



1 **Biotic Response of Plankton Communities to Middle to Late**  
2 **Miocene Monsoon Wind and Nutrient Flux Changes in the**  
3 **Oman Margin Upwelling Zone**

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13 **Keywords**

14 Indian summer monsoon, upwelling, Miocene, calcareous nannoplankton, intermediate waters, nutrient fluxes

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17 **Abstract.** Understanding the behavior of past upwelling cells is paramount when assessing future climate changes.  
18 Our present understanding of nutrient fluxes throughout the world's oceans emphasizes the importance of  
19 intermediate waters transporting nutrients from the Antarctic divergence into the middle and lower latitudes. These  
20 nutrient-rich waters fuel productivity within wind-driven upwelling cells in all major oceans. One such upwelling  
21 cell is located along the Oman Margin in the Western Arabian Sea (WAS). Driven by cross-hemispherical winds,  
22 the WAS upwelling zone's intense productivity led to the formation of one of the most extensive oxygen minimum  
23 zones known today.

24 In this study covering the Middle to Late Miocene at ODP Site 722, we investigate the inception of upwelling-  
25 derived primary productivity. We combine novel data with existing model- and data-based evidence, constraining  
26 the tectonic and atmospheric boundary conditions for an upwelling cell to exist in the region. With this research,  
27 we build upon the original planktonic foraminifer-based research by Dick Kroon in 1991 as part of his research  
28 based on the Ocean Drilling Project (ODP) LEG 117.

29 We show that monsoonal winds likely sustained upwelling since the emergence of the Arabian Peninsula after the  
30 Miocene Climatic Optimum (MCO) ~14 Ma, with fully monsoonal conditions occurring since the end of the  
31 Middle Miocene Climatic Transition (MMCT) ~13 Ma. However, changing nutrient fluxes through Antarctic  
32 Intermediate and sub-Antarctic Mode Waters (AAIW/SAMW) were only established by ~12 Ma. Rare occurrences  
33 of diatoms frustules correspond to the maximum abundances of *Reticulofenestra haqii* and *Reticulofenestra*  
34 *antarctica*, indicating higher upwelling-derived nutrient levels. By 11 Ma, diatom abundance increases  
35 significantly, leading to alternating diatom blooms and high-nutrient-adapted nannoplankton taxa. These changes  
36 in primary producers are also well reflected in geochemical proxies with increasing  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$  values ( $> 6\text{‰}$ ) and  
37 high organic carbon accumulation also confirm high productivity and beginning denitrification simultaneously.

38 Our multi-proxy-based evaluation of Site 722B primary producers thus indicates a stepwise evolution of  
39 productivity in the western Arabian Sea related to the intensity of upwelling and forcing SAM dynamics  
40 throughout the Middle to Late Miocene. The absence of full correspondence with existing deep marine climate  
41 records also suggests that local processes, such as lateral nutrient transport, likely played an important role in  
42 modulating productivity in the western Arabian Sea. Finally, we show that using a multi-proxy record provides  
43 novel insights into how fossil plankton responded to changing nutrient conditions through time in a monsoon-  
44 wind-driven upwelling zone.

## 45 1. Introduction

46 Within coastal upwelling zones, wind-driven Ekman transport brings nutrient-rich deep water into the photic zone  
47 (Woodward et al., 1999). This process supports enhanced primary productivity in the surface ocean. This increased  
48 productivity supports large biomass across the entire food chain, reaching far afield from the core of the upwelling  
49 zone. In addition, the high productivity in upwelling zones produces a significant amount of marine snow (both  
50 organic and inorganic), which sinks through the water column. As the organic particulates fall, they become  
51 partially remineralized, consuming oxygen and forming an oxygen-depleted zone. Yet the flux is so large that a  
52 significant volume of organic and inorganic material reaches and accumulates on the seafloor (e.g., Suess, 1980;  
53 Rixen et al., 2019a, b).

54 Upwelling zones affect the marine carbon cycle by sequestering carbon. During upwelling, increased  
55 photosynthesis-driven primary productivity results in high organic carbon export from the photic zone into the



56 deep sea through the organic carbon pump (Volk and Hoffert, 1985; Ridgwell and Zeebe, 2005). Primary producers  
57 account for most of the biomass in upwelling zones, with phytoplankton accounting for > 80% of the particulate  
58 organic carbon (Head et al., 1996). Calcification by these primary producers and heterotrophic organisms feeding  
59 on them is further an important contributor to the in-organic carbon cycle of the oceans (Falkowski, 1997; Raven  
60 and Falkowski, 1999; Ridgwell and Zeebe, 2005; Millero, 2007).

61 However, the productivity of coastal upwelling zones highly depends on atmospheric conditions as they are  
62 primarily wind-driven. Therefore wind-driven upwelling further constitutes a direct intersection between the  
63 oceans and the atmosphere. Consequently, atmospheric changes in average wind speeds are directly responsible  
64 for the intensity and size of upwelling zones (Dugdale, 1972; Shimmield, 1992; Tudhope et al., 1996; Balun et al.,  
65 2010). Therefore, these atmospheric processes may also influence the community structure of primary producers  
66 and consumers within the area affected by upwelling.

67 In the Arabian Sea – one of the most productive marine regions today (Lee et al., 1998; Honjo et al., 1999; Munz  
68 et al., 2017; Rixen et al., 2019b) – significant variability in productivity has been identified in glacial-interglacial  
69 timescales. For example, higher productivity in the Late Pleistocene is associated with interglacial periods  
70 (Schubert et al., 1998; Pourmand et al., 2007; Avinash et al., 2015; Naik et al., 2017). Conversely, these  
71 climatically driven changes in primary productivity affect the volume of the oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) and  
72 the intensity of denitrification in the region (Gaye et al., 2018).

73 The Arabian Sea upwelling is primarily driven by the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM) winds in the northwestern  
74 Indian Ocean (Currie et al., 1973; Rixen et al., 2019a) as an extension of the Findlater Jets. Upwelling in the  
75 Western Arabian Sea (WAS) is thus directly forced by this cross-hemispheric circulation system (Basavani, 2013;  
76 Findlater, 1969; Woodward et al., 1999). The prevailing southwesterly winds in the region during the summer  
77 months result in the displacement of large water masses (Tudhope et al., 1996; Schott and McCreary, 2001; Schott  
78 et al., 2009; Lahiri and Vissa, 2022), resulting in pronounced, intense upwelling peaks during the summer monsoon  
79 season (Lee et al., 1998; Honjo et al., 1999; Rixen et al., 2019b). During the northern hemisphere winter, the  
80 prevailing wind direction in the Arabian Sea reverses as a weaker and dryer winter monsoon establishes. The  
81 northeasterly winter monsoon winds result in an additional, albeit less pronounced, productivity spike in the region  
82 (Madhupratap et al., 1996; Munz et al., 2015, 2017; Rixen et al., 2019b). Between these two regimes – the inter-  
83 monsoon season – weak and variable winds dominate, permitting the establishment of well-stratified regions in  
84 the WAS that exhibit oligotrophic surface water conditions. The impact of changes in wind regimes and upwelling  
85 intensity on plankton communities in the WAS is well-established for the modern (Schiebel et al., 2004). The shift  
86 between the different conditions generates a complex pattern of abundance shifts between nutrient-adapted and  
87 primarily meso- but potentially even oligotrophic phytoplankton communities.

88 In the geologic past, evidence suggests that upwelling first occurred in the Arabian Sea between the Middle and  
89 Late Miocene (Kroon et al., 1991; Huang et al., 2007a; Tripathi et al., 2017; Zhuang et al., 2017; Bialik et al.,  
90 2020a; Alam et al., 2022). This initiation of the upwelling occurred in conjunction with the intensification of the  
91 South Asian Monsoon system (Gupta et al., 2015; Betzler et al., 2016). Modeling studies suggest that the inception  
92 of upwelling and the monsoonal wind system was closely linked to the tectonic evolution of the Arabian Peninsula  
93 (Zhang et al., 2014; Sarr et al., 2022). To date, manganese redirection – i.e., the depletion of Mn in the sedimentary  
94 record due to Mn-reduction in the water column (Dickens and Owen, 1994). Together with sedimentological facies  
95 and micropaleontological studies (Dickens and Owen, 1999; Gupta et al., 2004) these methods have been used  
96 most effectively to track the size of the OMZ throughout the Indian Ocean and by proxy also the intensity of



97 upwelling derived primary productivity. However, these methods do not provide direct evidence for how changing  
98 wind and nutrient levels have interacted to result in the observed OMZ pattern.  
99 Based on current records, the earliest activity within the upwelling zone may have already occurred earlier in the  
100 Burdigalian (Bialik et al., 2020b). However, it was not until connectivity to the proto-Mediterranean was  
101 terminated (Rögl, 1999; Reuter et al., 2013; Harzhauser et al., 2007; Bialik et al., 2019; Sarr et al., 2022). After  
102 the Miocene Climatic Optimum (MCO) ~14 Ma (Flower and Kennett, 1994; Frigola et al., 2018; Sosdian and  
103 Lear, 2020) global cooling resumed and a stable, upwelling zone and a sustained OMZ resembling present day  
104 conditions was established in the Western Indian Ocean (Kroon et al., 1991; Zhuang et al., 2017; Bialik et al.,  
105 2020a).  
106 Following these lines of evidence, it can be summarized that upwelling initiated during the Middle to Late Miocene  
107 during the Middle Miocene Climatic Transition (MMCT), marked by cooling sea surface temperatures (SSTs)  
108 since ~15 Ma (Zhuang et al., 2017). Upwelling subsequently intensified at ~13 Ma (Betzler et al., 2016) before  
109 reaching maximum intensity at ~11 Ma and potentially declining at ~9 Ma (Bialik et al., 2020a). Upwelling re-  
110 intensified later in the Miocene and oscillated into the Plio-Pleistocene (Kroon et al., 1991; Huang et al., 2007b;  
111 Gupta et al., 2015; Tripathi et al., 2017; Alam et al., 2022). The Serravallian upwelling intensification is  
112 accompanied by significantly increased biogenic silica accumulation across the northern Indian Ocean (Keller and  
113 Barron, 1983; Baldauf et al., 1992). This biogenic silica bloom is dominated by siliceous plankton such as diatoms  
114 and radiolaria (Nigrini, 1991), indicating a sustained regime of high nutrient levels, which was able to support  
115 these primary producers (Blain et al., 1997; Schiebel et al., 2004; Mikaelyan et al., 2015).  
116 With the present study, we aim to better constrain the relationships and interactions between different plankton  
117 groups in the WAS within the context of the dynamic changes occurring in the Oman Margin upwelling cell  
118 throughout the Middle to Late Miocene.

## 119 2. ODP Site 722 – Site locale, age model, and existing data

120 Ocean Drilling Project (ODP) Site 722 (16°37'18.7" N/59°47'45.33" E) lies offshore Oman on the Owen Ridge, a  
121 300-km-long and 50-km wide feature in the WAS (Fig. 1). Today Site 722 lies within the core of the Indian Ocean  
122 Oxygen Minimum Zone (OMZ), with oxygen concentrations  $< 2 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  (McCreary et al., 2013; Garcia et al.,  
123 2018). At present the Arabian Sea OMZ extends southwards from the Oman Margin between 200 and 1000 m  
124 water depth, reaching as far south as 10°N (Morrison et al., 1998; McCreary et al., 2013).  
125 The sedimentary cover at the Site location comprises nannofossil, foraminifer, and diatom-rich pelagic oozes, with  
126 silty clay (Shipboard-Scientific-Party, 1989; Rodriguez et al., 2014; Bialik et al., 2020a). Bialik et al. (2020a)  
127 recently published a revised age model for Site 722B, which we will utilize throughout this study. The age-depth  
128 correlation relies on biostratigraphic information obtained from the nannofossil assemblage data used in this study,  
129 combined with existing shipboard data (Shipboard-Scientific-Party, 1989). The age model covers the study interval  
130 over the Middle Miocene to the Late Miocene (c. 15.0 – 8.5 Ma, corresponding to a core depth of 276.62 to 404.94  
131 mbsf). Bialik et al. (2020a) further published benchtop x-ray fluorescence-based elemental data, total organic  
132 carbon content (TOC), and the calcite equivalent carbonate content in the analyzed samples. These geochemical  
133 proxy data were subsequently used in conjunction with the nannofossil assemblage data to fully constrain the  
134 response of the assemblage to changing environmental conditions in the WAS upwelling zone.



