

SCHOOL OF EARTH AND ENVIRONMENT

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Dear Yves Godderis,

Please find attached our revised paper. We found both reviewers' comments on the manuscript to be very helpful and have responded in detail below. In particular, throughout the changes and whenever possible we have tried to focus the paper on the most important aspects of our results, thus shortening the paper.

(The attached manuscript is in track-changes format for easy identification of the modifications made to the original manuscript. Please note that at Reviewer 2's request – see point 7 below – we have inserted a new Figure between previous Figure 2 and 3. We have tried to be clear in our response about the new Figure numbering. Text quoted from the manuscript is in italics.)

Reviewer 1

Reviewer's summary: 'The Messinian Salinity crisis is a very peculiar event in the Earth's history. It has been largely studied over the last 3 decades but how this multiphase event impacted Late Miocene global climate remains to be studied. This paper attempts to clarify this question.

'This modelling exercise consists of the use of the fully coupled AOGCM HadCM3 to simulate the response of atmosphere (in term of air surface temperature mostly) and ocean (in term of surface temperature, potential temperature at depth, salinity, meridional overturning) to different scenarios combining the salinity of the Mediterranean Sea (from fresh water to hyper-saline water) and the intensity of the Meridional Outflow water (from a no-exchange to a twice stronger exchange). The paper is clear and well written.'

'However I think that some points need to be clarified.'

1. Reviewer's comment: 'The authors use a "Messinian control" as a reference simulate for that period. In this run, the model is forced with boundary conditions representing the Early Pliocene (EP) (PRISM2 dataset). It includes EP

topography, EP vegetation, reduced ice sheets and a pC02 fixed at 400 ppm. The authors give some references (Haywood and Valdes, 2004; Lunt et al., 2008a, 2008) in which the reader will find a full description of the simulated EP climate. However these papers did not give a full description of the simulated EP climate simulated with HadCM3. For instance, the air surface temperature shown in the paper (fig.4a [now figure 5a]) seems to be different from the figure 1 (top left) in Haywood and Valdes (2004). Concerning the two other papers (Lunt et al., 2008a and 2008b), they do not provide any further information how the AOGCM HadCM3 simulates the "Messinian" control (or Early Pliocene) at global scale since they consists mainly of sensitivity experiments to pCO2, topography, closure of seaway. I think that a more detailed description of the EP simulations will be useful. For instance, the authors should explain by how much the simulated EP climate is so warm, especially at low latitudes. The figure 4a [now figure 5a] does not permit to distinguish the respective effect of the rise of pCO2 (400 ppm vs 280 ppm), topography changes (fig.4d [now figure 5d]), and/or albedo changes. Changes in surface albedo can be shown. The sea surface temperature anomaly (fig.4b [now figure 5b]) should be discussed. The figure 4c [now figure 5c] (precipitation minus evaporation anomaly given in percentage) does not permit to observe the wetter and drier zones. These anomalies should not be explained in %. The authors must quantify the global mean difference in air surface temperature, precipitation, the change in NADW.'

Authors' response: The simulation run by Haywood and Valdes (2004) is an identical simulation to our *Miocene Control*, except that it has a closed Central American Seaway (CAS). This is why their figures (e.g. of surface air temperature) are different to ours. Lunt et al. (2008b) ran the same simulation to Haywood and Valdes (2004), but with an open CAS. This later simulation is completely identical to our *Miocene Control*. Because Lunt et al. (2008b) examined their simulation in the context of a closing CAS (when moving from the Miocene into the Pliocene), the anomalies are presented in this light. However, the differences are equally valid for looking at the effect of opening the CAS on the simulation described by Haywood and Valdes (2004). We have modified the text in section 2.3.1 to clarify this point. We have also removed references to Lunt et al. (2008a) here, because as the reviewer points out, it is not as relevant as Lunt et al. (2008b). Because Lunt et al. (2008b) do examine both the boundary conditions and the climate for our *Miocene control* in considerable detail with respect to Haywood and Valdes (2004) (albeit in the reverse context), we have not repeated this in the manuscript; the information presented would not be new and would lengthen the article considerably. However, we agree with the reviewers that not enough information was previously given and so have extended the text in section 2.3.1 of the original manuscript to include more description of the control climate e.g. global mean differences in air surface temperature, sea surface temperatures, precipitation and NADW formation. In agreement with the reviewer, we have also changed Figure 5c (previously Figure 4c) to show precipitation (% change), which provides more useful information on the control climate.

2. Reviewer's comment: 'The sensitivity experiments to changes in MOW exchange and Mediterranean salinity are interesting. The authors have selected the three most pertinent experiments. However the authors must better explain how the "most pertinent" simulations were selected. In the discussion, they indicate that the chosen simulations can't be associated with a peculiar stage of the Messinian Salinity crisis. Thus the choice of the runs is not clear. The full data can not be accessed on the website.'

Authors' response: We have extended the text to include this explanation; please also see our response to points 11 and 15 below. The full data can currently be accessed on the website by requesting a username/password from Paul Valdes. It will all be added to the open-access 'Simulations featured in papers' part of the website upon publication of this manuscript; you will see examples of the data for the other published papers on this theme are available in this way: http://www.paleo.bris.ac.uk/ummodel/scripts/papers/main_table1.html

3. Reviewer's comment: 'I suggest that the authors should discuss the role of salinity changes and MOW exchanges separately.'

Authors' response: There are three reasons why we have not done this:

1) A previous paper does this for the modern, pre-industrial HadCM3 set-up in some detail (Ivanovic et al., in press) and we do not think that there would be much additional gain from re-examining these questions independently.

2) Whilst idealised, the changes we have tried to represent are changes in the direction we expect to have taken place during the Messinian Salinity Crisis (i.e. a reduction in Gibraltar Straits' geometry, crudely parameterised by the HadCM3 Mediterranean-Atlantic 'pipe' exchange coefficient, is highly likely to have occurred during Mediterranean hypersalinity, with the greatest reduction taking place during halite saturation), so it is useful to consider these processes together and relative to each other.

3) Changing the coefficient of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange in our simulations did not seem to affect the modelled processes; only the magnitude of the changes was affected for each set of salinity experiments, with the largest magnitude of change taking place when the exchange was greatest and vice versa.

Also considering the editor's comments regarding conciseness, we think this is the most appropriate and informative way to present the results.

4. Reviewer's comment: 'The figure 8 [now figure 9] displays the impact on annual mean surface air temperatures but it would be interesting to display the changes in sea ice and/or surface albedo. A seasonal approach may be useful. Moreover the authors should add a sentence about possible feedbacks due to vegetation changes.'

Authors' response: In response to later comments and the Editor's advice, we have refocused the manuscript to concentrate on the 'ample responses' to

'shorten the paper'. In order to do this, <u>we have removed discussion of sea-ice</u> <u>effects and seasonality</u>. This is partly because we realised our presentation of the sea-ice results was not clear in the original manuscript. Our references to 'sea-ice formation' and 'sea-ice cover' are in fact descriptions of the change in sea-ice concentration, which is a confusing concept. This also explains why we described relatively large changes in sea-ice cover as a response to relatively small and localised temperature anomalies (see Editor's comment). Because it is of secondary importance to the climate anomalies simulated, we have removed discussion of it from the manuscript.

The experiments were not run with a dynamic vegetation model so there are no simulated feedbacks (we have clarified this by extending the model description in section 2.1). It is beyond the scope of this study to investigate the vegetation response.

5. Reviewer's comment: 'In the last part of the discussion, the authors concluded that air temperature is very sensitive to MSC. However the impact on precipitation is not shown and/or discussed. Finally the authors suggest that regions can be defined as key zones. It is not so obvious according to figure 8 [now figure 9].'

Authors' response: The impact on precipitation is negligible in the hypersaline simulations and localised in the hyposaline simulations (as outlined at the end of section 3.2.2 and briefly discussed in the fourth paragraph of section 4). In agreement with the second reviewer and the editor, we have <u>focussed the discussion on the 'ample responses'</u> and so have not extended the text or figures further; precipitation is not majorly affected by the changes in MOW.

With regard to the reviewer's comments on Figure 9 (previously Figure 8); we have modified the figure to focus on the regions with the most ample responses (e.g. see our reply to point 20 below). In response to this modification and this comment by Reviewer 1, we have modified this text (i.e. the last two paragraphs of section 4 'Discussion and conclusions') so that it is more appropriate.

6. Reviewer's comment: 'The red shades used in the colour scales of different plots (figures 4a, 4b, 8a [now figures 5a, 5b and 9a] etc) are hard to distinguish.'

Authors' response: We have deferred to the editor's guidance that the colour scales do not need to be changed.

Reviewer 2

Reviewer's summary: 'In this paper, Ivanovic et al. use the HadCM3 model to test the impact of the MOW on the global ocean circulation and on the global climate. Starting from a Pliocene experiment, the authors modulate the exchange flux between the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean by imposing the global salinity of the Mediterranean Sea. The idea is to mimic the effect of highly saline and highly fresh Mediterranean water flowing into the Atlantic Ocean. The paper is generally well written but with too much details being unsupported by clear illustrations. The authors try to go deep into the details for explaining the response of their model but it is often hard to follow. The effect of the MOW remains weak in HadCM3 despite the efforts of the authors to find a well distinguishable signal in their runs. I have several comments listed below that require a substantial work from the authors before this paper could reach the standards of the journal. I think that this paper will be better in a shorter format and that, as it stands, it is too long, with too many details to provide explanations on very small signals.'

7. Reviewer's comment: 'P. 4813, please provide a figure - with a focus on the Gibraltar straits - with the ocean grid resolution - in order the reader can understand which ocean grid points are concerned by the equation (1). Indeed, you are referring to 4 points for the mean of each tracer field but it is not clear where they are located.'

Authors' response: We have added such a figure, now Figure 3.

Reviewer's comment continued: '...Also, why are you using a pipe of 1 km whereas today, the Gibraltar strait reaches 300 meters? Are there geological evidences? Please expand the discussion here.'

Authors' response: The geological evidence that we use to ascertain that '...1 *km depth...is an appropriate palaeobathymetry in the model for either side of the Messinian Mediterranean-Atlantic seaways*' (page 4813 of the original manuscript) is cited in the text '(e.g. van Assen et al., 2006; Fortuin and Krijgsman, 2003; Hilgen et al., 2000; Hodell et al., 1994; Krijgsman, 2001; Krijgsman et al., 2004; van der Laan et al., 2006)' (page 4813 of the original manuscript). Because of the limits of the model's horizontal resolution, and to make sure that Mediterranean and Atlantic water flow out of the Straits and mix appropriately in the Gulf of Cadiz (Atlantic side) and Alboran Sea (Mediterranean side), the pipe must therefore also be this deep (otherwise a too-shallow pipe would extend too far in both directions). Furthermore, the pipe needs to be 1 km deep because it also necessarily captures part of the mixing of water masses that occurs above the continental shelf (which the model could not otherwise resolve properly). We have extended the text before equation 1 to clarify this point.

8. Reviewer's comment: 'P. 4814, Figure 3 [now Figure 4] is described. Miocene and CTRL simulations are used to show salinity and temperature anomalies. I have an issue here, what are the boundary conditions used? What makes Miocene different than the CTRL?'

⁽P.4815, Additional information about the boundary conditions (CO2, CH4, orbital parameters, solar luminosity) should be added here. Perhaps this information can be found in Lunt et al. (2008) but it is so fundamental for our understanding that it

should be included here. ! The informations are on the next page in fact, I.16-20, perhaps, you could move these sentences on the previous page. !'

