GMST estimates are calculated following the method of Hansen et al. (2013),  
380 which utilises only the deep ocean benthic foraminifera  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  dataset, and we refer the reader  
381 to that study for a detailed justification of the approach. Briefly, for time periods prior to the  
382 Pliocene, GMST is scaled directly to deep ocean temperature. Specifically,  $\Delta\text{GMST} = \Delta\text{BWT}$   
383 prior to  $\sim 5.3$  Ma, where early Pliocene BWT and GMST was calculated following Eq. 3.5, 3.6,  
384 and 4.2 of Hansen et al. (2013). As such, the calculations presented here differ from those of  
385 Hansen et al. (2013) only in that: i) we use the revised benthic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  compilation described  
386 above rather than that of Zachos et al. (2008), and ii) a different equation (Eq. 4) to convert  
387  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  to temperature.

388

### 389 2.3. Dataset $D_{comb}$

390 Dataset  $D_{comb}$  uses a combination of (tropical) surface- and deep-water temperature  
391 estimates. The deep ocean dataset ( $D_{deep}$ ) is identical to that described in Section 2.2. The  
392 tropical SST dataset utilises all relevant surface ocean proxy data from the DeepMIP  
393 database, i.e. those with a palaeolatitude in the magnetic reference frame within  $30^\circ$  of the  
394 equator. An expanded (relative to modern) definition of the tropics is used because tropical  
395 SST reconstructions are relatively sparse;  $30^\circ$  was chosen because it retains tropical SST  
396 data from several proxies for all three intervals whilst SST seasonality remains relatively low  
397 within these latitudinal bounds.

398

399 2.3.1.  $D_{comb-1}$

400 For  $D_{comb-1}$ , GMST estimates are calculated for each time interval based on the difference  
401 between tropical SSTs and deep-ocean BWTs (Evans et al., 2018), such that:

402

$$403 \quad GMST = 0.5(\overline{tropical\ SST} + \overline{BWT}) \quad (5)$$

404

405 The fundamental assumptions of this approach are that: 1) GMST can be approximated by  
406 global mean SST, 2) global mean SST is equivalent to the mean of the tropical and high  
407 latitude regions, 3) benthic temperatures are representative of high latitude surface  
408 temperatures and 4) that the temperature gradient between the abyss and high latitude SST  
409 is fixed through time (c.f. Sijp et al., 2011). To test these assumptions from a theoretical  
410 perspective, we modelled the shape of the latitudinal temperature gradient using a simple  
411 algebraic function (Figure S5). These results suggest that  $D_{comb-1}$  may underestimate GMST  
412 by 0.75 to 1.25 °C in the modern. We also compared GMST from the EO3 and EO4 model  
413 simulations of Cramwinckel et al. (2018) to that calculated using  $D_{comb-1}$  (Figure S5) and find  
414 a similar cold bias during the Eocene (~1 to 3°C). However, we note that these findings depend  
415 on the accuracy of the modelled deep ocean temperatures.

416 Probability distributions for each time interval were computed as follows. In the case  
417 of the tropical SST data, 1000 subsamples were taken, following which a random normally  
418 distributed error was added to each data point in the DeepMIP compilation, including both  
419 calibration uncertainty and variance in the data where multiple reconstructions are available  
420 for a given site and time interval. Mean tropical SST was calculated for each of these  
421 subsamples. To provide a BWT dataset of the same size as the subsampled tropical SST  
422 data, 1000 normally distributed values were calculated for each time interval, based on the  
423 mean  $\pm 1SD$  variation of the pooled benthic  $\delta^{18}O$  data from all sites including calibration  
424 uncertainty.

425

### 426 3. Results and Discussion

#### 427 3.1. Comparison of surface- and bottom water temperature-derived GMST estimates

428 The following section discusses our 'baseline' GMST estimates calculated on the mantle-  
429 based reference frame only. During the latest Paleocene and PETM, GMST estimates derived  
430 from  $D_{surf}$ -baseline average  $\sim 27$  and  $33^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively (Table 3; Figure 6). These values are  
431 consistent with previous studies analysing the latest Paleocene ( $\sim 27^\circ\text{C}$ ; Zhu et al., 2019) and  
432 PETM ( $\sim 32^\circ\text{C}$ ; Zhu et al., 2019). During the EECO, GMST estimates calculated using  $D_{surf}$   
433 average  $\sim 27^\circ\text{C}$  (Figure 6). These values are up to  $3^\circ\text{C}$  lower compared to previous estimates  
434 from similar time intervals (ca.  $29$  to  $30^\circ\text{C}$ ; Huber and Caballero, 2011; Caballero and Huber,  
435 2013; Zhu et al., 2019). This is likely because we use an expanded LAT dataset ( $n = 80$ )  
436 compared to previous studies ( $n = 51$ ; Huber and Caballero, 2011). Several of these proxies  
437 saturate between  $\sim 25$  and  $29^\circ\text{C}$  (e.g. leaf fossils, pollen assemblages and brGDGTs; see  
438 Hollis et al., 2019 and ref. therein) and/or are impacted by non-temperature controls (e.g.  
439 paleosol climofunctions; see below) and could skew GMST estimates towards lower values.  
440 To confirm this, we calculated GMST values using LAT proxies only (Supplementary  
441 Information). We show that LAT-only GMST estimates are up to  $6^\circ\text{C}$  lower than our 'baseline'  
442 (SST + LAT) calculations, suggesting that EECO GMST estimates ( $D_{surf}$ -baseline) may  
443 represent a minimum temperature constraint.

