

1 **The Late Cretaceous continental interior of Siberia: a challenge for**
2 **climate models**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 Geological evidence from the Late Cretaceous continental interior of the Vilui Basin,
17 Siberia suggests a far wetter, warmer, and more equable annual climate than General
18 Circulation Models (GCMs) can reproduce. The disparity cannot be bridged by the
19 uncertainties inherent in either the models or the geological climate proxies. This implies
20 the mismatch is genuine and that either 1) we have systematic errors in the
21 interpretation/calibration of the climate proxies, and/or 2) lack of full knowledge of the
22 boundary conditions needed for GCM models simulations of this period, and/or 3) an
23 insufficient understanding of the nature of the coupled atmosphere-ocean-biosphere
24 system and its representation within climate models during warm climate epochs. If it is

25 the third explanation, this would have important implications for the prediction of future
26 climates and would suggest that we may currently be underestimating future climate
27 change in such regions.

28 *Keywords:* climate modeling, palaeoclimate proxy data, Late Cretaceous, continental
29 interior, palaeobotany.

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33 **1. Introduction**

34 Climate models are now widely used for macro-economic decision making (e.g.[1]),
35 These models show considerable skill at simulating the last 150 years. However, climate
36 models are undeniably imperfect because they represent necessary simplifications of
37 the real world and we have limited knowledge of some processes. Imperfections can be
38 measured in terms of uncertainty arising from factors intrinsic to the model (model
39 inadequacy) and extrinsic uncertainties such as our ability to properly describe boundary
40 conditions, forcing factors, and initial conditions.

41 The reasons for model intrinsic uncertainty are several and arise from the simplifications
42 that are 1) associated with the model missing or imperfectly representing all of the
43 processes inherent in the real world such as stratospheric processes, atmospheric
44 chemistry, vegetation dynamics etc. and 2) those associated with fine spatial scales not
45 resolved by the model. Whether predicting the future or retrodicting the past, numerous

46 Earth system processes such as ice dynamics, ocean dynamics or even growth of
47 vegetation, operate over timescales measured in centuries to millennia. To integrate
48 over such intervals simplifications (parameterizations) are necessary to facilitate
49 computation. Coarse spatial scales are also inevitable for climate simulations because of
50 the scale of the problem (global) and the complexity of the processes represented within
51 a modern Earth Systems model.

52 Comparing model simulations against palaeoclimate reconstructions is one method for
53 evaluating the ability of climate models to correctly represent climate change processes,
54 and to better quantify the uncertainties associated with simulations of climate regimes
55 that differ from those of the present. There is a broad literature for such model-data
56 comparisons for the last millennium[2], Quaternary[3], and pre-Quaternary[4]. The first
57 two time periods have extensive high-quality and relatively well-dated samples that are
58 ideal for testing climate models. However, the climates during these periods were
59 generally similar to or colder than present day. Within the Quaternary there are no time
60 periods that are year round substantially warmer than the modern, yet there are many
61 non-linear feedbacks in the climate system that are potentially temperature dependent.
62 For instance, water vapour feedbacks are thought to be more important in a warmer
63 climate than a colder climate and that the hydrological cycle in at least one widely used
64 model might be inadequate at high $p\text{CO}_2$ [5]. With the observed current warming being
65 most strongly expressed at high latitudes and in continental interiors, it is essential that
66 we test climate models against climate regimes that were markedly warmer than today.
67 For this we need to look into the pre-Quaternary, and the extreme warmth of the
68 Cretaceous and Eocene provides a demanding test of climate models.

69 Previous model-data studies for the so-called “equable” climates of the Cretaceous and
70 Eocene have highlighted a qualitative problem associated with warmth of high
71 latitudes[6-9]. Diverse data suggest that high latitudes were much warmer than present
72 and more “equable” in that the summer-winter range of temperature was much reduced.
73 Climate models have focused on experimentation with extrinsic uncertainties concerning
74 boundary conditions such as palaeogeography, atmospheric composition and vegetation
75 type, distribution and associated feedbacks [6-9]. Despite considerable effort using an
76 array of models and boundary conditions, understanding the inability of models to
77 correctly reproduce high latitude warmth and equability in continental interiors for past
78 greenhouse climates, particularly the Late Cretaceous and Palaeogene, has so far
79 proved intractable and has become a “classic” problem in palaeoclimatology [9].
80 Elevated CO₂ combined with dynamic vegetation feedbacks [9] have gone some way to
81 reproducing high latitude warmth and high precipitation regimes evidenced by the
82 geological record [10-14], but still the continental interiors present an enigma
83 irrespective of which time period is under scrutiny. To better define the model - data
84 mismatch quantitative estimates of a range of palaeoclimate variables are required from
85 continental interior sites.

86 There is a common perception that there is a lack of geologic palaeoclimate data from
87 the continental interiors of past greenhouse worlds that might be used to verify climate
88 model simulations [6, 7]. However, in middle to Late Cretaceous times, when other
89 continents were largely submerged, most of Siberia remained above sea level and
90 constituted the only truly large continental region of the Northern Hemisphere [15, 16].
91 Middle and Late Cretaceous plant fossil museum material from Russian expeditions
92 provided intriguing, but limited, palaeoclimate data from the interior of this region [17-19].

93 Collection size and lack of sedimentological context raised doubts as to how
94 representative such material was of the Cretaceous vegetation and climate of the area.
95 We therefore traversed the Vilui Basin of Central Siberia (Fig. 1) seeking potential
96 middle to Late Cretaceous paleoclimate indicators such as plant fossils, palynomorphs
97 and clay minerals. Paleomagnetic sampling was also undertaken to help constrain the
98 paleolatitudinal position of the basin.