Authors' response: We have restructured these sections of the text so that the Miocene and modern control simulations (including Fig. 6., preciously Fig. 3) are now described after the boundary conditions are described, which we agree is a more appropriate order than was in the original manuscript. We have made the change this way around because we prefer to keep the description of the model's fundamental Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange equation before the description of the boundary conditions. (Note that this affects the numbering of several figures, which are now in a new order; specifically Fig. 4, 5 and 6 in the new manuscript). The description of the boundary conditions has also been moved up into the opening paragraphs of section 2.3.1, as suggested by Reviewer 2. The new order is: (1) a description of the Messinian model boundary conditions, (2) a general description of the Messinian model climate, (3) a description of Messinian model's Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange and Mediterranean Outflow Water. We have also extended the text in section 2.3.1 to provide a clearer description of the boundary conditions and a better description of the Messinian control climate. We have, however, kept these descriptions succinct as they are addressed in detail by two earlier publications; Haywood and Valdes (2004) and Lunt et al. (2008).

9. Reviewer's comment: 'P. 4816, what is the change in the land area induced by a 25 m higher sea level? Is it significant given the spatial resolution of the model?'

Authors' response: As the reviewer suggests, the change in sea level (from present to Miocene) does not make a difference to the model's land-sea mask, however it does add an extra 25 m to the bathymetry and so is potentially significant.

10. Reviewer's comment: 'P. 4818. I. 11-13, even if the method is described in your previews paper, can you say some worlds in this paper in order the reader can follow what you did without being forced to read all your previous contributions.'

Authors' response: We have extended the text here to clarify our methods. We also note that the reference to a previous paper is mainly made to highlight the consistency of the two investigations without having to read the detail of both methodologies. The reader is not required to also read the methods of the earlier paper; all necessary information is provided here.

11.Reviewer's comment: 'P.4818, Table1, what are the reasons that led to the choice of the values used for the coefficient of exchange. Why a quarter, than a half and then a doubling. It seems that this may be due to the decrease of the depth of the Gibraltar Strait, more saline water being equivalent to less water in the Mediterranean basin. Am I right? Please write it more explicitly in the paper.'

Authors' response: We have extended the text in the first paragraph of section 2.2 to clarify this. During the Messinian, the Gibraltar Straits were closed and Mediterranean and Atlantic were linked by two marine corridors; the Rifian Corridor through Morocco and the Betic Corridor through southern Spain (e.g. Betzler et al., 2006; Duggen et al., 2003; Martín et al., 2009; Santisteban and Taberner, 1983). The model would not resolve these gateways, and so the same parameterisation is used as for the Gibraltar Straits in the modern simulation to capture Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange. Part of the function of the coefficient of exchange in the parameterisation is to represent the geometry of the marine gateway(s) linking the two basins.

The MSC was likely brought about by changes in Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange volume (through either or both of the two Corridors), probably caused by regional tectonics and possibly also influenced by orbitally-controlled (mainly precession) climate. Whilst we do not yet know the exact nature of these changes (i.e. what were the dimensions of the Corridors and what were the exchange fluxes of water/salinity between the Mediterranean and Atlantic), it is highly likely that Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange was volumetrically reduced during episodes of hypersalinity. We do not know how it would have been different during episodes of hyposalinity.

Because of the uncertainty on the precise numbers (and even on Mediterranean Sea level at the time; e.g. Canals et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 1973; Roveri et al., 2011; Ryan and Cita, 1978), we chose to carry out idealised simulations in the direction of change that researchers think happened (based on both geological evidence and box modelling; e.g. Flecker and Ellam, 2006; Fortuin and Krijgsman, 2003; Krijgsman and Meijer, 2008; Lugli et al., 2010; Meijer, 2012; Topper et al., 2011). This included a halving and quartering of the exchange coefficient for the extremely hypersaline scenarios, where halite-saturation is thought to have occurred under conditions with the most restricted gateways. We do not know the direction of change that occurred during Mediterranean near-freshening, so we also halved and doubled the exchange coefficient for these simulations. However, because of the uncertainty in the direction of change, we focussed the analysis on the 1 x exchange coefficient simulation, rather than the halved or doubled scenarios. We have extended the text to make the justification clearer.

12. Reviewer's comment: 'P.4820, I.2-9, how do you follow a water mass in a eulerian OGCM? It is not clear to me. Can you expand the discussion here and/or provide convincing figure?.'

Authors' response: Here we are summarising the results described by a previous paper (Ivanovic et al., in press). In this paper, dye-tracers were used to directly track the path of Mediterranean-origin waters (Ivanovic et al., in press, p.7 and fig. 4). Notably, the use of dye-tracers in this study verified that temperature and salinity anomalies can also be used reliably to view the MOW plume in ambient Atlantic water in HadCM3 (e.g. Fig. 4, previously Fig. 3, of this manuscript), as they are in present-day observational profiles (e.g. Boyer et al., 2009). We have extended the text to make this paragraph clearer.

13. Reviewer's comment: 'P. 4820-4821 / I.26-6. This paragraph is hard to follow. The link between the NADW and the AABW is new for me and not straightforward, I am more used to seesaw in OAGCM, i.e. less NADW produces more AABW. Here the authors suggest a mechanism by which the decrease in NADW will produce the inverse. This is not convincing at all, please remove or expand. In addition, in the last sentence is wrong. Indeed, Fig. 5b [now Fig 6b] show the meridional overturning in the Atlantic Ocean (AMOC). The authors refer to the Pacific Ocean. Please be careful.'

Authors' response: Following Reviewer 2's comments 13, 14, 18-21 and the Editor's guidance to 'focus your discussion on explaining the ample responses of the model to the sensitivity tests, without spending to [sic] much time on marginal responses', we have removed this paragraph. We have edited the text to focus on the larger Northern Hemisphere changes and have removed discussion of the small Southern Hemisphere changes for the hypersaline simulations and other secondary processes for all simulations. To be consistent, we have also replotted some of the figures to focus on the area of interest (around the North Atlantic). This includes figure 6 (previously figure 5), which depicts Atlantic Meridional Stream Functions for the different simulations, which were difficult to understand given that the Miocene North Atlantic was not an enclosed basin and had open water exchange with the Pacific through the Central American Seaway (hence invalidating the stream function plot across this latitude). The text has been edited to accommodate this change.

14. Reviewer's comment: 'The following paragraphs are also hard to follow. Again the authors describe many processes being causally linked but not always easy to follow. In particular they may at least change the figure 6 [now figure 7] by zooming on the area of interest where there is oceanographic signal in their runs, the Central and the North Atlantic.'

Authors' response: In section 3.1, <u>we have amended figure 7 (previously figure 6)</u> as guided, have <u>removed text</u> that the reviewer and editor suggest is unnecessary (see response to point 13 above), and have <u>reworded parts of the text to make the explanation of the dominant processes clearer</u>.

15. Reviewer's comment: 'P.4822 I6-21. Concerning the salinity events, I would say that it would be more pertinent to compare the results from the simulations with the same exchange flux because here you change two factors, the salinity and the exchange flux. Otherwise, the authors could calculate the salinity exchange flux for each simulation and use these values to choose their run or to make their case more convincing. In fact, they do that in the next paragraph. So, provide us with salt export for each run shown in Table1.'

Authors' response: (Please also see response to point 3.) We have included the additional information in the table as requested and extended the text (also in response to point 2) to make our meaning clearer. Please note that we have not constrained the salinity exported from the Mediterranean, but allowed the GCM freedom to simulate this based on Mediterranean-Atlantic marine gateway(s) constraints. We controlled μ (e.g. halving, doubling etc.), which represents the geometry of the gateway(s) in the model (see response to points 2 and 11). We would also like to highlight that in terms of the processes discussed, there was little difference in the results depending on exchange-flux; 'the climate anomalies had the same direction of change and were brought about through the same mechanisms, although the magnitude of change was different depending on the exchange strength (varied μ , see Table 1); reducing the exchange damped the anomalies, enhancing the exchange exaggerated the anomalies' (first paragraph of section 3.2). Although there were differences in the magnitudes of change when different exchange coefficients (μ) were used, we do not think this adds to the discussion of the results. This is especially true because (i) it would risk being repetitive of a previous paper that this work builds on (Ivanovic et al., in press); and (ii) it would increase the length of this manuscript, against the Editor's wishes, but would not greatly improve our understanding of either the mechanisms, or of the actual events because changes in gateway geometry almost certainly accompanied the salinity 'crises' (as previously discussed).

16. Reviewer's comment: 'P.4823 I1-2, can you explain the cooling induced by the salt export? 2 and 1.8 _C?'

Authors' response: The cooling is caused by reduced vertical mixing. The reduced vertical mixing arises because at every timestep we have forced the Mediterranean to have uniform salinity throughout the water column. <u>We have extended the text to include this explanation and clarify that it is not because of the salt export</u>.

17. Reviewer's comment: 'L3-8, I do not see a more predominantly spreading of the MOW southward on figure 7 [now figure 8]. How can you state that the MOW is entrained in the ACC? Once again, I do not think that it is so easy to follow water path in an OAGCM.'

Authors' response: We disagree; the positive salinity anomalies in Fig 8a and particularly 7b show that MOW mainly spreads south from the Gibraltar Straits (~35° N) and at depth, though this does not preclude some northward spread of MOW as well (especially Fig. 8a); <u>we have extended the text to clarify this</u>. With regard to entrainment in the ACC; we recognised temperature/salinity anomaly patterns (interpreted with respect to ocean currents) from similar, previously run experiments that contained dye-tracers (and so could track MOW directly). We are confident that this is what happens, however, because Reviewer 2 is not, <u>we have removed the offending statement</u>.

18. Reviewer's comment: 'L15 – I4(next page) / this paragraph is hard to follow, please remove it or rewrite it with a better choice of figure to support your logic.'

Authors' response: <u>We have removed much of this (and the following)</u> paragraph and rephrased what remains so that it more clearly and succinctly describes only the key changes (also in response to points 13 and 14 above).

19.Reviewer's comment: 'P. 4824. L. 5-15 / The mid to high latitude SATs decrease by up to 4_C . . . in reality, I see a pattern closer to -0.5 to -1. Please avoid overstatement.'

Authors' response: The figure quoted is accurate, there was cooling by 'up to 4 °C'. However, we recognise that most (in fact almost all) of the cooling is less than this; a few degrees at most. We have modified the text to give an improved representation of the data. Note that we have also modified the figure to concentrate on the Northern Hemisphere region of most interest and not be distracted by 'very small signals' (see Reviewer 2's summary, above). This is in line with Reviewer 2 and the Editor's wishes to focus our presentation of the results (see response to points 13, 14, 18, 20 and 21).

20. Reviewer's comment: 'L16-24 / the SAT increase of 1.5 _C (fig. 8c [now fig. 9c]) is almost invisible . . . once again, your figure are not supporting your text.'

Authors' response: <u>We have replotted the Figure 9 (previously Figure 8) panels</u> so that they are zoomed-in and the reader can see the climate anomalies of most interest (i.e. in the North Atlantic region) more clearly; including this localised 1.5 °C warming. Please also see previous responses, e.g. to points 13 and 19 above.

21. Reviewer's comment: 'L 25 – I12 (next page) lot of things are written here, once again very hard to follow, please remove or add diagnostics making your case more convincing. The elevated salinity (which is not visible) can explain both cooling and warming. The cooling is linked to more upwelling, the warming to a deeper mixed layer. All these explanations for changes in temperature of plus or minus 1_C . . .'

Authors' response: <u>We have removed the text as suggested</u> (also see previous responses, e.g. to point 18 above).

22.Reviewer's comment: 'Figure 5 [now Figure 6] : A) it is strange, No intermediate waters goes south of 20 _N ? why that , the NADW should reach the southern hemisphere. Can you explain ?'

