

1 Nitrogen fixation in sediments along a depth transect through the Peruvian oxygen
2 minimum zone

3 Jessica Gier^{1*}, Stefan Sommer¹, Carolin R. Löscher¹, Andrew W. Dale¹, Ruth A. Schmitz²,
4 Tina Treude^{1,3*}

5
6 ¹ GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Germany

7 ² Institute for Microbiology, Christian-Albrechts-University Kiel, Germany

8 ³Present address: University of California, Los Angeles, Department of Earth, Planetary & Space
9 Sciences and Department of Atmospheric & Oceanic Sciences, USA

10
11 *Correspondence: jgier@geomar.de, ttreude@g.ucla.edu

12 **Abstract**

13 The potential coupling of nitrogen (N₂) fixation and sulfate reduction (SR) was explored in
14 sediments of the Peruvian oxygen minimum zone (OMZ). Sediment samples were retrieved
15 by a multiple corer at six stations along a depth transect (70 - 1025 m water depth) at 12°S,
16 covering anoxic and hypoxic bottom water conditions. Benthic N₂ fixation, determined by
17 the acetylene reduction assay, was detected at all sites, with highest rates between 70 m
18 and 253 m and lower rates at greater depth. SR rates decreased with increasing water
19 depth. N₂ fixation and SR overlapped in sediments, suggesting a potential coupling of both
20 processes. However, a weak positive correlation of their activity distribution was detected
21 by Principle Component Analysis. A potential link between N₂ fixation and sulfate-reducing
22 bacteria was indicated by the molecular analysis of *nifH* genes. Detected *nifH* sequences
23 clustered with the sulfate-reducing bacteria *Desulfonema limicola* at the 253 m station.
24 However, *nifH* sequences of other stations clustered with uncultured organisms,
25 Gammaproteobacteria, and Firmicutes (Clostridia) rather than with known sulfate
26 reducers. The Principle Component Analysis revealed that benthic N₂ fixation in the
27 Peruvian OMZ is controlled by organic matter (positive) and free sulfide (negative). No
28 correlation was found between N₂ fixation and ammonium concentrations (even at levels >
29 2022 μM). N₂ fixation rates in the Peruvian OMZ sediments were in the same range as
30 those measured in other organic-rich sediments.

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Only 6 % of nitrogen (N) in seawater is bioavailable (Gruber, 2008). This bioavailable N is
33 mainly present in the form of nitrate (NO_3^-), whereas the large pool of atmospheric
34 dinitrogen gas (N_2) is only available for N_2 fixing microorganisms (diazotrophs). N often
35 limits marine productivity (Ward & Bronk, 2001; Gruber, 2008) and the largest source of
36 bioavailable N (i.e. ammonium (NH_4^+)) in the marine environment is N_2 fixation (Falkowski
37 et al., 1998; Strous et al., 1999; Brandes & Devol, 2002).

38 To date, the quantitative contribution of diazotrophs in the marine N cycle remains unclear
39 and numerous estimates of global sources and sinks of global N have led to an unbalanced
40 budget with deficits of around 200 Tg N yr^{-1} (Codispoti, 2007). This suggests that either
41 previous N_2 fixation rate determinations have been underestimated (Großkopf et al., 2012)
42 or that N loss processes are overestimated (Codispoti, 2007). However, also balanced
43 budgets such as ~ 265 Tg N yr^{-1} for N sources and ~ 275 Tg N yr^{-1} for N sinks exist (Gruber,
44 2004). These budget discrepancies illustrate that the current knowledge on diazotrophy
45 and the marine N cycle is still limited.

46 Recent investigations argue that N_2 fixation in the water column cannot be totally
47 attributed to phototrophic cyanobacteria, but that also heterotrophic prokaryotes
48 contribute substantially (Riemann et al., 2010; Farnelid et al., 2011; Dekaezemacker et al.,
49 2013; Löscher et al., 2014; Fernandez et al., 2015). This was shown for the Peruvian oxygen
50 minimum zone (OMZ), where proteobacterial clades dominated with heterotrophic
51 diazotrophs, indicating that cyanobacterial diazotrophs are of minor importance in this
52 area (Löscher et al., 2014).

53 Pelagic N_2 fixation has been studied mostly in the oligotrophic surface oceans, but it was
54 not until the past decade that benthic habitats began to receive more attention (Fulweiler
55 et al., 2007; Bertics et al., 2010; Bertics et al. 2013). Most studies on benthic N_2 fixation
56 focused on coastal environments (Capone et al., 2008 and references therein). For
57 example, subtidal sediments in Narragansett Bay (Rhode Island) were found to switch from
58 being a net sink in the form of denitrification to being a net source of bioavailable N by N_2
59 fixation, caused by a decrease of organic matter deposition to the sediments (Fulweiler et
60 al., 2007). Shallow brackish-water sediments off the Swedish coast revealed benthic N_2
61 fixation along with a diverse diazotrophic community (Andersson et al., 2014). N_2 fixation

