

1 Carbon Accumulation in Mediterranean Rhodolith Beds during the 2 Holocene

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12 **Abstract.** Rhodolith and maërl beds are globally relevant biogenic ecosystems whose long-term carbon
13 storage capacity remains poorly quantified, particularly in the Mediterranean. To fill this gap, we
14 investigated the formation, structure, and carbon content of a sediment deposit underlying a rhodolith
15 bed in the Menorca Channel (Western Mediterranean). High-resolution seismo-acoustic profiling
16 revealed a highly heterogeneous biogenic sedimentary deposit at ~60 m depth, with thickness ranging
17 from a few centimeters to 3.7 m (mean = 0.95 m). Seven cores extracted from the thickest sediment
18 deposits were analyzed for grain size, carbonate content, bioclast composition, organic carbon, and
19 radiocarbon age. Radiocarbon dating indicates that sediment accumulation began during the early
20 Holocene (11,700–9,000 yr BP), when post-glacial sea-level rise transitioned the area from subaerial
21 exposure to shallow-marine conditions. Despite the spatial limitation of collected data, several
22 conclusions could be drawn. Early deposits produced during the last sea-level rise were dominated by
23 bivalves and dispersed coralline fragments. The following establishment of modern sea level around
24 7,000–6,500 yr BP marks a change to the development of more stable dense rhodolith–maërl facies that
25 persist today. Sediment accretion rates are low (median = 8.54 cm kyr⁻¹), reflecting very low external
26 sediment supply, and slow growth of coralline algae. Organic carbon content in the upper 50 cm,
27 representing the most dynamic and recently deposited carbon pool, averaged 0.57% (± 0.22), with an
28 estimated organic carbon stock of 32.04 (± 4.18) Mg C ha⁻¹. These results show that rhodolith beds can

29 act as long-term organic carbon stores, forming spatially complex Holocene deposits that have been
30 largely overlooked.

31 **Keywords**

32 Calcareous red algae; sediment organic carbon; organic carbon sequestration; Holocene deposits;
33 paleoecology; Mediterranean Sea.

34 **Highlights**

- 35 • Seismo-acoustic mapping of a deep rhodolith deposit revealed highly variable thickness.
- 36 • Holocene sedimentation began 11,700–9,000 yr BP during post-glacial sea-level rise.
- 37 • Dense rhodolith–maërl facies formed after sea-level stabilization ~7,000 yr BP.
- 38 • Accretion rates are low (8.54 cm kyr⁻¹), very low external sediment supply and slow algal growth.
- 39 • Organic carbon averages 32.04 (± 4.18) Mg C ha⁻¹ in the upper 50 cm, of sediment.

40 1. INTRODUCTION

41 Marine ecosystems play an important role in the global carbon cycle by contributing to organic and
42 inorganic carbon storage. Coastal systems sequester atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) through
43 photosynthesis and the subsequent burial of sedimentary organic carbon (Nellemann and Corcoran, 2009;
44 Barbier et al., 2011). Current evidence suggests that net organic carbon burial in the marine environment
45 comes from vegetated ecosystems such as mangroves, seagrass meadows and saltmarshes (Macreadie et
46 al., 2019). In contrast, calcifying algal systems such as rhodolith and maërl beds have received
47 considerably less attention, despite their global distribution and the millennial persistence of their
48 deposits. These characteristics suggests that they may represent an important, yet poorly quantified, long-
49 term carbon store (Aguirre et al., 2017; Tuya et al., 2023; Van der Heijden and Kamenos, 2015).

50 Rhodolith and maërl beds consist of free-living, non-geniculate calcareous red algae (Rhodophyta:
51 Corallinophycidae) that form multi-specific assemblages in subtidal environments. These habitats
52 typically occur on coarse mobile sediments under moderate hydrodynamic conditions that prevent burial
53 while maintaining sufficient irradiance (Aguirre et al., 2017; Basso et al., 2017; Bosence, 1983). Despite
54 their slow individual annual growth rates (~1 mm yr⁻¹), rhodolith accumulations can reach several meters
55 in thickness over hundreds to thousands of years. Living rhodoliths are restricted to the upper few
56 centimeters of the bed, overlying deposits of fragmented coralline algae and skeletal remains of
57 bryozoans, molluscs, and echinoderms (Fornós and Ahr, 1997; Betzler et al., 2011; Mao et al., 2020).

58 These long-lived carbonate-rich deposits may store carbon through both the accumulation of biogenic
59 sediments and the trapping of organic carbon supplied from external sources (Mao et al., 2020; Schubert
60 et al., 2024). The high particle-trapping capacity of rhodolith beds, driven by the three-dimensional
61 structural complexity of the algae, is a key mechanism underpinning this process (Mao et al., 2020; James
62 et al., 2024; Bulleri et al., 2025). This structure enhances the retention of suspended material, promoting
63 the accumulation of organic material and supporting carbon cycling within detritus-based food-webs
64 (Rendina et al., 2026). However, the broader role of rhodolith beds in carbon cycling remains uncertain,
65 as carbon storage through particle retention simultaneously occurs with calcium carbonate production, a
66 process that releases CO₂ (James et al., 2024a; Mao et al., 2024). Thus, in carbonate-dominated systems,
67 the balance between carbon burial and release of CO₂ is complex and not yet fully resolved (Macreadie
68 et al., 2019). For the purposes of this study, we focus specifically on quantifying sedimentary organic
69 carbon stocks and highlighting the potential for long-term storage, rather than resolving net ecosystem
70 carbon balance.

71 Large rhodolith and maërl beds are present on modern and ancient carbonate shelves across tropical to
72 polar regions (Riosmena-Rodríguez et al., 2017; Tuya et al., 2023), including the world's largest bed on
73 the Brazilian continental shelf (21 000 km², Amado-Filho et al., 2012). The Mediterranean hosts the
74 second-largest bed described to date, covering approximately 470 km² in the Menorca Channel, western
75 Mediterranean (Tabone et al., 2024). Its development has been facilitated by the clear waters and low
76 sediment input that characterize Mediterranean islands, allowing rhodolith beds to extend down to 90 m
77 depth (Joher et al., 2016). Despite their ecological importance, the capacity of Mediterranean rhodolith
78 beds to store sedimentary organic carbon over centennial to millennial timescales remains poorly
79 quantified. This is particularly true for the vertical distribution and spatial variability of carbon stocks,
80 as well as their relationship with deposit accretion history.

81 This knowledge gap is especially relevant given the high vulnerability of rhodolith beds to disturbance
82 due to their slow growth and limited recovery capacity. These habitats are threatened by bottom-contact
83 fishing gears, elevated suspended sediments, and the cumulative effects of ocean warming and
84 acidification under climate change (Tuya et al., 2023; Trégarot et al., 2024). Although Mediterranean
85 rhodolith beds are protected under EU Regulation 1997/2006, the EU Habitats Directive, and the
86 UNEP/MAP Action Plan (2008), effective management remains limited due to insufficient spatial
87 coverage and ecological data. Improving knowledge of their organic carbon storage capacity is essential
88 not only to clarify their contribution to the global carbon cycle, but also to strengthen the scientific basis
89 for conservation (de Macêdo Carneiro et al., 2021; Schubert et al., 2024).

