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1 **Climatic and environmental changes across the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum at mid-**
2 **Waipara River, Canterbury Basin, New Zealand**

3

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11 Abstract

12 The Cretaceous–Paleogene marine sedimentary succession exposed in the banks of the middle
13 reaches of the Waipara River (referred to as mid-Waipara), north Canterbury, New Zealand, has been
14 the subject of several high-profile studies of Paleogene paleoclimate over the past decade. It is one of
15 relatively few sections globally where a multi-proxy approach is possible due to the good preservation
16 of microfossils and organic biomarkers. The Eocene section is also well dated by magnetostratigraphy
17 and biostratigraphy based on planktic foraminifera, calcareous nannofossils and dinoflagellate cysts
18 (dinocysts). Here, we build on this previous work and undertake a comprehensive analysis of
19 paleontological and geochemical indicators of climatic and environmental changes through the early–
20 middle Eocene part of the section, with particular focus on the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum
21 (EECO; 53.26–49.14 Ma). We correlate a 33.5 m-thick interval with the EECO, based on
22 biostratigraphy, magnetostratigraphy, TEX_{86} -paleothermometry and bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Our new
23 sea-surface temperature (SST) record based on TEX_{86} agrees with a previous lower resolution record
24 based on TEX_{86} and planktic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Mg/Ca ratios. The EECO interval in this section
25 extends from the upper part of the New Zealand Waipawan Stage to the Mangaorapan/Heretaungan
26 Stage boundary at 49.27 Ma. The EECO onset is not exposed, but the termination is well constrained
27 by a fall in SST and shift to more positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. Six negative carbon isotope excursions (CIEs)
28 are recognised within the EECO and are tentatively correlated with CIEs J/K, M, O, Q, T and C22nH4
29 in the global $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ compilation. The CIEs are associated with warmer SSTs, indicating that they
30 represent hyperthermals. The BAYSPAR TEX_{86} calibration indicates SST increased by as much as
31 12°C from the early Eocene (~ 55 Ma) to the EECO, where SST peaked at 35°C . SST gradually
32 declined from mid EECO (~ 51 Ma) into the middle Eocene. The marked warming in the early EECO
33 is associated with the highest abundance of warm-water taxa in calcareous nannofossil and dinocyst
34 assemblages, the highest proportion of planktic foraminifera, and a coeval long-term shift to abundant
35 angiosperm vegetation, primarily driven by a rise in Casuarinaceae. There is good agreement between
36 TEX_{86} and marine microfossil-based proxies for temperature, providing confidence that both
37 approaches are useful guides to past water temperature. Warm-water marine taxa are most abundant in

38 the EECO but are not dominant. Comparison of the abundance of nannofossil warm-water taxa
39 between mid-Waipara and a low-latitude site on Shatsky Rise suggests the latitudinal temperature
40 gradient between mid- and low-latitudes in the EECO was greater than the TEX₈₆ proxy implies.
41 There is no clear evidence for enhanced sedimentation rates associated with the EECO, in contrast to
42 evidence from the nearby Mead Stream section. Superabundant *Homotryblium*, a euryhaline dinocyst,
43 in the early and middle EECO suggests elevated salinity and/or stratified surface waters, and there is
44 no clear evidence of increased surface productivity associated with the EECO. Declining SST in the
45 late EECO, ~50 Ma, corresponds with an increase in cool-water taxa and terrigenous material. This
46 article highlights the importance of combining well-calibrated paleontological and geochemical
47 records to better constrain and understand past warm climate states.

48

49 1. Introduction

50 A succession of short- and long-term global warming events during the early Eocene (56–48
51 Ma) provide important insights into climate variability under background conditions of elevated
52 atmospheric CO₂, generally exceeding 800 ppmv (Zachos et al., 2008; Anagnostou et al., 2016; Hollis
53 et al., 2019). Well-calibrated sedimentary records for this time period from different regions are
54 essential to understand the geographic variability in climate and ecosystem response and to validate
55 Earth system models (Huber and Cabellero, 2011; Lunt et al., 2017). Records from the South Pacific
56 are of particular interest because the Pacific Ocean was the primary driver of ocean heat transport
57 during the Paleogene (Huber and Nof, 2006). Both model and proxy studies indicate that the Pacific
58 sector of the Southern Ocean was a major source of deep water through most of the Paleogene (Littler
59 et al., 2014; Huck et al., 2017). For this reason, the Southwest Pacific has been the focus of several
60 studies of early Paleogene climate dynamics over the past two decades (e.g., Crouch et al. 2003;
61 Nicolo et al., 2007; Bijl et al., 2009, 2013a; Hollis et al., 2009, 2012, 2015; Slotnick et al., 2012,
62 2015; Pancost et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2013; Dallanave et al., 2014, 2016; Inglis et al., 2015; Hines
63 et al., 2017; Naafs et al., 2018).

64 The lower Paleogene succession at mid-Waipara River, Canterbury Basin, New Zealand (Fig.
65 1), has been a focus of many of these studies because the siliciclastic sediments contain a wide range
66 of microfossils as well as immature organic matter suitable for biomarker studies. Studies have
67 investigated both marine and terrestrial temperature records from latest Cretaceous to middle Eocene,
68 focusing on glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs; Hollis et al., 2009, 2012, 2014; Pancost et
69 al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2013, 2018) as well as Mg/Ca ratios and oxygen isotopes (Hollis et al. 2009,
70 2012; Creech et al. 2010; Hines et al., 2017). These studies have provided multiproxy estimates of
71 temperature, which have been compared with climate and general circulation models (Huber and
72 Caballero, 2011; Hollis et al., 2012; Lunt et al., 2012). The Eocene section also has a well-calibrated
73 age model that incorporates dinocyst, foraminiferal and nannofossil biostratigraphy and
74 magnetostratigraphy (Dallanave et al. 2016; Shepherd and Kulhanek, 2016). Whilst paleontology has
75 supported these studies, the focus has been on biostratigraphy rather than paleontological indicators of

76 climatic and environmental change in the Eocene greenhouse world. In this article, we utilise the well-
77 preserved calcareous and organic-walled microfossil assemblages in this continental margin section to
78 evaluate proxy- and model-based climate reconstructions and to infer the biological response to
79 changes in climate and carbon cycling.

80 Our multidisciplinary study includes analysis of foraminiferal, calcareous nannofossil,
81 dinoflagellate cyst (dinocyst) and spore/pollen assemblages, bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotopes, CaCO_3
82 content, and biomarkers (GDGTs), and utilises samples collected as part of our magnetostratigraphic
83 study (Dallanave et al., 2016) of the lower and middle Eocene succession at mid-Waipara River. We
84 document the timing and variability of environmental and climatic changes in the marine and
85 terrestrial realm, and compare these changes with a new and more detailed record of sea surface
86 temperature (SST) and carbon cycle change than has been previously reported for this section.

87

88 **2. Identifying the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO)**

89 The warmest sustained temperatures of the Cenozoic occurred in the EECO (Zachos et al.,
90 2001, 2008; Westerhold and Röhl, 2009; Lauretano et al., 2016; Evans et al., 2018) and were
91 associated with atmospheric CO_2 levels of >800 ppmv (Beerling and Royer, 2011; Anagnostou et al.,
92 2016; Boudreau et al., 2019; Hollis et al., 2019). The EECO (Fig. 2) was initially defined by a
93 minimum in oxygen isotope ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) values of benthic foraminifera that lasted 2–3 Myrs, from ~53–50
94 Ma (Zachos et al., 2001; Kirtland Turner, 2014). Recent studies indicate that the EECO onset can be
95 tied to one of several carbon isotope excursions (CIEs) from the middle early Eocene (Cramer et al.,
96 2003; Westerhold et al., 2012; Lauretano et al., 2015, 2018). A new astronomically-tuned, benthic
97 foraminiferal record at ODP Site 1209, North Pacific, recommends that the J event, dated at 53.26
98 Ma, be adopted as the base of the EECO (Westerhold et al., 2018). In the hemipelagic succession of
99 eastern Marlborough, New Zealand (Fig. 1), this CIE coincides with a transition from limestone to
100 marl-dominated sediments (Hollis et al., 2005 a, b), which is inferred to reflect hydrological changes
101 linked to the EECO (Slotnick et al, 2012, 2015; Dallanave et al., 2014). The top of the EECO is tied to

102 a CIE in uppermost Chron C22n (C22nH5), dated at 49.14 Ma, that is coincident with the onset of a
103 long-term cooling trend in the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record (Westerhold et al., 2018).

104 Thus, the EECO is currently considered to extend from 53.26 Ma to 49.14 Ma, Chron
105 C24n.2rH1 (J event) to uppermost Chron C22n (CIE C22nH5), an interval of 4.12 Myrs that extends
106 from the upper part of calcareous nannofossil zone NP11 to lower NP14 (Hollis et al., 2019). In terms
107 of New Zealand stages (Raine et al., 2015), the EECO extends from the late Waipawan to close to the
108 Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary (49.27 Ma) and includes the Waipawan/Mangaorapan boundary
109 at 52 Ma (Fig 2).

110

111 **3. Previous early to middle Eocene studies at mid-Waipara River**

112 The lower–middle Eocene Ashley Mudstone succession outcrops along the river bed (Fig. 1),
113 and three sample suites have been collected (Supp. Information Fig. 1). Two suites, from 2003 and
114 2007, are integrated into one composite section (Morgans et al., 2005) and have been the focus of
115 several studies, including $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotopes, Mg/Ca ratios, GDGT analyses, and biostratigraphy (Hollis et
116 al., 2009, 2012; Creech et al., 2010; Pancost et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2013; Inglis et al., 2015). As
117 part of a magnetostratigraphic study (Dallanave et al., 2016), a third suite was taken in 2012 (Fig. 3)
118 from the same river bed section as the 2003 collection. Oriented samples for paleomagnetic analyses
119 were taken over a ~45 m stratigraphic interval. Six magnetic polarity reversals were correlated to
120 magnetic polarity Chrons C23n.2n to C21 n, with the aid of nannofossil and foraminiferal
121 biostratigraphy. This correlation spans from ~51.5–47 Ma, based on the orbitally-tuned Eocene
122 timescale of Westerhold et al. (2017), and provides a magnetostratigraphically calibrated age for the
123 base of the NZ Heretaungan Stage, i.e., 49.27 Ma (C22n(0.6)).

124 Following the recommendation of van Hinsbergen et al. (2015), our paleogeographic
125 reconstruction (Fig. 1) and Eocene locations of the sites mentioned in the text are based on a
126 paleomagnetic reference frame (Matthews et al., 2016). This reference frame is more suitable than a
127 mantle-based reference frame for paleoceanographic and paleoclimate studies because it is tied to the

128 Earth's spin axis and therefore more accurately represents true paleolatitude. As noted by van
129 Hinsbergen et al. (2015), this change in reference frame moves Southwest Pacific Paleogene sites
130 northward by $\sim 10^\circ$ and the mid-Waipara site shifts from the previously reported paleolatitude of 55°S
131 (e.g. Hollis et al., 2009, 2012) to 46°S (Fig. 1).

132

133 **4. Material and methods**

134 *4.1 Mid-Waipara River section and samples*

135 The mid-Waipara River section (Fig. 1) is situated ~ 13 km west of the Waipara township,
136 north Canterbury, and includes the area downstream from Doctors Gorge to top of the Amuri
137 Limestone in what is referred to as the 'lower gorge' (NZ Map Series 260, reference M34/755 946–
138 M34/789 944). The Ashley Mudstone comprises low-dipping calcareous mudstone outcropping in the
139 river bed (Morgans et al., 2005). Strata are well-exposed in the central part, but exposure is more
140 variable in the upper and lower parts, and highly dependent on river level and sediment load. Samples
141 are examined from two suites, the 2007 and 2012 collections (Fig. 3; Supp. Information Fig. 1). The
142 two collections are correlated by biostratigraphy and lithology, as the reference marker used in the
143 2007 collection was washed away and direct field correlation was not possible. The base of the 2012
144 (M34/f930) and top of the 2007 (M34/f889) collections are inferred to be separated by a stratigraphic
145 gap of ~ 1 m. Eleven samples (M34/f899–f889) were collected in 2007 from ~ 15 m of stratigraphic
146 section, although the middle part of the section (-13.2 to -6.6 m) could not be sampled as the river
147 level was too high. In 2012, a detailed suite of 118 samples (M34/f930–f1047) were taken from ~ 66.5
148 m of section.

149

150 *4.2 Microfossils*

151 Biostratigraphic and paleoenvironmental studies were completed for foraminifera, calcareous
152 nannofossils, dinocysts, and spores and pollen. All paleontological samples, residues and slides are

153 stored in the National Paleontological Collection at GNS Science, Lower Hutt, NZ. Biostratigraphic
154 data are in the Appendix (Supp. Information).

155

156 *4.2.1 Foraminifera*

157 A total of 92 samples were processed, with 500 g of dried sediment washed over a 75 µm
158 screen for each sample. The residues were then dried, reweighed and half was retained for a
159 quantitative census. The remaining half of the residues were qualitatively picked to obtain a
160 comprehensive faunal assemblage that was used for biostratigraphy and paleodepth. A subsequent
161 count was completed to calculate the planktic/benthic foraminiferal ratio, and this value is expressed
162 as the proportion of planktic specimens in the total foraminiferal assemblage (planktic abundance).

163

164 *4.2.2 Calcareous nannofossils*

165 Smear slides were made for 34 samples using standard techniques (Bown and Young, 1998).
166 In some cases, samples contained a large amount of fine sand and strewn slides were prepared
167 according to the method of Bown and Young (1998). Slides were analysed using an Olympus BX53
168 microscope at 1000x magnification in plane-transmitted light (PL), cross-polarized light (XPL) and
169 phase contrast (PC) light. Relative abundance of taxa was determined from counts of 450 specimens
170 along random traverses of each slide, followed by scanning to identify additional rare species.
171 Specimens were identified to species level following the taxonomic concepts of Perch-Nielsen (1985),
172 Bown (1998, 2005), Dunkley Jones et al. (2009) and Shamrock and Watkins (2012). Results are
173 correlated to the zonation scheme of Martini (1971), with subzones as defined by Aubry (1991) and
174 absolute ages for events calibrated to Gradstein et al. (2012) and Hollis et al. (2019). Full synonymies
175 for all taxa mentioned in this paper are available in the publications listed above. To examine
176 paleotemperature changes, we distinguish cool- and warm-water taxa based on previous studies that
177 use statistical analyses of assemblage data (e.g., cluster analysis, principal component analysis) to
178 interpret patterns and relationships among taxa (e.g. Wei and Wise, 1990; Siesser, 1993; Bralower,

179 2002; Villa and Persico, 2006; Villa et al., 2008; Schneider et al., 2011; Shamrock and Watkins,
180 2012). Cool-water taxa comprise *Chiasmolithus* spp. and *Reticulofenestra daviesii*, while warm-water
181 taxa comprise *Discoaster* spp., *Sphenolithus* spp. and *Coccolithus formosus*.

182

183 4.2.3. Palynomorphs

184 A total of 45 samples were processed using standard palynological processing techniques.
185 Between 21 and 31 g of sediment was crushed, dried and the carbonate and siliceous component
186 removed by adding 10% HCl and 50% HF, respectively. Samples were oxidised, for up to 10 minutes,
187 using 70% HNO₃ and washed with 5% NH₄OH to disaggregate amorphous and organic debris. Some
188 samples were placed in an ultrasonic bath (for up to 1 minute) prior to sieving. All samples were
189 sieved over a 6 µm mesh, and well-mixed representative fractions of the >6 µm residue mounted on
190 glass slides using a glycerine jelly medium. The relative abundance of palynomorphs was determined
191 in three ways; 1) ~200 dinocysts counted for 43 samples, 2) ~200 spores/pollen counted for 33
192 samples, and 3) ~150 marine and terrestrial palynomorphs counted for 37 samples. At least one extra
193 slide was scanned for additional rare species. Quantitative results are shown as a percentage of the
194 total count, or with reference to the following: rare (1–5%), common (6–10%), frequent (11–20%),
195 abundant (21–40%) and super abundant (>40%). Dinocyst biostratigraphy is correlated to the
196 established New Zealand zonation (Morgans et al., 2004), with early Eocene zones based on Crouch
197 (2001; Fig. 2). An alternative South Pacific zonation (Bijl et al., 2013a) is not utilised because several
198 index species are either not present at mid-Waipara (e.g., lowest occurrence (LO) of *Arachnodinium*
199 *antarcticum*) or seem to have diachronous ranges (e.g. highest occurrence (HO) of *Palaeocystodinium*
200 *golzowense* is older in New Zealand than recorded at ODP Site 1172, East Tasman Plateau).

