Messinian deep-water turbidites and glacioeustatic sea-level changes in the North Atlantic: Linkage to the Mediterranean Salinity Crisis

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Abstract. Our benthic foraminiferal data clearly indicate eight layers of deep-water turbidites during the Messinian (MTL 1-8) and one in the early Pliocene (PTL 1) in Ocean Drilling Program Leg 105, Site 646B. These deep-water turbidite deposits are characterized by highly concentrated agglutinated marsh benthic foraminifera (e.g., *Trochammina* cf. squamata, Ammotium sp. A, Miliammina fusca), rounded quartz, polished thick-walled benthic foraminifera, wood fragments, plant seeds, plant fruit, and highly concentrated mica and are interbedded with sediments containing deep-water benthic faunas. We suggest these turbidites deposited during sea-level low stands (~80-100 m below sea level), and their ages are tentatively correlated to 6.59, 6.22, 6.01, 5.89, 5.75, 5.7, 5.65, 5.60, and 5.55 Ma, respectively, based on the Messinian oxygen isotope enrichments at Site 552A of Deep Sea Drilling Project Leg 81. The turbidites layers during the late Messinian, coeval with frequent climate changes suggested by six oxygen enrichment excursions of Site 552A, may have been in part linked to the late Messinian evaporite deposits in the Mediterranean Basin. The most profound climate changes at 5.75 and 5.55 Ma may have been related to the Lower and Upper Evaporites in the Mediterranean Basin.

Introduction

During the Messinian Stage (7.12 to 5.32 Ma) [Berggren et al., 1995], a number of events known as the "Terminal Miocene events" [Van Couvering et al., 1976; Kennett, 1983] occurred. These include the Messinian Salinity Crisis, global cooling, and a carbon-13 shift. During the salinity crisis, the Mediterranean Sea became isolated from the world ocean [Benson and Rakic-El Bied, 1991], so that a large volume of evaporites was deposited. The origin of these deposits is widely disputed with Hsü et al. [1973a, 1973b, 1977, 1978; Ryan et al., 1973] and Hsü [1973, 1987, 1988] arguing that the Mediterranean desiccated several times. Their model requires at least 11 episodes during which Atlantic water invaded the desiccated basin. The deposition of these salts could have removed more than 6% of all dissolved salts in the world oceans and turned them less alkaline, causing undersaturation with respect to calcium carbonate and more extensive carbonate dissolution in deep oceans [Ryan, 1973].

It was suggested that cooling might have caused increased polar ice sheets and 40-50 m lowering of sea level [Vail et al., 1977; Hodell and Kennett, 1986; Cita and Ryan, 1978] and 70 m lowering during the late Messinian suggested by Adams et al. [1977]. Glacial events may have occurred at 5.2 Ma and 4.8 Ma [Keigwin, 1987] (based on the timescale of Berggren et al. [1985] and evidence for the earlier glacial has also been recognized in northeastern Morocco and the Southern Ocean [Hodell et al.; 1989, Müller et al., 1994; Hodell et al., 1994b]. Also, at this time, evidence from a raised coral atoll of Niue in the

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Paper number 96PA00572. 0883-8305/96/96PA-00572\$12.00 South Pacific suggests eight episodes of the sea-level fluctuations occurred with evidence of eight unconformities [Aharon et al., 1993]. A Messinian invasion of cool water planktonic foraminifera in Panama (L. Collins, personal communication, 1995) may have been coeval with glacial expansion in the Arctic [Ocean Drilling Program Leg 151 Shipboard Scientific Party, 1994].

The Messinian carbon-13 decrease in deep-sea sediments occurred at ~ 6.3 Ma, slightly after the Messinian/Tortonian boundary at 6.5 Ma (Berggren et al. [1985] timescale) [Loutit and Kennett, 1979; Loutit and Keigwin, 1982; Keigwin, 1979, 1987; Keigwin and Shackleton, 1980; Haq et al; 1980; Hodell et al; 1986; Hodell and Kennett, 1986; Hodell et al., 1989].

The major cause of the shift observed in both planktonic and benthic foraminiferal records in all ocean basins is equivocal. It was widely suggested that the shift may be linked to sealevel lowering that could have increased the influx of organic matter from the continents into the open oceans as a result of Antarctic glaciation [e.g., Loutit and Keigwin, 1982; Berger and Vincent, 1986; Benson et al., 1991]. Bender and Keigwin [1979] suggested that the ¹³C shift may indicate a different abyssal circulation pattern before the shift resulting from the shoaling of the Isthmus of Panama or a global decrease in upwelling rate. Other factors, such as increase of bottom circulation rates or an increase in biogenic silica removal in the Southern Ocean high productivity zone have also been considered with respect to the shifted oceanic ¹³C value [Loutit and Keigwin, 1982]. Most recently, Hodell et al. [1994a] suggest that the ¹³C shift may be explained as a result of a net transfer of carbon from terrestrial (land plants and soils) to the oceanic reservoir, because of the shift from C3-dominated to C4-dominated ecosystems during the late Miocene. C4-plants between 6 and 7 Ma may have been related to increased aridity, which

may have contributed to the onset of negative water budget in the Mediterranean near the Tortonian/Messinian boundary [Hodell et al., 1994a, 1989; Benson et al., 1991].

This paper presents a record of abyssal turbidites delineated by benthic foraminifera, stable strontium, and carbon and oxygen isotopic records from Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Site 646B and correlated to Deep Sea Drilling Project (DSDP) Leg 81, Site 552A in the North Atlantic Ocean (Figure 1). We reconstruct a sea-level history and evaluate the relationship between the Messinian sea-level fluctuations and the Mediterranean salinity crisis.

Material and Methods

The interval below the lower Pleistocene of the ODP Leg 105, Site 646B was drilled with extended core barrel (XCB) 37% core recovery in average for the Messinian section) on the northern flank of the Eirik Ridge in the southeastern part of the Labrador Sea and southwest of Greenland (58°12.559'N, 48°22.147'W; present water depth 3461.3 m) (Figure 1) [Srivastava et al., 1989a, b]. The location of this hole was chosen to determine the history of paleocirculaton in the North Atlantic and Arctic Oceans, because it is in the region with strong influence from Norwegian-Greenland Sea Overflow Water [Srivastava et al., 1989a]. The whole Messinian section at this site consists of silty clay (69%), clayey silt (11.5%), clay (11%), and nannofossil silty clay and clayey silt (6%) in average. The terrigenous components have been carried along the continental margin of Greenland in a bottom nepheloid layer with periodic contributions from river discharge, lowconcentration turbidity currents, or plumes of turbid water originating on the shelf [Srivastava et al., 1989a].

Deep Sea Drilling Project (DSDP) Site 552A (Leg 81) was hydraulically piston cored with almost 100% recovery at the base of Hatton Bank, west margin of the Rockall Plateau (56°02.56'N, 23°13.88'W; present water depth 2301 m; Figure 1). The Hatton Drift is was probably deposited by bottom currents flowing northeastward against the slope of Hatton Bank. The bottom waters at this site lie above the southward flowing North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW) that fills the deeper part of the Iceland Basin and mantles the Reykjanes Ridge south of Iceland [*Roberts et al.*, 1984]. Site 552A contains a continuous upper Miocene-Pliocene sedimentary record, but slumping may have occurred in the Pliocene from cores 17 to 24 [*Stow and Holbrook*, 1984].

Foraminifera

All samples were washed through a 63 μ m mesh using tap water and dried in an oven at a temperature of 40°C. Benthic

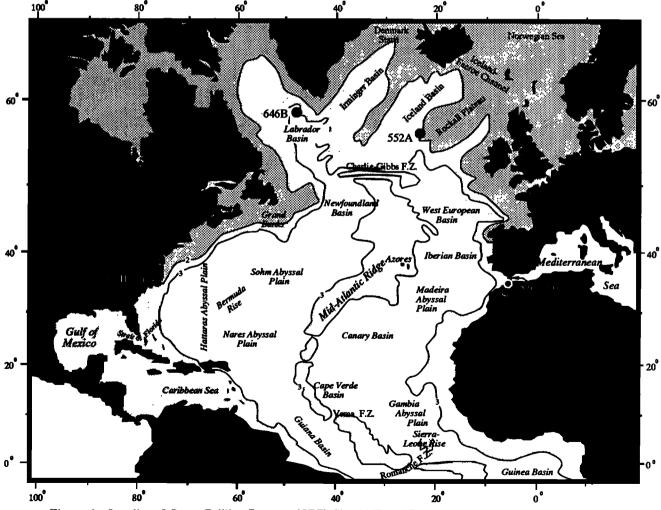


Figure 1. Locality of Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Site 646B and Deep Sea Drilling Project (DSDP) Site 552A.

and planktonic for aminifera were studied in the fraction greater than 63 μm .

