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1 Adrian P. Broz^{1,2,5*}, Devin Pritchard-Peterson³, Diogo Spinola⁴, Sarah Schneider², Lucas C.R.
2 Silva^{5,6}, and Greg Retallack²

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4 ¹ Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences, Purdue University, Lafayette, IN

5 ²Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR

6 ³Dudek Environmental Consulting, Encinitas, CA

7 ⁴Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Alaska, Fairbanks, AK

8 ⁵Environmental Studies Program, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR

9 ⁶Department of Biological Sciences, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR

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11 ***Correspondence:** abroz@uoregon.edu

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Eocene (50-55 Ma) greenhouse climate recorded in nonmarine rocks of San Diego, CA, USA

Adrian P. Broz^{1,2,*}, Devin Pritchard-Peterson³, Diogo Spinola⁴, Sarah Schneider², Gregory Retallack², and Lucas C.R. Silva^{5,6}

¹ Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences, Purdue University, Lafayette, IN

²Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR

³Dudek Environmental Consulting, Encinitas, CA

⁴Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Alaska, Fairbanks, AK

⁵Environmental Studies Program, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR

⁶Department of Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR

***Correspondence:** abroz@uoregon.edu

Abstract

Nonmarine rocks in sea cliffs of southern California store a detailed record of weathering under tropical conditions millions of years ago, where today the climate is much drier and cooler. This work examines early Eocene (~50-55 million-year-old) deeply weathered paleosols (ancient, buried soils) exposed in marine terraces of northern San Diego County, California, and uses their geochemistry and mineralogy to reconstruct climate and weathering intensity during early Eocene greenhouse climates. These Eocene warm spikes have been modeled as prequels for ongoing anthropogenic global warming driven by a spike in atmospheric CO₂. Paleocene-Eocene thermal maximum (PETM, ~55 Ma) kaolinitic paleosols developed in volcanoclastic conglomerates are evidence of intense weathering (CIA >98) under warm and wet conditions (mean annual temperature [MAT] of ~17° C ± 4.4° C and mean annual precipitation [MAP] of ~1500 ± 299 mm). Geologically younger Early Eocene climatic optimum (EECO, 50 Ma) high shrink-swell (Vertisol) paleosols developed in coarse sandstones are also intensely weathered (CIA >80) with MAT estimates of ~20° C ± 4.4° C but have lower estimated MAP (~1100 ± 299 mm), suggesting a less humid climate for the EECO greenhouse spike than for the earlier PETM greenhouse spike.

1. Introduction

Periods of accentuated greenhouse conditions, characterized by spikes (or excursions) in CO₂ concentrations exceeding ~2000 ppm, punctuated the Earth's climate during the Paleogene, from the late Paleocene to the Early Eocene (60 to 52 million years ago) (Pearson

55 and Palmer, 2000). During these epochs, global temperatures often reached more than ten
56 degrees Celsius higher than those of the pre-industrial period (Anagnostou et al., 2016). These
57 Eocene CO₂-driven warm spikes have been modeled as prequels for ongoing anthropogenic
58 global warming (Bowen et al., 2006; Carmichael et al., 2017).

59 Paleosols (fossil soils) from the Late Paleocene to Eocene epochs have been reported
60 worldwide in Antarctica (Spinola et al., 2017), Argentina (Andrews et al., 2017), Australia (Zhou
61 et al., 2015), and across the United States (Wilf, 2000; White and Schiebout, 2008, Kelson et al.,
62 2018); These paleosols demonstrate markedly more intense weathering conditions than in
63 the same area today and are evidence of the warmer climates that prevailed during the early
64 Cenozoic (Andrews et al., 2017). Evidence of increased weathering intensity across latitudes is
65 from the formation of deep (~30 meter) weathering profiles (Abbott, 1981), elevated
66 alteration indices (Babechuck et al., 2014) and abundant kaolinite (White and Schiebout,
67 2008), which are characteristics of deeply weathered modern soils at present-day equatorial
68 to subequatorial latitudes (Butt et al., 2000). The increased weathering intensity on land
69 surfaces during these periods is a direct function of climate and is also influenced by other
70 processes such as vegetation and microbial activity (Silva and Lambers, 2021).

71 New evidence of these warming periods can be seen in a sequence of Eocene paleosols
72 located in today's coastal deserts of southern California, revealing a significantly warmer and
73 wetter paleoclimate compared to the modern arid climate. Early Eocene paleosols in the
74 coastal plains of northwestern Baja California and southwestern California show the effects of
75 intense weathering under a subtropical humid climate (Abbott, 1981). This is consistent with
76 the global greenhouse climates during the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM, ~55
77 Ma) (Kraus et al., 2013; Bowen et al., 2014). An additional global warming event, known as the
78 Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO, 52-50 Ma), also fostered intense weathering in warm,
79 wet climates (Zachos et al., 2008; Song et al., 2018).

80 Although Cenozoic paleosols of San Diego have been known for several decades (Abbott,
81 1981), they are now able to be thoroughly examined using a comprehensive set of
82 climofunctions and other quantitative proxies for soil formation conditions (Sheldon et al.,
83 2002; Sheldon and Tabor, 2009; Nordt and Driese, 2010, Adams et al., 2011). Application of
84 these techniques to a new set of deeply weathered Eocene paleosols advances our
85 understanding of how Eocene climate excursions affected land surfaces across latitudes. This
86 work uses the morphology, mineralogy and geochemistry of San Diego paleosols to provide a
87 quantitative assessment of climate and weathering intensity on land during and after Eocene
88 greenhouse spikes. [This work represents the first reconstruction of PETM and EECO
89 precipitation and temperature from a nonmarine site in present-day California.](#)

90

91 **2. Geological setting and Cenozoic greenhouse climate**

92 The study area lies within the peninsular Ranges of southern California and is
93 composed primarily of Jurassic to Cretaceous igneous and metamorphic rocks, and Eocene

94 marine and nonmarine sedimentary rocks (Abbott and May, 1991) (Figure 1). Erosion
95 following mountain-building in the mid-Cretaceous led to the formation of a stable, flat-lying
96 coastal-plain basement that ranges in age from late Cretaceous to early Holocene. This work
97 focuses on two of the coastal plain stratigraphic units of **late** Cretaceous and early Eocene age
98 that have preserved evidence of intense subaerial alteration.

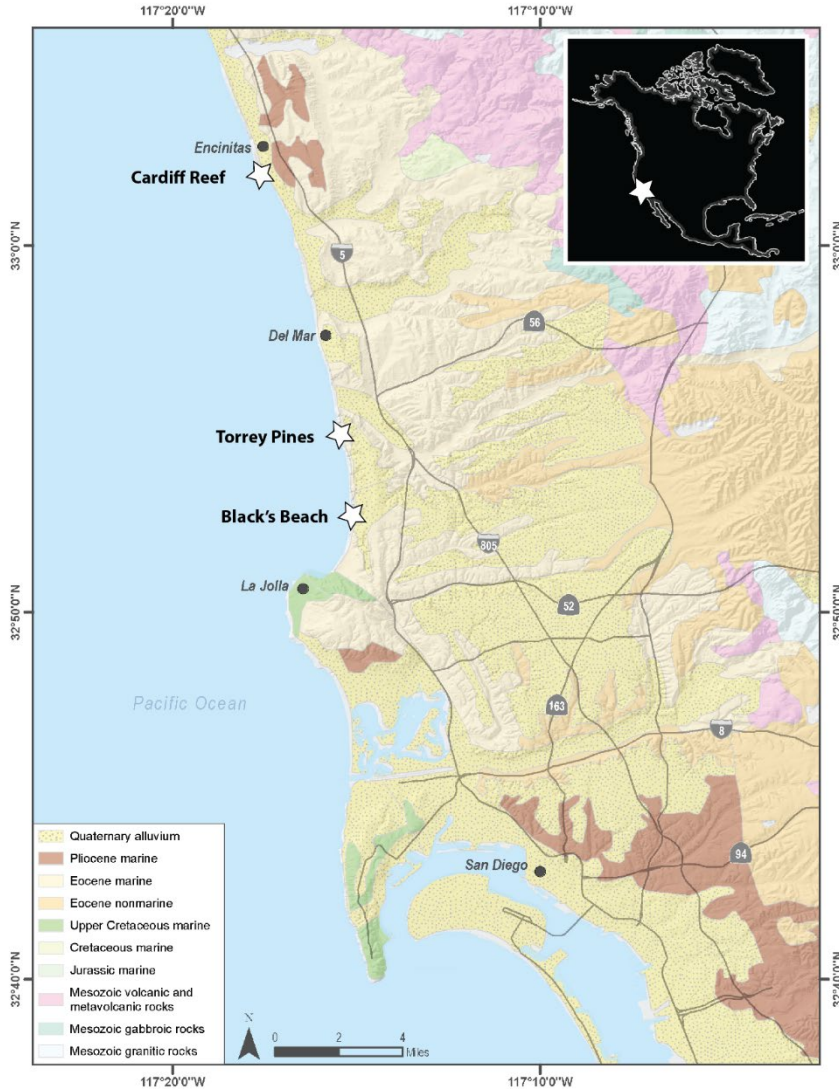


Figure 1. Field areas in northern San Diego County, California, USA

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Shortly after the late Jurassic to mid-Cretaceous Nevadan orogeny, San Diego County was transformed into a low-lying coastal plain that accumulated Cretaceous to Cenozoic nonmarine and marine sedimentary deposits (Fredericksen, 1991; Abbott and May 1991). Paleosols of the greater San Diego area developed on Jurassic andesite and andesitic breccia, Rancho Delicias granodiorite, as well as **early** Eocene [55 Ma] volcanic and volcanoclastic conglomerates of the Mt. Soledad Formation (Abbott, 1981). The discontinuous sequence of weathered intervals begins with Paleocene (~56 Ma) kaolinitic Oxisol paleosols at Rancho

109 Delicias, Tijuana, which are nearly 30 meters in vertical thickness (Abbott et al., 1976; Abbott,
110 1981). Approximately 60 km to the north, outcrops of lower Eocene (55 Ma) kaolinitic
111 paleosols of the Mt. Soledad conglomerate are exposed in beach cliffs at Black's Beach, La
112 Jolla, below Ardath Shale with mollusks of the *Turritella uvasana* zone (Peterson and Abbott,
113 1979). These are overlain by Middle Eocene (50 Ma) smectite-rich paleosols of the marginal
114 marine Delmar Formation at San Elijo Beach, Cardiff, CA. Paleosols of the Delmar Formation
115 are overlain by late Eocene (~40 Ma) Aridisol paleosols of the Friars formation that contain
116 abundant pedogenic carbonate nodules and a variety of vertebrate fossils of the Uintan North
117 American Land mammal Age (Abbott, 1981; Walsh et al. 1996). This study focused on
118 paleosols of the early Eocene (55 Ma) Mt. Soledad Formation and later early Eocene (50 Ma)
119 Delmar Formation. Paleomagnetic evidence locates southern California at latitudes 35-40 ° N
120 during the Paleocene and Early Eocene (Smith and Briden, 1977), at least 400 km north of its
121 current latitude of 32° N.

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123 **Mount Soledad Formation Conglomerate**

124 Conglomerates of the basal Mount Soledad Formation are overlain by the early Middle
125 Eocene Ardath Shale (Peterson and Abbott, 1979). The Mt. Soledad Formation is a framework-
126 supported, amalgamated conglomerate with exotic clast composition (Kennedy and Moore,
127 1971). The composition of the clasts is dominated by quartz phenocryst-bearing rhyolites that
128 originated from present-day Sonoran Desert of Mexico as well as quartzite and silicified tuff
129 (Abbott et al., 1989). Conglomerate clasts include approximately 40% rhyolite, 26% black
130 dacites, 13% Santiago Peak Volcanics, 12% schist, 4% plutonic, and 2% **intraformational**
131 (Abbott and May, 1991). Paleohydrological reconstruction of the area suggested a 300-km
132 long river with a channel width of 20-80 m and a peak 100-year flood discharge of 30,000 m³
133 S⁻¹ (Abbott, 1981).

