Dear Professor Stramma,

Many thanks for the reviewers' comments for our manuscript. Below we respond to individual queries raised by the reviewers and we also attach the manuscript showing all the changes (tracked changes on).

Best wishes, Babette, David and Steve.

Author reply A. Schmittner (Referee) comment “Millennial changes in North Atlantic oxygen concentrations”

The manuscript presents new data of millennial variations of dissolved oxygen in the North Atlantic. I think the manuscript is well written and illustrated and that the main conclusions are supported by evidence. Quantitative reconstructions of dissolved oxygen are rare but, in my opinion, extremely valuable. I applaud the authors for a job well done. The comments listed below are rather minor, but the authors may find them useful in case they prepare a revision.

Title Page: typo in first affiliation (Univeristy)

This has been corrected.

Fig. 1: is it necessary to show the whole globe in the top map? It may be better to zoom into the North Atlantic to see better which sections are used.

We have revised our Figure 1 to focus in on the North Atlantic.

Page 12949, lines 16-17: I don’t think that this statement is accurate. No references are provided that would support it. Contrary to what is claimed here Gregory et al. (2005, GRL 23, L12703) have argued that the AMOC reduction is mostly due to heat fluxes rather than freshwater fluxes.

Perhaps our wording is a bit too strong here. According to Gregory et al. (2005) 'the THC weakening is caused more by changes in surface heat flux than by changes in surface water flux.' We have revised this line to ' The future reduction in ocean overturn is mainly attributed to changes in surface heat flux and to a lesser extent to surface freshening (Gregory et al., 2005).'

Page 12950, line 2: You may also want to cite Schmittner & Lund (2014, Clim. Past 11, 135-152), who present the first evidence from distributed deep ocean d13C compared with model simulations.

We have added this reference to provide support for the interpretation of the nutrient proxy d13C.

Page 12950, lines 20-23: I think this is a very optimistic statement. I also don’t see how those reconstructions would directly help constrain future projections. I’d suggest to remove the statement or to provide some arguments supporting it.

This section has been deleted.

Page 12952, line 16: Here and elsewhere I suggest to replace d13C with d13C_DIC in order to differentiate between water column data from other sources such as carbonates.

This has been changed in the manuscript.

Page 12952, lines 22-24: d13C_DIC distributions in the ocean are also affected by temperature dependent fractionation during air-sea gas exchange (e.g. Lynch-Stieglitz et al. BGC 9, 653-665) and the degree of equilibration of surface waters with the atmosphere (e.g. Schmittner et al. 2013, Biogeosciences 10, 5793-5816)

We have rephrased these lines to 'Furthermore, variations in Δδ13C-DIC distributions in the oceans are also affected by temperature dependent fractionation during air-sea gas exchange (Lynch-Stieglitz et al., 1995) may be caused by varying air-sea and degree of surface water equilibration with the atmosphere (Schmittner et al., 2013), exchange at source waters, biology and also mixing with other water masses (Gruber et al., 1999).'

Page 12952, line 6: Fig. 3 is discussed before Fig. 2.

We have changed the order in the text and also swapped the captions (+figures) around.

Page 12953, lines 13-14: The following part of the sentence is somewhat ambiguous: “inferred from bottom water and anoxic boundary dwelling foraminifera” because it is not clear if the forams are dwelling in bottom water and in the anoxic boundary, or if “inferred from bottom water” means inferred from insitu measurements of bottom water oxygen concentrations. Please clarify.

We have rephrased this to ' Hoogakker et al. (2015) furthermore show that additional observations of Δδ13Cbw-ab_pw, inferred from the difference in δ13C between bottom water and foraminifera living at the anoxic boundary dwelling foraminifera (Globobulimina spp.) as well as between bottom water suspension feeding (Cibicioides wuellerstorfi) and anoxic boundary dwelling foraminifera (Globobulimina spp.) all fit the original observations exceptionally well at [O2] between 55 and 235 µmol/kg.'

Fig. 4: it may be interesting to plot the cibicides and Globobulimina d13C separately to see which of those dominate the resulting variability of the gradient.
We have done this, and then also changed our figure caption to ' Figure 4. Benthic foraminifera $\Delta\delta^{13}$C at deep site MD95-2042 and intermediate ODP Site 1055 and their planktonic foraminifera oxygen isotopes. Original benthic foraminifera δ^{13}C records (MD95-2042 from Shackleton et al., 2000) of epifaunal C. wuellerstorfi (red circles) and deep infaunal G. affinis (blue circles) are also shown intercalated between the $\Delta\delta^{13}$C records. Several Heinrich events and cold events are shown.'

Page 12956, lines 8-10: Please show the d13C so that the reader can understand this note.
We are now showing this, also see above.

Page 12956, line 12: “event” should be “events”.
This has been corrected.

Also, please note C21 in the figure. We have added this note.

Fig. 4: what is the event (grey bar) between H6 and C19 in the lower panel?
It is what we refer to in the text as ' the cold period that follows' at page 12956, line 23.

Fig. 5 and discussion: it seems to me that the millennial events are barely resolved. H1, e.g., seems to be two data points. H4 also two or three (hard to see from the figure). I wonder if bioturbation could dampen the signal. I suggest to discuss this point, which may also be relevant for the model-data comparison on page 12960.
We do discuss the smoothing effect (page 12960, lines 21 to 23), but in view of the reviewers comment have amended this line to emphasize that this is through bioturbative mixing e.g. 'However, it is noted that the model outputs depict a particular (extreme) point in model time, whereas reconstructions from deep sea sediments represent an averaged view where extremes have been smoothed out by bioturbation.'

Page 12957, lines 1-2: “they are significantly reduced compared with warm interstadial intervals as well as the LGM.” They don’t seem to me to be significantly reduced compared with the LGM. Please provide statistical calculations such as means, errors for the means and significance levels for the means to be different.
We have changed 'significantly reduced' to 'lower' and also provide means and errors for the different intervals with details for the cold events in our new Table 1.

Page 12959, lines 6-8: Note that the first modeling study to show this was in fact Schmittner (2005, Nature). I suggest to cite the original paper.
We have changed the sentence to 'Model simulations suggest that export production during Heinrich events was globally reduced, with a decrease in the North Atlantic (Schmittner et al., 2005; Mariotti et al., 2012; Menviel et al., 2014).'

Page 12960, line 23: “smoothed out” by bioturbation? Another reason for the larger amplitude changes simulated by the Schmittner et al. (2007) model is that their simulation starts from a pre-industrial background state. If a glacial state with a weaker and shallower AMOC was used the amplitude of the oxygen changes at the deep site would have been presumably smaller. This may also explain the overestimated amplitude in benthic d13C simulated in the North Atlantic by Schmittner and Lund (2014).
We have added the following sentence at line 21 ' The larger amplitude changes in seawater [O2] simulated by Schmittner et al. (2007) may be the result of the prescribed pre-industrial boundary conditions with strong AMOC; if they had used a glacial boundary conditions with weaker AMOC the oxygen changes at the deep site might have been smaller.'

