



1	Atmospheric CO2 estimates for the Miocene to Pleistocene based on for aminiferal $\delta^{11}B$
2	at Ocean Drilling Program Sites 806 and 807 in the Western Equatorial Pacific
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4	Maxence Guillermic ^{1,2} , Sambuddha Misra ^{3,4} , Robert Eagle ^{1,2} , Aradhna Tripati ^{1,2}
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8	¹ Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, Department of Earth, Planetary, and
9	Space Sciences, Center for Diverse Leadership in Science, Institute of the Environment and
10	Sustainability, University of California – Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA 90095 USA
11	² Laboratoire Géosciences Océan UMR6538, UBO, Institut Universitaire Européen de la Mer,
12	Rue Dumont d'Urville, 29280, Plouzané, France
13	³ The Godwin Laboratory for Palaeoclimate Research, Department of Earth Sciences,
14	University of Cambridge, UK
15	⁴ Indian Institute of Science, Centre for Earth Sciences, Bengaluru, Karnataka 560012, India
16	
17	Correspondence to: Maxence Guillermic (maxence.guillermic@gmail.com) and Aradhna

18 Tripati (atripati@g.ucla.edu)





19 ABSTRACT

20 Constraints on the evolution of atmospheric CO₂ levels throughout Earth's history are 21 foundational to our understanding of past variations in climate. Despite considerable effort, 22 estimates of past CO₂ levels do not always converge and therefore new records and proxies 23 are valuable. Here we reconstruct atmospheric CO₂ values across major climate transitions 24 over the past 17 million years using the boron isotopic composition ($\delta^{11}B$) of planktic 25 foraminifera from 89 samples obtained from two sites in the West Pacific Warm Pool, Ocean 26 Drilling Program (ODP) Sites 806 and 807. These sites are in a region that today is in 27 equilibrium with the atmosphere and are thought to have been in equilibrium with the 28 atmosphere for the interval studied. We use high-precision multi-collector inductively-29 coupled plasma mass spectrometry and show that data from these sites can reproduce the ice 30 core record. Estimates of early Miocene pCO₂ are generally higher than published 31 reconstructions from other sites, while values for the Pliocene and Pleistocene are more 32 similar to other datasets. We find evidence for reductions in pCO₂ of \sim 280 µatm during the 33 Middle Miocene Climate Transition, ~270 µatm during Pliocene Glacial Intensification, and \sim 50 µatm during the Mid-Pleistocene Climate Transition. There is possible evidence for a 34 35 larger reduction in glacial pCO₂ during the Mid-Pleistocene Transition compared to 36 interglacial pCO₂, and a minimum in pCO₂ during glacial MIS 30. Our results are consistent 37 with a coupling between pCO₂, temperature and ice sheet expansion throughout the past 17 38 million years.

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40 Highlights

41 In this study, we are able to accurately reproduce pCO₂ data from ice cores using $\delta^{11}B$ data 42 from ODP Sites 806 and 807, demonstrating the fidelity of our approach. We therefore apply 43 the same framework to older samples to create a long-term pH and pCO₂ reconstruction for 44 the past 17 million years. We find major increases in surface water pH and decreases in 45 atmospheric pCO₂ were associated with decreased temperature in the Western Equatorial 46 Pacific, including associated with major episodes of ice sheet expansion in the high latitudes, 47 providing more robust quantitative constraints on the past coupling between pCO₂, 48 temperature, and cryosphere stability.

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50 Keywords

51 Boron isotopes, CO₂, ODP Site 806, ODP Site 807, Miocene, climate





52 1. Introduction

53 Due to concerns about the long-term consequences of anthropogenic emissions and associated climate change (IPCC, 2014, 2018), efforts have been made to quantify past 54 55 atmospheric CO_2 and examine past relationships between CO_2 and temperature. Such data are 56 not only critical for constraining Earth-system sensitivity (Lea, 2004; Lunt et al., 2010; Pagani et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2012, 2013, Foster and Rohling, 2013; Schmittner et al., 57 58 2011; Tierney et al., 2020), but are also of broad interest because such data can help us 59 understand the evolution of climate and geological systems through Earth's history (Tripati et al., 2011; Foster et al., 2017; Tripati and Darby, 2018). However, discrepancies between 60 proxy reconstructions still exist, including for major climate transitions of the Cenozoic. In 61 62 particular, there remains a pressing need for robust and higher-resolution atmospheric CO₂ 63 records from sites that are in equilibrium with the atmosphere.

Relatively high-resolution and direct determinations of atmospheric CO₂ are available 64 65 for the last 800 kyr through analysis of air bubbles extracted from ice-cores, but these records 66 are limited to the availability of cores (Petit et al., 1999; Siegenthaler et al., 2005; Lüthi et al., 2008). A window into atmospheric CO₂ levels comes from 1 million-year-old blue ice 67 (Higgins et al., 2015) and more recently from the Pliocene period (Yan et al., 2019). Most 68 69 reconstructions of CO₂ for prior to 800 ka are based on indirect terrestrial and marine proxies. Stomata indices for fossil leaves (Van der Burgh, 1993; Royer, 2001), carbon isotope ratios 70 $(\delta^{13}C)$ of paleosols (Retallak et al., 2009), $\delta^{13}C$ of alkenones (Pagani et al., 2005; Zhang et 71 al., 2013), B/Ca ratios of surface-dwelling foraminifera (Yu and Hönisch, 2007; Foster, 2008; 72 Tripati et al., 2009, 2011), and boron isotope ratios ($\delta^{11}B$) of surface-dwelling foraminifera 73 74 (Pearson and Palmer., 2000; Hönisch et al., 2009; Bartoli et al., 2011; Foster et al., 2012; 75 Foster and Sexton, 2014; Chalk et al., 2017; Sosdian et al., 2018; Dyez et al., 2018) have 76 been used to estimate atmospheric CO₂.

77 Each of the above proxy methods has sources of systematic errors that we do not 78 attempt to exhaustively document as they have been discussed in-depth elsewhere (e.g., 79 Pagani et al., 2005; Tripati et al., 2011; Guillermic et al., 2020). However, we note that 80 significant developments in the boron-based proxies include improvements to the accuracy 81 and precision of measurements using multi-collector inductively coupled mass spectrometry 82 (MC-ICP-MS) compared to early work with thermal ionization mass spectrometry (TIMS), 83 where there were large instrumental mass fractionations and challenges with laboratory 84 intercomparison (Foster et al., 2013; Farmer et al., 2016; Aggarwal and You, 2017). There





85 was also the realization that temperature-dependent K_D to interpreting B/Ca sensitivities 86 observed from the field of sediment trap, core-top, and downcore studies (Yu and Hönisch, 2007; Foster et al., 2008; Tripati et al., 2009, 2011; Babila et al., 2010; Osborne et al., 2020) 87 88 differ from foraminiferal culture experiments (Allen et al., 2011, 2012) and inorganic calcite 89 (Mavromatis et al., 2015); this type of discrepancy has also been observed with other 90 elemental proxies (e.g., Mg/Ca). Such differences may be due to differences in growth rates 91 (Sadekov et al., 2014), ontogenetic changes, a correlation in the field between temperature 92 and other hydrographic variables that obscure robust statistical determination of parameter 93 relationships, culture conditions resulting in organisms being stressed, and/or other factors.