62 was positively influenced by a variety of environmental factors, such as salinity and
63 dissolved inorganic nitrogen, while wave exposure had a negative influence. Recent work
64 revealed that benthic N₂ fixation is often linked to sulfate-reducing bacteria. For instance,
65 bioturbated coastal sediments showed enhanced N₂ fixation activity mediated by sulfate-
66 reducing bacteria, adding new dissolved inorganic N to the system (Bertics et al., 2010;
67 Bertics & Ziebis, 2010). Further coupling of N₂ fixation to SR was observed in organic-rich
68 sediments of the seasonal hypoxic Eckernförde Bay (Baltic Sea) (Bertics et al., 2013), as well
69 as in the sub-tidal, heterotrophic sediments of Narragansett Bay (Rhode Island, USA)
70 (Fulweiler et al., 2013). Several sulfate-reducing bacteria carry the functional gene marker
71 for N₂ fixation, the *nifH* gene (Sisler & ZoBell, 1951; Riederer-Henderson & Wilson, 1970;
72 Zehr & Turner, 2001) and were shown to actively fix N₂ in culture experiments (Riederer-
73 Henderson & Wilson, 1970). However, information on sulfate-reducing bacteria and their
74 contribution to N₂ fixation in the environment is still sparse and restricted to a small
75 selection of environments.

76 So far, the distribution of benthic N₂ fixation and its relevance for N cycling in the Peruvian
77 oxygen minimum zone (OMZ), defined by dissolved oxygen < 20 μmol kg⁻¹ (Fuenzalida et
78 al., 2009), are unknown. The shelf and the upper slope in the Peruvian OMZ represent
79 recycling sites of dissolved inorganic N with dissimilatory NO₃⁻ reduction to NH₄⁺ being the
80 dominant process (~15 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹) in the benthic N cycle (Dale et al., 2016). This
81 process is mediated by the filamentous sulfide-oxidizing *Thioploca* bacteria (Schulz, 1999;
82 Schulz & Jørgensen, 2001). Benthic denitrification, which is mediated by foraminifera at
83 water depth between 80 and 250 m of the Peruvian OMZ, represent a sink for bioavailable
84 N in sediments, accounting for a potential NO₃⁻ flux, i.e. N loss, of 0.01 to 1.5 mmol N m⁻²
85 d⁻¹ (Glock et al., 2013; Dale et al. 2016).

86 The high input of labile organic carbon to Peruvian OMZ sediments (Dale et al., 2015) and
87 subsequent SR should favor benthic N₂ fixation. Sulfate-reducing bacteria could
88 considerably contribute to N₂ fixation in these organic-rich OMZ sediments, given that
89 several sulfate-reducing bacteria (e.g. *Desulfovibrio* spp. (Riederer-Henderson & Wilson,
90 1970; Muyzer & Stams, 2008)) carry the genetic ability to fix N₂, and provide an important
91 bioavailable N source for non-diazotrophic organisms (Bertics et al., 2010; Sohm et al.,
92 2011; Fulweiler et al., 2013). We therefore hypothesize a possible coupling of N₂ fixation

93 and SR in sediments off Peru. The aim of the present study was to identify and quantify
94 benthic N₂ fixation along a depth transect through the Peruvian OMZ, together with SR,
95 and compare its distribution with environmental factors, such as organic matter, to study
96 its controls mechanisms. The identification of bacteria carrying the genetic ability to
97 perform N₂ fixation should further deliver information about benthic diazotrophic
98 community structures at the different stations. The overall knowledge gained is needed to
99 better constrain benthic N cycling in OMZs and to improve our knowledge on sources and
100 sinks of fixed N.

101 **2. Materials and Methods**

102 **2.1 Study area**

103 The most extensive OMZ worldwide is found in the eastern tropical south Pacific ocean at
104 the central Peruvian coast (Kamykowski & Zentara, 1990). The Peruvian OMZ ranges
105 between 50 m and 700 m water depth with oxygen (O₂) concentrations below the
106 detection limit in the mid-waters (Stramma et al., 2008). The mean water depth of the
107 upper OMZ boundary deepens during intense El Niño Southern Oscillation years and can
108 reach a depth of 200 m (Levin et al., 2002) with oxygenation episodes reaching
109 concentrations of up to 100 μM O₂ (Gutiérrez et al., 2008). O₂ concentrations (Fig. 1, Tab.
110 1) off Peru are modulated by coastal trapped waves (Gutiérrez et al., 2008), trade winds
111 (Deutsch et al., 2014) and subtropical-tropical cells (Duteil et al., 2014), and can vary on
112 monthly to interannual time-scales (Gutiérrez et al., 2008).

113 At 12°S, the OMZ extends from water depths between 50 and 550 m (Dale et al., 2015) (Fig.
114 1). During our field work, bottom water O₂ concentrations varied greatly with water depth
115 and were below the detection limit (5 μM) at stations from 70 m to 407 m water depth.
116 Bottom water O₂ increased to 19 μM at 770 m water depth and 53 μM at 1025 m water
117 depth, indicating the increase of dissolved oxygen below the lower boundary of the OMZ
118 (Dale et al. 2015). Between 70 m and 300 m water depth, the sediment surface was
119 colonized by dense filamentous mats of sulfur-oxidizing bacteria, presumably of the genera
120 *Marithioploca spp.* These bacteria are able to glide up to 1 cm h⁻¹ through the sediment in
121 order to access hydrogen sulfide (Fossing et al., 1995; Jørgensen & Gallardo, 1999; Schulz,

122 1999). Sediments at the lower boundary (770 and 1025 m) of the OMZ host a variety of
123 macrofaunal organisms e.g. ophiuroids, gastropods, and crustaceans (Mosch et al., 2012).