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135 **Delmar Formation Sandstone**

136 The Eocene (50 Ma) Delmar Formation consists of coarse-grained quartzofeldspathic
137 sandstone that was deposited in shallow marine, intertidal and supratidal facies of the Eocene
138 San Diego Embayment (Abbott and May, 1981), and is approximately equivalent in age to the
139 Green River Formation in Wyoming (Smith et al., 2008). Tidally influenced sedimentary
140 features include an assemblage of largely shallow marine oysters, flaser bedding, inclined
141 cross bedding, interlaminated siltstone and mudstone that follow basal and lateral
142 accretionary surfaces of tidal channels, and **local** flood and return-surge deposits (Abbott and
143 May, 1981; Eisenberg and Abbott, 1981) Fossil plants such as giant leather fern (*Acrostichum*
144 *aureum*) also suggest mangrove habitats (Myers, 1991).

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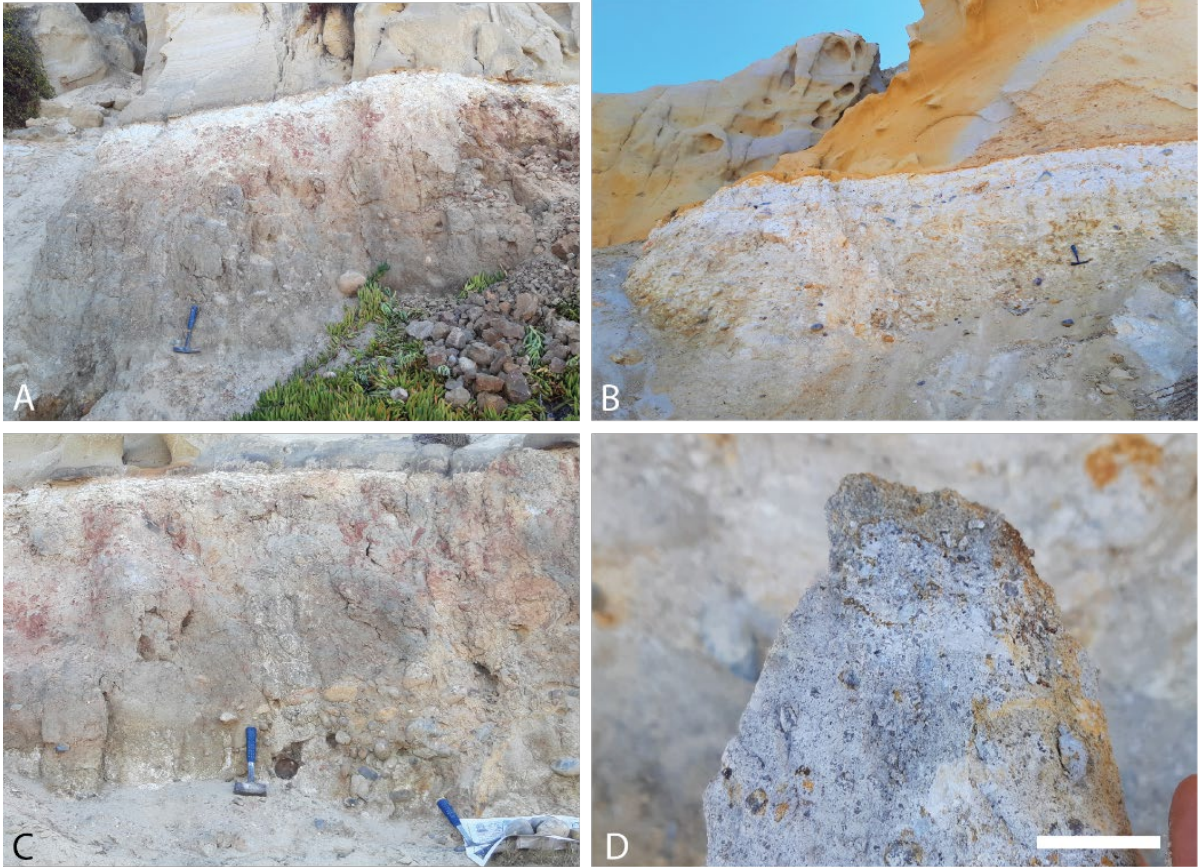
146 **3. Materials and Methods**

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148 **Sample Collection and morphological assessment**

149 Field descriptions and collection of hand samples was performed at Black's Beach, La Jolla,
150 CA, USA (32.895500, -117.253520) and at San Elijo Beach, Cardiff-by-the-Sea, CA (32.895500, -
151 117.25352) (Figures 2 and 3). Five paleosol profiles were sampled. These included a
152 paleocatena of two profiles (along strike, approximately 200 m apart) at La Jolla, and a vertical
153 sequence of three successive profiles in Cardiff (Figure S1). Additional profiles of putative
154 mangrove paleosols in supratidal facies of the Delmar Formation were observed at Torrey
155 Pines, CA and descriptions are included in Supplementary information (Figure S2-S3). The
156 grey paleosols with carbonaceous root traces and oysters at Torrey Pines were not chemically
157 analyzed, because unlike thick red paleosols, they are not developed enough to reveal
158 paleoclimate or other soil forming factors (Adams et al., 2011). Hand samples were collected
159 by trenching to approximately 30 cm into the paleosol outcrop for fresh samples. Large,
160 lithified blocks were collected at approximately 20 cm intervals, similar to sampling the
161 horizons of a modern soil profile. The morphology, qualitative grain size, Munsell color and
162 calcareousness of samples were described during collection. Paleosol taxonomic assessment
163 followed the methods and nomenclature of U.S. Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff, 2014).
164 Pedotypes followed the nomenclature of the local Kumeyaay language spoken by the 12
165 federally-recognized tribes of the region (Field, 2012). A stratigraphic section along
166 depositional strike proposed by Abbott and May (1991) is included in Supplementary
167 Information (Figure S4).

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Figure 2. A catena of two severely weathered early Eocene (55 Ma) kaolinitic paleosols in marine terrace at Black's Beach, La Jolla, California USA (32.895500, -117.253520). A) White/brown kaolinitic paleosol profile formed in conglomerate of the Eocene (55 Ma) Mt. Soledad Formation and buried by overlying Torrey Formation sandstone (32.89400, -117.253520:); B) Gray/white kaolinitic profile (along strike) also formed in conglomerates of the Eocene (55 Ma) Mt. Soledad Formation and buried by overlying Torrey Formation sandstone; C) large >10 cm conglomerate clasts in the C-horizon of the brown/white profile; D) hand sample from the A-horizon of gray/white profile showing kaolinite (white) and residual coarse quartz clasts. Scale bar in D) is 2 cm

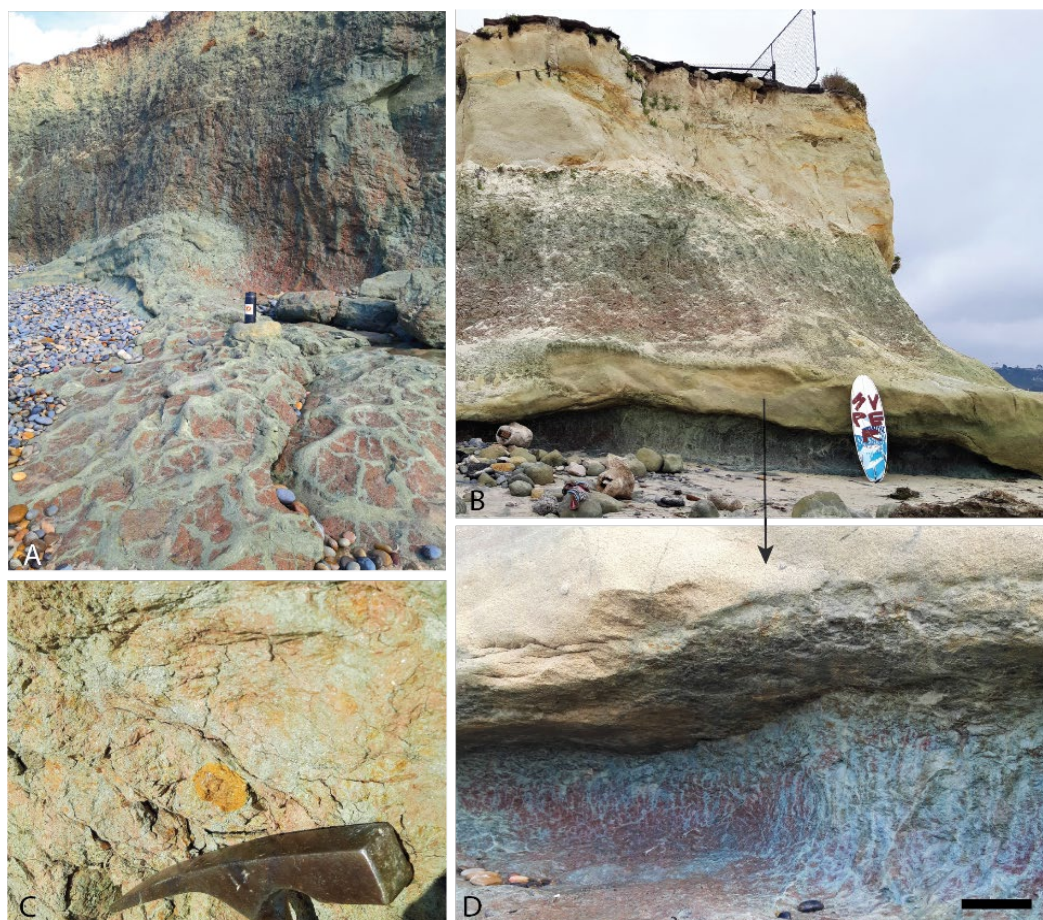


Figure 3. A sequence of Eocene (50 Ma) red clay Vertisol (shrink-swell) paleosols at San Elijo Beach, Cardiff-by-the-sea, California, USA (32.895500, -117.25352). A) Three successive Vertisol paleosols exposed in marine terraces with soil structures exposed in the shore platform including coarse sand-filled mudcracks; C) common Fe oxide concretions up to 5 cm in diameter in the B-horizons of the lowermost two profiles; D) Drab green/gray coarse sand-filled mudcracks and brick-red matrix of the basal paleosol profile with extensive mottling extending to sea in the shore platform. Scale bar in C) is 10 cm

Bulk geochemistry

Major element chemistry of paleosols was determined by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) and Pratt titration for FeO at ALS Laboratories, Vancouver, British Columbia (Table S1). Errors for XRF detection of individual elements (Table S1) were calculated from ten replicate measurements of the standard CANMET SDMS2 (British Columbia granodioritic sand). These data were used to calculate molar weathering ratios, indices of alteration, and geochemical mass balance (τ , strain) of each paleosol profile. Bulk density was measured on lithified clasts using the paraffin-clod method of Blake and Hartge (1986). These values are provided in Tables S1 and S2.

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Geochemical Proxies

The degree of weathering of paleosols can be estimated using molecular ratios as indicators of the soil-forming processes (Retallack, 2019) including salinization ($\text{Na}_2\text{O}/\text{K}_2\text{O}$), calcification ($\text{CaO} + \text{MgO}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$), clayeyness ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{SiO}_2$), base loss ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{CaO} + \text{MgO} + \text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O}$) and gleization ($\text{FeO}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$). Salinization is a measure of the salt accumulation in paleosols whereas calcification estimates the accumulation of pedogenic carbonates at depth. Clayeyness and base loss evaluate the extent of hydrolytic weathering and leaching of cations as a function of depth in the profile. Gleization constrains the redox state of the soil before burial, with values > 1 suggesting waterlogged and reducing conditions and values < 1 suggesting well-drained, oxidizing conditions before burial (Retallack, 2019; Broz, 2020). Oxide weight percentages were also used to estimate mean annual precipitation using the CIA-K (chemical index of alteration minus K_2O) paleoprecipitation proxy (Sheldon et al., 2002), defined as $221.12e^{0.0197(\text{CIA-K})}$ with R^2 0.72 and standard error (s.e.) of 182 mm, and the CALMAG weathering index, designed for use with Vertisol paleosols (Norse and Driese, 2010), defined as $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/(\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{CaO} + \text{MgO}) \times 100$. The CALMAG paleoprecipitation proxy ($y=22.69x - 435.8$, $R^2 = 0.90$; s.e. ± 108 mm, where $x =$ CALMAG weathering index) was compared with CIA-K paleoprecipitation estimates (Sheldon et al., 2002). Calculated values are provided in Table S3.