Strontium Isotopes

Sr isotope analyses were performed on more than 200 specimens of mixed calcareous benthic and planktonic foraminifera from the greater than 150 μ m size fraction, which were dissolved in 1.5 N HCL. Standard ion exchange techniques [Miller et al., 1991] were used to separate strontium for analyses on a VG Sector mass spectrometer at Rutgers University, New Jersey, USA. Internal precision (interrun variability) is approximately ±0.000008 (mean 20 error) [Miller et al., 1991]; external precision (interrun variability) is approximately ±0.000024 or better [see Miller et al., 1991; Oslick et al., 1994]. At Rutgers, NBS 987 is routinely measured as 0.710252 (20 standard deviation 0.000026; n = 35) [Miller et al., 1991] normalized to ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr of 0.1194. Farrell et al. [1995] estimated that the rate of increase of ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr (from 4.8 Ma to 7.0 Ma) was ~0.00005/m.y. Sr-isotope age estimates were determined using these equations calculated from the regression of Farrell et al. [1995]:

Age = $59941.95 - (Sr \ 87/86) \times 84530.85 (Sr = 0.709080 - 0.709056).$

for 2.5 - 4.8 Ma (K.G. Miller, written communication with J.W. Farrell, 1995), based on *Farrell et al.*'s data [1995].

Age = $15640.06 - (Sr \ 87/86) \times 22050.72 (Sr = 0.709056 - 0.708955).$

for 4.8 - 7.3 Ma (K.G. Miller, written communication with J.W. Farrell, 1995), based on *Farrell et al.*'s data [1995].

Oxygen and Carbon Isotopes

Oxygen and carbon isotopic data are from Aksu and Hillaire-Marcel [1989] (Site 646B) and Keigwin [1987] (Site 552A).

Results

Faunal and Floral Distribution

Ninety samples from Cores 40-80 (389-789 m subbottom depth (msb); core recovery 37.1% in average) [Srivastava et al., 1989a, b] were studied for benthic foraminifera, yielding a sample spacing two to five samples per core depending on recovery. Over 100 species have been identified (Appendix 1^1). The number of benthic foraminifera per cubic centimeter is rather consistent throughout the hole but increases slightly downward (Figure 2) and decreases sharply in the Tortonian section. The systematic taxonomy for the benthic foraminiferal species is given in Table 1.

The Messinian (Cores 45X to 77X) is dominated by agglutinated foraminifera, while calcareous foraminifera dominate the Pliocene and Tortonian. Benthic/planktonic foraminiferal ratios are usually high in the Messinian section (Figure 2) and low during the Pliocene and Tortonian. Both calcareous/agglutinated and benthic/planktonic ratios exhibit highamplitude variations.

Three small, brown marsh-type agglutinated benthic foraminiferal species, well known from marsh or coastal environments today [Scott and Medioli, 1980], are Trochammina cf. squamata (Figure 3, numbers 8 and 9), Ammotium sp. A (Figure 3, numbers 10-12), and Miliammina fusca (Figure 3, numbers 13 and 14). Ammotium sp. A occurs in most samples from Cores 42X-1 to 65X-CC, with the highest peak (15%) in Core 57X-3. It is rare below Core 65X (Figure 4). Miliammina fusca is found in Sample 63X-CC, 10-14 cm. Trochammina cf. squamata varies in abundance (Figure 2) at a high amplitude. These marsh forms are concentrated in nine levels, separated by layers accompanied with a relatively low proportion of shallow-water fauna (Figure 2). We suggest that the marsh foraminifera occur in turbidite layers, together with plant seeds, oxidized plant fragments, rounded quartz, highly polished benthic foraminiferal shells, wood fragments, pyritefilled foraminiferal shells, highly concentrated mica, and gypsum crystals.

Deep-water agglutinated foraminifera, such as *Rhizammina* spp., *Psammosphaera* spp., and *Lagenammina* spp., are common from Samples 42X-7 to 51X-1, from 55X-2 to 63X-CC, and from 65X-7 to 68X-4 but are absent or extremely rare from Core 69X-1 to Core 80X-2 (Figure 4). Other deep-water agglutinated foraminifera, such as *Martinotiella communis*, *Cyclammina cancellata*, and *Recurvoides* spp., occur sporadically.

The most abundant occurrence of deep-water calcareous foraminifera is in the Tortonian and lower Pliocene (below Core 77X and above Core 43X). Calcareous faunas are dominated by nonionids (including Pullenia bulloides, P. quinqueloba, Melonis barleeanum, 0 to 30%) (Figures 5 and 6), Eponides weddellensis (0-25%), Oridorsalis umbonatus (0 to 10%), Eponides tumidulus (0-7%), and Gyroidina spp. (0-5%), with considerable variation. Epistominella exigua and Nuttallides umbonifera are extremely low in abundance, usually less than 2% in the Messinian. N. umbonifera is most common (~3-6%) near seismic reflector R3 (680.48-703.8 msb; Cores 72X-1 to 74X-4), similar to that reported by Kaminski et al. [1989] (~20-80%), but much lower. This probably resulted from the different size fraction of benthic foraminifera examined in this study (>63 μ m) and that in Kaminski et al.'s study (>125 μ m). The fraction of >125 μ m does not contain numerous small-sized benthic foraminifera, the major component of the total benthic community; E. exigua reaches a peak of 23.3% in the Tortonian (Figure 5). These bathyal calcareous foraminifera separate the intervals with marsh foraminiferal layers in the Messinian. Melonis barleeanum, a typical form in glacial sediments in lower bathyal DSDP sites in northern Atlantic [Murray, 1984] and the Norwegian-Greenland Sea [Talwani et al., 1976], is common from Cores 41X-2 to 50X-3. It is rare in Cores 53X-55X and almost absent from Cores 56 to 80 (Figure 6). Another calcareous deep-water species, Cornuspirella diffusa, is found up to ~20% in the Tortonian but is absent in the upper Messinian (Figure 4).

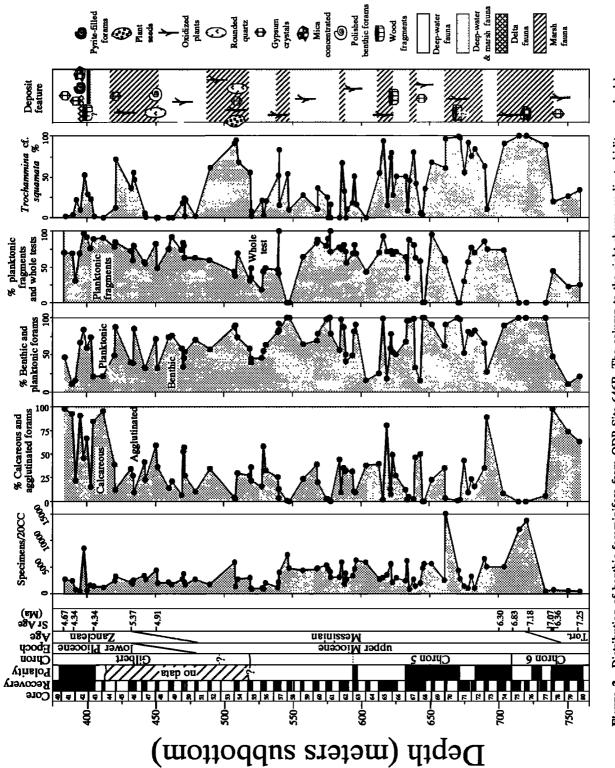
Deep-Water Turbidite Deposits

Deep-water turbidites are characterized by marsh foraminifera and terrigenous deposits and occur in nine discrete layers throughout the Messinian and lower part of the Pliocene at Site 646B (see Figure 2 for details).

¹ An electronic supplement of this material may be obtained on a diskette or Anonymous FTP from KOSMOS.AGU.ORG. (LOGIN to AGU's FTP account using ANONYMOUS as the username and GUEST as the password. Go to the right directory by typing CD APEND. Type LS to see what files are available. Type GET and the name of the file to get it. Finally, type EXIT to leave the system. (Paper 96PA00572, Messinian deep-water turbidites and glacioeustatic sea-level changes in the North Atlantic: Linkage to the Mediterranean Salinity Crisis, Jijun Zhang and David B. Scott). Diskette may be ordered from American Geophysical Union, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009; \$15.00. Payment must accompany order.

