itive SST anomalies over the tropical South Atlantic and Indian Oceans, as well as to El Niño-Southern Oscillation events (28). The heavy rains of 1961-1962 provide a modern analog for the abrupt, high-amplitude $\delta^{18}O_{diatom}$ minima. In November 1961, for example, the precipitation on the footslopes of Mt. Kenya exceeded 275% of normal (28) as a result of onshore flow from a large area of anomalously warm SSTs in the western Indian Ocean. Evaporation was also greatly reduced by dense cloud (29). A 145-year tree-ring study from Narok Mau, Kenya, confirms a 30 per mil decrease in mean δD , which is highly correlated with $\delta^{18}O(24)$ from 1953-1958 to 1959-1963 (30).

The importance of moisture balance in causing the $\delta^{18}O_{diatom}$ minima is supported by the pollen evidence for wetter and/or warmer conditions (Fig. 3). Notwithstanding a modest increase in plant cover, unusually heavy precipitation may have led to severe erosion of exposed volcanic soils on Mt. Kenya (31), resulting in the magnetic-susceptibility peaks. Our data suggest that anomalously heavy snowfall on the peaks of Mt. Kenya may contribute to the neoglacial ice advances dated >5.7 ka, 3.2 to 2.3 ka, and 1.3 to 1.2 ka (6). Lake-level curves from the East African-South Asian monsoon region (32, 33) support our climatic interpretation of the $\delta^{18}O_{diatom}$ data (Fig. 3), as does pollen evidence for generally wetter and warmer conditions in Kenya at ~ 6.8 ka (34). Environmental changes on Mt. Kenya are therefore symptomatic of the same climaticforcing mechanisms that affected low-altitude tropical areas.

We conclude that centennial- to millennial-scale fluctuations in the ¹⁸O content of diatom silica from alpine lakes on Mt. Kenya primarily reflect variations in moisture balance and cloud height, driven by SST anomalies. Hence, they provide a valuable new data source to supplement the sparse and rapidly deteriorating (7) isotopic archives in tropical glaciers.

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 $0.039x^2 + 24.747x + 524.2$, $r^2 = 0.994$, and for ST, $y = 0.00012x^3 + 0.071x^2 + 11.227x + 1041.2$, $r^2 = 0.996$, where x is core depth (cm) and y is calendar age before the present. The mud-water interface was not recovered, and ages above the youngest ¹⁴C date should be treated with caution.

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Paleobotanical Evidence for Near Present-Day Levels of Atmospheric CO₂ During Part of the Tertiary

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Understanding the link between the greenhouse gas carbon dioxide (CO_2) and Earth's temperature underpins much of paleoclimatology and our predictions of future global warming. Here, we use the inverse relationship between leaf stomatal indices and the partial pressure of CO_2 in modern *Ginkgo biloba* and *Metasequoia glyptostroboides* to develop a CO_2 reconstruction based on fossil *Ginkgo* and *Metasequoia* cuticles for the middle Paleocene to early Eocene and middle Miocene. Our reconstruction indicates that CO_2 remained between 300 and 450 parts per million by volume for these intervals with the exception of a single high estimate near the Paleocene/Eocene boundary. These results suggest that factors in addition to CO_2 are required to explain these past intervals of global warmth.

Atmospheric CO_2 concentration and temperature have been tightly correlated for the past four Pleistocene glacial-interglacial cycles (1). Various paleo- CO_2 proxy data (2, 3) and long-term geochemical carbon

cycle models (4-6) also suggest that CO₂temperature coupling has, in general, been maintained for the entire Phanerozoic (7). Recent CO₂ proxy data, however, indicate low CO₂ values during the mid-Miocene thermal maximum (8, 9), and results for the middle Paleocene to early Eocene, another interval of known global warmth relative to today, are not consistent, ranging from ~ 300 to 3000 parts per million by volume (ppmv) (2, 9). Here, we address this problem by developing and applying an alternative CO₂ proxy based on the inverse correlation between the partial pressure of atmospheric CO₂ and leaf stomatal index (SI), with the aim of reconstructing CO₂ for both intervals to determine its role in regulating global climate.

