- Coupled Southern Ocean cooling and Antarctic ice sheet expansion during the middle
 Miocene
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- 16 The middle Miocene climate transition (~14 million years ago) was characterized by a 17 dramatic increase in the volume of the Antarctic ice sheet. The driving mechanism of 18 this transition remains under discussion, with hypotheses including circulation changes, 19 declining carbon dioxide in the atmosphere and orbital forcing. Southern Ocean records 20 of planktic foraminiferal Mg/Ca have previously been interpreted to indicate a cooling 21 of 6-7°C and a decrease in salinity preceding Antarctic cryosphere expansion by up to 22 ~300 thousand years. This interpretation has led to the hypothesis that changes in 23 meridional heat and vapour transport along with an early thermal isolation of 24 Antarctica from extrapolar climates played a fundamental role in triggering ice growth. 25 Here, we revisit the middle Miocene Southern Ocean temperature evolution using

clumped isotope and lipid biomarker temperature proxies. Our records indicate that the Southern Ocean cooling and the associated salinity decrease occurred in phase with the expansion of the Antarctic ice sheet. We demonstrate that the timing and magnitude of Southern Ocean temperature change seen in previous reconstructions can be explained if we consider pH as an additional, non-thermal control on foraminiferal Mg/Ca ratios. Therefore, our new dataset challenges the view of a thermal isolation of Antarctica preceding ice sheet expansion, and suggests a strong coupling between Southern Ocean conditions and Antarctic ice volume in times of declining atmospheric carbon dioxide.

Proxy records of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) suggest that some of the highest CO₂ levels of the Neogene were reached during the warmth of the Miocene climatic optimum (~17-14 Ma)¹⁻³ making it a useful analogue for future climate projections. This climatic optimum was followed by a major shift in global climate^{4,5}. The middle Miocene climate transition (MMCT) was marked by an increase in the volume of the Antarctic ice sheet causing a global sea level drop of around 40 to 90 m⁶⁻⁸, and by a decline in atmospheric CO₂ of ~100-300 ppm¹⁻³. The available temperature reconstructions based on Mg/Ca ratios in planktic foraminifera from the Atlantic and Pacific sectors of the Southern Ocean show an abrupt cooling of ~6-7°C that precedes the increase in ice volume by ~100-300 kyr^{9,10}. Consequently, it has been suggested that an early thermal isolation of Antarctica played a fundamental role in sustaining long-term boundary conditions required for substantial ice build-up⁹⁻¹¹. The observed decoupling of high latitude upper ocean temperatures and Antarctic ice volume was related to orbitally forced ocean and atmospheric circulation changes impacting meridional heat/vapour transport, with atmospheric CO₂ only playing a secondary role.

However, it has been shown that Mg/Ca ratios in foraminifera are not only controlled by calcification temperature but also by seawater Mg/Ca, salinity, and arguably $pH^{12,13}$. These non-thermal influences introduce fundamental uncertainties in the use of Mg/Ca as a paleothermometer for the middle Miocene, where seawater carbonate chemistry appears to have been highly variable². Therefore, independent reconstructions of Southern Ocean temperatures during the MMCT are of vital importance to better understand forcings and feedbacks in a rapidly changing climate system, and to address key questions such as the sensitivity of the Antarctic cryosphere to large changes in atmospheric $CO_2^{9,11}$.

Estimates of middle Miocene high latitude temperatures

Here, we shed light on Southern Ocean temperature evolution by applying two new independent paleothermometers at the site of one of the existing Mg/Ca records, Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Site 1171 (48°30'S, 149°07'E, 2150 m water depth) on the South Tasman Rise¹⁴. We combine upper ocean temperature reconstructions based on clumped isotope (Δ_{47}) signatures in the planktic foraminifer *Globigerina bulloides* and isoprenoid glycerol dialkyl glycerol tetraether (GDGT) lipid ratios (TEX₈₆), in order to provide improved constraints on the magnitude and phasing of middle Miocene cooling. The carbonate clumped isotope method utilizes the temperature-dependence of the bonding between two heavy isotopes within carbonate molecules. The thermodynamic basis of this method implies that the proxy is largely unaffected by non-thermal factors¹⁵. While requiring large samples due to inherent analytical uncertainty, the clumped isotope method allows for accurate temperature reconstructions independent of seawater chemistry or biological effects^{16–18}. The TEX₈₆ paleothermometer is based on the temperature-dependence of the number of cyclopentane rings of GDGT membrane lipids produced by marine Thaumarchaeota¹⁹. The temperature sensitivity of these compounds derives from the biogeochemical regulation of their synthesis

by certain groups of archaea, which allows them to keep the membrane in a liquid-crystalline state and preserve its function at different temperatures²⁰. TEX₈₆-estimated temperatures are also insensitive to changes in salinity and pH²¹. In some environments, additional inputs of isoprenoidal GDGTs from non-marine Thaumarchaeota sources could influence the estimated upper ocean temperature. However, the analysis of GDGT distributions on the samples from Site 1171 indicates that upper ocean temperature is the main driver of the observed TEX₈₆ trends (Supplementary Information). The two proxies used in this study have very complementary strengths and weaknesses, with one (Δ_{47}) providing high fidelity absolute temperature constraints, albeit with inferior precision compared to other proxies, and the other (TEX₈₆) allowing detailed reconstruction of the temporal evolution of temperature changes.

