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Magnitude of the carbon isotope excursion at the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum: The role of plant community change

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1 **Magnitude of the carbon isotope excursion at the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal**  
2 **Maximum: The role of plant community change**

3  
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13  
14 **ABSTRACT**

15 Carbon-isotope measurements ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) of leaf-wax *n*-alkanes from the Paleocene-Eocene  
16 Thermal Maximum (PETM) in the Bighorn Basin, Wyoming reveal a negative carbon  
17 isotope excursion (CIE) of 4-5‰, which is 1-2‰ larger than that observed in marine  
18 carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  records. Reconciling these records requires either that marine carbonates  
19 fail to record the full magnitude of the CIE or that the CIE in plants has been amplified  
20 relative to the marine. Amplification of the CIE has been proposed to result from an  
21 increase in available moisture that allowed terrestrial plants to increase  $^{13}\text{C}$ -  
22 discrimination during the PETM. Leaf physiognomy, paleopedology and hydrogen  
23 isotope ratios of leaf-wax lipids from the Bighorn Basin, however, all suggest that rather  
24 than a simple increase in available moisture, climate alternated between wet and dry  
25 during the PETM. Here we consider two other explanations and test them quantitatively  
26 with the carbon isotopic record of plant lipids. The “marine modification” hypothesis is  
27 that the marine carbonate record was modified by chemical changes at the PETM and that  
28 plant lipids record the true magnitude of the CIE. Using atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  
29 estimated from the lipid record, and equilibrium fractionation between  $\text{CO}_2$  and  
30 carbonate, we estimate the expected CIE for planktonic foraminifera to be 6‰. Instead,

31 the largest excursion observed is about 4‰. No mechanism for altering marine carbonate  
32 by 2‰ has been identified and we thus reject this explanation. The “plant community  
33 change” hypothesis is that major changes in floral composition during the PETM  
34 amplified the CIE observed in *n*-alkanes by 1-2‰ relative to marine carbonate. This  
35 effect could have been caused by a rapid transition from a mixed angiosperm/conifer  
36 flora to a purely angiosperm flora. The plant community change hypothesis is consistent  
37 with both the magnitude and pattern of CIE amplification among the different *n*-alkanes,  
38 and with data from fossil plants. This hypothesis predicts that the magnitude and pattern  
39 of amplification of CIEs among different *n*-alkanes will vary regionally and  
40 systematically depending on the extent of the replacement of conifers by angiosperms  
41 during the PETM.

42

43 **Keywords:** *n*-alkanes, plant lipids, carbon isotopes, hydrogen isotopes, Paleocene-  
44 Eocene Thermal Maximum, global warming

45

## 46 1. INTRODUCTION

47 The Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) was a period of abrupt (~10  
48 kyr onset), extreme (4-8°C) and short-lived (100-200 kyr) warming that occurred about  
49 55.8 million years ago (Farley and Eltgroth, 2003; Fricke and Wing, 2004; Kennett and  
50 Stott, 1991; Koch et al., 1992; Rohl et al., 2000; Sluijs et al., 2006; Zachos et al., 2006;  
51 Zachos et al., 2003) and significantly altered terrestrial and marine ecosystems. During  
52 this warming, the composition of plant communities in the Bighorn Basin, Wyoming  
53 changed radically, though largely transiently, partly by the immigration of species

54 formerly found only at lower latitudes (Wing et al., 2005). Vegetation in the Arctic also  
55 changed, as demonstrated by a temporary rise in angiosperm pollen and decline in  
56 gymnosperm and fern palynomorphs (Sluijs et al., 2006). Vertebrate faunas were  
57 strongly affected by immigrations that led to changes in taxonomic and trophic structure  
58 of communities and the appearance of modern mammals in North America (Beard and  
59 Dawson, 1999; Clyde and Gingerich, 1998; Gingerich, 2003). In the marine realm, the  
60 PETM is associated with a mass extinction of benthic foraminifera (Thomas, 1998),  
61 change in the composition, distribution and evolutionary rates of marine plankton  
62 (Crouch et al., 2001; Gibbs et al., 2006; Kelly, 2002), and profound ocean acidification  
63 (Zachos et al., 2005).

64         The PETM is marked by a large negative carbon isotope excursion (CIE) in  
65 terrestrial and marine carbonates and organic matter (Kennett and Stott, 1991; Koch et  
66 al., 1995; Koch et al., 1992; Magioncalda et al., 2004; Wing et al., 2005), reflecting a  
67 rapid release of  $^{13}\text{C}$ -depleted carbon into the ocean-atmosphere system. Several carbon  
68 sources have been proposed, including methane clathrates (Dickens et al., 1995), burning  
69 of peat and coal (Kurtz et al., 2003), volatile-rich comet (Kent et al., 2003), thermogenic  
70 methane (Svensen et al., 2004) and organic matter oxidation due to uplift of  
71 epicontinental seas (Higgins and Schrag, 2006). Shoaling of the lysocline in the global  
72 ocean, as indicated by dissolution of calcium carbonate in marine sediments, indicates the  
73 mass of carbon released was at least 4500 Gt (Zachos et al., 2005). This amount of  
74 carbon is comparable to the amount that would be released by burning the entire fossil  
75 fuel resource base (Metz et al., 2001).

76         Carbon in the ocean and atmosphere is well mixed on the time scale of the onset

77 of the PETM (~10 kyr), and in theory, biosphere signatures of this event would reveal an  
78 identical and synchronous CIE. However, marine and terrestrial proxies present us with  
79 distinct signatures across this interval of time. Specifically, the magnitude of the  
80 negative carbon isotope excursion at the Paleocene-Eocene boundary recorded in  
81 terrestrial reservoirs is significantly larger than in marine reservoirs: ~6-8 ‰ in paleosol  
82 carbonates (Bowen et al., 2001; Koch et al., 1995; Schmitz and Pujalte, 2003) compared  
83 with ~2.5-4 ‰ in marine carbonates (Bains et al., 1999; Kennett and Stott, 1991; Thomas  
84 et al., 2002; Tripathi and Elderfield, 2004; Zachos et al., 2003). The cause for the >3 ‰  
85 difference in terrestrial and marine carbonates has been explored by considering the  
86 effects of warming and elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on ocean chemistry, soil processes and  
87 carbon isotope discrimination by plants (Bowen et al., 2004). Acidification of the oceans  
88 and the associated decrease in [CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>] from the addition of CO<sub>2</sub> could have reduced the  
89 amplitude of the marine CIE by ~0.5 ‰. Increased C-input and soil turnover could have  
90 increased the magnitude of the terrestrial CIE by 0.8‰. Bowen et al. (2004) suggested  
91 that the remaining 1.7‰ was caused by greater discrimination against <sup>13</sup>C by plants  
92 during the PETM as the result of a postulated increase in water availability.

93 Wetter PETM conditions have been inferred from increases in kaolinitic clays in  
94 shallow marine sediments of the Tethys, Atlantic and Southern Oceans, possibly  
95 reflecting higher rates of chemical weathering (Bolle and Adatte, 2001; Cramer et al.,  
96 1999; Gibson et al., 2000; Robert and Kennett, 1994). Increases in terrestrial  
97 palynomorphs in nearshore marine deposits in New Zealand also have been interpreted as  
98 indicating higher runoff during the PETM (Crouch et al., 2003). In contrast, other  
99 evidence favors a drier, or more seasonally dry, climate during the PETM. Schmitz and

100 Pujalte (2003) observed sedimentological changes in northern Spain indicating flashy  
101 deposition and highly seasonal precipitation during the PETM. General circulation  
102 models (GCMs) suggest latitudinal variability in changes in precipitation, with an  
103 increase in total precipitation over continents at higher latitudes and in areas of  
104 monsoonal climate (Huber and Sloan, 1999; Shellito et al., 2003). However, GCM  
105 results for specific regions disagree, with one showing decreased (Huber and Sloan,  
106 1999) and another showing increased (Shellito et al., 2003) summer precipitation over  
107 interior North America during the PETM. Fossil floras from the Bighorn Basin, WY,  
108 suggest that precipitation first decreased and then increased during the PETM (Wing et  
109 al., 2005). The chemical composition and morphology of paleosols shows even more  
110 variability in precipitation, revealing four cycles of wetter and drier conditions during the  
111 PETM in the Bighorn Basin (Kraus and Riggins, 2007). Based on these records, the  
112 hypothesized increase in  $^{13}\text{C}$ -discrimination by plants should not be attributed to a simple  
113 increase in water availability in the Bighorn Basin.

114 Here we consider two hypotheses for reconciling the terrestrial and marine CIEs.  
115 The “marine modification” hypothesis is that marine carbonates fail to record the full  
116 magnitude of the CIE, and that the excursion seen in terrestrial leaf waxes is the same  
117 magnitude as that in the atmosphere and ocean (Pagani et al., 2006). The “plant  
118 community change” hypothesis is that the CIE recorded in continental carbon isotope  
119 records is larger than the atmosphere-ocean excursion because, in the regions studied, the  
120 plants that dominated terrestrial vegetation during the PETM discriminated against  $^{13}\text{C}$   
121 more than those that were dominant immediately before and after the event. We evaluate  
122 the competing hypotheses using carbon and hydrogen isotope ratios of high-molecular

123 weight (C<sub>25</sub>-C<sub>33</sub>), odd-carbon-numbered *n*-alkanes that are constituents of leaf waxes  
124 (Eglinton and Hamilton, 1967) and are widely used as a diagnostic biomarker for  
125 vascular plants in sedimentary systems (Freeman and Colarusso, 2001; Pagani et al.,  
126 2006; Schouten et al., 2007).

