1	Messinian palaeoproductivity changes in the northeastern Atlantic and its relation
2	to the closure of the Atlantic-Mediterranean gateway
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18	Abbreviated title: Messinian productivity in NE Atlantic
19	
20	Abstract
21	The stable isotope composition of planktic and benthic foraminifera and
22	distribution of selected benthic foraminiferal species from a Messinian record of the
23	lower Guadalquivir Basin, northeastern Atlantic Ocean, show that regional productivity
24	changes were linked to glacioeustatic fluctuations. Glacial periods were characterized
25	by poorly ventilated bottom waters as a result of weak Atlantic meridional overturning

26	circulation (AMOC), and phases of high productivity related to intensified upwelling. In
27	contrast, well-ventilated bottom waters due to strong AMOC, and presence of degraded
28	organic matter in the upper slope and high input of degraded terrestrial organic matter
29	derived from riverine discharge in the outer shelf were recorded during interglacial
30	periods. Before the closure of the adjacent Guadalhorce Corridor at 6.18 Ma, the last
31	active Betic Atlantic-Mediterranean gateway, the study area was alternatively
32	influenced by the well-ventilated Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) and the poorly
33	ventilated Atlantic Upwelled Water (AUW). After the closure of the corridor, the
34	cessation of the MOW, which reduced the AMOC and promoted glacial conditions in
35	the northern hemisphere, resulted in the establishment of local upwelling cells.
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39	Continental shelves and slopes play a fundamental role in the biogeochemical
40	cycling of carbon and nitrogen with equal importance than deep sea (Walsh 1991).
41	These areas present high-productivity ecosystems due to the supply of nutrients and
42	organic matter from both continental and marine sources. At present-day, regions under
43	upwelling influence represent areas with the highest primary productivity in the world's
44	ocean as evidenced by the massive populations of fishes, seabirds and marine mammals
45	supported by nutrients derived from upwelling (Bakun et al. 2010). In the present
46	Atlantic Ocean, the main upwelling areas are located in its eastern parts mainly along
47	the West African coast and the Iberian Peninsula because wind systems favoured
48	upwelling in the eastern coast of the Atlantic Ocean (Schmiedl et al. 1997; Martinez et
49	al. 1999; Bakun et al. 2010). Intensity and extent of upwelling currents are controlled
50	by Ekman pumping on the northern hemisphere, which is the vertical spiral movement

of bottom waters induced by strong northeasterly trade winds system and Coriolis force
(Tomczak & Godfrey 1994; Lebreiro *et al.* 1997).

The intensity of the upwelling currents has changed with glacial to interglacial 53 climate oscillations, eustatic sea-level fluctuations, and meridional temperature 54 55 gradients with higher upwelling intensity during glacial periods due to strong wind stress (Lebreiro et al. 1997; Martinez et al. 1999; Salgueiro et al. 2010). 56 57 Palaeoproductivity proxies, including benthic foraminifera, diatoms, radiolarians, fish debris, phosphorite grains, and stable C isotopes, show low C stable isotopic values and 58 high abundance of high-productivity organisms which is consistent with more intense 59 60 upwelling during glacial periods when upwelling-favourable trade winds were 61 intensified (Diester-Haass & Schrader 1979; Abrantes 1991, 2000; Martinez et al. 1999; Eberwein & Mackensen, 2008). Furthermore, global palaeoceanographical circulation 62 63 patterns in the northern Atlantic also influenced productivity related to upwelling in the region. It is very well established that the Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) 64 promote the North Atlantic deep water formation because supplies dense and saline 65 waters to the North Atlantic and therefore contributes to the Atlantic meridional 66 67 overturning circulation (AMOC) increasing the North Atlantic density gradient (Bigg & 68 Wadley, 2001; Bigg et al., 2003; Rogerson et al. 2012). During Heinrich Events, a large flux of freshwater was released in the North Atlantic decreasing density which led to the 69 collapse of the AMOC (McManus et al. 2004; Rogerson et al. 2010). Then, at the 70 71 earlier part of interglacial periods, the intensification and shoaling of the dense MOW plume promoted the abrupt resumption of the AMOC (Rogerson et al. 2006, 2012). 72 73 Furthermore, a reduction or interruption of the Mediterranean Outflow Water would result in a decrease or interruption of the North Atlantic deep water formation 74 (Rahmstorf 1998) and, consequently, would reduce the Atlantic meridional overturning 75

circulation declining the poleward heat transport in the Atlantic which would cause
cooling and ice sheet growth in the northern hemisphere (Zahn *et al.* 1997; Clark *et al.*2002; McManus *et al.* 2004). This glaciation would lead to high-productivity conditions
due to stronger winds that induce Ekman pumping stimulating upwellings in the NE
Atlantic (Lebreiro *et al.* 1997; Zahn *et al.* 1997; Clark *et al.* 2002; Salgueiro *et al.*2010).