At present, Site 1171 is located to the south of the Subtropical Convergence separating warm, saline subtropical waters from comparably cold and fresh subantarctic water masses²² (Fig. 1, see also Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2). During the middle Miocene, the location of Site 1171 is estimated to have been further south (e.g., at ~53°S around 14 Ma) compared to its modern location^{23,24}, making it well-suited to study the evolution of Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) and Southern Ocean frontal systems during the MMCT. We note that Site 1171 has migrated northward across the time interval of this study (roughly 1° from 15 Ma to 12 Ma)^{23,24}. Therefore, long-term cooling at high southern latitudes may be slightly underestimated. Our clumped isotope temperature reconstruction is based on the planktic foraminifer species *G. bulloides*, which calcifies predominantly during austral spring^{9,25,26} in the upper water column (~200 m water depth)²⁷ and is present throughout the middle Miocene sequence at Site 1171. Another reason to use *G. bulloides* is to enable a direct comparison of our results with existing Mg/Ca-based temperatures measured on the same species from this

site⁹. Our revised age model for Site 1171 uses nine magnetostratigraphic datums and four carbon isotope datums (Supplementary Information).

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In line with previous reconstructions^{9,10,28} and recent modelling evidence^{8,29}, our paleotemperature estimates (Fig. 2) are significantly higher than today's Southern Ocean temperatures (modern austral spring temperature of ~5-8°C near the reconstructed paleolatitude of Site 1171, Supplementary Fig. S1). In terms of overall temperature change, we observe reasonable agreement between all proxies at Site 1171 when comparing the start and the end of the investigated time period (see also Supplementary Fig. S5). However, both the Δ_{47} and TEX₈₆ records do not exhibit the abrupt cooling step of 6-7°C, which is indicated by the Mg/Ca proxy between 14.2 and 13.9 Ma and thus starting before Antarctic cryosphere expansion (Fig. 2). Instead, Δ_{47} and TEX₈₆ suggest a more gradual long-term cooling during the middle Miocene. Δ_{47} -based upper ocean temperatures vary between around 12 and 15°C during the warmest part of the study interval during the Miocene climatic optimum (around 14 Ma), and then decrease to ~10-12°C after the MMCT. In terms of overall trends and timing, the TEX₈₆-based temperature record broadly mirrors the clumped isotope record. Absolute temperatures from TEX₈₆ and Δ_{47} are very similar when using the subsurface calibration of Ho and Laepple³⁰, but the choice of the temperature calibration for TEX₈₆ can have a large effect on calculated temperatures (Supplementary Fig. S5). Therefore, we focus our interpretation on the trends and timing of change in the TEX₈₆-based temperature record, which are largely independent of the calibration used.

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 Δ_{47} compositions of well-preserved planktic foraminifera yield accurate deep-time temperature estimates (albeit with comparably large analytical uncertainties), owing to their insensitivity to ocean chemistry (over the range of natural variation in the upper waters of the

open ocean) and a lack of discernible vital effects^{16–18}. However, foraminifera might be subjected to post-depositional alteration, which can lead to a cold bias in upper ocean temperatures derived from planktic foraminifera¹⁷. Scanning electron microscope images of middle Miocene *G. bulloides* at Site 1171 indicate generally good preservation with no signs of significant recrystallization and at most minor diagenetic calcite overgrowths and/or dissolution, suggesting that diagenetic effects on primary geochemical signatures are small¹⁷ (Supplementary Information). This is in line with Shevenell et al.⁹ finding no evidence of a diagenetic bias in *G. bulloides* Mg/Ca values at Site 1171. Although we cannot exclude a slight diagenetic cool bias of 1-2°C in our Δ_{47} -based temperatures, it would not affect the main conclusions of this study (Supplementary Fig. S5). The good correspondence of the temporal trends from TEX₈₆ and Δ_{47} , two completely independent temperature proxies, adds additional support for negligible effects of non-thermal factors on either proxy.

Interrogating reasons for discrepancies between temperature estimates

Mg/Ca- and Δ_{47} -based paleotemperatures have both been measured on the tests of *G. bulloides* from the same sediment core. The offsets in reconstructed temperature between these proxies can thus not be explained by sampling, seasonality and/or depth habitat of the foraminiferal species (Supplementary Fig. S7). The offsets can also not be explained by variations in seawater Mg/Ca, potentially affecting the use of Mg/Ca paleothermometry on longer timescales (>1 Myr)^{31,32}. We furthermore consider the effects of regional changes in salinity, dissolution and diagenesis as unlikely explanations for the observed temperature divergence between the two foraminifera-based proxies (see additional discussions in the Supplementary Information). Instead, a larger-scale influence on Mg/Ca is suggested by the observation that the stepped temperature decrease reconstructed from Mg/Ca at Site 1171 is mirrored by other planktic foraminiferal Mg/Ca-based temperature records in the Atlantic and

Pacific sectors of the Southern Ocean^{9,10}. We propose that, while all proxies agree on cooling across the MMCT, the abruptness and the larger magnitude of the cooling in Mg/Ca compared to Δ_{47} and TEX₈₆ temperatures may primarily result from the pronounced increase in global surface ocean pH, which is linked to a decline in atmospheric CO_2^2 .