127

## 128 **2. METHODS**

### 129 **2.1 Study area**

130 The Cabin Fork study area is located in the southeastern Bighorn Basin of  
131 Wyoming (Figure 1). The Paleocene-Eocene transition is recorded in the lowest  
132 Willwood Formation. Locally the underlying Fort Union Formation is about 110 m  
133 thick, rests unconformably on Cretaceous strata, and consists of gray to grayish-yellow  
134 mudstones, carbonaceous shales (3-40% TOC), mostly fine-grained sandstones, and rare  
135 coals near its base (Bown, 1980; Wing, 1998). The mudstones, shales and coal represent  
136 deposition on low-lying floodplains, and the sandstones have bedding features and  
137 geometries consistent with deposition in fluvial channels or channel margins. Fossil  
138 plants and mammals show that all of the Fort Union Formation in the study area is late  
139 Paleocene in age (Wing, 1998; Wing et al., 2005). About 120 m of the lowest Willwood  
140 Formation is exposed in the Cabin Fork drainage and adjacent areas, and it is composed  
141 of pale, variegated red, purple and yellow mudstones, rare lenticular carbonaceous shales,  
142 and fine-grained sandstones (Bown, 1980; Wing, 1998). The variegated mudstones  
143 represent paleosols formed on fine, overbank deposits; the lenticular shale bodies were  
144 deposited in abandoned channels; and the sandstones represent channel or channel-  
145 margin settings (Bown, 1980; Wing, 1998).

146 The PETM is represented by a ~40 m-thick interval of strata at the base of the  
147 Willwood Formation. The carbon isotope excursion that typifies the PETM is recorded  
148 in both bulk organic matter and individual *n*-alkanes contained in mudstone paleosols  
149 (Figure 2). Fossil mammals demonstrate the characteristic succession of biozones (Cf3-  
150 Wa0-Wa1) that is associated with the PETM in Wyoming (Bloch et al., 2004; Gingerich,  
151 2003; Wing et al., 2005).

152 PETM-age rocks crop out extensively in the study area and dip shallowly to the  
153 west, parallel to topography. Sections were measured with a Jacob's staff and sighting  
154 level and correlated by tracing beds with a differential GPS with sub-meter precision and  
155 employing a geometric model of local structure following methods outlined by Gingerich  
156 (2001) . (DGPS and geometric model by D. Boyer.)

157

## 158 **2.2 Sample collection and cleaning**

159 Samples were collected from outcrops by removing weathered surface material to  
160 expose fresh, well-consolidated rock. Blocks 10-15 cm across were collected in cloth  
161 sample bags and allowed to air dry. In the laboratory, the surfaces of the blocks were  
162 cleaned by grinding off the outer 1-2 mm with a dremel tool using a solvent-rinsed  
163 tungsten carbide bit. Each sample was then rinsed with dichloromethane. Samples were  
164 further dried in a 70°C oven overnight and then pulverized in a ball mill that was cleaned  
165 between samples with ashed quartz sand, distilled water, methanol, and dichloromethane.

166

## 167 **2.3 *n*-Alkane extraction characterization and isotope measurements**



168 Lipids were Soxhlet extracted from 50-70 g of pulverized sediment with a  
169 dichloromethane:methanol azeotrope (9:1, v/v) for 24 hours. Total lipid extracts were  
170 concentrated by rotoevaporation, and then separated into compound classes by polarity  
171 using short columns filled with approximately 3 g of activated silica gel (70-230 mesh).  
172 The hydrocarbon fraction was eluted using hexane (4 mL); polar compounds were eluted  
173 using dichloromethane/methanol (1/1, v/v) and archived. *n*-Alkanes were identified  
174 through mass spectra, molecular ion mass, retention time and comparison with standards  
175 (“Mixture A” from A. Schimmelmann) using an Agilent 6890 gas chromatograph  
176 coupled to an Agilent 5972 quadrupole mass spectrometer. The GC program was started  
177 at 60 °C (held for 1 minute) and increased to 320°C at 6°C/minute, and was subsequently  
178 held at 320 °C for 20 minutes.

179 Carbon-isotope ratios of individual *n*-alkanes were measured on a Thermo  
180 Finnigan Delta Plus XP with a Gas Chromatograph and Combustion interface (GCC).  
181 Hydrogen isotope ratios were measured with a gas chromatograph and high temperature  
182 pyrolysis furnace (1400°C) interface (Burgoyne and Hayes, 1998; Hilkert et al., 1999).  
183 For both measurements, the GC was programmed from 60 °C (held for 1 minute) to 170  
184 °C at 15 °C/minute and then to 320 °C at 5 °C/minute, and held for 20 minutes. Isotope  
185 values for both carbon and hydrogen were calculated relative to co-injected standards and  
186 are reported relative to VPDB for carbon and VSMOW for hydrogen isotope ratios. The  
187 standard solution contained androstane ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -28.47 \text{ ‰}$ ;  $\delta\text{D} = -256.4 \text{ ‰}$ ), squalane  
188 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -20.36 \text{ ‰}$ ;  $\delta\text{D} = -169.9 \text{ ‰}$ ) and  $\text{C}_{41}$  *n*-alkane ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -28.84 \text{ ‰}$ ;  $\delta\text{D} = -205.7$   
189  $\text{‰}$ ). (Standard measurement by off-line preparation and dual-inlet isotope-ratio mass  
190 spectrometry by A. Schimmelmann.)

191 Carbon isotope ratios for *n*-alkanes were determined relative to androstane and  
192 samples were run in duplicate; standard deviations of replicate runs are reported in Table  
193 1. The average value for co-injected *n*-C<sub>41</sub> standard was  $-28.73 \pm 0.24$  ‰ ( $\pm$  S.D.;  $n=17$ ).  
194 The precision for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  measurements is  $\pm 0.25$  ‰ or better.

195 The  $\text{H}_3^+$  factor was measured daily and the average was  $4.971 \pm 0.085$  ppm ( $\pm$   
196 S.D.) (Sessions et al., 2001). Hydrogen isotope ratios were calculated relative to the *n*-  
197 C<sub>41</sub> standard peak to avoid co-elution. Each sample was run at least twice and the  
198 standard deviation of replicate measurements of *n*-C<sub>29</sub> from samples was less than 1.5‰  
199 (Table 1). The average values for co-injected androstane and squalane were  $-253 \pm 3$  and  
200  $-162 \pm 4$  ‰ ( $\pm$  S.D.;  $n=15$ ). We determined instrument performance daily by measuring  
201 a suite of C<sub>16</sub> to C<sub>30</sub> *n*-alkanes (“Mixture A” from A. Schimmelmann) with a co-injected  
202 standard with *n*-C<sub>14</sub>, androstane, squalane and *n*-C<sub>41</sub>. The standard deviation for replicate  
203 measurements ranges from 0.8 to 5.3 ‰ with an average standard deviation of 2.1 ‰ for  
204 7 measurements of the 15 *n*-alkanes in Mixture A. An estimate of overall analytical  
205 precision is  $\pm 5$  ‰ or better.

206

#### 207 **2.4 Estimated abundance of major plant groups**

208 We quantified the relative abundance of major plant groups at 96 fossil localities  
209 spanning the latest Paleocene and earliest Eocene in the Bighorn Basin (65 Paleocene, 5  
210 PETM, 26 post-PETM early Eocene). Individual localities generally are excavations less  
211 than 2 by 3 meters horizontally and less than half a meter in stratigraphic thickness. The  
212 plant-bearing rock is claystone to very fine sandstone and represents deposition in fluvial  
213 environments including abandoned channel fills, floodplain backswamps, levees,

214 crevasse splays and point bars. The fine grain size indicates low-energy deposition and  
215 therefore the leaf fossils are likely to represent localized samples of floodplain  
216 vegetation.

217 Previous work demonstrates a high correlation between foliar area and stem basal  
218 area for trees (Burnham et al., 1992), so leaf fossils were used to estimate biomass of  
219 major groups of plants in the Paleocene-Eocene forests. For each locality all identifiable  
220 leaf fragments with greater than 50% of their area preserved were assigned to a major  
221 taxonomic group: pteridophytes (ferns and horsetails), ginkgos, conifers,  
222 monocotyledonous angiosperms, or dicotyledonous angiosperms. For bedding surfaces  
223 covered with conifer needles the number was estimated based on density and area from a  
224 standard counted region.

225

## 226 **3. RESULTS**

### 227 **3.1 Leaf-wax lipids**

228 Hydrocarbons extracted from Cabin Fork sediments are nearly exclusively high-  
229 molecular weight ( $C_{23}$ - $C_{33}$ ) *n*-alkanes with a strong odd-over-even predominance,  
230 demonstrating that they are derived from vascular plants (Eglinton and Hamilton, 1967).  
231 The most abundant chain-length was either *n*- $C_{29}$  or *n*- $C_{31}$  (Figure 3).

232 Carbon-isotope ratios of individual *n*-alkanes range from -29.2 ‰ to -37.4 ‰ and  
233 generally become more negative with increasing chain length within a sample (Table 1,  
234 Figure 2). Progressively more  $^{13}C$ -depleted values with increasing chain length are also  
235 observed in many modern plants, particularly dicotyledonous angiosperms (Bi et al.,  
236 2005; Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Collister et al., 1994).

237 All *n*-alkanes show a marked negative carbon isotope excursion beginning at -  
 238 0.85 m and persisting to 37.3 m (Table 1, Figure 2). The magnitude of the negative shift  
 239 between the samples at -13.75 m and -0.85 m is 4.0 ‰ for C<sub>25</sub>, 3.7 ‰ for C<sub>27</sub>, 4.4 ‰ for  
 240 C<sub>29</sub>, and 5.1 ‰ for C<sub>31</sub>. Hydrogen-isotope ratios of C<sub>29</sub> *n*-alkane range from -183 to -197  
 241 ‰ (Table 1). The onset of the PETM is marked by a +13 ‰ shift followed by a -14 ‰  
 242 shift within the lower PETM (Figure 2).

243 The average chain-length (ACL) was calculated from total ion chromatograms as  
 244 the peak-area weighted average chain-length using the C<sub>25</sub>, C<sub>27</sub>, C<sub>29</sub>, C<sub>31</sub>, and C<sub>33</sub> *n*-  
 245 alkanes (Eglinton and Hamilton, 1967).