Total Inorganic / Organic carbon and pH

The pH and total organic carbon (TOC) of samples was assessed to constrain the organic content and diagenetic history of paleosols. Since waterlogged soils can be sites of enhanced organic preservation, especially those with $\text{FeO}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 < 1$ (Broz et al, 2022), we used elemental analysis to quantify the paleosol organic carbon pool. However, paleosols often contain both ancient and modern carbon as inferred from radiocarbon dating, and distinguishing between the two can be challenging (Broz et al., 2022). Furthermore, reconstructing soil pH from paleosols is difficult because diagenesis (e.g., groundwater alteration) can obscure or overprint original soil pH (Lukens et al., 2018). Paleosol samples were manually encapsulated in 5×8 mm tin capsules (sample size approximately (25–70 mg) prior to elemental analysis. Total organic carbon was determined by elemental analysis on a Costech ECS 4010 instrument at the University of Oregon’s Soil-Plant-Atmosphere Laboratory, with expected standard deviation $< 0.3\%$. Paleosol pH was determined by electrode in a 1:2 mixture of ground paleosol sample to deionized water. No pre-acidification of paleosols were performed here (e.g., Harris et al., 2001), so it is possible that paleosols with $\text{pH} > 6.5$ contained some amount of inorganic carbon (e.g., carbonate). All samples were analyzed in duplicate. TOC and pH values are provided in Table S4.

241 **Visible/near infrared spectroscopy**

242 Visible-near infrared (VNIR) spectroscopy was used to determine the alteration mineralogy of
243 select samples. Lithified hand samples of paleosols (approximately 200 g) were selected for
244 analysis. An ASD FieldSpec Pro3 reflectance spectrometer in the Planetary Surfaces
245 Laboratory at Purdue University was used to examine the reflectance spectra of samples from
246 0.35-2.50 μm . Samples were not ground or sieved before analysis. Spectra from laboratory
247 standards of kaolinite, hematite, goethite, montmorillonite and illite from the Western
248 Washington University Vis-NIR Spectroscopy Database were compared with spectra from
249 hand samples to constrain the mineralogy of unknown samples. Raw spectra are provided in
250 Table S6.

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252 **Micromorphology**

253 Petrographic thin sections of paleosol samples were used to classify paleosol
254 micromorphology, estimate grain size distribution and constrain mineral composition
255 (Murphy, 1983). Thin sections of oriented paleosol samples were point counted using a Swift
256 automated stage and Hacker counting box fitted to a Leitz Orthoplan Pol research
257 microscope. Determination of average grain size and qualitative mineralogy with error of 2%
258 for common components (Murphy (1983). A total of 1000 points on each thin section were
259 counted (500 points for relative proportion of minerals and 500 points for determination of
260 sand, silt and clay size fractions), thus allowing for estimates of error of 4 vol. % (Van der Plas
261 and Tobi, 1965) (**Table S7**). Thin section descriptions followed methodology outlined by
262 Stoops (2003). Focus was given to pedogenic features indicative of soil forming processes
263 (e.g., clay coatings and nodules) as well as to b-fabrics.

264 **4. Results and Discussion**

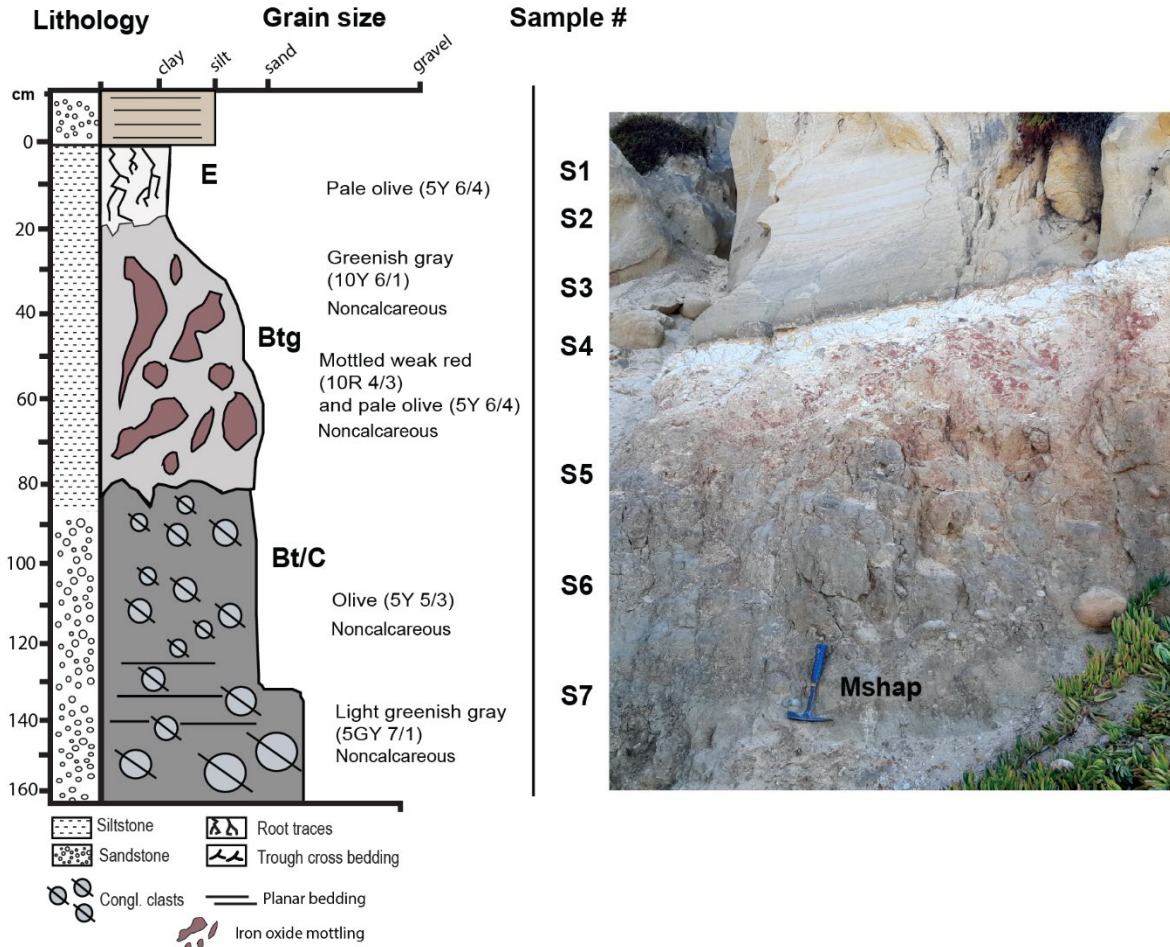
265 **4.1 Morphology and micromorphology**

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267 ***Mshap* (White) profile**

268 The kaolinite-rich profile analyzed in this study, herein referred to as *Mshap* ("White" in the
269 Kumeyaay language; Field, 2012), exhibits characteristics consistent with a poorly-drained
270 Ultisol paleosol, known as an Aquult soil in US Soil Taxonomy System (Soil Survey Staff, 2014).
271 This profile has a kaolinitic E-horizon that gradually transitions into a well-developed, mottled
272 B horizon distinguished by large (10 cm length) drab-haloed root traces. The bleached E
273 horizon subtly grades into the mottled red hues of the B horizon (Figure 4), a transition
274 suggesting intermittent saturation potentially caused by seasonal flooding. The deepest
275 horizon (C) hosts a parent material of well-rounded chert and quartzite clasts, imbricated to
276 the west, with diameters reaching up to 15 cm. The A-horizon of the original profile was likely
277 removed by erosion during the deposition of the overlying sandstone. It appears that
278 weathered conglomerate clasts extend deeper into the C-horizon of the profile (possibly 3-4
279 meters), but views of such material was obscured by colluvium at the time profiles were

280 observed (e.g., unweathered R-horizon of conglomerate at bottom of profile was covered by
 281 overburden and not visible), so it is possible that profiles are indeed ~3-4 meters or more in
 282 vertical thickness as noted by Abbott (1981).
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 285 **Figure 4. Mshap Ultisol paleosol at Black's Beach, La Jolla, CA,** with a kaolinitic A-horizon
 286 and a mottled Btg horizon with large drab-haloed root traces. The C horizon has rounded
 287 chert and quartzite clasts up to 15 cm in diameter that are imbricated to the west. All clasts
 288 are well rounded.
 289

290 Micromorphological observations also support the hypothesis of an Aquult-like
 291 paleosol (Table S8). The surface horizon visible in the outcrop has been identified as an E
 292 horizon, characterized by clay and Fe depletion. A few clay coating remnants are observed in
 293 several planar voids (Figure 5), while the subsurface horizons exhibited an abundance of clay
 294 coatings and redoximorphic features (Figure 5).

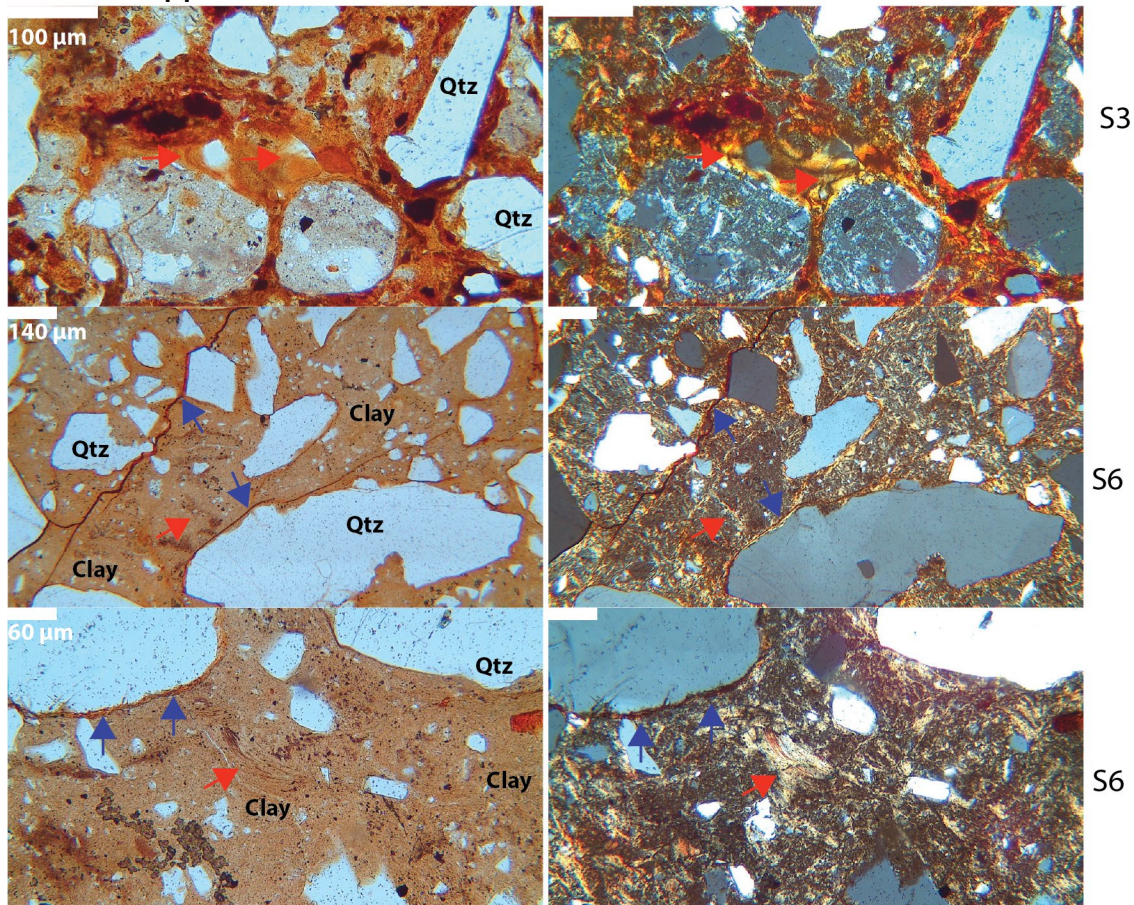
295 The subsurface horizons have been classified as a sequence of poorly-drained argillic
 296 (Btg) horizons, primarily due to the frequent presence of clay coatings, Fe nodules, and
 297 depletion/impregnation features (Figure 5). The clay coatings are limpid, displaying low

298 interference colors. These coatings are commonly found associated with planar voids and
299 showed clear extinction lines, although signs of local disturbance such as fragmentation and
300 poor orientation are evident. We hypothesize that pedoturbation—via the incorporation of
301 clay coatings into a clayey groundmass—and post-burial deformation may have been
302 contributing factors to the disturbance of clay coatings. The presence of striated b-fabrics
303 (e.g., grano, cross, and circular) in the B horizons supports the suggestion of substantial
304 pedoturbation processes (Figure 5) (Kühn et al., 2018).