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To test this hypothesis, we examine the magnitude of pH change required to bring all paleotemperature estimates from Site 1171 into agreement. We derive relative changes in pH from foraminiferal Mg/Ca signatures based on recent empirical evidence of the pH effect on G. bulloides Mg/Ca¹², after accounting for the temperature signal inferred from either Δ_{47} or TEX₈₆ (Fig. 3). Our calculated relative pH values are consistent with a compilation of boron isotope (δ^{11} B)-based pH reconstructions from various sites². The apparently larger and more abrupt increase in pH suggested by our calculations could be related to the limited temporal coverage of δ^{11} B-based records (e.g., data gap between ~14.8 Ma and ~14.1 Ma), uncertainties in the exact strength of the pH effect on Mg/Ca^{12,13}, additional effects on the temperature proxies and/or regional hydrographic controls at Site 1171 (Supplementary Information). In any case, the previously reconstructed fluctuations in global pH² seem to be sufficient to explain the diverging trends between previous Mg/Ca-based temperature estimates 9,33 and our new Δ_{47} - and TEX₈₆-derived temperature records. A pH effect on Mg/Ca may not be an exclusive feature of G. bulloides; other widely used planktic foraminiferal species such as Globigerinoides ruber also tend to show some sensitivity to pH^{12,34}. Therefore, assuming temperature as the only control on Mg/Ca in the tests of these species can potentially lead to a significant bias in the timing and magnitude of estimated temperature change across climate transitions that are characterized by large changes in atmospheric CO₂ (such as the MMCT).

Implications for middle Miocene climate change

The substantial lead of Mg/Ca-based upper ocean cooling and salinity decrease in the Southern Ocean (starting between 14.2 and 14.1 Ma) versus Antarctic ice sheet expansion (14.0-13.7 Ma according to benthic foraminiferal δ^{18} O, Fig. 2) has previously been related to a decoupling of Southern Ocean surface hydrography and global ice volume, caused by circulation changes and/or thresholds for Antarctic ice growth^{9,10}. In apparent contrast to these studies, our multiproxy upper ocean temperature record from Site 1171 has a temporal structure much more similar to that of benthic δ^{18} O from the same site (Fig. 4a). This observation provides evidence for a coupling of upper ocean temperature in the Southern Ocean with the increase in Antarctic ice volume, suggesting a direct mechanistic connection between Southern Ocean and Antarctica and/or a common universal driver for climate change at high southern latitudes, such as a decline in CO₂.

The exact timing of the CO_2 decrease across the MMCT is currently uncertain in the available $\delta^{11}B$ -based reconstructions, hampering assessment of potential leads and lags between CO_2 forcing and climate response (Fig. 3a). Higher-resolution $\delta^{11}B$ records are needed to provide a more detailed reconstruction of pH and CO_2 . However, in the case that the Mg/Ca temperature bias was indeed primarily caused by an increase in global surface ocean pH (Fig. 3b), the middle Miocene decrease in atmospheric CO_2^{1-3} would have been broadly synchronous with the observed upper ocean cooling and cryosphere expansion. Such a synchronicity in timing is consistent with atmospheric CO_2 playing an important role in the Antarctic ice sheet expansion, although additional forcing factors and feedbacks were likely also involved. The abrupt increase in ice volume may have been reinforced by an orbital configuration that caused low seasonality over Antarctica¹¹ and/or tectonic processes (e.g., via

Antarctic bedrock topography and gateway configurations), while snow and ice albedo feedbacks likely encouraged further ice sheet growth during the MMCT⁹.

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The reconstructed temperatures can be used to estimate seawater $\delta^{18}O$ in combination with G. bulloides δ^{18} O, and to derive local variations in salinity after accounting for changes in global ice volume (Methods). The results suggest a decrease in upper ocean salinity coupled to the expansion of the Antarctic ice sheet, with the magnitude of the salinity decrease depending on the amount of ice growth (Fig. 4b and c). In combination with the inferred cooling, this salinity decrease can be interpreted as a shift from saline, warm subtropical to fresher and colder subantarctic conditions due to an intensification and/or northward expansion of the ACC (including the Subtropical Convergence and other Southern Ocean frontal systems), and possibly a northward shift in westerly winds^{9,10,28}. We note that the timing of our salinity reconstruction again contrasts with Mg/Ca-based evidence, which would suggest that Southern Ocean salinity decrease preceded ice sheet growth by ~100-300 kyr^{9,10}. The proposed changes in Southern Ocean hydrography, coinciding with ice sheet expansion, may have contributed to the observed CO₂ drawdown. In analogy to glacial periods during the Pleistocene, a northward shift of ocean fronts and westerly winds may have reduced Southern Ocean upwelling, providing a mechanism to increase deep-ocean carbon storage^{35–37}. Such an increase in deep-ocean CO₂ sequestration could have contributed to the observed middle Miocene decline in atmospheric CO₂¹⁻³, regardless of the exact mechanism triggering Antarctic ice sheet and ACC frontal system expansion. Our data, including relative changes in pH derived from the observed discrepancies between the temperature proxies, are consistent with the interpretation of a decline in atmospheric CO₂ driving Antarctic ice sheet expansion during the MMCT. Alternatively, the ice sheet could have initially responded to another trigger mechanism (e.g., orbital or tectonic forcing), leading to Southern Ocean cooling and a northward expansion of the frontal systems, possibly (further) decreasing atmospheric CO_2 through enhanced sequestration of CO_2 in the ocean interior. The hypothesis of an increase in deep-ocean CO_2 sequestration in the Southern Ocean could be tested with additional Southern Ocean records of marine productivity and nutrient consumption³⁸.