124 The 12°S region is in the center of an extensive upwelling zone and features high primary
125 productivity (Pennington et al., 2006). Sediments at 12°S have higher rates of particulate
126 organic carbon accumulation (2-5 times) compared to other continental margins and a high
127 carbon burial efficiency, indicating preferential preservation of organic matter in the
128 Peruvian OMZ (Dale et al., 2015). The shelf (74 m) of the Peruvian OMZ is characterized by
129 high sedimentation rates of 0.45 cm yr⁻¹, while mid-waters and below the OMZ show rates
130 between 0.07 and 0.011 cm yr⁻¹

131 **2.2 Sampling**

132 Sediment samples were taken in January 2013 at six stations (70, 144, 253, 407, 770, and
133 1025 m) along a depth transect at 12°S in the OMZ off Peru (Fig. 1) during an expedition on
134 RV Meteor (M92). January represents austral summer, i.e. the low upwelling, high
135 productivity season in this area (Kessler, 2006). Samples were retrieved using a TV-guided
136 multiple corer (MUC) equipped with seven core liners. The core liners had a length of 60
137 cm and an inner diameter of 10 cm. Location, water depth, temperature, and O₂
138 concentration (from Dale et al. 2015) at the six sampling stations are listed in Table 1.
139 Retrieved cores for microbial rate measurements were immediately transferred to cold
140 rooms (4-9 °C) for further processing.

141 **2.3 Geochemical analyses**

142 Porewater analysis and the determination of sediment properties and geochemical data
143 have been previously described in detail by Dale et al. (2015). In short, the first core was
144 subsampled under anoxic conditions using an argon-filled glove bag, to preserve redox
145 sensitive constituents. NH₄⁺ and sulfide concentrations were analyzed on a Hitachi U2800
146 UV/VIS spectrophotometer using standard photometric procedures (Grasshoff et al., 1999),
147 while sulfate (SO₄²⁻) concentrations were determined by ion chromatography (Methrom
148 761).

149 The second replicate core was sampled to determine porosity by the weight difference of
150 the fresh sediment subsamples before and after freeze-drying. Particulate organic carbon
151 and particulate organic nitrogen contents were analyzed using a Carlo-Erba element
152 analyzer (NA 1500).

153 **2.4 Benthic nitrogen fixation**

154 At each of the six stations, one MUC core was sliced in a refrigerated container (9°C) in 1-
155 cm intervals from 0 – 6 cm, in 2-cm intervals from 6 – 10 cm, and in 5-cm intervals from 10
156 – 20 cm. The acetylene reduction assay (Capone, 1993; Bertics et al. 2013) was applied, to
157 quantify nitrogenase activity. This application is based on the reduction of acetylene (C₂H₂)
158 to ethylene (C₂H₄) by the nitrogenase enzyme (Dilworth, 1966; Stewart et al., 1967;
159 Capone, 1993). To convert from nitrogenase activity to N₂ fixation, a conversion factor of 3
160 C₂H₄:1 N₂ was applied (Patriquin & Knowles, 1972; Donohue et al., 1991; Orcutt et al.,
161 2001; Capone et al., 2005), which was previously used to measure N₂ fixation in sediments
162 (Welsh et al., 1996; Bertics et al., 2013).

163 Serum vials (60 mL) were flushed with N₂ and filled with 10 cm³ sediment from each
164 sampling depth (triplicates). The samples were flushed again with N₂, crimp sealed with
165 butyl stoppers and injected with 5 mL of C₂H₂ to saturate the nitrogenase enzyme. Serum
166 vials were stored in the dark at 9 °C, which reflected the average *in situ* temperature along
167 the transect (compare with Tab. 1). Two sets of triplicate controls (10 cm³) were processed
168 for every station. Sediment was collected from each core liner from 0 – 5 cm, 5 – 10 cm,
169 and from 10 – 20 cm and placed in 60 mL serum vials. One set of controls was used to
170 identify natural C₂H₄ production without the injection of acetylene, and the second control
171 set was fixed with 1 mL 37.5% formaldehyde solution.

172 The increase of C₂H₄ in each sediment slice was measured onboard over one week (in total
173 5 time points, including time zero) using gas chromatography (Hewlett Packard 6890 Series
174 II). From each serum vial, a 100 µl headspace sample was injected into the gas
175 chromatograph and the results were analyzed with the HP ChemStation gas
176 chromatograph software. The gas chromatograph was equipped with a packed column
177 (Haye SepT, 6 ft, 3.1 mm ID, Resteck) and a flame ionization detector. The carrier gas was
178 helium and the combustion gases were synthetic air (20 % O₂ in N₂) and hydrogen. The
179 column had a temperature of 75°C and the detector temperature was 160°C.

180 Standard deviation of individual N₂ fixation rates was calculated from three replicates
181 determined per sediment depth in one multicorer. Standard deviation of depth-integrated
182 N₂ fixation was calculated from the three replicate integrated rates.

183

184 It should be mentioned that the incubation with C₂H₂ can potentially lead to a lack of fixed
185 N caused by the saturation of the nitrogenase enzyme, which leads to a reduction of cell
186 viability and consequently N₂ fixation (Seitzinger & Garber, 1987). These effects are
187 expected to cause an underestimation of N₂ fixation rates. However, the acetylene
188 reduction method is to the best of our knowledge still the standard method for the
189 determination of benthic N₂ fixation (Bertics et al., 2013). The δ¹⁵N rate determinations are
190 not feasible in sediments, as they would require incubation times of several weeks to
191 months to achieve signals that are statistically above the natural δ¹⁵N abundance of
192 sediments.