82 Another source of organic matter in marine settings is terrestrial input via river run-off close to the coast (McKee et al. 2004). High supply of terrestrial organic matter 83 can provide an important food resource for marine benthic ecosystems but its 84 85 degradation may also result in oxygen depletion of the bottom and pore waters (van der 86 Zwaan & Jorissen 1991; Jorissen et al. 1992; Donnici & Serandrei-Barbero 2002). Shallow-water areas close to river mouths are excellent examples of high productivity 87 88 related to fresh water discharges. Under periods of increased river run-off, sediments enriched in organic matter are discharged into the Atlantic Ocean by Iberian rivers such 89 as the Tagus and the Guadalquivir (Cabeçadas & Brogueira 1997; Lebreiro et al. 2006; 90 Villanueva-Guimerans & Canudo, 2008; Rodrigues et al. 2009). These periods of 91 92 intense riverine discharge are more frequent during warm periods due to increased 93 rainfall (Frei et al. 1998).

Palaeoproductivity in the northeastern Atlantic during the Pliocene, Pleistocene
and Holocene has been extensively studied (Lebreiro *et al.* 1997; Martinez *et al.* 1999;
van der Laan *et al.* 2006, Eberwein & Mackensen 2008; Naafs *et al.* 2010; Salgueiro *et al.* 2010; Zarriess & Mackensen 2010). According to these studies, intensification of the
African monsoon and the upwelling-favorable wind systems due to changes in global
climate controls the intensity and seasonality of primary productivity. In contrast,
information about productivity in the northeastern Atlantic during the Messinian is

scarce (van der Laan *et al.* 2006, 2012). These authors stated that riverine discharge in
the Atlantic off NW Morocco was higher during warm and wet interglacial periods.
These periods occurred during precession minima when summer insolation is maxima
and were related to enhanced winter rainfall linked to the Atlantic system (van der Laan *et al.* 2012).

106 In terms of Messinian North Atlantic circulation, the cessation of the MOW at 107 6.18 Ma due to the closure of the Betic gateways produced the interruption of the North Atlantic deep water and the intensification of the AMOC leading to a cooling in the 108 northern hemisphere (Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012a). Coincidently, small or middle-scale 109 110 glaciations with small ice sheets development around the Iceland-Norwegian Sea took 111 place about 7-6 Ma (Fronval & Jansen 1996; Thiede et al. 1998). This is also indicated by glacial records from Alaska, Baffin Bay, Iceland, and off SE Greenland (Fronval & 112 113 Jansen 1996). This cooling would have reduced surface water temperatures in the North Atlantic enhancing trade winds that favoured high productivity related to upwelling 114 currents (Hughen et al. 1996; Clark et al. 2002). In fact, modelling studies suggest 115 116 intense northwesterly winds during the Messinian (Murphy et al. 2009). However, so 117 far, there is no detailed study focusing on the relationship of productivity changes in the 118 northeastern Atlantic with global climate and oceanography to prove this hypothesis. 119 In this study, for a stable oxygen and carbon isotope records and the 120 distribution of selected benthic foraminiferal species in the Montemayor-1 core (SW 121 Spain) have been analysed (Fig. 1). This core is located in the Guadalquivir Basin, an open marine enbayment that constituted the Altlantic side of the Guadalhorce Corridor, 122 123 the last Betic Atlantic-Mediterranean gateway to be closed at 6.18 Ma (Martín et al. 2001, 2009; Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012a) (Fig. 1). According to benthic foraminiferal 124 assemblages, the Messinian record of the Montemayor-1 core represents a shallowing-125

126	upward sequence including, from bottom to top, middle and upper-slope, shelf-edge and				
127	outer-shelf deposits (Pérez-Asensio et al., 2012b) (Fig. 2). Furthermore, benthic				
128	foraminifera indicate presence of upwelling currents in the upper slope and outer shelf				
129	(Pérez-Asensio et al., 2012b) (Fig. 2). Middle-slope and part of the upper-slope				
130	sediments were deposited under the influence of the MOW before the closure of the				
131	Guadalhorce seaway at 6.18 Ma (Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012a). After 6.18 Ma, part of the				
132	upper slope setting, the shelf edge and outer shelf were not affected by the MOW.				
133	Palaeoceanographical changes produced by the MOW interruption affected the global				
134	oceanography and climate leading to a cooling in the northern hemisphere (Pérez-				
135	Asensio et al. 2012a). Therefore, the location of this core is exceptional: (1) to				
136	investigate the productivity changes and organic carbon cycling in the eastern North				
137	Atlantic during the Messinian; (2) to assess the effect of the cessation of the MOW at				
138	6.18 Ma on the Messinian palaeoproductivity; and (3) to decipher the relationship				
139	between productivity and global oceanography and climate.				
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141	Geographical and geological setting				
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143	The study area is located in the northwestern margin of the lower Guadalquivir				
144	Basin (SW Spain) (Fig. 1). This basin is an ENE-WSW elongated Atlantic foreland				

basin which is bounded to the N by the Iberian Massif, to the S by the Betic Cordillera,

and to the W by the Atlantic Ocean (Sanz de Galdeano & Vera 1992; Vera 2000; Braga

147 *et al.* 2002). The sedimentary filling of the basin consists of marine deposits ranging

148 from the early Tortonian to the late Pliocene (Aguirre 1992, 1995; Aguirre *et al.* 1995;

