

Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary.

A multi-proxy study on IODP Hole U1387C in the Gulf of Cadiz.



Marlies van der Schee

September 2016



VNiVERSiDAD
D SALAMANCA

Book Cover:

Early Pliocene sediments of the Flamenco section, Conil de la Frontera, Spain.
November 2014.

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The research leading to these results has received funding from the People Programme (Marie Curie Actions) of the European Union's Seventh Framework Programme FP7/2007-2013/ under REA Grant Agreement No. 290201 MEDGATE and was partially supported through Castilla y Leon project SA263U14.

“Imagination is the highest form of research.”

— Albert Einstein

“For his tenth labor, Hercules was prescribed by Eurystheus to steal the cattle of Geryon from the island of Erythia. Reaching the western end of the habitable world, he decided to set up the Pillars of Heracles to commemorate his campaign. Hercules narrowed the passage between the Libyan and European continental promontories, whereas before that time a larger space had stood between them. Making it shallow, he might prevent great sea-monsters from passing out of the ocean into the inner sea. However, some authorities say just the opposite; the two continents were originally joined and Hercules cut a passage between them. On this question, it is upon every man to think as he pleases.”

Based on Diodorus Siculus 4.18.5



Relief sculpture. Two goddesses of Victory hold the Pillars of Hercules and the globe, while two angels set fire to weapons with torches. Detail of façade Palacio Carlos V, Granada, Pedro Machuca, 1527- -.

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Abstract

The Mediterranean-Atlantic gateway connection plays a major role in hydrographic ocean circulation flow patterns. During the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC; 5.33-5.97 Ma), water exchange between the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean was restricted or even absent, resulting in extensive evaporitic deposits. The Miocene-Pliocene boundary marks the re-establishment of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange. A modern like Mediterranean Outflow water (MOW) developed after the MSC. This thesis is focused on the initiation and development of MOW recorded outside the Mediterranean in the Gulf of Cadiz.

An age model combining bio-, magneto, and cyclostratigraphy was constrained for Hole Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) U1387C located on the upper slope in the Gulf of Cadiz (559 m water depth). The Miocene-Pliocene boundary is associated with a distinct abrupt change in depositional environment. During the latest Messinian, hemipelagic sediments exhibit precession induced cyclic carbonate cycles, in which the largest detrital input are found during Northern Hemisphere insolation minima, rich in silicates. These cyclical patterns are related to nearby Montemayor-1 drill core and thus most likely induced by overland terrigenous input towards the basin. Larger vegetation cover during insolation maxima can explain the reduced suspended load. Above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary, two contouritic bigradational sandy-beds and an immediate increase with more variable XRF core scanning Zr/Al ratios than the underlying sediment indicate processes related to particle sorting. This provides evidence for the onset of bottom water current flow immediately at or just above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary.

Striking coupling between the sedimentary variations and benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ indicate that orbitally forced enhancements of bottom water currents are plausibly originated in the Mediterranean Sea. During these intervals, similar stable isotopic expressions are found in Hole U1387C as in a Mediterranean benthic foraminiferal record, characterized by well-ventilated and presumably warmer waters. In contrast, when bottom water currents are sluggish or even absent, expressed by more aluminosilicate rich beds with lower weight percentages in grain size fractions ($> 63 \mu\text{m}$), stable isotopes do not match the Mediterranean record. Bottom waters were presumably cold and poorly ventilated, what is linked to more influence of Atlantic bottom water. Sea surface records of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and relative abundances of *Globigerinoides* show coeval transitions, but in opposite direction; when bottom waters become cold, a warming occurs at surface. This opposite behaviour is attributed to an estuarine circulation in the Mediterranean Sea, when its water budget was positive or to a vertical shift of the MOW-plume towards shallower depths. However, the latter does not explain the quick synchronous shifts.

The origin of bottom water masses in the Gulf of Cadiz was also investigated through the use of authigenic Neodymium (Nd) and Lead (Pb) isotopes. Isotopic ratios of Ferro-Manganese (Fe-Mn) oxyhydroxide sediment leachates of Hole U1387C are compared to ratios in three Fe-Mn crusts of different water depths in the NE Atlantic (Abouchami et al., 1999; Muiños et al., 2008) and sediments leachates of the Alboran Sea, to investigate endmember compositions of MOW and NE

Atlantic water during the studied time period. The imprint of the isotopes for Nd do not match any of isotopic signatures and thus the Nd record is thought to be mainly controlled by local processes. Pb isotopic ratios are incompatible with endmember interpretations of the Fe-Mn crusts relying on the interpretations of the more traditional stable isotope. If however, the sediment leachate samples from the Alboran Sea reliably records Pb isotopic compositions for MOW, then the leachate compositions match the stable isotope interpretations. Although a Pb isotopic record with major influences of preferential incongruent weathering cannot be excluded, these results imply that the Pb isotopic oxyhydroxides could be used as a bottom water mass tracer in the marginal settings of the Gulf of Cadiz.

Before the MSC, the Betic Corridor in southern Spain and the Rifian Corridor in North West Morocco connected the Mediterranean Atlantic Ocean. These two gateways ceased during the late Miocene, but the actual timing of the closure of these Corridors has been under debate. In the western Betic Cordilleras, upper Miocene basins nearby Ronda, Antequera and Arcos de la Frontera are adjacent to the late Miocene Guadalhorce Corridor, what is thought to have been the last remaining branch of the Betic Corridor. Sedimentary sequences in these Basins are characterized by a transition from deeper marine sandy marls to shallow marine calcarenites or limestones. Biostratigraphic analyses of the marls indicate an age of deposition before 7.58 Ma. The overlying calcarenites and limestones were not reliably dated due to the lack of adequate material, however, based on the typical high sedimentation rates of these deposits, it seems unlikely that the calcarenites and limestones are much younger than the marls. This implies that the Guadalhorce Corridor most likely terminated during the late Tortonian or early Messinian. Therefore, considering similarities in timing and lithological successions, the shallowing upward sequences are linked to the same tectonic pulse that closed the remaining branches in the eastern Betics.

Thesis objectives

This thesis is centered on the establishment of Mediterranean Outflow water (MOW) in the Gulf of Cadiz after the re-establishment of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange ending the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC). For this, sediments from Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Hole U1387C from 731.20 to 865.85 meter below seafloor (mbsf) are studied in detail with a multi-proxy approach. The most important open scientific questions answered in this thesis are elaborated with its scientific context.

1. Timing of events related to the onset of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange are important to relate this study to other previous published studies. Therefore, an age-model had to be established for the studied sediments. Rough age estimations provided by Shipboard Expedition 339 scientists indicated a Miocene to Pliocene age for the studied interval of IODP Hole U1387C (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a). After this, the Miocene-Pliocene boundary was traced from Site U1387 to well-hole log of the Algarve-2 in Hernández-Molina et al., (2016) at about 826 mbsf. Chapter 1 comprises the updated stratigraphic framework with detailed bio-, cyclo and magnetostratigraphic analyses, so that the lower Pliocene sediments are detected.
2. While it is generally thought that MOW was either sluggish or restricted in the early Pliocene, there is no general consensus on how hydrographic patterns persisted in detail (Flecker et al., 2015) or if MOW was even distinct enough from Atlantic waters to be detected (Rogerson et al., 2012a). However, the presence, direction and strength of MOW has important implications for the gateway configurations (Simon and Meijer, 2015) and environmental conditions (Marzocchi et al., 2016). The earliest evidence of MOW along its pathway in the Gulf of Cadiz are contourite deposits recognized in seismic profiles at 4.2-4.5 Ma (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a, 2012; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b). Therefore, high resolution grain size fraction data (>63 μm) and XRF scanning Zr/Al ratios are used to reveal the youngest sediments influenced by bottom water current flow during the late Miocene and earliest Pliocene. These give an age estimation for the actual onset of the current.
3. After providing evidence for the earliest current flow in the Pliocene, the origin of the water mass that causes the sedimentary and geochemical imprint remains unknown. Chapter 2 disentangles in detail the depositional environment and hydrographical patterns before and after the abrupt event that ended the MSC. Changes over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary in sedimentary depositional environment are studied with XRF scanning data. These analyses separate sedimentary cyclicities either invoked by detrital input or bottom water currents. Benthic stable isotopes are used to trace the origin of the bottom water masses.
4. Recently, Neodymium (Nd) isotopic compositions are increasingly used to trace origins of bottom water masses. This proxy has been used to trace MOW during the late Pliocene in the NE Atlantic (Khélifi et al., 2014), but a Nd record has never been constructed this

close to the Gibraltar Strait or over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. Lead (Pb) isotopic compositions are also used as a bottom water proxy (e.g. Gutjahr et al., 2007), but this proxy is less extensively studied and processes dominating isotopic signature are less well known. With the established influence of water masses over the studied time period, the radiogenic proxies are evaluated concerning dominating controls on isotopic composition in the Gulf of Cadiz.

5. Ongoing debate regarding Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange has been going on not only during and after the MSC, but also leading towards final stages of gateway restrictions. It is unknown which gateway was the last remaining branch. Related ongoing studies suggest late Tortonian closure of the Rifian Corridor in North West Morocco, what makes the Guadalhorce Corridor in South West Spain a good candidate as the last standing gateway. Age constrains have been problematic in the region of the Guadalhorce River valley and the adjacent late Miocene nearby basins of Ronda, Arcos de la Frontera and Antequera due to the lack of appropriate key sections and sedimentary deposits with clear bio-markers and magnetostratigraphic data. Therefore, a comprehensive biostratigraphic sample campaign of the Guadalhorce River valley, Ronda, Arcos de la Frontera and Antequera areas is carried out to revise the age constrains of the deposited sediments and linked to the tectonic evolution of the Betic Cordilleras.

Introduction.

Evolution of the late Miocene Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange.

This introduction is based on;

Flecker, R., Krijgsman, W., Capella, W., de Castro Martíns, C., Dmitrieva, E., Mayser, J.P., Marzocchi, A., Modestou, S., Ochoa D.P., Simon, D., Tulbure, M., Van den Berg, B., Van der Schee, M., de Lange, G., Ellam, R., Govers, R., Gutjahr, M., Hilgen, F., Kouwenhoven, T., Lofi, J., Meijer, P., Sierro, F.J., Bachiri, N., Barhoun, N., Alami, A.C., Chacon, B., Flores, J.A., Gregory, J., Howard, J., Lunt, D., Ochoa, D., Pancost, R., Vincent, S., Yousfi, M.Z., 2015. Evolution of the Late Miocene Mediterranean-Atlantic gateways and their impact on regional and global environmental change. *Earth-Science Reviews* 150, 365-392.

doi:10.1016/j.earscirev.2015.08.007



Evolution of the late Miocene Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange

Marine gateways play a critical role in the exchange of water, heat, salt and nutrients between oceans and seas. As a result, changes in gateway geometry can significantly alter both the pattern of global ocean circulation and associated heat transport and climate, as well as having a profound impact on local environmental conditions. Mediterranean–Atlantic marine corridors that pre-date the modern Gibraltar Strait, closed during the late Miocene and are now exposed on land in northern Morocco and southern Spain. The restriction and closure of these Miocene connections resulted in extreme salinity fluctuations in the Mediterranean, leading to the precipitation of thick evaporites. This event is known as the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC; 5.97–5.33 Ma). The evolution and closure of the Mediterranean–Atlantic gateways are a critical control on the MSC, but at present the location, geometry and age of these gateways are still highly controversial. After the MSC, a physical gateway connection must have been present, but the presence and of Mediterranean outflow water (MOW) on the Atlantic side of the Strait immediately after the establishment of the connection has never been proven.

1. The Messinian Salinity Crisis

The Mediterranean's near-landlocked configuration makes it sensitive to subtle changes in climate (e.g. Thunell et al., 1988). Consequently, the first environmental responses to gradual restriction of exchange with the Atlantic recorded in the Mediterranean (e.g. faunal and isotopic changes; Fig. 1), predate any evaporite precipitation there by a million years or more. The most extreme palaeoenvironmental changes took place during the MSC (Fig. 1) when extensive gypsum deposits precipitated in the Mediterranean's marginal basins and kilometre thick halite units formed in the deep basins (e.g. Hsü et al., 1973; Ryan, 1973). This was followed by a period during which the sediments recorded highly fluctuating conditions varying from brackish to hypersaline, before returning, in the early Pliocene, to open marine conditions (Fig. 1; Hsü et al., 1973). These late Miocene low salinity intervals, known as the Lago Mare, may be the product of an additional freshwater source supplied to the Mediterranean from Paratethys, the lacustrine precursor to the Black and Caspian seas. Like other major freshwater sources, this is a key component of the Mediterranean's freshwater budget, which combined with the gateway dimensions determine its salinity.

The large volume of salt preserved in the Mediterranean necessitates that one or more marine connections with the open ocean remained, at least until the end of the halite stage (5.55 Ma; Krijgsman and Meijer, 2008). However, the location of the last gateway(s) remains highly ambiguous. Field studies of the sedimentary basins in southern Spain (the Betic Corridor) and northern Morocco (the Rifian Corridor) thought to be part of the corridor network (Fig. 2), typically indicate that these areas were closed to marine exchange well before the MSC (e.g. (Betzler et al., 2006; Ivanovic et al., 2013; Krijgsman, 1999; Soria et al., 1999; van Assen et al., 2006), while the Gibraltar Strait is thought to have first opened at the beginning of the Pliocene (5.33 Ma)

bringing the MSC to an end (e.g. Blanc, 2002; García-Castellanos et al., 2009; Hsü et al., 1977, 1973). The key problem is that it is extremely difficult to pinpoint the exact location or timing of closure from field data alone, because the sedimentary successions within the corridors have been uplifted and eroded (e.g. Hüsing et al., 2010). Using other datasets to identify the location of each marine corridor, reconstructing its geometry and reducing uncertainty in the age of closure is therefore critical for constraining the process-response chain linking gateway evolution with the development of the Mediterranean's MSC succession. The Atlantic response to a change in gateway configuration is reliant on changes to the density and volume of Mediterranean Outflow and consequently also depends on an ability to reconstruct gateway dimensions and the patterns of exchange.

2. Mediterranean–Atlantic connectivity from outside the Mediterranean

As a mid-latitude semi-enclosed marginal basin, the Mediterranean Sea plays a fundamental role in supplying dense waters to the global ocean (Price and O'Neil Baringer, 1994; Price et al., 1993) impacting the thermohaline structure of the North Atlantic (Artale et al., 2002; Hecht et al., 1997; Mauritzen et al., 2001) and ultimately global climate (Li, 2006). Today, two-layer flow exists in the Gibraltar Strait, and colder, more saline MOW flows along the continental slope. En route it entrains significant quantities of Atlantic water (Baringer and Price, 1999) which decreases the density and velocity of the resulting water mass and causes it settle out into the Atlantic at intermediate depths (~500–1400 m; Fig. 3; Ambar and Howe, 1979). This distinctive water mass which is the combination of MOW and ambient Atlantic water. Although MOW undergoes rapid dilution due to mixing and entrainment processes (Dietrich et al., 2008), the resulting MOW remains a well-defined water mass in the Gulf of Cadiz (Fig. 3). Subsequently MOW divides into two distinct pathways and can be traced both westward to the Bermuda Rise and northward, over most of the central North Atlantic basin (Armi and Bray, 1982; Curry et al., 2003; Iorga and Lozier, 1999; Lozier and Stewart, 2008). MOW influences the heat and salt balance of the North Atlantic (Dietrich et al., 2008) and contributes to deep-water formation by keeping relatively high salinities at the surface (Price and O'Neil Baringer, 1994; Reid, 1979) and thus influencing global climate.

The interaction of MOW with the Iberian Margin's slope system results in an extensive contourite depositional system in the Gulf of Cadiz (Fig. 3), visible in both seismic profiles and bathymetry (García et al., 2009). Thick sedimentary deposits generated by these currents and by bottom currents on the eastern (Alboran Sea) side of the Gibraltar Straits, provide extensive records of past Mediterranean–Atlantic dynamics (Rogerson et al., 2010; Stow et al., 2013). These records, along with observational data suggest that Mediterranean–Atlantic exchange exhibits significant variability over seasonal (García Lafuente et al., 2007), interannual (Lozier and Sindlinger, 2009), and glacial–interglacial time scales (Rogerson et al., 2005; Voelker et al., 2006). Mediterranean–Atlantic exchange through the Gibraltar Strait, is assumed to have been established immediately after the Zanclean flood (5.33 Ma; e.g. Iaccarino et al., 1999). However, to date, no direct evidence

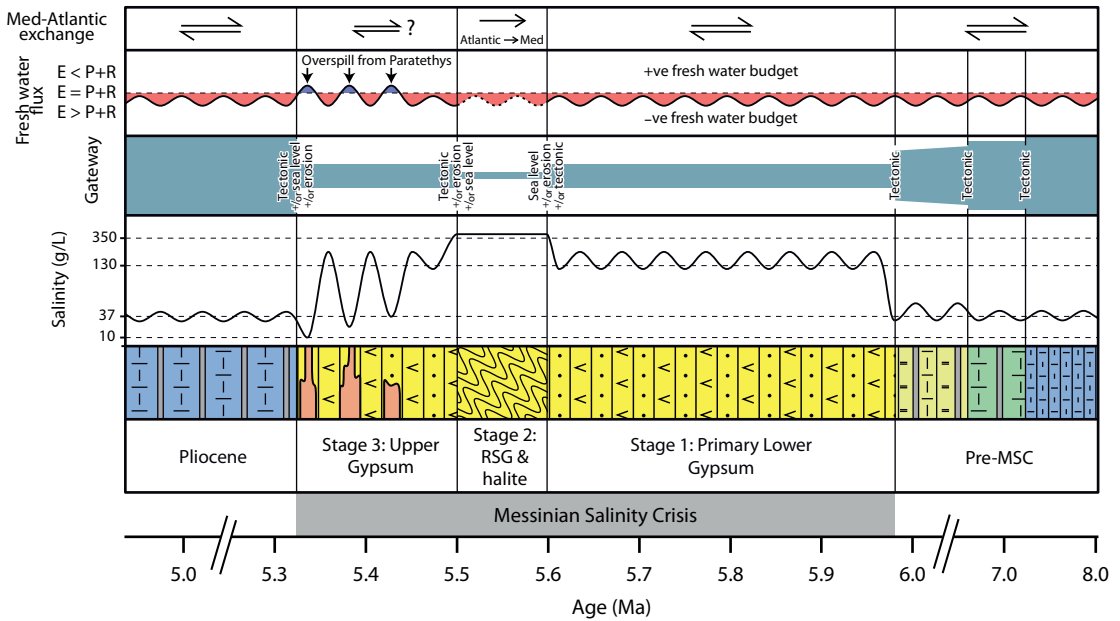


Figure 1. Summary figure illustrating the main features of the Mediterranean's exchange history in the Late Miocene–Pliocene including lithology, Mediterranean salinity, a qualitative representation of gateway size and the probable drivers (tectonics, erosion, sea level) of changing dimensions, the Mediterranean's fresh water flux where E and P = evaporation and precipitation over the Mediterranean respectively and R is the river discharge into the Mediterranean Sea, and arrows representing one-way or two-way exchange between the Mediterranean and Atlantic (Flecker et al., 2015).

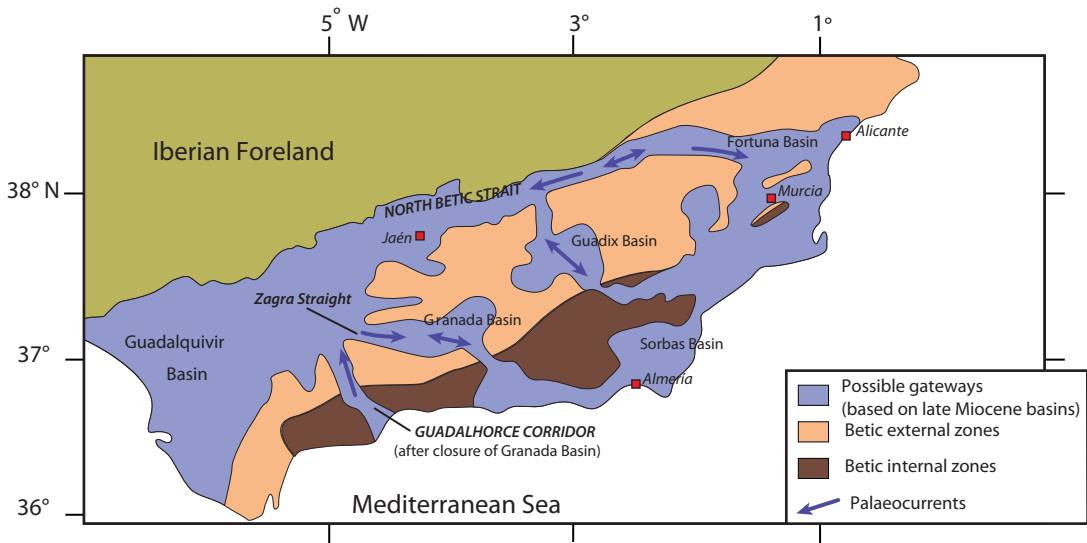


Figure 2. Detail map of the Betic Corridor showing the main geological units, corridors and paleocurrent indicators (modified after Santisteban and Taberner, (1983)). Paleocurrents from (Benson et al., 1991; Martín et al., 2014, 2001; Santisteban and Taberner, 1983).

exists to enable the characterization of MO just after the opening of Gibraltar. IODP drilling in the Gulf of Cadiz recovered turbidites and debrites deposited between ~4.5–4.2 Ma (Fig. 4). These indicate the presence of relatively high flow strength in the Early Pliocene (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b, 2013). From 3.8 Ma onwards these deposits developed into the extensive contourite depositional system. MOW circulation strengthened from 3.2–2.1 Ma, where two major sedimentary hiatuses from 3.2–3.0 Ma and 2.4–2.1 Ma indicate strong bottom water currents (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b). The first hiatus has been linked with geochemical evidence of a rise in MOW density and it has been suggested that this intensified Upper North Atlantic Deep water (NADW) formation (Khélifi et al., 2014, 2009). (Rogerson et al., 2012b) concluded that the MOW pathway comparable to that of today (Fig. 3) could have been established around 1.8 Ma (e.g. Brackenridge et al., 2011; Llave et al., 2007, 2001).

Consequently, exchange through the late Miocene Mediterranean–Atlantic gateways may have been quite different to that seen today in the Gibraltar Strait, and the evolution of the Atlantic's sedimentary and geochemical response to MOW may well reflect the evolution of the gateway itself. Three hypotheses can be formulated to explain the absence of evidence for MOW before the earliest turbidites and debrites. Firstly, the outflow was insufficiently powerful to generate such current flow related deposits at ~4.2–4.5 Ma (Hernández-Molina et al., 2013). This is consistent with the interpretation of the onset of Gulf of Cadiz contourites and the geochemical signal of outflow as a strengthening or intensification of MOW rather than its initiation (Hernández-Molina et al., 2013; Khélifi et al., 2009). Secondly, Mediterranean and Atlantic waters may have had physical properties too similar to leave traceable geochemical evidence of MO in the Atlantic (Rogerson et al., 2010). During the Early Pliocene global climate was warmer and the gateway may have been deeper (Esteras et al., 2000; Raymo et al., 2006). It is suggested that such conditions would not be met at the time of the gateway opening, but there is no proof of this (Rogerson et al., 2012b). A third possibility for the absence of early Pliocene contourites from Leg 339 Sites is that early Pliocene MOW did exist, but MOW did not follow the present day route along the Iberian Margin and therefore it was not recovered during IODP Expedition 339. However, Rogerson et al., (2012a) demonstrated that the relationship between the salinity of MOW and its flow pathway while not intuitive, is predictable. Increased salinity of MOW could result in increased flow velocity and not in a variation of the plume's depth.

3. Radiogenic Nd and Pb isotopes tracers of Mediterranean Outflow

Attempts have been made to deduce the presence of MOW in the Atlantic during the Miocene using geochemical tracers such as neodymium (Nd) and lead (Pb) isotopes. While Nd has a residence time in seawater on the order of 200–1000 years (Tachikawa et al., 1999), on a global average Pb is removed from the water column within 10–100 years (Henderson and Maier-Reimer, 2002). These relatively short residence times enable the Pb and Nd isotope systems to vary regionally in seawater. Nd isotopic compositions (expressed as ϵ_{Nd} , the ratio of $^{143}Nd/^{144}Nd$ in a sample normalized to the bulk earth value in parts per 10^{-4} ; Jacobsen and Wasserburg, 1980) are used as water mass tracers for open ocean paleocirculation reconstructions (e.g. (Frank et al.,

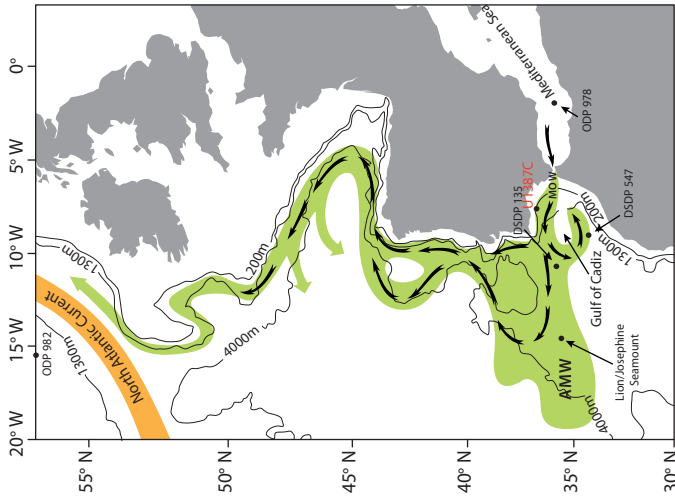


Figure 3. Overview of the main circulation patterns of modern Mediterranean Outflow (MOW) and its pathway in the North Atlantic (Iorga and Lozier, 1999) as Atlantic Mediterranean Water (AMW). In green is the saline tongue centred around 1000 m depth (Reid, 1979) and in orange is the surface North Atlantic Current (NAC). Arrows represent flow direction, the relevant bathymetric features are contoured in black.

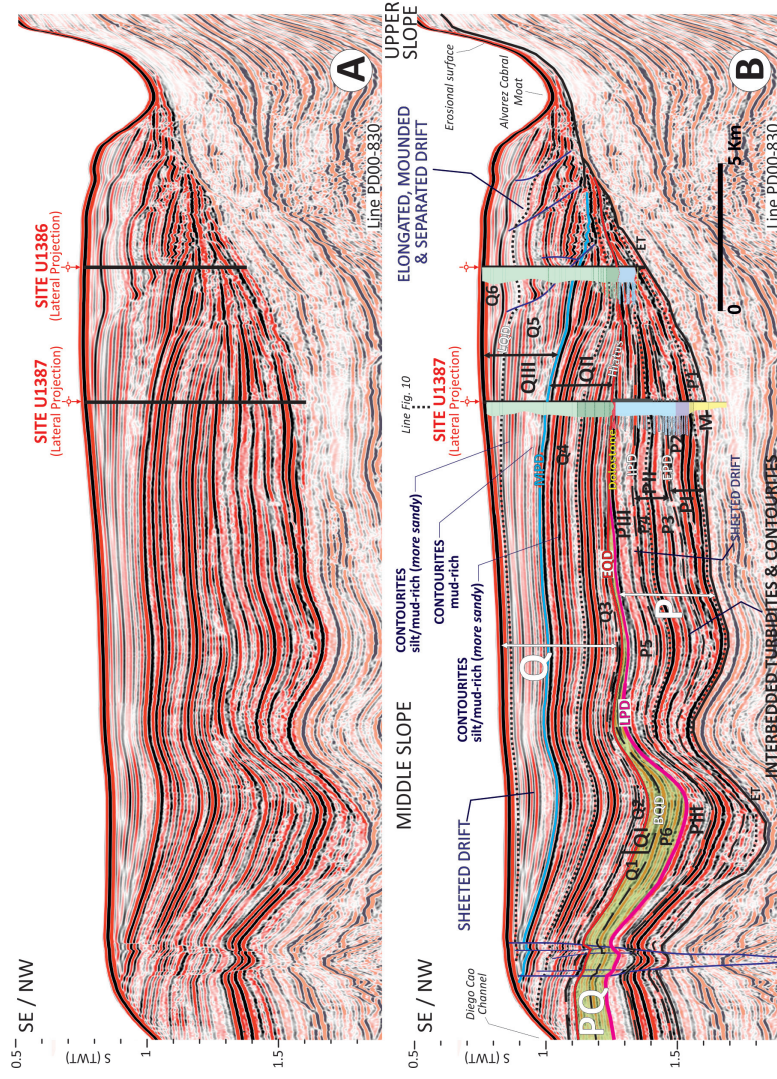


Figure 4. Seismic profile (line PD00-830) of the Algarve basin showing the sedimentary stacking pattern for Pliocene sheeted drift to Quaternary separated drifts, based on correlations between sites U1386 and U1387. Major sequences (P, PQ and Q), units (P1-P11 and Q1-Q11) and subunits (P1-P6 and Q1-Q6), as well as the main discontinuities and hiatuses are shown (data courtesy of TGS-NOPEC Geophysical Company ASA). Profile location given in Figure 3. From (Hernández-Molina et al., 2016).

2002; Robinson et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2003). Within the Mediterranean– Atlantic gateway region, clarifying ϵ_{Nd} signal provenance is complicated by riverine and eolian input (e.g. Henry et al., 1994; Sholkovitz and Szymczak, 2000) and boundary exchange at the sediment–bottom water interface (see Lacan and Jeandel, 2005). Nevertheless, since MOW and Atlantic Inflow Water (AIW) have measurably different ϵ_{Nd} (-9.4 and -11.8 respectively; Piepgras and Wasserburg, 1983; Spivack, A.J., Wasserburg, 1988; Tachikawa et al., 2004), this isotope system theoretically has the potential to monitor past exchange.

Fe-Mn crusts record both the Nd and Pb isotopic composition of overlying bottom seawater (Frank, 2002). Pb is commonly analysed alongside Nd as it contributes complimentary information such as insight into local changes related to continental weathering and other climate-induced signals (Christensen et al., 1997; Gutjahr et al., 2009; Harlavan and Erel, 2002). Pb and Nd isotope records from the Lion Seamount west of Gibraltar, which is bathed in MOW today, provide no evidence for the cessation of MOW during the Messinian (Abouchami et al., 1999; Muiños et al., 2008). Unfortunately, the temporal resolution of both studies is too coarse to clearly rule out changes in Atlantic–Mediterranean exchange during the different stages of the MSC.

4. Mediterranean-Atlantic connection through the Betic Corridor

The Betic Corridor can be subdivided into four distinct connections that link the Atlantic with the Mediterranean during the late Miocene: the North-Betic Strait; the Granada Basin; the Guadix Basin and the Guadalhorce Basin (Fig. 3). All these basins contain large-scale paleocurrent structures typically in coarse-grained sand or conglomeratic sediments indicating high energy currents (Martín et al., 2014). These coarse clastics which commonly form the last part of the preserved succession are difficult to date. However, some of the Betic successions also contain evaporite and continental sediments that predate the MSC suggesting that these connections were conduits for Mediterranean–Atlantic exchange before the formation of the Mediterranean's saline giant.

This most northerly corridor, known as the North Betic Strait, connects the Guadalquivir Basin and the Mediterranean through the Fortuna and Lorca basins (Fig. 2; Martín et al., 2009). Integrated stratigraphic studies were carried out on the Fortuna Basin at the eastern end (Garcés et al., 1998; Krijgsman et al., 2000). These indicate that sedimentation changed from marls to diatomites and evaporites at 7.8 Ma, before deposition of continental deposits at ~ 7.6 Ma. The Granada Basin connects the Guadalquivir Basin to the Mediterranean via the Zagra strait (Martín et al., 2014). The restriction of the Granada Basin has recently been more precisely dated using biostratigraphy by Corbí et al., (2012) demonstrating that a short phase of evaporite precipitation occurred between 7.37 to 7.24 Ma, followed by a less well constrained phase of continental sedimentation. The Gaudix Basin was a relatively open marine passage (around 12–15 km wide), probably permitting two-way flow, with coarse grained sediments deposited on the edges while marls accumulated in its central part. Later it evolved into a narrow strait with strong bottom currents flowing from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic (Betzler et al., 2006). Although there is broad

consensus that the Guadix Basin corridor (or Dehesas de Guadix strait; Martín et al., 2014) was open during the late Tortonian (Betzler et al., 2006; Hüsing et al., 2010; Soria et al., 1999), the detailed timing of the closure is disputed. According to Betzler et al. (2006) the strait narrowed to about 2 km and was finally blocked at ~ 7.8 Ma by a tectonic swell fringed by reefs (7.8–7.4 Ma). This is contradicted by more recent magnetobiostratigraphic results for the same section (La Lancha; Hüsing et al., 2010) which show that there is a major hiatus of at least 2 Myr between open marine sediments of ~ 7.85 Ma and continental deposits, dated at 5.5 Ma (Fig. 2). The history of the Guadalhorce Corridor (Fig. 3; Martín et al., 2001) is less well known than the other Betic Basins. Its sedimentary record consists predominantly of siliciclastics containing unidirectional crossbeds with sets over 100 m in length and ranging from 10 to 20 m in thickness. These structures have been interpreted as indicating that the corridor was at least 60–120 m deep and subject to an extremely fast ($1.0\text{--}1.5\text{ m/s}^{-1}$) unidirectional current flowing northwest (Martín et al., 2001). Foraminifera-bearing marls intercalated with carbonates in one of the outcrops towards the bottom of this unit have an early Messinian age (6.3–7.2 Ma; Martín et al., 2001). Consequently, the Guadalhorce Corridor was considered to be a conduit for MOW prior to the MSC.

In summary, of the four possible Betic Corridors that may have supplied Atlantic water to the Mediterranean during the late Miocene, two are known to have been closed during the MSC (the North Betic Corridor and the Granada Corridor) while the successions of the remaining two (Guadix and the Guadalhorce Corridors) contain large unconformities and uncertainties that span the critical late Miocene period. It is therefore not currently possible to rule out definitively an open or intermittent connection within the Betic Corridor area during the MSC.

Chapter 1.

Evidence of early bottom water current flow after the Messinian Salinity Crisis in the Gulf of Cadiz.

Van der Schee, M., Sierro, F.J., Jimenez-Espejo, F.J., Flecker, R., Hernández-Molina, F.J., Flores, J.A., Acton, G., Gutjahr, M., Grunert, P., García-Gallardo, A., Andersen, N..Evidence of bottom water current flow after the Messinian Salinity Crisis in the Gulf of Cadiz. *Marine Geology*, in press.

doi:10.1016/j.margeo.2016.04.005



Chapter Cover:

Angular unconformity between Miocene and Pliocene sandy marls, Conil de la Frontera, Spain.

Evidence of early bottom water current flow after the Messinian Salinity Crisis in the Gulf of Cadiz

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Abstract

Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Expedition 339 cored multiple sites in the Gulf of Cadiz in order to study contourite deposition resulting from Mediterranean Outflow water (MOW). One Hole, U1387C, was cored to a depth of 865.85 m below seafloor (mbsf) with the goal of recovering the latest Miocene to Pliocene transition in order to evaluate the history of MOW immediately after the end of the Messinian Salinity Crisis. To understand this history, an accurate age model for the succession is needed, but is challenging to construct, because the Miocene-Pliocene boundary is not marked by a clear biostratigraphic event in the Atlantic and coring gaps occur within the recovered stratigraphic record. These limitations are overcome by combining a variety of chronostratigraphic datasets to construct an age model that fits the currently available age indicators and demonstrates that coring in Hole U1387C did indeed recover the Miocene-Pliocene boundary at about 826 mbsf. This boundary is associated with a distinct and abrupt change in depositional environment. During the latest Messinian, hemipelagic sediments exhibiting precession-induced climate variability were deposited. These are overlain by Pliocene sediments deposited at a much higher sedimentation rate, with much higher and more variable XRF core scanning Zr/Al ratios than the underlying sediment, and that show evidence of winnowing, particle sorting and increasing grain size, which we interpret to be related to the increasing flow of MOW. Pliocene sedimentary cyclicity is clearly visible in both the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record and the Zr/Al data and is probably also precessionally controlled. Two contouritic bigradational sandy-beds are revealed above the third sedimentary cycle of the Pliocene. On the basis of these results, we conclude that sedimentation associated with weak Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange, began in the Gulf of Cadiz virtually at or shortly after the Miocene-Pliocene boundary.

1. Introduction

Today, Mediterranean Outflow water (MOW) is the dominant intermediate water mass in the Gulf of Cadiz (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). The mixture of relatively warm and saline Mediterranean water and colder, less saline Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACW) proceeds north and north-westwards along the middle slope of the Algarve Margin (Fig. 1; Hernández-Molina et al., 2003) and preconditions Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation, hence also influencing global climate (Ivanovic et al., 2014; Rogerson et al., 2012a).

The present day gateway configuration through the Gibraltar Strait dates back to the astronomically dated Miocene-Pliocene boundary (5.332 Ma; e.g. Lourens et al., 1996; Van Couvering et al., 2000; Blanc, 2002; Duggen et al., 2003; Roveri et al., 2014). Before this, Atlantic-Mediterranean seawater exchange took place through two marine connections, the Betic Corridor in southern Spain and the Rifian Corridor in north west Morocco (e.g. Benson et al., 1991; Santisteban and Taberner, 1983). Exchange became progressively restricted during the late Miocene as a result of a complex combination of tectonic and relative sea-level processes until the two water bodies became almost completely disconnected (Krijgsman et al., 1999; Kuroda et al., 2016; Lofi et al., 2005; Meijer and Krijgsman, 2005; Ohneiser et al., 2015; Simon and Meijer, 2015). Between 5.97 and 5.33 Ma, the chemical composition and salinity of Mediterranean water must have changed dramatically and thick evaporites precipitated in the Mediterranean Basin during an extraordinary event known as the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC; e.g. Hsu et al., 1973). Immediately after the Messinian, it is thought that physically the Mediterranean and the Atlantic were reconnected through the single gateway. However, the nature of the initial early Pliocene Atlantic-Mediterranean water mass exchange is still unclear (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a).

Analyses of benthic foraminiferal assemblages indicate that water from the Atlantic Ocean penetrated the eastern Mediterranean within a few precession cycles above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (Iaccarino et al., 1999a). This, combined with the transition back to normal marine salinities in the Mediterranean, suggests that exchange between the two water bodies took place through the Gibraltar Strait immediately after the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. Seismic reflection profiles, however, are interpreted to indicate that contourites associated with the earliest active bottom water current along the pathway of the MOW were deposited significantly later at 4.2-4.5 Ma (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a, 2012; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b). The question remains whether any record of early Pliocene MOW prior to 4.2-4.5 Ma can be identified. Possible reasons for the absence of a clear early Pliocene record of MOW include the lack of appropriately located, well-dated sedimentary archives or that the MOW and ENACW are too similar to distinguish from each other (Rogerson et al., 2012b).

Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Expedition 339 cored Hole U1387C (Fig. 1) in order to recover the first upper Miocene to lower Pliocene sediment record in the Gulf of Cadiz and to

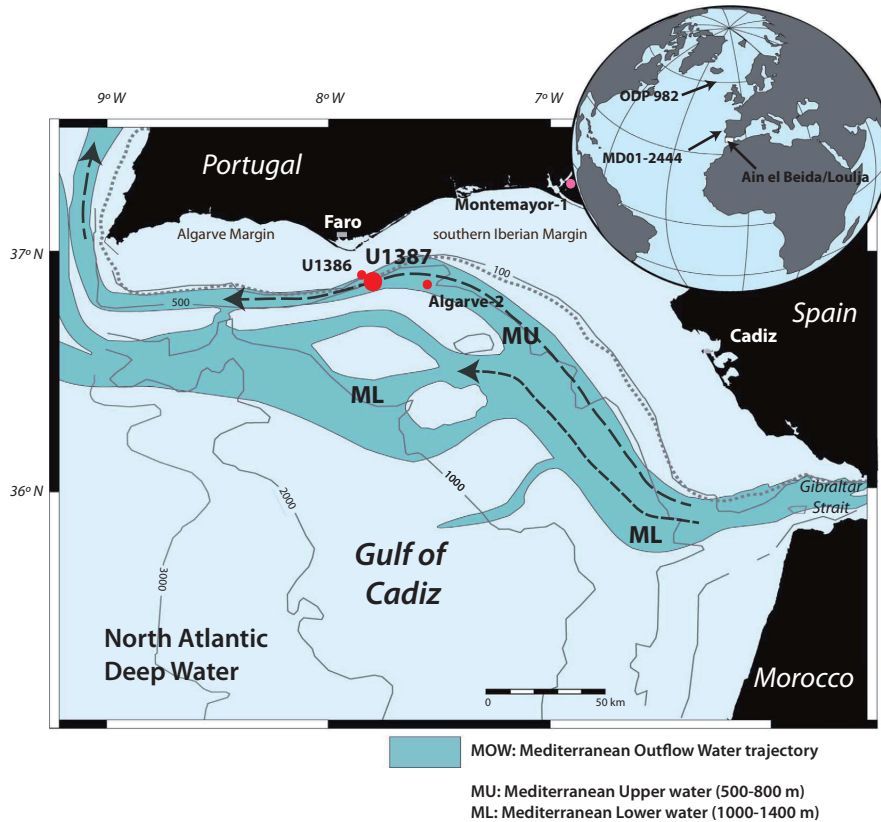


Figure 1. Hydrography of the Gulf of Cadiz showing the main modern flow paths of MOW, specified as the Upper and Lower branch. Locations of IODP Sites U1386 and U1387, Algarve-2, Site ODP 982, MD01-2444, the onshore Montemayor-1 core in SW Spain and exposed section of Ain el Beida/Loulja in NW Morocco are indicated. Modified after Hernández-Molina et al., (2003).

Table 1. Planktic biostratigraphic events used in the present study and their position (mbsf) in IODP Hole U1387C and if it is stated in the preliminary IODP report (Expedition 339 Scientist, 2012). FO = First Occurrence, LO = Last Occurrence.

Planktic foraminifera biohorizon	Hole U1387C depth [mbsf]			Preliminary IODP report	Age Bio-event [Ma]	Reference
	Top	Bottom	Mean			
LO <i>G. margaritae</i>	558.9	561.89	560.4	Yes	3.85	Lourens et al., 2004
FO <i>G. puncticulata</i>	629.12	632.52	630.82	Yes	4.52	Lourens et al., 2004
Influx <i>G. menardii</i>	752.40	751.30	751.85	No	5.55, 5.51, 5.31	Krijgsman et al., 2004; Van der laan et al., 2006
Dextral to sinistral coiling change <i>N. acostaensis</i>	808.22	809.52	808.87	No	5.30, 5.32	Lourens et al., 1996; Iaccarino et al., 1999b
"Acme" <i>G. margaritae</i> > 10%	Not present (below base of the Hole)			No	5.75-5.84	Van den Berg et al., 2015
					5.70-5.84	Krijgsman et al., 2004
Sinistral to dextral coiling change <i>N. acostaensis</i>	Not present (below base of the Hole)			Yes	6.37	Hilgen and Krijgsman, 1999; Krijgsman et al., 2004; Sierra et al., 2001; Hilgen et al., 2012

evaluate the (re-)establishment of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange after the MSC (Stow et al., 2011). Unfortunately, the Miocene-Pliocene boundary is not easy to identify in the Gulf of Cadiz, since its global stratotype has been established in the Mediterranean where it is associated with the facies shift from Messinian evaporites to Zanclean marls (Van Couvering et al., 2000). Consequently, the Miocene-Pliocene boundary outside the Mediterranean Basin can only be identified using alternative chronostratigraphic methods.

Analyses to detect bottom water currents, for example of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange, are increasingly done by analysing X-ray fluorescence (XRF) scanning Zr/Al levels in combination with grain size analysis (Bahr et al., 2015; Kaboth et al., 2015; Lamy et al., 2015; Voelker et al., 2015b). In cases where Zr is associated with coarser grain sizes in marine environments, such as in the Gulf of Cadiz, it becomes a typical indicator for sediments affected by changes in bottom water current strength (Bahr et al., 2014; Bertrand et al., 2012; Ganeshram et al., 1999). The element Zr is most often associated with the dense refractory mineral zircon (e.g. McLennan et al., 1993). Zr/Al peaks are associated with higher proportions of non-aluminosilicate minerals, such as quartz, feldspars, and heavy minerals (zircon). Lower Zr/Al ratios are linked to finer grained Al-rich minerals, such as clays. Bottom water current sorting promotes the separation between coarser siliciclastic sediment components, enrich in Zr, and Al-rich finer grained minerals. For example, Bahr et al. (2014) showed that latest Pleistocene (0-140 ka) contourites at Site U1387 exhibited high Zr/Al ratios in sandy intervals, which were deposited under high bottom water current flow conditions. By contrast, Zr/Al levels in the hemipelagic core MD01-2444 (Fig. 1) are dominated by long-term variability and shows only small-scale oscillations.

In this study, we establish a refined chronostratigraphic framework for upper Miocene to lower Pliocene sediments recovered at IODP Site U1387 based on seismic correlation, biostratigraphic constrains (planktic foraminifers, calcareous nannofossils), magnetostratigraphy and cyclostratigraphy. We then evaluate the imprint of bottom water currents on the Gulf of Cadiz sediments spanning the Miocene to Pliocene transition using lithology, grain size fractions (>63 μm) and elemental XRF scanning Zr/Al ratios. Our key aim is to identify deposits characteristic for elevated bottom water currents, to evaluate current strength, and if possible to date the onset of post MSC MOW.

2. Background

IODP Site U1387 is located on the continental margin of the Iberian Peninsula at the eastern end of the Faro Drift (36°48'N, 7°43'W) at 559 m water depth (Fig. 1; Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a, 2012). This study focuses on the lowermost section of Hole U1387C from 731.20 mbsf to the base of the sediment sequence at 865.85 mbsf. These are the oldest sediments recovered during the IODP Expedition 339. Core recovery over this interval was 64% and downhole logging data was not collected because of borehole wall collapse, which means that the record contains significant gaps.

Using the last occurrence of *Globorotalia margaritae* (older than 3.85 Ma; Hilgen et al., 2012) at 560.4 mbsf, the first occurrence of *Globorotalia puncticulata* (older than 4.52 Ma; Lourens et al.,

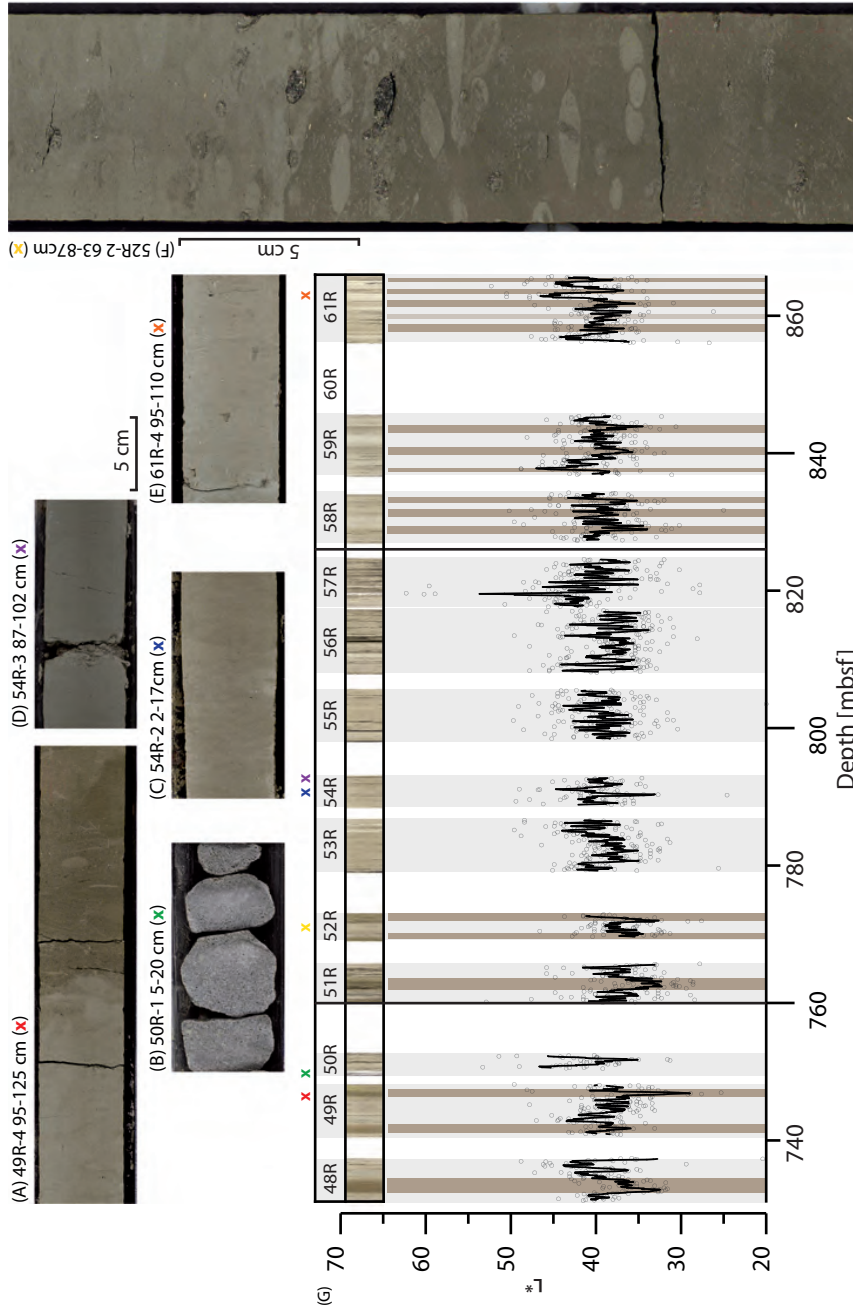


Figure 2. Representative photographs of core sections from 731.20 to 865.85 mbsf (A-F). Coloured (x)s indicate their positions in the Hole, along with the IODP sample names that give the precise location of the image. (A) Sharp contact within greenish grey to very dark greenish grey nannofossil mud with colour change in a sandy interval. Bioturbation is visible (746.25 to 746.55 mbsf). (B) Cemented sandstone with biogenic carbonate (749.48 to 749.63 mbsf.). (C) Homogenous sandier sediments (790.28 to 790.43 mbsf). (D) Thin 2 cm bed of dark greenish grey silty sand (792.61 to 792.76 mbsf). (E) Distinct bioturbation with smaller grain sizes (842.25 to 842.40 mbsf). (F) Small patches of sand preserved within a matrix of mud excavated by macrobenthic communities (771.62 to 771.86 mbsf). (G) 5-point moving average (black) of the colour reflectance (L*); open grey circles) is compared with darker colours of the core photographs with brown shades.

2004) at 630.8 mbsf in combination with the presence of *G. margaritae* at the base of the Hole (younger than 6.08 Ma; Hilgen et al., 2012) and the predominantly dextral coiling direction of *Neogloboquadrina acostaensis* (younger than 6.37 Ma; Hilgen et al., 2012; Table 1; see Section 5.1.1), shipboard scientists suggested that sediments from 731.20 to 865.85 mbsf were Miocene/Pliocene in age (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2012; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b; Stow et al., 2013). However, there is no robust justification of the depth for the Miocene-Pliocene boundary due to limited tie point identifications during the Expedition (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a, 2012). Although the exact depth of the boundary is never clearly stated in any of these publications, it is apparent from the various stratigraphic summary figures that so far the boundary was poorly constrained. The preferred depth of ~730 mbsf used in the summary in Hernández-Molina et al. (2014b), centred on IODP Expedition 339 results, was based on a lithologic transition from hemipelagites of presumed Miocene age to turbidites and debrites of presumed Pliocene age.

Recently, 3D and 2D seismic reflection profiles have been used to correlate the Algarve-2 well to IODP Hole U1387C (Figure 1, Hernández-Molina et al., 2015). The Miocene-Pliocene boundary in Algarve-2 has been identified at 1455-1460 mbsf using a combination of biostratigraphic data and cyclostratigraphic tuning of resistivity logs (Hernández-Molina et al., 2015). The Miocene-Pliocene boundary is manifested as an increase in reflection amplitudes on seismic lines (M-reflector) truncating towards the basin margins. This reflector was correlated in Hernández-Molina et al., (2015) to an abrupt sedimentary change in Site U1387 at ~826 mbsf with an uncertainty of 15-20 m.

Shipboard colour reflectance data (L^*) mirrors to some extent darker and lighter colours of core photographs (Fig. 2G). Core descriptions prepared during IODP Expedition 339 describe the lithology between 731.20 to 748.09 mbsf as greenish grey to very dark greenish grey nanofossil (silty) mud or sand with biogenic carbonate (Fig. 2A; Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a). Cemented grey medium sandstone with biogenic carbonate is found between 748.10 and 750.92 mbsf (Fig. 2B). From 760 mbsf to the base of the core, dark greenish grey nanofossil mud and muddy/clayey nanofossil ooze is found commonly interbedded with 2 cm thick beds of dark greenish grey silty sand (Fig. 2D). The deepest occurrence of a thick (~80 cm) silty bed is observed at about 801 mbsf (Fig. 2C). Distinct bioturbation is present from 827.20 to 865.85 mbsf (Fig. 2E) and is less extensive higher up the sequence. Hence, compositional lithological changes exist at several depths in the studied section. While the Miocene-Pliocene boundary was previously presumed to be associated with the significant change in lithology at ~730 mbsf (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b), it was just as likely represented by one of the other notable changes in lithology.

Finally, shallow water benthic foraminifers, such as *Ammonia*, *Elphidium* and *Asterigerinata* were recorded from 792.80 mbsf upwards and have particular high abundances above 765.72 mbsf (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a).

3. Methods

3.1. Sample preparation

Bulk sediment samples from IODP Hole U1387 of $\sim 25 \text{ cm}^3$ were collected at the IODP Bremen Core Repository for micropaleontological, stable isotope, and grain size analyses. Samples were taken at least every 40 cm from 731.20 to 748.10 mbsf and every 20 cm from 751.12 to 865.85 mbsf. All samples were freeze-dried overnight, weighed, disaggregated in tap water overnight, sieved through >63 and $>150 \mu\text{m}$ sieves, dried, and weighed again. The $>63 \mu\text{m}$ fraction as a percentage of the total dry weight (wt.%) was used as the sand fraction, that is in certain cases indicative for bottom water current flow strength (Rogerson et al., 2005).

Paleomagnetic samples consisted of the archive halves of all core sections and oriented discrete sediment samples, which were collected by inserting a hollow extruder into the middle of the working half of the split-core sections and then extruding the sediments into plastic cubes ($2 \text{ cm} \times 2 \text{ cm} \times 2 \text{ cm}$, with an internal volume of $\sim 7 \text{ cm}^3$) as described in Expedition 339 Scientists, (2013b).

3.2. Micropaleontological studies

Planktic foraminiferal biostratigraphic analyses was performed on the $>150 \mu\text{m}$ fraction of the prepared samples. A microsplitter was used to split residues until about 150 planktic specimens remained. All planktic foraminiferal species were counted and classified including the biostratigraphic marker species *G. margaritae*, *Globorotalia menardii* and sinistral or dextral coiling *N. acostaensis*. Presence/absence data of benthic foraminiferal species on the $>150 \mu\text{m}$ fraction were used to provide a rough paleobathymetry estimation [A detailed quantitative analysis will be available in a separate publication by García-Gallardo et al., in preparation]. Five samples were chosen for detailed calcareous nannofossils biostratigraphic analysis, implementing the settling technique described in Flores and Sierro (1997).

3.3. Stable isotope analyses

Between two and fifteen specimens of benthic foraminifers *Cibicidoides pachyderma* $>250 \mu\text{m}$ were hand-picked from each sample for carbon and oxygen stable isotope analysis ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$). Specimens were washed with ethanol, ultrasonicated for several seconds and dried for 24 h to remove all liquids.

Samples from 731.20 to 747.7. mbsf and 828.22 to 865.15 mbsf were analysed in the Godwin Laboratory for Palaeoclimate Research at the University of Cambridge. Isotope analyses were performed using a Thermo Finnigan MAT253 mass spectrometer fitted with a Kiel device. Analytical precision on an in-house standard, calibrated against international carbonate standard NBS-19, is $\pm 0.06 \%$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\pm 0.08 \%$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Samples from 751 mbsf to 824 mbsf were analysed in the Leibniz-Laboratory for Radiometric Dating and Isotope Research at the Christian-Albrechts-University in Kiel with a MAT 253 mass spectrometer connected to a Kiel IV carbonate preparation device. The analytical precision of the NBS-19 international standard and three laboratory-internal standards was better than $\pm 0.05 \%$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\pm 0.08 \%$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. At the Christian-Albrechts-

University, large foraminiferal samples with more than six individuals were crushed to homogenize the samples before analysis of a representative subsample was undertaken. Results are reported relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite standard (VPDB).

3.4. X-ray fluorescence analyses

We used the XRF core scanner II, (AVAATECH Serial No. 2) at the MARUM—University of Bremen to retrieve elemental Zr/Al ratios. XRF core scanner data were collected every 3 cm down-core over a 1.2 cm² area with a down-core slit size of 10 mm in three separate runs using generator settings of 10, 30, and 50 kV, and currents of 0.2, 1.0, and 1.0 mA, respectively. Sampling time was set to 20 s and scanning took place directly at the split core surface of the archive half. The split core surface was covered with a 4 µm thin SPEXCerti Prep Ultralene¹ foil to avoid contamination of the XRF measurement unit and desiccation of the sediment. The reported data have been acquired by a Canberra X-PIPS Silicon Drift Detector (SDD; Model SXD 15C-150-500) with 150 eV X-ray resolution and the Canberra Digital Spectrum Analyzer DAS 1000. The XRF II scanner is equipped with an Oxford Instruments 50W XTF5011. Core disturbance from drilling (biscuiting) may have significantly degraded the quality of XRF measurements from 760.18 to 764.94 (Core 51R) and inhibited measurements from 816.58 to 827.23 mbsf (Core 57R).

3.5. Magnetostratigraphy

As described in Expedition 339 Scientists (2013a, b), continuous paleomagnetic measurements were made every 5 cm along the split-core sections during Expedition 339 using the shipboard cryogenic magnetometer (2G Enterprises Model-760R). The natural remanent magnetization (NRM) was measured after progressive alternating field (AF) demagnetization at 0, 10, and 20 mT. The split-core data were further cleaned by removing results from disturbed intervals and from near the ends of the core sections, as these data contain biases. The cleaned data are available in Table T16 of Expedition 339 Scientists (2013a) and the raw data are available online from the IODP LIMS Database.

To permit more detail demagnetization experiments and to better assess the characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) directions, we also collected approximately one discrete paleomagnetic cube sample (7 cm³) from each core section (roughly one sample every 1.5 m) during Expedition 339 for the interval from 700 mbsf to the base of the hole, for a total of 56 samples. Only four of these samples were measured during Expedition 339. The remaining 52 were measured post-cruise in the Paleomagnetism Laboratory at University of California-Davis. All 56 samples were subjected to progressive AF demagnetization generally using 5 mT steps from 0 to 40 mT and 10 mT steps up to 100 mT. Paleomagnetic directions were determined from principal component analysis (PCA; Kirschvink, 1980) using ZPLOTIT software (Acton, 2011, <http://paleomag.ucdavis.edu/software-zplotit.html>). The remanence measurements from at least five demagnetization steps for each interval were fit to lines using only steps between 20 and 60 mT. PCA lines were fit using both the FREE option, in which the line is not required to pass through the origin of the plot, and the ANCHORED option, in which line is anchored to the origin (Supplementary Tables S17-S19). A Fisherian mean direction was also computed from the highest

several demagnetization steps to estimate a stable end point (SEP). The paleomagnetic data and PCA results are provided in the Supplementary Material.

For each sample, we determined a preferred inclination from the PCA FREE, PCA ANCHORED, or SEP estimate of the ChRM. The selection of which method best resolved the ChRM was based on visual inspection of the sample directions plotted on orthogonal vector diagrams (modified Zijderveld plots) and stereonet. The results for each sample were ranked with a quality factor, where Quality 1 was reserved for samples that displayed very linear decay of magnetization during demagnetization as noted by PCA maximum angular deviation (MAD) angles $< 5^\circ$. Quality 2 are similar to Quality 1 but the MAD angles are between 5° and 10° . These highest quality (1 and 2) samples have very well resolved ChRM directions and the polarity can be determined with great confidence. Such high quality samples occur mainly in the upper part of section, and none are deeper than 550 mbsf. Quality 3 samples displayed moderate directional scatter during AF demagnetization but a relatively noisy ChRM can be determined from which the polarity can be established. Quality 4 samples have large directional scatter during AF demagnetization and generally a significant drilling overprint that overlaps much of the coercivity spectra of the ChRM. The ChRM cannot be accurately determined although it is often possible to determine the polarity of these samples because they trend towards positive (normal polarity) or negative (reverse polarity) inclinations as they are demagnetized above about 40-80 mT. Quality 5 samples have such highly variable directions during AF demagnetization or are so strongly overprinted that their polarity is indeterminate. Of the 56 samples below 700 mbsf, only 3 are Quality 3, 33 are Quality 4, and the remaining 20 are Quality 5.

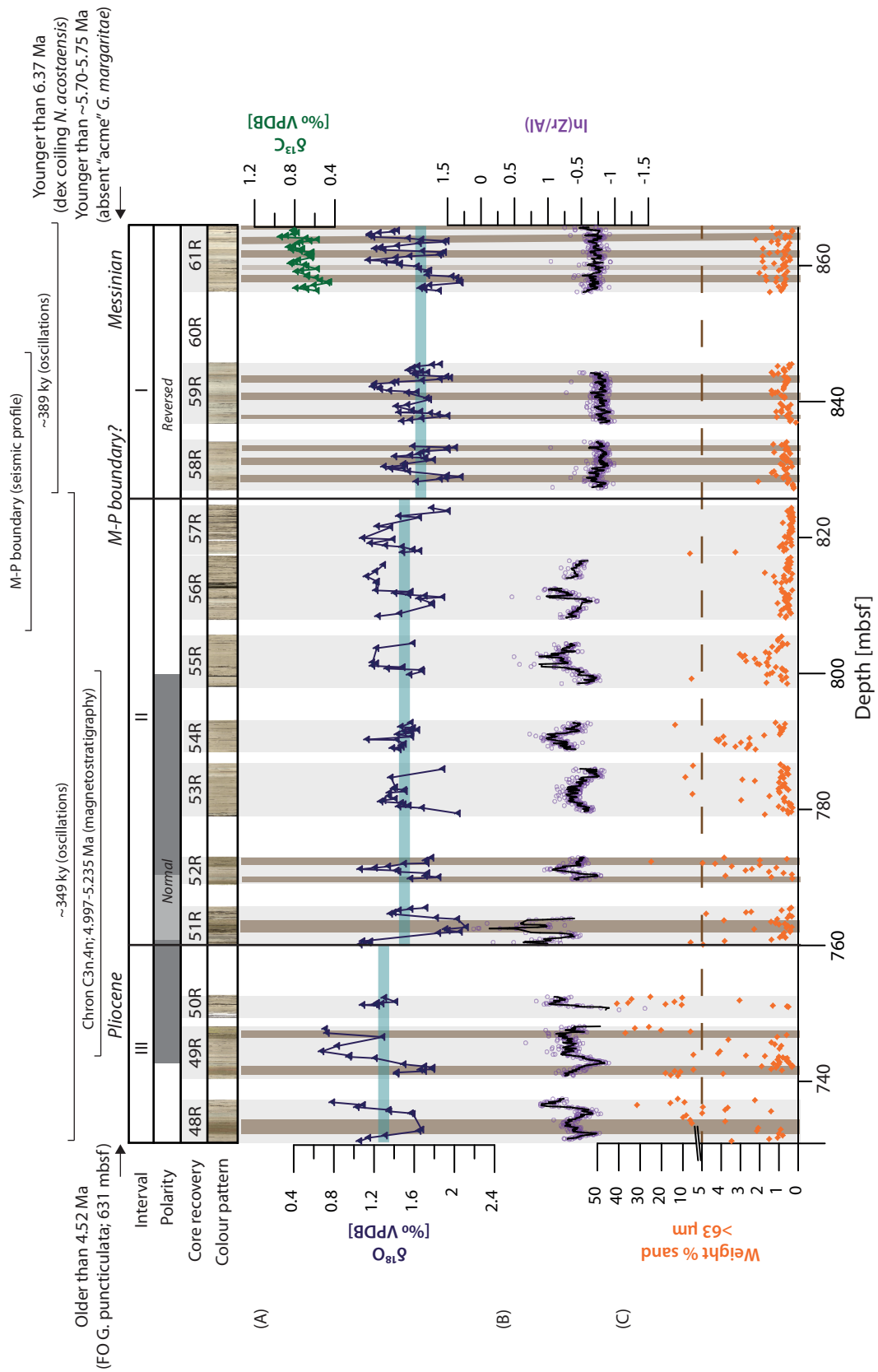
4. Results

The sedimentary sequence was divided into three intervals based on its lithological and geochemical properties (Fig. 3): Interval I (~826 to 865.85 mbsf) is characterized by low Zr/Al levels and consistently low wt.% sand ($>63 \mu\text{m}$); Interval II (~760 to ~826 mbsf) has higher, more variable Zr/Al ratios and progressively higher and more variable wt.% sand; Interval III (731.20 to ~760 mbsf) is characterized by highly variable Zr/Al oscillations and much higher sand grades commonly reaching 10-40 wt.%.

4.1. Sand fraction and composition

The sand fraction ($>63 \mu\text{m}$) of Interval I is consistently less than 3 wt.% (Fig. 3). Microscopic inspection of washed samples revealed that this coarser fraction mainly consists of planktic foraminifers with minor lithic particles including pyrite and rare quartz. A similar sand-grade and

Figure 3 (next page). Paleoclimate records of IODP Site U1387C. Intervals I, II and III, magnetostratigraphic polarities, core numbers and their recovery, and colour patterns from core photographs are shown above the panel (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a). Light blue shaded areas indicate darker colours in core photographs. Age indications are displayed above the panel. FO = First Occurrence. (A) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (blue) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (green) of benthic *C. pachyderma*. Grey horizontal bars show average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values per Interval. (B) Elemental Zr/Al ratios with 5-point moving average (black). (C) Weight % sand $>63 \mu\text{m}$ as a percentage of total dry weight (orange).



composition is observed in the lower part of Interval II (Cores 56R and 57R), but samples with distinctly higher wt.% of the >63 μ m fraction occur increasingly commonly above ~803 mbsf. The coarser grain size fraction is mainly associated with an increase in the quartz content. Sediments from 788.80 to 805.68 mbsf in Cores 54R and 55R show distinct bigradational patterns with traces of bioturbation (Fig. 2D, 4). The sand fraction of these silt horizons is dominated by fine sand-grade material (e.g. between 63 and 150 μ m; Fig. 4). The composition of the >150 μ m fraction is mainly restricted to foraminifers and peaks in the abundance of this coarser size fraction show no relationship with the bigradational pattern seen in the fine sand material (Fig. 4). The higher sand content seen in Interval III is associated with more lithic particles, mainly quartz grains (Fig. 3).

4.2. Stable isotope records

The benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ isotope record shows regular fluctuations throughout the studied section. However, the different intervals are characterized by variations with different wavelengths and amplitudes (Fig. 3). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ oscillations in Interval I have an average wavelength of ~2.2 m, considering an additional fourth alternation in Core 61R that is only visible in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ during the larger $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ oscillation from 856.68 to 860.48 mbsf (Table 2; Fig. 3, 9; see section 5.2.2) [a detailed interpretation of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record is beyond the scope of this paper and is the subject of a forthcoming paper (Van der Schee et al. in preparation)]. The regular $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ alternations of Interval II typically have significantly longer wavelengths of ~5.9 m on average. Limited recovery of Interval III makes the wavelength of its $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ alternations more difficult to calculate, but it appears to be comparable to those of Interval II. The average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of Interval II is lower than that of Interval I and the average of Interval III is lower than Intervals I and II (Fig. 3). In all three Intervals, distinctly darker layers tend to be associated with higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.

4.3. XRF scanning Zr/Al ratios

Zr/Al ratios of Interval I have consistently low ratios with the lack of obvious regular alternations that resemble the periodicity of those well developed in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. 3A, B). By contrast, Intervals II and III are characterized by distinct, high amplitude variability in Zr/Al levels displaying oscillations with wavelengths similar to those of the benthic isotope record (~5.9 m). In general in Interval II and III, these two records show negative co-variation.

Table 2. Wavelengths of cyclical alternations of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for selected intervals. *Three cyclical alternations are visible in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record plus an additional cycle visible in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is taken into consideration.

Core	Hole U1387C depth [mbsf]		Length [m]	Cycles [-]	Length/cycle [m/cycle]
	Top	Bottom			
48R	731.2	736.91	5.71	<1	-
54R-57R	790.44	819.91	29.47	5.0	5.89
58R	828.92	832.92	4.00	2.0	2.00
59R	837.90	844.50	6.60	2.5	2.64
61R	856.68	864.42	7.74	3.0+1*	1.94
Weighted average Interval I (58R-61R):					2.16

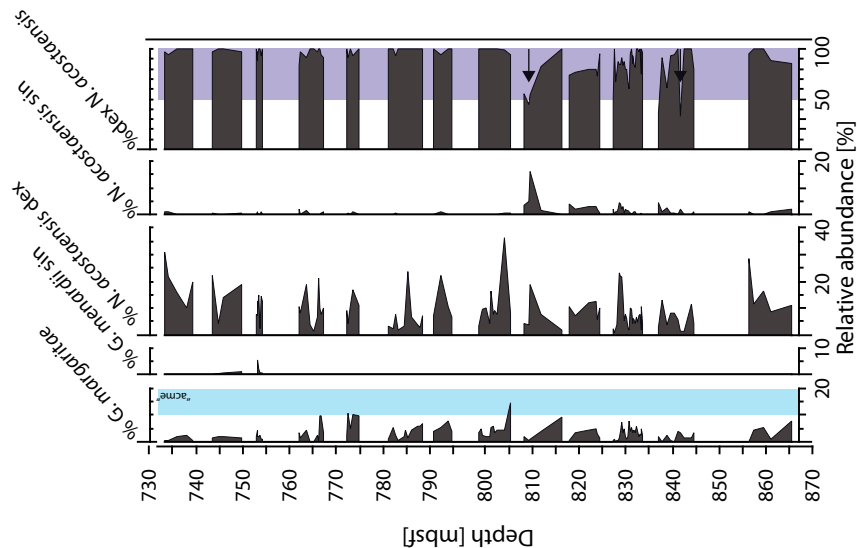


Figure 4. Weight % sand of the fine sand-grade (>63 to <150 µm; orange) and coarser sand-grade (>150 µm; red) fractions from 788.80 to 805.68 mbsf. Core numbers and photographs are displayed above the graphs. Two outliers are explained by the presence of pyrite and a centimetre scale sand influx (visible on core photographs; Fig. 2D). The distinct increase and decrease in the fine sand-grade fraction are indicated by the bigradational pattern (accentuated with black arrows).

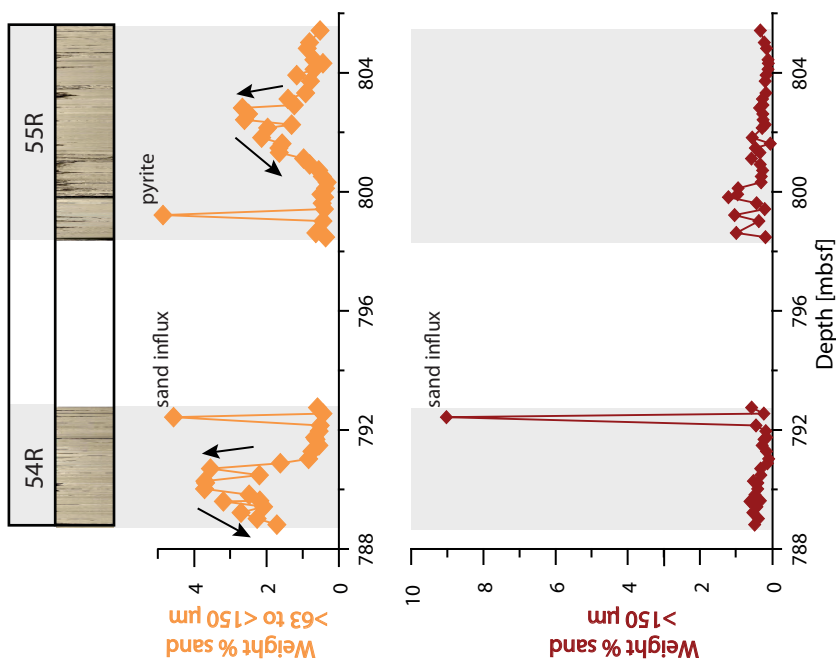


Figure 5. Planktic foraminiferal biostratigraphy of Site U1387. Relative abundances are displayed. The light blue shaded area shows the “acme”-zone of *G. margaritae*. The purple shaded area displays the relative distribution of dex/(dex + sin) of *N. acostaensis*. The purple shaded area indicates that most species have dextral coiling. The two arrows highlight the sinistral coiled influses.

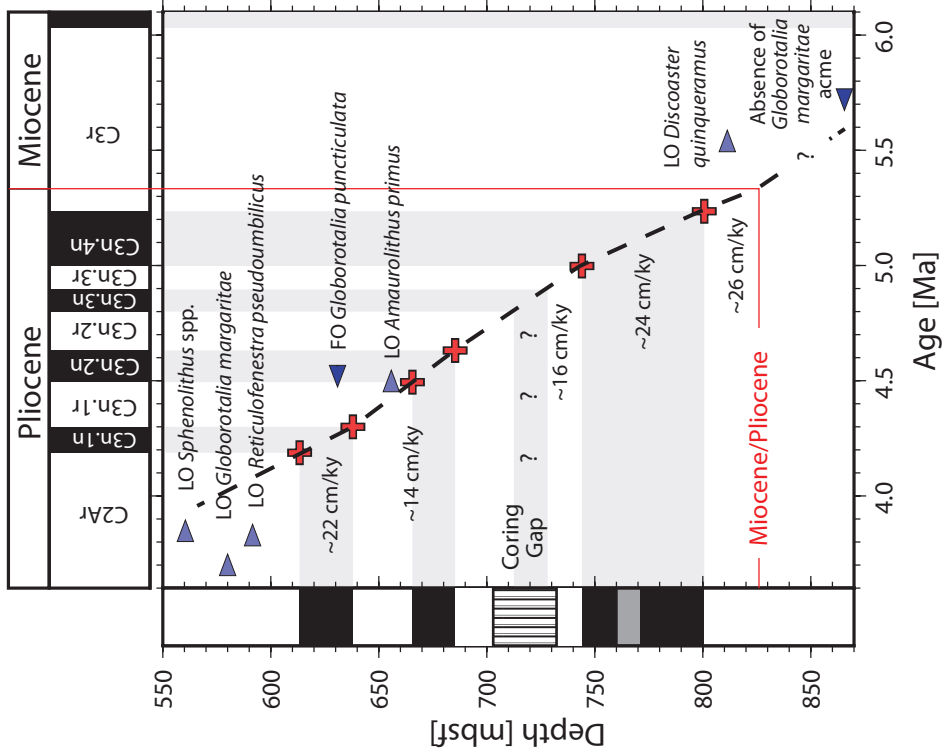


Figure 7. Chronostratigraphy for Site U1387 from magnetostratigraphic and biostratigraphic constraints. FO = First Occurrence, LO = Last Occurrence.

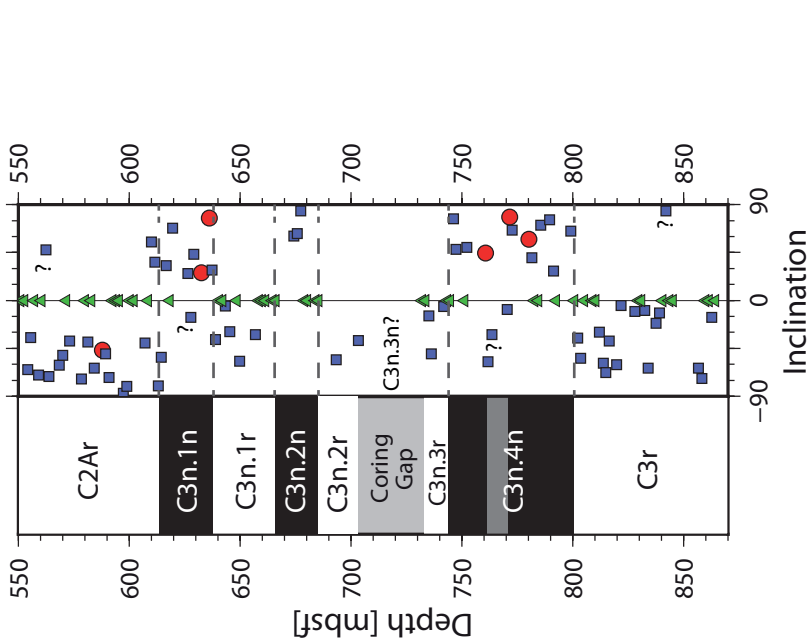


Figure 6. Magnetostratigraphic interpretation for magnetozones between 550 mbsf and the base of Hole U1387C. The inclinations plotted are the preferred inclinations determined by principal component analysis (PCA), and are given in the Supplementary material. The symbols reflect the different quality of the results as discussed in the text and Supplementary material Quality 3 (red circles), Quality 4 (blue squares), and Quality 5 (green triangles), which are plotted along the 0° inclination merely to show the depth at which they occur.

4.4. Paleobathymetry estimations from benthic foraminiferal presence/absence data

Presence/absence data of benthic foraminifers are provided in the Supplementary material. The studied samples frequently contain benthic foraminifers known to have their upper limit of bathymetric distribution at upper to middle bathyal water depths (e.g., *C. pachyderma*, *Cibicidoides . wuellerstorfi*, *Laticarinina pauperata*, *Eggerella bradyi*, *Epistominella exigua*, *Fissurina* spp., *Gyroidinoides* spp., *Melonis* spp., *Oolina* spp., *Osangularia culter*, *Pullenia* spp., *Saracenaria* spp.; Jones, 1994; Leckie and Olson, 2003; Van Morkhoven et al., 1986). Furthermore, the presence/absence data show taxa that characterize slope environments between 300 and 900m water depth in the Gulf of Cadiz and the western Iberian Margin (e.g., *Amphicoryna scalaris*, *Bigenerina nodosaria*, *Bulimina striata*, *Cibicidoides mundulus*, *Globocassidulina subglobosa*, *Planulina ariminensis*, *Uvigerina mediterranea*, and *U. pygmaea*; Phipps et al., 2012; Schönfeld, 2002, 1997). A particularly interesting species among the bathyal taxa is *L. pauperata*, a cosmopolitan species that tolerates a wide range of environmental conditions at bathyal and abyssal water depths (Van Morkhoven et al., 1986). While other taxa limited to bathyal water depths are present in Interval I as well as Interval II and III, this species disappears from the record above ~826 mbsf. An upper depth limit at the middle to upper bathyal transition has been suggested for *L. pauperata*, and its disappearance may indicate a slight shallowing from middle to upper bathyal water depths comparable to today (Van Morkhoven et al., 1986).

Foraminiferal species restricted to neritic environments such as *Ammonia* spp., *Asterigerinata* spp., *Cancris* spp., and *Elphidium* spp. are increasingly present above ~801 mbsf (Leckie and Olson, 2003; Mendes et al., 2012). These taxa occur throughout the record alongside bathyal species mentioned above and are thus considered allochthonous.

5. Chronostratigraphic framework

5.1. Bio- and magnetostratigraphy

5.1.1. Planktic foraminifera

Several planktic foraminiferal species provide constraints on the age of the basal part of IODP Hole U1387 (Table 1). These include the following:

1. The first occurrence of *G. puncticulata* (4.52 Ma; Lourens et al., 2004) which has been identified in IODP Hole U1387C at a depth of 630.82 mbsf (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2013a). The interval of interest (731.2 to 865.85 mbsf) is therefore entirely older than 4.52 Ma.
2. *N. acostaensis* which is abundant in upper Messinian to lower Pliocene sediments from this region and exhibits well-dated changes in predominant coiling direction and short time scale influxes of the inferior coiling direction (Krijgsman et al., 2004; Sierro et al., 2001; Lourens et al., 2004). Typically, assemblages strongly dominated by sinistral coiling

N. acostaensis are found in sediments older than 6.37 Ma, while dextral coiling shells constitute the vast majority of specimens in sediments younger than 5.82 Ma (Hilgen and Krijgsman, 1999; Krijgsman et al., 2004; Sierro et al., 2001). Quantitative assessment of the coiling direction of *N. acostaensis* in the lower part of Hole U1387C shows that it is strongly dominated by dextral coiling forms (Fig. 5). Consequently, the base of the Hole is most likely younger than 5.82 Ma.