444 GMST estimates for the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO, calculated using  $D_{deep}$ ,  
445 are  $25.8^\circ\text{C}$  ( $\pm 1.4^\circ\text{C}$ ),  $31.1$  ( $\pm 2.9^\circ\text{C}$ ) and  $28.0^\circ\text{C}$  ( $\pm 1.3^\circ\text{C}$ ) respectively (Table 3; Figure 6).  
446 These estimates are comparable to those derived from surface temperature proxies alone  
447 (Table 3). GMST estimates from the EECO are also comparable to previous estimates based  
448 on globally distributed benthic foraminifera data ( $\sim 28^\circ\text{C}$ ; Hansen et al., 2013). As benthic  
449 foraminifera are less susceptible to diagenetic alteration than planktonic foraminifera (e.g.  
450 Edgar et al., 2013), this implies that benthic foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values could be used to provide  
451 the 'fine temporal structure' of Cenozoic temperature change (e.g. Lunt et al., 2016; Hansen

452 et al., 2013). However, we also urge caution as this approach scales GMST directly to BWT  
453 prior to the Pliocene and assumes that the characteristics of polar amplification are constant  
454 through time (c.f. Evans et al., 2018; Cramwinckel et al., 2018). Changes in ice volume may  
455 also influence the benthic foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signal (see Hansen et al., 2013) and additional  
456 corrections are required before applying this method to other time intervals (e.g. the Eocene-  
457 Oligocene transition).  $D_{\text{deep}}$  also implies that vertical ocean stratification is fixed, even though  
458 vertical ocean stratification has been proposed to change dramatically in the past (e.g. Sijp et  
459 al., 2013; Goldner et al., 2014) and may shift the slope and/or intercept of the relationship  
460 between BWT and GMST.

461 GMST estimates for the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO, calculated using  $D_{\text{comb}}$ ,  
462 are  $21.6^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $\pm 1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ ),  $26.6$  ( $\pm 2.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and  $22.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $\pm 1.0^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), respectively (Figure 6). These  
463 estimates are consistently lower (up to  $5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) than GMST estimates derived using  $D_{\text{surf}}$  and  
464  $D_{\text{deep}}$ . Although  $D_{\text{comb-1}}$  can estimate modern GMST within  $\sim 1$  to  $2^{\circ}\text{C}$  of measured values,  
465 whether this approach can be applied in greenhouse climates remains to be confirmed. As  
466 described above, we used CESM1 simulations (EO3 and EO4 from Cramwinckel et al., 2018)  
467 to compare the “true” model simulation GMST to that calculated using  $D_{\text{comb-1}}$  (Supplementary  
468 Information). We find that  $D_{\text{comb-1}}$  underestimates GMST by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  during the Eocene when the  
469 model high latitude SST is used a proxy for the deep-ocean, and  $2\text{-}3^{\circ}\text{C}$  when the model deep  
470 ocean temperature is used. As such, we suggest that  $D_{\text{comb-1}}$  may reflect a minimum GMST  
471 constraint. We suggest that variable weighting of the deep ocean and tropics could improve  
472 the  $D_{\text{comb}}$  method in future studies (Eq. 5 gives an equal weighting to each).

473

### 474 **3.2. Influence of different proxy datasets upon $D_{\text{surf}}$ -derived GMST estimates**

475 To explore the importance of the proxies themselves upon  $D_{\text{surf}}$ -derived GMST estimates, we  
476 conducted a series of illustrative subsampling experiments relative to  $D_{\text{surf}}$ -baseline (Table 2).  
477 This was performed for methods  $D_{\text{surf-1}}$ , -2, -3 and -4. In the first subsampling experiment  
478 ( $D_{\text{surf}}$ -Frosty; Table 2), we include  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  SST estimates from recrystallized planktonic

479 foraminifera. This yields lower GMST estimates (<1 to 4°C; e.g. Figure S6-8) and is consistent  
480 amongst all four methods. This agrees with previous studies which indicate that  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values  
481 from recrystallized planktonic foraminifera are significantly colder than estimates derived from  
482 the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value of well-preserved foraminifera (Pearson et al., 2001; Sexton et al., 2006; Edgar  
483 et al., 2015), foraminiferal Mg/Ca ratios (Creech et al., 2010; Hollis et al., 2012) and clumped  
484 isotope values from larger benthic foraminifera (Evans et al., 2018).

485         The removal of  $\text{TEX}_{86}$  results in lower GMST estimates (~1 to 4 °C; e.g. Figure S6-8)  
486 across all methodologies ( $D_{\text{surf}}$ -NoTEX; Table 2). This is consistent with previous studies which  
487 indicate that  $\text{TEX}_{86}$  gives slightly higher SSTs than other proxies, especially in the mid-to-high  
488 latitudes (e.g. Hollis et al., 2012; Inglis et al. 2015). The functional response of  $\text{TEX}_{86}$  at higher-  
489 than-modern SSTs remains relatively uncertain, which may explain why  $\text{TEX}_{86}$  gives slightly  
490 higher SSTs than other proxies (see discussion in Hollis et al., 2019). New indices or  
491 calibrations could help to reduce the uncertainty associated with  $\text{TEX}_{86}$ -derived SST estimates  
492 beyond the modern calibration range.  $\text{TEX}_{86}$  values can also be complicated by the input of  
493 isoGDGTs from other sources (see discussion in Hollis et al., 2019). The DeepMIP database  
494 excludes samples with anomalous GDGT distributions (Hollis et al., 2019). However, a  
495 Gaussian process regression (GPR) model may help to better identify anomalous GDGT  
496 distributions in the sedimentary record using a nearest neighbour distance metric (Eley et al.,  
497 2019). This methodology could be employed in future studies to further refine GDGT-based  
498 SST datasets, but this methodology is currently under review and is not considered here.  
499 Despite the caveats and concerns raised in previous work, the exclusion of  $\text{TEX}_{86}$  data shifts  
500 GMST by a relatively small amount.

501         The input of brGDGTs from archives other than mineral soils or peat can bias LAT  
502 estimates towards lower values (Inglis et al., 2017; Hollis et al., 2019) and the exclusion of  
503 MBT(′)/CBT-derived LAT estimates could yield higher GMST values. Excluding MBT(′)/CBT  
504 in marine sediments does yield slightly warmer GMST estimates (0.5 to 1.0°C). However, the  
505 impact of excluding MBT(′)/CBT values is relatively minor because there are other proxies

506 (e.g. pollen assemblages, leaf floral) which yield comparable LAT estimates in the regions  
507 where MBT(')/CBT values are removed (e.g. the SW Pacific).