Page 12960, lines 19-20: How were the ranges of 24-60 uM (intermediate) and 15-101 uM (deep) determined? Please explain in detail how those numbers were calculated. Perhaps a table with means and error estimates for each of the events may be useful. From Fig. 5 it seems to me that many interstadial events are above the 235 threshold where the method becomes non-quantitative. So, how exactly were the pre-Heinrich stadial reference values calculated? And how exactly were the Heinrich values calculated.
As the reviewer mentions, most of the interstadial events are above the 235 umol/kg threshold of the calibration equation. For this reason the Heinrich and cold stadial event reconstructions are compared with

modern values (245 umol/kg MD95-2042 and 254 umol/kg at ODP 1055) and basically represent the range of [O2] observed; at MD95-2042 these are Heinrich and cool stadial values between 144 umol/kg (H4) and 230 umol/kg (C20), and at ODP 1055 they are 194 umol/kg (cool event after C19) and 230 umol/kg (C20). Thus it is also much more straightforward to compare with the range found by Schmittner et al. (2007); model simulated minus model pre-industrial. Our observational values represent the extremes found rather than any averages. We have added a table summarizing the lowest reconstructed [O2] at the two sites associated with Heinrich events and extreme cool events.
We have also clarified the main text and added 'compared with modern' to line 15 (Furthermore, while compared with modern the model simulations of Schmittner et al. (2007)...).

Page 12961, lines 11-13: “For North Atlantic Intermediate Water however there is now mounting evidence that this overturning cell was stronger during millennial cool events.” I don’t agree with this statement. I don’t think the intermediate cell was stronger during stadials than during interstadials. I have looked at some of the references provided on page 12958 to support that notion, but I’m not convinced. I think we should be careful in interpreting the radiogenic isotopes. Some of the issues have recently been noted by Hayes et al. (2015, DSR II 116, 29-41).
We have rephrased this line to ' For North Atlantic Intermediate Water however there is now evidence suggesting that this overturning cell was actually stronger during millennial cool events.'

Supplementary Information: Too little information is provided on how the modern water column data were obtained, processed, and analyzed. Latitude, longitude and cruise information is missing. From the general website provided in the Figure caption to Fig. 2 it is not possible to reproduce the dataset. Please provide detailed steps there were taken and analysis. Are the water column d13C data quality controlled? An alternative global dataset with qualitiy controled data is available here: http://cdiac.ornl.gov/oceans/Schmittner13bg.html

The data used for Figure 2 (now 3) were quality controlled. We clicked 'DATA EXCLUSION USING WOD QUALITY CONTROL FLAGS' and selected only data with the accepted value (e.g. flag 0). We have added the following sentence to the figure caption ' Only WOD quality controlled data with accepted values (e.g. flag 0) are included.'

Author reply Referee 2 comment "Millennial changes in North Atlantic oxygen concentrations"

Babette Hoogakker and colleagues present new Dd13C measurements – a proxy allowing quantitative changes in dissolved O2 concentration to be reconstructed - from intermediate-depth sediment core ODP 1055. The time interval of interest encompasses the last glacial inception as well as several transient cooling events associated with ice rafting and meltwater release to the North Atlantic. The authors compare their newly generated reconstructions with previously published observations from the Iberian Margin.
They show – somewhat unexpectedly – that changes in oxygenation in intermediate and deep water masses followed a similar pattern during the interval 60-80 kyrs. This is seemingly at odds with the notion that NADW formation was reduced during stadials - allowing nutrient-rich, oxygen depleted waters of southern origin to propagate northward - while intermediate water masses were better ventilated. The authors reconcile this apparent discrepancy by invoking (local?) changes in respiration rates, possibly overprinting the ventilation signal.
Moreover, Hoogakker and colleagues show that their data are in good agreement with climate model outputs, which predict a general decrease in oxygenation in the North Atlantic during cold intervals.

I find the paper interesting in that it highlights the potential of the proxy used to quantitatively reconstruct past changes in oxygenation. Hoogakker has done a great job in refining the proxy, which will undoubtedly prove to be very helpful to deepen our understanding of past changes in the carbon cycle. This being said, I find the paper largely reworks arguments that were developed in a previous manuscript (Hoogakker et al., 2015, Nature Geoscience), thereby somewhat limiting its impact. Nonetheless, given the potential application of the proxy and its usefulness for the scientific debate, I would support publication of the present study, provided the rather minor comments outlined below can be addressed.

General comments -
I would urge the authors to better describe the parameters influencing local oxygenation in their introduction. In particular, the authors need to better explain the often interwoven influence of physical vs. biological mechanisms on oxygen levels. (A useful approach, I find, is provided by Schmittner et al., 2007, Paleoceanography or Jaccard et al., 2014, Oceanography).
We have added the following lines to the introduction ' Oxygen is vital to all aerobic life. Oxygen solubility in seawater is highly temperature dependent, with salinity playing a secondary role. The [O_2] of a (deep or intermediate) water mass at a particular location is determined by its initial concentration at the region of sinking, the amount of respiration it has undergone, and mixing with other water masses. Both oxygen supply and consumption are ultimately driven by ocean circulation and biology (Schmittner et al., 2007). Climate models predict that oxygen concentrations in the ocean will decrease substantially in response to anthropogenic climate change.'

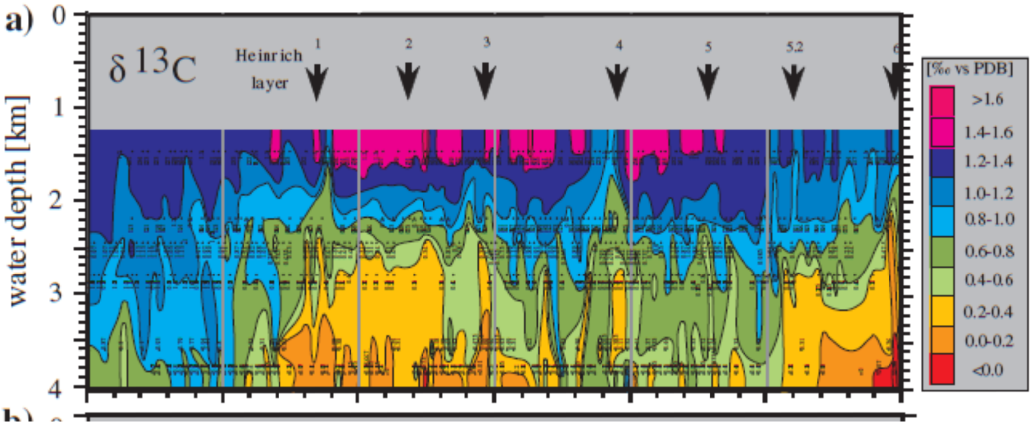
I also find the discussion related to the ODP 1055 record (p. 12959, l. 5-27) clumsy and confusing (see below).

