

From glacial times to late Holocene: Benthic foraminiferal assemblages from cold water coral habitats off northwest Scotland

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1	FROM GLACIAL TIMES TO LATE HOLOCENE: BENTHIC
2	FORAMINIFERAL ASSEMBLAGES FROM COLD WATER CORAL
3	HABITATS OFF NORTHWEST SCOTLAND
4	
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14 Abstract

Benthic foraminiferal assemblage data have been derived from a marine sediment core 15 collected in a cold-water coral (CWC) site off northwest Scotland (near the Wyville Thomson 16 Ridge - WTR). The record covers the last glacial period to the late Holocene. Our 17 reconstructions enable to better constrain the paleoenvironmental changes that took place in 18 the study area since the last glacial time and define the environmental conditions that allowed 19 the onset, formation and decline of CWCs in the area. The sedimentary record was 20 characterized by three distinct foraminiferal assemblages, dominant during the pre-coral time 21 interval (i and ii) and the coral period (iii): (i) the "Glacial" assemblage (> 13 cal ka BP) was 22 23 characterized by the dominance of Cibicides refulgens and Discanomalina coronata. Low foraminiferal densities and diversities indicated unfavorable ecological conditions (i.e., low 24 temperature and food availability, coarse substrate) that were most likely related to the 25 26 extended British Ice Sheet; (ii) the "Deglacial-Early Holocene" assemblage (~13-9 cal ka BP) was characterized by the cassidulinids-Lobatula lobatula association, indicating a progressive 27 increase of organic matter content and influx of warm and saline North Atlantic surface 28 waters. We hypothesize that these were the main environmental factors that thereafter allowed 29 the settlement of CWCs in the WTR area around 9 cal ka BP; (iii) the "Holocene" (< 9 cal ka 30 31 BP) assemblage was characterized by the cohabitation of diverse epifaunal species (e.g., Rosalina globularis) present when CWCs were highly abundant, and infaunal species (e.g., 32 *Trifarina angulosa*) when corals were less frequent. The periods recording high presence of T. 33 angulosa after 9 ka cal BP were interpreted as indicating a higher contribution of Eastern 34 North Atlantic Waters during periods of retracted Subpolar Gyre (SPG), affecting probably 35 the efficiency of food export to the seafloor. 36

37

38 Keywords: NE Atlantic; Wyville Thomson Ridge; Epifauna; Infauna; Benthic foraminifera;

- 39 Cold-Water Corals
- 40

41 Highlights:

- 42 Cold water and low food export to the seafloor during the glacial pre-coral period
- 43 Increased organic carbon flux and influx of Atlantic waters as a trigger for coral settlement
- Varying Holocene epifaunal/infaunal species in consistency with high/low coral presence
- 45 *Trifarina angulosa* as possible indicator of Eastern North Atlantic Water after 9 ka

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1- Introduction

Present in all oceanic basins (e.g., Freiwald and Roberts, 2005; Roberts et al., 2009), cold-47 water corals (CWCs) are particularly abundant and well described along the European 48 continental margin between ~100 and 1000 m water depth from the Gulf of Cadiz to northern 49 Norway (e.g., Freiwald et al., 2004; Freiwald and Roberts, 2005; Frank et al., 2011; Wienberg 50 and Titschack, 2017). In these settings, Lophelia pertusa (Linnaeus, 1758), recently assigned 51 to the genus Desmophyllum (Addamo et al., 2016) and called Desmophyllum pertusum 52 (Linnaeus, 1758), is the dominant species. Desmophyllum pertusum lives in waters between 4 53 and 14°C (Roberts et al., 2006) and thrives in moderately high energy environments that 54 provide it with the necessary food supplied by a variety of hydrographies such as currents, 55 56 internal tides and downwelling flows (e.g., White, 2006; Davies et al., 2009; Hebbeln et al., 2016). Desmophyllum pertusum may form complex structures such as reefs and mounds, that 57 provide refuge and nursery areas for diverse living organisms (e.g., Henry and Roberts, 2007, 58 2017). The complex framework built by CWCs is capable of reducing current velocity (e.g., 59 Mienis et al., 2019), leading to the deposition of current-suspended particles (e.g., Dorschel et 60 al., 2005; de Haas et al., 2009). On geological time scales, large carbonate mounds are formed 61 when coral growth and the resulting sediment accumulation exceed the background marine 62 sedimentation (e.g., Dorschel et al., 2005; Wienberg and Titschack, 2017; Hebbeln et al., 63 2019). By acting as natural sediment traps, CWC mounds provide useful paleoenvironmental 64 and paleoclimate archives for such current-driven environments (e.g., Copard et al., 2010; 65 Pirlet et al., 2011; Copard et al., 2012; Thierens et al., 2012, 2013; Montero-Serrano et al., 66 2011; Victorero et al., 2016; Bonneau et al., 2018; Colin et al., 2019; Elliot et al., 2019). 67 Beside the worldwide well known changes linked to glacial/interglacial climate variability, 68

paleostudies from the northeast (NE) Atlantic emphasize phases of CWC demise and resettlement on shorter timescales linked to rapid climate changes (e.g., Wienberg et al., 2010;

Frank et al., 2011; Douarin et al., 2013, 2014, 2016; Bonneau et al., 2018; Dubois-Dauphin et
al., 2019; Elliot et al., 2019). The specific environmental conditions that triggered regional
extinctions and re-occurrences of CWCs on such short-time periods have yet to be defined.
Although CWC aragonitic skeletons may appear as the logical prime signal carriers to identify
these environmental changes, they cannot inform us on these periods when the corals were
absent (e.g., Hebbeln et al., 2019).

77 Among the number of organisms inhabiting CWC environments, benthic foraminifera are a main component in terms of abundance, as in most marine environments (Gooday, 2003), 78 with CWCs offering these microorganisms many ecological niches (see review in Spezzaferri 79 80 et al., 2015). Several studies in the NE Atlantic investigated recent foraminiferal communities living in CWC environments, and especially southwest of Ireland along the Porcupine and 81 Rockall Banks (e.g., Margreth et al., 2009; Schönfeld et al., 2011; Morigi et al., 2012; 82 83 Spezzaferri et al., 2013, 2015; Smeulders et al., 2014; Fentimen et al., 2018, 2020b). These studies document the high diversity and density of living benthic foraminifera in CWC 84 85 environments. Because of their short life cycle, species specific ecological requirements, excellent preservation and their presence with high numbers in a small volume of sediment, 86 foraminifera are powerful tools to understand past CWC environments (e.g., Rüggeberg et al., 87 2007; Stalder et al., 2014; Fentimen et al., 2020a). The increasing knowledge of the ecological 88 requirements of living, recent and sub-recent benthic foraminifera from different NE Atlantic 89 D. pertusum sites (e.g., Margreth et al., 2009, 2011; Schönfeld et al., 2011; Morigi et al., 90 2012; Spezzaferri et al., 2013; Fink et al., 2013; Smeulders et al., 2014; Stalder et al., 2014; 91 92 Fentimen et al., 2018, 2020b) is the basis of our paleoecological interpretations inferred from fossil assemblages. 93

In this study, we present benthic foraminiferal assemblage data from a marine sediment core
collected in a CWC mound off northwest Scotland (near the Wyville Thomson Ridge – WTR)

at the Hebridean shelf break that flanks the NE Rockall Trough (Fig. 1b). The objectives are: 96 97 i) better constrain the paleoenvironmental changes that took place in the WTR area since the last glacial period, and ii) define the environmental characteristics that allowed the onset, 98 formation and decline of CWCs in the study site. Elliot et al (2019) documented on the same 99 core the evolution through time of the physical habitats of the WTR with the purpose of 100 101 relating changes in sediment sources and dynamic of transport with the appearance of the 102 CWC at this location. Our study further uses benthic foraminifera as biological indicators that integrate the cumulative impacts of these changing physical habitats to better constrain 103 environmental changes. More specifically, the approach taken here consists of the use of the 104 105 abundance of taxa and their known ecology to interpret several aspects of the environment around the WTR (e.g., flux of organic matter to the sea floor, bottom-water oxygenation, 106 107 current energy, transport, water masses properties).