508 The removal of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values from paleosols/mammals and paleosol climofunctions  
509 ( $D_{\text{surf}}\text{-NoPaleosol}$ ; Table 2) also leads to slightly warmer GMST estimates ( $\sim 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ ). This may  
510 be related to additional controls on paleosol and mammal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values. This includes variations  
511 in the isotopic composition of rainfall (i.e. meteoric  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ; Hyland and Sheldon, 2013),  
512 variations in soil water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values (Hyland and Sheldon, 2013) and/or  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  heterogeneity  
513 within nodules (e.g. Dworkin et al. 2005). Temperature estimates from paleosol climofunctions  
514 may also be prone to underestimation (e.g. Sheldon et al., 2009) and Hyland and Sheldon  
515 (2013) suggest that paleosol climofunctions are only applied as an indicator of relative  
516 temperature change. Intriguingly,  $D_{\text{surf}}\text{-1}$  method yields much higher GMST estimates during  
517 the EECO when  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values from paleosols/mammals and paleosol climofunctions are  
518 excluded ( $\sim 3^\circ\text{C}$  higher than  $D_{\text{surf}}\text{-baseline}$ ). This is attributed to the inclusion of two “cold” LAT  
519 estimates from the Salta Basin, NW Argentina (Hyland et al., 2017) which overly influence  
520 GMST (e.g. Figure 2). For  $D_{\text{surf}}\text{-1}$ , a direct comparison of new and prior estimates (Caballero  
521 and Huber, 2013) can be made in which the only change has been the use of a newer data  
522 compilation. For our new estimate, the EECO is  $\sim 4.5^\circ\text{C}$  colder than previous estimates  
523 ( $29.75^\circ\text{C}$ ; Caballero and Huber, 2013). Given that the floristic LAT estimates are identical  
524 between the DeepMIP compilation and the older compilation, the lower GMST estimates are  
525 largely due to the incorporation of additional LAT datasets (e.g. paleosol climofunctions).

526

### 527 **3.3. A combined estimate of GMST during the DeepMIP target intervals**

528 To derive a combined estimate of GMST during the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO, we  
529 employ a probabilistic approach, using Monte Carlo resampling with full propagation of errors.  
530 Our combined estimates employs GMST estimates from each ‘baseline’ experiment (except  
531  $D_{\text{surf}}\text{-1}$  for the EECO for which we use  $D_{\text{surf}}\text{-NoPaleosol}$ ; see discussion above). We generated  
532 1,000,000 iterations for each of the six methods, for each time interval (latest Paleocene,

533 PETM and EECO). In these iterations, the GMST estimates were randomly sampled with  
534 replacement within their full uncertainty envelopes, assuming Gaussian distribution of errors.  
535 As the different GMST estimates ultimately derive from the same proxy dataset, we do not  
536 consider them to be independent. The resulting 6,000,000 GMST iterations for each time  
537 period are thus simply added into a single probability density function, in order to fully  
538 represent uncertainty (Figure 7). This is equivalent to a linear pooling approach with equal  
539 weights (Genest and Zidek, 1986). From this probability distribution, the median value and the  
540 upper and lower limits corresponding to 66 and 90% confidence limits were identified (Table  
541 4).

542 Sequential removal of one GMST method at a time (jackknife resampling) was  
543 performed to examine the influence of a single method upon the average GMST estimate.  
544 Jackknifing reveals that that no single method overly influences the mean GMST or 66%  
545 confidence intervals during the latest Paleocene, PETM or EECO ( $\pm 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; Supplementary  
546 Information and Figure S9). However, the removal of  $D_{\text{surf-2}}$  (which has relative large error  
547 bars; Figure 6) reduces the 90% confidence interval (Supplementary Information). We also  
548 show that removing  $D_{\text{comb-1}}$  removes the bimodality of the temperature distribution (Figure  
549 S9). This is because  $D_{\text{comb-1}}$  is associated with consistently lower GMST estimates compared  
550 to other methods (see Section 3.1).

551 During the latest Paleocene, the average GMST estimate is  $26.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  and ranges  
552 between  $22.3$  and  $28.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  (66% confidence interval; Table 4; Figure 7). During the PETM, the  
553 average GMST is higher ( $31.6^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and ranges between  $27.2$  and  $34.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  (66% confidence  
554 interval; Table 4; Figure 7). Assuming a preindustrial GMST of  $14^{\circ}\text{C}$ , our average GMST  
555 estimates indicate that the latest Paleocene, and PETM are  $12.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $17.6^{\circ}\text{C}$  warmer than  
556 pre-industrial, respectively. Our results indicate that GMST likely increased by  $\sim 4$  to  $6^{\circ}\text{C}$   
557 between the latest Paleocene and PETM (66% confidence), in keeping with previous  
558 estimates (Frieling et al., 2019; Dunkley Jones, 2013). During the EECO, the average GMST  
559 estimate is  $27.0^{\circ}\text{C}$  and likely ranges between  $23.2$  and  $29.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  (66% confidence interval; Table

560 4; Figure 7). Assuming a preindustrial GMST of 14°C, our average GMST estimate indicates  
561 that the EECO is 13.0°C warmer than pre-industrial. The GMST anomaly for the EECO is  
562 ~2°C lower than previous studies (~15°C warmer than pre-industrial; Caballero and Huber,  
563 2013; Zhu et al., 2019) but the median falls within the range quoted previously in the IPCC  
564 AR5 (9 to 14°C warmer than pre-industrial). The EECO is approximately 4 to 5°C colder than  
565 the PETM (66% confidence). This is larger than previously suggested (~3°C; Zhu et al., 2019)  
566 and may related to a cold bias in EECO GMST estimates (see Section 3.1).

567

### 568 **3.4. Equilibrium climate sensitivity during the latest Palaeocene, PETM and EECO**

569 Equilibrium climate sensitivity (ECS) can be defined as the equilibrium change in global near  
570 surface air temperature, resulting from a doubling in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Various “flavours” of  
571 ECS exist, some of which specifically exclude various feedback processes not always included  
572 in climate models, such as those associated with ice sheets, vegetation, or aerosols (Rohling  
573 et al., 2012). ECS may also be state-dependent (Caballero and Huber, 2013) and there is no  
574 reason to expect that it has not changed with time or as a function of climate state (Farnsworth  
575 et al, 2019; Zhu et al., 2020). Therefore, direct comparison of ECS in the past to modern  
576 conditions is a fraught enterprise. For our purposes we define a “bulk” ECS (ECS<sub>bulk</sub>) as being  
577 a gross estimate of ECS, between our three intervals and preindustrial. i.e.

