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Secular and orbital-scale variability of equatorial Indian Ocean summer monsoon winds during the late Miocene

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Abstract

In the modern northern Indian Ocean, biological productivity is intimately linked to near-surface oceanographic dynamics forced by the South Asian, or Indian, monsoon. In the late Pleistocene,
20 this strong seasonal signal is transferred to the sedimentary record as strong variance in the precession band (19-23 kyr) because precession dominates low-latitude insolation variations and drives seasonal contrast in oceanographic conditions. In addition, internal climate system feedbacks (e.g. ice-sheet albedo, carbon cycle, topography) play a key role in monsoon variability. Little is known about orbital-scale variability of the monsoon in the pre-Pleistocene, when atmospheric CO₂
25 levels and global temperatures were higher. In addition, many questions remain open regarding the timing of the initiation and intensification of the South Asian monsoon during the Miocene, an interval of significant global climate change that culminated in bipolar glaciation. Here, we present new high-resolution (< 1 kyr) records of export productivity and sediment accumulation from International Ocean Discovery Program Site U1443 in the southernmost Bay of Bengal spanning
30 the late Miocene and earliest Pliocene (9 to 5 million years ago). Underpinned by a new orbitally-tuned benthic isotope stratigraphy, we use X-Ray Fluorescence-derived biogenic barium variations to discern productivity trends and rhythms. Our data show strong eccentricity-modulated precession-band productivity variations throughout the late Miocene, interpreted to reflect insolation forcing of summer monsoon wind strength in the equatorial Indian Ocean. On long
35 timescales, our data support the interpretation that South Asian monsoon winds were already established by 9 Ma, with no apparent intensification over the late Miocene.



1 Introduction

The Asian monsoon is a major hydrological phenomenon driven by the pressure gradients created
40 by asymmetric heating between the equatorial Indian and western Pacific Oceans and the Indo-
Asian landmass, creating strong seasonally-reversing winds and ocean currents and heavy boreal
summer precipitation over the Bay of Bengal and Indian subcontinent (Webster, 1987a, b; Schott
and McCreary Jr, 2001; Gadgil, 2003; Schott et al., 2009). Surface winds over the northern Indian
Ocean (Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal) and South China Sea are strong indicators of the strength
45 of the South Asian and East Asian monsoon subsystems, respectively, and precipitation amount and
seasonality can also be diagnostic of monsoon strength (e.g., Webster and Yang, 1992; Goswami et
al., 1999). Thus, past monsoon dynamics can be reconstructed using wind, runoff, and precipitation
indicators recorded in marine sediments from these core convective regions. The Asian monsoon is
known to have varied substantially over short (interannual to suborbital) and long (orbital to
50 geological) timescales in response to forcing factors both external and internal to Earth's climate
system (e.g., Wang et al., 2005; Clemens and Prell, 2003; Farnsworth et al., 2019; Kathayat et al.,
2016).

There is great uncertainty surrounding the timing of Asian monsoon initiation and intensification,
55 and the degree of coupling between regional monsoon subsystems. Discrepancies in part stems
from the fact that records come from the South Asian or East Asian monsoon subsystems, which are
sensitive to different aspects of regional topography (Molnar et al., 2010; Clift et al., 2008; Clift and
Webb, 2019; Boos and Kuang, 2010; Acosta and Huber, 2020; Sarr et al., in review). Further,
differences in monsoon expression occur even within the core convective region of the South Asian
60 monsoon (e.g., dominance of summer monsoon winds in the southern Bay of Bengal *versus*
monsoonal rainfall/runoff in the northern and eastern parts). Meanwhile, proxies generally record
singular aspects of monsoonal climate that are not necessarily coupled on all timescales (e.g., winter
versus summer monsoon, wind intensity *versus* precipitation amount or seasonality). Evidence for
strong monsoonal climates (i.e., with strong seasonality of precipitation) exists across Asia during
65 the Paleogene (Spicer et al., 2017; Licht et al., 2014), yet many terrestrial records from southeast
Asia suggest an onset of the monsoon near the Oligocene-Miocene boundary (~24-22 Ma) (Guo et
al., 2002; Sun and Wang, 2005; Wang et al., 2005). Marine records of drift sedimentation near the
Maldives archipelago as well as upwelling and oxygenation indicators from the Arabian Sea, both
influenced by wind and surface ocean circulation, suggest an onset of strong seasonally-reversing
70 South Asian (monsoon) winds and Arabian Sea upwelling during the late middle Miocene (~13-10



Ma) (Zhuang et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2015; Betzler et al., 2016; Betzler et al., 2018; Bialik et al., 2020; Nigrini, 1991).

In contrast, a time interval in which records from different regions and proxies converge somewhat
75 is the late Miocene. Magnetic records from the Chinese Loess Plateau are interpreted to show a
long-term intensification of the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) from ~8.2-2.6 Ma (Ao et al.,
2016). A late Miocene strengthening of Asian winter monsoons is inferred from South China Sea
(Holbourn et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2003) and Andaman Sea (Lee et al., 2020) records. In the Arabian
Sea, an intensification of upwelling and productivity at ~8 Ma is interpreted to reflect a
80 strengthening of the South Asian summer monsoon (SASM) (Kroon et al., 1991; Singh and Gupta,
2014; Gupta et al., 2004), although other studies find evidence contrary to this (Tripathi et al., 2017;
Huang et al., 2007). Proposed monsoon intensifications during the late Miocene roughly coincide
with strong global cooling (Herbert et al., 2016), and a number of studies have implicated cooling
and the ramp-up of Antarctic glaciation in monsoon strengthening (Ao et al., 2016; Holbourn et al.,
85 2018; Gupta et al., 2004). Until now, a lack of continuous, well-preserved marine sequences from
the South Asian monsoon region has stalled our understanding of its complex evolution during the
Miocene.

The SASM is thought to have varied strongly on orbital timescales because monsoon strength
90 responds, both directly and via internal feedback mechanisms, to insolation forcing. Model
simulations predict a stronger South Asian monsoon during summer insolation maxima at both
precession minima and (to a lesser degree) obliquity maxima (Bosmans et al., 2018; Prell and
Kutzbach, 1992, 1987; Kutzbach, 1981; Jalihal et al., 2019; Tabor et al., 2018). Precession is the
dominant control on insolation and its seasonal distribution near the equator, and proxy-based
95 Pleistocene SASM records show strong precession-band (19-23 kyr) variability (Kathayat et al.,
2016; Prell and Kutzbach, 1987; Clemens et al., 1991; Clemens et al., 2021; Zhisheng et al., 2011;
Bolton et al., 2013; Caley et al., 2011; Gebregiorgis et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2005; Clemens and
Prell, 1990; Rostek et al., 1997). The influence of global boundary conditions related to ice volume
and greenhouse gas concentrations on SASM winds and precipitation/runoff is also demonstrated
100 by strong obliquity- and eccentricity-band variance in Plio-Pleistocene records (e.g., Clemens and
Prell, 2003; Gebregiorgis et al., 2018; Clemens et al., 2021; An et al., 2011). Our current knowledge
of orbital-resolution past productivity fluctuations in the South Asian monsoon region and their
relationship with local (insolation) or remote (global ice volume, greenhouse gases) forcing
mechanisms comes almost entirely from Pleistocene Arabian Sea sedimentary records (Clemens



105 and Prell, 2003; Caley et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2011; Shimmield and Mowbray, 1991; Rogalla and
Andrulleit, 2005; Clemens et al., 1991; Ziegler et al., 2010). These records suggest that summer
monsoon proxies significantly lag northern hemisphere summer insolation maxima in the
precession and obliquity bands due to climate feedbacks. Orbital control on past SASM strength in
the pre-Pleistocene, when boundary conditions were different, has so far only been investigated in
110 the Andaman Sea over the latest Miocene-early Pliocene, where seawater oxygen isotope data
suggest high-amplitude precession and obliquity forcing of monsoon rainfall with significant phase
lags (Jöhnck et al., 2020).

In this paper, we investigate sediment accumulation and export productivity dynamics at millennial
115 resolution in late Miocene sediments from southern Bay of Bengal (BOB) International Ocean
Discovery Program (IODP) Site U1443 (5°N, 90°E, Fig. 1). The late Miocene (11.6-5.3 Ma) is an
interval of major global climate change, with long-term cooling between ~7.5 and 5.5 Ma (Herbert
et al., 2016) culminating in major high-latitude cooling events (Holbourn et al., 2018), and
important carbon cycle shifts recorded in the marine and terrestrial realms potentially linked to
120 atmospheric CO₂ decline (Tauxe and Feakins, 2020; Steinthorsdottir et al., 2020). The region of
Site U1443 is strongly influenced by seasonally reversing monsoon winds today, and primary
productivity is tightly coupled to the annual monsoon cycle (Fig. 1a-b, Fig. 2). During the SASM,
strong moisture-laden winds blow inland, driving surface circulation changes and increased mixed
layer depth (Fig. 1a-b) (Webster, 1987a, b; Schott and McCreary Jr, 2001; Gadgil, 2003; Schott et
125 al., 2009). Strong Ekman pumping mixes nutrients into the surface layer during the South Asian
summer monsoon and, to a lesser extent, the winter monsoon, stimulating biological productivity
(Fig. 2) (Lévy et al., 2007; McCreary et al., 2009; Koné et al., 2009; Behrenfeld et al., 2005;
Longhurst, 1995). This strong seasonal signal is transferred to the sedimentary record in the form of
strong variance at orbital periods because insolation variations drive seasonal contrast. In this paper,
130 we generate a new orbitally tuned age model based on benthic foraminiferal stable isotopes
spanning ~9 to 5 Ma. Core-scanning X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF) data are then used to reconstruct
bulk, carbonate, and biogenic barium content and mass accumulation rates (MARs), shedding light
on secular and orbital-scale export productivity and sedimentation changes over the late Miocene.

135 **2 Background**

In the modern southern BOB in waters overlying Site U1443, both primary and export productivity
are strongly controlled by seasonally reversing winds associated with the South Asian monsoon.



Figure 2 shows the annual cycle of wind stress, mixed layer depth (MLD), net primary productivity (NPP), and biogenic particle export based on recent oceanographic, satellite, and sediment trap data (see methods for details). In boreal summer (JJA) strong southwest winds mix the upper water column, deepening the MLD to ~60m and entraining nutrients into the photic zone, leading to enhanced primary productivity and biogenic particle export (with a lag of ~3-4 weeks) (Fig. 1a-b, Fig. 2). During boreal winter, northeast winds deepen the MLD to a lesser extent, resulting in a second smaller peak in productivity during the winter monsoon (DJF) (Fig. 2). During the inter-monsoon seasons, lowest wind stress is recorded leading to a shallow MLD, higher Sea Surface Temperatures (SSTs), and a more stratified upper water column, resulting in increased oligotrophy and reduced biological productivity. The biannual productivity maxima observed in the surface ocean above Site U1443 is characteristic of monsoon-dominated tropical regions (Longhurst, 1995; Lévy et al., 2007). Sediment trap data suggest that primary productivity is the dominant control on organic carbon export at a location west of the northern end of the Ninetyeast Ridge (SBBT site; 5°N, 87°E, Fig. 1c). However, lithogenic mineral ballasting at this location is not negligible (average ~13% and 15% lithogenic particles in shallow and deep traps respectively) (Rixen et al., 2019; Unger et al., 2003) and could in part explain the bias towards the late summer peak seen in biogenic fluxes compared to NPP, as maximum concentrations of lithogenic particles at SBBT occur during the summer monsoon. While wind forcing is identified as the dominant factor controlling biogenic particle fluxes at the SBBT site, advection of nutrient- and chlorophyll-rich waters originating from the eastern Arabian Sea via the Southwest Monsoon Current (SMC) may further contribute to the summer productivity peak in this region (Unger et al., 2003). During the summer monsoon, the relatively salty and nutrient-rich SMC flows eastwards south of Sri Lanka then turns northwards into the BOB (Fig. 1c) (Schott et al., 2009; Jensen, 2003). The SMC and associated eddies have been shown to increase chlorophyll concentrations and average phytoplankton size along their paths as far east as 88-90°E, with the current's influence generally restricted to north of 6°N at this longitude (Jyothibabu et al., 2015; Vinayachandran et al., 2004; Webber et al., 2018). While river runoff and resultant salinity stratification during the summer monsoon suppress primary productivity further north in the BOB (Prasanna Kumar et al., 2002), seasonal surface salinity variations are very small (<0.2 psu) at 5°N (Zweng et al., 2013). Accordingly, monsoon impacts on nutrients and productivity in our study area are limited to those driven by surface currents and wind mixing, and biogenic export fluxes during the SASM are similar (Particulate organic carbon, POC) or higher (CaCO₃ and biogenic SiO₂) than at sites further north in the BOB (Unger et al., 2003). Thus, modern data give us confidence that export productivity at our site is likely a reflection of South Asian (primarily summer) monsoon wind



strength, via its control on MLD and nutrient entrainment into the mixed layer as well as on surface ocean currents.

