Response of Coastal California Hydroclimate to the Paleocene Eocene Thermal Maximum

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11 Abstract. The effects of anthropogenic warming on the hydroclimate of California are becoming more pronounced, with increased frequency of multi-year droughts and flooding. As a past 12 analog for the future, the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) is a unique natural 13 14 experiment for assessing global and regional hydroclimate sensitivity to greenhouse gas warming. Globally, extensive evidence (i.e., observations, climate models with high pCO_2) 15 demonstrates hydrological intensification with significant variability from region to region (i.e., 16 dryer or wetter, or greater frequency and/or intensity of extreme events). Central California 17 18 (paleolatitude ~42°N), roughly at the boundary between dry subtropical highs and mid-latitude low pressure systems, would have been particularly susceptible to shifts in atmospheric 19 20 circulation and precipitation patterns/intensity. Here, we present new observations and climate 21 model output on regional/local hydroclimate responses in central California during the PETM. 22 Our findings based on multi-proxy evidence within the context of model outputs suggest a transition to an overall drier climate punctuated by increased precipitation during summer 23 months along the central coastal California during the PETM. 24

25 1 Introduction

Global warming of a few degrees celsius over the next century is projected to intensify the 26 hydrological cycle on a range of temporal and spatial scales, manifested primarily by amplified 27 28 wet-dry cycles (Held and Soden, 2006; Douville et al., 2021). Indeed, just over last few decades there has been an increasing frequency in the severity of extremes characterized by compound 29 heat waves and intense drought (Büntgen et al., 2021; Williams et al., 2020; Zscheischler and 30 31 Lehner, 2022), and/or heavy precipitation and flooding (Liu et al., 2020; Risser and Wehner, 2017). As greenhouse gas driven warming continues, such precipitation extremes (wet or dry) 32 are expected to intensify (Stevenson et al., 2022). This is particularly so for California which 33 receives much of its rainfall from winter systems fueled by atmospheric rivers (AR), the 34 frequency of which are forecast to decline as the systems shift northward (Simon Wang et al., 35 2017). The decline in winter precipitation along with warming will create more intense droughts 36 37 even as the potential for extreme precipitation events increases (Vogel et al., 2020; Swain et al.,

38 2018).

Climate model predictions for intensification of the hydrological cycle are supported by case 39 studies of extreme warming events of the deep past (Carmichael et al., 2017). In particular, the 40 41 Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) has emerged as a unique natural experiment for 42 assessing global and regional hydroclimate sensitivity to greenhouse gas warming (Zachos et al., 2008). Extensive evidence exists for a major mode shift of local/regional precipitation patterns 43 and intensity (Pagani et al., 2006; Slotnick et al., 2012; Schmitz and Pujalte, 2003; Sluijs and 44 Brinkhuis, 2009; Smith et al., 2007; Handley et al., 2012; Kozdon et al., 2020) including 45 46 enhanced erosion and extreme flooding in fluvial sections (e.g., Pyrenees; Bighorn basin), and 47 increased weathering and sediment fluxes to coastal basins (e.g., Bass River, Wilson Lake, mid-Atlantic coast; Mead Stream, New Zealand etc.) along with other observations (John et al., 2008; 48 Nicolo et al., 2010; Stassen et al., 2012; Self-Trail et al., 2017; Wing et al., 2005; Kraus and 49 Riggins, 2007; Foreman, 2014). 50

These observations of regional hydroclimate serve as the basis for climate model experiments forced with proxy-based estimates of ΔpCO_2 for the PETM (i.e., 3x-6x pre-industrial)(Kiehl and Shields, 2013; Carmichael et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2020). Using such estimates, model simulations show an overall increase in poleward meridional water vapor transport as manifested

55 by a net increase in evaporation of subtropical regions, balanced by higher precipitation of

tropical/high latitudes characterizing the 'wet-gets-wetter and dry-gets-drier' hydrological 56 response. The latest simulations using high-resolution climate models display several key 57 58 regional responses including increased frequency of extreme precipitation events, especially the coastal regions where atmospheric rivers (AR) are common (Rush et al., 2021). Indeed, 59 observations of high-energy flooding events in SW Europe (i.e., the Pyrenees) during the PETM 60 61 (Schmitz and Pujalte, 2003) can be explained by increased frequency of North Atlantic ARs contributing landfall in that region. Pacific AR activity as simulated for the PETM also becomes 62 more intense but less frequent along the central California coast by shifting northward with the 63 storm tracks (Shields et al., 2021), not unlike the projections for California in the future (Shields 64 and Kiehl, 2016; Massoud et al., 2019). This pattern is consistent with warming scenarios in 65 general which have weakened zonal wind belts (i.e., the westerlies) that are shifting poleward 66 67 (Abell et al., 2021; Douville et al., 2021).