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109 **2-** Study area

110 2.1. Geographic features and CWC distribution near the Wyville Thomson Ridge

The WTR is a bathymetric feature that forms the easternmost part of the Greenland-Scotland ridge stretching across the northeastern part of the North Atlantic from Greenland to the northern Scottish shelf (Fig. 1b). The WTR separates the Faroe–Shetland Channel to the north from the Rockall Trough to the south (Fig. 1b). These are two deep water areas that separate the Hebrides and West Shetland shelves from the Rockall Plateau and Faroes Shelf (Fig. 1b).

The WTR is a rocky plateau with extensive gravel, cobble and boulder fields (Stewart and Davies, 2007), providing suitable substrates for most CWC larvae to settle (e.g., Roberts et al., 2009). Data referring to *Desmophyllum pertusum* distribution in this region were initially reported in the study of Wyville Thomson (1874). More recently, CWC presence in the study area was reported in the light of several seismo-acoustic surveys of the seabed, including the mapping survey onboard the MV British Enterprise Four during which our studied sediment
core was retrieved (Long et al., 1999). These studies report mound-like structures near the
WTR that were mostly interpreted as patches of *D. pertusum*, present from the shelf break
down to ~1000 m water depth (e.g., Long et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2003; Masson et al.,
2003). Only dead (or undetermined status) CWCs were observed at our study site based on
trawl recovering corals (Long et al., 1999).

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2.2. Hydrography and ocean circulation

In the study area, warm (~7-11 °C) and saline (35.4–35.58 psu) Eastern North Atlantic Water 129 130 (ENAW) flows in the upper ~600-700 m of the water column (Johnson et al., 2010; McGrath et al., 2012). The ENAW is carried poleward into the Nordic Seas by the North Atlantic 131 Current (NAC) and the Shelf Edge Current (SEC) (e.g., McCartney and Mauritzen, 2001; 132 133 New et al., 2001; Pollard et al., 2004; McGrath et al., 2012; Marsh et al., 2017) (Fig. 1b). In addition, the Scottish Coastal Current (SCC) flowing on the shelf, carries cooler and fresher 134 waters from the Irish and Clyde Seas (Ellett and Edwards, 1983). The coolest and freshest 135 136 Atlantic Waters within the subpolar North Atlantic are those found to the northwest of the northernmost branch of the NAC. These waters are a mixture of NAC-carried ENAW, and 137 Subarctic Intermediate Water (SAIW) found further to the west and north (Harvey and Arhan, 138 1988; Holliday, 2003). The term Modified North Atlantic Waters (MNAW) is usually used to 139 denote this water mass (e.g., New and Smythe-Wright, 2001) (Fig. 1). In the northern part of 140 the Rockall Trough, the SAIW (~6°C, 35.10 psu) is present between ~600 and 1200 m depth 141 together with the WTR Overflow Water (WTROW; ~5-9°C, 35-35.35 psu), a part of the 142 outflow from the Norwegian Sea, and recirculating Mediterranean influenced waters (Johnson 143 et al., 2010; McGrath et al., 2012). The relative composition of the NAC in the WTR area is 144 related to the strength and shape (expansion/contraction) of the Subpolar Gyre (SPG) (Hátún 145

146 et al., 2005; Inall et al., 2009) (Fig. 1c).

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2.3. Carbon and nutrient dynamics

Cold-water corals in the NE Atlantic and the communities they support, including benthic 149 foraminifera, rely on surface productivity and the vertical and lateral supply of organic carbon 150 to the aphotic zone as their primary source of nutrition via various hydrographies (e.g., 151 152 downwelling, tidal currents) (e.g., Kiriakoulakis et al., 2007; Mienis et al., 2007; Davies et al., 2009; Soetaert et al., 2016). Phytoplankton growth in turn is mainly dependent on nutrients 153 availability (nitrogen, phosphorus, iron, silica) in the euphotic zone (e.g., Moore et al., 2013; 154 155 Birchill et al., 2019; Maier et al., 2020). Most studies on D. pertusum highlight its opportunistic feeding preferences with a large variety of preys (zooplankton, phytodetritus, 156 bacteria) (e.g., Freiwald et al., 2004; Mienis et al., 2007; Davies et al., 2009), and some 157 158 studies imply a dependence on chemical nutrients (e.g., Findlay et al., 2014) and its ability to feed directly on dissolved organic carbon (e.g., Mueller et al., 2014). Benthic foraminifera are 159 also heterotrophic organisms, feeding on various sources of organic carbon (e.g., dissolved 160 organic carbon, labile phytodetritus, degraded organic matter, bacteria) (e.g., DeLaca et al., 161 1981; Goldstein and Corliss, 1994; Nomaki et al., 2006; Mojtahid et al., 2011). In our study 162 163 area, nutrients and the organic matter exported to the seafloor have two main sources:

164

a) Local source: primary production

In northwest (NW) Scottish waters, there is relatively little river inflow so that nutrient budgets are dominated by supply from the ocean (with some from the West Scottish shelf) (Huthnance et al., 2009). The hydrography of NW Scottish waters shows a marked salinity boundary separating coastal and oceanic shelf waters (Savidge and Lennon, 1987). Increased chlorophyll concentrations were observed adjacent to the salinity boundary, discontinuously within the coastal waters, and also in the vicinity of the thermocline in the deeper off-shelf

water (Savidge and Lennon, 1987). More recently, a distinct biogeochemical divide was 171 172 observed, with Iron (Fe) deficient surface waters present beyond the shelf break, limiting seasonally phytoplankton growth in our study area and greatly reducing the efficiency of the 173 biological carbon pump (Birchill et al., 2019). Along the shelf break and the upper slope, the 174 strong near-bed currents (e.g., Masson et al., 2002) provide the perfect conditions for the 175 development of rich benthic communities dominated by suspension-feeders (e.g., Davies et 176 177 al., 2009). Active internal tidal mixing on the shelf and deeper (e.g., in the WTR) can also supply nutrients to the euphotic zone, with fronts between summer-stratified and mixed 178 waters particularly favoring phytoplankton growth (e.g., Pingree et al., 1978; Sherwin, 1991; 179 180 Frederiksen et al., 1992; Duineveld et al., 2007; Mienis et al., 2007; Roberts et al., 2009). Over the Hebridean shelf break, the surface wind drives on-shelf flow creating a 181 compensating off-shelf downwelling circulation that has been shown to rapidly (<10 days) 182 183 transport diatom chains down the shelf slope to deep waters (>1500 m) (e.g., Holt et al., 2009; Huthnance et al., 2009; Simpson and McCandliss, 2013; Birchill et al., 2019). 184

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b) External source: water masses

Surface waters originating from south of the Rockall Trough (i.e., ENAW) bring less nutrients 186 than waters from the northwest (i.e., WNAW), which are modified by interactions with 187 nutrient rich sub-polar waters in the Iceland Basin (McGrath et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 188 2013). Johnson et al. (2013) reported that between 1996 and the mid-2000s, the upper waters 189 (200-700 m) of the Rockall Trough became warmer saltier, and depleted in nitrate and 190 phosphate as the proportion of subpolar waters in the basin decreased from around 50% to 191 192 less than 20%. These changes are explained by the varying influence of southern versus subpolar water masses in the basin as the SPG weakened and contracted (Sherwin et al., 2012; 193 Johnson et al., 2013). Hátún et al. (2017) further show clear evidence of a marked pre-bloom 194 195 silicate decline throughout the winter mixed layer during the last 25 years, which they attributed to natural multi-decadal variability through decreased winter convection depths, a
weakening and retraction of the subpolar gyre and increased influence of nutrient-poor water
of subtropical origin.