Two sinistral coiled influxes of *N. acostaensis* are found from 808.22 to 809.52 and at 841.80 mbsf (Fig. 5). In the Mediterranean Basin in the lower Pliocene, two sinistral influxes are reported and astronomically tuned in the Eraclea Minoa section to 5.30 and 5.32 Ma (Lourens et al., 1996). Equivalent influxes to these are described in precessional driven Cycles 2 and 3 immediately above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary in ODP Holes 974B and 975B (Iaccarino et al., 1999b).

3. A distinct high abundance interval, referred to as “acme”, of *G. margaritae* has been described from several upper Miocene records from the Gulf of Cadiz, SW Spain and NW Morocco (Van den Berg et al., 2015; Krijgsman et al., 2004; Ledesma, 2000; Sierro et al., 1993, 1982). The “acme” has a relative abundance of *G. margaritae* that exceeds at least 10% of the total planktic foraminiferal assemblage. An interval of particular high abundance occurs in the Ain el Beida section (> 20 %; NW Morocco; Krijgsman et al., 2004) and the Montemayor-1 core (> 37%; SW Spain; Van den Berg et al., 2015) between respectively, ~5.75 and ~5.70 Ma until ~5.84 Ma (both sites), where the “acme” coincides with glacial stages TG20 and TG22. Foraminiferal counts from the lower part of Hole U1387C show that only one sample contains > 10% *G. margaritae* (805.42 mbsf; Fig. 5), indicating that this sedimentary succession does not overlap the high abundance “acme”. The relative large time span of the “acme” seems to be too long to coincide within a coring gap (see Section 5.2.2). In addition, it is unlikely that the “acme” would be absent even though the sediments of this time-interval might have been covered, since it has always been found in Gulf of Cadiz succession. Since the coiling direction of *N. acostaensis* indicates that the studied sediments are most likely younger than 5.82 Ma, the *G. margaritae* data further constrains the age of the sediments to being younger than ~5.70-5.75 Ma. Outside the very high abundance interval, Krijgsman et al. (2004) included all samples with >5 % *G. margaritae* in the wider “acme” interval that spans 5.56 to 5.84 Ma. As our quantitative *G. margaritae* data typically varies between 2 and 10 % (Fig. 5; Supplementary material), it is possible that these sediments at the base of IODP Hole U1387C overlap, at least in part, with the described 5.56 to 5.84 Ma interval.
4. An influx of *G. menardii* with a maximum relative abundance of 5.5 % is recorded between 751.33 and 752.28 mbsf (Fig. 5; Supplementary material). Three similar influxes have been documented from the latest Messinian to earliest Pliocene in the Ain el Beida and Loulja sections in NW Morocco with astronomical ages of 5.55, 5.51 and 5.32 Ma¹. Without more

¹ Please note that Krijgsman et al. (2004) incorrectly identify *G. menardii* pulses as *Globorotalia miotumida*. (Tulbure et al., in preparation), while they are referred to as *G. menardii* in van der Laan et al. (2006) (Van den Berg et al., 2015).

robust age constraints the influx of *G. menardii* in IODP Site U1387 cannot be correlated to any of these.

In summary, planktic biostratigraphic results suggest that the interval from 731.20 to 865.85 mbsf of IODP Hole U1387C is older than 4.52 Ma, the first occurrence of *G. punctulata* (630.82 mbsf) and younger than the high abundance *G. margaritae* “acme” at ~5.70-5.75 Ma.

5.1.2. Calcareous nannofossils

Characteristic calcareous nannofossil marker species from the latest Neogene are common with individuals of *Amaurolithus primus*, *Discoaster surculus*, *Discoaster pentaradiatus* and *Discoaster quinqueramus* as well as characteristic reticulofenestrids (*Reticulofenestra pseudoumbilicus*, *Reticulofenestra minuta*, *Reticulofenestra minutula* and *Reticulofenestra rotaria*), allowing to place the studied interval between biozones NN11 and NN15 spanning from 3.81 to 7.36 Ma (e.g. Young et al., 1994; Raffi et al., 2006). The presence of reworked specimens (e.g. *Cyclicargolithus floridanus*, *Discoaster deflandei*, *Sphenolithus belemnos* gr.), mainly of Paleogene and lower to middle Miocene varieties, is common (Raffi et al., 2006). Expedition 339 Scientists, (2013a) report the last occurrence of *D. quinqueramus* at 811.43 mbsf what indicates an age younger than 5.54 Ma (Raffi et al., 2006). However, this biostratigraphic event is hard to identify in such detail, because only a few specimens of *D. quinqueramus* are present and thus could easily be reworked. Also, a few specimens of *R. rotaria* are found in the studied interval which indicate an age range between 6.75 and 7.41 Ma (Flores et al., 2005; Lourens et al., 2004; Young et al., 1994). The planktic foraminiferal bio-events are clearly indicating late Messinian ages and not upper Tortonian to lower Messinian as indicated by *R. rotaria*. If *R. rotaria* and planktic foraminifers were in-situ, specimens of *G. miotumida* and continuous abundances of *G. menardii* 5 were expected (Lourens et al., 2004). The incompatibility of the nannofossil and foraminiferal data suggest that the few specimens of *D. quinqueramus* and *R. rotaria* are reworked.

5.1.3. Magnetostratigraphy

The paleomagnetic data is generally of low quality because the sediment magnetizations are relatively weak and the magnetization of the cores includes a significant drilling overprint that masks the original depositional magnetization. The overprint has a steep downward direction (positive inclinations) similar to that expected for normal polarity intervals. Hence, failure to remove the drilling overprint with magnetic cleaning, such as AF demagnetization, can bias the magnetic polarity interpretation significantly. This is particularly the case for the split-core sections, which give virtually only positive inclinations even in intervals that must be of reversed polarity. The 20-mT peak-field AF demagnetization used during Expedition 339 was clearly insufficient in removing the drilling overprint and resolving the original depositional magnetization, and thus no polarity could be determined from this data below 500 mbsf.

The discrete samples were subjected to much higher peak-field AF demagnetization, which was successful at removing the drilling overprint from many of the samples from Hole U1387C. Even though the quality of the samples is generally considered poor for resolving the ChRM fully, the polarity of the samples could be reasonably well estimated. This is illustrated in Figure 6 where the

inclinations are shown for the interval from 550 mbsf to the base of the Hole, along with the interpretation of the magnetozones.

Most importantly for the present study is that the stratigraphic section below 800.65 mbsf is all reversely magnetized. Based on the biostratigraphic constraints, this magnetozone corresponds to Chron C3r (5.235-6.033 Ma; Lourens et al., 2004). The base of this magnetozone was not recovered, which is consistent with the biostratigraphic constraints that suggest the age of the bottom of the hole is <5.75 Ma. The overlying normal polarity magnetozone spanning 743.99 to 800.65 mbsf corresponds to Chron C3n.4n (4.997-5.235 Ma; Lourens et al., 2004), indicating the boundary between the magnetozones at 800.65 mbsf has an age of 5.235 Ma. The Miocene-Pliocene boundary is thus below 800.65 mbsf and above the base of the Hole (865.6 mbsf). The sequence of magnetozones above Magnetozone C3n.4n fits well the general chron sequence of the geomagnetic polarity timescale and the depths and dates of the observed reversals agree well with biostratigraphic constraints and give sedimentation rates compatible with the other chronostratigraphic constraints (Fig. 7).

5.2. Cyclostratigraphic constraints

5.2.1. Precessionally forced variations

Benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records in open ocean deep marine settings during the Pliocene-Pleistocene are mainly dominated by obliquity. However, the first ~150 ky at the base of the Pliocene show a strong precessional signal in the LR04 stack (Fig. 8B; Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). In contrast, rhythmic sedimentary cycles, including resistivity, gamma ray and Ti/Al records from the Iberian and Moroccan Atlantic margins during the Messinian and Early Pliocene typically display a pronounced variability in response to precession (e.g. Hodell et al., 1994; Krijgsman et al., 2004; Pérez-Asensio et al., 2014, 2013; van der Laan et al., 2012, 2006, 2005; van den Berg et al., 2015). Precession continues to be dominant as astronomical forcing in IODP Sites drilled in the Gulf of Cadiz throughout the Pleistocene, including Site U1387 (Bahr et al., 2015; Lofi et al., 2015; Voelker et al., 2015b).

Precession and obliquity patterns are further investigated by comparing the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the Loulja section with obliquity and a combined record of normalized precession minus normalized tilt (obliquity), hereafter precession-tilt (Fig. 8A, 8B). Obliquity is expressed in precession-tilt by the enhancement of the amplitude of every other precession cycle. This distinct pattern is clearly visible in the Loulja $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record, for example around interglacial stage TG9 (5.45 Ma; Van der Laan et al., 2006). Here, the expression of TG9 is more pronounced due to increased influence of obliquity, while the precession cycles before and after TG9 have lower amplitudes.

The discontinuous nature of the record in the studied interval of Hole U1387C makes it impossible to assess the oscillation patterns in the same way as can be achieved for continuous successions. However, in Interval I, a few continuous regular alternations are visible mainly in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ oscillation patterns in Cores 61R, 59R and 58R, show alternations of high and low amplitudes (Fig. 9), that are very similar to the typical interference patterns of obliquity and precession. To

illustrate this, we show a comparison of the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ with a theoretical cyclic precession-tilt curve (Fig. 9). A similar, close relationship between the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic record and the precession-tilt curve is seen at the Loulja section (Fig. 8A, 8B).

In even more detail, Core 61R reveals three full regular alternations in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record, while the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from the same foraminiferal specimens shows four regular alternations (Fig. 3, 9). Normally, ventilation patterns and organic carbon storage explain $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variations. In the Gulf of Cadiz $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variations have been explained as an expression of ventilation patterns linked to MOW during the Pleistocene with a strong precessional component (Voelker et al., 2006, 2015b), however, linking our data with these patterns without a definite understanding of Atlantic-Mediterranean exchange is problematic. Independently, other well-dated benthic Messinian to upper Pliocene benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records in the area possess a precession component, i.e. Ain el Beida and Loulja sections (Van der Laan et al., 2012, 2006). Consequently, it is likely that the four $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ regular alternations represent precession, while the long $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ alternation from 856.68 to 860.80 is the expression of diminished precession under a strong influence of obliquity. This suggests that the short scale visible regular alternations of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record within Interval I are precession-induced cycles, with influence of other astronomical cyclicities.

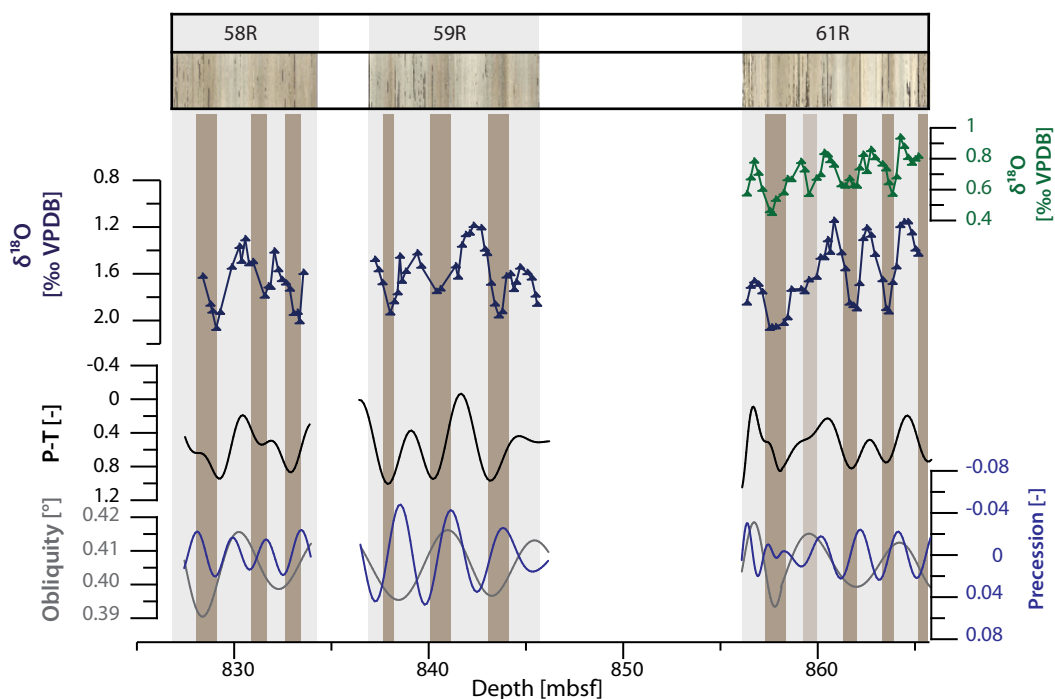


Figure 9. Close-up of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (dark blue) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (green) of *C. pachyderma* together with colour changes (brown shades) from 827.20 to 865.85 mbsf (Cores 58R, 59R and 61R). A theoretical example of a corresponding precession-tilt curve (P-T; black) is displayed to show resemblance with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. This suggests the interference patterns of precession and obliquity in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. The used obliquity (grey) and precession (light blue) curves are indicated below. Parts of the solution Lao4 are used for all astronomical parameters (65°N summer insolation; Laskar et al., 2004).

Regular alternations have larger wavelengths in Interval II and III, while coring gaps are still present. As a result, comparing cycle patterns as done for Interval I is impossible, because only one or two cycles can be recognized between gaps. We assume that the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ cyclic patterns are representing the same astronomical variations as in Interval I. Consequently, precessionally forced variability is assumed for the colour changes, Zr/Al ratios and, to some extent, sand fraction analyses that have wavelengths consistent with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record.

5.2.2. Depositional time span

If the cycles in IODP Hole U1387C are precessionally controlled, the depositional time span can be calculated given that the average duration of a precession cycle is ~ 21.7 ky (Berger, 1984) and using the same sedimentation rate for intervals where no core was recovered as is measured in the cores below and above. No significant stretching or shortening of the sediment inside the core pipe during drilling is anticipated because the sediment throughout the Hole is well compacted.

In Interval I, Cores 58R, 59R and 61R all show distinct colour and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ cycles with an average wavelength of 2.2 m per cycle (Table 2). Assuming this constant sedimentation rate, Interval I (38.68 m) should equate to ~ 18 precession cycles, with an average sedimentation rate of about 10 cm/ky and a time-span of ~ 389 ky. The occurrence of two colour cycles and two carbon isotope excursions from 856.9 to 860.3 suggest the presence of two precession cycles during the long $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ cycle (Fig. 3, 9).

In Interval II, cores with more continuous recovery (Cores 57R to 54R) show an average thickness of 5.89 m per cycle (Table 2). Interval III appears too short to calculate an individual sedimentation rate in the same way, but it is clear that Core 48R has one long $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -variation with a width of 5.71 m, which is presumably representing nearly a full cycle. Uncertainty increases due to a possible additional, subtly expressed cycle in Core 48R, as is hinted in the Zr/Al oscillations. However, this still suggests that the sedimentation rate throughout Interval II and III remains relatively constant. Thus, the total thickness of Interval II and III (97.72 m) equates to ~ 16 precession cycles, with an average sedimentation rate of about 27.2 cm/ky and a total depositional time span of ~ 349 ky.

5.3. Tentative working hypothesis on the age model for IODP Hole U1387C

While individually, none of these different datasets provide robust age constraints, more confidence can be gained if the stratigraphic interpretation is compatible with all of them. Here, we explore the best possible stratigraphic fit between the data available.

Assuming, on the basis of the seismic correlation (Hernández-Molina et al., 2015), that the Miocene-Pliocene boundary occurs at the abrupt lithological change between Interval I and II (826 mbsf), the duration of the ~ 18 precession cycles (389 ky) in Interval I suggests that the age of the base of Hole U1387C is ~ 5.72 Ma (age indications are above the panel in Fig. 3). This age is consistent with the absence of the *G. margaritae* “acme” which suggests that the base of the Hole must be younger than ~ 5.70 - 5.75 Ma. The minimum timespan of the “acme” of at least 5 precession cycles makes it highly unlikely that the “acme” falls exactly in a coring gap. Within these age estimations, the two documented influxes of *G. menardii* are likely to be in the coring gap,

within unrecovered Core 60R (5.55 and 5.51 Ma; stratigraphic planktic foraminiferal influxes and coiling changes are represented in Fig. 8B).

The depositional time span calculated on the basis of precessional cycles of Interval II and III (16 precession cycles; ~349 ky) suggests that, if the Miocene-Pliocene boundary is positioned right above Interval I, the age of the top of the studied interval is ~4.98 Ma. The precession-constrained sedimentation rates can also be used to estimate the age of the normal polarity interval from 743.99 to 800.65 mbsf. This suggests an age range for the normal polarity interval from ~5.04 to ~5.24 Ma. This is in good agreement with the Chron C_{3n.4n} (4.997-5.235 Ma; Lourens et al., 2004). The sinistral coiled influx of *N. acostaensis* from 808.22 to 809.52 mbsf can be closely linked to the second reported dextral to sinistral coiling change reported at 5.30 Ma in the Mediterranean, three precession cycles above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (Iaccarino et al., 1999b; Lourens et al., 1996). The influx of *G. menardii* between 752.4 and 751.3 mbsf, with its age estimation from this study of about 5.07 Ma, is thus younger than the influxes recorded in NW Morocco sections (5.31 Ma; Van der Laan et al., 2006; Fig. 8B). Planktic foraminiferal biostratigraphy of the equivalent section in Morocco (Loulja) has not been studied in detail and therefore the coiling changes in *N. acostaensis* and influx of *G. menardii* may have been overlooked so far. The well-recorded influx of *G. menardii* at 5.32 Ma of the Loulja section (Van der Laan et al., 2006) is most likely lost in the coring gap just after the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (Fig. 8B).

In summary, the stratigraphic interpretation which places the Miocene-Pliocene boundary at the sharp sedimentological shift at about 826 mbsf, in accord with the seismic correlation (Hernández-Molina et al., 2015), and using the precession-forced, sedimentary cycles to constrain the age above and below that point, provides an age model for the studied interval of Site IODP U1387. This age model is compatible with the available biostratigraphic and paleomagnetic data, which results in an age model with three tie-points: (1) an age of about 5.7 Ma at the base of the Hole, (2) the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (5.33 Ma) at about 826 mbsf and (3) an age of about 5.0 Ma for the top of the studied interval at 731.20 mbsf. An uncertainty of two to three precessional cycles should be anticipated for the base and the top of the studied interval given the methods used to construct the age model.

6. Discussion

Hemipelagic nannofossil muds showing significant bioturbation and containing few lithic coarser particles characterize the Messinian part (Interval I) of IODP Hole U1387C. This, combined with the relatively low Zr/Al ratios, which show no clear correlation with the precessional benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record, indicate low energy depositional environment influenced by orbital variation (Bahr et al., 2014). Similar cyclicity is found in NW Morocco and the southern Iberian Margin, where clay-silt alternations result from orbitally-driven oscillations in detrital input (coast, riverine, or eolian; e.g. Sierra et al., 2000; van der Laan et al., 2012, Van den Berg et al., 2015). Above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (Interval II and III), sedimentation rates are about three times higher than during the Messinian and the succession has higher Zr/Al values and sand content with more abundant lithic particles (Fig. 3). This suggests significant change in the depositional environment from quiet

hemipelagic conditions to a higher energy environment including the presence of weak bottom currents.

6.1. Bottom water flow strength indicators

Zr/Al ratios are relative high with large amplitude variations in Interval II and III. The sudden change in the appearance of the Zr/Al record is therefore interpreted as a shift from a low energy hemipelagic setting in Interval I, to a higher energy environment controlled by bottom currents that are subject to particle sorting in Interval II and III (Fig. 3). The suggestion of increasing energy levels is consistent with the general increase in sand content in Intervals II and III relative to the base of the Hole, especially in sections where maximum Zr/Al ratios coincide with maximum sand content (i.e. 788.80 to 803.68 mbsf; Fig. 4). Yet because of the absence of Zr/Al data from the lowermost core of Interval II (Core 57R), we cannot determine with certainty from Zr/Al ratios only whether this transition occurs at the Miocene-Pliocene boundary or shortly thereafter. However, parallel behaviour between Zr/Al ratios and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ immediately after the oldest measurement in Interval II and the abrupt sedimentation rate change reflected in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, suggests an immediate change of depositional environment at the Miocene-Pliocene boundary.

In Interval II, two sandy beds show clear bigradational grading with tracers of bioturbation (Core 54R and 55R; 788.88 to 803.68 mbsf; Fig. 2C, D, 4). The patterns represents a coarsening upward sorting from homogenous muds with sparse bioturbation to more silty to sandy deposits until the facies succession reverses. These features are characteristic of contourites (Faugères et al., 1984; Gonthier et al., 1984; Rebesco et al., 2014). Similar sedimentary sequences to the two sandy beds are characterized as contourite sequences in the Faro Drift (Gonthier et al., 1984) and recently envisioned for the early Pleistocene for Site IODP U1386 in Alonso et al., (2016). These are distinctly different from the instantly deposited (un-bioturbated) turbiditic, normal grading, fining upward sequences (cf. Bouma et al., 1962). Discrimination between the sand grades >63 to <150 μm and >150 μm weight % confirms the hypothesis of continuous sedimentary deposition under the influence of bottom water current flow. Therefore, the two sandy beds with bi-directional grading are interpreted as the earliest clear sandy contouritic deposits above the third precession cycle above the tentative Miocene-Pliocene boundary.

Seismic data imaging of the Early Pliocene shows features of slope instability on the Algarve Margin, north of IODP Site U1387 (Brackenridge et al., 2013; Hernández-Molina et al., 2015, 2014b; Martínez del Olmo, 2004; Roque et al., 2012). This sedimentary source may account for the tripling of the sedimentation rate that occurs at the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. However, the change in sedimentation rate is abrupt, rather than gradational, which is what would be expected if sedimentation rate changes as a result of progressive tectonic uplift of the margins and/or infilling of the basin, such as is seen in the Guadalquivir Basin (Van den Berg et al., 2015). There is also no evidence of significant shallowing of the depositional environment in Hole IODP U1387C during this period. The continuous presence of benthic foraminiferal taxa which have a bathyal upper depth limit, suggest a fairly constant bathymetry throughout Intervals I to III. The increasing presence of benthic foraminiferal species limited to neritic environments from about 801 mbsf (i.e., in Interval II, ~ 25 m above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary) upwards are interpreted as

allochthonous. They always occur alongside species with a bathyal upper depth limit and are thus not indicative of a significant shallowing of the water depth at Hole U1387C. The shallower benthic foraminifers are probably introduced by pulses of episodic turbiditic-like downslope transport, resulting in the cm-scale sandy layers on the upper slope (Fig. 2D; 'sand influx' Fig. 4). In most cases, these thin turbiditic beds are almost destroyed by the combined action of bottom currents and macrobenthic communities that buried and excavate within the sediments (Dorador and Rodríguez-Tovar, 2016; Rodríguez-Tovar et al., 2015). Often only small patches of sand were preserved within a matrix of mud (Fig. 2F). If the increase in sedimentation rate was the result of instability on the Algarve Margin, then this shallow-water material likely resulted from direct downslope sediment transport. If, however, the abrupt sedimentation rate increase resulted from the onset or an increase of along-slope transport, then the shallow water material could derive from an up-current source. Most likely, a combination of the two processes has occurred; increased slope instability due to tectonic uplift causing increased sediment input from the margin, while along-slope flow provided suspended load from the distant Guadalquivir drainage basin, similar to the late Pleistocene described for IODP Sites U1387 and U1386 (Alonso et al., 2016). In addition, the along-slope suspended load may have been amplified due to suggested tectonic uplift from the early Pliocene (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b). Interval III shows even higher grain size fractions ($>63 \mu\text{m}$) than Interval II, suggesting increased influence of the along- and/or downslope processes. The possible increased terrigenous input from of the Guadalquivir and Guadiana rivers into the Gulf of Cadiz during the warm climate of the early Pliocene (Ducassou et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2005) may have amplified the along and/or downslope processes.

In summary, Hole U1387C shows features in Intervals II and III (lowermost Pliocene) that are consistent with transport and deposition by weak along-slope bottom water currents. These features are not present in Interval I (upper Miocene), that suggests low or absent influence of bottom current flow across Site U1387. Thus, either an increase or the onset of the bottom water current occurred immediately at or shortly after the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. The overall increase in sand content in Intervals II and III may reflect a further increase in flow strength during the earliest Pliocene. Likely, the increase in sedimentation rate at the Miocene-Pliocene boundary is the result of a combination of local instability of the margins and the onset of along-slope transport.

6.2. Origin of bottom water current flow.

MOW today is apparent as a warmer intermediate water mass along the margins of south west Iberia penetrating the Gulf of Cadiz from the Strait of Gibraltar (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). Consequently, if the Strait were closed, colder intermediate Atlantic waters would be expected at the same water depths in the Gulf of Cadiz. The temperature effect should be reflected in the benthic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, where colder conditions and decreased MOW result in an increase in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. The benthic stable isotope records of NE Atlantic ODP Site 982 (1134 m water depth; Hodell et al., 2001) and onshore Ain el Beida (Krijgsman et al., 2004; van der Laan et al., 2005) and Loulja sections (Van der Laan et al., 2006) are compared with the benthic stable isotope record of Site U1387 in order to evaluate shorter scale patterns and relative off-sets (Fig. 8). The

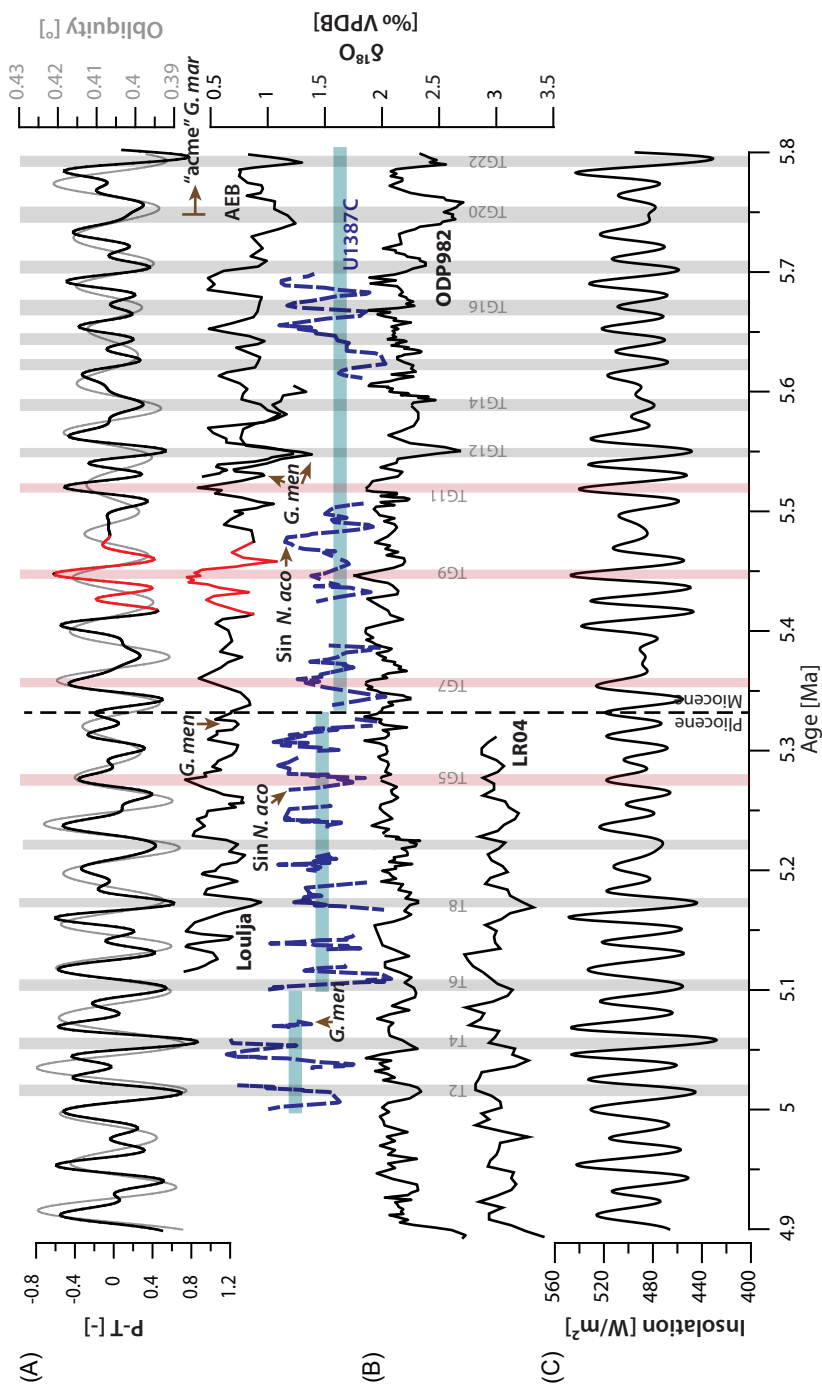


Figure 8. (A) Normalized precession-tilt (obliquity; P-T; black) and obliquity (grey) of the La04 solution (65°N summer insolation; Laskar et al., 2004), red highlights the clear resemblance with the Loulaja $\delta^{18}O$ record. (B) Benthic $\delta^{18}O$ record of *C. pachyderma* of Hole U1387C (dotted blue) for the constructed tentative age model with its three tie-points at 5.0, 5.33 and 5.7 Ma. Horizontal boxes show the average of Hole U1387 for the different intervals. The $\delta^{18}O$ records of *P. ariminensis* of Ain el Beida (Krijgsman et al., 2004; Van der Laan et al., 2005), Loulaja (Van der Laan et al., 2006) and ODP982 (corrected according to Van der Laan et al., 2006; Hodell et al., 2001) and the LR04-stack (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) are displayed as references. Typically, there is a strong 1:1 correlation between *P. ariminensis* and *C. pachyderma*, especially for $\delta^{18}O$ (e.g. Van der Laan et al., 2006; Voelker et al., 2015b). Influxes of *G. menardii* (*G. men*) and the “acme” of *G. margaritae* (*G. mar*) in Loulaja, Ain el Beida and Hole U1387C are indicated with arrows as well as the sinistral coiled influx of *N. acostæensis* (*Sin N. aco*). TG stages are taken from Site ODP 846 (Shackleton et al., 1995), while T stages are used from the LR04-stack. (C) Insolation curve of solution La04 (65°N summer insolation; Laskar et al., 2004).

offset of about 1.2 ‰ between the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records from ODP Site 982 and NW Morocco has been interpreted as the temperature difference between cold Upper North East Atlantic Deep Water (UNEADW) at Site ODP 982 and warmer near-surface waters in NW Morocco in Van den Berg et al. (2015). The offset between the U1387C benthic oxygen isotope record and ODP 982 is smaller than its offset relative to NW Morocco, particularly during the Messinian (Fig. 8B). Ignoring the potential changes in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the water, the reduced $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -offset between Site ODP 982 and IODP U1387 can indicate that temperature of intermediate Atlantic waters in the Gulf of Cadiz was closer to that of UNEADW in the late Miocene. Counterintuitively, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of today's MOW is higher (0.5 to 1.1 ‰) compared to NEADW (-0.1 to 0.5 ‰), however, the temperature difference between these two water masses is between 8 and 10 °C (Voelker et al., 2015a). Hence the temperature effect on the shell of the benthic foraminifer $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is much higher than the effect of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the water (Epstein et al., 1953, 1951). This relation is evident during the transition from Marine Isotope Stage 32 to 31 in IODP Hole U1387, where an increase of MOW (high XRF scanning Zr/Al ratios) results in lower benthic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Voelker et al., 2015b). Therefore, the observed decrease in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ during the early Pliocene and its stepped divergence away from ODP 982 values suggests a gradual warming of intermediate Atlantic Waters near Gibraltar. This temperature increase over the studied period can be attributed to the absence or minor influence of warm MOW during the Messinian and the presence or increase of MOW during the Pliocene. Furthermore, increasing amplitudes that appear in Interval II and are even larger in Interval III may be attributed to increasingly fluctuating temperatures caused by varying influences of MOW over periods of insolation minima and maxima. Both arguments suggest that the increase or onset of bottom water current flow over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary can be attributed to MOW. A significant shallowing that would cause the change in bottom water temperatures at Site U1387C during the earliest Pliocene is excluded based on the benthic foraminiferal analyses.

Interestingly, amplitudes of benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at Site U1387 do not only increase over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary, but also during the Messinian they are larger than amplitudes at Site ODP 982, Ain el Beida and Loulja. The Montemayor-1 core reveals the same feature as Hole U1387C (Pérez-Asensio et al., 2012; Van den Berg et al., 2015). The difference in amplitude of Hole U1387 and ODP 982 must be attributed to either a relative change of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the water mass or temperature. Increased amplitudes during the Pliocene can be attributed to fluctuations in MOW, however, it is thought that during the MSC MOW was either extensively reduced or even absent (Flecker et al., 2015; Roveri et al., 2014). Larger amplitudes due to larger temperature changes of shallower water depths can be excluded, because the shallower Loulja and Ain el Beida sections do not show the larger amplitudes. These successions are closer to the thermocline and thus more sensitive to temperature changes on glacial-interglacial cycles. One alternative, however speculative since there are no flow strength indicators observed in the sediments, is that the relatively high amplitude variations in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in U1387C compared with both shallower and deeper locations hint towards the presence of weak MOW during the Messinian.

7. Conclusions

We present evidence that the flow of Mediterranean-Atlantic bottom water began very shortly after the Messinian Salinity Crisis in the Gulf of Cadiz from IODP Site U1387. This study provides a chronostratigraphic framework for the lower part of IODP Site U1387C utilizing biostratigraphic, paleomagnetic, and cyclostratigraphic constraints. Our data suggest that the record extends into the latest Messinian and includes the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. Seismic data linking Site U1387C and the Algarve-2 well, as well as sedimentary changes in the sequence itself constrains the Miocene-Pliocene boundary at about 826 mbsf. Sediment deposition during the latest Messinian in the Gulf of Cadiz took place in a relatively quiet, hemipelagic environment driven by precessionally controlled Mediterranean monsoonal induced oscillations, with negligible evidence of bottom water flow strength. During the earliest Pliocene, an immediate decrease in the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ may be the result from the direct warming of colder intermediate Atlantic waters due to increased Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange. The increase in sedimentation rate and as well as elevated variable XRF scanning Zr/Al ratios could have resulted from the onset of weak along-slope bottom water currents immediately at or right after the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. The occurrence of contouritic sedimentation in the Gulf of Cadiz results in two clear bigradational sandy beds above the third precession cycles after the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. Shallow water benthic foraminifers indicate that, besides along-slope transport, down-slope transport was present, redistributing shallow marine (continental shelf) particles to the upper slope.

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the MEDGATE-team for passionate discussions and valuable comments on this study. David Hodell is thanked for the stable isotope analyses in the Godwin Laboratory for Palaeoclimate Research at the University of Cambridge and his valuable comments on the manuscript. This research used samples and data collected through the Integrated Ocean Drilling Program. Rocío Marino Ferrero and Jose Ignacio Martín Cruz are acknowledged for washing sediment samples. The research leading to these results has received funding from the People Programme (Marie Curie Actions) of the European Union's Seventh Framework Programme FP7/2007-2013/ under REA Grant Agreement No. 290201 MEDGATE, project P25831-N29 of the Austrian Science Fund (FWF), and NSF Grant OCE-1426132. The research was partially supported through Castilla y Leon project SA263U14 and CTM 2012-39599-C03, IGCP-619, and INQUA 1204 Projects. Research was conducted in the framework of the Continental Margins Research Group of the Royal Holloway University of London. We also thank A. Bahr and A. Voelker for full and constructive reviews that improved the manuscript.

Author contributions

M.v.d.S. picked foraminifera for stable isotopes, performed foraminiferal biostratigraphy, integrated the datasets, interpreted the results and wrote this manuscript with F.J.S., F.J.J-E provided the Zr/Al XRF core scanning data, R.F. assisted structuring the manuscript, F.J.H-M provided the seismic line to constrain the age model, J.A.F performed the nannofossil biostratigraphy, G.A. carried out the magnetostratigraphic analyses, M.G. assisted in publishing this work, P.G. and A.G-G provided the benthic foraminiferal paleobathymetric indications, N.A. carried out the stable isotope measurements.

Chapter 2.

Sedimentary cycles and oceanographic circulation under the influence of MOW over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary.

Van der Schee, M., Sierro, F.J., Jiménez-Espejo, F.J., Flecker, R., Andersen, N.

To be submitted to *Paleoceanography*.



Chapter Cover:

Miocene-Pliocene boundary with sharp transition from the Messinian Evaporites to Zanclean marls in the Eraclea Minoa section, Sicily, Italy.

Sedimentary cycles and oceanographic circulation under the influence of MOW over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary in the Gulf of Cadiz

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Abstract

Typical cyclic fluctuations are characteristic of the Miocene-Pliocene marine sediments recovered in IODP Hole U1387C. This succession records sedimentation in the Atlantic at the end of the Mediterranean's Messinian Salinity Crisis (5.33 to 5.97 Ma) and the onset of contourite deposition initiated by Mediterranean Outflow water (MOW) in the Gulf of Cadiz. Benthic and planktic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and elemental XRF data are used to assess the sedimentary patterns related to siliciclastic input, evaluate along-slope bottom water current strength and identify the origin of influencing water masses. During the Messinian, our results indicate that fluvial detrital input diluted biogenic carbonates. A higher siliciclastic component is found during insolation minima suggesting a precessional driver for this cyclicity. During the Pliocene, sedimentary cycles are overprinted by the influence of weak along-slope bottom water currents, coupling sedimentary variations with the benthic stable isotopes record. The current provides well-ventilated warmer waters and is attributed to MOW. In contrast, when grainsize data suggest that bottom water currents were sluggish or absent, the poorly ventilated, colder water mass is likely to have been Atlantic sourced water. Planktic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and relative abundances of *Globigerinoides* gr. indicate sea surface temperature in this part of the Gulf of Cadiz warm at the same time as the bottom waters rapidly cool. This anomalous pattern of bottom and surface waters is attributed to changes in the water column either triggered by alternating anti-estuarine to estuarine circulations in the Mediterranean or by vertical shifts of settling depth of the MOW plume.

Chapter 3.

Controls on authigenic Nd and Pb isotopes in Gulf of Cadiz sediments over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary.

In collaboration with;

M. Gutjahr, S. Modestou, S., F.J. Sierro.



Chapter Cover:

Miocene sediments becoming weathered by the influence of the sea at Conil de la Frontera, where Mediterranean Outflow water baths offshore .

Chapter 4.

Improved biostratigraphic dating of upper Miocene sediments in the western Betics suggests late Tortonian closure of the Guadalhorce Corridor.

In collaboration with;

B.C.J. van den Berg, W. Capella, D. Simon, E. Dmitrieva, F.J. Sierro, W. Krijgsman, S. Vincent.



Chapter Cover:

View towards Mirador and Embalse de la Tajo Encantada west of El Chorro, Spain.
Photography; Dirk Simon.

Conclusions

This thesis demonstrates that gateway configurations influence ocean circulation patterns and depositional sedimentary successions. Also, environmental fluctuations of precipitation and runoff in the Mediterranean area play a major role on Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange regarding current speed and volume of Mediterranean Outflow. During the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC; 5.33-5.97 Ma), gateway connections between the Mediterranean and Atlantic became progressively restricted. The Miocene-Pliocene boundary marks the end of the Crisis by an abrupt shift from Messinian evaporites to Zanclean marls in the Mediterranean area, indicating deep marine settings and the re-establishment of the Mediterranean-Atlantic connection. Outside the Mediterranean in the Gulf of Cadiz, the gateway alteration immediately left an imprint in the sediment of IODP Hole U1387C.

