DECLINING ATMOSPHERIC CO₂ DURING THE LATE MIDDLE EOCENE CLIMATE TRANSITION

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ABSTRACT. The transition from the extreme greenhouse of the early Paleogene $(\sim 52$ Ma) to the present-day icehouse is the most prominent change in Earth's Cenozoic climate history. During the late Middle Eocene climate transition (42-38 Ma), which preceded the onset of long-lived, continental-scale ice sheets, there is concordant evidence for brief pulses (<1 m.y. in length) of global warmth and ice sheet growth but few constraints on atmospheric CO₂. Here we estimate the concentration of atmospheric CO₂ during this critical interval using stomatal indices of fossil Metasequoia needles from ten levels in an exceptionally well-preserved core from the Giraffe kimberlite locality in northwestern Canada. Reconstructed CO₂ concentrations are mainly between 700 to 1000 ppm, but include a secular decline to 450 ppm towards the top of the investigated section. Because the CO₂ threshold for nucleating continental ice sheets at this time was \sim 500 to 750 ppm, the CO₂ decline is compatible with a rapid (<10⁴ yrs) transition from warm, largely ice-free conditions to cooler climates with ice sheets. These fossils provide direct evidence that high-latitude deciduous forests thrived in the geological past under CO₂ concentrations that will likely be reached within the 21st century (500-1000 ppm).

Key words: Paleoclimate, carbon dioxide, stomata, Eocene, kimberlite, Metase-quoia

INTRODUCTION

Paleotemperature (Zachos and others, 2001; Tripati and others, 2005; Edgar and others, 2007; Burgess and others, 2008; Bohaty and others, 2009; Eldrett and others, 2009) and glacial sediment (Ehrmann and Mackensen, 1992; Eldrett and others, 2007; St. John, 2008; Tripati and others, 2008; Stickley and others, 2009) records demonstrate that the inception of the current icehouse climate mode was not strictly coincident with the Eocene-Oligocene boundary (33.9 Ma); instead, the Earth "staggered" into the boundary, punctuated by short-lived (<1 m.y.) warm and cool phases (fig. 1). The best documentation of these climate flickers come from the late Middle Eocene climate transition (42-38 Ma). Multiple studies report a warm phase from \sim 41.9 to 41.7 Ma (Edgar and others, 2007; Burgess and others, 2008), followed by sharp cooling and ice sheet growth from \sim 41.6 to 40.6 Ma (Tripati and others, 2005; Edgar and others, 2007; Bohaty and others, 2009; Eldrett and others, 2009). Another warm phase ensued from 40.4 to 39.9 Ma (the Middle Eocene climatic optimum, MECO) (Bohaty and Zachos, 2003; Ivany and others, 2008; Bohaty and others, 2009), followed immediately by cooling and ice sheet growth (Tripati and others, 2005; Eldrett and others, 2009) (fig. 1). Together, these records suggest a pattern of repeated, rapid ($<10^5$ yrs) climate excursions during the late Middle Eocene. However, very little is known about atmospheric CO₂ during this time (Pagani and others,

