

1 **Plio-Pleistocene ocean circulation changes in the GOA and its impacts on the**
2 **carbon and nitrogen cycles and the CIS development.**

3 **Maria Luisa Sánchez Montes^{1,2}, Oscar E. Romero^{3,4}, Ellen A. Cowan⁵, Juliane Müller^{3,4},**
4 **Christopher M. Moy⁶, Jeremy M. Lloyd¹ and Erin L. McClymont¹**

5 ¹ Department of Geography, Durham University, Durham, UK.

6 ² School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK.

7 ³ MARUM – Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, Bremen,
8 Germany.

9 ⁴ Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research, Bremerhaven,
10 Germany.

11 ⁵ Department of Geological and Environmental Sciences, Appalachian State University, North
12 Carolina, USA.

13 ⁶ Department of Geology, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.

14 Corresponding author: Maria Luisa Sánchez Montes (m.sanchez-montes@uea.ac.uk)

15 **Key Points:**

- 16 • The Cordilleran Ice Sheet expansion created high nutrient low chlorophyll conditions.
17 • Biogeochemical changes in the Gulf of Alaska follow 400 and 100 kyr eccentricity
18 cycles.
19 • Increased marine productivity export contributed to the atmospheric CO₂ drawdown
20 and further Cordilleran Ice Sheet expansion.

21 **Abstract**

22 The modern Gulf of Alaska (GOA) is a high nutrient low chlorophyll (HNLC) region,
23 estimated to be important for nutrient cycling and CO₂ exchange. Little is known of the GOA
24 evolution over the Pliocene and Pleistocene as well as its impact on the Cordilleran Ice Sheet
25 (CIS) development, when other evidence for changing North Pacific circulation has emerged.
26 We analysed IODP Expedition 341 Site U1417 sediments, which extend through the Plio-
27 Pleistocene transition (4-1.7 Ma), focussing on productivity-related biomarkers (alkenones,
28 brassicasterol), siliceous microfossils and bulk carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes. Our results
29 show two dominant water column regimes: one characterised by high silica and low organic
30 matter preservation, containing microorganism remains from a mix of habitats (4-3.7 Ma) and
31 a second characterised by low biogenic silica and increased organic matter preservation of
32 microorganisms from dominantly open ocean habitats (3.33-3.32 Ma and 2.8-1.66 Ma). An
33 increase of phytoplankton diversity (3.7-3.35 Ma, 3.19-2.82 Ma) characterises the two
34 transitions of water column conditions, from oxygenated to reductive, that we attribute to a
35 change from ocean mixing to strong stratified conditions with some occasional mixing. The
36 biogeochemical changes in the GOA follow 400 and 100 kyr eccentricity cycles which are also
37 reflected in changes in the CIS. We conclude that the CIS expansion created HNLC conditions
38 in the GOA during the Mid Piacenzian Warm Period (MPWP) and the early Pleistocene. In

39 turn, positive feedbacks increased marine productivity export, atmospheric CO₂ drawdown and
40 further CIS expansion.

41 **1 Introduction**

42 During the Pliocene and Pleistocene transition (PPT) and intensification of the Northern
43 Hemisphere Glaciation (iNHG, ~2.6 Ma), changes to marine productivity export patterns have
44 been recorded by means of biogenic silica and alkenone sediment concentrations and linked to
45 changing ocean circulation. In the subarctic Pacific (Haug *et al.*, 2005; Studer *et al.*, 2012),
46 Bering Sea (März *et al.*, 2013), Southern Ocean (Sigman *et al.*, 2004) and parts of the North
47 Atlantic (Lawrence *et al.*, 2013; Lawrence *et al.*, 2009) marine productivity export is higher
48 before the iNHG. In contrast, other parts of the North Atlantic (Site 607; Lawrence *et al.*, 2013),
49 in the South Atlantic (Cortese *et al.*, 2004; Martínez-García *et al.*, 2010) and the equatorial
50 Pacific (Liu *et al.*, 2008; Lawrence *et al.*, 2006; Lawrence *et al.*, 2013) the marine productivity
51 export is higher after the iNHG. The different patterns in marine productivity export during the
52 iNHG has been suggested to derive from changes in nutrient distribution (Etourneau *et al.*,
53 2012) and the equatorial migration of the westerly winds (Lawrence *et al.*, 2013). It has been
54 observed that higher atmospheric CO₂ concentrations occurred when the Southern Ocean and
55 North Pacific were well ventilated (Etourneau *et al.*, 2012) during the warm mid-Pliocene (3.5-
56 3.0 Ma). The development of polar stratification over the PPT, and the resulting limitation in
57 surface ocean macronutrient availability to fuel marine productivity, could have restricted
58 ocean-atmosphere CO₂ exchange in the North Pacific, impacting the climate globally (e.g.,
59 Haug *et al.*, 2005; Etourneau *et al.*, 2012). Although these changes have been observed in the
60 northwestern Pacific and Bering Sea (Haug *et al.*, 2005; März *et al.*, 2013), it remains unclear
61 how marine productivity in the northeast Pacific changed over the PPT.

62 Here, we reconstruct marine productivity changes in the Gulf of Alaska (GOA), northeast
63 Pacific, through the mid- and late-Pliocene and early Pleistocene (4.0-1.7 Ma), analysing
64 sediments from the Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Expedition 341 Site U1417
65 (Figure 1). The proximity of the GOA to the Cordilleran Ice Sheet (CIS, Figure 1), which
66 expanded over this time interval (Gulick *et al.*, 2015; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020, Huber and
67 Bahlburg, 2021), allows direct examination of how the evolution of a large ice mass affects the
68 supply of macro/micronutrients via fluvial and glacial transport to the ocean to influence
69 marine productivity (Müller *et al.*, 2018). Based on previous research (Haug *et al.*, 2005;
70 Lawrence *et al.*, 2013), one hypothesis is that the marine productivity in the subarctic Pacific
71 was higher before the iNHG due to increased deep nutrient mixing. However, we have
72 previously shown that some biomarkers for marine production at Site U1417 (aquatic *n*-alkane,
73 Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020) suggest an increase in marine productivity in the GOA after the
74 iNHG water column stratification, which might suggest increasing nutrient availability linked
75 to the intensification of the glaciation. It is important to differentiate between these hypotheses,
76 because marine productivity and a change in the North Pacific circulation can have an impact
77 on atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and shifts in climate (e.g., Williamson & Holligan, 1990).
78 Here, we examine aquatic productivity changes over iNHG using a multi-proxy approach by
79 focussing on evidence for marine productivity export through a combination of diatom
80 assemblages (i.e. Katsuki *et al.*, 2003), alkenones (haptophyte algae, Marlowe *et al.*, 1984),
81 brassicasterol (diatoms, Kanazawa *et al.*, 1971; haptophytes, Volkman *et al.*, 1986) aquatic *n*-
82 alkanes (algae and cyanobacteria, Bourbonniere and Meyers, 1996; Han & Calvin, 1969) and
83 both the accumulation rate and isotopic composition of nitrogen and organic carbon (Hedges
84 & Keil, 1995; Burdige, 2005, 2007; Walinsky *et al.*, 2009; Addison *et al.*, 2012). We combine
85 these approaches with evidence for inputs of terrestrial OM from dust/river/glacial sediment
86 using terrigenous *n*-alkanes (Rieley *et al.*, 1991) and previously published glacier inputs (IRD

87 and %C_{37:4} alkenone, Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020), to assess whether changes to terrestrial
88 nutrient supply also occurred.

89 **2 Research Site**

90 The main GOA oceanographic features include the Alaskan Current (AC) and the Alaskan
91 Coastal Current (ACC) (Figure 1). The AC travels north along the North American west coast
92 and is sourced in warm mid-latitude currents in the North Pacific travelling eastwards around
93 45° N as the North Pacific Current (NPC). Site U1417 (56°57.58' N, 147°6.58' W; water depth
94 4,218 m) is currently located under the influence of the AC, characterized by iron-limited,
95 nitrate-rich, low chlorophyll waters in a High Nutrient Low Chlorophyll (HNLC) region
96 (Martin & Fitzwater, 1988; Martin *et al.*, 1991; Hinckley *et al.*, 2009; Figure 1). Productivity
97 in the HNLC region at the centre of the Alaska Gyre requires advection of deep, nutrient-rich
98 waters to reach the surface, which reaches a maximum when the Aleutian Low (AL) is centred
99 in the GOA during winter (Figure 1), and when micronutrients (e.g., iron) are supplied from
100 land. Alaskan glacial iron input to the GOA is aided by strong winds associated with the AL in
101 the GOA during autumn (Schroth *et al.*, 2017) but reaches a maximum during August, when
102 Alaskan glacio-fluvial sediments are exposed (Crusius *et al.*, 2011). Asian dust has also been
103 found in the St. Elias Mountains during early April storm events and increased westerly winds
104 (Zdanowicz *et al.*, 2006). Coccolithophorids and diatoms appear as the main phytoplankton
105 groups in the GOA, the former being able to cope with small iron inputs but not able to compete
106 with the latter when iron is available (Martin *et al.*, 1989). The AC later forms the Alaska
107 Stream (AS) when exiting the GOA travelling westwards. The ACC travels northwards along
108 the coast of southwest Alaska towards the Aleutian Arch and to the Bering Sea. A low nutrient
109 high chlorophyll (LNHC) regime dominates under the influence of the ACC closer to coastal
110 Alaska (Whitney *et al.*, 2005). Productivity in the LNHC region requires downwelling
111 relaxation and advection of deep nutrient rich waters for macronutrient availability (e.g.,
112 nitrate) into the surface ocean (Figure 1). The ACC is characterised by its low salinity due to
113 the incorporation of glacial and river discharge into the GOA, which is maximum during
114 summer (Figure 1). At present, meltwater is transported along the coastal GOA through the
115 ACC (Kipphut, 1990).

116 **3 Materials and Methods**

117 **3.1 Age model, sedimentation rates and recovered sediment at Site U1417.**

118 This study analysed Site U1417 sediment depths between 417.3 and 212.2 m CCSF-A dating
119 from 4.0 to 1.66 Ma. The age model and calculated sedimentation rates used in this study are
120 based on the shipboard age model (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014) assuming an even distribution of the
121 recovered material between top and bottom cores when the recovery was incomplete (see
122 Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020; Table S1). The shipboard age model from 1.66 and 2.2 Ma is
123 well constrained by magnetostratigraphic reversals found in U1417B or U1417D (C2n(T)
124 Olduvai top, C2n(B) Olduvai base, C2r.1n (T) Reunion top and C2r.1n (B) Reunion base) and
125 sediment recovery in this section is close to 100% (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). This section of the age
126 model remains unchanged in the modified age model used by Sánchez-Montes *et al.* (2020)
127 and the age errors adopted here from Jaeger *et al.*, 2014 account to ±0.02 Ma, with a propagated
128 error across neighbouring samples of ±0.028 Ma. For the sediment record older than 2.2 Ma
129 (288.45 m) sediment recovery reduces significantly (70 to 12%; Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). The
130 revised age model redistributes this material across the core sections assuming no loss in
131 material (Sánchez-Montes *et al.* 2020). The age model adjustments resulted in a similar
132 age/depth of the C2r.2r (B) Gauss/Matuyama top (found in U1417B, D and E), however,
133 C2An.3n (B) Gilbert/Gauss transition found only in U1417D shifted from 408.26 to 410.75 m

134 CCSF-A and from 3.75 to 3.88 Ma (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014; Sánchez-Montes *et al.* 2020). While the
 135 depth error remains the same, the age error over this section of the core has been increased to
 136 ± 0.12 Ma to take the Gilbert/Gauss transition age shift into account, with a propagated error
 137 across neighbouring samples between ± 0.23 to ± 0.69 Ma. There are no big shifts in between the
 138 sedimentation rates calculated from the age model of Jaeger *et al.*, 2014 and our stretched age
 139 model, which give confidence that our proposed age model only refines the shipboard age
 140 model (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). Beyond 3.88 Ma U1417's age model is poorly
 141 constrained due to poor core recovery (see Jaeger *et al.*, 2014; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020)
 142 and, therefore, it determines the lower age range of this study to 4 Ma.