246

$$247 \text{ ACL} = (25A_{25} + 27A_{27} + 29A_{29} + 31A_{31} + 33A_{33}) / (A_{25} + A_{27} + A_{29} + A_{31} + A_{33}) \quad (1)$$

248

249 A is the area under the chromatographic peak for each *n*-alkane (Figure 3). Average  
 250 chain length increases across the PETM from a pre-PETM average of 28.6 (lowest two  
 251 samples) to 30.1 for the lowest PETM sample at -0.85 m. The maximum ACL of 30.6 is  
 252 observed at 8.2 m.

253

### 254 3.2 Fossil plants

255 A total of 30,153 leaves were counted: 21,793 from the latest Paleocene, 1,995  
 256 from the PETM, and 6,365 from the earliest post-PETM Eocene. The mean number of  
 257 leaves per locality was 309 (standard deviation=631). The numbers and proportions of  
 258 leaves for each major plant group are given for each of the three time periods in Table 2.

259 The Paleocene and post-PETM Eocene collections are dominated numerically by  
260 leaves of conifers (~75%), which are almost exclusively of just two genera in the family  
261 Taxodiaceae, *Glyptostrobus* and *Metasequoia*. Nearly all the remaining leaves from  
262 these sites are dicotyledonous angiosperms belonging to a number of families, most  
263 prominently Betulaceae. In contrast, conifers are absent from all five PETM localities,  
264 and the dicot leaves that dominate them belong to genera and families (especially  
265 Fabaceae) that are rare before and after the PETM.

266 In living forest floor litter, the total leaf area for each species is strongly positively  
267 correlated with its stem cross-sectional area in the local forest (Burnham et al., 1992).  
268 The number of leaves is less highly correlated with stem area because species with small  
269 leaves produce an appropriate amount of photosynthetic area by having more leaves.  
270 Leaves of *Glyptostrobus* and *Metasequoia* average about 5% of the area of the dicots they  
271 occur with. Therefore, the numerical dominance of conifers before and after the PETM  
272 almost certainly overestimates their true abundance in the vegetation. To better  
273 approximate relative biomass for the fossil forest, the number of conifer leaves should be  
274 divided by a factor of 20. The adjusted percent of conifers for the latest Paleocene and  
275 earliest post-PETM time is 13-14%, assuming that conifer and dicot leaves have equal  
276 preservation potential.

277

## 278 **4. DISCUSSION**

### 279 **4.1 Carbon-isotope excursions in terrestrial reservoirs**

280 The negative carbon isotope excursion recorded in leaf-wax *n*-alkanes ranges  
281 from 3.7 ‰ to 5.1 ‰, ~1-2 ‰ greater than for the associated bulk organic matter (~3‰)

282 from the same samples (Figure 2) (Wing et al., 2005). The bulk organic matter CIE for  
283 the Cabin Fork area is the same magnitude as that observed in other bulk organic matter  
284 records from the northern Bighorn Basin (Polecat Bench) (Magioncalda et al., 2004).  
285 Bulk soil organic matter is subjected to substantial transformation, selective preservation  
286 and degradation during pedogenesis, which could have dampened its record of the  
287 isotope excursion. Plant waxes are more resistant to diagenetic alteration than many  
288 components of bulk organic matter and we suggest they more faithfully record the  
289 isotopic composition of ancient vegetation.

290 The magnitude of the isotope excursion observed in soil carbonates from the  
291 Bighorn Basin ranges from 6 to 8‰ (Bowen et al., 2001; Koch et al., 1995), which is 1-4  
292 ‰ larger than in the leaf waxes. Soil carbonates incorporate carbon isotopic signatures  
293 of a mixture of atmospheric and respired CO<sub>2</sub>, and the amplification of the CIE in soil  
294 carbonates relative to the plant lipid CIE could reflect a greater contribution of carbon  
295 from SOM to nodule formation during the PETM (Bowen et al., 2004; Cerling, 1984).  
296 For this to be the case, the rate of organic matter turnover would have had to increase in  
297 order to overcome the enhanced contribution of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> due to the postulated  
298 increase in atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> (Zachos et al., 2003). Faster rates of soil organic matter  
299 turnover fueled by the warmer climate could have driven this amplification of the soil  
300 carbonate CIE relative to plant matter (Bowen et al., 2004).

301 The negative carbon isotope excursion in plant wax *n*-alkanes measured in the  
302 Bighorn Basin (~4-5‰, depending on the chain length) is comparable to that observed in  
303 *n*-alkanes from sediment from Walvis ridge in the southern Atlantic Ocean (~4-5‰)  
304 (Hasegawa et al., 2006), about 1‰ smaller than observed for *n*-alkanes from Arctic

305 Ocean sediments (~5-6‰) (Pagani et al., 2006), and 1-2‰ larger than *n*-alkanes from  
 306 New Zealand (~3‰) (Kaiho et al., 1996). Comparison of these records suggest that the  
 307 magnitude of the carbon isotope excursion recorded in *n*-alkanes varies regionally.

308

#### 309 4.2 <sup>13</sup>C-Discrimination by plants

310 Carbon isotope discrimination is a measure of the difference between the carbon  
 311 isotope ratio of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and the plant and is defined as:

312

$$313 \Delta = (R_a/R_p - 1) \times 1000 = (\delta^{13}C_a - \delta^{13}C_p)/(1 + \delta^{13}C_p/1000) \cong \delta^{13}C_a - \delta^{13}C_p \quad (2)$$

314

315 where R represents the <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C ratio and δ<sup>13</sup>C refers to the carbon isotope abundance of  
 316 the atmosphere (a) and plant (p), where δ<sup>13</sup>C = (R<sub>sample</sub>/R<sub>standard</sub> - 1) × 1000 (Farquhar et  
 317 al., 1989). Delta values are expressed relative to a standard (VPDB) in permil (‰).

318 To estimate carbon isotope discrimination by plants across the PETM, we  
 319 compare *n*-alkane δ<sup>13</sup>C records to values for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> estimated from marine  
 320 records. Because fine-scale correlation of marine and terrestrial sediments across the  
 321 PETM is difficult, we divided the Paleocene-Eocene boundary sediments into four  
 322 intervals: pre-CIE, peak CIE, recovery and post-CIE (Tables 3 and 4). The carbon  
 323 isotope ratio of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>Atm</sub>) for each interval is estimated from planktonic  
 324 foraminifera carbon isotope (δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>pf</sub>) records from ODP Site 690 from Maud Rise in the  
 325 Southern Ocean (Thomas et al., 2002) and ODP Site 1209 from Shatsky Rise in the  
 326 tropical North Pacific (Zachos et al., 2003). The δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>Atm</sub> values are calculated from  
 327 δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>pf</sub> by assuming isotopic equilibrium between the atmosphere, marine dissolved

328 inorganic carbon (DIC) and the calcite of planktonic foraminifera (Freeman and Pagani,  
329 2005; Koch et al., 1992), using the temperature-sensitive equilibrium fractionation factor  
330 between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and calcite from Romanek et al. (1992) (see Table 3).

331 Temperature values are estimated from oxygen isotope ratios ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{pf}}$ ) (Thomas et  
332 al., 2002; Zachos et al., 2003) and Mg/Ca ratios of planktonic foraminifera (Tripathi and  
333 Elderfield, 2004; Zachos et al., 2003) (see Table 3 for calculations). By using two  
334 sediment cores and two temperature proxies, we calculate a range of possible values for  
335 carbon isotope ratios of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and minimize noise or bias that may be inherent  
336 in a single record or temperature proxy (Figure 2B).

337 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pf}}$  records from Site 690 and Site 1209 show negative carbon isotope  
338 excursions of 3.6‰ and 2.7‰ respectively (Table 3). The magnitude of the CIE in the  
339 calculated  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$  values is smaller, ranging from 2.8‰ to 2.2‰ (Table 3), reflecting the  
340 decrease in isotopic fractionation between calcite and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> at the warmer  
341 PETM temperatures. The carbon isotope ratio of total plant tissue ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TT}}$ ) is calculated  
342 by applying an enrichment factor ( $\epsilon_{\text{lipid-TT}} \approx \delta_{\text{lipid}} - \delta_{\text{TT}}$ ) of 4.9‰ to the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  
343 measured for C<sub>31</sub> *n*-alkanes based on data published for C<sub>3</sub> angiosperms and conifers (Bi  
344 et al., 2005; Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Collister et al., 1994) (Figure 4A, Table 4).  
345 Carbon isotope discrimination is calculated from  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TT}}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$  using equation 2. In  
346 all calculated scenarios, net plant discrimination increased between 2.5 ‰ - 3.2 ‰ during  
347 the PETM (Figure 4C, Table 4).

348

349

350



### 351 4.3 Climate and increased <sup>13</sup>C-discrimination

#### 352 4.3.1 Hydrologic conditions and p<sub>i</sub>/p<sub>a</sub> ratios

353 During photosynthesis by C<sub>3</sub> plants, the enzyme-catalyzed uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> by  
354 Rubisco discriminates against <sup>13</sup>C and the extent of this discrimination depends on the  
355 relative flux of CO<sub>2</sub> into and out of the leaf. The net discrimination is sensitive to the  
356 ratio between intercellular partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> within the leaf (p<sub>i</sub>) and the atmospheric  
357 partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> (p<sub>a</sub>):

358

$$359 \quad \Delta = a + (b-a) \times p_i/p_a \quad (3)$$

360

361 where a is fractionation caused by diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> through stomata (4.4‰), b is the  
362 fractionation due to carboxylation by Rubisco (27‰) and p<sub>i</sub>/p<sub>a</sub> is the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub>  
363 concentrations inside the leaf (p<sub>i</sub>) relative to the atmosphere (p<sub>a</sub>) (Farquhar et al., 1989).  
364 This ratio is controlled by the stomata and the photosynthetic uptake of CO<sub>2</sub>.