135 **3. Methods**

136 **3.1. Nannofossil and Siliceous Fragment counts and quantification**

137 We produced smear slides from 71 freeze-dried samples following the quantitative drop technique of Bordiga et  
138 al. (2015). On each slide, at least 47 field views were counted until at least 300 specimens were recorded or until  
139 over 190 field views were reached for samples containing very low abundances. During counting, nannofossils  
140 were identified down to the species level whenever possible. The occurrence of diatom frustules (including pennate  
141 and centric forms), as well as other biogenic silica fragments (including silicoflagellates and radiolarian  
142 fragments), were quantitatively recorded without further taxonomic identification (supplementary data 1). All  
143 recorded nannofossil taxa (+ siliceous fragments) were then converted into absolute abundances per g/sediment,  
144 according to Bordiga et al. (2015), with portions of the dataset already published (Bialik et al., 2020a). In addition  
145 to the above-described quantification, the high amount of biogenic silica recorded in some sections often dilutes  
146 absolute nannofossil abundances. We, therefore, applied a correction factor to account for the dilution of the  
147 assemblage due to biogenic silica accumulation (Fig. 2). Nannofossil counts were converted to nannofossil  
148 abundances per g/CaCO<sub>3</sub> through a correction using the measured carbonate concentrations (wt. %) in the sediment  
149 (Bialik et al., 2020a). These were, in turn, used to calculate the total and relative abundances (%) to avoid biases  
150 in changing sedimentation rates on the assemblage structure.

151 We relied on the Nannotax3 website (Nannotax 3, 2022) for detailed taxonomic reference and identification. In  
152 addition, taxonomic identification followed the concepts outlined in Perch-Nielsen (1985) and Young (1998), the  
153 Handbook of Calcareous Nannoplankton 1–5 (Aubry, 1984, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1999), and the compilation on the  
154 taxonomy of the order Discoasterales by Aubry (2021).

155 **3.1.1. Taxonomic Remarks**

156 For subsequent ecological interpretations, we combined the identified *Reticulofenestra* morphotypes into three  
157 size bins ranging from small (<3 µm) to medium (<3–5 µm) and large (>5 µm). There is some debate regarding  
158 the taxonomic distinction of the reticulofenestrids (genus *Reticulofenestra*) in the Neogene (see Young, 1998, for  
159 discussion). Several research groups (Auer et al., 2019; Gibbs et al., 2005; Imai et al., 2017; Jatiningrum and Sato,  
160 2017; Wade and Bown, 2006) apply different size ranges to differentiate *Reticulofenestra* taxa based on placolith  
161 size. We also note that each of these size ranges may contain a multitude of genotypes (Young, 1998). In this  
162 study, we follow the species concept of Auer et al. (2019) adapted for the Middle to Late Miocene:

- 163 • *Reticulofenestra* spp. (small) cf. *R. minuta*: reticulofenestrids < 3 µm in length without a bar spanning the  
164 central area.
- 165 • *Reticulofenestra haqii*: reticulofenestrids 3–5 µm in length with an open central area.
- 166 • *Reticulofenestra antarctica*: reticulofenestrids 3–5 µm in length with a closed central area.
- 167 • *Reticulofenestra pseudumbilicus* (small): all reticulofenestrids 5–7 µm in length.
- 168 • *Reticulofenestra pseudumbilicus* (sensu stricto): all reticulofenestrids >7 µm in length.

169 **3.2. Planktonic foraminifera counts and quantification**

170 For foraminifer analysis, 28 samples were freeze-dried, weighed, and wet-sieved using mesh sizes 250, 125, and  
171 63 µm. After sieving, sample residues were oven dried at 40°C. For quantitative foraminiferal analyses, the size  
172 fractions > 250 µm and 250–125 µm were examined under a stereomicroscope (Zeiss V8). In each sample, at least  
173 200 specimens were picked and identified. In 8 samples, less than 200 specimens were found in the available



174 material. When necessary, samples were split into smaller aliquots (splits). The total number of foraminifera in the  
175 sediment (N/g) was calculated from the number of the counted specimen and the number of splits. Relative  
176 abundances (%) were calculated for each species (see supplementary data 2 for details).

### 177 3.3. Statistical Analyses and Ordination

178 All applied statistical and ordination methods were performed using PAST4 (v. 4.11 released 2022-09-13; Hammer  
179 et al., 2001). The applied methods include correlation matrices between nannofossil taxa and XRF-based  
180 environmental proxy data for dust flux and Mn depletion, the abundance of siliceous fragments, and calcite  
181 equivalent  $\text{CaCO}_3$  content (supplementary data 3). Percentage data were then arcsine-transformed before cluster  
182 analyses and ordination methods. The arcsine transformation was applied to generate a statistically viable dataset  
183 suitable for the applied clustering and ordination methods (Sokal and Rohlf, 1995; Hammer and Harper, 2006;  
184 Auer et al., 2014, 2019; Bialik et al., 2021) and applies the universal paired group method with arithmetic mean  
185 (UPGMA) with Bray-Curtis distance. Cluster stability was further evaluated by using UPGMA clustering with  
186 Euclidian distance and Ward's method.

187 The contributing taxa of each cluster were subsequently evaluated based on similarity percentage (SIMPER)  
188 analysis (Bray-Curtis similarity). The correspondence of nannofossil variability within each sample with  
189 environmental parameters was investigated using the non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS), where  
190 geochemical proxy data (see sect. 2; Fig. 3) was used as environmental variables and visualized as vectors within  
191 the two-dimensional coordinate space of the nMDS. Additionally, several diversity indices (see supplementary  
192 data 1), including the Shannon  $H'$ -diversity, were automatically for the calcareous nannofossil assemblage  
193 (Hammer and Harper, 2006).

## 194 4. Results

### 195 4.1. Calcareous Nannofossils

#### 196 4.1.1. Nannofossil abundance, diversity

197 Nannofossil preservation is good to moderately good based on visual evaluation under light and scanning electron  
198 microscopy. Overall preservation in biogenic-silica-rich samples was slightly poorer than in samples with little or  
199 no biogenic silica.

200 Total nannofossil abundances range from  $8.74 \cdot 10^8$  to  $5.42 \cdot 10^{10}$  per g/ $\text{CaCO}_3$ , with an average of  $9.43 \cdot 10^9$  and a  
201 median of  $7.32 \cdot 10^9$ . By comparison, total nannofossils per g/sed. range from  $2.75 \cdot 10^8$  to  $4.11 \cdot 10^{10}$  with an average  
202 of  $5.73 \cdot 10^9$  and a median of  $4.04 \cdot 10^9$ . Siliceous fragments range from no fragments to  $1.11 \cdot 10^{10}$  per g/sed., with  
203 an average of  $1.20 \cdot 10^9$  and a median of  $1.87 \cdot 10^9$ . In the three uppermost samples taken from Core 722B-30X,  
204 small placolith abundance (primarily *Reticulofenestra minuta*) increases sharply above the base absence (Ba) of  
205 *Reticulofenestra pseudumbilicus* (Backman et al., 2012; Agnini et al., 2017) above 8.8 Ma (Fig. 2). For details  
206 on the abundance and variability of individual nannofossil taxa, please refer to the supplementary material  
207 (supplementary data 1).

#### 208 4.1.2. Clusters and Ordination

209 Cluster analysis (UPGMA, Bray-Curtis similarity) resulted in 4 major clusters (clusters 1-4) that were defined at  
210 a similarity cutoff of 0.61 with a cophenetic correlation coefficient of 0.81. Clusters 1 and 4 were again split into  
211 2 (clusters 1a-b) and 3 (clusters 4a-c) sub-clusters, respectively, at a similarity cutoff of 0.66 (Fig. 4a).



212 Bootstrapping (N=1000) shows weak support for individual clusters reflecting the overall strong similarities in the  
213 assemblage composition of the studied samples. However, one-way ANOSIM shows p-values of <0.05, indicating  
214 that the separated clusters are statistically significant.

215 Based on SIMPER analysis, the clusters and subclusters are primarily defined by the abundance variability of  
216 reticulofenestrads, discoasterids, *Cyclicargolithus floridanus*, and, to a smaller extent, *Coccolithus pelagicus*, and  
217 *Sphenolithus* spp. Based on these results, we infer that the clusters represent taphogroups, each reflecting different  
218 environmental conditions (see Auer et al., 2014).

219 Taphogroup (TG) 1a is characterized by a very high abundance of small reticulofenestrads. TG 1b is similarly  
220 characterized by a high abundance of small reticulofenestrads, although lower than TG 1a, with a higher abundance  
221 of medium reticulofenestrads and *Cyclicargolithus floridanus*. TG 2 is characterized by a high abundance of *C.*  
222 *floridanus*, and TG 3 by a high abundance of large reticulofenestrads with common discoasterids. TG 4 and its  
223 subgroups are primarily defined by the variation of the three size ranges of reticulofenestrads, with TG4a exhibiting  
224 the highest abundances of small reticulofenestrads, TG4b showing the lowest amounts of both small and medium  
225 reticulofenestrads, and through TG4c high numbers of both medium and large reticulofenestrads. See table 1 for a  
226 summary of the TGs and the supplementary material (supplementary data4) for a statistical breakdown of the  
227 contribution of all taxonomic groups to each TG.

228 The cluster analysis results are well represented within the nMDS, with TGs splitting well along coordinates 1 and  
229 2. Furthermore, the recorded stress of the nMDS is 0.13, indicating that the results are robust (Clarke, 1993).  
230 However, a more conservative approach has recently been put forward, recommending that nMDS outputs  
231 exhibiting stress above 0.1 should be treated with extreme caution (Bialik et al., 2021). We, therefore, note the  
232 overall high compositional similarity of clusters, particularly sub-clusters, which is likely the cause of the high  
233 stress in the nMDS. We found a positive loading for TOC, and siliceous fragments, along coordinates one and two.  
234 Dustflux, calculated as  $\ln((Zr+Ti+Fe)/(Al+K))$  following Kunt et al. (2015), is positively loaded on coordinate one  
235 but negatively loaded on coordinate two. The Mn/Al ratio is loaded negatively on coordinate 1 and positively on  
236 coordinate 2. Whereas CaCO<sub>3</sub> is loaded negatively on both coordinates (Fig. 4b).

#### 237 4.2. Planktonic Foraminifera

238 Out of 28 samples one sample (722B-34X-3W 30-32, ca. 10.2 Ma) was barren in planktonic foraminifera. In the  
239 remaining 27 samples, 27 taxa of planktonic foraminifera were identified. Of these taxa, 5 (*Globigerinoides ruber*,  
240 *Globorotalia menardii*, *Neogloboquadrina acostaensis*, *Paragloborotalia mayeri*) have their stratigraphic first or  
241 last occurrence within the studied interval. All recorded taxa were grouped according to their environmental  
242 preferences following established environmental assignments of either mixed layer taxa, open ocean thermocline  
243 taxa, open ocean sub-thermocline taxa, upwelling taxa, or unknown (Table 2).

244 Through the studied interval, thermocline species and mixed layer taxa are the most abundant (abundance reaches  
245 more than 50%). Both mixed layer and upwelling taxa increase in prevalence through the studied interval, while  
246 thermocline species decrease. A sharp drop in thermocline taxa occurs between 11 Ma and 10 Ma, corresponding  
247 to the disappearance of *Paragloborotalia mayeri*, the dominant taxa until that time. Mixed layer taxa remain at a  
248 near-stable level from 11 Ma onwards. Upwelling taxa are not represented in two samples between 11 Ma and  
249 10.8 Ma, after which this group exhibits a steady increase until the end of the studied interval. Sub-thermocline  
250 taxa are present between 9.0 Ma and 9.5 Ma and account for only a small fraction (less than 3% at most)  
251 of the assemblage.