Authors' response: The reviewer is right and deep/intermediate water does travel past the equator in the model; the problem is that the stream function plot

is confusing (please see our response to point 13 above). The figure is difficult to understand in the Tropics because the Atlantic is not an enclosed basin here; the Central American Seaway is open. We realise that this rather invalidates the use of the stream function plot for this region, <u>thus we have moved its cut-off north to 15° N</u> (the Central American Seaway is just south of this) so that it now captures an enclosed segment of the North Atlantic basin.

Generally, we have revised the original manuscript so that it includes a better description of the model set-up and *control* climate. In addition, we have shortened the presentation and discussion of the results to remove reference to marginal effects and instead focus on the main climate responses (for this reason, we have removed rather than expanded the confusing presentation of small sea-ice changes, for example). We have also checked all of the numbers cited in the text (e.g. temperature changes) and where necessary, we have revised them to make sure that they are not overstated or focussed on extremes, but instead provide an accurate representation of the wider-spread effects. Several of the figures have been modified in line with the Reviewers' wishes; mainly to clarify and concentrate on the main processes/responses discussed in the text.

Therefore, having carefully and thoroughly addressed all of the reviewers' comments and responded to your guidance, we hope that the revised paper is now acceptable to be published in Climate of the Past.

Yours sincerely,

Puest

Ruža F. Ivanović

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Modelling global-scale climate impacts of the late Miocene Messinian Salinity Crisis.

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8 Abstract

9 Late Miocene tectonic changes in Mediterranean-Atlantic connectivity and climatic changes 10 caused Mediterranean salinity to fluctuate dramatically, including a ten-fold increase and 11 near-freshening. Recent proxy- and model-based evidence suggests that at times during this 12 Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC, 5.96-5.33 Ma), highly-saline and highly-fresh Mediterranean water flowed into the North Atlantic Ocean, whilst at others, no Mediterranean Outflow 13 14 Water (MOW) reached the Atlantic. By running extreme, sensitivity-type experiments with a fully-coupled ocean-atmosphere general circulation model, we investigate the potential of 15 16 these various MSC MOW scenarios to impact global-scale climate.

17 The simulations suggest that although the effect remains relatively small, MOW had a greater 18 influence on North Atlantic Ocean circulation and climate than it does today. We also find 19 that depending on the presence, strength and salinity of MOW, the MSC could have been capable of cooling mid-high northern latitudes by a few degreesmore than 1.2 °C, with the 20 21 greatest cooling taking place in the Labrador, Greenland-Iceland-Norwegian and Barents 22 Seas. With hypersaline-MOW, a component of North Atlantic Deep Water formation shifts to 23 the Mediterranean, strengthening the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) 24 south of 35° N by 31.5-67 Sv. With hyposaline-MOW, AMOC completely shuts down, inducing a bipolar climate anomaly with strong cooling in the North (mainly -1 to -3 °C, but 25 up to $-\frac{10.58}{0}$ °C) and weaker warming in the South (up to $+\frac{0.5 \text{ to } +2.5-7}{0}$ °C). 26

These simulations identify key target regions and climate variables for future proxyreconstructions to provide the best and most robust test cases for (a) assessing Messinian 1 model performance, (b) evaluating Mediterranean-Atlantic connectivity during the MSC and

2 (c) establishing whether or not the MSC could ever have affected global-scale climate.

3 1 Introduction

During the latest Miocene (the Messinian) a series of dramatic, basin-wide salinity 4 fluctuations affected the Mediterranean (Fig. 1). These are thought to have been caused by 5 progressive tectonic restriction of the Mediterranean-Atlantic seaways (e.g. Hsu et al., 1977; 6 7 Krijgsman et al., 1999a). This event, the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC), is recorded in a 8 sequence comprising thick gypsum and halite evaporites (Fig. 1), which indicate a three to 9 ten-fold increase in Mediterranean salinity above present day conditions (e.g. Decima and Wezel, 1973; Krijgsman et al., 1999a), and ostracod-rich Lago Mare facies, which suggest 10 11 that at times, Mediterranean salinity declined to brackish or near-fresh conditions (Decima 12 and Wezel, 1973).

13 The effect that the MSC may have had on global-scale climate has yet to be fully explored. 14 Murphy et al. (2009) and Schneck et al. (2010) investigated the impact of Mediterranean Sea 15 level change, as well as total evaporation and revegetation of the Mediterranean basin, using 16 an atmosphere only General Circulation Model (GCM) and Earth system model of 17 intermediate complexity, respectively. They found a generally localised impact (for example, 7 °C annual mean warming, ± 600 mm yr⁻¹ of precipitation, mostly in good agreement with the 18 19 fossil-record; Griffin, 1999), mainly affecting the Alps and Northern Africa, but with some 20 influence (cooling) over the high latitude oceans (North Atlantic, North Pacific and the Gulf 21 of Alaska; Murphy et al., 2009). Others have considered the influence of Mediterranean 22 Outflow Water (MOW) on present day and Quaternary global-scale climate through its ability 23 to modify North Atlantic circulation (Bigg and Wadley, 2001; Chan and Motoi, 2003; 24 Ivanovic et al., in press2013c; Kahana, 2005; Rahmstorf, 1998; Rogerson et al., 2010). 25 However, none have investigated the impact of MSC changes in MOW on ocean circulation 26 and climate.

It has been widely postulated that there was no Mediterranean outflow during episodes of Mediterranean hypersalinity and this must have been true if the Mediterranean fully desiccated during halite precipitation (e.g. Hsu et al., 1973; Ryan and Cita, 1978). However, the evidence for complete desiccation remains controversial (e.g. Canals et al., 2006; Roveri et al., 2011) and alternative hypotheses have been put forward invoking a less substantial 1 Mediterranean sea level fall and even sustained MOW during periods of Mediterranean

2 hypersalinity (e.g. Flecker and Ellam, 2006; Fortuin and Krijgsman, 2003; Krijgsman and

3 Meijer, 2008; Lugli et al., 2010; Meijer, 2012; Topper et al., 2011). In addition, it is difficult

4 to envisage how enough salt could have been brought into the Mediterranean to explain the 1-

5 3 km thick Messinian evaporite sequence visible in the seismic record (Lofi et al., 2011; Ryan

6 et al., 1973) without inflow from the Atlantic.

7 From box modelling and hydrologic budget calculations, total desiccation of the 8 Mediterranean is estimated to have taken 1-10 kyr (Benson et al., 1991; Blanc, 2000; Hsu et 9 al., 1973; Meijer and Krijgsman, 2005; Topper et al., 2011), producing a layer of evaporite 10 that is 24-47 m thick in the process (Meijer and Krijgsman, 2005). This is less than 2 % of the 11 total volume of evaporite thought to have precipitated out of solution in around 500 ka 12 (Krijgsman et al., 1999a) or less (Garcia-Castellanos and Villaseñor, 2011) during the 13 Messinian. Thus, one desiccation-reflooding cycle would be required approximately every 6-7 14 ka. The solar precession mechanism put forward to explain the observed cyclicity in 15 Messinian Mediterranean sediments has a periodicity of 21 kyr (Krijgsman et al., 1999a); too 16 long to reconcile the desiccation hypothesis with the volume of evaporites precipitated. Other 17 hypotheses encompass cycles of 10 kyr or less (Garcia-Castellanos and Villaseñor, 2011).

A more likely scenario, consistent with both model results (e.g. Gladstone et al., 2007; Meijer and Krijgsman, 2005; Meijer, 2006, 2012) and data (Abouchami et al., 1999; Ivanovic et al., 2013a; Muiños et al., 2008) is that the Mediterranean was often connected to the Atlantic during MSC hyper- and hypo-salinity, particularly during episodes of gypsum formation and near-freshening, with at least periodic Mediterranean Outflow to the Atlantic.

23 It is the purpose of this modelling study to investigate both the impact of hyper- and hypo-24 saline MOW on global-scale Messinian climate and to evaluate the consequences of no 25 Mediterranean water reaching the Atlantic. From this work, it is possible to determine the 26 climate variables and geographical regions that are most susceptible to MSC-influenced 27 climate changes. To this end, we here present a series of fully-coupled atmosphere-ocean 28 GCM simulations, which assess Messinian climate sensitivity to extreme end-member 29 changes in MOW that may have occurred during the MSC. In the absence of data to confirm 30 whether or not MOW underwent dramatic fluctuations in salinity in the late Miocene, we ask the question of whether the MSC could ever have affected global-scale climate in the most 31 32 extreme, geologically-constrained, Mediterranean salinity scenarios.

1 2 Methods

2 2.1 Model Description

The climate simulations for this study were run with the UK Met Office's fully coupled 3 4 atmosphere-ocean GCM HadCM3, version 4.5. The atmosphere model has a horizontal resolution of 2.5° x 3.75°, 19 vertical layers (using the hybrid vertical coordinate scheme of 5 Simmons and Burridge, 1981) and a timestep of 30 minutes. It includes physical 6 7 parameterisations for the radiation scheme (as per Edwards and Slingo, 1996), convection 8 scheme (as per Gregory et al., 1997) and land surface scheme (MOSES-1; Cox et al., 1999). 9 This particular version of HadCM3 does not include a dynamic vegetation model; the vegetation distribution for each simulation is prescribed and remains fixed. 10

11 The ocean model is more finely resolved, with a 1.25° x 1.25° horizontal grid and 20 vertical 12 levels that have been designed to give maximum resolution towards the ocean surface (Johns 13 et al., 1997). It has a fixed lid, which means that the ocean grid boxes (and hence sea level) 14 cannot vary. Consequently, evaporation, precipitation and river runoff are represented as a salt 15 flux (Gordon et al., 2000). Included in the ocean model's physical parameterisations are an 16 eddy-mixing scheme (Visbeck et al., 1997), an isopycnal diffusion scheme (Gent and 17 Mcwilliams, 1990) and a simple thermodynamic sea-ice scheme of ice drift and leads (Cattle 18 et al., 1995) and ice concentration (Hibler, 1979). Gordon et al. (2000) show that HadCM3 19 reproduces modern sea surface temperatures well without needing to apply unphysical 'flux 20 adjustments' at the ocean-atmosphere interface.

21 The ocean equation of state is based on Bryan and Cox (1972) and is an approximation to the 22 Knudsen formula (Fofonoff, 1962). Although this is a relatively old version, the percentage 23 deviation from the UNESCO standards (Fofonoff and Millard, 1983) are small for salinities in 24 the normal range (0-42 psu). At very high salinity values, none of the existing equations of 25 state are valid. However, the density of sea water predicted from our approximation was 26 within 1 % of those shown in Dvorkin et al. (2007) for the Dead Sea (at depth=0 and 27 temperature=25 °C). Moreover, we are not attempting to predict the flow within the 28 Mediterranean itself. Instead we are examining the effect of the outflow on the global climate 29 system, and mxing close to the straights rapidly brings the hypersaline flow to within the 30 validity bounds of the equation of state.

31 The ocean and atmosphere components are coupled once per model-day. To account for the

different grid resolutions, the ocean grid is aligned with the atmosphere grid and thus the constituent models pass across the fluxes accumulated over the previous 24 model-hours by interpolating and averaging across the grids as appropriate. Rivers are discharged to the ocean by the instantaneous delivery of continental runoff (from precipitation) to the coasts, according to grid-defined river catchments and estuaries. Gordon et al. (2000) and Pope et al. (2000) give a more detailed description of the model and its components, including improvements on earlier versions.