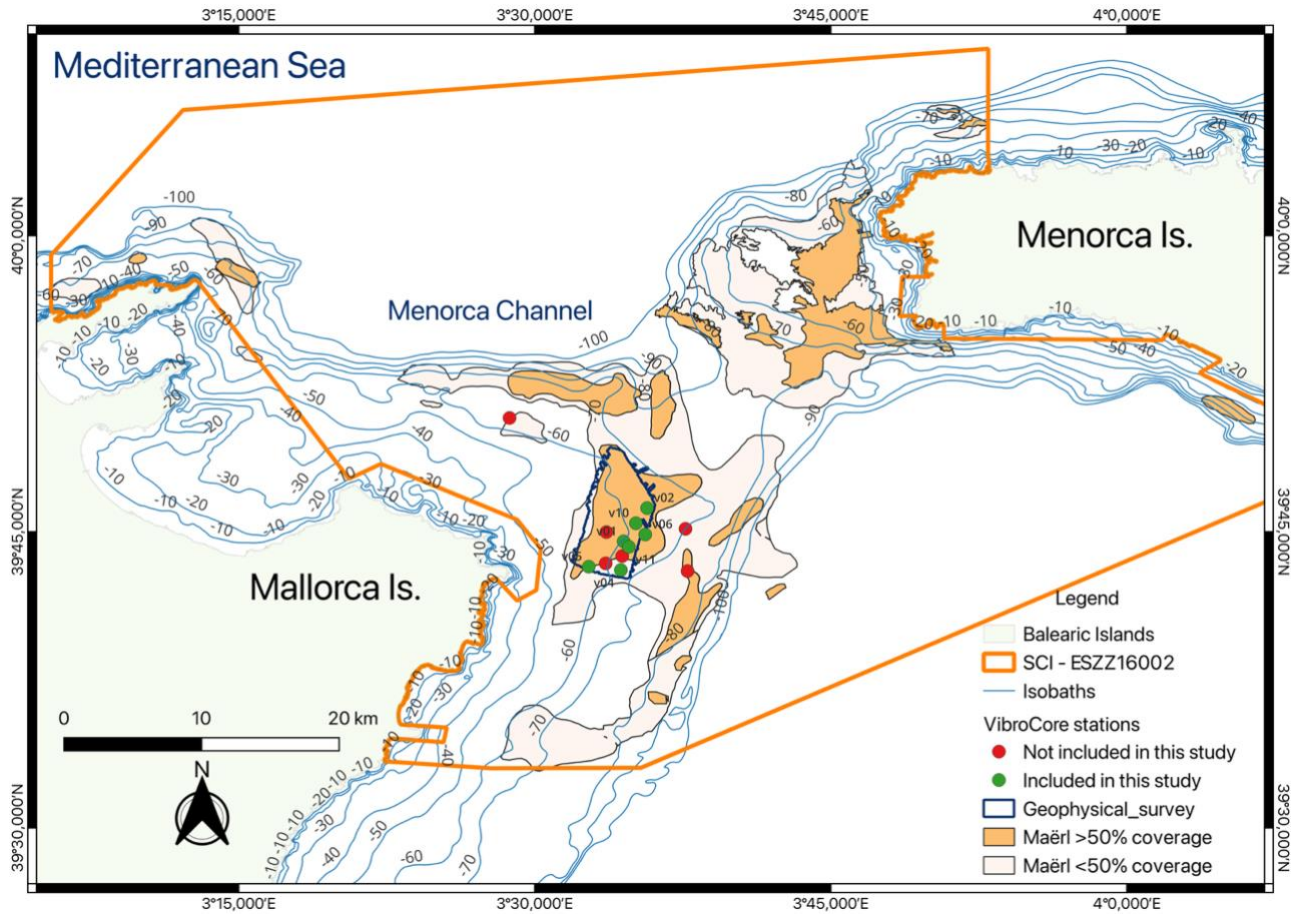
90 This study quantifies the role of Mediterranean rhodolith beds in long-term organic carbon storage by
91 analyzing sedimentary organic carbon deposition of a well-preserved deposit in the Menorca Channel
92 (western Mediterranean). The Menorca Channel is a temperate carbonate shelf where rhodolith sediments
93 have accumulated since the early Holocene, providing a unique archive to examine carbon storage over
94 millennial timescales. Using high-resolution seismo-acoustic data, sediment cores and radiocarbon
95 dating, we estimate the stock of organic carbon in the upper 50 cm of sediments. We test the hypothesis
96 that this rhodolith bed represents a consistent Holocene carbon store, shaped by local environmental
97 conditions and long-term sea-level changes, with implications for regional protection schemes for these
98 habitats.

99 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

100 2.1. Study area

101 The Balearic continental shelf is a temperate, low-energy oligotrophic system dominated by carbonate-
102 producing habitats, including *Posidonia oceanica* meadows, coralligenous communities, and extensive
103 rhodolith–maërl beds (Canals and Ballesteros, 1997; Betzler et al., 2011). Our study focuses on the
104 Menorca Channel, a shallow carbonate platform (~100 m max depth) between Mallorca and Menorca,
105 where post-glacial neritic carbonates have accumulated since the early Holocene (Alonso et al., 1988;
106 Betzler et al., 2011). Rhodolith and maërl beds occur between 45–80 m depth on the platform (Fig. 1),
107 interspersed with detrital sands (de Juan et al., 2023). The preservation of these environments has been
108 assisted by a historical trawling exclusion zone surrounding nearby submarine cables and, more recently,
109 by the 2016 designation of the Menorca Channel as a Natura 2000 Site of Community Importance (SCI
110 ESZZ16002).

111 We focused on a 43.6 km² area where rhodolith and maërl cover exceeds 50%, based on high-resolution
112 mapping from the INDEMARES project (Moranta et al., 2014) and our own video surveys (Cabrito et
113 al., 2024b). Within this area, we conducted high-resolution seismo-acoustic profiling to determine the
114 thickness of bioclastic sediments above the acoustic basement and to identify suitable sites for recovering
115 ≥1-m sediment corers. Potential sites were inspected with a remotely operated vehicle (ROV) to confirm
116 rhodolith–maërl dominance, and full coverage was verified at all core locations.



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Figure 1. Study area in the Menorca Channel, located between Mallorca and Menorca islands in the western Mediterranean Sea. The map shows the area covered by the geophysical survey (dark blue polygon) and the location of VibroCore stations included (green dots) and not included (red dots) in this study. Rhodoliths are represented in light and dark orange, indicating areas with 10-50% and >50% coverage, respectively. The Site of Community Importance (SCI ESZZ16002) is delineated by the dark orange boundary. Isobaths (in metres) are shown as blue contour lines. Source: modified from project INDEMARES (Moranta et al., 2014).

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2.2. Geophysical map

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In May 2022, we acquired 56 high-resolution seismo-acoustic profiles in the study area (Fig. 1) during a research cruise aboard R/V *SOCIB* and using an INNOMAR Medium-100 non-linear parametric echosounder coupled with an INS SBG Navisight Ekinox and GNSS AtlasLink for positioning. Sound-speed and turbidity corrections were obtained with a Valeport SWIFT. The system emits two primary frequencies around 100 kHz, producing a secondary frequency of 5–12 kHz, with a pulse repetition rate of up to 30 s⁻¹ and a beam width of ±1.8°. Non-linear parametric echosounders provide narrow, low-frequency beams with small footprints, enabling high-resolution imaging of shallow sediment deposits and precise localization of core-sampling (Lo Iacono et al., 2008).