Testing the theoretical response of extreme global warming on Pacific ARs and impacts on 68 seasonal precipitation along North America's western coast in general is challenging and still 69 70 limited by the lack of observations. Here we constrain the regional hydroclimate response along 71 the central California coast during the PETM using several independent proxies (i.e., clay mineralogy, grain size distribution, $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ stratigraphy, and leaf wax $\delta^{2}H_{n-alkane}$ isotope records), 72 which are either directly or indirectly sensitive to shifts in precipitation patterns/intensity. These 73 74 proxies are then compared against Earth System model simulations of the greenhouse gas forced changes in regional precipitation (i.e., pattern/intensity). The new records complement data from 75 76 a previous study (John et al., 2008), and along with the latest climate modeling experiments provide a unique case study of the sensitivity of regional hydroclimate to major greenhouse 77 78 warming.

79 2 Materials and methods

80 2.1 Site Location

81 The studied outcrop section, Lodo Gulch, is part of the late Paleocene-early Eocene Lodo

82 Formation located in the Panoche Hill of central California (Fig. 1). During the late Paleocene,

the section was situated at a paleolatitude \sim 42°N, roughly at the boundary between the dry

84 subtropical highs and mid-latitude low-pressure systems. The Lodo Formation is comprised

- 85 primarily of siltstone with a relatively low abundance of calcareous microfossils truncated by
- thin glauconitic sand layers (Brabb, 1983). Depositional facies are consistent with neritic-bathyal
- 87 setting along the outer shelf (John et al., 2008).



89 Figure 1. Paleogeography and location of the Lodo Gulch section (red square) along the Central

- 90 California coast and Big Horn Basin (white square) in the North America continent for reference
- at 56 Ma. Late Paleocene-early Eocene topography boundary of North America was adapted
 from Lunt et al. (2017).

- 94 2.2 Methods
- 95 2.2.1 Bulk organic stable carbon isotopes
- 96 Sediment samples used for this study include those originally collected (ca. 28) by John et al.
- 97 (2008). In addition, new samples (ca. 27) were collected from the upper Paleocene for organic C

98 isotopic analyses ($\delta^{13}C_{org}$) to better establish pre-PETM baseline. Samples were analyzed in the

- 99 UCSC Stable Isotope Laboratory using a CE instruments NC2500 elemental analyzer coupled
- 100 with Thermo Scientific Delta Plus XP iRMS via a Thermo-Scientific Conflo III. All samples
- 101 were calibrated with VPDB (Vienna PeeDee Belemnite) for δ^{13} C and AIR for δ^{15} N against an in-
- 102 house gelatin standard reference material (PUGel). Analytical reproducibility precision is ±
- 103 0.1 ‰ for $\delta^{13}C$ and ± 0.2 ‰ for $\delta^{15}N$.

104 2.2.2 Grain Size analyses

105 Particle size was measured by laser diffraction using Beckman Coulter with Polarization

106 Intensity Differential Scatter (PIDS) housed at UCSC (see supplemental information). For each

sample, 2 to 5 mg of bulk sediment was powdered and through a 2-mm sieve following the

108 protocols in Blott et al., (2004). A total of 39 samples were measured, each in duplicate or

109 triplicate to ensure reproducibility.

