

Evidence for enhanced Mediterranean thermohaline circulation during rapid climatic coolings

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Received 4 April 2000; received in revised form 16 August 2000; accepted 4 October 2000

Abstract

Molecular biomarkers (C_{37} alkenones, *n*-nonacosane and *n*-hexacosanol) and TOC are used together with benthic $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ data to document the hydrographic response of the western Mediterranean Sea to rapid climatic variability. These proxies are recorded in core MD 95-2043 (Alboran Sea) affording the study of the Dansgaard–Oeschger (D–O) and Heinrich (HE) variability during the last glacial period. The results suggest that rapid changes in the western Mediterranean thermohaline circulation occurred in parallel to sea surface temperature oscillations. Enhanced deep water ventilation occurred during cold intervals (HE and D–O Stadials) probably driven by a strengthening of north-westerly wind over the north-western Mediterranean Sea. In contrast, decreased intensity of the thermohaline circulation is detected during warm intervals (D–O Interstadials) which led to low oxygenated deep water masses and better preservation of the organic matter in the sediment. © 2000 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Heinrich events; Mediterranean Sea; biomarkers; deep-water environment; thermohaline circulation

1. Introduction

The climate of the last glacial period was very unstable. This characteristic was first reported in Greenland ice cores where the D–O cycles were

defined [1–3]. Further studies have demonstrated that a D–O-type variability also modulated the glacial climatology and hydrology of several other regions in the Northern Hemisphere ([4–6] and references therein). This rapid millennial-scale climatic variability suggests a rapid coupling of the atmospheric–oceanic systems.

The Mediterranean Sea is a semi-enclosed basin, extending W–E at intermediate latitudes (~ 30 – $45^\circ N$). It operates as a concentration basin and the formation of dense water masses is driven

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by climatic conditions [7,8]. In this context, climate signals are less attenuated being recorded in the sediments at much higher resolution than in the open ocean [9]. A recent, high resolution reconstruction of sea surface temperature (SST) in the Alboran Sea shows a D–O-type variability during the last ice age [5]. However, the impact of the abrupt climatic changes documented in Greenland ice core records on Mediterranean hydrography still remains to be explained.

The present study is focused on the analysis of some marine (C_{37} alkenones) and terrestrial (*n*-nonacosane and *n*-hexacosanol) biomarkers, TOC, benthic $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ on the time interval between 20 and 52 kyr BP in a long piston core from the Alboran Sea (MD 95-2043). The C_{37} alkenones are major components of haptophyteae algae from which the coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* is the most abundant contributor at present day [10,11]. Their occurrence in ancient sediments is currently assumed to reflect contributions from algal primary productivity [12–14]. *n*-Nonacosane and *n*-hexacosanol are major lipid components of higher plant epicuticular waxes [15] and their concentration in marine sediments is widely used to record higher plant inputs to the marine environment [16,17]. The results are compared with the $U_{37}^{K'}$ -SST and planktonic $\delta^{18}O$ profiles previously reported [5]. They provide a high resolution record of the rapid hydrographic changes of the western Mediterranean basin, responding to the D–O and HE variability.

2. Climatological and oceanographic setting

The Mediterranean Sea is located in a transitional climatic regime. In summer, it is dominated by the strong Azores anticyclone while in winter this high-pressure system collapses and European depressions migrate southwards creating high instability and frequent incursions of north-westerlies [18]. The predominant anticyclonic conditions produce an excess of evaporation over precipitation plus river runoff generating dense water masses [8,19]. Accordingly, this semi-enclosed sea is characterized by a complete thermohaline circulation system, involving surface water en-

trance from the north Atlantic Ocean, in situ densification by air–sea interaction and deep outflowing to the Atlantic.

Deepening of dense Mediterranean water masses occurs in three main vertical circulation belts [20]. Strong winter evaporation in the eastern basin generates levantine intermediate water (LIW) whereas deep water is produced in the Adriatic Sea (E Mediterranean) and the Gulf of Lions (W Mediterranean). These deep water systems operate similarly to the north Atlantic deep water overturning. LIW is also involved in the formation of deep water masses in both Adriatic and Gulf of Lions regions implying a strong communication between eastern and western basins at the level of these two deep overturning cells [20].

The Alboran Sea is the westernmost basin of the Mediterranean Sea and therefore, the first receiving inflowing Atlantic water. Three different water masses fill this basin whose circulation patterns are mainly controlled by water exchange through the narrow and shallow Strait of Gibraltar. The upper layer (0–220 m) is formed by modified Atlantic water (MAW) which flows eastwards through the Alboran Sea, describing two anticyclonic, western and eastern, gyres [21]. This surface water circulation pattern displays a high annual-interannual variability driven mainly by the position of the atmospheric pressure cells [21–25]. The second water layer (220–1100 m) is filled by LIW partially modified through its way from the eastern Mediterranean basin. This intermediate water mass is the main source of Mediterranean outflowing water (MOW) [26–28]. The deep layer (below 1100 m) is filled by western Mediterranean deep water (WMDW), which only contributes episodically (about 10%) to MOW [26,29,30].