Table 1. Systematic Taxonomy for Benthic Foraminiferal Species in Text

Species	References		
Ammotium sp. A	Figure 3, numbers 10-12 [This paper]		
Cornuspirella diffusa (Heron-Allen and Earland) Cornuspira diffusa Cornuspirella diffusa (Heron-Allen and Earland)	Figure 3, number 4 [This paper] <i>Heron-Allen and Earland</i> [1913, p. 272] <i>Loeblich and Tappan</i> [1988, p. 310, 311, Plate 323, Figure 1]		
yclammina cancellata Brady Cyclammina cancellata	Brady [1884, p. 351, Plate 37, Figures 8-16]		
ipistominella exigua (Brady) Pulvinulina exigua Pseudoparrella exigua (Brady) Epistominella exigua (Brady)	Brady [1884, p. 696, Plate 103, Figures 13 and 14] Phleger and Parker [1951, p. 28, Plate 15, Figures 6 and 7] Hermelin and Scott [1985, p. 208, Plate 4, Figure 6]		
ponides tumidulus (Brady) Truncatulina tumidula Eponides tumidulus (Brady)	Brady [1884, p. 666, Plate 95, Figures 8a-d] Phleger and Parker [1951, p. 21, 23, Plate 11, Figures. 7 and 8]		
ponides weddellensis Earland Eponides weddellensis	Earland [1936, p. 57, Plate 1, Figures. 65-67]		
Hobobulimina auriculata (Bailey) Bulimina auriculata Globobulimina auriculata (Bailey)	Bailey [1851, p. 12, Plate 1, Figures 25-27] Thomas et al. [1990, P. 227, Plate 6, Figures 3 and 4]		
Flobocassidulina subglobosa (Brady) Cassidulina subglobosa Cassidulina subglobosa Brady Globocassidulina subglobosa (Brady)	Figure 3, number 7 [This paper] Brady [1881, p. 60] Phleger and Parker [1951, p. 27, Plate 14, Figures 11-13] Wang et al., 1988, p. 173, Plate 30, Figures 1 and 2]		
Tyroidina soldanii (d'Orbigny) Rotalia soldanii Gyroidina soldanii (d'Orbigny)	d'Orbigny [1826, p. 278, Figure 36] Hermelin and Scott [1985, p. 210, Plate 5, Figures 6 and 8]		
lartinottiella communis (d'Orbigny) Clavulina communis Martinottiella communis (d'Orbigny)	d'Orbigny [1826, p. 268] Loeblich and Tappan [1988, p. 171, Plate 190, Figures 3-4]		
Aelonis barleeanum (Williamson) Nonionina barleeana Melonis barleeanum (Williamson)	<i>Williamson</i> [1858, p. 32, Plate 4, Figures 68 and 69] <i>Wang et al.</i> [1988, p. 179, Plate 12, Figure 4]		
Melonis pompilioides (Fichtel and Moll) Nautilus pompilioides Melonis pompilioides (Fichtel and Moll)	Figure 3, numbers 2 [This paper] <i>von Fichtel and Moll</i> [1798, p. 31, Plate 2, Figures a-c] <i>Hermelin and Scott</i> [1985, p. 212, Plate 6, Figure 5]		
Ailiammina fusca (Brady) Quinqueloculina fusca Miliammina fusca (Brady)	Figure 3, numbers 13 and 14 [This paper] Brady [1870, p. 47, Plate 11, Figures 2 and 3] Scott et al. [1991, p. 386, Plate 1, Figure 4]		
Iuttallides umbonifera (Cushman) Pulvinulinella umbonifera Iuttallides umbonifera (Cushman)	Figure 3, number 3 [This paper] <i>Cushman</i> [1933, p. 90, Plate 9, Figures 9a-c] <i>Hermelin and Scott</i> [1985, p. 214, Plate 5, Figures 11 and 13]		
Dridorsalis umbonatus (Reuss) Rotalina umbonata Oridorsalis umbonatus (Reuss)	<i>Reuss</i> [1851, p. 75, Plate 5, Figures 35a-c] <i>Hermelin and Scott</i> [1985, p. 214, Plate 5, Figure 10]		
Planulina wuellerstorfi (Schwager) Anomalina wuellerstorfi Planulina wuellerstorfi (Schwager)	Figure 3, number 5 [This paper] Schwager [1866, p. 258, Plate 7, Figures 105 and 107] van Morkhoven et al. [1986, pp. 48-50, Plate 14, Figures 1-2]		
Pullenia bulloides (d'Orbigny) Nonionina bulloides Nonionina bulloides Pullenia bulloides (d'Orbigny)	d'Orbigny [1826, p. 293] d'Orbigny [1846, p. 107, Plate 5, Figures 9 and10] Wang et al. [1988, p. 176, Plate 12, Figures 6 and 7]		
Pullenia quinqueloba (Reuss) Nonionina quinqueloba Pullenia quinqueloba (Reuss)	<i>Reuss</i> [1851, p. 71, Plate 5, Figure 31] <i>Ujiie</i> [1990, p. 43, Plate 24, Figures 1-5]		
yrgo murrhyna (Schwaget)	Figure 3, number 6 [This paper]		
Biloculina murrhyna Pyrgo murrhyna (Schwaget)	<i>Schwager</i> [1866, p. 203, Plate 4, Figures 15a-c] <i>Ujiie</i> [1990, p. 16, Plate 4, Figures 3-5]		
hizammina sp. A.	Figure 3, number 15 [This paper]		
rochammina cf. squamata Jones and Parker Trochammina squamata Trochammina squamata Jones and Parker	Figure 3, numbers 8 and 9 [This paper] <i>Jones and Parker</i> [1860, p. 304] <i>Wang et al.</i> [1988, p. 123, Plate 11, Figure 14]		





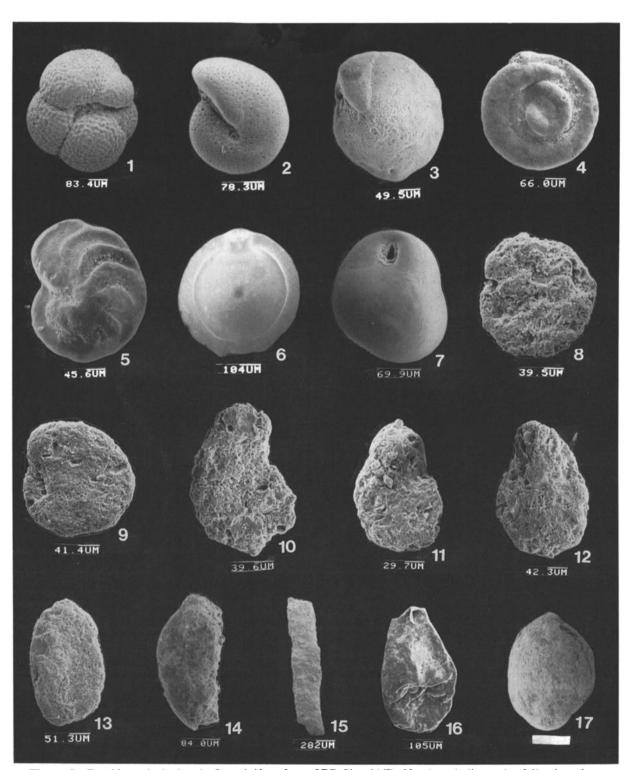
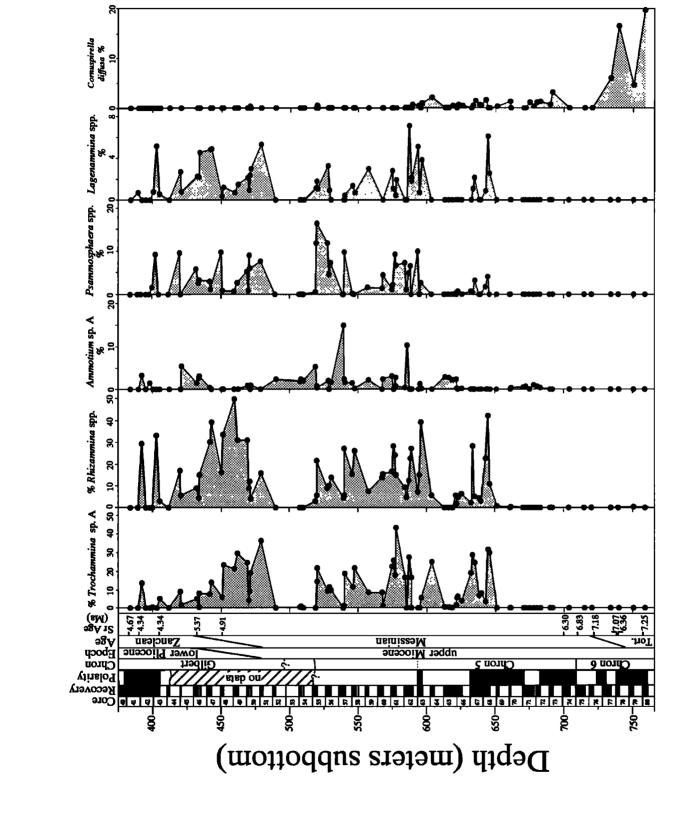
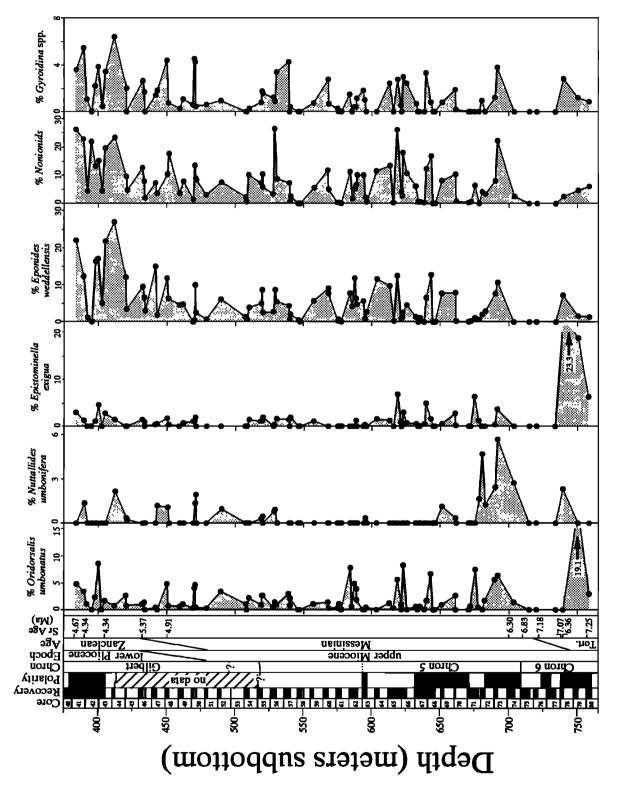