199

200 **3- Material and Methods**

201 3.1. Core Sampling

Vibrocore +59-07/293VE (named WTR Core hereafter; 59°43.40' N; 06°28.90' W) was 202 retrieved at 282 m water depth with a total recovery of 495 cm during a British Geological 203 Survey campaign in August 1984, at the junction with the WTR and the West Shetland 204 shelf/Hebridean shelf (Fig. 1b) onboard the MV British Enterprise Four (Long et al., 1999). 205 Prior to sub-sampling, the core was sliced into meter-length sections onboard, frozen and split 206 with a diamond bladed saw to avoid any shifting in the position and orientation of the coral 207 208 fragments and to preserve internal sedimentary structures of the cores (as described by Dorschel et al., 2007; Douarin et al., 2013; Elliot et al., 2019). Once opened and defrosted, the 209 210 core was dissected into 1 cm-thick sediment slices at 1 to 10 cm intervals. These subsamples 211 were freeze dried and washed through 150, 1000 and 2000 µm mesh sieves. All size fractions were then dried in an oven at 45°C. This core was previously studied for clay mineralogy, and 212 grain-size distribution complemented by δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C profiles of the planktonic foraminifer 213 Globigerina bulloides (Elliot et al., 2019). 214

215

216 *3.2. Chronology and age model*

The methodology used for establishing the chronology of WTR Core is detailed in Elliot et al. (2019). It is based on 43 U-Th and 17 AMS ¹⁴C dates performed on the same pristine samples of *D. pertusum*, 6 AMS ¹⁴C dates measured on the benthic foraminifer *Cibicides refulgens* and 3 AMS ¹⁴C dates on the bivalves *Venus* spp. (Fig. 2a). Despite this significant dating effort,

unexplained ¹⁴C/U-Th anomalies preclude the use of an accurate age model as discussed in 221 222 Elliot et al. (2019). Elliot et al. (2019) hypothesized the presence of a diagenetic process that standard quality tests have failed to highlight, affecting unevenly U-Th and ¹⁴C dates. The 223 new foraminiferal data does however provide new additional constraints for the age model of 224 this sediment core. When U-Th dates indicate a rapid sediment deposition event between 225 160.5 and 61.5 cm depths (the layer of poorly preserved corals; Fig. 2), ¹⁴C ages indicate a 226 rather continuous sedimentation rate in line with our foraminiferal data that seem to record 227 unchanged absolute abundances, diversities, and species composition (Figs. 3; 4) and show no 228 particular signs of shell alteration nor transport. Hence, foraminiferal data seem to preclude 229 230 any major reworking process involving a mix of sediments or transport from other settings in this section. We cannot discard however the possible presence of hiatuses which is a common 231 feature in CWC habitats (e.g., López Correa et al., 2012). Pending further detailed studies on 232 233 the intracrystalline structure of the coral aragonite in this core that may give a final explanation to the U-Th or ¹⁴C inconsistencies, we use the independent age model of Elliot et 234 al. (2019) built from correlations of planktonic $\delta^{18}O_{G. bulloides}$ profiles with a well-dated 235 236 sediment core from the Rockall Plateau (NA 87-22; Waelbroeck et al., 2001), identifying three time periods (Glacial, Deglacial-Early Holocene and Holocene). 237

238

239 3.4. Benthic foraminiferal assemblages

Benthic foraminiferal assemblages were investigated in 69 samples sampled at 5 to 10 cm intervals from the >150 μ m fraction (cf. raw dataset in Supplementary Material S1). Although the >150 μ m fraction provides valuable information on prevailing environmental conditions, we are aware that there is a possible loss of information when discarding the small size fraction as densities are generally higher, and some species are small sized in their adult forms (e.g., Caulle et al., 2014; Weinkauf and Milker, 2018; Lo Giudice Cappelli and Austin, 2019; Fossile et al., 2020). In our case, there was no possibility to investigate the small size fraction due its use for previous analyses. Foraminifera were picked under a stereomicroscope. For the subsamples where foraminifera were very abundant, they were split with an Otto microsplitter and the whole splits were counted until a minimum of 300 tests of benthic foraminifera was obtained.

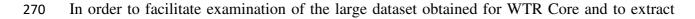
To confirm and/or help with taxonomical identification, Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) photographs were obtained at the SCIAM platform (University of Angers) using a Zeiss EVO LS10 without prior coating and with low vacuum (Plates 1 and 2). Please refer to the taxonomical appendix (Supplementary material S2) for a detailed description of the dominant morphospecies and the knowledge gained from the genetic studies for some of these taxa (e.g., Schweizer et al., 2005, 2008; Darling et al., 2016).

Diversity index (Shannon H), a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and a multiple 257 258 correlation graph were performed using the software PAST (PAleontological STatistics; Version 3.25; Hammer et al., 2001). Shannon H index (Shannon, 1948; Hayek and Buzas, 259 1997) was calculated following the equation $(H = -\sum_{i} pi \ln(pi))$ where pi is the proportion 260 of the ith species (p = %/100). H values for Atlantic assemblages are generally comprised 261 between a minimum of ~1.1 and a maximum of 3.8 (Murray, 2006). Input for the PCA 262 263 consisted of species' relative abundance data (correlation matrix). Only taxa occurring with >5% in at least one sample were retained in these statistical analyses. 264

265

266 **4- Results**

A total number of 88 benthic foraminiferal taxa were observed in WTR Core, among which
16 were dominant (i.e., showing relative abundances ≥5% in at least one sample) (Figs. 3 and
4).



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the main foraminiferal ecological groups, a PCA was performed based on the percentage data of the dominant taxa (Fig. 3a). Axes 1 and 2 account respectively for 46.26 % and 14.34% of the total variance of the dataset. These axes were retained as the most meaningful according to the scree plot graphical method proposed by Cattell (1966) showing a sharp change in slope at the second eigenvalue. The PCA separates the assemblages into three main species groups (see below (i), (ii) and (iii); Fig. 3a) each associated with changes in sediment properties corresponding to one of the three time periods previously defined (Elliot et al., 2019):

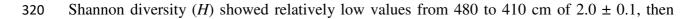
(i) PCA Group 1 was abundant between ~480 and 400 cm depths, during the "Glacial" 278 part of the record (ages older than 13 cal ka BP) (Fig. 3b) and is dominated by Cibicides 279 *refulgens* (45.9 \pm 5 % on average during this time-period) followed to a lesser extent by 280 Discanomalina coronata (6.6 \pm 1.5 %) and only negligibly represented by Cibicidoides sp. 281 $(2.3 \pm 1.7 \%)$, *Quinqueloculina seminulum* (2.8 ± 1.1) , and *Bulimina aculeata* $(2.1 \pm 1.4 \%)$ 282 283 (Fig. 4). Apart from Cibicidoides sp. that showed an inconsistent pattern, most of these species showed overall decreasing relative abundances with minima values around 300 cm, 284 285 and then stabilized at very low values until the core top (Fig. 4).