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Profiles were spaced 200 m apart, oriented NNE–SSW in the southern sector and NW–SE in the northern sector, intersected by perpendicular transversal profiles every 500–2000 m (Fig. S1). Penetration depth

136 averaged 0.8–1.0 m and reached a maximum of 3.7 m, maintaining high horizontal and vertical metric
 137 to sub-metric resolution due to the small pulse size. Uncertainties were estimated to be of the order of \pm
 138 0.2 m. Seismo-acoustic data were interpreted using INNOMAR-ISE 2.9 to pick stratigraphic horizons
 139 and estimate thickness of the bioclastic deposit. Geo-referencing and isopach mapping were conducted
 140 with Global Mapper and ArcGIS.

141 2.3. Sediment core sampling

142 In May 2023, sediment cores were collected at 60–80 m depth during a research cruise aboard
 143 R/V *Sarmiento de Gamboa*. The coring sites were selected based on geo-acoustic evidence of maximum
 144 sediment thickness within the survey polygon (Fig. 2). A vibrocorer (ASTHER I, GEOMYTSA S.A.)
 145 operating at 136 kN centrifugal force at 3 m recovered 12 PVC-lined cores (9 cm diameter, 1.4–2.8 m
 146 length; Table 1). Each core was sectioned into ≤ 1 m segments and stored at -20 °C for laboratory
 147 analyses. Of the 12 cores, 7 were retained for this study; the remaining five cores were stored frozen for
 148 future genetic analysis to identify the presence of different species of rhodoliths (Fig. 1).

149 **Table 1** – Characteristics of the seven cores obtained in the Menorca Channel (Western Mediterranean) selected for this
 150 study. Description of biocenoses based on knowledge from our own video observations and previous projects (Moranta et
 151 al., 2014).

Vibrocore ID	Longitude	Latitude	Sea bottom Depth (m)	core length (m)	analyses	biocenose
V1	3.5750	39.7419	61.91	1.60	+ * #	rhodoliths >75%, with Peyssonnelia and Osmundaria
V2	3.5949	39.7700	66.22	1.40	+ * \$ #	rhodoliths >75%, with Laminaria
V4	3.5727	39.7177	66.08	1.80	+ * \$ #	rhodoliths >60%, with Osmundaria
V5	3.5456	39.7205	60.01	2.80	+ * #	rhodoliths >60%, with Osmundaria
V6	3.5933	39.7477	64.52	1.90	+ * \$ #	rhodoliths >60%, with Laminaria
V10	3.5854	39.7572	63.28	1.45	+ * #	rhodoliths >90%, with Peyssonnelia
V11	3.5794	39.7525	63.93	1.75	+ * \$ #	rhodoliths >75%, with Peyssonnelia

152 + Lithology and clasts composition; * Granulometry and carbonates; \$ Radiocarbon dating; # Organic carbon

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154 Sediment core opening and visual description

155 Each 1 m core section was cut longitudinally for analysis. All cores were visually inspected to describe
 156 sediment composition, and subsamples were collected for grain size, radiocarbon dating, bioclast
 157 identification, and organic carbon content analyses.

158 Grain size and carbonate contents

159 The cores were sampled at 5 cm intervals for grain-size and carbonate-content analyses. Grain-size
160 distributions were measured using a HORIBA LA-950V2 laser diffraction analyser after disaggregating
161 and removing the biogenic fraction (10% H₂O₂), and ultrasonic dispersion; the >2 mm fraction was
162 quantified by sieving. We calculated the weight percentages of clay, silt, sand, and gravel, as well as
163 mean grain size (ϕ), sorting (σ), skewness (Sk), and kurtosis (kG). Carbonate content was determined
164 from the CO₂ volume displaced by a sample of sediment treated with 20% HCl, calibrated against a 100%
165 CaCO₃ standard.

166 **Radiocarbon dating**

167 Between two and three bioclasts (rhodoliths or bivalve shells) from different depths in four cores (Table
168 1) were radiocarbon-dated by Beta Analytic (Miami, USA). Dates were calibrated with BetaCal 5.0, with
169 HPD method “MARINE20” and corrected for the local marine reservoir effect ($\Delta R = -112 \pm 99$).
170 Sediment accretion rates (cm kyr⁻¹) were calculated by dividing the thickness of sediment between
171 successive dated horizons along the core (kyr), taking the top most horizon as 0 yr BP.

172 **Taxonomic identification of bioclasts**

173 Sediment was examined under a binocular microscope at ~50 cm intervals for fauna identification.
174 Subsamples (10–20 g) were air-dried (48 h) and sieved through 0.5 and 1 mm meshes. Between 200 and
175 300 clasts from the >0.5–1 mm and >1 mm fractions were inspected and assigned to major taxonomic
176 groups (Bivalves, Gastropods, Bryozoans, Echinoids, Foraminiferans, and free-living coralline algae).
177 Rhodoliths were classified into two morphotypes following (Basso, 1998; Basso et al., 2012): non-
178 branched rhodoliths (including “boxwork” and “praline” forms; 1–5 cm) and branched maërl fragments
179 (0.5–2 cm) (see also Jardim et al., 2025; Teichert, 2024).

180 **2.4. Organic Carbon Content**

181 From each core, sediment samples (~21 ml) were collected using a syringe every 10 cm within the upper
182 50 cm, as this layer is expected to contain the highest and more dynamic carbon pool, which has not yet
183 undergone long-term diagenesis (Middelburg, 2018). To minimize decomposition of organic matter and
184 microbial growth, samples were kept cold (4 °C) during 24-48 hours for later processing. In the
185 laboratory, samples were weighed, freeze-dried (lyophilized) for 48-72 hours, and weighed again to
186 determine their moisture content percentage. Finally, the samples were finely ground in an agate ball
187 mill.

188 The processed samples were sent to University College Dublin to be sub-sampled for further analysis.
189 From each 10 cm layer, ~2.0 g (± 0.6 g) of homogenized sediment was subsampled for organic carbon
190 (OC) analysis. A sub-set of the homogenized sample was then shipped to the University of Waterloo
191 (Canada) for carbon and nitrogen analysis. The samples were analysed using an ECS 4010 Elemental
192 Analyzer (NC Technologies, Italy) coupled to a Delta Plus XL (Thermo-Finnegan, Germany) continuous
193 flow isotopic mass spectrometer (CRFIRMS). Samples were acid washed according to the University of
194 Waterloo Environmental Isotope Laboratory procedures in order to remove inorganic carbon and obtain
195 OC measurements. This included acid washing the sediments in HCl (10 ml of 10%) for 24 hours and
196 until the reaction subsided. The final OC value was determined using the measured OC percentage of the
197 acidified sample, which was normalized to the bulk sediment mass by multiplying by the samples non-
198 carbonate fraction. High effervescence during acid treatment indicated a substantial carbonate fraction,
199 resulting in a marked mass loss. The %C and %N was measured in bulk, analyzed against known certified
200 elemental standard materials. For QA/QC, sample replicates were analyzed every 8 to 10 samples, with
201 certified standard/reference materials comprising of at least 20% of every run. Analytical control
202 measures were based on the detection of major carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) peaks to ensure data
203 consistency and calibration accuracy.