99 [Fig. 1 near here]

100 **2. The sedimentary successions**

101 More than twenty exposures, 30 - 80 m high and up to several kilometers in lateral
102 extent, were surveyed along the banks of the Lindya, Vilui and Tyung rivers (Fig. 2).
103 Early Cretaceous sediments exposed in the peripheral parts of the basin encompass
104 stream channel sandstones interbedded with floodplain fines, autochthonous coals and
105 stacked paleosols. Middle to Late Cretaceous successions of the Timerdyakh Formation
106 in the center of the Vilui Basin, show strong and upwardly increasing channel
107 cannibalism and reworking of floodplain deposits. Bank failures at the time of deposition
108 resulted in river channel deposits containing abundant mud and peat balls, slumped
109 fossil tree bases, drift wood and log jams, and reworked siderite concretions. Rare
110 immature paleosols with leaf mats, rooting, destratification and slickensides represent
111 sites where ancient vegetation grew. In the central parts of the Vilui Basin, the
112 Timerdyakh Formation is overlain by pebbly sandstones of the Linde Formation, which is
113 dominated by minimally transported kaolinized basement material that reflects strong
114 chemical weathering and tectonic rejuvenation. Due to the pronounced channel
115 amalgamation muddy sediments are rare. However, 25 analyses with respect to clay

116 mineralogy in Early Cretaceous mudstones and detrital mud balls show sub-equal
117 kaolinite and smectite contents, while in the middle to Late Cretaceous (the Timerdyakh
118 and Linde formations) kaolinite dominates, sometimes together with illite, but without any
119 notable smectite content. This trend probably reflects increasingly humid weathering
120 conditions from the middle Cretaceous onwards [20].

121 [\[Fig. 2 near here\]](#)

122 Although only weakly magnetized, the Timerdyakh sediments yielded a range of
123 paleolatitudes between 71.5 and 73.2°N. This is slightly more northerly than the values
124 derived from plate rotations on a regional scale and given the weak magnetization we
125 have used plate rotations based on the Chicago PalaeoAtlas Project throughout our
126 modeling and data analysis.

127

128 **3. Floral remains**

129 Palynological investigations of the Timerdyakh Formation reveal a high floral diversity,
130 ferns and angiosperms being most strongly represented. Of over 170 taxa, 61 are
131 spores (at least 33 represent ferns), 14 are gymnosperm pollen, 10 are pollen
132 attributable to monocotyledonous taxa (including two probable palm species), and
133 approximately 90 represent pollen of dicotyledonous plants. Not more than 10% of the
134 assemblage shows evidence of reworking from pre middle Cretaceous rocks, and
135 palynomorphs such as *Azonia calvata* (Samoilovitch) Wiggins suggest some of our
136 samples are of latest Campanian /earliest Maastrichtian age [21]. Both *Aquilapollenites*
137 forms and representatives of the *Normapollites* group are present. The remarkable
138 diversity of palynomorphs, together with presence of taxa whose nearest living relatives

139 are thermophyllic such as representatives of the Mastixiaceae, Araliaceae, Arecaceae
140 and Cercidiphyllaceae, indicates warm and humid climatic conditions throughout the
141 period of deposition of the Timerdyakh Formation (latest Albian to Maastrichtian). This
142 warm temperate climate qualitatively indicated by both pollen and clay mineralogy
143 (Section 2) is in marked disagreement with GCM retrodictions[6-9]. However, a
144 fundamental understanding of the causes of disparity between climate models and
145 geological observations in greenhouse world continental interiors requires quantification
146 of the mismatch to determine if it is real, or can be explained by inherent uncertainties in
147 the models and/or geological data. For non-marine environments measurement of the
148 mismatch can be achieved using foliar physiognomy as a quantitative climate proxy,
149 particularly as it can provide an array of different climate parameters. Vilui Basin leaf
150 material from existing museum collections of known provenance was combined with
151 newly collected material and analyzed using the Climate Leaf Analysis Multivariate
152 Program (CLAMP) [22-27].

153

154 **4. CLAMP analysis**

155 Analysis of Timerdyakh Formation leaves (77 well preserved specimens representing 25
156 morphotypes and all assigned on comparative Russian morphological studies to a
157 Cenomanian age) placed them within the physiognomic space occupied by modern
158 temperate vegetation, unlike test samples from the modern Vilui Basin vegetation that
159 plot in isolation (Fig. 3). These tests samples confirm that the modern foliar
160 physiognomic adaptations to extreme annual temperature range [26] are not seen in the
161 Cretaceous fossils and that the modern dataset used (PHYSG3AR) was appropriate for
162 obtaining reliable paleoclimate data. The CLAMP analysis yielded a mean annual

163 temperature (MAT) of $13.1 \pm 3.5^\circ\text{C}$ (2σ), a warm month mean (WMMT) of $21.1 \pm 3.6^\circ\text{C}$,
164 and a cold month mean temperature (CMMT) of $5.8 \pm 5.1^\circ\text{C}$. The length of the growing
165 season (7.4 ± 1.7 months) is more a function of the high paleolatitude light regime than
166 temperature. The growing season total precipitation (827 ± 632 mm), the mean monthly
167 growing season precipitation (133 ± 73 mm), the three consecutive wettest months
168 precipitation (495 ± 274 mm) and the three consecutive driest months precipitation
169 (293 ± 176 mm), all suggest a moderately wet regime year round, but the uncertainty in
170 reconstructed precipitation is high. This wetness is also reflected in the mean annual
171 relative humidity ($77.5 \pm 16.3\%$).