175 **3 Materials & Methods**

3.1 Site and sampling

Samples used in this study are from Site U1443 (Latitude 5°23 N, Longitude 90°21 E, water depth 2935 m), drilled during IODP Expedition 353 on the crest of Ninetyeast Ridge (NER) (Clemens et al., 2016) (Fig. 1c). Site U1443 is located ~100 m southeast of Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Site 180 758 and is a re-drill of this legacy site (Shipboard Scientific Party, 1989). At Site U1443, the use of Advanced Piston Coring (APC) and half-length APC drilling techniques down to >200 m CSF (core depth below sea floor) in three holes allowed recovery of a complete, spliced Neogene sedimentary section spanning 0-195 m CCSF (core composite depth below sea floor). Late Miocene records cover the interval 70.06 m CCSF (U1443B 7H 5W 75-76 cm) to 122.76 m CCSF (U1443C 15H 4W 185 148-149 cm), following the revised shipboard splice (CCSF-D), spanning the interval ~5 Ma to 9.5 Ma based on initial bio-magneto-stratigraphy. Samples come from lithologic Units Ib and IIa, and sediments mainly consist of light grey to pale yellow nannofossil ooze with clay and foraminifers, and occasional volcanic ash (Clemens et al., 2016). To minimise aliasing due to low estimated sedimentation rates (~0.5-2 cm/kyr), 1 cm thick half rounds (~18 cc) were sampled for 190 micropaleontology. Cores were sampled at a depth resolution of 4 cm in the upper part of the study interval (70.06-114.18 m) and 2 cm in the lower part (114.18-122.76 m) where sedimentation rate estimates were lower. U-channels for XRF scanning were sampled from archive halves of sediment cores at Kochi Core Centre (Japan) during the post-cruise sampling party for 39 sections included in the splice between U1443C 9H 2A (69.95 m CCSF) and U1443C 13H 5A (113.58 m CCSF).

195
Modern oceanographic conditions over the seasonal cycle above Site U1443 were assessed using recent datasets (Figs. 1a-b, 2). Monthly data for wind (Wind Stress, Metop-A ASCAT, 0.25°, Global, Near Real Time, 2009-present) (Fig. 2a), MLD (1969-2010) (Keerthi et al., 2013) (Fig. 2b) and depth-integrated NPP estimated from satellite-derived surface chlorophyll concentrations 200 (Primary Productivity, Aqua MODIS, NPP, Global, 2003-present, EXPERIMENTAL (Monthly Composite) calculated using method of Behrenfeld and Falkowski (1997); (Erd, 2020)) (Fig. 2c) were extracted for a box between ~4.5-5.5°N latitude and 89-91°E longitude (depending on grid resolution) and binned by month. Scatter thus reflects a combination of spatial variability within our small box and interannual variability; monthly means over each time series are also shown. POC,



205 biogenic SiO₂, and CaCO₃ fluxes (Fig. 2d, e) are from SBBT sediment trap samples (~5°N, 87°E,
Fig. 1c) (Unger et al., 2003). In Fig. 2 we show data from the deep traps (~3000 m, ~21 day
sampling intervals) (Rixen et al., 2019), but seasonal patterns of biogenic particle flux are very
similar in the shallow (~1000 m) SBBT traps (Unger and Jennerjahn, 2009; Vidya et al., 2013).
Data points show fluxes recorded in individual years (1987-1997, plotted against mid-time for the
210 trap deployment), with monthly averages also shown. Monthly wind and NPP data were
downloaded from the ERDDAP server (<https://coastwatch.pfeg.noaa.gov/erddap/index.html>) and
Indian Ocean MLD data (Keerthi et al., 2013) from
http://www.ifremer.fr/cerweb/deboyer/mld/Surface_Mixed_Layer_Depth.php.

215 3.2 Late Miocene benthic foraminiferal stable isotope data

Bulk sediment samples were oven-dried at 50°C, weighed, and washed over a 63 µm sieve in tap
water at CEREGE. The >63 µm fraction was oven-dried at 50°C on a filter paper and weighed to
determine percentage coarse fraction. The <63 µm fraction was centrifuged and dried at 50°C.
Depth resolution for the benthic isotope record is 8 cm (70.06 m to 112.87 m CCSF), 4 cm (112.86
220 m and 114.18 m CCSF) or 2cm (114.18-122.76 m CCSF), except near splice tie-points where
sampling included overlap between cores increasing resolution. Six to twelve specimens of the
epibenthic foraminiferal species *Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi* were picked from the >212µm fraction,
with 6-8 well-preserved specimens selected for analysis. Tests were broken into fragments, cleaned
in ethanol in an ultrasonic bath, and oven dried at 40°C. Stable carbon and oxygen isotopes were
225 measured on a Thermo Scientific MAT 253 dual-inlet isotope ratio mass spectrometer (DI-IRMS)
coupled to Kiel IV carbonate preparation device at the Leibniz Laboratory, University of Kiel.
Based on long-term analysis of international and internal carbonate standards, precision (1σ) is
better than ±0.08‰ for δ¹⁸O and 0.05‰ for δ¹³C. Results were calibrated using the National
Institute of Standard and Technology (NIST) carbonate isotope standard NBS (National Bureau of
230 Standard) 19, and are reported on the Vienna PeeDee Belemnite (VPDB) scale. *C. wuellerstorfi*
isotope data below 112.86 m CCSF were originally published in Lübbers et al. (2019), and a low-
resolution version of the long-term δ¹³C record is included in Bretschneider et al. (submitted).

3.3. Age model

235 Seven calcareous nannofossil bio-events dated between 5.04 Ma and 9.53 Ma were identified at
high-resolution in Site U1443 splice samples (Table S1) to increase the resolution of shipboard
biostratigraphy (Robinson et al., 2016). To check for orbital periodicities prior to tuning, wavelet



analyses were performed on benthic isotope records in the depth domain and on the revised
nannofossil-based age model (using a 4th order polynomial fit, Fig. S1) in R using the biwavelet
240 package (Gouhier et al., 2016; Grinsted et al., 2004) (Fig. S2a-d). All time-series were first
interpolated to constant depth or age resolution, such that the maximum resolution present was
preserved (2 cm and 2 kyr for benthic isotope records in the depth and age domain, respectively).
Records were then filtered to remove signals with periods longer than one third of the length of the
dataset using the “bandpass” function in the R package Astrochron (Meyers, 2014). Wavelets
245 indicate that obliquity-driven cycles are present throughout (~0.53 m, Fig S2 a-b; 41 kyr and 53 kyr,
Fig. S2 c-d), confirming that the U1443 record is suitable for orbital tuning. Using revised
nannofossil datums (Table S1, Fig. S1) and shipboard magnetostratigraphy (Clemens et al., 2016)
as preliminary age-depth tie-points (Fig. 3), an astronomical age model was constructed by tuning
our monospecific benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record to an eccentricity plus tilt (ET) target curve (Laskar et al.,
250 2004) (Fig. 4). We did not include precession in our tuning target so as not to introduce assumptions
related to which hemisphere was controlling climate at our site, and because the temporal resolution
of our benthic record does not permit accurate resolution of precession cycles in some intervals. We
used a minimal tuning approach, tying ET maxima to benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ minima, with at most one tie-
point per ~100 kyr and often one every 200-300 kyr (Fig. 4, Fig. S1), so as not to artificially
255 introduce frequency modulations (Zeeden et al., 2015).

3.4 XRF Scanning and Calibration

U-channels were scanned at 1 cm intervals at The Australian National University (ANU) on a third
generation Avaatech XRF core scanner. All cores were scanned sequentially and standards
260 measured daily were consistent across all runs. Core sections were covered with 4 micron-thick
Ultralene film and measured at 10 kv with a 500 μA current and no filter, then at 30 kv with a 200
 μA current and Pd thin filter, and finally at 50 kv with a 50 μA current and Cu filter. A 30 sec count
time was used for all runs. Late Miocene XRF data generated at ANU (72.75- 113.56m CCSF) were
spliced with data from Lübbers et al. (2019) (112.80m to 122.76m CCSF), also scanned on an
265 Avaatech XRF core scanner but with different machine settings. To splice the records, we rescaled
the raw Lübbers et al. (2019) elemental count data so that absolute values and variance matched our
data, based on an overlapping interval between 112.80 and 113.56m CCSF.

Quantitative chemical compositions of a subset of discrete bulk sediment samples were determined
270 at CEREGE after total digestion by Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer (ICP-MS)



Agilent 7500 ce). Twenty samples from the scanned late Miocene interval, selected to cover the range of values in the raw XRF count data for elements of interest, were analysed and concentrations of Al, K, Ca, Ti, Mn, Fe, Rb, Sr, and Ba were determined. Prior to analysis, samples were dried and homogenised in a pestle and mortar. About 30 mg of sediment was completely
275 dissolved by acid digestion using a 2:1 mixture of ultrapure acids (15 M HNO₃ and 22 M HF with HClO₄) on a hot plate. Blank contribution was estimated to be negligible. The accuracy of measurements was evaluated using analysis of geostandards MAG-1 (marine mud) and BE-N (basalt). The typical analytical uncertainty was better than 5%. XRF-derived element counts were converted into element concentrations by direct linear calibration. This allowed us to reduce
280 uncertainties related to the variable matrix effect and physical properties such as moisture content that typically change downcore. Additionally, we used calibrated XRF data to calculate biogenic barium concentrations and to estimate % CaCO₃ and “carbonate-free basis” (cfb) elemental concentrations, permitting evaluation of the extent to which dilution by the dominant sediment constituent (here CaCO₃) is driving trends and variability of more minor constituents in our records.
285 To represent the relative contributions of CaCO₃ versus terrigenous sediment components, we use the log count ratio of $\text{Ca}/(\sum(\text{Al, K, Ti, Fe, Rb}))$, termed $\log(\text{Ca/Terr})$.

3.5 Ba-based export productivity proxies

The accumulation of biogenic barium in sediments is a reliable proxy for export production in
290 certain environments (Paytan and Griffith, 2007). Micron-sized barite (BaSO₄) crystals are the main carriers of particulate barium in the ocean, with a maximum in concentration occurring just below the euphotic zone (Bishop, 1988; Dehairs et al., 1980). Although the exact mechanisms governing the precipitation of barite in the water column are only now coming to light (Martínez-Ruiz et al., 2019), its formation is thought to be associated with decaying organic matter. Depth profiles of
295 dissolved Ba suggest that passive adsorption of barite onto mainly biogenic particles as they sink through the water column, combined with vertical mixing of dissolved Ba from the deep ocean and riverine input, can best explain Ba’s nutrient-like water column distribution (Dehairs et al., 1980; Cao et al., 2016). Goldberg and Arrhenius (1958) first hypothesised that an increase in Ba accumulation rate in sediments underlying the equatorial Pacific divergence zone was directly
300 linked to overlying high productivity, followed by similar observations in equatorial Indian Ocean sediments (Schmitz, 1987). Subsequently, evidence for strong correlations between fluxes of Ba and organic carbon in Atlantic and Pacific sediment traps led to algorithms relating new productivity to particulate Ba flux (Dymond et al., 1992; Francois et al., 1995). A further study



305 focusing on the accumulation of barite (Ba_{barite}) extracted from core-top and late Pleistocene
sediments refined its use as a proxy for export productivity (Paytan et al., 1996). Although
significant Ba regeneration occurs in the uppermost few millimetres of sediment (Paytan and
Kastner, 1996), barite dissolution is thought to cease after burial due to supersaturation in interstitial
waters (Gingele and Dahmke, 1994; Dymond et al., 1992) and barite is not subject to burial
diagenesis in oxic sediments (Paytan et al., 1993). Ocean sedimentary Ba has both a biogenic
310 (Ba_{bio}) and a terrigenous (Ba_{detrital}) component, so estimates of past export productivity using barium
must distinguish between these sources. This can either be done by chemical leaching of bulk
sediment (assuming that all barite is Ba_{bio}) e.g. (Paytan et al., 1996), or by determination of total
barium (Ba_{total}) and subtraction of Ba_{detrital} using Al content and the terrigenous Ba/Al ratio,
resulting in a record of Ba_{xs} ($Ba_{\text{total}} - Ba_{\text{detrital}}$), see equation 1 (Dymond et al., 1992).