201 To examine paleotemperature changes, we distinguish taxa with a low-latitude (warm-water)
202 affinity from those with a Southern Ocean (cooler-water) affinity. Our warm-water group includes
203 taxa of the Wetzelielloideae subfamily: *Apectodinium*, *Charelsdowniea*, *Dracodinium*,
204 *Rhombodinium*, *Wetzeliella* and *Wilsonidium*. The genus *Apectodinium* evolved in equatorial regions,
205 with a LO close to the Danian/Selandian boundary (~61 Ma, Guasti et al., 2005; Awad and Oboh-

206 Ikuenobe, 2016), while other Wetzelielloideae taxa (*Rhombodinium*, *Wilsonidium*) have LOs in north-
207 east India (Prasad et al., 2006) and the Tethys (Iakovleva and Heilmann-Clausen, 2007) in sediments
208 dated as latest Paleocene. Recent work suggests the lower SST tolerance of Wetzelielloideae was $20 \pm$
209 2.5°C (Frieling et al., 2014). The genus *Homotryblium* also evolved in low latitudes, with a LO near
210 the base of the Thanetian (upper Foraminifera Zone P4a, Iakovleva et al., 2001; Crouch et al., 2003;
211 Slimani et al., 2016). We keep the *Homotryblium* genus separate from the Wetzelielloideae group as it
212 has a different morphology and may have had a broader SST range, from tropical–warm temperate
213 (Köthe, 1990; Brinkhuis, 1994), although a recent study suggests it is part of an epicystal
214 Goniodomideae ecogroup that preferred SSTs $>25 \pm 2.5^\circ\text{C}$ (Frieling and Sluijs, 2018). Taxa
215 associated with the Endemic Antarctic Community (EAC), or transantarctic community (Wrenn and
216 Beckman, 1982; Bijl et al., 2011), are found south of $\sim 45^\circ\text{S}$ (Bijl et al., 2013b) and may have
217 preferred cooler Antarctica-derived surface currents, particularly in the late early Eocene–late Eocene
218 (Bijl et al., 2011, 2013b). In this study we identify a limited number of EAC taxa, comprising
219 *Alterbidinium asymmetricum*, *Deflandrea antarctica*, *Enneadocysta* group and *Spinidinium*
220 *macmurdoense*. Whilst Bijl et al. (2013b) considered *Membranophoridium perforatum* to be part of
221 the EAC, we do not include this taxon as it appears to have extended north of 45°S in some regions
222 (Wilson, 1988).

223

224 *4.3 Stable isotopes and carbonate content*

225 A total of 68 samples were analysed for carbonate content and bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
226 at the National Isotope Centre, GNS Science. Samples were analysed on the GVI IsoPrime
227 Preparation System at a reaction temperature of 25°C for 24 hours and run via dual inlet on the
228 IsoPrime mass spectrometer. All results are reported with respect to VPDB, normalised to an internal
229 GNS Marble standard (2.04‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and -6.40‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$). Precision is 0.1‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 0.2‰
230 for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Appendix, Supp. Information).

231

232 4.4 Organic geochemistry

233 A total of 68 samples were analysed for glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) at the
234 Organic Geochemistry Unit, University of Bristol (Appendix, Supp. Information). Sediments were
235 freeze-dried and powdered with a pestle and mortar. Biomarker lipids were extracted from between 30
236 and 50 g of sediment using Soxhlet technique and 220 ml of a 9:1 mixture (v/v) of dichloromethane
237 (DCM) and methanol (MeOH). Sediments were extracted for 24 hrs at ~70 °C with activated copper
238 to remove elemental sulfur. The total lipid extract (TLE) was concentrated using a rotary evaporator,
239 then dried under a gentle flow of nitrogen. Open column flash chromatography (alumina) was used to
240 separate the TLE into apolar and polar fractions using 4 ml of dichloromethane (DCM):hexane (9:1)
241 and 4 ml of DCM:Methanol (MeOH) (1:2), respectively. Both fractions were fully dried under a
242 gentle flow of nitrogen. The polar fraction was redissolved in a mixture of hexane and *iso*-propanol
243 (IPA) (99:1) and filtered through a 0.45 µm PTFE filter. Filtered polar fractions were analysed for
244 their core-lipid GDGTs distribution by high performance liquid chromatography/atmospheric pressure
245 chemical ionisation-mass spectrometry (HPLC/APCI-MS) using a ThermoFisher Scientific Accela
246 Quantum Access triplequadrupole MS. Normal phase separation was achieved using two ultra-high
247 performance liquid chromatography silica columns, following the methods of Hopmans et al. (2016).
248 Injection volume was 15 out of 100 µl. Analyses were performed using selective ion monitoring mode
249 (SIM) to increase sensitivity and reproducibility (*m/z* 1302, 1300, 1298, 1296, 1294, 1292, 1050,
250 1048, 1046, 1036, 1034, 1032, 1022, 1020, 1018, 744, and 653). Sample results were integrated
251 manually using the Xcalibur software.

252

253 4.5 GDGT-based calibrations and indices

254 We used the distribution of isoprenoidal GDGTs as reflected in the TetraEther index of
255 tetraethers consisting of 86 carbon atoms (TEX₈₆) to reconstruct SST (Schouten et al., 2002).

256 eq. (1)
$$\text{TEX}_{86} = \frac{[\textit{isoGDGT-2}] + [\textit{isoGDGT-3}] + [\textit{cre. regio isomer}]}{[\textit{isoGDGT-1}] + [\textit{isoGDGT-2}] + [\textit{isoGDGT-3}] + [\textit{cren. regio isomer}]}$$

257 To capture the range of potential SST estimates that may be derived from this proxy we applied two
 258 different calibrations: the BAYSPAR deep time analogue calibration (Tierney and Tingley, 2014,
 259 2015; Tierney et al., 2017), which is based on a linear relationship between TEX_{86} and SST, and the
 260 $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calibration (Kim et al., 2010), which is based on an exponential relationship (Hollis et al.,
 261 2019). The $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{L}}$ calibration is not used because it has been found to have significant shortcomings
 262 (Hollis et al., 2019). The BAYSPAR deep-time calibration has been applied to reconstruct SSTs
 263 during greenhouse periods such as the early Paleogene (Naafs et al., 2018), PETM (Tierney and
 264 Tingley, 2014) and Cretaceous (Naafs and Pancost, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2017). For the BAYSPAR
 265 calibration, we used a prior of $30 \pm 20^\circ\text{C}$ and search tolerance of 0.13. The resulting analogue
 266 locations are all located in the tropics or subtropics, including the Red Sea (this data is excluded from
 267 the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calibration). Selecting different values for the prior (e.g. $25\text{--}35^\circ\text{C}$) does not result in
 268 significantly different SST results. Although part of our data lies above the modern calibration range
 269 for TEX_{86} , the data lie within the range of mesocosm experiments that indicate TEX_{86} remains
 270 (linearly) correlated to temperature at SSTs up to 40°C (Schouten et al., 2007). The BAYSPAR deep-
 271 time calibration incorporates this range into its error calculation.

272 Following Inglis et al. (2015) we identify an *iso*GDGT distribution similar to that found at
 273 present in the Red Sea (Trommer et al., 2009) using;

$$274 \quad \text{eq. (2) } \text{isoGDGT}_{\text{rs}}(\%) = \frac{[\text{cren. regio isomer}]}{[\text{cren. regio isomer}] + [\text{isoGDGT-0}]} \times 100$$

275 In addition, we also calculate the Branched versus Isoprenoidal Tetraether (BIT) index (Hopmans
 276 et al., 2004).

$$277 \quad \text{eq. (3) } \text{BIT} = \frac{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIa}' + \text{IIIa} + \text{IIIa}'}{\text{Ia} + \text{IIa} + \text{IIa}' + \text{IIIa} + \text{IIIa}' + \text{cren.}}$$

278 BIT reflects the relative abundance of *br*GDGTs that are abundant in mineral soil and peat (Weijers et
 279 al., 2006; Weijers et al., 2007; Naafs et al., 2017b) versus a specific archaeal *iso*GDGT, crenarchaeol,
 280 produced by *Thaumarchaeota* that is more abundant in the marine realm (Sinninghe Damsté et al.,
 281 2002). High BIT values are typically found in soils and lacustrine archives, and are therefore

282 generally used to indicate a high input of terrestrial-derived GDGTs, which can result in unreliable
283 SST estimates (Hopmans et al., 2004). However, it is important to note that brGDGTs can also be
284 produced *in situ* in marine sediments and do not always purely reflect changes in terrestrial input
285 (Sinninghe Damsté, 2016). BIT values <0.3 indicate terrestrial-derived GDGTs likely have little effect
286 on TEX₈₆-based SST estimates (Hopmans et al., 2004).

287 The methane index (MI) (Zhang et al., 2011) is defined as;

288 eq. (4)
$$MI = \frac{[isoGDGT-1] + [isoGDGT-2] + [isoGDGT-3]}{[isoGDGT-1] + [isoGDGT-2] + [isoGDGT-3] + [Cren.] + [cren. regio isomer]}$$

289 A MI >0.5 indicates a contribution of methanogens to the GDGT pool that can bias TEX₈₆-based SST.

290

291 **5. Results**

292 *5.1 Stratigraphy, age control and fossil assemblages*

293 The stratigraphy of the section is described in relation to five Eocene New Zealand Stages
294 (Fig. 2): Waipawan, Mangaorapan, Heretaungan, Porangan and Bortonian (Cooper et al., 2004; Raine
295 et al., 2015), which extend from earliest Eocene to latest middle Eocene (56 to 39.1 Ma).
296 Biostratigraphic data are in the Appendix (Supp. Information).

297

298 *5.1.1. Lithostratigraphy*

299 The ~80 m section is mainly a moderately indurated, partly calcareous, grey mudstone, which
300 is glauconite rich in the upper part of the section. An abrupt coarsening of sediment occurs at ~59 m,
301 with overlying sediments containing common medium- to coarse-grained glauconite (Fig. 3).
302 Magnetostratigraphy and calcareous microfossil biostratigraphy provide a good age framework
303 (Dallanave et al., 2016). The section extends from lower–middle Eocene (~55.5–42 Ma; Waipawan–
304 lower Bortonian), with an unexposed interval in the Waipawan part of the section (-13.1 to -6.7 m).
305 The abrupt change in sediment type at 59 m coincides with an unconformity that spans ~3 Myr:

306 uppermost Heretaungan, Porangan and lowermost Bortonian (middle Eocene) sediments are not
307 preserved.

308

309 5.1.2 Foraminifera

310 Foraminifera are poorly preserved in the lowermost part of the section (-16.15 to -13.2 m),
311 but an earliest Eocene (Waipawan) age is inferred from identifiable specimens of *Globanomalina*
312 *australiformis* and *Morozovella aequa* (Fig. 3). Foraminifera are relatively well preserved, abundant
313 and diverse above the unexposed section, from -6.61 to 66.5 m, although preservation is poor above
314 59 m, coincident with the occurrence of greensand beds. The Waipawan/Mangaorapan boundary is
315 identified at -3.99 m based on the lowest occurrence (LO) of *Morozovella crater*. The base of the
316 Heretaungan stage is identified by the LO of the marker benthic species *Elphidium hamptenense* at
317 27.51 m, and the species is present up to 58.55 m. Two species of the genus *Morozovella*, *M. crater*
318 and *M. lensiformis*, are present in all samples from -3.99 to 57.9 m and the genus is only absent in the
319 uppermost Heretaungan sample (58.55 m). The primary datum for the Porangan Stage, benthic
320 species *Elphidium saginatum*, is not identified in the section. The base of the Bortonian is identified
321 by the primary datum, LO of *Globigerinatheka index*, directly above the unconformity at 59.71 m,
322 and is supported by the LOs of *Bulimina bortonica* at 59.71 m and *Acarinina primitiva* at 63.05 m.

323 Planktic foraminiferal abundance is low in the early Waipawan (average 3%) but increases to
324 >40% in the late Waipawan. Several pulses of high abundance, >70%, are seen in the early–middle
325 Mangaorapan, whereas the late Mangaorapan has stable planktic abundance (Fig. 3). There is a
326 general abundance drop in the Heretaungan, with the average value (38%) noticeably lower than in
327 the Mangaorapan (65%).

328

329 5.1.3 Calcareous nannofossils

330 A summary of the detailed calcareous nannofossil biostratigraphy by Shepherd and Kulhanek
331 (2016) is provided here. The presence of *Rhomboaster bramlettei* at -15.25 m places the base of the

332 section in Zone NP10, early Eocene (Fig. 3). The LO of *Sphenolithus radians* at -6.61 m is used as a
333 secondary marker for the base of NP11 (Backman, 1986) rather than the index species *Tribrachiatus*
334 *contortus*, which is absent. The LO of *Tribrachiatus orthostylus*, an event within the upper part of
335 NP10 (Pälike et al., 2010), co-occurs with the LO of *S. radians*, suggesting the upper part of NP10 is
336 within the non-exposed interval from -13.2 to -6.6 m. The LO of *Discoaster lodoensis* at -2.87 m,
337 earliest Mangaorapan, marks the base of NP12. It is possible that *D. lodoensis* has a delayed LO at
338 mid-Waipara, given that in the nearby Mead Stream section the LO of *D. lodoensis* occurs ~36 m
339 below the LO of *Morozovella crater* and at mid-Waipara these two bioevents occur within ~1 m
340 (Supp. Information Fig. 2). The HO of *T. orthostylus*, marker for the base of NP13, is observed at
341 11.13 m and lower Chron C22r (mid-Mangaorapan). The absence of *Discoaster sublodoensis*, marker
342 for the base of NP14, means the NP13/NP14 boundary cannot be identified. However, the base of
343 NP14 is known to occur in lower Chron C22n (Hollis et al., 2019), which is well-defined at mid-
344 Waipara. From this we infer that the NP13/14 boundary lies in the late Mangaorapan, between ~20.7
345 and 27 m. Some or all of Zone NP15 (i.e., late Heretaungan–latest Porangan) is inferred to be missing
346 because the markers for the base of NP15 and base of Subzone NP15b (LOs of *Nannotetrina fulgens*
347 and *Chiasmolithus gigas*, respectively) are not observed. The base of NP16 is difficult to identify as
348 both the primary and secondary markers, *Blackites gladius* and *Nannotetrina alata/fulgens*, are not
349 observed. However, *Reticulofenestra umbilicus* (>14µm) and *Reticulofenestra reticulata* both have
350 LOs in Zone NP16 (Pälike et al., 2010) and at mid-Waipara they co-occur at 62.26 m, early
351 Bortonian. This suggests the lower part of Zone NP16 is missing, given that *R. reticulata* evolved at
352 least several hundred thousand years after *R. umbilicus* (Gradstein et al., 2012; Agnini et al., 2014).
353 Nannofossil and foraminiferal biostratigraphy agree that the unconformity at ~59 m encompasses the
354 latest Heretaungan–earliest Bortonian (Fig. 3).

355 Nannofossil preservation is linked to carbonate content in this section. A positive correlation
356 is observed between carbonate content and the visual observation of preservation (VOP), as well as
357 the relative abundance of *Zygrhablithus bijugatus*, a species sensitive to dissolution (Jiang and Wise,
358 2009; Fig. 4). Poorly preserved assemblages occur in the Waipawan (NP10) and upper Heretaungan

359 (NP14) parts of the section where CaCO₃ is <10% and generally <15%, respectively. The best-
360 preserved assemblages are in the Mangaorapan, from the base of Zone NP12 to NP13–lower NP14,
361 where CaCO₃ is >15%. An increase in taxon richness and diversity is seen from the base of NP12,
362 consistent with the increase in preservation. Overall, the covariance between preservation and
363 diversity indices suggests preservation is an important factor influencing diversity in this section
364 (Shepherd, 2017).