193 We are further aware that our samples might have experienced a potential microbial
194 community shift during the N₂ fixation determination, which was shown to be driven by the
195 addition of C₂H₂ (Fulweiler et al., 2015). Again, a community shift would be expected to
196 cause rather an underestimation of absolute N₂ fixation rates.

197 **2.5 Sulfate reduction rates**

198 One MUC core per station was used for determination of SR activity (same MUC cast as for
199 N₂ fixation, but different core). First, two replicate push cores (length 30 cm, inner
200 diameter 2.6 cm) were subsampled from one MUC core. The actual push core length varied
201 from 21 - 25 cm total length. Then, 6 µl of the carrier-free ³⁵SO₄²⁻ radio tracer (dissolved in
202 water, 150 kBq, specific activity 37 TBq mmol⁻¹) was injected into the replicate push cores
203 in 1-cm depth intervals according to the whole-core injection method (Jørgensen, 1978).
204 The push cores were incubated for ~12h at 9°C. After incubation, bacterial activity was
205 stopped by slicing the push core into 1-cm intervals and transferring each sediment layer
206 into 50 mL plastic centrifuge tubes filled with 20 mL zinc acetate (20% w/w). Controls were
207 done in triplicates from different depths and first fixed with zinc acetate before adding the
208 tracer. Rates for SR were determined using the cold chromium distillation procedure
209 according to Kallmeyer et al. (2004).

210 It should be mentioned that the yielded SR rates have to be treated with caution due to
211 long (up to 3 half-life times of ³⁵S) and unfrozen storage. Storage of SR samples without
212 freezing has recently been shown to result in the re-oxidation of ³⁵S-sulfides (Røy et al.,
213 2014). In this reaction, FeS is converted to ZnS. The released Fe²⁺ reacts with O₂ and forms
214 reactive Fe(III). The Fe(III) oxidizes ZnS and FeS, which are the major components of the

215 total reduced inorganic sulfur species, resulting in the generation of SO_4^{2-} and hence an
216 underestimation of SR rates. However, because all SR samples in the present study were
217 treated the same way, we trust the relative distribution of activity along sediment depth
218 profiles and recognize potential underestimation of absolute rates.

219 **2.6 *nifH* gene analysis**

220 Core samples for DNA analysis were retrieved from the six stations and were sliced in the
221 same sampling scheme as described for benthic N_2 fixation. Approximately 5 mL sediment
222 from each depth horizon was transferred to plastic whirl-paks® (*Nasco*, Fort Atkinson,
223 USA), frozen at $-20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and transported back to the home laboratory. To check for the
224 presence of the *nifH* gene, DNA was extracted using the FastDNA® SPIN Kit for Soil (MP
225 Biomedicals, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions with a small modification.
226 Sample homogenization was done in a Mini-Beadbeater™ (Biospec Products, Bartlesville,
227 USA) for 15 seconds. PCR amplification, including primers and PCR conditions, was done as
228 described by Zehr et al. (1998), using the GoTaq kit (Promega, Fitchburg, USA) and
229 additionally 1 μL bovine serum albumin (20 mg mL^{-1} (Fermentas)). The TopoTA Cloning® Kit
230 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) was used for cloning of PCR amplicons, according to the
231 manufacturer's protocol. Sanger sequencing (122 *nifH* sequences) was performed by the
232 Institute of Clinical Molecular Biology, Kiel, Germany For the sampling sites 70 m, 144 m,
233 253 m, 407 m, 770 m, and 1025 m water depth the number of obtained sequences was 22,
234 24, 24, 13, 18, and 21, respectively. Negative controls were performed using the PCR
235 mixture as described without template DNA; no amplification was detected. Sequences
236 were ClustalW aligned in MEGA 6.0 (Tamura et al., 2007), and a maximum likelihood tree
237 was constructed on a 321 base pair fragment and visualized in iTOL (Letunic & Bork, 2007,
238 2011). Reference sequences were obtained using BlastX on the NCBI database. Sequences
239 were submitted to Genbank (Accession numbers: KU302519 - KU302594).

240 **2.7 Statistical analysis**

241 A Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was applied to microbial rates and environmental
242 parameters to determine most likely explanatory variables for active N_2 fixation at the
243 sampling St. 1 to 9. The deepest St. 10 was excluded from the analysis because at this site
244 SR rates were below the detection limit and the PCA only allows complete datasets, which
245 otherwise would have resulted in the exclusion of all SR rates. Prior to PCA, the dataset was

246 Hellinger transformed in order to make it compatible with PCA. The PCA was performed in
247 R v3.0.2 by using the R package 'Vegan' (Oksanen et al., 2013) according to the approach
248 described in Löscher et al. (2014).

249 For the depth profiles of N₂ fixation rates (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) the variables water depth (m),
250 sediment depth (cm), sulfate reduction (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹), organic carbon content (wt%), C/N
251 ratio (molar), ammonium (μM), and sulfide (μM) were tested. A PCA of integrated (0-20
252 cm) N₂ fixation rates (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) and environmental parameters could not be done due
253 to the lack of sufficient data points of SR rates.

254 Finally, two biplots for the depth profiles were produced, which allowed having two
255 different views from two different angles, i.e. one biplot for principle component 1 and 2,
256 and one biplot for principle component 2 and 3. These biplots graphically reveal a potential
257 negative, positive or zero correlation between N₂ fixation and the tested variables.