1. Stratigraphic framework

The studied interval is located below the First Occurrence of *Globorotalia puncticulata* and above the First Occurrence of *Globorotalia margaritae* (Expedition Scientists, 2012). This gives an age estimation between 4.52 and 6.08 Ma (Lourens et al., 2004). The Miocene-Pliocene boundary is estimated to be at about 826 mbsf in Hernández-Molina et al. 2016 by correlating 2D and 3D seismic lines from the Algarve-2 well to the abrupt sedimentary change in Hole U1387C at this depth. The high abundance interval of *G. margaritae* has not been found in the sediments, indicating that the base of the Hole is most likely younger than ~5.70 Ma. This is in agreement with the mainly dextral coiling of *Neoglobquadrina acostaensis* indicating an age likely younger than ~5.82 Ma (Sierra et al, 2001; Krijgsman et al., 2004). Regular alternations in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are interpreted as precession induced cyclicities due to the distinct amplitude enhancements of every other cycle, indicative of the influence of obliquity. Extrapolation of the average wavelengths over the coring gaps gives a depositional time span. If the Miocene-Pliocene boundary is positioned at about 826 mbsf, then the base of the Hole is about 5.7 Ma and the top of the studied interval 5.0 Ma. These three tie-points are in good agreement with Chron C3n.4n. (4.997-5.235 Ma; Lourens et al., 2004) of the poorly constrained paleomagnetic data and the influx of sinistral coiling *Neoglobquadrina acostaensis* at the third precession cycle above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (Iaccarino et al., 1999b; Lourens et al., 1996).

2. Onset of MOW

Messinian sediments are deposited in a low energy hemipelagic setting, in which XRF scanning Zr/Al ratios lack obvious regular alternations. Just above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary, Zr/Al levels display high amplitude variations and above the third precession cycle, two coarse-grained contouritic bigradational sandy beds are revealed with tracers of bioturbation synchronous with Zr/Al peaks. Both features suggest the onset of weak along-slope bottom currents immediately at or right after the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. Linking benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ with corresponding

Mediterranean and NE Atlantic records let us conclude that the observed flow is of Mediterranean origin. Therefore we provide the oldest evidence of Mediterranean Outflow water (MOW) outside the Mediterranean after the MSC.

3. Depositional environment

Late Miocene sediments in Hole U1387C show typical carbonate cycles that result from variations in amount and composition of detrital siliciclastic input reaching the Gulf of Cadiz. Largest amounts of siliciclastics are present at times of Northern Hemisphere summer insolation minima. The fluctuations within the siliciclastic component are probably induced by precipitation patterns on the Iberia Peninsula influencing the vegetation cover on land and thus erosion rates. No evidence of bottom water current flow is found during the Messinian.

Sedimentation rate triples above the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. The presence of sporadic samples with shelf-dwelling benthic foraminifers suggest the temporal occurrence of downslope transport. Although centimetre-scale sandy layers of turbiditic origin were observed, in most cases, these layers were destroyed by the combined action of bioturbation by macrobenthic communities and bottom currents. A combination of tectonic uplift and the onset of along-slope currents may have provided suspended load from the distant up-current Guadalquivir drainage basin, explaining the tripled sedimentation rates over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. XRF scanning data does not reveal regular alternations in the carbonate content, but cyclical patterns persists within the siliciclastic component induced by the weak current flow.

4. Water mass circulation in the Gulf of Cadiz

Like previous published studies, this multi-proxy record has not found any prove of MOW in upper Miocene sediments. Therefore, mainly Atlantic water was influencing the sediments in the Gulf of Cadiz. A slight decrease in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ hints towards the presence of poorly ventilated Intermediate Atlantic waters. However, higher amplitudes than nearby records in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ may speculatively hint to the presence of some MOW during the Messinian.

During the Pliocene, stable isotopes show striking coupling with the sedimentary cycles, indicating a strong relationship with the bottom water currents. Our results suggest that MOW was repeatedly interrupted by the influence of presumably cold, poorly ventilated Atlantic bottom waters at times when along slope currents were absent or sluggish. When cold Atlantic waters are recorded, coeval rapid shifts towards warmer surface waters are indicated by high relative abundances in warm-water planktic foraminifers. This opposite behaviour can be explained by shifts from a negative to a positive water budget in the Mediterranean, what would trigger cold Atlantic Inflow water into the Mediterranean over the sill of the Strait of Gibraltar and warm MOW at surface. After this either bottom waters warm synchronous with cooling at surface or the cooling at surface occurs quickly after its warmest interval and bottom and surface waters record colder conditions. In these cases, bottom water warming pre-dates the warming at the sea

surface. The different scenarios can be explained by the direct and amount of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange and prevailing water masses in the Gulf of Cadiz. Alternatively, a pronounced shallowing in the settling depth of the MOW within the Atlantic can partially explain the micropaleontologic and stable isotope records.

5. Controls on authigenic Nd and Pb isotopes

Both Nd and Pb isotopes respond to changes in oceanographic and/or sedimentary settings in the Gulf of Cadiz over the Miocene-Pliocene boundary. The Nd isotopic compositions in the oxyhydroxide leachates was more radiogenic than the constrained MOW and NE Atlantic endmembers. Therefore, it is thought that the imprint must be of some local origin. Parallel behaviour with XRF scanning C_{norm} , an inverse measure for detrital input, hints towards a dominant influence on isotopic compositions from the release of Rare Earth Elements of suspended river sediments. Pb isotopic ratios hints to be dominantly controlled by the origin of the water mass, however, due to incompatible data to constrain the endmember compositions of Mediterranean and Atlantic water mass, this cannot be proven with to constrained dataset.

6. Future research and remaining open questions

This study is linked to the International Continental Scientific Drilling Program drilling proposal “Investigating Miocene Mediterranean-Atlantic Gateway Exchange” (IMAGE), in which it is targeted to drill several holes offshore along the Portuguese and Gulf of Cadiz Margins, and onshore in the Guadalquivir and south Rifian Basins. The main goal of this project, in combination with the IODP “Deep-Sea Record of Mediterranean Messinian Events” (DREAM) drilling proposal to drill inside the Mediterranean, is to investigate the evolution of Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange during the late Miocene to early Pliocene and relate this to the main phases of the MSC.

Further evidence must be provided to prove the suggested time to time estuarine circulation in the Mediterranean. A high resolution multi-proxy record is needed from inside the Mediterranean by analysing planktic and benthic stable isotopes of, for instance, the lower part of the Capo Rosello section in Sicily. This would establish the exact timing that the Mediterranean water budget was evaporation-dominated only. This, in turn, could be used to improve global general circulation models that are performed on the Mediterranean area during this time period (e.g. Marzocchi et al., 2016).

Pb isotopic compositions of Fe-Mn authigenic oxyhydroxide leachates of NE Atlantic deep marine sediments of upper Miocene to lower Pliocene are needed to confirm that Pb isotopic ratios can be used as a bottom water mass tracer in the Gulf of Cadiz. The position of ODP 982 in the flow path of North East Atlantic Deep Water with robust age constraints is a good candidate to establish the NE Atlantic endmember.

Chapter 4 suggests the closure of the Betic Corridor well before the MSC. However, the evaporite deposition proves a connection between the Mediterranean and the Open Ocean. This leaves us with the remaining question; if the Betic and Rifian Corridors ceased before the MSC, then where has been the last remaining gateway during the Crisis? Since there is no scientific prove that the Gibraltar Strait was closed before the Messinian, I would like to conclude this thesis by freely speculating on the possibility that Gibraltar has always been open.

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Resumen

La conexión marina entre el océano Atlántico y el mar Mediterráneo tiene un rol importante en los patrones de flujo de circulación oceánica. Sin embargo, durante el Mioceno más tardío, este intercambio de aguas Atlántico-Mediterráneas estuvo restringido o incluso ausente, conllevando a la precipitación de capas extensas de evaporitas en el Mediterráneo durante un evento conocido como la Crisis de Salinidad del Mesiniense (MSC; 5.33-5.97 Ma). El restablecimiento de la salida de masas de aguas Mediterráneas (conocidas en inglés como *Mediterranean Outflow Water-MOW*), ocurrió durante la transición Mio-Pliocena, cuando masas de aguas con características similares a las modernas fluyeron a través del Estrecho de Gibraltar hacia el Atlántico. Esta tesis doctoral está enfocada en estudiar el inicio y desarrollo de la masa de agua MOW en el Golfo de Cádiz.

Inicialmente, se construyó un modelo de edad combinando bio-, magneto-, y ciclo-estratigrafía para los sedimentos del sondeo U1387C, perforados sobre el talud superior (559 m) en el Golfo de Cádiz, en el marco de la campaña 339 del programa *Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP)*. En este sondeo, el límite Mioceno-Plioceno está asociado con un cambio litológico abrupto, que se relaciona con cambios drásticos en los ambientes de depositación. Las secuencias hemipelágicas del Mioceno (i.e., Mesiniense más tardío) están formadas por ciclos sedimentarios de carbonato, originados por forzamiento orbitales. Las capas con mayores concentraciones de la fracción detrítica, dominada por silicatos, se depositaron durante periodos áridos de insolación mínima del Hemisferio Norte. Patrones sedimentarios similares han sido descritos para sedimentos más proximales recuperados en el sondeo Montemayor-1 en la cuenca del Guadalquivir; evidenciando que estos ciclos sedimentarios se formaron debido a variaciones en el aporte de material terrígeno hacia la cuenca. Durante las fases húmedas en los periodos de máxima insolación, la cobertura vegetal se extiende causando una reducción en el cantidad de material terrígeno disponible. En contraste, por encima del límite Mio-Plioceno, se encuentran dos niveles contorníticos bigradacionales de areniscas y además se observa un incremento abrupto en los valores de Zr/Al. Estos patrones sedimentarios se han relacionado con procesos de selección y sorteamiento del sedimento, y se han interpretado como evidencia directa de una corriente de fondo saliente, que habría iniciado en la transición del Mio-Plioceno o a la base del Plioceno.

Las semejanzas entre las variaciones de los registros sedimentarios y de los isótopos bentónicos ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ y $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) indican que las intensificaciones de las corrientes de fondo asociadas con el forzamiento orbital son probablemente resultado de procesos del Mediterráneo. Durante estos intervalos, la expresión isotópica del sondeo U1387C es similar a la de los registros de foraminíferos bentónicos del Mediterráneo, indicando la presencia de aguas bien oxigenadas y posiblemente más calientes. En contraste, cuando las corrientes de fondo se debilitan, o incluso son ausentes, hay un aumento en el contenido de aluminosilicatos en la fracción fina ($>63 \mu\text{m}$), y los registros isotópicos difieren entre sí. Durante estos intervalos, las corrientes de fondo que atraviesan la zona del sondeo serían más frías y poco ventiladas, y probablemente tendrían una mayor influencia de las corrientes de fondo del Atlántico. Mientras que las masas de aguas superficiales, reconstruidas a partir de los registros isotópicos planctónicos de $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ y de las abundancias

relativas de *Globigerinoides*, revelan cambios rápidos e isócronos pero opuestos en la temperatura. Es decir, cuando las masas de agua del fondo se enfrían, en superficie ocurre un calentamiento y viceversa. Este comportamiento opuesto se puede atribuir a la presencia de una circulación estuarina en el Mediterráneo, la cual se desarrolla cuando el balance hídrico de la cuenca es positivo o cuando hay la pluma de salida de la MOW se desplaza verticalmente hacia áreas más someras. Sin embargo, este desplazamiento vertical no explicaría los cambios rápidos e isócronos de la temperatura.

El origen de las masas de aguas profundas en el Golfo de Cádiz se estudió a través del uso de isótopos autigénicos de Neodimio (Nd) y Plomo (Pb). Las relaciones composicionales entre Hierro-Manganeso (Fe-Mn) recuperadas en lixiviados de oxihidróxidos del sondeo U1387C, se compararon con las composiciones presentes en tres cortezas de Fe-Mn formadas a diferentes profundidades en el Noreste Atlántico (Abouchami et al., 1999; Muiños et al., 2008) y con lixiviados del Mar del Alborán (Mediterráneo Occidental), con el ánimo de definir las composiciones de MOW y de las aguas del NE Atlántico durante el Mio-Plioceno. La huella de los isótopos de Nd del sondeo U1387C no se corresponde con ninguna señal isotópica, por lo que se considera que el registro de Nd está controlado principalmente por procesos locales. Las relaciones isotópicas del Pb son incompatibles con las señales de las cortezas de Fe-Mn del NE Atlántico, las cuales se basan en interpretaciones del isótopo estable más tradicional ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$). No obstante, los lixiviados de sedimentos del Mar de Alborán registran confiablemente las composiciones isotópicas de Pb de MOW, por tanto la composición de los lixiviados concuerdan con las interpretaciones del isótopo estable. Aunque el efecto de meteorización preferencial en el registro isotópico de Pb no puede ser excluido, estos resultados implican que la señal isotópica de Pb recuperada a partir de lixiviados de oxihidróxidos puede ser potencialmente utilizada para rastrear masas de agua de fondo en ambientes marginales del Golfo de Cádiz.

Antes de la MSC, dos conexiones marinas conectaban el Atlántico y el Mediterráneo. El corredor Bético en el sur de España y el corredor Rifeño en el noroeste de Marruecos. Estos dos corredores se cerraron hacia el Mioceno tardío; sin embargo, aún se desconoce la fecha de exacta de cierre de estas conexiones. Hacia el margen occidental de las cordilleras Béticas, se preservan varias cuencas con sedimentos depositados durante el Mioceno tardío, incluyendo la cuenca de Ronda, Antequera y Arcos de la Frontera. Todas estas áreas potencialmente pueden ayudar a precisar la edad de cierre del corredor Bético, ya que son próximas al corredor Guadalhorce, el cual se considera fue la última extensión abierta de la corredor Bético. Las secuencias sedimentarias en estas cuencas están caracterizadas por una transición de margas arenosas de ambientes profundos a calcarenitas y calizas de ambientes someros. Diferentes análisis bioestratigráficos realizados en las margas infrayacentes indican que los sedimentos se acumularon antes de 7.58 Ma. Debido a la naturaleza de las calcarenitas y las calizas suprayacentes, no se pudo establecer ninguna datación bioestratigráfica confiable para estos niveles. No obstante, dadas las altas tasas de sedimentación típicas de estos depósitos es improbable que estos niveles someros sean significativamente más jóvenes que las capas de margas inferiores. En consecuencia, estos resultados implican que el corredor Guadalhorce probablemente se cerró durante el Tortoniense tardío o Mesiniense

temprano. Adicionalmente, dadas las similitudes litológicas y en edades, es posible que la progresiva somerización de las secuencias del margen occidental del corredor Bético (cuencas de Ronda, Antequera y Arcos de la Frontera) corresponda con el mismo pulso tectónico que generó el cierre del margen oriental del corredor.

Conclusiones

A través de esta tesis se demuestra que la configuración de las conexiones marinas influencia tanto los patrones de circulación oceánica como los procesos de sedimentación. Adicionalmente, se evidencia que los cambios en la precipitación y la descarga fluvial en el área del Mediterráneo juegan un papel fundamental en el intercambio de aguas Atlántico-Mediterráneas, dado que afectan la velocidad de las corrientes y el volumen de la masa de agua saliente del Mediterráneo. Durante la Crisis de Salinidad del Mesiniense (MSC; 5.33-5.97 Ma), la conexión entre el Atlántico-Mediterráneo se redujo progresivamente. En el Mediterráneo, el límite Mio-Plioceno coincide con el fin de esta crisis, y corresponde con el paso de evaporitas del Mesiniense a margas del Zancleanse. Esta transición indica el restablecimiento de condiciones marinas normales y de la conexión Atlántico-Mediterránea. Fuera del Mediterráneo, en el margen Atlántico a lo largo del Golfo de Cádiz, este cambio en la configuración de las conexiones marinas inmediatamente dejó una huella en la secuencia sedimentaria del sondeo U1387C de IODP.

1. Marco estratigráfico

De base a techo, el intervalo estudiado está localizado por encima de la primera ocurrencia de *Globorotalia margaritae* y por debajo de la primera ocurrencia de *Globorotalia puncticulata* (Expedition Scientists, 2012). Estos bioeventos indican una edad estimada entre 4.52 y 6.08 Ma (Lourens et al., 2004). A través de la correlación de perfiles sísmicos que integran los sondeos Algarve-2 y U1387C, Hernández-Molina et al., (2016) han estimado que el límite Mio-Plioceno está localizado a 826 m de profundidad, correspondiendo con un cambio sedimentario abrupto. El intervalo de altas abundancias de *G. margaritae* no se encontró en los sedimentos del sondeo U1387C, indicando que la base del sondeo es más joven de 5.70 Ma. Esta edad concuerda con la predominancia de *Neoglobquadrina acostaensis* dextralmente enrolladas, las cuales sugieren una máxima edad de ~5.82 Ma (Sierro et al, 2001; Krijgsman et al., 2004).

Las patrones alternantes presentes en el registro bentónico de $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ son interpretadas como ciclicidades sedimentarias controladas por el forzamiento orbital (e.g., precesión, oblicuidad y excentricidad). La extrapolación de la longitud de onda promedio sobre las áreas sin recobro permitió estimar tiempos y tasas de sedimentación promedios. Si el límite Mio-Plioceno se encuentra a 826 mbsf, la base del sondeo tiene una edad estimada de 5.7 Ma, y la parte superior del intervalo estudiado tendría 5.0 Ma. Estos tres puntos de amarre concuerdan con la localización del Chron C3n.4n. (4.997-5.235 Ma; Lourens et al., 2004) y con el pico de abundancia de *Neoglobquadrina acostaensis* sinistralmente enrollada localizado tres ciclos de precesión por encima del límite Mio-Plioceno (Iaccarino et al., 1999b; Lourens et al., 1996).

2. Inicio de la salida de aguas Mediterráneas (MOW)

Los sedimentos del Mesiniense se depositaron en un ambiente de baja energía, en el cual la relación entre Zr y Al carece de una expresión clara. Inmediatamente por encima de la límite Mio-

Plioceno, la relación Zr/Al muestra variaciones de alta amplitud y por encima del tercer ciclo de precesión, dos niveles de areniscas contorníticas de grano gruesos muestran trazas de bioturbación isócrona con los picos de Zr/Al. Ambas características sugieren que una corriente débil que circulaba a lo largo de la plataforma, se formó bien durante el límite Mio-Plioceno o justo por encima de este nivel. La correlación entre registros isotópicos bentónicos de $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ y $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ con registros sedimentarios del Mediterráneo y el noreste Atlántico, permite concluir que el flujo observado es de origen mediterráneo. Por tanto, este registro se constituye en la evidencia más antigua de las masas de agua salientes del Mediterráneo (*Mediterranean Outflow Water-MOW*), fuera del Mediterráneo y después de la MSC.

3. Ambientes de depositación

Los sedimentos del Mioceno tardío del sondeo U1387C muestran ciclos de carbonato, formados por variaciones en la cantidad y composición del aporte de detritos siliciclásticos que llegan al Golfo de Cádiz. Mayores cantidades de siliciclásticos ocurren durante los periodos de máxima insolación de verano del Hemisferio Norte. Las fluctuaciones composicionales de la fracción siliciclástica son probablemente inducidas por cambios en los patrones de precipitación de la península Ibérica, los cuales controlan la extensión de la cobertura vegetal y las tasas de erosión. No se encontraron evidencias que indiquen la presencia de masas de agua de fondo durante el Mesiniense.

La tasa de sedimentación se triplica por encima del límite Mio-Plioceno. La ocurrencia esporádica de muestras con foraminíferos bentónicos provenientes de la plataforma sugiere la presencia temporal de flujos de transporte de sedimentos hacia la cuenca. Aunque se observaron capas de areniscas centimétricas, en la mayoría de los casos, estas capas fueron destruidas por la acción combinada de la bioturbación por comunidades de macrobentos y las corrientes de fondo. El efecto conjunto de un levantamiento tectónico y de la aparición de corrientes a lo largo de la talud puede haber proporcionado aporte sedimentario provenientes de la cuenca hidrográfica del Guadalquivir, explicando las tasas de sedimentación triples presentes por encima del límite Mioceno-Plioceno. El registro de XRF no revela alteraciones regulares en el contenido de carbonato, no obstante los patrones cíclicos se evidencian dentro de la componente siliciclástica debidos a un flujo de corriente débil.

4. Circulación de masas de aguas en el Golfo de Cádiz

Tanto el registro sedimentario como los diferentes indicadores utilizados no muestran evidencia de la presencia de MOW para el Mioceno tardío, coincidiendo con estudios previamente publicados. En consecuencia, aguas Atlánticas principalmente influenciaron los procesos sedimentarios a lo largo del Golfo de Cádiz. Un ligero decrecimiento en los valores isotópicos de $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ tomados en foraminíferos bentónicos sugiere la presencia de aguas Atlánticas intermedias poco ventiladas. No obstante, en comparación con registros cercanos, el sondeo U1387C muestra

una mayor variabilidad en las amplitudes del isotopo de $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, lo que podría interpretarse como una señal de MOW durante el Mesiniense.

Durante el Plioceno, los valores de los isotopos estables se ajustan perfectamente a los patrones de los ciclos sedimentarios, indicando una fuerte relación con las corrientes de fondo. Los resultados presentados en esta tesis, indican que en algunos periodos las corrientes fluyendo a lo largo del talud se ralentizaron o estuvieron ausentes, lo cual sugiere que MOW estuvo interrumpida en múltiples ocasiones debido a la influencia de aguas profundas Atlánticas, probablemente, más frías y menos ventiladas. En los periodos donde se registran aguas frías Atlánticas, también se encuentran cambios rápidos e isócronos en las asociaciones cálidas de foraminíferos plantónicos, indicando la presencia de aguas de superficie más cálidas. Este comportamiento opuesto puede ser explicado a través de un cambio en el balance hídrico del Mediterráneo, pasando de valores negativos a positivos. Esta variación daría lugar a la entrada de aguas profundas frías del Atlántico en el Mediterráneo a través del Estrecho de Gibraltar, con aguas de MOW fluyendo en superficie. Seguidamente, bien habría un calentamiento de las aguas profundas sincrónico con un enfriamiento de las aguas superficiales, o bien habría un enfriamiento rápido de las aguas superficiales y así, tanto aguas profundas como de superficie registrarían condiciones más frías. En este último caso, el calentamiento de las aguas profundas antecedería el calentamiento en superficie. Estos diferentes escenarios pueden ser explicados por el intercambio directo entre aguas Atlántico-Mediterráneas y la cantidad de agua que prevalece en el Golfo de Cádiz. Alternativamente, los isotopos estables y la asociación micropaleontológica podrían ser parcialmente explicados por una somerización pronunciada en la profundidad de establecimiento de la MOW dentro del Atlántico.

5. Controles sobre los isotopos autigénicos de Nd y Pb

Los isótopos de Nd y Pb responden a cambios en la configuración oceanográfica y/o sedimentaria en el Golfo de Cádiz durante el límite Mioceno-Plioceno. Las composiciones isotópicas de Nd en los lixiviados de oxihidróxido fue más radiogénica que los valores de referencia previstos para MOW y para el NE Atlántico. En consecuencia, se considera que los valores isotópicos de Nd registran una señal más local. El comportamiento paralelo de XRF Ca_{norm} , un indicador del aporte de detritos, sugiere que la composición isotópica tiene una influencia dominante de elementos de tierras raras proveniente de sedimentos fluviales en suspensión. Las relaciones isotópicas encontradas entre las especies de Pb parecen tener una relación directa con el origen de la masa de agua. Sin embargo, debido a la falta de datos compatibles para el Mediterráneo o Atlántico, no fue posible correlacionar las señales isotópicas de Pb con un origen particular.

6. Futuras investigaciones y preguntas abiertas

Este estudio esta enmarcado dentro de la propuesta de perforación de sedimentos del *International Continental Scientific Drilling Program* titulada “*Investigating Miocene Mediterranean-Atlantic Gateway Exchange*” (IMAGE), a través de la cual se planteó estudiar diferentes secuencias

sedimentarias offshore del margen portugués y del Golfo de Cádiz, y en tierra en las cuencas del Guadalquivir y del corredor Rifeño. El principal objetivo de este proyecto, en combinación con la propuesta IODP “*Deep-Sea Record of Mediterranean Messinian Events*” (DREAM), es investigar la evolución del intercambio de aguas Atlántico-Mediterráneas durante el Mioceno tardío y el Plioceno temprano, y su relación con las fases de la Crisis de Salinidad del Mesiniense.

Nuevos estudios y evidencias adicionales deben encontrarse para comprobar la existencia de periodos de circulación estuarina en el Mediterráneo. Se necesita un registro sedimentario continuo de alta resolución dentro del Mediterráneo (e.g., La sección Capo Rosello en Sicilia), que incluya isótopos planctónicos y bentónicos estables, para evaluar la evolución del balance hídrico dentro del Mediterráneo. Este tipo de registros, además, podrían ser usados para definir mejor las condiciones base en los modelos globales de circulación oceánica que se enfocan en el estudiar la evolución del Mediterráneo durante el Mio-Plioceno (e.g. Marzocchi et al., 2016).

Para confirmar si las relaciones isotópicas de Pb se pueden usar como marcadores de aguas profundas en el Golfo de Cádiz, es necesario establecer las composiciones isotópicas en lixiviados de oxyhidróxido de Fe-Mn autigénicos provenientes de sedimentos profundos Mio-Pliocenos del NE Atlántico. El sondeo ODP-982 es un buen candidato para establecer los valores isotópicos de referencia para el Atlántico, debido a su localización sobre la trayectoria de flujo de las aguas profunda del NE Atlántico y a su robusto modelo de edad.

En el Capítulo 4 se sugiere el cierre del Corredor Bético mucho antes del inicio de la Crisis de Salinidad del Mesiniense. Sin embargo, la precipitación de extensas capas de evaporitas prueba la existencia de una conexión entre el Mediterráneo y el océano abierto. Lo cual permite plantear la siguiente interrogante: ¿Por dónde se estableció la conexión durante la Crisis? Dado que no hay evidencias científicas que soporten que el Estrecho de Gibraltar estuvo cerrado durante el Mioceno, me gustaría concluir esta tesis especulando libremente sobre la posibilidad de que el Estrecho de Gibraltar haya estado abierto antes del Plioceno.

Apendices.

- I. Objectives MEDGATE

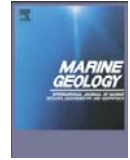
- II. Evolution of the Gulf of Cadiz Margin and southwest Portugal contourite depositional system: Tectonic, sedimentary and paleoceanographic implications from IODP Expedition 339.



Objectives of MEDGATE

This PhD project was part of the International Training Network “Mediterranean Gateways” (MEDGATE), funded by Marie Curie Actions of the European Union. MEDGATE combined the expertise of 29 multidisciplinary geoscientists from oil industry and academia in six European countries and Morocco. Nine PhD students at four host-institution and one Post-Doc were trained for careers in either academia or industry. Individual projects were centered on the evolution of the marine corridors that linked the Mediterranean and Atlantic in the late Miocene. Each project used a different methodology to clarify the environmental impact of gateway exchange by approaching the scientific objectives from different angles. The PhD-students worked in four work package groups, including Geochemistry, Biostratigraphy, Paleogeography and Modelling. The groups organized training events, what gave a unique insight in their work to the other MEDGATE participants and provided the necessary knowledge to integrate the state-of-the-art technologies. Complimentary trainings, such as ‘Train the trainer’, ‘Communicating science to the public’ and a camera training were also delivered during these Network events. Acquired soft skills and scientific knowledge were used during the organization of the “RCMNS Interim Colloquium Mediterranean-Atlantic Gateways”, which was held in collaboration with IODP Expedition 339 Scientists. The scientific sessions were structured and convened by the MEDGATE-students.

The training resulted in a common language for interdisciplinary debates between the ten MEDGATE researchers. New data was broadly discussed over the different fields of the four work packages and conceptual models were questioned early on with all participants. The fieldwork based Chapter 4 in this thesis is a good example of collaborations within MEDGATE, in which structural geological skills are combined with the biostratigraphic sample campaign. A conceptual modeler assisted in the field, immediately allowing discussions on water mass exchange through a possible gateway. All MEDGATE participants collaborated in a peer-reviewed publication in *Earth-Science Reviews*.



Evolution of the gulf of Cadiz margin and southwest Portugal contourite depositional system: Tectonic, sedimentary and paleoceanographic implications from IODP expedition 339

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 2 April 2015

Received in revised form 8 September 2015

Accepted 27 September 2015

Available online 9 October 2015

Keywords:

Neogene basins

IODP expedition 339

Contourites

Stratigraphy

Tectonic

Mediterranean outflow water

ABSTRACT

The contourite depositional system (CDS) along the southwestern Iberian Margin (SIM), within the Gulf of Cadiz and offshore areas of western Portugal bear the unmistakable signal of Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) exiting the Strait of Gibraltar. This locality records key information concerning the effects of tectonic activity on margin sedimentation, the effects of MOW dynamics on Atlantic circulation, and how these factors may have influenced global climate. Over the last four decades, numerous studies have been conducted on the late Miocene, Pliocene and Quaternary sedimentary stacking pattern of Neogene basins along the SIM for both academic and resources exploration purposes. However, understanding of the region rests primarily on basic seismic stratigraphy calibrated with limited data from only a few exploration wells. The Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Expedition 339 recently drilled five sites in the Gulf of Cadiz and two sites on the western Iberian margin. The integration of core and borehole data with other geophysical databases leads us to propose a new stratigraphic framework. Interpretation of IODP Exp. 339 data along with that from industry sources and onshore outcrop analysis helps refine our understanding of the SIM's sedimentary evolution.

We identify significant changes in sedimentation style and dominant sedimentary processes, coupled with widespread depositional hiatuses along the SIM within the Cadiz, Sanlúcar, Doñana, Algarve and Alentejo basins. Following the 4.5 Ma cessation of a previous phase of tectonic activity related to the Miocene–Pliocene boundary, tectonics continued to influence margin development, downslope sediment transport and CDS evolution. Sedimentary features indicate tectonic pulses of about 0.8–0.9 Ma duration with a pronounced overprint of ~2–2.5 Ma cycles. These more protracted cycles relate to the westward rollback of subducted lithosphere at the convergent Africa–Eurasia plate boundary as its previous NW–SE compressional regime shifted to a WNW–ESE direction. Two major compressional events affecting to the Neogene basins at 3.2–3 Ma and 2–2.3 Ma help constrain the three main stages of CDS evolution. The stages include: 1) the initial-drift stage (5.33–3.2 Ma) with a weak MOW, 2) a transitional-drift stage (3.2–2 Ma) and 3) a growth-drift stage (2 Ma–present time) with enhanced MOW circulation into the Atlantic and associated contourite development due to greater bottom-current velocity. Two minor Pleistocene discontinuities at 0.7–0.9 Ma and 0.3–0.6 Ma record the effects of renewed tectonic activity on basin evolution, appearing most prominently in the Doñana basin. Several discontinuities bounding major and minor units appear on seismic profiles. Quaternary records offer the clearest example of this, with major units of about 0.8–0.9 Ma and sub-units of 0.4–0.5 Ma. Sedimentation is controlled by a combination of tectonics, sediment supply, sea-level and climate. This research identifies time scales of tectonic

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controls on deep-marine sedimentation, specifically over periods of 2.5–>0.4 Ma. Shorter-term climatic (orbital) mechanisms control sedimentation at time scales of ≤ 0.4 Ma. The role of bottom water circulation and associated processes in shaping the seafloor and controlling the sedimentary stacking pattern on continental margins has to be seriously reconsidered in future multidisciplinary studies. This is not only because of the common occurrence of sandy contourite deposits in deep water setting and their economic interest for hydrocarbon exploration, but principally because they archive the heartbeat of the interior Earth and therefore have important sedimentary and paleoceanographic implications.

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1. Introduction

From the middle Miocene through the Quaternary, Earth has experienced major plate tectonic, climatic and oceanographic shifts that along with orbital variations, have contributed to the present day global climate and ocean dynamics (e.g., Knutz, 2008; Potter and Szatmari, 2009). Global climate transitioned from more uniform Pliocene climates to dynamic glacial/interglacial cycles during the Quaternary (Sarnthein et al., 2009). Plate tectonics influence climate over a wide range of time-scales due to horizontal and vertical displacements of lithosphere, which control continental distribution, atmospheric and oceanic circulation, and the location of continental ice sheets (Hay, 1996). The

transition from warm greenhouse conditions during the Late Cretaceous and early Cenozoic, to a world influenced by the Northern Hemisphere glaciations (NHG) in the last 2.6 My, occurred in tandem with distinct phases of plate-tectonic reconfiguration (Hay, 1996; Zachos et al., 2001). The most significant topographic and bathymetric modifications of Earth's surface were the opening and closing of oceanic gateways, which exerted a pervasive influence on global ocean circulation and climate (Wright and Miller, 1996; Potter and Szatmari, 2009). Surface uplift at plate boundaries, or due to magmatic underplating and mantle plumes appear to be strongly time-dependent (Rudge et al., 2008; Lovell, 2010) and act as a mechanism for sea-level variation on geological time scales (Whyte and Lovell, 1997; Jones et al., 2012). Limited

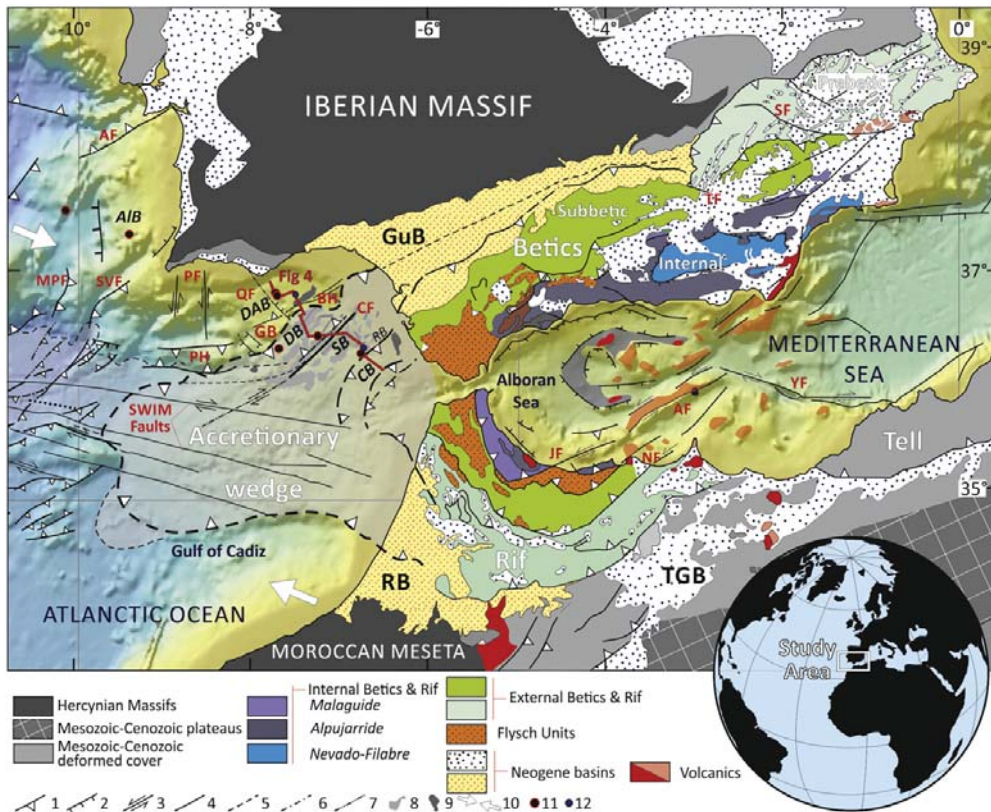


Fig. 1. Tectonic map showing principal structural units of the Betic–Rif Orogen and associated Neogene basins (originally from Iribarren et al., 2007 and Verges and Fernandez, 2012, also including Gulf of Cadiz tectonic features described by Terrinha et al., 2002; Medialdea et al., 2004, 2009; Fernández-Puga et al., 2007; Roque et al., 2012 and Duarte et al., 2013). SF, Socovos Fault (Betics); TF, Tiscar Fault (Betics); JF, Jehba Fault (Rif); NF, Nekor Fault (Rif); AF, Alboran Ridge Fault (Alboran); and YF, Yusuf Fault (Alboran). CF, Cadiz Fault; QF, Quarteira Fault; PH, Portimao High; BH, Basement High; SVF, San Vicent Fault; PF, Portimao Fault; MPF, Marques de Pombal Fault; AF, Arrábida Fault. 1 = reverse and thrust faults; 2 = normal faults; 3 = strike slip faults; 4 = faults; 5 = contact below sediment; 6 = inferred/probable faults; 7 = blind faults; 8 = marly + salt diapirs (AUGC); 9 = Salt diapirs; 10 = Nubia–Iberia plate convergence; 11 = Sites from IODP Exp. 339; 12 = 2 wells drilled by petroleum exploration companies. Legend for the sedimentary basins along the southern Iberian margin: DAB = Deep Algarve basin; AIB = Alentejo basin; CB = Cadiz basin; DB = Doñana basin; RB = Rota basin; SB = Sanlucar basin.

evidence of sedimentary pulses ranging from 1 to 10 Ma in duration (Rudge et al., 2008; Lovell, 2010) indicates that tectonics, climate and sea-level influence sedimentary stacking patterns on continental margins. More evidence concerning time-stratigraphic relationships between palaeoceanographic, environmental (climate and sea-level) and tectonic events is necessary to clarify specific cause-and-effect relationships among these factors, their relative importance, and specific time scales on which they operate (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b).

The Gulf of Cadiz and offshore west Portugal (Fig. 1) along the southwestern Iberian margin (SIM), can help constrain some of these sedimentary pulses and their drivers. Previous research of these areas has primarily focused on the Mesozoic and Cenozoic history of the margin, especially the tectonic implications of convergence between the African and Eurasian plates in the middle and late Miocene (e.g., Maldonado et al., 1999; Gutscher et al., 2002; Alves et al., 2003; Gracia et al., 2003; Terrinha et al., 2009; Medialdea et al., 2004; Iribarren et al., 2007; Zitellini et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2011, 2013; Pereira et al., 2011; Vergés and Fernández, 2012 among others).