94 The marine CO₂ proxy that appears to be subject to the fewest systematic 95 uncertainties, based on our current understanding, is the boron isotopic composition ($\delta^{11}B$) of 96 planktic foraminifera as measured using MC-ICPMS and TE-NTIMS. This proxy provides constraints on seawater pH, if temperature, salinity, seawater δ^{11} B, and the appropriate mono-97 98 specific calibration between $\delta^{11}B_{carbonate}$ and $\delta^{11}B_{borate}$ are constrained (Pearson and Palmer., 99 2000; Foster et al., 2008; Sosdian et al., 2018; Raitzsch et al., 2018; Guillermic et al., 2020). 100 Seawater pH can be used to calculate seawater pCO_2 if there are constraints on a second 101 parameter of the carbonate system (e.g. alkalinity, DIC). Atmospheric pCO_2 can then be 102 constrained if the site being examined is in air-sea CO₂ equilibrium.

103 Given the evolution of the field, the number of studies generating high-precision and 104 high-resolution boron-based records over major climate transitions in the Cenozoic using the 105 recent analytical methods, and incorporating our current understanding of proxy systematics 106 are relatively few (Foster et al., 2012; Martinez-Boti et al., 2015b; Chalk et al., 2017, de la 107 Vega et al., 2020). Furthermore, of the existing studies using boron-based proxies, an additional uncertainty frequently exists, namely the short time interval of study (e.g., 108 109 emphasizing on a climate transition) (Martinez-Boti et al., 2015b; Chalk et al., 2017) and 110 whether the study sites remain in air-sea CO_2 equilibrium with the atmosphere (Martinez et 111 al., 2015a). And although estimation of atmospheric pCO_2 from seawater pH using this proxy 112 is relatively straightforward, reconstructions are still impacted by uncertainties including the lack of robust constraints on a second parameter of the carbonate system, and our limited 113 114 understanding of secular variations in the δ^{11} B of seawater (Tripati et al., 2011; Sosdian et al., 115 2018; Greenop et al., 2017).

116 Therefore, to provide additional constraints on the evolution of atmospheric pCO_2 117 from the Miocene through Pleistocene, we developed new records from the western tropical





Pacific. We use for miniferal $\delta^{11}B$ and trace elements in the planktic for miniferal species 118 119 Trilobus sacculifer and Globigerinoides ruber to reconstruct past seawater pH and atmospheric CO₂ at Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Sites 806 and 807 in the Western 120 121 Equatorial Pacific (WEP) over the last 17 million years (Myr). The two sites we examined are 122 located on the western border of the tropical Pacific Ocean, the largest open-oceanic region on the globe, and the warmest open ocean region at present. The west Pacific warm pool is a 123 124 region that is in air-sea CO₂ equilibrium (Takahashi et al., 2014), and is thought to have been 125 so throughout the Cenozoic so has been targeted for past atmospheric CO2 reconstructions 126 (Pearson and Palmer, 2000; Tripati et al., 2009, 2014).

127 This work represents the first reconstructions of past seawater pH and pCO₂ for the 128 WEP using MC-ICPMS, thereby providing an invaluable new perspective on reconstructing 129 past atmospheric CO₂ via marine sediment archives. We explore various constraints on the 130 second carbonate system parameter using a number of different scenarios, following on the systematic work done by Tripati et al. (2009) and (2011) for B/Ca. We interpret these data 131 using recent constraints on seawater δ^{11} B (Lemarchand et al., 2000; Raitzsch and Hönisch, 132 2013; Greenop et al., 2017). For temperature estimation, we utilize a multi-variable model for 133 134 Mg/Ca (Gray and Evans, 2019), that builds on prior work with clumped isotopes in planktic 135 foraminifera for Site 806 and other WEP sites demonstrating that for the Last Glacial 136 Maximum to recent, salinity-corrected Mg/Ca values are needed to yield convergent 137 estimates of mixed-layer temperatures (Tripati et al., 2014).

138

139 2. Materials and Methods

Below we describe site locations, analytical methods used, and figures of merit. The
supplemental methods section describes screening for potential contamination, equations
used for calculations, and error propagation.

143

144 **2.1 Site locations**

Samples are from three ODP holes recovered during ODP Leg 130 in the WEP (Fig.
1, Table 1): ODP 806A (0°19.140'N, 159°21.660'E, 2520.7 m water depth), ODP 806B
(0°19.110'N, 159°21.660'E, 2519.9 m water depth), and ODP 807A (3°36.420'N,
156°37.500'E, 2803.8 m water depth) (Berger et al., 1993). Sites 806 and 807 are not likely to
have experienced major tectonic changes over the last 20 million years.





150 The WEP sites used in this study are in equilibrium with the atmosphere today 151 (Takahashi et al., 2014), and given their location, are thought to have been throughout the Cenozoic (Pearson and Palmer, 2000; Tripati et al., 2009, 2014). We do note, however, that 152 153 the thermocline is deep today, and that changes in thermocline depth have been inferred for 154 the WEP (Nathan and Leckie, 2009; Ford et al., 2015). Any potential changes in depth and 155 properties coupled with changes in upwelling, have the potential to influence equilibrium at 156 this site. While this is the case, changes should be smaller in the WEP compared to other regions, due to the relatively small amplitude of changes in temperature and salinity (e.g., 157 158 compared to eastern boundary current regions or higher latitude sites).

159

160 **2.2 Age models**

Sites 806 and 807 have high quality age models (Shackleton et al., 1991). The age model for Site 806 from 0-1.35 Ma is based on Lea et al. (2000), while from 1.352-5.875 Ma it is based on Lisiecki and Raymo, (2005), and Wara et al. (2005) is the source of information for sediments older than 5.875 Ma. Ages for Site 807 are based on published biostratigraphy (Berger et al., 1993) for 807 with additional constraints placed by Zhang et al., (2007) for the interval from 0-0.550 Ma.

167

168 2.3 Species and trace element cleaning

169 Samples were picked and cleaned to remove clays at UCLA (Los Angeles, CA) and 170 the University of Western Brittany (Plouzane, France). 50-100 foraminifera shells were 171 picked from the 300-400µm fraction size for T. sacculifer (w/o sacc) and from the 250-300 172 µm for G. ruber (white sensu stricto). Picked foraminifera were gently crushed, clays 173 removed, and checked for coarse-grained silicates. Samples were then cleaned using a full 174 reductive and oxidative cleaning protocol following Barker et al. (2003). A final leach step 175 with 0.001N HCl was done prior dissolution in 1N HCl. Boron purification used a published 176 microdistillation protocol (see Misra et al., 2014b, Guillermic et al., 2020 for more detailed 177 methods).