143 Uncertainty of the age model and sedimentation rates presented here follow the polarity
 144 chronozone interpretations of the shipboard age model (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014; Gulick *et al.*, 2014)
 145 and accounts for shifts in the Gilbert-Gauss magnetic reversal in the adjusted age-depth model
 146 (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020, Table S1). The sedimentation rates are calculated across our
 147 analysed samples, almost exclusively in Hole U1417D. Sedimentation rates increase during
 148 the mid and late Pliocene (from 40 to 85 m/Myr across 3.5-2.8 Ma), and during the iNHG
 149 increase in glaciogenic inputs (from 85 to 156 m/Myr at 2.4 Ma). Our manually calculated
 150 sedimentation rates on the CCSF-A scale across neighbouring samples follow the depth-age
 151 model uncertainties of Jaeger *et al.* (2014) but differ slightly from the shipboard age model,
 152 where average sedimentation rates are calculated over 0.5 Myrs following the CCSF-B scale,
 153 and uncertainties ($+1\sigma$) are calculated using a Monte-Carlo sedimentation model over the
 154 whole Site U1417 (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). After distributing the sediment evenly across the core
 155 (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020), our calculated sedimentation rate uncertainties become smaller
 156 when compared to the statistical approach of the shipboard age model (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). The
 157 sediments recovered include diatom ooze interbedded with debris flow deposits containing
 158 mud clasts and plant fragments (lithostratigraphic unit VA, 4-3.2 Ma), marine mud (unit IV
 159 and II, 3.2-2.8 Ma and 2.4-1.66 Ma) and ice-rafted diamict interbedded with mud (unit III, 2.8-
 160 2.4 Ma; Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). Samples for organic matter analyses were selected avoiding sand,
 161 silt, ash or gravel (e.g. Ausín *et al.*, 2019, 2021).

162 3.2 Carbon and nitrogen bulk and isotope analyses.

163 Approximately 70 mg of freeze-dried and homogenized sediment was weighed into silver
 164 capsules and acidified in-situ with 5-6% sulphurous acid (H_2SO_3) to remove carbonate phases
 165 (Verardo *et al.*, 1990). Additional aliquots of acid were repeated until no reaction was observed
 166 using a binocular microscope, which ensured removal of inorganic carbon. No method was
 167 implemented for inorganic nitrogen removal. Samples were oven-dried between acidifications
 168 at 40 °C. 6 mg of Tungsten VI oxide (WO_3) was added to each sample to facilitate combustion.
 169 Samples were then measured using a Varian elemental analyser coupled to a Europa Scientific
 170 continuous-flow isotope-ratio mass spectrometer. The average standard deviation of replicate
 171 samples is 0.58 ‰ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, 0.006 ‰ for total nitrogen (TN), 0.26 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 0.031% for
 172 total organic carbon (TOC) (n = 8 pairs). The TOC and TN were normalised to the
 173 accumulation rates of the sediment analysed (Equation 1-3), where “material” refers to TOC
 174 or TN:

$$175 \quad \text{Equation 1: Material (mg g}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{\text{Mass material (mg)}}{\text{Weight sample (g)}}$$

$$176 \quad \text{Equation 2: Bulk MAR (g cm}^{-2}\text{kyr}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{\text{Dry bulk density (g cm}^{-3}\text{)}}{\text{Sedimentation rates (cm kyr}^{-1}\text{)}}$$

$$177 \quad \text{Equation 3: Material MAR} = \text{Bulk MAR} * \text{Material}$$

178 3.3 Siliceous microfossil assemblages and biogenic silica.

179 Microplaeontological counting standard methods and techniques (Schrader & Gersonde, 1978)
 180 were followed to prepare sediments after freeze-drying. Siliceous microfossil species
 181 identification and counts were performed on pre-acid cleaned permanent slides (*Mountex*®
 182 mounting medium). Several traverses across each slide were examined on a *Zeiss*®Axioscop
 183 with interference illumination at x1000 magnifications (MARUM, University of Bremen).
 184 Depending on valve abundances, between ca. 400 and ca. 700 valves per slide were counted.
 185 Duplicate slide counting quantified the concentration estimate analytical error $\leq 10.0\%$.
 186 Counting outputs were converted in sedimentary abundance of individual diatom taxa, total
 187 diatom (in valves per g^{-2}) and total silicoflagellate (in skeletons per g^{-2} , Equation 4) which were
 188 then converted to mass accumulation rates (MAR, Equation 3). The relative abundance (%) of
 189 each species was calculated as the fraction of the diatom species versus the TC in a particular
 190 sample (Equation 4).

191 **Equation 4:** $TC = [N] \left[\frac{A}{a} \right] \left[\frac{1}{W} \right] \left[\frac{V}{v} \right]$

192 where, TC is the total concentration, [N] is the number of valves in [a], an known area, [A] is
 193 the total area of a petri dish, [W] the sample weight in grams, and [V/v] the sample volume of
 194 the permanent slide (Sancetta & Calvert, 1988).

195 Diatom taxa were grouped in 6 palaeo-habitats: benthic, coastal high productivity, coastal
 196 moderate productivity, pelagic high productivity, pelagic warm water and freshwater (Table
 197 S2). The coastal high and moderate productivity palaeo-habitats describe coastal diatoms that
 198 occur at intervals of high and moderate productivity due to high and moderate nutrient
 199 availability in surface coastal waters, respectively. The pelagic high productivity palaeo-habitat
 200 is composed by pelagic diatoms that occur at intervals of high productivity and high nutrient
 201 availability in surface pelagic waters. The pelagic warm waters is a palaeo-habitat that contains
 202 subtropical pelagic diatoms species that thrive in warm waters (Ren *et al.*, 2014), representing
 203 the possible northward transport of warm to temperate waters into the GOA. The Shannon
 204 Weaver Index (SWI) was calculated to quantify diatom diversity (Shannon & Weaver, 1949).

205 Diatom preservation is reconstructed to assess whether a water column silica rich or poor, with
 206 longer or lower exposure of silica to degradation due to slower or more rapid sediment burial.
 207 Following observations with light microscopy, three main states of valve preservation were
 208 defined as: (1) good or no significant enlargement of the areolae or dissolution of the valve
 209 margin; (2) moderate where valves show areolae enlargement, dissolution of the valve margin
 210 and valve fragmentation; and (3) poor or strong dissolution of the valve margin and areolae
 211 enlargement (Crosta *et al.*, 2012; Romero *et al.*, 2005, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2017). In addition,
 212 two intermediate states of dissolution characterize valves whose state of preservation does not
 213 fully fit the three above-mentioned categories: good/moderate (good preservation
 214 predominates over moderate preservation) and moderate/good (moderate preservation
 215 predominates over good preservation).

216 Biogenic silica was determined with a sequential leaching technique with 1M NaOH at 85°C
 217 (Müller & Schneider, 1993) and normalized to the weight of the sample (wt%) and
 218 accumulation rates of the sediment (Equation 3). The precision of the overall method based on
 219 replicate analyses varies between ± 0.2 and $\pm 0.4\%$, depending on the material analyzed.

220 3.4 Biomarker analyses.

221 The lipid biomarker extraction followed the microwave assisted extraction method of
 222 Kornilova & Rosell-Melé (2003), and detailed in Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, (2020). To obtain *n*-
 223 alkanes, aromatics, ketone, and polar fractions, total lipid extracts were separated using silica
 224 column chromatography through sequential elution with hexane (3mL), hexane:

225 dichloromethane (9:1; 1.5mL), dichloromethane (5.5 mL), and ethylacetate : hexane (20 : 80;
 226 four columns) (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). Each fraction was analysed by Gas
 227 Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) for compound identification, and Flame
 228 Ionization Detector (GC-FID) where biomarkers were separated using a 60m x 0.25 mm i.d.,
 229 Restek RXi-5ms column (0.25 m 5% diphenyl-95% dimethyl polysiloxane coating). Lipid
 230 quantification was achieved with reference to the following internal standards: 5 α -cholestane
 231 for *n*-alkanes, 2-nonadecanone for ketones, and 5 α -androstan-3 β -ol for polars (Equation 5),
 232 normalised to the original extracted dry weight of sediment and then calculated as mass
 233 accumulation rates (MAR), to take into account the influence of changing sedimentation rate
 234 and sediment density on original biomarker concentrations (Equation 3).

235 **Equation 5:** Mass biomarker (μg) = $\left(\frac{\text{Mass standard } (\mu\text{g})}{[\text{Area standard}]}\right)$ [area biomarker]

236 4 Results

237 During the Pliocene-early Pleistocene, biogenic silica export to Site U1417 exceeds TOC by
 238 15 times (Figure 2A and B). TOC is overall 10 times more abundant than TN (Figure 2B). As
 239 part of the TOC, the sum of long-chain (C_{27} , C_{28} , C_{31}), or terrigenous, *n*-alkanes is overall 3
 240 times higher than that of short chain (C_{15} , C_{17} , C_{21}), or aquatic, *n*-alkanes (Figure 2D). Aquatic
 241 *n*-alkane MAR are 2 times higher than alkenone MAR (from haptophyte algae), which, in turn,
 242 are 3 times more abundant than brassicasterol (from diatoms and haptophyte) (Figure 2E). The
 243 main changes across the PPT (3.2-2.4 Ma) are the overall decrease in biogenic silica MAR,
 244 increase in TOC MAR, TN MAR, terrestrial and aquatic *n*-alkane MARs and the decrease and
 245 later (2.6 Ma) increase in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Figure 2). Maxima in *n*-alkanes, alkenones and
 246 brassicasterol are observed during the early Pleistocene (2.4-1.7 Ma, Figure 2D and E).

247 Diatoms and silicoflagellate MAR are highest during the early part of the record (4.0-3.8 Ma,
 248 Figure 3A), with coastal high productivity diatoms as the most abundant group at Site U1417
 249 followed by benthic, coastal moderate productivity, pelagic warm and freshwater diatoms
 250 (Figure 3, Table S2). Across 3.7 to 2.8 Ma, diatoms and silicoflagellate MAR decrease
 251 progressively. Silicoflagellates disappear by 3.35 Ma, whereas diatoms almost disappear by
 252 2.8 Ma (Figure 3A). The diatom assemblages recorded at Site U1417 switch from coastal high
 253 productivity to dominantly pelagic high productivity groups across 3.7 to 2.8 Ma (Figure 3,
 254 Table S2), particularly between 3.3 and 3.2 Ma. *Coscinodiscus marginatus*, the main species
 255 contributing to the pelagic high productivity assemblage at Site U1417, is a minor component
 256 of the diatom communities in the North Pacific across the Cenozoic, but it has been found
 257 abundant in the subarctic Pacific and Bering Sea during the Late Pliocene (Shimada *et al.*,
 258 2009).

259 The preservation of diatoms follows the same stepwise decline as the total diatom abundances,
 260 where preservation is high during 4-3.7 Ma, decreases gradually across 3.7-3.2 Ma and
 261 increases slightly between 3.19-2.8 Ma before diatoms almost completely disappear from the
 262 record between 2.8-1.7 Ma (Figure 3B). Biogenic silica MAR decreases in response to the
 263 decline in diatom MAR at 2.8 Ma (from an average of 0.39 ± 0.057 to 0.31 ± 0.016 g cm⁻² kyr⁻¹;
 264 Figure 3A). The decrease in siliceous microfossils occurs during an increase of organic matter
 265 concentrations (TOC and TN) across the PPT (Figure 4). The early Pleistocene increase in
 266 organic matter content (Figure 4D) is also evident in the increasing biomarker concentrations
 267 (Figure 4A, B and C). Signs of different production or selective organic matter degradation are
 268 suggested by different patterns in the biomarkers i.e. peaks in alkenone often coincide with the
 269 absence of sterols (Figure 4A and B).