204 **2.5. Data analysis**

205 To evaluate whether sediment characteristics control the density of retained OC, variation in OC density
206 (g/cm^3) was analysed in relation to sediment characteristics using linear mixed-effects models to account
207 for the hierarchical structure of the sampling design, with multiple depth subsamples collected within
208 each sediment core. Because OC density values were positive and right-skewed, the response was log-
209 transformed ($\log[\text{CarDens}]$) and modelled assuming Gaussian errors. Core identity was included as a
210 random intercept to accommodate non-independence among subsamples from the same core.

211 The following sediment characteristics, that were explored as candidate fixed effects, were: standardized
212 sediment depth (cm), median grain size (d_{50} ; μm), carbonate content (%), biogenic gravel content (%),
213 and sediment type (categorical). Owing to strong collinearity between d_{50} and the sand/silt fractions ($|r|$
214 ≈ 0.90 – 0.96), grain-size fractions were not included in models containing d_{50} . Potential residual
215 dependence within each corer along the depth profile was assessed by fitting models with a first-order
216 autoregressive correlation structure, AR(1). In addition, a random-slope formulation allowing core-
217 specific depth trends was tested using a diagonal random-effects structure (random intercept and depth
218 slope by core, with intercept–slope covariance constrained to zero). Models were compared using Akaike
219 Information Criteria, with maximum likelihood estimation used for model selection and the best-

220 supported model refitted by restricted maximum likelihood for final parameter estimation. The intraclass
221 correlation coefficient (ICC) was calculated from variance components to quantify the proportion of
222 variance attributable to differences among cores. All analyses were conducted in R v4.4.2.

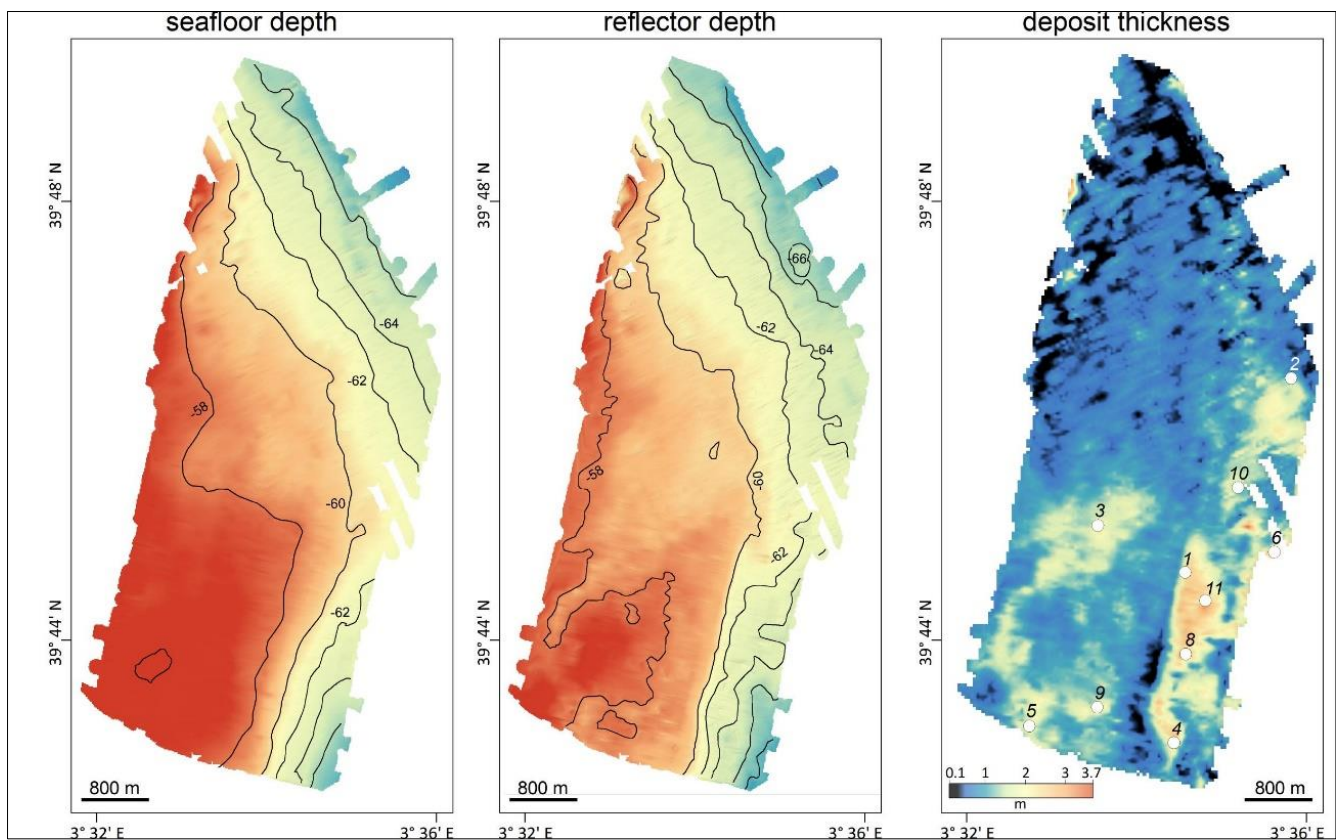
223 **3. RESULTS**

224 **3.1. Seismoacoustic records**

225 The surveyed area ranges from 57 to 68 m depth and exhibits generally smooth bathymetry, with an
226 average slope of 0.2°. The western sector is relatively flat, gradually deepening from 57 to 60 m, while
227 the southeast and northeast sections show narrow bathymetric edges with steeper slopes reaching 68 m
228 (Fig. 2).

229 Geo-acoustic profiles allowed detailed mapping of the 3D architecture of the bioclastic deposit. Sediment
230 thickness was highly heterogeneous at small scales, ranging from nearly 0 to several meters over spatial
231 extents of hundreds of meters or less (Fig. 2, right panel; Fig. S2). Average thickness was 0.95 m, with a
232 maximum of 3.7 m. Thinner deposits occurred in the northern sector (down to 10 cm), whereas thicker
233 accumulations were found in the southern and eastern sectors, including a 2 km × 1 km patch reaching
234 3.7 m at its depocenter.

235 Cores were collected at locations of maximum sediment accumulation. Of the seven cores retained for
236 this study, V1, V2, and V10 reached the bedrock horizon; V4, V6, and V11 fell short by 0.5–1.1 m; and
237 V5 slightly penetrated the bedrock (~1 m) (Figs. 2 and 3; Fig. S3).