578

$$579 \text{ECS}_{\text{bulk}} = (\Delta T_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}}) / (\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}}) \quad [6]$$

580

581 where  $\Delta T_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}}$  is the temperature difference between pre-industrial and the time period of  
582 interest that can be attributed to CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, and  $\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}}$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> forcing relative to  
583 preindustrial. The result is then normalised to a CO<sub>2</sub> forcing equal to a doubling of CO<sub>2</sub>. Such  
584 calculations have been performed previously (e.g. Anagnostou et al., 2016) and they provide  
585 some constraint on the range of climate sensitivity values that are relevant for near-modern  
586 prediction (Rohling et al., 2012). For example, Anagnostou et al. (2016) indicated that early

587 Eocene ECS (excluding ice sheet feedbacks) falls within the range 2.1–4.6 °C per CO<sub>2</sub>  
 588 doubling with maximum probability for the EECO of 3.8 °C. These values (2.1–4.6 °C per CO<sub>2</sub>  
 589 doubling) are similar to the IPCC ECS range (1.5–4.5 °C at 66% confidence). Here we  
 590 calculate bulk ECS estimates using the change in GMST and CO<sub>2</sub> in the latest Paleocene,  
 591 PETM and EECO intervals with reference to the pre-industrial. Following the approach of  
 592 Anagnostou et al. (2016) and using the forcing equation of Byrne and Goldblatt (2014), we  
 593 first determine the relative change in climate forcing relative to pre-industrial ( $\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}}$ ):

594

$$595 \quad \Delta F_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}} = 5.32 \ln(C_i/C_{PI}) + (0.39 [\ln(C_i/C_{PI})]^2) \quad [7]$$

596

597 where  $C_{PI}$  is the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration during pre-industrial (278 ppm) and  $C_i$  refers  
 598 to the CO<sub>2</sub> reconstruction at a particular time in the Eocene. The mean proxy estimate of  
 599 CO<sub>2</sub> for the PETM is ~2200 ppmv (+1904/-699 ppmv; 95% confidence) (Gutjahr et al., 2017).  
 600 The mean proxy estimate of CO<sub>2</sub> for the LP is ~870 ppmv (Gutjahr et al., 2017). The  
 601 uncertainty of latest Paleocene CO<sub>2</sub> represents two standard deviations of pre-PETM CO<sub>2</sub>  
 602 (Gutjahr et al. 2017), equal to ±400 ppm. The mean proxy estimate of CO<sub>2</sub> for the EECO is  
 603 ~1625 ppmv (±750 ppmv; 95% confidence) (Anagnostou et al., 2016; Hollis et al., 2019). To  
 604 calculate bulk ECS, we then use radiative forcing from a doubling of CO<sub>2</sub> from Byrne and  
 605 Goldblatt (2014) to translate CO<sub>2</sub> into forcing relative to preindustrial ( $\Delta F_{\text{CO}_2}$ ):

606

$$607 \quad \text{ECS} = (\Delta T_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}}) / \Delta F_{\text{CO}_2\text{-vs-PI}} * 3.875 \quad [8]$$

608

609 , where GMST ( $\Delta T$ ) distributions are based on output generated via our Monte Carlo  
 610 simulations (see Section 3.3). Some of the temperature anomaly of the latest Paleocene,  
 611 PETM, and EECO is caused not by CO<sub>2</sub> but by the different paleotopography,  
 612 paleobathymetry, and solar constant compared with preindustrial. Furthermore, we choose

613 here to calculate an ECS that explicitly excludes feedbacks associated with vegetation, ice  
614 sheets, and aerosols, i.e.  $S_{[CO_2,LI,VG,AE]}$  in the nomenclature of Rohling et al (2012). To account  
615 for these effects, we subtract a value of 4.5°C (Caballero and Huber, 2013; Zhu et al. 2019)  
616 from GMST; i.e.

617

$$618 \quad \Delta T_{CO_2-vs-PI} = \Delta GMST - 4.5^\circ C \quad [9]$$

619

620 Following Anagnostou et al. (2016), the uncertainty on the slow-feedback correction on  
621  $\Delta GMST$  follows a uniform ‘flat’ probability ( $\pm 1.5^\circ C$ ). This value of 4.5°C is based upon a  
622 comparison of preindustrial and Eocene simulations (both 1x CO<sub>2</sub>) conducted with CESM1.2  
623 (Zhu et al., 2019), which incorporates the paleogeographic, solar constant, ice sheet,  
624 vegetation, aerosol, and ice sheet changes from preindustrial to Eocene. Our value is similar  
625 to previous studies which attribute ~4 to 6°C to the non-CO<sub>2</sub> and non-aerosol forcings and  
626 feedbacks (Anagnostou et al., 2016; Caballero and Huber, 2013, Lunt et al., 2012). However,  
627 the sensitivity to these Eocene boundary conditions is likely model-dependant and this value  
628 may differ between model simulations. The uncertainties in our estimated ECS are the  
629 products of 10,000 realizations of the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO CO<sub>2</sub> values and the  
630 respective  $\Delta GMST$  estimate (the mean estimate and propagated uncertainty) based on  
631 randomly sampling each variable within its 66% and 90% confidence interval uncertainty  
632 envelope

633  $S_{[CO_2,LI,VG,AE]}$  values (66% confidence) for the EECO and PETM average 0.80 (0.46 to  
634 1.15) and 0.92 (0.60 to 1.20), respectively. This yields ECS estimates (66% confidence) for  
635 the EECO and PETM compared to modern which average 3.1°C (1.8 to 4.4°C) and 3.6°C (2.3  
636 to 4.7°C), respectively (Figure 8). These are broadly comparable to previous estimates from  
637 the early Eocene which account for paleogeography and other feedbacks (~2.1 to 4.6°C;  
638 Anagnostou et al., 2016) They are also similar to those predicted by the IPCC (1.5 to 4.5°C

639 per doubling CO<sub>2</sub>). S<sub>[CO<sub>2</sub>,LI,VG,AE]</sub> values (66% confidence) during the latest Paleocene average  
640 1.16 (0.61 to 1.75), which is somewhat higher than the other DeepMIP intervals. This yields  
641 ECS estimates (66% confidence) for the latest Paleocene which average 4.5°C (2.4 to 6.8°C)  
642 (Figure 8). Higher ECS values are attributed to relatively high GMST estimates (~26°C) and  
643 relatively low CO<sub>2</sub> values (~870ppm) during the latest Paleocene. As latest Paleocene CO<sub>2</sub>  
644 estimates remain highly uncertain (Gutjahr et al., 2017; see above), new high-fidelity CO<sub>2</sub>  
645 records are required to accurately constrain ECS during this time.