365 When we calculate p<sub>i</sub>/p<sub>a</sub> ratios from the isotopic results, we find they show a  
366 marked increase across the PETM, rising by 11% to 14%. In modern plants, p<sub>i</sub>/p<sub>a</sub> ratios  
367 are largely controlled by water availability, as demonstrated both in the laboratory and in  
368 natural ecosystems (Bowling et al., 2002; Edwards et al., 2000). Changes in atmospheric  
369 pCO<sub>2</sub> do not appear to affect p<sub>i</sub>/p<sub>a</sub> or Δ in laboratory experiments over a range from 150  
370 to 1400 ppmv CO<sub>2</sub> (Arens et al., 2000; Beerling and Woodward, 1995; Polley et al.,  
371 1993), in herbarium and tree ring samples from the historic rise in pCO<sub>2</sub> (Saurer et al.,  
372 2004), or in fossils spanning Pleistocene glacial-interglacial cycles in pCO<sub>2</sub> (Beerling,  
373 1996; Ward et al., 2005). Changes in net plant discrimination observed in the geologic

374 past have been attributed to changes in available moisture (Beerling, 1996; Schouten et  
375 al., 2007; Ward et al., 2005), and the increase in  $\Delta$  and  $p_i/p_a$  during the PETM could  
376 reflect wetter conditions. However, floral assemblages (Wing et al., 2005) and paleosol  
377 properties suggest otherwise (Kraus and Riggins, 2007), and indicate instead cycles of  
378 wetting and drying.

379

#### 380 **4.3.2 Paleohydrologic proxy estimates for the PETM**

381 Hydrogen isotope ratios of individual *n*-alkanes reflect changes in available  
382 moisture and can help to assess further the hypothesis that wetter conditions led to  
383 increased discrimination during the PETM. Leaf-wax lipids from modern plants reflect  
384 meteoric water  $\delta D$  values (Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Sachse et al., 2006; Smith and  
385 Freeman, 2006) and the degree of D-enrichment from soil evaporation and transpiration  
386 (evaporation through stomata) (Smith and Freeman, 2006). Therefore, if the  $\delta D$  values  
387 of meteoric waters are constrained,  $\delta D$  signatures of *n*-alkanes reflect humidity, with  
388 drier conditions leading to more positive  $\delta D$  values and vice versa.

389 Fricke et al. (1998) estimated river water  $\delta^{18}O$  values from *Coryphodon* tooth  
390 enamel ( $\delta^{18}O_{\text{cory}}$ ) across the PETM. According to their estimates, the  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{river}}$  values  
391 average -6.8‰ (n=11) before the PETM (Cf-2) and -4.5‰ (n=8) during the PETM (Wa-  
392 0). The  $\delta D$  values for surface waters are estimated from  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{river}}$  values by using the  
393 Global Meteoric Water Line relationship ( $\delta D = 8 \delta^{18}O + 10$ ) (Craig, 1961) and are -44‰  
394 for pre-PETM (Cf-2) and -26‰ for the PETM (Wa-0) interval. We caution that the Cf-2  
395 biozone from which the  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{cory}}$  data are derived pre-dates all of the *n*-alkane sample  
396 horizons, making direct comparisons impossible. The PETM (Wa-0) tooth enamel

397 samples come from site 83613 on Polecat Bench (Fricke et al., 1998), which is close to  
398 the stratigraphic level of Purple-2 (P. Gingerich, pers. comm.) and is therefore in the  
399 middle of the carbon isotope excursion (Gingerich, 2001).

400 Expected leaf-wax *n*-alkane  $\delta D$  values can be estimated from these surface water  
401  $\delta D$  values by applying a Craig-Gordon-type leaf water isotope model for transpiration  
402 (Craig and Gordon, 1965; Roden and Ehleringer, 1999). This model quantitatively  
403 describes the relationship between relative humidity and leaf-wax *n*-alkane  $\delta D$  values and  
404 is fully described by Smith and Freeman (2006). Given the estimated surface water  $\delta D$   
405 values, a transpiration corrected  $\epsilon_{\text{lipid-water}}$  value for  $C_3$  plants of -181‰ (Smith and  
406 Freeman, 2006), an estimated PETM temperature increase from 20°C to 25°C (Fricke and  
407 Wing, 2004; Wing et al., 2005) and a constant relative humidity of 60%, the predicted  
408  $\delta D_{C_{29}}$  increases from -205‰ for the pre-PETM (Cf-2) level to -190‰ for the PETM level  
409 (Figure 2E: grey square). If relative humidity increased by 25% during the PETM (i.e.  
410 Bowen et al., 2004), the predicted  $\delta D_{C_{29}}$  value for the PETM shifts to -198‰ due to  
411 reduced transpiration (Figure 2E: open square). These estimates should not be affected  
412 by plant community change at the PETM because, unlike modern grasses (Smith and  
413 Freeman, 2006), modern conifers and dicots show similar apparent fractionation factors  
414 ( $\epsilon_{\text{lipid-water}}$ ) (Bi et al., 2005; Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Sachse et al., 2006).

415 Measured lipid hydrogen isotope ratios shift first to more positive and then to  
416 more negative values within PETM, similar to the pattern observed in the Arctic *n*-alkane  
417  $\delta D$  record (Pagani et al., 2006). Although these shifts are difficult to interpret without  
418 additional constraints on surface water  $\delta D$  values, they suggest first drier and then wetter  
419 conditions within the PETM, which is consistent with changes in the Bighorn Basin in

420 floral composition, plant physiognomy and paleosol features (Kraus and Riggins, 2007;  
421 Wing et al., 2005). The measured  $\delta D_{C_{29}}$  value for the sample closest to the middle of the  
422 CIE (Cab1-04-06; -190‰; Table 1) agrees well with the predicted value of -190‰ for  
423 constant relative humidity across the PETM (Figure 2E).

424 Our data are not consistent with a single, large increase in atmospheric moisture,  
425 and lend support to the floral and paleosol records that indicate variable hydrologic  
426 conditions across the PETM. In addition, the modeled estimate of a 25% increase in  
427 available moisture by Bowen et al. (2004) sought to explain a 1.7‰ increase in  
428 discrimination. The plant lipid data presented here indicate that the increase was even  
429 greater, from 2.5-3.2‰, and would require a 30-35% increase in available moisture based  
430 on the model in Bowen et al. (2004). We suggest other or additional factors are needed  
431 to understand PETM plant  $\delta^{13}C$  signatures as well as to account for the marine-terrestrial  
432 CIE difference.

433

#### 434 **4.3.3 Warming and increased $^{13}C$ -discrimination**

435 An alternative mechanism for increasing the terrestrial CIE relative to the marine  
436 invokes increased plant isotopic discrimination resulting from climate warming.  
437 Temperature exerts a significant effect on carbon isotope discrimination, although its  
438 effects are often hard to discern in field data due to confounding variables. However,  
439 controlled greenhouse experiments demonstrate that increasing temperature leads to  
440 greater  $^{13}C$  discrimination (Edwards et al., 2000). For example, the  $\delta^{13}C_{\text{cellulose-}}$   
441 temperature response of bean plants (*Vicia faba*) grown at 18 and 28°C is -0.15 ‰/°C  
442 (Edwards et al., 2000). In a direct analogy, a warming of 8°C during the PETM would

443 generate a decrease in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$  and an increase in discrimination of 1.2%. Although this  
444 increase is only about half of the inferred 2.5-3.2 % PETM increase, discrimination in  
445 Paleogene plants may be more sensitive to temperature than modern plants. The  
446 PETM warming on top of an already warm climate could have caused plants to increase  
447 transpiration (and thus  $p_i/p_a$ ; lowering  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TT}}$  values) substantially in an effort to cool  
448 their leaves during photosynthetic activity (Jones, 1992). We note that water stress is  
449 expected to have a countervailing effect, and that additional studies are needed to  
450 understand the sensitivity of plant physiology to the extreme climatic conditions inferred  
451 for the late Paleocene and early Eocene. The conflicting influences of temperature and  
452 water stress make it difficult to evaluate the influence of temperature alone in a robust  
453 manner, and therefore, although intriguing, this mechanism is not considered further here.

454

#### 455 **4.4 Hypothesis testing: Reconciling terrestrial and marine CIEs**

##### 456 **4.4.1 Marine carbonate modification**

457 We consider two alternative hypotheses to explain the larger magnitude of the  
458 CIE in the *n*-alkane record than in marine carbonates. The first is the marine modification  
459 hypothesis that posits that marine carbonate records do not record the full magnitude of  
460 the CIE. Significant dissolution has been identified in marine carbonates and attributed  
461 to acidification of the oceans by  $\text{CO}_2$  influx during the PETM (Zachos et al., 2005). This  
462 dissolution could have removed some previously deposited carbonate and prevented the  
463 deposition of carbonate during the initiation of the PETM, thereby truncating the lower  
464 part of the CIE in many marine carbonate records. Such truncation would have reduced  
465 the magnitude of the CIE if the largest isotopic shift occurred near the beginning.

466 However, terrestrial records, which do not suffer from dissolution, demonstrate an abrupt  
467 shift in isotopic values followed by a prolonged plateau phase, rather than a strong  
468 maximal excursion at the base followed by a gradual return to background (Bowen et al.,  
469 2001; Dupuis et al., 2003; Magioncalda et al., 2004; Schmitz and Pujalte, 2003; Steurbaut  
470 et al., 2003; Wing et al., 2005). If the CIE measured in terrestrial sequences reflects the  
471 true shape of the excursion in the ocean-atmosphere carbon pool, then in order to  
472 substantially decrease the apparent magnitude of the excursion in marine carbonates, the  
473 entire plateau phase would have to be removed by dissolution. Such a long hiatus is not  
474 supported by detailed studies of deposition in marine settings (Farley and Eltgroth, 2003;  
475 Zachos et al., 2005).