Most modern vascular C_3 plants show an inverse relationship between the partial pressure of atmospheric CO₂ and SI (10–

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Fig. 1. Training sets for (**A**) *Ginkgo biloba* (n = 40) and (**B**) *Metasequoia glyptostroboides* (n = 18). Thick black lines represent regressions (*Ginkgo: r² = 0.91, F(1,38) = 185, P < 0.001, SI = [CO₂ - 194.4]/[(0.16784) × CO₂ - 41.6]; <i>Metasequoia: r² = 0.85, F(1,16) = 41, P < 0.001, SI = [CO₂ - 274.5]/[(0.12373) × CO₂ - 35.3]*. Gray lines represent ±95% prediction intervals. Inset graphs show the linear portions of both response curves in greater detail. Stomatal index determined from herbarium sheets (\bullet), fresh samples from living trees (\bigcirc), and 6-(\blacktriangle) and 1-year-old (\triangle) saplings growing in CO₂-controlled greenhouses. Error bars represent standard errors.

12), a likely response for maximizing water-use efficiency (10). SI is calculated as: $SI(\%) = [SD/(SD + ED)] \times 100$, where a stoma is defined as the stomatal pore and two flanking guard cells, SD = stomatal density, and ED = non-stomatal epidermal cell density. Since SI normalizes for leaf expansion, it is largely independent of plant water stress, and is primarily a function of CO₂ (10, 12). This plant-atmosphere response therefore provides a reliable paleobotanical approach for estimating paleo-CO₂ levels from SI measurements on Quaternary (13) and pre-Quaternary fossil leaves (14). Because stomatal responses to CO₂ are generally species-specific (12), one is limited in paleo-reconstructions to species that are present both in the fossil record and living today. Fossils morphologically similar to living Ginkgo biloba and Metasequoia glyptostroboides extend back to the Early and Late Cretaceous, respectively, and many workers consider the living and fossil forms conspecific (15, 16). In this study, we use G. adiantoides and M. occidentalis, the forms most closely resembling G. biloba and M. glyptostroboides, and also G. gardneri, which has more prominent papillae and less sinuous upper epidermal cells than G. biloba (16).

Measurements of SI made on fossil Ginkgo and Metasequoia were calibrated with historical collections of G. biloba and M. glyptostroboides leaves from sites that developed during the anthropogenically driven CO₂ increase of the past 145 years and with saplings of G. biloba and M. glyptostroboides grown in CO₂-controlled greenhouses (17). These data show a strong linear reduction in SI for both species between 288 and 369 ppmv CO₂ and a nonlinear response at CO₂ concentrations above 370 ppmv (Fig. 1). Because SI responds to partial pressure, not concentration (11), the effects of elevation must be considered. All of the leaves measured for the training set grew at elevations <250m where concentration \cong partial pressure, so a correction is not needed. Both nonlinear regressions are highly significant (Fig. 1); however, a discontinuity exists for *Ginkgo* between the experimental results above 350 ppmv and the rest of the calibration set. Many species require more than one growing season for SI to adapt to high CO_2 (12), and so these experimental results likely represent maxima for a given CO_2 level. Nevertheless, due to this discontinuity as well as the small sample size and decreased sensitivity at high CO_2 for both *Ginkgo* and *Metasequoia*, paleo- CO_2 estimates >400 ppmv should be considered semi-quantitative.

To reconstruct atmospheric CO₂ changes, we measured the SI of fossil Ginkgo and Metasequoia cuticles from 24 localities in western North America and one from the Isle of Mull (Scotland), and then calibrated these data against the modern training set (Fig. 1) using inverse regression (18). Although not tightly constrained, the paleoelevations for all of the sites were probably <1000 m. This elevation difference could increase our estimates of CO₂ concentration by at most 10%, and so our conversion from partial pressure to concentration excludes any correction. Except for a single high CO₂ value near the Paleocene/Eocene boundary, all of our reconstructed CO₂ concentrations lie between 300 and 450 ppmv (Fig. 2 and Table 1). These contrast with two other Ginkgo-based CO₂ estimates for the late Paleocene and middle Miocene (19, 20) that are very high (4500 and 2100 ppmv, respectively).