110 2.2.3 Clay Assemblages analyses

111 Sample preparation followed a slightly modified version of Kemp et al., (2016). Roughly 5 to 10

g of sediment was powdered in a pestle and mortar and then placed in a Calgon (Sodium

113 hexametaphosphate) solution on a shaker table for 72 hours. Samples were sorted through a 63

114 μ m sieve while collecting the fluid with the <63 μ m fraction. The collected fluid and suspended

115 fine fraction (< 63 μ m) were allowed to settle for a period determined by Stokes' Law to keep <

- 116 2μ m size clay particles remaining in suspension. The fluid was then decanted and dried in the
- 117 oven at 40°C. Approximately 150 mg clay of each sample were used to prepared oriented mounts
- 118 for X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis. A total of 38 clay samples were prepared from the Lodo
- 119 Formation. The sample residues were measured on a Philips 3040/60 X'pert Pro X-ray
- 120 diffraction instrument at UCSC. Clay species (i.e., Smectite, Ilite, Kaolinite, Chlorite) were
- 121 identified based on peak positions and intensities representing each clay mineral.

122 2.2.4 Leaf wax distribution and carbon/hydrogen isotopic composition

123 Sediment extraction, compound isolation, and compound-specific isotope measurements were

- 124 conducted following Tipple et al. (2011). Briefly, sediments were freeze-dried, powdered (~500
- 125 g), and extracted with dichloromethane (DCM): methanol (2:1, v/v) using a Soxhlet extractor.

Total lipid extracts were concentrated and then separated by column chromatography using silica 126 gel. N-alkanes were further purified from cyclic and branched alkanes using urea adduction 127 128 following Wakeham and Pease (2004). N-alkane abundances were determined using gas chromatograph (GC) with a flame ionization detector (FID). Isotope analyses were then 129 performed using a GC coupled to an iRMS interfaced with a GC-C III combustion system or a 130 High Temperature Conversion system for δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H analyses, respectively. 59 samples were 131 processed with a fused silica, DB-5 phase column (30 m \times 0.25 mm I.D., 0.25 μ m film 132 thickness) with helium as the carrier at a flow of 1.5ml/min. GC oven temperature program was 133 60-320°C @ 5°C/min and isothermal for 30 min. A Thermo Trace MS was used for detection 134 with the mass spec scanning from 50-800 m/z or exclusively m/z of 191, 217, 218, 370, 372, 135 386, and 400 for single ion monitoring. Biomarkers were identified by elution time and mass 136 spectra of in-house petroleum standards with published biomarker distributions (Peters et al., 137

138 2005).

139 δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H values are expressed relative to Vienna Pee Dee belemnite (VPDB) and Vienna

140 Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW). Individual *n*-alkane isotope ratios were corrected to *n*-

141 alkane reference materials (for δ^{13} C, C₂₀, C₂₅, C₂₇, C₃₀, and C₃₈ of known isotopic ratio and for

142 δ^2 H, "Mix A" from Arndt Schimmelmann, Indiana University) analyzed daily at several

143 concentrations. In addition, H₂ reference gas of known isotopic composition was pulsed between

sample *n*-alkane peaks to confirm if normalizations were appropriate. Standard deviations (SD)

145 of *n*-alkane reference materials were $\pm 0.6\%$ for δ^{13} C and $\pm 6\%$ for δ^{2} H.

146 2.2.5 Earth System Models

Climate simulations from two models were used in this paper for (1) comparison with leaf wax 147 proxy data and (2) extreme events analyses. (1) Water isotope-enabled Community Earth System 148 Model version 1.2 (iCESM1.2) simulates changes in climate and water isotopic composition 149 during the PETM (Zhu et al., 2020) with a horizontal resolution of 1.9×2.5° in atmosphere and 150 land, and a nominal 1 degree in the ocean and sea ice components. Water isotope capabilities 151 have been incorporated into all the components of CESM 1.2 (Brady et al., 2019), which include 152 153 the Community Atmosphere Model, version 5 (CAM5) for the atmosphere, the Parallel Ocean 154 Program, version 2 (POP2) for the ocean, the Community Land Model, version 4 (CLM4) for the 155 land, River Transport Model (RTM) for river flow, and Community Ice Code, version 4 for sea