8 With a new generation of high-resolution GCMs, HadCM3 may no longer be considered 9 'state of the art'. However, its relatively fast model-speed (compared to more recent versions) 10 enables long-integrations of several centuries to be made. This is necessary for ocean 11 circulation to approach near steady-state in our simulations, so that the surface climates and 12 large-scale ocean circulations and heat/salt transports, including Atlantic Meridional Ocean 13 Circulation (AMOC), are in an equilibrium state in the model (Ivanovic et al., in press2013c). 14 Also, previous studies suggest that it is important to run the model for at least several 15 centuries to capture the effect of changes in MOW on North Atlantic circulation and climate 16 (Bigg and Wadley, 2001; Chan and Motoi, 2003; Kahana, 2005).

17 2.2 Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange

18 Neither the Gibraltar Straits (location indicated by Fig. 2), nor the late Miocene 19 Mediterranean-Atlantic seaways (e.g. Betzler et al., 2006; Duggen et al., 2003; Martín et al., 20 2009; Santisteban and Taberner, 1983) can be resolved on the HadCM3 grid. Instead, a 21 parameterisation of Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange is employed for modern flow 22 through the Gibraltar Straits, which partially mixes thermal and saline properties between the 23 two basins based on temperature and salinity gradients and according to a constant coefficient 24 of exchange (μ). As such, μ also represents the control of Mediterranean-Atlantic gateway 25 geometry on the exchange. We have used the same parameterisation for the late Miocene 26 simulations carried out in this study. Thus, the net heat and salt flux is calculated for two 27 corresponding pairs of grid boxes, either side of the land-bridge linking the European and 28 African continents (marked by the red crosses on Fig. 3). This is carried out in the upper 13 29 ocean levels of the model; 0 to 1 km depth, which is an appropriate palaeobathymetry in the 30 model for either side of the Messinian Mediterranean-Atlantic seaways (e.g. van Assen et al., 2006; Fortuin and Krijgsman, 2003; Hilgen et al., 2000; Hodell et al., 1994; Krijgsman, 2001; 31 Krijgsman et al., 2004; van der Laan et al., 2006)(e.g. van Assen et al., 2006; Fortuin and 32

1 Krijgsman, 2003; Hilgen et al., 2000; Hodell et al., 1994; Krijgsman et al., 2004; Krijgsman, 2 2001; van der Laan et al., 2006). Although the continental seaways were probably not this deep, or at least not for the entire Messinian, because of the model's horizontal resolution 3 4 constraints, the parameterisation also necessarily captures part of the mixing and flow that 5 occurs above the continental shelf in the Gulf of Cadiz (Atlantic) and Alboran Sea (Mediterranean). If the pipe was shallower than this, flow through the marine gateways would 6 7 reach too far into the Atlantic and Mediterranean basins at too shallow depth, and insufficient 8 mixing bedtween Mediterranean and Atlantic waters would take place in proximity to the 9 Straits. It is because of these model resolution limitations This is why that a seemingly over-10 deep *pipe* is used to represent exchange through the seaway (similar to Ivanovic et al., in press2013c). Thus, for every level and at every timestep, the mean of the four points is 11 calculated for each tracer field (\overline{T}) . Then, where T_i is the tracer for each of the four grid 12 boxes, the difference between the old (previous timestep) and the new (current timestep) 13 14 tracer is given as:

15
$$\left. \frac{\partial T_j}{\partial t} \right|_{pipe} = \mu(T_j - \overline{T})$$
 (1)

16 (Gordon et al., 2000), where μ is a given coefficient of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange and ∂T

17
$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right|_{pipe}$$
 is the tracer tendency for the *pipe* parameterisation.

This parameterisation (described in more detail by Ivanovic et al., in press2013c) achieves ~1 18 19 Sv of easterly and westerly 'flow' through the Gibraltar Straits for the present day, which is 20 close to contemporary observational values (> 0.74 ± 0.05 Sv; García-Lafuente et al., 2011). For the Messinian model configuration, ~1.2 Sv of exchange is achieved due to the modelled 21 westernmost Mediterranean being on average around 2 psu saltier than for the present day 22 (with a volume integral of around 44 psu), and the easternmost North Atlantic being 1-2 psu 23 fresher (with a volume integral of around 35 psu). The model successfully simulates the two-24 25 layer flow structure observed for present-day exchange through the Straits (e.g. Bethoux and Gentili, 1999), with a surface eastward flow of North Atlantic Central Water (NACW) into 26 27 the Mediterranean and a deeper westward flow of MOW into the Atlantic. Due to net evaporation over the Mediterranean, MOW is up to 2 psu saltier than the NACW it flows into
(note that this difference is smaller than the difference in salinity between the westernmost
Mediterranean and easternmost Atlantic due to mixing of the water masses in the exchange).

In the Miocene HadCM3 simulation (later referred to as *Messinian control*), MOW exports
1.2 psu Sv to the Atlantic. Consequently, a clearly distinguishable, relatively warm, highsalinity plume spreads westwards in the intermediate deep North Atlantic (Fig. 3c and d).
Such a relatively high-salinity plume is observed (e.g. Boyer et al., 2009) and modelled (e.g.
Fig. 3a and b) in the modern ocean.

9 An important caveat to consider for this study is that the model is not fine-scaled enough to 10 fully resolve the complex flow structure of MOW and Atlantic inflow water in the-what is 11 now the Gibraltar Straits-Gulf of Cadiz region (location indicated by Fig. 2). Consequently, 12 Mediterranean eddies (meddies) and processes of North Atlantic entrainment in MOW are not 13 directly simulated. *Meddies* are partially represented by μ in the Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange parameterisation, although overall, HadCM3 probably underestimates shallow-14 intermediate mixing of MOW with ambient NACW (Ivanovic et al., 2013b). North Atlantic 15 entrainment, on the other hand, is represented by diffusive mixing of MOW with Atlantic 16 water as it descends the continental shelf and spreads westwards. It is likely overestimated in 17 18 HadCM3, because the model's depth-based (z) coordinate system (Johns et al., 1997, Table 2) 19 incompletely resolves the dense, bottom-hugging overflow of MOW into the Atlantic (e.g. 20 Griffies et al., 2000). These two effects partly counteract each other, resulting in the fairly 21 good reproduction of the large-scale features of MOW in the North Atlantic today (e.g. as 22 seen in Boyer et al., 2009). However, this also makes it difficult to interpret their individual 23 impact on model sensitivity to changes in MOW buoyancy.

24 2.3 Experiment design

25 **2.3.1 Messinian control configuration**

The MSC took place at the end of the Miocene (5.96-5.33 Ma) and hence falls between the sub-epochs of the late Miocene (mid-point ~8 Ma) and early Pliocene (mid-point ~4.5 Ma). Key palaeogeographic characteristics of this period (Markwick, 2007) include lowered topography in the Americas and Himalayas, a reduced Greenland ice cap and an open Central American Seaway (CAS, location indicated by Fig. 2).

1 Compared to the modern set-up, the palaeo-configuration for the Messinian HadCM3 2 simulation (subsequently referred to as *Messinian control*) consists of raising global sea levels 3 by 25 m, adjusting the topography to match Mio-Pliocene orography (Fig. 4d), reducing ice 4 sheet size and height (-50 % for Greenland and -33 % for Antarctica, also visible in Fig. 4d) and implementing Pliocene vegetation distribution. We chose to use these 5 palaeoenvironmental boundary conditions from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) 6 7 Pliocene Research, Interpretation and Synoptic Mapping (PRISM) 2 palaeoenvironmental 8 boundary conditions project, as per Haywood and Valdes (2004), even though they were 9 originally reported for the earlier period of 3.26-3.02 Ma (Dowsett and Cronin, 1990; Dowsett 10 et al., 1999). 5 but with an open CAS (370 m deep) as used by Lunt et al. (2008b). This is 11 because more recent work by the USGS (PRISM3) implies that the PRISM2 palaeoenvironmental conditions are closer to an early Pliocene configuration than a mid 12 13 Pliocene one, particularly in terms of topography in the Americas and Himalayas (Haywood 14 et al., 2010, 2011; Robinson et al., 2011). 15 In addition, rRecently presented neodymium isotope evidence (Dutay et al., 2012; Osborne et 16 al., 2012) suggests that a shallow CAS remained open until around 3 Ma. Therefore, one 17 change made to the model configuration of Haywood and Valdes (2004) was to open the 18 CAS, as per Lunt et al. (2008). 19 Atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were set at 400 ppmv. Although this is at the high-end of (or

exceeding) proxy-archive reconstructions from the Messinian (incl. Demicco et al., 2003;
 Pagani et al., 1999; van de Wal et al., 2011), considerable uncertainties over these
 reconstructions remain (Bradshaw et al., 2012). Also, using a lower-resolution ocean version
 of the HadCM3 GCM (HadCM3L), Bradshaw et al. (2012) show that a better match between
 Miocene model and proxy climate data is achieved using 400 ppmv compared with lower CO₂
 concentrations.

In light of these current_palaeoenvironmental findings, the PRISM2 *Pliocene* set up with an open CAS (370 m deep) and 400 ppmv level of atmospheric CO₂ would seem to capture the key ingredients of the late Miocene/early Pliocene world. Details of the PRISM2 *Pliocene* HadCM3 model set up and modifications to this configuration to include an open CAS are given by Haywood and Valdes (2004) and Lunt et al. (2008)(2008b), respectively. (Note, that Lunt et al., 2008, present their findings in the chronological framework of the CAS closing through time. However, their results can also be viewed in the converse framework of 1 opening the CAS relative to the results of Haywood and Valdes, 2004. This is the exact

2 simulation that has been used as the *Miocene control* in this investigation, but *Miocene*

3 <u>control has been run for several millenia longer.</u>)

The Messinian simulation was integrated for over 2,400 years to enable the ocean to reach near steady-state and provide the basis for all other simulations presented here. The *Messinian control* simulation is a 500-year continuation of this spin-up model run, with all other simulations also running for 500 years in parallel to this (reaching near-steady state within the first 400 years). In every case, the climate means were calculated from the final 100 years.