252 **5. Discussion**

253 **5.1. Definition of taphogroups and their paleoenvironmental significance**

254 Based on the above results, we interpret the analyzed samples in the context of their taphogroups. Taphogroups  
255 represent the total preserved fossil assemblage deposited at a given time in the past. Samples assigned to contain  
256 the same taphogroup can therefore be assumed to reflect similar local surface water conditions at Site 722.

257 **Taphogroup 1a:** TG1a is dominated by small reticulofenestrads. We, therefore, interpreted this TG as  
258 indicative of high nutrient levels facilitating the proliferation of small bloom-forming placoliths (primarily  
259 *Reticulofenestra minuta*; see Table 1). Small reticulofenestrads are commonly associated with high  
260 terrigenous nutrients in near-shore environments (see references in Table 1). However, as Site 722 was  
261 always located in the open ocean, a different mechanism must be invoked for this dominance of small  
262 reticulofenestrads. Studies based on coccolithophore culture studies indicate that the proliferation of small  
263 placoliths may result from nitrogen limitation in a highly productive open marine environment. For  
264 example, Paasche (1998) showed that modern-day coccolithophores tend to increase the formation of small  
265 placoliths during N-limitation. Hence, we assume that the proliferation of small reticulofenestrads in the  
266 open ocean results from increasing nitrogen limitation compared to other macro- or micronutrients.

267 **Taphogroup 1b:** The presence of common *C. floridanus* in combination with abundant small and medium-  
268 sized reticulofenestrads within this assemblage indicates elevated nutrient sources (see Table 1). The very  
269 high but not dominant abundance of small reticulofenestrads may also point to N-limited nutrient sources.  
270 This will be analogous to the fringes of the modern-day Arabian Sea upwelling cell, where nitrogen may  
271 be the primary limiting nutrient (Anju et al., 2020). The overall diversity suggests likely oligotrophic  
272 conditions, which may also be phosphate co-limited at times. We thus interpret TG 1b as reflective of open  
273 marine conditions with elevated nutrient levels. Primary nutrient supply, however, is still basically  
274 controlled by nutrients derived through the remineralization of locally produced particulate organic matter  
275 (Cullen, 1991), likely supplied to the surface water through seasonal mixing.

276 **Taphogroup 2:** Within TG 2, common *C. floridanus* occurs together with medium and large  
277 reticulofenestrads, commonly associated with warmer water temperature, a deep nutricline, and potentially  
278 elevated nutrient conditions. Therefore, we interpret this TG to reflect open marine conditions without  
279 directly indicating upwelling-derived nutrients. Nutrients were likely mainly derived through POM  
280 remineralization, with low external influx through upwelling.

281 **Taphogroup 3:** We interpret TG 3 as reflecting high nutrient conditions with potentially seasonal  
282 stratification. Previous studies (Auer et al., 2014; Lohmann and Carlson, 1981) generally associated large  
283 reticulofenestrads with high nutrient conditions. Imai (2015) states that dominant large reticulofenestrads  
284 and common discoasterids indicate low nutrient conditions and a deep nutricline compared to a high  
285 abundance of small reticulofenestrads. However, this interpretation is questioned by the association of TG  
286 3 with high TOC, high dust flux, and high silica accumulation rates, indicating strong upwelling conditions  
287 (Fig. 4b). In particular, the association with high dust flux suggests that TG 3 is associated with  
288 exceptionally high primary productivity (Guieu et al., 2019). Furthermore, modern analogs based on large  
289 *Geophyrocapsa* taxa, descendants of the genus *Reticulofenestra* (Samtleben, 1980; Perch-Nielsen, 1985;  
290 Nannotax 3, 2022), are more abundant in high nutrient upwelling zones (Bollmann, 1997).





291 This discrepancy in the interpretation of TG 3 with available environmental data could be partially  
292 addressed by extreme seasonality. In such a setting, diatom and coccolithophore accumulation occurs in  
293 different nutrient regimes. Modern-day culture studies of coccolithophores (Paasche, 1998) also show that  
294 the calcification of coccolithophores increases during nitrogen excess and phosphate limitation. Therefore,  
295 we interpret TG 3 as indicative of high upwelling during the Miocene summer monsoon season and with a  
296 deep nutricline during the rest of the year. Similar co-occurrences of diatoms and discoasterids were  
297 previously recorded in the eastern equatorial pacific and the Mediterranean (Backman et al., 2013).

298 **Taphogroup 4a:** Taphogroup 4a is not dominated by a specific reticulofenestrid size range while also  
299 containing a diverse assemblage in general (see Table 1). We, therefore, interpret this TG to show weaker  
300 upwelling conditions during transient climatic conditions. Furthermore, weaker productivity is implied by  
301 a stronger association of TG 4a with higher Mn/Al values (Fig. 4b).

302 **Taphogroup 4b:** The high dominance of large reticulofenestrids of TG 4b would suggest elevated,  
303 upwelling-derived nutrient levels in a temperate upwelling zone (see above). Furthermore, the size of  
304 experimental studies of calcification rates by Paasche (1998) may also be indicative of p-limitation. High  
305 nutrient conditions are corroborated by the general association of TG 4b with siliceous fragments, TOC,  
306 and dust flux in the nMDS (Fig. 4b).

307 **Taphogroup 4c:** Taphogroup 4c is defined by both medium and large reticulofenestrids (Table 1,  
308 supplementary material). Therefore, we interpret this TG as indicative of weaker but sustained upwelling  
309 conditions. In addition, it shows some association with upwelling indicators such as dust flux and no  
310 association with the Mn/Al ratio in the sediment (Fig. 4b), indicating that it only occurs during active OMZ  
311 at Site 722.

312

## 313 5.2. Temporal Progression of Environmental Changes

314 Individual taphogroups represent specific ecospace, but to understand the relation and transitions between these  
315 ecospace, in their temporal context their variability has to be considered in relationship to other proxies, within a  
316 multi-proxy approach. Integrating the analyses of nannofossil taphogroups (Table 1), planktonic foraminifer data  
317 (Fig. 5), abundance of siliceous fragments and geochemical data (Bialik et al., 2020a), we delineate temporal  
318 intervals in Site 722. These reflect stratigraphic intervals of specific environmental conditions in the WAS.

319 **Interval 1 (Base of study interval – 13.4 Ma):** This interval is characterized by variable taphogroups belonging  
320 to TG 1a, TG 2, TG 4a, and TG 4b. The variable taphogroups reflect a diverse and variable nannofloral assemblage  
321 in this interval. Overall the nannofloral assemblages are characterized by an overall high abundance of  
322 *Cyclicargolithus floridanus* (Fig. 5). However, *Cyclicargolithus floridanus* abundances decline through the  
323 interval to its stratigraphic Top (T) occurrence at Site 722. In addition, we record abundant small reticulofenestrids  
324 and peaks of discoasterids (TG 4a, 4b). The average number of taxa in interval 1 is  $14.9 \pm 2.1$  ( $N = 13$ ), with an  
325 average Shannon H' diversity of  $1.6 \pm 0.4$ .

326 The planktonic foraminifer assemblage is dominated by thermocline-dwelling taxa (predominantly *P. mayeri*).  
327 Siliceous fragments are absent. We interpret this interval as a relatively low nutrient environment based on the  
328 above multi-group assemblage composition. In particular, the presence of TG 1a and 2 points to only moderately  
329 elevated nutrient concentrations in the surface waters at Site 722 during MMCT. The common occurrence of



330 *Sphenolithus* spp. and discoasterids suggests intermitted – potentially seasonal – stratification. These results are  
331 consistent with the relatively warm SSTs recorded during this interval (Zhuang et al., 2017), further supporting a  
332 generally muted upwelling regime in the WAS during interval 1. These assumptions are corroborated by a more  
333 limited OMZ extent in the Indian Ocean, evidenced by elevated but declining Mn content, as well as the absence  
334 of notable drift deposits, and thus lower wind intensity, in the Maldives (Bialik et al., 2020b; Betzler et al., 2016).

335 **Interval 2a (13.4 – 12.0 Ma):** Interval 2a is solely comprised by TG 4c. This taphogroup is characterized by a  
336 diverse assemblage with abundant *R. pseudoumbilicus* and common medium-sized reticulofenestrads and  
337 discoasterids. The average number of taxa is  $16.6 \pm 2.2$  ( $N = 7$ ), with an average Shannon H' index of  $1.8 \pm 0.3$ .  
338 Siliceous fragments are absent.

339 Planktonic foraminiferal assemblages are dominated by thermocline species with increased abundances of mixed  
340 layer species compared to interval 1. Within interval 2a, a first slight increase in upwelling indicative taxa  
341 (primarily *G. bulloides*) is observed. We interpret this interval as indicative of a first shallowing of the thermocline  
342 due to the initial strengthening of the wind-driven upwelling regime at Site 722. This intensification is likely related  
343 to an intensification of the monsoon system following the end of the MMCT (Betzler et al., 2018). The  
344 intensification of the monsoon system is also consistent with the establishment of an increased OMZ extent and  
345 drift deposits in the Maldives (Betzler et al., 2016).

346 **Interval 2b (12.0 Ma – 11.0 Ma):** Interval 2b comprised primarily of assemblages belonging to TG 4c, with one  
347 sample belonging to cluster 1b. The interval similar to interval 2a is characterized by assemblages (TG4c) with  
348 abundant medium-sized reticulofenestrads that occur together with an increase in large reticulofenestrads.  
349 Furthermore, we detect a low but noteworthy increase in *Umbilicosphaera jafari* and a decline in Discoasteraceae.  
350 Furthermore, the abundance of small reticulofenestrads is lower than in interval 2a. These differences within the  
351 assemblage are also the reason why interval 2 was separated into the two sub-intervals. The average number of  
352 taxa in interval 2b is  $15.6 \pm 2.6$  ( $N = 16$ ), with an average Shannon H' index of  $1.5 \pm 0.3$ . The base of interval 2b  
353 also contains the first occurrence of diatoms within the section. Planktonic foraminifer mixed layer taxa decrease  
354 noticeably while upwelling taxa further increase in this interval.

355 We interpret this interval to mark a progressive intensification in the upwelling of high-nutrient subsurface waters.  
356 We base this on 1) the increase in siliceous fragments (diatoms and other siliceous biota, 2) higher abundances of  
357 upwelling indicative planktonic foraminiferal taxa, 3) generally nutrient-adapted nannofossil taxa (i.e., medium  
358 and large sized reticulofenestrads; Beltran et al., 2014; Auer et al., 2015; Imai et al., 2015) show progressive  
359 abundance increases. Intensified upwelling is consistent with increasing  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values and continuous cooling at  
360 Site 722 (Zhuang et al., 2017; Bialik et al., 2020a). Increased upwelling-derived nutrient access in the northern  
361 Indian Ocean is further supported by increased productivity and nitrogen utilization in the Maldives (Betzler et al.,  
362 2016; Ling et al., 2021). The upwelling intensification after 12 Ma is consistent with an overall increase in global  
363 atmospheric circulation and oceanic current strength (House et al., 1991; Gourelan et al., 2008; Groeneveld et al.,  
364 2017; Betzler and Eberli, 2019).