315

$$[Ba_{\text{xs}}]_{\text{ppm}} = [Ba_{\text{total}}]_{\text{ppm}} - (Ba/Al_{\text{terrigenous}}) * [Al_{\text{total}}]_{\text{ppm}} \quad (1)$$

Direct comparisons of measurements of Ba_{barite} and Ba_{xs} suggest that non-barite phases of barium
may be included in the calculation of Ba_{xs} ; nevertheless Ba_{xs} is most representative of Ba_{barite} and
320 therefore export productivity in oxic carbonate-rich sediments with low terrigenous, biogenic silica,
and organic carbon contents (Eagle et al., 2003; Averyt and Paytan, 2004; Gonneea and Paytan,
2006). The use of bulk Ba/Ti, Ba/Al, and Ba/Fe ratios is another approach to evaluate relative
changes in export productivity (i.e., normalisation to an element presumed to be predominantly of
terrigenous origin), but without precisely predefining the Ba/terrigenous ratio that could vary over
325 time, and also removing the effect of dilution by a dominant sedimentary component such as
 $CaCO_3$ (Murray et al., 2000).

Here, we reconstruct changes in export productivity at Site U1443 over the late Miocene using
XRF-derived Ba data and compare elemental count ratios of $\log(Ba/Fe)$, $\log(Ba/Ti)$, and
330 $\log(Ba/Al)$, with $[Ba]_{\text{cfb}}$ and $[Ba]_{\text{xs}}$ calculated following equation (1), using a $Ba/Al_{\text{terrigenous}}$ value of
0.0075 g/g following Dymond et al. (1992). To verify consistency of trends, we also calculate
 $[Ba]_{\text{xs}}$ using $[Ti]$ to represent Ba_{detrital} , applying a $Ba/Ti_{\text{terrigenous}}$ ratio of 0.183 g/g (McLennan, 2001),
and carbonate-free $[Ba]_{\text{xs}}$.



335 3.6 Mass Accumulation rates

MARs of bulk sediment, CaCO_3 , $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$, and summed terrigenous elements (Al, K, Ti, Fe, and Rb) were calculated by multiplying concentrations by linear sedimentation rates (in cm/kyr) derived from our new age model and dry bulk densities (in g/cm^3). Dry bulk density values were estimated from high-resolution shipboard Gamma Ray Attenuation bulk density scanning data, and the linear
340 relationship between all shipboard U1443 wet bulk density and dry bulk density measurements ($n=164$, $r^2 > 0.99$) (Clemens et al., 2016). Units are $\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{kyr}$ for bulk and CaCO_3 MAR, $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{kyr}$ for $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ MAR and $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2/\text{kyr}$ for terrigenous MAR.

3.7 Time series analysis

345 Spectral analyses of benthic isotope and XRF data against tuned age were performed on filtered records with a constant time step as described in Section 2.3 (0.5 kyr for XRF records and 2 kyr for isotope records). Multi-taper method (MTM) spectral analyses using a robust red-noise model were performed using Acycle (Li et al., 2019). Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral analyses were performed in Arand to assess phase and coherence (Howell et al., 2006). Wavelet analyses were performed in
350 R using the biwavelet package (Gouhier et al., 2016; Grinsted et al., 2004). To illustrate precession-band variance and amplitude modulation, certain records (with identified significant precession variance) were filtered using a Tanner-Hilbert filter centred on 43 cycles/myr with bandwidth ± 3 (designed to include both the ~ 24 kyr and ~ 22 kyr precession periods) in Acycle (Li et al., 2019).

355 4. Results

4.1 Age model and benthic foraminiferal isotope data

U1443 benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data between 70.06 m and 122.76 m CCSF are shown in the depth domain in Figure 3 alongside calcareous nannofossil datums (revised herein, Table S1) and magnetochron boundaries. Our tuned benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records, shown in Figure 4, span the
360 interval 4.96 Ma to 8.99 Ma and our age model shows excellent agreement with revised biostratigraphic and shipboard magnetostratigraphic datums (Fig. S1). Sedimentation rates generally vary between 1 and 1.7 cm/kyr, with a minimum of ~ 0.5 - 0.7 cm/kyr in the oldest part of the record (8.6 to 9 Ma) and a maximum of ~ 1.9 cm/kyr at 7.8-8 Ma (Fig. 4d). We note that between 112.86 m and 121 m CCSF (8.7-8.1 Ma), our age model differs by up to 60 kyr from that
365 of Lübbers et al. (2019), which is based on correlation of Site U1443 benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data to



the orbitally tuned ODP Site 1146 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record (Holbourn et al., 2018) using a limited number of tie points (Site locations in Fig. 1c). Wavelet analyses (Fig. 4 f, g) as well as spectral analyses (Fig. S2e, f) of the tuned benthic records reveal significant orbital periodicities (>99% significance level) of ~405 kyr and 41 kyr for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and ~405 kyr, 125 kyr, 95 kyr, 53 kyr and 41 kyr for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and
370 filtered isotope records show good correspondence with filtered ET (Fig. 4h). Cross-spectral analysis between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ reveals >95% coherency in the 41 kyr and 405 kyr bands (Fig. S3a). Our age model is supported by close agreement between Site U1443 benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data and independent orbitally-tuned benthic isotope records from the South China Sea (ODP 1146) (Holbourn et al., 2018; Holbourn et al., In Press), equatorial Pacific (IODP Sites U1338 and 1337)
375 (Drury et al., 2016; Drury et al., 2018; Drury et al., 2017), and equatorial Atlantic (ODP Sites 926 and 999) (Bickert et al., 2004; Shackleton and Hall, 1997; Drury et al., 2017; Zeeden et al., 2013) (Figs S4, S5).

Mean temporal resolution of the Site U1443 benthic isotope record is 4.2 kyr. Between 9 Ma and
380 7.6 Ma, mean benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values vary between 2.5 and 2.8 ‰, with an overall decreasing trend culminating in minimum values averaging ~2.4 ‰ between 7.6 and 7 Ma (Fig. 4c). Between 7 and 6.5 Ma, mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values increase by ~0.25 ‰, and between 6.5 and 5 Ma, mean values vary between 2.55 and 2.8 ‰. Between 6 and 5 Ma, a number of prominent benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ maxima are identified in the U1443 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record, namely TG2, TG12, TG14, TG20 and TG22 (following
385 nomenclature of Shackleton et al. (1995)) (Fig. 4c). Between 7.7 and 6.9 Ma, strong obliquity modulation of the U1443 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record is seen (Fig. 4f), as also noted at Sites U1337 (Drury et al., 2017) and 1146 (Holbourn et al., 2018) (Fig. S4). Long-term trends are similar to those recorded at Pacific sites, with benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values at Indian Ocean Site U1443 ~0.1‰ heavier than at Pacific Sites U1337/U1338 and ~0.2-0.3‰ heavier than at South China Sea Site 1146 (Fig. 5a).

390 Mean benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values at Site U1443 vary between 0.7 and 1.1‰ from 9 to 7.6 Ma, then decrease from ~1 to -0.2‰ between 7.6 and 6.7 Ma, reflecting the globally recognised Late Miocene Carbon Isotope Shift (LMCIS) (Keigwin, 1979; Keigwin and Shackleton, 1980) (Fig. 4e). From 6.7 to 5 Ma, mean values vary between -0.2 and 0.4 ‰. The timing of the LMCIS at Site
395 U1443 (~7.6 Ma to ~6.7 Ma) is synchronous with the event in independent orbitally-tuned high-resolution records (Drury et al., 2018; Drury et al., 2017; Holbourn et al., 2018; Drury et al., 2016) (Fig. 5b, Fig. S5), and its magnitude (~1‰ decrease in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in smoothed record) is similar to that recorded in Pacific Ocean sediments from Sites U1338, U1337 and 1146. The Site U1443 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$



record shows a consistent positive offset of 0.15-0.25 ‰ relative to South China Sea Site 1146 over
400 the 9-5 Ma interval (Fig. 5b).

4.2 XRF data and calibration

Scanning XRF results are shown in Figure 6. Linear calibration between element counts and
concentrations in discrete samples over the late Miocene interval (~8.15 to 5 Ma) showed
405 significant coefficients of determination, with R^2 values ranging from 0.68 (Al) to 0.87 (Fe) (Fig.
S6), excluding Sr and Ca (see explanation below). Raw and calibrated elemental data show
consistent trends and amplitude variability (Fig. 6). For Ti, Ba, Al, and Mn, the re-scaled counts/sec
values in the 113.37-122.76 m CCSF interval (Lübbers et al., 2019) fell outside of our calibration
range, thus data below 113.6m (~8.15 Ma) were not converted to concentrations (Fig. 6). In brief,
410 Al, Si, Ti, Fe, Rb, and K show similar trends, with a long-term small increase in concentrations
from 8.15 Ma to 5 Ma and spikes (particularly pronounced in Rb and K) corresponding in some
cases to described ash layers (Clemens et al., 2016). Ca and Ba show a minor long-term decrease
over the study interval, while Sr and Mn increase from ~8.15 Ma to 6 Ma, then stabilise or decrease
slightly. All elements show high-frequency variability throughout. For Ca and Sr, R^2 values were
415 lower (0.39 and 0.42 respectively, Fig S6) due to the consistently high Ca and Sr contents and small
variability in the selected calibration samples. To estimate percent CaCO_3 , we therefore used a
Ca/Fe ratio calibration rather than a direct linear calibration. We first used the linear relationship
between Ca/Fe counts and Ca/Fe as determined by ICP-MS (Fig. S6, $R^2=0.93$). Then % CaCO_3 was
calculated assuming that all Ca was contained in CaCO_3 – a reasonable assumption at Site U1443
420 given the relatively low clay content in lithological subunits Ib and IIa (Clemens et al., 2016).
Confidence in our method is provided by very good agreement with independent % CaCO_3
estimates for the middle and early late Miocene interval of Site U1443 based on calibration of XRF-
derived counts of $(\text{Ca}/\sum(\text{Ca}, \text{Al}, \text{Si}, \text{K}, \text{Ti}, \text{Mn}, \text{Fe}, \text{S}))$ to discrete CaCO_3 measurements (Lübbers et
al., 2019), including an overlapping interval based on an alternate splice from 112.8 and 113.6 m
425 CCSF (Fig. 7b).

4.3 CaCO_3 content, sediment accumulation patterns and Ba proxies

Late Miocene estimated % CaCO_3 varies between ~60 and 90% with a small long-term decrease
over the 9-5 Ma interval (Fig. 7b). This long-term trend is also visible in the $\log(\text{Ca}/\text{Terr})$ record
430 (Fig. 7c), implying a small increase in the contribution of terrigenous material relative to CaCO_3 in
Site U1443 sediments over time. Three % CaCO_3 and $\log(\text{Ca}/\text{Terr})$ minima between 5 and 6 Ma



occur in identified ash layers. $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Al})$, $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ and $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Ti})$ show identical long-term and orbital-scale trends (Fig. S7), therefore we only discuss $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ in the main text. $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ shows a long-term decrease between 9 and 5.3 Ma, and a smaller increase from 5.3 to 5 Ma (Fig. 435 7d). $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ shows identical variability whether calculated using Al or Ti (Fig. 7e), and generally shows similar patterns to $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ where records overlap (8.15 to 5 Ma). Values of $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ generally vary between 400-800 ppm, however carbonate-free $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ concentrations are typically 1000 to 4000 ppm (Fig. S7). A peak in $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ between 7.6 and 7.3 Ma is less pronounced in the $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ record, but is prominent in the carbonate-free $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ record (Fig. S7, grey shading), 440 suggesting that this peak is suppressed in the $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ record as a result of dilution by carbonate. The trough between 7.6 and 7.9 Ma seen in $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$, $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ and to a lesser extent in % CaCO_3 , $\log(\text{Ca}/\text{Terr})$, and carbonate-free $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ appears not to be an artefact of dilution.