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Fig. 1. Cenozoic evolution of CO₂. Estimates of atmospheric CO₂ are from proxies and a long-term carbon cycle model (GEOCARB III; Berner and Kothavala, 2001). The vertical green rectangle represents the range of CO₂ estimates presented here (compare with fig. 5B). The thin, vertical red and blue stripes correspond to anomalous warm and cool periods that are thought to be global (see INTRODUCTION). The temporal range of ice-rafted debris in the northern (Eldrett and others, 2007; St. John, 2008; Tripati and others, 2008; Stickley and others, 2009) and southern (Ehrmann and Mackensen, 1992) hemispheres, and the onset of large, long-lived ice sheets on Antarctica (Zachos and others, 2001) are noted along the top. Also noted along the right-hand axis is the range of predicted atmospheric CO₂ concentrations for 2100 AD (IPCC, 2007). For context, the horizontal dashed line represents the annually-integrated CO₂ concentration for 2009 AD at Mauna Loa, Hawaii (387 ppm) (Keeling and others, 2009). The paleosol carbonate (Cerling, 1992; Koch and others, 1992; Sinha and Stott, 1994; Ekart and others, 1999; Royer and others, 2001b; Nordt and others, 2002, 2003; Retallack, 2009b), phytoplankton (Freeman and Hayes, 1992; Stott, 1992; Pagani and others, 2005b), and stomatal (Kürschner and others, 1996, 2001, 2008; Retallack, 2001, 2009a; Royer and others, 2001b; Beerling and others, 2002; Greenwood and others, 2003; Royer, 2003; Smith and others, 2010) methods are the most robust and commonly-used paleo-CO₂ proxies (Royer and others, 2001a). The B/Ca (Tripati and others, 2009) and liverwort (Fletcher and others, 2008) methods are also included. The presence of nahcolite in the Green River Formation at 50.5 Ma places a basement CO_2 value of 1125 ppm (Lowenstein and Demicco, 2006); new mineral equilibria experiments suggest that this basement value may need to be revised downward (Jagniecki and others, 2010). The boron method is not reliable for pre-Pleistocene estimates (Lemarchand and others, 2000; Royer and others, 2001a; Pagani and others, 2005a; Klochko and others, 2006, 2009), although the study of Pearson and others (2009) is the first to address some of the concerns and is included here. Paleosol carbonate CO₂ estimates have been adjusted to reflect a soil CO2 concentration of 2000 ppm (Breecker and others, 2009). Estimates from the goethite proxy (Yapp and Poths, 1996; Yapp, 2004; Tabor and Yapp, 2005; Feng and Yapp, 2009) are excluded due to poor knowledge of some of the isotopic fractionation factors (Rustad and Zarzycki, 2008). For Retallack (2009a), where the solution of the solution of the solution and the solution (12000) and the solution (12000) and the solution (12000) and 10000 (12000 (12000) and 10000 (12000 (12000) and 10000 (12(2009). All dates are calibrated to the timescale of Gradstein and others (2004).



Fig. 2. Giraffe kimberlite locality and *Metasequoia* leaves. (A) Map of region. (B) Schematic stratigraphy of posteruptive sediments in the kimberlite diatreme. (C) Bedding plane of Giraffe core showing mummi-fied *M. occidentalis* leaves (scale bar = 1 cm). (D) Lithostratigraphy and chronology of sediments considered here. (E) Abaxial leaf cuticle of extant *M. glyptostroboides*. (F) Abaxial leaf cuticle of fossil *M. occidentalis* from Giraffe locality. E–F, epifluorescence microscopy (scale bars = 50 µm).

2005b; Royer, 2006) (fig. 1). In particular, high-resolution records from individual proxies are lacking, which limits a basic understanding of the paleoclimate system.

SEDIMENTARY ARCHIVE FROM A KIMBERLITE PIPE

We exploited the availability of well-preserved fossil *Metasequoia* foliage in a sediment core from the Giraffe kimberlite pipe in northern Canada (~62 °N paleolatitude; Torsvik and others, 2001, 2008) to improve constraints on the atmospheric CO₂ regime during the late Middle Eocene climate transition. The Giraffe site contains late Middle Eocene lacustrine and terrestrial sediments capped by Pleistocene glacial till and underlain by kimberlite emplaced 47.8 \pm 1.4 Ma (Wolfe and others, 2006) (fig. 2). The core contains 32.7 m of peat with abundant wood and foliage, underlain by 51.1 m of stratified lacustrine mudstone; these thicknesses include correction for the 47° drilling angle. The depositional environment of the peat is interpreted as an infilled maar crater with the immediate vicinity dominated by *Metasequoia* forests (Wolfe and others, 2006).