Several studies have described the evolution and stratigraphy of Pliocene and Quaternary offshore deposits (e.g., Faugères et al., 1985a, 1985b; Mougnot, 1988; Faugères et al., 1999; Maldonado et al., 1999; Llave et al., 2001, 2007a, 2011; Hernández-Molina et al., 2002, 2014a, 2014b; Marchès et al., 2010; Roque et al., 2012; Brackenridge et al., 2013). These studies identified various seismic units bound by regional

discontinuities and interpreted them as significant changes in the stratigraphic stacking pattern of the slope. Age interpretations for these features, however, have been uncertain and controversial. Sediments from this region have only recently been sampled, and therefore the working model for the region's seismic stratigraphy was somewhat preliminary, having been calibrated with limited data from a few exploration wells drilled during the late seventies and early eighties. The stratigraphic model makes these basic assumptions about the study area: 1) sedimentation is continuous through time, although hiatuses may occur in the stratigraphic sequence, and 2) external processes such as glacio-eustatic changes and climate variation are primary factors controlling sedimentation. Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP) Expedition 339 drilled six sites within the contourite depositional system (CDS) along the SIM, from November 2011 to January 2012 (Fig. 2). Expedition results have allowed us to identify hiatuses and other major shifts in the sedimentary record through the late Miocene, Pliocene and Quaternary. This expedition provided the opportunity to interpret events occurring around the Strait of Gibraltar in terms of their impacts on regional basin evolution, global ocean circulation and climate. The main objectives of this contribution are: a) to establish a more robust stratigraphic model for the SIM based on the integration of IODP Exp. 339 data with onshore geology and petroleum industry borehole, core, 2D and 3D seismic data. The correlation between the IODP Exp. 339 sites and the seismic profiles is here presented by first time; b) to interpret major changes in

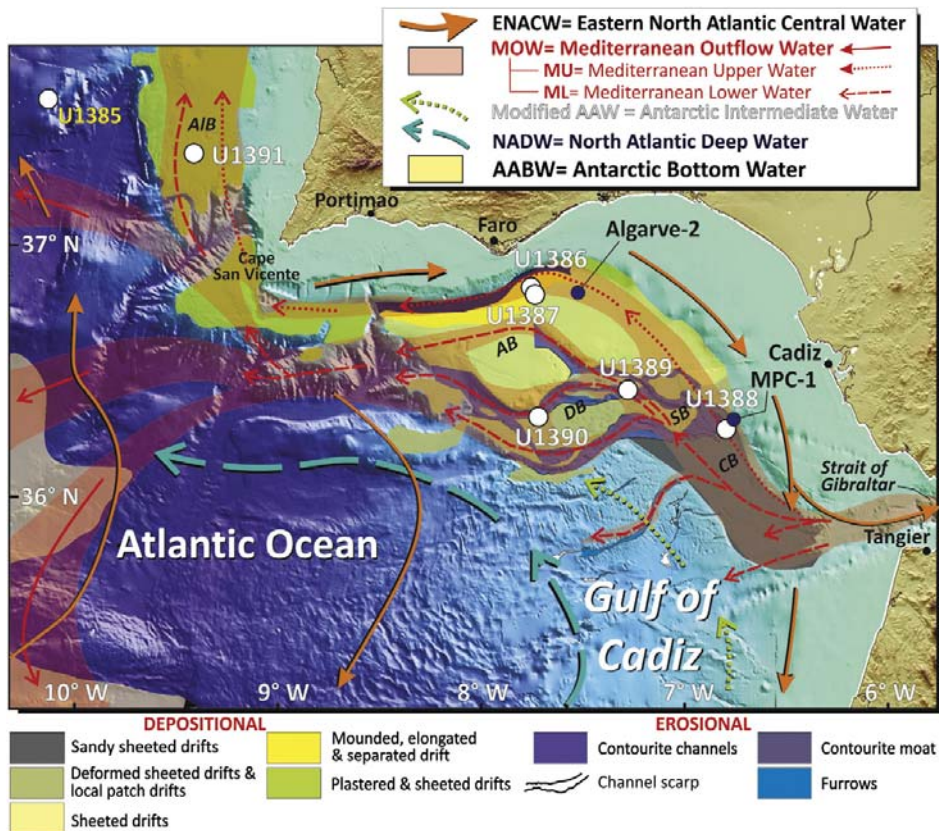


Fig. 2. Gulf of Cadiz showing the pathway of Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) after it exits Gibraltar Gateway, as well as the regional depositional and erosional features it generates along the mid-slope. IODP Exp. 339 sites shown as solid white circles and the two wells drilled by petroleum exploration companies are shown as blue circles. Bottom water masses and ocean currents are also shown. Legend for the sedimentary basins along the southern Iberian margin: AB = Algarve basin; AIB = Alentejo basin; CB = Cadiz basin; DB = Doñana basin; RB = Rota basin; SB = Sanlúcar basin.

depositional style, sedimentation rates and margin evolution from the Pliocene through the Quaternary; and c) evaluate the broader tectonic, paleoceanographic and climatic implications of these events.

2. Geologic framework

The SIM is located near the Azores–Gibraltar Fracture Zone, a section of the convergent plate boundary between Eurasia (Iberia sub-plate) and Africa (Nubia sub-plate) (Fig. 1). The plates presently converge at a rate of $\sim 4\text{--}5$ mm/y in a WNW–ESE direction (Argus et al., 1989; Fernández-Ibáñez et al., 2007). Counter-clockwise rotation along the margin is accommodated by a series of thrusts and dextral strike-slip faults, referred to as the SWIM faults (Fig. 1) (Zitellini et al., 2009) active since at least 1.8 Ma (Rosas et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2011). Westward drift and collision of the Alboran Domain with the North African and south Iberian margins in the early to middle Miocene caused the formation of the Betic–Rif orogeny and the so-called Neogene basins, including the north Betic and south Rifian foredeeps. Westwards roll-back subduction of an oceanic lithosphere slab beneath the Gibraltar Arc and development of its overlying wedge during the late Tortonian (Gutscher et al., 2002) caused radial emplacement of huge allochthonous masses evident as the “olistostrome unit” of the Guadalquivir basin (Iberian foreland), Rharb basin (North African foreland) and Gulf of Cadiz (Perconig, 1960–1962; Roberts, 1970; Flinch and Vail, 1998; Torelli et al., 1997; Maldonado et al., 1999; Terrinha et al., 2009). This unit, which marks the propagation of the Mediterranean Alpine collision belt into the Atlantic (Duarte et al., 2013), is specifically referred to as the allochthonous unit of the Gulf of Cadiz or AUGC (Medialdea et al., 2004). Structurally, the AUGC consists of a series of westwards imbricated thrusts cutting through an eastward-thickening package of sediments (up to ~ 2.75 km), which appear primarily as chaotic reflectors, numerous diffractions and hyperbolic reflections (Maldonado et al., 1999). Sediment includes Triassic, Cretaceous, Paleogene and Neogene units overlying Palaeozoic basement (Maldonado et al., 1999). Mud and salt diapirism affect Triassic salt units and uncompact early to middle Miocene marls (Maestro et al., 2003).

The SIM divides into three major morpho-structural domains (Fig. 1) (Maldonado et al., 1999; Zitellini et al., 2009). These include: a) the Sudiberic paleomargin, which is part of the Iberian massif, b) Neogene basins, including the Guadalquivir and Rharb foreland basins and the Algarve basin, and c) the external front of the Betic–Rif collisional orogen, which represents the accretionary wedge or AUGC. Since the late Miocene, geodynamic evolution of the Neogene basins has been determined by oblique convergence between the Iberia and Nubian sub-plates (Zitellini et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2011). This has been accommodated during distinct periods of crustal deformation and shortening phases, by fault reactivation, halokinesis and uplift of fault blocks (Maldonado et al., 1999; Gutscher et al., 2002; Alves et al., 2003; Gràcia et al., 2003; Maestro et al., 2003; Terrinha et al., 2003, 2009; García et al., 2009; Medialdea et al., 2004, 2009; Lopes et al., 2006; Fernández-Puga et al., 2007; Zitellini et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2011; Pereira et al., 2011; Martínez-García et al., 2013). Latest Miocene to Pliocene deep and shallow marine deposits occur extensively within onshore basins (e.g., Martínez del Olmo et al., 1984; IGME, 1990, 1994; Sierró et al., 1991; Aguirre, 1995; Riaza and Martínez del Olmo, 1996; Ledesma, 2000), but are virtually absent onshore the Algarve basin (IGMP, 1998; Dias and Cabral, 1997), indicating that only the Guadalquivir, Rharb and the other basins around the Betic–Rif orogen were wider than their present expression (e.g., Michard et al., 2008; Salvany et al., 2011).

3. Oceanographic setting

The present-day circulation in the Gulf of Cadiz and along the western Portuguese margin is dominated by the exchange between the Atlantic and Mediterranean waters through the Strait of Gibraltar

(Fig. 2). Upon exiting the Strait of Gibraltar, the Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) cascades downslope in a northwesterly direction, at an overflow rate of 0.67 ± 0.28 Sv. MOW consist of relatively warm and highly saline water (Serra et al., 2010; Rogerson et al., 2012) that settle into an intermediate contour current within the mid-slope region, between 400 and 1400 m water depth (Ochoa and Bray, 1991; Baringer and Price, 1999). The Strait of Gibraltar physically moderates Mediterranean–Atlantic water-mass exchange, contributing warm and highly saline MOW to the Atlantic Ocean at 300–1400 m water depth (Borenäs et al., 2002). MOW input enhances North Atlantic density and helps drive deep convection. Estimates suggest that without MOW, the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) would be reduced by $\sim 15\%$ and North Atlantic sea surface temperatures would fall by up to 1°C (Rogerson et al., 2012).

The MOW is a mixture of waters sourced from the Mediterranean Basin (Levantine Intermediate Water, LIW, and a small component of the West Mediterranean Deep Water, WMDW), a constricted basin under arid climate conditions that form warm, saline dense water averaging 13°C and 36.5% (Ambar and Howe, 1979; Bryden and Stommel, 1984; Bryden et al., 1994). The water mass accelerates through the narrow gateway of the Strait of Gibraltar, locally reaching velocities of up to 300 cm/s (Ambar and Howe, 1979; Mulder et al., 2003) and moves north-westwards along the mid-continental slope of the Gulf of Cadiz, beneath the Atlantic Inflow Water (AIW) and above the North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW). The AIW consists of North Atlantic Superficial Water (NASW; surface to a depth of approximately 100 m), and the Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACW). It flows at depths between of 100 and 700 m and averages $12\text{--}16^\circ\text{C}$ and $34.7\text{--}36.25\%$ TDS. In the Gulf of Cadiz, the Modified Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW), which averages $\sim 10^\circ\text{C}$, $\sim 35.62\%$ TDS and ~ 4.16 ml/l dissolved oxygen (Louarn and Morin, 2011), has been identified as circulating above the MOW (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). The underlying NADW is a cold ($3\text{--}8^\circ\text{C}$) and less saline ($34.95\text{--}35.2\%$) water mass that flows at depths > 1500 m from the Greenland–Norwegian Sea region towards the south (Thorpe, 1975; Zenk, 1975; Gardner and Kidd, 1983; Ochoa and Bray, 1991; Baringer and Price, 1999; Serra et al., 2005). The MOW forms a 10 km (approximately) wide band as it accelerates through the Strait of Gibraltar, enters the Gulf of Cadiz at depths of $250\text{--}300$ m and is then deflected to the west due to Coriolis effect (Ambar and Howe, 1979; Mulder et al., 2003). The MOW current velocity decreases immediately west of the Camarinal Sill within the Strait of Gibraltar, and continues to decline to $60\text{--}100$ cm/s further to the north-west (Cherubin et al., 2000). From there onwards, its volume transport increases by a factor of three to four (Serra et al., 2010; Rogerson et al., 2012). Density-driven descent and mixing with overlying Atlantic waters result in decreasing salinity along the margin in a SE to NW direction (Baringer and Price, 1997). Eventually, the MOW reaches a neutral buoyancy and leaves the seabed at a depth of ~ 1400 m off Cape San Vicente, where it begins to raft above the NADW.

In the Gulf of Cadiz, the MOW pathway is influenced by the complex continental slope morphology and is locally enhanced where neotectonics have created diapiric ridges oblique to its flow direction (Fig. 2). These ridges are in part responsible for splitting the MOW into numerous distinctive cores, although vertical layering within the water core has also been proposed as a possible additional control (Millot, 2009; Copard et al., 2011). The main water cores consist of the Mediterranean Upper Core (MU) and the Mediterranean Lower Core (ML) (Madelain, 1970; Zenk, 1975; Ambar and Howe, 1979; Borenäs et al., 2002; Serra et al., 2005) (Fig. 2). The MU flows slope-parallel along southwestern Iberia at depths of $500\text{--}800$ m with part of its flow captured by the Portimao Canyon at the Algarve margin (Marchès et al., 2007). Overall, the MU is warmer and less saline ($13\text{--}14^\circ\text{C}$ and $35.7\text{--}37\%$) relative to the ML ($10.5\text{--}11.5^\circ\text{C}$ and $36.5\text{--}37.5\%$), which follows a general northwestern trend between 800 and 1400 m water depth, with an average velocity of $20\text{--}30$ cm/s (Llave et al., 2007a; García et al., 2009). The majority of the flow

concentrates west of 7° W (Madelain, 1970). At 7° W, a branch detaches from the southern part of the ML to veer off in a southwesterly direction. At 7° 20' W, the ML divides into three distinct branches with a general northwest direction: the southern branch (SB), the principal branch (PB) and the intermediate branch (IB). Both Portimão Canyon and Cape St. Vincent act as a source of meddies (Serra et al., 2005, 2010; Ambar et al., 2008). After exiting the Gulf of Cadiz, the MOW includes three principal branches. The main branch flows to the north along the middle slope of the Portuguese Margin, the second to the west, and the third to the south reaching the Canary Islands, before veering west (Iorga and Lozier, 1999; Slater, 2003).

Following the opening of the Strait of Gibraltar in the latest Miocene (Duggen et al., 2003; Roveri et al., 2014), the MOW generated one of the world's most extensive and complex Contourite Depositional System (CDS; Fig. 2) along the SIM during the Pliocene and Quaternary (e.g., Faugères et al., 1985a, 1985b; Nelson et al., 1999; Llave et al., 2001, 2007a, 2011; Habgood et al., 2003; Hanquiez et al., 2007; Hernández-Molina et al., 2003, 2006, 2011, 2014a; Marchès et al., 2007, 2010; García et al., 2009; Roque et al., 2012). Large depositional and erosional features within the CDS are used to define five morphosedimentary sectors (detailed in Hernández-Molina et al., 2003 and Llave et al., 2007a, 2007b). In general, the drifts consist primarily of muddy, silty and sandy sediments of mixed terrigenous and biogenic composition (Gonthier et al., 1984). Sand and gravel are found in the large contourite channels (Nelson et al., 1993, 1999; Stow et al., 2013a), and across the many erosional features (Stow et al., 2013a; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). In the proximal sector close to the Strait of Gibraltar, an exceptionally thick (~815 m) sandy-sheathed drift occurs, with sand layers averaging thicknesses of 12–15 m (Nelson et al., 1993; Buitrago et al., 2001).

4. Methodology

This research has compiled and integrated extensive geophysical data and drill core records from late Miocene, Pliocene and Quaternary sediments. Results from the drillcore data acquired during IODP Exp. 339 aboard the R/V *JOIDES Resolution* have been correlated with petroleum industry drilling data from the margin (Fig. 3). Datasets were selected based on data coverage for the Pliocene and Pleistocene sections, which are not typically sampled by industry surveys.

IODP Exp. 339 aboard the R/V *JOIDES Resolution* drilled five sites in the Gulf of Cadiz and two sites off the west Iberian margin from 17 November 2011 to 17 January 2012 (Expedition 339 Scientists, 2012; Stow et al., 2013b; Hernández-Molina et al., 2013; Hodell et al., 2013). See details at http://iodp.tamu.edu/scienceops/expeditions/mediterranean_outflow.html. Six of the sites (U1386–U1391, Fig. 3) were specifically selected in order to study MOW-generated CDS.

Drilling activities employed all three of the vessel's standard coring systems, which include an advanced piston corer (APC), an extended core barrel (XCB), and a rotary core barrel (RCB). These allowed Exp. 339 to drill 19 holes (681 cores) in 46.1 days on site, with a penetration of 7857.4 m and 6301.6 m cored. In total, nearly 5.5 km of core were recovered, with an average recovery of 86.4% (Fig. 3). Stratigraphic correlation and specific age constraints were established onboard using: 1) lithostratigraphy, 2) biostratigraphy, 3) paleomagnetic data, 4) sediment core description, 5) geochemical analysis and 6) downhole measurements. Shipboard biostratigraphic dating was used to estimate regional correlations. Age data was essential for determining ages of key horizons (including several depositional hiatuses and stratigraphic boundaries) and sedimentary accumulation rates (for chronology details about the IODP sites, see Table S1 in Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b, and for the MPC-1 borehole, see Buitrago et al., 2001; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a).

Preliminary onboard sedimentary facies description is reported in Stow et al. (2013b) and also integrated with seismo-acoustic and

logging analysis in this work. We also report mineralogic and petrographic analysis of 32 samples of lower Pliocene sandstones from site U1387. Analysis, including SEM–EDS analyses, micro-x-ray fluorescence (micro-XRF), rare elements (REE) measurements and C and O stable isotope analysis was carried out by REPSOL (Caja et al., 2013).

Vertical seismic profiles (VSP) relating borehole depth to travel time in seismic reflection data (Fig. S1, in *Supplementary material*), have been critical for correlating IODP Exp. 339 results with regional multichannel seismic profiles. VSP were executed at sites U1386, U1387 and U1389. At sites U1390 and U1391 the depth to time conversion was based on the DSI sonic tool. Downhole logs were acquired with Schlumberger logging tools at five sites (U1386C, U1387C, U1389A, U1389E and U1391C, Fig. 3) following completion of coring operations. Log data was continuous with depth and measured in situ. Among the tools used during IODP Exp. 339, the Hostile Environment Natural Gamma Ray Sonde (HNGS) allowed us to continuously measure natural gamma radiation of sediment surrounding the open borehole. The HNGS signal primarily tracks clay content with high values generally identifying fine-grained deposits containing K-rich clay minerals that preferentially absorb U and Th. Low values reflect quartz and calcite, which are unlikely to contain such high concentrations of radioactive elements. The High-Resolution Laterolog Array (HRLA) performs five measurements of formation resistivity with increasing penetration into the formation. The logs can be interpreted in terms of the stratigraphy, lithology and geochemical composition of the formation sampled. IODP Exp. 339 results have been correlated to industry wells referred to as Algarve-2 and MPC-1. Algarve-2 data was provided by DGGE (Direcção Geral de Geologia e Energia-Portugal) through the DPEP (Divisão para a Pesquisa e Exploração de Petróleo). The MPC-1 well was drilled by Esso in 1982 (Buitrago et al., 2001; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). These two sites have been very useful for correlating seismic data, lithologies and log data at a regional scale.

In order to evaluate cyclic patterns in the sedimentary record and GR logs, we performed spectral analysis on HSGR logs from sites U1386C and U1387C, using the Lomb-Scargle periodogram method (Scargle, 1982), to tract the record of low- and high (orbital-scale) variations in the sediment properties during the last 2 Ma within the most depositional sector of the contourite depositional system. The age model for the last 2 Ma at these sites is based on results from Lofi et al., 2015. The Lomb-Scargle periodogram method is the best methodology of spectral estimation and is particularly useful when conducting cyclostratigraphic analysis with uneven sampling data, even when dealing with short time series or with a discontinuous sedimentary record (i.e., missing data, minor hiatuses, bioturbation, etc.) (Pardo-Igúzquiza and Rodríguez-Tovar, 2011, 2012; Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014). To evaluate the significance of the registered spectral peaks, the Lomb-Scargle periodogram is integrated with the implemented achieved significance level using the permutation test (see Pardo-Igúzquiza and Rodríguez-Tovar, 2000, 2005, 2006, 2011, 2012 for a detailed description). A first cyclostratigraphic analysis has been conducted to evidence any possible cyclicity at the Milankovitch frequency band. Then, a second study focused on the lower frequency band, to evaluate the possibility of any cycles with periodicities longer than those corresponding to the short-term eccentricity cycle (≥ 100 ky). This has been achieved by reducing the periodogram smoothing in the low frequencies in order to increase the spectral resolution at those low frequencies.

We constructed a large regional seismic compilation using data collected by industry and on several national and international research projects (Fig. 3). Multichannel 2-D seismic reflection profiles (MCS) used were: 1) the PD00 Survey acquired by TGS–NOPEC, 2000 (TGS, 2005; acquisition data reported in George, 2011; Llave et al., 2011; Brackenridge et al., 2013), 2) BIO *Hespérides* HE-91-3 cruise (acquisition data details in Maldonado et al., 1999), 3) BIO *Hespérides* TASYO 2000 cruise (acquisition data information in Medialdea et al., 2004, 2009), 4) IAM survey and the CSIC-Institut Jaume Almera (<http://geodib.ctja.csic.es>) and 5) S81, P74 and GC_d surveys by Repsol and Gas Natural-

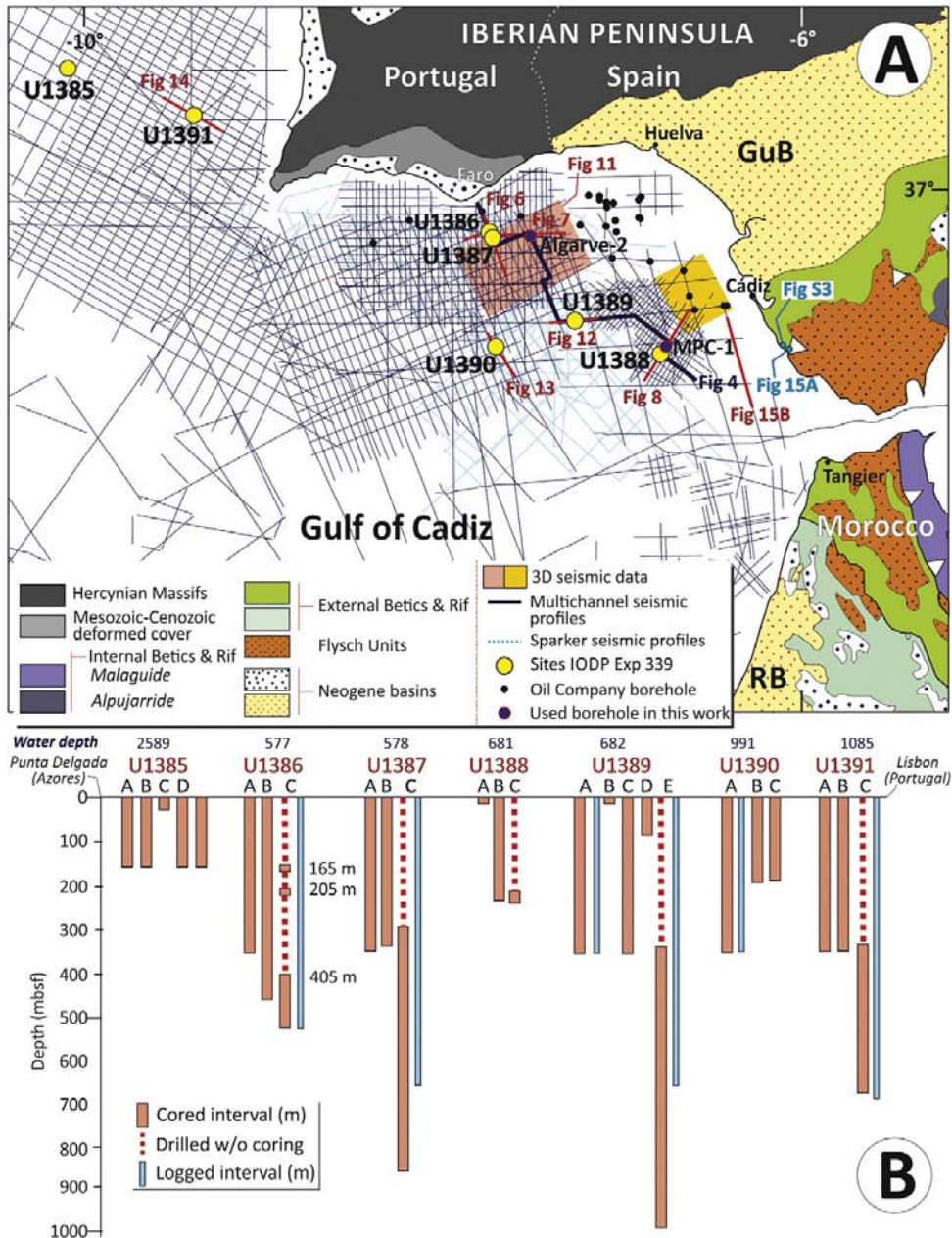


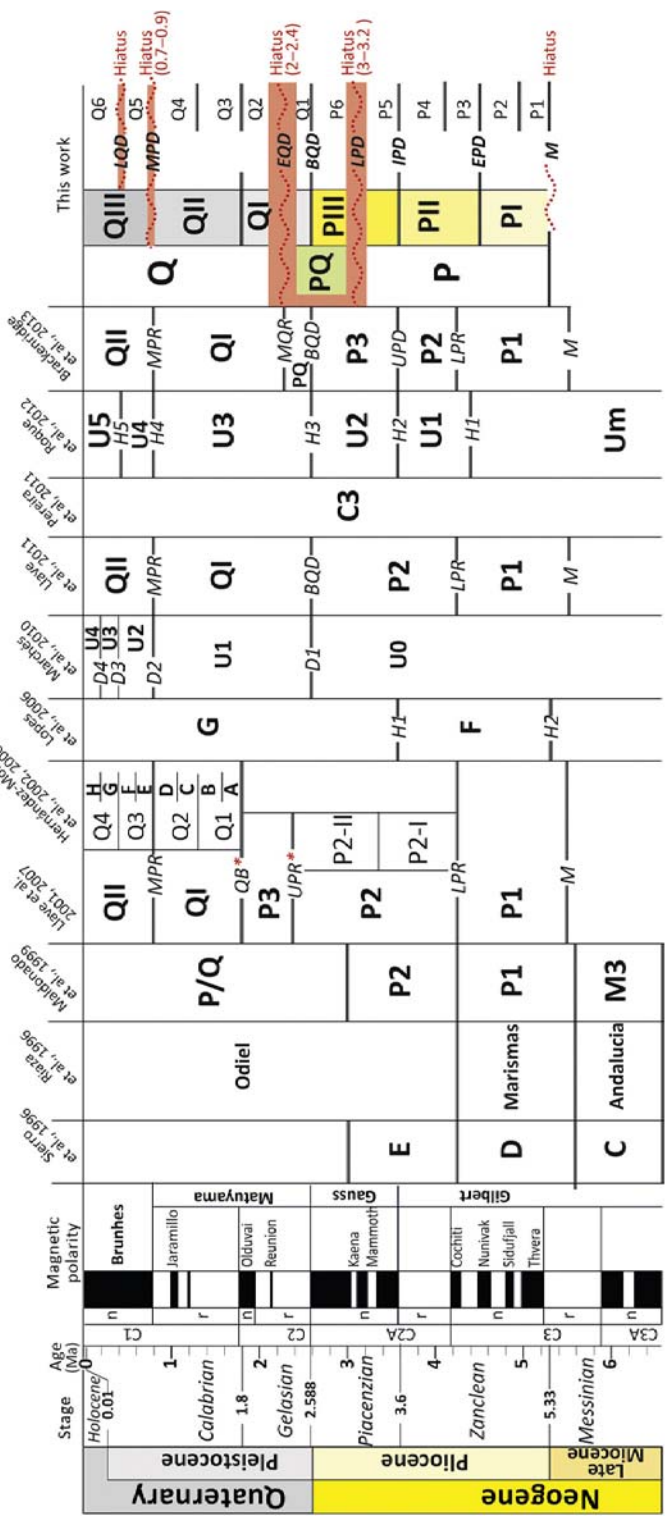
Fig. 3. A) Map locations of seismic profiles as well as sites drilled during IODP Exp. 339 and those sampled by previous drilling activity. Localities of outcrops reinterpreted by this study are also shown. B) Basic information on IODP Exp. 339 sites.

Fenosa. This study also incorporates additional MCS data from a 2012 3D seismic survey by Repsol, which covered Pliocene and Quaternary sediments, and included four amplitude anomaly maps. Several 2D seismic profiles of intermediate resolution were used for local analysis (Llave et al., 2001, 2006, 2007a, 2007b; Hernández-Molina et al., 2002, 2006). These were generated using Sparker 3000, 4000 and 7500 J sources and obtained during research cruises FADO 9711, ANASTASYA

9909 and ANASTASYA 2000/09. The seismic, core and borehole data have been interpreted using the commercially available software package, Kingdom Suite™, which processes chronostratigraphical, sedimentological and log data. Depth and thickness from seismic profiles are expressed in seconds Two-Way Travel-Time (TWTT).

Major stratigraphic features of offshore deposits have been correlated with onshore outcrops based on published literature records as well

Table 1
Table with the main units and sub-units described in the present work, including stratigraphic correlations interpreted by other authors.



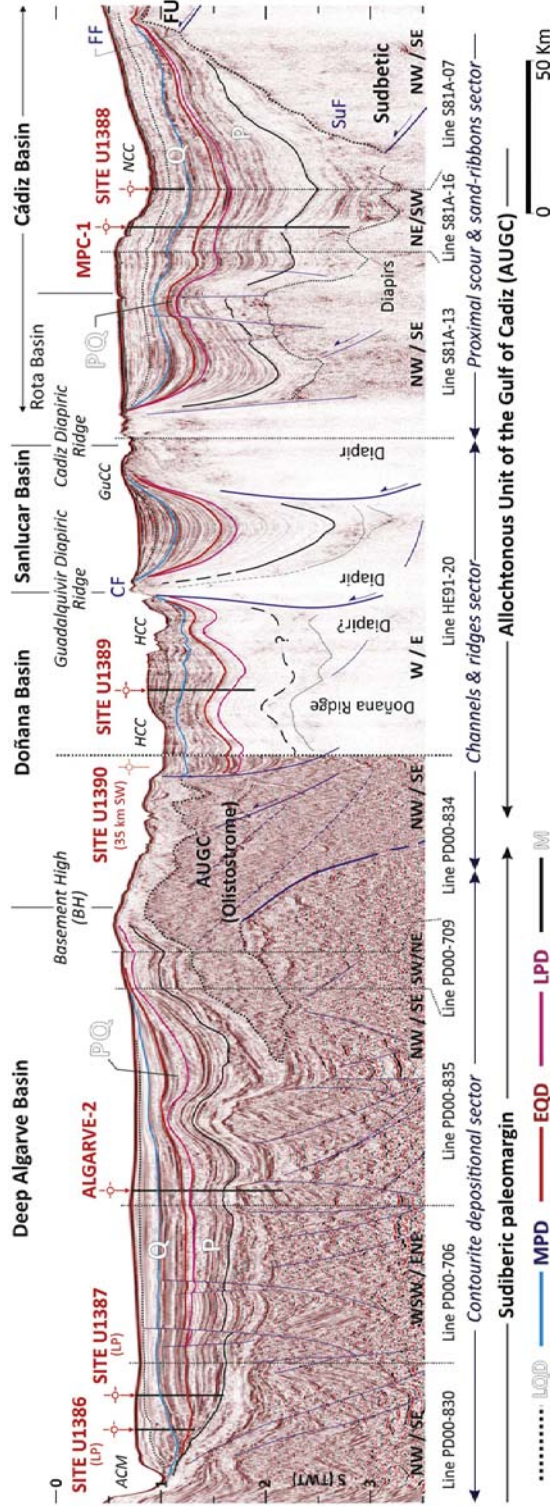


Fig. 4. Composite seismic profile (~500 km long) along the middle slope of the Gulf of Cadiz, from the proximal area near the Strait of Gibraltar (right) to the distal area along the Southern Algarve basin (left). Neogene sedimentary basins and the main morphosedimentary sectors of the contourite depositional system are shown within the regional tectonic framework. The Cádiz, Rota, Sanlúcar and Doñana basins overlie the Allochthonous Unit of the Gulf of Cadiz (AUGC). The Deep Algarve basin is located on the Sudiberic paleomargin. The major discontinuities occur at the Miocene–Pliocene boundary (M), late Pliocene (LPD), early Quaternary (EQD), mid Pliocene (MPD) and late Quaternary (QD).

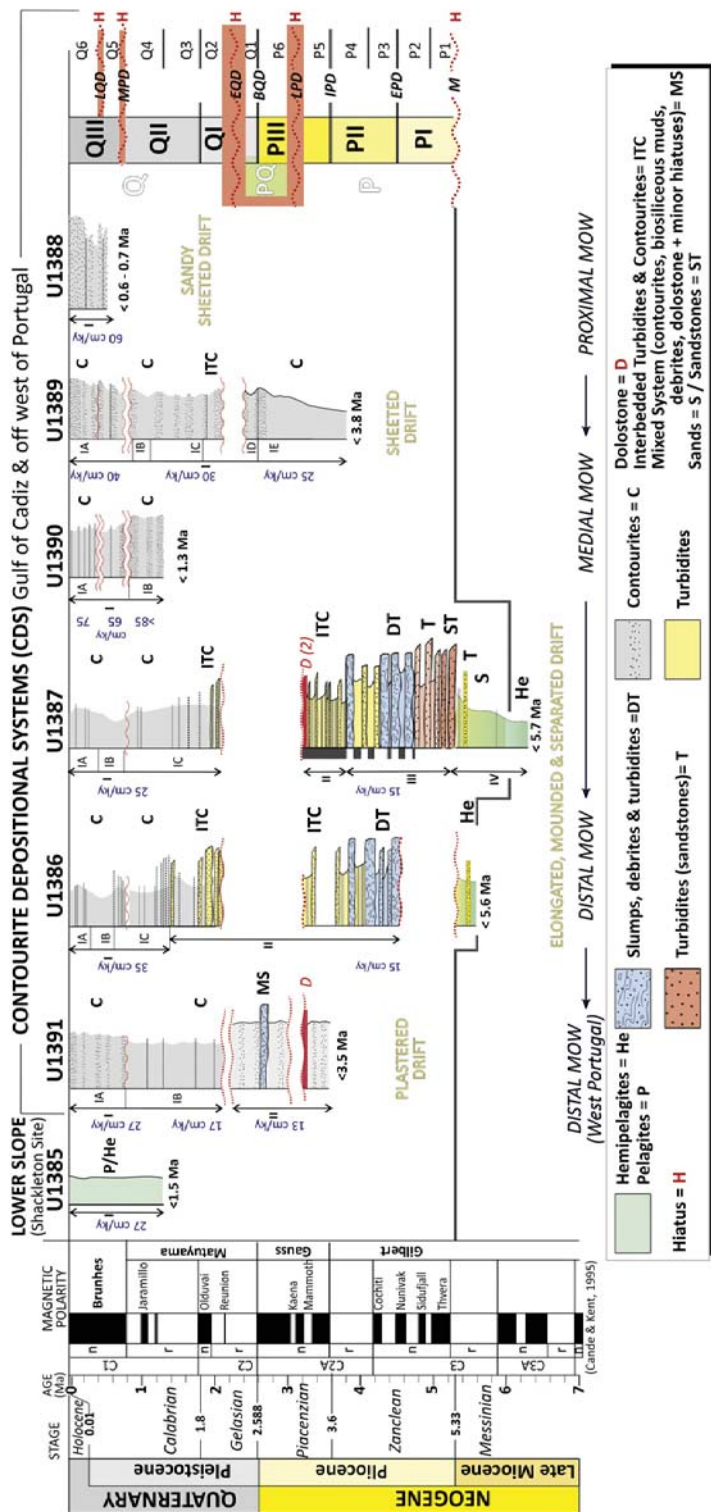


Fig. 5. Lithologic summary for sites drilled during IODP Exp. 339. A general interpretation for the proximal area close to the Strait of Gibraltar to the distal area off west Portugal indicates major hiatuses (H in red). Age models are based on biostratigraphic data and magnetostratigraphy (further details in Stow et al., 2013b; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a, 2014b). Sedimentation rates for the Pliocene = 15–25 cm/ky and ~30 cm/ky to >100 cm/ky for the Quaternary. C = contourites; D = dolostone; DT = debrites and turbidites (reirrigous and bioclastic sands + chaotic); H = hemipelagites; ITC = interbedded turbidites and contourites; P/H = pelagites/hemipelagites; T = turbidites (sandstones); MS = mixed system (contourites, biosiliceous muds, debrites, dolostone + minor hiatuses). Major sequences (P, PQ and Q1–Q6) and subunits (P1–P6 and Q1–Q6) are shown on the left. Site locations given in Figs. 2 and 3. Data from Candé and Kent, 1993.

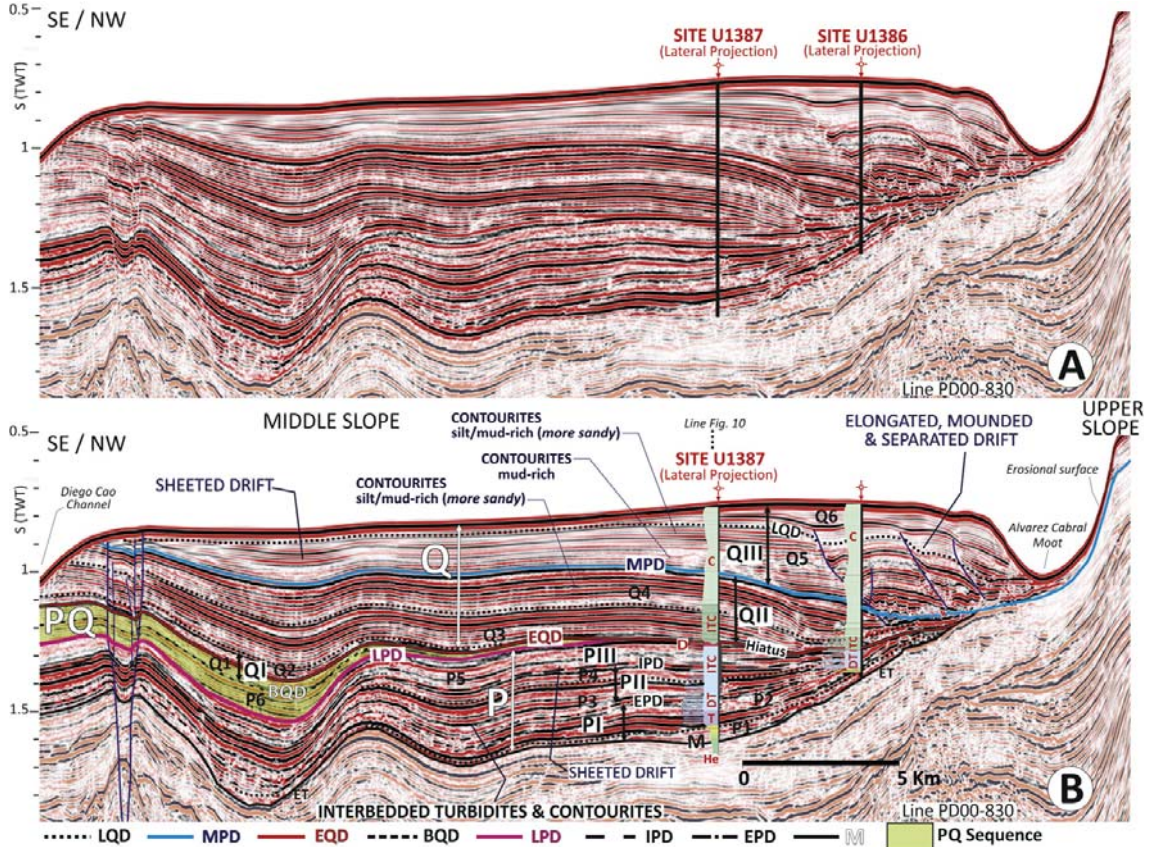


Fig. 6. Seismic profile (line PD00-830) of the Algarve basin showing the sedimentary stacking pattern for Pliocene sheeted drift to Quaternary separated drifts, based on correlations between sites U1386 and U1387. Both sites have been projected into this seismic profile. Site U1386 is placed 1 km WSW from the line and Site U1387 is located 1.2 km ENW from the profile. Profile location given in Fig. 3. Major sequences (P, PQ and Q), units (PI–PIII and QI–QIII) and subunits (P1–P6 and Q1–Q6), as well as the main discontinuities and hiatuses are shown. See the text for further detail explanations (data courtesy of TGS–NOPEC Geophysical Company ASA). ET = Erosional truncation. Abbreviations for discontinuities (from bottom to top): M = Miocene–Pliocene boundary; EPD = early Pliocene discontinuity; IPD = intra Pliocene discontinuity; LPD = late Pliocene discontinuity; BQD = base of the Quaternary discontinuity; EQD = early Quaternary discontinuity, MPD = mid Pleistocene discontinuity; and LQD = late Quaternary discontinuity. Simplify sedimentary logs for U1386 and U1387 are included (see abbreviations in Fig. 5).

as recent re-analysis of the late Miocene, Pliocene and Quaternary on-shore sections. Selected outcrops (Fig. 3) were specifically measured and re-sampled in order to date and characterize key stratigraphic horizons.

This paper updates and revises units, discontinuities and age assignments in the stratigraphic framework established by previous reports on the area. Inconsistencies in age assignments from previous works are a natural consequence of data processing methods as well as the different scales and resolution at which data was analyzed. Revisions also reflect recent modification of Quaternary chronostratigraphy by the International Commission on Stratigraphy (Mascarelli, 2009). The hierarchy of sedimentary units is described according to sedimentary sequences, units and subunits. The seismic-stratigraphic analyses were correlated with previous stratigraphic results from (Table 1): Siervo et al. (1996); Riaza and Martínez del Olmo (1996); Maldonado et al. (1999); Llave et al. (2001, 2007a, 2011); Hernández-Molina et al. (2002, 2006, 2014a, 2014b); Marchès et al. (2010); Roque et al. (2012); and Brackenridge et al. (2013). The term ‘contourite’ refers to sediments deposited or substantially reworked by the persistent action of bottom currents (e.g., Stow et al., 2002a; Rebesco, 2005; Rebesco and Camerlenghi, 2008). Contourites include a wide array of sediments that

are affected to varying degrees by different types of currents (Rebesco et al., 2014). Thick, extensive sedimentary accumulations are referred to as contourite drifts or drifts. For the present work, we have adopted the classification of Faugères et al. (1999) (later updated by Faugères and Stow, 2008) and use the local and regional names for drifts described by previous authors (e.g., Faugères et al., 1985a, 1985b; Llave et al., 2007a; Hernández-Molina et al., 2003, 2014a; García et al., 2009; Marchès et al., 2007, 2010; Roque et al., 2012).