476         If we rule out dissolution and non-deposition, the only remaining way to for  
477 marine carbonates to fail to record the full extent of the CIE would be through direct  
478 alteration of their isotope signature. We can make a quantitative estimate of the degree to  
479 which the marine isotope signatures would have to be modified to bring them into  
480 agreement with CIE observed in terrestrial records. Pagani et al. (2006) suggested the  
481  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  record of plant lipids might represent the true CIE in the ocean-atmosphere system  
482 and that plant discrimination remained constant through the PETM. Under this scenario,  
483 we can calculate the expected magnitude of the planktonic foraminifera CIE based on the  
484 presumed atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  excursion (drawn from the observed plant lipids  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values)  
485 and the temperature-sensitive fractionation between carbonate and atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   
486 (Table 3, footnote d) (Romanek et al., 1992). Given the temperature estimates for Site  
487 690 (Table 3), and the lipid-based estimated CIE of 5.1‰ for atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ , the  
488 predicted CIE for planktonic foraminifera is 6‰, reflecting both warming and the

489 changing isotopic composition of the ocean-atmosphere system. Foraminifera at Site 690  
490 record a maximal CIE of 4.2‰, which is among the largest marine excursions reported  
491 (Thomas et al., 2002). In order to bring the planktic foraminifera isotopic record into  
492 conformity with the atmosphere under this scenario,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pf}}$  records would have to be  
493 altered such that they under-represent the true magnitude of the CIE by nearly 2‰  
494 throughout the event. Declining pH might have decreased the magnitude of the excursion  
495 in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pf}}$  by  $\sim 0.5\%$  (Bowen et al., 2004), but cannot explain the  $\sim 2\%$  offset between the  
496 predicted and observed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pf}}$  values. No other mechanism has been identified that  
497 would have reduced the preserved record of the global marine CIE by 1.5‰ or more.  
498 These calculations are a conservative estimate of the degree of isotopic modification  
499 required, because they use planktonic foraminifera. Benthic foraminifera generally  
500 record an even smaller excursion than the planktonics (Kennett and Stott, 1991; Thomas  
501 et al., 2002) and may better represent the isotopic history of the deep sea, which holds the  
502 largest reservoir of carbon in the ocean-atmosphere-biosphere system.

503

#### 504 **4.4.2 Plant community change**

505 The plant community change hypothesis invokes changes in floral composition to  
506 drive a change in carbon isotope discrimination at the ecosystem level and is separate  
507 from invoking an increase in discrimination by vegetation as a whole as suggested by  
508 Bowen et al. (2004) and or by individual taxonomic groups as suggested by Schouten et  
509 al. (2007). In the Bighorn Basin, fossil plant assemblages from the PETM demonstrate  
510 almost complete turnover in the taxonomic composition of vegetation (Wing et al., 2005)  
511 and *n*-alkanes show increasing Average Chain Length ( $\text{ACL}_{25-33}$ ; Figure 2D & 3).

512 Similar increases in *n*-alkane ACL have been measured across the PETM in sediments  
513 from the Arctic, New Zealand and the South Atlantic (Hasegawa et al., 2006; Kaiho et  
514 al., 1996; Schouten et al., 2007). In modern ecosystems, ACL increases with increasing  
515 temperature and precipitation, both within and among species (Sachse et al., 2006) and  
516 values range widely for different taxa (Bi et al., 2005; Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003;  
517 Collister et al., 1994; Sachse et al., 2006). Paleocene and post-PETM Eocene floras in  
518 the Bighorn Basin have abundant conifers (gymnosperms), especially of the taxodiaceous  
519 genera *Metasequoia* and *Glyptostrobus* (Table 2) (Wing et al., 1995). In contrast, PETM  
520 floras are composed almost exclusively of angiosperms.

521 Change in floral composition could have increased the magnitude of the CIE in  
522 plant lipids if, on average, immigrant species discriminated more than the species they  
523 replaced. Living C<sub>3</sub> angiosperms generally exhibit larger discrimination than conifers,  
524 both in total tissue and in *n*-alkanes (Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Flanagan et al.,  
525 1997). *n*-Alkanes from C<sub>3</sub> angiosperms are 2.5 to 6‰ more depleted in <sup>13</sup>C than those  
526 from conifers growing in the same region (Figure 5A) (Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003).  
527 If Paleocene-Eocene conifers and angiosperms had relative discriminations similar to  
528 their living relatives, the replacement of conifers by angiosperms in the Bighorn Basin  
529 during the PETM should have amplified the CIE.

530 The magnitude of the shift in carbon isotope ratio resulting from the vegetational  
531 change depends on the carbon isotopic composition of the components and their relative  
532 biomass. Using a simple isotopic mixing model between the conifer and angiosperm  
533  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for each *n*-alkane, we calculate a range of potential pre-PETM isotopic  
534 values for floras with different proportions of conifers. The PETM value is estimated



535 assuming a purely angiosperm flora (as indicated by the fossils) and an atmospheric  
536 carbon isotope excursion of 3‰. The modeled CIE for each *n*-alkane is simply the  
537 difference between isotope values for the pre-PETM (mixed community) and PETM  
538 (angiosperm) flora. The pre-PETM floral compositions vary from 0-100% conifers and  
539 thereby provide a large range of potential CIE curves (Figure 5B).

540         The modeled carbon isotope excursions vary significantly from one *n*-alkane to  
541 the next (Figure 5B) because conifers and angiosperms differ in how their carbon isotope  
542 ratios vary with chain-length. In conifers,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values tend to increase with increasing  
543 chain length, whereas in angiosperms, they decrease (Figure 5A). Thus, the change in  
544 relative abundance of conifers and angiosperms during the PETM should not only  
545 amplify the CIE, but also cause the amplification to vary among *n*-alkanes of different  
546 chain-lengths in a predictable way. In fact, we estimate the degree to which conifers were  
547 replaced by angiosperms by comparing the measured carbon isotope excursions to the  
548 modeled ones. The pattern of measured values compare very closely with the 50%  
549 conifer curve (Figure 5B), suggesting that plant communities in the Bighorn Basin  
550 changed from 50% conifers to an exclusively angiosperm flora at the PETM. This  
551 decrease in conifer abundance is less than the raw change in leaf numbers, which go from  
552 75% to 0% conifers, but is larger than the shift based on estimated leaf area, which  
553 changes from 13% to 0% conifer during the PETM. Given the large number of  
554 uncertainties in estimating the relative biomass of conifers from leaf fossils (e.g.,  
555 potential differences in proportion of leaf to stem biomass in conifers and angiosperms,  
556 potential differences in preservability), the two independent lines of evidence do not  
557 appear to be inconsistent.

558

559 **4.4.3 Testable predictions of the plant community change hypothesis**

560 If reduction in conifer biomass explains the amplification of the terrestrial CIE in  
561 the Bighorn Basin relative to marine records, two testable predictions can be offered. In  
562 regions where conifers were rare or absent prior to the PETM, the CIE in plant lipids  
563 should be of smaller magnitude. *n*-Alkanes from New Zealand may represent such  
564 scenario with a stable proportion of conifers to angiosperms and a CIE of only ~3‰  
565 (Kaiho et al., 1996; Crouch et al., 2003). We hypothesize that regional differences might  
566 be expressed as a latitudinal gradient, with tropical and subtropical regions having  
567 angiosperm-dominated vegetation during the Paleocene and demonstrating smaller CIEs  
568 than mid and high latitude regions where conifers were abundant to dominant. A  
569 latitudinal gradient is suggested by *n*-alkanes from the Arctic (Pagani et al., 2006) that  
570 record a CIE that is ~1 ‰ larger than in the Bighorn Basin. Pollen from the Arctic Ocean  
571 records a large increase in angiosperms (from 40% to 72% during the PETM), at the  
572 expense of gymnosperms (from 33% to 18% during the PETM) (Sluijs et al., 2006).

573 A second prediction of the plant community change hypothesis is that the  
574 amplification of carbon isotope excursions should vary among the different chain-lengths  
575 of *n*-alkanes in a predictable pattern depending on the degree to which angiosperms  
576 displaced conifers. If the degree of displacement increased with latitude, the predicted  
577 pattern would be like that in Figure 5B, with low latitude sites corresponding to the lower  
578 proportion and high latitude sites to higher proportion of conifers in the pre-PETM flora.  
579 Therefore, both the magnitude and curvature of the CIE-chain length relationship should  
580 vary regionally, and in general increase with increasing latitude.

581

582 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

583 High-molecular weight *n*-alkanes derived from vascular plant leaf waxes are well  
584 preserved across the PETM interval in the Cabin Fork area of the Bighorn Basin. The  
585 carbon-isotope record of *n*-alkanes shows a large negative carbon isotope excursion of ~  
586 4-5‰. This CIE is 1-2‰ larger than that observed in the bulk organic matter from the  
587 same samples and elsewhere, and that observed in marine carbonates. The carbon isotope  
588 record of leaf lipids demonstrates that bulk soil organic matter records do not capture the  
589 full magnitude of the carbon isotope excursion in plants at the PETM.

590 We use the *n*-alkane and marine carbonate isotopic records to estimate carbon-  
591 isotope discrimination by plants across the PETM, and infer that for this locality plant  
592 discrimination increased by 2.5-3.2‰. Changes in plant discrimination in the historic  
593 and geologic past are frequently related to changes in available moisture, because this is a  
594 key control on discrimination in modern ecosystems. However, three lines of evidence,  
595 hydrogen isotope ratios of *n*-alkanes, paleosol properties, and leaf physiognomy, are not  
596 consistent with an increase in relative humidity during the PETM. Instead, they suggest  
597 cycles of wet and dry conditions.