9 Detailed descriptions of the ocean circulation and climate simulated by the Messinian control are given by Haywood and Valdes (2004) and Lunt et al. (2008a, 2008b). As outlined, the 10 model set-up is identical to that used by Lunt et al. (2008), which is modified from Haywood 11 and Valdes (2004), and thorough descriptions of the ocean circulation and climate simulated 12 by the *Messinian control* are given by those authors. Briefly, in the late Miocene the world 13 14 was warmer and wetter than it is today, although an overall cooling trend had set-in and the 15 bio-climatic zones of the Messinian were much closer to present day than earlier Miocene 16 conditions (e.g. Pound et al., 2012). With a global annual mean temperature of 16.7 °C, oOur modelled Messinian world (Messinian control), this study; Fig. 4a and b) is generally ~ 3.4 °C 17 warmer (Fig. 4a) and has +0.2 mm day⁻¹ more rainfall (+73 mm yr⁻¹, both global annual 18 means) than the equivalent modern, pre-industrial set up simulation, where the high latitude 19 20 land masses and parts of the tropics are generally wetter, although some of the deserts and 21 tropics have relatively less rainfall (Fig. 4c)-(from Ivanovic et al., in press). The high latitude land masses are also generally wetter, although some of the deserts and tropics get relatively 22 drier (Fig. 4c). Compared to the modern set up, the palaeo configuration consists of raising 23 24 global sea levels by 25 m, adjusting the topography to match Mio-Pliocene orography (Fig. 4d), reducing ice sheet size and height (50 % for Greenland and 33 % for Antarctica, also 25 visible in Fig. 4d) and implementing Pliocene vegetation distribution. Atmospheric CO2 26 concentrations were set at 400 ppmv. Although this is at the high end of (or exceeding) 27 28 proxy archive reconstructions from the Messinian (incl. Demicco et al., 2003; Pagani et al., 29 1999; van de Wal et al., 2011), considerable uncertainties over these reconstructions remain (Bradshaw et al., 2012). Also, using a lower resolution ocean version of the HadCM3 GCM 30 (HadCM3L), Bradshaw et al. (2012) show that a better match between model and proxy 31 climate data is achieved using 400 ppmv compared with lower CO₂ concentrations. 32

1 In terms of ocean circulation, both proxy- and model-based research suggests that with an 2 open CAS, Messinian North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW) formation would have been 3 considerably weaker than for the present day (Böhme et al., 2008; Herold et al., 2012; Lunt et 4 al., 2008; Molnar, 2008; Murdock et al., 1997; Prange and Schulz, 2004; Schneider and 5 Schmittner, 2006; Steph et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012)(Böhme et al., 2008; Herold et al., 2012; Lunt et al., 2008b; Molnar, 2008; Murdock et al., 1997; Prange and Schulz, 2004; 6 7 Schneider and Schmittner, 2006; Steph et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012; this study). We find 8 that maximum Atlantic Overturning Circulation is ~17.5 Sy, compared to ~18.5 Sy in the 9 modern equivalent (e.g. Ivanovic et al., 2013c), but that in places, North Atlantic Meridional 10 Overturning Circulation is much reduced (i.e. up to 4.8 Sv weaker) than in the modern. Also, 11 the AMOC is completely changed south of the CAS, with strong Southern Ocean sources, due 12 to the opened exchange with the Pacific. We will therefore focus the analysis of the 13 Overturning Circulation and Deep Water Formation on that part of the Atlantic basin which remains enclosed (as captured by Fig. 55a). The global annual mean sea surface temperature 14 in Messinian control is around 19.8 °C; approximately 2 °C warmer than for the modern (Fig. 15 16 <u>4b).</u> 17 In terms of Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange, the Messinian control simulation 18 preserves the model's modern two-layer flow structure of surface eastward flow of water into 19 the Mediterranean and deeper westward flow into the Atlantic. Around 1.2 Sv of water is 20 exchanged and the flow is enhanced compared to the equivalent modern simulation (Ivanovic 21 et al., 2013c) because the westernmost Mediterranean is on average around 2 psu saltier than 22 for the present day (with a volume integral of around 44 psu), while the easternmost North 23 Atlantic is 1-2 psu fresher (with a volume integral of around 35 psu). Consequently, MOW

exports 1.2 psu Sv to the Atlantic, producing a clearly distinguishable, relatively warm, highsalinity plume that spreads westwards in the intermediate-deep North Atlantic (Fig. 6c and d).
This comparatively high-salinity plume is similar (although ~0.2 Sv stronger) to that which is
observed (e.g. Boyer et al., 2009) and modelled (e.g. Ivanovic et al., 2013c; as shown by Fig.
6a and b) in the modern ocean.

29

30 2.3.2 No Mediterranean Outflow Water

Whether or not the Mediterranean ever fully or partially desiccated during the MSC, it seems
likely that, at least at times, there was no outflow from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic (e.g.

van Assen et al., 2006; Benammi et al., 1996; Betzler et al., 2006; Hüsing et al., 2010; 1 2 Ivanovic et al., 2013a; Krijgsman et al., 1999b). Although blocking MOW in a modern 3 HadCM3 simulation had little impact on North Atlantic ocean circulation and climate 4 (Ivanovic et al., in press2013c), consistent with other similar GCM simulations (Chan and Motoi, 2003; Kahana, 2005; Rahmstorf, 1998), there is considerable model and proxy 5 evidence to suggest that it has the potential to play a more important role during periods of 6 7 weaker AMOC (e.g. Bigg and Wadley, 2001; Penaud et al., 2011; Rogerson et al., 2010; Voelker et al., 2006). HadCM3 reproduces the modern AMOC reasonably well; for example, 8 9 resulting in an overturning strength of 18 ± 2 Sv at 26.5° N (Ivanovic et al., in press2013c) 10 compared to 18.7 ±5.6 Sv in recent observations (Cunningham et al., 2007). The Messinian 11 HadCM3 AMOC is 4-5 Sv weaker than the modern AMOC, so to investigate whether MOW has a greater effect during weaker AMOC modes than the present day, we ran a 500-year 12 13 simulation with no Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange taking place, but with an 14 otherwise identical set-up to the Messinian control. We will refer to this simulation as no-15 exchange.

16 2.3.3 Extreme salinity events

17 Modern North Atlantic circulation and climate appear to be much more sensitive to extreme 18 changes in MOW salinity than they are to volumetric (and flow-rate) changes in 19 Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange, including total blocking of MOW (Ivanovic et al., in 20 press2013c). However, modelled North Atlantic circulation and climate are different in the 21 Messinian compared to the present day (Sects. 2.3.1 and 2.3.2) and the Mediterranean salinity 22 events thought to have occurred during the MSC are far more extreme than the scenarios examined by Rahmstorf (1998), Bigg and Wadley (2001), Rogerson et al. (2010) or Ivanovic 23 24 et al. (in press2013c). The Mediterranean Messinian succession comprises substantial 25 thicknesses of (a) halite and (b) gypsum evaporites, as well as an interval containing (c) nearfresh (or brackish) fauna (Fig. 1). Therefore, to assess the potential global-scale influence of 26 27 the MSC, we ran three sets of extreme salinity simulations, approximately corresponding to 28 the salinity conditions required for (a), (b) and (c) to occur. Note that hereafter, the near-fresh 29 simulations are referred to as *fresh* for simplicity. To force-reproduce the changes in Mediterranean salinity, the same method as Ivanovic et al. (in press2013c) was adopted, 30 31 holding forcing the entire Mediterranean basin (but nowhere else) at to have constant salinity throughout the run:of (a) 380 psu, (b) 130 psu (Flecker et al., 2002) and (c) 5 psu_at every
 timestep for the duration of the run.

3 The Mediterranean salinity fluctuations that took place during the MSC are widely thought to 4 have been caused by tectonically and climatically driven changes in the volume of 5 Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange water (e.g. Hsu et al., 1977; Krijgsman et al., 1999a). In line 6 with geological evidence and box-modelling (e.g. Flecker and Ellam, 2006; Fortuin and 7 Krijgsman, 2003; Krijgsman and Meijer, 2008; Lugli et al., 2010; Meijer, 2012; Topper et al., 8 2011), we suggest that a more restricted exchange would generally have resulted in a higher Mediterranean salinity (e.g. gypsum, then halite stauration). However, the variation in 9 exchange volume during Mediterranean hyposalinity is not well understood and the exact 10 exchange rate during any part of the MSC is not yet known. SBased on this, simulations were 11 12 run without changing the coefficient of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange (μ ; the parameterisation of the volume of mixing between the two basins). These will be referred to 13 14 as (a) halite-normal, (b) gypsum-normal and (c) fresh-normal. In addition, to reflect the likely 15 direction of change (decrease or increase) of m MOW volume and flow-rates that would have occurred during the MSC events (discussed above), we also ran a subset of (a), (b) and (c) 16 17 with appropriate, but idealised changes in the coefficient of exchange (μ) ; (a) quartering the 18 coefficient for the most saline simulation (halite-quarter), (b) halving the coefficient for the 19 less extreme hypersaline simulation (gypsum-half) and (c) both halving (fresh-half) and 20 doubling (*fresh-double*) the coefficient for the hyposaline scenario because it is difficult to be 21 confident in the direction of change to the exchange volune., as it is not clear how the volume of exchange may have changed during the MSC events. TheAll nine simulations are 22 23 summarised in Table 1.

24 We acknowledge that of these three scenarios, MOW is least likely to have occurred during 25 halite saturation. Other evidence (incl. Abouchami et al., 1999; Gladstone et al., 2007; 26 Ivanovic et al., 2013a; Meijer and Krijgsman, 2005; Meijer, 2006, 2012; Muiños et al., 2008) 27 indicates that at least episodic bursts of MOW may well have occurred during gypsum saturation- and brackish water conditions. Nonetheless, we have tested all three scenarios on 28 29 the basis that none can yet be disproved; the volume of evaporites found in the Mediterranean 30 Messinian succession cannot be explained without Atlantic inflow and Meijer (2012) shows 31 that a gateway has to be extremely shallow before outflow is blocked.

32 It should also be noted that holding Mediterranean salinity constant throughout the

1 simulations introduces an unphysical salt source/sink mechanism to the global ocean. Over

2 500 years, the volume integral for the global ocean salinity changes by around 0.2 psu in

3 halite-quarter, 0.1 psu in gypsum-half and 0.05 psu in fresh-normal. Thus, the changes are

4 small (0.1-0.5 %) and the resulting Mediterranean salt source/sink does not present a problem

5 for understanding the physical mechanisms at work in these idealised simulations.

6 Importantly, the forced constant salinities do mean that changes in global ocean circulation or

7 climate cannot feedback to Mediterranean salinity; investigating this will provide the basis for

8 future work.

9 Importantly, Atlantic salinity remains below 42 psu in all simulations, even for the grid boxes 10 immediately adjacent to the Spain-Morocco land-bridge during Mediterranean halite and 11 gypsum saturation. This is due to implicit mixing of Mediterranean and Atlantic water in the 12 *pipe* connecting the basins (equation 1) and because the exchange is small compared to the 13 volume of water in each model grid box. Hence, outside of the Mediterranean, ocean salinity 14 stays within the valid range of the models' equation of state (Sect. 2.1); Mediterranean 15 circulation is not investigated in this study.

16 3 Results

17 All climate anomalies presented and discussed here are robust against a student *t*-test with 95

18 % confidence based on modelled interannual variability, which was calculated for the final

19 100 years of the simulations.

20 3.1 No Mediterranean Outflow

In the modern HadCM3 ocean, around 1 Sv of MOW flows westwards through the Gibraltar Straits, whereupon it descends the continental shelf and spreads in a relatively warm plume, centred around 1200-1500 m deep, that is up to 1.8 psu more saline than ambient NACW (Ivanovic et al., in press2013c). Whilst not perfect, this is quite a good reproduction of the observed >0.74 \pm 0.05 Sv of MOW that flows through the Gibraltar Straits into the Atlantic (García-Lafuente et al., 2011) and spreads westwards in a relatively saline (up to +1.8 psu) plume, centred at around 1000-1200 m deep (e.g. Boyer et al., 2009).

-<u>Comparing simulations with and without the presence of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange</u>
allows us to examine the MOW contribution to the Atlantic, both in the context of the present

30 day (Ivanovic et al., 2013c) and the Messinian (this study); for example, by using salinity and

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temperature anomaly plots in *control – noexchange* experiments. This is confirmed by
previous simulations with conservative dye tracers (e.g. the work for Ivanovic et al., 2013c),
which show that such anomaly plots accurately reflect the spread of MOW in the Atlantic.
This also lends credence to the identification of the modern MOW plume in observational
datasets (e.g. Boyer et al., 2009) as a tongue of relatively warm, salty water protruding into
the Atlantic.