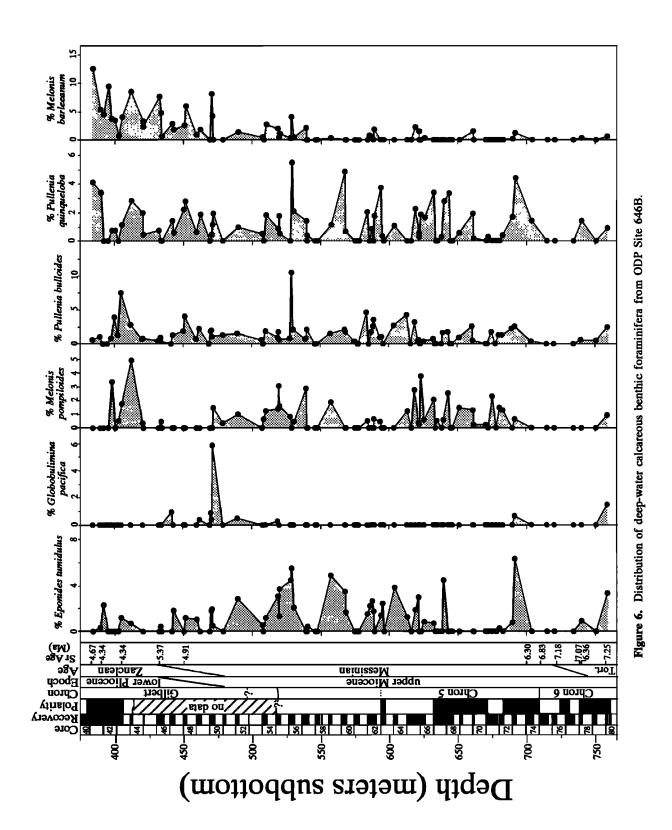
Figure 3. Benthic and planktonic foraminifera from ODP Site 646B. Numbers indicate the following: 1, Neogloboquadrina atlantica, ventral view, from Site 646B, Core 44X-CC, 30-34 cm; 2, Melonis pompilioides, side view, from Site 646B, Core 44X-CC, 30-34 cm; 3, Nuttallides umbonifera, ventral view, from Site 646B, Core 44X-CC, 30-34 cm; 4, Cornuspirella diffusa, side view, from Site 646B, Core 78X-CC, 26-30 cm; 5, Planulina wuellerstorfi, ventral view, from Site 646B, Core 44X-CC, 30-34 cm; 6, Pyrgo murrhyna, side view, from Site 646B, Core 44X-CC, 30-34 cm; 7, Globocassidulina subglobosa, ventral view, from Site 646B, Core 69X-1, 40-44 cm, 9 from Site 646B, Core 76X-CC, 10-14 cm; 10-12, Ammotium sp. A, side views, all from Site 646B, Core 76X-2, 50-54 cm; 13 and 14, Miliammina fusca, side views, 13 from Site 646B, Core 78X-CC, 26-30 cm; 16, Plant fruit, from Core 71X-1, 5054 cm; 17, Plant seed, from Core 54X-1, 140-144 cm.











Pliocene turbidite cycle 1 (PTL 1) includes five samples (42X-1, 100-104 cm through 43X-2, 50-54 cm; 392 to 402.7 msb). Benthic foraminifera are relatively rare, dominated by small Trochammina cf. squamata, which ranges from 20% up to 53% of the total fauna. Calcareous foraminifera are small, thinshelled, and filled with pyrite. This layer is composed of abundant mica and very fine, grey silts or clay, with gypsum crystals. The sediments represent typical deltaic deposits formed in an organic-rich environment. A few deep-water species are present (e.g., Eponides weddellensis, Melonis barleeanum, Epistominella exigua) at low percentages. These may have been mixed with the shallow-water forms during the downslope transport.

Layer 2 (i.e., Messinian turbidite cycle MTL 1) includes seven samples (45X-CC, 20-24 cm to 48X-1, 110-114 cm; 420.7 to 450.2 msb). This layer is dominated by T. cf. squamata (up to 55%) and Ammotium sp. A (up to ~5%). Oxidized plant fragments are common. Some highly rounded and polished quartz grains (>1 mm in diameter) and benthic foraminiferal shells occur at the base of the layer. All these indicate transport from a shallow organic-rich paleoenvironment. Eponides weddellensis and Melonis barleeanum are found in low percentages in this interval.

Layer 3 (MTL 2) contains five samples (52X-CC, 20-24 cm to 55X-2, 80-84 cm; 489.62 to 518.8 msb). This interval is dominated by Trochammina cf. squamata (70% to 95%) and about 2% Ammotium sp. A. Calcareous foraminifera occur at less than 1%. In Sample 54X-1, 140-144 cm, we also found an oxidized but well-preserved plant seed (Figure 3, number 17) and quartz grains (>1 mm in diameter). Oxidized grass/wood fragments are highly concentrated; these materials originated in a shallow-water, organic-rich paleoenvironment.

Layer 4 (MTL 3) includes four samples (57X-3, 40-44 cm; 57X-4, 22-26 cm; 57X-CC, 20-24 cm; and 58X-1, 50-54 cm; 539.2 to 546 msb). This layer is dominated by T. cf. squamata (~51% in average and maximum 83.6%), with a deep-water agglutinated form Rhizammina spp. (varying from 4% to 27%) and a few deep-water calcareous benthic foraminifera such as Eponides weddellensis and Melonis barleeanum.

In Layer 5 (MTL 4; 62X-2, 50-54 cm to 62X-3, 80-84 cm; 585.6 to 587.4 msb), T. cf. squamata is 66.8% in Sample 62X-2, 50-54 cm, and 27.3% in sample 62X-3, 80-84 cm. Ammotium sp. A reaches 10% in the former sample. Deep-water agglutinated and calcareous species include Rhizammina spp., Psammosphaera spp., Lagenammina spp., Eponides weddellensis, Melonis barleeanum, Eponides tumidulus, etc. Oxidized plant fragments are present.

Layer 6 (MTL 5) occupies the entire Core 65X (613.3 to 622.05 msb) and is characterized by marsh foraminifera, T. cf. squamata and Ammotium sp. A, with a maximum value of

~94%, with rare calcareous benthic foraminifera such as Eponides weddellensis, Melonis spp., Oridorsalis umbonatus, Eponides tumidulus, Epistominella exigua, Gyroidina soldani, etc. Oxidized plant fragments are common, and a large wood fragment (>1 cm long) occurs at the base of the layer.

Layer 7 (MTL 6) occurs in three samples in the lower part of Core 67X (67X-3, 40-44 cm, 67X-5, 50-54 cm, and 67X-6, 50-54 cm; from 635.2 msb to 639.8 msb). It is dominated by T. cf. squamata, varying from 41 to 81%. Rhizammina spp. is rare (4% on average). A deep-water Trochammina sp. is common (from 7 to 24%), and calcareous benthic foraminifera are rare. Oxidized plant fragments and gypsum crystals are present.

Layer 8 (MTL 7), from 661.55 msb to 682.71 msb, spans more than two cores (70X-CC, 20-24 cm to 72X-CC, 6-10 cm). Faunas are dominated by T. cf. squamata, with a maximum of 99%. Ammotium sp. A is rare, less than 1%. Wood fragments, oxidized grass/plant fragments, and plant fruit (Figure 3, number 16) are identified in this interval.

Layer 9 (MTL 8), from 703.8 msb to 734.1 msb (Cores 74X to 77X), is dominated by T. cf. squamata, which varies from 90% to 100%. Mica and oxidized grass/plant fragments are highly concentrated. Calcareous benthic and planktonic foraminifera are extremely rare.

Sr Stable Isotopes

Eleven samples were measured for strontium isotopes ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr to determine the Tortonian/Messinian and Messinian/Pliocene boundaries (Table 2). Although the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values are somewhat scattered, the values between 757.8 and 699.7 msb still show relatively constant increase upward at an average rate of 7.4 X 10⁻⁶/10 m, similar to that from the Niue (8.5 X 10⁻⁶/10 m) [Aharon et al., 1993]. Two samples (78X-CC, 26-30 cm and 78X-2, 16-20 cm) exhibit values higher than adjacent ones. Our age estimates calculated from ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr range from 7.25 Ma (Sample 80X-1, 80-84 cm) to 6.30 Ma (74X-1, 70-74 cm). Sample 76X-CC was dated at 7.18 Ma, very close to the age of Messinian/Tortonian boundary (7.12 Ma) based on the new timescale of Berggren et al. [1995]

The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios from the interval between 450.9 and 384.1 msb (Core 48X-2 to 41X-2) vary from 0.709033 to 0.709062, with general increase upward, yielding ages ranging from 5.37 (with error ±0.15 Ma) to 4.34 Ma (with error ±0.42 Ma). In Sample 41X-2, 130-134, Sr exhibits a value of 0.709058 ± 0.000008 . The anomalous Sr values are probably caused either by sample contamination or by downslope mass transportation. We prefer the latter interpretation.

Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955)

⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr Core Error ± Age, Ma Age Error Comments 41X-2 0.709058 0.000008 4.67 Age=59941.95-(Sr87/86X84530.85(Sr=0.709080-0.709056) 0.68 0.42 0.42 Age=59941.95-(Sr87/86X84530.85(Sr=0.709080-0.709056) Age=59941.95-(Sr87/86X84530.85(Sr=0.709080-0.709056) 41X-6 0.709062 0.000005 4.34 43X-CC 0.709062 4.34 0.000005 46X-3 0.709033 5.37 0.15 0.000007 Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955) 48X-2 0.709054 0.000007 4.91 0.15 Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955) Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955) Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955) 74X-1 0.708991 0.000008 6.3 0.18 0.708967 6.83 0.18 75X-2 0.000008 Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955) Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955) Age=15640.06-(Sr87/86)X22050.72(Sr=0.709056-0.708955) 76X-CC 0.708951 0.000008 7.18 0.18 78X-2 7.07 0.97 0.708956 0.000044 6.36 7.25 78X-CC 0.708988 0.000007 0.15

0.15

Table 2. The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr Ratio and Age Calculation at Ocean Drilling Program Site 646B in the North Atlantic Ocean

Linear regression is from Farrell et al. [1995].

0.000007

0.708948

80X-1

Stratigraphic Assessments

ODP Site 646B

Neither the Messinian/Tortonian nor the Messinian/Pliocene boundaries can be located precisely assigned due to the downslope transportation during the Messinian. We consider that the Messinian/Tortonian (M/T) boundary is between Cores 75X and 78X. This placement can be supported by the following observations (Figure 7): 1. The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr age estimate ranges from 7.07 to 7.18 Ma in Cores 77X and 76X (Table 1), a reasonable range in defining this boundary.

2. The Chron 6 δ^{13} C shift occurs in Core 75X [Aksu and Hillaire-Marcel, 1989]. At other sites, the Chron 6 δ^{13} C shift is slightly above the M/T boundary (see Site 552A).

3. There is an δ^{18} O enrichment in Core 77X.

4. There is a *Neogloboquadrina* coiling change from the dextral to sinistral in Core 77X (Figure 7). This change oc-

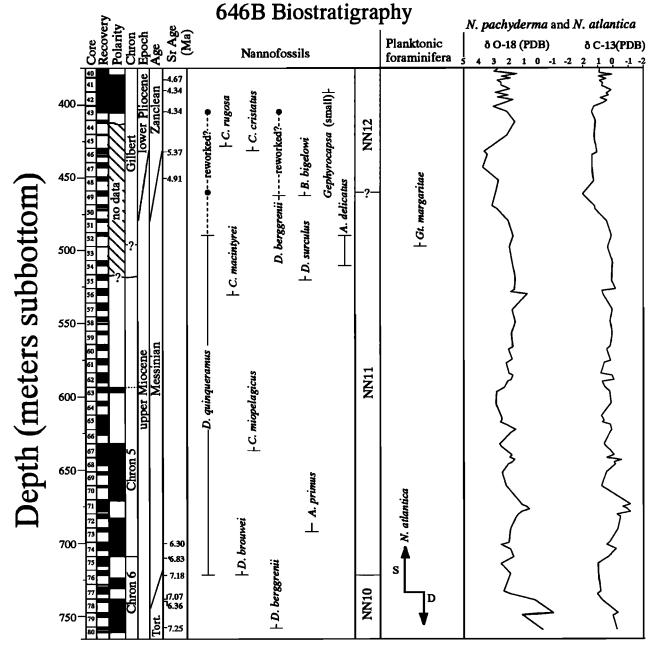


Figure 7. Messinian stratigraphy from ODP Site 646B from Zhang [1996]. Magnetostratigraphic chrons are reinterpreted after Clement et al. [1989]. Nannofossil data are from Knüttel et al. [1989]. Oxygen and carbon stable isotope are after Aksu and Hillaire-Marcel [1989]. T and reversed T represent first and last occurrences of nannofossils and planktonic foraminifera. Sr age estimates are from this study. D and S represent right and left coiling of Neogloboquadrina atlantica. The first occurrence of Globorotalia margaritae is from Aksu and Kaminski [1989]. PDB is pee dee belemnite.

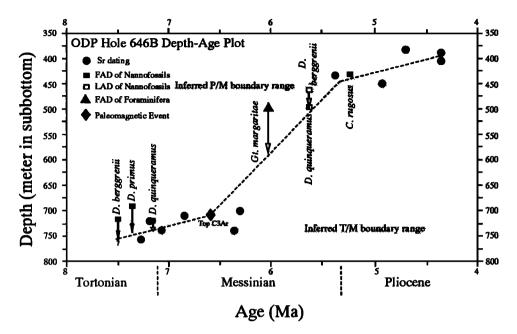


Figure 8. Depth-age plot of ODP Site 646B. Age estimates are from *Berggren et al.* [1995] and *Benson et al.* [1996] (see Table 3 for details). FAD is first appearance datum and LAD is last appearance datum. P/M is Pliocene/Miocene boundary.

curred immediately below the M/T boundary in Sites 552A and 608 and in the Moroccan Salé borehole [Zhang, 1996; Zhang and Scott, 1996].

5. The first occurrence (FO) of *D. berggrenii* occurred in Core 76X, which is obviously delayed (Figure 8; Table 3) as a result of downslope transportation [*Zhang*, 1996]. The FO of *Globorotalia conomiozea* marking the base of the Messinian is absent at this location.

The placement of the Messinian/Pliocene boundary is more difficult than that of the M/T boundary due to the scarcity of bioevents and poor core recovery from Core 43X to 53X (410 to 507 msb). We tentatively suggest that the Messinian/Pliocene boundary is between Cores 46X and 50X.

1. The last occurrence (LO) of *D. berggrenii* is in Sample 49X-CC. This event may be lower than the LO of *D. quinqueramus*, because the former is a zonal marker separating Subzones NN11a and NN11b [Perch-Nielsen, 1985].

2. The Sr age is 5.37 Ma (Sample 46X-3, 30-4 cm) with a value of 0.709033 ± 0.0000007 , while *McKenzie et al.* [1988] reported a mean 87 Sr/ 86 Sr value of 0.708995 ± 0.00002 derived from five samples at the M/P boundary of the Capo Rossello stratotype. This difference may be related to the different lab performance because the interlab difference could have 15-30 ppm [K.G. Miller, personal communication, 1995]. *Farrell et al.* [1995] reported a 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio value of about 0.70904 at the M/P boundary from ODP Site 758, Indian Ocean using the

 Table 3.
 Nannofossil, Paleomagnetic and Strontium Stable Isotopic Stratigraphic Events From ODP

 Site 646B

Events	Species	Core	Depth, msb	Age, Ma	References
	Sr	646B, 41X-2	384.1	4.67	
	Sr	646B, 41X-6	389.5	4.34	
	Sr	646B, 43X-CC	405.1	4.34	
FO	C. rugosus	646B, 46X-2	431.6	5.23	Berggren et al. [1995]
	Sr	646B, 46X-3	433.1	5.37	
	Sr	646B, 48X-2	450.9	4.91	
LO	D. berggrenii	646B, 49X-CC	461.9	5.6	Berggren et al. [1995]
FO	Gt. margaritae	646B, 52X-CC	497.0	6.0	Berggren et al. [1995]
LO	D. quinqueramus	646B, 53X-CC	497.2	5.6	Berggren et al. 1995
FO	D. primus	646B, 73X-CC	692	7.35	Benson et al. [1996]
	Sr	646B, 74X-1	699.7	63	
Гор	C3Ar	646B, 75X	708.6	6.567	Berggren et al. [1995]
•	Sr	646B, 75X-2	711.1	6.83	
FO	D. quinqueramus	646B, 76X-CC	721.4	7.15	Benson et al. [1996]
	Sr	646B, 76X-CC	721.4	7.18	
	Sr	646B, 78-2	739.2	7.07	
	Sr	646B, 78X-CC	739.8	6.36	
	Sr	646B, 80X-1	757.8	7.25	
FO	D. berggrenii	646B, 80X-CC	716.0	7.48	Benson et al. [1996]

Age estimates of nannofossils are calibrated to the new timescale of Berggren et al. [1995] and Benson et al. [1996]. Nannofossil data are from Knüttel et al. [1989]. Paleomagnetic data are from Clement et al. [1989]. FO is first occurrence; LO is last occurrence.