Detailed comments -
p. 12947 l. 4 - affiliation – University of Oxford This has been corrected.
p. 12948 l. 11 – . . . at intermediatedepth core. . . This has been corrected.
l. 20 – export production instead of productivity This has been corrected.
l. 24 – . . . can be linked to increased export of organic material from the surface ocean and its subsequent remineralisation in the water column and the sediment. This has been corrected.

p. 12949 l. 1 – 231Pa/230Th Not sure what this refers to.
l. 16 – overturning This has been corrected.
p. 12952 l. 8 - . . . oxygen and carbon are stoichiometrically linked. . . This has been corrected.
p.12953 l. 1 – please either remove etc or be more specific. This has been corrected.
l. 2- please delete quantitative This has been corrected.

p. 12954 l. 4-7. This sentence seems out of place here. It is meant to explain that the changes in seawater [O2] do not have large scale repercussions for marine life (e.g. [O2] values never become hypoxic/anoxic), but they are large.
p. 12955 l. 16 – remove etc l. This has been corrected.

18-23. Can you provide some hypothesis, as to why there is so much discrepancy
in the downcore d13C signal derived from intermediate-depth sediments?
Actually, after revisiting there does not seem to be a consistent trend of heavier benthic δ13C in the northeast Atlantic. The Dickson et al. (2008) had their axis reversed and closer inspection reveals a more complicated picture, with heavier δ13C during H5a and lighter δ13C during H4. In addition the depiction in Figure 8 of Sarnthein et al. (2000), shown above, also does not show a consistent picture, with overall more depleted values during H5 and 4, depleted deep, but uncertain intermediate, no signal for H2, whereas possible H1 shows heavier values. We propose to rephrase this line to 'High resolution, well dated, intermediate depth North Atlantic records mostly from the northeast Atlantic also generally show lower benthic δ^{13}C during Heinrich events (Sarnthein et al., 2000; Chapman and Shackleton, 2002; Rasmussen et al., 2003; Peck et al., 2006; Dickson et al., 2008; Thornalley et al., 2010) whereas ODP 1055 from the northwest Atlantic, featured here, mostly shows hardly any change (Evans and Hall, 2008; Thornalley et al., 2013).'



p. 12957 l. 9 – is the O2 concentration difference inferred for the LGM (i.e. 200 ± 17 umol*kg-1) and MIS6 (i.e. 180 ± 17 umol*kg-1) statistically significant?
We believe it is informative to show the range for the two glacials with the error.
l. 12 – please add adequate references.
l. 15. Böhm et al., 15, Nature seems a more adequate reference here.
We have added this reference.
l. 13. McManus et al., 2004 l. 15. Heinrich Stadial 1 This has been corrected.

p. 12957 l. 15 – this observation is also valid for shallower records (Praetorius et al., 2008, Nature Geoscience)
The age model for ODP Site 984 has changed (Oppo et al., 2015 Paleoceanography) with the decrease in flow vigour now occurring during the Bolling/Allerod.

p. 12959
l. 1 – please add reference This line provides a summary statement of the foregoing two paragraphs.
l. 25 – please add reference Hoogakker et al. (2007) observed diatom mat deposits in sediments from ODP 1060. We have added a reference to Lippold et al. (2009) and Griffiths et al. (2013) which nicely illustrate this for Bermuda Rise Site ODP 1063.
l. 26-28. This argumentationis confusing and needs to be rephrased. While I agree that there could have been more organic carbon exported during Heinrich stadials in the Atlantic, I do not
agree that this implies a strengthening of the biological pump.

Evidence suggests that the global efficiency of the biological pump was reduced during HS1, allowing carbon to be released from the ocean interior (e.g. Galbraith Jaccard, 2015, QSR).
I guess the argument here, was that enhanced local export production lead to enhanced oxygen removal during Heinrich stadials at intermediate depths. One should keep in mind that under colder temperatures, the remineralization length scale increases (e.g. Matsumoto, 2007, GRL), which would have shifted the OM remineralization maximum to the core of NADW (Kwon et al., 2009, Nature Geoscience), consistent with enhanced O2 depletion in the deep Atlantic, but somewhat at odds with the observations presented for core ODP 1055.
This is an interesting suggestion, although we need to keep in mind that species changes and sinking speed may also be important factors that influence average remineralization depth.
We have deleted 'strengthening of the biological pump'.

p. 12960 l. 1 – Again, I don't think there is any evidence supporting a strengthening of the biological pump during North Atlantic stadials. A reduction of the relative contribution of northern sourced waters in ventilating the global deep ocean during North Atlantic stadials would contribute to weaken the biological pump globally (e.g. Sigman et al., 2010, Nature). Increased export does not necessarily imply a strengthening of the biological pump.
Again, we can have deleted 'strengthening of the biological pump'.

l. 9-12 l. 24-25. I agree that the data compares well with the UVic model outputs – and this is great. However, the UVic model also predicts decreased export production in the North Atlantic during periods of weak NADW (see Schmittner, 2005, Nature, Fig. 1 g/h) resulting from a shoaling of the winter mixed layers, which is at odds with the argument put forth by the authors (p. 12959). One cannot pick the argument that fits the main hypothesis and not mention the model outputs that don't fit the observations.
The UVic model indeed predicts decreased export production over areas of the North Atlantic during periods of weak NADW. Presumably the shoaling of the winter mixed layer discussed by Schmittner (2005) relates to the area in the North Atlantic where freshening takes place (and where a decrease in export flux is observed), but not the subtropical gyre. We will include a reference to an additional study by Menviel et al. (2014), who, using LOVECLim and UVic, also show a global export decrease in export production during freshwater addition experiments. It is important to note that the models do show increased export production in large areas of the Atlantic Ocean, particularly UVic. Interestingly also the study of Menviel et al. (2014) suggest an increase in the efficiency of the biological pump in response to an increase in nutrient utilization efficiency.
In our revised manuscript we have changed lines 5 to 8 to 'In terms of biological mechanism driving North Atlantic seawater [O_2] changes during Heinrich events the picture is not clear. Model simulations suggest that export production during Heinrich events was globally reduced (Schmittner et al., 2005; Mariotti et al., 2012, Menviel et al., 2014). Interestingly, while Mariotti et al. (2012) suggest an overall decrease in export production in the North Atlantic, model simulations by Menviel et al. (2014) show increases across large areas the Atlantic.'

Fig. 5 – error bars are not visible for all the measurements. Does this imply that the error bars are smaller than the symbol size?
Error bars are only plotted for dd13C of 2.35 and less, above this value the calibration does not work, and no [O2] values are given. We have revised the figure because at certain intervals only one direction of the error bar is shown.