365

366 5.1.4 *Dinoflagellate cysts*

367 Dinocyst assemblages are generally abundant and well preserved. Integration of index taxa
368 (Wilson, 1988; Morgans et al., 2004) with magnetostratigraphy and calcareous microfossil
369 biostratigraphy allows the age control of key species to be improved (Fig. 3). In the Waipawan, the
370 LOs of several zonal taxa are recorded: *Samlandia delicata* (NZE2a, -15.25 m) and *Impagidinium*
371 *cassiculum* (NZE2b, -13.20 m) occur in nannofossil Zone NP10, whereas the LO of *Dracodinium*
372 *waipawaense* (NZE3) is in Zone NP11 (-6.61 m). The range of *Wilsonidium ornatum* (NZE4) is
373 restricted to the Mangaorapan (Zone NP12 to NP13; -2.87–17.83 m). The LOs of key taxa
374 *Charlesdowniea coleothrypta* (19.98 m) and *Charlesdowniea edwardsii* (22.14 m) occur in the late
375 Mangaorapan. The HO of *C. coleothrypta* (26.75 m) is in upper Chron C22n, close to the
376 Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary, and the HO of *C. edwardsii* is early Heretaungan (32.40 m).
377 The onset of common–frequent *Membranophoridium perforatum*, a regional bioevent (Wilson, 1984,
378 1988), occurs in the Heretaungan close to the Chron C21r/C21n boundary.

379 Additional taxa offer potential to further refine the early–middle Eocene zonation. The LO of
380 *Impagidinium crassimuratum* and HO of *Manumiella rotunda* occur in Zone NP10 (early Waipawan).
381 The LOs of *Membranophoridium perforatum*, *Schematophora obscura* and the genus *Homotryblum*
382 are in Zone NP11 (late Waipawan). The LO of *Danea crassimuratum* is in Zone NP12 (early
383 Mangaorapan). The LO of *Achilleodinium biformoides*, *Deflandrea antarctica* and *Impagidinium*
384 *parvireticulum* are in Chron C22n (late Mangaorapan). The HO of the *Apectodinium* genus is close to
385 the Chron C22r/C22n boundary, late Mangaorapan. Fewer bioevents are seen in the Heretaungan.

386 Endemic Antarctic Community taxa (Bijl et al., 2011), *Alterbidinium asymmetricum* and *Spinidinium*
387 *macmurdoense*, have LOs in lower Chron C21r, correlated with Zone NP14.

388

389 5.1.5 Spores and pollen

390 Spore and pollen abundance ranges from 22–43% of the total palynomorph assemblage.
391 Three zones (Raine, 1984; Morgans et al., 2004) are identified: PM3b, MH1 and MH2 (Fig. 3). The
392 lower part of the section (-16.15 m to -13.2 m) is correlated with the earliest Eocene PM3b Zone,
393 based on thermophilic taxa *Cupanieidites orthoteichus* and *Spinizonocolpites prominatus*, and rare
394 *Myricipites harrisii* (Raine et al., 2009; Handley et al., 2011). The base of Zone MH1, defined by a
395 noticeable increase in *M. harrisii* abundance, occurs between -13.2 m and -6.61 m (late Waipawan).
396 *M. harrisii* is common–abundant from this level to the late Heretaungan (57.93 m) and this interval is
397 correlated with Zone MH1. The tropical-subtropical spore *Crassoretitriletes vanraadshooveni*
398 (*Lygodium*) has a HO in the late Mangaorapan. The overlying Bortonian interval is correlated with
399 Zone MH2 based on the presence of *Nothofagidites flemingii*.

400

401 5.2 Carbonate content, and carbon and oxygen isotopes

402 Carbonate (CaCO₃) content is relatively low in the mid-Waipara section, never >30% (Fig.
403 5a). It is <15% in the earliest Eocene (early Waipawan) and most of the middle Eocene
404 (Heretaungan–early Bortonian). The highest CaCO₃ values, albeit variable, are in the late Waipawan
405 and Mangaorapan (early Eocene), also where well-preserved and abundant calcareous microfossil
406 assemblages are recovered. The primary source for CaCO₃ in this section is assumed to be calcareous
407 nannofossils. Variation in the relative abundance of planktic foraminifera suggests that the secondary
408 source may vary from calcareous benthic foraminifera in the early Waipawan and Heretaungan–
409 Bortonian, to planktics in the Mangaorapan. CaCO₃ content has a weak negative correlation with bulk
410 carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = -0.25$, $n = 68$, $p < 0.05$), is not correlated with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and has a strong positive
411 correlation with TEX₈₆ ($r = 0.60$, $n = 68$, $p < 0.001$). Under typical ocean conditions, benthic

412 foraminifera will have lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values than planktic foraminifera because the biological carbon
413 pump delivers ^{12}C -enriched organic matter to the sea floor.

414 Bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values range from -0.8‰ to 1.6‰, with a general trend towards higher
415 values from early to middle Eocene (Fig. 5b). A positive excursion, of ~1‰, occurs in the earliest
416 Eocene (early Waipawan). The most negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value in the section, -0.8‰, is recorded at -6.61 m
417 in the late Waipawan, Zone NP11, and marks the first of a series of six (#1–6) negative carbon isotope
418 excursions (CIEs) in the Waipawan–Mangaorapan (early Eocene), which are superimposed on a
419 positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ trend. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ minimum within each CIE also increases over time, from -0.7‰ at -2.12
420 m to 0.7‰ at 26.75 m. A baseline positive shift (0.7–1.5‰) is recorded across the
421 Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary. Through most of the Heretaungan $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values remain stable,
422 although a shift to lower values occurs in the late Heretaungan between ~50 and 59 m. The Bortonian
423 section is marked by variable $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, from -0.2‰ to 1.4‰, with a possible negative CIE at 62.26
424 m. The CIEs tend to be associated with lower CaCO_3 values but not in all cases (e.g., CIEs #3 and
425 #5). Some of the negative shifts in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the earliest Waipawan and Heretaungan may be partly due
426 the low abundance of planktic foraminifera, because benthic foraminiferal calcite is generally more
427 enriched in ^{12}C . However, the lack of a consistent relationship between the CIEs in the late Waipawan
428 and Mangaorapan and planktic abundance suggests that foraminiferal calcite is not the primary source
429 of carbonate in this interval.

430 The bulk carbonate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record is not correlated with other geochemical proxies (Appendix,
431 Supp. Information Fig. 3) and the general trend is inconsistent with other early Eocene $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records
432 (e.g., Westerhold et al., 2018; Barnet et al., 2019). Values in the range of -2.5 to -4‰ yield
433 temperatures in the range of 22–30°C, which are consistent with SSTs reported in previous studies
434 (Hollis et al., 2009, 2012). However, these values are interspersed with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values that range from -4
435 to -6.4‰ and yield unrealistically hot temperatures (up to 42°C). These values are likely to result
436 from post-depositional interactions with ^{18}O -depleted meteoric water (Hollis et al., 2012). Because we
437 have no way of discriminating between reliable and unreliable values, the bulk oxygen $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record is

438 not discussed further in this article. The bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record is not affected by meteoric water
439 interactions.

440

441 *5.3 GDGT distributions*

442 Both isoprenoidal and branched GDGTs are present in all samples, and the TEX_{86} and BIT
443 records are broadly consistent with previously reported Eocene records from this section (Hollis et al.,
444 2009, 2012). The most notable change in the TEX_{86} record is in the basal part of the section, where
445 values increase from 0.65–0.7 in the early Waipawan to >0.8 in the late Waipawan (Fig. 5c). These
446 high TEX_{86} values continue up to 5.23 m in the early Mangaorapan (Chron C23n.2n). The overlying
447 TEX_{86} record is characterized by a gradual decline into the middle Eocene, with a sharp decrease at
448 the Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary. Average TEX_{86} values in the Heretaungan are lower (0.7)
449 than in the Mangaorapan (0.8). TEX_{86} values in the early Bartonian, Zone NP 16, are variable and
450 range between 0.55 and 0.7. There is a strong negative correlation ($r = -0.54$, $n = 68$, $p < 0.001$)
451 between TEX_{86} and bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Most early Eocene CIEs appear to be associated with higher
452 TEX_{86} , implying that these CIEs represent hyperthermals.

453 The methane index (MI) is ≤ 0.30 in all samples, indicating that TEX_{86} values are not biased
454 by a large contribution of methanogens to the GDGT pool. Low BIT indices (<0.25) throughout the
455 section indicate that TEX_{86} values are likely not significantly biased by terrestrial input. BIT values
456 are lowest (<0.1) in the Waipawan and increase progressively through the overlying Mangaorapan
457 and Heretaungan Stages (Fig. 5d). The BIT index is highly variable in the early–middle Mangaorapan
458 (Zone NP12), with lower values associated with the hyperthermals (high TEX_{86}) and higher values
459 associated with positive excursions in bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Overall, the BIT index exhibits a weak
460 negative correlation with TEX_{86} and a strong positive correlation with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = -0.24$, $p < 0.05$ and
461 0.65 , $p < 0.001$, respectively, $n = 68$). The anticorrelation between the BIT index and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is difficult
462 to interpret, if we assume the BIT index purely reflects changes in terrestrial input, particularly the
463 decrease in BIT and, hence, terrigenous supply during the negative CIEs. Previous studies in Eocene
464 sections to the north (Marlborough, Fig. 1) have shown that hyperthermals are associated with

465 increased terrigenous input in bathyal settings (Hollis et al., 2005a; Nicolo et al., 2007; Slotnick et al.,
466 2012, 2015), and this would be expected to be associated with an increase in BIT values. At mid-
467 Waipara, however, we observe a decrease in BIT values during negative CIEs, which implies reduced
468 terrigenous input and may be a localised response to transient climate events, such as current
469 winnowing of finer sediments. However, the BIT index can be influenced by other factors and does
470 not always purely represent a simple two end-member model between pure marine and terrestrial
471 input. For example, the reduced BIT could reflect a relative increase in crenarchaeol over brGDGT
472 input during the hyperthermals, or the BIT may respond to changes in the contribution of *in situ*
473 produced brGDGTs to the sedimentary GDGT pool. Either way, the low BIT values indicate that a
474 relatively low amount of the GDGT pool is derived from soils.

475 The brGDGTs found in these marine samples (Appendix) could also contain brGDGTs
476 generated in the water column or marine sediments, rather than from land-based soils, which
477 complicates the use of brGDGTs in these sediments to quantify terrestrial temperature (De Jonge et
478 al., 2014b; Sinninghe Damsté, 2016). A non-soil source of brGDGTs to the sediments at mid-Waipara
479 is further supported by the observation that the relative abundance (%) of penta- or hexamethylated
480 versus tetramethylated brGDGTs is higher than that seen in any modern mineral soil or peat (Supp.
481 Information Fig. 4). The number of rings of pentamethylated brGDGTs versus the number of rings of
482 hexamethylated brGDGTs is also significantly higher than that seen in any modern mineral soil or
483 peat. We therefore do not discuss brGDGT-based terrestrial temperatures at mid-Waipara River.

484

485 *5.4 The Early Eocene Climatic Optimum in the mid-Waipara River section*

486 A combination of biostratigraphy, magnetostratigraphy, bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and
487 TEX_{86} is used to determine the position of the EECO in the mid-Waipara section. As discussed
488 earlier, the EECO is inferred to extend from 53.26–49.14 Ma, Chron C24n.2r (J event, mid-NP11) to
489 uppermost Chron C22n (C22nH5 event, lower NP14) (Westerhold et al., 2018). The lowest chron
490 identified in mid-Waipara is C23.2n, which lies in Zone NP12 (Fig. 5). The interval directly overlying
491 the unexposed interval in the lower part of the section (Waipawan, -6.61 m) is correlated with NP11,

492 has the highest TEX_{86} values in the section, and also has what we infer to be the first of six CIEs in
493 the section. For these reasons, we place the base of the EECO at this level (Fig. 6). There are
494 uncertainties, however, constraining the age of the lower part of the section (Supp. Information Fig.
495 2), and we infer the CIE at this level (#1) to correspond with either the J event (C24n.2rH1) or the K
496 event (C24n.1nH1). The upper limit of the EECO in this section is well recorded. We place it at the
497 uppermost CIE (#6), which lies within upper Chron C22n and coincides with the onset of a cooling
498 trend in the TEX_{86} record (Fig. 5). Given the age of the Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary, at 49.27
499 Ma (C22n(0.6)) and magnetostratigraphy in this part of the section, we infer CIE #6 to correspond
500 with the C22nH4 event (49.25 Ma). This suggests that cooling at mid-Waipara began slightly earlier
501 than the top EECO as recognised by Westerhold et al. (2018) at 49.14 Ma (C22nH5).

502 Combining these two datums with the integrated magnetobiochronology for the section
503 (Appendix, Supp. Information), calibrated to the timescale of Westerhold et al. (2017), allows us to
504 provisionally correlate the other CIEs in the section as follows: #2 = C23rH2 or M event; #3 =
505 C23n.2nH2 or O event; #4 = C22rH1 or Q event; #5 = C22rH4 or T event (Fig. 6). The major positive
506 shift in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ during C23n (51.2–51 Ma; Westerhold et al., 2018) is not clearly observed at mid-
507 Waipara, perhaps due to the presence of cryptic unconformities in this part of the section.

508

509 5.5 Paleoenvironmental changes

510 5.5.1 Foraminiferal assemblage

511 Benthic foraminiferal paleodepth indicators (e.g. *Pleurostomella*, *Stilostomella* and
512 *Bathysiphon* spp.) suggest that the entire section was deposited in a middle bathyal setting (Appendix,
513 Supp. Information). The incoming of *Nuttallides carinotrumpyi* and the genera *Karrieriella* and
514 *Vulvulina* in the early EECO (late Waipawan and early Mangaorapan) indicate a deeper bathyal
515 setting. The presence of *Tritaxilina zealandica*, from mid EECO to earliest post-EECO (middle
516 Mangaorapan–early Heretaungan), suggests that this is the deepest interval in the section, probably
517 lower bathyal (Hayward, 1986; Hayward et al., 2010). Foraminiferal assemblages higher in the post-

518 EECO Heretaungan indicate shallowing with the disappearance of *Karreriella* and *T. zealandica*,
519 although middle bathyal indicators persist into the Bortonian.

520 Foraminiferal assemblages are affected by preservation. The best-preserved assemblages are
521 in the late Waipawan–Mangaorapan (EECO) where CaCO₃ content is highest. Planktic abundance
522 (Fig. 3) is also correlated with carbonate content (CaCO₃, $r = 0.76$, $n = 26$, $p < 0.001$) although this
523 may be due to a combination of factors, such as improved preservation and warmer conditions. Peaks
524 in planktic abundance align with three of the negative CIEs (#1, 2, 5) and may be directly related to
525 warmer SST or indirectly linked to warming by increased clay content, which can enhance
526 preservation (Hollis et al., 2019). However, we have not confirmed that CIEs in this section are
527 accompanied by an increase in clay. A strong correlation with TEX₈₆ ($r = 0.84$, $n = 26$, $p < 0.001$)
528 provides further evidence that planktic abundance is linked to temperature. In the early Waipawan
529 (below the EECO), a combination of cooler SST (Fig. 5c) and poor preservation perhaps led to low
530 planktic abundance, despite the middle bathyal depositional setting. A similar trend is evident in the
531 late Heretaungan.

532

533 5.5.2 *Dinocyst assemblage*

534 Gonyaulacoid dinocysts, representative of autotrophic dinoflagellates (Dale, 1996), dominate
535 the Eocene assemblages and include the genera *Spiniferites*, *Operculodinium*, *Cerebrocysta* and
536 *Impagidinium* (Fig. 7). Peridinioids (e.g., *Spinidinium* spp.), predominantly heterotrophic
537 dinoflagellates, comprise <30% of the assemblage, apart from an interval in the late EECO (late
538 Mangaorapan) where they become super-abundant. Assemblages below the EECO, early Waipawan,
539 are dominated by cosmopolitan taxa, such as *Elytrocysta* spp., *Operculodinium* spp. and *Spiniferites*
540 spp., and peridinioids are frequent. Compared with the early Waipawan, assemblages in the EECO
541 (late Waipawan–Mangaorapan) are more diverse, with new taxa (e.g., *Batiacasphaera* spp.,
542 *Membranophoridium perforatum*, *Schematophora obscura*) becoming common, some cosmopolitan
543 taxa (e.g., *Elytrocysta* spp., *Operculodinium* spp.) declining in abundance, and taxa such as *Diphyes*
544 spp., *Hystrihokolpoma* spp. and *Impagidinium cassiculum* increasing in abundance. The tropical–

545 warm temperate genus *Homotryblium* is frequent–abundant in the early and middle EECO, with three
546 main abundance peaks ranging from 19–30%. In the late EECO, there is a significant increase (up to
547 40%) in peridinioid abundance, and they continue to be frequent–abundant in the overlying post-
548 EECO Heretaungan. Early Bortonian samples are a mix of cosmopolitan and more endemic (e.g.,
549 *Enneadocysta*) taxa.