The temperature records reported here represent a change in the current view of Southern Ocean temperature evolution across the MMCT, with important implications for our understanding of the feedback mechanisms that controlled the evolution of the Antarctic ice sheet. The temporal correspondence of the upper ocean temperature decline with ice sheet expansion indicates a close coupling of Southern Ocean temperature and Antarctic ice volume, challenging the notion of a lagged ice sheet response due to additional feedbacks⁹. Instead, the results of this study are consistent with a more direct role of atmospheric CO₂ in driving the MMCT.

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360	
361	Author contribution statement
362	T.J.L. and A.N.M. initiated and designed the study. T.J.L. generated and analysed clumped
363	isotope data under the oversight of A.N.M. A.A. and A.MG. contributed TEX_{86} data and
364	their interpretation. GDGT measurements were performed by A.A. under the supervision of
365	A.MG. All authors contributed to paleoceanographic interpretation. T.J.L. wrote the paper
366	with significant contributions from A.N.M., A.A., A.MG. and S.M.
367	
368	
369	Competing interests
370	The authors declare no competing interests.
371	
372	
373	Data availability
374	The clumped isotope and TEX_{86} temperature data that support the findings of this study are
375	available in the Supplementary Information and at Pangaea
376	(https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.919353, https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.919351).
377	The full raw isotope data is published on the EarthChem Database
378	(https://doi.org/10.26022/IEDA/111547).

380 Figure Captions

Fig. 1: Site map and paleogeographic reconstruction. The modern location of ODP Site 1171^{9,14} on the South Tasman Rise is shown with a black circle. Dashed black lines schematically indicate modern positions of Subtropical Convergence (STC), Subantarctic Front (SAF) and Antarctic Polar Front (AAPF). Site 1171 location and coastlines at ∼14 Ma are indicated in white. Map created with GPlates^{23,39,40}.

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Fig. 2: Benthic δ^{18} O and multiproxy temperature records from ODP Site 1171 located on the South Tasman Rise. a, Benthic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O^{9,33}$. b, Upper ocean temperatures from planktic foraminiferal Mg/Ca^{9,33} (Gray and Evans¹² (GE) calibration) with gradually changing³² (solid line) and constant seawater Mg/Ca (3 mol/mol, dotted line). c, Upper ocean temperatures from planktic foraminiferal Δ_{47} (this study, recalculated⁴¹ Kele et al.⁴² calibration). d, TEX₈₆ temperatures (this study) based on subsurface calibration of Ho and Laepple³⁰ (HL, solid line, triangles) and surface calibration of Kim et al.⁴³ (dashed line). In **b** and d, vertical bars indicate typical analytical errors (one standard deviation, Methods). For Δ_{47} temperatures (c), solid horizontal lines mark averaging intervals, with symbols placed at mean ages and numbers of measurements shown at the bottom (red numbers). Vertical error bars in c represent 68% (solid vertical lines) and 95% (dashed vertical lines) confidence intervals. In addition, a LOESS regression is shown (solid line, smoothing optimized by generalized cross-validation). For direct comparison, Mg/Ca- and TEX₈₆-based temperatures (\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}) are averaged over similar time intervals as those based on Δ_{47} (\mathbf{c}) . The purple bar marks the onset of the decrease in Mg/Ca temperatures to visualize its lead relative to the other records.

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Fig. 3: Middle Miocene carbon cycle changes. a, Compilation of boron isotope (δ^{11} B)-based reconstructions of atmospheric CO₂ including data from ODP Site 926 (tropical North Atlantic), ODP Site 761 (Indian Ocean), and the Blue Clay Formation (Malta) (see Sosdian et al.2 and references therein), the latter two on revised age models (Supplementary Information). **b**, δ^{11} B-based pH estimates from the same sites² (white filled symbols) compared to relative changes in pH (Δ pH) calculated from Δ_{47} (red circles, vertical lines = 68% confidence limits, horizontal lines = covered time intervals) and TEX₈₆ (dark blue triangles)^{12,30,41,42} in combination with Mg/Ca^{9,33} (Methods). δ¹¹B-based reconstructions of CO_2 (a) and pH (b) use seawater $\delta^{11}B$ from Greenop et al.⁴⁴ and Mg/Ca-based temperatures from a foraminiferal species that appears insensitive to carbonate chemistry^{2,12}. Alternative scenarios of δ^{11} B yield similar changes in CO₂ and pH (Supplementary Fig. S14). Error bars for δ^{11} B-based values indicate 66% confidence limits. For ΔpH data using Δ_{47} and TEX₈₆ (b), red and dark blue shadings correspond to 68% confidence limits of generalized crossvalidation-optimized LOESS fits. For ΔpH calculated from Δ_{47} , the mean LOESS fit is shown (solid red line) as well as the effects of assuming stepped salinity changes of 1 and 2 psu at 13.9 Ma (long and short dashes, respectively) and constant (3 mol/mol, instead of gradually changing³²) seawater Mg/Ca (dotted line).