2.1. Formation of Western Mediterranean Deep Water (WMDW)

The Gulf of Lions (Fig. 1) is one of the few oceanic regions where a deep water mass forms at present [31–33]. The production of deep water is controlled by wind strength, the initial density of the source waters (MAW and LIW), and the circulation pattern in the area. The latter consists of a large permanent cyclonic gyre, involving a

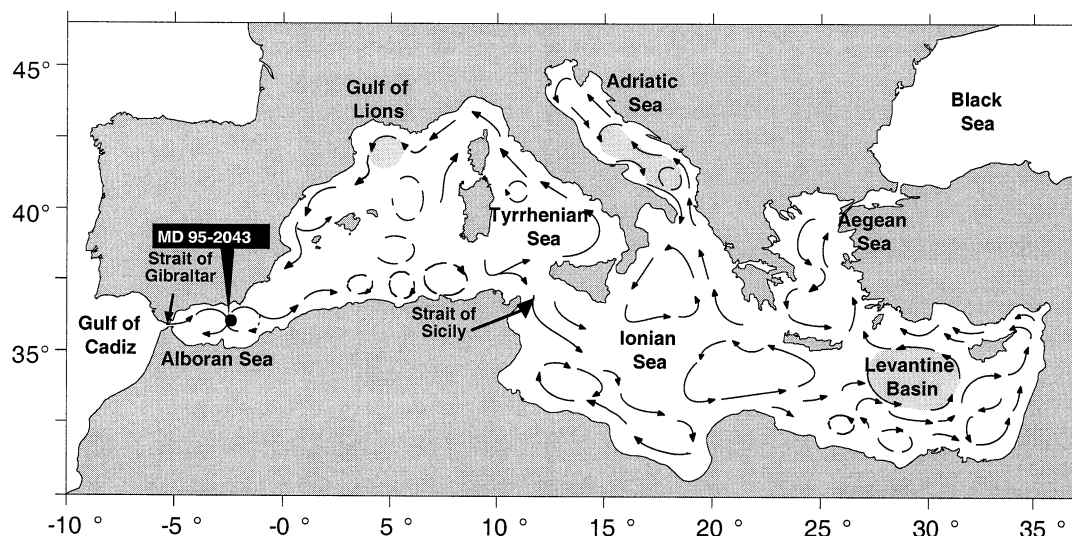


Fig. 1. Map of the Mediterranean Sea indicating the location of the studied core (MD 95-2043) and the Mediterranean sub-basins. Arrows illustrate the main pattern of present day surface circulation. Shaded areas mark the present day regions where intermediate and deep Mediterranean waters are formed.

density stratification which is less pronounced in the center than on the periphery.