550

551 5.5.3 Spore and pollen assemblage

552 Spores and pollen average 37% of palynomorph assemblages below the EECO (Fig. 8). This
553 abundance declines in the early–middle EECO, with a minimum value of 22% in Chron C22r, begins
554 to increase in the late EECO, and increases slightly in the post-EECO Heretaungan. Spore and pollen
555 abundance has a strong negative correlation ($r = -0.61$, $n = 35$, $p < 0.001$) with TEX_{86} and a moderate
556 positive correlation ($r = 0.33$, $n = 35$, $p < 0.05$) with BIT index. The parallel trend of increasing
557 terrestrial palynomorphs and BIT index in the late EECO and post-EECO Heretaungan suggests an
558 increasing contribution of terrestrial material in the sedimentary record as temperatures cooled
559 following the peak-EECO warmth.

560 Pre-EECO assemblages are dominated by gymnosperm pollen (up to 71%), particularly
561 *Podocarpidites* and the Araucarian taxon *Dilwynites granulatus*, and *Cyathidites* fern spores (Fig. 8).
562 In contrast, the early EECO shows a marked increase in angiosperm pollen, from <15% in the early
563 Waipawan up to 44% in the early Mangaorapan, and a concomitant decline in gymnosperm
564 abundance, most notably *Podocarpidites*. This angiosperm increase is mainly driven by a rise in
565 Casuarinaceae (*Myricipites harrisii*), although other angiosperms become more common, including
566 *Malvacipollis subtilis*, *Proteacidites* and *Tricolporopollenites latizonatus*. Vegetation remains
567 relatively stable in the EECO, with only a minor increase in *D. granulatus* and *Podocarpidites*
568 gymnosperms in the late EECO. The abundance of *M. harrisii*, and total angiosperms, decline slightly
569 in the Heretaungan and continue to decline in the early Bortonian, along with the incoming of the
570 cooler southern beech family Nothofagaceae genus *Nothofagus* (*Nothofagidites flemingii*).

571

572 5.6 Microfossil paleotemperature indicators

573 The relationship between microfossil assemblages and latitudinally constrained
574 environmental parameters, such as temperature and salinity, has been widely used to define
575 biogeographic zones, both in the modern ocean (e.g., McIntyre and Bé, 1967; Okada and Honjo,
576 1973; Prebble et al., 2013; Zonneveld et al., 2013) and in the geological record (e.g. Haq, 1981;
577 Hennissen et al., 2017). Whilst many environmental parameters have the potential to influence
578 microfossil distribution, SST has been shown to be the most important variable for calcareous
579 nannofossil (e.g., Haq et al., 1977; Haq, 1981; Wei and Wise, 1990) and dinocyst assemblages (e.g.,
580 De Vernal et al., 2005; Sluijs et al., 2005; Prebble et al., 2016; Frieling and Sluijs, 2018).

581 Warm-water indicators in the calcareous nannofossil assemblage, namely *Discoaster* spp.,
582 *Sphenolithus* spp. and *Coccolithus formosus*, are most abundant in the early and middle EECO, with a
583 combined abundance up to 19% (Fig. 4). The combined abundance of this warm-water group is also
584 high in the early Waipawan, below the EECO, and in the latest Heretaungan, post-EECO. This,
585 however, is due to the high preservation potential of *Discoaster* spp., which dominates the warm-
586 water assemblage in these intervals. In the EECO, cool-water indicators comprise <8% of the
587 assemblage, and they become more abundant (up to 17%) in the post-EECO Heretaungan. Initially,
588 the increase in cool-water taxa is related to an increase in *Reticulofenestra daviesii*, which is followed
589 by an increase in *Chiasmolithus* spp. in the late Heretaungan. The cool-water group has a moderate
590 negative correlation ($r = -0.43$, $n = 30$, $p < 0.02$) with TEX_{86} , whereas the warm-water group has a
591 weak positive correlation ($r = 0.30$, $n = 30$, $p < 0.1$); the weaker correlation is likely due to the
592 preservational effects noted above.

593 The abundance and diversity of the warm-water Wetzelielloideae dinocyst group is highest in
594 the EECO, comprising up to 7% of the assemblage and 7 taxa, and the group disappears entirely in the
595 post-EECO (Fig. 7). The warm temperate–tropical genus *Homotryblium* is first seen in the earliest
596 EECO and is abundant (up to 30%) in the early and middle EECO, and generally lower in the post-
597 EECO. The warm-water Wetzelielloideae group has a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.59$, $n = 41$, p

598 <0.001) with TEX_{86} , and there is a weak positive correlation ($r = 0.29$, $n = 41$, $p < 0.1$) between
599 *Homotryblium* and TEX_{86} . Taxa of the Endemic Antarctic Community (EAC) group are first noted in
600 the late EECO, with abundance progressively increasing (up to 17%) in the post-EECO. The EAC
601 group has a strong negative correlation ($r = -0.56$, $n = 41$, $p < 0.001$) with TEX_{86} . These correlations
602 between calcareous nannoplankton and dinocyst fossil assemblage-based proxies for temperature and
603 the independent SST proxy, TEX_{86} , provide convincing evidence that both approaches are reliable
604 guides to past water temperature.

605 The main vegetation change is an increase in angiosperm pollen, driven by a rise in
606 Casuarinaceae (*Myricipites harrisii*) in the early EECO (Fig. 8). *M. harrisii* abundance has a strong
607 positive correlation with TEX_{86} ($r = 0.76$, $n = 33$, $p < 0.001$). Angiosperms with affinities to
608 mesothermal–megathermal climates, such as *Anacolosidites*, *Bluffopollis scabratus*,
609 *Intratropipollenites notabilis* and *Margocolporites cribellatus*, are rare but occur below, in, and
610 above the EECO (Appendix, Supp. Information). Most of these taxa do not occur in the cooler early
611 Bortonian, but the thermophilic *Spinizonocolpites prominatus* (*Nypa* mangrove) and *Malvacipollis*
612 *subtilis* taxa continue to be present.

613

614 5.7 Sea-surface temperature

615 While the evidence above, as well as numerous other multiproxy studies, show that TEX_{86} is
616 a robust guide to relative changes in SST (e.g., Zachos et al., 2005; Pearson et al. 2007), there is
617 ongoing debate about how the proxy relates to absolute temperature in the Paleogene, and especially
618 to mean annual SST in middle–high latitudes (Hollis et al., 2012). Here we use the two most widely
619 used calibrations, TEX_{86}^H (Kim et al., 2010) and BAYSPAR_{SST} (Tierney and Tingley, 2015), which
620 yield similar absolute values in this record (Fig. 9a). TEX_{86}^H is based on an exponential relationship
621 with SST whereas BAYSPAR assumes a linear relationship, which results in higher values at the
622 upper end of the calibration (i.e. where $TEX_{86} > 0.7$) and especially beyond the range of the modern
623 calibration dataset. In our record, the amplitude of SST change is larger in BAYSPAR_{SST} than in
624 TEX_{86}^H (Fig. 9b).

625 The most marked shift in SST is in the Waipawan, from pre-EECO to early EECO, with an
626 increase of between ~7 and 12°C (Fig. 9b). BAYSPAR SST increases from ~22.5 to 35.5°C, whereas
627 $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ SST increases from ~26 to 33.5°C. SST is highest in the early EECO and declines slightly
628 through the middle and late EECO. The baseline shift to a lower SST in Chron C23n.2n (~5.2 m),
629 corresponding with the C23n.2nH2 or O Event (Fig. 6), matches North Pacific records that indicate
630 the end of the warmest interval in the EECO occurs in uppermost Chron C23n.2n at 51.23 Ma
631 (Westerhold et al., 2018). A decrease in TEX_{86} -derived SST occurs across the
632 Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary, and SST continues to decline in the post-EECO Heretaungan.
633 Lower SST is present in the early Bartonian (middle Eocene, Zone NP16), although a transient peak,
634 up to 25.2°C (BAYSPAR_{SST}) and 27.9°C ($\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$), is recorded and may represent the Middle Eocene
635 Climatic Optimum (MECO) at ~40 Ma.

636

637 *5.8 Red Sea-type GDGT distributions*

638 The %GDGT_{RS} distribution is used to identify sediments with unusually low amounts of
639 GDGT-0 relative to crenarchaeol regioisomer, which is characteristic for the GDGT distribution
640 found in modern sediments from the Red Sea (Trommer et al., 2009). Where %GDGT_{RS} >30 it is
641 inferred that the distribution is similar to that found in the Red Sea and may have added a warm bias
642 to SST estimates (Inglis et al., 2015). %GDGT_{RS} values >30 are common during times of elevated
643 warmth but may be a response to factors other than temperature given the distinct Red Sea archaeal
644 assemblages (Trommer et al., 2009). Crucially, the modern Red Sea data exert a particularly strong
645 influence on the high temperature end of all TEX_{86} -SST calibrations, depending on how they are
646 included (Inglis et al., 2015). At mid-Waipara River, %GDGT_{RS} values >30 are consistently observed
647 in the EECO, with the highest values in the early and middle EECO (Fig. 9c). %GDGT_{RS} values drop
648 to <30 across the Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary. %GDGT_{RS} values are <30 in the early
649 Waipawan (pre-EECO), Heretaungan (post-EECO) and early Bartonian.

650

651 6. Discussion

652 6.1 Comparison of proxy-based SST and microfossil records in the early and middle Eocene

653 Many early Paleogene studies have attempted to integrate climate proxy data with climate
654 model simulations to understand global climate and carbon cycle response to elevated temperatures
655 and greenhouse gases. While progress has been made in reconciling proxy temperature
656 reconstructions with climate model simulations (Carlson and Caballero, 2017; Naafs et al., 2018),
657 there remain known problems and inconsistencies with geochemical-based temperature proxies
658 (Hollis et al., 2012, 2019). Multiproxy SST reconstructions (Mg/Ca ratios and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of
659 foraminiferal tests and GDGT-based TEX_{86} values) have been completed for the early–middle Eocene
660 at mid-Waipara (Hollis et al., 2009, 2012; Inglis et al., 2015). The new TEX_{86} -based SST record
661 presented here validates and complements these previous reconstructions (Fig. 10). The absolute SST
662 values, however, remain debatable because they imply a reduced latitudinal temperature gradient
663 between middle and low latitudes in the EECO and into the post-EECO, compared to the present
664 (Cramwinckel et al., 2018; Naafs et al., 2018). In this context, the particularly warm temperatures
665 ($>30^\circ\text{C}$) in the Southwest Pacific warrant further investigation. Microfossil assemblages offer a means
666 to explore these geochemical-based SST proxies and assess the faunal/floral evidence for tropical
667 SSTs during the EECO in mid-latitudes (paleolatitude $\sim 46^\circ\text{S}$) of the Southwest Pacific. We have
668 found a good correlation between the trends in the TEX_{86} SST proxy and water temperature indicators
669 within calcareous nannofossil and dinocyst assemblages.

670 Comparison of early–middle Eocene nannofossil assemblages from mid-Waipara with coeval
671 records from subtropical (Shatsky Rise), temperate (Exmouth Plateau and Campbell Plateau) and
672 subpolar (Kerguelen Plateau) provinces indicate that mid-Waipara assemblages are most similar to the
673 other temperate sites, rather than assemblages at the subtropical setting (Fig. 11). Warm-water taxa
674 (*Coccolithus formosus*, *Discoaster* spp., *Sphenolithus* spp.) are most abundant in the EECO at mid-
675 Waipara, reaching up to 19% of the total assemblage. This is comparable with Site 762 (paleolatitude
676 $\sim 38^\circ\text{S}$), Exmouth Plateau, where warm-water taxa comprise up to 24% in the EECO (Schneider et al.,
677 2011), and Site 277 (paleolatitude $\sim 54^\circ\text{S}$), Campbell Plateau (Shepherd, 2017). Warm-water taxa at

678 the subtropical Site 1210 (paleolatitude $\sim 28^{\circ}\text{N}$), Shatsky Rise, comprise up to 49% in the EECO
679 (Schneider et al., 2011). Indeed, there is a three-fold increase in the abundance of warm-water taxa in
680 the EECO between mid-Waipara (average 11%) and Site 1210 (average 35%). Conversely, cool-water
681 taxa (*Chiasmolithus* and *Reticulofenestra* spp.) are notably more abundant in the EECO, up to 18%, at
682 the polar Site 1135 (paleolatitude $\sim 59^{\circ}\text{S}$), Kerguelen Plateau (Schneider et al., 2011), compared to
683 $<10\%$ at mid-Waipara, Campbell Plateau and Exmouth Plateau temperate sites. Cool-water taxa do
684 not significantly increase in abundance at mid-Waipara and Site 277 until after the EECO (Fig. 11).

685 Dinocyst assemblages at mid-Waipara exhibit a trend that is comparable to nannofossil
686 observations. The abundance and diversity of the warm-water Wetzelielloideae group is highest in the
687 EECO but the group comprises only a minor component ($<10\%$) of the total assemblage (Fig. 12e). It
688 is estimated the lower SST tolerance of Wetzelielloideae was $20 \pm 2.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Frieling et al., 2014,
689 Frieling and Sluijs, 2018). Representatives of the Wetzelielloideae group are present below the EECO
690 and the group disappears above the EECO; however, TEX_{86} -based SST is well above 20°C in this
691 Waipawan–Heretaungan interval (Fig. 12b). This suggests that the disappearance of the group may be
692 linked to other factors in addition to cooling, such as changes in nutrients or fresh-water input. The
693 warm temperate–tropical genus *Homotryblium* peaks in abundance, up to 30%, in the lower–middle
694 EECO. The continued presence of *Homotryblium* above the EECO and in the early Bartonian
695 indicates a tolerance to a broader SST range than the Wetzelielloideae group, in contrast to
696 suggestions it preferred SSTs $>25^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Frieling and Sluijs, 2018), or perhaps an evolutionary
697 adaptation to post-EECO cooling (e.g., Dybkjær, 2004). The high *Homotryblium* abundance in the
698 EECO may be due to a combination of high SST and specific surface-water conditions (see section
699 6.3). The cooler-water EAC group first appear at mid-Waipara in the late EECO and, as with
700 nannofossils, become more common in the post-EECO (Fig. 12d, e). The increase in these cooler-
701 water groups suggests that the temperature gradient between the middle and low latitudes was
702 increasing in the post-EECO middle Eocene, perhaps related to tectonic processes such as the
703 deepening of the Tasmanian Gateway (Bijl et al., 2013b; Sijp et al., 2016).

704 Calcareous and organic marine microfossils from mid-Waipara show that elements of low-
705 latitude provinces existed in the early Eocene in the New Zealand region and became more diverse
706 and abundant in the EECO, but that marine assemblages characteristic of low-latitude Eocene oceans
707 were by no means dominant in the extended period of early Eocene warmth. In fact, nannofossil
708 assemblages indicate that temperature gradients between mid- and low-latitudes in the EECO were
709 greater than indicated by geochemical SST proxies. In the EECO, there are three times as many
710 warm-water indicators in the nannofossil assemblage at the low-latitude Shatsky Rise site (average
711 35%) as there are at the mid-latitude mid-Waipara section (average 11%). This is in contrast with
712 geochemical-based SST proxies, where average SSTs in the EECO only differ by 5°C across the same
713 latitudinal range and climate zones.