178

179 2.4 Chemical purification and geochemical analysis

180 Chemical separation was performed in a boron-free clean lab at the University of
181 Cambridge (Cambridge, UK). Calcium concentrations were measured on an ICP-AES
182 ®Ultima 2 HORIBA at the Pôle Spectrometrie Océan (PSO), UMR6538 (Plouzané, France).





Elemental ratios (e.g. X/Ca ratios) were analyzed on a Thermo Scientific ®Element XR HRICP-MS at the PSO, Ifremer (Plouzané, France). Boron isotopic measurements were carried
out on a Thermo Scientific ®Neptune+ MC-ICP-MS equipped with 10¹³ Ohm resistor
amplifiers (Lloyd et al., 2018) at the University of Cambridge (Cambridge, UK).

187

188 2.5 Standards

Variations in B isotope ratios are expressed in conventional delta (δ) notation with
 δ¹¹B values reported against the reference standard NIST SRM 951 (NIST, Gaithersburg,
 MD, USA):

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$$\delta^{11}B (\%) = 1000 x \left(\frac{{}^{11}B/{}^{10}B_{\text{Sample}}}{{}^{11}B/{}^{10}B_{\text{NIST SRM 951}}} - 1 \right)$$
 eq. 1

193 Multiple analyses of external standards were performed to ensure data quality. For 194 boron isotopic measurements, JCP-1 (Geological Survey of Japan, Tsukuba, Japan, Gutjahr et 195 al., 2014) was used as a carbonate standard, and NEP, a *Porites sp* coral from University of 196 Western Australia and Australian National University was also used (McCulloch et al., 2014). A boron isotope liquid standard, ERM[©] AE121 (certified $\delta^{11}B = 19.9 \pm 0.6$ ‰, SD), 197 was used to monitor reproducibility and drift during each session (Vogl and Rosner, 2012; 198 199 Foster et al., 2013; Misra et al., 2014b). For trace elements, external reproducibility was 200 determined using the consistency standard Cam-Wuellerstorfi (University of Cambridge) 201 (Misra et al., 2014b).

202

203 2.6 Figures of Merit

204 **2.6.1** δ¹¹**B** analyses

205 Samples measured for boron isotopes typically ranged in concentration from 10 ppb B 206 (~5ng B) to 20 ppb B samples (~10ng B). Sensitivity was 10mV/ppb B (eg. 100mV for 10ppb B) in wet plasma at 50µl/min sample aspiration rate. The intensity of ¹¹B for a sample 207 208 at 10 ppb B was typically 104 ± 15 mV (2 SD, typical session) and closely matched the 98 \pm 209 6 mV (2 SD, typical session) of the standard. Procedural boron blanks ranged from 15 pg B to 65 pg B (contributed to less than <1% of the sample signal). The acid blank during 210 analyses was measured at ≤ 1 mV on the ¹¹B (which also is < 1% of the sample intensity), and 211 212 no memory effect was seen within and across sessions.

External reproducibility was determined by analyzing the international standard JC_{P-1} (Gutjahr et al., 2014) and a *Porites sp.* coral (NEP). The boron isotopic composition of JC_{P-1}





was measured at 24.06 \pm 0.20‰ (2 SD, n=6) within error of published values of 24.37 \pm 0.32‰, 24.11 \pm 0.43‰ and 24.42 \pm 0.28‰ from Holcomb et al. (2015), Farmer et al. (2016) and Sutton et al. (2018), respectively. Average values are $\delta^{11}B_{NEP} = 25.72 \pm 0.79\%$ (2 SD, n=31) determined over 13 different analytical sessions, with each number representing a separately processed sample from this study. These results are within error of published values of 26.20 \pm 0.88‰ (2 SD, n = 27) and 25.80 \pm 0.89‰ (2 SD, n = 6), from Holcomb et al. (2015) and Sutton et al. (2018), respectively. Data are reported in Supplementary Table B.

222

223 2.6.2 X/Ca analyses

Trace element (TE) analyses were conducted at a Ca concentration of either 10 or 30 ppm. Typical blanks for a 30 ppm Ca session were: $^{7}\text{Li} < 2\%$, $^{11}\text{B} < 7\%$, $^{25}\text{Mg} < 0.2\%$ and $^{43}\text{Ca} < 0.02\%$. Additionally, blanks for a 10 ppm Ca session were: $^{7}\text{Li} < 2.5\%$, $^{11}\text{B} < 10\%$, $^{25}\text{Mg} < 0.4\%$ and $^{43}\text{Ca} < 0.05\%$. Analytical uncertainty of a single measurement was calculated from the reproducibility of the CamWuellestorfi standard: 0.6 µmol/mol for Li/Ca, 8 µmol/mol for B/Ca and 0.02 mmol/mol for Mg/Ca (2 SD, n=48). Data are reported in Supplementary Table B.

231

232 2.7 Calculations

Figure 2 shows the planktic δ^{11} B and B/Ca data compared to other records (benthic 233 234 δ^{18} O, planktic Mg/Ca, and shell weight), while Figures 3 and 4 show the different histories of 235 seawater $\delta^{11}B$ and alkalinity used for calculations, respectively. Details of calculations are in 236 the Supplemental methods. Following the approach of Tripati et al. (2009, 2014), we 237 explored multiple scenarios for the evolution of seawater boron geochemistry (Fig. 3) and 238 alkalinity for calculations of pCO_2 (Fig. 4). During the interval overlapping with the ice core 239 record, we observe that the choice of model used does not make a significant difference in reconstructed values (Fig. 5). During earlier time intervals, we see there is a greater 240 241 divergence, reflecting larger uncertainties in seawater $\delta^{11}B$ and alkalinity further back in 242 Earth history.

During the early Pliocene (~4.5 to 3.5 Ma) and prior to 10 Ma, calculations of pCO₂ diverge largely because of disagreement between studies estimating past seawater $\delta^{11}B$ (Fig. 5). However, we also found that reconstructed pH values that utilize each of the $\delta^{11}B_{\text{seawater}}$ histories are not significantly different, when the uncertainty in reconstructed pH is fully propagated (Fig. 5 and 6; see also Hönisch et al., 2019). In contrast to the results from





Greenop et al. (2017), the record from Raitzsch and Hönisch, (2013) exhibits substantial variations on shorter timescales. Such variability is a challenge to reconcile with the Li isotope record of Misra and Froelich, (2012), given that Li has a shorter residence time than boron while having similar sources and sinks. For the remainder of this study, we use the $\delta^{11}B_{\text{seawater}}$ history from Greenop et al. (2017) because it is in good agreement with seawater δ^{7} Li (Misra and Froelich, 2012).