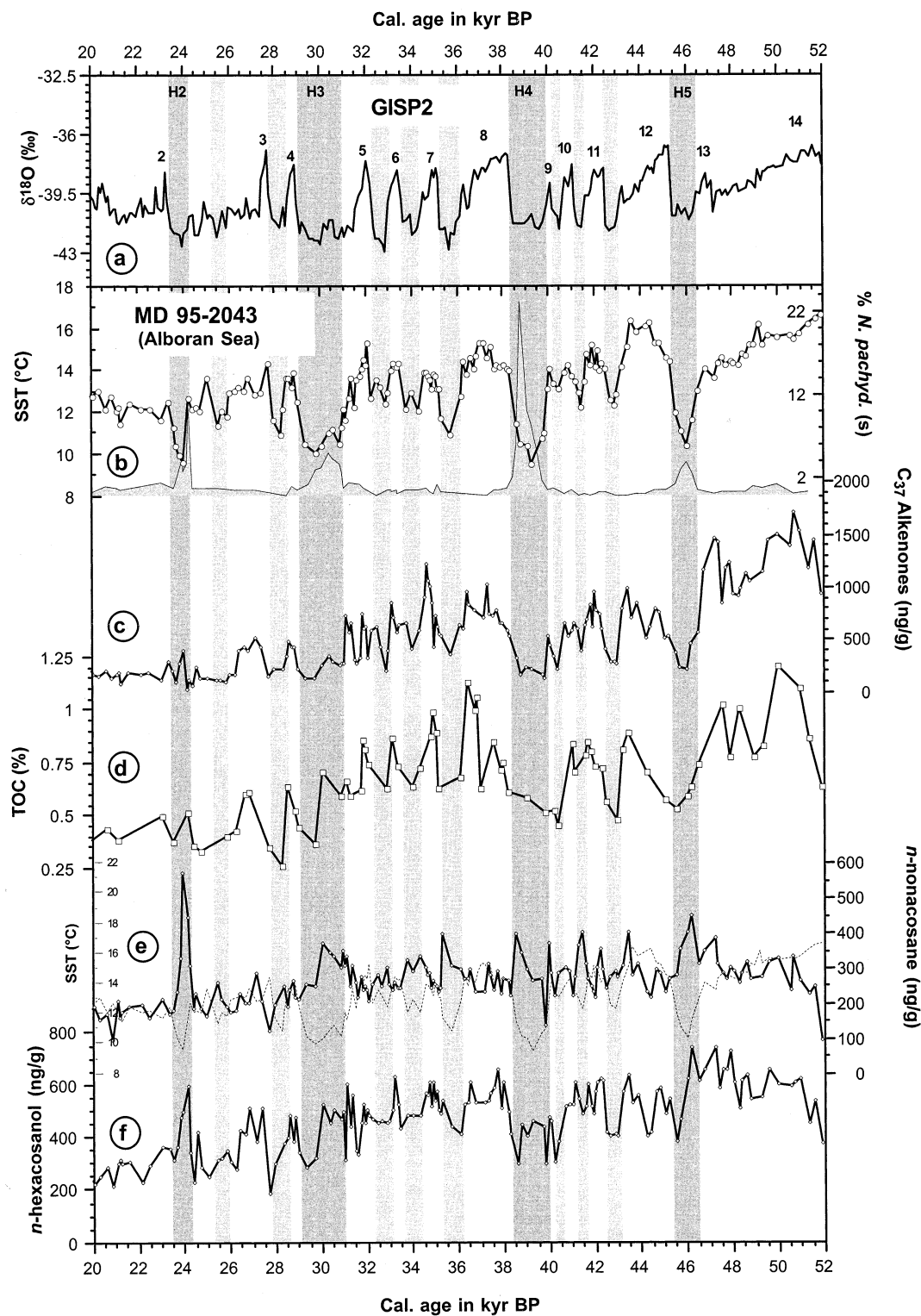
The intensity of north-westerlies over Europe depend on the Atlantic depressions. The Carcassonne Cap (south-west of France), is the preferred southern route for these depressions, moving eastwards from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean region [18]. Westerlies blow through the passages between the Pyrenees, the Massif Central and the Alps, generating the local Tramontana and Mistral winds. These are strong airflows that may blow for several weeks in winter, carrying cold and dry polar or continental air masses to the Gulf of Lions [18,34]. They lead to strong evaporation and cooling of surface water which may become sufficiently dense to sink to a great depth. The production of relatively dense water can also occur sporadically over the wide continental shelf from the Gulf of Lions, although it does not contribute significantly to WMDW formation, since deep convection occurs in the off-shore region of the gulf [31,34]. Thus, deep water formation was probably active too during glacial periods, when the sea level drop left most of the continental shelf in the Gulf of Lions above sea level.

Interannual variations in the formation rate of

WMDW are associated with anomalies of the atmospheric forcing over the basin [20] giving rise to different types of deep water depending on predominant meteorological conditions [32]. Thus, WMDW formation has not been observed in years of relatively mild European winters, e.g. 1972. Results from circulation models indicate that wind stress determines the general circulation variability on the interannual time scale [35]. In addition, long meteorological and oceanographic time series show that the Mediterranean amplifies its circulation in response to the wind anomalies [35,36] which are the ultimate driving force for the main water flow through the straits of Sicily [37] and Gibraltar [36].

3. Materials and methods

Core MD 95-2043 was retrieved from the western Alboran Sea (36°8.6'N; 2°37.3'W; 1841 m water depth) during the 1995 IMAGES cruise on-board *R/V Marion Dufresne*. The chronological framework for the period covered in this study (20–52 kyr BP) is based on the correlation of the $U_{37}^{K'}$ -SST profile with the $\delta^{18}O$ curve from GISP2 ice core [2,3]. This age model has been



previously presented and discussed, demonstrating that it does not introduce significant age modification in relation to another independent age model based on AMS ^{14}C ages and oxygen isotopic stratigraphy [5].

3.1. Molecular biomarkers

Three different molecular biomarkers are studied: long chain alkenones, alkanes and alcohols. All were analyzed using the same procedure. Sediment samples (≈ 2 g) were freeze-dried and manually grounded. After addition of an internal standard mixture containing *n*-nonadecan-1-ol, *n*-hexatriacontane and *n*-tetracontane, dry sediments were extracted in an ultrasonic bath with dichloromethane. The extracts were hydrolyzed with 6% potassium hydroxide in methanol for the elimination of wax ester interferences. Compounds were recovered with hexane and evaporated to dryness with an N_2 stream. The extracts were finally redissolved with toluene and derivatized with bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide before instrumental analysis.

The analyses were performed with a Varian gas chromatograph Model 3400 equipped with a septum programmable injector and a flame ionization detector. The instrument was equipped with a CPSIL-5 CB column coated with 100% dimethylsiloxane (film thickness 0.12 μm). Hydrogen was the carrier gas (50 cm/s). The oven temperature was programmed from 90° to 140°C at 20°C/min, then to 280°C at 6°C/min (holding time 25 min) and, finally, to 320°C at 10°C/min (holding time of 6 min). The injector was programmed from 90°C (holding time 0.3 min) to 320°C at 200°C/min (final holding time 55 min). Further details on the analytical conditions are given in [38]. Selected samples were examined by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry for confirmation of compound identification and evaluation of possible coelutions. The average reproduc-

ibility of the *n*-alkane, *n*-alcohol and alkenone concentrations was better than 10%. Five replicates of a sediment sample showed a standard deviation of $\pm 0.15^\circ\text{C}$.