149 Riaza & Martínez del Olmo 1996; Sierro et al. 1996; Braga et al. 2002; González-

150 Delgado *et al.* 2004; Martín *et al.* 2009).

151	The Guadalquivir Basin acted as a corridor, the so-called North-Betic Strait,					
152	connecting the Atlantic and the Mediterranean during the earliest Tortonian (Aguirre et					
153	al. 2007; Martín et al. 2009; Braga et al. 2010). Other Betic seaways that connected the					
154	Atlantic and the Mediterranean through the Guadalquivir Basin after the closure of the					
155	North Betic Strait during the early Tortonian, were gradually closed during the late					
156	Miocene (Esteban et al. 1996; Martín et al. 2001; Braga et al. 2003; Betzler et al. 2006;					
157	Martín et al. 2009). The Guadalhorce Corridor was the last active Betic corridor and					
158	was closed in the early Messinian (Martín et al. 2001; Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012a).					
159	After its closure, the only Atlantic-Mediterranean connections were established through					
160	the Rifian Corridors, northern Morocco (Esteban et al. 1996).					
161	In the study area, Neogene deposits that filled the lower Guadalquivir Basin					
162	have been divided into four lithostratigraphic units formally described as formations.					
163	From bottom to top: (1) carbonate-siliciclastic mixed deposits of the Niebla Formation					
164	(Civis et al. 1987; Baceta & Pendón 1999); (2) greenish-bluish clays of the Arcillas de					
165	Gibraleón Formation (Civis et al. 1987); (3) fossiliferous sands and silts of the Arenas					
166	de Huelva Formation (Civis et al. 1987); and (4) sands of the Arenas de Bonares					
167	Formation (Mayoral & Pendón 1987).					
168						
169	Materials and methods					

The studied material is the 260 m long continuous Montemayor-1 core, which is located close to Huelva (SW Spain) (Fig. 1). This core includes sediments from the four aforementioned formations (see a summary in Pérez-Asensio *et al.* 2012*b*) (Fig. 3). The age model of the core is based on magnetobiostratigraphy and glacial stages TG 22 and 12, and interglacial stage TG 7 obtained from O stable isotope data (Larrasoaña *et al.* 

176	2008; Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012a, Jiménez-Moreno et al. 2013) (Fig. 3). In this work,
177	an interval of 140 m, from 240 to 100 m, which ranges from 6.67 to 5.38 Ma
178	(Messinian), has been studied. This interval includes marine sediments from the Arcillas
179	de Gibraleón Formation (Fig. 3).
180	For faunal analysis, a total of 255 samples were collected with a sampling
181	interval of 0.5 m. As shown in the age model (Fig. 3), there is a significant change of
182	sedimentation rate along the core. As a consequence, the average temporal resolution of
183	samples is 28.68 kyr from 240 m to 218.5 m (base of chron C3r) and 2.75 kyr from
184	218.5 m to 100 m. Samples were wet sieved over a 63 $\mu$ m mesh and dried out in an
185	oven at 40 °C. Using a microsplitter samples were divided into sub-samples containing
186	at least 300 benthic foraminifera. The sub-samples were dry sieved over a 125 $\mu m$
187	mesh, and benthic foraminifera were identified and counted. Benthic foraminiferal
188	counts were transformed into relative abundances. In order to assess changes in flux
189	rates, provenance and degradation state of organic matter we used the relative
190	abundances of high-productivity target taxa including Uvigerina peregrina s.l. (U.
191	peregrina + U. pygmaea), Bulimina subulata, Brizalina spathulata, and Bulimina
192	aculeata (Donnici & Serandrei-Barbero 2002; Schmiedl & Leuschner 2005; Murray
193	2006; Diz & Francés 2008; Duchemin et al. 2008; Schmiedl et al. 2010). In addition,
194	changes in the oxygen content were analysed using the palaeo-oxygenation index of
195	Schmiedl <i>et al.</i> (2003): $[HO/(HO+LO)+Div] \times 0.5$ . In this formula, HO is the relative
196	abundance of high oxygen indicators (epifaunal taxa), LO is the relative abundance of
197	low oxygen indicators (deep infaunal taxa), and Div is normalized benthic foraminiferal
198	diversity using the Shannon index (H) calculated with the software PAST (Hammer et
199	<i>al.</i> 2001).

200	For stable oxygen and carbon isotope analyses, a total of 160 samples were
201	analysed. The sampling interval is 0.5 m from 240 to 170 m, and 2.5 m from 170 to 100
202	m. Around 10 tests of Cibicidoides pachydermus and 20 tests of Globigerina bulloides
203	have been picked from the size fraction $>125 \ \mu\text{m}$ . Prior to the analyses, presence of
204	diagenetic alterations was discarded checking dissolution and/or recrystallization of
205	shells under the SEM. Foraminifera were cleaned with ultrasonic bath and washed with
206	deionized water. Samples were analysed at the Leibniz-Laboratory for Radiometric
207	Dating and Isotope Research, Kiel, Germany. The stable isotope analyses were
208	performed on a Finnigan MAT 251 mass spectrometer connected to a Kiel I (prototype)
209	preparation device for carbonates. Results are presented in $\delta$ -notation (‰), and
210	standardised to the Vienna Pee Dee belemnite (VPDB) scale. This scale is defined by a
211	certain value of the National Bureau of Standards (NBS) carbonate standard NBS-19.
212	The international and lab-internal standard material indicate that the analytical
213	reproducibility is $\leq \pm 0.05$ ‰ for $\delta^{13}$ C, and $\leq \pm 0.07$ ‰ for $\delta^{18}$ O.
214	Additionally, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to assess the
215	statistical correlation between O and C stable isotopes, relative abundance of target taxa
216	and planktonic/benthonic (P/B) ratio, this last metric following Pérez-Asensio et al.
217	(2012 <i>b</i> ) (Table 1). Only coefficients with a <i>p</i> -value $< 0.01$ or $< 0.05$ were considered
218	significant.
219	
220	Results
221	
222	High-productivity target taxa and palaeo-oxygenation index
223	