714 Despite these apparent discrepancies between absolute temperature inferred from
715 geochemical proxies and fossil biogeography, microfossil assemblages and SST proxies are in good
716 agreement in the trend of relative temperature change in the early–middle Eocene. TEX₈₆-based
717 records indicate pronounced warming of between ~7 and 12°C (Fig. 9) from pre-EECO to early
718 EECO. This is also associated with the most notable biotic change in the section, including the highest
719 abundance of warm-water taxa and % planktic foraminifera (Fig. 12 d, e), increasing nannofossil and
720 dinocyst diversity, and a long-term shift to more abundant and diverse angiosperm vegetation (Fig. 7).
721 Declining SST from late EECO to post-EECO is mirrored with an increasing abundance of cool-water
722 nannofossil and dinocyst taxa, although terrestrial vegetation shows little change in the post-EECO
723 Heretaungan. It is not until the Bortonian that cooler temperatures are indicated by the rise in
724 abundance of the Nothofagaceae, southern beech, family.

725

726 *6.2 Early and middle Eocene sedimentation changes*

727 Early Eocene extreme warming events are commonly linked with increased accumulation of
728 terrigenous material on continental margins, including New Zealand, due to an enhanced hydrological
729 cycle that promoted both chemical and physical weathering processes and transport of terrigenous
730 sediment into adjacent basins (Dickens et al., 1997; Schmitz and Pujalte, 2007; Carmichael et al.,

731 2017). This is well-documented for the short-lived PETM, which is also associated with notable
732 changes in sedimentation patterns and marine primary productivity (Crouch et al., 2003; Nicolo et al.,
733 2007; Giusberti et al., 2016). Equivalent EECO records are sparse, making it difficult to compare the
734 climatic impacts on sedimentation between transient and long-term warming events. In New Zealand,
735 the Mead and Branch Stream (Fig. 1) records suggests similar changes in terrigenous delivery and
736 sedimentation occurred in the EECO to that documented for the PETM, with an increased component
737 of terrigenous-sourced clay during early Eocene CIEs, as well as in the EECO, and highest sediment
738 accumulation rates (SARs) during the EECO (Slotnick et al., 2012, 2015; Dallanave et al., 2014).

739 At mid-Waipara, SARs also appear to have increased at the base of the EECO (from ~4 to 10
740 m/Myr), peaked in the latest EECO (14 m/Myr), and then stabilised through the overlying post-EECO
741 Heretaungan (~10 m/Myr; Dallanave et al., 2016). However, SAR estimates are uncertain for the base
742 of the section due to limited exposure, and in the late Heretaungan due to likely erosion at the
743 overlying unconformity (~59 m). The SAR is generally much higher at Mead Stream (Dallanave et
744 al., 2014), despite the sediments being primarily pelagic carbonate and hemipelagic clays; background
745 SAR is 20 m/Myr and peak SAR in the EECO is 40–100 m/Myr at Mead Stream. This indicates that
746 the Eocene section at mid-Waipara is relatively condensed and that cryptic unconformities may be
747 present, which would distort the estimates of SAR.

748 Two other commonly used proxies for terrigenous input in marine sediments, the BIT index
749 and terrestrial palynomorph abundance (Fig. 12f), exhibit opposing trends in the lower part of the
750 early Eocene. This may be related to other factors influencing the BIT index, as discussed above
751 (section 5.3). However, the convergence of trends in the mid–late EECO and post-EECO Heretaungan
752 suggests that cooling is linked to increased terrigenous input in this section.

753 In this respect, the mid-Waipara record differs from Mead Stream, where a notable increase in
754 accumulation of terrigenous material is associated with the long-term EECO. This is further
755 emphasised by differences in thickness of the EECO at the two sections: 34 m at mid-Waipara versus
756 >100 m at Mead Stream (Supp. Information Fig. 2). Benthic foraminiferal assemblages indicate both
757 sections were deposited at bathyal depths in the early Eocene. Studies of the eastern Marlborough

758 pelagic succession (Reay, 1993; Hollis et al., 2005b) show that Mead Stream is the thickest, and most
759 distal, Paleocene–Eocene section of an oceanic carbonate ramp succession. Sections closer to the
760 paleo-shoreline are thinner, with major unconformities truncating the succession in this proximal area.
761 A similar relation may apply to Mead and mid-Waipara sections, with Mead being in a distal
762 depocenter for terrigenous weathering products in the EECO, whereas mid-Waipara represents a more
763 dynamic coastal setting, where climatic changes cause changes in sediment delivery pathways and
764 result in a more complex relationship between SAR and other indicators of terrigenous supply, sea
765 level change and climate.

766

767 *6.3 Early and middle Eocene changes in marine productivity and surface water conditions*

768 Marine microfossils can provide insight into surface productivity and nutrient availability.
769 Peridinioid dinocysts, predominantly heterotrophic dinoflagellates, make up <20% of the assemblage
770 in the lower–mid EECO, and the abundance peak (40%) in the late EECO is coincident with an
771 increase in the BIT index and terrestrial palynomorph abundance (Fig. 12f, g). Peridinioid abundance
772 is <30% of the assemblage in the post-EECO. The lowest peridinioid abundance is associated with the
773 negative CIEs and high SST (correlation $r = 0.39$, $p < 0.02$ and $r = -0.3$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 43$, with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
774 TEX_{86} , respectively).

775 Several short-lived abundance peaks, up to 30%, of the genus *Homotryblium* in the early and
776 middle EECO (Fig. 12e) suggest the presence of seasonally elevated salinity levels and/or surface
777 water stratification (Frieling and Sluijs, 2018). *Homotryblium* is morphologically like the extant
778 euryhaline species *Polysphaeridium zoharyi*, which occurs in low–mid latitudes and is tolerant to
779 extreme salinities and shallow water depths (Edwards and Anderle, 1992; Reichart et al., 2004). Most
780 studies suggest *Homotryblium* has an affinity to hypersaline environments (Köthe, 1990; Pross and
781 Schmiedl, 2002), although there is a possibility the genus favoured low-salinity conditions (Dybkjær,
782 2004). Whilst super-abundant *Homotryblium* is commonly linked with lagoonal/restricted inner
783 marine settings (e.g., de Verteuil and Norris, 1996), benthic foraminiferal assemblages show the
784 Ashley Mudstone was deposited at bathyal depths. The *Homotryblium* peaks do not correlate with

785 inner neritic dinocyst increases (e.g., *Cordosphaeridium*, *Glaphyrocysta*; Fig. 7), suggesting the
786 surface water conditions that led to *Homotryblium* blooms were not restricted to a coastal setting but
787 extended into the Canterbury Basin. The EECO *Homotryblium* peaks correspond with high SST and
788 %GDGT_{RS} values >30 (Fig. 12 b, c), and partly correlate with CIEs (#3 and #4) and peaks in warm-
789 water nannofossils (Figs. 12a, d). Elsewhere, high %GDGT_{RS} values (>30) are seen in times of
790 elevated warmth (PETM and EECO) from the North Sea Basin, New Jersey margin and SW Pacific
791 sites that have coeval high abundances of epicystal Goniodomidae dinocysts, such as *Eocladopyxis*,
792 *Polysphaeridium* and *Homotryblium* (Sluijs and Brinkhuis, 2009; Inglis et al., 2015; Frieling and
793 Sluijs, 2018). In New Zealand, abundant *Homotryblium* is also noted in the EECO at Mead Stream
794 (Cooper, 2018) and Hampden Beach (Inglis et al., 2015).

795 While deciphering the influence of productivity on nannofossil assemblages is complicated by
796 the interconnectivity between temperature and nutrient availability (Agnini et al., 2007; Schneider et
797 al., 2011), some general observations indicate that surface productivity at mid-Waipara did not
798 increase in the EECO. Rather, the EECO is characterised by the replacement of one mesotrophic
799 genus, *Toweius*, with another, *Reticulofenestra*, which occurs in the late EECO and is coeval with the
800 peridinioid abundance peak and increasing BIT values and terrestrial palynomorph abundance (Fig.
801 12f, g). The combined abundance of *Toweius* and *Reticulofenestra* is lower in the EECO (average
802 46%) than it is below or above the EECO (average 65% and 55%, respectively).

803 At the oceanic bathyal Mead Stream, there is evidence for increased terrigenous-sourced clay
804 content and SARs in the EECO (Slotnick et al., 2012; Dallanave et al., 2015), but no clear signal of
805 enhanced marine surface productivity. A marked decline in radiolarian abundance and diversity, and
806 low diatom abundance, imply a decrease in biosiliceous productivity linked with the EECO (Hollis,
807 2006). Rather, assemblages characteristic of oligotrophic, possibly stratified, conditions prevailed.
808 Open ocean gonyaulacoid taxa dominate dinocyst assemblages in the EECO, and super-abundant
809 *Homotryblium* occurs in an interval corresponding with the J-event (EECO onset; Cooper, 2018).

810

811 *6.4 Early Eocene vegetation change*

812 In New Zealand, the most notable long-term vegetation shift in the early Eocene is the
813 widespread abundance increase in Casuarinaceae pollen of *Myricipites harrisii* (Raine, 1984;
814 Pocknall, 1990; Crouch and Brinkhuis, 2005). The precise timing is poorly constrained due to
815 difficulties in accurately dating terrestrial sediments and correlation with well-calibrated marine
816 sections (Morgans et al., 2004; Raine et al., 2009; Handley et al., 2011). The vegetation shift has been
817 correlated with middle–late Waipawan, nannofossil Zone NP11 and dinocyst zone NZE3 (Crouch and
818 Brinkhuis, 2005), but a direct link with Eocene climatic changes has not been made until this study.

819 Our results provide the clearest evidence to date that the Casuarinaceae increase is correlated
820 with EECO warming. The increase in *M. harrisii* abundance is in the late Waipawan (Fig. 8), and
821 corresponds with the warmest SST in the early EECO (Fig. 12b). Casuarinaceae remain frequent–
822 abundant in the EECO, and whilst there is a gradual decline in abundance post-EECO, the duration of
823 common–abundant *M. harrisii* continues at least 4–5 Myr above the EECO and into the middle
824 Eocene Porangan Stage (Raine et al., 2009).

825 Pollen of *M. harrisii* is first seen in New Zealand and Australia in the early–middle Paleocene
826 (Raine, 1984; Macphail et al., 1994; Contreras et al., 2014), but is relatively sparse until the early
827 Eocene. Whilst *M. harrisii* is common or abundant in New Zealand in the early–middle Eocene, the
828 southern Australia record is varied: high abundances occur in the Australo-Antarctic basins (e.g.,
829 Otway Basin) but not in Southeastern Australia (e.g., Gippsland Basin), where gymnosperm pollen
830 remain abundant (Harris, 1965; Carpenter et al., 2012; Contreras et al., 2014; Holdgate et al., 2017).
831 Casuarinaceae is a family characteristic of sclerophyllous, seasonally dry forests, but also includes the
832 primitive genus *Gymnostoma*, a tropical–subtropical rainforest margin taxon adapted to low nutrient
833 soils (Hill, 1994; Prider and Christophel, 2000; Steane et al., 2003). Fossil pollen of *Gymnostoma* and
834 *Casuarina* are virtually indistinguishable, apart from the latter being generally larger (Kershaw,
835 1970). Whilst macrofossil evidence suggests *Gymnostoma* was common in the early Paleogene
836 (Christophel, 1980; Hill, 1994; Greenwood and Christophel, 2005), the earliest macrofossil record of
837 *Casuarina* is less clear, perhaps in the Eocene, but the oldest definitive macrofossils are Oligocene
838 (Greenwood and Christophel, 2005; McGowran and Hill, 2015). The ecological interpretation of *M.*

839 *harrisii* is therefore complicated by the possibility that pollen was produced by *Gymnostoma* and
840 *Casuarina* plants.

841 A combination of causes may have led to the long-term increase in Casuarinaceae vegetation
842 linked with the EECO in New Zealand. Firstly, transient extreme warming at the PETM did not have
843 a notable effect on Casuarinaceae (Crouch and Brinkhuis, 2005), but longer-term warming associated
844 with the EECO may have allowed for vegetation change to occur and become established. At mid-
845 Waipara, EECO mean annual temperature (MAT) estimates have been calculated from spore and
846 pollen assemblages, which range from $17.1 \pm 6.8^\circ\text{C}$ (bioclimatic analysis) to $22.6 \pm 1.4^\circ\text{C}$ (co-
847 existence approach) in the EECO (Pancost et al., 2013). MAT estimates are lower than geochemical-
848 based SST proxies (Fig. 10; Hollis et al., 2019). Secondly, precipitation changes may have led to
849 conditions well-suited to Casuarinaceae. Hydrogen isotopes of plant biomarkers ($\delta\text{D}_{n\text{-alkane}}$) from the
850 Kumara-2 core (Fig. 1) show a general increase in the early Eocene, with highest values (-135‰)
851 coeval with the *M. harrisii* increase, perhaps suggesting a more seasonal climate or increasing aridity
852 (Handley et al., 2011). Moreover, long-term changes in temperature and precipitation patterns may
853 have led to changes in soil conditions more favourable for Casuarinaceae. Results from the Taranaki
854 Basin (Fig. 1) indicate enhanced chemical weathering in the early Eocene (Zone MH1), with
855 increased quartz-K-feldspar sediments and a decline in plagioclase-rich sediments (Higgs et al.,
856 submitted).

857

858 7. Conclusions

859 The early Paleogene succession at mid-Waipara River, Canterbury Basin, New Zealand, has
860 been the focus of several high-profile paleoclimate studies as the sediments contain good preservation
861 of microfossils and organic biomarkers. Here, we build on this previous work and undertake a
862 quantitative analysis of paleontological and multiproxy geochemical indicators of climate and
863 environmental change through the early–middle Eocene, with particular focus on the Early Eocene
864 Climatic Optimum (EECO).

865 The section spans the early Eocene (New Zealand Waipawan Stage) to middle Eocene (lower
866 Bortonian Stage), ~55.5–42.5 Ma, with a non-exposed interval in the lower Eocene (middle
867 Waipawan) and an unconformity, spanning ~3 Myr, in the middle Eocene (latest Heretaungan,
868 Porangan and earliest Bortonian Stages). The EECO corresponds with a ~33.5 m interval from late
869 Waipawan to the Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary, 49.27 Ma, in upper Chron C22n. The EECO
870 onset is not captured as it occurs in the non-exposed interval, but the termination is preserved and
871 corresponds to a sustained shift to lower TEX_{86} values and more positive bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values.
872 A series of six negative CIEs are identified in the EECO and tentatively correlated with named CIEs
873 in global benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ compilations. These CIEs are found to be associated with high TEX_{86} values,
874 indicating that they represent hyperthermals.

875 The TEX_{86} record indicates that SST increased from the earliest Eocene to the early EECO,
876 by 7°C with the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calibration and by 12°C with the BAYSPAR calibration. Peak SST for the
877 EECO were 34°C ($\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calibration) and 36°C (BAYSPAR calibration). SST began to gradually
878 decline from the middle EECO (~51 Ma) and reached minimum values for the post-EECO
879 Heretaungan at ~47 Ma (27°C and 22°C , respectively). Similar average values are recorded for the
880 overlying Bortonian Stage, but with significant variation in SST estimates of $6\text{--}8^\circ\text{C}$. This SST record
881 is in good agreement with previous estimates from a lower resolution sample set using TEX_{86} and
882 planktic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Mg/Ca ratios (Hollis et al., 2009, 2012; Creech et al., 2010).

883 We also find good agreement between the relative temperature trend for TEX_{86} and trends in
884 marine microfossil proxies for temperature, providing confidence that both approaches are useful
885 guides to past water temperature. Pronounced warming in the early EECO corresponds with the most
886 pronounced biotic changes in the section. This includes increased diversity in calcareous nannofossil
887 and dinocyst assemblages, the highest abundance of warm-water taxa and planktic foraminifera, and a
888 long-term shift to abundant and diverse angiosperm vegetation, primarily driven by a rise in
889 Casuarinaceae. Marine microfossils also offer a means to evaluate the inference drawn from
890 geochemical proxies that latitudinal temperature gradients were greatly reduced in the EECO. Our
891 provisional analysis of microfossil assemblages indicates the latitudinal temperature gradient between

892 mid- and low latitudes in the EECO was greater than that indicated by geochemical SST proxies.
893 Further biogeographic studies of microfossil assemblages are needed to determine if it is possible to
894 quantify these gradients.