ice. All simulations were run with the identical boundary conditions (including early Eocene 156 paleogeography, land-sea mask, vegetation distribution, and pre-industrial (PI) non-CO₂ 157 158 greenhouse gas concentrations, soil properties, natural aerosol emissions, solar constant and orbital parameters) following the DeepMIP protocol (Lunt et al., 2017) and differ only in 159 atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Crucially, the models with reduced latitudinal temperature 160 161 gradients (e.g., GFDL, CESM) more closely reproduce proxy-derived precipitation estimates and other key climate metrics (Cramwinckel et al., 2023). Increased climate sensitivity with warming 162 and cloud feedback in CESM1.2 over earlier models improved water vapor sensitivity. (2) Using 163 the same CESM1.2 framework, high resolution (0.25°) simulations were conducted with forced 164 sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and active atmosphere and land components (CAM5, CLM4). 165 RTM was run at 1° resolution, and forced SST were calculated from consistent 2° fully coupled 166 PETM simulations (see details in Rush et al., 2021 and reference therein). The much higher 167 horizontal resolution in the atmosphere enables improved simulation of the extreme events. 168 169 Hourly, daily (CAM5), and monthly (iCESM1.2) temporal resolution precipitation outputs from both sets of climate simulations were utilized in this paper, with 100 years taken from the 170 171 equilibrated iCESM1.2 simulations, and 15 years from the forced SST high resolution CAM5 simulations. 172

173

174 3 Results

175 3.1 Bulk organic and *n*-alkane stable carbon isotopes

A carbon isotope excursion is present in both bulk organic (Fig. 2a) and carbonate based δ^{13} C 176 records (John et al., 2008) across the P-E boundary, marking the PETM onset of the Lodo 177 section. The terrestrial leaf wax *n*-alkane records all capture the carbon isotope excursion (CIE) 178 179 with a pattern that roughly parallels the other published records (i.e., planktonic foraminifera) (John et al., 2008), though is much less noisy than the bulk δ^{13} Corg record, not unexpected given 180 the potentially variable composition of the bulk organic matter. The magnitude of the $\Delta \delta^{13}C_{n-1}$ 181 alkane is roughly -4‰ (average of n-C₂₇, n-C₂₉, n-C₃₁) at the onset of the CIE, followed by a 182 183 gradual recovery that is truncated at the disconformity between 20.3m and 23.5m (coincides with 184 nannofossil biozone boundary NP10 and NP11), thus marking the top of the PETM body (Fig. 2a). The disconformity coincides with a global sea level regression (John et al., 2008). Following 185 the recovery, above the disconformity, the mean $\delta^{13}C_{n-alkane}$ is depleted relative to the pre-PETM 186

- 187 baseline as is observed in some other PETM sections (Cui et al., 2021; Garel et al., 2013;
- 188 Hasegawa et al., 2006).



Figure 2. Terrestrial higher plant leaf wax *n*-alkane δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H records for the Lodo Gulch section, Central California. The shaded area represents the bounds of the CIE/PETM (a) bulk organic carbon isotope record. (b,c) leaf wax compound specific carbon/hydrogen isotope records in *n*-C₂₇ (yellow square), *n*-C₂₉ (red closed circle), *n*-C₃₁ (blue triangle), (d) *n*-alkane carbon preference indices (CPI).

196 3.2 Hydrogen isotopes

197 The leaf wax $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ values range from -150 to -213‰ over the entire sampled section that

has an initial decrease of 25‰ (from -150 to -175‰ in C_{29}) just prior to the CIE onset and then

199 followed by a slight rise (~6 ‰) right after the onset. The relatively invariable $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ through

- 200 the PETM is punctuated with two brief intervals of more negative values (-202‰ at 6.26m and -
- 201 213‰ at 22m). The second larger anomaly coincides with the disconformity (related to local sea
- level regression). The post-PETM $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ values are on average lower than for the upper
- 203 Paleocene/PETM, although analytical errors may bias the values. Given the limited number of
- samples to establish a baseline for the upper Paleocene, the significance of the pre (and post CIE)
- shifts/anomalies in $\delta^2 H_{u-alkane}$ should be considered with some caution. Several other sections do

show pre-CIE shifts, both positive and negative, and typically an enrichment with the CIE

207 (Handley et al., 2008, 2011; Jaramillo et al., 2010; Tipple et al., 2011). Such minor changes

208 likely reflect unconstrained orbital influences on regional precipitation (Rush et al., 2021;