305 There was no evidence of lithological discontinuity, suggesting a continuous profile.
306 The uniformity of the parent material across all samples is indicated by the similar c/f
307 distribution, mineral composition, roundness, and sorting (Table S8). Quartz, which
308 dominates the coarse fraction, displays a predominantly wavy extinction, hinting at a
309 metamorphic origin. The intense weathering present was confirmed by the detection of
310 fractured quartz grains infilled with kaolinite and/or Fe oxides (e.g., “runiquartz”, Driese et al.,
311 2018) (Table S8).

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La Jolla - Mshap profile



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Figure 5. Micromorphological features of the early Eocene (55 Ma) La Jolla (Mshap) profile seen in plane polarized light (PPL, left column) and cross polarized light (XPL, right column). Top row is E horizon showing limpid and oriented clay coatings (red

317 arrows) and Fe nodules (dark spots in PPL/XPL); middle row is Btg horizon showing circular
318 striated b-fabric (red arrow) and granostriated b-fabrics with limp and oriented clay
319 coatings (blue arrows); bottom row is Btg horizon showing clay coatings (red arrow) and Fe
320 hypocoatings (blue arrows). Sample nomenclature in right column can be traced across all
321 analyses performed on samples (see Tables S1-S9)

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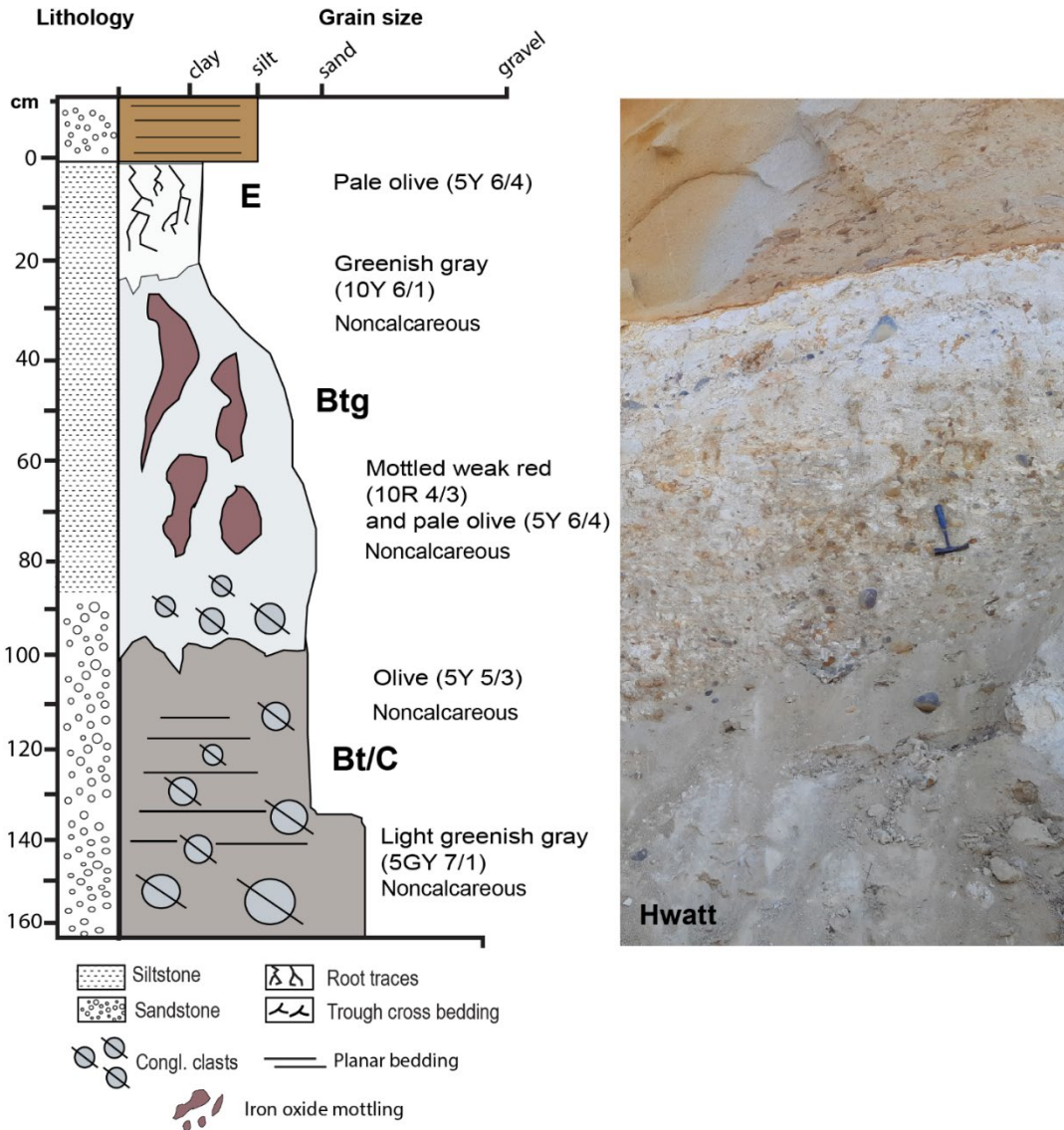
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325 ***Hwatt* (red) profile**

326 This profile at La Jolla also resembled a poorly-drained Ultisol paleosol (Aquult) in US
327 soil taxonomy) (Figure 6). Because of the common and large red mottles, it is herein *referred*
328 *to as Hwatt* ("Red" in the Kumeyaay language). The bleached-white kaolinitic A-horizon
329 contained root traces up to 2 cm in diameter and reaching 18 cm in depth. This profile also
330 has a kaolinitic A-horizon overlying a mottled Bw horizon with rounded quartzite clasts up to
331 15 cm in diameter and a mixture of sand and clay. The gray to white subsurface (B) horizon
332 was consistent with poorly drained conditions indicated by the bleached surface grading into
333 a mottled red subsurface indicative of seasonal waterlogging (Retallack et al., 2001). The C
334 horizon contains well- rounded chert and quartzite clasts also imbricated to the west and up
335 to 20 cm in diameter. The pair of paleosols described at Black's Beach represent a
336 paleocatena, two soils varying laterally (along strike) from the same ancient land surface,
337 representing differences in paleotopography (e.g., hillslope vs. toeslope) (Retallack, 2019).

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Figure 6. Poorly drained *Hwatt* paleosol (Aquult) at Black’s Beach, La Jolla, CA

with root traces up to 2 cm in diameter and reaching to 18 cm in depth. This profile also has a kaolinitic A-horizon overlying a mottled Bw horizon with rounded quartzite clasts up to 15 cm in diameter.

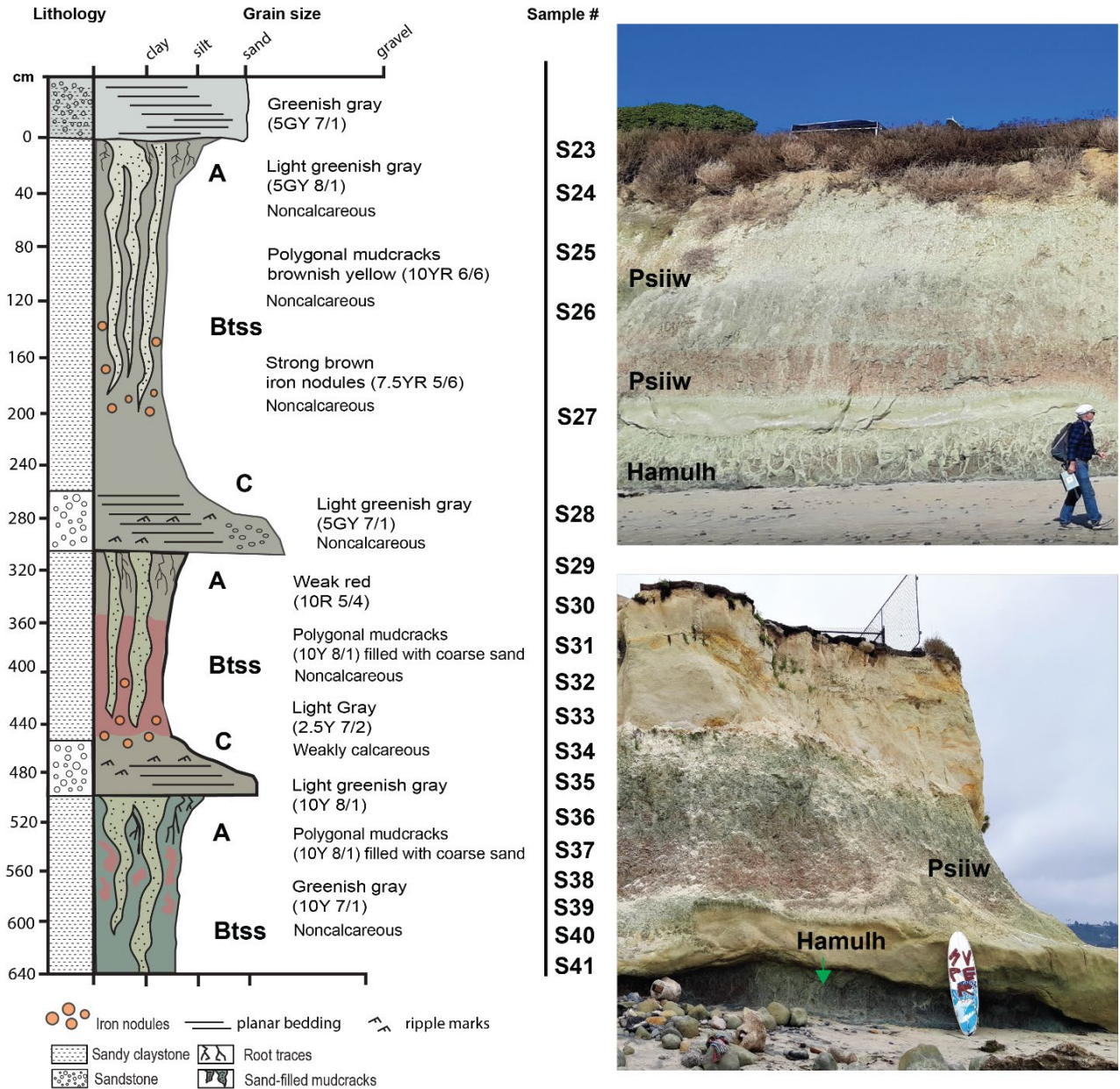
***Psiiw* (Green) and *Hamulh* (Surf) profiles**

This sequence of three clay-rich paleosols at Cardiff resembled a modern Vertisol (smectitic high shrink-swell soils, Soil Survey Staff, 2014), which formed on a parent material of quartzofeldspathic sand. The uppermost two profiles, herein referred to as *Psiiw* or “green” in Kumeyaay language (Field, 2012) overlie the basal *Hamulh* (“Surf”) *pedotype* that composes the shore platform and extends seaward. The weak red (10R 5/4) surface horizons contain common and massive, sand-filled polygonal desiccation features, common slickenslides

353 oriented at random angles, and abundant drab halo root traces to 4 cm in diameter and up to
354 25 cm in depth. These graded into a weak red (10R 5/4) subsurface clay horizons (Bss or Bssg
355 horizons) also with abundant slickensides, clasts of coarse quartz sand, and Fe concretions up
356 to 3 cm in diameter (Figure 7). The ledge-forming BC-horizon of the middle profile was a light
357 greenish gray (10Y 7/1) noncalcareous coarse-grained quartzofeldspathic sandstone. This
358 overlaid the basal profile, which was brick red (10 R 5/4) and also pierced with mottled green
359 (10Y 8/1) sand-filled cracks and root traces to 5 cm in diameter with abundant slickensides.
360 Large (75 cm depth and up to 10 cm in diameter), polygonal, sand-filled mudcracks are
361 common in other Vertisol paleosols (Driese and Foreman, 1992; Driese and Ober, 2005).

362 The basal *Hamulh* paleosol profile in the shore platform extends seaward (Figure 3) and
363 creates "Cardiff Reef", a world-famous surfing area known for long, tapering and consistent
364 wave formation, due in part to incision of the shore platform by the San Elijo river (**Figure S1**)
365 that has created a deep offshore channel located approximately 50 m south of the Cardiff
366 study area (Ludka et al., 2019).

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Figure 7. Sequence of red clay Vertisol (shrink-swell) paleosols in beach cliffs and shore platform at San Elijo Beach, Cardiff, CA. Deep (<75 cm) coarse-sand-filled polygonal mudcracks are green/gray in color (10Y 8/1) and are present in weak red (10R 5/4) soil matrix with abundant slickenslides and Fe-bearing concretions.