Bulk sediment MARs vary between 0.5 and 2.1 $\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{kyr}$ with a step increase from ~ 0.5 to 1.5 445 $\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{kyr}$ occurring at 8.66 Ma (Fig. 7g), concurrent with a major sedimentation rate increase (Fig. 4d). CaCO_3 MARs range from 0.4 to 2 $\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{kyr}$ and co-vary with bulk sediment MARs, with the increasing difference between the two records reflecting a small long-term increase in non- CaCO_3 components (Fig. 7g). This small increase is reflected in terrigenous element MARs, which vary between ~ 20 -80 $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2/\text{kyr}$ (excluding volcanic ash layers) (Fig. 7i). We note that absolute values 450 of terrigenous MAR should be interpreted with caution, because this calculation does not include Si as this element was not quantified in discrete samples. Nevertheless, a significant correlation between Al and Si counts ($R^2 = 0.8$, Fig. 6) suggests that Si is primarily of terrigenous origin, therefore trends in $\log(\text{Ca}/\text{Terr})$ and terrigenous MAR in Fig. 7 are likely robust despite the exclusion of Si. From 8.3-5 Ma, $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ MAR shows similar patterns to CaCO_3 MAR, with no clear 455 long-term trend and maximum values driven by higher sedimentation rates in the intervals 5-5.2 Ma, 6.1-6.3 Ma, 7.5-7.7 Ma, and 7.8-8 Ma (Fig. 7f).

Spectral analyses reveal significant orbital periods in all late Miocene XRF records (Fig. 8). The ~ 405 kyr period is $>99\%$ significant in $[\text{Al}]$, $[\text{Ba}]$, $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{cfb}}$, $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$, and $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$, whereas the ~ 125 460 kyr period is significant ($>95\%$ or $>99\%$) in $[\text{Ba}]$, $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{cfb}}$, $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$, $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$, and % CaCO_3 records. At higher frequencies, the spectral signatures of $[\text{Fe}]$, $[\text{Al}]$, $[\text{Ti}]$, $[\text{Ba}]$, are dominated by significant peaks at 24 kyr ($>99\%$) and 41 kyr ($>90\%$), with $[\text{Ba}]$ additionally showing peaks at 22.5 kyr ($>99\%$) and at 26 and 30 kyr ($>95\%$). $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$, $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{cfb}}$, and $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ show dominant ($>99\%$ significant) 22.5 kyr variability, with additional $>95\%$ significant peaks at 24 kyr and 30 kyr (for 465 $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ only). $\log(\text{Ca}/\text{Terr})$ shows significant peaks at 24 and 22.5 kyr (both $>99\%$), and also at 68



kyr (>95%). Percent CaCO₃ contains significant (>95%) variability at 22.5 kyr, with additional peaks at 68 kyr and 37 kyr. In summary, all records show highly significant variability in the precession band (22-24 kyr), with variability at the 22.5 kyr period and the ~125 kyr period most strongly associated with the biogenic component of Ba and with CaCO₃. Wavelet analyses of log(Ba/Fe) and [Ba]_{xs} confirm significant precession-scale variability in these records throughout the 9-5 Ma interval (Fig. 9).

5. Discussion

5.1 Late Miocene sedimentation patterns in the southern Bay of Bengal

We first examine the drivers of changes in sediment MAR identified in our record, and their possible link to regional and global productivity trends. The three-fold increase in CaCO₃ MAR at 8.66 Ma at Site U1443, originally described in Lübbers et al. (2019), could result from improved preservation and/or increased carbonate export by pelagic calcifiers (coccolithophores and/or foraminifera). Based on CaCO₃ percentages, MARs, and benthic to planktic foraminiferal ratios, Lübbers et al. (2019) identified the mid to late Miocene “carbonate crash” in Site U1443 sediments between ~12.2 Ma and 10 Ma, with a slow recovery from ~10 to 8.7 Ma, favouring an interpretation that the increase in CaCO₃ MAR at 8.66 Ma reflects improved preservation. A record of planktic foraminiferal fragmentation between 9 and 8 Ma generated in the present study, interpreted to reflect a decrease in carbonate dissolution (Le and Shackleton, 1992), supports this interpretation (Fig. 7h). We see no change in log(Ba/Fe) concurrent with the CaCO₃ MAR increase at 8.66 Ma, which suggests that total export productivity at Site U1443 remained stable over this transition. However, our data suggest that an increase in coccolithophore production may have occurred. The contribution of foraminifera to total CaCO₃ over our study interval is low (see >63 μm MAR in Fig. 7g), leading us to infer that higher CaCO₃ MARs between 8.66 and 5 Ma are primarily driven by coccoliths. A 3-fold increase in sediment accumulation rate (SAR) at ~8.6 Ma with no change in CaCO₃ content (%), implying a large increase in CaCO₃ MARs, is also seen at shallower (2247 m) Deep Sea Drilling Project (DSDP) Site 216 on the NER near the equator (Fig. 1c) (Bukry, 1974; McNeill et al., 2017; Pimm, 1974). This suggests that production played a role in driving regional carbonate MAR increases as well as improved preservation at deeper sites. A recent study decoupling coccolith and foraminiferal MARs in relatively shallow, globally-distributed sites (minimally affected by dissolution) records a late Miocene pulse in coccolith MARs beginning at ~8-9 Ma and persisting until ~3-4 Ma, interpreted to reflect high



coccolithophore productivity and calcification driven by weathering alkalinity inputs and regional nutrient changes (Si and Rosenthal, 2019).

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Interestingly, the increase in bulk MARs at 8.66 Ma is driven by both CaCO_3 and to a lesser extent non- CaCO_3 components (clays), implicating another mechanism as well as improved carbonate preservation and increased coccolith export productivity affecting sedimentation at Site U1443. We suggest that an increase in coccolith CaCO_3 flux to the seafloor could have led to increased

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scavenging by sinking biogenic aggregates of fine clays. Fine clays are present in the southern BOB water column as a direct result of riverine flux (Rixen et al., 2019; Ramaswamy, 1993), and in nepheloid layers above the NER where high clay concentrations occur due to proximity to the sedimentary fan systems to the east (Nicobar Fan) and west (Bengal Fan) (Stow et al., 1990).

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Recent studies of sedimentation patterns on the Bengal and Nicobar Fans, separated by the NER, interpret a large increase in SAR both on the NER and the Nicobar Fan at ~10-8 Ma to reflect increased lithogenic sediment flux to the eastern Indian Ocean (Mcneill et al., 2017; Pickering et al., 2020b). Our data from the NER show that >75% of the 3-fold increase in SAR at 8.66 Ma is driven by biogenic CaCO_3 , thus we caution against using SAR at Site U1443/758 as representative of changes in sediment flux to the Bengal-Nicobar Fan system. Data from Site U1443, as well as from

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nearby DSDP Site 216 (Bukry, 1974; Mcneill et al., 2017; Pimm, 1974) (Fig. 1c), suggest that increases in biogenic carbonate accumulation on the NER are decoupled, both temporally and mechanistically, from the increase in sediment delivery to the Nicobar Fan system. The gradual increase in terrigenous element and non- CaCO_3 MARs over the 9-5 Ma interval seen at Site U1443 (Fig. 7g,i) is part of a longer-term trend of increasing mineral flux in this region of the NER from the Miocene to the Pleistocene, beginning at ~12 Ma at ODP Site 758, that is thought to reflect increased Himalayan erosion (Ali et al., 2021; Hovan and Rea, 1992).

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Increases in the MAR of biogenic components (CaCO_3 , opal, organic carbon, phosphorus) between ~9 and 4 Ma have been measured in sediments from the Pacific, Indian and Atlantic Oceans (Farrell et al., 1995; Lyle and Baldauf, 2015; Van Andel et al., 1975; Grant and Dickens, 2002; Delaney and Filippelli, 1994; Hermoyian and Owen, 2001; Dickens and Owen, 1999; Drury et al., 2020). This period of increased biogenic sedimentation, supported by independent paleoproductivity proxies (e.g., Diester Haass et al., 2005), is thought to reflect higher biological productivity and was dubbed the “biogenic bloom” by Farrell et al. (1995). A low-resolution CaCO_3 MAR record from Site 758 shows higher values between 8 and 4 Ma, which in the absence of evidence for an increase in carbonate dissolution at 4 Ma, could suggest an end to the biogenic bloom at this site in the early

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Pliocene (Dickens and Owen, 1999; Pierce et al., 1989; Si and Rosenthal, 2019), although improved age control for the Pliocene interval as well as independent paleoproductivity reconstructions are needed to verify this. Hypotheses to explain the biogenic bloom invoke a change in global nutrient cycling; i.e., a global increase in nutrient input, and/or redistribution of nutrients between basins (Grant and Dickens, 2002), although the asynchronous timing of the biogenic bloom between regions, its variable expression, and its differentiation from the carbonate crash recovery complicate its interpretation. Diester Haass et al. (2006) hypothesised that changes in reconstructed productivity were correlated to the LMCIS at four Indo-Pacific sites, and tentatively proposed a link to a strengthened wind regime at this time. At Site U1443, we find no clear link between export productivity or carbonate sedimentation and the LMCIS (Fig. 7). In the northern Indian Ocean, the influence of possible concurrent changes in monsoon strength on paleoproductivity and biogenic MARs must also be considered, and these are discussed in Section 4.3.

5.2 Orbital forcing of late Miocene South Asian summer monsoon winds

On orbital timescales, time series analyses reveal dominant precession-band (22-24 kyr) variance in late Miocene export productivity records (Fig. 8, 9). Spectral analyses of individual calibrated timeseries of [Ba], [Al], [Fe], [Ti], [Ba]_{cfb} and %CaCO₃ allow us to tease apart the effects of sediment dilution and the competing influence of Ba_{terr} and Ba_{bio} on our Ba proxies, [Ba]_{xs} and log(Ba/Fe). The 41 kyr obliquity period is most significant (>90%) in the terrigenous element records (Al, Fe, Ti, Ba), and absent or less significant in [Ba]_{xs}, log(Ba/Fe), log(Ca/Terr), and %CaCO₃ (Fig 8). The 24 kyr period stands out as highly significant in all records (>99%, except for %CaCO₃ and [Ba]_{cfb} where >95%). In contrast, the 125-kyr and 22.5 kyr peaks that dominates the [Ba]_{xs} and log(Ba/Fe) spectra (>99% significant), are also highly significant only in the [Ba], [Ba]_{cfb}, %CaCO₃, and log(Ca/Terr) records. This suggests that strong variability at the 125-kyr (eccentricity) and 22.5 kyr (precession) periods is related to biological productivity (i.e. Ba_{bio} and not Ba_{detr}, as well as biogenic CaCO₃). The 30-kyr peak in [Ba]_{xs} is also seen in [Ba] but not in [Fe], [Al], or [Ti], so we similarly interpret this period as being related to biological productivity. The 23.6-kyr and 22.3-kyr periods (highlighted together in Fig. 8 as one grey band spanning 22-24 kyr) are primary periods of Earth's precession, whereas the 53-kyr and 41-kyr periods are related to Earth's obliquity (Laskar et al., 2004).

Significant variability at obliquity and precession periods has been identified in high-resolution late Miocene-early Pliocene records of precipitation/runoff based on planktic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and



565 seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the nearby Andaman Sea (Jöhnck et al., 2020). These authors suggest that, prior to
a distinct switch to obliquity-driven variability around 5.55 Ma, their records reflect strong
precessional (insolation) control on South Asian monsoon rainfall from 6.2-5.55 Ma, with
significant phase lags between proxies and precession. Wavelet analyses of $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ and $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$
show that precession-band (22-24 kyr) variability dominated throughout our 9-5 Ma study interval
570 at Site U1443 (Fig. 9). Although phase relationships with insolation should be interpreted with
caution because of errors inherent to our late Miocene age model, export productivity appears to be
coherent and in phase (within error) with the summer inter-tropical insolation gradient (SITIG, the
insolation gradient between 23°N and 23°S on June 21st) (Fig. S3d). The SITIG has been proposed
as a primary control on the strength of SASM winds, because a stronger SITIG increases the
575 pressure gradient between the two limbs of the winter hemisphere Hadley cell, which drives
monsoon winds into the summer hemisphere (Bosmans et al., 2015). Our new Ba-based export
productivity records corroborate the hypothesis that insolation played a dominant role in driving
late Miocene South Asian summer monsoon wind variability in the equatorial sector of the SAM
region, as predicted by general circulation models (Bosmans et al., 2018), with internal climate
580 processes such as ice volume playing a more minor role than in the Late Pleistocene when large
glacial-interglacial cycles and related feedbacks drove variability in the Asian monsoon on 100-kyr
timescales (Clemens et al., 2018; Clemens et al., 2021) and SASM wind proxies from the Arabian
Sea and southern BOB record up to ~ 9 kyr phase lags relative to precession (Bolton et al., 2013;
Caley et al., 2011; Clemens and Prell, 2003; Clemens et al., 1991).