209 Campbell et al., 2024), especially considering the variable direction of change from location to

- 210 location.
- 211

212 3.3 Clay assemblage and grain size

Clay assemblages and particle grain size should to some extent be influenced by regional
hydroclimate. At Lodo, the clay assemblages (Fig. 3) are dominated by smectite throughout. The

215 minor clay components illite and chlorite show several spikes relative to smectite within the

216 lower (8 to 10 m) and upper CIE (\sim 19 m), whereas the ratio of kaolinite gradually increases (0.5

to 1.5) only over the upper portion of the CIE (10 to 20 m). A delayed rise in kaolinite has also

218 been observed in a few other PETM sections whereas some show an immediate rise (Tateo,

2020; Gibson et al., 2000). The smectite concentration and kaolinite/smectite ratio remain high in
the post-PETM interval. The late Paleocene, with relative coarse sandy size, shows slight spikes
of kaolinite associated with other minerals. Grain size, largely silt and clay, shows a distinct shift
toward finer fractions (i.e., clay) with the onset of the CIE (Fig. 3e).

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Figure 3. Integrated C isotope and clay assemblage records for the Lodo Gulch section, central California (a) bulk organic carbon isotope, (b,c,d,e) clay assemblage ratios, (e) decreasing mean particle size (D50: 50% of the total particle size in sediments) corresponds to CIE onset.

229 3.4 Earth system model simulations

230 We obtained and processed temperature and precipitation output from two community earth system/climate models: the isotope-enabled iCESM1.2 and high-resolution CAM5 models (daily 231 precipitation over 15 years) forced by a range of greenhouse conditions (1x,3x,6x,9x pCO₂ pre-232 industrial), both with Eocene paleogeography. For comparisons with observations, we used 233 output from the 3x to $6x pCO_2$ simulations which best replicated the observed SST (Δ SST) for 234 the pre-PETM and PETM (Zhu et al., 2020). Overall, monthly winter precipitation for the study 235 region decreases ($\sim 30\%$) during the PETM in both simulations with a slight increase in the 236 summer (Fig. 4,5). CAM5 output shows a modest decrease in mean annual precipitation with 237 significant seasonal shifts during the PETM (Fig. 5a). Seasonal changes of monthly averaged 238 239 δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H from mean monthly precipitation in iCESM1.2 of central California are consistent with CAM5. On average the $\delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$ increases by ca. 5-10 ‰ from pre-PETM to PETM, 240 241 especially in the winter/spring, with a smaller shift in summer/fall (1~2 ‰) (Fig 4. a,b,c). The Extreme value index (ξ), a representation of the distribution of exceedance right tail 242 (supplemental information), shows a small but statistically robust increase in wet extremes of 243 244 winter (DJF) with a significant increase in summer (JJA) during the PETM (Fig. 5b).



Figure 4. Seasonal and monthly meteoric precipitation amounts (mm/day) and H-isotopic
composition for the North Pacific/Western N. America as simulated with the iCESM1.2 (Zhu et

- al., 2020) under pre-PETM (3x in black) and PETM (6x in red) pCO₂ forcing. Panels (a) and (b)
- show $\Delta \delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$ between pre-PETM (3x) and PETM (6x) in winter (DJF) and summer (JJA).
- 250 Panel (c) shows the annual seasonal cycle of $\delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$ for central California (pre-PETM in black,
- 251 PETM in red). Mean daily precipitation rate difference for (d) winter and (e) summer between
- 252 pre-PETM (3x) and PETM (6x). Panel (f) shows the annual seasonal cycle of daily precipitation
- rate for central California. Values represent the area-weighted average over $4^{\circ} \times 4^{\circ}$ box bounding
- the study site.



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Figure 5. High resolution CAM5 model output (Shields et al., 2021) of (a) mean monthly precipitation for central California over 15 model years for the Late Paleocene/LP under low pCO_2 (680 ppmv) and for the PETM under high pCO_2 (1590ppmv). (b) Extreme value index (ξ) comparison of mean monthly precipitation in winter and summer of central California region based on the CAM5 precipitation outputs.