270 5 Discussion

271 Across 4.0-1.7 Ma, the marine productivity export to Site U1417 is characterised by changes
272 in the relative contribution of siliceous microfossils and organic matter (Figure 4). These
273 changes culminate with an increase in organic matter export and almost complete
274 disappearance of siliceous remains across the PPT and early Pleistocene (Figure 4). A range of
275 factors could explain the siliceous/organic matter export changes, including (i) changes in
276 nutrient supply and phytoplankton production, (ii) water column stratification and carbon/silica
277 preservation, and/or (iii) the impact of sedimentation rate on phytoplankton burial efficiency
278 and preservation. Here we examine chronologically the forcings and responses behind the
279 siliceous and organic matter productivity export changes. According to these changes, the
280 record can be divided into three intervals: the early Pliocene (4.0-3.8 Ma), the late Pliocene
281 (3.7-2.82 Ma), and the PPT and early Pleistocene (2.8-1.66 Ma).

282 5.1 The early Pliocene (4.0-3.8 Ma): high biogenic silica export of high productivity coastal
283 habitats.

284 The maximum MAR of diatoms (up to 100×10^6 valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, Figure 3A) and
285 silicoflagellates (up to 0.3×10^6 valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, Figure 3A) suggests increased marine
286 productivity at Site U1417 during the early Pliocene. The high SWI indicates a highly diverse
287 diatom community (Figure 3B) at Site U1417, where diatoms originate from a range of
288 habitats: coastal high productivity, benthic, pelagic high productivity, coastal moderate,
289 pelagic warm and freshwater (from most to least abundant, Figure 3, Table S2). The biogenic
290 silica concentrations are also high, which accounts for the productivity, preservation and valve
291 sizes of a number of siliceous microorganisms such as diatoms, silicoflagellates and
292 radiolarians, the last two being less abundant at Site U1417 than diatoms.

293 The most prolific diatoms are *Chaetoceros* resting spores (up to 68×10^6 valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$,
294 Figure 3C, Table S2) which are abundant in high productive coastal waters in the GOA (e.g.,
295 Ren *et al.*, 2014). *Chaetoceros* dominate the diatom community of the GOA when iron is added
296 to the North Pacific (Tsuda *et al.*, 2003) and they develop resting spores after nutrient
297 consumption (Margalef, 1978). Therefore, the prolific coastal diatom productivity suggests
298 iron supply from the nearby continent and shelves to the neritic zone of the GOA (e.g., Ren *et al.*,
299 2014, Lam & Bishop, 2008). The marine productivity species at Site U1417 suggest a
300 productivity gradient during this time less steep towards the coast compared to present (Figure
301 1), where the maximum productivity export of diatoms occurs.

302 The low contribution of pelagic diatoms and marine biomarkers (brassicasterol, alkenones and
303 aquatic *n*-alkane MAR) suggests a limited open-ocean productivity in the GOA (Figure 4A, B
304 and C). This causes a contrast between a highly productive coastal zone which supported
305 diatom productivity in coastal habitats to the detriment of pelagic diatom, coccolithophores
306 and other marine phytoplankton productivity (Herbert, 2001). The regime of abundant micro-
307 nutrients and low macro-nutrients known as LNHC characterises the modern coastal Alaska
308 (Weingartner, 2007). The source of micro-nutrients during the Pliocene could be from two
309 terrestrial sources: glacial flour and/or aeolian dust (Müller *et al.*, 2018; Romero *et al.*, 2022).
310 Iron-rich glacial flour is abundant in modern coastal Alaska estuaries e.g., the Copper River
311 (Crusius *et al.*, 2011) and the continental margin (Lam and Bishop, 2008). Wind transport is
312 an important mechanism today for transporting dust from Alaska hundreds of kilometres
313 beyond the shelf break to the GOA (Crusius *et al.*, 2011, Crusius *et al.*, 2017). However, high
314 pollen abundance at Site U1417 during the early Pliocene suggests higher riverine terrestrial
315 input from coastal Alaska to the GOA (Pisias *et al.*, 2001; Sanchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). The
316 presence of freshwater diatoms contributing around 1% to the total diatom concentration in the
317 GOA is most likely attributed to Alaskan aeolian dust transport (Figure 4B) (e.g., Crusius *et al.*,
318 2011, Crusius *et al.*, 2017). Coastal diatoms have been previously interpreted as downslope

319 transport inputs to Site U1417 from the coastal area (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). Another explanation
320 is the ocean fertilisation by dust nutrient delivery and increase in coastal diatom productivity.

321 The 30% contribution of benthic diatoms to the total diatom MAR at Site U1417, despite its
322 location at 4,218 m water depth (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014), points to the transport of shallow water
323 habitat assemblages towards the Surveyor Fan (McGee *et al.*, 2008). The early Pliocene
324 lithology at Site U1417 contains gravity flow deposits, while the tectonic history in the GOA
325 and coastal Alaska during the Pliocene (Enkelmann *et al.*, 2015) may result in slope instability
326 and distal transport of shallow species to Site U1417, which lies ~700 km from the coastline
327 (comparable to distances observed in turbidity current transports offshore West Africa, Talling
328 *et al.*, 2021). Relatively high terrestrial *n*-alkane MAR (Figure 4C) suggest enhanced flux of
329 terrestrial OM input and rapid burial during gravity flows, which may also account for the
330 peaks in TOC (e.g., Hage *et al.*, 2020). Plant fragments were also observed at Site U1417, and
331 attributed to both mature (Rea *et al.*, 1995; Gulick *et al.*, 2015) and fresh (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014)
332 origins (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). High TN (Figure 4D) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of 3.7‰ (Figure
333 2C) suggest around 50% terrestrial origin of nitrogen at Site U1417 (Walinsky *et al.*, 2009). In
334 addition to the tectonic framework of the GOA, the presence of freshwater diatoms at Site
335 U1417 (Figure 4B) could support the importance of river transport and glacial development to
336 trigger slope instability and gravity flows (e.g., Pope *et al.*, 2018; Hage *et al.*, 2019).

337 The early Pliocene contains the highest concentration of benthic and freshwater diatoms
338 (average 15%) known to synthesize brassicasterol (e.g., Rampen *et al.*, 2010; Piepho *et al.*,
339 2011) found at U1417 (Table S2), yet brassicasterol concentrations are low during the early
340 Pliocene. Low brassicasterol concentrations could reflect organic matter degradation or less
341 favourable (nutrient) conditions for brassicasterol producers (Goad & Withers, 1982;
342 Kanazawa *et al.*, 1971; Lei *et al.*, 2012; Müller *et al.*, 2011; Volkman, 2006; Volkman, 1986).

343 The high diatom productivity (high diatom MAR) may have been supported by an abundant
344 ocean carbon pool with widely available ^{12}C , as shown by low bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ at this time (-24.7‰,
345 Figure 2C). A large carbon pool could suggest a very well mixed and oxygenated ocean. An
346 oxygenated water column would also favour silica preservation rather than organic matter
347 preservation, as observed in Site U1417 (Figure 4A and B, Figure 5B and C). The oxygenated
348 water column, perhaps aided by oxygen transport via turbidity currents, downwelling
349 movement of water masses and ocean mixing, could explain the low concentration of marine
350 biomarkers in the GOA during the early Pliocene (Figure 6). The low sedimentation rates
351 during the early Pliocene might also have favoured organic matter degradation at the sediment-
352 water interface due to longer exposure to oxidising conditions outside of the gravity flow events
353 (Figure 4A).

354 5.2 The late Pliocene (3.7-2.82 Ma): decrease in terrestrial and coastal biogenic silica and
355 increase in marine productivity.

356 The decrease in diatom and silicoflagellate MAR (Figure 3A) during the late Pliocene seems
357 to be caused by a decrease in flux and silica preservation (e.g. Thunell *et al.*, 1994; preservation
358 value, Figure 3B) and is accompanied by an increase in the number of pelagic diatom species
359 (Figure 3D). The main contributor to the total diatom MAR thus shifts from high productivity
360 coastal species during the early Pliocene (average of 54%) to a high productivity pelagic
361 environment during most of the late Pliocene (average of 56%; Figures 3C and D). These
362 ecological changes are accompanied by a higher diatom diversity during the late Pliocene than
363 during the early Pliocene (Figure 3B), which could partially explain a small increase in
364 biogenic silica preservation from the previous period (Figure 2A).

365 The disappearance of silicoflagellates from the record at 3.35 Ma (Figure 3A) occurs with an
366 increase in organic matter inputs to Site U1417. The progressive increase in productivity
367 indicators from coccolithophores (e.g., alkenones; Figure 4B) and other phytoplankton (aquatic
368 *n*-alkanes, Figure 4C) alongside increasing TOC and TN (Figure 4D) suggests better organic
369 matter preservation and/or increasing export production from marine sources. Terrigenous *n*-
370 alkanes decrease during most of the late Pliocene (Figure 4C) suggesting a reduction in land
371 vegetation and/or a reduced riverine/aerial terrestrial plant transport to Site U1417, also
372 suggested by an overall decrease in freshwater diatoms (Figure 4B). Progressively increasing
373 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ but decreasing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ across the late Pliocene suggests a limited carbon but abundant
374 bioavailable nitrogen pool for phytoplankton consumption (Figure 2C). A reduced ocean
375 mixing/more stratified water column, caused by slow ocean circulation or reduced gravity flow
376 movement, would limit the atmosphere-ocean ^{12}C exchange and increase bacterial nitrogen
377 fixation (Galbraith *et al.*, 2004).

378 The continuous presence of benthic diatoms suggests that downslope transport towards Site
379 U1417 still occurred during the late Pliocene but was reduced. The decrease in river transport
380 could reflect an increasingly glaciated landscape, as suggested in Sánchez-Montes *et al.* (2020),
381 which is supported by higher sedimentation rates (Figure 5D; Gulick *et al.*, 2015). Reduced
382 downwelling is suggested by decreased silica preservation and increased organic matter
383 preservation. Further, the LNHC region in the GOA reduced in extent due to a higher
384 macronutrient availability and allowed the expansion of marine pelagic communities across a
385 range of producers (including diatoms and coccolithophores, Figure 3D and 4B) and increased
386 the overall ocean diversity (Figure 3B). In addition, the less mixed water column would have
387 favoured bacterial nitrogen fixation (Galbraith *et al.*, 2004), phytoplankton nitrogen
388 consumption and phytoplankton nitrogen burial (Figure 4D).

389 As the glaciation progressed during the late Pliocene, there is evidence of tectonic uplift and
390 glaciations causing changes in the Alaskan landscape such as a shift in the Yukon River flow,
391 from originally southward direction to the GOA to flow westward to the Bering Sea (Duk-
392 Rodkin *et al.*, 2004), which would have reduced riverine terrestrial and freshwater input to the
393 GOA. Similarly, reversal of the Bering Strait throughflow from southward to northward at 3.6
394 Ma (Horikawa *et al.*, 2015) away from the North Pacific to the Arctic Ocean, may also have
395 impacted the ocean circulation in the GOA. The resulting enhanced organic matter MAR from
396 reduced river runoff and decrease in strength of ocean currents in the GOA could reflect
397 improved preservation resulting from a more stratified water column.