5. Results

A full assessment of the Neogene basins, the Late Miocene/Pliocene boundary, and the characteristics of the Pliocene to the Quaternary sedimentary record are outlined below. These are reported alongside the tectonic considerations of the results.

5.1. Neogene basins

Neogene basins in the study area include basins overlying the AUGC (Cadiz, Rota, Sanlúcar and Doñana basins), a basin located on the Sudiberic paleomargin (Algarve basin) and the Alentejo basin off west

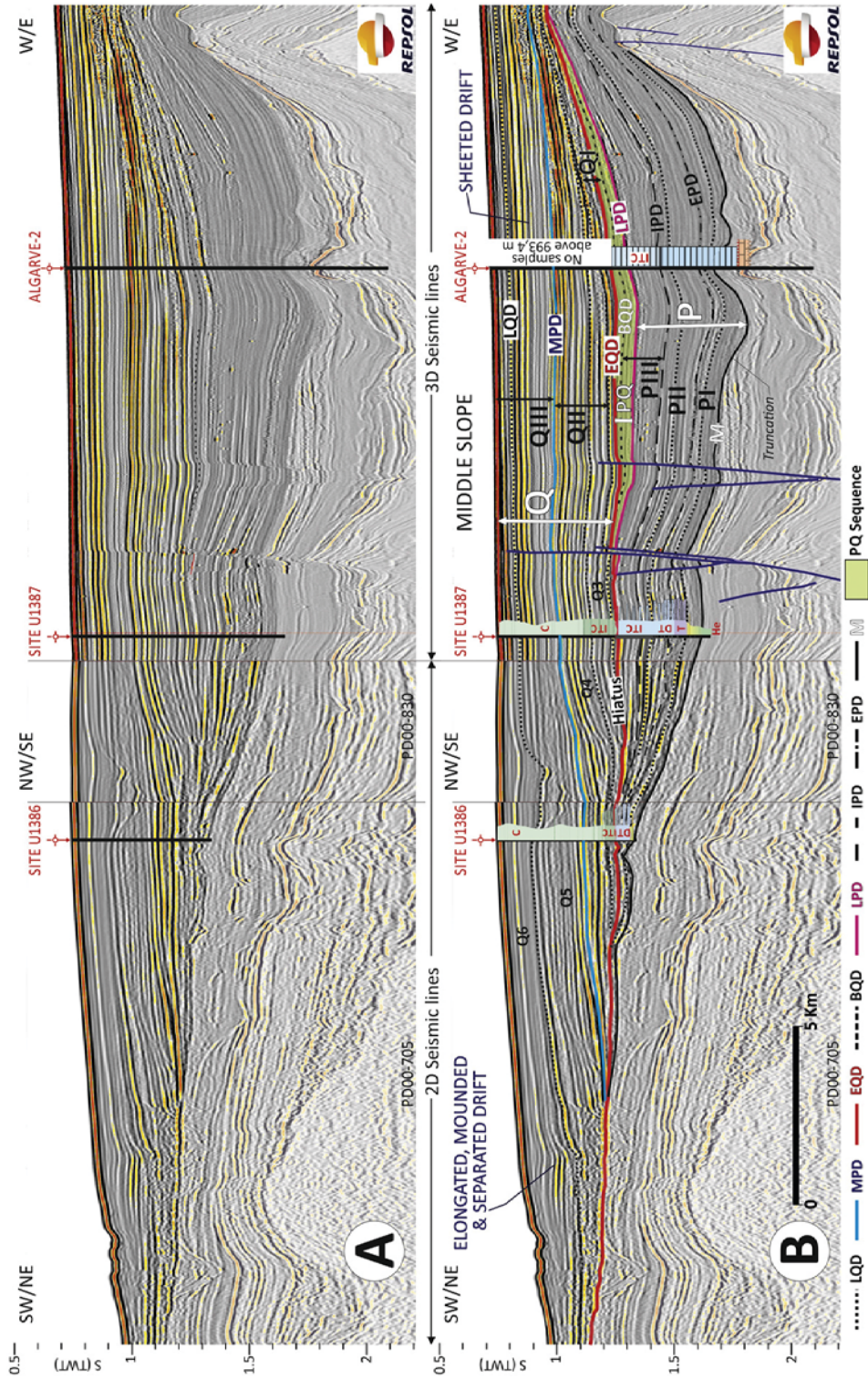


Fig. 7. Composite 2D (Line PD00-705) and 3D seismic data on the Algarve basin, integrating sites U1386, U1387 and Algarve-2. The Pliocene and Quaternary sedimentary stacking pattern including major sequences (P, PQ and Q), units (PI–PIII and QI–QIII) and subunits (P1–P6 and Q1–Q6) as well as the main discontinuities and hiatuses are shown (data courtesy of REPSOL). Profile locations for discontinuities are in Fig. 6. Simplified sedimentary logs for U1386, U1387 and Algarve-2 are included (see abbreviations in Fig. 5).

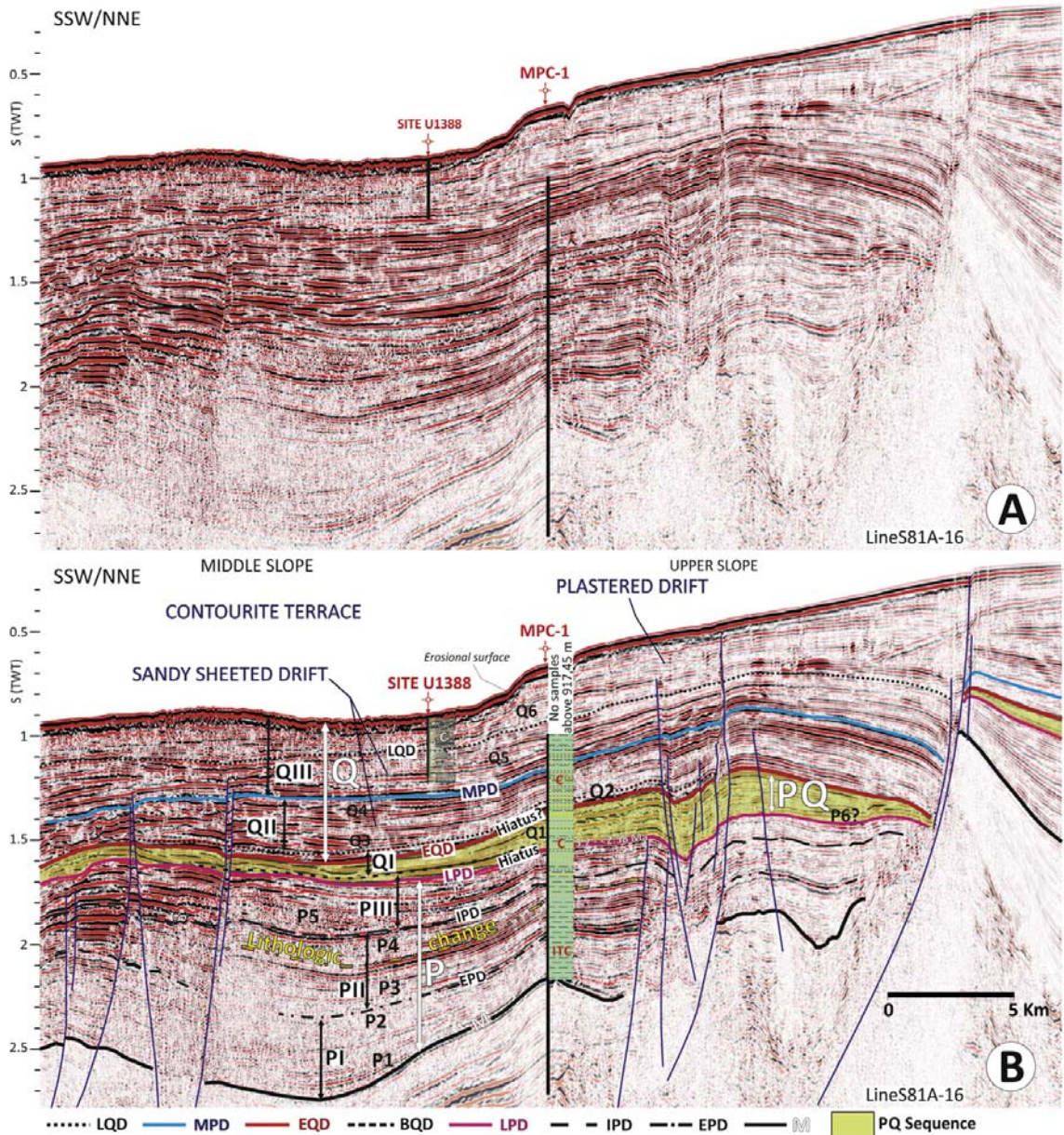


Fig. 8. Seismic profile (Line S81A-16) of the Cadiz basin across sites U1388 and MPC-1. Major sequences (P, PQ and Q), units (P1–P6 and Q1–Q6), as well as the main discontinuities and hiatus are shown (Modified and updated from Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b). Profile location given in Fig. 3. Abbreviations for discontinuities are in Fig. 6. Simplify sedimentary logs for U1388 and MPC-1 are included (see abbreviations in Fig. 5).

Portugal (Fig. 1). Offshore slope areas of Algarve basin are considered as the Deep-Algarve basin. Tectonic features control the basins, their depocenter distribution and their main contourite sectors (1–5) described in Hernández-Molina et al. (2003, 2006) and Llave et al. (2007a, 2007b) (Fig. 4). The proximal scour and sand-ribbon sector (1) and the overflow sedimentary lobe sector (2) have developed within the Cadiz basin. The central channel and ridges sector (3) is found in the Sanlucar and Doñana basins and the main depositional

sector (4) has formed within the Deep Algarve basin. The submarine canyon sector (5) covers the rest of the SIM westward including the Alentejo basin. Deformed sheeted drifts in the central sector coincide with the Doñana basin, which shows intensive recent and ongoing deformation.

Neogene Basins located in the Gulf of Cadiz are generally bound by westward thrustsed Flysch and Subbetic material. The AUGC was thrust northwestwards into the Guadalquivir and Algarve basins. A set of

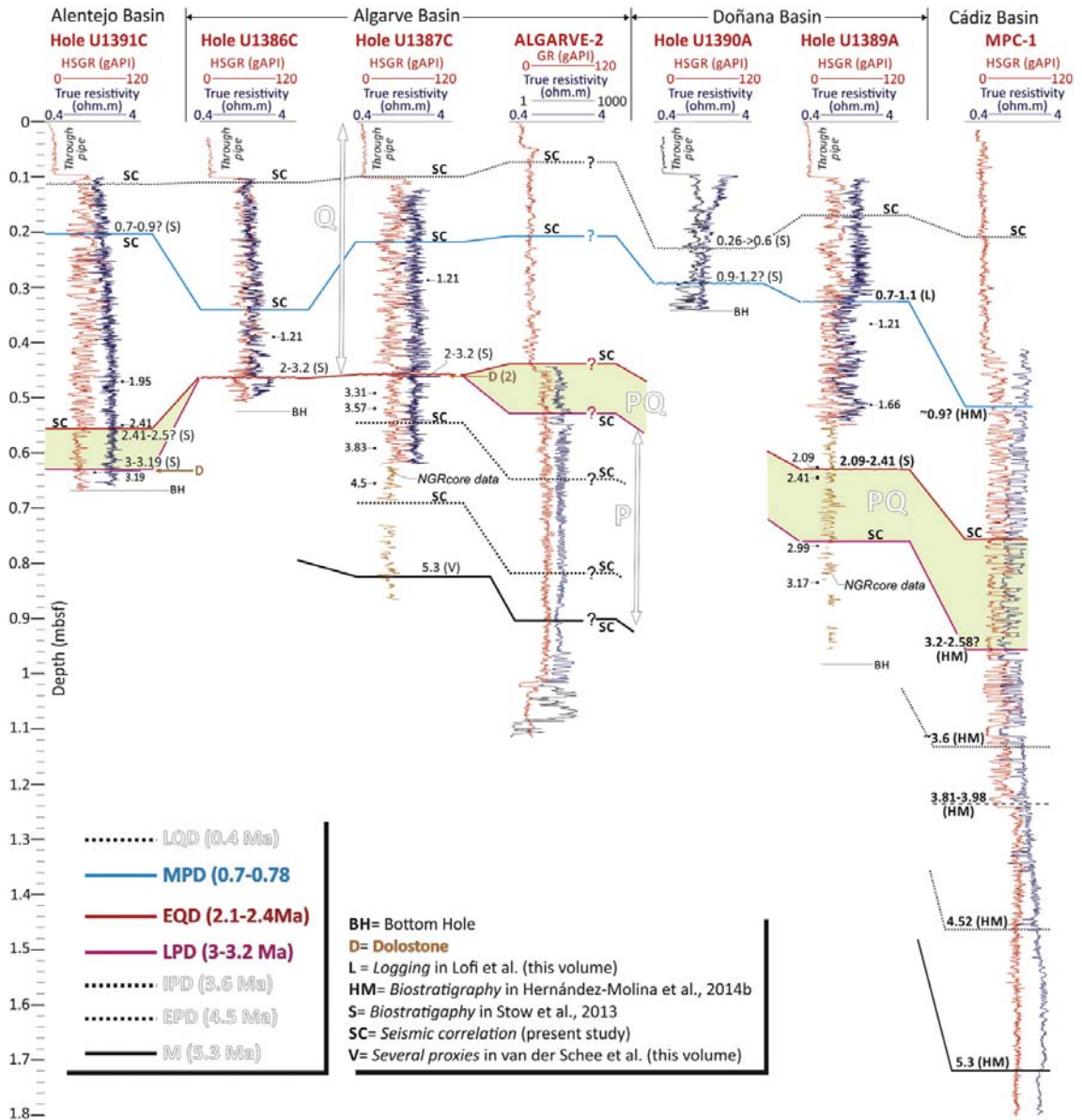


Fig. 9. Log data, gamma ray (HSGR) and resistivity, for IODP Exp. 339, Algarve-2 and MPC-1 boreholes shown with the main Pliocene and Quaternary discontinuities.

linear and segmented parallel ridges and highs trending in a NE-SW direction formed either exposed or buried structures, constructing the undulating sea-floor morphology that has been described by a number of works (e.g., Maldonado et al., 1999; Gutscher et al., 2002; Medialdea et al., 2004, 2009; Fernández-Puga et al., 2007; García et al., 2009). Diapirs appear as chaotic, highly diffractive bodies in seismic profiles (Fig. 4). Diapirs, as well as other highs and ridges are affected by SWIM strike-slip faults, which trend in a WNW-ESE direction, (Fig. 1) (Zitellini et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2011). The influence of some of these structures on the Pliocene and Quaternary strata is shown in Figs. 4, 6–8 and 12–14.

The Cadiz basin occurs between frontal thrustured Flysch and Subbetic units (Fig. 4) and the Cadiz diapiric ridge (CDR). This basin trends in a NE-SW direction, and occupies an area 45 km wide and about 60 km in length, extending roughly to the present-day shelf break. The Pliocene and Quaternary sedimentary record is asymmetric and eastward thickening, with TWTTs of up to 1.7 s. This section of the record was sampled at site U1388, where drilling reached Pleistocene units (<0.6–0.7 Ma), and by the MPC-1 borehole which extends to the late Miocene. The CDR trends in a NNE direction and resides at a water depth of 400–800 m. It extends approximately 43 km in length, varies in width up to a maximum of 14 km and takes an asymmetric form. It

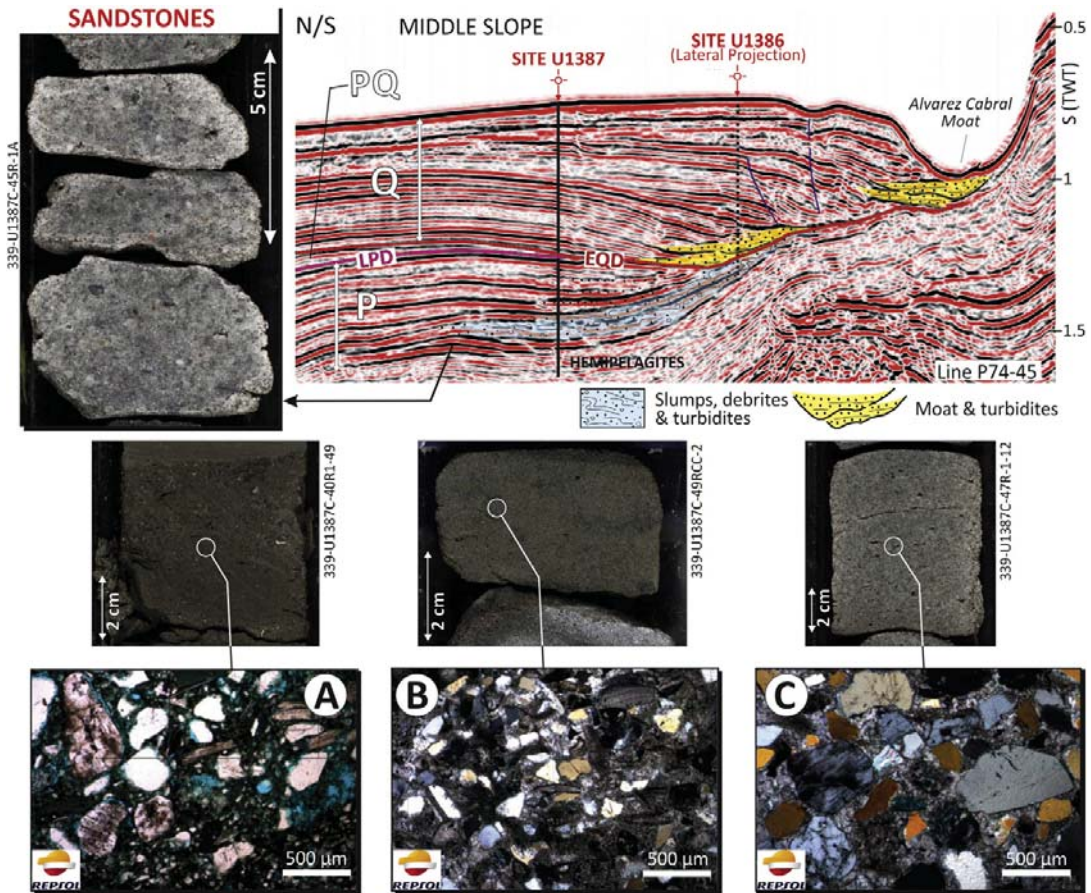


Fig. 10. Examples of early Pliocene sandstone petrofacies at site U1387C: A) petrofacies-1 with fine to very fine, very poorly sorted monocrystalline quartz sandstone (PP, plane polarized light.); B) petrofacies-2 with fine to very fine sandstone, moderate sorted and subrounded framework sandstone (XN, crossed nicols); and C) petrofacies-3 with well-rounded, poorly sorted sandstones (XN).

has gaps and is most strongly deformed along its eastern flank. The Rota basin is a smaller subordinate basin bounded by a diapiric structure and residing within the westernmost part of the Cadiz basin. It reaches widths of 20–25 km and thicknesses of approximately 1.5 s (TWTT).

The Sanlúcar basin is of 25–30 km in width between the Cadiz and Guadalquivir diapiric ridges (GDR) (Fig. 4), and extends 70 km in length up to the shelf break. It has an asymmetric sedimentary thickness for the Pliocene and Quaternary section that reaches nearly 2 s (TWTT) along its eastern boundary. Although this basin was not sampled, upper slope and outer shelf deposits have been stratigraphically correlated with the adjacent Rota and Cadiz basins. The GDR trends in a NE–SW direction and reaches approximately 86 km in length. Its upper surface rests at water depths of 300–1100 m. This basin hosts the most extensive of the ridge systems found in the study area, and thus has a bathymetry characterized by numerous irregular highs, lows and gaps.

The Doñana basin is located to the west, between the Guadalquivir diapiric ridge and a set of elongated basement highs that trend in a NE–SW direction (Figs. 1 and 4). These occupy middle slope regions at 1200–1300 m depth and include the Guadalquivir bank (GB) and the Portimao and Albufeira basement highs (PH and AH, respectively). The Doñana basin is 25 km wide and extends 108 km in length up to the shelf break. It shows a Pliocene and Quaternary section of up to

~1.5 s (TWTT). Two sites have been drilled in the Doñana basin, the site U1389 borehole in the east of the basin, which penetrates down to the early Pliocene (<3.8 Ma) and the site U1390 borehole in a south-westerly area, which extends to the early Pleistocene (<1.3 Ma). The Doñana basin is bisected by the Doñana dipiric ridge (DDR) which is a 53 km long feature located to the north, at water depths ranging from 500 to 1100 m. This ridge outcrops in limited areas, and locally deforms the overlying sedimentary succession. The Guadalquivir bank (GB) is located in the southern part of the Algarve basin and represents a structural high located at water depths of around 300–500 m. The GB represents south Portugal's Variscan rifted basement (Medialdea et al., 2004; Roque et al., 2012). Due to its tectonic inversion and recent uplift, the adjacent western sector of the basin suffered subsidence allowing the formation of a sedimentary depocenter.

The Deep Algarve basin resides between the Algarve upper slope and the aforementioned basement highs (Fig. 4). It extends 40–50 km in width and 114 km in length. Pliocene and Quaternary sedimentary thickness in the basin reach about 1.2 s (TWTT). Sedimentary thickness is irregular in the Deep Algarve basin but much more tabular than that previously described basins. The Deep Algarve basin was sampled at sites U1386, U1387 down to the late Miocene (<5.75 Ma). The Algarve-2 borehole was also drilled down to the late Paleocene and

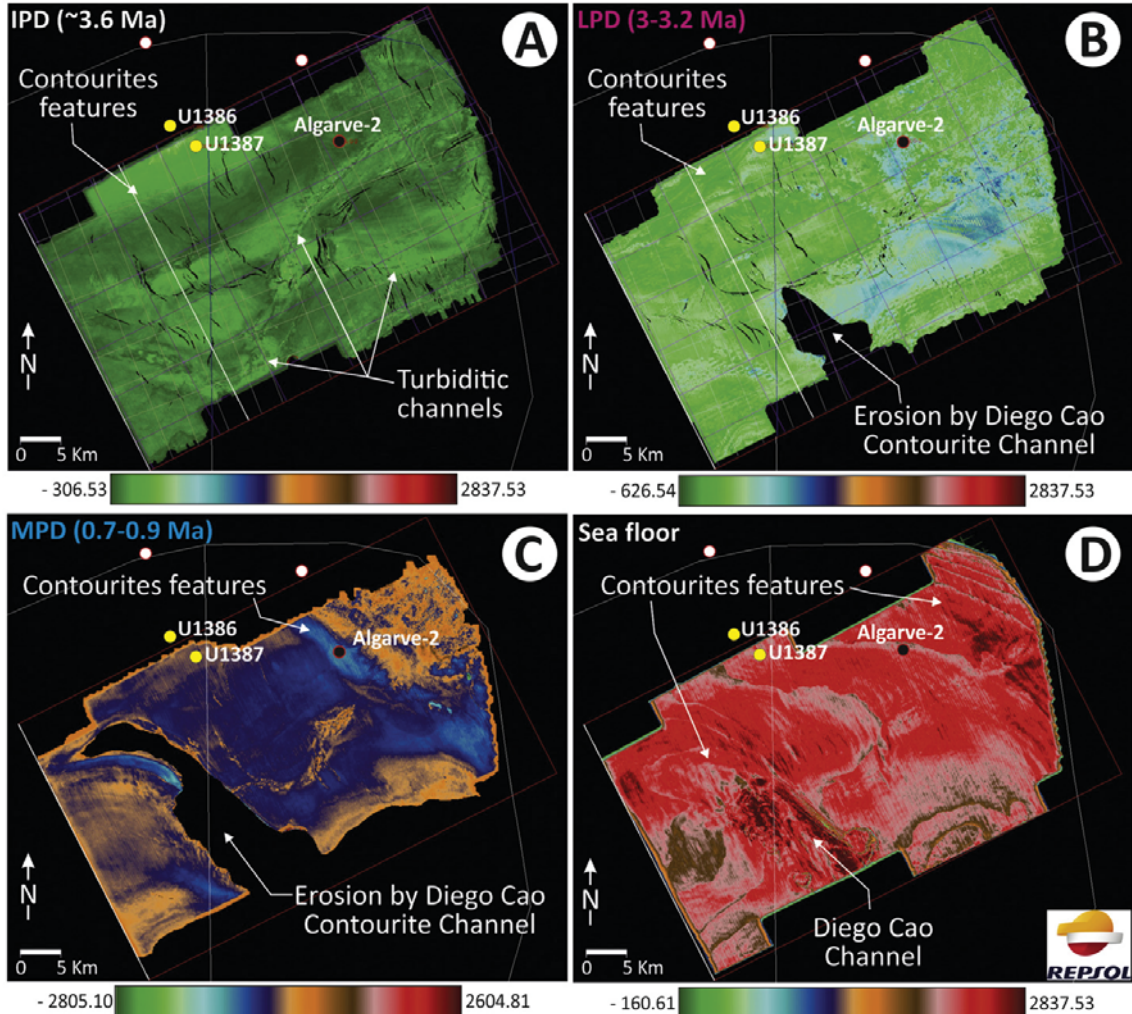


Fig. 11. Amplitude maps based on 3D seismic data from the Algarve basin (Fig. 3) for: A) Intra Pliocene Discontinuity (~3.6 Ma); B) late Pliocene Discontinuity (3–3.2 Ma); C) mid Pleistocene Discontinuity (0.7–0.9 Ma); D) present day bathymetry of study area (data courtesy of REPSOL). Area location is provided by a red square in Fig. 3. These maps show the change from a system of mixed contourite and turbidite deposition in the early Pliocene to the dominant contourite system from the Pleistocene to the present.

Eocene sections, the later of which is unconformably overlain by Late Miocene–Pliocene sediments. This basin contains diapiric structures, which follow NE–SW trends and include late Triassic and early Jurassic evaporites. The frontal part of the AUGC also appears in this basin and pinches out within late Miocene sediments (Roque et al., 2012; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b). Finally, the Alentejo basin trends in a N–S direction between the San Vicente and Lisboa submarine canyons (Fig. 1) and hosts a Pliocene to Quaternary sediment thickness of <math><0.9\text{ s}</math> (TWTT). The borehole at site U1391 sampled this basin down to the early Pliocene (<math><3.5\text{ Ma}</math>).

Seismic and drilling results show significant spatial and vertical variation of sedimentary, seismic and logging facies along with numerous discontinuities in Neogene basins. The two most significant discontinuities (after the prominent Miocene–Pliocene boundary) occur at 3.2–3.0 Ma (late Pliocene Discontinuity, LPD) and 2.4–2 Ma (early Quaternary discontinuity, EQD) (Fig. 4) and divide the sedimentary record

into three major sedimentary sequences of: Pliocene (P); Pliocene/Quaternary (PQ) and Quaternary (Q) age. These sequences consist of six seismic units (PI–PIII and QI–QIII) bounded by minor discontinuities (Table 1), which appear as high-amplitude seismic reflections. The distribution of these reflections indicates that they represent erosional surfaces along basin margins that develop into conformable surfaces basinwards. Sedimentary facies for the Pliocene and Quaternary sections consist primarily of pelagites, hemipelagites, contourites, turbidites, debrites and slump deposits (Figs. 5 and S2). Dolomitic mudstone, dolostones and sandstones are rare, but also appear in drill core material associated with the aforementioned hiatuses. Contourites include sand-rich, silt-rich and mud-rich contourites, and constitute about 50% of the recovered Pliocene core deposits, where debrites and turbidites are also common. Contourites predominate the sedimentary record Quaternary deposits (Fig. 5) above the 2.4–2 hiatus (up to 95% of recovered core deposits).

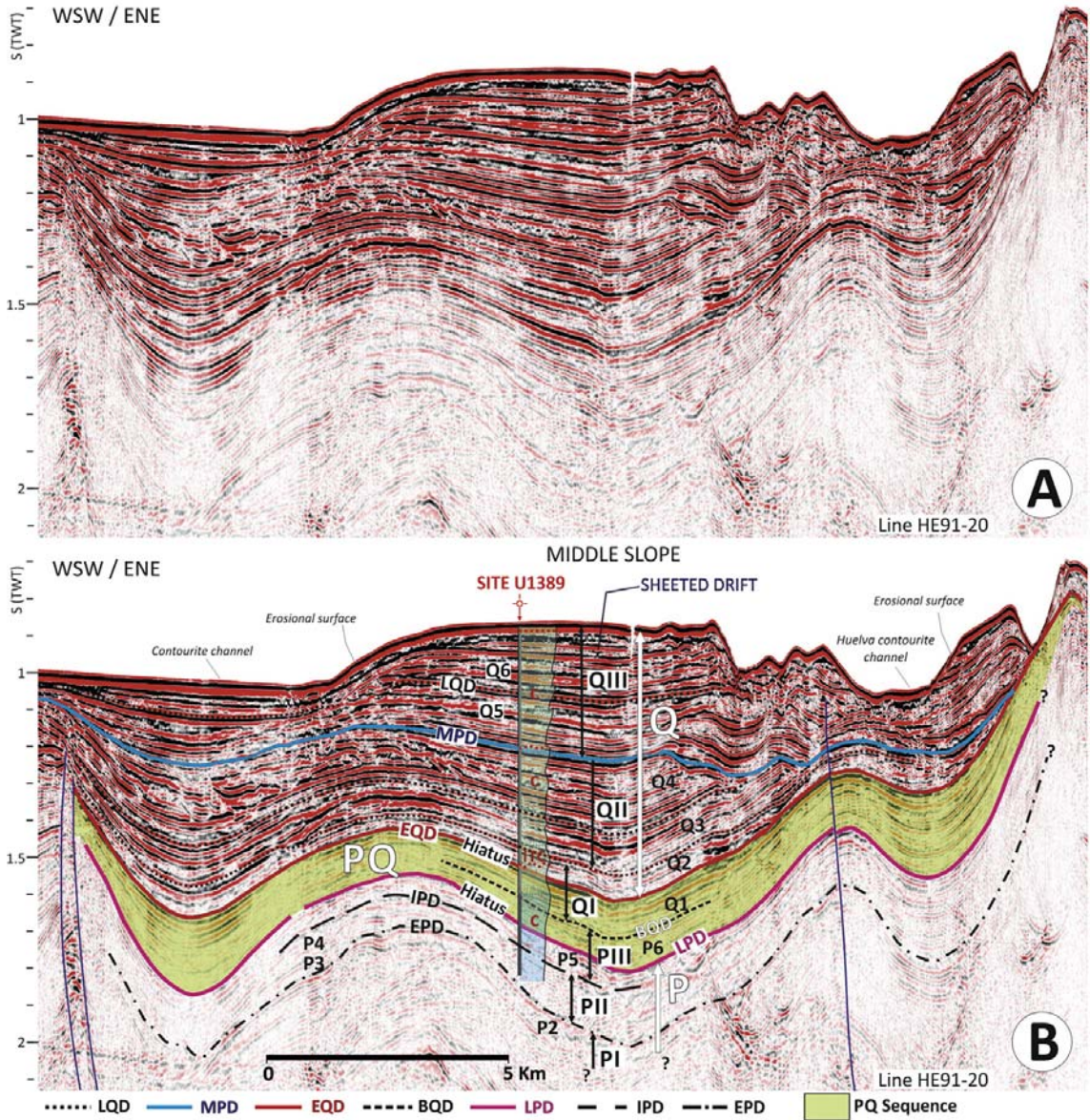


Fig. 12. Seismic profile (Line HE91-20) including site U1389 in the Doñana basin. Major sequences (P, PQ and Q), units (P1–P6 and Q1–Q6), as well as the main discontinuities and hiatus are shown. Profile location given in Fig. 3. Abbreviations for discontinuities are in Fig. 6. Simplify sedimentary log for U1389 is included (see abbreviations in Fig. 5).

5.2. Late Miocene and Miocene/Pliocene boundary

Seismic facies for the entire late Miocene appear as very weak to semi-transparent seismic reflections. Some seismic reflections suggest slope progradation in a seaward direction. Locally high amplitude reflections occur in lateral association with incised erosional surfaces and channelized features (Figs. 6 and 7). Being Messinian in age, these deposits appear in the Deep Algarve basin at sites U1387 and Algarve-2 (Figs. 6 and 7) and in the Cadiz basin at the MPC-1 site (Fig. 8). The dominant regional sedimentary facies includes clays and marls with

occasional layers of fine sand. This facies appears in the Deep Algarve basin at site U1387 as dark greenish to greenish, gray muds and muddy oozes with nannofossils. The facies forms in hemipelagic settings and shows subtle parallel lamination and pervasive bioturbation (Figs. S2–J). Siliciclastic abundances are up to 70% and carbonate abundances are 15%–30%.

The Miocene/Pliocene boundary (M) at 5.3 Ma was detected at borehole Algarve-2 at around 1455–1460 mbsf in the Deep Algarve Basin (Figs. 5 and 7). The seismic reflector marking the boundary was traced from Algarve-2 to sites U1387 and U1386. The boundary appears in

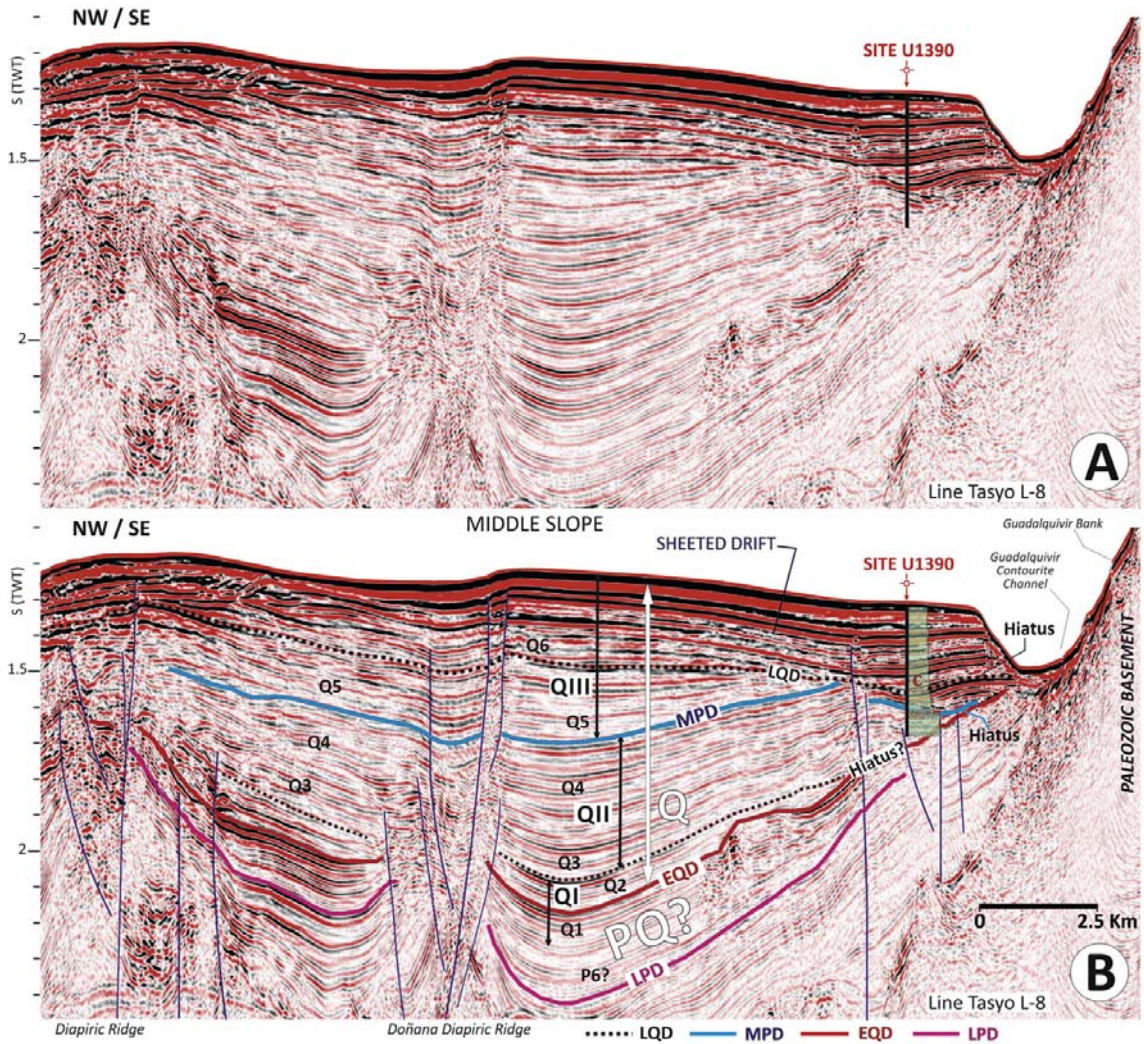


Fig. 13. Seismic profile (Line Tasyo L-8) of the Doñana basin across site U1390. Major sequences (P, PQ and Q), units (PI–PIII and QI–QIII) and subunits (P1–P6 and Q1–Q6), as well as the main discontinuities and hiatus are shown. Profile location given in Fig. 3. Abbreviations for discontinuities are in Fig. 6. Simplify sedimentary log for U1390 is included (see abbreviations in Fig. 5).

seismic profiles as an increase in reflection amplitudes (Fig. 7), which laterally correspond with an erosional surface along the axis of the Deep Algarve Basin (Figs. 6 and 7). These seismic characteristics also appear in profiles from the Cadiz, Rota and Sanlucar basins, but are less clear within the Doñana basin, due to its pervasive deformation. The transition does not appear in borehole log data (Fig. 9). The boundary at site U1387 is not consistently obvious in bio-, magneto- or cyclostratigraphic data. However Van der Schee et al. (2015) has recognized a significant change from hemipelagic muds to a sedimentary setting affected by bottom currents at around 826 mbsf in site U1387, which approximately coincides with the estimated depth for the aforementioned reflection. Above this boundary the sedimentation rate increases (from ~9.9 to 27.2 cm/ky in the Pliocene) and the sediment displays a greater relative siliciclastic component, an increase in the >63 μm grain size fraction, larger XRF Zr/Al ratios and lighter benthic oxygen isotope values.

5.3. Pliocene

The Pliocene succession was sampled at four sites from IODP Exp. 339 (U1386, U1387, U1389 and U1391, Fig. 5), as well as by the Algarve-2 and MPC-1 boreholes.