The three alkalinity models used diverge prior to 9 Ma, with a maximum difference at ~13 Ma that is also reflect in reconstructed pCO₂ (Fig. 6). However, all three models yield pCO₂ estimates that are within error of each other when the full uncertainty is considered (Fig. 6). For the remainder of the text, we utilize the model of Caves et al. (2016) for alkalinity and the $\delta^{11}B_{seawater}$ determined by Greenop et al. (2017), as these represent the best constrained estimates for these parameters at this time.

260

261 3. Results and discussion

262 3.1 Reproducing pCO₂ from ice cores

Validation of air-sea equilibrium in the WEP during the relatively large amplitude late 263 264 Pleistocene glacial/interglacial cycles was a primary goal for our work. In order to validate our approach, we reconstructed pCO₂ for the last 800 kyr (Fig. 5). The two critical 265 266 diagnostics we use for method validation are: 1) that the reconstruction of pCO_2 is 267 representative of recent atmospheric CO_2 , and 2) that the boron-based reconstruction empirically reproduces the record from ice cores. For the last 800 kyr, reconstructed pCO_2 268 269 values for Holes 806A and B and Site 807 are mostly within error of the records from the 270 Vostok and EPICA Dome C ice cores (Fig. 5, Petit et al., 1999, Siegenthaler et al., 2005, Lüthi et al., 2008). Absolute values for the last glacial/interglacial cycle are also within error 271 272 of the ice cores values, with the exception of two data points at 47 and 79 ka that have lower 273 pCO₂ in comparison to ice core values. Between MIS 7 and 6, our reconstructions exhibit a 274 decrease in temperature (ΔT) of 2.4°C, an increase in pH (Δp H) of 0.08 and a decrease in 275 pCO₂ (Δ pCO₂) of 58 µatm. Between stage 3 and 1, we observed an increase of temperature of 2.5°C, a decrease of pH of 0.13 and an increase in pCO₂ of 76 µatm. These results 276 277 highlight that we are able to reproduce absolute measurements of atmospheric pCO₂ within 278 error of the ice core record, and reproduce the amplitude of changes between transitions, with 279 uncertainties typical for this type of work (Hönisch et al., 2019). We note that reconstructed 280 pCO₂ uncertainties could potentially be reduced using independent temperature proxies for





- the WEP such as clumped isotope thermometry (Tripati et al., 2010; 2014), a technique that is not sensitive to the same sources of error as Mg/Ca thermometry, and therefore is an area planned for future work.
- 284

285 3.2 Long-term record

Our reconstruction is consistent with published Mg/Ca estimates of early Pliocene to 286 287 recent temperatures at Site 806 (Medina-Elizalde et al., 2005, Wara et al., 2005; Tripati et al., 2009, 2011). Our reconstruction is also consistent with the work of Nathan and Leckie, 288 289 (2009) for time slices at \sim 7.3 and \sim 6.2 Ma, though we note that the SST in our study is 290 slightly higher (~2°C) than what was reported for the middle/late Miocene by Nathan and 291 Leckie, 2009 and Zhang et al., 2014, which could reflect the different methods used for 292 reconstructing temperature. Our temperature record over the last 17 Myr for the WEP (Fig. 6C) shows a gradual decrease between 17 and 6.5 Ma from $36.7^{\circ}C \pm 0.6^{\circ}C$ (2 SD, n=4) for 293 294 the Miocene Climate Optimum (MCO) to values of 28.8 ± 3.4 °C (2 SD, n=67) over the last 295 6.5 Myr. From 6.5 Ma to present, we reconstruct a slight decrease in SSTs, with more 296 variability after the Mid-Pleistocene Transition (MPT). Raw δ^{11} B data (Fig. 2B) exhibit a 297 significant decrease (4.2‰) with increasing age for T. sacculifer from 16.5 Ma to present. 298 Reconstructed pH for the MCO are 7.80 ± 0.10 (SD, n=4), with an increase of ~0.27 to a 299 Holocene value of 8.18 ± 0.11 (n=2) (Fig. 6D).

300

301 3.3 Miocene

302 The study of Miocene climate is thought to provide a useful analog for changes 303 associated with global warming and melting of polar ice, in concert with ocean circulation 304 (Holbourn et al., 2013). The Miocene epoch (23-5.3 Ma) is characterized by a warm interval, the Miocene Climate Optimum (~17-14 Ma - MCO), and an abrupt cooling during the 305 306 Middle Miocene Climate Transition (\sim 15-13 Ma – MMCT) that led to the expansion of ice 307 on Antarctica and Greenland. Climate modeling supports a role for decreasing CO_2 in this 308 transition (DeConto and Pollard, 2003). However, proxies for CO₂ yield conflicting reconstructions for the MCO and MMCT. Alkenone-based reconstructions do not show any 309 variations over the MCO and MMCT with pCO₂ below 300 ppm (Zhang et al., 2013). 310 311 However, it is a challenge to simulate the large-scale advance and retreat of Antarctic ice 312 with such low pCO₂ values (Gasson et al., 2016). In contrast, published δ^{11} B-based 313 reconstructions supports higher pCO₂ for the MCO of ~350-400 ppm (Foster et al., 2012),





300-500 ppm (Greenop et al., 2014) or ~470-630 ppm (Sosdian et al., 2018), although it is
unclear if these values accurately reflect the atmosphere given the sites may or may not have

316 been in equilibrium with the atmosphere.

317 Some of the highest pCO₂ values we reconstruct are during the MCO (Fig. 6E). For 318 the MCO, our estimates are $479 \pm 173 \mu atm$ (2 SD, n=4, Table 2). The middle Miocene 319 values we reconstruct are in line with previous studies (Greenop et al., 2014; Sosdian et al., 320 2018). Sosdian et al. (2018) report values of 470 to 630 ppm depending on the model of 321 $\delta^{11}B_{\text{seawater}}$ chosen. We attribute the differences in $\delta^{11}B$ -based pCO₂ to the choice of 322 reconstruction methods and/or the different oceanographic settings at each site. All of the 323 boron isotope-based reconstructions do not support reconstructions from alkenones for the 324 Miocene (Pagani et al., 1999; 2005; Zhang et al., 2013). As thoughtfully discussed by Badger 325 et al. (2019), the response of CO₂ derived from alkenones is muted compared to boron-based 326 reconstructions of CO₂, and this is possibly due to changes in coccolithophore calcification based on recent studies (Bolton and Stoll, 2013; Bolton et al., 2016). During the MCO 327 328 relative maxima in pCO₂, our data support very warm sea surface temperatures in the WEP 329 $(36.7^{\circ}C \pm 0.6^{\circ}C 2SD, n=4; Fig. 7C and 8C)$, that merits further examination in future studies. 330 In fact, the highest temperatures recorded in our samples occur when there is a minimum in the global composite record of δ^{18} O of benthic foraminifera (Zachos et al., 2001, 2008; 331 332 Tripati and Darby, 2018).