We have *Metasequoia*-derived CO_2 estimates only from the warm interval of the middle Miocene, but these are similar to coeval estimates derived from *Ginkgo* cuticles. The convergence of these two independent estimates increases our confidence that both species are reliably recording paleoatmospheric CO_2 levels. In addition, the measured SI values from most sites fall well inside the region of high CO_2 sensitivity in the training sets (Fig. 1 and Table



Fig. 2. Reconstruction of paleo-CO₂ for the (A) middle Paleocene to early Eocene and (B) middle Miocene based on SI measurements from *Ginkgo* (\bigcirc) and *Metasequoia* (\triangle) fossil cuticles. Errors represent \pm 95% confidence intervals.

1), and the 95% confidence intervals (± 50 ppmv or less) are over an order of magnitude lower than the errors associated with early Tertiary CO₂ estimates from geo-

chemical models (4-6) and other proxies (2, 9). Furthermore, middle Paleocene to early Eocene CO₂ reconstructions based on pedogenic carbonate (2, 21) and marine



Fig. 3. Estimates of paleo-CO₂ concentration derived from a variety of methods and their corresponding model-determined temperature departures (Δ T) of global mean surface temperature (GMST) from present day for the (**A**) middle Paleocene to early Eocene and (**B**) middle Miocene. Paleo-GMST calculated from paleo-CO₂ estimates using the CO₂-temperature sensitivity study of Kothavala *et al.* (*32*). Present-day reference GMST calculated using the pre-industrial CO₂ value of 280 ppmv (14.7°C). The error range of GMST predicted from the geochemical modeling-based CO₂ predictions of (4) corresponds to the model's sensitivity analysis.

Table 1. Summary of fossil data. n = number of leaves measured for calculation of SI. A = south-central Alberta (Canada), BHB = Bighorn Basin (Wyoming and Montana, United States), M = Isle of Mull (United Kingdom), I = north-central Idaho (United States). Dashes indicate that no analyses were performed BOM = bulk organic matter, $\delta^{13}C_{om} = \delta^{13}C$ of organic matter. See (39) for $\delta^{13}C$ methodology.

Site	Location	Age (Ma)	n	SI (%)	CO ₂ (ppmv)	δ ¹³ C _{om} (V-PDB)
		Gi	inkgo			
Burbank	А	58.5	7	7.55	450	_
Joffre Bridge	А	58.5	5	7.96	391	_
SLW 0025	BHB	57.3	7	9.01	340	_
LJH 7132	BHB	56.4	5	8.75	348	-23.91
SLW 991	внв	55.9	5	10.97	314	_
SLW 992	BHB	55.9	8	10.80	316	-25.66
SLW 993	BHB	55.9	8	11.43	311	_
LJH 72141-1	BHB	55.8	12	10.63	317	-
SLW 9155	BHB	55.7	10	11.21	313	-29.80
SLW 9411	внв	55.6	8	11.50	311	-23.77
SLW 9434	BHB	55.4	7	12.23	307	-22.53
SLW 9715	BHB	55.3	12	8.23	371	-24.17
SLW 9050	BHB	55.3	5	12.18	308	-26.99
SLW 9936	внв	55.3	15	11.77	310	_
SLW 8612	BHB	55.3	7	12.41	307	_
Ardtun Head	M	55.2	13	6.54	798	-24.68
AR-2 (BOM)						-24.56
AR-6 (BOM)						-25.82
AR-8 (BOM)						-24.17
AR-10 (BOM)						-24.26
AR-15 (BOM)						-24.54
SLW 9812	BHB	55.1	22	8.53	356	-24.49
SLW 9915	BHB	54.8	8	8.83	345	-
SLW LB	внв	53.9	5	9.29	334	-
SLW H	BHB	53.5	9	10.22	321	-26.93
LJH 9915	BHB	53.4	15	9.38	332	-26.33
Juliaetta (P6)	I	16.5	14	8.14	377	-
		Meta	asequoia			
Clarkia (P33a)	I	15.3	6	11.59	307	-
Clarkia (P33b)	I	15.3	10	10.94	316	-
P37a	I	15.2	10	10.95	316	-