398 The MPWP (3.33-3.19 Ma) is noted separately here as it has several specific characteristics
399 which are different from the rest of the Pliocene at Site U1417. Although there is a sharp
400 reduction in diatom MAR (3.25-3.19 Ma; Figure 4A) elevated marine export productivity is
401 indicated by high abundances of pelagic diatom species (with an average of 88%, Figure 3D)
402 accompanied by peaks in brassicasterol (Figure 4A), alkenones (Figure 4B) and aquatic *n*-
403 alkane (Figure 4C) MAR, alongside peaks in Ba/Al (330-350 ppm %⁻¹) and CaCO₃ (<2 %) at
404 Site U1417 (Zindorf *et al.*, 2019; Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). The higher susceptibility of brassicasterol
405 than alkenones to degradation (Gaskell *et al.*, 1974; Wakeham *et al.*, 2002) suggest a combined
406 favouring of water chemistry and nutrient regime for brassicasterol producers (diatoms) to the
407 detriment of alkenone producers (haptophyte). The reduced diatom diversity and shift to
408 increasingly open ocean productivity conditions, dominated by pelagic high productivity
409 environments, is consistent with the reduction of diatom biodiversity in other marine habitats
410 (Figure 5B) (Nakov *et al.*, 2019).

411 The driver(s) for the enhanced MPWP marine production at Site U1417 could reflect enhanced
412 nutrient supply to the centre of the Alaskan gyre as productivity gradients relax during warmer

413 intervals (Figure 1) and/or improved preservation of the productivity proxies. There is a sharp
414 reduction in benthic and coastal high productivity diatoms during the MPWP since the marine
415 isotope stage M2, suggesting that gravity flows decreased, which may have been aided by a
416 decrease in riverine inputs due to the expansion of mountain glaciation in Alaska (Horikawa *et*
417 *al.*, 2015; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). Peaks in terrestrial *n*-alkane MAR show that erosion
418 and transport of terrestrial material to the site was still occurring, potentially by wind and/or
419 glaciers if riverine inputs were reduced (e.g., Müller *et al.*, 2018; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020).
420 These terrestrial inputs would likely still have provided a source of terrestrial iron. The general
421 increase in ocean productivity (Figure 5B) during colder periods of the MPWP suggests
422 increased atmosphere and ocean circulation and increased deep nutrient availability to the
423 photic zone of the GOA under a HNLC region. Stratification during warmer periods of the
424 MPWP would have been achieved by ice melting and increased ocean heat absorbance (e.g.,
425 Behera *et al.*, 2021) while the MPWP poleward shift of the westerly winds might have been
426 able to occasionally break the stratification in the GOA (Abell *et al.*, 2021).

427 The overall sluggish circulation during the late Pliocene may suggest an ocean circulation
428 reorganization in the GOA after the northward shift of the Yukon River outlet and Bering Strait
429 throughflow. An interesting increase in pelagic warm water productivity (up to 45% of
430 diatoms) might shed some light on the origin of the first C_{37:4} peak above 5% in the GOA at
431 3.0 Ma, interpreted as the first evidence of glacier tidewater freshwater runoff in the GOA since
432 4.0 Ma (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). This could indicate that ice (i.e. tidewater glaciers)
433 might have developed in the coastal GOA during the MPWP, the terminus of which might then
434 have been melted by the northward advection of warm Pacific waters, such as the NPC (Figure
435 1). The injection of warm waters from lower latitude North Pacific to the GOA (shown by
436 pelagic warm diatoms) and an increase in coastal moderate productivity diatoms seem to
437 anticipate blooms in the gyre diatom communities (peaks in pelagic high productivity diatoms)
438 characterising the transitional diatom communities during the late Pliocene. The new
439 oceanography and reduction of freshwater input to the GOA allowed the Alaskan gyre to bring
440 warm NPC waters to Site U1417. It might be that the new ocean configuration in the GOA
441 with higher influence from lower latitudes during the late Pliocene allowed the rapid expansion
442 of the CIS (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020).

443 5.3 The late Pliocene - early Pleistocene (2.8-1.66 Ma): increase in organic matter export.

444 The change from higher siliceous to higher organic matter productivity export, first observed
445 in our record during the MPWP, becomes a permanent characteristic during the PPT and early
446 Pleistocene (2.8-1.66 Ma; Figures 4A and B). The dominant pelagic contribution from diatoms
447 to the productivity export since 2.8 Ma suggests that the alkenone MAR indicates total
448 productivity export (Raja & Rosell-Melé, 2021) where the productivity was higher in central
449 GOA and the productivity gradient shifted towards the coast (Figure 1). From 2.8 Ma, diatoms
450 almost completely disappear from the record and TOC, TN and biomarkers increase more
451 rapidly (Figure 4). Concentrations in terrestrial *n*-alkanes also increase but also become more
452 variable, suggesting a mixture of transport mechanisms at play e.g., wind and glacial runoff
453 (Figure 4D). The synchronous response of increasing terrigenous and aquatic *n*-alkanes seems
454 to reflect ocean fertilisation through wind and/or glacial runoff-derived nutrients (Figure 4C,
455 Figure 5 C and D).

456 We propose that the increase in pelagic productivity from 2.8 Ma occurred under a strong
457 Alaska gyre fuelled by an Aleutian Low (AL) centred in the GOA (Sancetta & Silvetri, 1986)
458 and highly functioning ocean-ice-climate linkages (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020) which
459 favoured ocean fertilisation (Figure 6). Frequent glacial meltwater influence in the GOA is
460 supported by peaks in C_{37:4} above 5% after 2.8 Ma (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020, Figure 5C),

461 where sea-ice (Wang *et al.*, 2021) at Site U1417's climatic setting likely played a minor role.
462 A stratified and warmer water column (Figure 5A and C) could suggest a decrease in oxygen
463 availability in the surface ocean and a shallower remineralisation depth that favoured the
464 carbon pump (Crichton *et al.*, 2021). Warm intervals of the GOA have previously been linked
465 to a decrease in dissolved oxygen (Galbraith *et al.*, 2004; Barron *et al.*, 2009; Zindorf *et al.*,
466 2020). Since the late Pliocene until 2.4 Ma, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ display a variable but an overall
467 decreasing trend, suggesting a progressively larger pool of carbon and bioavailable nitrogen
468 feeding the marine phytoplankton. The increase in organic nitrogen during 2.8-2.4 Ma suggests
469 a slow ocean circulation and an overall stratified water column (Galbraith *et al.*, 2004), storing
470 nutrients in the deeper ocean, where nitrogen could become bioavailable by increased nitrogen
471 fixation and would become available to the surface with episodes of ocean mixing. During the
472 early Pleistocene (2.4-1.66 Ma) the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ remains low, however the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ increases suggesting
473 an increase in inorganic nitrogen supply (Figure 3C).

474 The higher alkenone and brassicasterol (haptophyte and diatoms) export suggests that the GOA
475 iron abundance decreased region during the late Pliocene-early Pleistocene similarly to during
476 the MPWP and at modern times (Martin and Fitzwater, 1988; Martin *et al.*, 1991; Hinckley *et*
477 *al.*, 2009). The marine productivity was controlled by the availability of nutrients accumulated
478 in the deep GOA, made available when increased wind speeds increased ocean mixing,
479 interrupting an otherwise highly stratified water column configuration (peaks in alkenones and
480 brassicasterol, Figure 4A and B; Abell *et al.*, 2021; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). The highest
481 TOC and TN of the record are found between 2.4 and 1.66 Ma suggesting the highest carbon
482 and nitrogen deep ocean storage. However, TOC and TN show a slowly decreasing trend
483 which, together with similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and an increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ from the previous interval (2.8-2.4
484 Ma), suggests a shift towards reducing organic carbon export to the deep sea, perhaps reflecting
485 enhanced respiration in the water column and return of carbon to the atmosphere under an
486 intensified ocean circulation (Galbraith *et al.*, 2004). A better ventilated ocean is consistent
487 with the frequent peaks in terrestrial *n*-alkanes attributed previously to strong winds, which
488 could have promoted oxygenated conditions in the GOA, consistent with our observed decrease
489 in brassicasterol preservation and increased diatom concentrations (although still very low,
490 $0.04\text{-}0.4$ Million valves cm^{-2} kyr^{-1}) (Figure 4). The increase of diatoms (2.0-1.66 Ma) supports
491 the aeolian supply of terrestrial nutrients, possibly aided by glacial meltwater input. Upwelling
492 centred in the GOA and ocean fertilization is a characteristic of the northeast Pacific at present
493 under the influence of the AL atmospheric circulation and HNLC configuration.

494 During 2.4-2.0 Ma, the increase in alkenone MAR (Figure 4A and B) and the fragmentary
495 brassicasterol record suggest a less stratified ocean column and increased upwelling conditions
496 in the HNLC region. Intensified winds during 2.4-1.66 Ma (deduced from high terrestrial *n*-
497 alkane concentrations) under the influence of the AL and increased deep ocean mixing due to
498 increased gyre circulation might have been responsible for the increases in terrestrial input and
499 deep nutrient availability in the photic zone, respectively, corresponding to a HNLC region.
500 The increase in nutrient availability resulted in a higher marine productivity export and high
501 carbon and nitrogen deep storage (high TN, TOC; Figure 5E) which suggests a still strongly
502 reductive ocean interior.

503 5.4 Implications for ocean circulation and CO_2 storage in the GOA during the CIS
504 development.

505 We have outlined several scenarios of changing Pliocene and early Pleistocene productivity in
506 the GOA, as well as changes in likely nutrient sources. The biogeochemical changes in the
507 water column described at Site U1417 follow an eccentricity-driven ~ 400 kyr cyclicity (Figure
508 3). Although the patterns are complex, we note that low eccentricity periods can be linked to

509 surface ocean cooling and changes in the CIS extent (Figure 5). We suggest here that this in
510 turn resulted in impacts on nutrients and productivity offshore linked to changes in the Alaskan
511 and the Aleutian Low (Sancetta & Silvestri, 1986; Barron, 1998). We propose that eccentricity
512 minima and cooler periods on land triggered an increased glaciation and changed the regional
513 oceanography of the GOA via internal feedback mechanisms. For example, the disappearance
514 of silicoflagellates (3.48 Ma), the reduced diatom productivity export (M2 and KM2) and the
515 disappearance of diatoms (2.8 Ma) all mark the Pliocene ~400kyr eccentricity cycles of silica
516 dissolution under increased ocean reductive conditions linked to a shift towards increased gyre
517 circulation.

518 The 100 kyr cycles of lower amplitude eccentricity changes linked to a slightly more active
519 gyre circulation are also reflected in relatively cool periods such as the Gi4 at 3.65 Ma and Gi2
520 at 3.60 Ma. Stage Gi4 impacted productivity export by decreasing the terrestrial freshwater
521 diatom input to Site U1417, the latter by dissolving the silica momentarily from the record.
522 Peaks in alkenone MAR at Site U1417 mark the 400 kyr and some 100 kyr low eccentricity
523 events and could be attributable to a higher biological pump during cooler climate (Boscolo-
524 Galazzo *et al.*, 2021; Crichton *et al.*, 2021; Figure 4B). These low eccentricity conditions
525 intensified overall during the CIS expansion at 2.8 Ma (Figure 5), where the Alaskan gyre
526 became more active driving pelagic productivity at the centre of the GOA. Decrease in diatom
527 and increases in pelagic high productivity at the centre of the Alaskan gyre suggests a steep
528 productivity gradient shifted towards the coastal region (Figures 4 and 5) (Barron, 1998).
529 Productivity peaks in the subarctic Pacific have been associated with lower dissolved oxygen
530 under warmer climate (Barron *et al.*, 2009; Knudson *et al.*, 2021), which suggests a more
531 reductive ocean during the PPT and an increase in carbon burial efficiency (Lopes *et al.*, 2015).
532 Lower productivity during warmer SSTs, with a stratified ocean and increased atmospheric
533 oxygen, has also been suggested due to a higher carbon remineralisation in the water column
534 and lower C pump (Boscolo-Galazzo *et al.*, 2021; Fakhraee *et al.*, 2020; Komar & Zeebe, 2021;
535 Crichton *et al.*, 2021). However, in the northeast Pacific, ecosystem and sea-floor controls have
536 been identified as playing a bigger role than SST to increase carbon export despite lower
537 productivity (Lopes *et al.*, 2015). In addition, under a warmer climate and more stratified
538 ocean, productivity export has been suggested to increase due to an increase in carbon
539 remineralisation in the upper ocean resulting in increase in productivity, whereas the carbon
540 pump remains largely similar before and after warming (Crichton *et al.*, 2021). SSTs increase
541 ~1°C at Site U1417 during the early Pleistocene in comparison with the late Pliocene (Sánchez-
542 Montes *et al.*, 2020). An SST increase of 0.6 °C is estimated to reduce by 5% the particulate
543 organic carbon at a 1 km water column depth (Crichton *et al.*, 2021). Carbon remineralisation
544 at 4 km deep (Site U1417) is therefore likely to have contributed minimally to decrease C
545 export across the Plio-Pleistocene, where other sites in the northeast Pacific register lower SSTs
546 (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020). As a result, we do not think that changes in organic matter
547 remineralisation in response to changing ocean temperatures can account for the shift in MAR
548 we identify here, leaving a change in export production as the most likely driver of the changes
549 we observe. During the CIS retreat at 1.9 Ma, offshore productivity is high as well as the
550 transport of coastal productivity diatoms returns to Site U1417 suggesting an increase in iron
551 delivered to the GOA (Costa *et al.*, 2017) and a return to slightly more oxygenated conditions.