(ii) PCA Group 2 was dominant between ~400 and 300 cm depths, marking the end of 286 the deglaciation and the early Holocene (13-9 cal ka BP) (Fig. 3b). This group is mainly 287 driven by *Textularia sagittula* (15.6 \pm 5.1 % on average during this time-period), *Lobatula* 288 *lobatula* (11.6 \pm 6.2 %) and *Elphidium clavatum* (10.4 \pm 6.4 %) and only negligibly by 289 *Cassidulina laevigata* $(5.3 \pm 1.4 \%)$ and *Melonis barleeanus* $(3.2 \pm 1.8 \%)$ (Fig. 4). *Textularia* 290 sagittula and E. clavatum were present with very low abundances during the "Glacial" part of 291 292 the record, then increased rapidly above 400 cm core depth to attain maximum percentages at ~350 cm and ~385 cm, respectively. *Melonis barleeanus* was present with low percentages 293 294 from 485 to 310 cm and was nearly absent in the top 300 cm section of the core (Fig. 4). Lobatula lobatula and C. laevigata were nearly absent in the "Glacial" section. The 295

percentages of these species showed an overall stable trend after 400 cm around ~10 and 5% respectively, apart from the upper 180 cm core section where *C. laevigata* percentages increased from ~5 to 8-9 %.

(iii) PCA Group 3 was dominant in the upper 300 cm of the core, during the Holocene 299 sequence associated with CWC growth (after ~9 cal ka BP) (Fig. 3b). PCA 3 is composed of 300 Trifarina angulosa (20.5 \pm 6.2 % on average during this time-period), Globocassidulina 301 crassa (16.1 \pm 4.9 %), Gavelinopsis praegeri (7.9 \pm 2.4 %), Rosalina globularis (4.0 \pm 2.2 302 %), Miliolinella subrotunda (3.8 \pm 1.7 %) and Textularia agglutinans (1.5 \pm 1.3 %) (Fig. 4). 303 Trifarina angulosa was present continuously through the entire record with percentages > 304 10%. In the "Glacial" part, its contribution decreased progressively from ~20 to 10 %, then 305 increased in the "Deglacial/Early Holocene" part to reach ~20%. After 9 cal ka BP, the 306 relative abundances of *T. angulosa* showed an increasing trend with percentages ranging from 307 308 10 to 40 %. Globocassidulina crassa was nearly absent in the "Glacial" section. The abundances of G. crassa increased progressively after 13 cal ka BP to reach maximum values 309 (~25 %) around 200 cm depth and decreased afterwards until the core top (~5 %). 310 311 Gavelinopsis praegeri, R. globularis, M. subrotunda and T. agglutinans were nearly absent beneath 300 cm sediment depth and their percentages varied from low to high values in the 312 upper 300 cm core section (Fig. 4). 313

In the entire core, absolute foraminiferal abundances ranged between 77 and 2128 ind. g^{-1} of dry sediment (Fig. 3b). Low densities (average = 107 ± 16 ind. g^{-1}) were present in the older part of the record from 485 to 400 cm sediment depth. Then, abundances increased and stabilized at ~700 ind. g^{-1} from 360 to 325 cm, followed by a rapid increasing trend to reach maximum values of 2128 ind. g^{-1} at 290 cm. After, abundances decreased until 250 cm and oscillated around 626 ± 244 ind. g^{-1} until the core top.



increased to reach intermediate values of 2.4 ± 0.1 between 410 and 300 cm. From there, a rapid increase was recorded to reach maximum values of 2.9 at 270 cm, followed by an overall slow decreasing trend until the core top where we recorded values around 2.5 (Fig. 324 3b).

325

326 **5- Discussion**

327 5.1. Benthic foraminiferal-based comparison between NE Atlantic CWC sites

Most of the foraminifera found in the "coral" part of our record are overall similar to the ones 328 of the modern CWC environments in the NE Atlantic (cf. review in Spezzaferri et al., 2015). 329 Some differences are yet present. For example, while R. globularis, R. anomala, M. 330 subrotunda, H. balthica, and the textulariids are dominant in our record, they are generally 331 absent or rare in the investigated NE Atlantic CWC environments (e.g., Margreth et al., 2009; 332 Schönfeld et al., 2011; Morigi et al., 2012; Smeulders et al., 2014; Spezzaferri et al., 2013; 333 334 Stalder et al., 2014; Fentimen et al., 2020a). This discrepancy can be partly explained by the fact that most of the studied foraminiferal assemblages associated with CWC sites in the NE 335 Atlantic are deeper (~700-800 m depth) than our study sites (e.g., the Porcupine Seabight and 336 the Rockall Bank region). In open ocean deep-sea environments, and because of partial 337 remineralization in the water column, the flux of labile organic matter that reaches the 338 seafloor decreases with increasing water depth (e.g., Berger and Wefer, 1990; Herguera, 339 1992). Benthic foraminiferal assemblages are therefore distributed following this 340 bathymetric/trophic gradient, with some taxa inhabiting a large range of organic matter fluxes 341 342 (e.g., from shelf to lower slope: M. barleeanus) whereas others are dominant in a more restricted depth range such as shelf and upper slope environments (e.g., Rosalina spp., M. 343 subrotunda, H. balthica) (e.g., Murray, 1973, 2006; Mojtahid et al., 2010). For the 344 345 textulariids, the ecological requirements are still poorly known. The dominant T. sagittula in

the study core is mostly reported from temperate shelf seas of the NE Atlantic with sandy or 346 muddy bottom sediments (e.g., Schönfeld, 1997; Murray, 2006; Pascual et al., 2008), 347 including the Hebridean Shelf (Murray, 2003). For T. sagittula and T. agglutinans, the 348 349 sediment is not only a habitat, but also a source of material for test building as it has been evidenced that they are able to select and sort grain size (e.g., Armynot du Châtelet et al., 350 2013). This suggests that these species are sensitive to the mineralogical composition of the 351 substrate (e.g., the proportion of quartz), beyond the fine or coarse nature of the sediment 352 (e.g., Armynot du Châtelet et al., 2013) and perhaps also beyond the quantity of organic 353 matter arriving to the seafloor. 354

355 CWCs create local ecological niches for foraminifera by providing a variety of habitats and by trapping fine sediments and organic matter, so that the above-mentioned organic carbon 356 gradients may not apply to CWC habitats as in "normal marine conditions". This might be 357 358 corroborated by the fact that the late Quaternary 240 m deep record of Stalder et al. (2014) north of Norway (about 70°N), even though at a comparable depth range as the core 359 investigated herein, is characterized by a rather different benthic assemblage, with the 360 dominance of species that are not found in our records (e.g., Cassidulina teretis, Discorbinella 361 bertheloti, Pullenia subcarinata). Furthermore, several studies report specific living benthic 362 foraminiferal communities for specific facies along CWC mounds (e.g., off-mound facies, 363 living coral facies, dead coral facies) and their distribution seems to be governed by the 364 ecological demands of the species, microhabitat availability and the nature of the substrates 365 (e.g., Margreth et al., 2009; Spezzaferri et al., 2013; Smeulders et al., 2014). The species 366 difference between our site and north of Norway (Stalder et al., 2014) might also be explained 367 by the possibility that the Norwegian site is located in a different benthic foraminiferal 368 biogeographic zone (i.e., "Arctic-Subarctic" province) than our study area (i.e., "Atlantic 369 temperate" province) (e.g., Boltovskoy and Wright, 1976; Culver and Buzas, 2003). Although 370

many benthic foraminiferal taxa seem to be ubiquitous, especially when looking at the morphology only, some species might exhibit distinct biogeographic patterns that are not dependent on the existence of suitable habitats (e.g., Gooday and Jorissen, 2011).