Millennial changes in North Atlantic oxygen concentrations

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Abstract

Glacial-interglacial changes in bottom water oxygen concentrations [O_2] in the deep ~~Northeast~~ northeast Atlantic have been linked to decreased ventilation relating to changes in ocean circulation and the biological pump (Hoogakker et al., 2015). In this paper we discuss seawater [O_2] changes in relation to millennial climate oscillations in the North Atlantic ocean over the last glacial cycle, using bottom water [O_2] reconstructions from 2 cores: 1) MD95-2042 from the deep northeast Atlantic (Hoogakker et al., 2015), and 2) ODP Site 1055 from the intermediate northwest Atlantic. Deep northeast Atlantic core MD95-2042 shows decreased bottom water [O_2] during millennial scale cool events, with lowest bottom water [O_2] of 170, 144, and 166 ±17 µmol/kg during Heinrich ice rafting events H6, H4 and H1. Importantly, at intermediate depth core ODP Site 1055, bottom water [O_2] was lower during parts of Marine Isotope Stage 4 and millennial cool events, with lowest values of 179 and 194 µmol/kg recorded during millennial cool event~~s~~ C21 and a cool event following Dansgaard-Oeschger event 19. Our reconstructions agree with previous model simulations suggesting that glacial cold events may be associated with lower seawater [O_2] across the North Atlantic below ~1 km (Schmittner et al., 2007), although in our reconstructions the changes are less dramatic. The decreases in bottom water [O_2] during North Atlantic Heinrich events and earlier cold events at the ~~deep site~~two sites can be linked to water mass changes in relation to ocean circulation changes, and possibly productivity changes. At the intermediate depth site a possible strong North Atlantic Intermediate Water cell would preclude~~s~~ water mass changes as a cause for decreased bottom water [O_2]. Instead we propose that the lower bottom [O_2] there can be linked to productivity changes through increased export of organic material from the surface ocean and its subsequent remineralisation in the water column and the sediment.

1. Introduction

Oxygen is vital to all aerobic life. Oxygen solubility in seawater is highly temperature dependent, with salinity playing a secondary role. The [O_2] of a (deep or intermediate) water mass at a particular location is determined by its initial concentration at the region of sinking, the amount of respiration it has undergone, and mixing with other water masses. Both oxygen supply and consumption are ultimately driven by ocean circulation and biology (Schmittner et al., 2007). Climate models predict that oxygen concentrations in the ocean will decrease substantially in response to anthropogenic climate change. Recent expansion of tropical subsurface oxygen miminum zones have been attributed to ~~the~~ this effect~~s of anthropogenic climate change~~ (Stramma et al., 2010). The warming effect on $[O_2]$ loss is twofold: 1- less oxygen can be dissolved at higher sea water temperatures; 2- warmer surface waters may increase upper ocean stratification, and it is thought that the resulting decreased ventilation effect exceeds that associated with reduced oxygen utilization (Sarmiento et al. 1998; Matear et al. 2000; Plattner et al. 2001; Bopp et al. 2002; Keeling & Garcia 2002; Keeling et al., 2010). A global ocean decline in $[O_2]$ between 1 to 7% has been predicted over the next century (Keeling et al., 2010); over longer timescales (e.g. 100 to 1000's of years) a slowdown in ocean overturning has been predicted to potentially cause an overall decrease in $[O_2]$ of 30%, with declines in the deep ocean projected between 20% to 40% by the year 2800 (Matear and Hirst, 2003; Schmittner et al., 2008; Shaffer et al., 2009). However, there are large uncertainties associated with coarse-resolution ocean models in simulating today's and also future $[O_2]$ distributions (e.g. Jin and Gruber, 2003).

The future reduction in ocean overturning is mainly attributed to changes in surface heat flux and to a lesser extent to surface freshening (Gregory et al., 2005).~~to surface water freshening in the polar regions due to further melting of sea-ice and increased precipitation; melting of the Greenland ice sheet would amplify this effect (Matear and Hirst, 2003; Schmittner et al., 2008; Shaffer et al., 2009).~~ Beyond the last couple of decades there are no direct observations of deep water $[O_2]$. However, paleoceanographic proxies of overturning circulation and ocean ventilation as well as redox proxies provide constraints of changes in deep water $[O_2]$ in relation to specific climatic events.

The effects of large-scale changes in Atlantic circulation on deep water $[O_2]$ are probably best studied during the last glacial period, which was punctuated by a series of millennial-scale cold events associated with the advance of large scale iceberg armadas (Bond and Lotti, 1995) and thought to involve systematic changes in the northward heat transport associated with the Atlantic Meridional Ocean Circulation (AMOC) (Stocker and Johnson, 2003; Barker et al., 2011). Nutrient proxies (benthic foraminiferal carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}C$) & Cd/Ca) and ocean circulation proxies (Pa/Th, ^{14}C ventilation times)(McManus et al., 2004; Hoogakker et al., 2007; Skinner et al., 2010), provide evidence for increased deep water nutrients and reduced ventilation and overturning circulation in the North Atlantic ocean during cold stadial events (Schmittner and Lund, 2015), and point to decreased deep water [O_2]. Redox sensitive proxies are particularly useful to assess qualitative changes in bottom water [O_2] (Nameroff et al., 2002; Pailler et al., 2002; Jaccard et al., 2009). Recently, Hoogakker et al. (2015) refined a novel proxy originally proposed by McCorkle and Emerson (1988), where bottom water [O_2] can be reconstructed from the carbon isotope gradient between bottom water and pore water at the anoxic boundary. Hoogakker et al. (2015) suggest that bottom-water [O_2] in the deep Northeast Atlantic (3.1 km) were 45 and 65 µmol/kg lower during the last and penultimate glacials relative to today. Their reconstructions also showed significantly reduced bottom water [O_2] during extreme cold events associated with large-scale ice rafting and the deposition of ice rafted debris in the North Atlantic (Hoogakker et al., 2015). Here we discuss the underlying causes for millennial scale reductions in bottom water [O_2] in the deep (3.1 km) North Atlantic Ocean. In addition we present new, millennial scale resolved, bottom water [O_2] reconstructions in the North Atlantic from an intermediate depth (1.8 km) core ODP Site 1055, located on the Carolina Slope off North America.

~~Although set under different (glacial) boundary conditions, quantitative reconstructions and assessment of deep water [O_2] during these meltwater events will provide important information that may help constrain future projections.~~

2. Locations

Core MD95-2042 was taken during the 1995 IMAGES cruise from the Iberian Margin (37°48’N, 10°10’W, 3146 m water depth, Figure 1) off southern Portugal in the northeast Atlantic (Bassinot et al., 1996). ODP Site 1055 (32°47 N, 76°17 W, 1798 m water depth, Figure 1) is located in the subtropical northwest Atlantic, slightly upslope of the Blake Outer Ridge on the lower Carolina Slope. Core MD95-2042 is currently bathed in well ventilated ([O_2] of ~245 µmol/kg northward re-circulating Northeast Atlantic Deep Water (NADW), whereas during glacial times bottom waters with a Southern Ocean origin (Southern Source Deep Water, SSDW) became more important (Shackleton et al., 2000; Skinner and Shackleton , 2004). ODP Site 1055 is currently sat within the core of well-oxygenated Labrador Sea Water, with the main flow axis of lower North Atlantic Deep Water being found at greater depths, ~2500-4000m (Stahr and Stanford, 1999). Bottom waters near ODP Site 1055 have slightly higher [O_2] compared with MD95-2042, with values between 250 and

254 μmol/kg (Figure 1). During glacial times and cold stadial periods ODP Site 1055 was largely influenced by Glacial North Atlantic Intermediate Water (GNAIW) (e.g. Evans and Hall, 2008; Thornalley et al 2013). ~~Bottom waters near ODP 1055 have slightly higher [O_2] compared with MD95-2042, with values between 250 and 254 μmol/kg (Figure 1).~~