258 **3. Results**

259 **3.1 Sediment properties**

260 Although sediments were sampled down to the bottom of the core, the focus here is on
261 the 0 – 20 cm depth interval where benthic N₂ fixation was investigated.

262 Sediments at the shelf station (St.) 1 (70 m) were black between 0 – 1 cm and then olive
263 green until 20 cm. Only a few metazoans (polychaetes) were observed in the surface
264 sediment. The sediment surface was colonized by dense filamentous mats of sulfur-
265 oxidizing *Marithioploca spp.*. These bacteria extended down to a sediment depth of 36 cm.
266 The sediment on the outer shelf St. 4 (144 m) was dark olive green from 0 – 13 cm and dark
267 grey until 20 cm. At St. 6 (253 m), which was located within the core of the OMZ, the
268 sediment appeared dark olive green between 0 – 17 cm and olive green with white patches
269 between 17 – 20 cm. At this station, *Marithioploca spp.* was abundant. Uniquely, surface
270 sediments (0 – 3 cm) at St. 8 (407 m), consisted of a fluffy, dark olive-green layer mixed
271 with white foraminiferal ooze. This layer also contained cm-sized phosphorite nodules with
272 several perforations (ca. 1 - 3 mm in diameter). Below 2 cm, the sediment consisted of a
273 dark olive green, sticky clay layer. No *Thioploca* mats were found here. St. 9 (770 m) was
274 below the OMZ, and sediments were brown to dark olive green with white particles
275 between 0 – 12 cm, and brown to olive green without white particles below this depth.

276 Organisms such as anemones, copepods, shrimps and various mussels were visible with the
277 TV-guided MUC and in the sediment cores. The deepest St. (10; 1025 m) had dark olive
278 green sediment from 0 – 20 cm and black patches from 17 – 20 cm. The sediment was
279 slightly sandy and was colonized with polychaete tubes at the surface and organisms that
280 were also present at St. 9. For further sediment core descriptions see also Dale et al.
281 (2015).

282 Geochemical porewater profiles of NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} , sulfide, organic carbon content, and organic
283 C/N ratio between 0 – 20 cm at the six stations are shown in Fig 2. In all cores, NH_4^+
284 concentrations increased with sediment depth. The highest NH_4^+ concentration was
285 reached at St. 1 (70 m), increasing from 316 μM in the upper cm to 2022 μM at 20 cm. St. 4
286 and 6 showed intermediate NH_4^+ concentrations between 300 μM and 800 μM at 20 cm,
287 respectively. At St. 8 (407 m) the NH_4^+ concentration increased from 0.7 μM at the surface
288 to 107 μM at 20 cm. The two deep stations (St. 9 and 10) had the lowest NH_4^+
289 concentrations with 33 μM and 22 μM at 20 m sediment depth, respectively.

290 The SO_4^{2-} concentrations remained relatively constant in the surface sediments along the
291 transect. A decrease was only observed at St. 1; from 28.7 μM in the surface layer to 19.4
292 μM at 20 cm. In parallel with the decrease in SO_4^{2-} , only St. 1 revealed considerable
293 porewater sulfide accumulation, whereby sulfide increased from 280 μM at the surface
294 sediment to 1229 μM at 20 cm.

295 Organic carbon content decreased with increasing sediment depth at St. 1 (70 m), 9 (770
296 m), and 10 (1025 m). The highest surface organic carbon content (~15 wt%) was found at
297 St. 6, whereas the lowest (~2.6 wt%) was detected at the deep St. 10. The average (0 - 20
298 cm) organic carbon content (Fig. 5) increased from St. 1 to St. 6 (15 ± 1.7 wt%) and
299 decreased from St. 6 to the lowest value at St. 10 (2.4 ± 0.4 wt%).

300 C/N ratios, as a proxy for the freshness of the organic matter, increased with increasing
301 sediment depth (Fig. 5). The lowest surface C/N ratio (6.2) was measured at the shallow St.
302 1, while the highest surface C/N ratio (11) was found at St. 10.

303 **3.2 Benthic nitrogen fixation and sulfate reduction (SR)**

304 For a straightforward comparison of SR rates with benthic N₂ fixation only the sediment
305 depths between 0 – 20 cm are considered. Sediment depth profiles are expressed as N₂
306 fixation, that is, with the conversion factor of 3 C₂H₄:1 N₂.

307 Highest N₂ fixation and SR rates were detected in the surface sediments (0 – 5 cm) and
308 both rates tended to decrease with increasing sediment depth (Fig. 3). N₂ fixation and SR
309 rates were high at St. 1, 4, and 6 (70 m, 144 m, 253 m) and lowest at the deeper St. 8 – 10
310 (407 m, 770 m, 1025m).