365 **Interval 3a (11.0 Ma – 9.6 Ma):** Interval 3a is characterized by a dominance of large reticulofenestrads (*R.*  
366 *pseudoumbilicus*) (TG 3) with intermittently common discoasterids and small reticulofenestrads (TG 4b). Notably,  
367 medium-sized reticulofenestrads show very low abundances compared to the previous intervals. The abundance of  
368 *Umbilicosphaera jafari* is highly variable but overall common, while sphenoliths are rare in the lower part of the  
369 interval before increasing (up to ~40 % of the assemblage) in the upper part. Within this interval, we also note the  
370 occurrence of variable abundances of small reticulofenestrads between ~10.5 to 9.9 Ma. The average number of



371 taxa is  $14.3 \pm 5.1$  ( $N = 22$ ), with an average Shannon  $H'$  index of  $1.1 \pm 0.4$ . The high environmental variability  
372 within this interval is illustrated by alternations between assemblages belonging to TG 3, 4b, and 4c. Siliceous  
373 fragments increase significantly in abundance (Fig. 5). Diatoms generally dominate the phytoplankton assemblage,  
374 even outcompeting calcareous nannoplankton in terms of total abundance. High diatom abundances are especially  
375 prevalent within samples assigned to TG 3.

376 Mixed layer taxa dominate planktonic foraminifer assemblages and increase in this interval, together with  
377 upwelling taxa. Notably, thermocline species decline to less than half of their previous abundance. One sample  
378 (722B-34X-3W 30-32) is barren of planktonic foraminifers. The lack of foraminifera is likely due to the limited  
379 sample amounts washed for this study, in conjunction with the high accumulation rates of phytoplankton (diatoms  
380 and calcareous nannofossils) in this stratigraphic interval.

381 Based on the high abundance of diatoms and a generally high nutrient-adapted nannofossil assemblage, we  
382 interpret interval 3a as a peak in upwelling intensity at Site 722. This interpretation is consistent with previously  
383 published  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  data from Site 722 and Sites U1466 and U1468, and other geochemical datasets in the Maldives  
384 (Bialik et al., 2020a; Ling et al., 2021). In addition, high productivity and OMZ expansion is further recorded by  
385 heightened TOC, Uranium accumulation, and low Mn deposition within the northwestern Indian Ocean (Dickens  
386 and Owen, 1994, 1999; Betzler et al., 2016; Bialik et al., 2020a). This corresponds to an increase in Antarctic  
387 Bottom Waters (AABW) formation due to the expansion of North Atlantic Deep Waters (NADW), indicative of  
388 an intensified global thermohaline circulation (Woodruff and Savin, 1989). Increasing numbers of discoasterids in  
389 the upper part of interval 3a, and decreasing diatoms numbers, also point towards declining upwelling, which  
390 amplifies within the next interval.

391 **Interval 3b (9.6 Ma – 8.8 Ma):** Interval 3b continues to exhibit a dominance of large reticulofenestrads (*R.*  
392 *pseudoumbilicus*) (TG 3), although discoasterids noticeably decline and are replaced by higher abundances of  
393 sphenoliths (primarily *Sphenolithus moriformis*), with abundances of ~ 40 % of the total assemblage. Small- and  
394 medium-sized reticulofenestrads are rare in this interval. The average number of taxa is  $15 \pm 2.3$  ( $N = 10$ ), with an  
395 average Shannon  $H'$  index of  $1.4 \pm 0.3$ .

396 We thus interpret interval 3b to indicate decreasing upwelling intensity based on the increase in nannofossil taxa  
397 adapted to warmer and more stratified water masses, such as *Discoaster* spp. and *Sphenolithus* spp. (Lohmann and  
398 Carlson, 1981; Castradori, 1998; Negri and Villa, 2000; Blanc-Valleron et al., 2002; Gibbs et al., 2004a; Aubry,  
399 2007; Villa et al., 2008; Schueth and Bralower, 2015). The waning upwelling of the northern Indian Ocean is  
400 corroborated by the proliferation of warm water diatom taxa in the Maldives (Site 714; Boersma and Mikkelsen,  
401 1990). Decreasing  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values support waning upwelling-derived productivity after 10 Ma at both Site 722 and in  
402 the Maldives and decreasing TOC fluxes at Site 722 (Gupta et al., 2015; Bialik et al., 2020a; Ling et al., 2021). It  
403 is, however, important to note that these changes are not reflected in the planktonic foraminifer community, which  
404 shows a continuously high presence of upwelling taxa (e.g., *G. bulloides*). One possibility would be that the  
405 upwelling cell became more seasonal, with nannoplankton-dominated photoautotrophic communities proliferating  
406 seasons with lower upwelling. However, primarily heterotrophic, non-symbiont-bearing taxa such as *G. bulloides*  
407 were still sustained by high primary productivity during monsoon season, as is the case in the present-day  
408 upwelling cell along the Oman Margin (Schiebel et al., 2004; Rixen et al., 2019b).

409 We assume that this waning in upwelling is related to a decrease in the hemispheric temperature gradients leading  
410 to a weaker summer monsoon wind system in the Indian Ocean. This reduction in temperature gradients is  
411 consistent with a decreasing trend in minimum deep-water temperatures, based on global benthic foraminifer



412 compilations and deep-water records from the ninety-east-ridge (Site U1443; Fig. 1) (Lübbers et al., 2019;  
413 Westerhold et al., 2020). Furthermore, pollen data (Pound et al., 2012) suggests that progressive cooling of the  
414 northern hemisphere (NH) over the Middle to Late Miocene intensified. Northern hemisphere cooling  
415 consequently reduced the asymmetry of hemispheric temperature gradients. Thereby reducing summer monsoon  
416 wind intensity by muted northward migration of the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ) in NH summer (Gadgil,  
417 2018; Yao et al., 2023).

418 **Interval 4 (8.8 Ma – top of study interval):** Interval 4 – consisting of only three samples – is defined by the  
419 bloom of small reticulofenestrads (*R. minuta*) in the nannofossil assemblage. We also note an elevated abundance  
420 of *Umbilicosphaera jafari* and a marked decline in *Sphenolithus* spp. relative to interval 3b. This interval consists  
421 entirely of assemblages belonging to TG 1b. The average number of taxa is  $17.3 \pm 0.5$  ( $N = 3$ ), with an average  
422 Shannon H' index of  $0.5 \pm 0.0$ . Despite the high number of nannofossil taxa in this interval, the low diversity  
423 directly results from the dominance of small reticulofenestrads. Siliceous fragments (primarily diatoms) persist but  
424 are much rarer than in interval 3. This reduction in siliceous fragments is part of an ongoing decrease in biogenic  
425 silica accumulation at Site 722, which culminates in a shift from phytoplankton to zooplankton-dominated silica  
426 accumulation by ~8 Ma (Nigrini, 1991; Prell et al., 1992). Planktonic foraminifera assemblage remains consistent  
427 with the upper part of interval 3, showing relatively high abundances of upwelling and mixed-layer taxa. We  
428 interpret this interval as a new nutrient regime related to a significant turnover in coccolithophore species around  
429 the same time (Young, 1990; Imai et al., 2015). However, the low sample number in this interval limits further  
430 interpretation.

### 431 5.3. Plankton community responses to changing nutrient regimes

432 Based on the intervals defined by the nannofossil taphogroups, a progression of plankton communities becomes  
433 apparent within the Middle to Late Miocene at Site 722. Their variation highlights the strong interactions between  
434 monsoon wind strength, nutrient availability, and primary productivity. Therefore, we link our new assemblage  
435 data with an extensive data compilation highlighting a progressive temperature decline and increased productivity  
436 along the Oman Margin during this time (Fig. 3; Zhuang et al., 2017; Bialik et al., 2020a).

437 Declining high Mn/Al ratios and diverse nannofossil assemblages point towards a relatively low nutrient regime  
438 between 15.0 and 13.5 Ma. Patterns of Mn decline have been observed since at least 15 Ma in the Maldives, which  
439 is in line with observations at Site 722 (Betzler et al., 2016; Bialik et al., 2020a, b). This period thus represents a  
440 progressive increase in upwelling intensity during the MMCT as a result of globally declining SSTs and sea levels  
441 following the end of the MCO (Zhuang et al., 2017; Miller et al., 2020). Both nannoplankton and planktonic  
442 foraminifera reflect primarily open marine, low-nutrient conditions. Thermocline-dwelling taxa dominate  
443 planktonic foraminifer assemblages, indicative of a shallow and poorly ventilated thermocline (Sexton and Norris,  
444 2011; Lessa et al., 2020). Nannoplankton communities further highlight a progressive change in environmental  
445 conditions within this timeframe, as indicated by a high cluster variability after 14 Ma (Fig. 5).

446 By 13.5 Ma, these progressive changes culminate in a first sustained community shift in both nannofossil and  
447 planktonic foraminifer records. The changes are reflected by a shift towards more nutrient-adapted taxa, such as  
448 increasing *C. pelagicus* and decreasing sphenolith abundances. Furthermore, increased total and relative  
449 abundances of medium and large reticulofenestrads are also observed (Figs. 2 & 5).

450 These abundance changes in high nutrient-adapted primary producers coincide with increases in mixed-layer  
451 dwelling planktonic foraminifer taxa. We consider these shifts to be a coupled response of primary producers to



452 increased surface water nutrient levels that are subsequently allowed by a population increase of heterotrophs such  
453 as foraminifera. Nannofossil communities also show a clear shift towards more nutrient-adapted taxa, such as  
454 increasing *C. pelagicus* and decreasing sphenolith abundances. We interpret this change as the establishment of a  
455 more pronounced upwelling regime, which also resulted in the expansion of the OMZ further into the Indian  
456 Ocean, reaching the Maldives by ~13 Ma. Furthermore, available TOC data still show low accumulation rates at  
457 Site 722 at this time, indicating that organic matter was still recycled mainly within the expanding OMZ (Bialik et  
458 al., 2020a).

459 This regime continued until ~12 Ma when a further community shift in the nannofossil taphogroups is detected  
460 within interval 2b. Medium-sized reticulofenestrads become dominant within the reticulofenestrads and  
461 significantly increase their total abundance. At the same time, thermocline dwelling foraminifer increase  
462 abundance and mixed-layer taxa decrease. Additionally, the overall nannofossil assemblage sees a decrease in  
463 diversity, coupled with the first but still rare and intermittent occurrences of diatoms within the record (Fig. 5).  
464 Within this interval, TOC accumulation is also increasing for the first time above 0.5 wt.% and generally shows  
465 an increasing trend through interval 2b. These changes, however, happen without any significant changes in overall  
466 temperature within the upwelling zone (Zhuang et al., 2017). Globally, a northward shift of the southern  
467 hemisphere westerlies is recorded by 12 Ma. We hypothesize that this shift and a potential increase in wind strength  
468 may have also increased the formation of nutrients in intermediate water masses within the sub-Antarctic frontal  
469 system simultaneously. This interpretation would be in line with the effect increasing sea ice cover would have  
470 had on intermediate water transportation based on modeling data and evidence from southern hemisphere records  
471 (Groeneveld et al., 2017; Laufkötter and Gruber, 2018). Such enhanced nutrient transport within the thermocline  
472 would reconcile increased productivity without increasing the total volume of upwelling – and consequently  
473 reducing SSTs – along the Oman Margin. The first occurrence of diatoms within this interval may also point  
474 towards a shift in nutrient availability and increased phosphorus and silicon availability within the upwelling cell  
475 and likely globally (Keller and Barron, 1983). Decreasing P- and Si-limitation would thus provide more favorable  
476 conditions for highly efficient photosynthesizers, such as diatoms within the water column (Schiebel et al., 2004;  
477 Brembu et al., 2017). Within the plankton community, we also note the first intermittent occurrences of elevated  
478 *G. bulloides* abundances, indicative of high productivity upwelling conditions (Kroon et al., 1991; Gupta et al.,  
479 2015).