224	The relative abundance of Uvigerina peregrina s.l. shows relatively high values
225	from 6.67 to 5.87 Ma (Fig. 4). In this interval, it presents two significant minima at
226	around 6.44 and 6.24 Ma, and two maxima at 6.67 and 6.35 Ma. Then, it gradually
227	increases from 6.18 to 5.87 Ma (Fig. 4). This species sharply diminishes at 5.87 Ma
228	(Fig. 4). In the interval from 5.87 to 5.38 Ma, it has low average values around 10%
229	(Fig. 4). Bulimina subulata is more abundant from 6.67 to 5.85 Ma (Fig. 4). In the
230	interval from 5.87 to 5.38 Ma, B. subulata experiences a gradual decrease. In contrast,
231	Brizalina spathulata and Bulimina aculeata are more abundant between 5.87 and 5.38
232	Ma (Fig. 4). In this interval, both species progressively replace B. subulata.
233	The palaeo-oxygenation index shows relatively high values (>0.8) along the
234	studied interval (Fig. 5). Furthermore, some oxygen depletions are recorded at 6.00,
235	5.99, 5.96, 5.91, and 5.87 Ma. In the interval from 5.87 to 5.38 Ma, there are oxygen
236	depletions higher than before 5.87 Ma.
237	
238	Stable isotope data
239	
240	The benthic oxygen isotope record measured in Cibicidoides pachydermus has
241	stable average values of +1‰ before 6.35 Ma, followed by a decrease of 1.9‰ until a
242	minimum of -0.9‰, which is reached at 6.18 Ma (Figs 4 and 5). In the interval from
243	6.18 to 5.79 Ma, it gradually increases toward heavier values with a total increase of
244	0.3‰. Finally, $\delta^{18}$ O values decrease 1.20‰ from 5.79 to 5.72 Ma and remain at
245	relatively low values (~ +0.4‰) from 5.72 to 5.38 Ma (Figs 4 and 5). The planktic
246	(Globigerina bulloides) oxygen isotope record shows a fluctuating trend with average
247	values lower than 0‰ before 6.18 Ma (Figs 4 and 5). In the interval from 6.18 to 5.79
248	Ma, the values progressively increase with a total increase of 1.20‰ (Figs 4 and 5).

249	After 5.79 Ma, the planktic oxygen isotope record exhibits two drops at 5.75 Ma and
250	5.52 Ma; 0.8‰ and 1‰ respectively. The planktic and benthic $\delta^{18}$ O curves exhibit
251	similar trends, especially from 6.18 Ma onwards, as it is also indicated by the positive
252	correlation (Table 1).
253	The benthic carbon isotope record presents a fluctuating trend with average
254	values of +0.4‰ before 6.18 Ma (Figs 4 and 5). Then, $\delta^{13}C$ decreases 0.8‰ from 6.18
255	to 5.9 Ma and it remains at values around +0.4‰ from 5.9 to 5.67 Ma. Finally, it
256	gradually decreases 0.7‰ from 5.67 to 5.38 Ma. The planktic carbon isotopic values
257	show fluctuations around values of -0.8‰ before 6.18 Ma (Figs 4 and 5). Subsequently,
258	$\delta^{13}$ C diminishes 1.3‰ reaching its lowest values from 6.05 to 5.85 Ma. At 5.85 Ma, the
259	planktic carbon isotope record abruptly rises from -1‰ to 0‰ and it remains with high
260	average values of 0‰ until 5.77 Ma. Then, it sharply decreases up to -1‰ and it
261	increases until values of 0‰ at 5.67 Ma. Finally, it gradually diminishes 1.4 ‰ from
262	5.67 to 5.38 Ma.
263	Comparing the stable isotope record with the high-productivity target taxa, high
264	values of the benthic and planktic $\delta^{18}O$ coincide with low benthic $\delta^{13}C$ values, and high
265	abundance of Uvigerina peregrina s.l. and low abundance of Bulimina subulata (Fig.
266	4). In the interval between 5.67 and 5.38 Ma, low benthic and planktic $\delta^{18}$ O values

267 concur with low benthic and planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C values and high percentages of *Brizalina spathulata* and *Bulimina aculeata*.