262 **4 Discussion**



In all model simulations of the PETM forced with higher pCO_2 (e.g., 3x to 6x pre-industrial), the

265 hydrological cycle intensifies as manifested by increases in global mean precipitation and

266 meridional vapor transport (Kiehl and Shields, 2013; Kiehl et al., 2018; Carmichael et al., 2016;

- 267 Zhu et al., 2020). Regionally however, the magnitude and even the sign of precipitation change
- 268 can differ considerably from global means (Carmichael et al., 2016, 2017). This is most evident
- 269 in the latest low and high-resolution model simulations of the PETM (Zhu et al, 2020; Shields et
- al., 2021). For central California, the simulations yield an overall decline in mean annual
- 271 precipitation mainly due to a notable decline in winter precipitation with only a slight increase in
- summer (Fig. 4). This pattern is produced by both the water isotope-enabled iCESM1.2 and the

- higher resolution CAM5 with an overall shift into lower amplitude seasonal cycles (i.e., drier
- winter/spring and a slightly wetter summer) (Fig. 4, 5). This seasonal wet-dry shift appears to be
- driven in part by a pronounced northward shift of atmospheric rivers (ARs) in winter along the
- 276 North American Pacific coastline (Shields et al., 2021). As ARs deliver most of the winter
- 277 precipitation to the mid-latitude Pacific coast, less frequent occurrences result in drier winters
- during the PETM. Moreover, the extreme value index (ξ) shows a small but statistically robust
- 279 increase in winter (DF) wet extremes with a significant increase in the probability of summer
- 280 (JJA) wet exceedance during PETM (Fig. 5b). The latter might be due to elevated tropical storm
- activity along the Pacific coast during PETM (Fig. S7; Kiehl et al., 2021).
- 282 4.2 Hydroclimate response from observations.
- 4.2.1 Sedimentation rate, clay assemblages and grain size distribution
- Arguably, the collection of observations from Lodo (i.e, sediment flux, clay assemblages, and 284 285 leaf wax δ^2 H isotopes), within limitations, appear to be mostly consistent with the model output. Starting with siliciclastic sedimentation, rates should be highly susceptible to a major shift in 286 hydrologic conditions as changes in the seasonality of precipitation (along with vegetative cover) 287 would impact rates of erosion and sediment transport. The coarse resolution of stratigraphic 288 control at Lodo does limit the ability to constrain changes in sedimentation rates in detail. 289 However, just considering the thickness of the CIE (~10 m), one could argue for a shift toward 290 291 higher seasonality of precipitation with overall drier conditions as suggested by John et al., (2008). 292
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The other constraints on regional precipitation would also support a shift toward drier conditions. 294 295 For example, an increase in the relative abundance of kaolinite fluxes has been widely observed across the CIE onset in many PETM sections from mid to high latitudes (Tateo, 2020; Gibson et 296 297 al., 2000) and interpreted as evidence of a major mode shift in local hydroclimates. In contrast, the clay mineralogy (Fig. 3) for the Lodo Formation is dominated mainly by smectite at the onset 298 299 of the PETM, consistent with seasonal wet/dry cycles under warm conditions (Gibson et al., 2000). A subtle increase in the kaolinite/smectite could be interpreted as evidence of higher 300 301 humidity (Gibson et al., 2000). However, the skewed grain size distribution of clay sediments

around 8 m coinciding with illite/smectite peaks (Fig. 3e and S1) indicate higher fluvial velocity
and increased erosion as observed elsewhere (Chen et al., 2018; Foreman et al., 2012; Foreman,
2014). For example, along the mid-Atlantic margin it appears the kaolinite might have been
exhumed from local Cretaceous laterites (Lyons et al., 2019). The regionally enhanced physical
weathering and erosion could be related to an increase in the frequency of episodic wet/dry
extremes during the PETM as simulated by models.

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309 4.2.2 Precipitation and Leaf wax $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$

The Lodo leaf wax $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ record at first glance is somewhat equivocal in terms of the 310 response of local hydroclimate. In theory, terrestrial higher plant $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ should provide 311 insight into changes in regional precipitation amounts/source, particularly major mode shifts 312 (Jaramillo et al., 2010; Pagani et al., 2006; Tipple et al., 2011). In some PETM records, $\delta^2 H_{n-1}$ 313 alkane significantly increases, consistent with the effects of higher T on water isotope 314 fractionation. For example, in the Arctic, $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ records show a positive excursion of 55% at 315 CIE onset, consistent with higher T, a reduced meridional temperature gradient and decreasing 316 isotope distillation during vapor transport (Pagani et al., 2006). However, there are notable 317 exceptions. In some subtropical/mid-latitude sites, $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ decreases (ca ~20‰) across the 318 onset of PETM (Handley et al., 2008, 2011; Jaramillo et al., 2010; Tipple et al., 2011). In 319 comparison, Lodo $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ displays a comparatively muted response, showing a slight ²H 320 enrichment in the main body PETM followed by several anomalous shifts toward more negative 321 322 values (Fig. 2c).