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Fig. 4: Southern Ocean climate evolution during the MMCT. a, Temperature anomalies (ΔT) based on planktic foraminiferal Δ_{47} (red) and TEX₈₆ (dark blue, HL calibration³⁰) from ODP Site 1171 compared to benthic foraminiferal δ^{18} O from the same site^{9,33} (green). b, Local seawater δ^{18} O (δ^{18} O_{sw}) calculated from planktic foraminiferal δ^{18} O^{9,33} in combination with Δ_{47} (red) and TEX₈₆ (dark blue) temperatures (Methods). c, Local anomalies in seawater δ^{18} O compared to mean ocean δ^{18} O ($\Delta\delta^{18}$ O_{sw}) and inferred salinity changes (Δsalinity). $\Delta\delta^{18}$ O_{sw} represents TEX₈₆-derived δ^{18} O_{sw} with a benthic δ^{18} O-based

correction for global ice volume-related changes in mean ocean $\delta^{18}O$. For this correction, we assume that 50% (orange), 70% (black) or 100% (light blue) of the change in benthic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ at Site 1171^{9,33} is caused by fluctuations in global ice volume (mean ocean $\delta^{18}O$)^{6–8,10} (Methods). Salinity anomalies are based on a $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ -salinity relation for high southern latitudes²⁶. Vertical error bars correspond to 68% confidence limits.

Methods

Study site and sampling

ODP Site 1171, located on the southernmost South Tasman Rise in the Southern Ocean (48°30'S, 149°07'E, 2150 m water depth), has been used extensively for middle Miocene paleoclimate reconstructions^{9,14,33,45,46}. The sampled sediment section covering the interval from ~15.5 Ma to ~11.8 Ma (Supplementary Figs. S3 and S4) consists of carbonate-rich (~94 wt%) nannofossil ooze with foraminifera¹⁴. *G. bulloides* is a well-documented and widely used foraminiferal species, and is present throughout the whole sample interval. Tests of *G. bulloides* from 137 samples (30 cm³ of sediment each) were used to generate the clumped isotope temperature record. Each sample was washed over a 63 μm sieve, dried at 50°C overnight and dry-sieved into different size fractions. Non-encrusted specimens of *G. bulloides* (Supplementary Fig. S6) were picked from the 250-355 μm size fractions, cracked between glass plates and sonicated in deionized water (3 x 10-20 seconds) and methanol (1 x 5 seconds). At the end of the cleaning procedure, test fragments were rinsed (at least three times) until the solute was no longer cloudy, and dried at 50°C.

Clumped isotope paleothermometry

The low natural abundance of ¹³C-¹⁸O bonds within carbonate ions demands large sample sizes to produce data with the precision required for paleoclimate applications. Here, we used small (~100 µg) subsamples^{47–49} and obtained the necessary precision by averaging around $30 \Delta_{47}$ measurement values from neighbouring samples^{50,51}. This enables production of a lowresolution clumped isotope record in parallel with higher-resolution δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C time series (Supplementary Figs. S4 and S7), and avoids aliasing. Our planktic foraminiferal clumped isotope record consists of a total of 397 measurements (1-6 measurements per sediment sample). These measurements were performed at the University of Bergen on two Thermo Scientific MAT 253 Plus mass spectrometers connected to Thermo Scientific Kiel IV carbonate preparation devices^{49,52}. Detailed analytical methods can be found in the Supplementary Information. We used four carbonate standards (ETH 1, 2, 3 and 4) differing in bulk isotopic composition and ordering state to correct and monitor the results. A 23 h-run included approximately equal numbers of carbonate standards and samples. External reproducibilities (one standard deviation) in Δ_{47} of the four carbonate standards after correction are typically 0.030-0.040%. Carbonate δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values are reported relative to the VPDB scale. δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values of all standards have external reproducibilities (one standard deviation) of 0.04-0.09‰ and 0.02-0.05‰, respectively.

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We utilized the Δ_{47} -temperature equation of Kele et al.⁴² in the recalculated version of Bernasconi et al.⁴¹. This well-constrained calibration based on travertines in the range from 6°C to 95°C was derived using a very similar analytical approach as employed in this study, and agrees closely with recent foraminifera calibrations^{16,18,53}. 68% and 95% confidence intervals of our clumped isotope temperatures represent fully propagated measurement and calibration uncertainties⁵⁴.