552 Site U1417 sits in the Surveyor Fan while ODP 887 sits in the Aleutian Abyssal Plain (Rea &
553 Snoeckx, 1995). While we note an apparent higher terrigenous input at ODP 887 than U1417
554 across the Pliocene and early Pleistocene (Figure 7), these records need to be considered to
555 reflect different environmental proxies (coarse and fine mineral clasts vs. long-chain n-alkanes,
556 respectively) and settings. Sedimentation rates are higher at Site U1417 than ODP 887 across
557 the Pliocene and early Pleistocene (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014; Rea & Snoeckx, 1995) suggesting

558 higher terrigenous inputs to Site U1417 than ODP 887, which is explained by proximity to the
559 CIS (ODP 887 is located 200 km southwest of U1417, further away from the CIS; Figure 7).
560 Site U1417 recorded similar biogenic silica MAR to ODP 887 (3,634-meter water depth,
561 Figure 7). Compared to other sites of the North and equatorial Pacific, ODP 887 and Site U1417
562 contain the lowest biogenic silica and alkenone MAR during the Pliocene-early Pleistocene
563 (Figure 7). This could suggest a similar biogenic silica preservation across the east subarctic
564 Pacific due to more oxygenated/reduced water column (Galbraith *et al.*, 2004), where ODP
565 887, closer to the centre of the AL suffered larger variations in silica preservation than Site
566 U1417 which is located under the AC (Figure 7). Comparing the subpolar gyre, which expands
567 across Site U1417, ODP 887 and ODP 882, there is an order of magnitude higher biogenic
568 silica MAR at ODP 882, under the influence of the Kamchatka Current in the west subarctic
569 Pacific (3,244 m water depth) than in the GOA (Figure 7). The highest alkenone MAR are
570 recorded at Site 1012, under the influence of the California Current (1,772 m water depth,
571 Figure 7), followed by ODP 846 under the Peru Current and close to the Equatorial
572 Undercurrent (3,307 water depth, Figure 7). According to these patterns, the sites located in
573 shallower water depths exhibited the highest productivity MAR, which suggests better
574 preservation but could also suggest that shallower water columns were more easily mixed or
575 had greater terrestrial nutrient supply to trigger productivity blooms.

576 However, as noted for Site U1417, the PPT development of the CIS and the NHG more
577 generally affected the preservation of siliceous and organic matter remains in the whole North
578 Pacific, where biogenic silica decreases and organic matter increases (Figure 7). In addition,
579 terrestrial inputs during the PPT increase, suggesting ocean fertilisation and an increase in
580 marine productivity in the northeast and possibly the equatorial Pacific (Figure 7). In particular
581 across 2.4-2.0 Ma, ocean fertilisation and productivity at the North Pacific Site U1417 and
582 ODP 1012 are maximum during the increase in gyre circulation (e.g. Barron *et al.*, 2002) and
583 increase in AL and North Pacific High systems, which suggest an increase in the westerly wind
584 strength (Abell *et al.*, 2021). The east equatorial Pacific, however, shows a decrease in
585 coccolithophore productivity probably explained by weaker trade winds at ODP 846 and
586 disruptions in the Pacific Cold Tongue (Liu *et al.*, 2019). From all regions represented in Figure
587 7, ODP 846 is the only region that cooled across the PPT (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020),
588 supporting weaker trade winds and a rapid switch from La Niña to El Niño-like conditions.
589 The same northeast Pacific productivity and terrigenous input pattern observed for 2.4-2.0 Ma
590 also appears during the MPWP, when a weaker east equatorial Pacific upwelling system
591 suggests an expansion of the equatorial warm pool (Liu *et al.*, 2019). The expansion of the
592 equatorial warm pool also suggests a nutrient leakage of deep ocean nutrients (macronutrients)
593 to northern latitudes and a drier Asian continent to increase in dust (micronutrients) from the
594 Loess Plateau to the North Pacific (Abell *et al.*, 2021), driving the highest sustained
595 coccolithophore productivity between 2.4 and 2.0 Ma and the shift to open ocean productivity
596 during the MPWP and HNLC conditions. The nutrient leakage from the equatorial to the North
597 Pacific seems to have also played a role in the biogeochemistry changes observed at Site U1417
598 discussed above. Furthermore, these mechanisms aid a detachment from the aeolian and the
599 riverine/glacial terrigenous *n*-alkane signal. The highest peaks in terrigenous *n*-alkanes at Site
600 U1417 seem to be driven by an increase of terrigenous inputs from the Loess Plateau under a
601 stronger atmospheric and ocean circulation (Abell *et al.*, 2021), whereas the background
602 (smaller) peaks seem to correlate with increase in riverine/glacial terrigenous inputs from the
603 GOA (Figure 7D). Source studies of terrestrial input to Site U1417 during the PPT and early
604 Pleistocene suggest similar to modern coastal detrital provenance of Alaskan coast and Asia
605 (Rea *et al.*, 1995, Horikawa *et al.*, 2015) of the inorganic nitrogen and iron input to Site U1417
606 (Figure S1). The erosion of lithologies at lower altitudes as the glaciation progresses (Figure

607 S1, Perry *et al.*, 2009; Chapman *et al.*, 2012) is consistent with more recent source
608 interpretations in the GOA (Huber & Bahlburg, 2021).

609 In addition, the change in heat supply from the equator to the North Pacific due to
610 oceanographic changes might have resulted in the CIS glaciation attempt during the M2 (De
611 Schepper *et al.*, 2013) and CIS build up across the 2.4-2.0 Ma (Site U1417 highest
612 sedimentation rates, Figure 5D). The Kuroshio Extension characteristic microfossil tropical
613 species (Lam & Leckie, 2020) and its increase at Site U1417 during stronger North Pacific
614 gyre circulation (Gallagher *et al.*, 2015) suggest the Kuroshio Extension influence in the GOA
615 since the late Pliocene (Gallagher *et al.*, 2015). The expanded storm track which characterises
616 modern El Niño (Joh *et al.*, 2021), in addition to a the permanent negative PDO-like climate in
617 the North Pacific across the Pliocene-early Pleistocene (Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2020) and
618 mountain building (Enkelmann *et al.*, 2015) would increase ice accumulation on land under
619 lower atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Figure 5A).

620 The eccentricity and biogeochemical changes observed in the GOA are observable in the North
621 Pacific, at least at the 400kyr cycles with some other cycles that are marked by eccentricity
622 minima at 3.8, 3.3, 3.2, 2.8, 2.4 and 2.0 Ma, where the subpolar gyre has been suggested to be
623 the driver of changes in the subtropical Pacific gyre (Sancetta & Silvestri, 1986). Despite higher
624 biogenic silica concentrations than Site U1417 before the PPT, ODP 882 and ODP 887
625 biogenic silica MAR decrease to comparable concentrations than Site U1417 after the PPT
626 resulting in an average homogeneous biogenic silica MAR of 0.4 g cm⁻² kyr⁻¹ across east and
627 west subarctic Pacific (Figure 7). The southward component of the Bering Sea (Horikawa *et al.*,
628 2015) and the Yukon River flow during the early Pliocene (Duk-Rodkin *et al.*, 2004),
629 together with the productivity characteristics of the subarctic Pacific suggests that the early
630 Pliocene circulation in the North Pacific was different compared to modern, probably caused
631 by a different topography due to ongoing tectonic changes in coastal Alaska (Enkelmann *et al.*,
632 2015). However, during the PPT, the west subarctic Pacific and the Alaska gyre unified under
633 a HNLC region during the ocean reorganization across the late Pliocene and water column
634 stratification during iCIS. This suggests a closer cycling of ocean current between east and
635 west Pacific, with the Alaska Stream traveling westward in a subpolar gyre similar to present.
636 We further suggest that the new ocean configuration of strong Alaska Gyre and increased ACC
637 transport from the GOA through the Bering Sea towards the Arctic (Horikawa *et al.*, 2015)
638 may have contributed to freshening in the Arctic Ocean and sea-ice formation (Matthiessen *et al.*,
639 2009).

640 Unlike the rest of the Pacific sites in Figure 7, the development of the subarctic Pacific HNLC
641 is a key region because increases in phytoplankton productivity and preservation associated
642 with the development of the CIS and water column stratification could impact the C budget via
643 atmospheric CO₂ drawdown. This is especially important considering that before the iCIS and
644 ocean stratification, the subarctic Pacific's effective respiration of organic matter would have
645 contributed to maintaining the high Pliocene CO₂ concentrations via ocean carbon degassing
646 (Figure 6). The subarctic Pacific HNLC region is subject to availability of micronutrients to
647 the photic zone (Crichton *et al.*, 2021) and therefore, the GOA closer to the CIS (in particular
648 Site U1417, which registers sedimentation rates four times higher than ODP 887, Jaeger *et al.*,
649 2014; Rea & Snoeckx, 1993) plays a key role in C fixation and burial. Considering the GOA
650 defined as the area contained within a line across the Kodiak Island and the Dixon Entrance
651 (USGS, 1981), the Surveyor Fan extends across two thirds of the GOA, the other one third is
652 occupied by the Baranoff Fan and ODP887, in the Aleutian Abyssal Plain, is excluded (Rea &
653 Snoeckx, 1993). The Surveyor and Baranoff Fans are similar in area and volume and share a
654 similar climatic and tectonic history, where they transitioned from riverine towards higher

655 glacial inputs through the Pleistocene, however the sediment provenance of the Baranoff Fan
656 in the Coast Mountains (Walton *et al.*, 2014) is different to the Surveyor Fan from the St. Elias
657 Mountains (Enkelmann *et al.*, 2014) and there is a lack of understanding of the area to date.
658 Based on the Surveyor Fan alone and assuming similar sedimentation rates and marine
659 productivity responses to the climate changes across the fan, increases in TOC MAR at Site
660 U1417 across the PPT results to an estimated 404 ± 23 Pg carbon export increase in the
661 Surveyor Fan during the iCIS and early Pleistocene in comparison to the rest of the Pliocene.
662 The increase in organic carbon burial of the order of $186 \pm 20\%$ in the Surveyor Fan occurred
663 during a period of $13 \pm 2\%$ decrease in the global atmospheric CO₂ across the iCIS and early
664 Pleistocene (de la Vega *et al.*, 2020). This might suggest that despite the GOA is a small area,
665 the increase in the sediment rates and organic matter burial across the early Pleistocene could
666 have contributed to the global atmospheric CO₂ reduction. However, these numbers are
667 indicative only, and more research is needed to quantify the maximum and minimum extent of
668 carbon burial more accurately during the Plio-Pleistocene transition. Both elevated
669 productivity and better organic matter preservation could have been important for increasing
670 deep ocean and sediment storage of organic matter, and potentially drawing down atmospheric
671 CO₂ and cooling the climate (e.g., Burdige, 2007) under short (orbital) time scales (e.g., during
672 low eccentricity intervals in the MPWP; de la Vega *et al.*, 2020; Figure 5B), and longer time
673 scales (e.g., across the PPT). In addition, high marine diversity during the late Pliocene might
674 have slowly contributed to atmospheric CO₂ drawdown as suggested for the present day
675 (Palevsky *et al.*, 2013). Globally, the atmospheric CO₂ decreased about 100 ppm during the
676 PPT (Figure 5B), where 40% of the modern decadal atmospheric CO₂ variability has been
677 attributed to ocean forcing (DeVries *et al.*, 2019). Similarly as what we find in the GOA during
678 the PPT, carbon sinking at modern is accelerating in the Pacific (Carter *et al.*, 2019). Further
679 work is needed to estimate the GOA's contribution to global atmospheric CO₂ decrease during
680 the Pliocene and Pleistocene.