The Giraffe peat today is ~360 m a.s.l. and elevation of the peat during the late Middle Eocene was probably \leq 360 m a.s.l. This is because the protracted regional stability of the Slave Craton, into which the Giraffe kimberlite intruded, has resulted in near-zero diagenetic alteration of the fossil content, as testified by the outstanding preservation of the fossil remains, and by thermal maturation of the material (only slightly greater than that of modern peat) (Wolfe and others, 2006). Tectonic stability in this region is also supported by the lack of either post-Eocene faulting or Pleistocene glaciotectonism. Because of the low inferred paleoelevation for the Giraffe locality, we assumed equivalency between CO₂ partial pressure (Pa) and mole fraction (ppm) (Beerling and Royer, 2002).

The age of the peat is constrained by three fission-track dates from two calcalkaline rhyolitic tephra beds at the base of the peat (fig. 2; Wolfe and others, 2006) using both diameter-corrected (n = 2) and isothermal-plateau (n = 1) techniques (Westgate and others, 2006), which produce a weighted-mean age model of 37.84 ± 1.99 Ma. Our studied peat section (7.54 m) represents $\sim 10^4$ yrs assuming a similar accumulation rate as the peat-to-lignite grade, Middle Eocene *Metasequoia* swamp deposits at Napartulik on Axel Heiberg Island, Canada ($\sim 1 \text{ mm/yr}$) (Greenwood and Basinger, 1993; Kojima and others, 1998); for comparison, accumulation rates in uncompacted, submodern peat rarely exceed 10 mm/yr (for example, Goslar and others, 2005). The unusual physical setting of Giraffe, along with post-eruptive tectonic and thermal stability, has resulted in exceptional, Lagerstätte-quality preservation of both aquatic (Wolfe and others, 2006) and terrestrial fossils (fig. 2). This provides an opportunity to study, with very high temporal resolution, the evolution of a pre-Pleistocene terrestrial ecosystem.

THE STOMATAL APPROACH FOR RECONSTRUCTING PALEO-CO $_{\rm 2}$

The dominant foliage at Giraffe is Metasequoia occidentalis (Newberry) Chaney (fig. 2), a long-ranging taxon (Late Cretaceous to Pleistocene) that is probably conspecific with extant M. glyptostroboides Hu and Cheng based on similarity in morphology (LePage and others, 2005; Liu and Basinger, 2009), biochemistry (Yang and others, 2005), and inferred physiology (Vann, 2005). Here we use the fossil record of isolated cuticles from fossil *M. occidentalis* needles to develop a record of stomatal index (SI, the fraction of epidermal cells that are stomata) (Salisbury, 1927) for estimating paleo- CO_{2} concentrations during the late Middle Eocene. The stomatal method for quantitative paleo- CO_2 estimation is based on the species-specific, nonlinear inverse relationship between atmospheric CO₂ partial pressure and SI (Woodward and Bazzaz, 1988; Royer, 2001). The technique is underpinned by well-defined genetic (Gray and others, 2000; Casson and Gray, 2008), functional (Wynn, 2003; Kleidon, 2007; Konrad and others, 2008), and systemic signaling (Lake and others, 2001, 2002) pathways allowing leaves to respond to atmospheric CO₂ change. It has yielded multiple Pleistocene and Holocene CO₂ reconstructions that are verified against ice core CO₂ records (Rundgren and Beerling, 1999, 2003; McElwain and others, 2002; Rundgren and others, 2005). Cross-species comparisons for the mid-Miocene (\sim 15 Ma) indicate similar CO₉ estimates from fossil M. occidentalis to those from coeval Ginkgo cuticles and other CO₂ proxies (Royer and others, 2001b). A central advantage of adopting SI rather than any other measure of stomatal abundance or geometry is its relative insensitivity to water stress which affects epidermal cell size, and therefore stomatal density, but not the conversion of epidermal cells to stomata controlling SI (Salisbury, 1927; Kürschner, 1997; Royer, 2001; Sun and others, 2003).