3.2. Total organic carbon (TOC)

Sediment samples for organic carbon were first freeze-dried and homogenized. The carbonate fraction was removed by addition of HCl solutions of increasing concentration, from 5 to 10%. The resulting suspension was centrifuged for 10–20 min at 3000 rpm to avoid loss of fine particles. Then the decarbonated sediment was neutralized by double washing with ultra-pure water and finally, freeze-dried. TOC was determined with a Carlo-Erba (NA 1500) Elemental Analyser and percentages calculated after correction for the carbonated fraction. Sample duplicates show a reproducibility better than 10%.

3.3. Carbon and oxygen isotopes

Stable isotope measurements were carried out on the planktic foraminifer *Globigerina bulloides* (25–30 well-preserved specimens picked from the 300–355 μm size) and on the benthic foraminifer *Cibicidoides* spp. (10–20 specimens picked from the 250–500 μm fraction). These measurements were made with a SIRA mass spectrometer equipped with a VG isocarb common acid bath system. Analytical reproducibility of laboratory standards was better than $\pm 0.08\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Calibration to VPDB is via the NBS19 standard.

4. Results

4.1. Organic matter records

The $\text{U}_{37}^{\text{K'}}$ -SST profile from core MD 95-2043 for the last glacial period (Fig. 2b) has been shown

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Fig. 2. (a) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ profile from Greenland ice core GISP2 [2,3]. Numbers indicate the Dansgaard–Oeschger Interstadials and shaded bars show the position of the Stadials and HE2–5. (b–f) MD 95-2043 profiles of: (b) $\text{U}_{37}^{\text{K'}}$ -SST (left axis), the thin line (right axis) shows the percentages of *N. pachyderma* [5]; (c) total C_{37} alkenone concentrations (marine); (d) total organic carbon (TOC) percentages; (e) *n*-nonacosane content (terrigenous, right axis), dotted line (left axis) is the same SST curve as in (b); (f) *n*-hexacosanol (terrigenous).

and discussed in a previous study [5] demonstrating its connection with the rapid climatic variability in Greenland ice cores [1–3]. The total amount of C_{37} alkenones (di-unsaturated plus tri-unsaturated C_{37} alkenones) shows also very strong oscillations along the glacial period (Fig. 2c). High values are recorded during the warm D–O Interstadials while the Stadials are well represented by drops in alkenone concentration. Minimum alkenone values are generally recorded during HE. The TOC profile, despite of its lower resolution, also shows large oscillations (0.6–1.2%) accompa-

nying the D–O cyclicity and, therefore, displays a great parallelism with the alkenone curve ($r=0.86$, $P<0.005$; Fig. 2d).

Terrestrial biomarkers, *n*-nonacosane and *n*-hexacosanol, also show a high short term variability along the glacial period (Fig. 2e,f). *n*-Nonacosane maxima correspond to cold periods, in opposition to C_{37} alkenones and TOC, reaching the highest values during H2 (Fig. 2e). In contrast, *n*-hexacosanol (Fig. 2f) does not show a clear pattern in relation to the D–O-type variability. Most of the warm intervals are associated