3. Methods

3.1 Age models

The age models of both cores were constructed by correlating planktonic (surface dwelling) foraminiferal oxygen isotopes ($\delta^{18}O_p$) records with North Greenland Ice Core Project (NGRIP) $\delta^{18}O_{ice}$ (NGRIP Members, 2004). Both marine and ice core records show a series of oscillating cycles of rapid warmings followed by gradual cooling (e.g. Dansgaard-Oeschger cycles), culminating in extreme cold events that are associated with the deposition of massive layers of ice rafted debris (IRD) in the North Atlantic (e.g. Heinrich events) (Heinrich, 1988; Johnsen et al., 1992; NGRIP project Members, 2004; Shackleton et al., 2000; 2004). Typically six Heinrich layers, H1 to H6, have been described for Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 3 (29 to 60 ka BP), and a further five, H7 to H11, over MIS 4 and 5 (between 60 and 130 ka BP). However outside the Labrador Sea such IRD layers contain conspicuously less detrital carbonate (a defining criterion for a Heinrich layers) and are labelled C19 to C25 (Chapman and Shackleton, 2002). For the interval 0-60 ka the GICC05 age model was applied, whose ages are very similar to that of SFCF 2004 age model as was used previously in Hoogakker et al. (2015). Thornalley et al. (2013) apply a revised chronology prior to 60 ka, based on the speleothem-tuned age model of Barker et al. (2011), and to aid comparison between the two sites the same chronology was applied to MD95-2042 between 60 and 123 ka. Based on these age models, results of core MD95-2042 cover the last 150 kyrs, whilst those of core ODP Site 1055 cover the interval 85 to 59 ka BP (Figure ~~3~~2).

3.2 Sea-water [O_2]

The biogeochemical cycles of oxygen and carbon are stoichiometrically linked through photosynthesis and respiration. Photosynthesis uses carbon dioxide (CO_2), water, sunlight and nutrients to make organic material and oxygen. The breakdown of organic material, in well oxygenated environments, uses oxygen and produces CO_2. During photosynthesis, organisms preferentially take up light ^{12}C compared with ^{13}C, causing an overall enrichment of the carbon isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}C$) of DIC in surface waters (Kroopnick, 1985, Gruber et al., 1999). When organic material is broken down, the release of light ^{12}C causes a depletion in seawater δ^{13}C-DIC. Globally there is a strong linear relationship between deep water [O_2] and δ^{13}C, where a 50 μmol/kg decrease in [O_2] corresponds to a 0.34‰ decrease in seawater δ^{13}C-DIC (Figure ~~2~~3), with R^2 between 0.78 and 0.85. However, within the North & South Atlantic and Southern Ocean the data are distributed within a cloud, displaying a much weaker relationship. Some of the increased variability in [O_2] in the Atlantic basins and Southern Ocean is probably related to seawater temperature differences; colder seawater can contain more dissolved oxygen, but also mixing of water masses. Furthermore, ~~variations in~~ δ^{13}C-DIC distributions in the oceans are also affected by temperature dependent fractionation during air-sea gas exchange (Lynch-Stieglitz et al., 1995)~~may be caused by varying air-sea~~ and degree of surface water equilibration with the atmosphere (Schmittner et al., 2013) ~~exchange~~ at source waters, biology and also mixing with other water masses (Gruber et al., 1999). During glacial times bottom water δ^{13}C estimates derived from benthic foraminiferal calcite δ^{13}C in the deep (> ~2.5 km) Atlantic became more depleted (Curry and Oppo, 2005; Oliver et al., 2010), but uncertainties related to preformed δ^{13}C, air-sea fractionation, terrestrial biomass contributions to deep water δ^{13}C-DIC ~~etc.~~ precludes the use of bottom water δ^{13}C-DIC inferred from benthic foraminifera in the past as a reliable ~~quantitative~~ bottom water [O_2] proxy.

Here we apply the refined bottom-water to pore-water (at the anoxic boundary) δ^{13}C gradient as a quantitative bottom water [O_2] proxy (Hoogakker et al. 2015). This proxy was originally proposed by McCorkle and Emerson (1988) who observed that the carbon isotope gradient between bottom water and pore water at the anoxic boundary ([O_2]=0) in sediments decreases with decreasing bottom-water [O_2]. These changes are attributed to changes in the amount of organic material that can be remineralized; e.g. more organic material can be remineralized under higher bottom water [O_2], releasing more ^{12}C into the pore waters, increasing the bottom water to anoxic pore-water δ^{13}C gradient ($\Delta\delta^{13}C_{bw\text{-}ab_pw}$), as supported by pore-water δ^{13}C and [O_2] models (McCorkle and Emerson, 1988; Gehlen et al., 1999). Hoogakker et al. (2015) furthermore show that additional observations of $\Delta\delta^{13}C_{bw\text{-}ab\_pw}$, inferred from the difference in δ^{13}C between bottom water and foraminifera living at the anoxic boundary ~~dwelling foraminifera~~ (*Globobulimina* spp.) as well as between bottom water suspension feeding foraminifera (*Cibicioides wuellerstorfi*) and anoxic boundary dwelling foraminifera (*Globobulimina* spp.) all fit the original observations exceptionally well at [O_2] between 55 and 235 μmol/kg. At higher (>235 μmol/kg) [O_2] additional light carbon is added to the pore-water from other remineralization reactions. These observations confirm that $\delta^{13}C_{bw-ab\_pw}$ can be approximated by the $\delta^{13}C$ difference between test carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ of benthic foraminiferal species that live in bottom water (e.g. *C. wuellerstorfi*) and in the sediment at the dysoxic/anoxic boundary (e.g. *Globobulimina* spp.) at ~~-~~bottom water [O_2] values of 55-235 µmol/kg, where a 0.39‰ increase in $\Delta\delta^{13}C_{bw}$ represents a 50 µmol/kg increase in bottom water [O_2] (Hoogakker et al., 2015). Below we refer to this carbon isotope gradient simply as $\Delta\delta^{13}C$.

4. Results

Both records show relatively well oxygenated water masses for the periods covered, with $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ values of 1.45‰ and higher (Figure 4), amounting to bottom water [O_2] of 144 µmol/kg and higher (Figure 5). Typically seawater is considered hypoxic when [O_2] values of 60 µmol/kg or less are recorded, although median lethal [O_2] varies between different organisms; temperature and CO_2 also influence this threshold (Keeling et al., 2010). At MD95-2042, the LGM, MIS 6, and extreme cold events, are associated with lower [O_2] (Hoogakker et al., 2015), with Heinrich event 4 showing the lowest $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ and thus bottom water [O_2] (Figure 4). At the shallower northwest Atlantic ODP Site 1055 ~~Site~~, MIS 4 and cold events C19, C20, C21 are associated with a lower $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ and bottom water [O_2]. From ~~ca~~ ~62 ka BP there is gradual increase in $\Delta\delta^{13}C$, including the latter parts of Heinrich event 6 at ODP Site 1055 (Figure 4), although $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ was lower compared with warm interstadials (Figure 5).