333 During the MMCT, we find evidence for changes in pCO_2 and temperature in the 334 WEP (Fig. 7). Fom 13.5 to 12.9 Ma, we reconstruct an increase of pH ~0.24 and a major 335 decrease of pCO₂ of \sim 243 µatm during an interval highlighted by Flower and Kennett, (1996), who observed changes in δ^{18} O indicative of rapid East Antarctic Ice Sheet growth, 336 and enhanced organic carbon burial with a maximum $\delta^{13}C$ reached at ~13.6 Ma (Shevenell et 337 al., 2004; Holbourn et al., 2007). At the same time, we find evidence for a decline in SST of 338 3.4°C to a minimum of 33.3°C. The synchronous shifts in the δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O of benthic 339 340 foraminifera are consistent with increased carbon burial during colder periods, thus feeding 341 back into decreasing atmospheric CO₂, and supporting the hypothesis that the drawdown of 342 atmospheric CO₂ can in part, be explained by enhanced export of organic carbon.

343

344 3.4 Late Miocene

The resolution of our data during the late Miocene is low, with a data gap from 12.5 to 9.2 Ma, and another gap between 6.5 and 5 Ma. We note the pCO₂ peak at ~9 Ma observed





by Sosdian et al. (2018) is not seen in our record although this is likely due to the low resolution of our dataset. Between 8.8 and 6.5 Ma we find evidence for a decrease in atmospheric CO_2 of 205 µatm associated with a decrease in temperature of 3.1 °C.

350

351 3.5 CO₂ during Pliocene Warmth

Oxygen isotope data from a global benthic foraminiferal stack show that the Pliocene epoch (5.3-2.6 Ma) was initially characterized by warm conditions followed by the intensification of glaciation that occurred in several steps, including during MIS M2 (3.312-3.264 Ma), followed by the Middle Pliocene Warm Period (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). Figure 5 shows that during the Early Pliocene warm interval, from 4.7 to 4.5 Ma, we calculate high pCO₂ values of 541 ± 124 ppm (2 SD, n=3, Table 2).

The Middle Pliocene Warm Period (MPWP - 3.29-2.97 Ma) is considered a relevant 358 359 geological analogue for future climate change given ~3°C warmer global temperatures and 360 sea levels that were ~ 20 m higher than today (Dutton et al., 2015; Haywood et al., 2016), and 361 is a target for model intercomparison projects, for which accurate paleo-atmospheric pCO₂ estimates are critical (Haywood et al., 2016). Our data support values of 515 ± 119 µatm (2 362 SD, n = 4) are marginally consistent with previously published δ^{11} B-derived pCO₂ from ODP 363 364 Site 999 (Martinez-Boti et al., 2015b) but are higher than Bartoli et al. (2011), which was 320 365 \pm 130 (2 SD, n=8) for Site 999, potentially due to instrument offset between N-TIMS and 366 MC-ICP-MS (Martinez-Boti et al., 2015b). Our values are higher in comparison to boron isotope estimates from de La Vega et al. (2020) for Site 999 and calculations based on 367 368 Martinez-Boti et al., (2015b.) This can suggest differences in air-sea equilibrium between 369 sites. The pCO₂ trends in this study are similar to previous ones, the reconstructed pCO_2 show larger amplitude in our study. pCO₂ concentrations determined from ice cores from the 370 371 early Pleistocene have recently been published (Yan et al., 2019, Figs. 4 and 5), and those 372 values are in good agreement with our boron-derived pCO₂ at site 806/807 reported here, and 373 with previous boron-based studies (Hönisch et al., 2009; Stap et al., 2016; Chalk et al., 2017). 374

375 3.6 Pliocene Glacial Intensification

The warmth and local pCO₂ maxima of the MPWP was followed by a strong decrease of temperature in upwelling and high latitude regions during from 3.3-2.7 Ma, coincident with glacial intensification in the Northern Hemisphere. This climate transition was hypothesized to be driven by the closure of the Panama seaway the opening of the high





latitudes and subsequent modifications of oceanic circulation (Haug and Tiedemann, 1998).
However, modeling from Lunt et al. (2008) supports an additional major role for CO₂ in the
glaciation. pCO₂ thresholds have been proposed to explain the intensification of Northern
Hemisphere Glaciation, with values proposed ranging from 280 µatm (DeConto et al., 2008)
to 200 to 400 µatm (Koening et al., 2011).

From 3.3 to 3.0 Ma, our boron isotope-derived estimates of pCO_2 are typically 150 µatm higher than Bartoli et al. (2011), and de la Vega., (2020). This study, Martinez-Boti et al. (2015b) and de la Vega et al., (2020) used an MC-ICP-MS so it is possible the differences reflect changes in air-sea equilibrium recorded at Site 999 compared to Sites 806/807.

389 The reconstruction for the WEP exhibits multiple steps during the decline in pCO₂, with a minimum observed at 4.42 Ma (360 (\pm^{117}_{85}) µatm), at 3.45 Ma (323 (\pm^{100}_{75}) µatm) and at 390 2.67 Ma (269 (\pm_{59}^{77}) µatm) (Fig. 9). Those atmospheric CO₂ concentrations are consistent 391 392 with the pCO₂ thresholds proposed by both DeConto et al. (2008) and Koening et al. (2011) 393 for the intensification of Northern Hemisphere glaciation and the low CO₂ (280 ppmv) 394 scenario from Lunt et al. (2008). We speculate that associated with Pliocene glacial 395 intensification, at 4.42, 3.45 and 2.67 Ma, it is possible that the declines in CO_2 and ice 396 growth in turn drove substantial changes in pole-to-equator temperature gradients and winds, 397 that in turn may have impacted iron cycling (Watson et al., 2000; Robinson et al., 2005; 398 Martinez-Garcia et al., 2011), stratification (Toggweiler, 1999; Sigman et al., 2010), and 399 other feedbacks that impact the amplitude of glacial/interglacial cycles and have been 400 implicated as factors that could have contributed to Pliocene glacial intensification. 401 Specifically, as the mean climate state of the planet became cooler, and glacial-interglacial 402 cycles became larger in amplitude, enhanced windiness and dust transport and upwelling 403 during glacials may have enhanced iron fertilization and subsequent carbon export. This could explain why glacial/interglacial amplitudes in WEP pCO₂ values decrease from the 404 MPWP towards the Pleistocene, whereas variations in δ^{18} O are increasing. 405

406

407 **3.7 Pleistocene**

During the Pleistocene (2.58-0.01 Ma), the climate system experienced a transition in glacial/interglacial (G/I) variability from low amplitude, higher frequency and obliquitydominated oscillations (i.e., \sim 41 kyr) of the late Pliocene to the high amplitude, lower frequency and eccentricity-dominated cycles (i.e., \sim 100 kyr) of the last 800 kyr. This transition is termed the Middle Pleistocene Transition (0.8-1.2 Ma – MPT). Questions have





been raised about the role of atmospheric CO₂ during this transition, including using boronbased proxies (Hönisch et al., 2009; Tripati et al., 2011; Chalk et al., 2017). Previous boron
isotope studies have suggested that a decline in atmospheric CO₂ did not occur during the
MPT (Hönisch et al., 2009; Chalk et al., 2017; Dyez et al., 2018).