172

173 [Fig. 3 near here]

174

175 **5. Climate Modeling**

176 For any rigorous test of climate modeling using paleo data, it is essential to quantify the
177 uncertainty in the simulations caused by uncertain boundary conditions. Therefore, we
178 have performed an extensive suite of simulations for the Cretaceous, using various
179 versions of the Hadley Centre climate model. This is a state-of-the-art model widely
180 used for future climate change prediction. More specifically, we have used 3 sets of
181 paleogeographies corresponding to the Cenomanian, Turonian, and Maastrichtian
182 (Markwick unpublished). We have also investigated the sensitivity of the model to
183 different orbital conditions (using orbits equivalent to 9000 year BP, and 115000 years
184 BP as examples), different CO_2 (ranging from 2x pre-industrial to 6 x pre-industrial) and
185 CH_4 (pre-industrial to 6x pre-industrial), different ocean surface conditions (using
186 prescribed sea surface temperatures corresponding to warm tropics and poles, or with a

187 slab ocean model with prescribed ocean heat transports, or using fully coupled
188 atmosphere-ocean simulations using the HadCM3L model with an ocean model
189 resolution of $3.75^\circ \times 2.5^\circ \times 20$ levels), and different vegetation conditions (ranging from
190 shrubs everywhere, to predictive modeling using a dynamic vegetation model TRIFFID
191 [28]). A total of 42 simulations were considered. For each simulation, we calculated the
192 WMMT, CMMT and MAT at the appropriate paleolongitude/paleolatitude corresponding
193 to the Vilui Basin (Fig. 4). We then computed the mean, standard deviation, and
194 absolute maximum and minimum for each variable and these are shown on figure 5,
195 separated into different time periods. A greater range of sensitivity experiments have
196 been performed for the Maastrichtian and Turonian and this is the principal reason that
197 the standard deviation of model results for the Cenomanian is smaller.

198

199 [Figs. 4 & 5 near here]

200

201 In addition to these boundary condition uncertainties, there are also uncertainties due to
202 model physics. We can make a conservative measure of these by comparing a modern
203 day simulation to observations. For continental interiors, the typical model bias is in the
204 range of $2-4\text{ C}^\circ$ [29]. There the model uncertainties are at least of the same order as
205 those presented here for CLAMP (which are similarly a conservative measure of
206 uncertainty, since they currently do not include estimates of calibration errors associated
207 with evolutionary processes or alternative environmental influences on leaf morphology,
208 such as CO_2).

209

210 **6. Discussion**

211
212 Based on CLAMP, the Cretaceous continental interior of Asia (Vilui Basin) appears
213 remarkably equable with winter temperatures well above freezing for all but the coldest
214 days, and a warm summer. This is in marked contrast with the wide annual temperature
215 ranges seen in continental interiors today [26]), and with the results from variously
216 configured climate models [9, 30].

217
218 Although the uncertainty in both CLAMP and GCM model results are large, the extent of
219 the mismatch greatly exceeds the quantifiable errors in the methods. Hence, this
220 comparison is an important test of the climate models in a previous warm period, and is
221 clearly showing that there is a major model-data mismatch that cannot be simply
222 explained by the inevitable uncertainties associated with both models and proxy climate
223 data interpretation. Furthermore, this mismatch is not confined to the Hadley Centre
224 model. Previous climate model simulations using a variety of different climate models
225 and boundary conditions for the Late Cretaceous and Early Eocene [6, 9, 30] all show
226 similar results. Hence this is a robust mismatch that cannot be simply explained by
227 uncertainties in GCM boundary conditions, or by the modest differences in
228 parameterization schemes and resolution between different GCMs.

229
230 One of the model simulations which is nearest to the winter CMM temperatures is for a
231 Maastrichtian fully coupled atmosphere-ocean-vegetation simulation with 4 x CO₂ and
232 an Arctic ocean fully linked to the other ocean basins (via the western interior seaway)
233 [31]. This resulted in a significant warming of the Arctic and corresponding warmth in
234 Eurasia. However, this is not a simple result of a warm Arctic because other atmosphere

235 simulations with prescribed warm Arctic oceans did not result in such warmth. A fuller
236 discussion of this simulation is in preparation. Nonetheless, even for this simulation
237 there is still more than a 10° C discrepancy with the CLAMP data.

238
239 The causes of this mismatch are difficult to identify, but can be simply categorized into
240 three groups of errors. Firstly, it is possible that we continue to incorrectly interpret the
241 data. Leaf morphological analysis is one of the very few techniques to produce
242 quantitative estimates of terrestrial temperatures, and it is possible that we do not fully
243 understand all of the environmental and other controls on this proxy. The biophysical
244 processes that result in plant traits having a relationship with their environment are
245 numerous (e.g. [32]) and, for instance, it is possible that changes in atmospheric CO₂
246 could influence the calibration by changing the slope or intercept, although this seems
247 unlikely [33]. However, in coastal regions, CLAMP based reconstructions compare
248 favorably with those from the marine realm (particularly oxygen isotope data) and the
249 results are also consistent with crocodilian data, although these are not available in the
250 key continental interior regions. Also CLAMP has been demonstrated to give similar
251 results to other palaeobotanical methods for reconstructing temperature [34, 35] but
252 where differences exist CLAMP tends to yield cooler estimates. Palaeoelevation
253 estimates derived from CLAMP enthalpy estimates also compare well to those derived
254 from oxygen isotopes [36, 37]. An additional complication is that the greatest model-data
255 mismatch occurs with the cold month mean temperature. CLAMP is one of the few
256 techniques that attempts to estimate this quantity even though it could be argued that
257 dormancy may render many woody plants insensitive to winter temperatures. The fact
258 that the CMMT is reflected, albeit with increased error, in regimes where the winter

259 temperatures fall below -40°C suggests that rates of spring warming might indirectly
260 code for the CMMT in foliar physiognomy [26]. In the modern calibration dataset, CMMT
261 is closely correlated to MAT, since for our present climate the warmest mean annual
262 temperatures occur in the tropics that have a low range of temperatures. However, the
263 Vilui fossil leaves do not display those architectural features found in modern Siberian
264 vegetation but are most similar to leaves in warm temperate regimes. Whether or not the
265 CLAMP results contain systematic error the congruity between the CLAMP results, the
266 interpretation of the clay mineralogy and the qualitative climatic interpretation of the
267 palynoflora is striking.