373

374

Micromorphological observations validated interpretation of these paleosols as Vertisols (Figure 8). Diagnostic vertic soil properties, including a large and well-developed blocky structure along with strongly striated b-fabrics, are consistently observed throughout the Bss horizons (Figure 8) (Kovda and Mermut, 2018).

378

The A horizons are characterized by a smaller blocky structure with a secondary granular structure, accompanied by a well-developed pore network resembling fine roots,

379

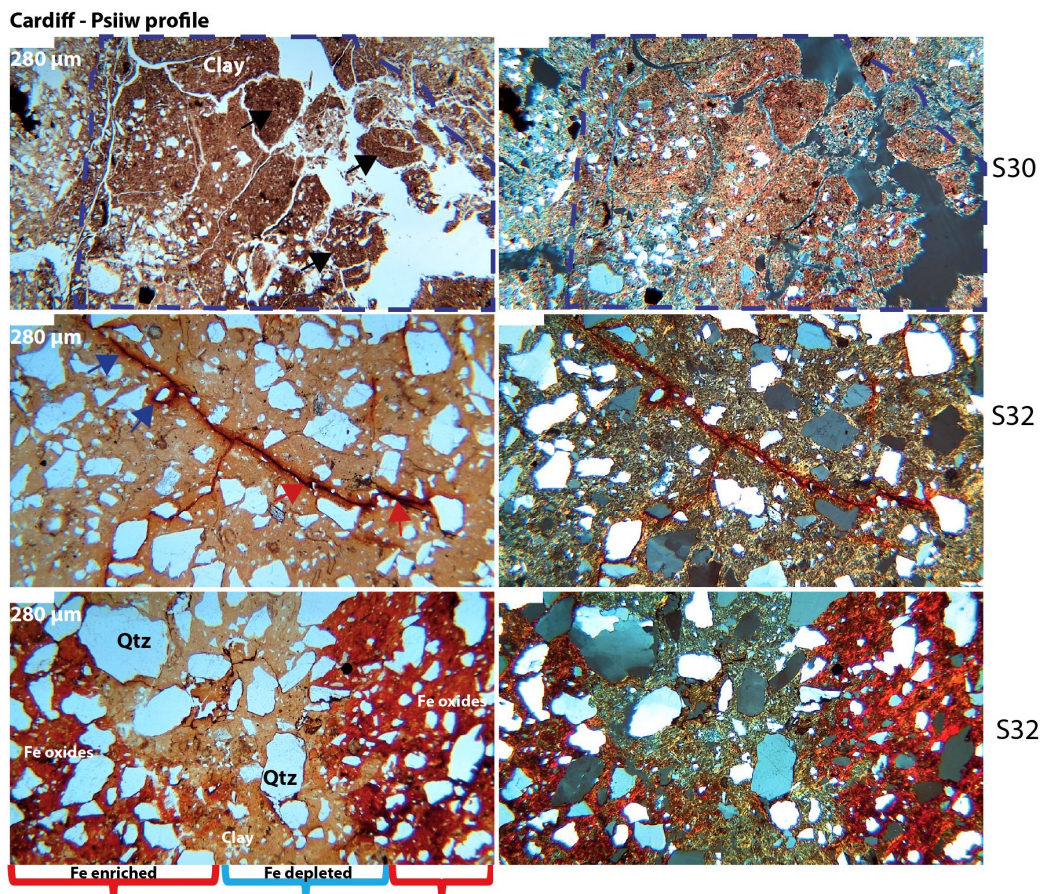
380 which likely belonged to a grassland-type vegetation. The infilling of finer textured particles
381 in larger pores suggested proximity to the surface Figure 8, top row).

382

383 We identified lithological discontinuities and buried horizons, as denoted by the
384 numerical prefix in the horizon designations and the "b" suffix, respectively. The lithological
385 discontinuities are readily discernible due to abrupt alterations in the size, sorting, and
386 composition of the coarse fraction. The buried horizons are identified by the sudden
387 reappearance of A horizon properties, such as an extensively developed pore system
388 resembling roots and material infilling.

389 Overall, this paleosol sequence demonstrated relatively good drainage, and only a few
390 horizons showed redoximorphic features like Fe coatings, nodules, and an Fe-depleted
391 groundmass (Fig. X). Unlike the La Jolla profiles, the Cardiff profiles demonstrated a more
392 diverse mineral composition, predominantly featuring quartz with a frequent occurrence of
393 biotite and plagioclase. Notably, no instances of runiquartz formation are detected (Table S8).

394



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Figure 8. Micromorphological features of the Eocene (50 Ma) Cardiff (Psiw) profile seen in plane polarized light (PPL, left column) and cross polarized light (XPL, right column). Top row shows A-horizon with subangular blocky ped structure (black arrows)

399 and clay mineral accumulation; note well developed-pore network with finer material
400 indicated by dashed blue line; middle row shows Btss horizon with well-developed b-fabric
401 (yellow in PPL) and Fe-oxide lined pore network; red arrows indicate inner Fe matrix and blue
402 arrows indicate outer diffuse Fe matrix boundary; bottom row shows Btss horizon with
403 residual quartz and Fe enriched areas (red brackets) alternating with Fe depleted areas (blue
404 bracket). Sample nomenclature in right column can be traced across all analyses performed
405 on samples (Tables S1-S9)

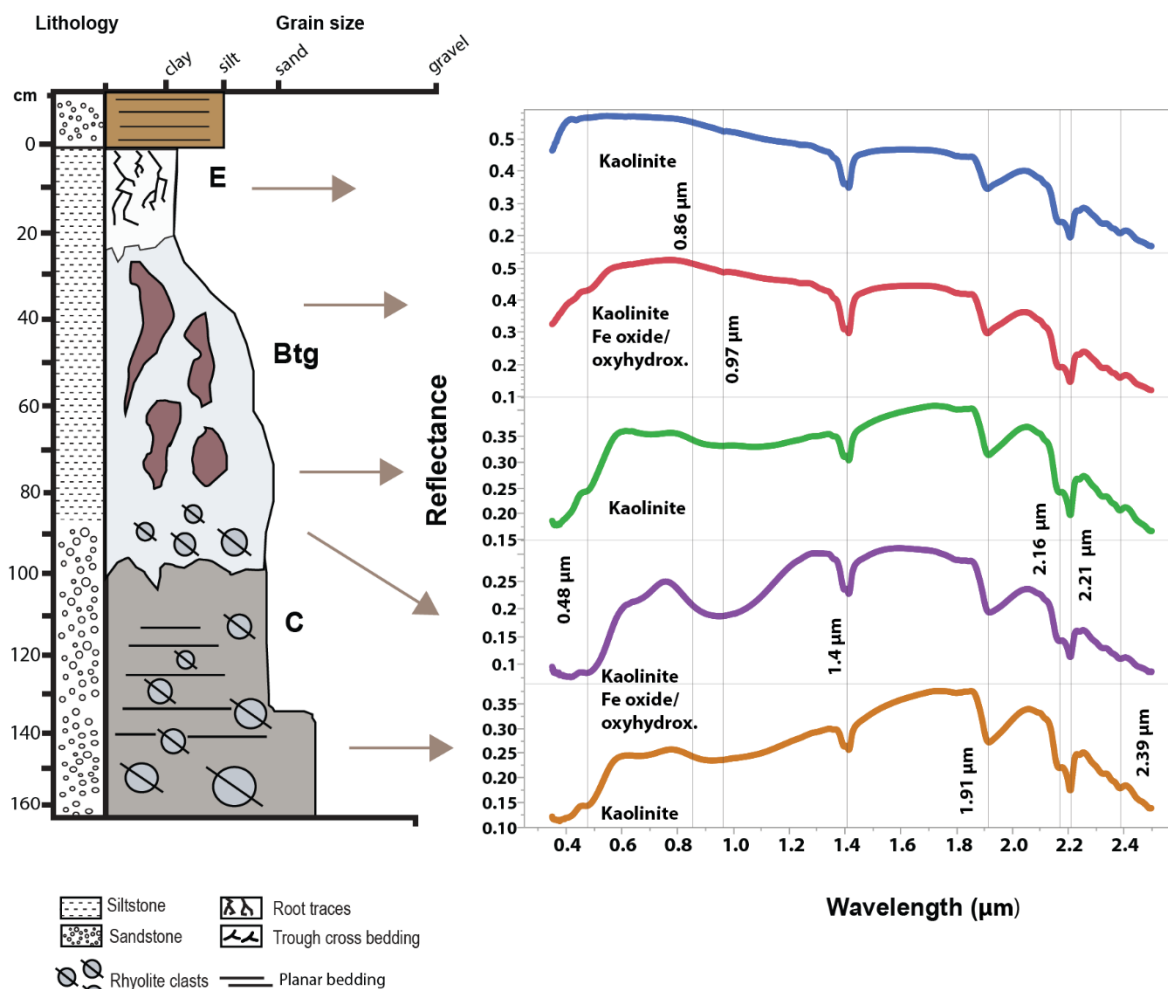
406
407

408 **Visible/near infrared spectroscopy**

409 Analysis of the Mshap paleosol (La Jolla) showed strong absorptions with band centers
410 near 0.5, 0.8 1.41, 1.9, 2.16, 2.2, and 2.39 μm (Figure 9). We interpret these absorptions as
411 kaolin-group minerals (kaolinite, halloysite, dickite) with contributions from Fe oxides and a
412 Fe^{3+} -bearing phyllosilicate. The absorptions at 1.41 μm are indicative of the first kaolinite
413 overtone whereas the 1.9 μm band is from a combination tone of Al-OH bending and H-O-H
414 stretching in H_2O (Goudge et al., 2015) or from the presence of another hydrated phase. A
415 shoulder exists at 2.16 as a doublet with the 2.20 μm band, which is caused by a combination
416 tone of the OH stretch (Bishop et al., 2008) and is diagnostic of kaolinite (e.g., Ye and
417 Michalski, 2022). A band near 2.39 μm could also be consistent with OH stretching and
418 bending combinations in a Fe^{3+} phyllosilicate, possibly due to the isomorphic substitution of
419 Al or Fe for Si in the tetrahedral layers, or from cation bonding between tetrahedral and
420 octahedral layers (Bishop et al., 2008).

421 The presence of finely crystalline Fe oxides in the lower Mshap profile was inferred
422 from absorption features centered near 0.5 μm and a broad feature near 0.85 μm (Haber et al.,
423 2022). The C horizon had the most pronounced Fe oxide features with the largest band depth
424 at 0.85 μm noted across all samples. Fe oxides features are mainly observed in the subsurface
425 horizons and are absent in the surface (E horizon) samples. This suggests that the surface
426 horizon may have been poorly drained and chemically reducing whereas the subsurface may
427 have been well-drained and more oxidized.