417 Although our pCO₂ results for the MPT are broadly in the range of values reported by Hönisch et al. (2009) and Chalk et al. (2017), we have higher data coverage for the middle 418 419 and later part of the transition (Fig. 9D). Taken alone, or when combined with the published 420 data from Chalk et al. (2017) (that is also based on MC-ICPMS), our results support a 421 reduction of both glacial and interglacial pCO₂ values. We also find evidence that during the MPT, glacial pCO₂ declined rapidly from 189 (±30) µatm at MIS 36 (Chalk et al., 2017) to 422 reach a minimum of 164 (\pm_{35}^{44}) µatm during MIS 30, the pCO₂ concentrations are however 423 424 within error when uncertainty is fully propagated, and then remained relatively stable until the 425 end of the MPT whereas interglacial pCO₂ values decrease gradually to reach post-MPT 426 values.

In our record for the last 17 Myr, the lowest pCO₂ is recorded at MIS 30 during the 427 428 MPT, with values of 164 (\pm^{44}_{35}) µatm, which supports an atmospheric CO₂ threshold that leads 429 to ice sheet stability. During this transition, the pCO_2 threshold needed to build sufficiently 430 large ice sheets that were able to survive the critical orbital phase of rising obliquity to 431 ultimately switch to a 100 kyr world, was likely reached at MIS 30. The multiple feedbacks 432 resulting from stable ice sheets (iron fertilization/productivity/changes in albedo/ changes in 433 deep water formation) might have sustained larger mean global ice volumes over the 434 subsequent 800 kyr. An asymmetrical decrease between pCO₂ values during interglacials 435 relative to glacials, with glacials exhibiting the largest change across the MPT, would have 436 led to increased sequestration of carbon during glacials in the 100 kyr world, as discussed by 437 Chalk et al. (2017), with increased glacial dust input and iron fertilization.

438

439 **3.8** Changes in volcanic activity and silicate weathering, and long-term pCO₂

440 On million-year timescales, atmospheric CO₂ is mainly controlled by volcanic activity 441 and silicate weathering. Over the last 17 Myr, two relative maxima in atmospheric pCO₂ are 442 observed in our record, one during the MCO (at 15.67 Ma) and a second around the late 443 Miocene/early Pliocene (beginning at 4.7 and 4.5 Ma) (Fig. 10), though the timing for the 444 latter is not precise. The high CO₂ levels of the MCO are hypothesized (Foster et al., 2012) to 445 coincide with increasing volcanic activity, associated with the eruption of the Columbia River





Flood Basalts (Hooper et al., 2002; Kasbohm and Schoene, 2018), with recent 446 447 geochronologic evidence published supporting higher eruption activity between 16.7 and 15.9 Ma (Kasbohm and Schoene, 2018). The second CO_2 peak could correspond to observed 448 449 global increased volcanism in the early/middle Pliocene (Kennett and Thunell, 1977; 450 Kroenke et al., 1993), and/or a change of silicate weathering regime. Strontium and lithium isotopes ($^{87/86}$ Sr and δ^7 Li) have been used as proxy for silicate weathering activity. Although 451 452 the strontium isotope record exhibits a monotonous increase, lithium isotope data (Misra and 453 Froelich, 2012) are more variable with a transition from a period of increase seawater $\delta^7 Li$ (e.g. non-steady state weathering) to stable seawater $\delta^7 Li$ (e.g., steady state weathering) 454 455 beginning at roughly 6.8 Ma (Fig. 10).

456

457 **3.9 History of the WEP**

458 The patterns observed in our study are also in line with major changes in the 459 equatorial Pacific dynamic reported from other studies over these timescales (Figure 8). The 460 development of the warm pool and transient changes between La Madre (La-Nina-like) to El Padre (El-Nino-like conditions) have been inferred from geological records (Nathan and 461 Leckie, 2009), including foraminiferal assemblage data and asymmetric carbonate 462 preservation between the west and the east equatorial Pacific (Chaisson and Ravelo, 2000; 463 464 Nathan and Leckie, 2009), and sea surface and sub-surface temperature proxies (Wara et al, 465 2005; Rickaby and Halloran, 2005; Seki et al., 2012; Ford et al., 2012, 2015; Drury et al., 2018). 466

467 The increase in CO₂ in the late Miocene and early Pliocene in our record corresponds 468 to the timing of the biogenic bloom in the Eastern equatorial Pacific that has been linked to a global biogenic bloom (Hermoyan and Owen, 2001). These blooms have been hypothesized 469 470 to arise from an increase in nutrients (Hermoyan and Owen, 2001) that arose due to higher 471 rates of weathering as well as change in oceanic circulation due to Indonesian and Central 472 American Seaways constrictions (Gupta and Thomas, 1999; Grant and Dickens, 2002 473 amongst many others). The change in silicate weathering regime inferred from the record of δ ⁷Li (Misra and Froelich, 2012) would also be consistent with this hypothesis. 474

475

476 **3.9 Outlook and Conclusions**

477 We developed a reconstruction of atmospheric pCO₂ based on δ^{11} B of planktic 478 foraminifera from ODP Sites 806 and 807 located in the Western Equatorial Pacific for the





479 past 17 million years. Our study represents the first long-term reconstruction for the Neogene 480 derived from boron isotopes from the Pacific Ocean. We build on past efforts to reconstruct 481 atmospheric pCO_2 using different proxies from this region, including from carbon isotopes in 482 marine organic matter (Rayno et al., 1996) and alkenones (Pagani et al., 2010), as well as 483 foraminiferal B/Ca ratios (Tripati et al., 2009, 2011), all of which have been shown to have a 484 number of complexities and potential sources of systematic error (e.g., Tripati et al., 2011). It 485 also builds on efforts using boron isotopes in other regions using MC-ICP-MS (Seki et al., 2010; Foster et al., 2012, 2014; Greenop et al., 2014; Martinez-Boti et al., 2015b; Stap et al., 486 487 2016; Chalk et al., 2017; Dyez et al., 2018; de la Vega et al., 2020), and our recent work 488 constraining fractionation factors and measuring small samples of foraminifera. Although the 489 record is not continuous, with variable resolution, it captures both long-term and short-term 490 variability associated with several key transitions and demonstrates the utility of these sites 491 for future higher resolution study.