To summarize, it is very likely that the observed discrepancies between our site and the rest of the other NE Atlantic CWC sites relies partly on the inherent interlink of the parameters governing CWC habitats (e.g. nature of the substrate, abundance of corals, CWC related microhabitats and facies, ...), but also on local physico-chemical processes (current strength variability, organic carbon fluxes, water mass properties, oxygenation, ...) that further govern the abundance and species composition of benthic foraminifera in these environments.

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381 5.2. Glacial environmental conditions inferred from WTR benthic foraminifera

Species from PCA Group 1 (referred to as "Glacial" species) were abundant in the coarse silts 382 383 characterizing the "Glacial" part of the record (ages older than ~13 cal ka BP) (Fig. 3b), and described as mixed sediment deposits (i.e. glacio-marine and marine deposits) of glacial age 384 385 in the study of Elliot et al. (2019). The low abundances and diversities characterizing this 386 time-period (Fig. 3b) are indicative of unfavorable ecological conditions (e.g., low food availability, coarse substrate, cold temperatures) for the reproduction and growth of many 387 benthic foraminifera. The dominant taxa C. refulgens and D. coronata are both epifaunal 388 species attached to elevated substrates in high-energy areas (e.g., Hawkes and Scott, 2005; 389 Murray, 2006; Margreth et al., 2009; Schönfeld et al., 2011). It is interesting to note that T. 390 angulosa, although belonging to PCA Group 3, was also present during this time-period (Fig. 391 4). In the literature, this species is commonly associated with shelf-edge-upper-slope areas of 392 sand to gravel sediment under the influence of strong bottom currents (e.g., Mackensen et al., 393 394 1985; Austin and Evans, 2000; Gooday and Hughes, 2002), thus corroborating the environment depicted by C. refulgens and D. coronata. In addition to these overall high 395

energy benthic environments, the low diversity and abundance of foraminifera may indicate 396 397 low food availability to which the species present in this glacial period might be tolerant. Low organic matter input is coherent with the interpretations of Rüggeberg et al. (2007) from 398 glacial foraminiferal data from CWC mounds (Porcupine Seabight) and with the local 399 climatic conditions prevailing during the last glacial period. The British Ice Sheet (BIS) 400 extended close to the WTR core location (cf. BIS extent in Fig. 1b; Clark et al., 2004), 401 402 therefore preventing continental sediment input from reaching our site (as shown by the very low sedimentation rate; Fig. 2a), and with it the supply of nutrients necessary for primary 403 production. In parallel, relative sea-level was lower, making the study site shallower and 404 405 closer to the surface processes (sea ice, freezing processes, brine formation, etc.) which might have affected the development of benthic foraminifera. Furthermore, Elliot et al. (2019) 406 407 interpreted the poorly-sorted bimodal grain-size distribution and the presence of pebbles of 408 rock fragments (Fig. 2b) as indicating that ice-rafting was a likely sedimentation mechanism, and that sluggish bottom current was unable to sort coarse glaciomarine deposits. Low-current 409 410 intensities under fully glacial conditions were also interpreted from the Porcupine Seabight (~700 m depth) foraminiferal study of Rüggeberg et al. (2007). This appears to contradict our 411 interpretations drawn from the ecology of the dominant benthic species. One possibility is that 412 highly variable sedimentation regimes include episodes of increased current flow regimes 413 during this period, allowing the settlement of these species. Another explanation is that these 414 415 foraminifera might have lived onsite attached to glacial dropstones or the sandy shelly substrate tolerating the cold and low food availability conditions and profiting from the low 416 competition. Alternatively, we are possibly recording highly variable conditions in time with 417 alternating episodes of ice rafting and others characterized by environments enabling these 418 species to settle, all mixed by high energy currents. At the transition between the "Glacial" 419 and the "Deglacial-Early Holocene" periods, there is a reduction in the relative abundance of 420

these "Glacial" species (Fig. 3b), most likely related to the progressive retreat of the BIS that
started around 23 cal ka BP (Clark et al., 2004; Fig. 1b). This further corroborates a strong
link of these two species with the glacial environmental conditions at the WTR.

An important observation is that C. refulgens and D. coronata were dominant in a period of 424 absence of D. pertusum in our site and only contributed very little to the total assemblages 425 426 after 9 cal ka BP when the corals were present. This seems to contradict the common current 427 knowledge about their ecology in CWC environments in the North Atlantic where they are often found alive either attached on corals or living in the sandwaves around the coral mound 428 (e.g., Hawkes and Scott, 2005; Margreth et al., 2009; Schönfeld et al., 2011). Margreth et al. 429 430 (2009) further suggested the use of D. coronata as an indicator of CWC coral facies (onmound). The late Quaternary 240 m-deep record of Stalder et al. (2014) north of Norway and 431 the 700 m-deep record of Rüggeberg et al. (2007) in the Porcupine Seabight both show that D. 432 433 coronata was mostly found during coral-rich periods, whereas this species was dominant during the pre-coral interval in our study site. In western Mediterranean CWC habitats, the 434 435 restricted presence of D. coronata during glacial times was interpreted as its preference for 436 cold waters (Stalder et al., 2018), and as such temperature may have also a strong influence in the distribution of this species. Because there is increasing evidence that CWCs respond to 437 more variable environmental factors (e.g., oxygenation - Wienberg et al., 2018; Hanz et al., 438 2019) than the ones classically cited (substrate type, temperature, salinity, currents, and food 439 availability - e.g., Freiwald, 2002; Davies et al., 2008; Brooke et al., 2013), our results suggest 440 that the variability of benthic foraminiferal species in CWCs habitats may also be higher than 441 previously assumed. 442

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444 5.3. Transition from glaciomarine to open marine conditions

445 Species from PCA Group 2 (referred to as "Deglacial-Early Holocene" species) were

dominant between ~13 and 9 cal ka BP, a period of transition from glaciomarine to open 446 447 marine sedimentation (Elliot et al., 2019). PCA group 2 is dominated by T. sagittula, E. clavatum and L. lobatula. Textularia sagittula is an agglutinated species (Barmawidjaja et al., 448 449 1992), mostly described from temperate shelf seas of the NE Atlantic with sandy or muddy sediments (e.g., Schönfeld, 1997; Murray, 2006; Pascual et al., 2008). Elphidium clavatum is 450 particularly frequent in glacier-proximal environments (e.g., Jennings et al., 2004; Murray, 451 452 2006; Darling et al., 2016; Fossile et al., 2020), generally thrives in slightly fresher waters and may withstand bottom temperatures of $< -1^{\circ}C$ (e.g., Hald and Korsun, 1997; Polyak et al., 453 2002). Also, it is common in boreal waters of the Skagerrak, the Wadden Sea and North Uist 454 455 (Outer Hebrides) near our study site (Darling et al., 2016). Observations of CWC deposits off northern Norway show that this species clusters with Arctic-Subarctic glaciomarine taxa 456 (Stalder et al. 2014), whereas its dominance in the glacial part of the Porcupine Seabight on-457 458 mound record was considered as an indication of erosional processes from shallow shelf areas (Rüggeberg et al., 2007). In modern CWC environments of the NE Atlantic, T. sagittula and 459 E. clavatum are either absent or rare (Margreth et al., 2009; Schönfeld et al., 2011; Morigi et 460 al., 2012; Spezzaferri et al., 2013; Fentimen et al., 2020b). Although not much is known about 461 the ecological requirements of T. sagittula, we believe that its association with E. clavatum 462 during the end of the deglaciation and the early Holocene might be indicative of the presence 463 of low salinity and cold waters in the study area. In the NE Atlantic, L. lobatula is usually 464 present in areas with strong currents and coarse sediments (e.g., Schönfeld, 1997, 2002a, 465 2002b; Murray, 2006). Its presence during this pre-CWC period might indicate a reactivation 466 of near-bed currents. 467