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In addition to the periods discussed above, a number of non-primary orbital periods termed
heterodynes, which result from non-linear interactions between variables operating at Earth's
primary orbital periods (Rial and Anaclerio, 2000; Thomas et al., 2016; Clemens et al., 2010), stand
out in our late Miocene records (24, 26, 30, 37, 49, and 68 kyr periods; Fig. 8). For example, the
590 $1/24$ kyr heterodyne, prominent in all our records, could result from the interference of eccentricity
with precession, and the $1/30$ kyr heterodyne seen in Ba records from an interaction between
obliquity and precession. Several of these heterodynes have been previously identified in spectra of
seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ that reflect Asian monsoon precipitation and runoff, both in the Andaman Sea (30
and 130 kyr during the Pleistocene, 27 and 30 kyr in the latest Miocene) (Gebregiorgis et al., 2018;
595 Jöhnck et al., 2020) and in the East China Sea (29 and 69 kyr during the Pleistocene) (Clemens et
al., 2018), interpreted to suggest a strongly non-linear response of the monsoon to orbital forcing.
We favour the interpretation that the strong 24-kyr variability in our records reflects a primary
period of precession, because precession filters of $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ and $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ spanning 22-25 kyr show



strong amplitude modulation of the precession signal at a period of ~405 kyr, which results from the
600 interaction of the 23.6-kyr and 22.3-kyr periods ($1/[(1/22.3) - (1/23.6)] = 404.8$ kyr) (Fig. 10).
Amplitude modulation of precession-scale variability in our productivity records broadly follows
that of the SITIG (Fig. 10), suggesting a direct response of SASM winds to cross-equatorial
insolation gradients during the late Miocene.

605 Cross-spectral analysis of our $[Ba]_{xs}$ productivity record with the Site U1448 seawater $\delta^{18}O$ record
over the interval 4.95-6.19 Ma (where records overlap) shows >80% coherency and an in-phase
relationship at the 30-kyr period, suggesting that during this time monsoon winds and
precipitation/runoff in the BOB were to some degree coupled on orbital timescales (Fig. S3c), as is
the case in the late Pleistocene (Clemens et al., 2021). Nevertheless, our $[Ba]_{xs}$ record over this time
610 window contains stronger primary precession (22-24 kyr) and obliquity (41 kyr) signals than the
Site U1448 seawater $\delta^{18}O$ record that cannot be explained by differences in resolution, highlighting
that different climatic processes and feedbacks operating on orbital timescales must contribute to
the two records (interpreted to reflect runoff/precipitation and wind, respectively) to different
extents. In the late Pleistocene, strong obliquity-band and precession-band variance is found in
615 Andaman Sea records of monsoon precipitation/runoff (Gebregiorgis et al., 2018), whereas records
of upper ocean stratification controlled by South Asian monsoon wind mixing at Site 758 (~100 m
from Site U1443) show only precession-band variance (Bolton et al., 2013). The significant 41-kyr
variability seen in late Miocene terrigenous elements at Site U1443 (Fig. 8a-c) could also suggest
obliquity control on monsoon runoff into the BOB at this time, inferring a partial decoupling
620 between monsoon winds (controlling open-ocean productivity) and runoff (controlling terrigenous
sedimentation and salinity/seawater $\delta^{18}O$) on orbital timescales, although additional records from
regions closer to river sediment and freshwater sources are needed to corroborate this idea. It is
important to note that whilst SAM expression above Site U1443 in the southern BOB is dominated
by summer monsoon winds driving surface ocean currents and deeper mixing, oceanographic
625 conditions in the northern and eastern BOB (e.g., Sites U1447 and U1448) are instead primarily
controlled by summer monsoon freshwater inputs (Jöhnck et al., 2020; Kuhnt et al., 2020). Runoff
and direct precipitation during the SASM lead to strong salinity stratification in the northern parts
of the BOB in the late summer and autumn that prevents upper ocean mixing (e.g., Sengupta et al.,
2016). These regional differences in the manifestation of the monsoon must be considered when
630 interpreting records from the heterogeneous BOB, and records from multiple locations and proxies
are needed to achieve a representative picture of the SAM subsystem.



The 405 kyr eccentricity modulation of precession-scale export productivity variability broadly coincides with 405-kyr cycles in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at Site U1443, with higher export productivity
635 occurring during benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ minima and eccentricity maxima on these timescales (Fig. 10). Cross-spectral analysis indicates that $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ and benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are > 95% coherent at the ~405 kyr and 22-24 kyr periods, with an in-phase relationship in the precession band ($-13^\circ \pm 25$) and a near antiphase relationship on 405-kyr timescales ($151^\circ \pm 27$) (Fig. S3b). 405-kyr modulation of the ocean carbon cycle, primarily recorded in carbonate content and benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records (Herbert,
640 1997; Drury et al., 2020; De Vleeschouwer et al., 2020; Westerhold et al., 2020; Pälike et al., 2012; Paillard, 2017; Holbourn et al., 2007) but also in productivity and monsoon-related dust records (Rickaby et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2010), has been observed throughout the Cenozoic and Mesozoic sedimentary record. In middle Miocene records, poor carbonate preservation noted during eccentricity maxima is interpreted as indicating transient shoaling of the carbonate compensation
645 depth (Holbourn et al., 2007; Flower and Kennett, 1994). Here, we see a broad positive correlation between $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$ and $\log(\text{Ca}/\text{Terr})$ records on 405-kyr timescales (Figs. 9a,b), suggesting that carbonate content fluctuations at Site U1443 in the late Miocene were more strongly related to biogenic production than to dissolution on long eccentricity timescales. The coincidence of late Miocene eccentricity maxima with productivity maxima and benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ minima at Site U1443 is
650 compatible with the hypothesis that during eccentricity maxima, a strengthened monsoon induced 405-kyr cycles in the marine carbon cycle via increased weathering and nutrient inputs, leading to enhanced marine biological productivity and deep-ocean organic carbon burial (Ma et al., 2011).

5.3 Late Miocene monsoon evolution

655 On long timescales, our Site U1443 biogenic Ba records show relatively stable (9 to 6.5 Ma) or slightly decreasing (6.5-5.3 Ma) export productivity between 9 and 5 Ma (Fig. 7d-f, Fig. S7). Based on sediment colour properties and XRF-derived Ba/Ti ratios in the preceding interval (~13.5-8.3 Ma), Lübbers et al. (2019) suggested that a shift towards a higher productivity regime at Site U1443 occurred at ~11.2 Ma, significantly earlier than the onset of the biogenic bloom at other sites and
660 2.5 Ma before the rise in CaCO_3 MAR, and that this shift was potentially linked to an intensification of the South Asian monsoon. An increase in export productivity at ~11 Ma is coherent with long-term changes in benthic foraminiferal assemblages at Site 758 (Gupta et al., 2004; Nomura, 1995) and at sites in the western tropical Indian Ocean (Smart et al., 2007). Reconstructions of Arabian Sea upwelling, export productivity, and deoxygenation (Bialik et al., 2020; Gupta et al., 2015;
665 Huang et al., 2007; Zhuang et al., 2017), as well as the abrupt appearance of drift sediments in the



Maldives Archipelago at ~13 Ma (Betzler et al., 2016), point towards an intensification of seasonally-reversing South Asian monsoon winds between 13-11 Ma, consistent with Site U1443 export productivity records. Our new data suggest that similar levels of export productivity to those seen from 11.2 Ma to 9 Ma persisted until at least 5 Ma at Site U1443.

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Compiled Asian monsoon proxy records spanning the 9 to 5 Ma interval show relatively stable long-term SASM strength (Fig. 11, see Fig. 1c for site map). In line with records from the Maldives and Arabian Sea (Tripathi et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2007; Betzler et al., 2016; Zhuang et al., 2017), Site U1443 records do not corroborate the hypothesis that SASM winds intensified at ~7-8 Ma as suggested by some studies (Kroon et al., 1991; Singh and Gupta, 2014; Gupta et al., 2015; An et al.,

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2001). A recent modelling study suggests that the emergence of the Arabian Peninsula played a key role in the establishment of modern Somali Jet structure above the western Indian Ocean, initiating strong upwelling along the Oman margin during the Miocene (Sarr et al., in review). This provides a potential explanation for the temporal decoupling between western Arabian Sea records and

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SASM records from other regions, and suggests that Arabian Sea upwelling records should not be interpreted as exclusive recorders of SASM strength on geological timescales. The long-term trend in our record shows broad agreement with a low-resolution clay mineralogy record from Site U1447 in the Andaman Sea showing gradual long-term decrease in smectite/(illite and chlorite) over the late Miocene (Fig. 11g), indicating strengthened physical weathering and/or weakened

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chemical weathering, attributed to the South Asian winter and summer monsoons respectively (Lee et al., 2020). Also at Site U1447, records of potassium content (%K, Fig. 11x) are interpreted to show a shift in sediment provenance and/or an increase in physical weathering and erosion in the sediment source region between ~7 and ~6 Ma (Fig. 11h), potentially linked to an increase in monsoon rainfall intensity and global cooling (Kuhnt et al., 2020). Between 6.2 and 5 Ma, our

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equatorial Indian Ocean wind records show good long-term agreement with a seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record from the Andaman Sea (Jöhnck et al., 2020), with a minimum in export productivity at ~5.3 Ma at Site U1443 coinciding with a maximum in seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at Site U1448 (Fig. 11i, j). One interpretation of this could be a coupled reduction in both SASM wind intensity and runoff/precipitation over this interval, although Jöhnck et al. (2020) invoke an increase in local

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evaporation and/or a change in precipitation source to explain the decreasing seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between 5.6 and 5.2 Ma. High-resolution records of precipitation and runoff from the SASM region further back in time are needed to verify to what extent monsoon winds and precipitation/runoff are coupled on long timescales.



700 In contrast to the relatively stable South Asian monsoon between 9 and 5 Ma, evidence for a step
strengthening of the East Asian winter monsoon during the late Miocene (~7 Ma) comes from the
South China Sea (Holbourn et al., 2018) (Fig. 11a), whereas records from a site on the Chinese
Loess Plateau suggest a more gradual intensification of the East Asian summer monsoon from 8.2
705 to 2.6 Ma (Fig. 11b). The step change in South China Sea surface water geochemistry is interpreted
to reflect drying and cooling of the Asian interior and a related southward shift of the ITCZ leading
to an intensified dry winter monsoon over southeast Asia (Holbourn et al., 2018). The long-term
increase in East Asian summer monsoon strength inferred from magnetic records in Chinese loess
sequences is attributed to progressive Antarctic glaciation that drives an increased pressure gradient
between the Australian High and Asian Low pressure cells, a mechanism supported by numerical
710 simulations (Ao et al., 2016). However, we note that these single site records may not be
representative of the East Asian monsoon subsystem as a whole. Conversely, the apparent
insensitivity of equatorial SASM wind intensity to global late Miocene sea surface cooling, which
began at ~7.5 Ma and culminated in an SST minimum at 6 to 5.5 Ma (Fig. 11k) (Herbert et al.,
2016), is consistent with climate modelling studies that show limited impact of different $p\text{CO}_2$
715 scenarios on SASM wind patterns and strength (Kitoh et al., 1997; Sarr et al., in review). The South
Asian monsoon is widely considered to be a thermally direct circulation, driven by the
thermodynamic contrast between the Indian subcontinent and the equatorial Indian Ocean that
develops in summer, with changes in this gradient impacting the strength of onshore SASM
monsoon flow (Lutsko et al., 2019; Acosta and Huber, 2020). The lack of a long-term trend in wind
720 and surface circulation proxies over the 9 to 5 Ma interval (Fig. 11) suggests a relatively constant
land-sea temperature gradient despite global cooling. Thus, our data add to the body of evidence
suggesting decoupling between the East Asian and South Asian monsoons on long timescales.