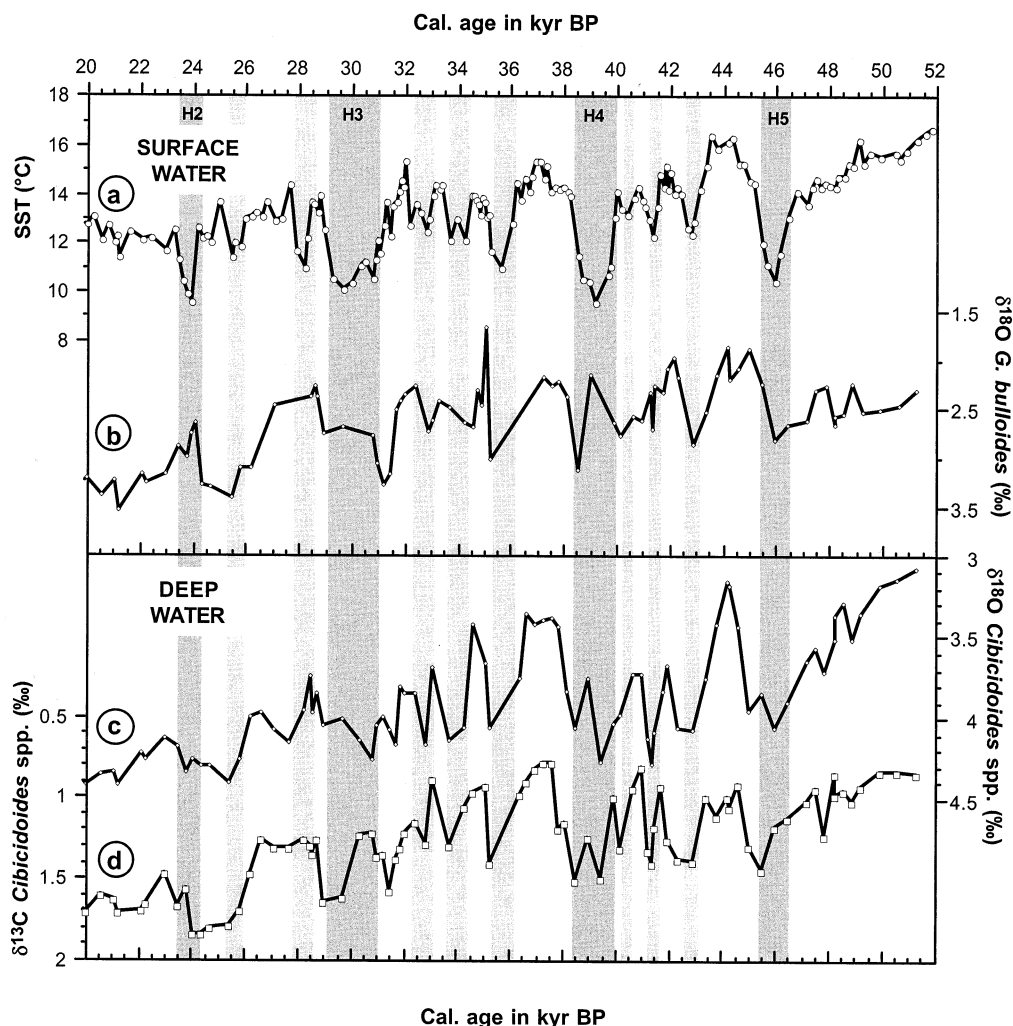


Fig. 3. MD 95-2043 age profiles of: (a) $U_{37}^{K'}$ -SST; (b) $\delta^{18}O$ *G. bulloides* (reverse y axis); (c) $\delta^{18}O$ *Cibicoides* spp. (reverse y axis); (d) $\delta^{13}C$ *Cibicoides* spp. (reverse y axis).

with higher values than the cold intervals, although this difference is not always well defined. The lower parallelism between the two terrestrial proxies ($r=0.6$, $P<0.005$) reflects a complex behavior suggesting that other factors, independent of the terrestrial input, modulate the terrigenous sedimentary signal.

4.2. Isotopic records

The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record from *G. bulloides* (Fig. 3b) exhibits ($\sim 1\text{‰}$) depletions and enrichments associated with the D–O Interstadials and Stadials, respectively. These isotopic enrichments are less defined during the Stadials which are associated with a HE, probably as consequence of the entrance, during these period, of fresh melt polar water through the Strait of Gibraltar [5]. The two, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, benthic isotopic curves (Fig. 3c,d) show a great parallelism ($r=0.86$, $P<0.005$) recording high and low values during Stadials and Interstadials respectively. The D–O-type variability in *Cibicidoides* spp. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (0.5–1‰) is clearer than in *G. bulloides* $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ since the isotopic enrichment in the deep waters is well defined for all the Stadial periods, even those coincident with HE. The intensity of the benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ oscillations related to the D–O cycles was about 0.6‰, and consequently larger than the mean deep ocean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ enrichment (0.46‰) associated with the last deglaciation [39]. *Cibicidoides* spp. are epibenthic species and their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ composition is dominated by deep water ventilation conditions [40–42]. The low values recorded during the Interstadials (0.8–1‰) indicate that the deep water masses were not well ventilated during these episodes although they never reached anoxic values.