TEX₈₆ paleothermometry

An average of 19 g of freeze-dried sediment was extracted three times using a 1:1 mixture of dichloromethane (DCM) and methanol (MeOH) in Accelerated Solvent Extractor (ASE 350) cells filled with 8 g of 5% deactivated silica (in hexane)⁵⁵. After adding 60 μ l of an internal standard (C₄₆-GDGT), the extract was evaporated using a rocket solvent evaporator (Genevac-Thermo) and subsequently filtered using a PTFE filter (0.2 μ m pore size) with a 1.8% mixture of hexane:isopropanol (hex:IPA).

GDGTs were analyzed using an HPLC (Agilent, 1260 Infinity) coupled to a single quadrupole mass spectrometer detector (Agilent, 6130) following Hopmans et al.⁵⁶. 20 μl of sample were injected, and chromatographic separation of the different GDGTs was achieved with two coupled UHPLC silica columns in series (BEH HILIC columns, 2.1 150 mm, 1.7 lm; Waters) maintained at 30°C. The flow rate of the 1.8% hex:IPA mobile phase was 0.2 ml/min and kept constant for the first 25 min, followed by a gradient to 3.5% hex:IPA in 25 min, and a column cleaning step with 10% IPA in hexane. GDGT concentrations were quantified using a C₄₆-GDGT standard⁵⁷.

TEX₈₆ and TEX₈₆^H values were calculated using the equations proposed by Schouten et al.¹⁹ and Kim et al.⁴³, respectively. We used various calibrations to assess TEX₈₆-based upper ocean temperature trends (Supplementary Fig. S5). The precision of the entire TEX₈₆ analytical procedure was evaluated by repeated extractions of a monitoring standard sediment in every batch of samples (obtaining a standard deviation of 0.1-0.2°C depending on the calibration used, n=10). Because of the low GDGT concentrations found at Site 1171, potential linearity effects were evaluated by measuring a series of dilutions of an extract from our monitoring standard sediment in each batch of samples analysed in the HPLC

(Supplementary Fig. S13). The average values (13.62°C) and standard deviations (0.17°C) from the measurements in the range of the reported Site 1171 values are statistically undistinguishable from the average (13.59°C) and standard deviations (0.13°C) of measurements performed at higher concentrations. In addition, the sediment extracts from all samples from Site 1171 were analysed two times in the HPLC-MS system (obtaining an average standard deviation of 0.3-0.6°C depending on the calibration used). In Fig. 2d, we show average standard deviations of 0.3°C and 0.5°C resulting from the use of the calibrations of Ho and Laepple³⁰ and Kim et al.⁴³, respectively, to illustrate typical analytical uncertainties. Measurements below the concentration range indicated in Supplementary Fig. S13 were considered to be potentially affected by linear effects and therefore were discarded.

Mg/Ca paleothermometry and ΔpH calculations

We recalculated ocean temperatures from published Mg/Ca signatures of middle Miocene *G. bulloides* at Site 1171 using the Mg/Ca-temperature equation of Gray and Evans¹². We modified the equation to include the Mg/Ca_{test}–Mg/Ca_{sw} relationship with the H-value described in Evans and Müller³¹:

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$$T = (1 / 0.064) \times [\ln(Mg/Ca_{test} \times [Mg/Ca_{sw,0}]^{H} / [Mg/Ca_{sw,t}]^{H})$$
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$$-0.036 \times (salinity - 35) + 0.88 \times (pH - 8) - 0.15]$$
 (1)

T is temperature in °C. Mg/Ca_{sw,0} and Mg/Ca_{sw,t} are present-day and past seawater Mg/Ca in mol/mol. For Mg/Ca_{sw,0}, we use a value of 5.2 mol/mol³¹. For Mg/Ca_{sw,t}, we use a recent estimate of a gradually changing value (increasing from ~2.8 mol/mol to ~3.2 mol/mol in the time interval of this study) given by a polynomial curve fit through compiled seawater Mg/Ca

proxy records³² (solid line in Fig. 2b) as well as a constant value of 3.0 mol/mol (dotted line in Fig. 2b). For H, we use a value of 0.72, based on the calibration data reported in Evans et al.⁵⁸. For salinity, we use a close to present-day salinity value of 34.5 psu (Supplementary Fig. S2). Due to a lack of constraint at Site 1171, we do not apply a correction for pH, but note that we solve Equation (1) for pH to calculate relative changes in pH (Δ pH) at the site. The typical analytical error in Mg/Ca temperature shown in Fig. 2b was calculated with Equation (1) using the reported pooled Hole 1171C standard deviation of replicate analyses of 7.8% and a mean Mg/Ca value of 2.6 mmol/mol^{9,33} (without calibration uncertainties). The sensitivity to the choice of the *G. bulloides* temperature calibration is illustrated in Supplementary Fig. S8, and the effect of assuming different seawater Mg/Ca compositions is illustrated in Supplementary Fig. S9.

