

Abstract

Glacial–interglacial changes in bottom water oxygen concentrations [O₂] in the deep 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 [O₂] changes in relation to millennial climate oscillations in the North Atlantic ocean over the last glacial cycle, using bottom water [O₂] reconstructions from 2 cores: (1) MD95-2042 from the deep northeast Atlantic (Hoogakker et al., 2015), and (2) ODP 1055 from the intermediate northwest Atlantic. Deep northeast Atlantic core MD95-2042 shows decreased bottom water [O₂] during millennial scale cool events, with lowest bottom water [O₂] of 170, 144, and 166 ± 17 μmol kg⁻¹ during Heinrich ice rafting events H6, H4 and H1. Importantly, at intermediate core ODP 1055 bottom water [O₂] was lower during parts of Marine Isotope Stage 4 and millennial cool events, with lowest values of 179 and 194 μmol kg⁻¹ recorded during millennial cool events 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 [O₂] 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 [O₂] during North Atlantic Heinrich events and earlier cold events at the deep site can be linked to water mass changes in relation to ocean circulation changes, and possibly productivity changes. At the intermediate depth site a strong North Atlantic Intermediate Water cell precludes water mass changes as a cause for decreased bottom water [O₂]. Instead we propose that the lower bottom [O₂] there can be linked to productivity changes through increased export of organic material from the surface ocean.

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1 Introduction

Recent expansion of tropical subsurface oxygen minimum zones have been attributed to the effects 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 and 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 overturn is mainly attributed 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 icebergs (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

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Blake Outer Ridge on the lower Carolina Slope. Core MD95-2042 is currently bathed in well ventilated $[O_2]$ of $\sim 245 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ 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). 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, $\sim 2500\text{--}4000$ m (Stahr and Stanford, 1999). During glacial times and cold stadial periods 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 $254 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (Fig. 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) $\delta^{18}O_{\text{ice}}$ (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 kaBP), and a further five, H7 to H11, over MIS 4 and 5 (between 60 and 130 kaBP). 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 1055 cover the interval 85 to 59 ka BP (Fig. 3).

3.2 Sea-water [O₂]

The biogeochemical cycles of oxygen and carbon are linked through photosynthesis and respiration. Photosynthesis uses carbon dioxide (CO₂), water, sunlight and nutrients to make organic material and oxygen. The breakdown of organic material, in well oxygenated environments, uses oxygen and produces CO₂. During photosynthesis, organisms preferentially take up light ¹²C compared with ¹³C, causing an overall enrichment of the carbon isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of DIC in surface waters (Kroopnick, 1985; Gruber et al., 1999). When organic material is broken down, the release of light ¹²C causes a depletion in seawater $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Globally there is a strong linear relationship between deep water [O₂] and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, where a 50 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ decrease in [O₂] corresponds to a 0.34 ‰ decrease in seawater $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Fig. 2), with R^2 between 0.78 and 0.85. However, within the North and South Atlantic and Southern Ocean the data are distributed within a cloud, displaying a much weaker relationship. Some of the increased variability in [O₂] 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 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ may be caused by varying air–sea exchange at source waters, biology and also mixing with other water masses (Gruber et al., 1999). During glacial times bottom water $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the deep (> ~ 2.5 km) Atlantic became more depleted (Curry and Oppo, 2005; Oliver et al., 2010), but uncertainties related to preformed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, air–sea fractionation, terrestrial biomass

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contributions to deep water $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ etc. precludes the use of bottom water $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the past as a reliable quantitative bottom water $[\text{O}_2]$ proxy.