268
269 A second group of problems are related to uncertainties in the boundary conditions used
270 for these simulations. For instance, we have relatively good reconstructions of
271 paleogeographies for these periods but very poor knowledge of atmospheric
272 composition. Higher levels of greenhouse gases would warm the continental interiors but
273 traditionally it has been difficult to achieve sufficient warming of the mid-latitude
274 continents without overheating the tropics. In addition, the data cannot be dated to a
275 specific part of an orbital cycle and hence it is possible that there have been a
276 preservational bias towards time periods when the orbit corresponded to warm N.
277 Hemisphere winters. However, it is difficult to believe that this is true for all of the
278 collected samples. More likely is that fossil assemblages could accumulate over
279 thousands of years and thus represent in some way “average” climatic conditions over
280 large parts of orbital cycles.

281

282 A final group of problems are associated with the intrinsic properties of climate models.
283 The most comprehensive versions now include detailed representations of the
284 atmosphere, ocean, and vegetation. However, it is possible that the representations are
285 oversimplified and there has been excessive tuning towards the modern climate regime.
286 This introduces the need for parameterizations that go beyond those used for the
287 present. Exploring parameter space in models configured to simulate present or near
288 future conditions is an important and ongoing process involving small numbers of model
289 versions [29] to grand ensembles e.g. *climateprediction.net* [38] but to date
290 comprehensive explorations of parameter space for models attempting to reproduce
291 past greenhouse conditions have not been undertaken. A further possibility is that the
292 models are missing an “Earth Systems” process that is of minor importance today, but
293 was important during past greenhouse epochs. An example of such a process could be
294 hurricanes (e.g. [39]). These play a relatively small role in the overall energetics of the
295 present day climate, but it has been proposed to be important mechanism during warm
296 climate epochs, through their impacts on oceanic mixing [40, 41]. Hurricanes are too
297 small to be resolved in the present generation of climate models, and their effect on the
298 ocean mixed layer is also not parameterized.

299
300 The strength of the mismatch between model and data during these previous warm
301 epochs of Earth history highlights an area of major concern. These time periods are
302 unique in showing how the Earth system operated during intervals that were
303 substantially warmer than the present, and where greenhouse gases are thought to
304 have been a major contributor to the warming. The warmth of Quaternary interglacial
305 periods are predominantly caused by changes in orbit which have a very different

306 characteristic (seasonal) forcing to that implied for higher greenhouse gases [42]. Thus
307 these pre-Quaternary periods are unique in testing the models in higher and warmer
308 CO₂ environments.

309
310 The lack of agreement between models and data must be reconciled, and there is an
311 urgent need to explore both the modeling and data questions associated with this
312 controversy. Our quantification of the discrepancy highlights its magnitude and is
313 indicative of the potential errors inherent in current models and parameterization of past
314 and possible future greenhouse climates. The conservative systematic mismatch
315 between the models and the data in which the models appear to impose a modern
316 thermal regime (i.e., a large mean annual range and a low mean annual temperature) on
317 the Siberian Cretaceous continental interior suggests that the models may well
318 underestimate the magnitude of future climate change in such regions.

319

320 **6. Methods and materials**

321

322 Sedimentological, clay mineralogical, and palynological studies were performed
323 according to standard procedures [43-47]. Paleomagnetic samples were obtained from
324 110 oriented samples from 10 outcrops of the Timerdyakh Formation along the Tyung
325 and Vilui rivers and analyzed using standard techniques [14]. The Timerdyakh
326 Formation deposits have very low magnetic properties. The most reliable data from
327 these weakly magnetized sediments were obtained from 16 samples collected in
328 outcrops along the Tyung River. Palynological samples were crushed with a mortar and
329 pestle, and the resultant rock powder treated with standard wet chemical processes

330 using HCl and HF. The organic extract was acetolyzed but was not sieved in order to
331 retain palynomorphs smaller than 10 μ m. Quantitative palynological data were obtained
332 by point counting [45]. The CLAMP technique decodes the climatic signal inherent in the
333 physiognomy of leaves of woody dicotyledonous plants by calibrating the numerical
334 relations between leaf physiognomy and meteorological parameters in modern terrestrial
335 environments. Using this calibration, past climatic data are determinable from leaf fossil
336 assemblages. The statistical engine used is Canonical Correspondence Analysis
337 (CANOCO v. 4.0), which is a direct ordination method that orders samples, in this case
338 vegetation sites, based on a set of attributes. In CLAMP the attributes are the scores of
339 the 31 leaf character states taken from more than 20 species of woody dicots in each
340 vegetation site. The largest available calibration dataset was used here (PHYSG3AR
341 obtainable from <http://tabitha.open.ac.uk/spicer/CLAMP/Clampset1.html>) that consisted
342 of foliar physiognomic measurements and climate observations from 173 modern
343 vegetation sites, predominantly Northern Hemisphere, and included low temperature
344 sites comprising the “alpine nest”. The raw Vilui CLAMP scores and information on
345 model configurations, including orbital parameters are available as supplementary data.
346 The simulations with the Hadley centre model (HadAM3, HadSM3 or HadCM3L) used
347 paleogeographies as in [7]. Vegetation was either prescribed as shrub over all land
348 surfaces or was predicted using BIOME 4 [48] or TRIFFID ([28]). Sea surface
349 temperatures were either a simple function of latitude constrained by oxygen isotope
350 data, or predicted using a simple slab ocean model with ocean heat transport prescribed
351 as modern, or were based on a fully coupled atmosphere/ocean simulation.