681 **6. Conclusions**

682 The Pliocene and early Pleistocene productivity at Site U1417 is characterised by a decrease
683 in siliceous microfossil export from coastal habitats and an increase in pelagic organic matter
684 productivity. We attribute this change to a biogeochemical shift from (i) oxygenated, high
685 micro-nutrient availability but low nitrogen bioavailability (low nutrient high chlorophyll,
686 LNHC region), to (ii) reductive deep Gulf of Alaska (GOA), with restricted macro and micro-
687 nutrients but high nitrogen bioavailability (high-nutrient-low-chlorophyll, HNLC region),
688 during the Plio-Pleistocene transition (PPT). We conclude that both tectonic uplift in the St.
689 Elias mountains since the Pliocene during short-lived low eccentricity cycles increased the
690 Cordilleran Ice Sheet glaciation and altered atmospheric and ocean circulation patterns, ocean
691 biogeochemistry, and marine productivity. The stronger eccentricity cycles (~400 kyr) marked
692 glacial events, with associated peaks in marine productivity export which could have drawn
693 down CO₂ from the atmosphere e.g., the KM2 at 3.2 Ma, at 2.8 Ma, 2.4 Ma and 2.0 Ma. In
694 contrast, during the shorter (100 kyr) higher eccentricity period glacials, climate feedback
695 mechanisms of increased glaciation on land, decrease riverine and terrestrial nutrient inputs to
696 the GOA derived in enhanced HNLC conditions and increased reductive conditions in the
697 GOA. Over longer time scales (PPT) the GOA is potentially an important region due to the
698 variability and, crucially, the increase in ocean fertilisation taking place. Changes in bottom
699 water conditions, in particular trends to more reductive conditions can potentially help to
700 account for increasing glaciation in Alaska, potentially having an impact on decreasing
701 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and contributing to cooling the climate.

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714 **Open Research**

715 The new datasets in this article are available at Pangaea (Sánchez-Montes *et al.* 2021).

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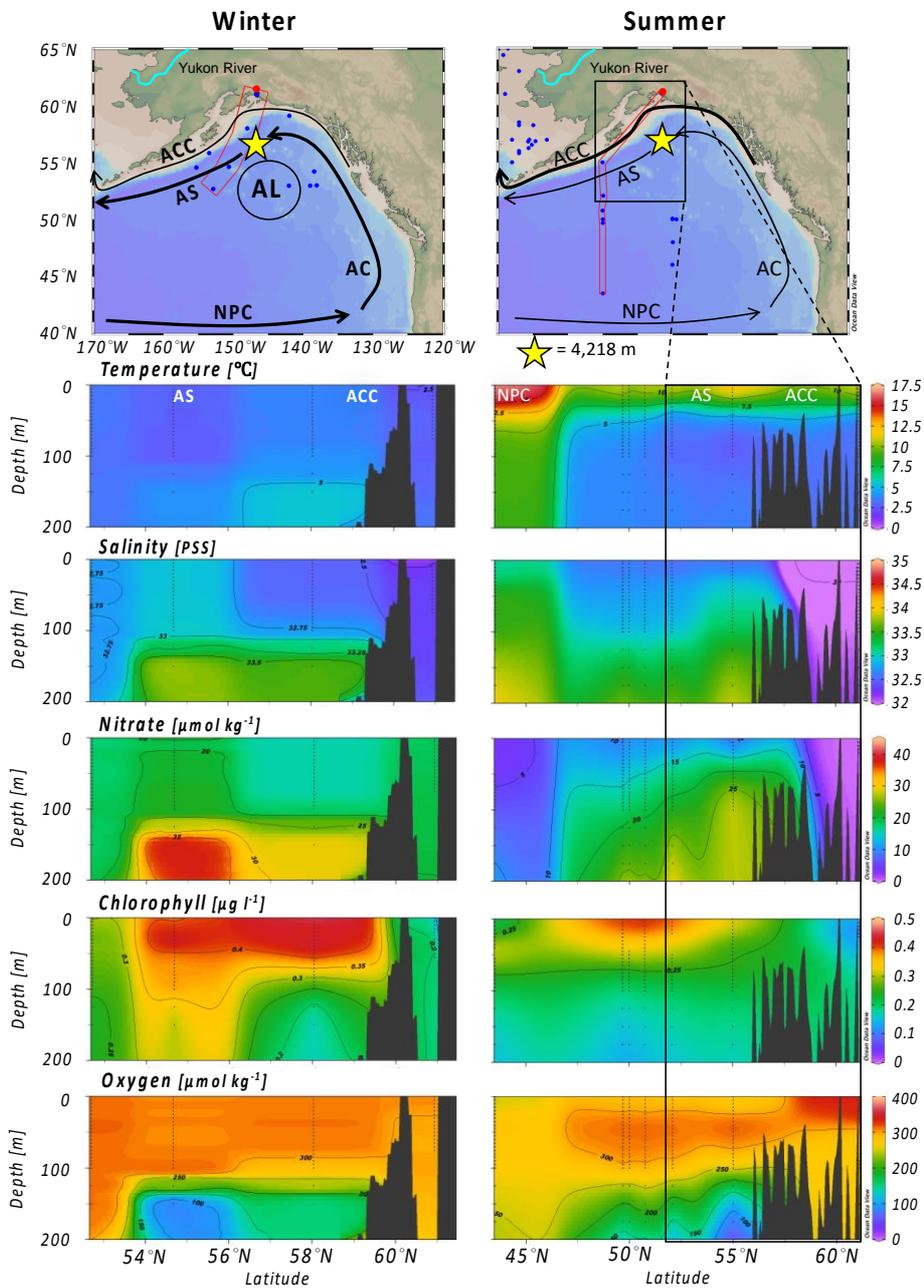
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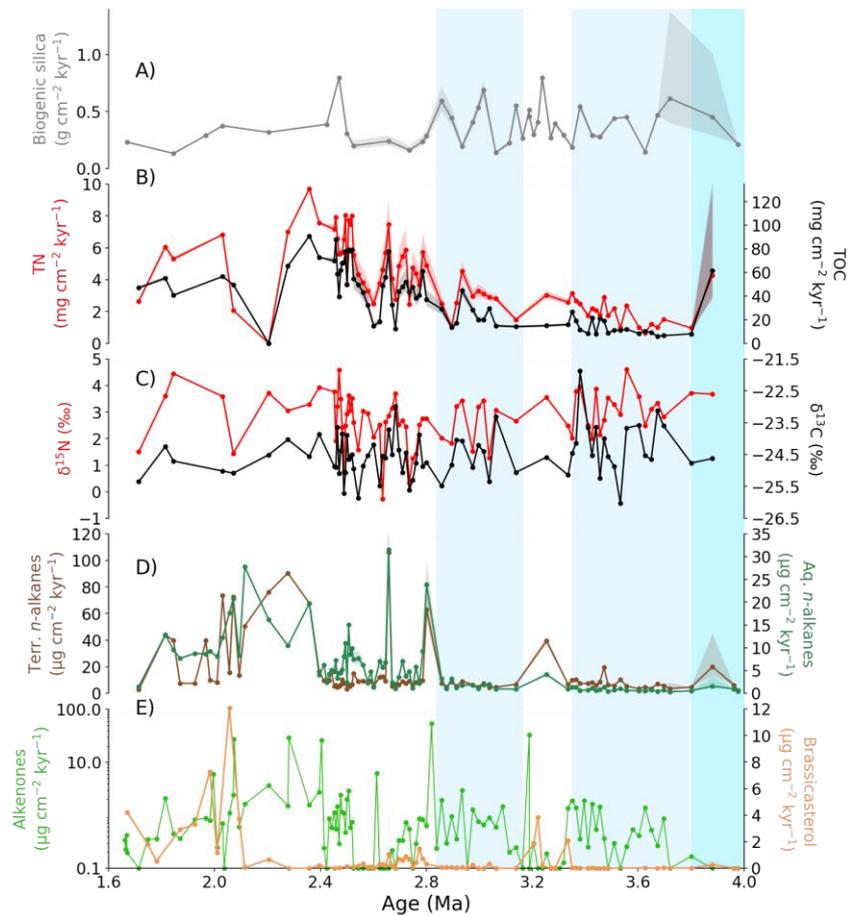
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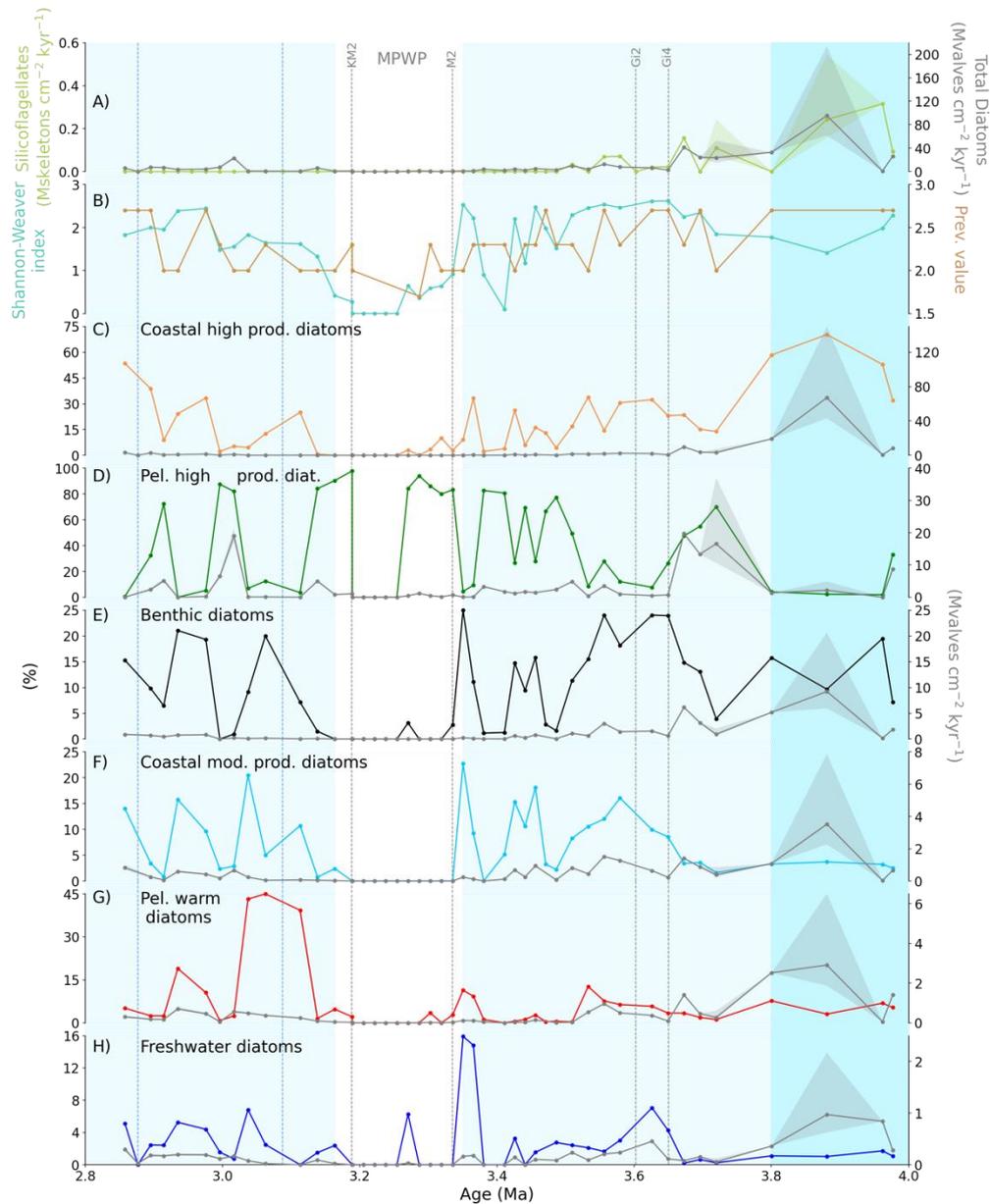
1136 **Figure 1:** Modern ocean currents and onshore to offshore water properties in the GOA. Map
 1137 of the GOA showing data collection sites (blue dots) and selected transect (red rectangle, upper
 1138 panels) that give rise to the vertical plots; temperature (°C) salinity (pss), nitrate ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$),
 1139 chlorophyll ($\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$) and oxygen ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) during winter (F-M, left) and summer (J-A-S,
 1140 right). ACC=Alaska Coastal Current, AC=Alaska Current, AS= Alaska Stream, NPC=North
 1141 Pacific Current, AL=Aleutian Low. The location of site U1417 is indicated with yellow stars
 1142 and the River Yukon is represented in blue in the upper panels. Data downloaded from World
 1143 Ocean Database (Boyer *et al.*, 2013), bathymetry data downloaded from GEBCO (GEBCO,
 1144 2020) and plotted with Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2016). The CIS would occupy the highest