311 At St. 1, N₂ fixation and SR rates showed different trends in the top layer of the cores, but
312 depth profiles were more aligned below. Although St. 1 had the highest SR rates of all sites,
313 reaching 248 nmol SO₄²⁻ cm⁻³ d⁻¹ at 0 – 1 cm, N₂ fixation was not highest at this station. At
314 St. 4 (144 m), both N₂ fixation and SR revealed peaks close to the surface. N₂ fixation
315 decreased between 0 – 8 cm and increased below 8 cm. This increase was not observed in
316 SR rates, which were highest at the surface (181 nmol SO₄²⁻ cm⁻³ d⁻¹) and decreased
317 towards the bottom of the core. St. 6 (253 m) had the highest N₂ fixation of all stations,
318 with rates of 4.0 ± 0.5 nmol N₂ cm⁻³ d⁻¹ in the surface centimeter. Yet, although N₂ fixation
319 and SR had overlapping activity profiles, the highest SR rate of all stations was not detected
320 at St. 6. Very low N₂ fixation rates were measured at St. 8 (407 m) (0.5 ± 0.25 nmol N₂ cm⁻³
321 d⁻¹ in the surface), as well as very low SR rates (0 – 4.3 nmol SO₄²⁻ cm⁻³ d⁻¹). As mentioned,
322 this station was unique due to the presence of foraminiferal ooze, phosphorite nodules and
323 a sticky clay layer below 2 cm. N₂ fixation and SR rates showed a peak at 5 cm and at 7 cm,
324 respectively. At St. 9 (770 m) N₂ fixation was low in the surface and at 20 cm sediment
325 depth, with a peak in activity at 4 – 5 cm (0.8 ± 0.08 nmol N₂ cm⁻³ d⁻¹). At St. 10 (1025 m),
326 N₂ fixation rates were low throughout the sediment core, not exceeding 0.16 ± 0.02 nmol
327 N₂ cm⁻³ d⁻¹. This site had the lowest organic carbon content throughout the core (between
328 2.6 wt% at the surface and 1.9 wt% at 20 cm), as well as low NH₄⁺ concentrations. At St. 9
329 (below 9 cm depth) and St. 10 (entire core) SR rates were below detection, which could
330 point either to the absence of SR or to the complete loss of total reduced inorganic sulfur
331 due to the long, unfrozen storage (see methods).

332 Integrated N₂ fixation (0 – 20 cm) increased from St. 1 to St. 6, with the highest rate (0.4 ±
333 0.06 N₂ m⁻² d⁻¹) at St. 6 (253 m), and decreased from St. 6 (407 m) to St. 10 (1025 m) (Fig.

334 4). Integrated SR rates (0 to 20 cm) ranged from $\sim 4.6 \text{ mmol SO}_4^{2-} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ at St. 1 to below
335 detection at St. 9 (Fig. 4). Overall, integrated SR rates decreased with increasing water
336 depth. Integrated N_2 fixation rates and SR were in general inversely correlated between St.
337 1 and St. 6, and followed the organic carbon content from St. 1 to St. 6 (70 – 253 m) (Fig. 5).
338 Both parameters had the highest value at St. 6. This pattern did not hold for the relatively
339 low integrated SR rate at St. 6. The C/N ratio, averaged over 20 cm, increased with
340 increasing water depth (Fig. 5). Regarding the three deep stations, the lowest integrated N_2
341 fixation rate ($0.008 \pm 0.002 \text{ N}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was detected at St. 8 (407 m). Also the integrated SR
342 rate was low at this site ($\sim 0.46 \text{ mmol SO}_4^{2-} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). At St. 9 and 10 (770 and 1025 m),
343 integrated N_2 fixation was low at $0.05 \pm 0.005 \text{ N}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $0.01 \pm 0.001 \text{ N}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$,
344 respectively, and integrated SR rates were also lowest at St. 9 (770 m). From St. 8 to 10 a
345 decrease of integrated N_2 fixation and SR together with the average organic carbon content
346 was detected.
347 No activity was detected in controls for N_2 fixation and SR.

348 **3.3 Statistical analysis**

349 The PCA of N_2 fixation depth profiles (Fig. 6a and b) showed a weak positive correlation
350 with sulfate reduction rates (Fig. 6a) and a strong positive correlation between N_2 fixation
351 and the organic matter content in sediments (Fig. 6b). A negative correlation between N_2
352 fixation and sediment depth (Fig. 6a), as well as between N_2 fixation and sulfide
353 concentration for St. 1 (Fig. 6b) was found. Furthermore, a weak negative correlation was
354 detected between N_2 fixation and the C/N ratio (Fig. 6a). No correlation was found
355 between N_2 fixation and ammonium concentration and water depth (Fig. 6a and b).

356 **3.4 Molecular analysis of the *nifH* gene**

357 Sequences for the *nifH* gene analysis were pooled for each of the six stations, making about
358 20 sequences per sample and 120 in total. *NifH* gene sequences were detected at all six
359 sampling sites and clustered with Cluster I proteobacterial sequences and Cluster III
360 sequences as defined by Zehr & Turner (2001) (Fig. 7). In Cluster I and Cluster III, three and
361 seven novel clades were detected, respectively. In general, most of the previously
362 unidentified clades belonged to uncultured bacteria. One distinct novel clade was found for
363 St. 1 – 6. No Cluster I cyanobacterial *nifH* sequences were detected and no potential PCR
364 contaminants were present (Turk et al., 2011). Sequences clustered with only one

365 identified sulfate-reducing bacterium, *Desulfonema limicola* (Fukui et al., 1999) (OMZ 253).
366 Other sequences from several stations (OMZ 70, 144, 253, 770) were distantly related to
367 *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* (Riederer-Henderson & Wilson, 1970; Muyzer & Stams, 2008). One
368 cluster (OMZ 144 m) was closely related to the anaerobic marine bacterium *Vibrio*
369 *diazotrophicus* (Guerinot et al., 1982). Other organisms with which OMZ sequences
370 clustered belonged to the genera of fermenting bacteria, namely *Clostridium beijerincki*
371 (Chen, 2005), and to the genera of iron-reducing bacteria, namely *Geobacter bemidjiensis*
372 (Nevin et al., 2005). In addition, several sequences were phylogenetically related to a
373 gamma proteobacterium (Zehr & Turner, 2001) from the Pacific Ocean.