In order to calculate ΔpH , we solve Equation (1) for pH:

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$$pH = (1 / 0.88) \times [0.036 \times (salinity - 35) + 0.064 \times T + 0.15$$
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$$-\ln(Mg/Ca_{test} \times [Mg/Ca_{sw,0}]^{H} / [Mg/Ca_{sw,t}]^{H})] + 8$$
(2)

We calculate pH using averaged Mg/Ca ratios (Mg/Ca_{test}) in combination with averaged Δ_{47} -based temperatures (T, averaging intervals are illustrated as horizontal lines in Fig. 2b and c). In addition, we calculate pH based on TEX₈₆-based T and Mg/Ca_{test} with the higher-resolution Mg/Ca time series interpolated to the lower resolution of our TEX₈₆-based temperature record. Salinity, Mg/Ca_{sw,0}, Mg/Ca_{sw,t} and H-value are as defined previously. Then, we calculate Δ pH by subtracting the mean pH (averaged over all values) from each pH value. 68% confidence intervals represent the Monte Carlo-propagated uncertainties for our estimates of Δ pH. For both Δ_{47} - and TEX₈₆-based Δ pH, we generated 10,000 realizations of

the time series and assumed normal distribution of errors. Then, we fitted LOESS curves to each realization (degree of smoothing optimized by generalized cross-validation), and calculated the 68% confidence intervals (as given by the 16 and 84 percentiles) from these LOESS fits. For Δ_{47} -based ΔpH , the full temperature error, the measurement error in foraminiferal Mg/Ca (as given by the standard error of each calculated mean Mg/Ca value) and an error of seawater Mg/Ca (0.5 mol/mol³²) were propagated. Here, 68% confidence intervals were also calculated without applying LOESS fitting (red error bars in Fig. 3b). For TEX₈₆-based ΔpH , we applied a conservative estimate of the full TEX₈₆ temperature error of 3°C^{30,59}, a Mg/Ca measurement error of 0.2 mmol/mol (from the reported pooled Hole 1171C standard deviation of replicate analyses of 7.8% and a mean Mg/Ca value of 2.6 mmol/mol^{9,33}) and a seawater Mg/Ca error of 0.5 mol/mol³² for error propagation. We did not include Mg/Ca calibration uncertainties in this calculation. In addition, we calculate the sensitivity of calculated relative pH values to changing salinity at Site 1171 (Fig. 3b) as additional influence on Mg/Ca, assuming a stepped decrease in salinity by 1 psu (from 35.0 psu to 34.0 psu) and 2 psu (from 35.5 psu to 33.5 psu), respectively, at 13.9 Ma.

Seawater δ^{18} O and salinity calculations

To calculate seawater δ^{18} O values, we first solve the temperature equation of Shackleton⁶⁰ for seawater δ^{18} O (δ^{18} O_{sw}).

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$$\delta^{18}O_{sw} = (T - 16.9) / 4.0 + \delta^{18}O_{carb}$$
 (3)

We use G. bulloides δ^{18} O values from this study and Shevenell et al. 9,33 (δ^{18} O_{carb}) to calculate δ^{18} O_{sw} (see Fig. S7 for G. bulloides δ^{18} O time series). We apply a correction of +0.2‰ to convert from the VPDB to VSMOW scale⁶¹. Calcite precipitation temperatures (T) are

approximated from Δ_{47} as well as TEX₈₆. For Δ_{47} -based calculations, the results are averaged over nearly identical time intervals (visualized with horizontal lines in Fig. 2c). For TEX₈₆-based estimates of seawater δ^{18} O, the high-resolution *G. bulloides* δ^{18} O record^{9,33} is interpolated to the lower-resolution of the TEX₈₆ time series (instead of averaging across time intervals).

To eliminate the global ice volume signal from seawater $\delta^{18}O$, we assume that 50%, 70% or 100% of the variability in benthic $\delta^{18}O$ measured at Site 1171^{9,33,45} represents changes in global ice volume. Benthic $\delta^{18}O$ anomalies are multiplied by 0.5, 0.7 or 1.0, interpolated and then subtracted from TEX₈₆-based seawater $\delta^{18}O$ anomalies to calculate ice volume-corrected seawater $\delta^{18}O$ anomalies ($\Delta\delta^{18}O$). Salinity anomalies (ΔS) at Site 1171 are estimated using a seawater $\delta^{18}O$ -salinity relation for high southern latitudes that is based on surface ocean data from 40°S to 50°S^{26,62}:

$$\Delta S = 1.465 \times \Delta \delta^{18} O \tag{4}$$

We acknowledge that Equation (4) is based on surface ocean data (top 50 m)⁶², whereas G. bulloides may have dwelled deeper (around 200 m) in the Southern Ocean. Furthermore, we consider it unlikely that the present-day seawater δ^{18} O-salinity relation was the same for the middle Miocene. Therefore, we caution that our quantitative salinity estimates are very uncertain and not a focus of our interpretation. However, the reconstructed decrease in salinity across the MMCT is considered robust. Δ_{47} -based seawater δ^{18} O values corrected for changes in global ice volume (not shown in Fig. 4) agree well with the corresponding TEX₈₆-derived values within uncertainty, due to the good agreement of the temperature records.