480 By 11 Ma, global climatic shifts and further decreasing sea levels (Miller et al., 2020; Westerhold et al., 2020) led  
481 to an apparent intensification of upwelling, as evidenced by decreasing SSTs and further community shifts within  
482 the plankton communities. As a result, diatoms dominated mineralizing primary producers by 11 Ma, outpacing  
483 nannoplankton for the first time. Nannoplankton communities responded to decreasing SSTs and increased nutrient  
484 levels with declining diversity and a high abundance of large reticulofenestrads, which dominate the assemblage.  
485 We also note that discoasterids are particularly common within the assemblage throughout interval 3. Within the  
486 planktonic foraminifer community, mixed-layer taxa increase. Additionally, by 11 Ma, we note a first sustained  
487 occurrence (> 25 %) of *G. bulloides*. Together we interpret these changes to indicate sustained primary productivity  
488 within the upper water column.

489 However, these conditions are not easily reconciled with the abundance of discoasterids and sphenoliths within  
490 our nannofossil record. Both taxa are considered to be indicative of low nutrient conditions and increased  
491 stratification (Gibbs et al., 2004a; Schueth and Bralower, 2015; Karatsolis and Henderiks, 2022). This  
492 interpretation seems to be opposite to our recorded high abundances of mixed layer dwelling foraminifera and high



493 nutrient-adapted diatoms dominating primary productivity. A possible way of integrating these opposite  
494 requirements is to evoke a highly seasonal upwelling cell with strong upwelling in one season and calm and  
495 stratified surface waters providing a deep thermo- and nutricline in the other.

496 This seasonal variability is most evident during interval 3b when *Sphenolithus* abundances also increase together  
497 with overall nannofossil diversity (Fig. 5) after 9.6 Ma. These changes in the nannofossil community are also  
498 associated with decreasing diatom abundances and TOC fluxes, while upwelling indicative planktonic foraminifer  
499 taxa remain common. It thus seems that an initial spike in upwelling and, therefore, diatom accumulation waned  
500 again, pointing towards a significant reorganization of the upwelling cell after 9.6 Ma.

501 Within the topmost three samples of the record, belonging to interval 4, we note an increase in small  
502 reticulofenestrads corresponding to the base absence of *Reticulofenestra pseudoumbilicus* around 8.8 Ma,  
503 according to accepted nannofossil biostratigraphy (Young, 1990; Backman et al., 2012; Imai et al., 2015). We note  
504 that this significant size change and an increase in small placoliths are very pronounced within our WAS records  
505 from Site 722, in agreement with Young (1990). While we cannot contribute to the discussion if this assemblage  
506 shift constitutes an evolutionary-driven adaptation of taxa within the genus *Reticulofenestra* or purely an  
507 ecophenotypically driven size adaptation (Young, 1990; Imai et al., 2015). We still note that a clear link to changing  
508 nutrient levels within the upwelling cell is becoming apparent. Imai et al. (2015) further hypothesized that the size  
509 shift is related to nutrient increases within the Indo-Pacific. Based on our records of high nutrient conditions and  
510 likely at least intermittent seasonal eutrophication persisting from at least 11 Ma, we cannot completely follow  
511 their hypotheses that increasing nutrient levels within the surface ocean were the sole driver for this size shift.  
512 Therefore, we propose that changing nutrient limitation within the mixed layer may have played an important, as-  
513 of-yet unconsidered role in defining the predominant assemblage structure within the WAS upwelling system  
514 during the Middle and Late Miocene (Fig. 6).

### 515 5.1. Wind and nutrient fluxes as primary drivers of plankton communities

516 The modern productivity patterns and oxygen depletion in the northwestern Indian Ocean differ significantly from  
517 those observed in the studied period. For example, the increase in Mn content in the Maldives in the Pliocene  
518 (Betzler et al., 2016) suggests a significant reduction in Mn redirection, which continued until today. This is indeed  
519 visible in present-day oceanographic records, where elevated Mn concentrations are only found near the margins  
520 of the Arabian Sea (ThiDieuVu and Sohrin, 2013). Meanwhile, denitrification in the Eastern Arabian Sea appears  
521 to have only become significant during the Pliocene (Tripathi et al., 2017). These changes in productivity patterns  
522 thus may indicate that the WAS was potentially more productive during the Late Miocene than today, paired with  
523 an expanded OMZ.

524 Despite that, we note that even in the most productive parts of the Arabian Sea, conditions are rarely eutrophic  
525 (Fig. 1). As such, ascribing permanent eutrophic or even mesotrophic conditions to any of these assemblages is  
526 unlikely to be reasonable. On the other hand, nannofossil assemblages such as TG 3 with combined diatom  
527 occurrences possibly indicate the prevalence of mesotrophic and eutrophic conditions. Diatoms are generally less  
528 adapted to low nutrient levels, requiring much higher P and N levels than coccolithophores to form blooms  
529 (Hutchins and Bruland, 1998; Litchman et al., 2006). If enough nutrients (including Si) are available, they tend to  
530 outcompete coccolithophores quickly and begin to dominate the mineralizing phytoplankton community (Schiebel  
531 et al., 2004). Based on modern analogs, it seems likely that shifts in the nutrient saturation of upwelling waters  
532 may have controlled the observed patterns in the plankton community along the WAS during the Middle to Late



533 Miocene. In particular, we focus on understanding observed patterns of the two dominant phytoplankton groups  
534 present within our record, with the context of their ecological preferences and primary nutrient requirements.  
535 The co-occurrence of diatoms, discoasterids, and sphenoliths in the upper part of the studied interval (Fig. 5) thus  
536 suggests that while nutrient levels were high, upwelling was likely highly seasonal. For the WAS, high seasonality  
537 may be the result of strengthening summer monsoon winds with no changes in winter monsoon winds (Schiebel  
538 et al., 2004; Rixen et al., 2019b; Sarr et al., 2022). Increasing summer but stable or absent winter monsoon  
539 conditions are likely the result of increased cooling in the southern hemisphere (Bialik et al., 2020a; Gadgil, 2018;  
540 Sarr et al., 2022). This asymmetric cooling strengthened the summer monsoon compared to the winter monsoon  
541 system, which only intensified ~7 Ma (Gupta and Thomas, 2003; Holbourn et al., 2018; Rixen et al., 2019b).  
542 The variability in wind and upwelling intensity and their interaction with nutrient availability, thus, likely also  
543 affected the community structure and size variability of primary producers on longer geological time scales. The  
544 community structure of primary producers then exerted control on first-level consumers, such as planktonic  
545 foraminifera.  
546 Upwelling-derived TOC accumulation, primary productivity assemblages, and upwelling indicative foraminifera  
547 show distinctive patterns, which are, however, not in complete agreement with wind proxies and the suggested  
548 expansion of the OMZ around 13 Ma (Betzler et al., 2016). These discrepancies resulted in a long-standing debate  
549 about the validity and usefulness of upwelling proxies as monsoonal indicators (Betzler et al., 2016; Clift and  
550 Webb, 2018; Bialik et al., 2020a; Yang et al., 2020; Sarr et al., 2022). We propose that this disagreement is  
551 primarily due to inadequate treatment of nutrient limitation and nutrient supply in conjunction with wind speed  
552 when evaluating primary productivity in the WAS (Fig. 6).  
553 Modern-day upwelling zones in the low-to-mid-latitudes are generally well supplied in macro-nutrients, resulting  
554 in iron-limited environments or other micro- and nano-nutrient limitations (Moore et al., 2013). However,  
555 currently, the fringing areas of upwelling zones are commonly N-limited through increased denitrification in  
556 underlying OMZs (Moore et al., 2013; Bristow et al., 2017; Anju et al., 2020; Buchanan et al., 2021; Ustick et al.,  
557 2021; Buttay et al., 2022). Within the WAS upwelling zone, major nutrients such as N, P, and to some degree,  
558 minor nutrients such as Si are replenished through local recycling and intermixing through deep and intermediate  
559 water masses originating from Antarctica (Fig. 6; Sarmiento et al., 2004; Meisel et al., 2011; Sarmiento and Gruber,  
560 2013; Laufkötter and Gruber, 2018). Iron, a key micronutrient, is primarily supplied through dust and riverine  
561 influxes from surrounding continental sources (Kunkelova et al., 2022).  
562 Accepting that the wind regime had reached peak intensity by 13 Ma following a gradual increase from the end of  
563 the MCO (Betzler et al., 2016, 2018), the significant increase in diatom abundance and TOC accumulation after  
564 12 Ma is not contemporary. Therefore, the availability of nutrients and the nutrient composition also played a key  
565 role in defining the variability between coccolithophore and diatom abundances within the WAS upwelling cell.  
566 Moreover, the shift in the reticulofenestrid morphotypes (Fig. 5) may also be linked to the state of nutrient  
567 limitation. Paasche (1998) also has shown that modern-day coccolithophores tend to increase the formation of  
568 small placoliths during N-limitation.  
569 Therefore, the shift towards higher primary productivity after 12 Ma, including first record of diatoms at Site 722,  
570 may reflect a turnover in nutrient composition along the WAS. Notably, during this time, the northward expansion  
571 of the southern hemisphere westerlies shifted the position of the polar and sub-Antarctic frontal system. In  
572 particular, the Late Miocene sea ice expansion after 11 Ma strongly affected the Antarctic frontal system and, in  
573 turn, the nutrient enrichment of intermediate waters formed in this region (Groeneveld et al., 2017; Bijl et al.,



574 2018; Laufkötter and Gruber, 2018). Here we propose that changes in the mode of intermediate water formation  
575 significantly increased the quantity of nutrient enrichment of intermediate waters in the Antarctic frontal system,  
576 resulting in modern-like downwelling dynamics around Antarctica. Furthermore, many modeling studies support  
577 the assumption that climatic changes affecting the Antarctic frontal system can strongly influence global  
578 productivity patterns (Sarmiento et al., 2004; Laufkötter and Gruber, 2018; Moore et al., 2018; Taucher et al.,  
579 2022). We, therefore, propose that the Middle to Late Miocene productivity changes in the WAS offer compelling  
580 evidence for this hypothesis.

## 581 **5.2. Miocene nutrient transport and monsoonal upwelling**

582 Thus far, the discussion was focused on local aspects of the record in Site 722 in the WAS and northwestern Indian  
583 Ocean. However, the interconnected nature of the oceanic circulation and nutrient rejuvenation system means that  
584 critical mechanisms may be overlooked without a global perspective. For example, modeling evidence for nutrient  
585 transport and nutrient enrichment in low-latitude upwelling cells allows for the construction of a timeline of  
586 changes along the WAS and their interaction with plankton communities. Moreover, a complete oceanic  
587 perspective allows for contextualization into the broader evolution of the ocean-atmosphere system.

588 Initial plankton community structures agree with a generally low nutrient regime influenced by progressively  
589 increasing wind regimes, based on a large amount of deep thermocline dwelling taxa in the foraminifer community,  
590 likely following the dominant phytoplankton primary productivity in the deeper photic zone (Lessa et al., 2020).  
591 In addition, the mixed layer is dominated by a diverse nannofossil assemblage ( $H'$ -diversity of around 1.5 within  
592 intervals 1 and 2). During the MMCT, wind shear strengthened by 13 Ma, resulting in a significant global shift in  
593 ocean-atmospheric circulation exemplified in the global reorganization of carbonate-platform geometries and  
594 thermocline deepening and ventilation at Site 722, as shown by the increase in mixed-layer dwelling planktonic  
595 foraminifera (Betzler et al., 2016, 2018; Betzler and Eberli, 2019; Lessa et al., 2020).