5. Discussion

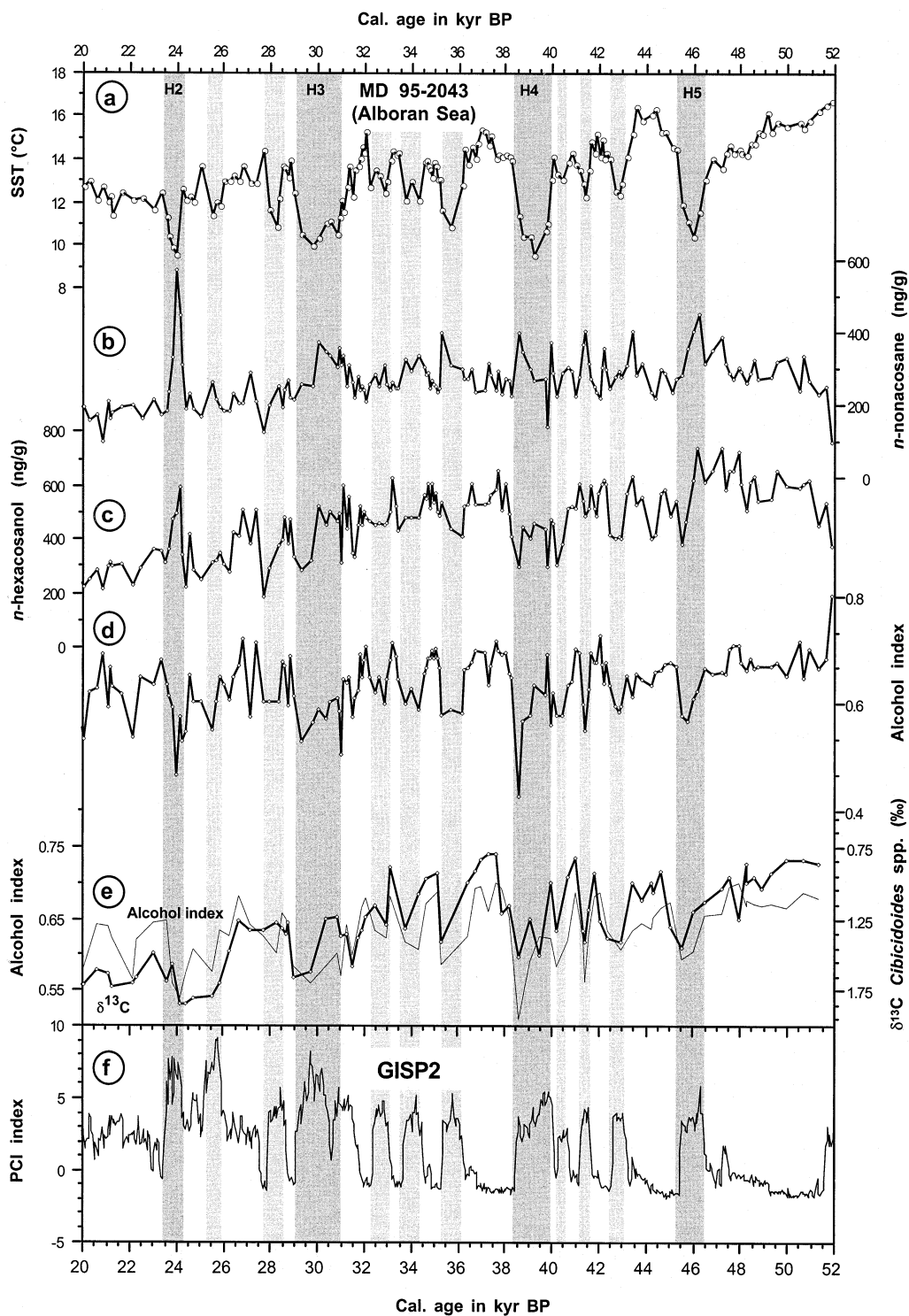
5.1. Changes in western Mediterranean deep water conditions

The D–O-type variability recorded in both benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ profiles (Fig. 3c,d) monitors the same oceanographic process consisting of

the formation of a denser (higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values) and better ventilated (higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values) deep water mass during the Stadials than during the Interstadials. It can be therefore inferred that changes in the glacial WMDW properties occurred in parallel with the D–O oscillations. This glacial WMDW should be formed in the Gulf of Lions (north-western Mediterranean) analogously to the present day WMDW circulation pattern (cf. Section 2). As indicated above, winter westerly winds are one of the main forcing factors of this process and their strength is related to the presently observed interannual variability in the intensity of WMDW formation [35,43].

The high *n*-nonacosane values (Fig. 2e) recorded during the cold Stadials also suggest the occurrence of enhanced wind transport in agreement with the proposed westerly wind-mediated teleconnection between the Mediterranean Sea and Greenland during these cold intervals [5,44]. The higher intensity of the north Hemisphere wind system during the Stadials is also documented by dust records in Greenland [45], loess deposits in the Chinese Plateau and salinity oscillations in the south China Sea [46,47]. In addition to these stronger winds the climatic conditions over the Mediterranean region may also have favored higher water evaporation assisting WMDW formation. Evidence of increased evaporation is obtained from pollen records from the Laghi di Monticchio (south Italy) showing the occurrence of more arid conditions during the Stadials and especially HE than during the Interstadials [48]. Climatic conditions over the eastern Mediterranean Sea could also help the formation of WMDW by the production of a denser LIW during these cold intervals.

The differences observed between the two terrestrial biomarkers can be evaluated by examination of the *n*-hexacosanol/(*n*-nonacosane+*n*-hexacosanol) index. This alcohol index (Fig. 4d) evolves in parallel with the SST record ($r=0.75$, $P<0.005$) displaying low and high values during Stadials and Interstadials, respectively. Changes in vegetation type have been reported to be associated with chain length of the homologous biomarker distributions [49,50] whereas the relative content in *n*-alkan-1-ol vs. *n*-alkanes seems to be



more related to sedimentary conditions since the former are more labile to degradation processes than the latter. Thus, organic matter degradation decreases *n*-alcohol abundance in relation to *n*-alkanes lowering the alcohol index. Recently, *n*-alcohol vs. *n*-alkane rate changes have been interpreted to record organic matter degradation rates in the water column [51–53]. However, alcohol indices were found to differ between sapropelic and non-sapropelic layers of the eastern Mediterranean being interpreted to relate to eolian-fluvial transport [54].