428



429

430 **Figure 9. Visible-near infrared spectroscopy of the La Jolla Ultisol paleosol.**

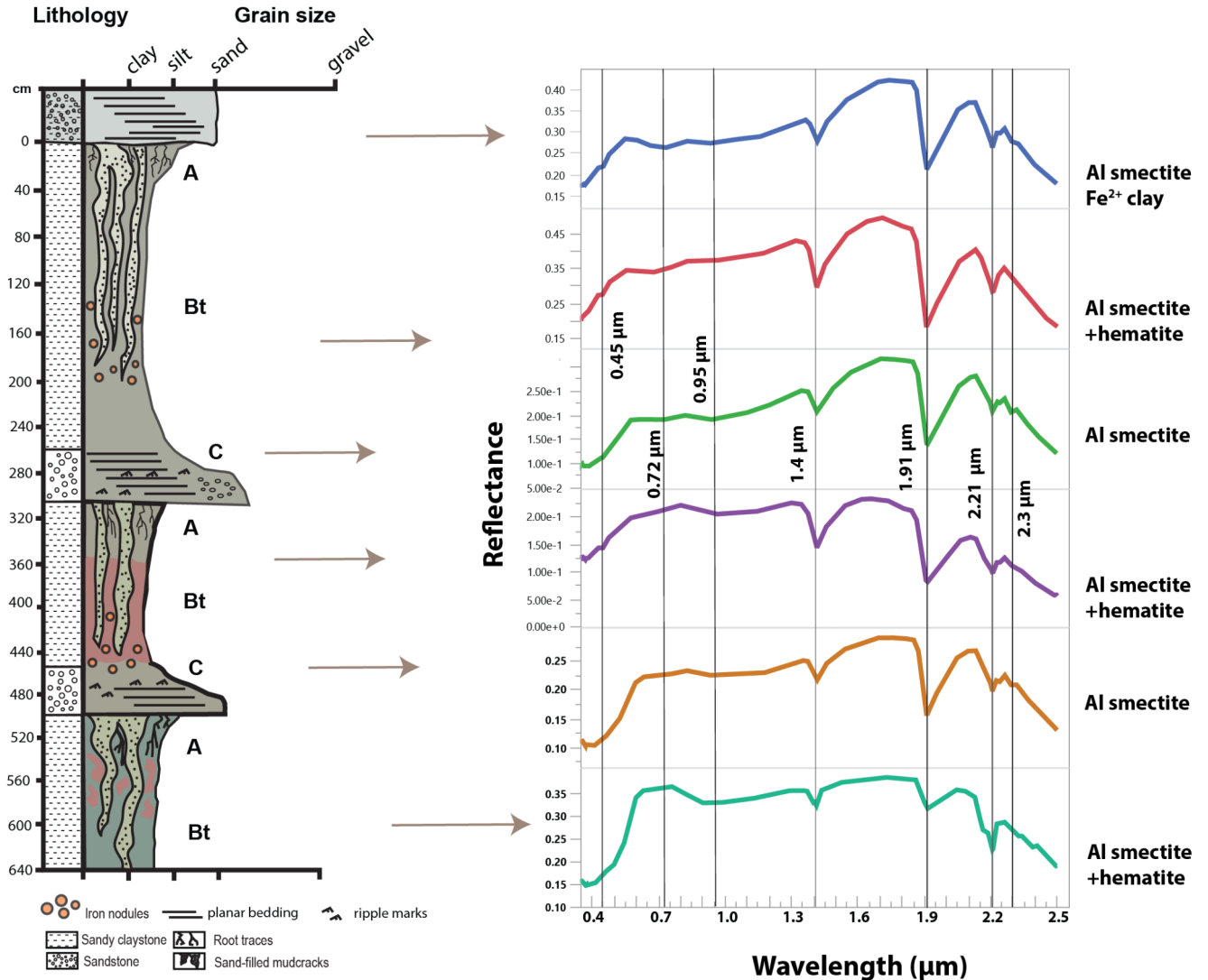
431 Absorption features highlighted at 0.48, 0.97, 1.4, 1.95, as well as the doublet feature at 2.16
 432 and 2.2 μm, are consistent with kaolinite and Fe oxides and/or oxyhydroxides

433

434 The Hamulh and Psiiw paleosols (Cardiff) had absorptions with band centers at 1.4,
 435 1.91, 2.21 and ~2.35 μm (Figure 10). The absorption features at 1.91 and 2.21 μm are
 436 consistent with a strongly crystalline Al smectite (e.g., Al montmorillonite). The absorptions at
 437 1.4 μm and 1.9 μm are similar to kaolinite, but the kaolinite-diagnostic doublet feature at 2.16
 438 and 2.2 μm was absent in all but one of the Cardiff samples. Instead, an absorption feature
 439 near ~2.35 μm was consistent with Fe²⁺-rich phyllosilicates such as zinnwaldite and/or
 440 chamosite, or a mixed layer illite-smectite (Bishop et al., 2008).

441 Despite the extensive green-red mottling in the Cardiff paleosols, Fe oxide signatures
 442 are largely absent in visible wavelengths. Only one sample, the A-horizon of the lowermost
 443 profile, had absorption features centered near 0.5 and 0.85 μm, characteristic of Fe oxides
 444 such as hematite (Haber et al., 2022). Interestingly, the lowermost profile was the reddest of
 445 the three profiles and suggested it may have been less affected by early diagenetic burial

446 gleization (Retallack, 1991). This process may have converted a significant portion of the Fe
 447 oxides and oxyhydroxides from the ferric state to a drab-colored ferrous state, and since
 448 ferrous iron is more soluble, may have resulted in depletion of total iron in the profiles
 449 (Retallack, 1991). This may be why we did not see strong Fe oxide signatures in most samples
 450 despite the inferred presence of ferric iron characteristic of deeply weathered soils (Brown et
 451 al., 2006).



452
 453 **Figure 10. Visible-near infrared spectroscopy of three Vertisol paleosol profiles (red**
 454 **Hamulh and green Psiw pedotypes) from Cardiff-by-the-sea, CA.** Absorption features
 455 highlighted at 0.45, 0.74, 1.4, 1.91, 2.21 and 2.3 μm are consistent with Al smectite and
 456 hematite

457
 458 Paleosols at both localities showed chemical weathering trends consistent with
 459 extensive leaching and subaerial alteration (Figure 11). The *Hwatt* Ultisol-like paleosol (La
 460 Jolla) showed only slight salinization ($\text{Na}_2\text{O}/\text{K}_2\text{O}$) and calcification ($\text{CaO}+\text{MgO}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$) with

461 values less than 0.15 (Figure 11A). On the other hand, we observed moderate clayeyiness
462 ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{SiO}_2$) in the uppermost horizon with values up to 0.4 that decreased to 0.2 in the
463 subsurface (Bt and C) horizons. Base loss followed a similar trend where the highest values
464 (~ 40) are noted in the near-surface horizons and decreased to values less than 20 in the C
465 horizon. Gleization, indicative of waterlogging before burial, was greatest in the surface (E)
466 horizon and decreased with depth. Low salinization and calcification values (~ 0.1) are noted
467 and are common in Ultisols of wet climates where precipitation exceeds evapotranspiration
468 (Retallack, 2019). Clayeyiness and base loss are highest in the near-surface horizons of the
469 paleosol, indicative of subaerial alteration and leaching, but overall values are less than would
470 be expected for a more deeply weathered Oxisol. Gleization values of ~ 0.5 in the A-horizon
471 also suggest waterlogging conditions before burial and are consistent with seasonal
472 saturation by surface water. A decrease of $\text{FeO}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ in the subsurface horizons suggests
473 perched surface water rather than groundwater was responsible for the seasonal
474 waterlogging conditions.

475

476 **Chemical Weathering Trends**

477 The Cardiff Vertisol paleosols (*Psiiw and Hamulh*) had salinization and calcification
478 values up to ~ 4 and 0.2, respectively, with the highest values in the A horizons of both profiles
479 (Figure 11B). Moderate salinization suggests that precipitation was not adequate to remove
480 most Na_2O , especially when compared to the low salinization values of the La Jolla (*Hwatt*)
481 profile. Low calcification values (up to 0.2) are similar to the Hwatt profile, suggesting an
482 absence of pedogenic carbonate. Vertisols of wet climates such as those examined here (MAP
483 $> \sim 1000$ mm) do not typically contain pedogenic carbonate whereas Vertisols of dry climates
484 (MAP < 1000 mm) can accumulate pedogenic carbonate in subsurface (i.e., Bssk) horizons
485 (Driese et al., 2000), leading to increased calcification values (Retallack, 2019). On the other
486 hand, base loss in the Cardiff Vertisols was an order of magnitude lower than the Hwatt
487 paleosol (base loss values of 1-4 versus 40). These base loss values are consistent with other
488 observations of Cambrian Vertisol paleosols from South Australia (Retallack, 2009) and
489 suggest lower weathering intensity compared to the *Hwatt* profile. Lastly, gleization was
490 highest in the paleosurface horizons of both profiles, suggesting either seasonal saturation
491 during pedogenesis or burial-induced diagenesis such as burial gleization (PiPujol and
492 Buurman, 1994). Burial gleization is envisaged as the reduction of Fe by anaerobic microbes
493 shortly after burial (Broz et al., 2022). In both cases, accumulation of FeO is limited to the near-
494 surface horizons (e.g., the paleosurface).

495

496 **Chemical Index of Alteration**

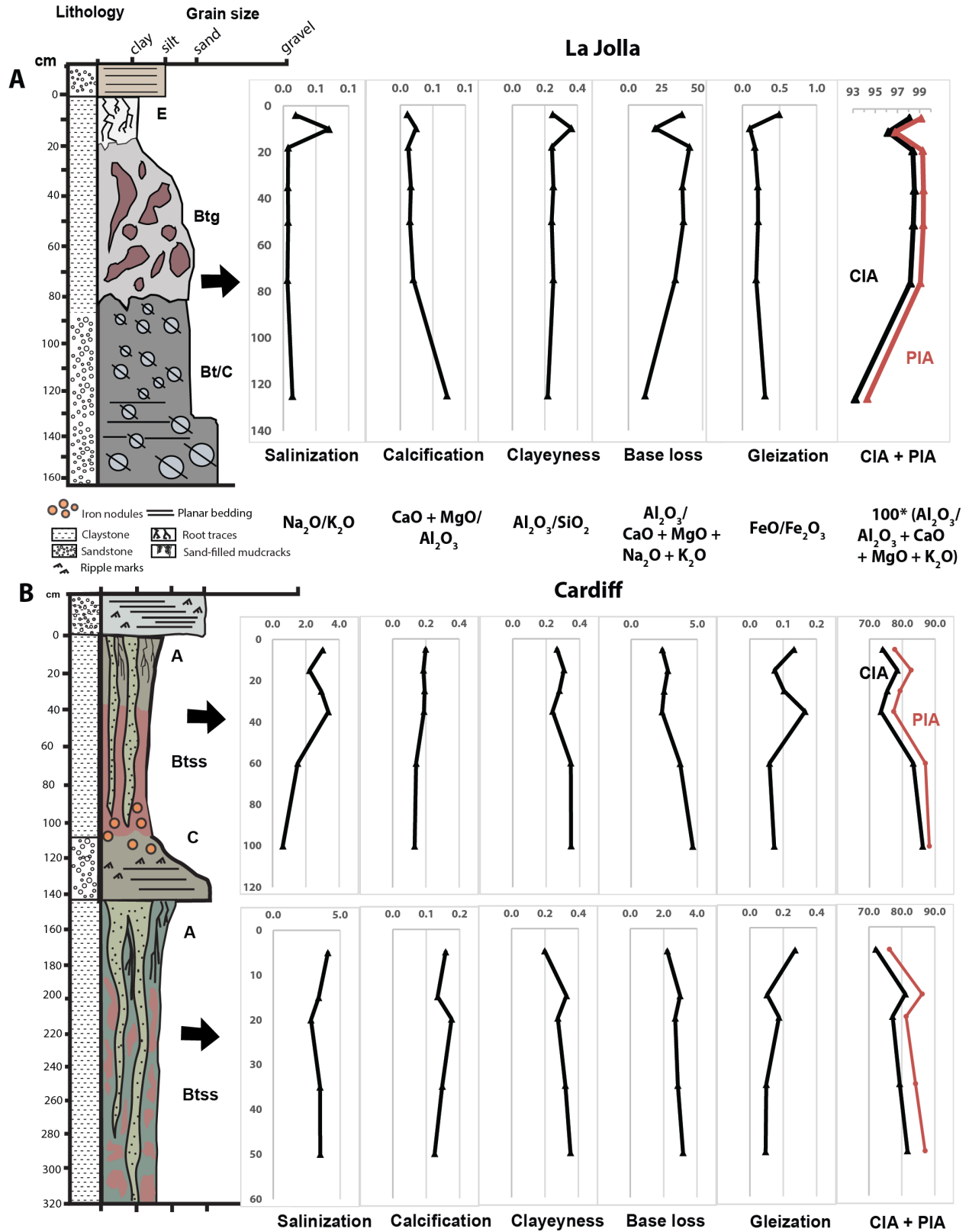
497 The geochemistry of the Mshap paleosol (La Jolla) showed extensive depletion of mobile
498 cations (Ca, Mg, K, Na) and a chemical index of alteration minus potassium (CIA-K) of > 98 in
499 the near-surface horizon (Figure 11A). The profile was nearly devoid of all mobile cations and

500 was significantly enriched in Si and Al. The paleosurface horizons (A and Bt) had the highest
501 CIA-K observed in the study with average values of ~99 that decreased to ~93 in the
502 subsurface (Bt/C) horizon. These high CIA values are indicative of nearly complete
503 kaolinitization, typical of highly weathered soils and paleosols (Nesbitt and Young, 1982;
504 Babechuk et al., 2014).