The concomitant presence of the infaunal *M. barleeanus* and *C. laevigata* from the same PCA
Group 2 together with *G. crassa* from PCA Group 1 might be further indicative of increased
organic matter flux, as reported from slope environments south of our study site (e.g., Koho et

al., 2008; Morigi et al., 2012; Garcia et al., 2013). In the study of Rüggeberg et al. (2007), G. 471 472 crassa (referred to as C. reniforme) clusters with the glacial group and is interpreted as an indicator for cold and nutrient-poor bottom water conditions whereas C. laevigata makes part 473 of the Holocene assemblage indicating high flux of organic material to the sea-floor. In 474 subarctic waters however, studies report that the presence of C. laevigata is more consistent 475 with the flow of warm and saline Atlantic waters than with organic matter flux (Østby and 476 477 Nagy, 1982; Mackensen and Hald, 1988; Hald and Steinsund, 1992; Husum and Hald, 2004). Østby and Nagy (1982) interpreted the association of the cassidulinids with L. lobatula as 478 indicative of increased current activity. Because this is a transitional period from glacial to 479 480 interglacial times, it is probable that the association of the cassidulinids (i.e., G. crassa and C. laevigata) and M. barleeanus with L. lobatula indicates both increased influx of warm and 481 saline Atlantic waters to the study site, and increased influx of organic matter. These species-482 based interpretations are coherent with the observed increase in foraminiferal absolute 483 abundances and diversities characterizing this time interval (Fig. 3b). This is indeed indicative 484 of more favorable environmental conditions for many benthic foraminifera (e.g., higher food 485 availability, finer sediments, and possibly higher temperatures and salinities). 486

At ~13 cal ka BP, there was a sharp transition marked by an increase in sedimentation rates 487 488 (Fig. 2a) and a reduction of smectite clay fraction (sourced from the weathering of basaltic rocks from the Iceland and the Faroe-Shetland ridge area) in favor of an increase in illite 489 (sourced from the Scottish Irish continental shelves) (Elliot et al., 2019) (Fig. 3c). This is 490 indicative of an active northward transport of terrigenous material, probably by the NAC, 491 492 SEC and/or SCC, progressively reactivated after the meltdown of the northern ice sheets and the gradual installation of modern-like circulation in the area (Elliot et al., 2019). Therefore, 493 we suggest that i) increased export production through the progressive settlement of modern-494 like hydrographic structures (e.g., downwelling, tidal currents, salinity fronts, etc.) controlling 495

the vertical and lateral supply of organic carbon to the aphotic zone, and ii) more vigorous
currents (NAC, SEC and SCC) transporting warm and saline Atlantic waters between ~13 and
9 cal ka BP were the environmental factors that allowed the settlement and growth of *D*. *pertusum* in the WTR area during most parts of the Holocene.

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501 5.4. Holocene environmental conditions inferred from WTR benthic foraminifera

Species from PCA Group 3 (referred to as "Holocene" CWC-related species) were dominant 502 503 after ~9 cal ka BP, and concomitant with the settlement of D. pertusum (Fig. 3b). The overall high absolute foraminiferal abundances and diversities (Fig. 3b) indicate highly favorable 504 505 environmental conditions for benthic foraminifera, most likely provided by the presence of CWCs. These favorable conditions were probably the result of: i) the "shelter" effect of the 506 507 coral framework providing a variety of different microhabitats for foraminifera (e.g., Freiwald 508 et al., 2002; Margreth et al., 2009; Spezzaferri et al., 2013, 2015). This also results in the accumulation of fine sediments that are generally rich in organic matter; ii) the high export 509 510 production to the seafloor that usually characterizes the recent CWC environments, which can 511 be directly coupled to high primary production and/or to secondary enrichment processes, such as nepheloid layers and downwelling (e.g., Duineveld et al., 2004; Mienis et al., 2007; 512 513 Davies et al., 2009). Absolute foraminiferal abundances marked a peak centered around 9 cal ka BP, followed by a sharp decrease (Fig. 3b). This might be the result of the settlement of a 514 diverse CWC ecosystem with a more complex trophic network constraining food resources 515 for foraminifera with competitors and decreasing their numbers with predators. 516

The "Holocene" period was characterized by the cohabitation of diverse epifaunal species (*L. lobatula*, *G. praegeri*, *R. globularis* and *M. subrotunda*) together with infaunal species (*T. angulosa*, *G. crassa*, *C. laevigata*, and *T. agglutinans*) (e.g., Altenbach et al., 1993; Linke and Lutze, 1993; Margreth et al., 2009; Schönfeld et al., 2011; Spezzaferri et al., 2015) (Fig. 4).

Our data show that the abundance of epifaunal species is variable and seems to covary with 521 522 the abundance of coral fragments (Fig. 5a). We assume therefore that these epifaunal species lived attached to CWCs (colonizing live corals or coral debris). This epifauna-CWC link is 523 524 interrupted between 110 and 70 cm depth representing the upper half of the poorly preserved corals layer (160.5 - 61.5 cm) as defined by Elliot et al. (2019) (Fig. 5b). As such, the scarcity 525 of large (> 2 cm) well preserved coral fragments characterizing this interval and the poorly 526 preserved aspect (i.e., highly fragmented and eroded) of the remaining small (< 2 cm) 527 fragments might not be the consequence of a low presence of CWC at the time but rather the 528 result of the poor preservation of the coral skeletons. Because benthic foraminifera did not 529 530 show any particular sign of reworking and alteration, nor a major change in abundances or diversities (Figs. 3b, 4) that may indicate a major modification of environmental conditions, 531 our results point to post-mortem diagenetic processes affecting preferentially the aragonitic 532 533 skeletons of CWCs (e.g., Beuck and Freiwald, 2005; Gómez et al., 2018). The poor preservation of corals in that layer (160.5 - 61.5 cm) might be due to CWC carbonate 534 535 dissolution linked with the oxidation of organic matter, and/or the presence of more corrosive 536 waters (e.g., Pirlet et al., 2010; Andersson, 2015; Raddatz et al., 2016). Further investigation of redox-sensitive elements incorporated into foraminiferal calcite might help defining the 537 538 diagenetic process responsible for this pattern.