Here we apply the refined bottom-water to pore-water (at the anoxic boundary) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradient as a quantitative bottom water $[\text{O}_2]$ 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 ($[\text{O}_2] = 0$) in sediments decreases with decreasing bottom-water $[\text{O}_2]$. 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 $[\text{O}_2]$, releasing more ^{12}C into the pore waters, increasing the bottom water to anoxic pore-water $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradient ($\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{bw-ab}_{\text{pw}}}$), as supported by pore-water $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $[\text{O}_2]$ models (McCorkle and Emerson, 1988; Gehlen et al., 1999). Hoogakker et al. (2015) furthermore show that additional observations of $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{bw-ab}_{\text{pw}}}$, inferred from bottom water and anoxic boundary dwelling foraminifera (*Globobulimina* spp.) as well as bottom water suspension feeding (*Cibicides wuellerstorfi*) and anoxic boundary dwelling foraminifera (*Globobulimina* spp.) all fit the original observations exceptionally well at $[\text{O}_2]$ between 55 and $235\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$. At higher ($> 235\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) $[\text{O}_2]$ additional light carbon is added to the pore-water from other remineralization reactions. These observations confirm that $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{bw-ab}_{\text{pw}}}$ can be approximated by the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ difference between test carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ 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 $[\text{O}_2]$ values of $55\text{--}235\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, where a 0.39‰ increase in $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{bw}}$ represents a $50\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ increase in bottom water $[\text{O}_2]$ (Hoogakker et al., 2015). Below we refer to this carbon isotope gradient simply as $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$.

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4 Results

Both records show relatively well oxygenated water masses for the periods covered, with $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of 1.45‰ and higher (Fig. 4), amounting to bottom water $[\text{O}_2]$ of $144\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and higher (Fig. 5). Typically seawater is considered hypoxic when $[\text{O}_2]$ values of $60\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ or less are recorded, although median lethal $[\text{O}_2]$ 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 $[\text{O}_2]$ (Hoogakker et al., 2015), with Heinrich event 4 showing the lowest $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and thus bottom water $[\text{O}_2]$ (Fig. 4). At shallower northwest Atlantic ODP 1055 Site, MIS 4 and cold events C19, C20, C21 are associated with a lower $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and bottom water $[\text{O}_2]$. From ca 62 ka BP there is gradual increase in $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$, including the latter parts of Heinrich event 6 at ODP Site 1055 (Fig. 4), although $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was lower compared with warm interstadials (Fig. 5).

Hoogakker et al. (2015) calculate that the total error associated with bottom-water $[\text{O}_2]$ reconstructions using this method at mid- to low latitudes is $17\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$. This error includes uncertainties associated with variations in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of organic carbon of $\pm 1\text{‰}$ (see Hoogakker et al., 2015; Supplement for details), which seems a reasonable assumption for the low to mid latitude ocean (Goericke and Fry, 1994). Because of decreased $[\text{CO}_{2(\text{aq})}]$ during full glacial conditions, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ was however enriched by 2‰ (Rau et al., 1991) causing an initial overestimation of glacial bottom-water $[\text{O}_2]$ and correction of $10\ \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (Hoogakker et al., 2015). The paper of Rau et al. (1991) is of too low resolution to decipher any possible millennial scale oscillations in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, but generally $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ appears lighter prior to the LGM. It is also important to note that within the North Atlantic Heinrich belt, organic carbon $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ 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 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ to increased input of terrestrial

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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 (Fig. 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 (Fig. 3). 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 show an opposite pattern with higher benthic $\delta^{13}C$ during Heinrich events (Sarnthein et al., 2000; Dickson et al., 2008) whereas other records show no change (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 (Fig. 5). Between 126 and

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oxygenated bottom water masses, but they are significantly reduced compared with warm interstadial intervals as well as the LGM. At intermediate location ODP 1055, early H6 shows slightly lower bottom water $[O_2]$ of $225 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ followed by an increase to $> 235 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5).

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

The glacial decreased bottom water $[O_2]$ values at the Iberian Margin to $200 \pm 17 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (LGM) and $180 \pm 17 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (MIS 6) (compared with $245 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ 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 Circulation (AMOC) (Bereiter et al., 2012; Thornalley et al., 2013; Barker and Diz, 2014). 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 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (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 kinematic overturning circulation proxy $^{231}\text{Pa}/^{230}\text{Th}$, 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 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 Site ODP 1055. These results confirm inferences of strength-

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ened open ocean convection South of the Greenland-Scotland Ridge driving a strong intermediate depth Atlantic Overturning Circulation cell (Thornalley et al., 2013). It is 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. (2000) suggest that the meridional overturning circulation was significantly reduced during Heinrich event 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). Roberts et al. (2010) and Gutjahr and Lippold (2011), 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. Since then it has emerged that glacial Antarctic Bottom Waters and Glacial Antarctic Intermediate Waters might show a see-saw pattern in the 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 well ventilated, high $[O_2]$ Glacial North Atlantic Intermediate Water (Gutjahr et al., 2008, 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

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pattern, with strengthened intermediate depth cell and weakened deep cell. Changes in bottom water mass may thus have some part to play in the bottom water [O₂] changes at deep sites during Heinrich events, however they cannot explain lower bottom water [O₂] at the intermediate depth sites.