Further insight into the significance of this alcohol index in the Alboran Sea can be obtained by comparison with the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record. As sampling resolution between the two curves is very different, the resolution of the index has been lowered to that of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Fig. 4e). Both curves evolve in parallel ($r = 0.74$, $P < 0.005$) suggesting a common forcing mechanism in agreement with degradation rate oscillations of the organic matter driven by deep water ventilation conditions. *n*-Hexacosanol preservation was drastically affected by ventilation changes while the *n*-nonacosane profile keeps better the original signal of terrestrial input.

A polar circulation index (PCI) was calculated by examination of sea salt and dust series from GISP2 core [55]. The time evolution of this PCI is interpreted to reflect the combined intensity and overall size of the circulation system that produces the well-mixed background atmosphere over Greenland. Comparison of PCI and alcohol indices (Fig. 4) shows a good inverse correlation ($r = 0.75$, $P < 0.005$) which is again consistent with the north Hemisphere wind system as the major factor controlling deep water ventilation and preservation of the organic matter in the western Mediterranean Sea.

Downcore concentrations of TOC and C_{37} alkenones are usually interpreted as a paleoproductivity signal [12–14]. Nevertheless, they can be also strongly affected by degradation processes in the water column and sediment [56]. Both C_{37}

alkenones and TOC (Fig. 2c,d) in core MD 95-2043 show the same pattern as the alcohol index (correlation index $r = 0.76$ and $r = 0.66$ ($P < 0.005$ in both cases) for the C_{37} alkenones and TOC, respectively). This parallelism is in agreement with the dominance of a preservation signal for these two records in the deep Alboran Sea. Nevertheless, it cannot be excluded that increased phytoplanktonic activity during the D–O Interstadials may also contribute to the higher TOC and alkenone values recorded during these periods. Additional proxies, not affected by changes in deep water ventilation, are necessary for further assessment on possible changes in biological activity.

5.2. Implications for the Mediterranean thermohaline circulation variability

The results of core MD 95-2043 document an enhanced Mediterranean thermohaline circulation during both the HE and the rest of D–O Stadials in comparison to the warm intervals (Fig. 5). This scenario is opposite to that described for the north Atlantic Ocean, where both benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and foraminiferal assemblage records indicate a reduced deep water ventilation during the cold D–O intervals [57–59]. A more intense Mediterranean deep water overturning must be concurrent with increased water exchange through the Gibraltar Strait, implying the reinforcement of the dense Mediterranean water outflow towards the Atlantic Ocean.

Present day MOW spreads westwards, deepening into the Atlantic Ocean until it becomes neutrally buoyant at intermediate depths (800–1300 m) [60,61]. The MOW forms a salt tongue along the coast of Portugal, extending as far as the Bermuda rise [61]. Since MOW is one of the salt-contributing members to the north Atlantic deep water (NADW) it has been postulated that it may significantly influence Atlantic overturning [61,62]. However, despite the important effect of MOW in the salt budget of the Atlantic, simula-

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Fig. 4. MD 95-2043 age profiles of: (a) U_{37}^{K} -SST; (b) *n*-nonacosane; (c) *n*-hexacosanol; (d) alcohol index: *n*-hexacosanol/(*n*-hexacosanol+*n*-nonacosane); (e) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *Cibicidoides* spp. (thick line) and alcohol index (thin line) with the same sampling resolution as the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *Cibicidoides* spp. curve; (f) polar circulation index (PCI) in GISP2 ice core [55].