505 The Hamulh and Psiiw Cardiff paleosols sequence (50 Ma) was less intensely
506 weathered relative to the Eocene La Jolla paleosol (55 Ma), though with significant depletion
507 of Ca, Mg, K, and Na, and CIA-K values ranging from ~77-88 (Figure 11B). The CIA was greatest
508 in the lower A and upper Bss horizons of both profiles. Though not as intensely weathered
509 relative to the La Jolla paleosol, the accumulation of Fe oxides and massive vertic features
510 including sand-filled cracks also indicate extensive leaching under a warm, humid and
511 seasonally dry climate. The less intense weathering of Cardiff paleosols is supported by
512 micromorphological observations where biotite and plagioclase are detected, while only
513 quartz was detected in the La Jolla paleosols.

514 It should be noted that CIA can be influenced by parent lithology, such that felsic rocks
515 often have higher starting values of CIA in rocks that are not altered (e.g 45-50, Fedo et al.,
516 1995) compared to starting values for mafic rocks (35-40, Babechuk et al., 2014), so
517 interpretations of CIA should take into consideration the composition of the protolith. It is
518 challenging to tease apart these differences in the profiles, however, because the parent
519 materials are predominantly felsic but also have a mafic component (e.g., coarse
520 quartzofeldspathic sand protolith of the Cardiff paleosols and an exotic conglomerate
521 protolith for La Jolla paleosols).

522 When comparing trends in CIA in the profiles at Cardiff and La Jolla, the Cardiff CIA
523 values are both lower and more variable throughout the sequence when compared the
524 higher and more uniform CIA values in the La Jolla profiles. These differences are likely due to
525 differences in the intensity/duration of weathering (e.g., La Jolla Ultisols are more weathered
526 than Cardiff Vertisols and thus more uniform CIA) and rate of sedimentation (Cardiff paleosols
527 are in a sequence, suggesting multiple episodes of sedimentation and weathering, while La
528 Jolla profiles are present as individual profiles).



529

530

531

Figure 11. Geochemical trends of paleosols from La Jolla and Cardiff-by-the-Sea, CA. A) Geochemical trends with depth in a kaolinitic Ultisol from Black's Beach, La Jolla, CA; and **B)**

532 Vertisol (high shrink-swell) paleosols from San Elijo Beach, Cardiff by-the-sea, CA. CIA,
533 Chemical index of alteration ($100 \times [\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 / (\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{MgO} + \text{CaO} + \text{K}_2\text{O})]$); PIA, Plagioclase index of
534 alteration ($100 \times [\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 - \text{K}_2\text{O} / (\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{MgO} + \text{CaO} - \text{K}_2\text{O})]$)

535

536 La Jolla Ultisol paleosols had total organic carbon (TOC) ranging from 0.026 - 0.079 (\pm
537 0.003) wt. % and pH ranging from 3.523 - 6.283 (\pm 0.018), indicating highly acidic tropical
538 weathering conditions (**Table S2**). Like modern soil profiles, the organic carbon content was
539 enriched in the surface horizons of paleosols (E horizon) and subsequently depleted in the
540 lower horizon (C horizon). It should be noted that paleosol pH is often compromised by late-
541 stage groundwater alteration, which can reset the original pH (Lukens et al., 2018), so caution
542 is needed for primary interpretation of paleo-pH reconstruction from direct measurements of
543 pH. However, modern Oxisols and Ultisols are characterized by low pH as a result of intense
544 weathering and the generation of organic acids (Lawrence et al., 2013; Driese et al., 2018), so
545 perhaps the pH values we measured represent minimal post-diagenetic groundwater
546 alteration and thus reflect the paleo-pH of the La Jolla Profile. Alternatively, there could have
547 been late diagenetic groundwater alteration with acidic fluids, but we find this hypothesis
548 less likely due to the dearth of evidence representing early diagenetic intense weathering
549 conditions.

550 Diagenetic additions of recent/modern organic C can inflate the so-called “preserved” organic
551 C (Broz et al., 2023), but enrichments of TOC in uppermost horizons of paleosols are
552 consistent with preservation of endogenous organic C (Broz et al., 2022). Thus, it is possible
553 that organic C is preserved in the La Jolla profile, though additions of small amounts of
554 geologically recent/ modern carbon are possible and perhaps likely.

555 Cardiff Hamulh and Psiw Vertisol paleosols had TOC ranging from 0.019 - 0.074 (\pm
556 0.003) wt. % and pH ranging from 7.373 - 8.907 (\pm 0.023) (Table S2). Like modern soil profiles,
557 the organic carbon content was enriched in the surface horizons of paleosols (A and Bt) and
558 subsequently depleted in the lower horizons (C horizon). The Cardiff pH results (pH > 8 in
559 some Btss/C-horizons, Table S4) suggest possible late-stage groundwater alteration (e.g.,
560 saltwater brines in shore platform) to increase alkalinity in these profiles, as it is unlikely that
561 Vertisols had such alkaline pH during soil formation unless they formed in relatively dry
562 climates (MAP < ~1000 mm) which would allow for the formation pedogenic carbonate (Broz
563 et al., 2021). Since there was no pedogenic carbonate observed in any of the Cardiff profiles, it
564 is likely that the elevated pH is due to late diagenesis (Lukens et al., 2018). The diagenetic
565 history of these paleosols is outlined in the following section.

566

567 **Diagenetic Alteration**

568 Burial diagenesis is commonly observed in paleosols and particularly affects pre-
569 Quaternary paleosols. The main diagenetic processes can range from minor (burial
570 decomposition of organic matter) to severe (contact metamorphism) (Retallack, 2001). Four

571 types of diagenetic alteration that have affected paleosols in this work are burial reddening,
572 illitization of smectite, burial gleization, and burial decomposition of organic matter.

573 The diagenetic process of burial reddening refers to the dehydration of Fe
574 oxyhydroxides (e.g., goethite, ferrihydrite) and subsequent formation of Fe oxides such as
575 hematite (Spinola et al., 2018). This most likely affected the Cardiff Vertisol profiles (**Figure 3**).
576 Modern smectite-rich Vertisols are commonly dark brown to orange in color due to
577 accumulation of goethite and Mn-bearing phases (Driese et al., 2000; Soil Survey Staff, 2014)
578 rather than the brick-red Cardiff paleosol profiles. Alternatively, the Fe oxide minerals may
579 not have formed from burial diagenesis and instead formed during pedogenic alteration
580 before burial, but such accumulation of Fe oxide and subsequent red color is more
581 characteristic of well-drained, highly weathered, non shrink-swell soils (Ultisols, Oxisols) rather
582 than Al/Fe smectite-bearing Vertisols (Chen et al., 2018; Driese et al., 2018).

583 Illitization of smectite (potash metasomatism) is common in paleosols that are subject
584 to burial diagenesis (Novoselov et al., 2015; Fedo et al., 1995) and involves the incorporation
585 of K into the crystalline structure of kaolinite or smectite clays such as montmorillonite and
586 nontronite (Li et al., 2016; Broz et al., 2022). [Diagenetic K enrichments can be addressed by
587 ternary plots of \$Al_2O_3 - \(CaO^* + Na_2O\) - K_2O\$ \(e.g., A-C*N-K plot\) versus CIA, where C*
588 accounts for the presence of carbonates and/or apatite \(Fedo et al., 1995; Medaris et al., 2017\).](#)
589 Evidence for illitization of smectite in the La Jolla kaolinitic profiles included VNIR absorbance
590 features at ~2.35 microns (Figure 8), which is possibly consistent with mixtures of kaolinite
591 and illite (Bishop et al., 2008; Ehlmann et al., 2011) or a mixed layer illite-smectite clay.
592 Alternatively, illite can be derived from the weathering of muscovite and not formed from
593 metasomatic processes (Ehlmann et al., 2011), so caution is necessary in interpreting the
594 origin of illite. In any case, further analytical work (e.g., quantitative x-ray diffraction) is
595 needed to support the hypothesis of diagenetic illite in profiles examined in this work.

596 The striking green-red mottling observed in the paleosurface horizons of the Cardiff
597 paleosols likely resulted from alteration after burial. Burial gleization, a form of early
598 diagenesis, is thought to result from microbial reduction of Fe oxides under hypoxic or anoxic
599 conditions shortly after burial (PiPujol and Buurman, 1994; Retallack, 2019). It most commonly
600 manifests as green-gray color mottling and is restricted to the paleosurface horizons where
601 organic matter is concentrated (e.g., A-horizons). It can be distinguished from groundwater
602 alteration or other primary redoximorphic features by its confinement to the A-horizon of
603 paleosols (PiPujol and Buurman, 1994), whereas groundwater alteration from a fluctuating
604 water table introduces gley colors to the lower parts of the profile (B and C horizons)
605 (Retallack, 1991, 2019).

606 Burial decomposition of organic matter affects most all paleosols, but is more
607 pronounced in those forming under oxidizing, well-drained conditions before burial
608 (Retallack, 2019; Broz, 2020). This phenomenon, which is thought to be a form of early
609 diagenesis, can lead to severe losses of organic carbon in profiles that were once rich in

610 organic matter. We observed evidence of burial decomposition of carbon because the TOC in
611 all samples (< 0.1 wt.%) was two to three orders of magnitude lower than would be expected
612 in comparable modern Ultisols and Vertisols of subtropical climates (Broz, 2020). Redox state
613 before burial, inferred from the ratio of FeO/ Fe₂O₃, is related to the TOC content of paleosols
614 (Broz, 2020) and can provide a first-order control on the preservation of organic carbon in
615 ancient soils. Generally paleosols forming under reducing conditions (FeO/ Fe₂O₃ > 0.5) have
616 significantly higher TOC relative to more oxidized profiles with FeO/ Fe₂O₃ < 0.5 (Broz, 2020).
617 Indeed, samples with higher FeO/Fe₂O₃ such as the surface (A) horizon of the La Jolla paleosol
618 (*Hwatt*, Figure 11) had significantly more organic carbon (~0.07 wt. TOC %) (**Table S4**) relative
619 to samples with lower FeO/ Fe₂O₃, (~0.03 wt. %) providing additional evidence that redox
620 state before burial is related to organic preservation in paleosols.

621 A summary of the soil forming factors is provided in Table 1. Kaolinite-bearing *Hwatt*
622 and *Mshap* profiles at La Jolla are similar to Aquults US Soil taxonomy, with bleached surfaced
623 horizons and weakly developed (Bw) subsurface clay horizons characteristic of a seasonally
624 wet coastal lowland landscapes. Similar soils with CIA >95 and bleached surface horizons
625 form under warm, humid and everwet conditions characteristic of single-tier tropical forests.
626 Poorly drained *Hwatt* paleosols could have formed beneath a seasonally dry swamp forest in
627 a wet coastal lowland whereas the *Mshap* profiles on well-drained alluvial terraces supporting
628 a single tier tropical forest. *Psiw* and *Hamulh* Vertisol paleosols at Cardiff likely formed under
629 warm, humid and seasonally dry conditions on a parent material of quartzofeldspathic silt/
630 sand and possibly supported a tropical seasonally dry woodland.

631

632 Table 1. Summary of La Jolla and Cardiff paleosol interpretations

Pedotype	Location	Soil Taxonomy	FAO Map	Australia	Climate	Organisms	Topography	Parent Material
"Hwatt" "Red"	La Jolla	Aquult	Dystric Gleyisol	Humic Gley	Not diagnostic	Seasonally dry swamp forest	Seasonally wet coastal lowland	Conglomerate
"Mshap" "White"	La Jolla	Aquult	Dystric Cambisol	Brown Earth	Humid, everwet Warm, humid, seasonally dry	Tropical forest, single tier	Well-drained alluvial terrace	Conglomerate
"Psiiw" "Green"	Cardiff	Vertisol	Vertisol	Red Clay	Warm, humid, seasonally dry	Seasonally dry tropical woodland	Well-drained coastal terrace	Quartzofelspathic silt and sand
"Hamulh" "Surf"	Cardiff	Vertisol	Vertisol	Red Clay	Warm, humid, seasonally dry	Seasonally dry tropical woodland	Well-drained coastal terrace	Quartzofelspathic silt and sand

633

634

635 **Geochemical climofunctions and implications for early Eocene climate**

636 Paleoclimate estimates relating CIA-K (chemical index of alteration minus potassium)
637 to mean annual precipitation (Sheldon et al 2002) are shown in Table 2. Also shown are "RF-
638 MAP 1.0" (Lukens et al., 2019) paleoprecipitation estimates based on paleosol geochemistry
639 using a predictive random forest algorithm that accounts for true prediction error (root mean
640 square error of prediction, RMSEP) (Lukens et al., 2019). We also constrained
641 paleotemperature using the salinization index (K_2O+Na_2O/Al_2O_3) outlined in Sheldon et al.
642 (2002). Samples from the Bt horizon of the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM, 55
643 Ma) Mshap profile in La Jolla yielded mean annual temperature (MAT) estimates of 17.5-17.7°
644 C ± 4.4° C and mean annual precipitation (MAP) of 1779-1808 mm ± 172 mm, consistent with
645 a humid subtropical climate. The early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO, 50 Ma) Psiiw and
646 Hamulh profiles in Cardiff yielded MAT estimates of 19.8-20.6 °C ± 4.4 °C and mean annual
647 precipitation (MAP) of 1186-1280 mm ± 172 mm, also consistent with a subtropical humid
648 climate. Evidence for seasonality of precipitation was inferred from vertic features including
649 large sand-filled mudcracks, suggesting a summer-dry EECO climate.