5 In terms of biological mechanism driving North Atlantic seawater [O₂] changes during Heinrich events the picture is not clear. Marriotti et al. (2012), mainly using model simulations, suggested that export production during Heinrich events was globally reduced, with a decrease in the North Atlantic. According to Salguiero et al. (2010) there were no changes in productivity in the northeast Atlantic at MD95-2042. However for
10 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 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.,
15 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
20 by Hoogakker et al. (2013), suggests weaker summer stratification in the northwest Atlantic during H5, which could be associated 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,
25 accumulation of diatom mat deposits in sediments during Heinrich events is clear 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 [O₂] values at intermediate ODP Site 1055 during extreme millennial scale cool events were driven by increased

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export production, strengthening the biological pump. The model simulation of Marriotti et al. (2012) 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 the model simulations of Schmittner et al. (2007) predict a decrease in bottom water $[O_2]$ of 60 to 90 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ at the longitude of intermediate site 1055, and 90 to 120 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ at the longitude of deep site MD95-2042 during meltwater events, our reconstructions suggests more modest decreases in the range of 24 to 60 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (9 to 25 %) for the intermediate site, and 15 to 101 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (5 to 40 %) at the deep site (Fig. 5). 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. Our reconstructions agree with model simulations suggesting an overall decrease in North Atlantic $[O_2]$ in response to glacial meltwater events.

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6 Conclusions

Reconstructions of deep (MD95-2042) and intermediate (ODP Site 1055) water [O₂] in the North Atlantic during the last glacial portray decreases in bottom water [O₂] 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 [O₂] during North Atlantic glacial cold events below ~ 1 km (Schmittner et al., 2007), our reconstructions are much less dramatic. Numerous observations suggest that NADW (below ~ 2 km) in the North Atlantic was replaced by SSDW during extreme millennial cool events (H1 to 6 and C19 to C25), and so a change from low nutrient high [O₂] NADW to high nutrient low [O₂] SSDW can explain at least part of the reconstructed bottom water [O₂] change at the deep site. For North Atlantic Intermediate Water however there is now mounting evidence that this overturning cell was stronger during millennial cool events. We infer that increased export of organic material from the surface ocean, as observed at numerous locations across the North Atlantic, was responsible for decreased [O₂] at intermediate Site ODP 1055. By extrapolation, such mechanisms must have played a part in the deep [O₂] decrease during such events.

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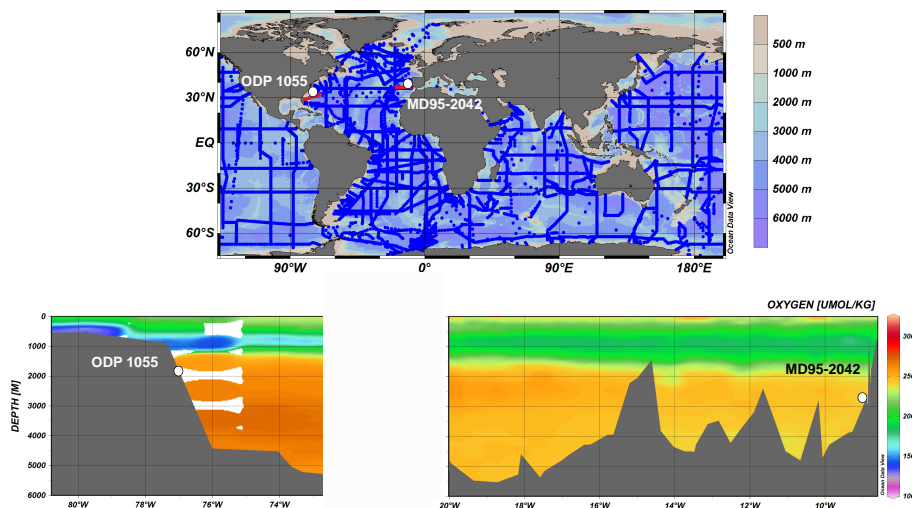