Heinrich Events & Dansgaard-Oeschger Stadials

Dansgaard-Oeschger Interstadials

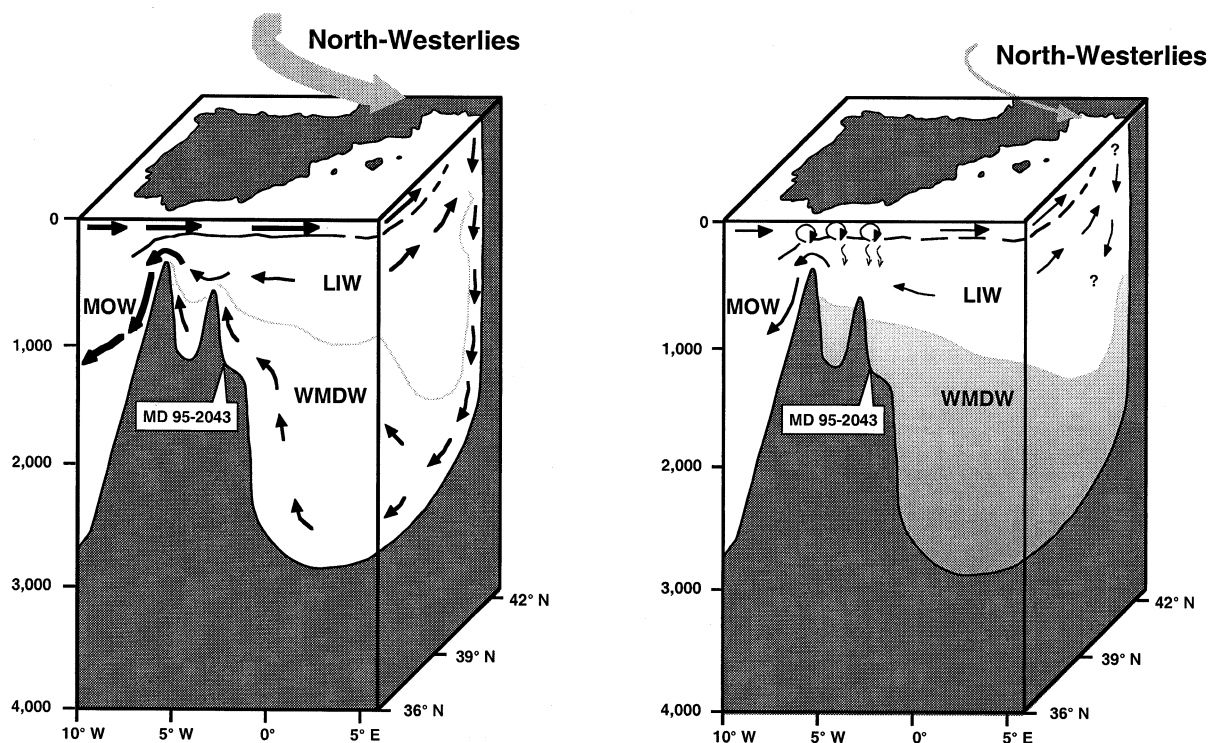


Fig. 5. Illustration of the hypothesized processes controlling the studied records in core MD 95-2043 during the cold HE and D-O Stadials (a) and during the warm D-O Interstadials (b).

tions with a circulation model indicate that it has little effect on the global ocean thermohaline circulation [63]. In any case, given the opposite situations regarding deep water formation in the Atlantic and Mediterranean during glacial times, it could be hypothesized that MOW had a stronger role during cold intervals, when MOW was enhanced and the Atlantic thermohaline circulation was drastically reduced.

Positive benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ anomalies associated with last glacial maximum (LGM) intermediate waters have been found in the Gulf of Cadiz, north-western African margin [64], along the Portuguese continental slope, in the Gulf of Gascogne [65] and in the Caribbean Sea [66]. Therefore, it was postulated that the glacial MOW was more important in the intermediate Atlantic than it is to-

day [64]. Nevertheless, this view is controversial since MOW volume had to be reduced during the glacial sea level drop (~ 120 m) [29,65,67]. Furthermore, sediment records and simulations with an ocean circulation-biogeochemical model suggest that the north Atlantic still remained an important source of intermediate water during the LGM [68,69]. The LGM high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the Caribbean Sea and Iberian margin have also been associated with a well-ventilated and nutrient-depleted glacial north Atlantic intermediate water [70]. Close comparison of our benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record in the Alboran Sea (Fig. 2d) with core SO75-26KL in the Portuguese margin [70] shows clearly opposite trends during H2 and H4. This supports the hypothesis of a strong reduction of Atlantic intermediate water ventilation during HE without

significant influence from the well-ventilated MOW [70].

6. Conclusions

Sedimentary profiles from both terrestrial and marine biomarkers, TOC and benthic isotopes in the Alboran Sea were modulated by a D–O-type variability between 20–50 kyr BP. The benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records document the occurrence of a denser and better ventilated deep water mass during the HE and D–O Stadials than during the warm D–O Interstadials. This is also illustrated by the *n*-hexadecanol/*n*-nonadecane index, reflecting that in conditions of well-ventilated deep water (cold intervals) organic matter degradation processes were enhanced. In consequence, TOC and C_{37} alkenones are also modulated by these changes in preservation conditions although the influence of enhanced primary productivity during the warm intervals cannot be completely ruled out.

This denser water mass likely resulted from enhanced thermohaline circulation in the north-western Mediterranean Sea by the intensification of north-westerlies which today constitute the major driving force for deep water formation in this area (Fig. 5). Increased wind transport occurring synchronously with deep water formation can also be inferred from the *n*-nonacosane record. This association is also consistent with the high correlation between our profiles reflecting deep water ventilation proxies and the PCI in Greenland, an indicator of the atmospheric conditions at higher latitudes (Fig. 4).

Acknowledgements

We thank José Abel Flores for useful discussions for this paper, Pilar Domenech and Mike Hall for their assistance on TOC and isotopic measurements respectively. We also thank Paul Mayewski for providing the PCI data from core GISP2. Rainer Zahn, Kay Emeis and an anonymous referee are also thanked for their constructive reviews to the manuscript. The present study

was supported by the HOLOCENE Project (ENV4-CT97-0162) funded by the European Union. Financial support from project MTPH-MATER (MAS3-CT96-0051) and CICYT (AMB95-1284-E, CLI-96-2261-E, CLI98-1002-CO2, PB98-0288) is also acknowledged. We thank the *R/V Marion Dufresne* and IMAGES programme. [FA]

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