METHODS

The Eocene fossil history of *Metasequoia* SI was calibrated by extending an earlier dataset (Royer and others, 2001b) with new information from field-grown *M. glyptostrobo*-



Fig. 3. Response of stomatal index (SI) to atmospheric CO_2 in *Metasequoia glyptostroboides*. (A) Calibration between SI and atmospheric CO_2 . Data presented here (open symbols) are combined with a previously published calibration (filled symbols) (Royer and others, 2001b). Leaves come from dated herbaria sheets (circles), field-grown trees (triangles), and growth chamber experiments (squares). Error bars: ± 1 s.e.m. Solid line: median Monte Carlo simulation (Beerling and others, 2009); dashed lines: 5 and 95 percentiles of 2000 functions fitted to pseudo-datasets. (B) Examples of probability density functions for estimates of atmospheric CO_2 from fossil *Metasequoia*. Solid line: mean SI = 9.85%; depth = 58.16 m. Short dashed line: mean SI = 9.29%; depth = 58.50 m. Long dashed line: mean SI = 7.73%; depth = 59.24 m; the truncation around 1500 ppm is an artifact of the calibration data (see calibration section for discussion). Gray arrows denote median CO_2 estimates.

ides trees experiencing present-day CO_2 concentration (384 ppm, *circa* 2007 AD) (Keeling and others, 2009), and young saplings grown in controlled environments at ambient and elevated CO_2 concentrations (600 and 1500 ppm) (fig. 3). Eight two-year old saplings were used for all measurements (Broken Arrow Nursery; Hamden, Connecticut, USA). First, fully-expanded leaves were sampled (384 ppm treatment). Plants were then randomly divided and placed into one of two independently-controlled growth chambers (Conviron CMP-5090; Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada). Environmental conditions in the chambers were identical except for CO_2 concentration (600 and 1500 ppm treatments). A 16 hour day length was simulated (440-600 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ irradiance, depending on height within canopy), with temperature linearly increasing from 19 °C to 25 °C over 8 hours and then declining in a similar fashion to 19 °C. Relative humidity was fixed at 75 percent.

For extant leaves, five fully-expanded leaves from each plant were collected from the outer portions of the canopies at a uniform height. For plants growing at high CO₂ (600 and 1500 ppm), harvesting occurred after six months of growth in the chambers and only leaves whose buds had developed in the experimental conditions were selected. For fossil leaves, five complete needles or needle fragments were sampled from each of 10 depths between 58.16 and 65.70 m in the Giraffe core (fig. 2).

A two-step maceration method was used to isolate the leaf cuticles. Leaves were first submerged in 70 percent nitric acid for one hour or until the leaf segments turned yellowish-brown. Cuticles were then rinsed three times with distilled water and submerged in 30 percent aqueous chromium trioxide for 48 hours. Cuticles were again rinsed and then, for extant leaves, stained with Safranin-O aqueous solution (0.25% m/v).

Cuticles were mounted dry for epifluorescence microscopy (420-490 nm filter) or in glycerol for transmitted light microscopy (Leica DMBL; Leica Microsystems). For each leaf, we measured the number of stomatal complexes (stomatal pore + bounding guard cells) and number of epidermal cells (including subsidiary cells) for four fields-of-view from the middle third (when available) of the abaxial surface of the needle. Non-stomatal areas along the midvein and leaf margin were avoided. For each field-of-view of the extant leaves, the guard cell length for ten stomatal complexes was also measured. All fields-of-view (0.1336 mm²) were photographed with a Leica DFC300FX digital camera and analyzed using Image-pro Plus software (v. 5.1; MediaCybernetics). The unit of replication for all statistics associated with experiments is the plant (n = 4 per CO₂ treatment), and with fossils is the leaf (n = 5 per level).