**Discussion** 

272 Palaeoproductivity changes and organic carbon cycling in the northeastern Atlantic
273 during the Messinian

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Our results suggest that palaeoproductivity changes and organic carbon cycling 275 in the northeastern Atlantic depended on the global glacioeustatic fluctuations that, in 276 277 turn, affected the distribution of the high-productivity benthic foraminiferal species. In 278 addition to these global palaeoceanographical processes, benthic foraminiferal and palynomorph (pollen and dinocysts) assemblages from the Montemayor-1 core suggest 279 a shallowing upwards trend from upper slope to outer platform settings (Pérez-Asensio 280 281 et al. 2012b; Jiménez-Moreno et al. 2013). Thus, effects of the local palaeoenvironmental evolution of this region of the lower Guadalquivir Basin were 282 superimposed to the global glacioeustatic variations. 283 284 In the upper slope deposits of the study core (from 246.5 to 194 m core depth), glacial periods characterized by high planktic and benthic O isotopic values coincide 285 with low benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C values (Fig. 4). This is supported by marginal negative 286 287 correlation between planktic O and benthic C isotopic values (Table 1). Furthermore, fluctuations in the benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C are around  $\pm 0.5\%$  (Figs 4 and 5). The glacial decrease 288 in the  $\delta^{13}$ C was between 0.46 and 0.32‰ during glacial-to-interglacial fluctuations in 289 the global C budget in the Quaternary (Piotrowski et al. 2005). Messinian changes in 290 global C budget, however, might have been smaller than during the Quaternary due to 291 292 weaker glacial-interglacial contrasts and related vegetation changes, as well as shelf exposures. Therefore, other factors together with changes in the global C budget should 293 have contributed to the observed benthic  $\delta^{13}C$  signature, such as influence of nutrient-294 rich waters and/or residence time of water masses. In general, benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C values are 295 low in areas of high primary productivity (Mackensen 2008). At the present day and 296

during the Holocene, low benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C signatures are indicative of high productivity 297 related to upwelling currents in NW Africa (Morocco) (Eberwein & Mackensen 2006, 298 2008). During regressions, input of refractory organic matter with isotopically light 299 carbon from the exposed continental shelf also produces low benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C values as 300 recorded in late Miocene sediments from the tropical Indian Ocean and Mediterranean 301 Sea (Vincent et al. 1980; Loutit & Keigwin 1982; Kouwenhoven et al. 1999) Thus, the 302 low  $\delta^{13}$ C values in the upper slope deposits were related either to the influence of 303 304 nutrient-rich intermediate waters, like upwelling currents from a distant source area, or 305 to the remineralisation of refractory organic matter reworked from exposed continental 306 shelf sediments during sea-level lowstands.

Upper slope deposits are characterized by the abundance of the Uvigerina 307 peregrina s.l. (Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012b) (Fig. 4). This shallow-infaunal species is 308 characteristic of mesotrophic conditions (e.g. Schmiedl et al. 2000; Phipps et al. 2012) 309 310 and prefers fresh marine organic matter as food source (Fontanier et al. 2003; Koho et al. 2008; Schmiedl et al. 2010). In the study area, elevated productivity is likely 311 312 attributed to upwelling currents as explained above (Fig. 2), which is also consistent 313 with the observed negative correlation between U. peregrina s.l. and benthic C isotopic values (Table 1). This, in turn, points to the influence of distant intermediate waters that 314 315 were upwelling currents from the Atlantic Ocean. Furthermore, these high-productivity conditions occurred during glacial periods as indicated above and supported by 316 observations from equivalent modern environmental settings (Schmiedl et al. 1997; 317 318 Mendes et al. 2004; Martins et al. 2006; Mojtahid et al. 2006). The marginal positive 319 correlation between U. peregrina s.l. and benthic O isotopic values also suggests high 320 productivity during glacial periods (Table 1). The driving mechanism for enhanced 321 upwelling in the lower Guadalquivir Basin might be stronger winds promoting Ekman

pumping during glacial periods as occurred in the Quaternary (Lebreiro et al. 1997; 322 323 Schmiedl & Mackensen 1997; Poli et al. 2010; Salgueiro et al. 2010). Wind intensity and direction have been analysed in the modelling study of Murphy et al. (2009). This 324 study includes three simulations considering 1) a desiccated Mediterranean Sea with a 325 sea-level reduced 750 m, 2) a desiccated Mediterranean Sea with a sea-level reduced 326 327 1500 m, and 3) a not desiccated Mediterranean Sea with a sea-level reduced 1500 m. 328 Both simulations with a reduction of 1500 m in sea-level shows intense northwesterly winds during the Messinian which might enhance upwelling as occur at the present day 329 330 when northerly winds promote upwelling (Lebreiro et al. 1997). 331 The effect of upwelling currents is also confirmed by the negative correlation between planktic C isotopes and U. peregrina s. l. (Table 1). The low planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C 332 values from the Montemayor-1 core are due to the fact that they have been measured in 333 334 Globigerina bulloides, which inhabits waters from surface to intermediate depths (20-300 m) (Pujol & Vergnaud-Grazzini 1995). Therefore, this species is likely reflecting 335 the isotopic signature of nutrient-rich <sup>13</sup>C-depleted upwelling intermediate waters 336 masses. Furthermore, the  $\delta^{13}$ C of G. bulloides decreases during upwelling events 337 because of the fractionation of carbon isotopes due most likely to vital effects (Lebreiro 338 339 et al. 1997; Naidu & Niitsuma 2004). During strong upwelling faster calcification rates due to high-nutrient availability requires higher respiration, which involves more 340 respired CO<sub>2</sub> enriched in <sup>12</sup>C (Naidu & Niitsuma 2004). Additionally, release of <sup>12</sup>C 341 during decomposition of organic matter in the lower part of the photic layer could 342 contribute to the low  $\delta^{13}$ C of G. bulloides. These combined effects would explain the 343 very low planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C signatures along the Montemayor-1 core. 344 According with the benthic foraminiferal assemblages in the upper slope 345