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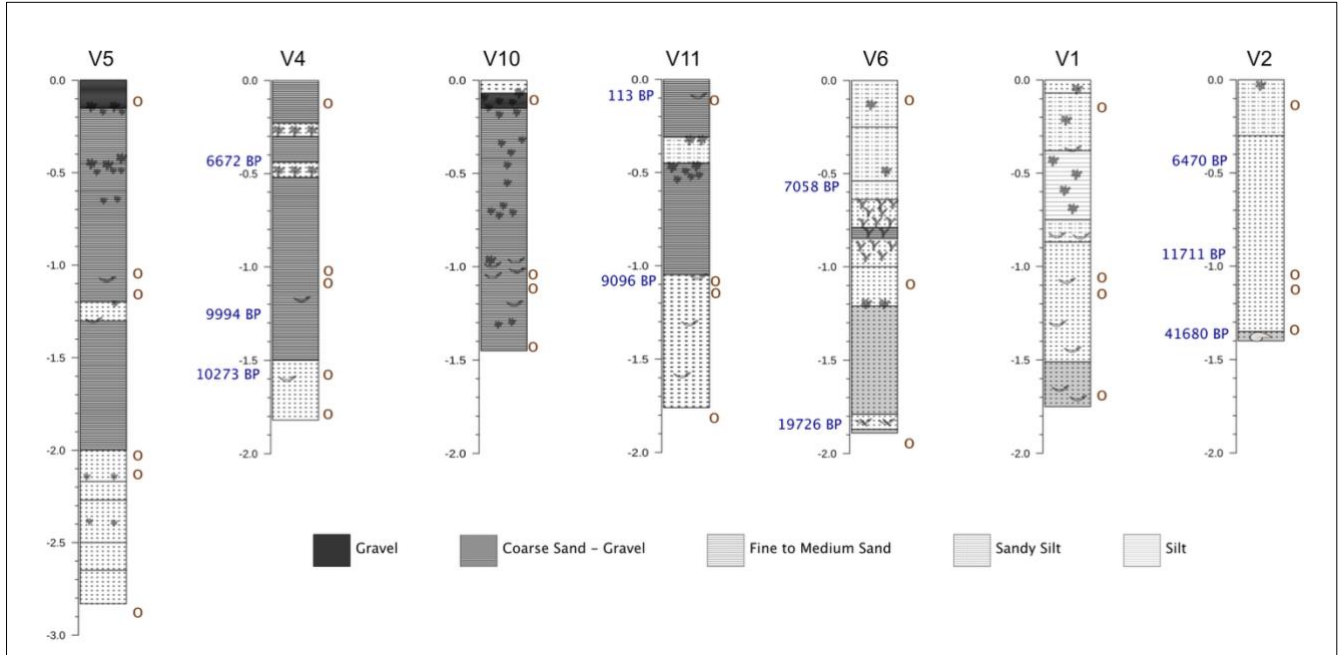
Figure 2. Results of the high-resolution profiling in the rhodolith deposit. Left panel: bathymetry, central panel: reflector depth, right panel: deposit thickness. Refer to position of geophysical survey in Fig. 1.

243 3.2. Sediment characteristics

244 Visual inspection of the cores revealed a relatively uniform composition, dominated by fine to coarse
245 bioclastic sand with occasional horizons of gravel or silt (Fig. 3; Fig. S4). Grain-size analysis confirmed
246 sand as the dominant fraction (>50%), with fines occasionally higher in certain horizons (e.g., V1: 40–
247 90 cm; V2: 30–60 cm; V4: 25–65 cm; V6: 25–60 cm; V11: 35–65cm), but never exceeding sand content.
248 Gravel was always <25%, with the exception of V5: 40–50 cm, 50% gravel. Carbonate contents were
249 consistently $\geq 90\%$ along the cores.

250 Sediment composition was primarily carbonate bioclasts (75%) and, to a lesser extent, carbonate
251 lithoclasts (8%), with variable contributions from siliciclastic grains. Stereomicroscope analysis allowed
252 identification of 65% of clasts, mainly unattached coralline red algae (26%, branched and non-branched),
253 bivalve fragments (22%), gastropods (13%), echinoid remains (4%), foraminifera (4%), and bryozoans
254 (3%). Minor groups included serpulids, ostracods, and polyplacophorans. Siliciclastic grains (17%) were
255 grey or white lithoclasts, distinguished by texture and lack of reaction to dilute HCl.

256 Coralline algae fragments occurred throughout the cores, whereas well-formed rhodoliths were confined
 257 to the upper ~60 cm (except V2), occurring either scattered or densely packed, particularly in V4, V5,
 258 and V11 (Fig. 3). Three cores (V1, V2, V6) terminated on cemented substrate, including bivalve-rich
 259 hardgrounds or reworked lithoclasts.



260
 261 **Figure 3.** Stratigraphic columns showing the lithological composition of the sediment and radiocarbon dates (in blue).
 262 Circles: sampling for faunistic identification: ○ Clasts (only clasts > 5 cm are represented): non-branched rhodolith: ★
 263 branched rhodolith: Y entire bivalve shell: ʘ broken bivalve shell: ʘ rock fragment: ʘ
 264

265 3.2.1. Radiocarbon Dating

266 Radiocarbon dating of rhodoliths and bivalve shells from four cores (Table 2) yielded ten age estimates.
 267 Two basal ages (41,680 yr BP in V2 and 19,726 yr BP in V6) indicate reworked pre-Holocene material
 268 from periods when the area was in an emerged sub-aerial setting. The next four oldest dates, between
 269 11,711 and 9,096 yr BP, correspond to the end of Younger Dryas (11,711 yr BP) and the subsequent rapid
 270 sea-level rise (until 9,000 yr BP), indicating that the area was a shallow marine environment (<20 m
 271 depth) dominated by bivalves and dispersed branched rhodoliths. Some lithoclasts within these horizons
 272 indicate continental input consistent with shallow-water conditions.

273 **Table 2.** Radiocarbon dates (¹⁴C) for carbonate bioclasts obtained from the testing laboratory of Beta Analytic (Miami, Fl.,
 274 US), recalibrated with BetaCal 5.0 and corrected for the local marine reservoir effect (-112 ± 99). * Corresponds to
 275 reworked ages.
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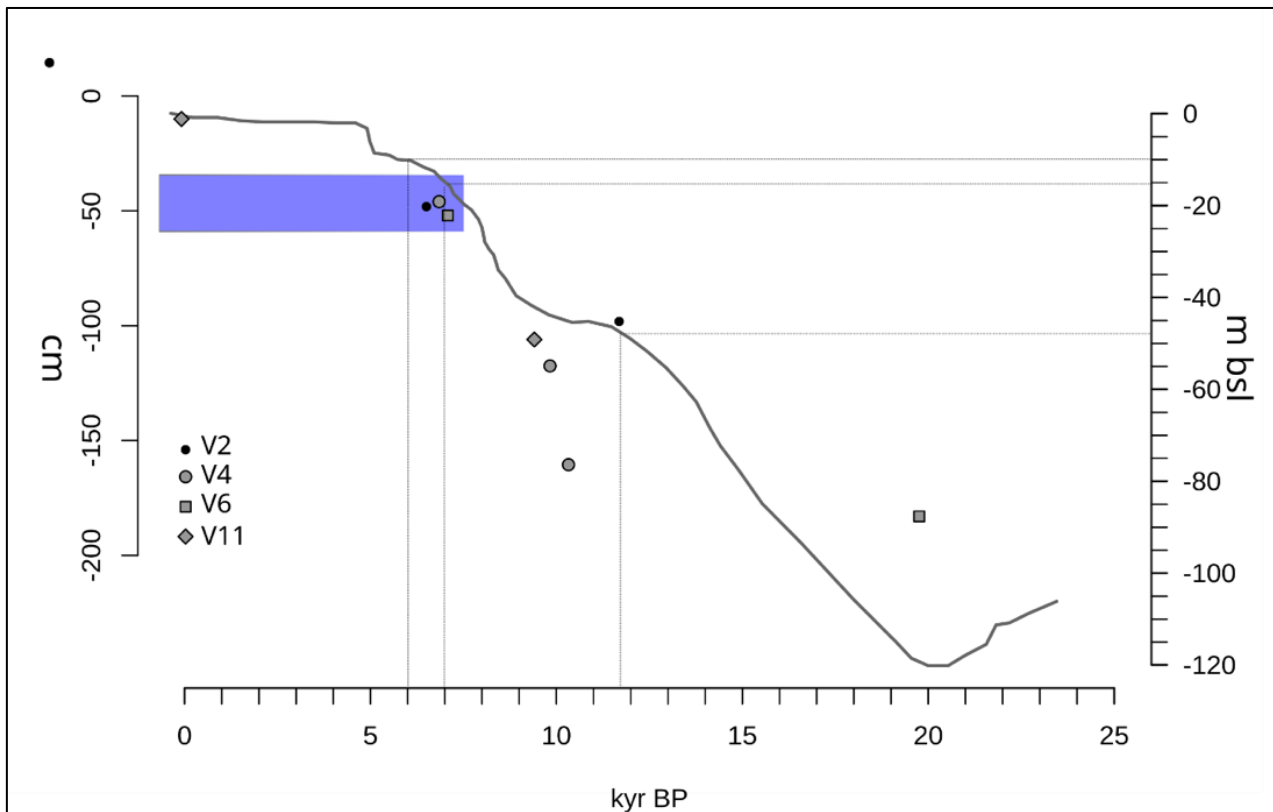
Core	Depth (cm)	Radiocarbon Date BP	Calibrated Probability Data (2 sigma)	Calibrated years BP
V2	136	37934 ± 875	41146-38315 BC 100%	41680.5*
V2	97	10490 ± 30	10151-9371 BC 95.4%	11711