boron isotopes (9) show large changes in CO_2 (≥ 2000 ppmv) over geologically brief periods of time [<1 million years] (Fig. 3) that cannot be readily explained. In contrast, the highly constrained error ranges and consistency among near time-equivalent estimates suggest that our SI-derived CO_2 reconstruction is presently the most reliable, particularly for the middle Paleocene to early Eocene.

A period of rapid climatic warming $(\sim 2^{\circ}C \text{ global mean rise within } 10^4 \text{ years})$ that lasted 10⁵ years) near the Paleocene/ Eocene boundary has been extensively documented (22-25). Although the leading hypothesis for the cause of most of this warming is the rapid release of methane from marine gas hydrates and its subsequent oxidation to CO_2 in the atmosphere and ocean (25, 26), all previous attempts to resolve this possible atmospheric CO₂ spike have failed (23, 27, 28). Our single high CO₂ estimate is based on G. gardneri cuticle from Ardtun Head, Isle of Mull. Anomalously low $\delta^{13}C_{om}$ values (-30‰), an influx of the marine dinocyst Apectodinium, and a thermophyllic flora (including Caryapollenties veripites and Alnipollenites verus) occur in stratigraphically equivalent sediments elsewhere on Mull. Together, these indicate a possible correlation with a section of a Paris Basin borehole that has been calibrated to this event (29). At Ardtun Head, however, we failed to capture the negative carbon isotope excursion globally associated with this event, which ranges from 2.5% in the deep ocean (22, 25) to as much as 6‰ on land (23) (Table 1). Although the precise age of the Ardtun Head site remains uncertain, using a global carbon isotope mass balance model calibrated to Paleocene/Eocene conditions (30), our reconstructed CO₂ increase (500 ppmv) is consistent with a release of 2522 Gt of methane-derived carbon, a value close to the estimate (2600 Gt C) calculated to account for the marine carbon isotopic excursion using methane as the carbon source (31).

Carbon dioxide is an important greenhouse gas, and its effect on global mean surface temperature (GMST) can be quantified with general circulation models (GCMs) [e.g., (32)]. Using the model output of Kothavala et al. (32) we predicted GMST from our CO₂ results. The GCM used by Kothavala et al. is calibrated to the present day, which allows us to test the effect of CO₂ on GMST independent of any paleogeographic or vegetational changes. With the exception of the single value near the Paleocene/Eocene boundary, all predictions lie within 1.5°C of the pre-industrial GMST (Fig. 3). These predictions contrast sharply with most paleoclimatic interpretations for these time intervals. For example, based on a synthesis of global late Paleocene and early Eocene δ^{18} O-derived sea surface temperature data, Huber and Sloan (24) estimated that GMST was 3° to 4°C higher than today at this time, and δ^{18} Oderived temperature estimates for the mid-Miocene thermal maximum [17 to 14.5 million years ago (Ma)] indicate that deep and high-latitude surface ocean temperatures were as much as 6°C warmer than today (33)

As a cross-check on our results, we compared our GMST predictions with those based on a geochemical carbon cycle model and other CO₂ proxies for these same time periods. With the exception of the one CO_2 estimate by Retallack (19), there is very good agreement among the methods for the middle Miocene (Fig. 3), strongly suggesting that factors in addition to CO₂ are required to explain this brief warm period. In contrast, a large disagreement (10°C or greater) exists for the middle Paleocene to early Eocene (Fig. 3). This discrepancy is largely driven by the high CO₂ estimates derived from marine boron isotopes (9); however, this proxy is probably less accurate than the other methods (3, 34). Nevertheless, even if the boron-based predictions are discounted, a large range still exists among the remaining three methods. This is striking considering that many of the pedogenic carbonate-derived CO₂ estimates are based on the same sediments as our stomatal-based estimates (21); however, these estimates show a large temporal variability (-60 to 2040 ppmv) and are associated with relatively large error ranges (±500 ppmv). If our low SI-based temperature predictions are correct, additional factors such as paleogeography, enhanced meridional heat transport, and high latitude vegetation feedbacks are required to explain this warm period, and new constraints for CO₂ levels are established for middle Paleocene/early Eocene and middle Miocene GCMs [e.g., (35)]. Understanding the mechanisms of climate change will become increasingly important in the near future as atmospheric CO_2 levels climb to levels perhaps unprecedented for the last 60 My.