895 There is no clear evidence for a notable increase in sedimentation rates or accumulation of
896 terrigenous material associated with warmest temperatures of the EECO. This contrasts with that
897 previously documented at the nearby oceanic carbonate Mead Stream section and may reflect
898 different sediment delivery pathways and a more dynamic coastal mid-Waipara setting. Marine
899 surface productivity does also not appear to have increased in the warmest part of the EECO, although
900 superabundant *Homotryblium*, a euryhaline dinocyst genus, in the early and middle EECO suggest the
901 presence of seasonally elevated salinity levels and/or stratified surface waters. In the late EECO, from
902 ~50 Ma, combined proxies indicate declining temperatures correspond with an increase in cool-water
903 marine taxa and contribution of terrigenous material into the Canterbury Basin, which continued into
904 the post-EECO.

905 This multi-proxy study of the continental margin mid-Waipara River section shows the value
906 of combining well-calibrated biological and geochemical records to better constrain and understand
907 past warm climate states, and to provide a robust means to interrogate geochemical-based temperature
908 proxies (Hollis et al., 2019).

909

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918 **Figures**

919 **1.** Location of the mid-Waipara River section in northeast South Island (A), and early Eocene (50 Ma)
920 paleogeographic reconstruction for the Southwest Pacific based on the paleomagnetic reference frame
921 of Matthews et al. (2016) (B). Thick red line in (A) shows the position of Ashley Mudstone samples
922 examined in this study. HB = Hampden Beach, KC = Kumara-2 core, TB = Taranaki Basin.

923

924 **2.** The early and middle Eocene timescale (GTS2014, after Gradstein et al. 2012; Ogg et al., 2014;
925 NZGTS2015, after Raine et al., 2015) and global benthic foraminiferal isotope record (Cramer et al.,
926 2009; recalibrated to GTS2014). The age of the Mangaorapan/Heretaungan boundary is recalibrated
927 to Westerhold et al. (2017). Ages of calcareous nannofossil (NP) zone boundaries are based on
928 Gradstein et al. (2012), with adjustments to Zones NP9 to NP14 after Hollis et al. (2019). The New
929 Zealand dinocyst and spore/pollen zones are from Wilson et al. (1988) and Morgans et al. (2004); *C.*
930 *col* = *Charlesdowniea coleothrypta*, *C. ed* = *Charlesdowniea edwardsii*, *M. pe* = *Membranophoridium*
931 *perforatum*, *W. ec* = *Wilsonidium echinosuturatum*). Grey bands represent the position of the
932 Paleocene–Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) and Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO).

933

934 **3.** Summary of the mid-Waipara River lithological column (Ashley Mudstone), and ranges of
935 biostratigraphic marker taxa and biozones in the early to middle Eocene. Also shown are the
936 stratigraphic distribution of samples taken from the Ashley Mudstone for both the 2007 and 2012
937 collections, and planktic foraminiferal abundance (%). Thickened lines indicate intervals of common
938 (>8%) abundance. Magnetostratigraphy from Dallanave et al. (2016), NP zones are calcareous
939 nannofossil zones.

940

941 **4.** Variation in calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) content (a), and calcareous nannofossil preservation (b),
942 diversity (c) and relative abundance of biogeographic indicator taxa (d) in the mid-Waipara River
943 section. Preservation indicators include visually observed preservation (VOP, black line and markers)

944 and relative abundance of *Zygrhablithus bijugatus* (red line and markers), a species sensitive to
945 dissolution. Diversity is indicated by taxon richness (black line and markers) and the Shannon
946 diversity index (red line and markers). Relative abundance of cool- and warm-water calcareous
947 nannofossil groups is shown, including selected cool (*Chiasmolithus* spp. and *Reticulofenestra*
948 *daviesii*) and warm-water (*Discoaster* spp., *Spenolithus* spp., and *Coccolithus formosus*) taxa. Shaded
949 intervals show the position of the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO, light grey) and the
950 negative carbon isotope excursions (numbered 1 to 6, dark grey).

951

952 **5.** Variation in calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) content (a), bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (b), TEX₈₆ (c), and BIT
953 Index (d) for the early and middle Eocene in the mid-Waipara River section. Shaded intervals show
954 the position of the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO, light grey) and the negative carbon
955 isotope excursions (numbered 1 to 6, dark grey).

956

957 **6.** The mid-Waipara River bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and TEX₈₆ records (b) compared with the benthic
958 foraminiferal stable isotope compilation (a) for North Pacific ODP Site 1209 and South Atlantic ODP
959 sites 1258, 1262 and 1263 of Westerhold et al. (2018), calibrated to the timescale of Westerhold et al.
960 (2017). Grey band and dashed lines represent the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO) and
961 carbon isotope excursions (CIEs). The six CIEs at mid-Waipara River are tentatively correlated with
962 named CIEs as indicated.

963

964 **7.** The relative abundance of selected dinocyst species and genera from the early and middle Eocene
965 in the mid-Waipara River section. Gonyaulacoid dinocysts are shown in dark grey; peridinioid
966 dinocysts in light grey. The relative abundances of total peridinioid dinocysts and climate indicator
967 taxa are also shown. Shaded bands represent the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO, light grey)
968 and the negative carbon isotope excursions (dark grey).

969

970 **8.** The relative abundance of total terrestrial palynomorphs, selected spore and pollen species and
971 genera, and relative proportions of spore, gymnosperm and angiosperm groups from the early and
972 middle Eocene in the mid-Waipara River section. Shaded bands represent the Early Eocene Climatic
973 Optimum (EECO, light grey) and the negative carbon isotope excursions (dark grey).

974

975 **9.** Temperature variation and associated parameters in the early and middle Eocene at mid-Waipara
976 River section: sea surface temperature (SST) record using BAYSPAR and $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calibrations, with
977 95% confidence band for BAYSPAR (a), relative temperature change of SST (BAYSPAR and
978 $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$) (b), and %GDGT_{RS} (c). Shaded bands represent the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO,
979 light grey) and the negative carbon isotope excursions (dark grey).

980

981 **10.** Summary of available isoGDGT- and foraminifera-based SST estimates from the early and middle
982 Eocene at mid-Waipara River, calibrated to the timescale of Westerhold et al. (2017). SSTs are
983 derived from TEX_{86} using BAYSPAR (this study) and $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calibrations (this study and Hollis et
984 al., 2012). Foraminifera-based SST estimates are from Mg/Ca ratios and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the mixed
985 layer planktic genus *Morozovella* (Hollis et al., 2012, 2019). SST derived from the $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ and
986 BAYSPAR calibrations are warmer in some intervals than SST calculated from mixed layer
987 foraminifera (Mg/Ca ratios and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values), and this wider variation in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -based SST is thought to
988 reflect diagenetic effects (Hollis et al., 2012). Error bars are $\pm 2.5^\circ\text{C}$ $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ and 1 sigma for Mg/Ca
989 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$; 95% confidence interval for BAYSPAR is shaded light blue. Shaded bands represent the
990 Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO, light grey) and negative carbon isotope excursions (dark
991 grey).

992 **11.** The relative abundance of key calcareous nannofossil warm-water and cool-water taxa and genera
993 from selected subtropical (Site 1210, Shatsky Rise, Northwest Pacific Ocean), temperate (Site 762,
994 Exmouth Plateau, Indian Ocean; mid-Waipara River, Canterbury Basin; Site 277, Campbell Plateau),
995 and polar (Site 1135, Kerguelen Plateau, Southern Indian Ocean) provinces. Data for sites 762, 1135

996 and 1210 are from Schneider et al. (2011). Data are recalibrated to Gradstein et al. (2012). Sites are
997 shown on a paleogeographic reconstruction for the early Eocene, using the same reference frame as in
998 Fig. 1 (Matthews et al., 2016). The shaded band represents the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum
999 (EECO).

1000 **12.** Summary of climate and environmental proxies for the mid-Waipara River section, plotted against
1001 age (Westerhold et al., 2017). Bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record (a), TEX_{86} -derived SST based on
1002 BAYSPAR and $\text{TEX}_{86}^{\text{H}}$ calibrations (b), % Red Sea GDGTs (c), calcareous nannofossil warm- and
1003 cool-water groups and % planktic foraminifera (d), dinocyst warm- and cooler-water groups (e), BIT
1004 index and % terrestrial palynomorphs (f), and calcareous nannofossil taxa and dinocyst peridinioids
1005 thought to be surface productivity indicators (g). Shaded bands represent the Early Eocene Climatic
1006 Optimum (EECO, light grey) and negative carbon isotope excursions (dark grey).