Our calibration (fig. 3A) is the most extensive for any plant lineage and was used in a new Monte Carlo-type simulation approach to develop a twice differentiated monotonic function describing the SI-CO₂ relationship that incorporates uncertainties in training set measurements and curve fitting procedures (Beerling and others, 2009). Atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were estimated 500 times for each SI value by inversion of the SI-CO₂ function using Monte Carlo simulations and assuming Gaussian error distribution for the SI error term; kernel density estimates of the probability density functions were then constructed from the results (Beerling and others, 2009) (fig. 3B). Low SI values produce more uncertain CO₂ estimates because they are in the less sensitive part of the calibration function (fig. 3A; for full discussion, see Beerling and others, 2009). Because the variance of fossil SI also affects estimated paleo-CO₂, reconstructed CO₂ values are not always strictly inversely proportional to SI. For example, a bed may have a higher reconstructed CO₂ value compared to another bed with a slightly lower SI if its variance is large.

Metasequoia leaves from Giraffe were also prepared for stable carbon isotopic $(\delta^{13}C)$ analysis. Whole *Metasequoia* leaf samples from each level (where sufficient numbers were available) were treated with 30 percent HCl for 24 h and rinsed several times in distilled water to remove carbonates prior to oven drying at 70 °C for 48 h. $\delta^{13}C$ measurements were made in triplicate on oven-dried, ground fossil needles with an isotopic ratio mass spectrometer (ANCA GSL preparation module, 20-20 stable isotope analyser, PDZ Europa, Cheshire, UK).

CALIBRATION OF METASQUOIA AND MIDDLE EOCENE RECORD OF CO_2

In our experiments, *Metasequoia* shows a significant decline in SI with rising CO₂ (fig. 4A; $F_{(2,77)} = 15.6$, P < 0.001, one-way ANOVA). This nonlinear relationship is similar to that observed in previous calibrations (fig. 3A), providing strong support for the sensitivity of stomatal development to CO₂ in *Metasequoia*.

Stomatal index is typically independent of stomatal size. It is possible that stomatal pore area per leaf area may reflect a closer functional relationship with atmospheric CO₂. However, stomatal pore index, calculated as stomatal density × the square of guard cell length (Sack and others, 2003), is invariant across our three CO₂ treatments (fig. 4A; $F_{(2,77)} = 0.005$, P = 0.995, one-way ANOVA). This invariance is due to the



Fig. 4. Relationships in calibration data between atmospheric CO_2 and stomatal dimensions. (A) CO_2 vs. stomatal index (squares; compare with open symbols in fig. 3A) and stomatal pore index (circles). Error bars, ± 1 s.e.m. (B) Inverse covariation between stomatal density and pore size. Symbols correspond to the three experiments: 384 ppm CO_2 (circles), 600 ppm CO_2 (squares) and 1500 ppm CO_2 (diamonds). Unit of replication is leaves. (C) CO_2 vs. stomatal number per length. Error bars, ± 1 s.e.m.

inverse covariation between stomatal density and stomatal size (fig. 4B) (Hetherington and Woodward, 2003; Franks and Beerling, 2009).

In some conifers, stomatal density and index are not considered appropriate CO_2 proxies because of the regular arrangement of their stomata into rows; instead, measurements related to stomatal number per length are advocated (Kouwenberg and



Fig. 5. CO_2 record from Giraffe fossil locality. (A) Stomatal index of fossil *Metasequoia* leaves. Error bars: ± 1 s.e.m. (B) Estimated median atmospheric CO_2 concentration from stomatal index using a Monte Carlo simulation (Beerling and others, 2009). Error bars: 5 and 95 percentiles of 2000 functions fitted to pseudo-datasets; horizontal dashed lines denote poorly-constrained upper limits (see calibration section for discussion). Vertical dashed line represents the annually-integrated CO_2 concentration for 2009 AD at Mauna Loa, Hawaii (387 ppm) (Keeling and others, 2009).

others, 2003). However, stomatal number per length did not inversely relate to CO_2 in our experiments (fig. 4C). Further, stomatal rows in *Metasequoia* are only semi-ordered (figs. 2E-F), making such measurements highly irreproducible. In summary, SI is the most appropriate stomatal measure for reconstructing paleo- CO_2 in *Metasequoia*.