598 Modification of marine carbonate records such that they fail to record the full  
599 magnitude of the CIE would create the impression of enhanced terrestrial plant  
600 discrimination. However, if we assume that the plant lipids directly reflect atmospheric  
601 CO<sub>2</sub> δ<sup>13</sup>C values, and we take the warming into consideration, the expected planktonic  
602 foram CIE (6‰) is much larger than the maximum observed marine excursion of 4.2‰.  
603 There is no known mechanism that could modify the marine record enough to account for

604 this difference and we conclude instead that carbon isotope discrimination in plants  
605 increased during the PETM.

606 We propose that observed changes in floral assemblages from a mixed  
607 angiosperm/conifer to an exclusively angiosperm flora at the PETM increased ecosystem  
608 carbon isotope discrimination in the Bighorn Basin. Because angiosperms discriminate  
609 more than conifers, the floral change amplified the carbon isotope excursion relative to  
610 the ocean-atmosphere reservoir. The degree of amplification is modeled and compared to  
611 measured values for each *n*-alkane chain length. The modeled values capture not only  
612 the magnitude of the observed CIE amplification but also the pattern of amplification  
613 among the different chain-length *n*-alkanes. In addition, the data-model comparison  
614 suggests that the PETM caused a shift from floras that were 50% conifers and 50%  
615 angiosperms to floras that were 100% angiosperms.

616 The balance of evidence strongly supports the plant community change  
617 hypothesis for reconciling the terrestrial and marine carbon isotope excursions at the  
618 PETM and suggests two testable predictions. The magnitude of the CIE in leaf-wax *n*-  
619 alkanes should vary regionally, depending on the extent of plant community change. If  
620 angiosperms expanded poleward, replacing conifers, the magnitude of the carbon isotope  
621 excursion in plant lipids would increase with increasing latitude. A preliminary  
622 suggestion of such a gradient is evident in the leaf-wax CIE in the Arctic being ~1‰  
623 larger than in the Bighorn Basin. The second prediction is that the pattern of  
624 amplification of the CIE among the *n*-alkanes should also vary regionally, perhaps even  
625 latitudinally, in a predictable fashion reflecting shifts in relative abundance of conifers

626 and angiosperms. Tests of these predictions will require additional latitudinal sampling  
627 of leaf waxes from the PETM.

628

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Table 1: *n*-Alkane  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta\text{D}$ , and Average chain length.

Meter level	Sample	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{n\text{-alkane}}$										$\delta\text{D}_{n\text{-alkane}}$		ACL C25 to C33
		C25 Avg.	C25 S.D.	C27 Avg.	C27 S.D.	C29 Avg.	C29 S.D.	C31 Avg.	C31 S.D.	C33 Avg.	C33 S.D.	C29 Avg.	C29 s.d.	
-19.95	CAB3-04-06	-29.1	0.4	-29.5	0.0	-30.9	0.1	-31.6	0.0			-186	1.4	28.6
-13.75	CAB3-04-07	-29.7	0.1	-30.3	0.1	-31.1	0.1	-31.4	0.0			-196	0.9	28.7
-0.85	CAB7-04-02	-33.7	0.2	-34.0	0.0	-35.5	0.0	-36.5	0.0	-37.4	0.1	-183	1.3	30.1
-0.15	CAB7-04-03	-33.5	0.5	-33.0	0.1	-34.1	0.1	-35.8	0.0	-36.0	0.0			29.0
8.20	CAB1-04-06			-34.8	0.3	-35.3	0.1	-36.3	0.0	-36.9	0.2	-190		30.6
37.30	CAB6-04-01.1			-33.0	0.2	-33.2	0.3	-34.5	0.2	-35.7		-197	1.0	29.4
45.30	SW0306	-29.3	0.8	-30.0	0.3	-30.6	0.1	-32.0	0.3	-31.3	0.0	-192	0.3	28.7
73.30	CAB6-04-04	-29.6	0.3	-29.9	0.0	-30.8	0.0	-31.8	0.2	-31.6		-196	0.9	28.9

Table 2: Abundance of fossil leaves of major plant groups

	Conifer		Dicot		Monocot		Ginkgo		Pteridophyte	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
earliest Eocene (post-PETM)	4794	0.75	1477	0.23	49	0.01	42	0.01	3	0.00
PETM	0	0.00	1985	0.99	8	0.00	0	0.00	2	0.00
latest Paleocene	16506	0.76	5043	0.23	92	0.00	95	0.00	57	0.00

Table 3: Planktonic foraminifera data used to estimate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ 

<b>ODP Site 690 (Thomas et al., 2002) (Thomas et al., 2002)</b>								
	Depth interval (mbsf)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pf}}$ (‰ VPDB) <i>Acaranina</i> sp.	Std. Dev. (n)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{pf}}$ (‰ VPDB) <i>Acaranina</i> sp.	Std. Dev. (n)	Temperature from $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) <sup>a</sup>	$\alpha_{\text{CO}_2\text{-Calcite}}^{\text{d}}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$ (‰ VPDB)
Pre-CIE	171.02-170.79	3.37	0.33 (36)	-0.20	0.25 (36)	13.4	0.9897	-6.9
Peak CIE	170.77-170.60	-0.20	0.69 (88)	-1.51	0.18 (88)	19.5	0.9905	-9.7
Recovery	170.26-169.84	1.55	0.43 (44)	-2.35	0.27 (44)	23.2	0.9909	-7.6
<b>ODP Site 1209 (Zachos et al., 2003) (Zachos et al., 2003)</b>								
	Depth interval (m in section 1209B-22H-1)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pf}}$ (‰ VPDB) <i>A. soldadoensis</i>	Std. Dev. (n)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{pf}}$ (‰ VPDB) <i>A. soldadoensis</i>	Std. Dev. (n)	Temperature from $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) <sup>b</sup>	$\alpha_{\text{CO}_2\text{-Calcite}}^{\text{d}}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$ (‰ VPDB)
Pre-CIE	1.48-1.39	3.86	0.28 (11)	-1.42	0.17 (11)	22.5	0.9908	-5.4
Peak CIE	1.34-1.30	1.14	0.59 (19)	-1.70	0.20 (19)	26.6	0.9913	-7.6
Recovery	1.14-1.09	2.01	0.24 (6)	-1.23	0.16 (6)	24.5	0.9910	-7.0
Post-CIE	0.94-0.89	3.14	0.27 (4)	-1.36	0.20 (4)	22.3	0.9908	-6.1
<b>ODP Site 1209 (Zachos et al., 2003) (Zachos et al., 2003)</b>								
	Depth interval (m in section 1209B-22H-1)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pf}}$ (‰ VPDB) <i>A. soldadoensis</i>	Std. Dev. (n)	Mg/Ca <i>A. soldadoensis</i>	Std. Dev. (n)	Temperature from Mg/Ca ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) <sup>c</sup>	$\alpha_{\text{CO}_2\text{-Calcite}}^{\text{d}}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$ (‰ VPDB)
Pre-CIE	1.48-1.39	3.86	0.28 (11)	3.68	0.06 (3)	30.6	0.9918	-4.4
Peak CIE	1.34-1.30	1.14	0.59 (19)	5.05	0.19 (5)	33.6	0.9921	-6.7
Recovery	1.14-1.09	2.01	0.24 (6)	4.48	0.34 (2)	32.7	0.9920	-6.0
Post-CIE	0.94-0.89	3.14	0.27 (4)	3.81	0.06 (3)	30.9	0.9918	-5.1

<sup>a</sup> Calculated using  $T (^{\circ}\text{C}) = 16.998 + -4.52 (\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{pf}} - \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}) + 0.028 (\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{pf}} - \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}})^2$  (Erez and Luz, 1983) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}} = -1$  ‰ for an ice-free world.

<sup>b</sup> Calculated using equation in <sup>a</sup> (Erez and Luz, 1983) with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}} = -0.2$  ‰ before and after PETM and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}} = 0.4$  ‰ during the PETM and recovery based on inferred change in Salinity at site 1209 across the PETM (Zachos et al., 2003).

<sup>c</sup> Calculated using  $\text{Mg}/\text{Ca} = 0.38f \exp(0.09T)$  using seawater Mg/Ca fraction relative to modern ( $f$ ) of 0.62 (Tripathi and Elderfield, 2004).

<sup>d</sup> Fractionation factor calculated as  $\alpha_{\text{CO}_2\text{-Calcite}} = R_{\text{CO}_2}/R_{\text{Calcite}} = 1/[1.01198 - 0.00012 T (^{\circ}\text{C})]$  (Romanek et al., 1992).



Table 4: Carbon isotope discrimination ( $\Delta$ ) and Pi/Pa ratios calculated from  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TT}}$  and three estimates of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$  (Table 3).

Meter	Interval	Sample #	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TT}}^{\text{a}}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$ from 690		$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$ from 1209 ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ )		$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Atm}}$ from 1209 (Mg/Ca)	
				$\Delta$	Pi/Pa	$\Delta$	Pi/Pa	$\Delta$	Pi/Pa
-19.95	Pre-CIE	CAB3-04-06	-26.8			22.1	0.78	23.0	0.82
-13.75	Pre-CIE	CAB3-04-07	-26.6	20.2	0.70	21.8	0.77	22.8	0.81
-0.85	Peak CIE	CAB7-04-02	-31.7	22.7	0.81	25.0	0.91	25.8	0.95
-0.15	Peak CIE	CAB7-04-03	-31.1	22.0	0.78	24.3	0.88	25.1	0.92
8.2	Peak CIE	CAB1-04-06	-31.6	22.5	0.80	24.8	0.90	25.6	0.94
37.3	Recovery	CAB6-04-01.1	-29.7	22.8	0.82	23.5	0.84	24.5	0.89
45.3	Post-CIE	SW0306	-27.2			21.7	0.76	22.7	0.81
73.3	Post-CIE	CAB6-04-04	-27.1			21.5	0.76	22.6	0.80

<sup>a</sup>  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TT}}$  calculated from  $\text{C}_{31}$  *n*-alkane using  $\epsilon = 4.9\text{‰}$  from compilation of published data (Bi et al., 2005; Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Collister et al., 1994).