1007

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Figure 1

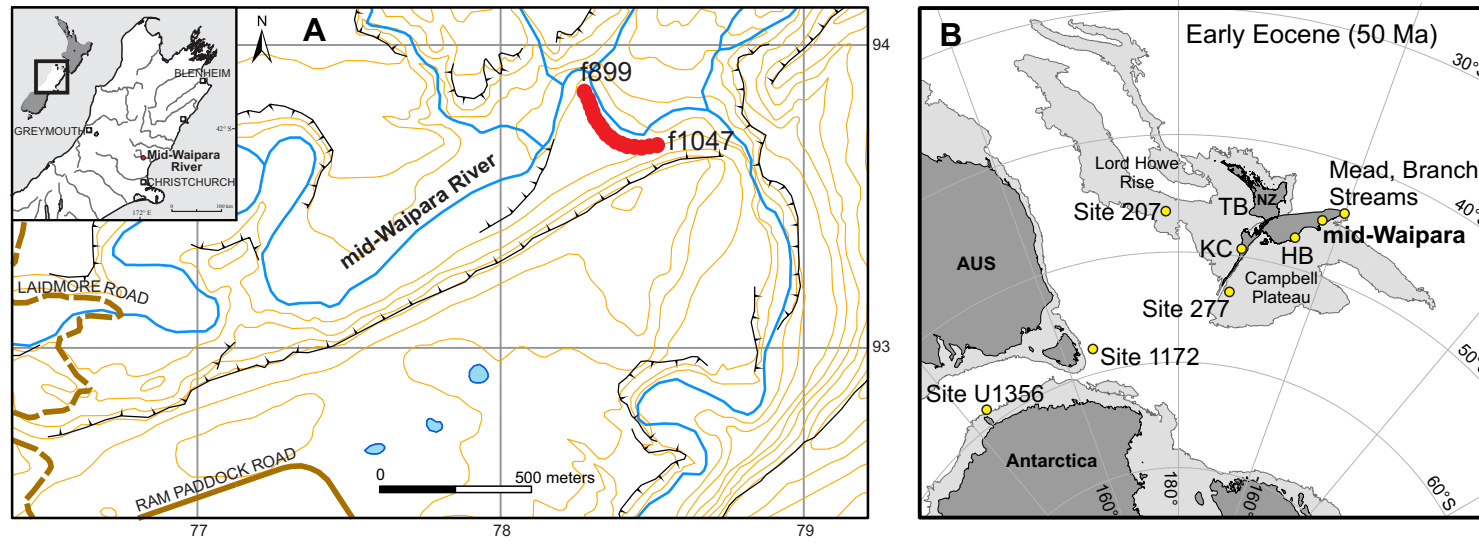


Figure 2

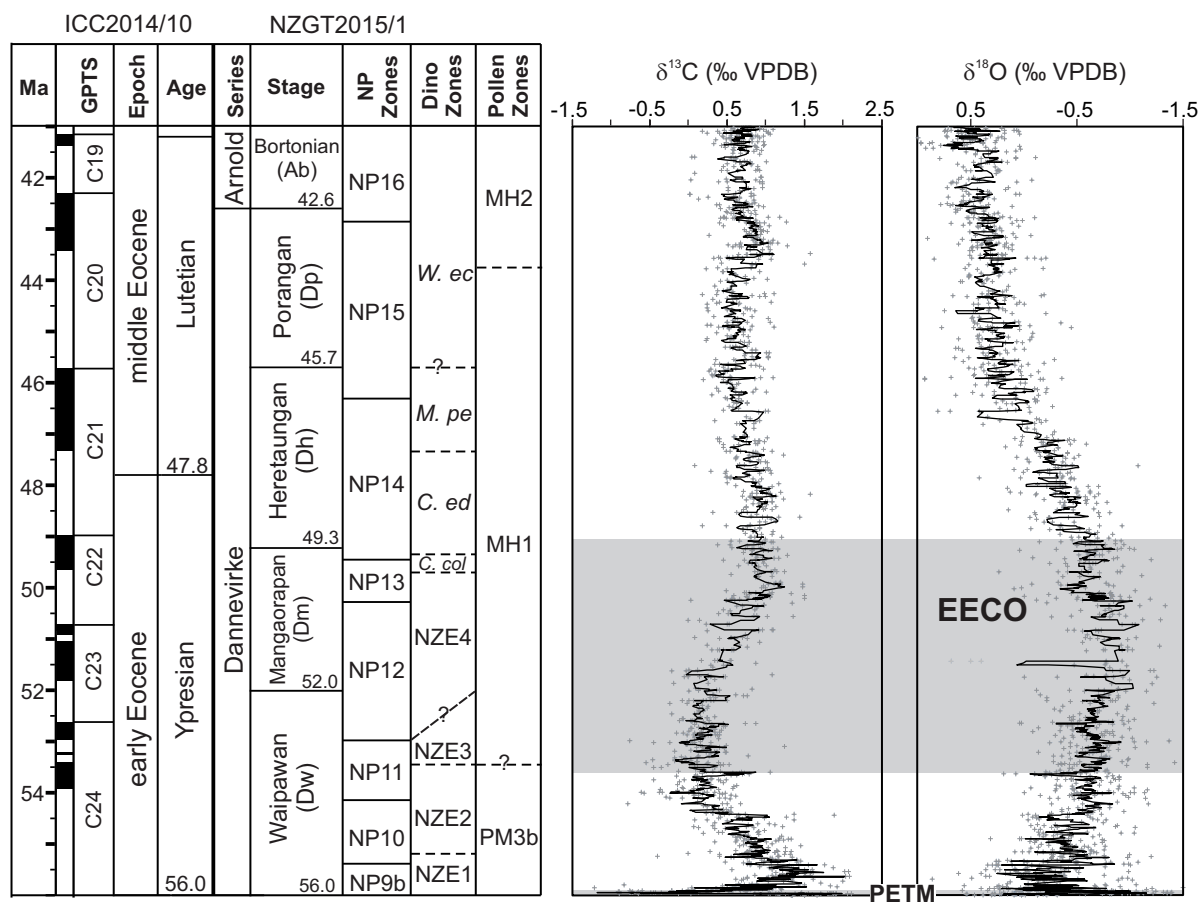


Figure 3

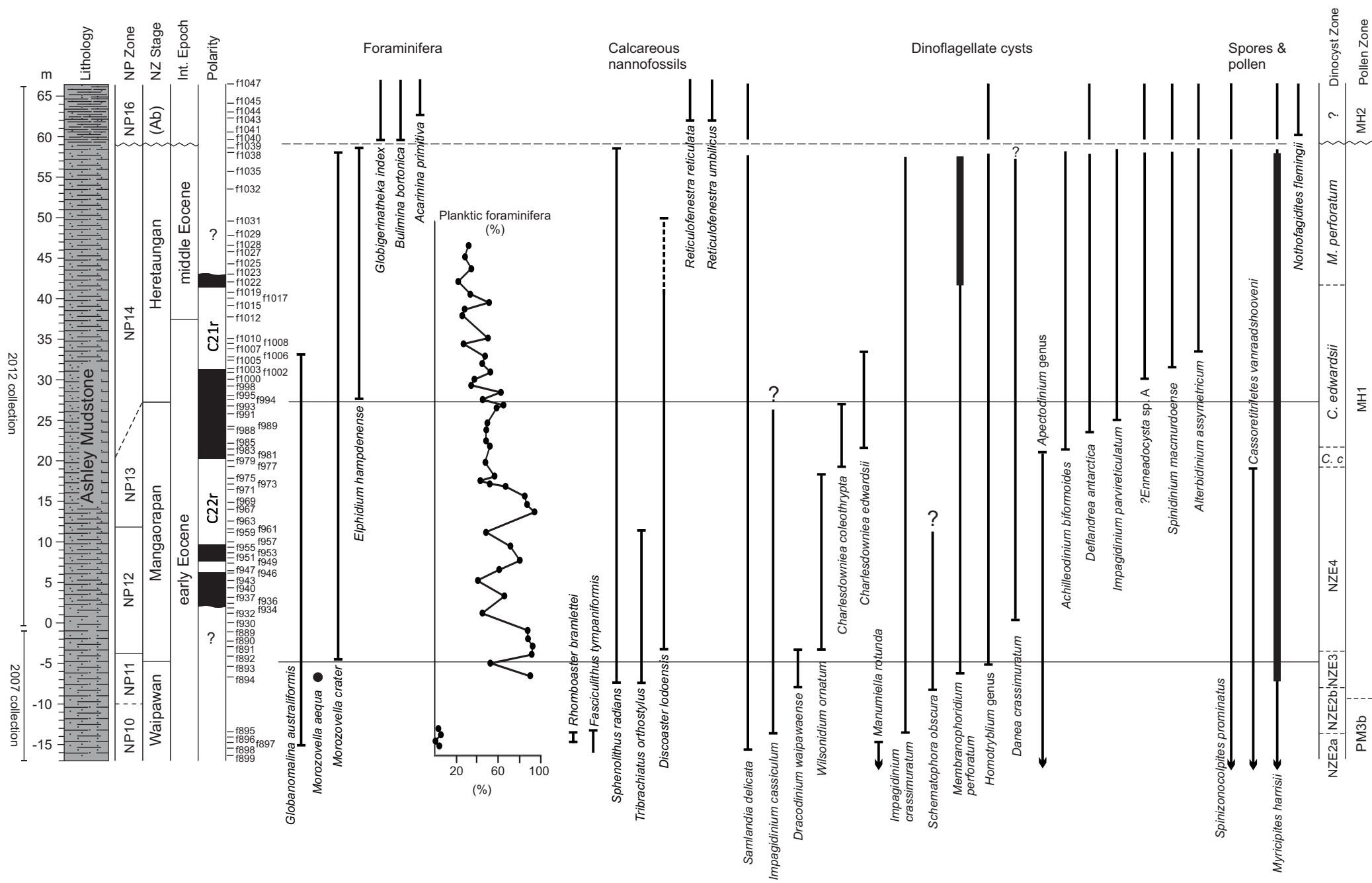


Figure 4

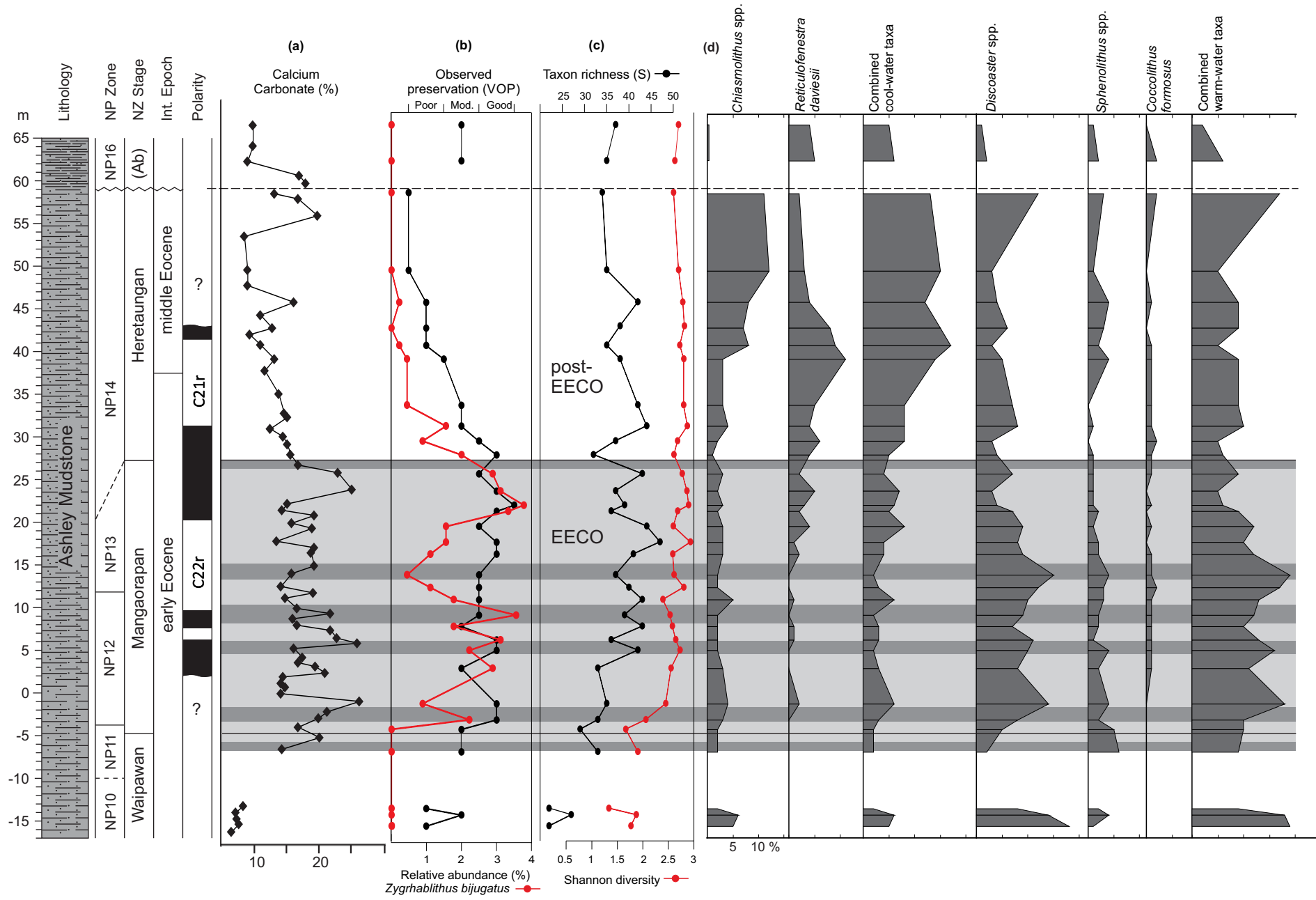


Figure 5

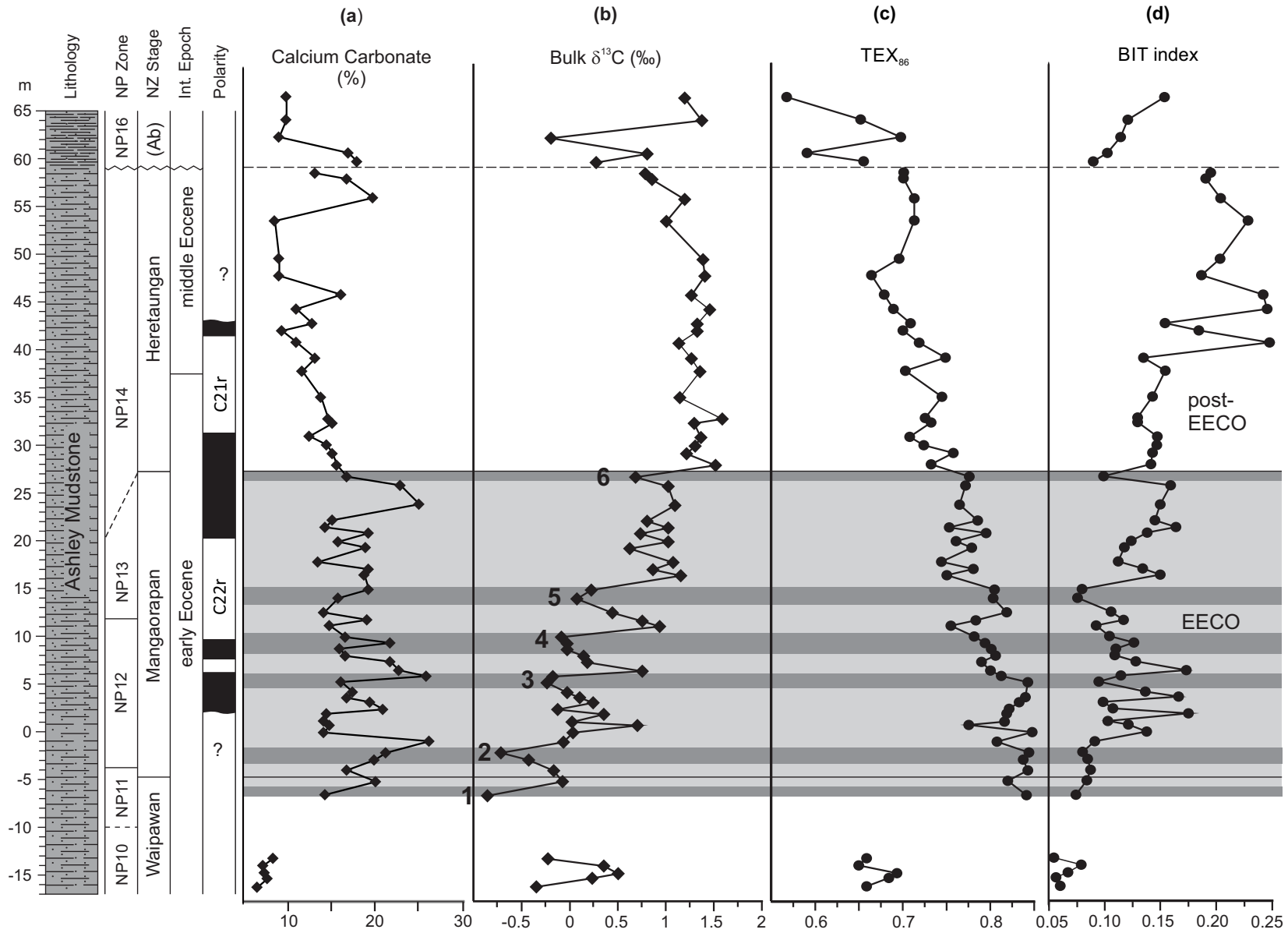


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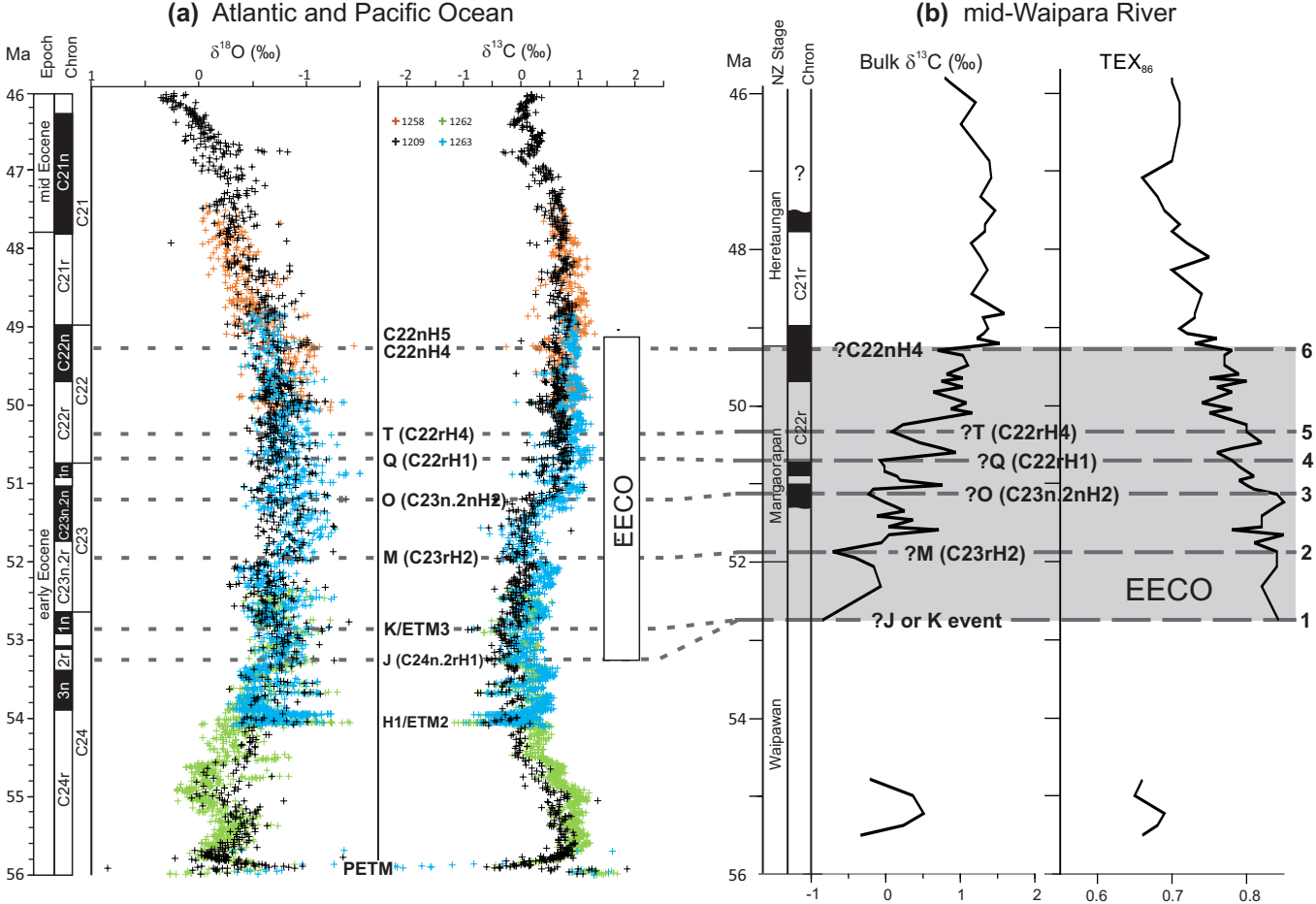