deposits (Pérez-Asensio *et al.* 2012*b*), peaks of relative abundance of *U. peregrina* s.l.

during glacial periods alternate with high percentages of *Bulimina subulata* (Fig. 4). 347 348 Bulimina subulata, like other species of the genus, feeds from more degraded organic matter (Schmiedl et al. 2000; Diz & Francés 2008) than Uvigerina peregrina s.l., which 349 feeds from fresh and labile organic matter (Fontanier et al. 2003; Koho et al. 2008; 350 Schmiedl et al. 2010). This difference in trophic behavior might account for the low 351 abundances of *B. subulata* during glacial periods when fresh organic matter was 352 353 available on the sea-floor. In contrast, B. subulata was abundant during interglacial periods suggesting presence of more degraded marine organic matter. 354 U. peregrina s.l. and B. subulata abundances decrease in a different way after 355 356 5.87 Ma (Fig. 4). At this age, Uvigerina peregrina s.l. virtually disappears while B. subulata diminishes gradually. On the upper slope, U. peregrina s.l. is replaced by 357 epifaunal taxa, mainly *P. ariminensis*, inhabiting an oligotrophic shelf edge setting 358 359 (Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012b). This sharp decrease of U. peregrina s.l. was due to the 360 absence of fresh organic matter in the required quantity because upwelling currents did

not reach the shelf edge (Fig. 2). In contrast with low planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C values during high

362 productivity conditions produced by upwelling as recorded in Holocene sediments from

the NE Atlantic Ocean off Portugal (Lebreiro *et al.* 1997), relatively high planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C

364 values suggests presence of nutrient-depleted intermediate water masses on the shelf

363

edge (Fig. 4). Such an oligotrophic setting during glacial conditions may have been

366 caused by the establishment of a contour current flowing along the platform margin

367 preventing upwelling intermediate waters from reaching the shelf edge (Fig. 2). In

368 contrast, *B. subulata* diminishes more gradually because there was no fresh organic

369 matter on the shelf edge, but more degraded organic matter was still present at the sea

370 floor, and *B. subulata* was able to feed from this degraded organic matter.

At 5.77 Ma, *Planulina ariminensis* disappears pointing to the transition from the 371 372 shelf edge to the outer shelf (Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012b) (Fig. 2). This event was concomitant with a significant sea-level drop close to the glacial stage TG 20 (5.75 Ma) 373 (Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012a, 2012b; Jiménez-Moreno et al. 2013). From 5.77 to 5.67 374 Ma, the planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C experienced a significant increase of 1‰ (Fig. 4) pointing to a 375 decrease in the productivity most likely related to less influence of upwelling currents 376 377 during interglacial conditions as it is shown by the decrease of 0.9% in benthic  $\delta^{18}$ O (Fig. 4). After 5.67 Ma, the outer-shelf setting was characterized by high abundance of 378 Brizalina spathulata and Bulimina aculeata (Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012b) (Fig. 4). It is 379 380 well established that B. spathulata can thrive with continental degraded organic matter 381 derived from river run-off (Donnici & Serandrei-Barbero 2002; Duchemin et al. 2008; Schmiedl *et al.* 2010). Concomitantly, the upwelling-related *U. peregrina* s.l. shows 382 383 high relative abundances during glacial periods, whereas *B. spathulata* has relatively low values. This is supported by a negative correlation between both species (Table 1). 384 Hence, B. spathulata does not seem to have been controlled by the influence of fresh 385 organic matter derived from upwelling currents, as previously interpreted (Pérez-386 387 Asensio et al. 2012b).

*B. aculeata* is able to feed from both fresh and degraded organic matter
(Schmiedl & Leuschner 2005). It has been also found in low-oxygen environments with
supply of continental degraded organic matter under river run-off influence (Schmiedl *et al.* 2000, Pérez-Asensio & Aguirre 2010). In the study site, it shows the highest
percentages coinciding with high values of *B. spathulata* during interglacial periods
(Fig. 4). Therefore, both *B. spathulata* and *B. aculeata* indicate supply of continental
degraded organic matter related to riverine discharges during interglacial periods.