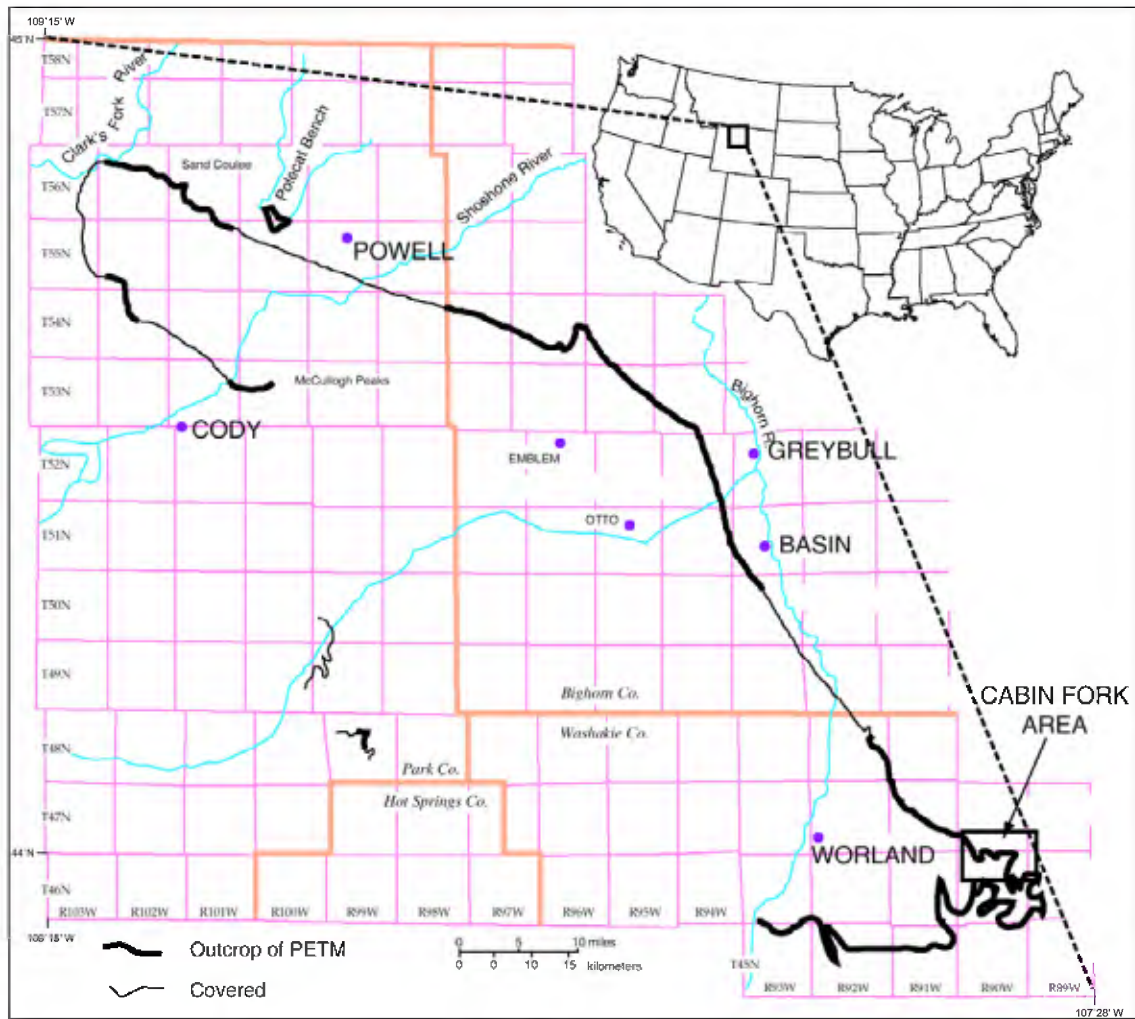


Figure 1. Map of study area on Cabin Fork of Nowater Creek. Black line indicates Paleocene-Eocene contact, and is thick where exposed and thin where covered.

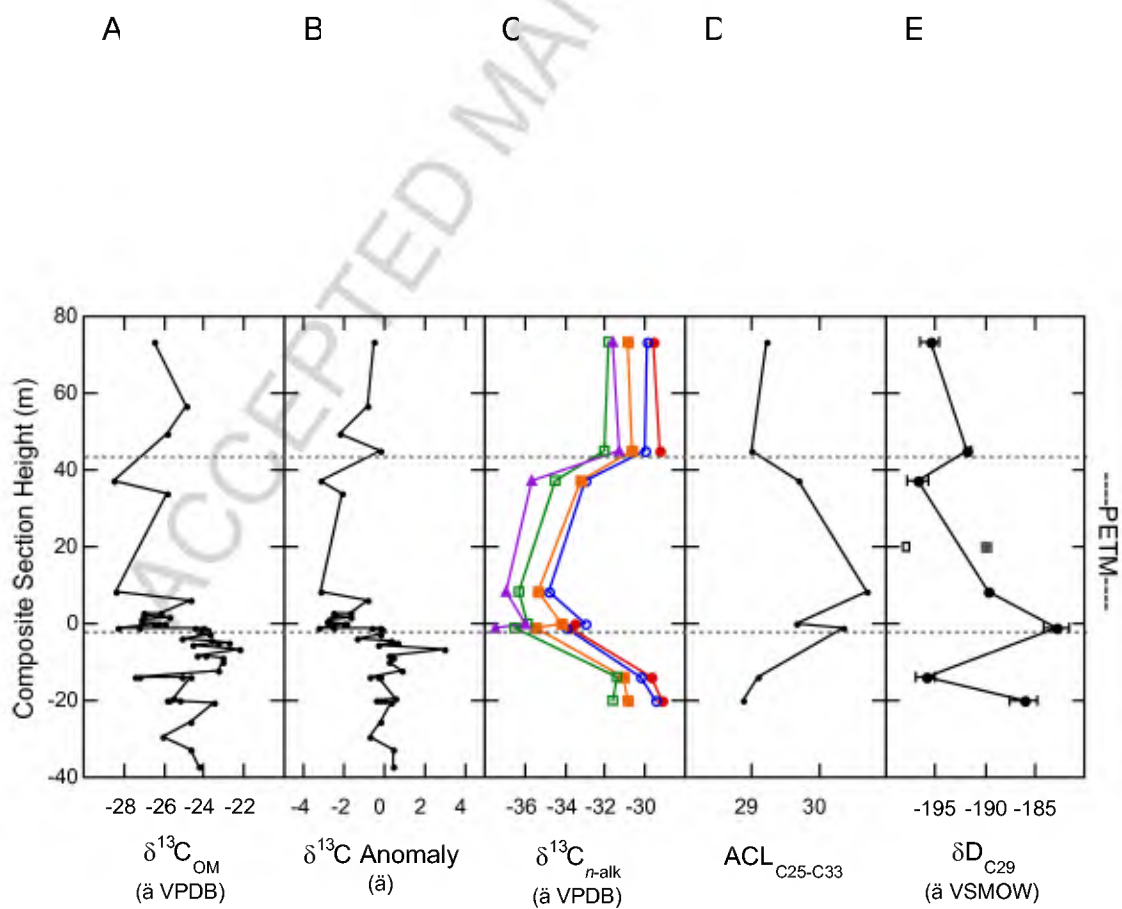


Figure 2

Carbon isotope, hydrogen isotope and average chain length (ACL) records from the composite section from the Cabin Fork area of the Bighorn basin. A) Bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  for organic matter. B) Difference between measured value (A) and the value predicted based on the weight % organic carbon for each sample using logarithmic relationship for background conditions (Wing et al., 2005). C) Compound-specific  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  for  $\text{C}_{25}$  to  $\text{C}_{33}$  *n*-alkanes.  $\text{C}_{25}$ : solid red circles,  $\text{C}_{27}$ : open blue circles,  $\text{C}_{29}$ : solid orange squares,  $\text{C}_{31}$ : open green squares,  $\text{C}_{33}$ : solid purple triangles. Measurement precision for all  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values is less than the represented by the data symbols. D) Average chain length calculated as the abundance-weighted average of the odd *n*-alkanes from  $\text{C}_{25}$  through  $\text{C}_{33}$ . E) Compound-specific  $\delta\text{D}$  for  $\text{C}_{29}$ : solid circles. Error bars for  $\delta\text{D}$  represent  $\pm 1$  standard deviation of replicate measurements. Predicted PETM  $\delta\text{D}_{\text{C}_{29}}$  values (squares) based on leaf water model and  $\delta\text{D}$  of surface waters estimated from  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of tooth enamel; with constant RH of 60%: grey square; with a 25% increased in RH during the PETM: open square.