7 In the Messinian HadCM3 ocean (Fig. 6c and d; this study), As it spreads westwards, the 0.2 8 psu (20-%)-saltier and stronger-MOW makes a greater contribution to the North Atlantic 9 above 1200 m than it does in the modern (Fig. 6a and b; reproduced from Ivanovic et al., 10 2013c)(Ivanovic et al., in press). Consequently, unlike in the modelled present day ocean, this 11 stronger, more buoyant component of the MOW plume becomes entrained in the shallower, 12 northward flowing currents of the AMOC and reaches further north. This means it - making 13 makes a greater direct contribution to the Greenland-Iceland-Norwegian, GIN, and Barents Seas (locations indicated by Fig. 2). As a result, MOW reaches further north, and also 14 15 providing provides relatively warm, salty water to sites of central North Atlantic upwelling. 16 Thus the difference in MOW buoyancy between the Messinian and present day is important in 17 regulating its wider impact. However, wWe also find that the absence of MOW in no-18 exchange reduces Messinian AMOC by ~ 2 Svup to 3 Sv (13 30 %; Fig. 55b), compared to 19 only 10.7 Sv (up to 16 %) in the modern ocean (Ivanovic et al., in press2013c). In agreement 20 with Bigg and Wadley (2001), Voelker et al. (2006), Rogerson et al. (2006, 2010, 2012), Penaud et al. (2011) and others, this suggests that MOW does indeed have a greater effect on 21 22 North Atlantic Ocean circulation during weaker modes of AMOC than it does under the 23 stronger, present-day regime.

24 In addition, we note that deeper components of the plume remain in the simulation, and because overall these are also stronger and more saline than for the present, Messinian MOW 25 26 makes a greater contribution to the southward flowing, exporting currents than in the modern 27 ocean. Without MOW feeding salty water to the exporting arm of the AMOC and with the 28 weakened NADW formation, there is a reduced supply of relatively deep, saline waters to the 29 Southern Ocean. Consequently, Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) formation is also reduced by 14 57 % (up to 5 Sv). This in turn affects overturning circulation in the Pacific basin, 30 decreasing the spread of AABW at intermediate depths by 10 20 % (up to 2 Sv; Fig. 5b). 31

32 Without MOW in the North Atlantic in *no-exchange*, less relatively warm, salty water reaches

1 sites of upwelling and therefore, cooler, fresher water is brought to the surface in *no-exchange* than in *Messinian control* (Fig. 67). A site centred at around 50° N, 40° W is particularly 2 affected by this, where the upwelling of relatively colder water in *no-exchange* cools the 3 4 overlying atmosphere by up to $\frac{1-0.9}{0}$ °C (annual mean Surface Air Temperature, SAT) relative 5 to Messinian control, producing a North Atlantic 'coldspot'.... The effect is enhanced during 6 the Boreal winter spring, when the region is cooled by up to 1.5 °C. Furthermore, with a 7 weakened AMOC and a cooler, fresher intermediate North Atlantic (e.g. Fig. 7d), there is a 8 decrease in the northward flow of less relatively warm, salty, shallow-intermediate, low 9 latitude water reaches the higher northern latitudes and there is reduced exchange between the 10 Atlantic and the GIN Seas. In the subsurface, this results in cooling (and freshening) of the 11 GIN and Barents Seas (Fig. 67), with the temperature signal being transferred upwards to cause an overal cooling of up to 1 °C (annual mean SAT) in thethe overlying atmosphere-12 Consequently, sea ice formation is boosted in these regions, which increases the local surface 13 14 albedo, positively feeding back to the initial temperature change. This feedback results in a regional cooling of up to 1.2 °C (annual mean SAT) and an increase 15 in sea ice coverage of up to 10 % (up to 2.5 °C and 25 % in the Boreal winter spring, 16 17 respectively). The increase in sea ice coverage and the reduction in the supply of relatively

warm, salty lower latitude water decreases vertical mixing in the GIN and Barents Sea, 18 19 reducing NADW formation in the region and shoaling the mixed layer by up to 130 m during 20 the Boreal winter (up to 55 m for the annual mean). The reduced exchange between the 21 Atlantic and GIN Seas means less relatively cold, high latitude water escapes southwards 22 from the GIN Seas and consequently, also results in (the shallow) ocean off the Greenland 23 coast and in the Labrador Sea is ~1 °C warmer than in Messinian control-warming of up to 2 $^{\circ}$ C off the Greenland coast and in the Labrador Sea (warming seen in Fig. 6a 7a and b₇ 24 location indicated by Fig. 2), and Warming of ~ 1 °C also occurs along the Atlantic's eastern 25 boundary (Fig. 667c) where cooler high-latitude water (e.g. from the GIN Seas) has been 26 27 replaced by relatively warm, Atlantic water, with respect to Messinian control. However, little 28 of this warming signal is transferred to the surface ocean (Fig. 6a7a) and there is no 29 statistically significant imprint on surface air temperatures.

30 3.2 Extreme salinity events

In order to assess the robustness of the model results, seven Mediterranean salinity simulations were run in total (Table 1); two halite saturation scenarios (*halite-normal* and

1 halite-quarter), two gypsum saturation scenarios (gypsum-normal and gypsum-half) and three 2 brackish lagoon scenarios (fresh-half, fresh-normal and fresh-double). A detailed analysis was 3 carried out on all seven of these simulations and the full data can be accessed at 4 http://www.bridge.bris.ac.uk/resources/simulations. for However, each high/low 5 Mediterranean salinity scenario (380 psu, 130 psu, 5 psu), the results were remarkably 6 similar. Generally, the climate anomalies had the same direction of change and were brought 7 about through the same mechanisms, although the magnitude of change was different 8 depending on the exchange strength (varied μ , see Table 1); reducing the exchange damped 9 the anomalies, enhancing the exchange exaggerated the anomalies. Therefore for clarity, the 10 following discussion is focused on the three most pertinent simulations (one per set of 11 scenarios). For the hypersaline-Mediterranean scenarios we chose those simulations with a 12 direction of change in the coefficient of exchange (μ) that best represents the physical constriction of the gateways that is most likely to have occurred (see the discussion in Sect. 13 2.3.3); this is halite-quarter and gypsum-half. These reduced-exchange simulations also 14 produce far less extreme (though still very large) salinity fluxes through the gateways than 15 their unrestricted (i.e. unchanged μ) counterparts, halite-normal and gypsum-normal (Table 16 17 1). For the hyposaline-Mediterranean scenarios the most appropriate simulation to discussis is 18 fresh-normal. This is because we do not know whether Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange 19 increased or decreased during these events. All anomalies are given with respect to Messinian 20 control.

21 **3.2.1 Mediterranean Hypersalinity**

22 The model responds to extreme increases in Mediterranean (Outflow Water) salinity by 23 enhancing the two-layered Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange (1.2 Sv in Messinian control) by approximately 10 Sv in halite-quarter -and 5.3 Sv in gypsum-half. The imposed, uniform 24 25 haline forcing (Table 1) of the experiment design causes a reduction in downward mixing of relatively warm Mediterranean surface waters and This results ininduces cooling of the 26 27 Mediterranean basin, (on average by around 2.0 °C in *halite-quarter* and 1.8 °C in gypsumhalf. In addition, the increased exchange with the Atlantic) and also elevates Mediterranean 28 29 salt export (1.2 psu Sv in Messinian control) by 19.4 psu Sv and 9.8 psu Sv, respectively (Table 1). Mainly aAs a result of its salting, MOW becomes much stronger and denser, 30 31 deepening in the North Atlantic and spreading predominantly southwards from the 32 Mediterranean-Atlantic corridors ~35° N (e.g. Fig. 7a-8a and b), where it becomes entrained Formatted: Font: Not Italic

in the Antarctic Circumpolar Current and proceeds to mix with the global ocean. Although the
 MOW plume is cooler than in *Messinian control*, it is also saltier, so that at neutral buoyancy
 it resides in less saline, cooler Atlantic water. Thus overall, the salinity and temperature of the
 intermediate-deep Atlantic and Southern Oceans is raised.

This has effectively shifted a component of NADW formation to the Mediterranean basin. In *halite-quarter* and *gypsum-half*, NADW formation is weakened by up to <u>5.6</u> Sv (-38 %)-and 8
<u>7.7</u> Sv-(-50 %), respectively, while the AMOC south of 35° N is strengthened by <u>around up</u>
to <u>67</u> Sv (-55 %)-and <u>31.5</u> Sv-(-18 %); Fig. <u>5c-5c</u> and d._This increase in the salinity and
strength of southward flowing intermediate deep currents feeds AABW formation,
strengthening it by up to <u>22 Sv.</u>

In the Northern Hemisphere, tThese changes in mid-high latitude ocean overturning 11 12 circulation reduce the poleward shallow-transport of shallow, relatively warm_and, salty lowlatitude waters in the Atlantic north of the Mediterranean-Altantic corridors ~35° N and as a 13 14 consequence, parts of the high latitude North Atlantic-Labrador-GIN Seas region cool by a few degrees (See Fig. 9b and c). In addition, the strong eastward draw of shallow-15 16 intermediate waters across the North Atlantic and into the Mediterranean (from enhanced 17 Mediterranean Atlantic exchange) entrains and accelerates subpolar and subtropical gyre 18 currents (present day configurations schematically illustrated by Fig. 2). As a result, the 19 strengthened subpolar gyre deepens by >330 m, elongates along a northwest-southeast axis 20 and shrinks across its northeast southwest axis, so that it reaches further into the Labrador Sea, but withdraws from the Greenland Iceland Scotland Ridge. The decrease in shallow-21 intermediate AMOC flow (and NADW formation) north of 35° N and the south eastward 22 23 migration of the (stronger) subpolar gyre weakens Atlantic GIN Seas water exchange, but enhances flow between the Labrador Sea and Atlantic. Curtailed Atlantic-GIN Seas 24 connectivity substantially cools the GIN and Barents Seas throughout the surface intermediate 25 water column. This effect is enhanced by the reduced poleward heat transfer north of 35° N. 26 27 Furthermore, enhanced exchange between the Labrador Sea and Atlantic Ocean replaces the 28 flow of relatively warm, mid latitude water into the Labrador Sea with the now cooler 29 Atlantic flow. It also increases the transport of relatively cold, high latitude Labrador Sea water south towards the mid latitudes, reducing North Atlantic water temperature even more. 30 31 The cooling of the mid-high latitude North Atlantic, Labrador, GIN and Barents Seas is

32 transferred to the overlying atmosphere. As a result of the decrease in both sea surface and

1 SATs, sea-ice formation in the high latitude northern Hemisphere increases, positively feeding back into the initial cooling trend, which spreads; reaching over the Eurasian and 2 3 North American continents and propagating into the high latitude Pacific. The North Atlantic 4 subtropical gyre transports this oceanic cooling signature southwest across the North Atlantic, 5 towards the open CAS. Consequently, Northern Hemisphere mid high latitude SATs decrease 6 by up to 4 °C for both halite-quarter (Fig. 8b) and gypsum-half (Fig. 8c), corresponding to an 7 increase in sea ice cover of 30 %. These annual mean SAT (and sea ice formation) anomalies 8 are enhanced during the Boreal winter-spring, reaching up to -9 °C and +60 %, respectively.

9 Similar to no-exchange, in gypsum-half, the reduced subsurface outflow from the GIN Seas to 10 the North Atlantic actually results in localised shallow warming of a small area in the 11 northernmost North Atlantic, south of Greenland. This transfers to the overlying atmosphere and increases annual mean SATs by up to 1.45 °C (Fig. 8e9c). By the same process, eastern 12 13 boundary intermediate water is also warmed by up to 1.72.5 °C (annual mean), but this is too 14 deep to be transferred to surface water or air temperatures. However, high-latitude cooling in 15 the other hypersaline-Mediterranean simulations (including *halite-quarter*), is so strong that it 16 overrides this surface air-temperature warming and only cooling is observed in the region 17 (e.g. Fig. 8b9b).