Hoogakker et al. (2015) calculate that the total error associated with bottom-water [O_2] reconstructions using this method at mid- to low latitudes is 17 µmol/kg. This error includes uncertainties associated with variations in the $\delta^{13}C$ of organic carbon of ±1‰ (see Hoogakker et al., 2015 supplementary information for details), which seems a reasonable assumption for the low to mid latitude ocean (Goericke and Fry, 1994). Because of decreased [$CO_{2(aq)}$] during full glacial conditions, $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ was however enriched by 2‰ (Rau et al., 1991) causing an initial overestimation of glacial bottom-water [O_2] and correction of 10 µmol/kg (Hoogakker et al., 2015). The paper of Rau et al. (1991) is of too low resolution to decipher any possible millennial scale oscillations in $\delta^{13}C_{org}$, but generally $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ appears lighter prior to the LGM. It is also important to note that within the North Atlantic Heinrich belt, organic carbon $\delta^{13}C$ values are depleted during glacial times compared to the Holocene, with lightest values (up to -28‰) during Heinrich 4, 2 and 1 (Huon et al., 2002; Schouten et al., 2007). Both Huon et al. (2002) and Schouten et al. (2007) attribute these depletions in organic $\delta^{13}C$ to increased input of terrestrial organic material from either ice rafted debris or wind-blown sources. It is therefore possible that estimates of $[O_2]$ during Heinrich events and cold events C20 and C21 are underestimated. However, as terrestrial plant remains are generally much older in age (Schouten et al., 2007), it is possible that they are largely refractory (insoluble and non-hydrolyzable) and may not have degraded substantially. Because of this unknown we consider estimates of bottom water $[O_2]$ during these Heinrich events and cold events C20 and C21 as *maximum* estimates (Figure 5).

5. Discussion

Millennial scale climate oscillations are a common feature of the last glacial as well as the transition from the previous interglacial (Eemian) to glacial in the North Atlantic (Figure ~~3~~2). Within the north Atlantic IRD belt, ice-rafting becomes a common feature during millennial scale cooling events when sea-level falls below -45 m (Chapman and Shackleton, 2002). Decreased benthic foraminiferal $\delta^{13}C$ from deep (below 2.5 km) sites in the North Atlantic Ocean provide evidence for widespread changes in bottom water carbonate chemistry during these events (Shackleton et al., 2000; Sarnthein et al., 2001; Chapman and Shackleton, 2002; Thornalley et al., 2013~~, etc~~). Reconstruction of $[CO_3^{2-}]$ support the inferred changes in deep bottom water carbonate chemistry (Yu et al., 2008). High resolution intermediate depth North Atlantic records ~~are sparse, some locations~~ from the northeast Atlantic also generally show ~~an opposite pattern with higher~~lower benthic $\delta^{13}C$ during Heinrich events (Sarnthein et al., 2000; Chapman and Shackleton, 2002; Rasmussen et al., 2003; Peck et al., 2006; Dickson et al., 2008; Thornalley et al., 2010) whereas ODP Site 1055 from the northwest Atlantic, featured here,~~other records~~ shows hardly any~~no~~ change (Evans and Hall, 2008; Thornalley et al., 2013). ~~or lower benthic foraminiferal $\delta^{13}C$ (Chapman and Shackleton, 2002; Rasmussen et al. , 2003; Peck et al., 2006;; Thornalley et al., 2010).~~ During glacial times reconstructed $[CO_3^{2-}]$ at North Atlantic sites above 2.8 km all show increased concentrations (Yu et al., 2008); to date no inferences have been made with regards to millennial scale climate oscillations.

During most of Marine Isotope Stage 5 (MIS 5), including the transition to glacial conditions, the deep northeast Atlantic was well oxygenated (Figure 5). Between 126 and 109 ka BP *G. affinis* was absent, probably because a reduced organic carbon flux and deep or weakly developed anoxic boundary meant its microhabitat conditions were not met, similar to Holocene conditions (Hoogakker et al., 2015). Following this period $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ is >2.25‰, indicating well oxygenated (>235 µmol/kg) waters. It isn't until after ~ 76 ka BP, coincident with Atlantic cold event C20 that $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ of < 2.25‰ are measured (Figure 4). Applying the $\Delta\delta^{13}C:[O_2]$ calibration equation of Hoogakker et al. (2015), we calculate that during Atlantic cold event C20 bottom water $[O_2]$ at the Iberian Margin was 230±17 µmol/kg (Figure 5, Table 1). Note that if we had used the present-day $\delta^{13}C:[O_2]$ relationship as defined in Figure ~~2~~3, bottom water $[O_2]$ would be drastically underestimated, with bottom water $[O_2]$ of ~120 µmol/kg during event C20. At the Blake Ridge location (ODP Site 1055), $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ fell below 2.25‰ during North Atlantic cold events C21, and C20, giving bottom water $[O_2]$ of 179 and 230±17 µmol/kg respectively (Table 1). Interestingly, during North Atlantic cold event C20 both the deep ~~Northeast~~ northeast Atlantic record and intermediate ~~Northwest~~ northwest Atlantic record show the same bottom water $[O_2]$ ~~of 230 µmol/kg~~ (Figure 5).

Between 76 and 64 ka BP, roughly coincident with MIS 4, the record of MD95-2042 does not resolve millennial scale oscillations, mainly because *C. wuellerstorfi* was not abundant during this time. In the few instances it did occur $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ was >2.25‰ suggestive of well oxygenated conditions. At the intermediate depth ~~Site~~ ODP Site 1055 $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ follows *G. ruber* $\delta^{18}O$, where lighter $\delta^{18}O$ values are associated with $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ >2.25‰, and heavier $\delta^{18}O$ values, corresponding to millennial scale cool events, with $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ <2.25‰. During North Atlantic cold event C19 reconstructed bottom water $[O_2]$ at ~~intermediate~~ ODP Site 1055 was 213±17 µmol/kg, ~~whereas~~ and the cold period that follows is characterized by bottom water $[O_2]$ of 194±17 µmol/kg (Figure 5, Table 1).

During the later part of MIS 4 and MIS 3, the deep record of MD95-2042 is characterized by bottom water $[O_2]$ variations that follow Greenland climate trends, with high $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ (>2.25‰) values during interstadials, whereas low bottom water $[O_2]$ characterise Heinrich events, with H6, H4 and H1 showing lowest bottom water $[O_2]$ of 170, 144, and 166±17 µmol/kg respectively (Figure 5). Obviously these values still mean well oxygenated bottom water masses, but they are ~~significantly reduced~~ lower compared with warm interstadial intervals (>235 µmol/kg) as well as the LGM (200±17 µmol/kg). At intermediate location ODP Site 1055, early H6 shows slightly lower bottom water $[O_2]$ of ~~225~~224±17 µmol/kg followed by an increase to >235 µmol/kg (Figure 5, Table 1).