646 ECS may be strongly state-dependant and model simulations indicate a non-linear  
647 increase in ECS at higher temperatures (Caballero and Huber, 2013; Zhu et al., 2019) due to  
648 changes in cloud feedbacks (Abbot et al., 2009; Caballero and Huber, 2010; Arnold et al.,  
649 2012; Zhu et al., 2019). This implies caution when relating geological estimates to modern  
650 climate predictions (e.g. Rohling et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2020) and it may be more appropriate  
651 to calculate ECS between different time intervals (e.g. latest Paleocene to PETM; Shaffer et  
652 al., 2016). To this end, we also calculate ECS between the transition from the latest  
653 Palaeocene to the PETM, assuming that non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcings and feedbacks are negligible. This  
654 yields an ECS estimate of 3.6°C. However, we note that early Paleogene CO<sub>2</sub> estimates  
655 remain uncertain (Gutjahr et al., 2017) and well-synchronised, continuous and high-resolution  
656 CO<sub>2</sub> records are required to accurately constrain ECS during the DeepMIP intervals.

657

#### 658 **4. Conclusions**

659 Using six different methods, we have quantified global mean surface temperatures (GMST)  
660 during the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO. GMST was calculated within a coordinated,  
661 experimental framework and utilised six methodologies including three different input  
662 datasets. After evaluating the impact of different proxy datasets upon GMST estimates, we  
663 combined all six methodologies to derive an average GMST value during the latest Paleocene,  
664 PETM and EECO. We show that the 'average' GMST estimate (66% confidence) during the  
665 latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO is 26.3°C (22.3 to 28.3°C), 31.6°C (27.2 to 34.5°C) and

666 27.0°C (23.2 to 29.7°C), respectively. Assuming a preindustrial GMST of 14°C, the latest  
667 Paleocene, PETM and EECO are 12.3°C, 17.6°C and 13.0°C warmer than modern,  
668 respectively. Using our 'combined' GMST estimate, we demonstrate that "bulk" ECS (66%  
669 confidence) during the latest Paleocene, PETM and EECO is 4.5°C (2.4 to 6.8°C), 3.6°C (2.3  
670 to 4.7°C) and 3.1°C (1.8 to 4.4°C) per doubling of CO<sub>2</sub>. Taken together, our study improves  
671 our characterisation of the global mean temperature of these key time intervals, allowing future  
672 climate change to be put into the context of past changes, and allowing us to provide a refined  
673 estimate of ECS.

674

#### 675 **Data availability**

676 Data can be accessed via the online supporting information, via [www.pangaea.de/](http://www.pangaea.de/), or from  
677 the author (email: [gordon.inglis@soton.ac.uk](mailto:gordon.inglis@soton.ac.uk)).

678

#### 679 **Authorship tiers and contributions**

680 Authorship of this manuscript is organized into three tiers according to the contributions of  
681 each individual author. Inglis (Tier I) organized the structure and writing of the manuscript,  
682 contributed to all sections of the text and designed the figures. Tier II authors (listed  
683 alphabetically following Inglis) assumed a leading role by contributing methodologies used in  
684 the text. Tier III authors (listed alphabetically following Wilkinson) contributed intellectually to  
685 the text and figure design.

686

#### 687 **Declaration of competing interest**

688 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
689 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

690

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704

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Label in Fig. 1	Source	Time	GMST (°C)	Uncertainty (°C)	Proxy system
1a	Farnsworth et al. (2019)	EE	23.4	±3.2	δ <sup>18</sup> O planktonic
1b	Farnsworth et al. (2019)	EE	37.1	±1.4	δ <sup>18</sup> O planktonic + TEX <sub>86</sub>
2a	Zhu et al. (2019)	LP	27	n/a	Multiple
2b	Zhu et al. (2019)	EECO	29	±3	Multiple
2c	Zhu et al. (2019)	PETM	32	n/a	Multiple
3	Caballero and Huber (2013)	EE	29.5	±2.6	Multiple
4	Hansen et al (2013)	EE	28	n/a	δ <sup>18</sup> O benthic
5	Cramwinckel et al. (2018)	EE	29.3	n/a	Multiple

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933 **Table 1:** Previous studies that have determined GMST for the early Eocene (EE), EECO,  
934 PETM or latest Paleocene (LP). n/a indicates that no error bars were reported in the original  
935 publications.

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Experiment	Description
<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-Baseline</i>	All SST and LAT data compiled in Hollis et al. (2019) but excluding recrystallized planktonic foraminifera $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values
<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-Frosty</i>	<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-baseline</i> but including recrystallized planktonic foraminifera $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values
<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-NoTEX</i>	<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-baseline</i> but excluding TEX <sub>86</sub> values
<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-NoMBT</i>	<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-baseline</i> but excluding MBT(°)/CBT values from marine sediments
<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-NoPaleosol</i>	<i>D<sub>surf</sub>-baseline</i> but excluding mammal/paleosol $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values and paleosol climofunctions

946 **Table 2:** Baseline and optional subsampling experiments applied to *D<sub>surf</sub>*

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GMST (°C)						
	$D_{surf-1}$	$D_{surf-2}$	$D_{surf-3}$	$D_{surf-4}$	$D_{deep-1}$	$D_{comb-1}$
LP	26.6 ( $\pm 1.3$ )	26.8 ( $\pm 6.9$ )	27.6 ( $\pm 1.5$ )	26.8 ( $\pm 1.3$ )	25.8 ( $\pm 1.4$ )	21.6 ( $\pm 1.2$ )
PETM	33.9 ( $\pm 1.4$ )	33.4 ( $\pm 10.3$ )	32.6 ( $\pm 1.5$ )	30.7 ( $\pm 1.6$ )	31.1 ( $\pm 2.9$ )	26.6 ( $\pm 2.1$ )
EECO	27.2 ( $\pm 0.7$ )	26.7 ( $\pm 8.9$ )	29.8 ( $\pm 1.5$ )	25.7 ( $\pm 1.1$ )	28.0 ( $\pm 1.3$ )	22.8 ( $\pm 1.0$ )

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962 **Table 3:** Individual GMST estimates for latest Paleocene (LP), PETM and EECO. Reported  
 963 GMST estimates utilise 'baseline' experiments except  $D_{surf-1}$  during the EECO which uses  
 964  $D_{surf-NoPaleosol}$ . GMST estimates are based on the mantle-based reference frame. Error bars  
 965 on each individual method are the standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ), except  $D_{surf-1}$  and  $D_{surf-2}$  which use  
 966 the standard error ( $1\sigma_{\bar{x}}$ ).