V2	47	6110 ± 30	4778-4261 BC 95.4%	6470
V4	160.5	9460 ± 30	8640-8006 BC 95.4%	10273
V4	117.5	9270 ± 30	8372-7716 BC 95.4%	9994
V4	46	6300 ± 30	5000-4444 BC 95.4%	6672
V6	183	28067 ± 392	30634-4918 BC 100%	19726*
V6	52	6552 ± 81	5298-4918 BC 100%	7058
V11	106	8530 ± 30	7455-6837 BC 95.4%	9096
V11	10	340 ± 30	1724-1950 BD 95.4%	113

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278 Three younger ages, between 7,058 and 6,470 yr BP (47–52 cm depth in V2, V4, and V6), correspond to
 279 a period when the Menorca Channel was ~10–15 m below present sea level, during which well-formed,
 280 densely packed rhodoliths accumulated (Fig. 3). During this interval, continental inputs diminished,
 281 maërl became abundant, and rhodolith beds consolidated, as exemplified by V4 (~50 cm, 6,672 yr BP).
 282 Scattered rhodolith fragments occasionally occur at greater depths, but none are found in strata older than
 283 9,096 yr BP, highlighting the onset of persistent rhodolith accumulation after postglacial transgression.

284 Based on these dates, sediment accretion rates range from 6.9 to 21.5 cm kyr⁻¹, with a median of 8.54
 285 cm kyr⁻¹ (Fig. 4).



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Figure 4. Age-depth plot for the dated cores (excluding one sample that yielded a date > 40 ky BP) from the rhodolith deposit of the Menorca channel. Sea-level height (m) relative to present day based on the average model from (Bianchi et al., 2012), largely based on results from (Lambeck and Bard, 2000). Relevant dates for this deposit (end of Younger Dryas at

291 11700 yr BP and period of sea level stabilization between 7000 and 6000 yr BP) are marked along the x-axis and the
 292 corresponding depth below current sea level on the right y-axis. Blue stripe between 35 and 60 cm core depth shows the
 293 onset of horizons with high abundance of rhodoliths.
 294

295 3.3. Organic Carbon content

296 The average OC content in the upper 50 cm of sediment across all cores was 0.57% (± 0.22) (Table 3).
 297 OC content showed little variation with depth within this interval (Table S1). Using these measurements,
 298 OC stocks were determined for each core. Over the first 30 cm, we estimate an average across all the
 299 cores of 19.41 (± 4.42) Mg C ha⁻¹. Over the full 50 cm, we estimate an OC stock of 32 (± 4.18) Mg C
 300 ha⁻¹ across all the cores (Table 3).

301 In order to estimate annual OC accumulation, the 50 cm stock (3,200 g C m⁻²) was divided by the
 302 approximate age of the 50 cm horizon. Considering a median sediment accretion rate of 8.54 cm kyr⁻¹,
 303 annual OC accumulation is estimated at 0.546 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹. These estimates should be treated with
 304 caution, bearing in mind that the sediment cores were extracted from the points of greatest sediment
 305 accumulation (Fig. 2). Furthermore, this also assumes a constant sediment accumulation over time and
 306 does not account for potential hiatuses or erosional activity, thus representative of a long-term historical
 307 estimate rather than flux.

308 The molar C/N ratios were used to assess the origin and degree of degradation of the organic matter. The
 309 average C/N ratio across all samples was 10.71 (± 3.19), with the highest value being 18.51 (V11) and
 310 the lowest value being 7.71 (V4) indicating predominantly marine sources.

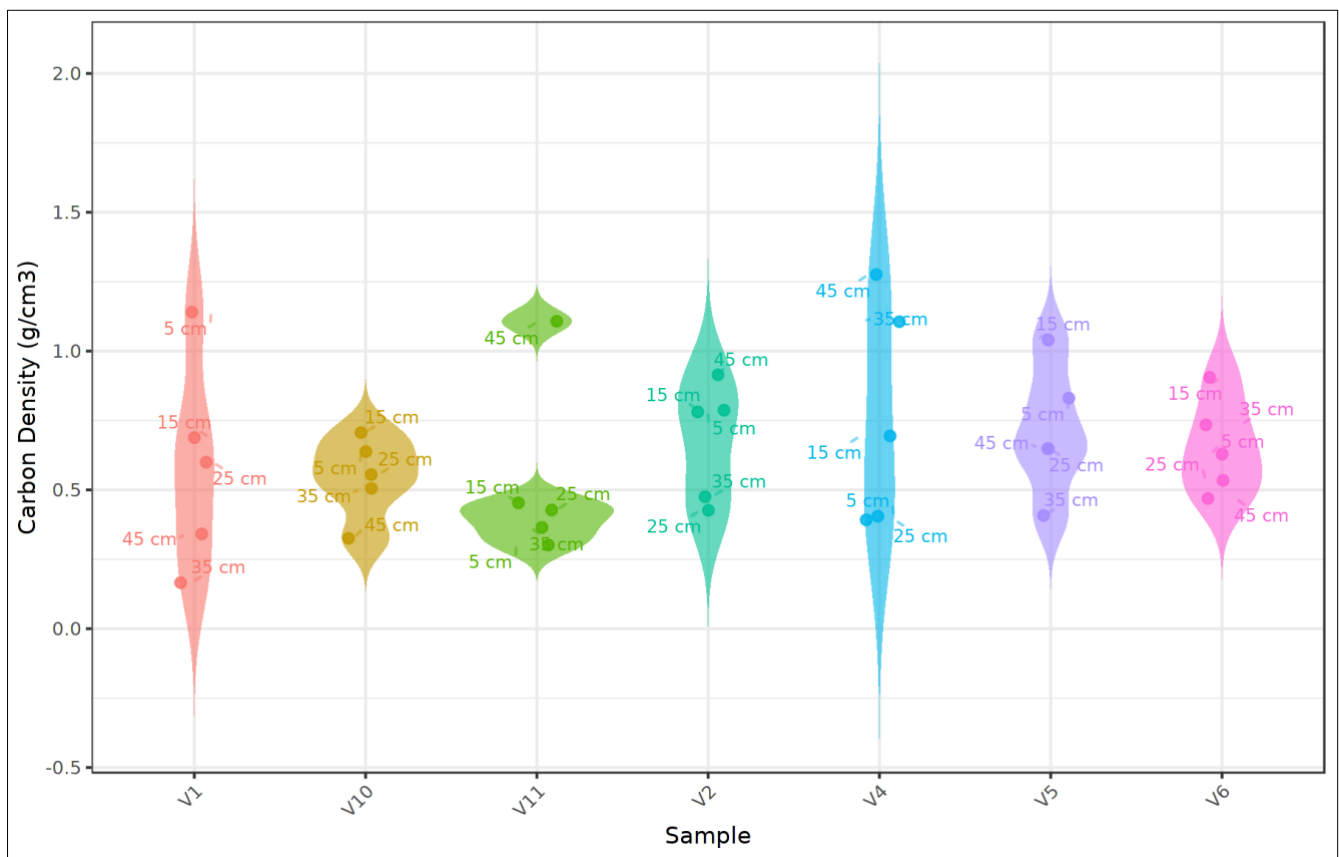
311 **Table 3.** Summary table showing the average organic carbon density, the stock over the top 30 and 50 cm of the cores.
 312