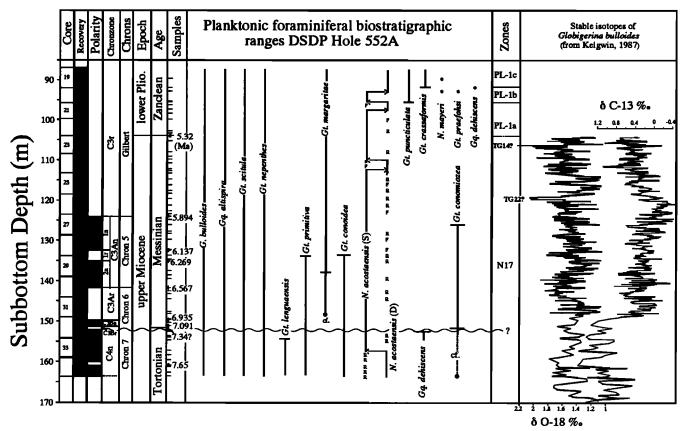


Figure 9. Messinian stratigraphy of DSDP Site 552A from Zhang and Scott [1996]. Paleomagnetic and oxygen and carbon stable isotope data are from Keigwin [1987]. "R" represents rare occurrence, and "F" indicates few occurrences. Asterisks indicate the intervals that are reworked or contaminated. Age estimates are from a new timescale of Berggren et al. [1995].

new timescale of *Berggren et al.* [1995]. Our ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr is similar to that of *Farrell et al.* [1995].

3. The FO of Gt. margaritae (age estimate 6.0 Ma of Berggren et al. [1995]) is at 506.9 msb. and the FO of Gt. puncticulata (4.6 Ma of Berggren et al. [1995]) at 383.08 msb.

4. A δ^{18} O decrease occurs at depletion above Core 45X and a δ^{18} O increase from Cores 47X to 46X. These isotope events are basically identical to those observed in Sites 552A and 608 [Zhang, 1996; Zhang and Scott, 1996] and other locations in the world ocean [Hodell et al., 1986]. Our boundary assignment is higher than those of Knüttel et al. [1989], Baldauf et al. [1989], and Aksu and Kaminski [1989], who placed the M/P boundary in Core 53X and 52X (Figure 7).

DSDP Site 552A

The Messinian/Tortonian boundary. The M/T boundary is recognized by the FO of Globorotalia conomiozea s.s. at 150.16 msb, the base of paleomagnetic Chronozone C3Bn (Figure 9; also see Table 4). The benthic δ^{13} C decrease of ~ 1‰ and a δ^{18} O increase of 0.5‰ occur at ~148 msb and the coiling direction change of Neogloboquadrina acostaensis at 154.62 msb, in the upper part of Chronozone C4n. The Globorotalia shift from G. menardii to G. miotumida observed in the Salé core (Morocco) [Hodell et al., 1994a; Benson et al., 1991] has not been determined by either Huddlestun [1984] or in this study, probably because the taxon is rare.

The Pliocene/Messinian boundary. This boundary is difficult to determine because no definite bioevents, magnetoevents, and chemo-events occur in this "quiet zone" (Figure 9). However, a relevant age estimate of the boundary may be interpolated through several pieces of indirect evidence:

1. The FO of Gt. puncticulata occurs in the lowermost Pliocene in temperate areas [Berggren, 1977; Keller, 1978, 1979a, b, c), and was used to define the PL1a and PL1b boundary. The FO of Gt. crassaformis denotes the PL1b/PL1c boundary [Berggren et al., 1985], although it is absent, rare, or delayed in most low-latitude regions [Keigwin, 1982; Thunell, 1981; Srinivasan and Chaturvedi, 1992; Berggren et al., 1995]. In spite of the current consideration that the FOs of the two species may be simultaneous in (sub)tropical regions [Berggren et al., 1995], we recognized that Gt. puncticulata occurred prior to Gt. crassaformis (Figure 9), in agreement with Huddlestun [1984]. We calibrate the FO of Gt. crassaformis to 4.3 Ma and the FO of Gt. puncticulata to 4.6 Ma (see Table 4) based on the geomagnetic polarity timescale (GPTS) of Berggren et al. [1995]. We consider that the first occurrence of Gt. puncticulata denotes the lower Pliocene and that the P/M boundary must be below this level.

2. The TG14 oxygen isotope stage (see Shackleton et al. [1995] for TG definition) is at 106 msb and is estimated to be 4.8 Ma [Keigwin, 1987] that is now calibrated to ~5.55 Ma [Berggren et al., 1995], below the P/M boundary [Shackleton et al., 1995].

3. Using our age-depth plot (Figure 9), we interpolate the P/M boundary at 103 msb between the FO of *Gt. puncticulata* and TG14 isotope stage, in agreement with *Keigwin* [1987].

Sample	Events	Depth, msb	Age Estimates, Ma
19cc, 10-14	FO Gt. crassaformis	91.00	4.3*
27-1, 4-8	FO Gt. puncticulata	95.35	4.6*
- •	TG14	107.0	5.55
	TG22	119.0	5.75
27-2, 049	C3r base	124.44	5.894
28-3, 075	C3An.1r top	132.25	6.137
29-1, 099	C3An.1r base	134.49	6.269
29-3, 83-87	FO Gt. margaritae	137.33	6.0
30-3, 074	C3Ar top	141.98	6.567
32-1, 144	C3Ar base	149.94	6.935
32-2, 16-20	FO Gt. conomiozea	150.16	7.12
32-2, 144	C3Br top	151.44	7.091
32-3, 051	C3Br base	152.01	7.34
32-3, 94-98	LO Gg. dehiscens	152.4	5.8
33-1, 112-116	LO Gt. lenguaensis	154.62	6.0
34-2, 098	C4n.1r base	160.98	7.65

 Table 4.
 Paleomagnetic, Oxygen Stable Isotopic and Biological Stratigraphic

 Events From DSDP Hole 552A

Age estimates of planktonic foraminiferal and paleomagnetic events are calibrated to the new timescale of *Berggren et al.* [1995]. Paleomagnetic data are from *Keigwin* [1987]. Oxygen isotopic age estimates are calibrated to *Shackleton et al.* [1995]. FO is first occurrence; LO is l ast occurrence.

* Age estimates are calibrated to the new timescale of Berggren et al. [1995] in this study.

Discussion

Origin of the Deep-Water Turbidites

Turbidites are usually recognized by graded bedding, sediment components, and tractional structures. Typical turbidite sequences are known as Bouma sequences, which consist of five divisions, A, B, C, D, and E, as function of grain size change from coarse (bottom) to fine (top). However, in the most cases, a complete Bouma sequence is not recorded, especially in distal sequences. From the micropaleontological point of view, all our turbidite layers are characterized by a well-stratified two-layer structure, a mixed faunal layer below, with a marsh faunal layer capping the sequence (Figure 2), thus suggesting a turbidite origin with the various turbidite packages separated by hemipelagic sediments that have a strictly deep-water fauna. The deep-water faunal layer has Eponides weddellensis, Melonis spp., Gyroidina soldani, Uvigerina spp., Globocassidulina subglobosa, Pullenia bulloides, etc., with extremely rare shallow water components; the mixed layer contains mainly deep-water fauna as given above, with lesser amounts of shallow water agglutinated forms such as T. cf. squamata and Ammotium sp. A., which may vary from 10% to 50%, and the marsh faunal assemblage is dominated by T. cf. squamata and Ammotium sp. A (60% to 100%). These repeated three-layer packages throughout the hole strongly suggest turbidite origin for the mixed and marsh foraminiferal layers. We suggest that the deep-water faunal layer is formed during high sea-level periods and the latter two are formed by downslope transportation from the subaerially exposed continental shelf edge off southwest Greenland, where the marsh foraminifera dwelled (Figure 10). Chaotic lithological textures in the interval bracketed by reflectors R2 and R3/4 (lithological Unit 3, now known as an equivalent to the Messinian) were confirmed by acoustic signals of multichannel seismic reflections reported by Arthur et al. [1989, Figure 9 of p. 967], suggesting the presence of turbidites during Messinian time.

It is difficult to determine exactly how many turbidite flows there are in each layer based on the homogenous sedimentary structure, log data, faunal compositions, and the poor core recovery. The turbidite layers vary considerably in thickness (recovered thicknesses ranging from 1 to 12 m). As distal phases of turbidites, their thicknesses suggest that each layer certainly contains numerous turbidite flows that formed during lower sea-level stands.

In ODP Site 646B, the typical Bouma sequence does not exist, because the sediment components are relatively homogenous and mainly composed of clay [Srivastava et al., 1989a, part. 1, p. 488, Figure 54; Srivastava et al., 1989b]. In Layer 2, coarser sediments such as polished quartz grains and rounded, large shallow-water benthic foraminiferal shells occur at the base of the layer, while finer components are at the top, indicating fining upward. Younger turbidites (early Pliocene) at this site have parallel- and cross-laminated siliciclastic silts, but those are attributed to traction transportation by vigorous bottom currents (contour currents) in the vicinity of Eirik Ridge [Hiscott et al., 1989].