596 Modeling studies for the WAS link the initial intensification of upwelling and wind shear to a combination of  
597 increased latitudinal temperature gradients and the emergence of the Arabian Peninsula during the Middle Miocene  
598 (Zhang et al., 2014; Sarr et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2020). Notably, while OMZ expansion and Mn redirection are  
599 evident since at least ~14 Ma at Site 722 (Bialik et al., 2020a) available productivity records support at most  
600 intermittently mesotrophic and likely P- and N-limited conditions before ~12 Ma (Fig. 5). We thus propose that  
601 the upwelling cell in the WAS was wholly influenced by strong post-MMCT winds by 13 Ma. Productivity,  
602 however, was still limited by the upwelling of comparably lower nutrient intermediate waters. Likely originating  
603 in the marginal seas of the northwestern Indian Ocean, these water masses may have been remnants of the Tethyan  
604 Intermediate Waters (TIW). While the Tethyan Seaway had terminated between 14 and 15 Ma (Bialik et al., 2019),  
605 TIW or a similar high salinity mass (Woodruff and Savin, 1989; Smart et al., 2007) was still affecting the Northern  
606 Indian Ocean until at least 12 Ma. This remnant TIW can be considered a more potent form of the modern Red  
607 Sea and Persian Gulf Intermediate Waters (RSPGW; Fig 6). These warm and salty intermediate waters may have  
608 played a much more substantial role in the WAS during the early stages of the uplift of the Arabian Peninsula  
609 (Woodruff and Savin, 1989; Tomczak and Godfrey, 2003; Chowdary et al., 2005; Smart et al., 2007; Acharya and  
610 Panigrahi, 2016). The influence of remnant TIW would also align with the high abundance of thermocline-dwelling  
611 taxa until 12 Ma, which we infer to be representative of a shallow and/or a poorly ventilated thermocline (Sexton  
612 and Norris, 2011; Lessa et al., 2020).





613 It thus seems likely that late Middle Miocene WAS upwelling may have been relatively nutrient deficient. We  
614 speculate that these water masses may have suppressed primary productivity, muting the influence of the  
615 increasing Findlater Jets and the emerging Arabian Peninsula (e.g., Sarr et al., 2022). Invoking significant TIW  
616 upwelling until at least 12 Ma would further reconcile the discrepancy between the occurrence of drift deposits in  
617 the Maldives, and thus strong monsoon winds and the first clear evidence for strong upwelling in the WAS, with  
618 the abundance increase of upwelling indicative planktonic foraminifera (e.g., *G. bulloides*; Fig 5) and the first  
619 occurrence of diatoms at Site 722 (Fig 5; Kroon et al., 1991; Huang et al., 2007b; Gupta et al., 2015; Bialik et al.,  
620 2020a). This change in nutrient availability is also reflected by a contemporary increase in medium-sized  
621 reticulofenestrads (*R. antarctica* and *R. haqii*), which are generally assumed to reflect higher nutrient availability  
622 due to upwelling (Fig. 5; Auer et al., 2019 and references therein).

623 Productivity in the WAS thereby only began to increase as remnant TIW got progressively supplanted by other,  
624 more nutrient-rich, water masses. At present, the waters upwelling in the Arabian Sea are nutrient-rich sub-  
625 Antarctic mode waters (SAMW) and Antarctic Intermediate Waters (AAIW; Munz et al., 2017; Chinni and Singh,  
626 2022). Today AAIW and SAMW forming in the northern branch of the Antarctic Divergence, control up to 75%  
627 of low-latitude productivity (Sarmiento et al., 2004).

628 We hypothesize that the increasing formation of AAIW and SAMW following the northward shift of the westerlies  
629 around 12 Ma may have modulated low latitude productivity (Groeneveld et al., 2017; Laufkötter and Gruber,  
630 2018; Moore et al., 2018; Taucher et al., 2022). This time also aligns well with the proposed inception of the  
631 northward shift of southern hemisphere climate belts and the invigoration of the south equatorial current  
632 (LeHouedec et al., 2012; Reuter et al., 2019). Following that, it can also be assumed that by 12 Ma, the northward  
633 expansion of the southern hemisphere Westerlies resulted in a near-modern Antarctic Divergence (Groeneveld et  
634 al., 2017; Laufkötter and Gruber, 2018; Taucher et al., 2022).

635 This global change in circulation patterns was fully established by 11 Ma, with cool nutrient-rich SAMW/AAIW  
636 waters reaching Site 722, evidenced by a further SST drop (Zhuang et al., 2017). This resulted in the highest  
637 productivity in the WAS upwelling cell during the Miocene (Figs. 5, 6). The Late Miocene high-productivity  
638 interval in the WAS, is thus the result of intense summer monsoon-dominated AAIW/SAMW upwelling, fueled  
639 by the Findlater Jets and forced by steep latitudinal temperature gradients and favorable tectonic conditions on the  
640 Arabian Peninsula (Pound et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014; Sarr et al., 2022). Summer months were thus  
641 characterized by eutrophic P-, N-, and potentially Si-enriched waters, allowing the proliferation of diatoms and  
642 other siliceous organisms. In contrast, the winter months favored the accumulation of deep-dwelling discoasterids  
643 that utilized the nutrient-rich waters below a relatively deeper winter thermocline. Higher abundances of mixed-  
644 layer dwelling taxa also reflect the increased mixed-layer depth (Fig. 6). Expanding AAIW/SAMW-fueled high  
645 productivity that consequently also resulted in the highest recorded TOC fluxes between 11 – 10 Ma and a  
646 substantial OMZ expansion deep into the equatorial Indian Ocean (Dickens and Owen, 1994; Bialik et al., 2020a).  
647 Increasing OMZs also resulted in a global increase in denitrification, which is well-recorded in foraminifer-bound  
648  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  records, showing a trend from more oxygenated intermediate waters during the MCO to lower oxygenated  
649 waters in the Late Miocene in the Indo-Pacific (Auderset et al., 2022).

650 By 10 Ma, OMZs had reached a critical threshold, leading to another substantial change in nutrient conditions  
651 within the WAS upwelling. Through increased denitrification in the OMZ underlying the upwelling cell, nitrate  
652 and ammonia were lost through bacterial conversion to  $\text{N}_2$  (Sigman and Fripiat, 2019). Strong denitrification  
653 subsequently led to increasingly N-limited water masses upwelling within the WAS. Although concrete evidence



654 is only presented for the WAS, these patterns could also have occurred globally, considering the clear evidence  
655 for decreasing ocean oxygenation during the Late Miocene (Auderset et al., 2022). The Late Miocene N-limitation  
656 in the WAS upwelling cell is chiefly expressed by a decline in diatom abundances after 10 Ma, in conjunction with  
657 overall community shifts in the nannofossil assemblage.

658 Total upwelling intensity also remained consistently high, as indicated by the available SST record of Zhuang et  
659 al. (2017). Primary productivity thus remained relatively high, which is characterized by the continued presence  
660 and even dominance of large reticulofenestrads, diatoms, and the continuously high TOC concentration within the  
661 sediment (often > 1 wt.%; Fig. 3). We thus assume that the drop in diatom abundance and intermittent decline in  
662  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values at Site 722 (Figs. 3, 5.) were not caused by decreasing upwelling intensity but rather a shift in nutrient  
663 limitation and, thus declining export of diatom-derived organic matter. The increase in sphenoliths within our Site  
664 722 record (Fig. 5) could indicate increased environmental stress within the nannofossil assemblage (Wade and  
665 Bown, 2006). Sphenoliths are here likely not representative of higher stratification (e.g., Karatsolis and Henderiks,  
666 2022), as high TOC and sustained, but lower, diatom fluxes indicate continued upwelling after 10 Ma. Sustained  
667 seasonal upwelling and high organic matter export are further inferred by decreasing organic carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
668 throughout this interval (Fig. 3; Bialik et al., 2020a and references therein).

669 By 8.8 Ma, N-limitation and environmental stressors resulted in the adaption of smaller reticulofenestrads to the  
670 continued N-limited nutrient availability within the WAS. We base this interpretation on the nutrient adaption of  
671 coccolithophorids based on modern culture experiments (Paasche, 1998). Although somewhat anecdotal, these  
672 offer the currently best explanation to reconcile the herein recorded history of the upwelling cell with the stark  
673 shifts in reticulofenestrads size ranges, at least in this site. It should be noted that these shifts have been recorded  
674 throughout the mid- and low latitudes of the Indopacific (Young, 1990; Imai et al., 2015). However, the full impact  
675 of this hypothesis needs to be tested further.

676 The data compilation of Young (1990) further shows that the recorded Late Miocene size shift was primarily  
677 limited to the low and mid-latitudes, with larger reticulofenestrads persisting within in the higher latitudes. We  
678 propose that the transition in *Reticulofenestra* morphology from large to small morphotypes thus primarily  
679 represents a significant shift in nutrient limitation rather than total nutrient availability within the mid to low  
680 latitudes. We further argue that this turnover reflects N-limitation within the low- and mid-latitudes due to  
681 sustained and intense denitrification after 12 Ma (Auderset et al., 2022). Further studies, particularly on  
682 ultrastructural morphotaxonomy of reticulofenestrads, will be needed to fully disentangle the implications of the  
683 proposed N-limited nanno-floral turnover.

684 The highly opportunistic small *Reticulofenestra* morphotype was subsequently also able to sustain phytoplankton  
685 blooms in the WAS, as evidenced by the significant increase in nannofossils within the sediment (Fig. 5).  
686 Furthermore, the high mass of small coccolith cells potentially also contributed to the re-establishment of strong  
687 denitrification as evidenced by a rise in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ -values after 8.8 Ma (Fig. 3), as their additional biomass contributed  
688 to OMZ re-expansion. Detailed records of Late Miocene OMZ strength throughout the Indian Ocean, will,  
689 however, be necessary to fully quantify the impact on local upwelling. Local tectonics also began to modify the  
690 region configuration at this time (Rodriguez et al., 2014), leading to bottom current intensification (Rodriguez et  
691 al., 2016) which may have also modulated subsequent OMZ dynamics (Dickens and Owen, 1999).



692 **6. Conclusions**

693 We present fully quantitative nannofossil and planktonic foraminifer assemblage data in conjunction with diatom  
694 frustule abundances for Site 722. Within a multi-proxy framework, these novel data allowed us to disentangle the  
695 complex and long-debated changes within the upwelling system of the WAS in the Middle to Late Miocene. We  
696 show that the Findlater Jets, and thus Indian summer monsoon wind strength, are the primary drivers of upwelling.  
697 However, wind-driven upwelling is also clearly modulated by local and global water mass changes and changing  
698 nutrient fluxes. In particular, changing nutrient transport through intermediate waters has had a significant – until  
699 now unconsidered – impact on primary productivity patterns and plankton communities over the Middle and Late  
700 Miocene in the Indian Ocean.

701 We, therefore, reach the following key conclusion:

702 (1) the expansion and evolution of upwelling within the WAS as a complex interplay of regional tectonics, global  
703 climate, and ice volume changes affected upwelling intensity and nutrient availability. The present study  
704 emphasizes that wind and nutrient changes are intrinsically related but do not necessarily operate in tandem on  
705 longer supra-Milankovitch time scales. It is therefore crucial to consider both water masses changes as well as  
706 atmospheric conditions when investigating past wind-driven upwelling regimes.

707 (2) The interaction first invigorated monsoonal circulation after the MMCT before resulting in the reorganization  
708 of intermediate water circulation, controlled by the inception of a near-modern configuration of the Antarctic  
709 Divergence.

710 (3) These processes led to the progressive establishment of near-modern nutrient transport within the Indian Ocean  
711 by 12 to 11 Ma (Lauferkötter and Gruber, 2018; Sarmiento et al., 2004; Taucher et al., 2022) Furthermore, these  
712 changes acted together with denitrification in expanding global OMZs (Auderset et al., 2022) to increase N-  
713 limitation and subsequent adaption of coccolithophorids to the new nutrient conditions in the mid to low latitudes.

714 (4) We provide a timeline of events that agrees with global climatic and local productivity patterns, which are all  
715 linked through the invigoration of upwelling cells and nutrient fluxes through intermediate water masses into the  
716 lower latitudes. In particular past changes in intermediate water mass circulation, replenishment, and expansion  
717 appear to be a key – and critically understudied – aspect within paleoceanography and paleoclimatology that is  
718 crucial to understanding past and, thereby, future low latitude productivity.