Interglacial periods were characterized by relatively high P/B ratios (high sea-395 396 level) (Figs 4 and 5), as well as warm and humid climate as it is indicated by 397 palynological analyses (Jiménez-Moreno et al. 2013). Consequently, a higher humidity might have promoted higher river run-off and more supply of continental degraded 398 organic matter during interglacial periods. This is consistent with the gradual increase of 399 B. spathulata concomitant with long-term decrease of 0.7% in benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C and 1.4 % 400 in planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C as well as low  $\delta^{18}$ O from 5.67 to 5.38 Ma (Fig. 4). Moreover, this 401 agrees with the progressive shallowing upward trend in the core (Pérez-Asensio et al. 402 403 2012b) since continental organic matter reached areas closer to the coast. Very depleted 404 planktic C isotopic values of Globigerina bulloides at 5.44 Ma and 5.41 Ma (Figs 4 and 5) might also reflect enhanced rainfall as recorded in sediments from the Mallorca shelf 405 406 during the early Holocene humid phase (Milker et al. 2012). Increased humidity could 407 be related to the global warming linked to interglacial stage TG 11 (5.52 Ma) that started before the Miocene-Pliocene boundary and persisted until the mid Pliocene 408 409 (Vidal et al. 2002; Jiménez-Moreno et al. 2013). In a global warming context, rainfall 410 would be high (Frei et al. 1998) increasing the riverine discharge and providing more 411 degraded terrestrial organic matter to the shelf in the study area.

Concerning the oxygen content, the oxygenation is high throughout the studied interval with values higher than 0.8 (Fig. 5). This suggests that oxygen does not control the observed changes in benthic foraminifera. In addition, the presence of an oxygen minimum zone can be ruled out. However, temporary oxygen depletions are recorded along the core (Fig. 5). In the upper slope during glacial periods, they were related with the input of upwelling-related organic matter which reduced the oxygen content due to decay of the organic matter. In the outer shelf during interglacial periods, oxygen

decrease was even more severe (Fig. 5) and it was associated with supply of terrestrialorganic matter by river run-off.

421

422 *Effect of the MOW interruption on the palaeoproductivity in the northeastern Atlantic*423 *during the Messinian* 

424

Low abundance of U. peregrina s.l. and high benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C at 6.44 and 6.24 Ma 425 (Fig. 4) indicates a well-ventilated bottom with low organic flux to the sea floor. This 426 indicates the presence of a bottom current, most likely the MOW, because at the 427 428 present-day as well as during the Quaternary and the Plio-Pleistocene, the MOW has benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C values higher than Atlantic waters reflecting the relatively low residence 429 time of the MOW (Vergnaud-Grazzini 1983; Schönfeld & Zahn 2000; Raddatz et al. 430 431 2011). The MOW would have increased the bottom-water oxygenation as shown by the relatively high oxygen content before the interruption of this current at 6.18 Ma (Figs 5 432 433 and 6a) when the last open Betic corridor, the Guadalhorce Corridor, was definitively closed (Pérez-Asensio *et al.* 2012*a*). Furthermore, high benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C could also indicate 434 well-ventilated bottom waters linked to a strong AMOC during interglacial periods as 435 436 occurs in the Quaternary (Broecker et al. 1985). In contrast, high abundance of U. peregrina s.l., low benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C at 6.67 and 437

438 6.35 Ma (Fig. 4) point to the influence of low-oxygen Atlantic upwelled water (AUW) 439 (Fig. 6b). In addition, low benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C could also reflect low ventilation due to a 440 reduced AMOC provoked by low North Atlantic deep water formation during glacial 441 conditions as it has been recorded in the Atlantic and Caribbean Sea during the

- 442 Messinian (Zahn *et al.* 1997; Bickert *et al.* 2004; van der Laan *et al.* 2012) (Fig. 6b).

Hence, the AMOC was weaker during glacial periods than during interglacial periods asoccured in the Quaternary (Broecker *et al.* 1985).

After the closure of the Guadalhorce Corridor at 6.18 Ma, there is a gradual 445 decrease of 0.8% in the benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C signature that is related with the interruption of the 446 MOW and the influence of oxygen-depleted AUW (Figs 4 and 6c). The planktic  $\delta^{13}$ C 447 shows a progressive decrease of 1.3‰ indicating also a higher influence of nutrient-rich 448 449 AUW. Concomitantly, U. peregrina s.l., which thrives under upwelling conditions, gradually increases reaching its highest abundance (Fig. 4). Therefore, after the 450 cessation of the MOW only AUW reached the upper slope in the study area promoting 451 452 high productivity related to upwelling currents (Fig. 6c). In addition, high productivity could have been favored by the cessation of the MOW, which weakened the AMOC and 453 promoted northern hemisphere cooling, as shown by the onset of small growth of ice 454 455 sheets in the Iceland-Norwegian Sea and Baffin Bay (Alaska) at ~ 7-6 Ma (Fronval & Jansen 1996; Thiede et al. 1998; Pérez-Asensio et al. 2012a). This cooling would 456 intensify trade winds that enhance upwelling (Hughen et al. 1996; Clark et al. 2002). 457 Similarly, a reduced AMOC associated to high productivity has also been recorded in 458 459 the SE Atlantic Ocean during the Messinian, although in this region intensification of 460 trade winds is related to southern hemisphere cooling (Rommerskirchen et al. 2011). On the contrary, as mentioned above sediments from the shelf-edge were particularly 461 oligotrophic. This local low productivity might have been likely produced by a current 462 463 along the shelf-break that prevented the AUW from reaching the study area between 5.87 to 5.77 Ma (Fig. 6d). 464