5.1 Causes for millennial scale bottom water $[O_2]$ changes

The glacial decreased bottom water $[O_2]$ values at the Iberian Margin to 200 ±17 µmol/kg (LGM) and 180±17 µmol/kg (MIS 6) (compared with 245 µmol/kg today) have been largely attributed to ocean circulation changes, with a shift in bottom water mass from

NADW to SSDW (Hoogakker et al., 2015). ~~Furthermore for MIS 6 bottom water $[O_2]$ of SSDW must have been reduced relative to MIS 2, due to physical mechanisms (changes in deep water formation, ocean stratification, and sea ice cover in the Southern ocean), and/or biological mechanisms (change in nutrient utilization).~~

Over the transition from MIS 5 to early MIS 4 a mode change has been suggested in the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circula~~l~~tion (AMOC) (Bereiter et al., 2012; Thornalley et al., 2013; Barker and Diz, 2014, Böhm et al., 2015). During MIS 5 Bereiter et al. (2012) suggest that AMOC was strong, characterized by southward flow of NADW to the deep South Atlantic. This would imply that NADW and NAIW would have influenced bottom waters at the deep and intermediate site respectively. Several studies have shown that most cold events within MIS 5 are associated with decreased benthic foraminifera $\delta^{13}C$ (Shackleton et al., 2000; Oppo et al., 2001; Evans and Hall, 2008; Hodell et al., 2009), that have often been interpreted to reflect AMOC changes. Guihou et al. (2010), using the kinematic overturning circulation proxy $^{231}Pa/^{230}Th$, show that AMOC export from the North Atlantic was reduced during the cold events of MIS 5. However Guihou et al. (2011) further show that cold events within MIS 5 and MIS 4 ~~are~~ could be associated with stronger AMOC export at shallow depths, which agrees with grain size results of Thornalley et al. (2013) suggesting more vigorous near-~~-~~bottom flow speeds during millennial cold events at intermediate ODP Site ~~ODP~~ 1055. These results confirm inferences of possible strengthened open ocean convection s~~S~~outh of the Greenland-Scotland Ridge driving a strong intermediate depth Atlantic Overturning Circulation cell (Thornalley et al., 2013). It ~~is~~ would then be somewhat surprising to find lower bottom water $[O_2]$ during these events as more vigorous North Atlantic Intermediate Water flow is generally associated with better ventilation, although changes in the mode of water mass formation can alter the extent to which newly formed intermediate/deep waters have equilibrated with the atmosphere.

During the glacial, AMOC was considerably different. Rahmstorf (2002) proposed, based on a benthic foraminifera $\delta^{13}C$ synthesis of Sarnthein et al. (1994), that a deep North Atlantic overturning cell with active deep and intermediate water formation in the North Atlantic and Greenland-Iceland-Norwegian (GIN) seas occurred during warm interstadials, active intermediate convection occurred during stadial events, whereas Heinrich events were associated with a significant reduction in overturning strength. Using $^{231}Pa/^{230}Th$ as a kinematic overturning proxy, McManus et al. (2004~~0~~) suggest that the meridional overturning circulation was significantly reduced during Heinrich ~~event~~ Stadial 1. However the picture appears more complicated. Bottom flow speed reconstruction from the deep (3.5 km) northwest Atlantic suggests that flow speed changes at this depth follow an Antarctic temperature signal, showing slow-downs in bottom flow vigour coincident with Antarctic warming events (Hoogakker et al., 2007), which have also been linked with bottom water changes (Gutjahr et al., 2010). Both Hoogakker et al. (2007) and Roberts et al. (2010)~~ and Gutjahr and Lippold (2011),~~ suggest that perturbations associated with millennial cool events likely only influenced the shallow overturning cell in the North Atlantic. ~~using a combination of ^{231}Pa/^{230}Th and εNd suggest a strong intermediate depth Atlantic Overturning Circulation cell during Heinrich events, with a weakened deeper cell.~~ ^{231}Pa/^{230}Th reconstructions covering the intermediate northeast Atlantic over H1 however do not show evidence for a weakened shallow overturning cell (Gherardi et al., 2009). Since then it has emerged that glacial Antarctic Bottom Waters and Glacial Antarctic Intermediate Waters might show a see-saw pattern in the North Atlantic during Heinrich events, where deep waters show an increase in the contribution of high nutrient, low [O_2] glacial Antarctic Bottom Waters, whereas intermediate waters show a decreased contribution of Antarctic Intermediate Water and increased contribution of possibly well ventilated~~,~~ high [O_2], Glacial North Atlantic Intermediate Water (Gutjahr et al., 2008; Gutjahr et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2014; Piotrowski et al., 2005). ~~Extreme millennial scale cool events throughout the last glacial-interglacial cycle seem to depict a similar pattern, with strengthened intermediate depth cell and weakened deep cell.~~ Whilst ~~C~~changes in bottom water mass may thus have some part to play in the bottom water [O_2] changes at deep sites during Heinrich events, ~~however~~ they cannot however explain lower bottom water [O_2] at the intermediate depth site~~s~~.

In terms of biological mechanisms driving North Atlantic seawater [O_2] changes during Heinrich events, the picture is not clear. ~~Marriotti et al. (2012), mainly using m~~Model simulations~~,~~ suggest~~ed~~ that export production during Heinrich events was globally reduced~~,~~ ~~with a decrease in the North Atlantic~~ (Schmittner et al., 2005; Mariotti et al., 2012, Menviel et al., 2014). Interestingly, while Mariotti et al. (2012) suggest an overall decrease in export production in the North Atlantic, model simulations by Menviel et al. (2014) show increases across large areas in the Atlantic. According to Salguiero et al. (2010) there were no changes in productivity in the northeast Atlantic at MD95-2042. However for the subtropical Northeast Atlantic, McKay et al. (2014) inferred increased primary production in surface waters during H1, causing low oxygen conditions in the underlying (2.5 km) sediments. Furthermore several studies from deep locations in the Atlantic, including Blake Outer Ridge, Bermuda Rise, the Tobago Basin and equatorial region have documented conspicuous increases in opal sediments during Heinrich events and extreme cold events of MIS 5 (Hoogakker et al., 2007; Keigwin and Boyle, 2008; Gil et al., 2009; Griffiths et al., 2013; Meckler et al., 2013). This could imply a change in productivity at oligotrophic gyre locations in the North Atlantic with increased contribution from opal producers, possibly at the expense of carbonate (foraminifera, coccolith, pteropod, aragonite) producers (Brezinski et al., 2002; Griffiths et al., 2013). Recent work by Hoogakker et al. (2013)~~,~~ suggests weaker summer stratification in the northwest Atlantic during H5, which could be associa~~i~~ted with a deeper mixed-layer ~~-~~potentially enhancing silicate available to surface waters. In combination with an increased dust flux (Lopez-Martinez et al., 2006), iron fertilization could have supported diatom productivity. More importantly, whilst export of diatoms to the deep ocean is not that efficient, accumulation of diatom ~~mat~~ deposits in sediments during Heinrich events (Lippold et al., 2009; Griffiths et al., 2013)~~is clear~~ could provide evidence that more organic rich material was exported to greater water depths during these episodes~~, which could indicate an enhancement of the biological pump~~. Based on this evidence we propose that the lower bottom water [O$_2$] values at intermediate ODP Site 1055 during extreme millennial scale cool events were driven by increased export production~~, strengthening the biological pump~~. The model simulation of Marriotti et al. (2012) and Menviel et al. (2014) also suggests an increase in South Atlantic export production, in agreement with an earlier proxy study by Anderson et al. (2009). In their study, Anderson et al. (2009) found highest opal fluxes in the Southern Ocean that are coincident with bottom [O$_2$] minima at MD95-2042 of H6, H4 and H1. This implies that biological mechanisms also played a role in decreasing bottom water [O$_2$] at the deep site, either by changing the [O$_2$] of SSDW in the Southern Ocean, or through increased export across the Atlantic.