352

353 **Acknowledgments**

354 We are thankful for the valuable support provided from our colleagues in Yakutsk (e.g.,
 355 Oleg Grinenko, Alexandr Alexandrov and Sergey Semyonov), associated with the
 356 Siberian branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences. Masha Moiseeva, Russian
 357 Academy of Sciences, Moscow, is sincerely thanked for her field assistance. Lena
 358 Golovneva, Russian Academy of Sciences, St. Petersburg, is thanked for providing
 359 additional fossil material from museum collections. This study was funded by
 360 RFBS/INTAS grant 950949, the Open University Alumni Fund, the Royal
 361 Physiographical Society, Lund, Sweden, the Royal Academy of Sciences of Sweden,
 362 PalSIRP, the Russian Foundation for Basic Research Grant no 06-05-64618,
 363 Russian State Support for Scientific Schools no 372.2006.5 and Program for Basic
 364 Research of the Presidium of the Russian Acad. Sci. no 18.

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494

495 **Figure captions**

496 Fig. 1. Geological map of the Vilui Basin. The Sangar Group (dotted) includes Lower
497 Cretaceous strata. The Vilui Group includes the uppermost Albian to Maastrichtian
498 Timerdyakh Formation and the Maastrichtian and possibly lower Tertiary Linde
499 Formation. The ages of the formations are constrained by palynological and
500 paleobotanical data. Numbered fossil localities are those of Vachrameev [17, 18].

501 Fig. 2. An approximately 30m high river bank outcrop showing amalgamating middle
502 Cretaceous river channel fills (1-5) in cross-section at the Tyung River locality 421
503 (Fig.1) . Well-preserved fossil leaf assemblages were found in abandoned channel
504 deposits (channel fill No. 3), and in rhythmical low-discharge (autumn) interbeds of
505 seasonally active channels (channel fill No. 2). Preservation of delicate leaves suggests
506 limited downstream transport prior to deposition.

507 Fig. 3. CLAMP Canonical Correspondence Analysis plot in axis 1/axis 3 space showing
508 the separation of the samples representing modern Vilui Basin leaf physiognomy from
509 that of the Cretaceous leaves. Open circles represent the positions of samples included
510 in the Physg3ar modern calibration data set, primarily from northern hemisphere sites.
511 The closed square represents the Vilui Cenomanian (Timerdyakh Formation) fossils.
512 Closed circles represent the positions of samples of modern vegetation from the Vilui
513 Basin [26]. The Vilui fossil sample is associated with Physg3ar samples derived from
514 modern temperate environments. See supplementary data. Vector labels: MAT – Mean
515 Annual temperature, WMMT – Warm Month Mean Temperature, CMMT – Cold Month
516 Mean Temperature, LGS – Length of the Growing Season, GSP – Growing Season

517 Precipitation, MMGSP – Mean Monthly Growing Season Precipitation, 3DRY –
518 precipitation during the three driest months, 3WET – precipitation during the three
519 wettest months.

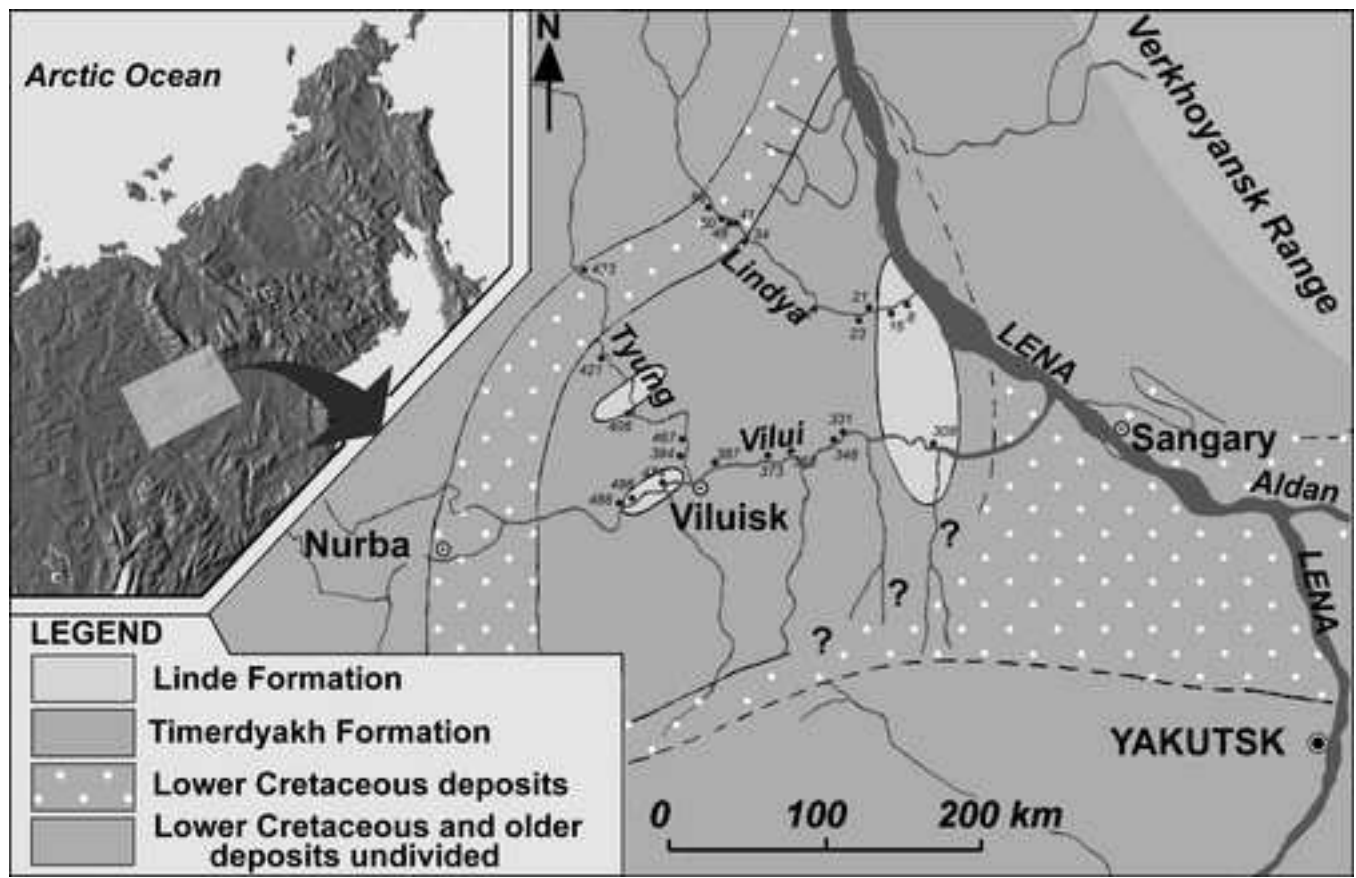
520 Fig. 4. Cenomanian January mean surface (2m) air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) map derived from
521 one of the suite of simulations, in this case using HadAM3 with a slab ocean heat
522 transport similar to the modern. The position of the Vilui Basin is marked by a black
523 diamond.