539 Meanwhile, we observe a significant negative correlation between epifaunal and infaunal 540 species in this coral-period; the former being mostly driven by *R. globularis* and the latter by 541 *T. angulosa* (Fig. 5). Because the number of coral fragments is positively correlated with 542 epifaunal species, infaunal species, and particularly the dominant *T. angulosa*, should 543 therefore be negatively correlated to coral fragments, and yet no statistical correlation is found 544 between them (Fig. 5a). This lack of correlation is not ecologically related but rather due to i) 545 a mathematical bias by the long-term increasing trend of *T. angulosa* and ii) a diagenetic bias

in the poorly preserved coral layer (Fig. 5b). When detrending the T. angulosa long-term 546 trend record and removing the interval of poor coral preservation (110 - 70 cm depth) from 547 the analysis, we find a statistical negative correlation (pearson r = -0.40) with corals 548 549 fragments. In the literature, T. angulosa is very often associated with sandy shelf-edge-upperslope areas under the influence of strong bottom currents, regardless of the presence or not of 550 CWCs (e.g., Mackensen et al., 1985; Schönfeld, 2002; Gooday and Hughes, 2002; Murray, 551 2006). This makes the interpretation of its evolution through time at the opposite of D. 552 pertusum in our study area rather challenging. The first logical explanation for the observed 553 high variability of T. angulosa would be the effect of changing habitats inherent to the CWC 554 555 interruption and re-occurrence episodes that punctuated the coral-period of our record. With the absence/low presence of CWCs and the related change in habitat, the epifauna had no 556 longer appropriate substrates for their settlement whereas T. angulosa may have found a more 557 558 suitable ecological niche, triggering its increase in absolute and relative densities (Fig. 5b). These more favorable conditions might be due to the coral framework and its effect on current 559 velocities on the seafloor: when CWCs are absent, the regional current velocities can be lower 560 561 than during coral presence but at the seafloor still higher due to the lacking effect of the coral framework, explaining perhaps the higher contribution of *T. angulosa* during these times. 562

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564 5.5. Trifarina angulosa as an indicator of the presence of ENAW in the WTR during the 565 'Holocene' period?

Besides the possible impact of the coral framework on the infaunal habitat of *T. angulosa*, we cannot rule out that changing abundances of this species may have been a response to the environmental factors that caused at the first place the intermittent CWC presence in our study site. We observe a significant negative correlation between percentages of *T. angulosa* and smectites sourced from the north (Iceland/Faroe-Shetland areas) (Fig. 5a), and by extent a

positive correlation with illites sourced from south (Elliot et al., 2019) (Fig. 5b). This link is 571 572 expressed mainly in the long-term trend evolution, and to a lesser extent in the short-term variability with minima of T. angulosa (except minimum VI; Fig. 5b) being overall coeval 573 574 with periods of higher contribution of smectites (~10 % shift; Fig. 5c). The long-term increase of illites in our sediments is coherent with the results of Colin et al. (2019) showing an overall 575 increasing contribution of the southern-sourced ENAW in the Rockall Trough from ~8 to 3 ka 576 577 BP and induced by a westward contraction of the SPG (Fig. 1c). Superimposed to this longterm trend, the same study showed a millennial scale variability of the contribution of ENAW 578 in the Rockall Trough, which may echo the short-term variability observed in our 579 580 foraminiferal data. Because of the lower abundance of T. angulosa during periods of high presence of coral fragments, this would imply that CWCs were more abundant during periods 581 of higher contribution of north-western sourced waters. A similar pattern was observed in the 582 583 late Holocene studies of Douarin et al. (2016) and Dubois-Dauphin et al. (2019) from the Mingulay Reef Complex (Western British shelf) where CWCs were abundant either during 584 585 periods of the highest advection of cold waters under extended SPG or slightly preceding it. However, Douarin et al. (2016) suggested that both parameters were not coeval but rather 586 successive in time with the initial increased advection of cold waters causing the following 587 588 progressive degradation of CWCs.

The idea that a benthic species is related to certain water masses has long been debated (e.g., Schnitker, 1974; Mackensen et al., 1993; Schmiedl et al., 1997). There is evidence that water masses (via currents) transport propagules that ultimately settle, grow and reproduce when they reach a suitable environment (e.g., Alve and Goldstein, 2002, 2010). In the case of *T. angulosa*, this possibility seems to be unlikely since it was also present when CWCs were abundant. It is more likely that *T. angulosa* may have responded positively to the environmental/hydrological changes accompanying a higher presence of ENAW in the study

site. There is evidence that waters originating from the south (i.e., ENAW) are relatively 596 597 nutrient-poor compared to waters from the northwest (i.e., WNAW) (McGrath et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2013). As such, and depending on the SPG dynamics, the variations in the 598 599 contribution of either water masses may impact differently primary production by changing the nature of the primary producers, the sustainable character of primary production through 600 the year, and the efficiency of the carbon pump (e.g., Hátún et al., 2017). Although a 601 602 relatively higher contribution of ENAW is present in the Rockall Trough during periods of weak SPG (Sherwin et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2013), the intensity of the SEC carrying a 603 significant portion of this water mass is lowered (e.g., Marsh et al., 2017). Because the SEC 604 plays an important role in physical exchange processes at the shelf break, it affects cross-shelf 605 606 fluxes (e.g. Huthnance, 1995, 1986) and as such the efficiency of food export to the seafloor. 607 Furthermore, because ENAW and WNAW have different salinity and temperature properties, their either presence certainly affects the local hydrology (e.g., depth of the thermocline, 608 intensity of salinity fronts with shelf waters), which impacts also food fluxes to the aphotic 609 610 zone. Although it is still largely unanswered to what extent the known environmental factors tolerated by CWCs (e.g., Davies et al., 2008) define tipping points leading to their 611 local/regional extinction (e.g., Hebbeln et al., 2019), there is increasing evidence that food 612 source might be a critical parameter for their key physiological processes (e.g., Naumann et 613 614 al., 2011). It is therefore conceivable that at our study site, the Holocene periods recording an 615 absence/low presence of D. pertusum may have been caused by an overall less intense SEC, a less efficient biological pump and/or a change in their food source with a higher advection of 616 southern-sourced water masses. Trifarina angulosa may have a higher adaptability for such 617 618 changes by taking advantage of the new habitats left after the fall of the coral framework (e.g., less competition and predation, still high energy environment providing them with food, etc). 619 It should be however kept in mind that the hypothesized T. angulosa/ENAW connection 620

might be hampered by the fact that the small size fraction was not investigated in this study.
As such, the proposed hypotheses here are meant to be a basis for reflection in future research
topics that are necessary to improve our still limited knowledge on the link between CWCs,
foraminifera, and water masses properties in the region.

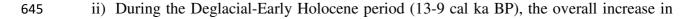
625

626 **6.** Conclusions

Amongst the prominent features observed in the benthic foraminiferal variability and 627 constituting the most important knowledge gain compared to the sedimentary study of Elliot 628 et al. (2019), we find that: i) foraminifera indicate increasing organic carbon flux to the sea-629 630 floor and higher influx of Atlantic waters before the appearance of CWCs, which makes us believe that these are the main environmental factors that allowed the settlement of corals in 631 the WTR area; and ii) the short-term variability of foraminifera during the coral-period might 632 633 have a link with the changing habitats due to the low/high abundance of corals and/or the relative presence of ENAW vs WNAW affecting the hydrology of the basin and food export 634 635 to the aphotic zone.

From glacial time to the late Holocene, three distinct benthic foraminiferal assemblages stood
out matching the three periods (Glacial, Deglacial-Early Holocene and Holocene) defined by
Elliot et al. (2019) on the basis of sedimentological analyses:

i) During the "Glacial" part of the record (ages older than 13 cal ka BP), the low absolute abundances and diversities were indicative of unfavorable ecological conditions for the reproduction and growth of many benthic foraminifera. The dominant taxa *C. refulgens* and *D. coronata* might have lived attached to glacial dropstones or the sandy shelly substrate tolerating the cold and low food availability conditions in a period of extended BIS.



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foraminiferal absolute densities and diversities are indicative of more favorable
environmental conditions (e.g., increased food availability). The cassidulinids-*L*. *lobatula* association seems to indicate a progressive increase of organic matter content
and influx of the warm and saline ENAW. We believe that these are the main
environmental factors that allowed the settlement of *D. pertusum* in the WTR area
around 9 cal ka BP.