Significant changes at Site 646 in texture of the Messinian section were observed and considered to be related to an intensification of deep-water currents [Cremer, 1989]. Similar conclusions on the association with active deep-water circulation were also suggested by Kaminski et al. [1989] based on the presence of epibenthic suspension-feeders, Rhizammina, which strongly dominated in lithological Unit 3 (equivalent to the Messinian) at this site. Wolf [1991] also interpreted changes in benthic foraminifera from this site in terms of fluctuations in the intensity and composition of the Denmark Strait Overflow. Suspension feeding communities require gentle bottom currents to bring them food, and they may be common in the area of contour currents [Schröder, 1986]. However, when currents are too strong, these epifaunal tubular forms will be the first to be transported [Kaminski et al., 1988a]. Concentrations of these forms (Rhizammina) also occur in laminated fine-grained turbidites [Kaminski et al., 1988a]. Our benthic foraminiferal data show that Rhizammina is concentrated in mixed faunal layers, rather than in deep-water faunal layers which presumably formed in relatively stable environments during high sea-level stands. Scott et al. [1989] saw similar sequences in the Quaternary of Baffin Bay (site surveys for ODP Leg 105, Site 645), where there were turbidite layers, hemipelagic layers, and then a layer of sediments with only

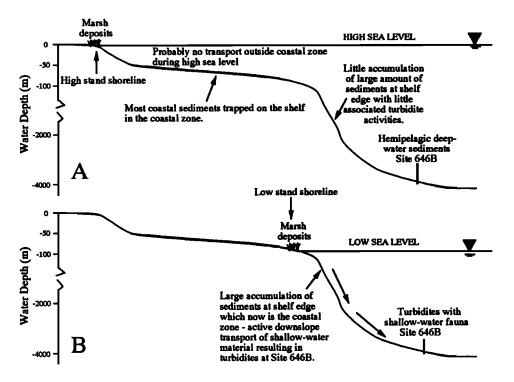


Figure 10. Schematic diagram of southern Greenland margin with both high and low stands of sea level and suggested sediment mechanisms for deep-sea turbidites at ODP Site 646B. (a) high sea-level stand; and (b) low sea-level stand.

Rhizammina algaeformis linings; this sequence repeated several times. The turbidites did not have marsh foraminifera, however, because the Quaternary turbidites were fed by glacial debris, not slumping of coastal deposits as we see at Site 646B in the Messinian. Thus we suggest the Rhizammina assemblage to be more likely an association with some downslope sediment transportation controlled by sea-level fluctuations through the submarine channel in the southwest of Greenland [Arthur et al., 1989]. This transportation may provide sufficient food for the suspension feeders. We speculate that at Site 646B, the deep-water circulation may play a less important role in the occurrence of Rhizammina, the tubular forms which appear to characterize disturbed sites but display a poor ability to quickly recolonize substrate [Kaminski et al., 1988b].

Correlation Between Turbidite Layers and Glacioeustatic Sea-Level Fluctuations

Maybe one of the most important aspects of the turbidites at Site 646B is their origin and the implication for sea level during the late Miocene. The foraminifera occurring in these turbidite layers are salt marsh foraminifera which have been demonstrated to have an extremely narrow range vertically (±10 cm) with respect to sea level and thus provide the most accurate means of relocating ancient sea level when found "in situ" [Scott and Medioli, 1978, 1980, 1986]. During high stands of sea level, carbon (and sediments) is trapped on the continental shelves and the coastal zone is remote to the shelf edge (Figure 10) if we assume a continental margin configuration for Greenland during the Messinian is similar to the present. Hence to have marginal marine foraminiferal fauna in turbidites, sea level must have been 80-100 m lower to expose the shelf edge to allow salt marsh formation near the edge [Scott and Medioli, 1986]. If sea level fluctuated between the present shoreline and the outer shelf as it does now off southern Greenland, then the presence of the marsh foraminifera in deep-sea turbidites during sea-level low stands suggests the amplitude of sea-level change to have been about 80-100 m. Although clearly the sea level was not at the present Quaternary shoreline in the Miocene, it is reasonable to assume there was a continental shelf in the Miocene with a similar morphology (i.e., wide platform) which when emerged rapidly would have had coastal deposits at the edge of the shelf with an 80-100 m sea-level lowering. This is why we think these data provide such an accurate measure of sea-level amplitude. In a similar setting in the Indian Ocean (ODP Leg 116, Site 717), there were many terrestrial plant fragments and some shallow-water foraminifera but never as many as at Site 646B [Scott and Leger, 1990] because sea level was probably not at the shelf edge at that location.

To understand the cause of the deep-water turbidite layers at Site 646B, we compare them with the oxygen isotopes of *Globigerina bulloides*, a surface water dweller, from DSDP Site 552A, where a complete, high-resolution oxygen isotope record for the Messinian interval has been obtained [*Keigwin*, 1987]. A smoothed δ^{18} O curve from the curve with three-point running average is plotted in Figure 11 against the turbidite layers from ODP Site 646B. This smoothed curve displays nine major episodes of δ^{18} O enrichment (Figure 11), which may correspond to the deep-water turbidite layers. Positive δ^{18} O excursions are proxies of cooling and sea-level lowering resulting from increase in the size of polar ice caps, which is in concert with the turbidite origin of an exposed Greenland shelf.

Using the late Quaternary δ^{18} O sea level calibration (0.11‰ δ^{18} O per 10 m of sea-level change [Fairbanks and

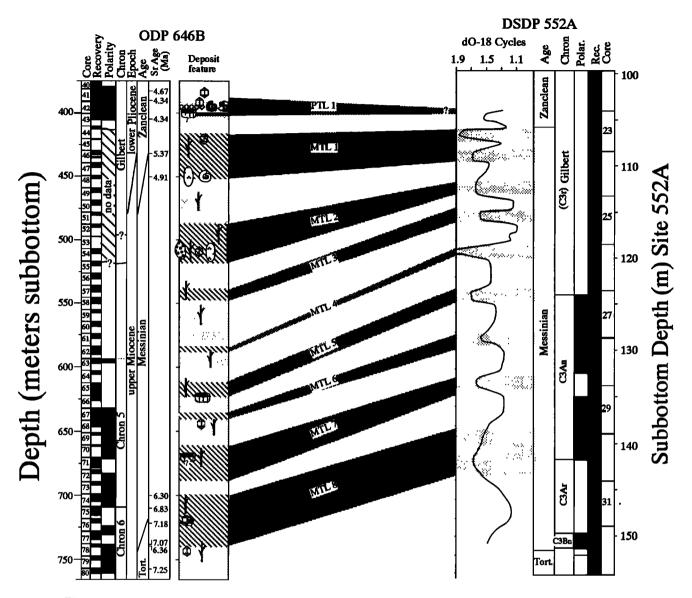


Figure 11. Correlation between the deep-water turbidite layers in Site 646B and oxygen stable isotope enrichment excursions at DSDP Site 552A. Oxygen stable isotopes from *Globigerina bulloides* were done by *Keigwin* [1987]. Smoothed δ^{18} O cycles were obtained from three-point running average curve based on the data given by *Keigwin* [1987]. MTL is Messinian turbidite layers. See Figure 2 for legends of lithologic section, ODP Site 646B.

Matthews, 1978; Miller et al., 1987]), Keigwin [1987] suggested that a 0.6‰ benthic foraminiferal positive shift oxygen isotopes may correspond to 55 m sea-level lowering in the latest Miocene. He noted that this is a minimum estimate, because the unsmoothed δ^{18} O data show a 0.75 amplitude for the 5.55 Ma glacial event (4.8 Ma event of Keigwin [1987]), which would yield 68 m sea-level lowering. The amplitudes of other enriched benthic δ^{18} O peaks at Site 552A vary from 4 to 5.5‰ [Keigwin, 1987], suggesting 36-50 m sea-level lowerings. Similar estimates of late Miocene global sea-level lowering (40-70 m) were derived in southern Spain [Berggren and Haq, 1976], New Zealand [Kennett, 1967; Roberts et al., 1994], Australia [Carter, 1978], the Pacific islands [Adams et al., 1979], the Atlantic coastal plain of North America [Adams et al., 1977], and the Mediterranean region [Hsü et al., 1973a, b; Cita and Ryan, 1979; McKenzie et al., 1979; Müller and Hsü, 1987; Kastens and Mascle, 1990]. Aharon et al. [1993] suggest a sea-level change of 10 m amplitude at the beginning of the Messinian, terminating in a large sea-level fall of at least 30 m near the Miocene/Pliocene boundary for Niue (South Pacific Ocean), rather different from these mentioned above. We consider that the amplitudes in Niue may have been coupled with covariation of tectonic uplifting and glacioeustatic fluctuations because Niue is located in an active tectonic region [Cole and Lewis, 1981; Lincoln and Schlanger, 1987]. This, however, remains uncertain because limited available tectonic data from this area [Dubois et al., 1975] suggest a recent (Holocene) uplifting. Much evidence on ice volume growth at this time has been discovered worldwide both from land and ocean [Mercer and Sutter, 1982; Shackleton and Kennett, 1975; Loutit and Kennett, 1979; Keigwin, 1987; Hayes et al.,

1975; Denton and Armstrong, 1969; Bandy et al., 1969; McDougall et al., 1976; Clark et al., 1980; ODP Leg 151 Shipboard Scientific Party, 1994; Hodell et al., 1986, 1994b; Kemp et al., 1975; Ciesielski et al., 1982; Pomar and Ward, 1994].