6 Summary & Conclusions

725 We present new equatorial Indian Ocean benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records and an age model spanning
the interval between 9 and 5 Ma (late Miocene-earliest Pliocene), and analyse sedimentation and
productivity trends and cyclicity using XRF-derived records and MARs. Biogenic sediment MARs
reveal a modest imprint of the late Miocene biogenic bloom at Site U1443 lasting until at least 5
Ma, primarily driven by fine-fraction (coccolith) CaCO_3 accumulation, as noted at other sites (Si
730 and Rosenthal, 2019). Nevertheless, the carbonate MAR record of Site U1443 is clearly influenced
by carbonate preservation as well as production over the late Miocene, so independent productivity
proxies must be considered when defining the duration of the biogenic bloom. Our results indicate



that step increases in SAR recorded on the Ninetyeast Ridge at ~8-9 Ma primarily reflect an increase in CaCO₃ accumulation, and that this is likely independent from the increase in lithogenic sediment flux recorded in nearby Nicobar Fan sites, itself related to sediment re-routing within the Nicobar-Bengal Fan system around the same time (Mcneill et al., 2017; Pickering et al., 2020a). Our data show no long-term increase in export productivity between 9 and 5 Ma (and by inference no intensification of SASM winds), therefore these data support existing evidence for an early late Miocene (~13-10 Ma) establishment of strong seasonally reversing South Asian monsoon winds and Arabian Sea upwelling, with relatively stable or slightly weakening SASM winds over the remainder of the late Miocene and earliest Pliocene between 9 and 5 Ma. Spectral and cross-spectral analyses of XRF-based biogenic barium records reveal that export productivity in waters overlying Site U1443 was consistently paced by precession, with amplitude modulation of the precession signal on ~405 kyr timescales and no significant variability at glacial-interglacial (obliquity) timescales. Coeval late Miocene productivity maxima and benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ minima during eccentricity maxima at Site U1443 provides support for the hypothesis that the monsoon may have paced changes in the carbon cycle on ~405 kyr timescales (Ma et al., 2011). Significant coherence and an in-phase relationship at the precession band between biogenic barium and the SITIG suggests direct forcing of South Asian monsoon winds by insolation gradients over the late Miocene, relatively unaffected by glacial boundary conditions and long-term global cooling trends (Herbert et al., 2016). In contrast, East Asian summer and winter monsoons appear to have intensified during the late Miocene in response to global cooling and Antarctic ice sheet growth and related feedbacks (Ao et al., 2016; Holbourn et al., 2018), although more continuous records over the late Miocene are needed to understand regional trends due to the heterogeneous nature of Asian monsoon expression.

Data Availability

All data will be available on the www.pangaea.de database (submitted 18.06.2021, awaiting validation)

Supplement Link

Author contributions

C.T.B. designed the study. Sample processing and picking of benthic foraminifera was carried out by E.G and C.T.B. Picked foraminifera samples were verified and cleaned by A.H., W.K., and J.L.,



and stable isotopes measurements were performed by N.A., A.H., W.K., and J.L. XRF scanning was carried out by C.T.B. in collaboration with K.G., G.M., and E.J.R. XRF calibration was carried out by E.G. and K.T. The manuscript was written by C.T.B with feedback from all authors.

Competing Interests

770 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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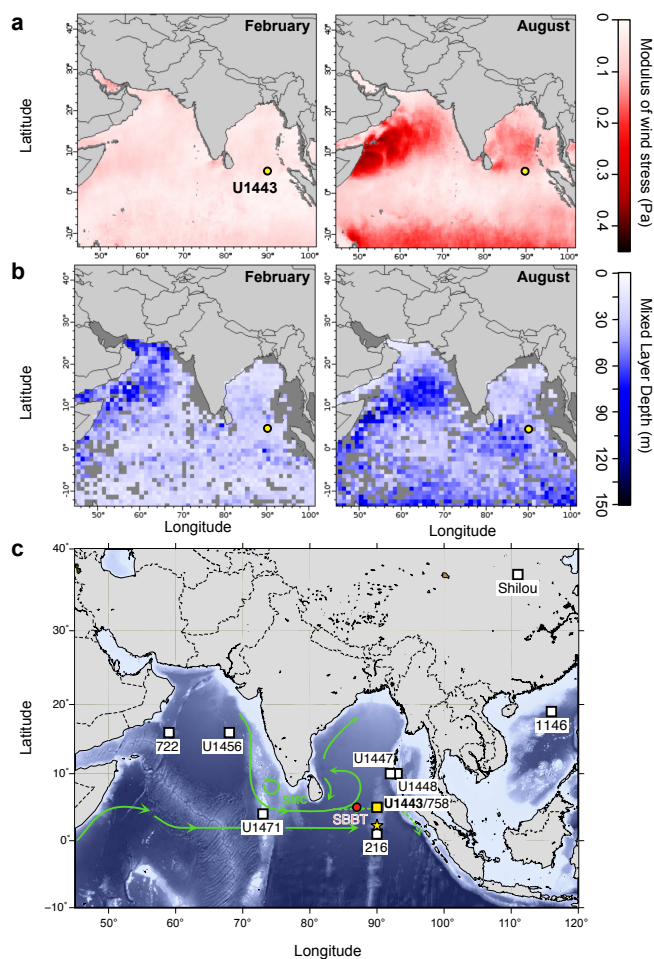
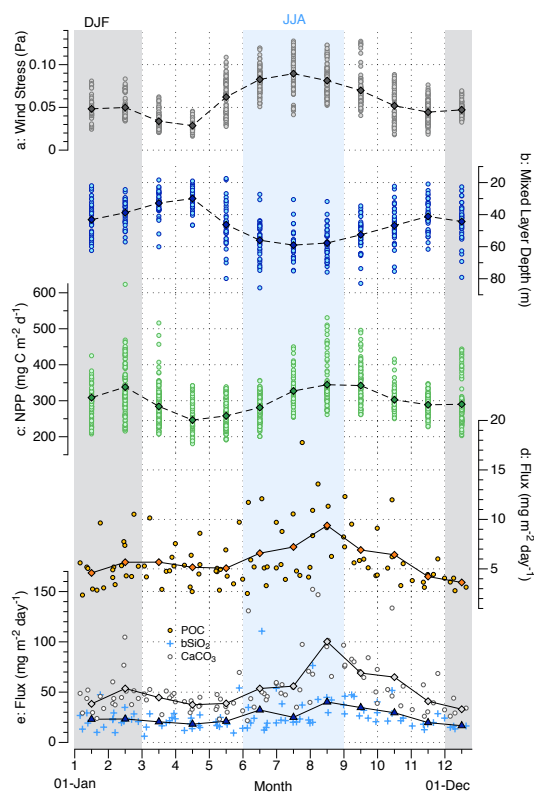


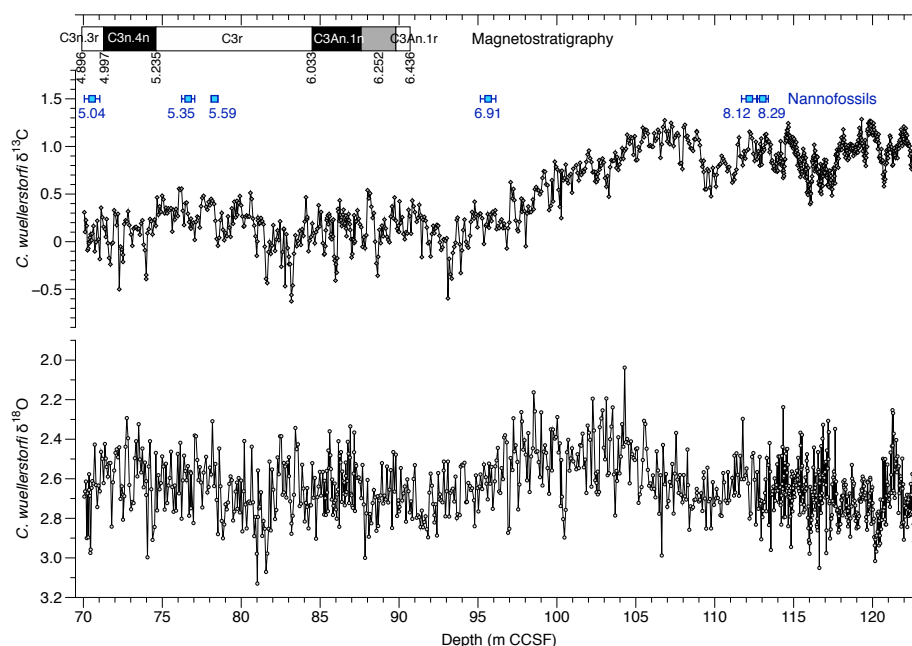
Figure 1: Seasonal contrast (February vs August) in wind stress (a) and mixed layer depth (b). Yellow dots indicate the modern location of IODP Site U1443. Maps were created on the ERDDAP website using the datasets *Wind Stress, Metop-A ASCAT, 0.25°, Global, Near Real Time, 2009-present (Monthly)* and *Ocean Climatology Ocean Mixed Layer Depth MLD T02 kriging* (see methods for details). c: Regional bathymetric map showing modern locations of marine and terrestrial sites discussed in this study (white squares) and the location of Site U1443, a redrill of Site 758, in the modern ocean (yellow square) and its paleolatitude at 10 Ma (yellow star, ~2°N, data from paleolatitude.org). The red circle shows the location of the SBBT sediment trap. Green arrows show surface ocean circulation during the summer monsoon (July/August) and the eastward flow of waters from the Arabian Sea into the BOB via the Southwest Monsoon Current (SMC), after Schott et al. (2009).



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Figure 2: Modern, seasonal oceanographic variability above Site U1443 in the southern BOB. **a:** wind stress, **b:** mixed layer depth (MLD), **c:** net primary productivity (NPP), **d:** particulate organic carbon (POC) flux, **e:** biogenic silica (bsi) and calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) flux. See Section 2.1 for details of individual datasets and sources. Points represent individual months, diamonds and triangles with lines represent monthly mean values over entire time series. Months (x-axis) run from 1 (1st January) to 12 (1st December). JJA = June, July August, DJF = December, January, February.

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Figure 3: U1443 benthic foraminiferal (*Cibicoides wuellerstorfi*) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (bottom) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (top) data on the composite depth scale. Blue squares show refined depth ranges for calcareous nannofossil datums (see Table S1), and shipboard magnetostratigraphy is also shown for the interval over which it could be reliably determined. Between ~90 and 128m CCSF, sediments in

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cores from all holes showed scattered directional signals during pass-through magnetic remanence measurement, which hindered any determination of polarity patterns in this interval across the whole site (Clemens et al., 2016). Black and white zones = normal and reversed polarity, respectively; grey zones = magnetic polarity not clearly determined. All numbers are age assignments for boundaries/nannofossil events in Ma (Gradstein et al., 2012).

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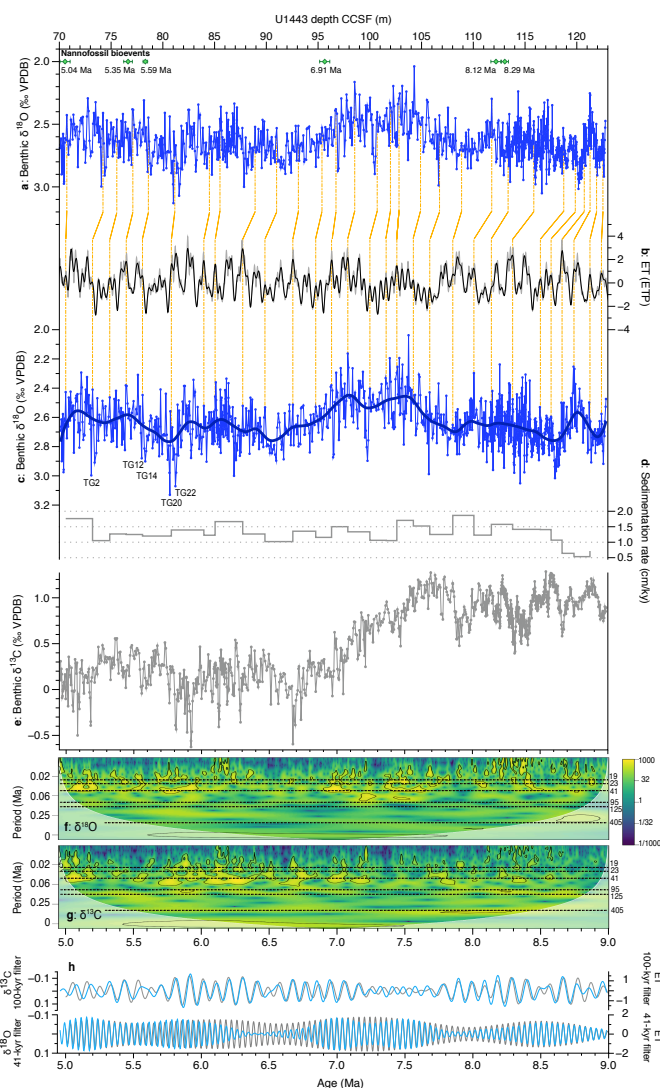


Figure 4: Astronomical (minimal) tuning of Site U1443 benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record to ET target. **a:** benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record on depth scale with nanofossil-based age constraints, **b:** ET tuning target (1:1 weighting, normalised). ETP (1:0.5:-0.4 weighting, normalised) is also shown in grey.