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- 18. Measurements of SI were made on fossil cuticles on each of 5 to 22 leaves per site (Table 1) using epifluorescence (for Ginkgo) and transmitted light (for Metasequoia) microscopy, with count replication and field sizes as in (17). Inverted regression for Ginkgo: $CO_2 = [1 - (0.1564) \times SI]/[0.00374 - (0.0005485) \times SI]$, $r^2 = 0.84$, F(1,38) = 91, P < 100054850.001; and for Metasequoia: $CO_2 = (SI - 6.672)/[(0.003883) \times SI - 0.02897]$, $r^2 = 0.98$, F(1,16) =336, P < 0.001. Standard errors in SI for fossil sites are \sim 0.20%. Fossil Ginkgo leaves preserved in environments that today host well-watered, open canopy forests (D. L. Royer, in preparation). Such conditions should minimize both the influence of confounding variables in the SI-CO₂ signal and the environmental differences between the training and fossil data sets. It is possible a species effect on SI exists between G. gardneri at Ardtun Head and G. adiantoides at the other sites; however, a difference in SI of 6 (Table 1) is highly unlikely based on studies of intrageneric SI variation in modern plants (12). All Bighorn Basin sites are dated using Age Model 2 of Wing et al. (38), while the Ardtun Head site is dated assuming it is stratigraphically near the latest Paleocene carbon isotope excursion (55.2 Ma using Age Model 2). For details of dating methods for the other sites. contact the corresponding author (D.L.R.). 19. G. J. Retallack, *Nature* **411**, 287 (2001).
- 20. These two CO_2 estimates are based upon small sample sizes (n = 4 cuticle fragments each) and an extrapolation of a training set calibrated only up to 560 ppmv.
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genic carbonate were collected, $\delta^{13}C_{cc}$ values, and CO_2 estimates (±~500 ppmv) are as follows: LJH 7132, SC 85 and 185, -7.95‰, 1185 ppmv; SLW 992, SC 92, -7.82‰, 2041 ppmv; SLW 9715, SC 22, -7.69‰, 1448 ppmv; SLW 9812, SC 4, -8.36‰, 1217 ppmv; SLW 826 (54.8 Ma, $\delta^{13}C_{om} = -28.65\%$), YPM 200+4m, -11.88‰, 1152 ppmv; SLW 882 (53.5 Ma, $\delta^{13}C_{om} =$ -27.71‰) and SLW H and LJH 9915, YPM 320 and D1217+10m, -11.96‰, 577 ppmv; SLW 8822 (52.8 Ma, $\delta^{13}C_{om} = -28.71\%$), Fern Q lower, - 10.01‰, 2034 ppmv.

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- 39. Stable carbon isotope analyses were conducted on Ginkgo cuticle fragments at all sites, as well as on bulk organic matter at Ardtun Head. Cuticle fragments were separated from host rock with either tweezers or by placing drops of 52% HF along the cuticle edges. Bulk organic matter was prepared by reacting finely ground host rock with 38% HCl for 6 hours, centrifuging, reacting with fresh HCl for an additional 24 hours, then repeating with 5:1 52% HF:38% HCl. Carbon dioxide was generated for isotopic analysis by combustion in sealed, evacuated VYCOR tubes at 910°C for 1 hour in the presence of CuO and Cu metal. After cryogenic distillation, CO₂ was analyzed on a gas source mass spectrometer. Data are reported relative to V-PDB. Replicate analyses of a laboratory gelatin standard analyzed with these samples had a standard deviation of 0.05% (n = 9).
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