At Giraffe, reconstructed atmospheric CO₂ concentrations range between ~700 to 1000 ppm for the bottom ~90 percent of the studied core (mean 5 and 95% percentiles = -378 and +636 ppm), before dropping sharply to 450 ppm towards the core top (mean 5 and 95% percentiles = -128 and +243 ppm) (fig. 5). Critically, the CO₂ drop from the lowermost eight levels in the core to the topmost two levels is statistically significant (P = 0.03, one-tailed z-test; within- and between-level variance combined by quadrature). The influence of water availability on our CO₂ reconstruction was likely minimal because the δ^{13} C of the leaves, a sensitive indicator of water availability (Farquhar and others, 1989), lacks covariance with stomatal density or SI (fig. 6).

We note that the mean SI at one level (59.24 m) is lower than what is captured in our calibration (compare fig. 3A with fig. 5A); as a result, the reconstructed CO_2 for this level is likely a minimum, with the upper limit poorly constrained. Similarly, the upper CO_2 constraints at several other levels are uncertain because their SI's are near the flat portion of the calibration (<8.7%). These caveats are important for a general understanding of paleo- CO_2 estimates from fossil leaves (Beerling and others, 2009; Smith and others, 2010); within the specific context of the current study, the caveats imply that we may have underestimated the magnitude of CO_2 decline through our section.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ICE AND HIGH-LATITUDE DECIDUOUS FORESTS

The CO₂ history from Giraffe agrees broadly with coeval estimates from other proxies and from geochemical modeling of the long-term carbon cycle (fig. 1). Collectively, atmospheric CO₂ estimates from the leading CO₂ proxies (IPCC, 2007) indicate values \sim 300 to 800 ppm during the Paleocene and early Eocene, rising to



Fig. 6. Relationship between the δ^{13} C of fossil *Metasequoia* leaves and their (A) stomatal index and (B) stomatal density. In both cases, the least-squares linear regression is not significant, suggesting that any potential water availability gradients in the Giraffe core did not significantly impact stomatal distributions in *Metasequoia* (see main text).

~700 to 1300 ppm during the remainder of the Eocene (fig. 1). Atmospheric CO₂ then declined towards values mostly <500 ppm with the onset of large-scale glaciation on Antarctica. Uncertainty in the absolute age control on our sequence precludes establishing a precise link between CO₂ and a single temperature excursion such as the MECO event (fig. 1). However, geological records (Pagani and others, 2005b; Royer, 2006; Pearson and others, 2009; Peters and others, 2010) and climate models (De-Conto and Pollard, 2003; Pollard and DeConto, 2005; DeConto and others, 2008) support a CO₂ threshold for triggering ice sheet growth during the mid-Cenozoic of ~500 to 750 ppm. Atmospheric CO₂ reconstructed from the Giraffe core spans this threshold, with the decline towards the core top being consistent with a rapid (<10⁴ yrs) transition from a largely ice-free Earth to one with at least some continental ice sheets. The tempo of our observed CO₂ drop broadly matches the tempo of observed temperature changes during the Middle Eocene climate transition (~10⁵ yrs; see INTRODUCTION).

Our CO_2 reconstruction is the first to be derived from sediments that also provide direct evidence for high-latitude deciduous forests. Our study highlights the possibility that productive, high-latitude forest ecosystems were maintained under modestly elevated CO_2 concentrations given a long-term (>10³ yrs) climate system response. Continued anthropogenic CO_2 emissions are raising Earth's CO_2 concentration towards the lower limit of CO_2 envelope reconstructed here (450 ppm) and will undoubtedly exceed it in the near future (IPCC, 2007). Observations at the northern limit of boreal forests indicate that migration of trees and shrubs into arctic tundra is already occurring (Sturm and others, 2001; Lloyd, 2005). Human-induced environmental change has the potential to reinstate boundary conditions comparable to those under which long-extinct polar deciduous forests arose.

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