492 As expected, these data generally reproduce the pCO_2 record from ice cores, 493 consistent with the sites being in equilibrium with the atmosphere. The MCO has higher 494 pCO₂ than reconstructions from other sites, with values estimated as $479 \pm 173 \mu$ atm (2 SD, 495 n=4), potentially linked to the eruption of the Columbia River Flood Basalts, with values 496 declining into the early Pliocene. Major drops in pCO₂ occurred at 12.9, 4.42, 3.45 and 2.71 497 Ma, including during Pliocene glacial intensification. We find support for a larger reduction 498 in glacial pCO_2 during the MPT compared to interglacial pCO_2 , and a minimum in pCO_2 499 during glacial MIS 30. These findings support a role for CO_2 in the transition from a 41 kyr 500 to a 100 kyr world.

501 Higher-resolution boron isotope records from the WEP would allow for further 502 resolution of these changes. Additional constraints on temperature, such as from clumped 503 isotopes (Tripati et al., 2010) in the WEP (Tripati et al., 2014), could allow for uncertainties 504 in pCO_2 estimates from boron isotopes to be reduced and for new constraints on Earth system 505 climate sensitivity. Future constraints on the vertical structure of the tropical Pacific during 506 these transitions may also potentially be illuminating.

507

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- 519

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Figure captions

Figure 1: Modern hydrography of sites. **A.** Map of air-sea pCO_2 (ΔpCO_2 , μ atm, data from Takahashi et al., 2014 and plotted using Ocean Data View from Schlitzer, 2016) showing the location of ODP Sites 806 and 807 (black circles). Depth profiles are for preindustrial parameters, **B.** pH calculated from GLODAP database and corrected from anthropogenic inputs, **C.** Boron isotopic composition of borate ion ($\delta^{11}B_{borate}$) with associated propagated uncertainties.

Figure 2: Foraminiferal data for the Miocene to Recent. A. Benthic foraminiferal δ^{18} O data (blue line – stack from Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005; black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). B. δ^{11} B of *T. sacculifer* and *G. ruber* at Sites 806, 807. C. B/Ca ratios. D. Mg/Ca ratios. E. Calculated weight per shell for *T. sacculifer* and *G. ruber*. For Panels B-E: Circles = *T. sacculifer*, Triangles = *G. ruber*.

Figure 3: Different models for the evolution of the boron geochemistry explored as part of this work. Due to the 1‰ uncertainty propagated for $\delta^{11}B_{seawater}$, all scenarios yield reconstructed seawater pH values that are within error of each other. Propagated uncertainties were calculated using eq. S14 (see Supplement). **A.** Different models for $\delta^{11}B_{seawater}$ used for the reconstruction of pCO₂ in this study (blue – Lemarchand et al., 2000; green – Greenop et al., 2017; red – Raitzsch and Hönisch, 2013). **B**. Reconstructed pH based on our measured $\delta^{11}B_{carbonate}$ values using different models for $\delta^{11}B_{seawater}$.

Figure 4: Different models for the evolution of a second carbonate system parameter explored as part of this work. The propagated uncertainties were calculated using eq. S16 (see Supplement). **A**. Different models for alkalinity used for the reconstruction of pCO₂ in this study (orange - Ridgwell and Zeebe, 2005; violet - Tyrell and Zeebe, 2004; green - Caves et al., 2016. B. Reconstructed pCO₂ based on our measured $\delta^{11}B_{carbonate}$ values using different models for alkalinity and $\delta^{11}B_{seawater}$ from Greenop et al., 2017.

Figure 5: Reconstruction of surface pCO_2 for the past 0.8 My from *T. sacculifer* at ODP Sites 806 and 807. Also shown is benthic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ with isotope stages labeled (black line – stack from Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). pCO_2 values calculated from boron isotopes (colored symbols - this study) with data from the literature (gray symbols: circles - Honisch et al., 2009; half filled circles - Seki et al. 2010; triangles – Foster et al., 2014; diamonds - Stap et al., 2016; squares – Chalk et al., 2017) and ice core pCO_2 (black line - LePetit at al., 2009). Data from the two sites we examined reproduces the absolute values and amplitude of atmospheric pCO_2 as determined from ice cores, thereby validating our methodology.

Figure 6: Proxy data for the past 17 million years in the Western Equatorial Pacific compared to benthic oxygen isotope data. **A.** Benthic δ^{18} O (blue line – stack from Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005; black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). **B.** Benthic δ^{13} C (black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). **C** to E, colored is indicating the site (open grey=806, filled grey=807), symbols represent the species (circle=*T. sacculifer* and triangle=*G. ruber*). **C.** SST reconstructed at ODP Sites 806 and 807 using Mg/Ca ratios and equation S6 and S7 (this study). **D.** Seawater pH reconstructed from δ^{11} B of *T. sacculifer* and *G. ruber* using δ^{11} B_{seawater} from Greenop et al. (2017) (refer to text and supplement for calculations, this study). **E.** Reconstructed pCO₂ (µatm) using boron-based pH and alkalinity from Caves et al. (2016), data presented are from this study. Propagated uncertainties are given by eq. S17 for the dark (green or blue) envelope, while the light (green or blue) envelope are the uncertainties calculated based on eq. S16 (taking into account uncertainty on δ^{11} B_{seawater}).

Figure 7: Proxy data from 17 to 6 million years, including the Middle Miocene Climate Transition (MMCT) and Miocene Climate Optimum (MCO), in the Western Equatorial Pacific compared to benthic oxygen isotope data. **A.** Benthic δ^{18} O (black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). **B.** Benthic δ^{13} C (black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). C and D, colored is indicating the site (open grey=806, filled grey=807), symbols represent the species (circle=*T. sacculifer* and triangle=*G. ruber*). **C.** SST reconstructed at ODP Sites 806 and 807 using Mg/Ca ratios and equation





S6 and S7 (this study). **D.** Reconstructed pCO₂ (µatm) from this study (blue symbols) using boronbased pH and alkalinity from Caves et al. (2016). Propagated uncertainties are given by eq. S17 for the dark blue envelope, while the light blue envelope reflects the uncertainties calculated based on eq. S16 (taking into account uncertainty on $\delta^{11}B_{seawater}$). In grey are $\delta^{11}B$ -derived estimates from the literature (open triangles – Foster et al., 2012 for Site 761B; half-filled diamonds – Foster et al., 2012 for Site 962A; open circles – Badger et al., 2013 for locality in Malta; half-filled triangles – Greenop et al., 2014 for Site 761B; filled diamonds - Stap et al., 2016 for Site 1264).