323

Given the robust evidence for mode shifts in hydroclimate elsewhere during the PETM, does the 324 relatively stable Lodo $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ record necessarily support a local/regional stable hydroclimate 325 (i.e., in conflict with the modeling and other observations)? As H-isotope fractionation in plants 326 327 is related to photosynthetic pathways, source water availability, and atmospheric humidity 328 (Sachse et al., 2012; Tipple et al., 2015), it is possible that local shifts in meteoric water isotope composition were offset by another influencing factor(s). Regarding photosynthetic pathways, 329 along the west coast of North America, no detailed records of vegetation response have been 330 331 generated for the PETM. Still, for the late Paleocene and early Eocene intervals, Korasidis et al.

332 (2022) found little deviation in the Koppen-Geiger climate type (i.e., Mediterranean) within the

333 central California region. This evidence along with the lack of change in *n*-alkane average chain 334 length (ACL) in the Lodo section (Fig S5) would suggest no major changes in vegetation 335 assemblages during the PETM. Another factor, reworking of Paleocene terrestrial organic matter (e.g., Tipple et al., 2011), could possibly dampen of isotopic *n*-alkane signals at Lodo, although 336 the CPI and the leaf wax carbon isotopes would suggest minimal reworking of the *n*-alkanes, as 337 338 opposed to other coastal PETM sites where the evidence for reworking is robust (e.g., Lyons et al., 2019; Hollingsworth et al., 2024). As such, if we assume the $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ record reflects only 339 on changes in local meteoric waters, the observed modest change of $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ values at Lodo 340 could be interpreted in several ways in terms of T-related changes on isotope fractionation that 341 342 were offset by changes in dominant season of precipitation, and/or vapor sources and distance of transport. For example, a shift in precipitation between winter and late summer/fall could offset 343 344 the effects of warming assuming a shift from a proximal (north or central Pacific) to a more distal (Gulf of Mexico) source of vapor (Hu and Dominguez, 2015). At ground level, stronger 345 evapo-transpiration during biosynthesis can isotopically be offset by external water source 346 availability (i.e. seasonal precipitation). Local/regional ground water table variations caused by 347 hydrological change would also affect the source water-use efficiency of plants since surface 348 349 water tends to be more depleted in some perennial species after intense storms in the groundwater (Hou et al., 2008; Krishnan et al., 2014). Hydrogen isotope fractionation in plants 350 can also be biased by seasonal shift in regional vegetation growth regime. For example, leaf wax 351 lipids from terrestrial plants usually record hydrological conditions earlier in the season rather 352 353 than fully integrating the entire growing season (Hou et al., 2008; Tipple et al., 2013). Finally, episodic extremes in precipitation may dominate the hydrogen isotopic composition of the leaf 354 wax (Krishnan et al., 2014). If soil water is derived mainly from extreme events during the 355 growth season, the lack of a major shift in the Lodo $\delta^2 H_{n-alkane}$ record with the onset of the PETM 356 could reflect a combination of more ²H-depleted precipitation delivered by seasonal storms offset 357 by warming induced ²H-enrichment in leaf water. 358

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360 4.3 Comparison of leaf water and modeled δ^2 H

361 Assuming leaf wax δ^2 H is primarily influenced by local meteoric water, how does the seasonal

362 distribution of precipitation influence the bulk signal? In iCESM1.2 simulations with increasing