Core	Avg C Density (kg C m ⁻³)	Carbon Stock Top 30 cm (Mg C ha ⁻¹)	Carbon Stock 50 cm (Mg C ha ⁻¹)
V1	5.87	24.28	29.36 31.36
V2	6.77	19.94	33.84
V4	7.75	14.92	31.5 38.74
V5	7.15	25.19	35.75 31.6
V6	6.54	20.68	32.72
V10	5.46	18.99	27.31 27.31
V11	5.031	11.82	26.54
All Cores	6.41	19.41	32.04 32.04

319
 320 Mixed-effects modelling indicated that OC density in the upper 50 cm was primarily explained by
 321 carbonate content and grain size (d50), with a weaker contribution from biogenic gravel content, while

322 depth within the core showed no consistent effect. Alternative model structures, including sediment type,
323 random slopes for depth, and AR(1) correlation across depth, did not improve model fit and were not
324 retained (see Table S2, S3). In the final model, d50 was positively associated with OC density ($\beta = 0.177$,
325 $p = 0.0046$) and carbonate was negatively associated with OC density ($\beta = -0.306$, $p < 0.001$), whereas
326 biogenic gravel showed a weaker positive association ($\beta = 0.098$, $p = 0.0688$) and depth was not
327 significant ($p = 0.577$). Approximately 42% of the variability in OC density was attributable to
328 differences among cores, with the remaining variance occurring within cores and as unexplained residual
329 variability (Fig. 5).

330



331

332 **Figure 5.** Organic carbon density in the sediments (g/cm^3) of the first 50 cm of cores.

333

334 4. DISCUSSION

335 The Holocene sedimentary deposit underlying the present-day rhodolith bed in the Menorca Channel
336 reflects a highly dynamic environment shaped by post-glacial sea-level rise. The deposit rests on an
337 erosional unconformity that likely incorporates reworked Miocene–Pliocene materials (Guillén, 1987).

338 The pronounced spatial variability observed among corers, even over relatively short distances, suggests
339 that local paleo-topography has exerted a strong control on sediment accumulation. Similar patterns have
340 been reported from other temperate carbonate shelves, where interactions between seabed morphology
341 and hydrodynamic conditions generate a complex mosaic of erosion, transport and deposition (Betzler et
342 al., 2011; Fornós and Ahr, 1997). These processes have likely shaped the present bioclastic seascape of
343 the Menorca Channel and contributed to the long-term persistence of rhodolith-rich habitats. Importantly,
344 the heterogeneous distribution of sediments indicates that organic carbon storage is unlikely to be
345 uniform across the bed. Consequently, reliable estimates of carbon stocks will require extending
346 geophysical surveys and sediment sampling to capture this spatial variability.

347 Radiocarbon data suggests that rhodolith assemblages in the Menorca Channel established during the
348 Early Holocene and developed under conditions comparable to other mid- to late-Holocene shallow
349 marine carbonate systems. Their timing placed them between younger maërl deposits in western France
350 (5,860–5,300 yr BP, Ehrhold et al., 2021) and older rhodolith beds reported from the Gulf of Mexico
351 (13,886 yr BP, Olmstead and Andrus, 2024), although such comparisons should be interpreted cautiously
352 given regional differences in environmental and depositional settings. Within the Menorca Channel
353 records, deposits formed at the end of the Younger Dryas and during rapid postglacial sea-level rise
354 (~9000 yr BP onwards) are characterized by bivalves-dominated assemblages with dispersed branched
355 rhodoliths. The interpretation of the lower and older sections of the cores is complicated by presence of
356 reworked deposits; nevertheless, the data suggest that well-formed rhodoliths most probably established
357 later (upper ~60 cm of sediment, around 7,000–6,000 yr BP), when more stable conditions prevailed and
358 coincide with sea-level stabilization near present-day levels (Lambeck, 1995). This transition marks the
359 onset of dense rhodolith beds characterised by large, tightly packed rhodoliths, with branched and
360 boxwork morphologies, whose expansion and long-term persistence were likely favored by moderate
361 hydrodynamics, reduced terrigenous input, and mesophotic conditions that limit competitive pressure
362 (Aguirre et al., 2012; Basso et al., 2017). This continued presence over 6000 years highlights the capacity
363 of these systems to maintain structural complexity in the long-term, with potential implications for their
364 role as long-term organic carbon deposits, and for their conservation and management.

365 Present-day seafloor patterns in the Menorca Channel are characterized by patches of rhodoliths
366 occurring at high densities (50–100% surface coverage), ranging in size from ~10 m² to over 100 m², and
367 predominantly composed of branched forms (Cabrito et al., 2024a, b). This spatial heterogeneity is
368 consistent with observations from other deep Mediterranean rhodolith beds (Rendina et al., 2020; Bracchi

369 et al., 2022; Tabone et al., 2024). Sediments are consistently carbonate-rich and dominated by bioclastic
370 material, with relatively uniform organic carbon content in the upper layers. In contrast, sediment
371 thickness is highly heterogeneous at small spatial scales. Reflecting these patterns, mixed-effects
372 modelling indicated that approximately 42% of the variability in organic carbon density was attributable
373 to differences among cores, suggesting small-scale patchiness in carbon accumulation across the
374 rhodolith bed that may be linked to local patchiness in rhodolith morphology and accumulation. Spatial
375 heterogeneity, together with variability in rhodolith density and morphology, may influence particle
376 trapping capacity and organic carbon retention (Cabrito et al., 2024a; Neto et al., 2021); however, this
377 remains to be evaluated, as the cores analysed were collected in the deepest sediment deposits from the
378 main rhodolith patch characterized by high cover and structural complexity. Organic carbon density was
379 largely controlled by sediment composition (grain size and carbonate content), consistent with dilution
380 in carbonate-rich sediments and a textural control on carbon storage (Howard et al., 2018; Keil et al.,
381 1994). The absence of a depth effect suggests relatively uniform near-surface conditions, consistent with
382 active bioturbation and hydrodynamic reworking that promote sediment mixing.