18 Upon reaching very dense, cold AABW in the South Atlantic and Southern Ocean, some of 19 the relatively warm, saline. Mediterranean-origin waters shoal and are brought to the surface 20 in both halite quarter and gypsum half. Where this occurs, the density gradient in the upper 21 600 m is reduced and the annual mean mixed layer deepens by up to 65 m (125 m in the 22 Austral winter). Relative warming of the surface ocean heats the overlying atmosphere, 23 producing pockets of warmer SATs over the Southern Ocean. As a result, up to 20 % less sea-24 ice is formed (annual mean) in the Weddell, Davis and Amundsen Seas around Antarctica and consequently, the sea ice albedo feedback enhances warming in these regions (particularly in 25 halite-quarter). This causes the overlying surface air to warm by up to 2.5 °C for halite-26 quarter (Fig. 8b) and gypsum half (Fig. 8c). The elevated salinity of the Antarctic 27 28 Circumpolar Current in *halite quarter* and gypsum half supplies the Pacific with denser water, 29 switching on weak deep water formation in the Pacific sector of the Southern Ocean, thus strengthening the upwelling of cold, deep water in the South Pacific between 40° S to 60° S 30 and 120° E to 150° W. This causes localised sea surface temperatures in these areas to drop 31 by up to 3 $^{\circ}$ C (annual mean anomaly), also cooling the overlying atmosphere by up to 3 $^{\circ}$ C 32

1 (annual mean; e.g. Fig. 8b and c).

2 3.2.2 Mediterranean Hyposalinity

3 Freshening the Mediterranean in *fresh-normal* both reverses and steepens the density gradient 4 between the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, resulting in an opposite two-layer exchangestructure (surface westward flow and deeper eastward flow) that has been enhanced by 6.3 Sv. 5 6 Consequently, the Mediterranean cools, on average, by around 4.0 °C. However, it also 7 becomes a salinity sink (or freshwater source) to the Atlantic, now importing around 7.0 psu 8 Sv, compared to the export of 1.2 psu Sv in Messinian control. This more than counteracts the 9 reduction in MOW buoyancy (increase in MOW density) arising from Mediterranean cooling 10 and freshens the entire North Atlantic water column (Fig. 7e8c). In particular, this affects the shallow (0-400 m) levels that now receive this brackish-water injection from the 11 12 Mediterranean and the intermediate-deep levels (800-2000 m) that are now without the 13 relatively saline MOW plume that is present in Messinian control.

14 Unlike the modern *fresh-Med* simulations run by Ivanovic et al. (in press2013c), the effect on 15 Atlantic Ocean circulation is rather straight forward, profound and widespread. This is mainly due to the relatively weaker AMOC (by 2.7-4.84-5 Sv) compared to the present day and the 16 17 more important role MOW played in governing Messinian overturning circulation (Sect. 3.1) with respect to the modern (Ivanovic et al., in press2013c). Interestingly, although our 18 19 Mediterranean salinity perturbation is 15 psu larger than the Mediterranean freshening simulations run by Ivanovic et al. (in press2013c), this plays only a very minor role in 20 21 generating the difference between the modern and Messinian climate anomalies. Modern 22 with a 5 psu Mediterranean (unpublished data, simulations available at 23 http://www.bridge.bris.ac.uk/resources/simulations) show anomaly patterns with the same 24 locality and direction of change as with a 19 psu Mediterranean (warming in the GIN Seas, 25 cooling in the North Atlantic, but no further-spread climate signal; Ivanovic et al., in 26 press2013c), but are of greater magnitude. In the Messinian simulations, freshening of the 27 shallow-intermediate North Atlantic causes a total collapse of NADW formation and the AMOC (Fig. 5e5e). Subsequent freshening of the Southern Ocean through reduced southward 28 transport of relatively saline intermediate deep water also weakens AABW formation in the 29 Southern Ocean by 15 Sv and reduces Pacific Meridional Overturning Circulation by 8 Sv. 30

The collapse of the AMOC and consequent reduction in northward heat transport from the equator in the shallow-intermediate North Atlantic more than counteracts any warming from

the increased direct supply of more southerly-sourced, shallow water to the GIN Seas (e.g. 1 Sect. 3.3.1 and Fig. 6b in Ivanovic et al., in press2013c), especially as MOW itself is now 2 3 cooler. The resulting annual mean high latitude cooling of up to 8 °C in the shallow-4 intermediate subsurface (e.g. Fig. 9a-10a and b) is transferred to the overlying atmosphere-and 5 local sea ice formation increases, amplifying the initial cooling trend. This reduces annual mean SATs by up to 9 °C (Fig. 8d) and increases sea-ice cover by up to 40 %. This polar 6 7 amplification allows the cold anomaly to spread southwards, causing widespread cooling of 8 1-3 °C (and up to 8 °C in places) in the Northern Hemisphere, even reaching across the 9 equator in a few locations; over the African continent, Brazil, Australia and the mid-Pacific 10 (Fig. <u>89d</u>). In addition, the North Atlantic subtropical gyre transports relatively cold, shallow water (including a direct contribution from MOW) southwest across the North Atlantic, 11 through the open CAS and into the Pacific (Fig. 9a10a), creating a relatively cool, low-12 13 latitude current that can be seen in the SAT anomalies (Fig. 8d9d).

14 Conversely, parts of the Southern Hemisphere are warmer in *fresh-normal*, compared to 15 Messinian control. This bipolar phenomenon has also been instigated by the collapse of the 16 AMOC, whereby relatively cold NADW is no longer transported south, at depth, to the 17 Southern Ocean. As a result, the intermediate-deep South Atlantic, Southern and Indian 18 Oceans are up to 2 °C warmer than in Messinian control (Fig. 9e10c). This warming is 19 transferred to the surface ocean at sites of upwelling (e.g. Fig. 9a-10a and b), resulting in SAT 20 anomalies of around 10.7-1.0 °C in these regions (Fig. 8d9d). In addition, weak, very deep 21 AABW formation in the Pacific sector of the Southern Ocean (Amundsen Sea) is switched on 22 in the hyposaline-Mediterranean simulations and there is an overall reduction in South Pacific 23 upwelling. Thus, where upwelling in the Messinian control brings relatively cold, Pacific 24 deep (and bottom) water through the water column towards the surface, with a hyposaline-Mediterranean the intermediate-shallow South Pacific becomes up to 0.5-2.57 °C warmer 25 (Fig. $\frac{9b10b}{0}$), heating the air above by $\frac{up \text{ to } 1.50.5-1.9}{v}$ °C (Fig. $\frac{8d9d}{0}$). 26

In the Pacific, there is also reduced transport of relatively saline, low-latitude surface waters south. This raises equatorial surface water salinity and contributes towards water column instability, boosting the strength of a latitudinally-narrow overturning cell in the region. This mixes relatively warm, shallow water down through the water column, warming the Pacific equatorial subsurface by up to $6.5 \, ^{\circ}C \, (e.g. Fig. 9b10b)$. Thus, heat from the equator is transferred downwards, rather than polewards. Subsurface, eastward flow through the open Formatted: Not Highlight

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CAS carries some of this warmer water into the Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Mexico (locations indicated by Fig. 2), but the positive temperature anomaly is confined here and does not reach the open Atlantic (Fig. 9b10b). This process also occurs in the Indian Ocean, but to a lesser extent. Notably, Southern Hemisphere air temperature anomalies are greatest off the Antarctic coast (Fig. 8d), where warming decreases sea ice formation (therefore reducing surface albedo) and positively feeds back to the initial climate perturbation.

7 Neither of the hypersaline-Mediterranean simulations (*halite-quarter* and gypsum-half) show 8 a discernible reorganiszation of atmospheric circulation with respect to Messinian control, nor 9 do they have a significant effect on precipitation. Conversely, the bipolar Northern 10 Hemisphere cooling and Southern Hemisphere warming of the hyposaline simulations does 11 induce a 2° (approx.) southward shift of-precipitation falling along the northern edge of the inter-tropical convergence zone. This signal is strongest over the Pacific, where the northern 12 tropics dry and the southern tropics moisten by up to $\frac{8}{6}$ mm day⁻¹. Importantly, the affected 13 regions have also been influenced by the reduction in poleward thermal/haline transports, 14 causing a build-up of heat and salt near the equator. The southward shift in precipitation-15 evaporation over the tropics enhances the local salinity anomalies that result in thea 16 17 latitudinally narrow convection cell discussed above.

18 4 Discussion and conclusions

19 In our HadCM3 simulations, blocking Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange during the Messinian 20 Salinity Crisis reduces AMOC and AABW formation strength by up to 3-2.3 Sv and 5-Sv, 21 respectively. This is differenteentrary to HadCM3 simulations of the modern ocean without 22 MOW, which instead show a smaller strengthening-weakening (1-0.7 Sv) only in deep AMOC 23 components south of the Gibraltar Straits that is concurrent with a small (1-2 Sv) - and no 24 change to AABW formation, although there is a small strengthening of NADW formation(1 - 2)Sv) concurrent weakening of NADW (Ivanovic et al., in press2013c). The modern climate is 25 26 seemingly insensitive to the presence of MOW in the North Atlantic (e.g. Artale et al., 2002; 27 Chan and Motoi, 2003; Ivanovic et al., in press2013c; Kahana, 2005; Rahmstorf, 1998; Wu et 28 al., 2007), but the Messinian AMOC's response to blocking MOW produces very localised 29 SAT cooling of up to $\frac{10.9}{10.9}$ °C over the central North Atlantic Ocean and GIN Seas and up to 30 1.2 °C over the Barents Sea (2.5 °C in the Boreal winter spring). These differences between 31 the Messinian and the modern arise from (a) Messinian MOW making a greater contribution 32 to the upper 1200 m in the North Atlantic due to raised Atlantic salinity compared to the

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1 modern and (b) the weaker Messinian AMOC (and its influence on climate) being more

2 susceptible to Atlantic salinity and temperature perturbations; in this instance, the absence of

3 Mediterranean-origin water.

4 The Mediterranean-salinity perturbations have a much greater and widespread impact on 5 climate, with consistency in the results across all seven simulations (Table 1). Halite-quarter 6 and gypsum-half, which are probably the most realistic of the hypersalinity simulations (see 7 the discussions in Sects. 2.3.3 and 3.2), both have a very similar affect on ocean circulation 8 and climate compared to Messinian control. Broadly, elevating Mediterranean salinity 9 enhances Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange and salt export, shifting a component of deep 10 water formation out of the North Atlantic and into the Mediterranean. This weakens NADW 11 formation (by 56-8 Sv), but strengthens both the AMOC south of 35° N (by 3 7 Sv) and AABW formation (by up to 22 Sv). The resulting impact on water exchange between the 12 13 North Atlantic and high latitude seas, combined with the more global effect on ocean heat 14 transport cools Northern mid-high latitude SATs by up to 4 °Ca few degrees (9 °C in the 15 Boreal winter-spring).