374 **4. Discussion**

375 **4.1 Coupling of benthic nitrogen fixation and sulfate reduction**

376 Based on the high organic matter input to Peruvian sediments underneath the OMZ we
377 hypothesized a presence of N₂ fixation and its coupling to sulfate reduction (SR). We
378 confirmed the presence of N₂ fixation in sediments at all sampled stations along the depth
379 transect. N₂ fixation activity was often enhanced where SR peaked and sometimes both
380 activity depth profiles revealed similar trends. However, while peaks in SR were very
381 pronounced, maximum N₂ fixation showed a much broader distribution over depth. These
382 findings are in line with the PCA of depth profiles, which revealed a weak positive
383 correlation between activities of N₂ fixation and sulfate reduction. But it should be kept in
384 mind that the N₂ fixation and SR were determined in replicate MUC cores, which were
385 taken up to 50 cm apart, depending on where the core liners were situated in the
386 multicorer. Nonetheless, it appears that the observed N₂ fixation is not exclusively fueled
387 by SR activity.

388 The coupling between N₂ fixation and SR has been previously suggested for coastal
389 sediments off California, where N₂ fixation significantly decreased when SR was inhibited
390 (Bertics & Ziebis, 2010). Different studies confirmed that sulfate-reducing bacteria, such as
391 *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* can supply organic-rich marine sediments with bioavailable N
392 through N₂ fixation (Welsh et al., 1996; Nielsen et al., 2001; Steppe & Paerl, 2002; Fulweiler
393 et al., 2007; Bertics et al., 2013; Fulweiler et al., 2013). Fulweiler et al. (2013) conducted a
394 study in sediments of the Narragasset Bay and found several *nifH* genes related to sulfate-

395 reducing bacteria, such as *Desulfovibrio spp.*, *Desulfobacter spp.* and *Desulfonema spp.*,
396 suggesting that sulfate-reducing bacteria were the dominant diazotrophs.

397 The more surprising finding in this study is that integrated rates of N₂ fixation and SR
398 showed opposite trends at the three shallowest stations, pointing to potential
399 environmental control mechanisms (see 5.2). Overall, these findings indicate that N₂
400 fixation might be partly coupled to processes other than SR or that the two processes are
401 controlled by different parameters. The *nifH* gene sequence analyses indicated only a weak
402 potential of sulfate reducers to conduct N₂ fixation in the Peruvian sediments. Sequences
403 clustered only with the sulfate-reducing bacteria *Desulfonema limicola* (Fukui et al., 1999)
404 exclusively at the 253 m Station. *D. limicola* is known from other benthic environments
405 through *nifH* gene analyses (Mussmann et al., 2005; Bertics et al., 2010, 2013). A distantly
406 relation to the confirmed diazotrophic sulfate reducer *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* (Sisler & ZoBell
407 1951; Riederer-Henderson & Wilson 1970) was detected at several stations. *D. limicola* and
408 *D. vulgaris* clustered with sequences taken from the seasonally hypoxic Eckernförde Bay in
409 the Baltic Sea (Bertics et al., 2013), suggesting a major involvement of these sulfate-
410 reducing bacteria in N₂ fixation in organic-rich sediments. Further, sequences related to
411 *Vibrio diazotrophicus* were detected, which has the unique ability for a known *Vibrio*
412 species to perform N₂ fixation and which was found previously in the water column of the
413 OMZ off Peru (Fernandez et al., 2011; Löscher et al., 2014). Interestingly, we detected
414 several new *nifH* gene clusters in the Peruvian OMZ that have not been identified yet and
415 which have, consequently, yet unknown metabolic processes (Fig. 7). Thus, a coupling of N₂
416 fixation to processes other than SR is also possible, which might also explain some of the
417 discrepancies between N₂ fixation and SR activity (see above). However, the coupling to
418 heterotrophic metabolic processes such as denitrification or methanogenesis was not
419 supported by our molecular data.

420 **4.2 Environmental factors controlling benthic N₂ fixation**

421 The observed differences between integrated N₂ fixation and SR along the depth transect
422 indicate potential environmental factors that control the extent of benthic N₂ fixation,
423 which will be discussed in the following section.

424 **4.2.1 Organic matter**

425 A major driver for microbial processes such as SR and N₂ fixation by potentially
426 heterotrophic organisms is the availability of the organic material (Jørgensen, 1983;
427 Howarth et al., 1988; Fulweiler et al., 2007). Integrated N₂ fixation and average organic
428 carbon content showed similar trends along the Peruvian OMZ depth transect (Fig. 5), and
429 a strong positive correlation was detected by PCA in the sediment depth profiles (Fig. 6).
430 Thus, organic matter availability appears to be a major factor controlling N₂ fixation at this
431 study site. Low organic matter content was previously shown to result in low N₂ fixation
432 rates in slope sediments in the Atlantic Ocean (Hartwig & Stanley, 1978). Correlation to
433 organic matter was further confirmed by the study of Bertics et al. (2010), which showed
434 that burrow systems of the bioturbating ghost shrimp *Neotrypaea californiensis* can lead to
435 enhanced organic matter availability in deeper sediment layers, resulting in high rates of N₂
436 fixation. However, high organic matter availability does not always result in enhanced N₂
437 fixation rates. Subtidal sediments in the Narragansett Bay were found to switch from being
438 a net sink via denitrification to being a net source of bioavailable N via N₂ fixation
439 (Fulweiler et al., 2007). This switch was caused by a decrease of organic matter deposition
440 to the sediments, which was in turn triggered by low primary productivity in the surface
441 waters.