1145 Alaskan topography (darker brown colours) of Wrangell-St. Elias and McKenzie Mountains,
 1146 partially the Yukon and Tanana upland and Olgivine Mountains during the Pliocene-early
 1147 Pleistocene (2.9-2.6 Ma, Duk-Rodkin *et al.*, 2004).



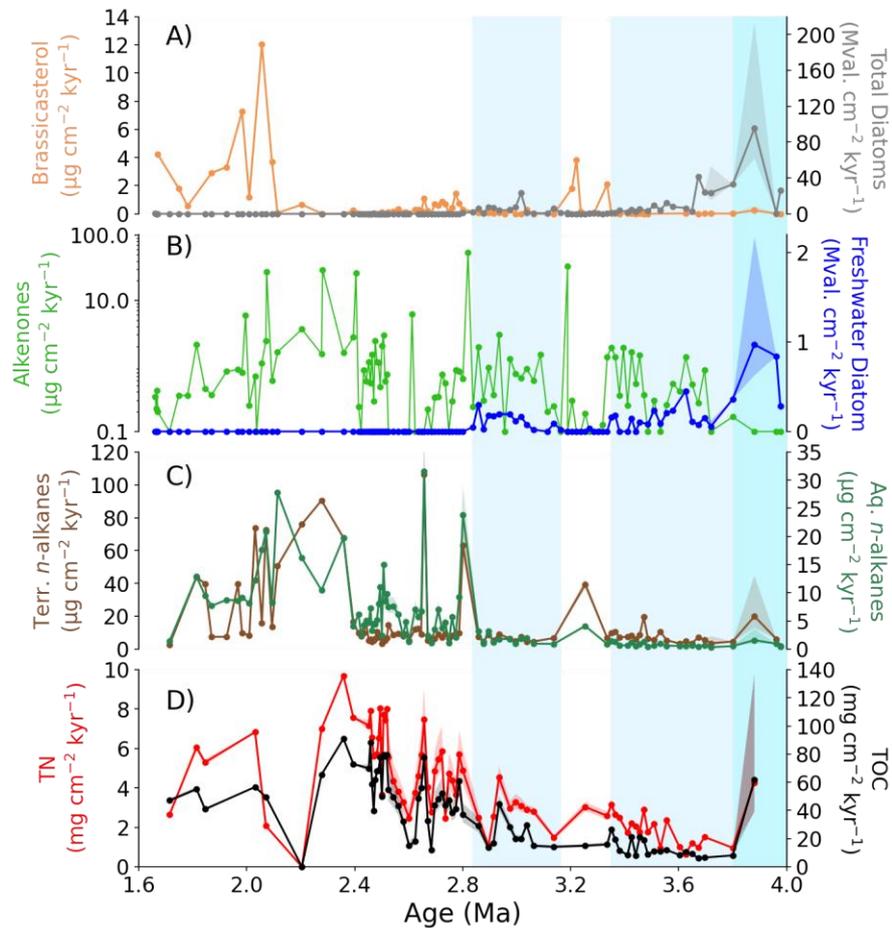
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1149 **Figure 2:** Terrestrial and marine productivity bulk and biomarker results at Site U1417. **a)**
 1150 Biogenic silica MAR ($\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$), **b)** total nitrogen ($\text{mg cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, red) and total organic
 1151 carbon MAR ($\text{mg cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, black) and **c)** $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰, red) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰, black); **d)** Terrestrial
 1152 (brown, left) and aquatic (turquoise, right) n-alkanes MAR ($\mu \text{g cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$) and **e)** alkenone
 1153 (green, left) and brassicasterol MAR (orange, right) ($\mu \text{g cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$). Shadings indicate
 1154 uncertainties in MAR associated with the age and depth uncertainties of the tie-points in Jaeger
 1155 *et al.* (2014) and age-depth adjustments in Sánchez-Montes *et al.* (2020).



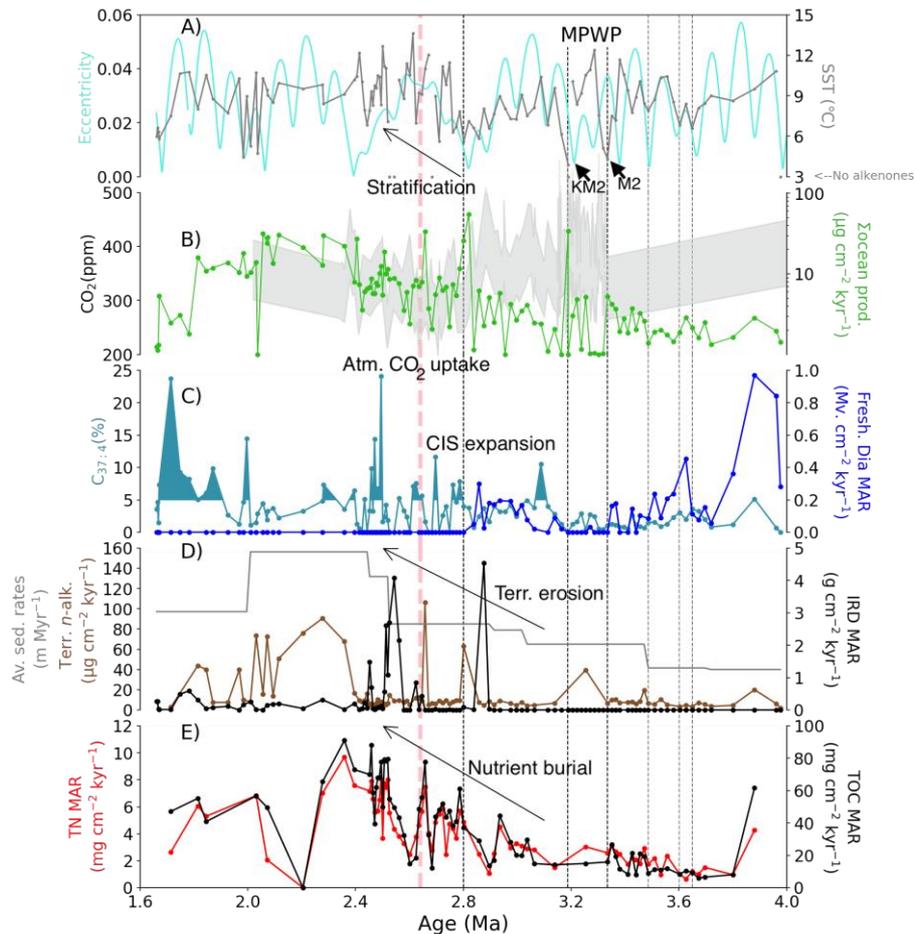
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1157 **Figure 3:** Detailed Pliocene (4.0-2.8 Ma) marine productivity export at Site U1417. **a)**
 1158 Silicoflagellate MAR (million skeletons $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, green) and total diatom MAR (million
 1159 valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, grey); **b)** the Shannon-Weaver index of diversity of species (turquoise) and
 1160 the preservation value (brown); **c)** coastal high productivity diatom species relative abundance
 1161 (%; orange) and MAR (million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, grey); **d)** pelagic high productivity diatom
 1162 species relative abundance (%; green) and MAR (million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, grey); **e)**
 1163 benthic diatom species relative abundance (%; in black) and MAR (million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, grey); **f)**
 1164 coastal moderate productivity diatom species relative abundance (%; in blue) and MAR
 1165 (million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, grey); **g)** pelagic warm diatom species relative abundance (%; in
 1166 red) and MAR (million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, grey) and **h)** freshwater diatoms relative abundance
 1167 (%; blue) and MAR (million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$, grey). Vertical lines correspond to glacial stages
 1168 (grey) and key events on the CIS runoff history (blue, see text). Blue vertical shadings indicate
 1169 higher (deeper blue) and high (light blue) biogenic silica preservation, the non-shaded interval
 1170 indicates poor silica preservation. Shadings indicate uncertainties in MAR associated with the
 1171 age and depth uncertainties of the tie-points in Jaeger *et al.* (2014) and age-depth adjustments
 1172 in Sánchez-Montes *et al.* (2020).



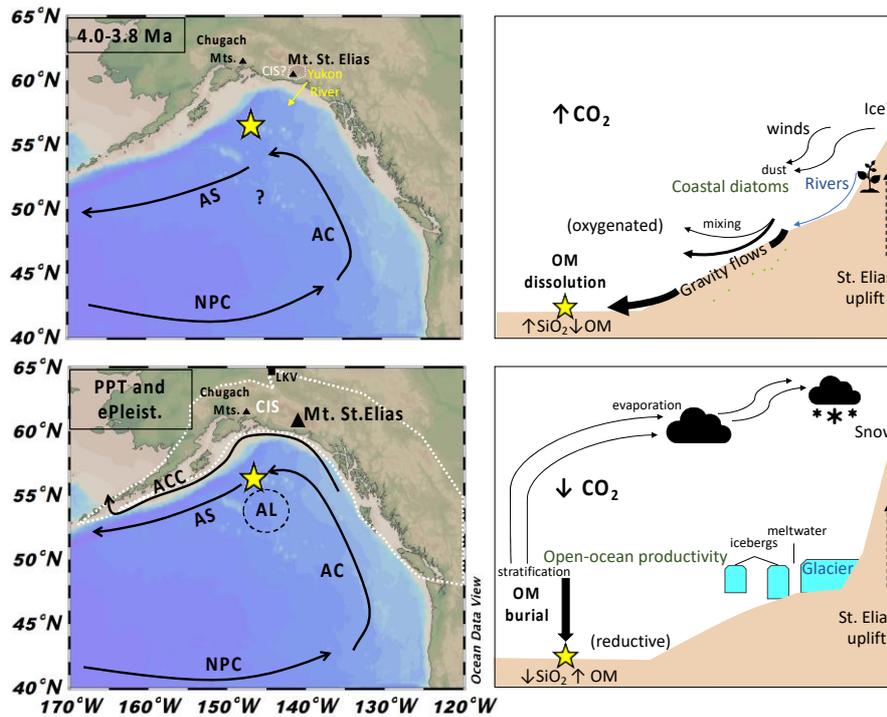
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1174 **Figure 4:** Plio-Pleistocene productivity export and water column ventilation. **a)** total diatom
 1175 MAR (million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$; grey) and brassicasterol MAR ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$; orange); **b)**
 1176 freshwater diatom MAR (blue, million valves $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$; blue) and alkenone MAR ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$
 1177 kyr^{-1} ; light green) in log scale; **c)** terrigenous (brown) and aquatic (turquoise) n-alkane MAR
 1178 ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$) and **d)** total nitrogen (TN; red) MAR ($\text{mg cm}^{-2} \text{kyr}^{-1}$) and total organic carbon
 1179 (TOC; black) at Site U1417 against age (Ma). Blue vertical shadings indicate higher (deeper
 1180 blue) and high (light blue) biogenic silica preservation, the rest non-shaded intervals indicate
 1181 increases in organic matter (OM) preservation (e.g. the MPWP (3.33-3.19 Ma)). Shadings
 1182 indicate uncertainties in MAR associated with the age and depth uncertainties of the tie-points
 1183 in Jaeger *et al.* (2014) and age-depth adjustments in Sánchez-Montes *et al.* (2020).