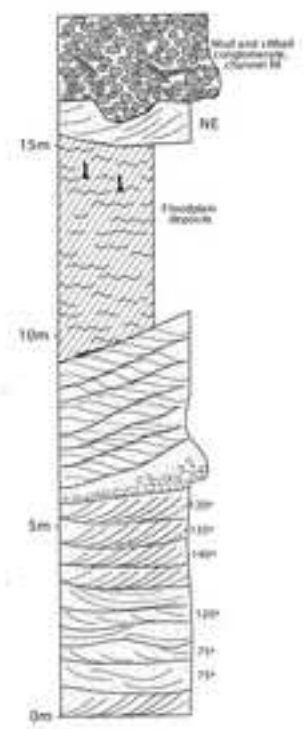
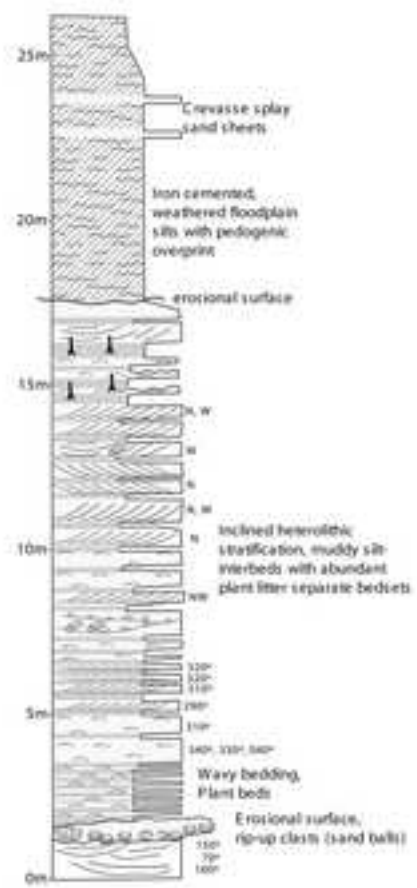
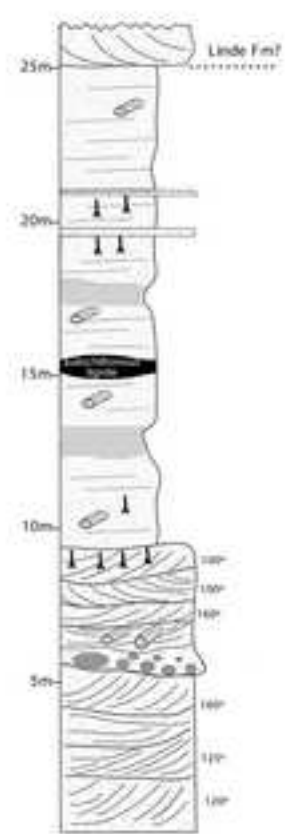
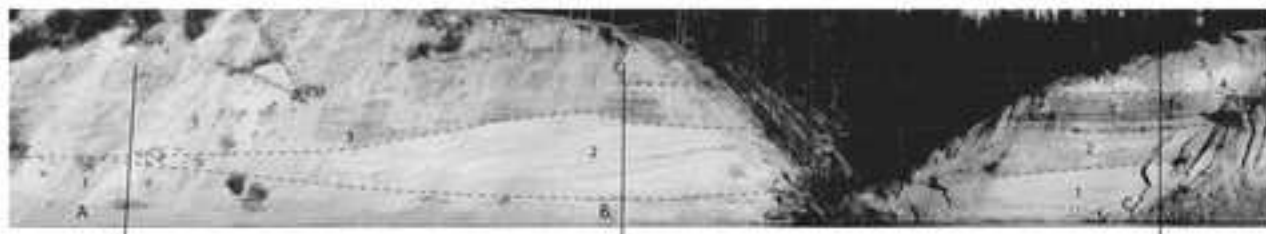
524

525 Fig. 5. Graph illustrating MAT, WMMT and CMMT temperatures predicted by CLAMP for
526 the Late Cretaceous compared with MAT (closed squares), CMMT (open circles) and
527 WMMT (closed circles) based on model predictions. Uncertainties ($\pm 2\sigma$) for CLAMP are
528 illustrated by bands surrounding the lines denoting the means. Model uncertainties ($\pm 2\sigma$
529 indicated by bars) were derived from the standard deviations about the mean of several
530 model runs (4 in the case of the Cenomanian, 16 for the Turonian, and 20 for the
531 Maastrichtian) with different boundary conditions.