719 **7. Data and code availability**

720 Data and code are available from the supplementary material and on Pangaea (DOI: will be provided once  
721 available)

722 **8. Author contribution**

723 **GA:** designed the study, conducted nannofossil counts and statistics, wrote the first draft, edited the text, and  
724 drafted the figures. **OMB:** designed the study, performed statistical analyses, wrote the first draft, edited the text,  
725 and helped draft the figures. **MEA:** performed planktonic foraminifer taxonomic analysis and assemblage  
726 interpretation and contributed to the first draft of the text. **NVV:** helped draft the figures and contributed to data  
727 interpretation, edited the final draft of the MS. **WEP:** conducted foraminiferal analysis, and contributed to writing  
728 and editing of the text.



729 **9. Competing interests**

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

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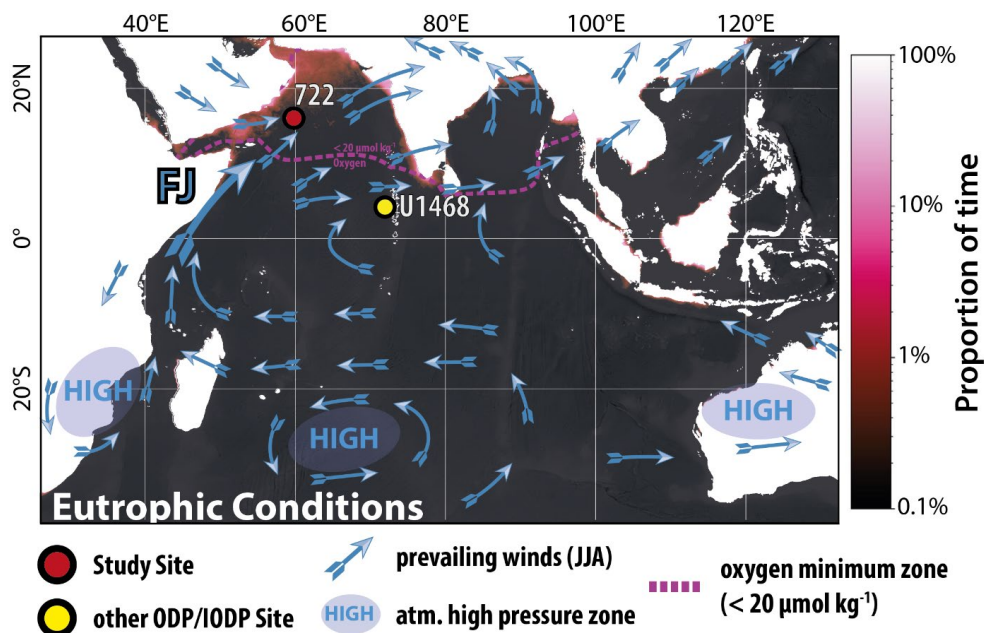


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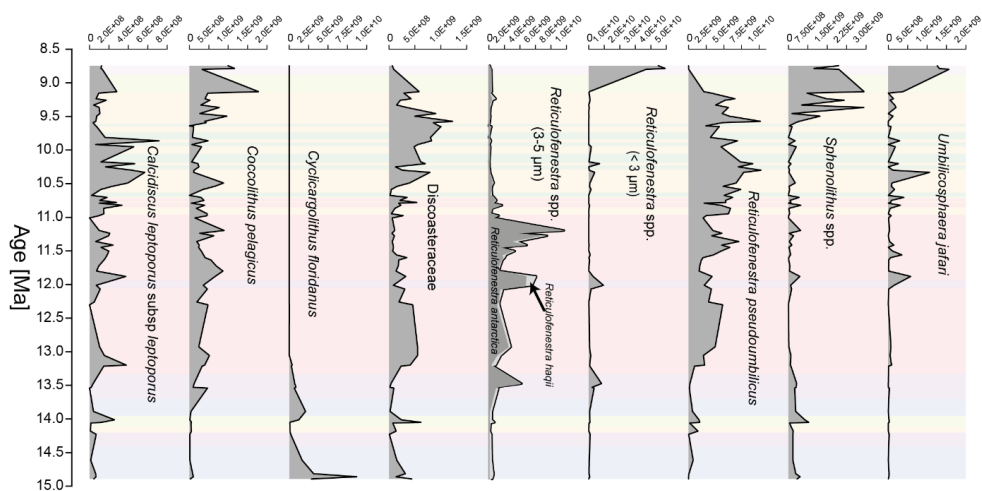




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1211 Figure 1: Location map showing the study site ODP Site 722 and IODP Site U1468 and the prevalent summertime wind  
 1212 patterns following Bialik et al. (2020a). The present-day extent of the oxygen minimum zone is shown as a pink dashed  
 1213 line denoting oxygen concentrations  $< 20 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  at a water depth of 200 m (McCreary et al., 2013; Garcia et al.,  
 1214 2018). Eutrophication (magenta shading) data was provided by the E.U. Copernicus Marine Service Information using  
 1215 the Global Ocean Colour (Copernicus-GlobColour), Bio-Geo-Chemical, L4 (monthly and interpolated) from Satellite  
 1216 Observations (1997-ongoing); <https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00281>. Shading represents gap-filled daily Chlorophyll-a  
 1217 product of Copernicus GLobColour L4 (Gohin, 2011; Hu et al., 2012; Garnesson et al., 2019) and indicates the  
 1218 proportion of time spent in eutrophication in the region, based on the proportion of days (1998-2022) where  
 1219 Chlorophyll-a concentration exceeded a threshold of  $7.3 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$  (derived from Carlson, 1977). The python code used  
 1220 to generate the base map is available in the supplementary material.

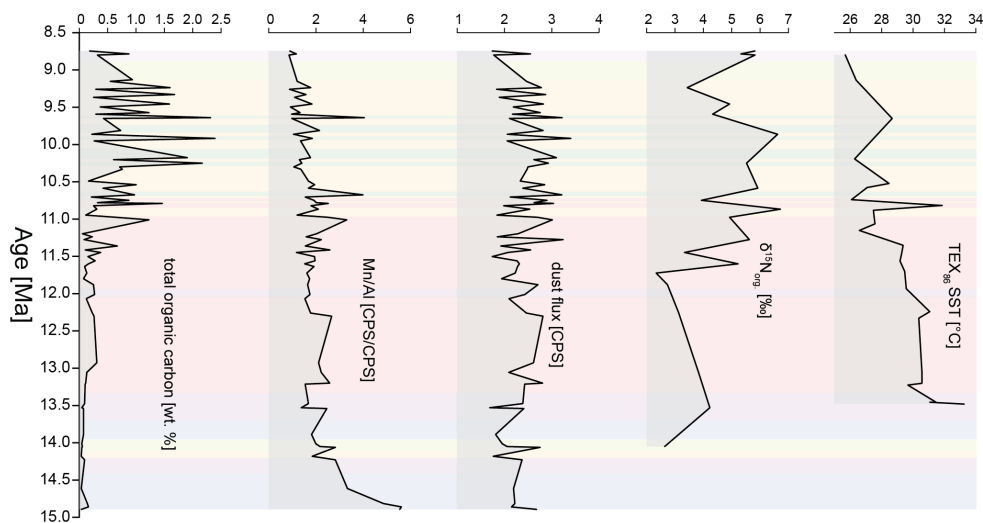
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1223 **Figure 2: Abundance data of key nanofossil taxa presented as numbers per gram of carbonate over the study interval**  
1224 **following the methods of Bordiga et al. (2015). The used age model is based on Bialik et al. (2020a). Medium-sized**  
1225 **reticulofenestrids are separated into morphotypes with an open central area (*Reticulofenestra haqii*) and a closed**  
1226 **central area (*R. antarctica*). Discoasteraceae include the genera *Discoaster* and *Catinaster*. Color coding represents the**  
1227 **cluster assignment based on the nanofossil assemblage shown in fig. 4a.**

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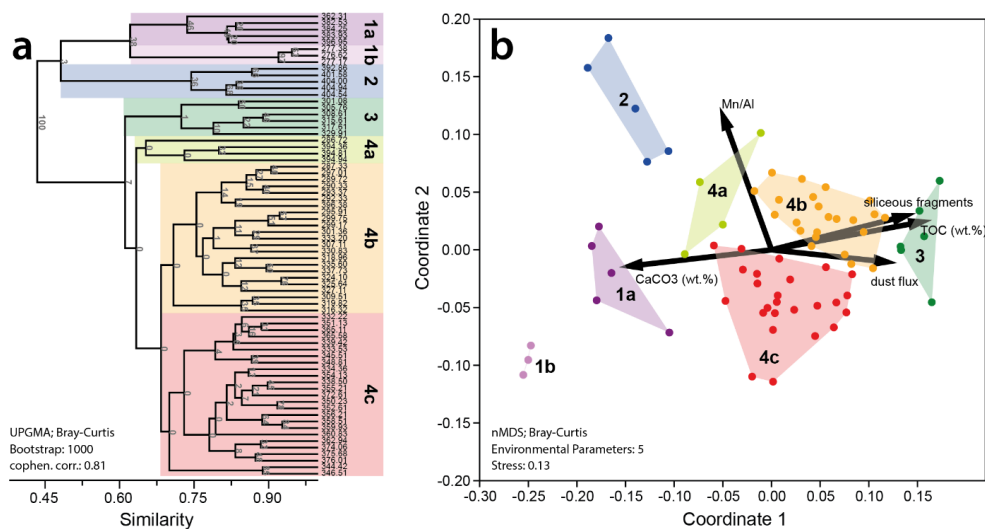
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Figure 3: Geochemical data initially published by Bialik et al. (2020a) as well as TEX86 based SST data of Zhuang et al. (2017). Data is shown in conjunction with the cluster analysis results based on the nannofossil assemblages, as shown in figure 4a. Total organic carbon (TOC in wt.%) is based on bulk sediment measurements. The Mn/Al ratio and the shown dust flux proxy, are based on benchtop XRF counts. Dust flux is calculated as  $\ln((Zr+Ti+Fe)/(Al+K))$  based on Kunt et al. (2015), with higher values indicating higher deposition of dust-born minerals at Site 722B. Nitrogen isotopic data indicate increasing denitrification of sinking organic matter with higher values.



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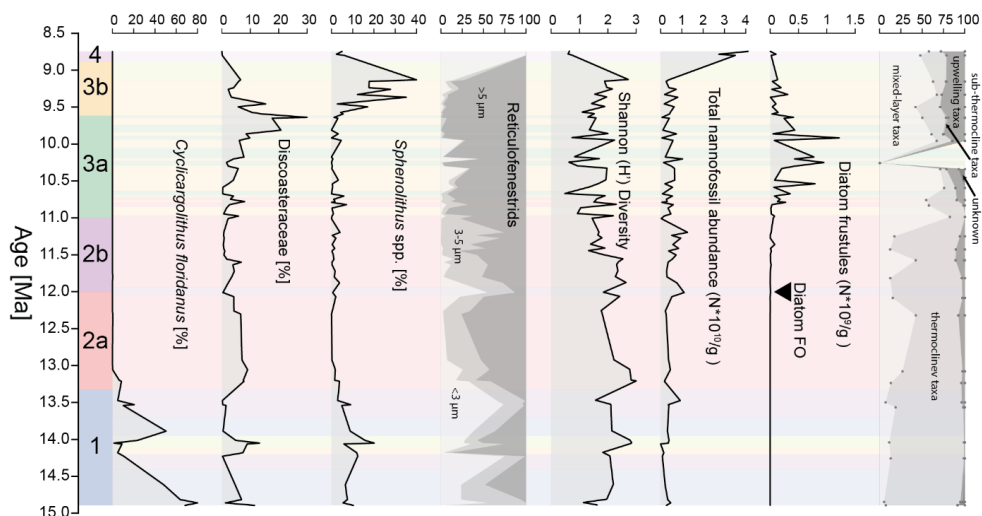
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**Figure 4:** Cluster analysis (a) and nMDS (b) based on the datasets shown in Figs. 2 and 3. The geochemical data serves as paleoenvironmental proxies for high productivity (total organic carbon and siliceous fragments), high wind intensity (dust flux), water column oxygenation (Mn/Al), and high carbonate accumulation (CaCO<sub>3</sub> content). Note the high correspondence of clusters 3 and, to some degree, 4b siliceous fragment accumulation, dust flux, and high TOC content. They indicate that these clusters likely correspond to nanofossil assemblages thriving during intense upwelling. Conversely, lower productivity and, thus, higher water column oxygenation are marked by a correspondence of clusters 2 and 4a with higher Mn/Al values, denoting a less intense oxygen minimum zone.