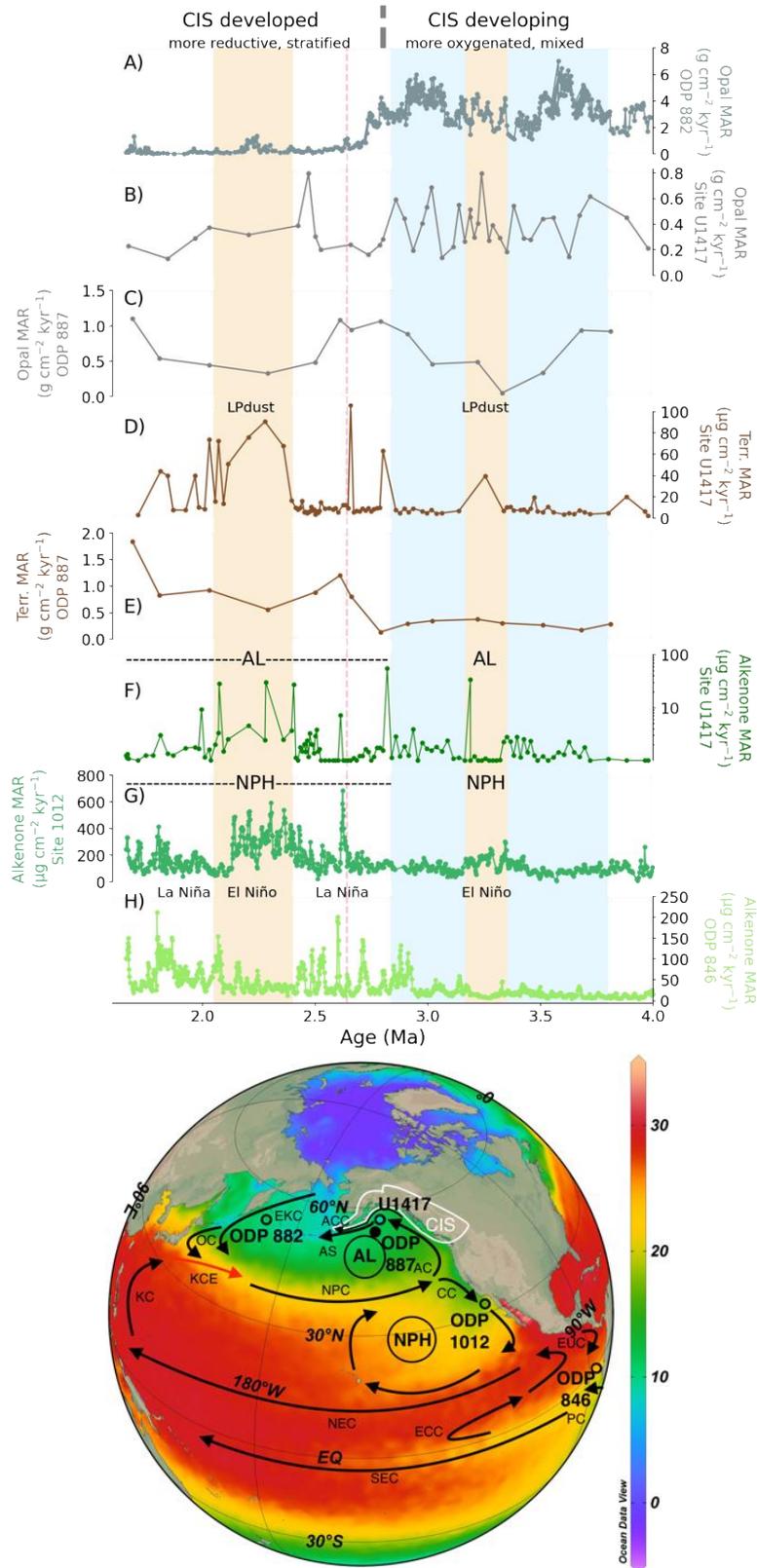
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1185 **Figure 5:** The development of the North Pacific stratification and the nitrogen and carbon
 1186 cycling. **a)** Earth's eccentricity reconstruction (light blue; Berger and Loutre, 1999) and U^{K₃₇}
 1187 SST (°C) at Site U1417 (grey; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2019); **b)** atmospheric CO₂ upper- and
 1188 lower-end (ppm) estimates on the Caribbean Sea based on alkenone δ¹³C (Site ODP 999A;
 1189 Seki *et al.*, 2010b) and marine δ¹¹B (Site ODP 999; Martínez-Botí *et al.*, 2015; de la Vega *et*
 1190 *al.*, 2020) (grey) and sum of ocean productivity proxies (alkenone, brassicasterol and aquatic
 1191 *n*-alkane MAR, μg cm⁻² kyr⁻¹, light green) in log scale; **c)** C_{37:4} (%) as a record of meltwater
 1192 inputs (turquoise, Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2019) and freshwater diatom MAR (blue, million
 1193 valves cm⁻² kyr⁻¹, blue); **d)** and terrigenous (brown) *n*-alkane MAR (μg cm⁻² kyr⁻¹), average
 1194 sedimentation rates at U1417 (m Myr⁻¹; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2019) and IRD MAR (g cm⁻²
 1195 kyr⁻¹; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2019; black); **e)** total nitrogen (TN; red) MAR (mg cm⁻² kyr⁻¹)
 1196 and total organic carbon (TOC; black) at Site U1417 vs age in million years before present
 1197 (Ma; Sánchez-Montes *et al.*, 2019). Grey dashed vertical lines indicate the timing of the Gi4,
 1198 Gi2 and disappearance of silicoflagellates (see Figure 3). Black dashed lines indicate the timing
 1199 of the M2, KM2, which capulate the MPWP, and the start of the iCIS. Pink vertical dashed
 1200 line indicates the maximum extension of the CIS at the lower Klondike Valley, Yukon interior
 1201 (2.64 Ma; Hidy *et al.*, 2013). Black arrows highlight the tendency of the proxies at key
 1202 intervals.



1203

1204 **Figure 6:** Schematic overview of the Plio-Pleistocene changes in the GOA's atmosphere and
 1205 ocean circulation. **Left)** Schematic circulation over a modern map of the GOA with similar
 1206 labels as in Figure 1 (Ocean Data View; Schlitzer, 2016) and **right)** Alaskan coast to Site
 1207 U1417 transect simplifying the water column characteristics discussed in the text during the
 1208 **top)** early Pliocene (4.0-3.8 Ma) and **bottom)** the Plio-Pleistocene Transition (PPT) and early
 1209 Pleistocene. The top left panel indicates a weaker and possibly different ocean circulation than
 1210 at present, and the Yukon River Basin runoff during the Pliocene (yellow arrow; Duk-Rodkin
 1211 *et al.*, 2004) and possible CIS extension (interpreted from Enkelmann *et al.*, 2015; white dashed
 1212 line) and smaller St. Elias Mountain altitude (interpreted from Enkelmann *et al.*, 2015; black
 1213 triangles). The bottom left panel indicates the CIS Pliocene-early Pleistocene maximum
 1214 extension (Duk-Rodkin *et al.*, 2004; Hidy *et al.*, 2013; white dashed line; LKV=Lower
 1215 Klondike Valley) and higher Mt. St. Elias altitude (>2,000 m, Duk Rodkin *et al.*, 2004).



1216

1217 **Figure 7:** Productivity and ocean circulation in the north Pacific. **Upper panel:** a) ODP 882
 1218 biogenic silica MAR (g cm⁻² kyr⁻¹) located in the subarctic west (Haug *et al.* 1999), b)
 1219 Site U1417 biogenic silica MAR (g cm⁻² kyr⁻¹), c) ODP 887 biogenic silica MAR (g cm⁻² kyr⁻¹),
 1220 located 200 km southwest of U1417 (Rea & Snoeckx, 1995), d) Site U1417 terrigenous *n*-
 1221 alkane MAR (μg cm⁻² kyr⁻¹), e) ODP 887 total terrigenous MAR (g cm⁻² kyr⁻¹) (Rea & Snoeckx,

1222 1995), **f**) Site U1417 alkenone MAR ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ kyr}^{-1}$), **g**) Site U1012 alkenone MAR ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$
1223 kyr^{-1}), located in the east Cortez Basin, 100 km southwest of San Diego (Liu *et al.* 2008) and
1224 **h**) ODP 846 alkenone MAR ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ kyr}^{-1}$), in the equatorial east Pacific (Liu & Herbert, 2004)
1225 where references to La Niña and El Niño refer to La Niña and El Niño-like conditions. Blue
1226 vertical shadings indicate the transitional water columns across more oxygenated (4.0-3.8 Ma)
1227 to more reductive (3.3-3.2 Ma, MPWP) and from the more reductive MPWP through more
1228 oxygenated (3.2-2.82 Ma) to more reductive (2.8-1.66 Ma). Pink vertical dashed line indicates
1229 the maximum extension of the CIS at the lower Klondike Valley, Yukon interior (2.64 Ma;
1230 Hidy *et al.*, 2013). Orange shadings indicate higher terrestrial *n*-alkanes from the Loess Plateau
1231 and higher alkenone MAR at Site U1417 and Site 1012, associated with El Niño. **Lower panel:**
1232 Pacific globe view with modern ocean circulation (Ocean Data View; Schlitzer, 2016), summer
1233 SSTs (September 1955– 2013, NOAA WOA13; Locarnini *et al.*, 2013) and location of drilling
1234 sites shown in the upper panel circle-coloured with the early Pleistocene SST average, which
1235 depict North Pacific SST gradients similarly to the negative PDO (discussed in Sánchez-
1236 Montes *et al.*, 2020; black filling at ODP 887 indicates no data). PC=Peru Current, SEC= South
1237 Equatorial Current, ECC= Equatorial Countercurrent, EUC=Equatorial Undercurrent, NEC=
1238 North Equatorial Current, EKC=East Kamchatka Current, OC=Oyashio Current, KC=Kuroshio
1239 Current, KCE=Kuroshio Current Extension, NPC=North Pacific Current, AC=Alaska Current,
1240 ACC=Alaska Coastal Current, AS=Alaska Stream and CC=California Current.
1241 CIS=Cordilleran Ice Sheet extent (early Pleistocene maximum extension, Duk-Rodkin *et al.*,
1242 2004; Hidy *et al.*, 2013; white line), AL=Aleutian Low and NPH=North Pacific High.