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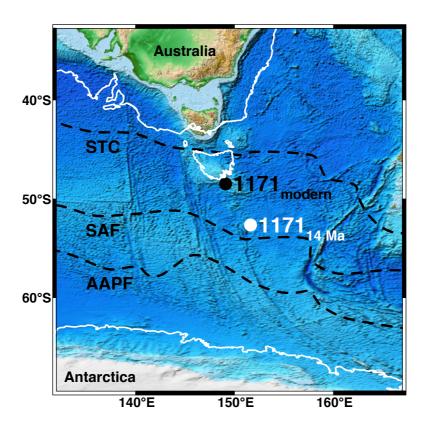


Fig. 1

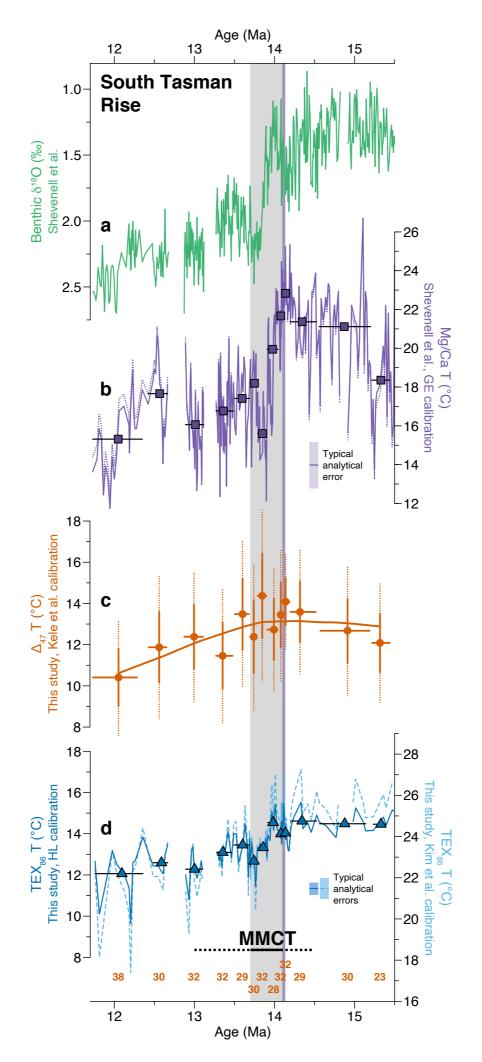


Fig. 2

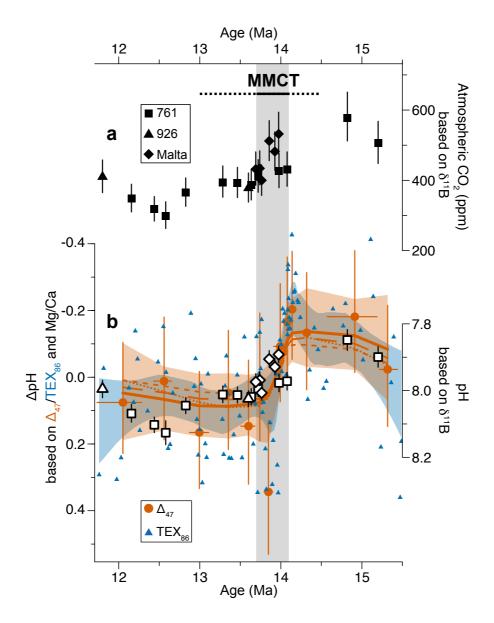


Fig. 3

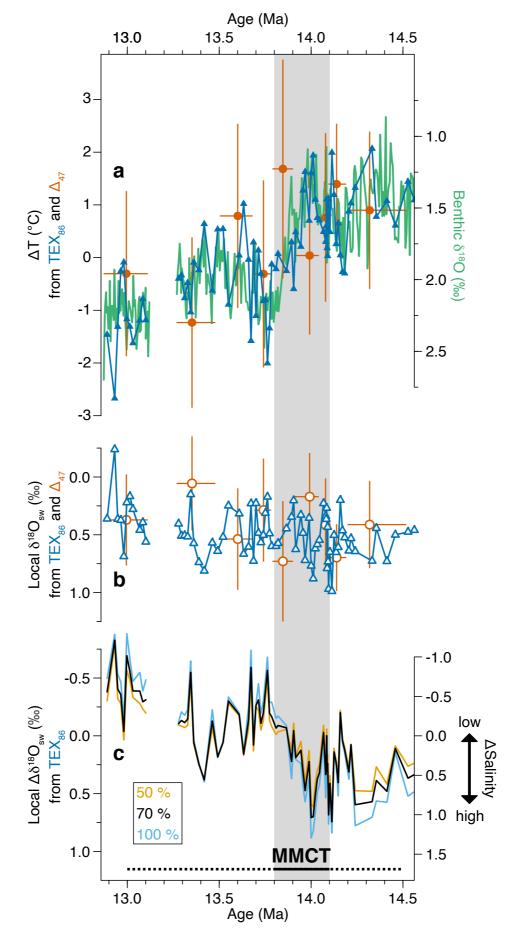


Fig. 4