5.3.1. Early Pliocene to late Pliocene

Early Pliocene deposits appear as sheeted deposits with a general aggradational sedimentary stacking pattern and clear evidence of along- and across-processes interaction. These units correspond with the seismic units PI, PII and the lower part of PIII, which include a number of subunits (Table 1, Figs. 6–8). Seismic units vary between the Neogene basins in terms of seismofacies and sedimentation rates. In the Deep Algarve and Alentejo basins, these units exhibit well-stratified high amplitude reflections with good lateral continuity (PI and PII), which evolve

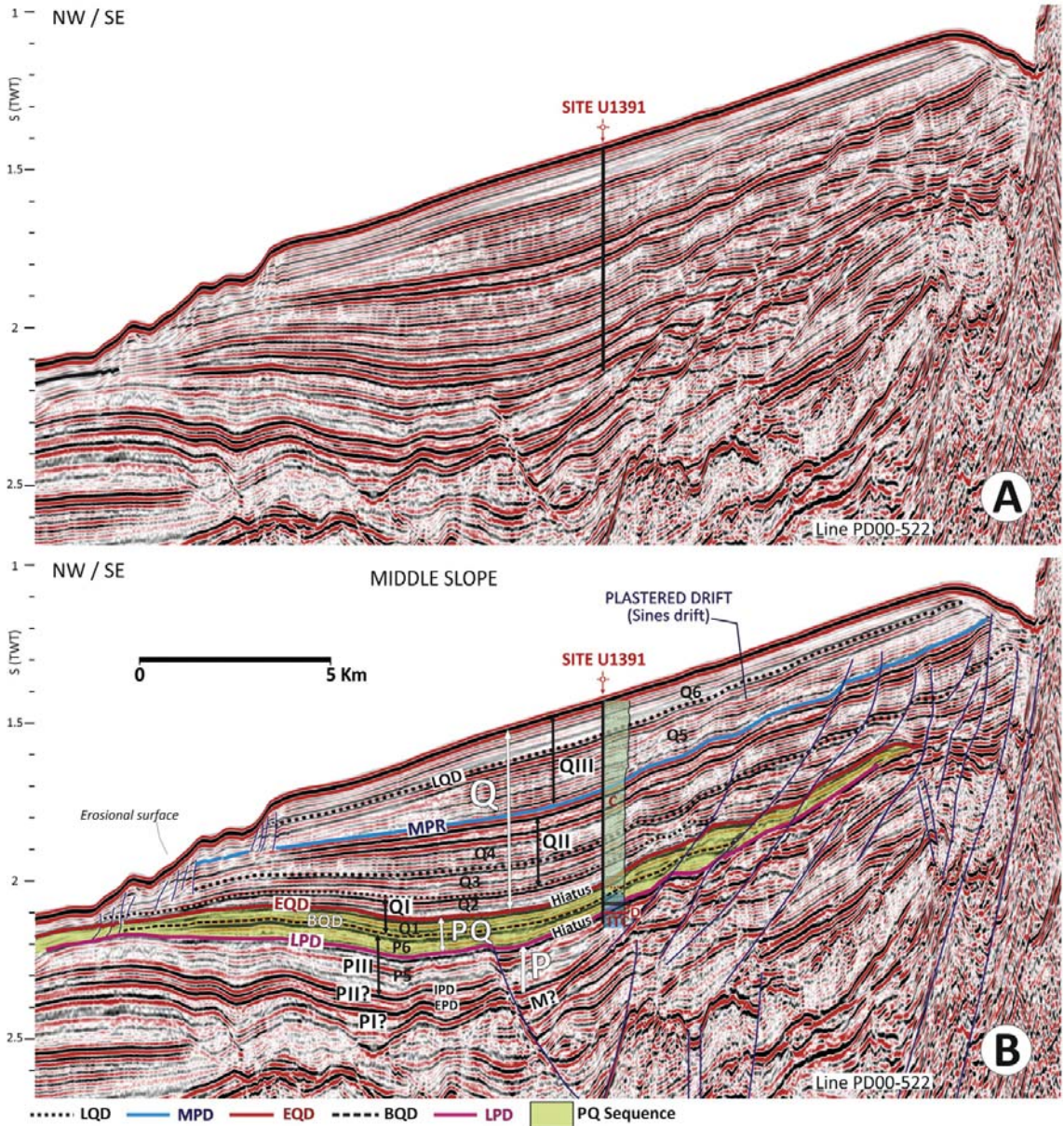


Fig. 14. Seismic profile (line PD00-522) of the Alentejo basin showing the Pliocene to Quaternary sedimentary record at site U1391. Major sequences (P, PQ and Q), units (PI–PIII and QI–QIII) and subunits (P1–P6 and Q1–Q6), as well as the main discontinuities and hiatus are shown (data courtesy of TGS-NOPEC Geophysical Company ASA). Profile location given Fig. 3. Abbreviations for discontinuities are in Fig. 6. Simplify sedimentary log for U1390 is included (see abbreviations in Fig. 5).

upward into deposits with weaker acoustic response (PIII). In basins hosting the AUGC, the early Pliocene deposits generally show the opposite seismofacies trend (Figs. 4 and 6–8), with a weak acoustic response at the base (PI and PII) strengthening progressively upward to PIII. Sedimentation rates are moderate in the Deep Algarve and Alentejo basins (~ 15 cm/ky), but higher in the Doñana basin (~ 25 cm/ky; site U1389). A prominent precession periodicity appears in log data from lower Pliocene records of the Gulf of Cadiz (Fig. 9). Sierro et al. (2000) first

identified these cycles, being interpreted as rhythmic changes in clay content, reflecting precession-induced oscillations in annual rainfall. At sites U1386 and U1387, Pliocene logs record a strong lateral supply of terrigenous material.

The boundary between PI and PII represents an onlap surface (Fig. 6), referred to as the early Pliocene Discontinuity (EPD). Drilling data has constrained this surface to an age of ca. 4.5 Ma. This boundary correlates with the LPR horizon described in Llave et al. (2001,

2007a, 2011); Hernández-Molina et al. (2002) and Marchès et al. (2010) and with the H1 discontinuity described in Roque et al. (2012) (Table 1).

Sub-unit P1 has a basal tabular sub-unit (P1) that appears as moderate reflection amplitudes above the M discontinuity (Fig. 7). These deposits were drilled at site U1387. Although core recovery from this site was poor, core material exhibited thin sandy beds (silty sand and sand, Fig. S2-A), with common glauconite and dolomite, and was interbedded with nannofossil muds and occasional debrites. Above these sandy deposits, P2 occurs as a lobate to tabular shaped sub-unit with high to very high amplitude reflections at its base (Figs. 6 and 7). These seismofacies match the well-cemented, gray to dark greenish gray sandstones observed in core material from site U1387 (Fig. S2-B), which is interbedded locally with dark greenish gray, silty/muddy fine sands. Above the sandstones, chaotic seismic facies occur as tabular to wedge-shaped bodies (Fig. 6). These appear in drilling data from both U1386 and U1387, and correspond to thickly-bedded, chaotic, bioclastic debrites and slump deposits that reach thicknesses of up to 5 m (Figs. 5 and S2-C and D). These intervals appear as high resistivity values in borehole logs (Fig. 9, Ducassou et al., 2016).

The consolidated sandstone layers represent a shift in lithofacies at about 5 Ma, which corresponds to the marked change in seismofacies apparent in seismic profiles (Figs. 6 and 7). Sandstones show moderate to poor sorting and well-rounded grains of green glauconite but no bioturbation (Fig. 10). Sandstone clasts are supported by a matrix of clay and silt-sized carbonate, which is partly replaced by calcite cement. Silty material constitutes 30% of the matrix, siliciclastics make up 40% of the matrix (mostly quartz with trace feldspars, heavy minerals, and mica) and biogenic carbonate clasts makes up 30% (foraminifers and shell fragments). Most of the quartz grains are angular, although some grains of rounded quartz, polycrystalline quartz, or quartzite are also present. Petrographic analysis of sandstone thin sections revealed grain-supported, medium-grained sand with calcite cement filling in pore spaces (Fig. 10). This sample had a high relative abundance of feldspathic material, reaching 25% in arkose samples, as reported by Stow et al. (2013b). Recent analysis by REPSOL using IODP samples (Caja et al., 2013) identified three petrofacies in these sandstones. Petrofacies 1 has variable rounded, medium-fine to very fine, very poorly sorted monocrySTALLINE quartz sandstones containing bioclasts of foraminifera and coral material (Fig. 10A). Petrofacies 3 consists of medium grained, rounded to well-rounded, poorly sorted sandstones with very little matrix and dominantly containing monocrySTALLINE and polycrySTALLINE quartz (Fig. 10C). Petrofacies 2 represents an intermediate between petrofacies 1 and 3 (Fig. 10B). All petrofacies share basic compositions that include K-feldspars, plagioclase, foraminifera and minor components of intrusive igneous rock fragments, carbonate, muscovite, hornblende, tourmaline and glauconite clasts (Fig. 10).

P11 consists of two subunits (P3 and P4, Table 1) bounded by an extensive, high-amplitude reflection surface dated at ~3.8 to 3.9 Ma (Figs. 6 and 7). Within the AUGC, this horizon represents a lithologic shift in which sedimentary input to the Cadiz basin assumed a sandier composition (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a) (Fig. 8). P11 and P12 are separated by a high amplitude horizon dated at ~3.6–3.5 Ma and interpreted as the intra Pliocene discontinuity (IPD) (Figs. 6, 7 and 8, Table 1). Above this surface, P13 assumes a sandier composition in the Cadiz basin (Fig. 8).

Nannofossil mud, silty mud and silty sand with biogenic carbonate comprise the dominant sedimentary facies found in P11 and P13 core material from site U1387 (Figs. 5 and S2). The relative abundance of nannofossil mud decreases significantly through the early Pliocene up to unit P11. This compositional shift is manifested as a seismic amplitude increases for the overlying unit P13 in the Algarve basin. Interbedded turbidite and contourite deposits commonly appear as parallel- to slightly inclined-laminations with normally graded bedding (Fig. S2). For the intra Pliocene discontinuity (IPD),

amplitude anomaly maps based on 3D seismic profiles of the Deep Algarve Basin, clearly show the common occurrence of turbiditic channels throughout the basin and their lateral association with contourite features (Fig. 11). Core material from P11 and P13 subunits consists of cyclical alternation of sediments with light and dark layers of 1 to 5 m thickness (Figs. 5 and S2-H). The base of each cycle generally consists of light-colored silty sands with biogenic carbonate and normal graded bedding that passes upward into light- or dark-colored muds (Stow et al., 2013b). In general, the mud facies constitute >80% of each cycle. The muds contain trace amounts of siliceous microfossils (e.g., radiolarians, diatoms, and sponge spicules). Lithologic contacts within a cycle are gradational or bioturbated, whereas the basal contact of the silty sands is sharp, erosional and sometimes bioturbated.

5.3.2. The late Pliocene hiatus

A regional discontinuity, termed the late Pliocene Discontinuity (LPD) appears as a laterally continuous, high amplitude reflection in the Deep Algarve basin (Figs. 6 and 7), basins covering the AUGC (Figs. 8, 12 and 13) and the Alentejo basin (Fig. 14). This discontinuity represents a local erosional surface with the hiatus increasing towards local highs. The hiatus appears at around 3.0–3.2 Ma in core material from site U1391, or as reduced rates of sedimentation at other sites. The amplitude anomalies map for the LPD in the Deep Algarve basin (Fig. 11) shows no turbiditic channels and an increase in reflectivity (associated to coarser grain sizes) in the southern part of the basin, near the basement highs. Dolostone deposits are closely linked to this hiatus (Figs. 5 and S2-I), indicating shallow diagenetic processes and appearing as high resistivity peaks in borehole logs (Fig. 9).

5.4. The late Pliocene–Quaternary

The Pliocene–Quaternary (PQ) sequence is bounded by the LPD at its base and by the early Quaternary discontinuity (EQD) along its upper surface. The sequence includes the upper part of the P13 seismic unit (P6) and the lower part of the Q1 seismic unit (Q1) (Table 1). PQ was sampled at sites U1389 and U1391 (Fig. 5), as well as by the Algarve-2 and MPC-1 boreholes, but did not appear in records from other sites. Sedimentation rates corresponding to this sequence reach ~25 cm/ky in the Doñana basin (site U1389) and 13 cm/ky in the Alentejo basin (site U1391). On seismic profiles, the EQD completely erodes the PQ sequence in areas near the upper slope, diapirs and basement highs. The sequence is continuous in the deepest part of the basins (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14). Erosional processes have resulted in a wedge or lenticular shaped PQ sequence. Seismic profiles show PQ as high amplitude reflections indicating sheeted drift deposits and enhanced acoustic response in upper parts of the sequence, especially in areas adjacent to highs and banks. Borehole logs for this sequence show cyclic swings in amplitude that are generally lower than those observed for the Q sequence, except when sampling the most proximal site, MPC-1 (Fig. 9). Logs from site U1390 shows low amplitude variation for the lower part of the sequence, increasing to higher amplitude variation for the upper parts of the sequence.

Sedimentary facies for the latest Pliocene (P6) in the Doñana basin (site U1389) consist of calcareous mud (Fig. S2-K). Bi-gradational sequences are scarce and normally graded bedding is absent. In the Alentejo basin (site U1391), above subunit P6, dominant calcareous muds alternate with biogenic muds (Fig. S2-L) and debrites. The earliest Pleistocene sedimentary record (Q1) is bounded at its base by a laterally extensive and high amplitude reflection, which corresponds to the basal Quaternary discontinuity (BQD). This surface correlates with the H3 discontinuity in Roque et al. (2012) and with horizons BQD and D1 in Llave et al. (2011) and Marchès et al. (2010), respectively (Table 1). Q1 is typically eroded by the EQD, but where observed, it appears as high- to very high-amplitude, laterally extensive seismic reflections that outline aggradational features and internal erosional truncations

(Figs. 6–8 and 12–14). Core material revealed lithologies that include nanofossil muds, calcareous silty muds, and silty sands with biogenic carbonate (Figs. 5 and S2). There are frequent bioturbation structures throughout.

5.4.1. The early Quaternary hiatus

The early Quaternary discontinuity (EQD) is the most prominent discontinuity in the study area. This horizon marks a shift in the sedimentation pattern, a considerable increase in sedimentation rates and the onset of the present-day contourite depositional and erosional features. The surface appears as a high-amplitude reflection outlining a penetrative erosional truncation surface that is especially evident in areas near the upper slope and adjacent to relief (diapirs and basement highs) (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14). Core material shows the hiatus occurs at 2 and 2.4 Ma at different sites. The volume of sediment eroded varies, but increases considerably towards highs. The surface evolves to a more conformable horizon basinwards. Several well-cemented dolomite horizons occur below the EQD at site U1387, where beds appear as high resistivity peaks in borehole logs (Fig. 9). Dolostones consist of almost pure dolomite (3–10 μm dolomite grains) but contain a few quartz grains, opaque minerals, and ghosts of siliceous microfossils, including radiolarians and diatoms (Fig. S2-1). The dolomite beds are overlain by turbidite sands (Figs. 5–7).

5.5. The Quaternary (<2 Ma)

The Quaternary sequence (Q) younger than 2 Ma consists of the upper part of the QI, as well as seismic units QII and QIII (Table 1). It unconformably overlies the Pliocene deposits and was sampled at all IODP Exp. 339 sites, partially by MPC-1, but did not appear at the Algarve-2 site. The primary contourite sedimentary facies include nanofossil mud, calcareous silty mud and silty bioclastic sand lithologies (Figs. 5 and S2). These three facies generally occur as bi-gradational sequences, the most complete of which coarsen upward from nanofossil muds to calcareous silty muds to silty bioclastic sands, and then fine upwards through calcareous silty mud to nanofossil mud (Fig. S2-N and O). Partial sequences are also common (Fig. S2-P and Q) and episodic turbidite intercalations with normally graded sequences occur at several sites (Fig. 5). As a result, some of the contourite muds retain a distinctive lamination, albeit discontinuous in character, whereas the thicker sands are especially clean and well sorted. The Q sequence appears in well logs from all sites. HSGR logs show the sequence as medium-amplitude cyclic swings, varying on decimeter to sub-meter scale, with no major steps in base levels (Fig. 9). High NGR values indicate layers with high clay content and low carbonate content, whereas lower NGR values indicate either the opposite and/or coarser grained clastic material characteristic of contourite beds. Prominent precessional and eccentricity periodicities appear in log data (Lofi et al., 2015, Fig. 9). HSGR log patterns correlate very well across sites sampled by IODP Exp. 339, enabling regional mapping of certain well expressed contourite beds (Lofi et al., 2015). Q1 sequences exhibit cycles consistent with orbital forcing at precessional and eccentricity-related timescales. The PQ and Pliocene intervals below also exhibit cyclic swings in both HSGR and resistivity logs, but with lower amplitude and at lower frequencies than those observed for the Q sequence (Fig. 9).

5.5.1. From 2 Ma to the middle Pleistocene

The early and middle Pleistocene deposits (upper part of QI and Q2) are bound by the EQD at their base and by the Mid Pleistocene Discontinuity (MPD) along the upper surface. Internal discontinuities distinguish minor subunits (Q2, Q3 and Q4, Table 1). These deposits have middle to high amplitude acoustic response but occur as different seismic facies among the Neogene basins. In the basin covering the AUGC, these deposits appear as high to very high amplitude acoustic responses with a well-layered internal structure, indicating sheeted drifts in aggradational configuration. The facies show a few thin intervals of lateral

progradation within the Cadiz and Doñana basins (Figs. 8, 12 and 13). In the Deep Algarve basin these deposits exhibit clear upslope progradation of certain well-stratified high amplitude and laterally continuous reflections (Figs. 6 and 7), which represent a mounded elongated and separated drift (Faro Drift). This mounded geometry evolves in a seaward direction to an aggradational geometry characteristic of a sheeted drift. A similar sequence of seismic facies appears within Q3 and Q4 in all the basins, wherein weak to transparent acoustic facies evolve upwards into a high-reflectivity facies truncated by a subtle erosional surface (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14).

Although these early and middle Pleistocene deposits are mud-dominated, they represent a period of increased sand and silt deposition and a marked increase in sediment supply to the slope (sedimentation rates of 25 and 40 cm/ky), relative to previous deposits (Fig. 5). Sedimentary facies of Q2 and Q3 record the interbedding of contourites with sandy and silty turbidites. The higher relative proportion of sand in contourites/turbidites explains the higher acoustic response of these subunits, especially in the Deep Algarve basin (Fig. 6). In the Doñana basin (sites U1389 and U1390) Q2 and Q3 are slightly enriched in the clay sized fraction (51%) and the sandy mud with biogenic carbonate as a subordinate lithology. These horizons at site U1389 exhibit fewer and finer-grained contourite sequences, all without sand, and higher proportions of biosiliceous sediment (diatoms and sponge spicules). These sediment types indicate a low-energy depositional environment. Silty and sandy units are generally poorly sorted, with subrounded to rounded detrital siliciclastic material. Detrital carbonate grains are generally subrounded to subangular, many with abraded margins indicative of reworking.

5.5.2. The mid Pleistocene discontinuity (MPD)

Another important change in the sedimentary stacking pattern occurs at the mid Pleistocene discontinuity (MPD). This discontinuity correlates with the MPR discontinuity (Mid-Pleistocene Revolution) identified by Hernández-Molina et al. (2002, 2006); Llave et al. (2007a, 2007b, 2011); Marchès et al. (2010) and Roque et al. (2012). Although it is clearly evident in seismic profiles (Figs. 6, 7, 8, 12, 13 and 14) as an erosional surface in areas adjacent to diapirs and basement highs, core material from the Doñana basin (sites U1389 and U1390) indicates it represents only a short hiatus of variable duration (around 0.7–0.9 Ma). In the Cadiz basin, the sheeted drifts become even sandier above the MPD. Thick sands also appear around this horizon in the Doñana basin (site U1390). The amplitude anomaly map for Deep Algarve basin (Fig. 11), show contourites features along slope in the vicinity of the MPD horizon.

5.5.3. Middle Pleistocene to Holocene

Middle Pleistocene to Holocene deposits (QIII, Table 1) overlie the MPD at their base and extend up to the present-day seafloor. In the seismic profiles, they exhibit different seismofacies across different Neogene basins (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14). In basins covering the AUGC, they appear as a sandy sheeted drift (Cadiz basin) that transitions to muddy sheeted and mounded drifts in a northwesterly direction. These are then incised by contourite channels in the Doñana and Deep Algarve basins. The deposits have a well-layered internal acoustic structure, very high to massive acoustic response (with a few very high reflections), aggradational seismic configuration and abundant internal erosional surfaces (Figs. 8 and 12–13). In the Deep Algarve basin, these deposits exhibit a weaker acoustic response, with a sigmoidal to oblique reflection configuration suggestive of upslope progradation in proximal areas of the slope, and parallel to sub-parallel reflectors, outlining enhanced mounded morphology (Figs. 6 and 7). Laterally, the mounds features transition into an aggradational pattern characteristic of a large sheeted drift. Sedimentation rates for these deposits are moderate (~30 cm/ky) in the Deep Algarve and Alentejo basins (sites U1386, U1387 and U1391), to extremely high in the Cadiz (60 cm/ky at site U1388) and Doñana basins, where the highest sedimentation

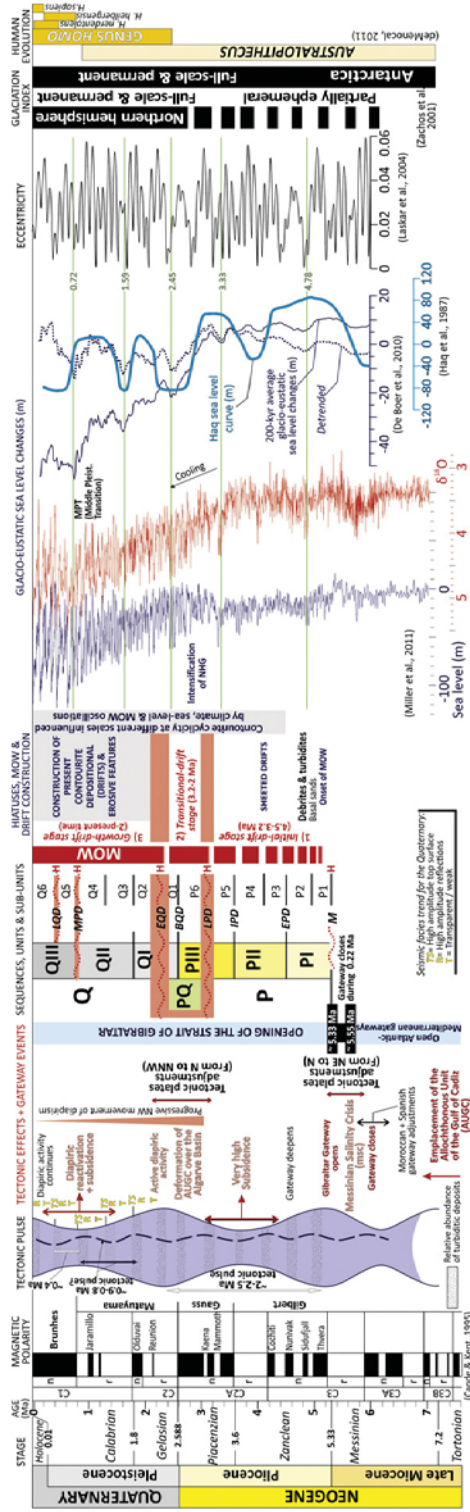


Fig. 16. Neogene and Quaternary CDS evolution in the Gulf of Cadiz and off-west Portugal. Hiatuses, sequences, units and sub-units and the main stages of the contourite depositional systems are integrated with main tectonic and sedimentary pulses. Tectonic pulsing arises from changes in the interaction between the African and European tectonic plates. Glacio-eustatic sea-level changes, eccentricity cycles and major climatic and human evolution steps are also included. See text for further details. Data from Candé and Kent, 1995 and De Boer et al., 2010.

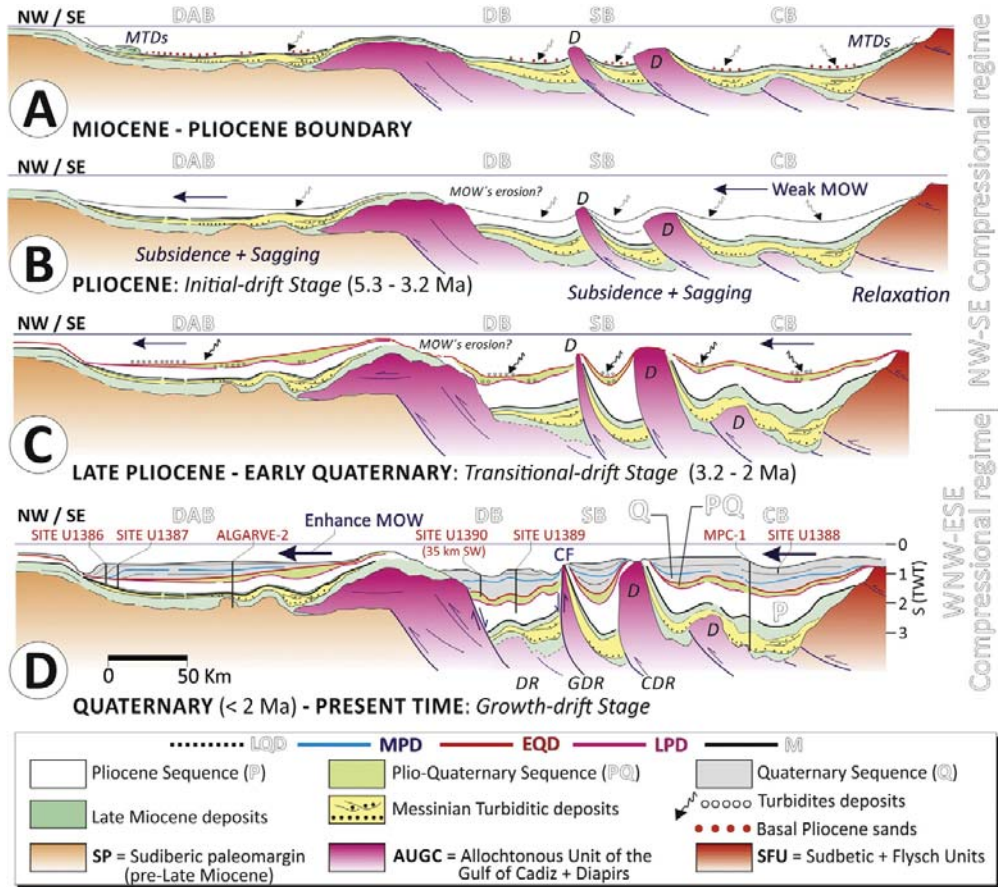


Fig. 17. Simplified evolutionary cartoons (not at scale) for the sedimentary evolution since the late Miocene to the present time of Neogene basins in the Gulf of Cadiz. After a compressional period associated with the late Miocene and early Pliocene (<4.5 Ma), two major compressional events affecting to the Neogene basins at 3.2–3 Ma and 2–2.3 Ma help constrain the three main stages of CDS evolution. The stages include: 1) the initial-drift stage (5.33–3.2 Ma) with a weak MOW, 2) a transitional-drift stage (3.2–2 Ma) and 3) a growth-drift stage (2 Ma-present time) with enhanced MOW circulation into the Atlantic and associated contourite development due to greater bottom-current velocity. See text for further details and discussion. Abbreviations for discontinuities are in Fig. 6. CF, Cadiz Fault; D, Diapirs. Legend for the sedimentary basins: DAB = Deep Algarve basin; CB = Cadiz basin; DB = Doñana basin; SB = Sanlúcar basin.

rates were observed (> 100 cm/ky at site U1390). Sheeted drifts in the Doñana basin are highly deformed due to tectonic activity.

Internal discontinuities within QIII allow identification of two internal subunits (Q5 and Q6). These are bounded by the late Quaternary Discontinuity (LQD) discontinuity, locally identified as a short hiatus around 0.3–0.6 Ma in the Doñana basin (site U1390). A coarse layer is observed in association with the LQD in the Doñana basin, as is a shift from very poorly sorted below, to poorly sorted sediment above the discontinuity. The LQD correlates with the H5 discontinuity reported by Roque et al. (2012) and with the ID12 and D3 horizons identified by Llave et al. (2001, 2007a, 2011) and Marchès et al. (2010) (Table 1), respectively.

Sedimentary facies for QIII vary depending of the basin, with contourites as the dominant deposits, occurring as bi-gradational sequences, but also as top- and/or base-cut-out sequences (Fig. S2). Cadiz basin sediment from site U1388 shows sand, silty sand and silty muds as the principle lithologies from this horizon. Core material also includes numerous beds of calcareous sand and sand with biogenic carbonate (Fig. S2-R) reaching thicknesses of up to several meters. This

subunit also includes many intervals of mud with biogenic carbonate that exceed thicknesses of 15 m. In the Doñana basin, sedimentary facies consist primarily of calcareous mud, but also include silty mud, sandy mud, and silty sand with biogenic carbonate. In the Alentejo basin, sandy contourites and alternating reddish/brownish and greenish gray/greenish calcareous mud make up QIII. Subunits Q5 and Q6 exhibit sequences of seismic facies similar to those of Q3 and Q4, wherein weak to transparent acoustic facies transition upwards into high-reflectivity facies truncated by an erosional surface (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14). Drilling data from the Deep Algarve basin indicate that the weak to transparent seismic facies represent a mud dominated contourite succession that includes a higher proportion of nannofossil muds and calcareous silty muds. The greater reflectivity of overlying facies corresponds to increasing grain size and detrital content and to decreasing proportions of biogenic carbonate.

5.5.4. Quaternary Cyclostratigraphic analysis

A well-developed cyclostratigraphic pattern on normalized HSGR logs time-series is recognized in sites U1386 and U1387

(Figs. 9 and 15), showing high-significant cycles (higher than 99% CL) at different frequencies and periods. In general both sites show similar, common peaks, located in the following four frequency bands (Fig. 15):

- At the higher frequency band, two main peaks at 24.5 ky and 22 ky are registered in site U1387C that could be correlated with that at 23 ky in site U1386C (Fig. 15B).
- At the middle frequency band, a common cycle at 44 ky is observed, as well as one at 55 ky in site U1386C (15A).
- At the middle-lower frequency band, two main peaks at 85 ky and 105 ky were registered at site U1386C that could be correlated with that at 96 ky in site U1387C (Fig. 15A).
- At the lower frequency band several peaks from 0.4 Ma to 2 Ma are observed at both sites. The significant peak at 0.8 Ma is only registered in site U1387 (Fig. 15C).

Detailed analysis of this cyclostratigraphic results for site U1386 reveal slight differences in compared to site U1387 in all but the higher frequency bands. The Site U1386 records a reduced Quaternary sedimentary record since sub-unit Q3 pinches out close to the site and its younger record above the discontinuity MPD is affected by synsedimentary faults (Fig. 15D).

5.6. Tectonic considerations

The late Miocene, Pliocene and Quaternary sediments are deformed by folding and faulting. Chronostratigraphic constraints presented in this work suggest asynchronous timing for such deformation events. At a local scale they are related mainly to 1) emplacement of the AUGC in the Gulf of Cadiz and Deep Algarve, 2) fault-activity, some of them bounding structural highs, 3) salt flowage. In fact, local deformation is evident from folding and faulting of late Miocene to Quaternary sedimentary cover overlying diapirs and structural highs. The structural grain of some of these features indicates continuous deformation up to present.

Late Miocene and Pliocene sediments overlying the AUGC are folded, in some cases slightly due to blind-thrust. These sediments are locally offset by the reactivation of the some AUGC imbricated thrust-faults (Fig. 4). Uplift of structural highs, such as the case of the Guadalquivir Bank, has also deformed the overlying sedimentary cover (Fig. 4). Basins covering the AUGC and Deep Algarve basin are faulted, primarily by NE and NW trending normal faults (Figs. 4, 6–8 and 12–13). Normal faults affecting the Alentejo basin trend primarily in a N–S direction (Fig. 14), cutting through the Pliocene and Quaternary. In this basin the sediments overlying LQD are underformed.

Salt flowage seems to be one of the main mechanisms leading to folding and faulting of the late Miocene through Quaternary in Deep Algarve, Doñana, Cadiz and Sanlucar basins. Inverted reactivated salt diapirs are found in the Algarve basin nearby the Diego Cão Channel (Fig. 6), probably induced either by regional shortening or local reactivation of a pre-existent normal fault of Mesozoic rifting phases. In the same basin, the presence of deeper salt domes is inferred from folded sediments, defining an asymmetrical anticline topped by EQD and a symmetrical one topped by MPD. Synkinematic sediments (seismic units P1–P5 and Q1) are thicker on the flanks than on the top of the salt dome indicating the upward movement of the salt. The associated rim syncline constituted a major local depocenter, and is generally thicker in the SE sector. Sediment folding has been attenuated since the deposition of unit Q2. In the Doñana Basin, sediments from Pliocene through Late Quaternary have been folded into symmetrical anticlines and synclines (Fig. 12). These structures are probably residual highs related to interdomal evolution occurring well below the Pliocene–Quaternary sequence, as there is no significant thickness variation of the seismic units. Contourite channels, such as the Huelva channel, have developed along the axis of the rim synclines. Diapiric ridge crests have been truncated by LQD, which marks the end of the folding phase,

since younger sediments seem to be undeformed (Fig. 12). However, other NE–SW diapiric ridges are outcropping in the Doñana Basin, Sanlucar Basin and Cadiz Basin, such as the Guadalquivir and Cadiz Diapiric Ridges, suggesting a recent activity formed these structures. The upward salt flowage in the Doñana diapiric ridge occurred mainly between LPD and MPD. This induced compensatory subsidence and created rim synclines bounding the diapir, which acted as major depocenters during this phase (Fig. 4). Rising-up of salt in the Doñana diapiric ridge seems to have stopped, or at least decreased, during late Quaternary as marked by LQD (Fig. 12).

Two kinds of normal faults have been identified in close relation to diapiric domes and ridges: stretch faults and growth faults. In the Algarve basin the apex of salt diapirism has been extended by stretching faults, which affected the entire Pliocene and Quaternary sedimentary column, and almost reached the seafloor. Several stretch faults developed in the apex of the Doñana diapiric ridge (Fig. 13) cutting through Pliocene and Quaternary sediments, although showing insignificant offsets. These extensional structures can be created by local stresses in the apex of diapirs due to salt flowage, independently of the regional tectonic regime. Some of these faults reached the seafloor and formed stair-step scarps (Fig. 13). The majority of stretch faults seem to be contemporaneous to diapir growth and sedimentation (e.g. Figs. 4 and 6) but some show evidences of posterior activity, cutting through undeformed sediments (e.g. Fig. 13). In the Cadiz basin, Quaternary sediments are locally affected by growth-faults, probably related to lateral salt flowage in a reactivated diapir (Fig. 8). Some of these faults are still active offsetting the present-day seafloor (Fig. 8). Growth-fault reactivation is recorded by EQD, with movement occurring largely until LQD and decreasing through present. Several episodes of fault movement created accommodation space in the SSW block, allowing the development of thicker Quaternary units.

Deformation of the early to late Pliocene (P) sequence varies in different basins. Basins covering the AUGC primarily exhibit folding, due to the diapiric structures and uplift of highs (Figs. 12, 13 and 14).

Two deformation events related to the LPD and EQD also affected the late Pliocene to early Quaternary sequence (PQ), mainly resulting in diapir growth and fault reactivation. Deformation appears as frequent faults and as reactivation of previous faults (evident from offset trends) and folds. Folded structures however are broader than those affecting early Pliocene sediments (Figs. 4, 6–8 and 12–14).

The Quaternary sequence (Q) is also locally deformed, particularly in areas adjacent to structural highs and diapirs. These areas show folds, faults and features indicating reactivation of blind-thrusts (Figs. 4, 6–8 and 12–14). The major, active regional scale faults operating in the Gulf of Cádiz are the WNW–ESE SWIM faults, which apply dextral strike-slip or normal deformation to the seafloor, as well as their conjugates NE–SW structures. The Doñana basin records more intensive deformation of sediments deposited after the middle Pleistocene.

6. Discussion

6.1. The Miocene–Pliocene boundary

The Miocene–Pliocene boundary (M discontinuity) represents a major stratigraphic surface within the Neogene basins along the SIM, but one whose expression varies laterally. Nelson et al. (1993) and Maldonado et al. (1999) described its basin-scale characteristics in basins covering the AUGC from single and multi-channel seismic profiles. In basins covering the AUGC, and in particular the Cadiz basin, this boundary forms a noticeable truncation surface clearly evident in seismic profile (Fig. 4). Along the flanks of the basement highs and diapirs it is very clear, but it become less obvious in central areas. Onshore (outcrop) expressions of this part of the basin show unconformable deposition of Pliocene sediments over late Miocene and AUGC sediments (IGME, 1990, 1994; Aguirre et al., 2010). The Fuente del Gallo north section (Cadiz, Spain; Figs. 3 and S3), provides a good example of this,

wherein early Pliocene sands unconformably overly upper Miocene (Messinian) marls (Aguirre et al., 2010). Our analysis of marls below the unconformity identified abundant *Globorotalia menardii* form 4. The last common occurrence of this foram species was recorded in North Atlantic (Sierro et al., 1993) and Mediterranean sediments during the late Tortonian age (7.51 Ma; Hilgen et al., 1995). Other Tortonian species such as *Globorotalia suteræ* are also present in marls beneath the unconformity. Horizons above the unconformity (Fig. S3) contain *Globorotalia margaritæ* but not *Globorotalia puncticulata*. Because the first occurrence of *G. puncticulata* has been astrochronologically dated at 4.52 Myr (Lourens et al., 2004), we interpret these horizons to be early Pliocene in age, specifically dating between 5.33 (base of the Pliocene) and 4.52 Ma. However, a latest Messinian age cannot be entirely ruled out since *G. margaritæ* was common at that time. The Miocene–Pliocene boundary is thus marked by a hiatus and lithological shift. Furthermore, Messinian deposits are all but absent from the section. A coeval lithological shift appears at the Miocene–Pliocene boundary in sediments from the Gulf of Cadiz continental shelf, where channel-filled turbidites are replaced by hemipelagites (Sierro et al., 2000, 2008). More inland, in the Guadalquivir basin the Miocene Pliocene boundary is identified by a pronounced reflector that separates Messinian seismic units with dominant northward progradation from Pliocene ones in a southward direction (Ledema, 2000). The Miocene–Pliocene boundary is a conformable surface in the central part of the Deep Algarve basin at site U1387, only marked by local erosional along the axis of the basin and along its margins. The contact between the Caela (marine) and Ludo (mainly fluvial) formations marks the approximate area of the Miocene–Pliocene boundary in Algarve basin outcrop (onshore). Moura and Boski (1999) and Cachão and da Silva (2000) interpreted a hiatus of 2.5 Ma and found the Messinian section absent from this part of the study area. The Miocene–Pliocene boundary has not yet been identified in the Alentejo basin, where the middle Miocene–Quaternary section consists of one big unit (C3) (Alves et al., 2009; Pereira et al., 2011; Pereira and Alves, 2013). In many areas of the Mediterranean continental margins, the Miocene–Pliocene boundary appears as a prominent erosive surface referred to as the ‘M reflector’ (Hsü et al., 1973; Ryan et al., 1973; Lofi et al., 2011). It is typically interpreted to represent penetrative desiccation and erosion during the Messinian salinity crisis (5.6–5.5 Ma) and the subsequent Zanclean flooding event (5.33 Ma) (e.g., Bache et al., 2009; Garcia-Castellanos et al., 2009; Estrada et al., 2011; Roveri et al., 2014; Flecker et al., 2015).

Above the Miocene–Pliocene boundary, fine sand deposits are found in units PI and PII. Onshore outcrops, adjacent to the Cadiz Basin, host extensive deposits of similar sands (e.g., see Fig. S3), which also appear regionally in the Neogene Guadalquivir foreland basin where they are described as glauconite and Huelva sands (Sierro et al., 1991, 1996; Gonzalez-Delgado et al., 2013), as well as in the basins covering the AUGC (IGME, 1990, 1994).

Several authors have interpreted the local erosional character of the Miocene–Pliocene boundary along the SIM as resulting from Messinian sea-level fall at about 5.5 Ma (Riaza and Martinez del Olmo, 1996; Nelson et al., 1993; Maldonado et al., 1999; Hernández-Molina et al., 2002). Hoddel et al. (2001) however demonstrated that sea-level began to rise below this boundary, and argued that the section lacked evidence of any other glacio-eustatic fall associated with the Miocene–Pliocene boundary. Sierro et al. (2008) and Flecker et al. (2015) found little evidence of major sea-level variations. These authors therefore proposed tectonic activity as a driving factor in boundary-related depositional changes. Results presented here support this hypothesis, as they describe compressional deformation of the AUGC and areas near the Strait of Gibraltar up until 4.5 Ma.

6.2. Sedimentary stacking pattern

The Pliocene to Quaternary sedimentary record in the Neogene basins shows a clear hierarchy of sedimentary units. Major sequences

PI–PII and QI–QIII units consist of P1–P6 and Q1–Q6 subunits, respectively. These subunits represent sedimentary cycles at different scales that are bounded by major and minor discontinuities. Seismic profiles show that the sedimentary thicknesses of Pliocene units and subunits are less than those of Quaternary units and subunits (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14). Shifts in sedimentary thickness coincide with major increases in sedimentation rates occurring above the early Quaternary discontinuity (EQD) at 2–2.4 Ma. A more pronounced change in sedimentary thickness occurred both above and below the Mid Pleistocene Discontinuity (MPD, Figs. 6–8 and 12–14). The estimated stratigraphic ages of around 0.8–0.9 Ma and 0.4–0.5 Ma for the subunits agrees well with cycles identified in the spectral analysis of HSGR logs (Fig. 15).