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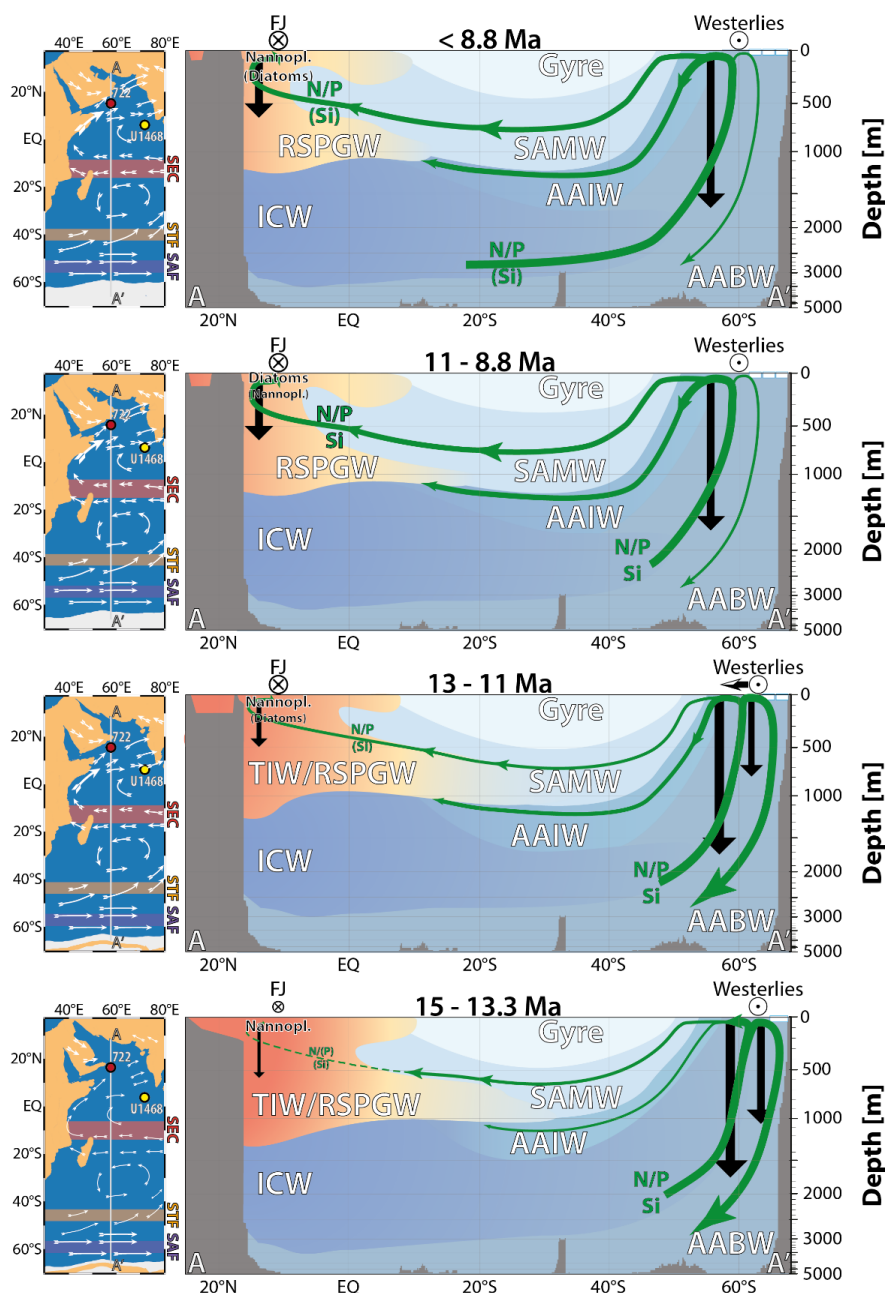
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**Figure 5: Summary of relevant nanofossil taxa (shown as % abundance with the whole assemblage) defining intervals 1 – 4 and their respective sub-intervals a/b, where applicable. Reticulofenestrads are combined into a single abundance graph showing the internal variability of the three defined size ranges of the genus Reticulofenestra. The Shannon (H') diversity is offered as an overall indicator of nanoplankton diversity throughout the study interval. The total abundance of nanofossils per gram of sediment ( $N \cdot 10^{10}/g$ ) illustrates the stark increase in nanofossil accumulation in interval 4, denoting the noted bloom in small reticulofenestrads after 8.8 Ma. Next, the nanofossil abundances are contrasted with diatom abundances (note the abundance scaling of  $N \cdot 10^9/g$ ). The nanofossil assemblage variability is then juxtaposed with classical upwelling indicators based on planktonic foraminifera, which shows an overall constant abundance of upwelling indicative taxa (e.g., *G. bulloides*) between Interval 3a and 4, despite the dynamic changes in the phytoplankton data.**

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1259 **Figure 6: Envisioned progression of upwelling along the Oman Margin based on paleogeography and changing**  
 1260 **intermediate water-based nutrient supply throughout the study interval (c. 15 – 8.8 Ma). The figure also shows the**  
 1261 **hypothesized change in water masses over the study interval. Orange shading represents local water masses forming in the**  
 1262 **northern Indian Ocean migrating southward. Water masses shown are the Tethyan Intermediate Water (TIW), the**  
 1263 **Red Sea and Persian Gulf Intermediate Waters (RSPGW), Indian Central Water (ICW), southern Indian Ocean gyre**  
 1264 **waters (Gyre), sub-Antarctic mode water (SAMW), and the Antarctic intermediate water (AAIW) and Antarctic**  
 1265 **bottom waters (AABW). In addition, note the corresponding change in nutrient (N, P, and Si) transport following the**  
 1266 **proposed northward migration of the southern hemisphere westerlies due to sea ice expansion after 12 Ma (Groenewald**  
 1267 **et al., 2017). Hypothesized changes in nutrient transport are based on model studies, which predict reduced low-latitude**  
 1268 **productivity during warmer climates (Laufkötter and Gruber, 2018; Moore et al., 2018).**



1269 **Table 1: Ecological interpretation of the defined nannofossil taphogroups based on the ecological parameters of the**  
 1270 **defining nannofossil taxa.**

<i>Tapho- group</i>	<i>Defining Taxa</i>	<i>Ecology</i>	<i>References</i>	<i>Environmental Parameters</i>
<i>TG1a</i>	<i>Reticulofenestra minuta</i> dominant	Dominated by r-selected opportunistic nannofossil taxa. Commonly interpreted as nutrient elevation in the photic zone.	(Haq, 1980; Wade and Bown, 2006; Auer et al., 2015)	Associated with high calcium carbonate accumulation
<i>TG1b</i>	Small and medium reticulofenestrads together with <i>Cyclicargolithus floridanus</i>	Warm to temperate waters, with increased nutrient conditions.	(Wei and Wise, 1990; Wade and Bown, 2006; Auer et al., 2015)	Associated with high calcium carbonate accumulation
<i>TG2</i>	<i>Cyclicargolithus floridanus</i> and common medium reticulofenestrads	Warm to temperate waters, with moderate nutrient conditions.	(Wei and Wise, 1990; Wade and Bown, 2006; Auer et al., 2015)	Associated with high Mn/Al ratios (= weak OMZ) and elevated carbonate content
<i>TG3</i>	Large reticulofenestrads dominant with common Discoastrids	Elevated nutrient conditions with deep nutricline and possible (seasonal) stratification	(Lohmann and Carlson, 1981; Backman et al., 2013; Imai et al., 2015, 2017)	Associated with biogenic silica, TOC, dust flux and lowered Mn/Al ratios (=stronger OMZ)
<i>TG4a</i>	Variable small, medium and large reticulofenestrads with common <i>Sphenolithus</i> spp. and discoasterids	Elevated nutrient conditions with high seasonal variability and intermittent stratification, possible indication of increased environmental stress.	(Castradori, 1998; Blanc-Valleron et al., 2002; Gibbs et al., 2004b; Wade and Bown, 2006; Villa et al., 2008; Beltran et al., 2014; Imai et al., 2015; Schueth and Bralower, 2015)	Weakly associated with carbonate accumulation and higher Mn/Al ratios (= weak OMZ)
<i>TG4b</i>	Large reticulofenestrads dominant	High nutrient conditions, likely open marine and potentially stratified.	(Auer et al., 2014, 2015; Beltran et al., 2014; Imai et al., 2017, 2015)	Weakly associated with biogenic silica flux, TOC and reduced Mn/Al ratios (= increasing OMZ)
<i>TG4c</i>	Medium and large reticulofenestrads dominant	High nutrient levels, likely upwelling derived.	(Haq and Lohmann, 1976; Lohmann and Carlson, 1981; Wade and Bown, 2006; Auer et al., 2014, 2019)	Not associated with Mn/Al ratios (= strong OMZ), no strong association with other parameters

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1273 **Table 2: Interpretation of habitat depth of the identified planktonic foraminifer taxa.**

<i>Taxa</i>	<i>Habitat</i>	<i>Reference</i>	<i>Comments</i>
<i>Dentoglobigerina altispira</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Berggren et al., 1985; Aze et al., 2011)	Symbiont bearing
<i>Fohsella fohsi</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Fohsella peripheroronda</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Berggren et al., 1985; Aze et al., 2011)	Extends to cool subtropical waters
<i>Globigerina bulloides</i>	upwelling	(Kroon et al., 1991)	
<i>Globigerina</i> sp.	open ocean mixed-layer	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Globigerinita glutinata</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Majewski, 2003; Pearson and Wade, 2009)	
<i>Globigerinoides obliquus</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Nikolaev et al., 1998)	
<i>Globigerinoides ruber</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Nikolaev et al., 1998)	Symbiont bearing
<i>Globigerinoides</i> sp.	open ocean mixed-layer		Based on another present taxa of this genus
<i>Globoquadrina dehiscens</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Pearson and Shackleton, 1995; Nikolaev et al., 1998)	Noted to be erratic and variable by Pearson and Shackleton (1995).
<i>Globorotalia archaeomenardii</i>	open ocean thermocline		Based on similarities to <i>G. manardii</i>
<i>Globorotalia menardii</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Regenberg et al., 2010)	
<i>Globorotalia plesiotumida</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Globorotalia scitula</i>	open ocean sub-thermocline	(Itou et al., 2001)	<i>G. scitula</i> flux is inverse to POC flux
<i>Globorotalia</i> sp.	open ocean thermocline		Based on another present taxa of this genus
<i>Globorotaloides hexagonus</i>	upwelling	(Spezzaferri, 1995)	May also be deep sub-thermocline dweller (Brunner and Kučera, 2022)
<i>Globoturborotalita druryi</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Kennett and Srinivasan, 1983; Aze et al., 2011)	Symbiont bearing
<i>Globoturborotalita nepenthes</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Neogloboquadrina acostaensis</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Orbulina universa</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Paragloborotalia mayeri</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Sphaeroidinellopsis seminulina</i>	open ocean thermocline	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Sphaeroidinellopsis</i> sp.	open ocean thermocline	(Aze et al., 2011)	
<i>Trilobatus quadrilobatus</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Chaisson and Ravelo, 1997)	Deep mixed layer in Nikolaev et al. (1998)
<i>Trilobatus sacculifer</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Aze et al., 2011)	Symbiont bearing
<i>Trilobatus trilobus</i>	open ocean mixed-layer	(Aze et al., 2011)	Symbiont bearing

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