Figure 1. Locations of the two cores (ODP 1056, MD95-2042) used in this study projected on a global bathymetric map (top Figure). The red sections show locations of the two sea water $[O_2]$ profiles shown in the bottom Figure. $[O_2]$ profiles were made using GLODAP version 1.1 bottle data (Key et al., 2004). Cross sections and map were created using Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, R., Ocean Data View, <http://odv.awi.de>).

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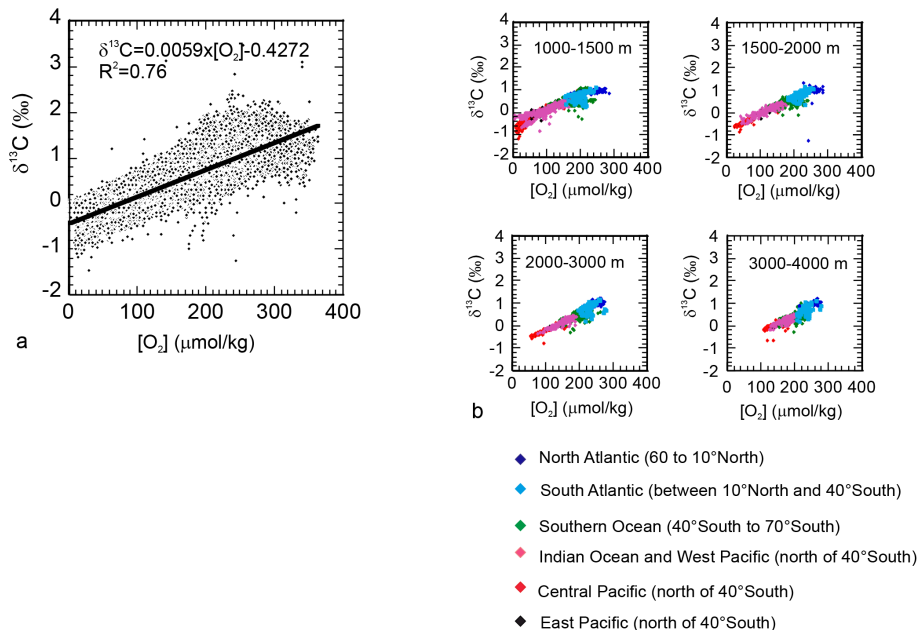


Figure 2. (a) Global relationship between seawater $[\text{O}_2]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of DIC. (b) Cross-plots of seawater $[\text{O}_2]$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for intermediate (1000–1500 m and 1500–2000 m) and deep (2000–3000 m and 3000–4000 m) waters. Data used to create this figure can be found in the Supplement and was obtained from <http://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/SELECT/dbsearch/dbsearch.html>.

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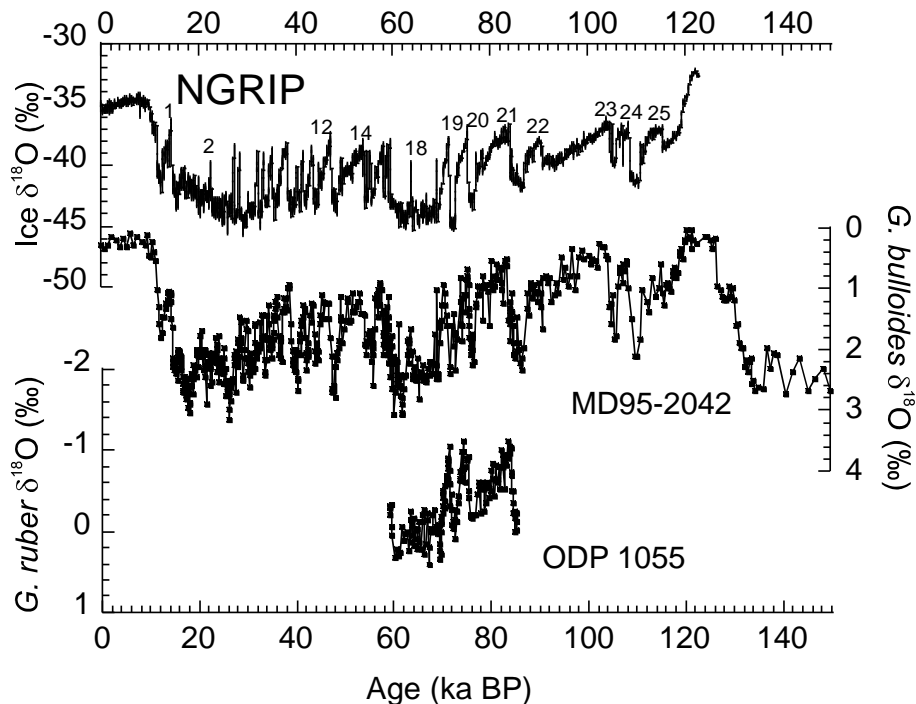