Figure 8: Proxy data from 7 to 1 million years, including the Warm Pliocene Transition (WPT), in the Western Equatorial Pacific compared to benthic oxygen isotope data. **A.** Benthic δ^{18} O (black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). **B.** Benthic δ^{13} C (black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). **C** and D, colored is indicating the site (open grey=806, filled grey=807), symbols represent the species (circle=*T. sacculifer* and triangle=*G. ruber*). **C.** SST reconstructed at ODP Sites 806 and 807 using Mg/Ca ratios and equation S6 and S7 (this study). **D.** Reconstructed pCO₂ (µatm) using boronbased pH and alkalinity from Caves et al. (2016), data presented are from this study. Propagated uncertainties are given by eq. S17 for the dark (green or blue) envelope, while the light (green or blue) envelope are the uncertainties calculated based on eq. S16 (taking into account uncertainty on δ^{11} B-derived estimates from the literature (light grey circles – Honisch et al., 2009 for Site 668B; half-filled circles – Seki et al., 2010 for Site 999A; medium grey circles – Bartoli et al., 2011 for Site 999A; unfilled triangles – Martinez-Boti et al., 2015 for Site 668B; grey triangles - de la Vega et al., 2020 for Site 999A).

Figure 9: Proxy data from 1.5 to 0.5 million years, including the Middle Pleistocene Transition (MPT), in the Western Equatorial Pacific compared to benthic oxygen isotope data. **A.** Benthic δ^{18} O (blue line – stack from Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). **B.** Benthic δ^{13} C (black line – compilation from Zachos et al., 2008). C and D, colored is indicating the site (open grey=806, filled grey=807), symbols represent the species (circle=*T. sacculifer* and triangle=*G. ruber*). **C.** SST reconstructed at ODP Sites 806 and 807 using Mg/Ca ratios and equations S6 and S7 (this study). **D.** Reconstructed pCO₂ (µatm) using boron-based pH and alkalinity from Caves et al. (2016), data presented are from this study. Propagated uncertainties are given by eq. S17 for the dark (green or blue) envelope, while the light (green or blue) envelope are the uncertainties calculated based on eq. S16 (taking into account uncertainty on δ^{11} B_{seawater}). In black are published estimates from ice core data (line - LePetit at al., 2009; circles - Yan et al., 2019). In grey are δ^{11} B-derived estimates from the literature (grey circles – Honisch et al., 2009 for Site 668B; half-filled circles – Seki et al., 2010 for Site 999A; squares – Chalk et al., 2017 for Site 999A; half-filled diamonds – Dyez et al., 2018 for Site 668B).

Figure 10: Proxy data from 1.5 to 0.5 million years, including the Middle Pleistocene Transition (MPT), in the Western Equatorial Pacific compared to benthic oxygen isotope composites. **A.** Benthic δ^{18} O (blue line – compilation from Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005, black line – compilation from Zachos et al. 2008). **B.** B. Records from Lithium isotopes (δ^{7} Li, orange, Misra and Froelich, 2012) and Strontium isotopes ($^{87/86}$ Sr, grey, Hodell et al., 1991, Farrel et al., 1995, Martin et al., 1999, Martin et al., 2004), both proxies for silicate weathering. Orange arrows represent the different weathering regimes as indicated by the δ^{7} Li, black crosses are indication when changes in weathering regime occurs. **C.** Reconstructed pCO₂ (µatm) using boron-based pH and alkalinity from Caves et al. (2016), data presented are from this study (circle - *T. sacculifer* and triangle - *G. ruber*). Propagated uncertainties are given by eq. S17 for the dark (green or blue) envelope, while the light (green or blue) envelope are the uncertainties calculated based on eq. S16 (taking into account uncertainty on $\delta^{11}B_{seawater}$). In grey are $\delta^{11}B$ -derived estimates from the literature (light grey circles – Honisch et al., 2009 for Site 668B; half-filled circles – Seki et al., 2010 for Site 999A; medium grey circles – Bartoli et al., 2011 for Site 999A; unfilled triangles – Foster et al., 2013 for locality in Malta;





left-filled triangle – Greenop et al., 2014 for Site 761B; upside down triangle – Foster et al., 2014 for Site 999A; grey triangles – Martinez-Boti et al., 2015b for Site 999A; grey diamonds – Stap et al., 2016 for Site 1264; grey squares – Chalk et al., 2017 for Site 999A; bottom half-filled diamonds – Dyez et al., 2018 for Site 668B; grey triangles - de la Vega et al., 2020 for Site 999A). Also shown are timing of major events. The rose band and dark rose band indicate eruption of the Columbia River flood basalts (Hooper et al., 2002) and time of maximum eruption (Kasbohm and Schoene, 2018), respectively. Light grey bands represent hypothesized La Nina-like intervals and dashed dark grey bands represent hypothesized El Nino-like intervals (Farell et al., 1995; Chaisson and Ravelo, 2000; Nathan and Leckie, 2009; Ford et al., 2012; Drury et al., 2018). The biogenic bloom in the EEP (Farell et al., 1995) and in the WEP (Berger et al., 1991) is hypothesized to have been driven by enhanced weathering that increased nutrient delivery to the global ocean (Hermoyian and Owen, 2001).





 Table 1: Boxe core information.

Cruise	Leg	Hole	N (°)	E (°)	Depth (m)
ODP	130	807	3.61	156.62	3638
ODP	130	806	0.32	159.37	2521





Table 2: Comparison of reconstructed pCO_2 values for key intervals in the last 17 Myr.

Mid-Pleistocene transition (1.2-0.8 Ma)

MIS (G)	pCO₂ (µatm)	Reference	MIS (IG)	pCO ₂ (µatm)	Reference	pCO ₂ amplitude IG-G (µatm)
20	171	This study	21	245	This study	74
22	180	This study	23	222	This study	42
24	nd		25	288	This study	nd
26	168	This study	27	nd		nd
28	165	This study	29	nd		nd
30	164	This study	31	295	Hönisch et al., 2009 (N-TIMS)	131
32	218	Chalk et al., 2017	33	323	Chalk et al., 2017	105
34	197	Chalk et al., 2017	35	315	Chalk et al., 2017	118
36	189	Chalk et al., 2017	37	295	This study, Chalk et al., 2017	106
			39	306	This study	nd
Early Pliocene Warm Period (4.7-4.5 Ma)						

pCO₂ (µatm) Reference

541 ± 124 This study (2 SD, n=3)

.

Middle Pliocene Warm Period (3.29-2.97 Ma)

pco ₂ (µatm)	Reference
515 ± 119	This study (2 SD, n=4)

320 ± 130 Martinez-Boti, 2015b (2 SD, n=8)

Miocene Climate Optimum (17-14 Ma)

pCO ₂ (µatm)	Reference
479 ± 173	This study (2 SD, n=4)
350-400	Foster et al., 2012
300-500	Greenop et al., 2014
470-630	Sosdian et al., 2018









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Figure 2















Figure 4







Figure 5







Figure 6







Figure 7







Figure 8







Figure 9







Figure 10