363 pCO_2 (i.e., 3x to 6x pre-industry) and SST, the seasonal shifts in δ^2 H of mean monthly

precipitation from pre-PETM to PETM is significant. During the winter, as precipitation amounts 364 365 decline, $\delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$ increases by 10% while decreasing by ~1 to 5% during late summer/fall in central California (Fig. 4). To estimate how this seasonal change of $\delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$ and precipitation 366 367 amount influences leaf water $\delta^2 H$, we applied a leaf wax proxy model (supplemental information) which computes the combined effects of changes in seasonal precipitation and 368 growing season length. The model shows leaf water δ^2 H enriched ca. 4 to 7‰ from pre-PETM to 369 370 PETM. Arguably, this would be consistent with minor ~6‰ enrichment observed in the Lodo record at the onset of the PETM. We also examined other sites for comparison of the predicted 371 leaf water differences from pre-PETM to PETM with the fossil leaf wax $\Delta\delta^2$ H (see supplemental 372 373 information) and find a similar pattern in other mid-latitude sites. Other factors to consider 374 include precipitation source waters and a shift of a mixing endmember between proximal and distal sources of water in the coast. For example, with a summer shift of source water from the 375 Pacific to subtropics (i.e., summer monsoons), the effect of increasing distance and distillation 376 377 would isotopically deplete vapor (Hu and Dominguez, 2015), thus offsetting the temperature related enrichment of local $\delta^2 H_{\text{precip}}$. In addition, infrequent but high intensity tropical cyclones 378 during the PETM (Kiehl et al., 2021) would tend to deliver relatively depleted precipitation (i.e., 379 a more negative δ^2 H) during summer months. 380

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Finally, a related record that might indirectly reflect on precipitation amount (i.e., atmospheric 382 humidity) is the magnitude of the CIE recorded by leaf wax $\delta^{13}C_{n-alkane}$. Recalcitrant higher 383 plants leaf wax *n*-alkane carbon isotope ratios (n>25 with odd-over-even preference) reflect 384 mainly carbon source (Diefendorf et al., 2010). However, photosynthetic carbon isotope 385 fractionation (Δ_p) is sensitive to atmospheric pCO₂ variations, generally increasing with rising 386 concentrations assuming a constant photosynthetic fractionation factor and humidity (Diefendorf 387 et al., 2010). The $\delta^{13}C_{n-alkane}$ of Lodo section displays a sharp negative shift of ca. 4 % (average 388 of n-C₂₇, n-C₂₉, n-C₃₁) across the onset of CIE (Fig. 2b), which is consistent with global mean 389 atmospheric CIE (Sluijs and Dickens, 2012) but generally smaller than observed in other leaf 390 wax records (Handley et al., 2008, 2012; Jaramillo et al., 2010; Pagani et al., 2006; Tipple et al., 391 2011). The smaller $\delta^{13}C_{n-alkane}$ CIE recorded in Lodo would be consistent with a reduction in 392 393 local humidity which should reduce the magnitude of Δ_p during photosynthetic carbon fixation. 394

395 Summary and Conclusions

396	Many sections globally exhibit evidence, often striking, of significant shifts in local hydroclimate
397	at the onset of the PETM consistent with model simulations (e.g., 2x CO ₂). These same models
398	also simulate an overall decrease in winter precipitation for the central California coast due in
399	large part to a reduction in AR frequency (Shields et al., 2021). While not as striking, the
400	collection of observations from the central California Lodo Gulch Section would support a
401	modest reduction in precipitation (i.e. MAP) during the PETM along with the possibility of an
402	increase in the frequency of extreme precipitation events. This transition toward greater aridity
403	and precipitation extremes is not unlike the forecasts for much of California over the coming
404	centuries due to anthropogenic warming.
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407	Data availability. Data tables of clay assemblages, grain size, organic carbon isotopes and leaf
408	wax <i>n</i> -arkane stable isotopes will be available via the FANGAEA repository.
410	Author contribution. JCZ conceived the project design, acquired funding and provided overall
411	supervision. XZ conducted stable isotope measurements, clay mineralogy, grain size analyses
412	and iCESM/CAM5model output analyses. Leaf wax <i>n</i> -alkane carbon and hydrogen isotope
413	measurements were performed by BJT. JBN conducted leaf wax proxy model experiments. CAS
414	and WDR contributed to processing CAM model output. This paper was prepared by XZ with all
415 416	authors contribution to the review and editing of the manuscript.
417	Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
418	
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