Cyclostratigraphic analysis of sites U1386 and U1387 evidences the incidence of an orbital control in the range of the Milankovitch temporal cycles (Berger, 1977, 1978; Berger et al., 1989). Thus, registered cycles at 22 ky, 23 ky and 24.5 ky can be assigned to precession, those at 44 ky and 55 ky to the obliquity signal, while cycles of 85 ky, 96 ky, and 105 ky fit well with the short-term eccentricity. These data confirm the forcing of precession and eccentricity on deposition after the discontinuity MPD (as previously reported by Llave et al., 2001, 2007a and Hernández-Molina et al., 2002, 2006), and probably a comparatively minor incidence of the obliquity-induced cyclicity (Lofi et al., 2015).

In respect to the lower frequency band, that constitutes those cycles with a periodicity higher than that of the short-term eccentricity cycle (> 100 ky), and orbital influence can be also envisaged. The common cycle at similar periods of 406 ky and 420 ky, can be clearly correlated with the well-known long-term eccentricity cycle of approximately 0.4 Ma (Berger, 1977, 1978). These cycles show a high stability and have been used as a basic calibration period for cyclostratigraphy (Laskar et al., 2004, 2011; Hinnov and Hilgen, 2012). The peaks recognized around 2 Ma (Fig. 15C), could be tentatively correlated with the approximately 2.4 Ma eccentricity term. Modulation of the 0.4 Ma components of the eccentricity shows actually a dominant component at a period of around 2.4 Ma related with Earth–Mars secular resonance (Laskar et al., 2004, 2011; Hinnov, 2000; Hinnov and Hilgen, 2012). This cycle has been also frequently identified in the geological record as a long-term cycle, from the Triassic, with periods of around 1.6 to 2 Ma (see Boulila et al., 2012 and Ikeda and Tada, 2013 for recent reviews). However, differences in the periodicities corresponding to the modulated eccentricity at around 2.4 My, and those here registered at around 1.7 Ma and 2.0 Ma could reveal the incidence of different driving processes that induce new signals or distort the 2.4 Ma orbital one. The cycle at around 0.8 Ma registered in site U1387C has been related to a possible non linear combination of other periods or a double mode of the eccentricity period (Ripepe and Fischer, 1991; Kashiwaya et al., 1998). The absence of these cycles at site U1386 could be associated to local conditions disturbing its record (for example faulting, Fig. 6), although other global signals at higher (0.4 Ma) and lower (2 Ma) frequencies have been recognized.

These lower frequency cycles correspond with 3rd- and 4th-order asymmetric sequences identified in middle and high-resolution seismic profiles by Llave et al. (2001, 2007a) and Hernández-Molina et al. (2002, 2006). Sedimentary cycles can be identified regionally at seismic scale in all the Neogene basins. The Quaternary sequence shows the cycles more clearly than the Pliocene sequence, however. The cyclicity is evident as a consistent facies trend within each subunit that includes (a) a transparent zone at the base, (b) smooth, parallel reflectors of moderate-to-high amplitude in the upper section and (c) a continuous, high amplitude, erosive surface at the top (Fig. 6, 7 and 15D). This facies trend has previously been documented within the Faro-Albufeira Drift (Llave et al., 2001, 2006; Stow et al., 2002b), the Porcupine Drift (Van Rooij et al., 2003) and the Eirik Drift (Hunter et al., 2007). According to IODP Exp. 399 sampling, weak seismic facies at the unit scale (–0.8–0.9 Ma) correspond to mud dominated sediments. The higher reflectivity facies above correspond to an increase in grain size and detrital content, and a decrease in biogenic carbonate. Most of the sandy

turbidite deposits during the Quaternary are coincident with the upper reflective part in each sequence, but also with a higher number of coarser (sandy) contourites (Fig. 15D). Preliminary results from IODP Exp. 399 identify turbiditic deposits having similar periodicities (Stow et al., 2013b) in the upper and higher reflectivity part of the unit (Figs. 6 and 7). Whyte and Lovell (1997) described similar turbidite deposition cycles in North Sea deposits. Future works with higher resolution should clarify this interesting interrelation between along- and across sedimentary processes and products at these scales.

6.3. The significance of hiatuses

Regionally extensive erosional discontinuities are often used to identify contourites (Faugères et al., 1999; Rebesco et al., 2014). This is the case along the SIM, where discontinuities evident in seismic profiles as high amplitude reflections represent key, basin-scale stratigraphic horizons and important transitions in sedimentary stacking patterns (Table 1 and Figs. 4, 6–8 and 12–14). The M, LPD and EQD in particular mark angular erosional unconformities along basin margins and areas surrounding highs and diapirs. Discontinuities grade laterally into conformable contacts towards the basin central areas. This demonstrates that the thickness eroded increases towards highs implicating uplift as a mechanism for erosion. In cases of more pronounced hiatuses, uplift appears to occur coeval to enhanced bottom current velocity. The association of hiatuses, discontinuities, correlative conformities and changes in sedimentation rate represents a major finding of IODP Exp. 339 (Stow et al., 2013b; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b; Lofi et al., 2015). The two most significant discontinuities in the sedimentary record after the Miocene–Pliocene boundary (M), are associated with LPD (3–3.2 Ma) and EQD (2–2.4 Ma) (Figs. 4, 6–8 and 12–14).

The late Pliocene hiatus, around 3–3.2 Ma (LPD), suggest a compressional tectonic event along the SIM. This coincides with an intra-Pliocene unconformity previously recognized in onshore outcrop of the Betic–Rif Cordillera (Montenat et al., 1990; Aguirre et al., 1995; Azdimousa et al., 2006), including sections between El Puntalejo and Cabo Roche adjacent to the Cadiz Basin (Cadiz, Spain; Fig. S4). The unconformity appears in this area between marine sands (Unit I) and the littoral Unit III, as defined by Aguirre (1991, 1992, 1995) and Aguirre et al. (1993, 1995, 2010). Our analysis showed that just beneath the unconformity, yellow sand deposits are found containing *G. punctulata* and with *G. margaritae*, which constrains the sediment to a 3.81–4.52 Ma age range, based on the latest occurrence of *G. margaritae*, as astronomically dated by Lourens et al. (2004). The unconformity could thus correlate with a late Pliocene discontinuity, as has been proposed by Aguirre et al. (1995, 2010). The hiatus is coeval with tectonic activity in the Betic Cordillera (Montenat et al., 1990), but also with thrusting of the allochthonous unit on top of the Moroccan Meseta (Flinch and Vail, 1998), and the most intensive phase of AUGC emplacement in the Algarve basin (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b). These events could also occur synchronously with uplift of the Serra do Caldeirão in the Algarve basin (Dias and Cabral, 1997, 2000).

For the early Quaternary, the EQD prominently marks a hiatus representing a major shift in sedimentation between 2 and 2.4 Ma (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14), and the probable onset of a new compressional event. This hiatus appears in the Cadiz basin (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a), and may correlate with the extensive erosional surface observed in adjacent onshore outcrops (Fig. S4). The onshore unconformity is overlain by extensive continental facies deposits (Zazo et al., 1985; IGME, 1990, 1994; Aguirre, 1991, 1992, 1995; Aguirre et al., 1993, 1995, 2010), and shows the end of sediment supply from any Guadalquivir river branch (Zazo et al., 1985; Aguirre, 1995) towards the Cadiz basin. The EQD also coincides with hiatuses observed in the northeast Atlantic between Gibraltar and equatorial areas. These form coevally with slump facies indicative of tectonic instabilities (Stein et al., 1986). In areas that experienced higher erosion, the EQD incised the entire late Pliocene section and base of the Quaternary. The

only hiatus longer than the EQD in these regions is the interval spanning about 1.4 Ma, incising sediment from 3.4 to 2 Ma in the Deep Algarve basin sections sampled at sites U1386 and U1387. A similar hiatus appears in the Alboran Sea section (Comas et al., 1996; Martínez-García et al., 2013).

Two other younger and minor discontinuities within the Quaternary record (Figs. 6–8 and 12–14) represent key stratigraphic horizons recording erosion and possible renewed tectonic activity at around 0.7–0.9 Ma for MPD (MIS 19–17) (Lofi et al., 2015) and between 0.3–0.6 Ma (MIS 11 and 13) for the LQD. Borehole log data record the MPD as a short hiatus within the Doñana basin that also affected the sedimentation rate at site U1391 (Lofi et al., 2015). A similar hiatus, coeval with tectonic activity occurs in sediments of the northeast Atlantic (Stein et al., 1986). The LQD corresponds to a hiatus in sediment from sites U1390 and U1391 (Lofi et al., 2015), and with a condensed interval in sediment from site U1385 (Hodell et al., 2015).

The aforementioned hiatuses coincide with sedimentary and paleoceanographic changes and regional tectonic activity. Conceptual depositional models for foreland basins (e.g., DeCelles and Giles, 1996; Einsele, 2000; Nichols, 2009) suggest that turbidites develop during initial stages after the thrusting, Messinian turbidites forming after the Tortonian emplacement of the AUGU likely reflect this phase of development (Riaza and Martínez del Olmo, 1996; Sierrro et al., 1996; Ledesma, 2000). Hiatuses associated with turbidites demonstrate that similar sequences of events apparently occurred in the early Pliocene, late Pliocene and early Quaternary. These sedimentary features also indicate minor pulses of westward compression recorded in deformed wedges of the AUGC.

6.4. Evolutionary model and paleoceanographic implications

Neogene basins along the SIM record the complex interplay of tectonics, climate, sea-level and bottom current circulation from the latest Miocene to present-day. Around 50 km of convergence occurred in a NW direction between the Eurasian and African plates in the vicinity of the Alboran Sea and Gulf of Cadiz during this period (Dewey et al., 1989).

Neogene basin initiation began at the end of the early Miocene, as a consequence of downward flexure of pre-existing basement in response to loading of thrustured and imbricated overburden of Betic and Rif orogen (Sierrro et al., 1996, 2008; Berástegui et al., 1998; Fernández et al., 1998; Maldonado et al., 1999; Ledesma, 2000; Roque, 2007; Terrinha et al., 2009; Vergés and Fernández, 2012). Tectonic inversion of Mesozoic extensional structures occurred simultaneously in the Deep Algarve and Alentejo basins (Terrinha et al., 2002; Roque, 2007). During the Tortonian, the regional compressional regime shifted towards a NW–SE direction, which remobilized the primarily westward emplacement of the AUGC (Maldonado et al., 1999; Medialdea et al., 2004; Sierrro et al., 2008). Around the Tortonian–Messinian boundary (~7.2 Ma), regional tectonic activity caused narrowing of the Betic gateways (Fig. 16) between the Atlantic and Mediterranean (Sierrro et al., 2008) and extensive turbidite deposition within Neogene basins (Riaza and Martínez del Olmo, 1996; Ledesma, 2000). Subsequent tectonic uplift in the Guadalquivir basin and Gibraltar area triggered the final closure of the Rifian and Iberian gateways (~6 Ma), isolation of the Mediterranean Sea and onset of the Messinian Salinity Crisis at 5.55 Ma (Hsü et al., 1973). This was a short-lived event that ended with opening of the Strait of Gibraltar at about 5.33 Ma (Duggen et al., 2003; Roveri et al., 2014; Flecker et al., 2015).

These events preceding Pliocene and Quaternary deposition conditioned the asymmetric shape of basins overlying the AUGC to an eastward deepening geometry. The results described here suggest this phase of tectonic activity was associated with the Miocene–Pliocene boundary and ended by 4.5 Ma. Younger Pliocene and Quaternary compressional events between 3.2–3 Ma and 2–2.3 Ma further pinpoint

three stages of subsequent development and evolution of the contourite depositional systems (Figs. 16 and 17).

I. Initial-drift stage (Pliocene, from 5.3–3.2 Ma);

This stage began at the end of the compressional period associated with the late Miocene and early Pliocene. In the Deep Algarve basin, sandier deposits at the base of the Pliocene formed first, and were immediately followed by extensive mass transport deposits (MTDs). These included sands, sandstones, debrites and slumps. Based on sedimentologic and petrofacies analysis, the sandstones are categorized as turbidites and debrites. Like other MTDs, these derive primarily from the adjacent shelf and upper slope (Ducassou et al., 2016), which contributed quartz, lithics and carbonates. MTDs suggest re-sedimented facies and margin instability until 4.5 Ma (Fig. 16). These deposits are coeval with early Pliocene debrites (>4.5 Ma) that outcrop in areas adjacent to the Cadiz basin (Fig. S3), and with gravitational collapse breccias described from the Strait of Gibraltar by Esteras et al. (2000) and Blanc (2002). Thrusting and westward compression of the frontal areas of deformed AUGC wedges compressed the basin during late Miocene and created several isolated basins (Cadiz, Sanlúcar and Doñana). Regional depocenters migrated westward, and underwent subsidence, sagging and diapiric processes, as evidenced by morphological highs and diapiric ridges parallel to thrust structures. Fragmentation of Miocene basins into minor complex basins was by this point likely sufficient for development of piggyback basins (Figs. 16 and 17).

These events coincided with a major sea-level highstand (Haq et al., 1987; Raymo et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2011), evident from early Pliocene marine deposition in onshore localities (IGME, 1990, 1994; Sierro et al., 1996; Salvany et al., 2011). These events generated pronounced angular unconformities and a major hiatus between late Miocene and early Pliocene deposition near the Strait of Gibraltar (Figs. 4 and S3). This truncation may document folding and uplift due to the westward thrusting of Subbetic and Flysch units. Uplift occurred onshore, adjacent to the Algarve basin Cachão and da Silva (2000), probably due to the regional forebulge position during this time. These events, along with widespread tectonic activity, compression and slope instability relate to late Miocene tectonic uplift in the Guadalquivir basin and Strait of Gibraltar area, the final closure of the Rifian and Betic gateways at 5.96 Ma, the Messinian Salinity crisis (MSC) (Duggen et al., 2003; CIESM, 2008; Flecker et al., 2015), and ultimately, the opening of the Strait of Gibraltar (Maldonado et al., 1999; Estrada et al., 2011), which caused the Zanclean flooding (García-Castellanos et al., 2009; Estrada et al., 2011). Similar compressional stages have been determined in the Alboran Sea (Martínez-García et al., 2013) and other areas of the Mediterranean (Cloetingh et al., 1990). These events are attributed to a major reorganizational phase of the Africa-Eurasia plate boundary. During this time, compression shifted from NE to N (Duggen et al., 2003; Sierro et al., 2008), the Betic-Rif Cordillera basins experienced differential subsidence and the Gibraltar area was uplifted (Sierro et al., 2008).

These compressional events (>4.5 Ma) were followed by a period of relaxation, initiated by the elastic response to thrust loading. This period of sagging and high subsidence rates coincided with local extensional collapse affecting the AUGC (Maldonado et al., 1999; Medialdea et al., 2004, 2009), which likely deepened the Strait of Gibraltar.

The opening of the Strait of Gibraltar had major paleoceanographic implications. Bottom current indicators however show little evidence of this event. Indicators also suggest that MOW intensity was relatively weak during this time (Stow et al., 2013b; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b; Van der Schee et al., 2015). The MOW strengthened progressively after 4.5 Ma as indicated by the development of the large, muddy sheeted drifts in the Neogene basins recorded during PI, PII and the lower part of PIII units. Periodic turbidites are observed in these early Pliocene horizons (Roque et al., 2012; Brackenridge et al., 2013; Stow et al., 2013b). As the MOW developed into a source of intermediate

water for the North Atlantic, its warm, saline outflow enhanced both the production of NADW and northward ocean heat transport in the Atlantic (Hay, 1996). Evidence for enhanced bottom current circulation in the early Pliocene (about 4.5 Ma) appears along the Porcupine margin (Van Rooij et al., 2003), north Atlantic (Hunter et al., 2007), continental margins of NW Europe (Laberg et al., 2005; Praeg et al., 2005; Stoker et al., 2005), Faeroe-Shetland Channel (Knutz and Cartwright, 2003) and south of the Greenland-Scotland Ridge (Wold, 1994). Evidence for enhanced MOW also occurs above the intra-Pliocene discontinuity (IPD) according to paleoceanographic proxies in the North Atlantic (Khélifi et al., 2011, 2014).

II. Transitional-drift stage (late Pliocene to early Quaternary, 3.2–2 Ma).

This stage documents the most important changes in the sedimentary stacking pattern and development of Neogene basins development, about 2.5 Ma after late Miocene to early Pliocene events. The upper part of unit PIII (P6) and lower part of unit QI (Q1) consist of interbedded contourites and turbidites, with occasional debrites. Synsedimentary deformation, active halokinesis, lower subsidence rates, thrusting and folding occurred during a widespread phase of shortening affecting all basins. This phase began around the LPD (3–3.2 Ma) but ended with the EQD (2–2.4 Ma) (Figs. 16 and 17). Hiatuses are accompanied by dolostones, debrite and more downslope sedimentation. Previous research has also detected the decrease in subsidence rates in the Gulf of Cadiz (Nelson et al., 1993; Maldonado et al., 1999; Maestro et al., 2003; Medialdea et al., 2004; Roque et al., 2012) and other areas of the North Atlantic (Cloetingh et al., 1990; Praeg et al., 2005; Stoker et al., 2005). Signs of continental deposition appear at the end of this stage, with the Guadalquivir basin (Salvany et al., 2011) and basins covering onshore AUGC units (Zazo et al., 1985; IGME, 1990, 1994; Aguirre et al., 1995, 2010), finalizing the separation of early Pliocene onshore units from Quaternary offshore marine basins. These events coincided with regional compression and deformation related to a directional change in the Iberia and Nubia convergent boundary from NW–SE to WNW–ESE (Zitellini et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2013). The shift in convergence direction for the southwest Iberian margin coincided with a decline in westward migration and thrusting activity for the AUGC. Reactivated blind-thrusts accommodated shortening and thus exhibit only minor sedimentary subsidence (Gutscher et al., 2002). The oblique convergence between the sub-plates generated a new transpressional regime and reactivated WNW–ESE dextral strike-slip faults as well as shallower W–NW directed thrusts (Duarte et al., 2011). Evidence for compressional events around this age has been detected in the Betic (Viguier, 1974; Benkheilil, 1976), Rif (Guillemin and Houzay, 1982; Morel, 1988; Ait, 1991; Azdimousa, 1991), Alboran Sea (Bourgois et al., 1992; Martínez-García et al., 2013), easternmost Mediterranean (Cyprus) (Robertson et al., 1998; Kinnaird, 2008), Himalaya (Derbyshire, 1996), other areas of the Northern Hemisphere (Cloetingh et al., 1990) and offshore Central America (Vannucchi et al., 2013). These events are associated with global plate tectonic reorganization and final closure of the Central American Seaway, which led to the establishment of Northern Hemisphere glaciations and a shift to a globally cooler climate conditions (Zachos et al., 2001; Miller et al., 2011) coeval with the emergence of the genus *Homo* between 2.8–2.4 Ma (deMenocal, 2011; Villmoare et al., 2015) (Fig. 16).

The MOW progressively strengthened from 3.2 to 2 Ma (Fig. 16), in tandem with enhanced deep-water convection in the Mediterranean Sea and with more active circulation in the North Atlantic (Khélifi et al., 2011, 2014). The MOW intensification contributed with salt-water to intermediate depths of northerly latitude Atlantic Waters, thus enhancing Thermohaline Circulation (THC), Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) and overall Northern Hemisphere deep-water formation (Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). These changes coincided with long-term global cooling trends (Zachos et al., 2001) marked by the final NHG intensification (Bartoli et al., 2005). The shift

included a decline in atmospheric CO₂ levels, global cooling (Zachos et al., 2001) and sea-level fall (Miller et al., 2011). The 41 ky obliquity cycles replace the 23 ky precessional cycles as the primary orbital mechanism influencing climate. This shift is also associated with a progressive increase in the amplitude of Earth's orbital obliquity (Bartoli et al., 2005).

III. Growth-drift stage (Quaternary, from 2 Ma to present).

Over the last 2 Ma, the Quaternary section (upper part of unit QI and units II and III) exhibited major depositional changes with maximal sedimentation rates and a pronounced phase of contourite deposition and drift development throughout the Neogene basins. Interestingly, most of the North Atlantic contourite drifts show decreasing accumulation rates at this time (Knutz, 2008). Quaternary depocenters are located west of underlying sequences due to the displacement of preceding compressional stages. High sedimentation rates could arise from the combination of more vigorous bottom-current influence and substantially higher volumes of MOW input into the Atlantic, as well as from greater transport to offshore depocenters, due to the progradation of Guadalquivir and Rharb basin sediments into the Gulf of Cadiz (Sierra et al., 1991; Flinch and Vail, 1998; Ríaza and Martínez del Olmo, 1996; Ledesma, 2000; Salvany et al., 2011).

Two phases of MOW and bottom current intensification (Fig. 16) led to the fully established MOW. We attribute its formation to tectonic constriction and deformation in the basins related to the mid Pleistocene discontinuity (MPD, 0.7–0.9 Ma, MIS 19–17) and LQD (~0.4 Ma, between MIS 11 and 13). These events are especially evident in the Doñana basin, which experienced more deformation and the highest sedimentation rate observed from the MPD up to the present. The MPD represents the beginning of a new phase in the sedimentary stacking pattern of drifts, with enhanced upslope progradation and mounded drift morphologies (Llave et al., 2001, 2007a; Roque et al., 2012). Lateral migration of sandier deposits and of morphological features from proximal to central areas of the CDS co-occurred with MOW enhancement. Together these events coincide with a significant eustatic drop in sea-level (Miller et al., 2005; Rogerson et al., 2012), and intensification of the AMOC (Knutz, 2008). MOW density increased during subsequent glacial stages, as it did during the last glaciation when slope morphologies indicate that MOW flow rates were higher (Rogerson et al., 2012; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). The period between 0.9–0.7 Ma, coeval with the MPD, marked another important step in human evolution as pre-human primates disappeared (Fig. 16) and *Homo heidelbergensis*, the ancestor of modern humans, emerged (deMenocal, 2011).

6.5. Conceptual implications

6.5.1. Drift construction

Contourite drift types are classified according to their external morphology (McCave and Tucholke, 1986; Faugères et al., 1999; Rebesco and Stow, 2001; Stow et al., 2002b; Nielsen et al., 2008; Rebesco et al., 2014). The three aforementioned evolutionary stages for the CDS imply the following phases of drifts. First, mixed drifts formed during the initial-drift stage (Pliocene) due to the interplay between across- and along-slope processes, resulting in large sheeted drifts, which appear primarily as sub-parallel reflections overlapping previous relief. Second, a transitional-drift stage (Late Pliocene to the base of the Quaternary) began up-slope migration and moat development (non-deposition) marked by gently downlapping reflections in seismic profiles. Finally, a growth-drift stage (Quaternary, <2 Ma) is dominated by contourite deposition. Drifts evolve into elongated mounds with a deep moat in the Deep Algarve and Alentejo basins and sandier sheeted drifts in the rest of the basins overlying the AUGC. Drifts therefore became more prominent high-relief features that regionally migrated

up- and along-slope (downcurrent). When considered with the configuration of internal seismic units and dominant deposits, this shift in the drift's external geometry conceptually agrees with the vertical first-order variation in drift evolution proposed by other authors (Faugères et al., 1985a; Stow et al., 2002b; Nielsen et al., 2008), demonstrating the case for intensified bottom-currents along the SIM during the last 2 Ma.

The same cyclicity in seismic facies trends is frequently found at different scales with (1) a transparent zone at the base, (2) smooth, parallel reflectors of moderate-to-high amplitude in the upper part, and (3) a continuous, high-amplitude erosional surface at the top. The integration of IODP Exp. 399 drilling data with multichannel seismic data presented here suggests that this cyclic pattern of seismic facies most likely represents repeated coarsening-upward sequences bounded by erosional surfaces at unit and sub-unit scales. The duration of these cycles identified in multichannel seismic is much greater (0.8–0.9 Ma and 0.4–0.5 Ma, Fig. 15) than cycles identified by Llave et al. (2001, 2006, 2007a) in sparker source seismic profiles. These authors demonstrated links between grain size variation, climate and MOW variability for the last eustatic/climate cycle, which experienced enhanced MOW during cold intervals. Additional research has corroborated these findings (Voelker et al., 2006; Toucanne et al., 2007; García et al., 2009; Rogerson et al., 2012; Bahr et al., 2014; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014a). Longer frequency cyclicities in seismic facies trends observable at seismic scales however raise questions as to whether differently scaled cycles arise from the same processes. The relative abundance of turbiditic deposits occupying upper sections of these cycles and their protracted periodicity, which resembles that of longer repetitions identified from IODP sites (Stow et al., 2013b), and their genetic relation to some of the short identified hiatus suggest that CDS reflect tectonic activity, relative sea-level change and margin instability rather than orbital-scale variation at these longer scales.

6.5.2. Tectonics versus climate

Eustatic sea-level variation occurs at different time scales (Vail et al., 1977) and exerts primary influence on sequence architecture and basin evolution (e.g., Coe, 2003; Catuneanu, 2006). However, the causes for eustatic variations are not fully understood (Lovell, 2010). Previous regional stratigraphic analysis of the SIM considered eustatic changes a primary depositional factor at unit and subunit scales (Flinch and Vail, 1998; Ríaza and Martínez del Olmo, 1996; Llave et al., 2001, 2007a, 2011; Hernández-Molina et al., 2002, 2006; Marchès et al., 2010; Roque et al., 2012; Brackenridge et al., 2013). These studies linked prominent discontinuities to major sea-level drops, global cooling events and cyclic shifts in the climate system. In their interpretation, the continental margin (including contourite deposits) formed primarily by stacking of regressive and lowstand sedimentary deposits in every depositional sequence, and building its observed progradational morphology. Transgressive and highstand deposits are also present in each depositional sequence but occur as condensed sections. This interpretation is consistent with high-resolution seismic studies for the last eustatic hemicycle and last 4th-order and 5th-order sequences (Llave et al., 2001, 2006) and with lithological changes observed in calypso piston and gravity cores (Llave et al., 2006, 2007a; Voelker et al., 2006; Toucanne et al., 2007; Bahr et al., 2014), and IODP Sites (Bahr et al., 2015).

The present work describes a clear and more protracted cyclicity in units and subunits of around 0.8–0.9 and 0.4–0.5 Ma (Fig. 15). These sedimentary cycles correspond with 3rd- and 4th-order asymmetric sequences identified in the region with mid- to high-resolution seismic profiles by Llave et al. (2001, 2007a) and Hernández-Molina et al. (2002, 2006). Results described here however indicate significant tectonic influence at long- and short-term scales, on margin development, downslope sediment transport and contourite drift evolution in Neogene basins. This activity also exerts primary influence on seafloor morphology, which in turn has determined MOW pathways and CDS

architecture. According to the timing of these different events, we propose tectonic pulses of approximate 0.8–0.9 Ma duration overprinted by more significant 2/2.5 Ma compressive–flexural stress cycles, which caused uplift/compression or active subsidence (Fig. 16). Westward roll back of subducted oceanic lithosphere with simultaneous tectonic shortening and gravitational spreading in the Gulf of Cadiz (Gutscher et al., 2002, 2009; Duggen et al., 2003) provides a consistent explanation for these cycles. Compressional tectonic regimes along the northeast Atlantic margin apparently correlate with the development of major deep-sea unconformities (Andersen et al., 2000; Stoker et al., 2005) and sedimentary pulses (Whyte and Lovell, 1997; Lovell, 2010). Interestingly, compressional events similar to those described here also occurred in the Himalaya (Cochran, 1990; Derbyshire, 1996) and North Atlantic regions (Cloetingh et al., 1990; Knutz, 2008). Atlantic plate reorganization entailed similar tectonic cycles of compression and sagging related to episodic, small-scale convective flow in the upper mantle plume (Cloetingh et al., 1990; Whyte and Lovell, 1997; Praeg et al., 2005; Stoker et al., 2005). Convection in the Earth's mantle thus occurs in punctuated pulses on geologic times scales (Rudge et al., 2008; Lovell, 2010) and has been interpreted as “blobby” flow (Jones et al., 2012). Surface uplift due to plate interactions (subsidence, rift activity, etc.), magmatic underplating and plume activity also affects sea-level (White and McKenzie, 1989; Whyte and Lovell, 1997; MacLennan and Lovell, 2002; Lovell, 2010; Jones et al., 2012) on time scales of 2nd- and 3rd order cycles from 2 to 4 Ma down to 1 Ma or less (Rudge et al., 2008; Lovell, 2010).

Consideration of these global cycles demonstrates that both tectonic and climatic factors determined sedimentary evolution of the Gulf of Cadiz and the margin off west Portugal. Changes in rates and geometries of plate boundaries as well as long-term plate reorganization lead to fluctuations in the magnitude of intraplate stresses. Modifications imparted by these factors on climate, relative sea-level and the seafloor morphology also affected bottom-current circulation. Tectonics thus influence deep-water sedimentation on geological scales of 2.5–>0.4 Ma. Tectonic pulses occurring around 2–2.5 Ma and 0.8–0.9 Ma align with long-period variation in orbital (eccentricity) cycles as is reported above, and with 3rd-order (1–3 Ma) eustatic cycles (Lourens and Hilgen, 1997), but not with cycles operating on shorter time-scales (Fig. 16). Tectonic events could thus control 3rd-order cycles on time scales of about 0.8–2.5 Ma. We interpret variation occurring on significantly shorter time-scales in Quaternary contourites as related to climate variability, sediment supply and sea-level fluctuation. Sediments analyzed here also show evidence of orbital-scale effects (Fig. 15) as identified by other studies (Sierra et al., 1999, 2000; Hernández-Molina et al., 2014b; Lofi et al., 2015). Orbital cycles (variation in insolation) influences climate on shorter times scales ≤ 0.4 Ma generating high to very high frequency (4th-order) depositional sequences of 0.1–0.2 Ma duration (Flinch and Vail, 1998) to sub-millennial scale variation in the sedimentary record (Schönfeld and Zahn, 2000; Llave et al., 2007a; Voelker et al., 2006; Toucanne et al., 2007; Rogerson et al., 2012; Bahr et al., 2014).

7. Conclusion

Semi-permanent bottom currents shape continental margin architecture and generate extensive contourite depositional systems (CDS). The large CDS along the Southwest Iberian margin (SIM) records unmistakable signs of Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW) as it exits the Strait of Gibraltar, which reopened at the end of the Miocene. The SIM also records the pronounced effects of tectonic activity on margin sedimentation and evolution. The complexity of the SIM record results from the interaction of tectonic, climate and eustatic changes with additional bottom current circulation variations.

Integration of new core, borehole and outcrop data with previously collected seismic and drilling data revealed that significant changes in sedimentary style and processes often co-occurred with widespread

depositional hiatuses. Tectonic influence on margin development, downslope sediment transport and sediment evolution began around the time of the narrowing of the Atlantic–Mediterranean gateways at 7 Ma and opening of the Strait of Gibraltar (5.33 Ma). The periodicity of these different events suggests an ~ 0.8 –0.9 Ma duration for tectonic pulsing. A pronounced overprint of ~ 2 –2.5 Ma cycles related to the westward roll back of subducted lithosphere as the Africa–Eurasia collision transitioned from a predominantly NW–SE to WNW–ESE direction. Following the temporal decrease of tectonic activity near the Miocene–Pliocene boundary, major compressional events affecting Neogene basins between 3.2–3 Ma and 2–2.3 Ma differentiate three stages of CDS evolution. These include 1) an initial-drift stage (Pliocene, from 5.3–3.2 Ma) with a weak MOW and the formation of a mixed across- and along slope deposits, 2) a transitional-drift stage (late Pliocene and early Quaternary, 3.2–2 Ma) and 3) a growth-drift stage (Quaternary, from 2 Ma to present) where the prevalence of contourites demonstrates increased bottom-current velocity due to a fully established MOW. Two younger and more minor Pleistocene discontinuities at 0.7–0.9 Ma and about 0.3–0.6 Ma in the Doñana basin record the effects of renewed tectonic activity.

A pronounced sedimentary cyclicity with a periodicity of about 0.8–0.9 Ma in sedimentary units, and 0.4–0.5 Ma sub-units appears throughout the sedimentary record, but is most clearly observed in the Quaternary section. Tectonics, sea-level and climate all exert primary external influence on sedimentation. The specific cause-and-effect relationships between them and their relative importance on temporal scales remain contentious. We propose that tectonic effects represent a long-term factor in controlling deep-marine sedimentation, especially at scales of 2.5–>0.4 Ma, whereas climatic (orbital) variation constitutes a short-term factor clearly dominant at scales of ≤ 0.4 Ma.

This work generally outlines the case for revisiting the role of bottom water circulation and associated processes in shaping the seafloor, controlling sedimentary stacking patterns on continental margins and influencing global climate. CDS preserve specific information on bottom-current circulation not available from other types of proxies. This information can be related to tectonic changes, climate and other sedimentary processes. High resolution, basin-level analysis of CDS requires integration of borehole, core and outcrop records with seismic data. Further research can help establish more refined interpretation of CDS, including their interaction with gravitational processes and their role in deep water systems. Refined interpretation workflows are necessary due to the common occurrence of sandy contourites in deep water settings with the potential of hydrocarbon resources and, most importantly, their role in recording Earth's paleoceanographic history.

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.margeo.2015.09.013>.

Acknowledgments

This research used samples and data collected through the Integrated Ocean Drilling Program (IODP). The research was partially supported through the CTM 2008-06399-C04/MAR, CTM 2012-39599-C03, CGL2011-26493, CTM2012-38248, SA263U14, IGCP-619, INQUA 1204 and FWF P25831-N29 Projects. Some data were collected with 94-1090-C03-03 (FADO) and MAR-98-0209 (TASYO) Projects. Research was conducted in the framework of the Continental Margins Research Group of the Royal Holloway University of London, People and the Program (Marie Curie Actions) of the European Union's Seventh Framework Program FP7/2007-2013/ under REA Grant Agreement No. 290201 MEDGATE'. We are very grateful to REPSOL, TGS–NOPEC, and the CSIC-Institut Jaume Almera (<http://geodb.ictja.csic.es>) for allowing us to use an unpublished seismic data from the Gulf of Cadiz. We thank J. Aguirre (UGR, Spain) for comments and suggestions concerning the Pliocene and Quaternary outcrops, B. van den Berg (USAL) for organizing a thought-provoking field-trip to Cadiz, Spain in November, 2014, M. Ángel Caja, L. García Diego, and J. Trilla (REPSOL) for

provenance and diagenetic analysis of early Pliocene sandstones and debrites, and *L.J. Lourens* (Utrecht University) for providing us the eccentricity and 200-Kys glacio-eustatic sea-level curves included in the Figure 16. Both *Prof. D.A.V. Stow* (Heriot-Watt Univ., UK) and *F.J. Hernández-Molina* (RHUL, UK), as the main co-proponents of the IODP Proposal 644 and the co-chiefs of the IODP Exp. 339, thanks to IODP, Exp. IODP 339 Scientists; JR crew and technicians, as well as all people, institutions and companies involved in making IODP a success since 2003. Finally, we also thank the editor, Gert J. De Lange and the reviewers T. Mulder (Bordeaux Univ.); D. Van Rooij (Ghent Univ) and J. Duarte (Monash Univ.) for their very positive and helpful feedback and discussions in publishing this research.

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Acknowledgements

Gratitude goes to all people who made this thesis possible, and to three in particular. I would like to thank my always scientifically curious professor Paco Sierro for spending so much time discussing proxy records, cycles, water masses, excursions and for sharing days in the field. Acknowledgments are attributed to Marcus Gutjahr, who has put in a great effort to make me a happy lab-rat, for patiently discussing interpretations of the produced data and for hosting me at GEOMAR, Kiel. I would also like to thank Rachel Flecker for kicking off the fantastic MEDGATE project and for putting in the exceptional effort in helping me writing my first published manuscript.

Co-authors of the manuscripts have helped me to begin, shape, re-shape, finish and to start over (new) scientific articles. All co-authors are acknowledged and special thanks are going to Francis Jiménez-Espejo for sharing his XRF scanning data with me and with who I enjoy brainstorming about the raw data. Likewise, Javier Hernández-Molíña has been very helpful by sharing seismic lines and with his encouragements at the Flamenco section. I have encountered many more highly skilled scientists that helped me interpreting data or doing analyses. Immediate thoughts go out to; Paul Meijer, Wout Krijgsman, Frits Hilgen, Lucas Lourens, Tanja Kouwenhoven, John Gregory, Johanna Lofi, Gert de Lange, Rich Pancost, Rob Ellam, Isabel Cacho and Martin Frank.

Lab technicians Jose-Ignacio and Rocío at Salamanca University are acknowledged for washing samples, picking foraminifera and *conversaciones sobre los artes, filosofía y naturaleza, escuchando de Pink Floyd*. My Spanish day-to-day life has been much more pleasant drinking *Café con leches* at Vicentes Cafetería with the extended GGO-crew. Margarita is much appreciated for feeding me in the weekends in her and Chichipato Jarvis house. The Camino with Misaki (coffee?) was really cool. Ana and Manu, the memories of *los juegos* will stay with me, just as the invitations to the Sunday lunch table. I have enjoyed real amazing trips to peaks on the Iberian Peninsula with Rubèn and Montse; shorter, Piringuis tours. Javi, thank you for sharing too much information with me. Other office mates that came by and left again will not be forgotten: Thank you Blanca for the joyful time together as well as Raul, Felipe, Angelo, Martha, David, Gloria and Miguel Angel.

For inspiring and motivating conversations, not only about science, I would like to thank all my MADGATE buddies. Bas has been a fantastic neighbour in the office and friend during weekend hiking trips and during our Spanish adventures to bureaucratic offices during (pre-) Puentes, while eating *platos típicos*. Thank you again for being there for me during the process of mourning of the rejected paper. Diana has been a good roommate in all our trips together and I am very grateful for the time we enjoyed together and the friends you have shared with me. I will never forget enjoying my coffee at the vegetarian place and being the greatest while running and biking around with Walter. Neither do I hope to forget to have played so many games and the laughter during some story telling with JP all around Europe. Maria, you are a perfect BFF and you are much thanked for sharing your wedding and the MEDGATE-baby with us. It can never be foreseen what for confusion will be created while exploring with Dirk, eating apples. I have greatly enjoyed

working together in the lab and the relaxing conversations with Sevi in Kiel. Eva, you are acknowledged for sharing your laid-back attitude to release some pressure and hosting me in your penthouse in Madrid. And of course, Ali, you are a splendid model to everyone.

Zusätzlich möchte ich mich auch gerne bei meinen Freunden bedanken, mit denen in der tollsten WG in Kiel gewohnt habe: Jojo, Micha, Shelly, Basti, Alex, Hannah, Lena, Knörte, Nico und all euren Freunden. Vielen Dank das ich mit euch zusammen das zu Hause teilen konnte, dort wo wirklich immer was los war!

I could have never survived this extended life experience without the support of my Dutch team from my home. Graag wil ik Laurens bedanken dat ik je echt altijd mocht bellen. Vriendin Lineke, gelukkig hebben we elkaar gevonden en zonder jou was dit avontuur trouwens nooit begonnen. Het vertrouwen van Erik hield me zeker op de been en gedeelde smart is halve smart met Bruno creëerde op zijn minst een harde lach. Brainstormen met Martijn en Ilse over wat er nog meer kan zijn voorbij de horizon heeft met zeker aan het denken gezet. Bedankt!

Natuurlijk wil ik ook graag mijn familie bedanken. Door jullie ben ik wie ik ben en jullie geven me het vertrouwen dat dat goed is. Wilke, die me zeker heeft geïnspireerd om verre reizen te maken, en natuurlijk de lieve haissie paissie; sterk en moedig roeiend door het leven, meedenkend als ik wel in Nederland was. Pap en mam, door jullie opvoeding, interesse in natuur en wetenschap is dit avontuur begonnen en nu ook afgerond.

Many more people have helped me fighting paragraphs and extensive homework hours during (short) conversations with strangers, intense moments of unexpected friendships or longer term mutual respect. I received unexpected gifts from some that I try to circulate to others. Powerful encouragements can be provided in small gestures on a normal day. However, it is my opinion that not necessarily all human interactions of my last four years have to be named to confirm its importance. Obviously, my gratitude is much larger than only these few words and eventually shaped my character.

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