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	GMST (°C) (Average)	GMST (°C) (66% CI)	GMST (°C) (90% CI)
LP	26.3	22.3 – 28.3	21.3 – 29.1
PETM	31.6	27.3 - 34.5	25.9 – 35.6
EECO	27.0	23.2 – 29.6	22.2 – 30.7

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981 **Table 4:** ‘Combined’ GMST estimates (66% and 90% confidence intervals) during the: i) latest  
982 Paleocene (LP), ii) PETM, and iii) EECO.

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	ECS (°C) (Average)	ECS (°C) (66% CI)	ECS (°C) (90% CI)
LP	4.5	2.4 – 6.8	1.6 – 8.0
PETM	3.6	2.3– 4.7	1.9 – 5.2
EECO	3.1	1.8 – 4.4	1.3 – 5.0

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998 **Table 5:** Estimates of ECS (66% and 90% confidence) during the: i) latest Paleocene (LP), ii)  
999 PETM and iii) EECO.

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1015 **Figure captions:**

1016 **Figure 1:** Published GMST estimates during the early Paleogene (57 to 48 Ma). Dots  
1017 represent average values. The horizontal limits on the individual dots represent the reported  
1018 error. y-Axis labels refer to previous estimates (see Table 1).

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1020 **Figure 2:** An illustration of Method  $D_{surf-1}$  during the EECO. (a) Modelled early Eocene  
1021 temperatures utilising CESM1.2 at 6x pre-industrial  $CO_2$ , (b) Interpolated absolute SST  
1022 reconstructions, (c) Data-model difference between (a) and (b).

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1024 **Figure 3:** An illustration of Method  $D_{surf-2}$  for 2 sites: (a) Big Bend LAT in the EECO as  
1025 diagnosed using HadCM3L, and (b) DSDP Site 401 SST in the PETM as diagnosed using  
1026 CCSM3. The vertical dashed line shows  $\langle T \rangle^{inferred}$  and the horizontal dashed line shows  
1027  $T^{proxy}$ , which intercept at the orange dot. The dark blue dots show the intercept of  $T^{low}$  with  $\langle$   
1028  $T^{low} \rangle$ , and the red dots show the intercept of  $T^{high}$  with  $\langle T^{high} \rangle$ .

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1030 **Figure 4:** Inferred global mean temperature ( $\langle T \rangle^{inferred}$ ) using  $D_{surf-2}$ , for (a) each EECO-aged  
1031 LAT proxy as diagnosed using HadCM3L, and (b) each PETM-aged SST proxy as diagnosed  
1032 using CCSM3. For (a) and (b), the final estimate of global mean temperature is the average  
1033 of all the individual sites. The solid line shows the continental outline in each model, and the  
1034 dashed line shows the continental outline.

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1036 **Figure 5:** Predicted surface warming by Gaussian process regression using  $D_{surf-3}$  for the (a)  
1037 latest Paleocene, (b) PETM and (c) EECO. Anomalies are relative to the present-day zonal  
1038 mean surface temperature. Circles (triangles) indicate all available SST (LAT) proxy data for

1039 the respective time slice that were used to train the model. Symbols for locations where  
1040 multiple proxy reconstructions are available are slightly shifted in latitude for improved visibility.

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1042 **Figure 6:** GMST estimates during the (a) PETM, (b) EECO and (c) latest Paleocene for each  
1043 methodology. GMST estimates utilise ‘baseline’ experiments except  $D_{surf-1}$  during the EECO  
1044 which uses  $D_{surf-NoPaleosol}$ . GMST estimates are based on the mantle-based reference  
1045 frame. Error bars on each individual method are the standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ), except  $D_{surf-1}$  and  
1046  $D_{surf-2}$  which use the standard error ( $1\sigma$ ).

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1048 **Figure 7:** Probability density function of ‘combined’ GMST during the DeepMIP intervals with  
1049 full propagation of errors. GMST estimates are calculated on the mantle-based reference  
1050 frame.

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1052 **Figure 8:** Probability density function of ‘bulk’ ECS during the latest Paleocene, PETM and  
1053 EECO that explicitly accounts for non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcings of palaeography and solar constant, and  
1054 feedbacks associated with land ice, vegetation, and aerosols (Zhu et al., 2019), i.e.  
1055  $S_{[CO_2,LI,VG,AE]}$  in the nomenclature of Rohling et al (2012).