650 It should be noted that the paleotemperature proxy based on salinization index ($K_2O +$
651 $Na_2O)/Al_2O_3$) shows a less robust relationship ($R^2 < 0.37$) compared to the CIA-K MAP proxy
652 (Sheldon et al. 2002) and indicates high root mean standard error and thus likely high root
653 mean standard prediction error (RMSPE). Furthermore, it may potentially underestimate
654 paleotemperature because extensive rainfall often associated with higher MAT removes Na
655 and K (Sheldon et al., 2002; Lukens et al., 2019).

656 Paleoprecipitation in the Cardiff Vertisols was estimated using CIA-K MAP proxy
657 (Sheldon et al., 2002), RF-MAP 1.0 (Lukens et al., 2019) and the CALMAG transfer function,
658 specifically designed for use in Vertisol paleosols (Nordt and Driese et al., 2010). CIA-K MAP

659 estimates ranged from $1227-1014 \pm 299$ mm/yr and are comparable to RF-MAP 1.0 (Lukens et
 660 al., 2019) values of $1275-732 \pm 395$ mm/yr. The Cardiff Vertisols had higher estimated
 661 CALMAG MAP values ranging from $1494-1565 \pm 108$ mm/yr. This is consistent with the
 662 phenomenon of underestimation of paleoprecipitation using CIA-K in Vertisols of wet
 663 climates (Nordt and Driese, 2010). Together, these estimates suggest a possibly everwet
 664 tropical PETM paleoclimate that became warmer and drier in the EECO. Paleoclimate
 665 estimates of both localities therefore provide additional evidence of multiple episodes of
 666 warm and wet tropical Eocene climates.

667 It should be noted that tectonic conditions during the study interval could have
 668 contributed to patterns of moisture transport. Early Eocene segmentation of the California
 669 borderland may have occurred, with a number of submerged areas and islands apparently
 670 present (e.g., Sharman et al., 2015), which altogether provides an understanding the wider
 671 picture of offshore islands of the future Transverse Range, Mogollon Highlands inland and the
 672 Nevadaplano well to the north of the study location. Such offshore islands could have
 673 presumably caused a rain shadow; however, it does not seem more significant than the
 674 modern Channel Islands (Sharman et al., 2015; Kinlan et al., 2005).

675

676 **Table 2. Geochemical climofunctions from A and B horizons of early Eocene (55 Ma) paleosol from La**
 677 **Jolla, CA and Eocene (50 Ma) paleosols from Cardiff, CA.** Chemical index of alteration minus potash (CIA-K)
 678 (Sheldon et al., 2002) and RF-MAP 1.0 (Lukens et al., 2019) were used to calculate estimates of paleoprecipitation
 679 during soil formation. Transfer functions outlined in Sheldon et al (2002) are based on a database of modern soils
 680 ($R^2 = 0.72$, prediction error= 299 mm (prediction error from Lukens et al., 2019); RF-MAP1.0, also based on a
 681 database of modern soils, has prediction error of 395 mm (Lukens et al., 2019). The CALMAG weathering index,
 682 designed for use with Vertisol paleosols (Norse and Driese, 2010), is defined as $Al_2O_3/(Al_2O_3 + CaO + MgO) \times 100$
 683 and the resulting transfer function ($R^2 = 0.9$, s.e. = 108 mm) was compared with CIA-K paleoprecipitation
 684 estimates. Paleotemperature estimates are from Sheldon et al. (2002) using the salinization index
 685 (K_2O+Na_2O/Al_2O_3) ($R^2 = 0.37$, s.e. = $4.4^\circ C$). S.e, standard error

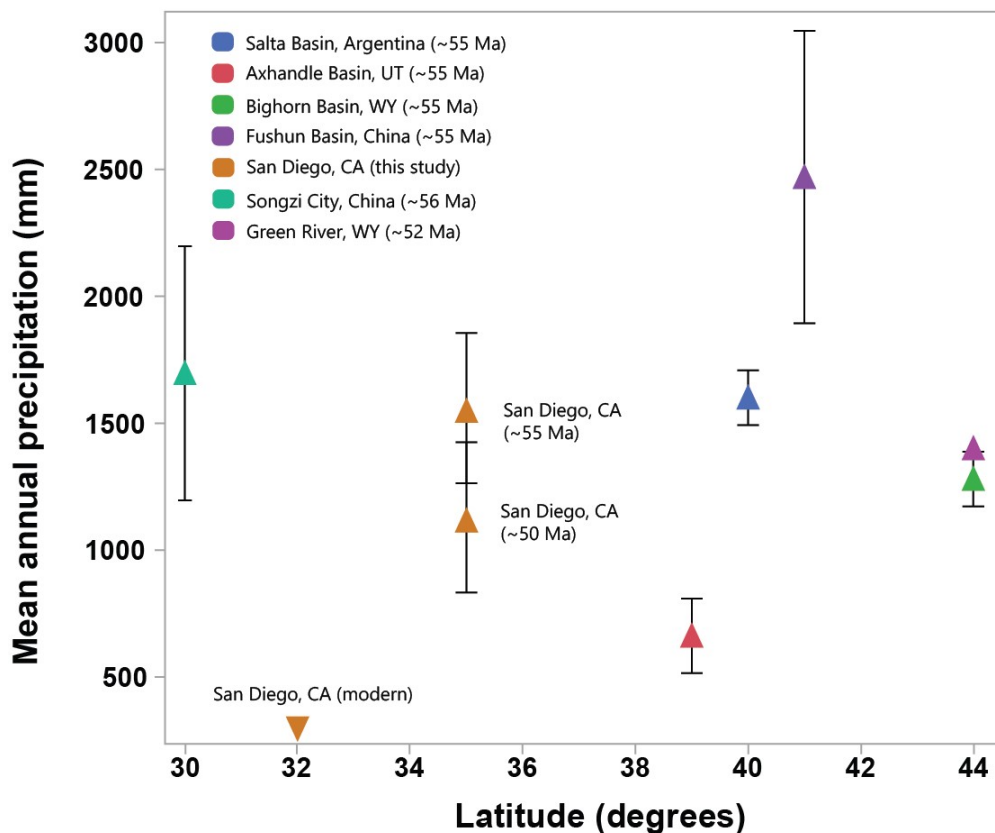
Location	Age (Ma)	Depth (cm)	Horizon	CIA-K	CALMAG	Paleotemp. ($^\circ C$ /yr)	Error	Paleoprecip. (mm/yr)	Error	CALMAG paleoprecip. (mm/yr)	RF-MAP 1.0 (mm/yr)	error
La Jolla	55	4	Bt	99	-	17.5	4.4	1558	299	-	1255	395
La Jolla	55	10	Bt	97	-	17.7	4.4	1487	299	-	1390	395
La Jolla	55	18	Bt	99	-	17.5	4.4	1562	299	-	1332	395
Cardiff	50	25	Btss	79	84	20.9	4.4	1054	299	1467	658	395
Cardiff	50	35	Btss	77	84	20.8	4.4	1014	299	1473	739	395
Cardiff	50	60	Btss	87	88	19.9	4.4	1227	299	1552	1210	395
Cardiff	50	15	Btss	86	88	19.8	4.4	1207	299	1565	1275	395
Cardiff	50	20	Btss	81	85	20.6	4.4	1096	299	1494	732	395
Cardiff	50	35	Btss	84	87	20.0	4.4	1160	299	1541	1086	395

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687

688 The range of early Eocene rainfall and temperature estimates presented in this work
 689 are consistent with previous calculations of paleotemperature and paleoprecipitation from

690 early Eocene fossils and paleosols (Figure 12). These include estimates of paleotemperature
691 from PETM paleosols in Argentina ($15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 4.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, Andrews et al., 2017), [detrital and authigenic](#)
692 [kaolinite from eastern California's Sierra Nevada](#) ($23.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 6.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, Mix et al., 2016) and fossil
693 leaf-margin derived analysis from Bighorn Basin, Wyoming of $19.8 \pm 3.1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Additional
694 estimations from fossil flora of the middle Wasatchian ($\sim 52\text{ Ma}$) in Wyoming range from MAT
695 of $21\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and MAP of nearly 1400 mm (Wilf, 2000) are closer to the Cardiff Vertisol paleosols
696 (Table 2). From a mineralogical perspective, the presence of potentially abundant kaolinite in
697 La Jolla paleosols (Figure 8) is also similar to PETM paleosols from Texas (White and Schiebout,
698 2008), Argentina (Sol Raigemborn et al., 2022) and Australia (Zhou et al., 2015).
699
700



701
702 **Figure 12. Comparisons of paleoprecipitation versus latitude during early Eocene**
703 **greenhouse climates (~55 – 50 Ma) and comparisons with modern climate in present-**
704 **day San Diego, CA.** Mean annual precipitation (MAP) estimates are from Argentina paleosols
705 (Andrews et al., 2017), Axhandle Basin, Utah paleosols (Retallack, 2005), Bighorn Basin,
706 Wyoming paleosols (Adams et al., 2011), fossil plants of Fushun Basin, China (Chen et al.,
707 2020); fossil pollen near Songzi City, China (Xie et al., 2022), and fossil plants of the Green
708 River Basin, Wyoming (Wilf, 2000). Error on paleolatitude is approximately $\pm 5^{\circ}$. Note

709 paleolatitude of Argentina site is $\sim 40^\circ$ S. Average CIA-K MAP proxy values (Sheldon et al.,
710 2002) are plotted for both San Diego sites.

711
712 The seasonally dry and Al smectite- rich Cardiff Vertisols are consistent with a decrease
713 in MAP (Table 2) after the PETM and seasonality of precipitation at paleolatitudes of $35\text{-}45^\circ$ N
714 during the EECO (Hyland et al., 2018). Such seasonality of precipitation is also consistent with
715 previous EECO observations from fluvial sediments (Wang et al., 2011; Gall et al., 2017),
716 paleosols (Song et al., 2018) and fossils (Lowe et al., 2018). Estimations of climate from early
717 Eocene coastal paleosols of Southern California therefore provide a new locality for
718 paleoclimate reconstructions as well as for quantifying the nature and intensity of early
719 Eocene weathering on land in present-day southern California.

720
721

722 **Conclusion**

723 Deeply weathered paleosols from the Eocene (55 Ma) Mt. Soledad Formation and the Eocene
724 (50 Ma) Delmar Formation near San Diego, CA provide new evidence of a subtropical humid
725 climate in southern California during and after the Paleocene-Eocene thermal maximum.
726 Early Eocene (~ 55 Ma) kaolinitic Ultisol paleosols developed in volcanoclastic conglomerates
727 were subject to intense subaerial alteration and leaching with CIA-K near 99, MAT of $\sim 17^\circ\text{C} \pm$
728 4.4°C and MAP of $\sim 1500 \pm 299$ mm, characteristic of severe weathering under subhumid
729 tropical conditions for tens of thousands of years. Geologically younger Early Eocene (50 Ma)
730 smectitic Vertisol paleosols developed atop coarse sandstones are also intensely weathered
731 (CIA > 80) and yield MAT estimates of $\sim 20^\circ\text{C} \pm 4.4^\circ\text{C}$ but with lower estimated MAP ($\sim 1100 \pm$
732 299 mm) and evidence for seasonality of precipitation. This may have been due to a decline in
733 weathering intensity over ~ 5 Ma, or a difference in soil-forming factors other than climate
734 such as topography or time of formation. Paleosols examined in this work represent
735 maximum sea level regression in the Eocene of present-day southern California and also
736 reveal a CO_2 greenhouse spike of tropical weathering conditions on land surfaces.

737
738

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746

746 **Data Availability Statement**

747 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article [and its
748 supplementary information files].

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