Figure 7

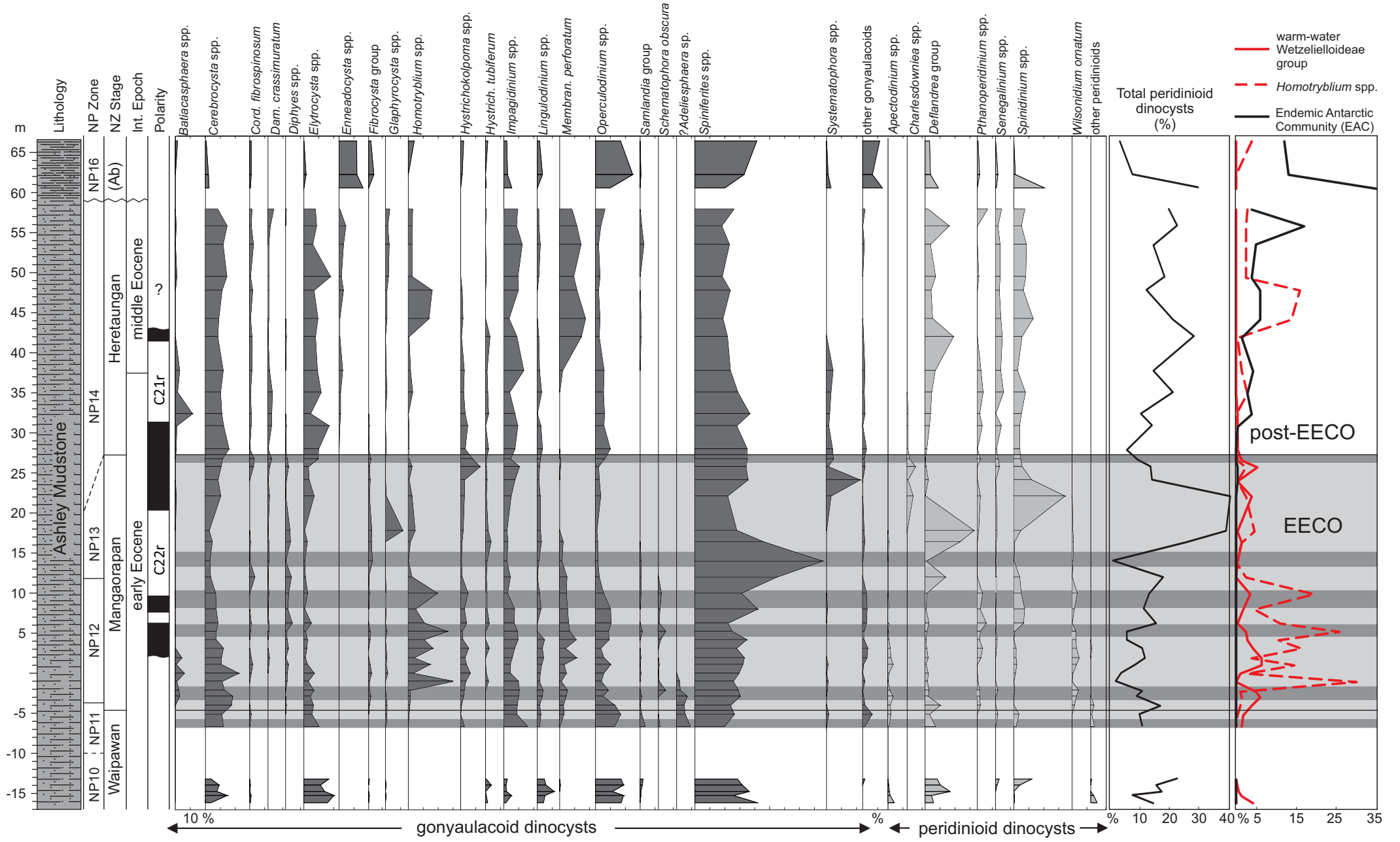


Figure 8

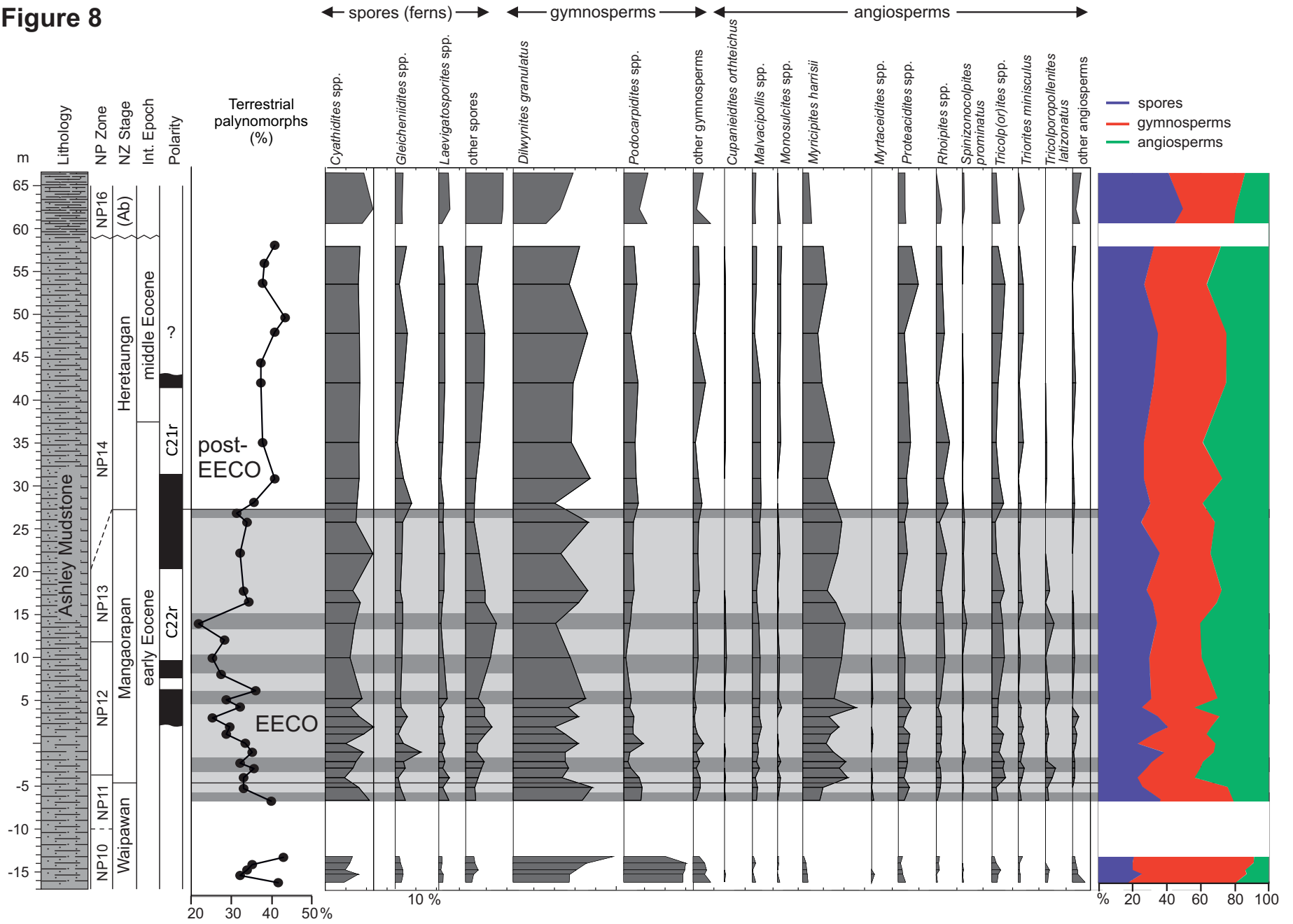


Figure 9

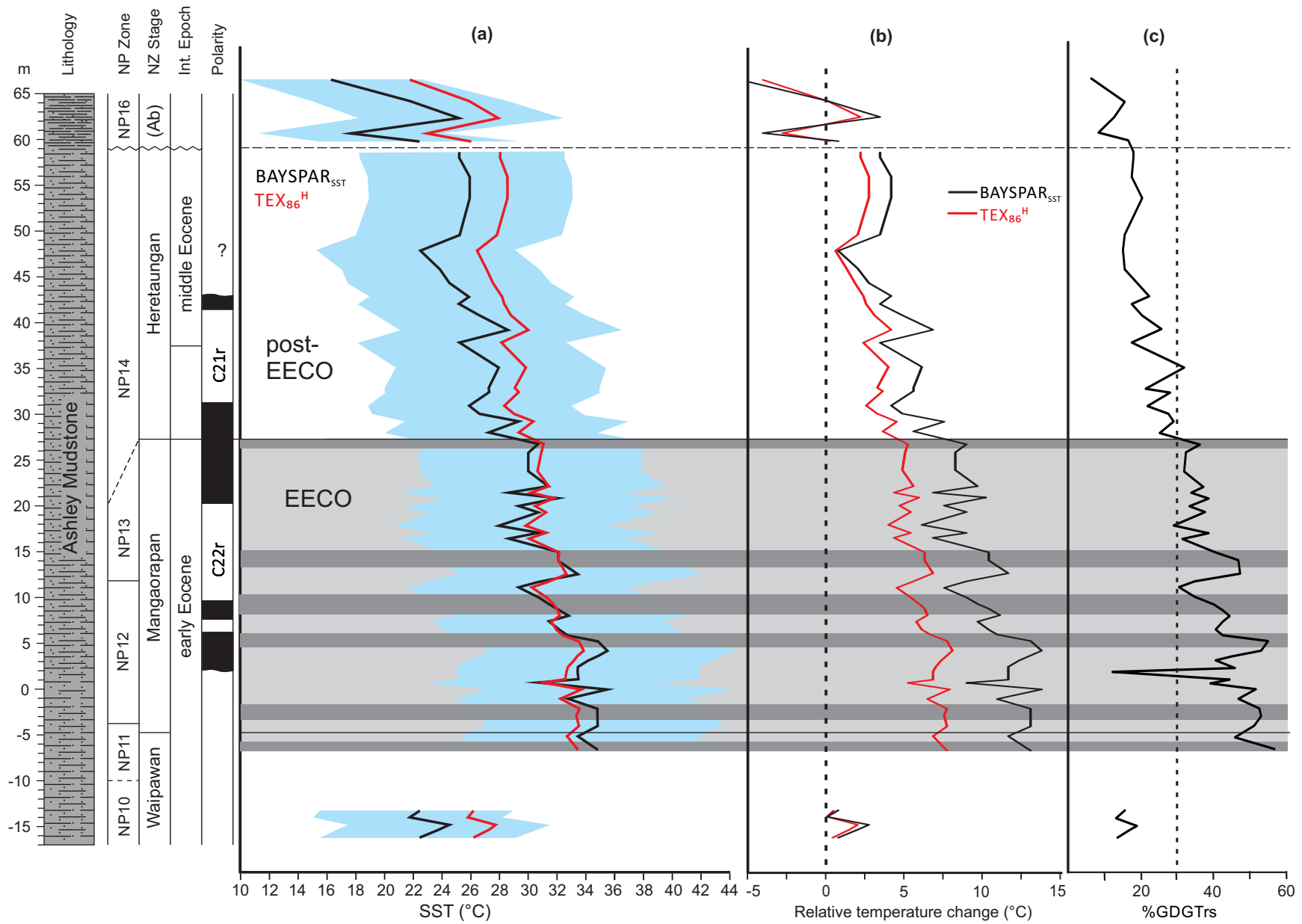


Figure 10

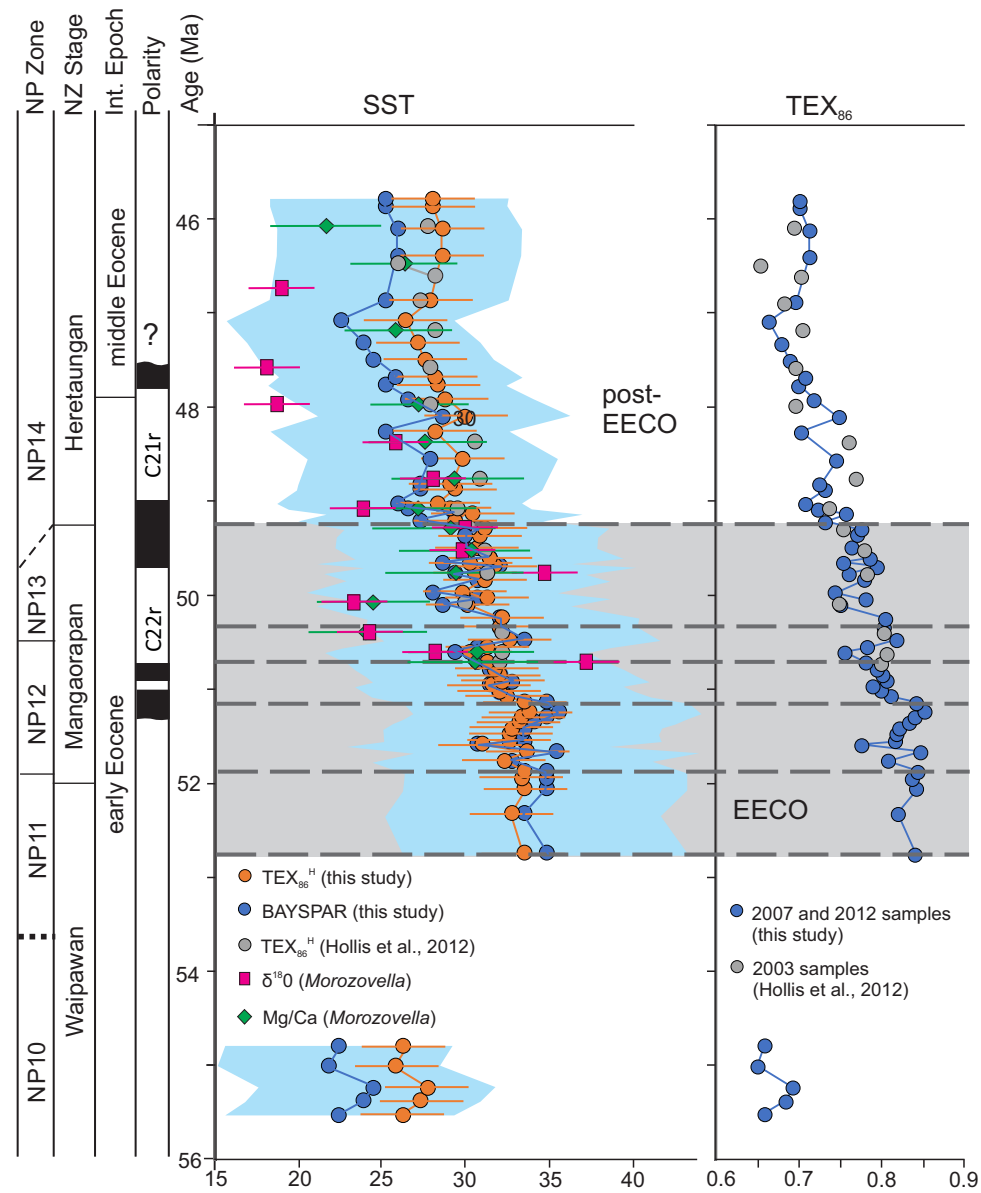


Figure 11

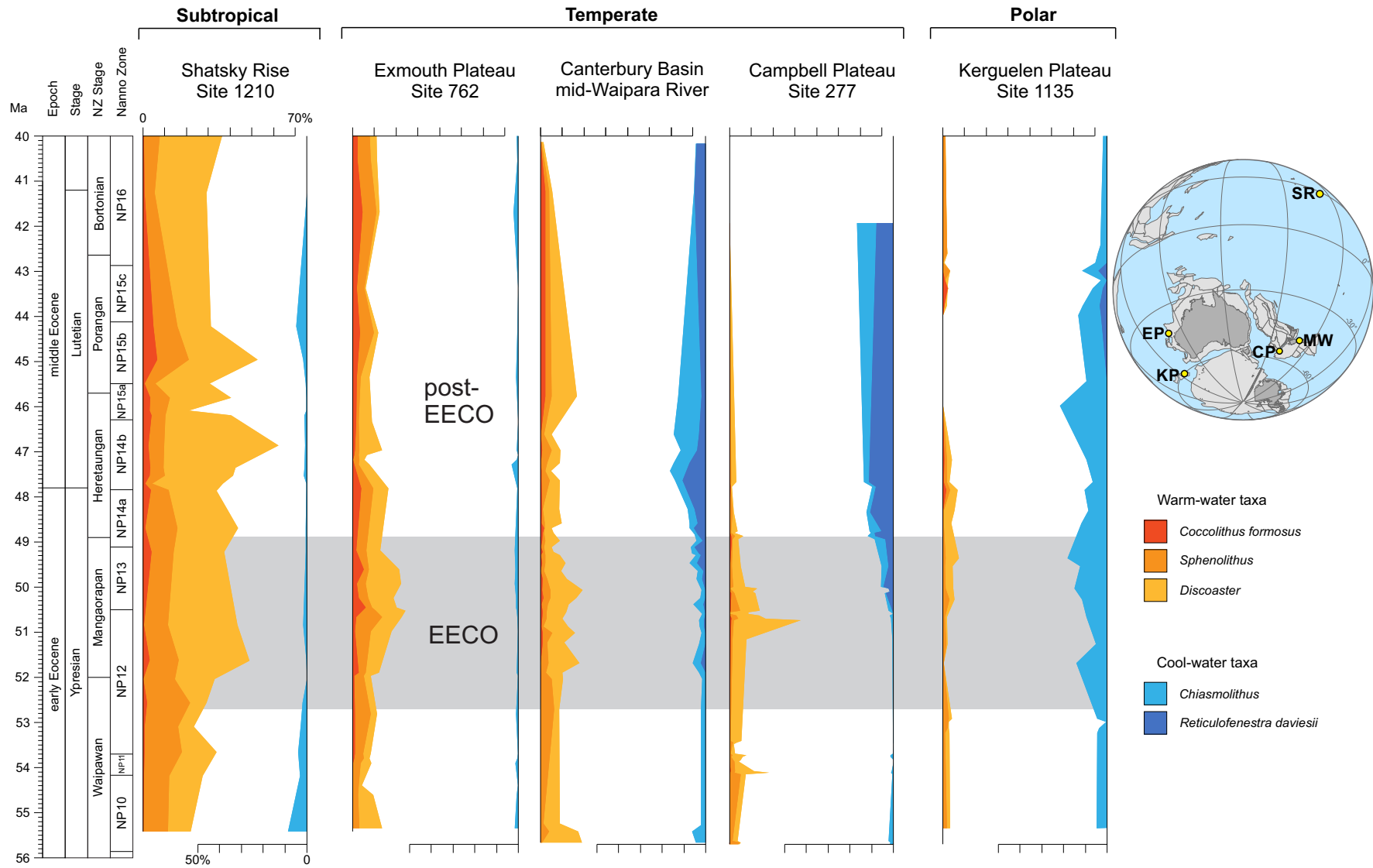


Figure 12