465

466 **Conclusions** 

467

Palaeoproductivity changes and organic carbon cycling in the northeastern 468 469 Atlantic during the Messinian were controlled by global glacioeustasy. Glacial periods (cold and dry climate) were characterized by high planktic and benthic  $\delta^{18}$ O, low 470 benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C, low sea-level, high abundance of U. peregrina s.l and moderate oxygen 471 depletion. These proxies point to high productivity, related to upwelling currents during 472 glacial periods. These upwelling currents were produced by Ekman pumping due to 473 474 intensified upwelling-favourable northwesterly trade winds. On the contrary, interglacial periods (warm and humid climate) show low planktic and benthic  $\delta^{18}$ O, 475 476 high sea-level, high oxygen depletion and high abundance of *B. subulata* in the upper 477 slope, and *B. spathulata* and *B. aculeata* in the outer shelf. These indicators suggest presence of more degraded marine organic matter in the upper slope and supply of 478 degraded continental organic matter derived from river run-off in the outer shelf. 479 480 Before the closure of the Guadalhorce Corridor, the last Betic Atlantic-Mediterranean gateway to be active, the study area was alternatively influenced by well-481 482 ventilated MOW and the poorly ventilated AUW. Once this Betic seaway was closed at 6.18 Ma, the interruption of the MOW reduced the AMOC and promoted glacial 483 484 conditions in the northern hemisphere, thus favouring high productivity conditions. This 485 shows how the cessation of the MOW due to the closure of the Guadalhorce Corridor caused global oceanographic and climatic changes affecting productivity in the northern 486 hemisphere. In addition, the variability of the AMOC was recorded by fluctuations in 487 the benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C. High benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C indicates well-ventilated bottom waters due to 488 strong AMOC during interglacial periods. In contrast, low benthic  $\delta^{13}$ C reflect poor 489 490 ventilation as a result of weak AMOC during glacial periods.

491

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- 840
- 841 Figures
- 842



Fig. 1. Palaeogeography of the Guadalquivir Basin and the Gibraltar Arc area during the
early Messinian (based on Martín et al., 2009). Asterisk points to the location of the
Montemayor-1 core.



Fig. 2. Sketch showing the different palaeoenvironments of the Montemayor-1 core
during the Messinian (upper slope, shelf edge, outer shelf). The main organic matter
sources are shown: thin arrows indicate upwelling currents in the upper slope; thin
dashed arrows denote upwelling currents entering the outer shelf; and thick dashed thick
arrow represents river run-off. Thick arrow shows a superficial current along the shelf
edge (see also Fig. 6d).









Fig. 4. From top to bottom: relative abundances (%) of high-productivity target taxa 868 including species related to degraded continental organic matter (Bulimina aculeata, 869 870 Brizalina spathulata), degraded marine organic matter (Bulimina subulata), and fresh marine organic matter (Uvigerina peregrina s.l.) and; benthic (black) and planktic 871 (grey)  $\delta^{13}$ C records and benthic (black) and planktic (grey)  $\delta^{18}$ O records in % VPDB of 872 the Montemayor-1 core. The vertical dashed lines indicate ten events of high 873 productivity related to upwelling currents in the upper slope (6.00, 5.99, 5.96, 5.91 and 874 5.87 Ma) and in the outer shelf (5.69, 5.62, 5.55, 5.49, and 5.41 Ma). The vertical black 875 solid line at 6.18 Ma marks the end of the Atlantic-Mediterranean Betic connection 876 877 through the Guadalhorce Corridor. Distribution of palaeoenvironmental settings at the

bottom of the figure is based on benthic foraminiferal assemblages (Pérez-Asensio *et al.* 

879 2012*b*).

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**Fig. 5.** From top to bottom: palaeo-oxygenation index (Schmiedl *et al.* 2003); P/B ratio (%) (Pérez-Asensio *et al.* 2012*b*) and; benthic (black) and planktic (grey)  $\delta^{13}$ C records and benthic (black) and planktic (grey)  $\delta^{18}$ O records in % VPDB of the Montemayor-1 core. Distribution of palaeoenvironmental settings at the bottom of the figure is based on benthic foraminiferal assemblages (Pérez-Asensio *et al.* 2012*b*).



889 Fig. 6. Palaeogeographical and paleoceanographical evolution of the lower Guadalquivir Basin during the Messinian (based on Martín *et al.* (2009)). (a) 890 Interglacial conditions before 6.18 Ma, when only the Mediterranean Outflow Water 891 (MOW) reached the studied core (asterisk). (b) Glacial conditions before 6.18 Ma, 892 when the Atlantic Upwelled Water (AUW) and the MOW reached the studied core. (c) 893 894 Glacial conditions after 6.18 Ma, when only AUW reached the core because the MOW was interrupted. The black thick arrow marks the progradation of the main depositional 895 896 systems along the axis of the Guadalquivir Basin. (d) Studied core (asterisk) influenced 897 by a current along the shelf-break (dashed arrows) that prevented the AUW from reaching the study area between 5.87 to 5.77 Ma. 898