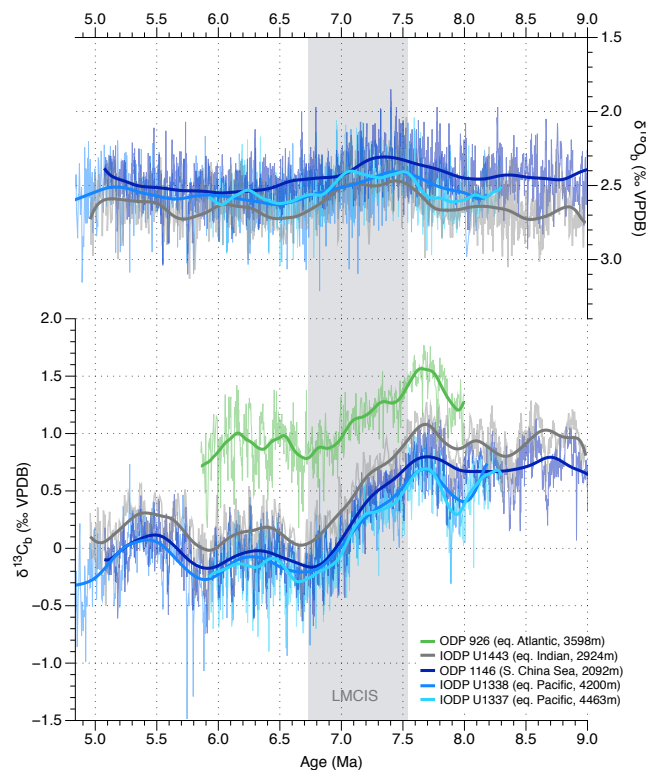
1280 Astronomical time series from (Laskar et al., 2004). **c:** tuned benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ vs age, **d:** sedimentation rates, **e:** tuned benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ vs age. Tie-points between **a** and **b** are shown in orange (see Table 1). An age-depth plot showing ET tie-points and good agreement with biostratigraphic age control is shown in Fig S1. **f** and **g:** wavelet analyses of tuned isotope records; white shaded area shows cone of influence and contours show 95% significance level. Main orbital periods are shown on the right

1285 in kyr. **h:** Filtered tuned benthic isotope records compared to filtered ET (as in **b**). Top: 100-kyr filtered benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (blue; Gaussian filter centred on 100 kyr with bandwidth ± 25 kyr to include 95 and 125 kyr peaks) compared with filtered ET (grey, identical filter design). Bottom: 41-kyr filtered



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benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (blue, Gaussian filter centred on 41.5 kyr with bandwidth ± 1.5 kyr) compared with filtered ET (grey, identical filter design).



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Figure 5: Late Miocene evolution of low-latitude deep-ocean inter-basin benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ gradients. South China Sea ODP Site 1146 (Holbourn et al., 2018) with age model revised in (Holbourn et al., In Press), equatorial Pacific IODP Sites U1338 (Drury et al., 2018; Drury et al., 2016) and U1337 (Drury et al., 2017), and ODP Site 926 (Shackleton and Hall, 1997; Drury et al., 2017; Zeeden et al., 2013). All records are shown on their latest independent orbitally-tuned chronologies. We have excluded Caribbean ODP Site 999 from this figure because it is bathed in intermediate water masses due to basin geometry and sill depths (Bickert et al., 2004). Deep South Atlantic Site 704 (Müller et al., 1991) data are not plotted due to clear age model discrepancies when compared to orbitally-tuned records. All $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records are based on *Cibicidoides wuellerstorfi* or *C. mundulus* therefore no corrections are applied, following (Jöhnch et al., 2021). The Site 926 record includes $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ corrections for some samples due to the multispecific nature of the record (Drury et al., 2017). No correction was applied to *C. wuellerstorfi* or *C. mundulus* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values.

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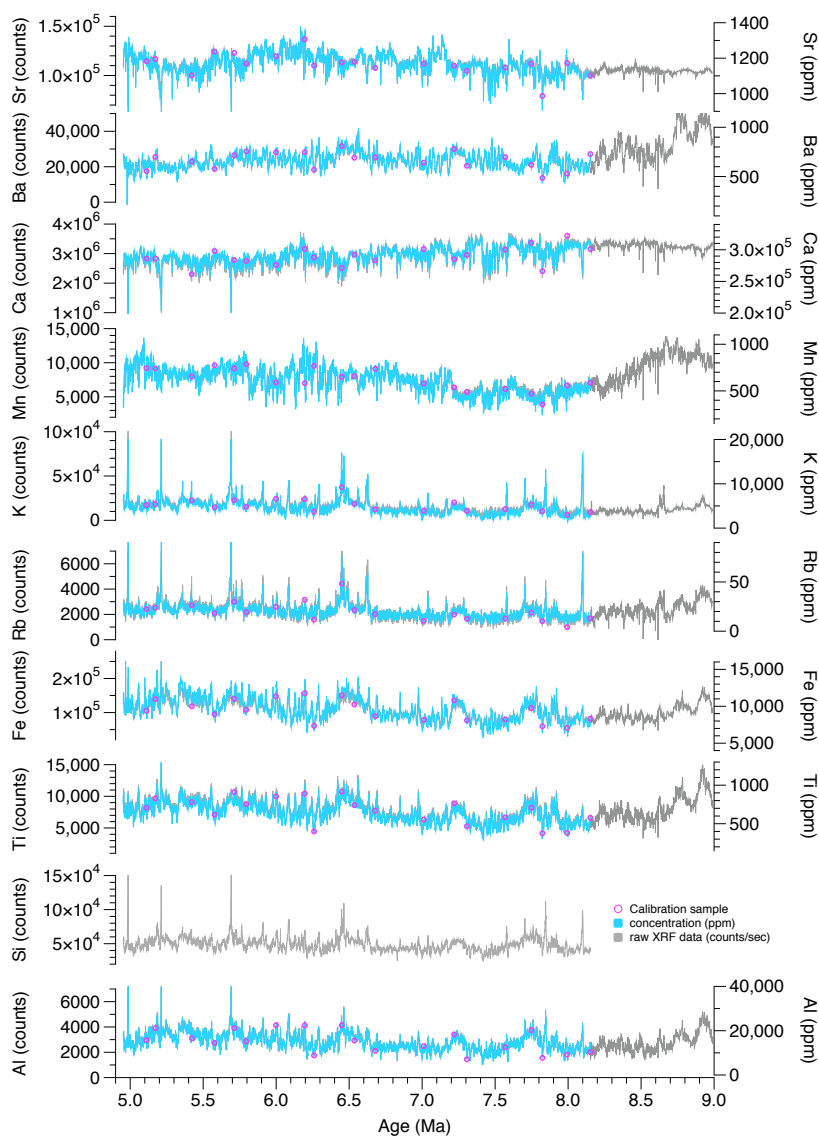
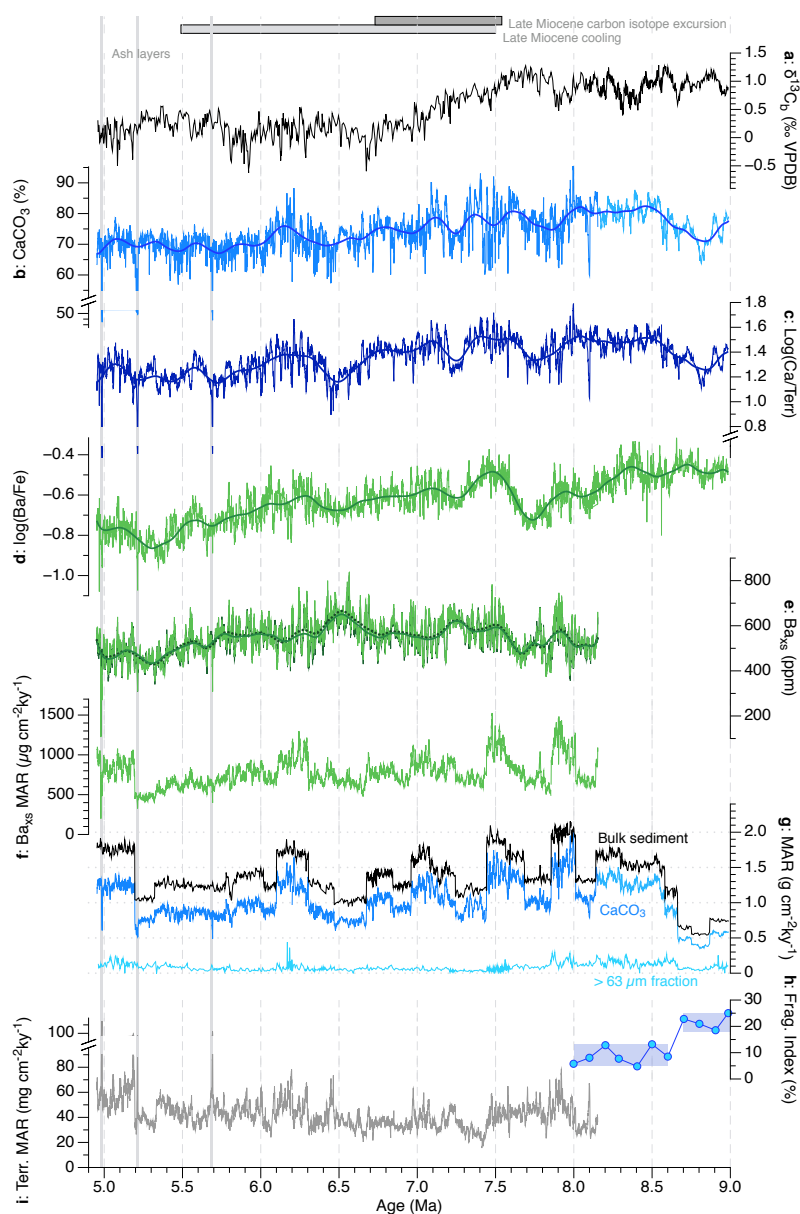


Figure 6: Raw counts/sec (grey lines) and calibrated concentration (blue lines) scanning XRF elemental data over the late Miocene interval. Pink circles show samples used for calibration (See Fig. S6).

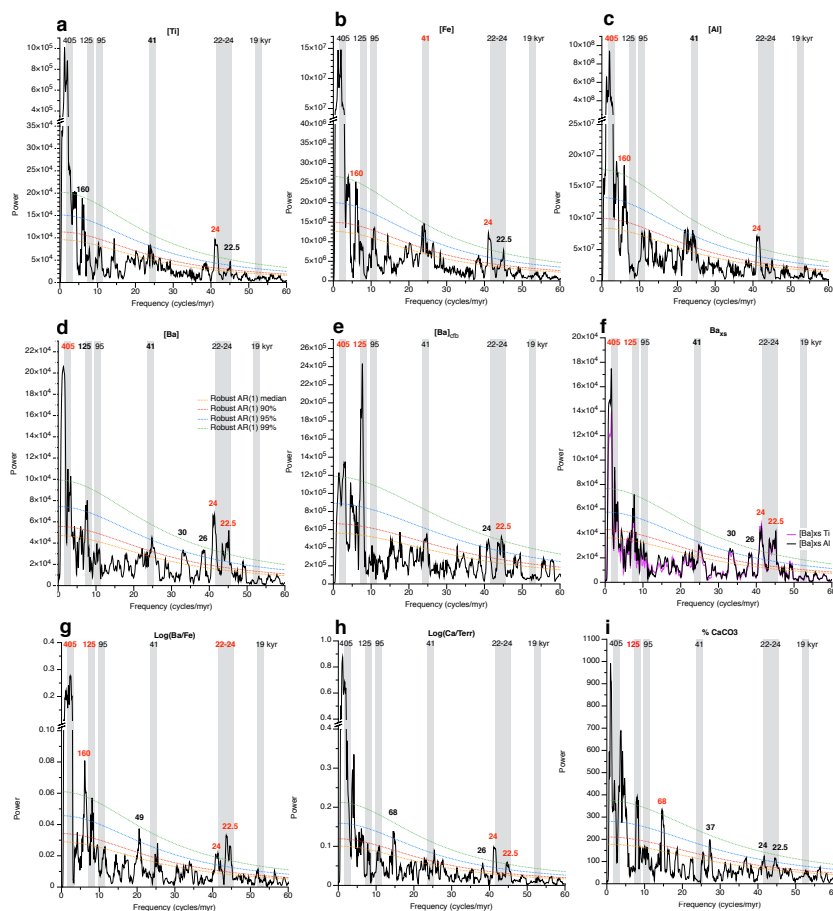


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Figure 7: XRF-derived late Miocene CaCO_3 and export productivity records from Site U1443. **a:** benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, **b:** percent CaCO_3 , **c:** $\log(\text{Ca}/\text{Terr})$, **d:** $\log(\text{Ba}/\text{Fe})$, **e:** Ba_{xs} calculated with both $[\text{Al}]$ (light green) and $[\text{Ti}]$ (dark green), **f:** $[\text{Ba}]_{\text{xs}}$ MAR, **g:** bulk (black), CaCO_3 (blue), and $>63\mu\text{m}$ fraction (light blue) MAR, **h:** foraminiferal fragmentation index (following Le and Shackleton,