Spicer Fig 1

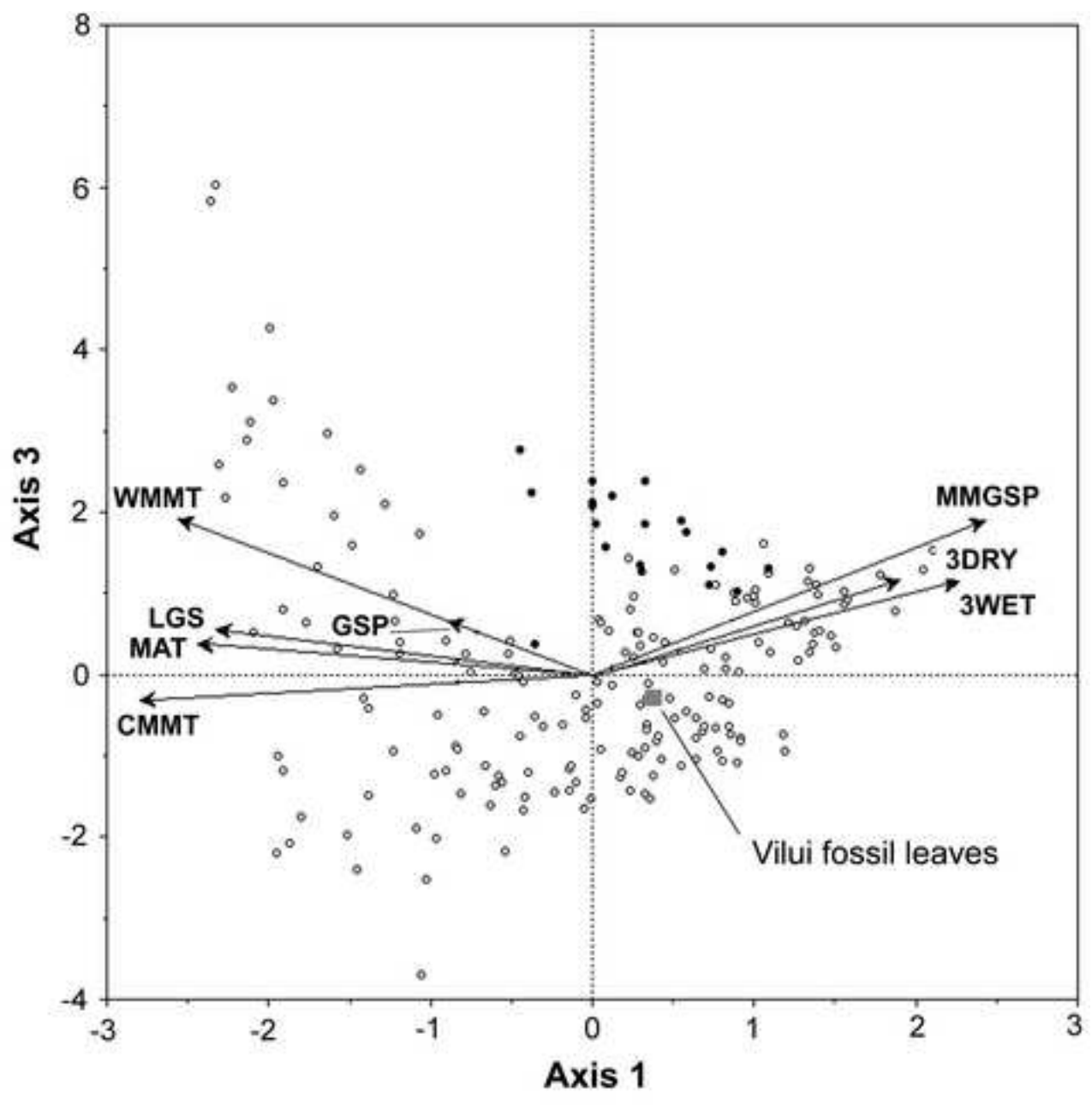
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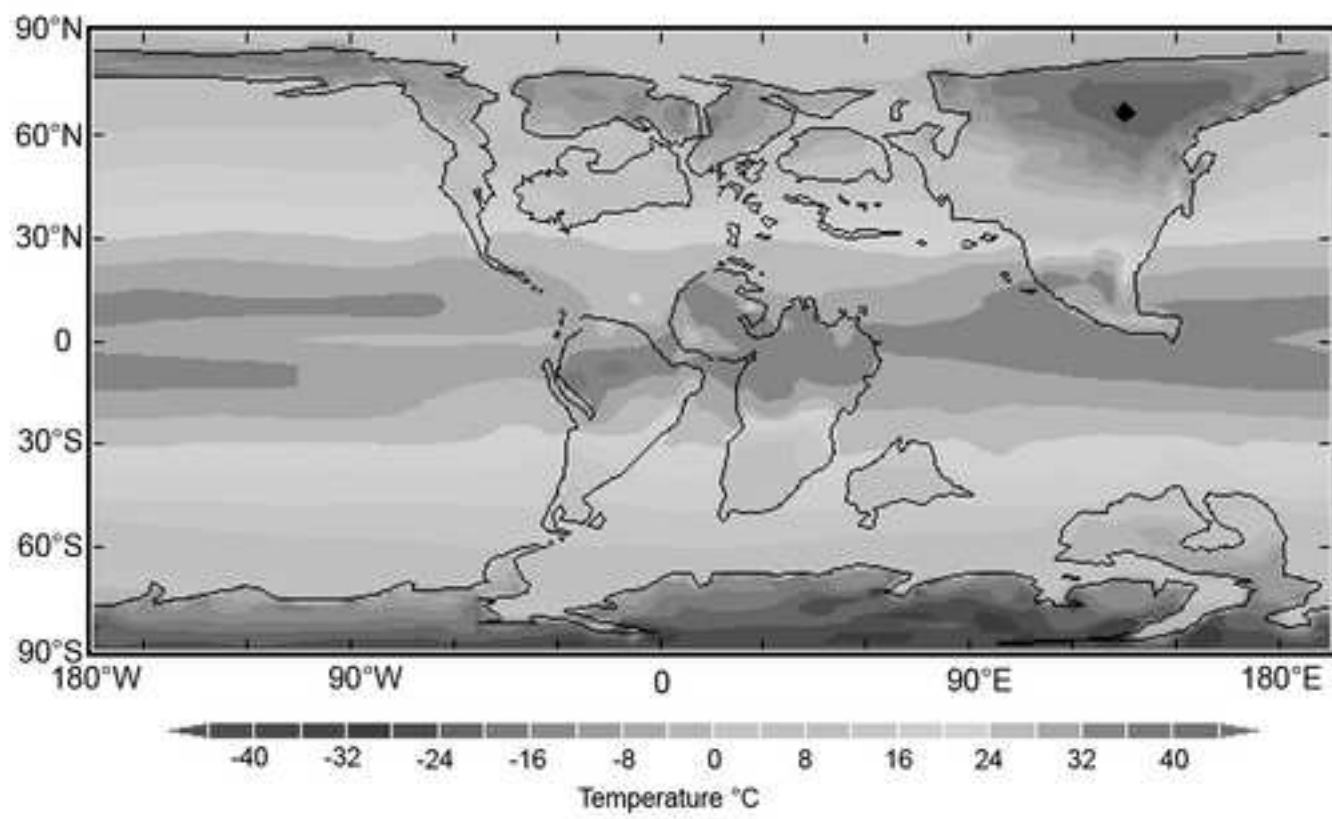
Spicer Fig 3