Figure 1

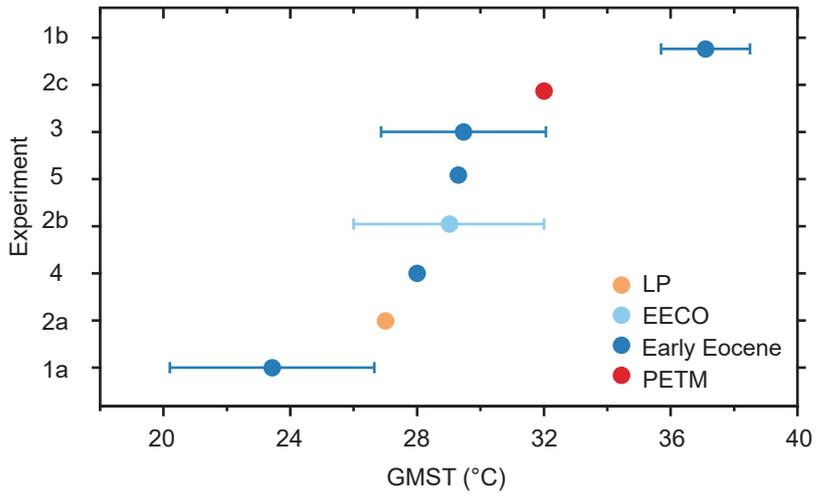


Figure 2

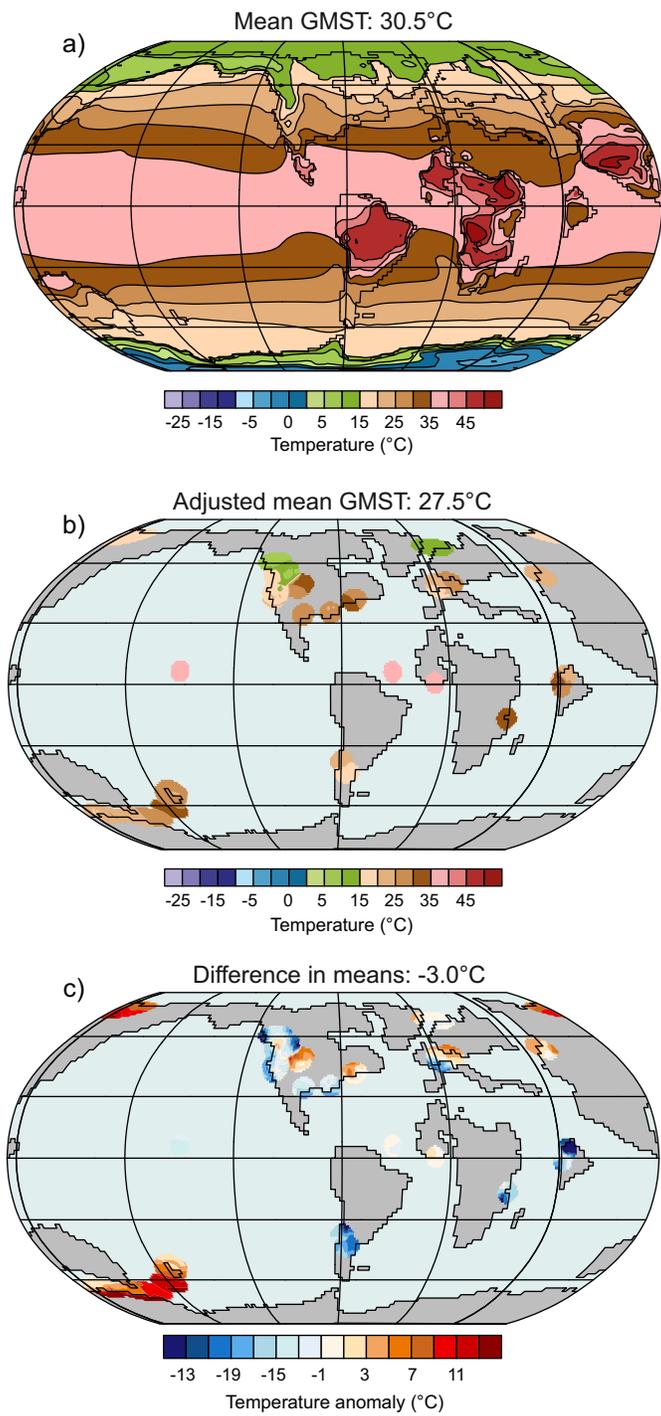


Figure 3

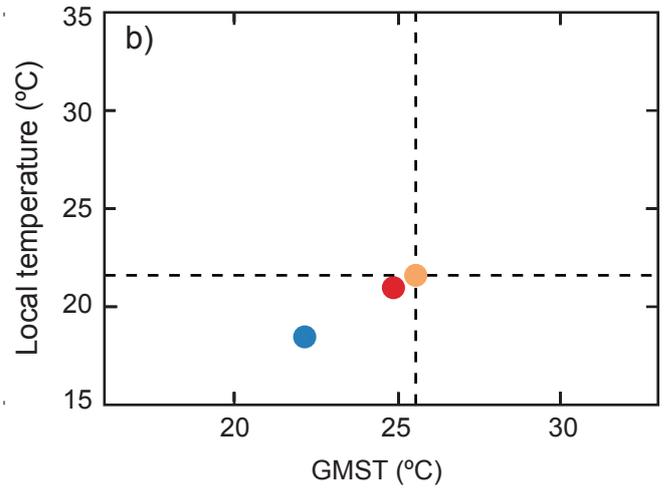
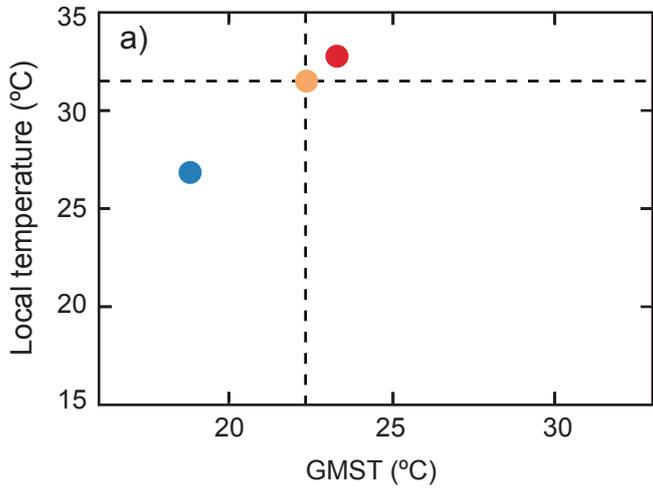