- 652 iii) During the "Holocene" part (after 9 cal ka BP), the benthic foraminiferal assemblage
 653 was characterized by the cohabitation of epifaunal species (e.g., *R. globularis*)
 654 together with infaunal species (e.g., *T. angulosa*). Our data show a great variability in
 655 the abundance of epifaunal/infaunal species that seems to be related partly to the
 656 high/low presence of corals and the subsequent changes in habitats.
- iv) After 9 ka, the observed link between the high presence of *T. angulosa* and the high
 proportions of southern-sourced illites led us to hypothesize that this species may also
 respond to the presence of ENAW in the study site. How and to what ENAW property
 this species responds exactly is still to be investigated. We propose a link with
 nutrients content and the resulting effect on the efficiency of primary production
 and/or with a change in the local hydrology (e.g., thermocline depth, salinity fronts)
 affecting the export of food to the seafloor.

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665 7. Data availability

666 The raw data are available as Supplementary Material S1 and on PANGAEA online 667 repository (https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.932647).

668

669 8. Acknowledgments

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1219 5. Figures captions

1220 Figure 1. a) Overview map modified from Staines-Urías et al. (2013) showing modern North Atlantic Ocean surface circulation. Red arrows indicate warm currents and blue arrows 1221 1222 indicate cold currents. Water masses are written in italics to be distinguished from currents, and gyres are underlined; b) Bathymetric map showing the location of our study core together 1223 1224 with the main seabed topographic features. The location of Core NA 87-22 used for age 1225 model is indicated (cf. text for more detail). The extension limit of the British Ice Sheet at different times in the past is shown by the colored dotted lines after Clark et al. (2004) and a 1226 set of maps created by the University of Sheffield led by Professor Chris Clark 1227 1228 (https://www.donsmaps.com/icemaps.html). In red are the main surface poleward water flows and in grey the main southward cold deep-water flows; c) Schematics showing the two main 1229 oscillating states of the SPG: eastward expanded and westward retracted. Red arrows indicate 1230 1231 warm currents and blue arrows indicate cold currents.

Figure 2. a) Published WTR core data from Elliot et al. (2019) showing age depth distribution in cal ka BP using U-Th and ¹⁴C dates measured on *L. pertusa*, and ¹⁴C dates measured on *C. refulgens* and marine bivalves (*Venus* spp.) and the number of coral fragments >2 cm; b) Synthetic lithological log of WTR core. The hatched surface indicates the sediment layer with poorly preserved corals.

Figure 3. a) PCA analysis based on the percentages of the main benthic foraminiferal species in WTR Core (i.e., present with $\geq 5\%$ in at least one of the sediment samples); b) WTR Core plots of the cumulative percentages of the three PCA groups (cf. Figure 3a), absolute abundances of benthic foraminifera (AA/g of dry sediment), Shannon *H* diversity index of benthic foraminifera; c) Clay mineralogy from the study of Elliot et al. (2019). The dark grey band represents the "Glacial" period, and the light grey band represents the "Deglacial-Early Holocene" period (Deg./Early Hol.). The hatched surface indicates the sediment layer with 1244 poorly preserved corals as described in Elliot et al. (2019).

Figure 4. Depth plots representing percentages (red) and absolute densities/g of dry sediment (grey) of the main benthic foraminiferal species (i.e., present with $\geq 5\%$ in at least one of the sediment samples). The dark grey band represents the "Glacial" period, and the light grey band represents the "Deglacial-Early Holocene" period (Deg./Early Hol.). The hatched surface indicates the sediment layer with poorly preserved corals as described in Elliot et al. (2019).

Figure 5. a) Graph representing the results of linear multiple correlations between proxies in 1251 the upper 325 cm of WTR Core (% of the main benthic species, % of smectites, the mean 1252 grain size number of coral fragments > 2 cm, δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C of G. bulloides). Colors refer to 1253 1254 Pearson correlation r, with blue/red referring to positive/negative correlation. The size and the 1255 color intensity of the round symbols are proportional to the strength of the correlation. Nonsignificant correlations (p > 0.05) are highlighted in grey; b) Depth plots for the upper 325 cm 1256 of the % of the benthic species T. angulosa and R. globularis. The number of coral fragments 1257 from Elliot et al. (2019) are indicated in dashed blue lines. Numbers I to VIII indicate minima 1258 of % of T. angulosa; c) Depth plot of % of smectites. Note the inverse x-axis for smectites. 1259 1260 The horizontal grey bands are based on the minima of % T. angulosa. The red crosses indicate where there is a mismatch between % T. angulosa and % smectites (refer to the text for 1261 details). The dotted horizontal line indicates the limit at 9 cal ka BP between the defined 1262 1263 glacial and deglacial-early Holocene periods (refer to the text for details). The hatched surface 1264 indicates the sediment layer with poorly preserved corals as described in Elliot et al. (2019).

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1266 **6.** Plate captions

1267 Plate 1. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of: 1 a-b. Quinqueloculina seminulum

(Linnaeus, 1758); 2 a-b. Miliolinella subrotunda (Montagu, 1803); 3. Spirillina vivipara 1268 Ehrenberg, 1843; 4. Spiroloculina tenuiseptata Brady, 1884; 5 a-b. Textularia sagittula 1269 Defrance 1824; 6. Textularia agglutinans d'Orbigny, 1839; 7. Bolivina spathulata 1270 1271 (Williamson, 1858); 8. Bolivina earlandi Parr, 1950; 9. Ehrenbergina sp.; 10. Bulimina aculeata d'Orbigny, 1826; 11. Bulimina marginata d'Orbigny, 1826; 12 a-b. Globocassidulina 1272 crassa (d'Orbigny, 1839); 13 a-d. Cassidulina laevigata d'Orbigny, 1826; 14 a-b. 1273 Evolvocassidulina bradyi (Norman, 1881); 15. Lagenosolenia bradyiformata (McCulloch, 1274 1977); 16. Favulina squamosa (Montagu, 1803); 17. Lagena striata (d'Orbigny, 1839); 18. a-1275 d. Discanomalina coronata (Parker & Jones, 1865). 1276

Plate 2. SEM images of benthic foraminifera of: 18 a-b. Amphicoryna scalaris (Batsch, 1277 1791); 19. Laevidentalina filiformis (d'Orbigny, 1826); 20 a-b. Globulina sp.; 21 a-b. 1278 Trifarina angulosa (Williamson, 1858); 22. Robertina arctica d'Orbigny, 1846; 23. Uvigerina 1279 mediterranea Hofker, 1932; 24. Uvigerina peregrina Cushman, 1923; 25. Ammonia batava 1280 1281 (Hofker, 1951); 26 a-b. Rosalina bradvi (Cushman, 1915); 27. a-c. Elphidium clavatum Cushman, 1930; 28. a-b. Elphidium sp.; 29 a-b. Gavelinopsis praegeri (Heron-Allen & 1282 Earland, 1913); 30. Astrononion gallowayi Loeblich & Tappan, 1953; 31. Nonionella turgida 1283 (Williamson, 1958); 32 a-b. Melonis barleeanus (Williamson, 1858); 33 a-c. Osangulariella 1284 bradyi (Earland 1934); 34 a-c. Cibicides refulgens Montfort, 1808; 35 a-c. Lobatula lobatula 1285 (Walker & Jacob, 1798); 36 a-c. Cibicidoides sp. 1286