Our reconstructed bottom water [O$_2$] changes across Heinrich events and extreme cool events of MIS 5 agree with a modelling study of Schmittner et al. (2007), who show that intermediate and deep waters of the North Atlantic Ocean were associated with lower bottom [O$_2$] during such events. Although the UVic model simulations depict the main features of modern oxygen distributions, the North Atlantic results have higher values ~~-~~than observations, whereas large parts of the South Atlantic and Indian/Pacific have lower [O$_2$] values compared with observations (Schmittner et al., 2007). Furthermore, while compared with modern the model simulations of Schmittner et al. (2007) predict a decrease in bottom water [O$_2$] of 60 to 90 µmol/kg at the longitude of intermediate site 1055, and 90 to 120 µmol/kg at the longitude of deep site MD95-2042 during meltwater events, our reconstructions suggests more modest decreases in the range of 24 to ~~60~~ 76 μmol/kg (9 to ~~25~~30%) for the intermediate site, and 15 to 101 μmol/kg (5 to 40%) at the deep site (Figure 5). The larger amplitude changes in seawater [O$_2$] simulated by Schmittner et al. (2007) may be the result of the prescribed pre-industrial boundary conditions with strong AMOC; if they had used a glacial boundary conditions with weaker AMOC the oxygen changes at the deep site might have been smaller. However, it is noted that the model outputs depict a particular (extreme) point in model time, whereas reconstructions from deep sea sediments represent an averaged view where extremes have been smoothed out by bioturbation. Our reconstructions agree with model simulations suggesting an overall decrease in North Atlantic [O$_2$] ~~in response to~~during glacial ~~meltwater~~ millennial-scale cold events.

6. Conclusions

Reconstructions of deep (MD95-2042) and intermediate (ODP Site 1055) water [O$_2$] in the North Atlantic during the last glacial portray decreases in bottom water [O$_2$] during extreme millennial scale cool events associated with ice rafting and meltwater release (H and C events). Whilst our reconstructions support previous model simulations suggesting lower seawater [O$_2$] during North Atlantic glacial cold events below ~1 km (Schmittner et al., 2007), our reconstructions are much less dramatic. Numerous observations suggest an increased contribution of SSDW ~~that NADW~~ (below ~2km) in the North Atlantic ~~was replaced by SSDW~~ during extreme millennial cool events (H1 to 6 and C19 to C25), and so an increase in~~ change from low nutrient high [O$_2$] NADW to~~ high ~~-~~nutrient, low ~~-~~[O$_2$] SSDW can explain at least part of the reconstructed bottom water [O$_2$] change at the deep site. For North Atlantic Intermediate Water, however, there is now ~~mounting~~ evidence suggesting that this overturning cell ~~was~~ might have been stronger during millennial cool events. If so, w~~W~~e infer that increased export of organic material from the surface ocean, as observed at numerous locations across the North Atlantic, was responsible for decreased [O$_2$] at intermediate ODP Site~~ ODP~~ 1055. By extrapolation, such mechanisms ~~must~~ would have played a part in the deep Atlantic [O$_2$] decrease during such events.

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Table 1. Lowest bottom water [O_2] associated with Heinrich and extreme cool events and difference with modern at intermediate North Atlantic ODP Site ~~ODP~~ 1055 (254 µmol kg^{-1} today) and deep North Atlantic site MD95-2042 (245 µmol kg^{-1} today). Note that [O_2] at MD95-2042 during cold event C20 (indicated with *) is not significantly different from modern.

	Bottom water [O_2] in µmol kg^{-1} (± 17 µmol kg^{-1})			
Event	ODP 1055	Diff. with modern	MD95-2042	Diff. with modern
C21	178	76		
C20	230	24	230	15*
C19	213	41		
cool event following C19	194	60		
H6	224	30	170	75
H5a			206	39
H5			209	35
H4			144	101
H3			181	64
H1			166	79

Figure 1. Locations of the two cores (ODP 1055~~6~~, MD95-2042) used in this study projected on a global bathymetric map (top Figure). The red sections show the ~~-~~locations of the two sea water [O_2] profiles shown in the bottom f~~F~~igure. [O_2] profiles were made using GLODAP version 1.1 bottle data (Key et al., 2004). Cross sections and map were created using Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, R., Ocean Data View, http://odv.awi.de, 2009).

Figure ~~3~~2. Age models of MD95-2042 and ODP 1055 established by tying planktonic foraminifera oxygen isotopes changes of *Globigerina bulloides* (MD95-2042, Shackleton et al., 2000) and *Globigerinoides ruber* to those of NGRIP. Several Dansgaard-Oeschger interstadial events are numbered in the NGRIP records.

Figure ~~2~~3. a- Global relationship between seawater [O_2] and δ^{13}C of DIC. b- Cross-plots of seawater [O_2] and δ^{13}C for intermediate (1000-1500 m and 1500-2000 m) and deep (2000-3000 m and 3000-4000 m) waters.

Data used to create this figure can be found in the supplementary information and was obtained from http://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/SELECT/dbsearch/dbsearch.html~~—~~. Only WOD quality controlled data with accepted values (e.g. flag 0) are included.

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~~Figure 3. Age models of MD95-2042 and ODP 1055 established by tying planktonic foraminifera oxygen isotopes changes of *Globigerina bulloides* (MD95-2042, Shackleton et al., 2000) and *Globigerinoides ruber* to those of NGRIP. Several Dansgaard-Oeschger interstadial events are numbered in the NGRIP records.~~

Figure 4. Benthic foraminifera $\Delta\delta^{13}$C at deep site MD95-2042 and intermediate ODP Site 1055 and their planktonic foraminifera oxygen isotopes. Original benthic foraminifera δ^{13}C records (MD95-2042 from Shackleton et al., 2000) of epifaunal *C. wuellerstorfi* (red circles) and deep infaunal *G. affinis* (blue circles) are also shown intercalated between the $\Delta\delta^{13}$C records. Several Heinrich events and cold events are shown~~ (Shackleton et al., 2000; Thornalley et al., 2013)~~.

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Figure 5. Reconstructed bottom water [O_2] at deep site MD95-2042 and intermediate ODP Site 1055 shown with their planktonic foraminifera oxygen isotope records (Shackleton et al.,

2000; Thornalley et al., 2013)~~.~~. Heinrich events 1, 3, 4, 5, 5a, 6 and cold events 19, 20 and 21 are shown.