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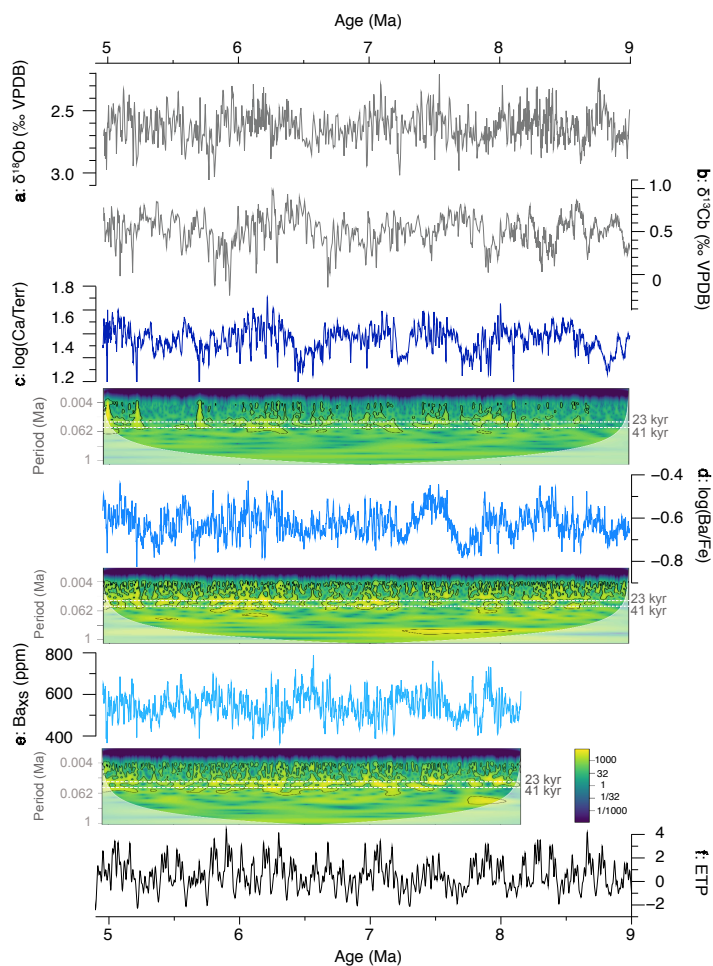
1992), **i:** Terrigenous ($\text{Al}+\text{Fe}+\text{Ti}+\text{K}+\text{Rb}$) MAR. For CaCO_3 records, lighter blue lines are based on % CaCO_3 from Lübbers et al. (2019) and darker blue lines are based on % CaCO_3 estimates in this study. The late Miocene carbon isotope excursion and the main interval of late Miocene SST cooling are shown as grey bars. Shaded intervals are identified ash layers.



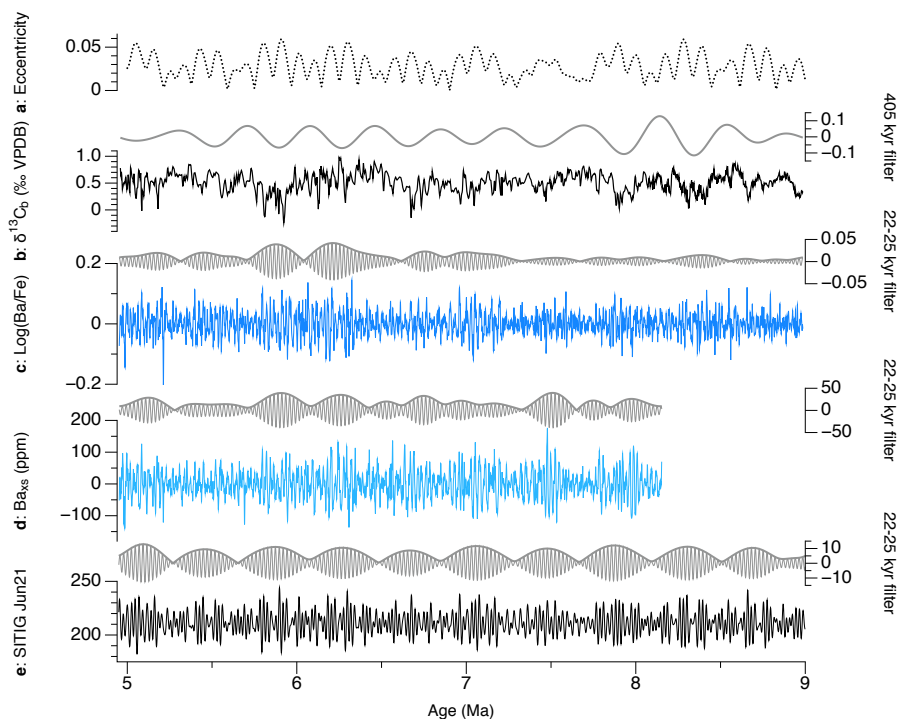
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Figure 8: Spectral analyses for over the 9-5 Ma interval (log ratios and % CaCO₃) or 8.15-5 Ma interval (calibrated element concentrations and [Ba]_{xs}). **a:** [Ti], **b:** [Fe], **c:** [Al], **d:** [Ba], **e:** [Ba]_{cf} (carbonate free basis), **f:** [Ba]_{xs}, **g:** log(Ba/Fe), **h:** log(Ca/Terr), **i:** % CaCO₃. Grey bands denote primary orbital periods based on the La04 astronomical solution. The 22-24 kyr band covers two peaks centred at 23.5 and 22.3 kyr.

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1330 **Figure 9:** Orbital-scale variability of productivity and CaCO₃ proxies at Site U1443. All records shown here are bandpassed as described in the methods. (a) benthic δ¹⁸O, (b) benthic δ¹³C, (c) log(Ca/Terr), (d) log(Ba/Fe), (e) [Ba]_{xs}, (f) ETP. For c-e, wavelet analyses are shown, illustrating dominant precession-scale (22-24 kyr) variability in Ba proxies and both precession and obliquity (41-kyr) variability in log(Ca/Terr).

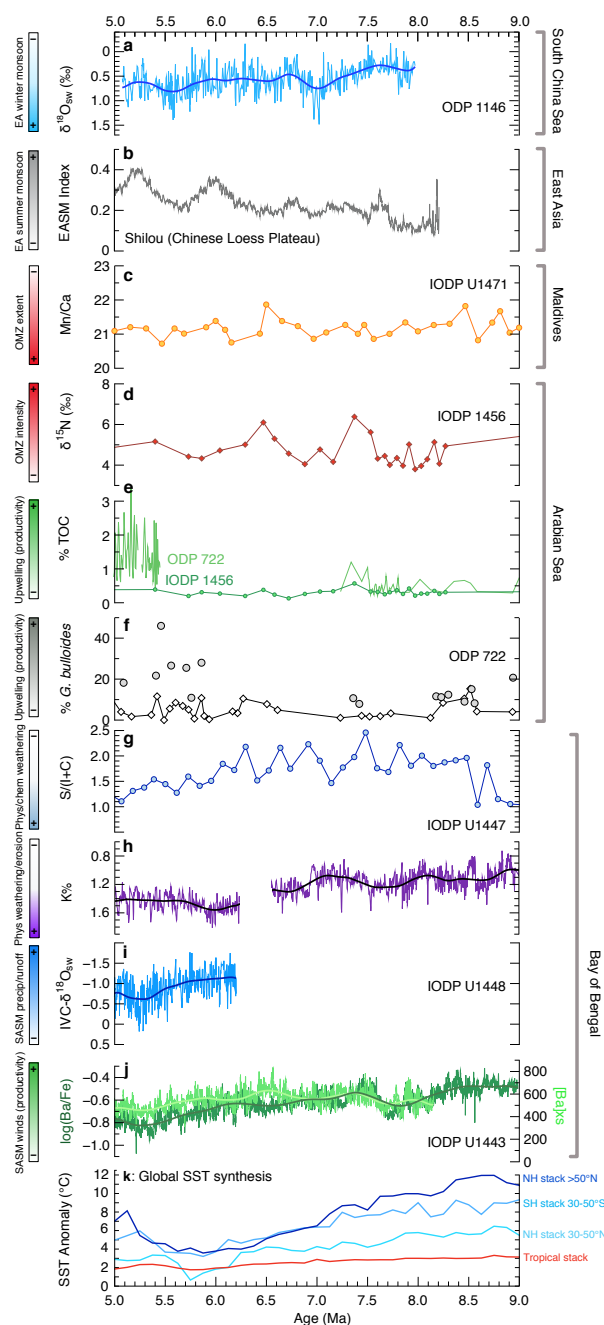


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Figure 10: Detrended and filtered late Miocene U1443 records to illustrate precession-band variance and amplitude modulation. **a:** eccentricity (Laskar et al., 2004), **b:** benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (bandpassed as in Fig. 9) and its 405-kyr filter (above) (note reversed y-axes). **c:** Lowess-detrended log(Ba/Fe) (window = 0.1 Ma) and 22-25 kyr filter (above), **d:** Lowess-detrended Ba_{xs} (window = 0.1 Ma) and its 22-25 kyr filter (above), **e:** The summer inter-tropical insolation gradient (SITIG, calculated as the insolation difference between 23°N and 23°S on 21st June using orbital solution of Laskar et al. (2004)) and its 22-25 kyr filter and amplitude modulation (above); For panels **c-e**, raw datasets were filtered using a Tanner-Hilbert filter centred on 43 cycles/myr with bandwidth ± 3 (designed to include both the ~ 24 kyr and ~ 22 kyr precession periods). For panel **b**, a Tanner-Hilbert filter centred on 2.47 cycles/myr with bandwidth ± 0.8 was applied.

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1350 **Figure 11:** Compilation of late Miocene (9-5 Ma) Asian monsoon reconstructions, showing representative records from different regions and their published interpretations (bars on left). **a:** Seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ showing an increase in East Asian winter monsoon strength at ~ 7.4 Ma (Holbourn et al., 2018; Holbourn et al., In Press), **b:** Stacked magnetic records of the East Asian summer



monsoon from the Chinese Loess Plateau (Ao et al., 2016), **c**: Mn/Ca ratios used to trace oxygen
minimum zone (OMZ) variations from Maldives Site IODP U1471 (Betzler et al., 2016), **d**: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
1355 record from Arabian Sea site IODP U1456 showing OMZ intensity (Tripathi et al., 2017), **e**: total
organic carbon (TOC) % from Arabian Sea sites IODP U1456 and ODP Site 722 (Huang et al.,
2007; Tripathi et al., 2017), **f**: % *Gobigerinoides bulloides*, a planktic foraminiferal upwelling
indicator, at ODP Site 722 (Huang et al., 2007; Kroon et al., 1991), *G. bulloides* was counted in the
>150 μm fraction in *Huang et al.* (white diamonds) and the >125 μm fraction in *Kroon et al.* (grey
1360 circles), **g**: clay mineralogy (smectite/(illite + chlorite)) at IODP Site U1447 in the Andaman Sea
(Lee et al., 2020), **h**: Percentage Potassium (K%) at IODP Site U1447 derived from spectral natural
gamma ray measurements (Kuhnt et al., 2020), **i**: Andaman Sea IODP Site U1448 ice-volume-
corrected seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record (Jöhnck et al., 2020), and **j**: Export productivity records from Site
U1443 (this study). **k**: Global sea surface temperature trends (expressed as anomalies relative to the
1365 present), stacked by latitude band (Herbert et al., 2016). All records are on their original age
models, and Loess smooths are shown for high-resolution records.