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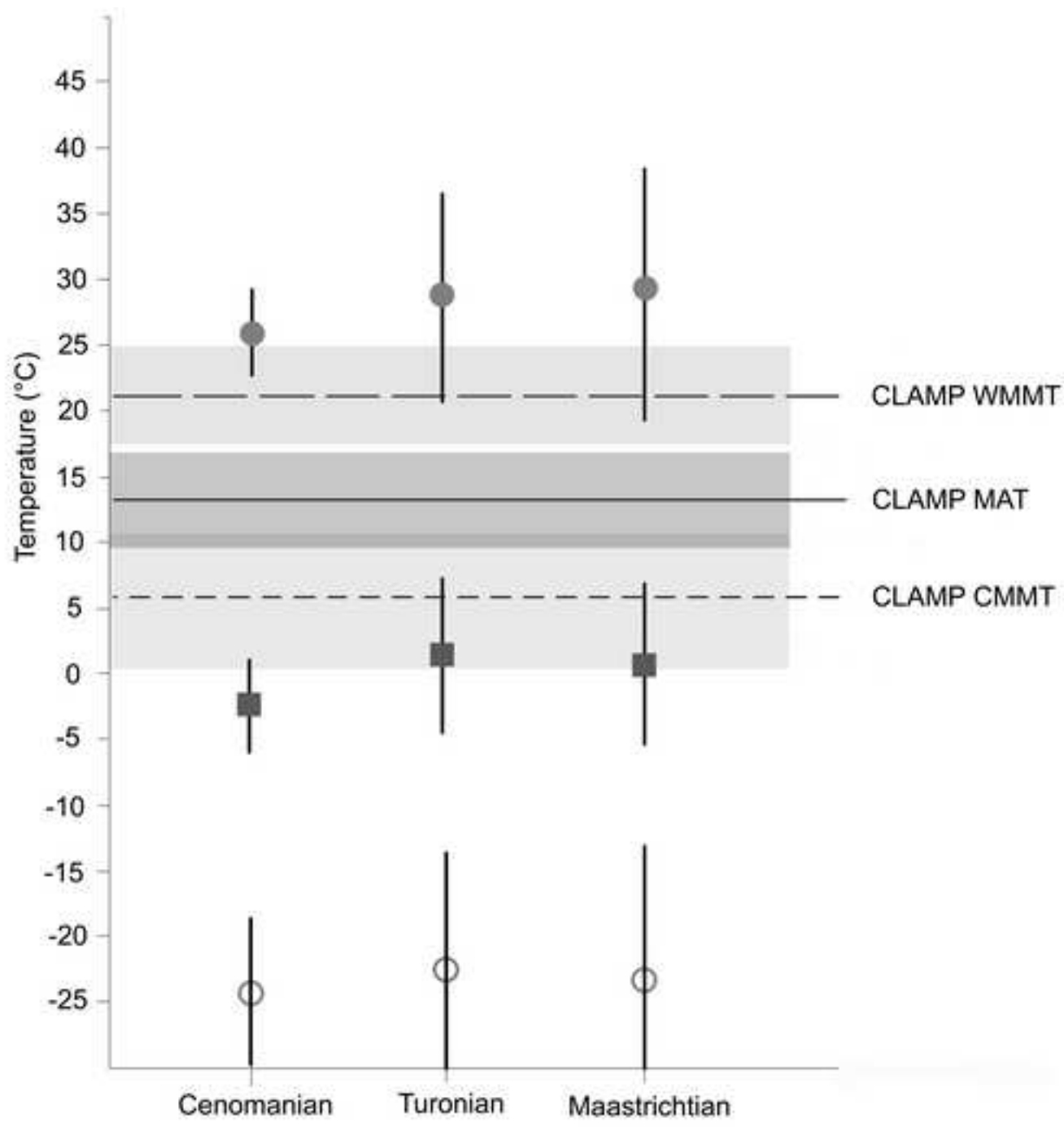
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Spicer Fig 5

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