Figure 4

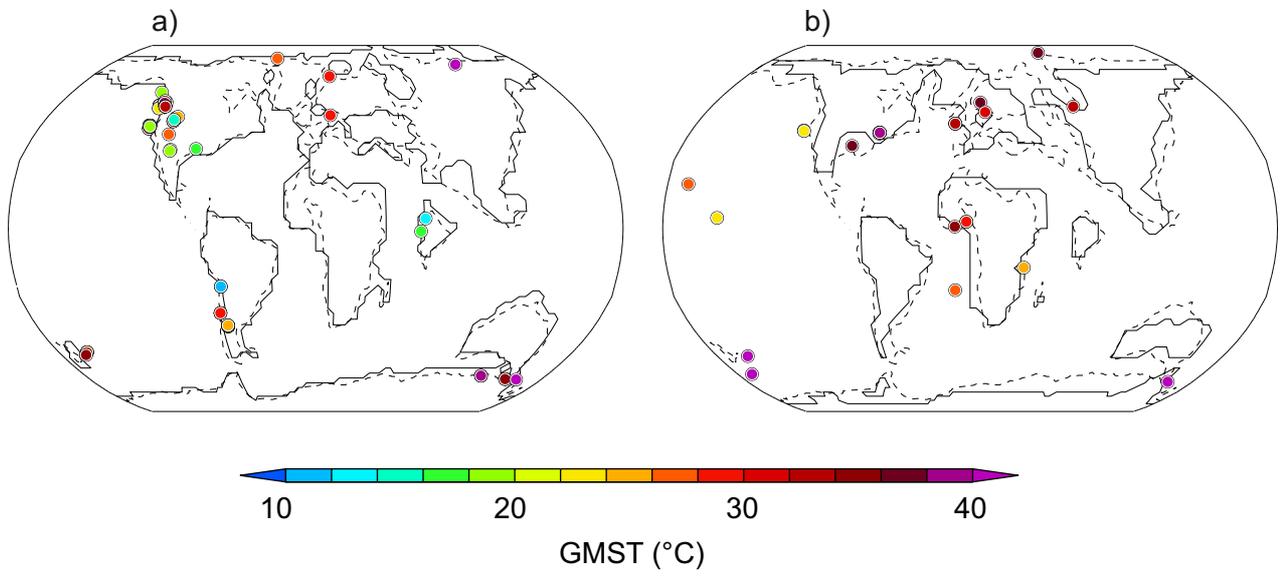
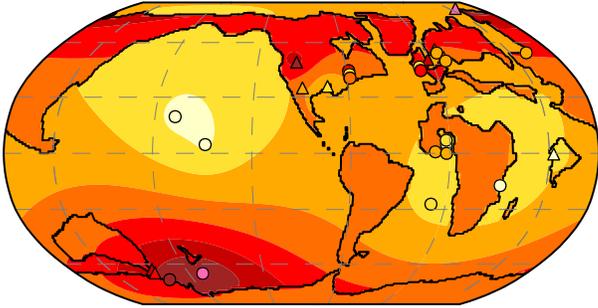
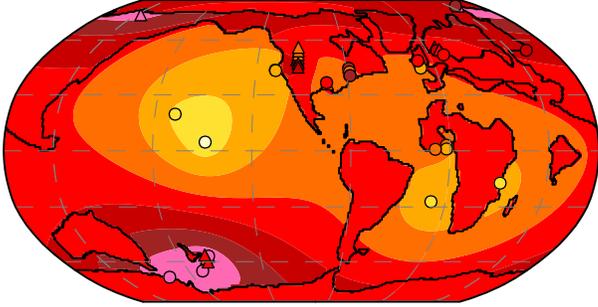


Figure 5

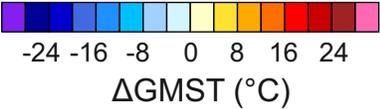
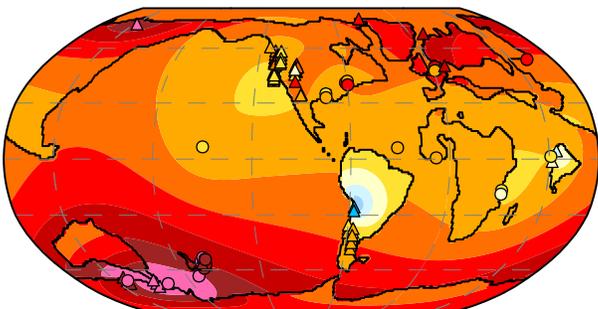
a) latest Paleocene



b) PETM



c) EECO



$\Delta$ GMST (°C)

Figure 6

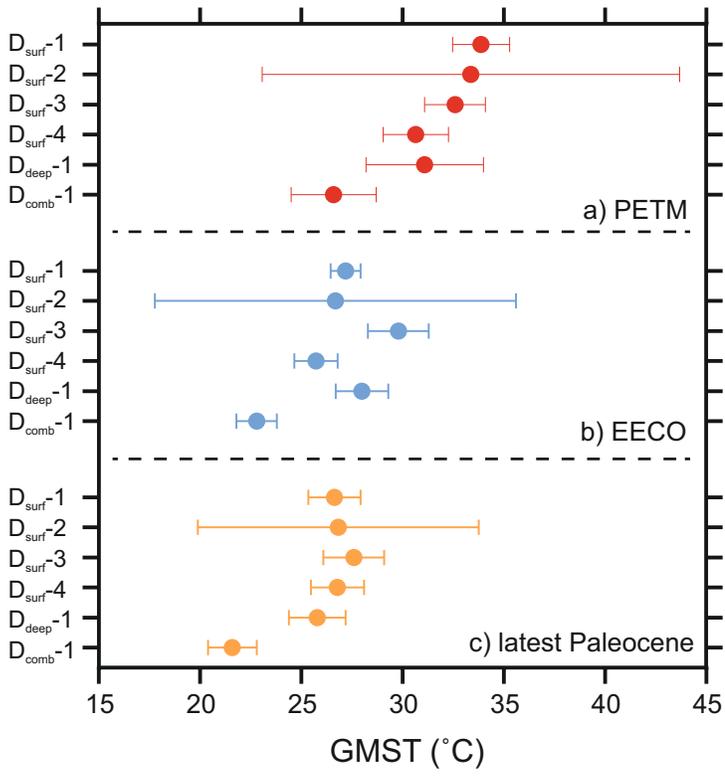


Figure 7

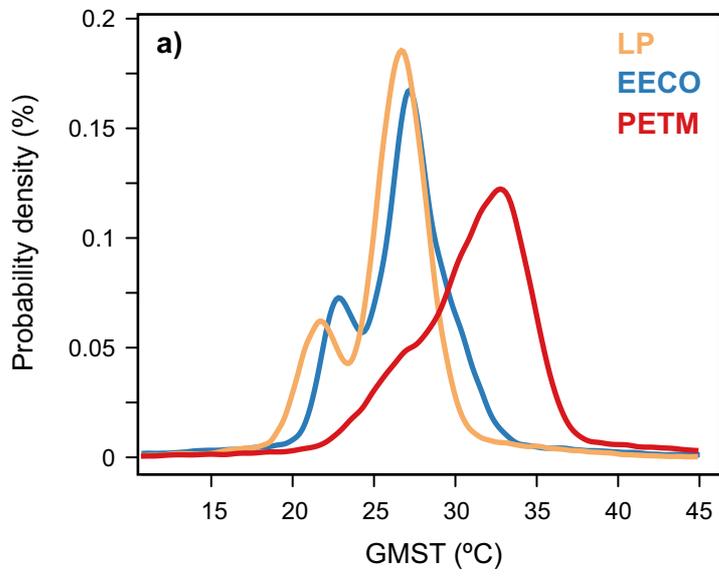


Figure 8