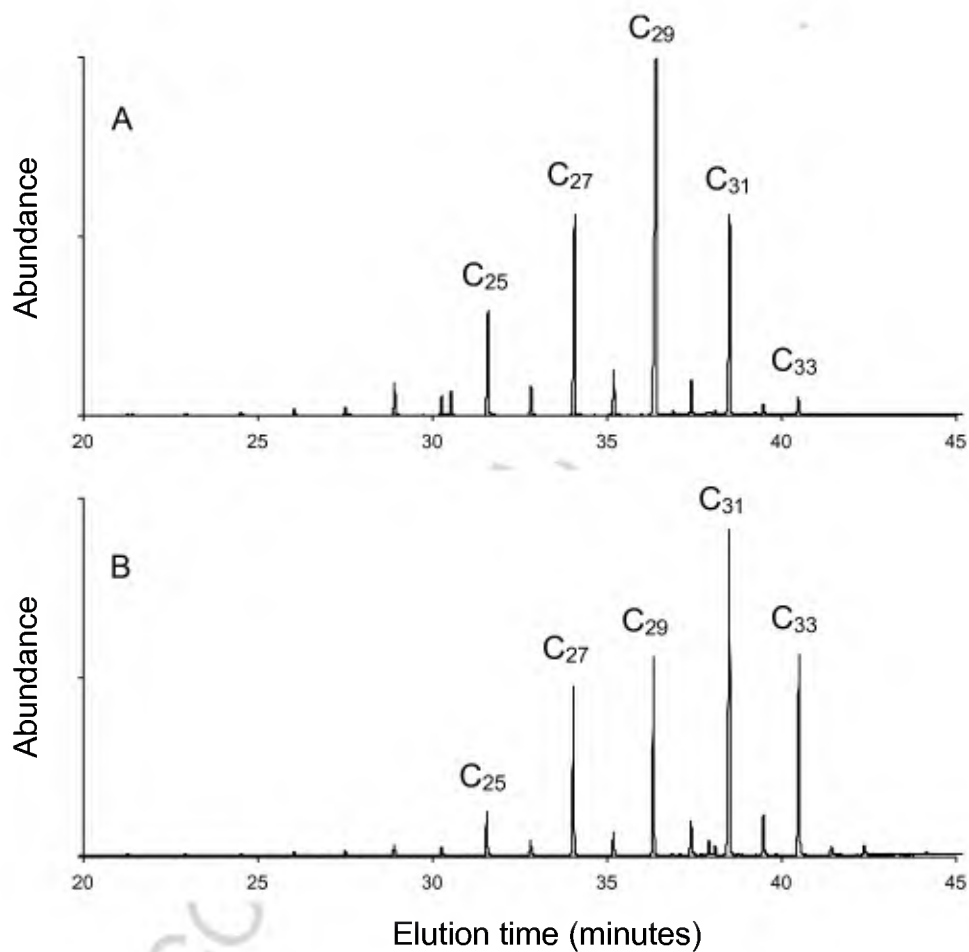


Figure 3

Total ion chromatogram for the non-polar lipid fraction from sediments from (A) immediately before the PETM (-13.75 m; Cab3-04-07) and (B) at the base of the PETM (-0.85 m; Cab7-04-02). Labeled high molecular weight odd-carbon numbered *n*-alkanes are those used to calculate average chain length (Figure 2D, Table 1).

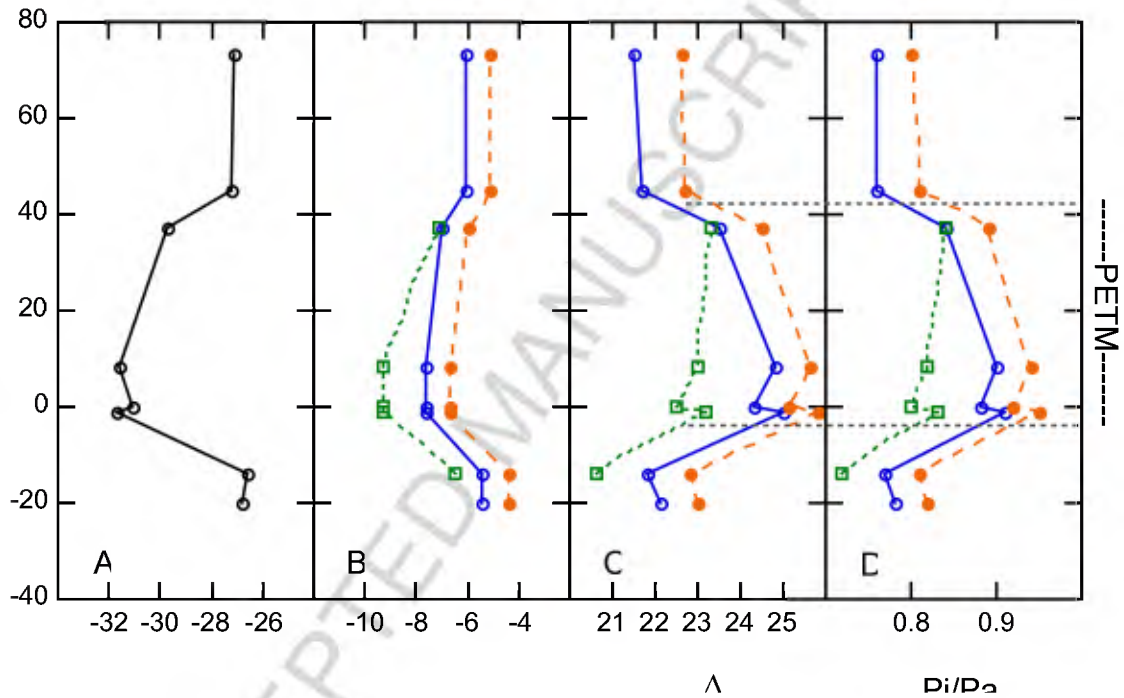


Figure 4

Carbon isotope ratios (‰ VPDB) of A) plant total tissue calculated from C<sub>31</sub> *n*-alkane and B) atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> calculated from carbon isotope ratios of planktonic forams from ODP sites 1209 and 690 (Table 3). Open green squares and dotted line- Site 690 using δ<sup>18</sup>O temperature estimates. Open blue circles and solid line- Site 1209 using δ<sup>18</sup>O temperature estimates. Orange filled circles- Site 1209 using Mg/Ca temperature estimates. C) <sup>13</sup>C-discrimination by plants (Δ) relative to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. D) Partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> inside the leaf (p<sub>i</sub>) relative to that in the atmosphere (p<sub>a</sub>). Colors and symbols in C and D correspond to those in B.

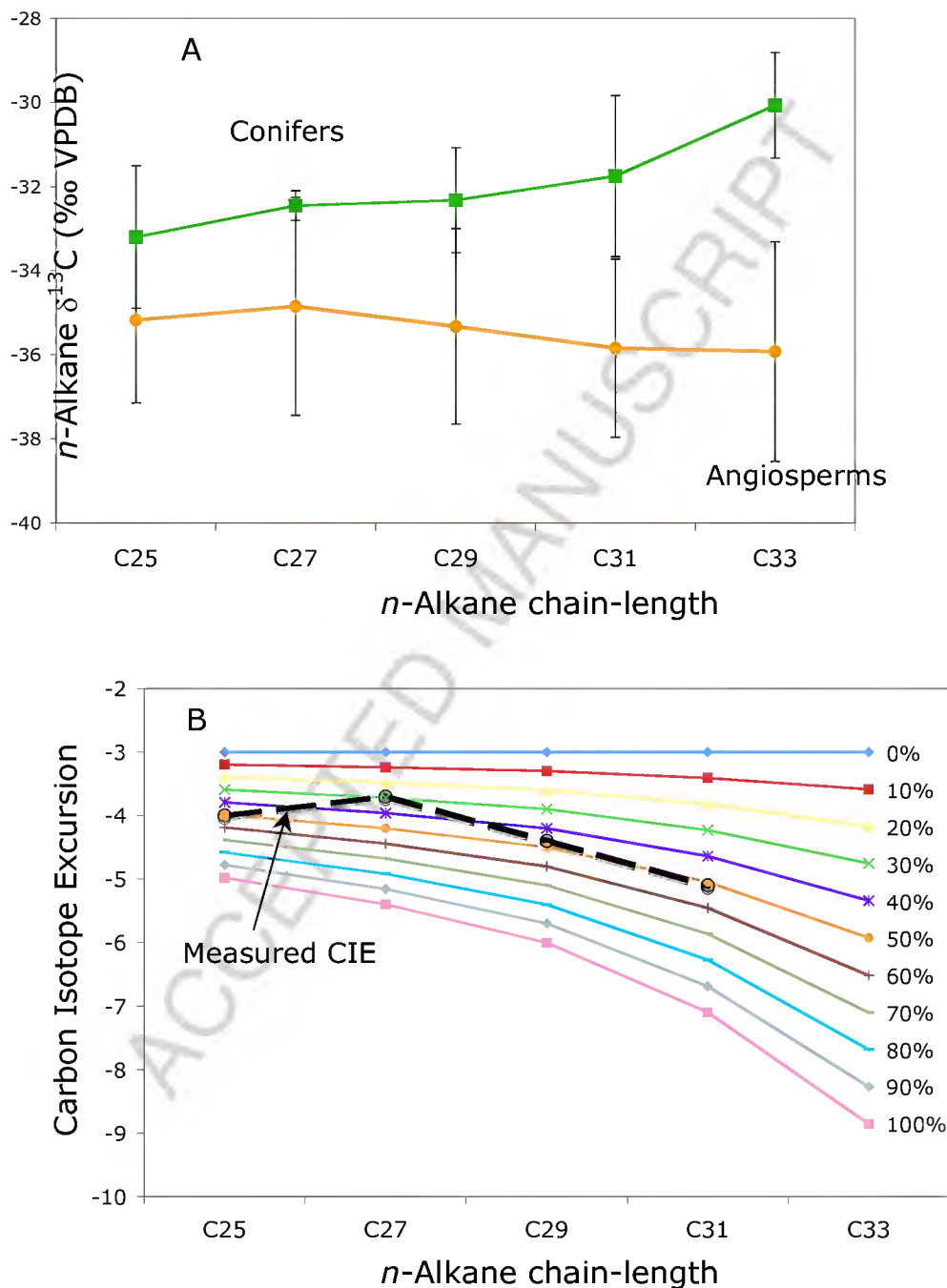


Figure 5

(A)  $n$ -Alkane  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of modern conifers and  $\text{C}_3$  dicotyledonous angiosperms (compilation of data from Bi et al., 2005; Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2003; Collister et al., 1994). Error bars are 1 S.D. Conifer:  $N = 2$  to 4. Angiosperm:  $N = 30$  to 42. (B) Predicted CIEs based on a shift from pre-PETM floras of varying proportions of conifers (percentages on figure) to PETM floras that are exclusively angiosperms. The taxonomic effect is added to a baseline CIE of -3‰. Solid lines indicate varying pre-PETM conifer percentages (0-100%). Open circles and dashed line indicates measured CIE values.

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