Figure 3. Age models of MD95-2042 and ODP 1055 established by tying planktonic foraminifera oxygen isotopes changes of *Globigerina bulloides* (MD95-2042, Shackleton et al., 2000) and *Globigerinoides ruber* to those of NGRIP. Several Dansgaard–Oeschger interstadial events are numbered in the NGRIP records.

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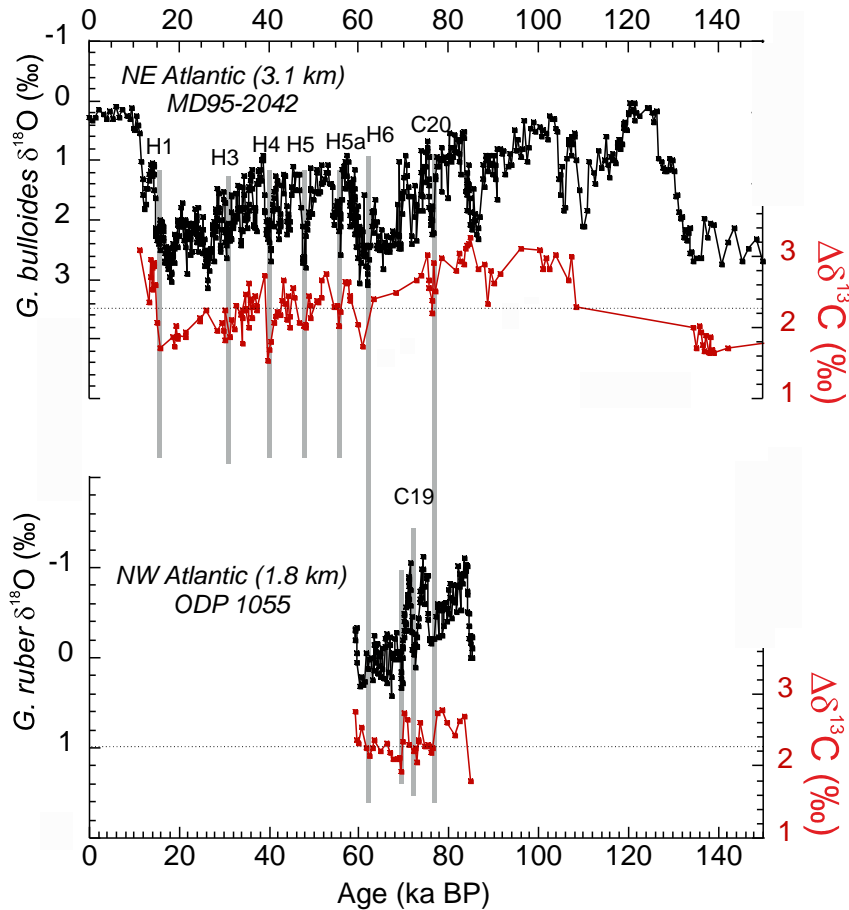


Figure 4. Benthic foraminifera $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at deep site MD95-2042 and intermediate ODP Site 1055 and their planktonic foraminifera oxygen isotopes. Several Heinrich events and cold events are shown (Shackleton et al., 2000; Thornalley et al., 2013).

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