On the basis of the marsh foraminifera at Site 646B, we suggest a substantially greater sea-level lowering from Site 646B data (80-100 m), which is more of a direct measurement based on certain assumptions (see Figure 10). The sea-level changes during the Messinian, unlike in any other periods of the Cenozoic, may have been controlled not only by ice volume changes but also by the repeated Mediterranean desiccation cycles. Atlantic water refilling into the Mediterranean Sea with an amount of $3.614 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}^3$ could yield a global instantaneous sea-level lowering of about 10 m, according to the calculation of Hsü et al. [1977] and Müller and Mueller [1991], while a water transfer from the Mediterranean to global ocean area of 3.6 x 10¹⁴ m² could cause about 10 m sea-level rise and would be incorporated into the sea-level changes if a complete Mediterranean desiccation had taken place. On the basis of these considerations, we suggest that 80 m global sea-level lowering at least at 5.55 and 5.75 Ma is quite reasonable. It is obvious that there is an about 30 m difference in amplitude of sea-level changes between the estimates from marsh for a site 646 and from δ^{18} O values at Site 552. The difference may be attributed to (1) an underestimation of amplitudes of Messinian δ^{18} O sea-level lowering because of water vapor evaporated from the Mediterranean Sea with lower $\delta^{18}O$ returning to the open ocean, which would result in a lower δ^{18} O value in the open ocean and possibly the cancellation of part of the ice volume signal; (2) tectonic difference from region to region; and (3) increasing area and altitude of growing ice sheets which lead to lower mean ice sheet $\delta^{18}O$ values

[Miller et al., 1987]. In this paper, we cannot assess the exact amplitudes of the global sea-level fluctuations during the Messinian but only those off Greenland. Sea-level fluctuations show great differences between regions, even in the Holocene [*Pirazzoli*, 1991].

Accurate chronology of the deep-water turbidites cannot be determined directly from our intra-Messinian stratigraphic data of ODP Site 646. The paleomagnetic data are not sufficiently reliable for precise dating because this interval proved less than satisfactory for magnetostratigraphic study due to poor recovery and drilling disturbance [Clement et al., 1989]. However, if we assume the turbidites formed during climatic lowering of sea level, chronology of the turbidites can be suggested from our DSDP Site 552 depth-age plot (Figure 12), which indicates the climatic cycles from the smoothed $\delta^{18}O$ curve climax at 6.59, 6.22, 6.01, 5.89, 5.75, 5.7, 5.65, 5.60, 5.55, and 4.6 Ma, coeval with climate cooling (ice-volume) intervals. It should be pointed out that our calibrations cannot be correlated with 100k eccentricity from Site 552A given by Beaufort and Aubry [1990]. Because of the poor age control for the lower Gilbert paleomagnetic chron, we prefer the age estimates derived from the age-depth plot, rather than time series analysis. The nine oxygen excursions and deep-water turbidite layers could be coeval with eight unconformities in the Niue coral atoll east of Tonga Trench, South Pacific [Aharon et al., 1993], which were formed during low sea-level stands during Messinian time. However, it is rather difficult to make detailed correlation between Site 646B turbidite layers and sea-level cycles from Niue of the Pacific Ocean [Aharon et al., 1993] because they used 6.2 Ma as the Tortonian/Messinian boundary [Berggren et al., 1985] and had poor stratigraphic control. At Site 646B, PTL 1 may be related to the early Pliocene glaciation at 4.6 Ma [Burckle, 1995].

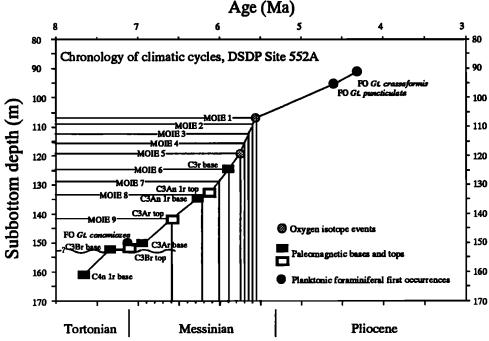


Figure 12. Chronology of episodic climatic cycles from DSDP Site 552A established mainly for tentative age estimates of Messinian turbidite layers at ODP Site 646B. The depth-age plot is originally from *Zhang* [1996]. MOIE is Messinian oxygen isotope enrichment. Paleomagnetic and oxygen stable isotope data are from *Keigwin* [1987].

Turbidite Layers and Sea-Level Changes Linked to the Messinian Salinity Crisis (5.9-5.32 Ma)

The Messinian sequence in the Mediterranean Basin is basically composed of five major successions, i.e., Tripoli marine formation, Caliza Tosca shallow-water deposits, Lower Evaporite, Upper Evaporite, and a thin layer of Lago Mare deposits (fresh/brackish water deposits) that capped the sequence. Hsü et al. [1973a, b], in their early work, claimed that to form a thickness of 2000-3000 m evaporites in the Mediterranean Sea, at least 11-13 inundations would be required if all salts were deposited in the center of the Mediterranean basin, or up to 100 inundations would be necessary if the salts were deposited evenly on the basin floor. Benson and Rakic-El Bied [1991] suggested seven to eight inundations, which is even less than Hsū's later suggestion (8-10 inundations) [Benson and Rakic-El Bied [1991]. These speculations greatly stimulated scientists to find connections between the isotope records in deep-sea marine sediments and the Mediterranean Messinian Salinity Crisis. So far, these have not been easily proven. Some authors remarked that two oxygen isotopic enrichment events may have corresponded to the Salinity Crisis, one in the youngest Chron 5 and the other in the earliest Gilbert, which have been linked to the formation of the Lower and Upper Evaporites in the Mediterranean Basin. [McKenzie and Oberhänsli, 1985; Hodell et al., 1986; Cita and McKenzie, 1986; Müller and Hsü, 1987; Keigwin, 1987; Zhang, 1996]. Recently, the Messinian Salinity Crisis was correlated to eustatic changes indicated by eight unconformities from Niue coral atoll, South Pacific Ocean [Aharon et al., 1993], but this requires further age recalibration for each unconformity.

Six oxygen enrichment excursions in the interval between 5.9 and 5.32 Ma are recognized (Figure 11), indicating more frequent climatic changes at this time than during the early Messinian (from 7.12 to 5.8 Ma). This interval is equivalent to the Messinian Salinity Crisis, caused by either limited Atlantic inflow or isolation of the Mediterranean from the Atlantic Ocean near 5.9 Ma as suggested by Berggren et al. [1995] (Note that Gautier et al. [1994] suggest a slightly later time, i.e., 5.8 Ma). The sea-level lowerings that led to the turbidite formation might also have contributed to the repeated isolation of the Mediterranean Basin during the late Messinian, although there are not as many as 11-13 inundations [Hsü et al., 1973a, b] or seven to eight as suggested by Benson and Rakic-El Bied [1991]. We cannot expect the exact number of inundations in the Mediterranean to be recorded in deep-water turbidites suggested by Hsü et al. [1973a, b] or by Benson and Rakic-El Bied [1991], because of complicated geological/hydrological processes of deep-water turbidites and poor preservation and/or core recovery at Site 646B where part of the turbidite record could have been missing or not sampled.

Conclusions

Our benthic foraminiferal data clearly indicate that eight layers (MTL 1-8) of deep-water turbidites during the Messinian and one in the early Pliocene (PTL 1) formed at Site 646B (water depth 3461.3 m). These deep-water turbidite layers are characterized by high contents of agglutinated marsh benthic foraminifera (e.g., *Trochammina* cf. squamata, Ammotium sp. A, Miliammina fusca), rounded quartz, polished thick-shelled benthic foraminifera, wood fragments, plant seeds, fruits, and highly concentrated mica and are interbedded with sediments containing hemipelagic deep-water benthic faunas. These turbidites may be attributed to the distal turbidite facies because of the relatively homogenous clay components. A chronology for these deep-water turbidites has been tentatively correlated to the heavy δ^{18} O excursions at DSDP Site 552. The turbidite layers are dated at 6.59, 6.22, 6.01, 5.89, 5.75, 5.70, 5.65, 5.60, 5.55 and 4.6 Ma. The turbidites originated from intertidal deposits as indicated by their foraminiferal content, and they are the best direct measurement to define the amplitudes of sea-level lowering of 80-100 m during the Messinian. Sealevel falls could have been caused by increased polar ice volume, and/or by water transfer between the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean in the Messinian.

Our evidence suggests that the six deep-water turbidite layers during the late Messinian from ODP Site 646B and oxygen isotope excursions from DSDP Site 552A may be correlated to the Mediterranean Lower and Upper Evaporites, which might have formed if sea level lowered sufficiently to isolate partially or totally the Mediterranean Basin. The most profound climate changes occurred at 5.75 and 5.55 Ma, when the major bodies of the Lower and Upper Evaporites were formed. It is evident that the formation of Mediterranean evaporites has had a close affiliation with severe climate fluctuation during the Messinian.

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