16 In addition, the reduced exchange between the North Atlantic and GIN Seas in gypsum-half 17 causes some localised warming of up to 1.72.5 °C in the shallow-intermediate northernmost North Atlantic Ocean (warming the overlying air) and along the North Atlantic eastern 18 19 boundary. This also takes place with a blocked Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange, but in the 20 other hypersaline-Mediterranean simulations, including halite-quarter, surface cooling is too 21 strong and overrides any relative warming that may take place. It is important to consider that 22 these results may be influenced by the overly diffuse MOW plume simulated by HadCM3. 23 For example, a more coherent MOW core would probably not interact with intermediate and 24 deep Atlantic Ocean circulation as significantly as in these simulations, but would instead 25 sink and pool at the bottom of the North Atlantic. On the other hand, this effective 26 enhancement of North Atlantic entrainment in MOW could be an important counteraction to 27 the underestimation of shallow-intermediate mixing between MOW and NACW in what is now the Gibraltar Straits-Gulf of Cadiz region. 28

Brackish-MOW in the hyposaline-Mediterranean simulations produces a bipolar climate signal, with widespread cooling <u>of 1-3 °C (and up to 9-8 °C)</u> in Northern Hemisphere SATs and patchy-warming <u>of 0.5-2.7(up to 2.5</u> °C) at sites of intermediate-deep water upwelling in the Southern Hemisphere. These temperature anomalies are predominantly caused by AMOC Formatted: Not Highlight

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1 collapse (in response to Atlantic freshening by Mediterranean-origin water), which reduces 2 northward heat-transfer in the shallow ocean and stops relatively cold NADW from being 3 transferred South in the intermediate-deep layers. Notably, these effects are much greater and, 4 in the GIN Seas, are even opposite in direction to the anomalies simulated with a 5 psu 5 Mediterranean and a modern (pre-industrial) model configuration. The hyposaline-6 Mediterranean simulations are the only simulations to exhibit changes in precipitation 7 patterns beyond interannual variability; a southward shift, by a few degrees, of the inter-8 tropical convergence zone. This shift and the bipolar climate anomalies, both predominantly 9 caused by AMOC collapse, are consistent with (if larger than) results from high northern 10 latitude freshwater-hosing experiments (e.g. Clement and Peterson, 2008; Kageyama et al., 11 20122013; Stouffer et al., 2006; Zhang and Delworth, 2005).

12 The conditions of Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange modelled here in the hyper- and hypo-13 saline experiments are not meant to represent realistic MSC scenarios. Rather, they have been 14 designed to push the limits of the climate response to very extreme instances of changes in 15 MOW conditions. The enhanced exchange strength simulated in this study (~11.2 Sv for 16 halite-quarter, 6.5 Sv for gypsum-half and 7.5 Sv for fresh-normal) are unlikely conditions 17 for sustained halite saturation, gypsum saturation or brackish Mediterranean water conditions 18 in the MSC (e.g. Garcia-Castellanos and Villaseñor, 2011; Meijer, 2012; Topper et al., 2011). 19 Instead, events of extremely elevated or negative Mediterranean salt-export are most likely to 20 have occurred intermittently (as postulated by Thierstein and Berger, 1978), for example at 21 the end of each episode of Mediterranean high/low-salinity. Such hyper-/hypo-saline 22 transition phases between normal marine and extreme Mediterranean conditions are in 23 contrast to the forced, constant extreme salinity MOW events modelled in this sensitivity 24 study. However, if considering Messinian MOW hyper- and hypo-salinity as a series of short 25 events, time series information from some of our coupled AOGCM simulations (available at http://www.bridge.bris.ac.uk/resources/simulations) suggests that initially, there is a decadal 26 27 scale overshoot in ocean circulation. It therefore seems likely that the shorter-term (transient) 28 ocean circulation impact of MSC events could actually be far more extreme than the results 29 discussed here. We have not aimed to explore the early time-series response of the global 30 ocean to the MSC, these simulations are 'equilibrium' experiments, but future work could 31 focus on transient scenarios to examine a more realistic timeline of events. Currently, this is 32 difficult as we do not have sufficient evidence to constrain the evolution of Mediterranean-33 Atlantic connectivity during the MSC. However, new data (Ivanovic et al., 2013a) provides 1 some hope that this could soon be rectified.

2 Data coverage for the late Miocene is sparse and patchy (Bradshaw et al., 2012). We suggest 3 that the global-scale MSC climate signal could be absent (e.g. discussions within Murphy et 4 al., 2009; Schneck et al., 2010) due to palaeo-climate reconstructions inadvertently targeting 5 either the wrong geographic locations or the wrong climate variables. In addition, the 6 reconstructions may have insufficient temporal resolution to distinguish the events. With 7 these, fully-coupled GCM simulations, we have begun to address these possibilities, 8 providing key information on which geographical regions and climate variables are most 9 susceptible to possible MSC-induced perturbations. Appropriate proxy archives and sample 10 locations can be identified and targeted for geologic evidence of global-scale climate change 11 brought about by Messinian Mediterranean hyper/hypo-salinity and blocked-MOW scenarios. 12 Such data would not only provide a more robust test for global general circulation models and 13 our process-based understanding of climate interactions (including the influence of MOW on 14 North Atlantic circulation and climate), but would also lead to a better knowledge of MSC 15 Mediterranean-Atlantic connectivity in the absence of more conclusive data (Abouchami et 16 al., 1999; Ivanovic et al., 2013a; Muiños et al., 2008). North Atlantic sea surface and surface air temperatures consistently show the most variability in all eight of our MSC-scenario 17 18 simulations; whether there is no Mediterranean-Atlantic exchange, or hyper/hyposaline MOW 19 (Fig. 9).

20 The climate variable that consistently shows the most change between the different MSC simulations is temperature, for which the anomalies are relatively large, usually 21 geographically widespread and always statistically significant. There are some key regions for 22 23 which SAT and ocean temperatures are affected in all simulations; parts of the GIN and 24 Barents Seas, the northernmost and central North Atlantic and, for some simulations, the east Atlantic (offshore Northwest Africa and Portugal), the South Atlantic (offshore Namibia) and 25 the South Pacific (near New Zealand). Therefore, surface air and ocean temperature 26 27 reconstructions for these locations (best identified and more accurately constrained by Figures 28 6, 8 and 9) would make an excellent database for evaluating model performance and 29 examining the evolution of Mediterranean-Atlantic connectivity over the MSC; during which events was there Mediterranean outflow to the Atlantic? Some regions make particularly good 30 cases because the temperature changes are opposite in direction for different 31 Mediterranean salinity perturbations; for example, gypsum half has a warmer northernmost 32

1 North Atlantic than Messinian control, but halite-quarter and fresh-normal are cooler;

2 whereas around New Zealand, both *halite quarter* and *gypsum half* are cooler than *Messinian*

3 control, but fresh normal is warmer. We therefore propose that by focusing on Messinian

4 temperature reconstructions at these on this <u>target locations region</u>, future proxy-archive work

- 5 could more definitively establish whether or not the MSC had the global-scale climate impact
- 6 that our model results suggest it could have.

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26	

- 1 Table 1. Summary of the differences between all simulations. For Messinian control and no-
- 2 exchange, Mediterranean salinity was left unforced, resulting in normal, open marine salinity

3 conditions of ~44 psu for the basin.

	<u>Experiment</u> name	<u>Mediterranean</u> outflow	<u>Mediterranean</u> <u>salinity</u>	$\frac{\text{Coefficient of}}{\text{exchange }(\mu)}$	Mediterranean salt export to Atlantic
	<u>control</u>	present	unforced	<u>µс</u>	<u>1.2 psu Sv</u>
l	<u>no-exchange</u>	<u>blocked</u>	unforced	<u>no exchange</u>	<u>0</u>
l	<u>halite-quarter</u>	present	<u>380 psu</u>	<u>0.25μ</u> _C	<u>20.6 psu Sv</u>
l	<u>halite-normal</u> a	<u>present</u>	<u>380 psu</u>	<u>µ</u> с	<u>84.2 psu Sv</u>
l	<u>gypsum-half</u>	present	<u>130 psu</u>	<u>0.5µ</u>	<u>11.0 psu Sv</u>
	<u>gypsum-normal^a</u>	<u>present</u>	<u>130 psu</u>	<u>µ</u> с	<u>22.4 psu Sv</u>
	<u>fresh-half</u> ª	<u>present</u>	<u>5 psu</u>	<u>0.5µ_С</u>	<u>-3.0 psu Sv</u>
l	<u>fresh-normal</u>	present	<u>5 psu</u>	<u>µс</u>	<u>-7.0 psu Sv</u>
l	<u>fresh-double</u> ª	<u>present</u>	<u>5 psu</u>	<u>2µ</u> с	<u>-14.2 psu Sv</u>

^a Simulations not discussed explicitly in the text.

4

Experiment name	Mediterranean Outflow Water	Mediterranean salinity	Coefficient of exchange (µ)
control	present	unforced	₩e
no exchange	blocked	unforced	no exchange
halite quarter	present	380 psu	0.25μ e
halite-normal*	present	380 psu	µ e
gypsum-half	present	130 psu	0.5μ ε
gypsum-normal*	present	130 psu	⊭e
fresh half*	present	5 psu	0.5μ e
fresh normal	present	5 psu	⊭ e
fresh double*	present	5 psu	2μ e

*Simulations not discussed explicitly in the text.

5





Figure 1. Schematic composite section of the main Mediterranean lithologies over the
 Messinian Salinity Crisis, including the corresponding salinities in which the successions
 were deposited/precipitated (after Ivanovic et al., 2013a). Timing of event boundaries are after
 Roveri et al. (2008) and references therein.



Figure 2. Map of the North Atlantic region marked with key geographical areas discussed in
the text. Schematic representations of the modern North Atlantic subtropical and subpolar
ocean gyre circulations are also shown.



Fig. 3. HadCM3 land-sea mask in the Gibraltar Straits region, with the model's ocean grid and modern coastline overlain. Land is in grey, ocean in white. The four red crosses mark the grid boxes either side of the European-African land-bridge that are connected by the 'pipe' parameterisation of Mediterranean-Atlantic water exchange (see text in Sect. 2.2).



both at a depth of 996 m, for a modern (pre-industrial) control simulation (top: a, b) (Ivanovic et al., in press) and a Messinian simulation (bottom: c, d). Continental landmasses are masked in grey. Note that for orientation, a modern coastal outline is shown, latitude parallels are 20° apart and longitude parallels are 30° apart. Figures 4, 6, 8 and 9 also use this projection.





1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Figure 44. Annual mean difference between the *Messinian control* versus the modern (preindustrial) *control* simulation (as used by Ivanovic et al., in press2013c) for (a) surface air temperature (in °C), (b) sea surface temperature (in °C), (c) precipitation-minus evaporation (%), and (d) surface orography (in km). Anomalies with <95% confidence in significance using a student *t*-test are masked in light grey. For orientation, a modern coastal outline is shown, latitude parallels are 20° apart and longitude parallels are 30° apart. Figure 10 also uses this projection.

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Figure 55. Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) stream function (in Sv) for
(a) *Messinian control*; and AMOC stream function anomalies, given with respect to *Messinian control*, for (b) *no-exchange*, (c) *halite-quarter*, (d) *gypsum-half* and (e) *fresh- normal*. Positive (negative) stream function indicates strength in the clockwise (counterclockwise) direction. Note that because of the open Central American Seaway in the Miocene,

- 1 the Atlantic basin is only enclosed north of 15° N; hence the stream function is plotted from
- 2 <u>15° N to 90° N.</u> Bathymetry is masked in grey.





Figure 67. North Atlantic aAnnual mean ocean potential temperature anomalies (in °C) for no-exchange with respect to Messinian control at a depth of (a) 5 m (b) 67 m, (c) 301 m and

1	(d) 996 m. Continental land masses are masked in dark grey. Anomalies with <95 $\%$
2	confidence in significance using a student <i>t</i> -test are masked in light grey.
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1	Figure 89. North Atlantic aAnnual mean surface air temperatures (in °C) for (a) Messinian
2	control and annual mean surface air temperature anomalies, given with respect to Messinian
3	control, for (b) halite-quarter, (c) gypsum-half and (d) fresh-normal. The magnitudes of some
4	of the local anomalies are difficult to identify, especially in the high latitudes, but numbers
5	quoted in the text are accurate. Anomalies with <95 % confidence in significance using a
6	student #-test are masked in light grey.
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