383 The relatively uniform organic carbon content in the upper 50 cm of sediment suggests low degradation
384 rates over the last ~6,000 years, coinciding with sea level stabilization. This stability likely favored the
385 development of well-formed rhodolith ecosystems, facilitating organic carbon capture and long-term
386 retention. Based on our estimates, these sediments store approximately 32.04 Mg C ha⁻¹ in the upper 50
387 cm, with an average of 19.41 (± 4.42) Mg C ha⁻¹ in the upper 30 cm. Using an estimated sediment
388 accretion rate of 8.54 cm kyr⁻¹, this corresponds to an average organic carbon accumulation of ~0.546 g
389 C m⁻² yr⁻¹. These values exceed previous estimates reported for coralline algal beds in temperate coastal
390 environments. For example, Mao et al. (2020) reported average organic carbon stocks of 7.23 ± 1.30 Mg
391 C ha⁻¹ within the upper 25 cm and 12.28 ± 1.98 Mg C ha⁻¹ across the full depth of carbonate deposits
392 (~80 cm) in Scottish coastal rhodolith beds. The substantially higher carbon stocks observed in the
393 Menorca deposit likely reflect differences in the environmental context: extending to mesophotic depths
394 it allows long-term depositional stability and slow sediment turnover. Rather than acting as a rapid carbon
395 sink, this system would serve as a millennial-scale carbon reservoir, preserving organic matter within a
396 slowly forming carbonate matrix. Nevertheless, future work should investigate deeper sediment layers
397 (>50 cm), to determine the depth and age at which organic carbon mineralized. This would also help to
398 clarify the role of spatial heterogeneity in the deposit, and whether areas with thinner sediment cover
399 differ in their capacity for carbon retention.

400 The relatively high organic carbon stocks documented in the Menorca Channel reinforce growing
401 evidence that rhodolith beds can contribute to long-term carbon storage despite slow sediment accretion
402 rates (Mao et al., 2024; Van Der Heijden and Kamenos, 2015). The persistence of organic carbon
403 observed in these deposits reflects two complementary processes: the long-term preservation of organic
404 matter within slowly accumulating sediments and the longevity of coralline algal systems, whose
405 carbonate skeletons resist degradation and maintain biogenic habitats over millennial timescales (Aguirre
406 et al., 2000; Van Der Heijden and Kamenos, 2015; Wilson et al., 2004). The three-dimensional structure
407 of rhodolith beds promotes the trapping and burial of suspended organic matter, including allochthonous
408 carbon, while low remineralization rates favour its preservation over long timescales (James et al.,
409 2024b). While rhodolith beds can store substantial amounts of organic carbon, their net contribution to
410 climate mitigation remains an open question because the balance between carbon burial and calcification-
411 related carbon release is not yet fully resolved (Kamenos et al., 2013; Mao et al., 2024; Schubert et al.,
412 2024; Van Der Heijden and Kamenos, 2015). Within this context, Blue Carbon frameworks have focused
413 on mangroves, salt marshes, and seagrass meadows. However, coralline algal beds are increasingly
414 recognized as non-classical Blue Carbon ecosystems because of their capacity to store organic carbon
415 over centennial to millennial timescales (James et al., 2024a). While their annual accumulation rates are
416 relatively low, their extensive global distribution and long-term persistence suggest that their cumulative
417 contribution to coastal carbon storage may be substantial (Van Der Heijden and Kamenos, 2015). The
418 carbon stocks quantified in the Menorca Channel support this emerging perspective and highlight the
419 importance of protecting these ecosystems, as disturbance can rapidly mobilize carbon deposits that have
420 accumulated over millennia.

421 These ecosystems are highly vulnerable to physical disturbance, particularly from bottom-contact fishing
422 such as trawling and dredging (Trégarot et al., 2024). These activities can fragment nodules, bury living
423 rhodoliths, and alter the structure and compaction of the sediment, with impacts that persist over
424 timescales far longer than ecosystem management schemes (de Juan et al., 2013; Cabanellas-Reboredo
425 et al., 2018; Tauran et al., 2020). The upper few centimeters of the deposit can be disrupted by a single
426 trawl passage, not only halting carbon sequestration but potentially remobilizing organic carbon that
427 accumulated over thousands of years (Bernard et al., 2019). In the Mediterranean, many rhodolith beds
428 remain exposed to such pressures, as they alternate with soft-sediment ecosystems exposed to
429 commercial trawling (de Juan et al., 2013; Illa-López et al., 2023). In contrast, the Menorca Channel
430 deposit has been protected from trawling due to the historical presence of submarine cables. Evidence
431 from this less disturbed site suggests relatively uniform carbon preservation and burial under natural,

432 undisturbed conditions. This evidence highlights the need for future research into rhodolith beds. In
433 particular, this would include assessing whether organic carbon trapped by rhodolith beds, as opposed to
434 carbon produced via rhodolith calcification, is sequestered at rates that balanced or exceed calcification-
435 related carbon release. This highlights the critical role of protection in maintaining the long-term carbon
436 storage and ecological integrity of rhodolith ecosystems.

437 **Conclusions**

438 Rhodolith beds in the western Menorca Channel form the surficial sedimentary layer over a Holocene
439 depositional framework and constitute long-term sedimentary carbon archives within carbonate shelf
440 systems. Their organic carbon content remains relatively stable through the upper 50 cm, indicating
441 sustained accumulation and limited degradation over ~6,000 years. This persistence is enabled by the
442 three-dimensional structure of rhodoliths, which promotes sediment trapping and long-term carbon
443 preservation despite slow accretion rates, supporting their role as long-term carbon reservoirs rather than
444 rapid carbon sinks. These systems have persisted despite environmental changes, including human
445 impacts, yet their slow growth and sensitivity to physical disturbance make them highly vulnerable.
446 Protecting rhodolith beds from trawling and dredging is essential not only for biodiversity conservation
447 but also for maintaining their function as long-term carbon stores, reinforcing their contribution to
448 climate regulation. These findings suggest that carbonate biogenic systems such as rhodolith beds should
449 be reconsidered as long-term carbon repositories within blue carbon frameworks.

450 **Author contributions**

451 SdJ, FM, and CL conceptualized the study. AC, MdMG, SdJ, RS, and LI conducted sample collection
452 and processing. MdMG and CL curated the data. SdJ, RS, and AO performed the formal analysis. CL,
453 RS, and AO developed the methodology. SdJ, FM, and CL prepared the original draft of the manuscript.
454 HH, JG, and GC contributed to reviewing and editing the manuscript. SdJ, FM, and GC acquired funding.

455 **Competing interests**

456 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

457 **Code and data availability**

458 The data supporting the findings of this study, including sediment core descriptions, geochemical
459 analyses, and radiocarbon dates, are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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