442 Besides quantity also the quality of organic matter in sediments is a major factor
443 influencing microbial degradation processes (Westrich & Berner, 1984). In the Peruvian
444 OMZ sediments, the average C/N ratio increased with water depth indicating that the
445 shallow stations received a higher input of fresh, labile organic material compared to the
446 deeper stations. Similar trends were reported for a different depth transect off Peru (Levin
447 et al., 2002). The C/N ratios did not follow the pattern of integrated N₂ fixation (Fig. 5),
448 which is in line with the PCA of depth profiles, which showed a weak negative correlation
449 between N₂ fixation and the C/N ratio. These results indicate that the C/N ratio is not a
450 major factor controlling N₂ fixation in Peruvian OMZ sediments.

451 DIC fluxes, which were determined in benthic chamber lander incubations at the same
452 stations and during the same expedition as our study (Dale et al., 2015), can be used as an
453 indicator for organic matter degradation rates, e.g. by SR. The DIC flux did not follow the
454 pattern of the integrated N₂ fixation rates (Fig. 4) and thus does not indicate that N₂
455 fixation and SR are coupled. Instead, the benthic DIC flux roughly followed the pattern of

456 SR rates along the depth transect. The highest integrated SR rate and DIC flux were found
457 at St. 1 (70 m), whereas the lowest occurred at St. 10 (1025 m). Assuming that SR is largely
458 responsible for organic matter remineralization in the sediments below the OMZ (Bohlen et
459 al., 2011; Dale et al. 2015), the difference between integrated SR and DIC flux is expected
460 to be mainly caused by the loss of ³⁵S-sulfides during the long duration of unfrozen storage
461 of the SR samples (see methods).

462 **4.2.2 Ammonium**

463 Interestingly, the highest N₂ fixation was measured in sediments colonized by the sulfur-
464 oxidizing and nitrate-reducing filamentous bacteria *Marithioploca* spp. (Schulz, 1999;
465 Schulz & Jørgensen, 2001; Gutiérrez et al., 2008; Salman et al., 2011; Mosch et al., 2012).
466 *Marithioploca* facilitates dissimilatory NO₃⁻ reduction to NH₄⁺, which preserves fixed N in
467 the form of NH₄⁺ in the environment (Kartal et al., 2007). OMZ sediments off Peru are
468 generally rich in NH₄⁺ (Bohlen et al., 2011; Dale et al., 2016). This co-occurrence of
469 *Marithioploca* and N₂ fixation was puzzling since high concentrations of NH₄⁺ were
470 expected to inhibit N₂ fixation (Postgate, 1982; Capone, 1988; Knapp, 2012). It remains
471 questionable why microorganisms should fix N₂ in marine sediments, when reduced N
472 species are abundant. Some doubt remains as to the critical NH₄⁺ concentration that
473 inhibits N₂ fixation and whether the inhibitory effect is the same for all environments
474 (Knapp, 2012). For example, NH₄⁺ concentrations up to 1000 μM did not fully suppress
475 benthic N₂ fixation in a hypoxic basin in the Baltic Sea (Bertics et al., 2013), indicating that
476 additional environmental factors must control the distribution and performance of benthic
477 diazotrophs (Knapp, 2012). We observed high porewater NH₄⁺ concentrations at the
478 shallow St. 1 with 316 μM at the sediment surface (0 – 1 cm) increasing to 2022 μM at 20
479 cm (Fig. 2), while no inhibition of N₂ fixation was found. This observation is verified by the
480 PCA, which showed no correlation with ammonium for the N₂ fixation depth profiles.
481 Hence, ammonium did not seem to have a significant influence on benthic N₂ fixation rates
482 in the Peruvian OMZ.

483 One debated explanation for why diazotrophs still fix N under high NH₄⁺ concentrations is
484 that bacteria fix N₂ to remove excess electrons and to preserve their intracellular redox
485 state, particularly with a deficient Calvin–Benson–Bassham pathway, as shown for

486 photoheterotrophic nonsulfur purple bacteria (Tichi & Tabita, 2000). Another explanation
487 could be that microniches, depleted in NH_4^+ , exist between sediment grains, which we
488 were unable to track with the applied porewater extraction techniques (Bertics et al.,
489 2013).

490 **4.2.3 Sulfide**

491 Sulfide is a known inhibitor for many biological processes (Reis, et al., 1992; Joye &
492 Hollibaugh, 1995) and could potentially affect N_2 fixation (Tam et al., 1982). The shallow St.
493 1 was the only station with sulfide in the porewater, reaching 280 μM in surface sediments
494 and 1229 μM in 20 cm (Fig. 2). The presence of relatively high concentrations of sulfide at
495 St. 1 might explain why N_2 fixation was lower at this site when compared to St. 6, which
496 had the highest N_2 fixation rates. Statistically, depth profiles of N_2 fixation and sulfide
497 showed a negative correlation (Fig. 6b). Generally, interactions of sulfide with benthic N_2
498 fixation have so far not been investigated, and the PCA did not provide a complete pattern,
499 as sulfide was not widespread in the sediments along the transect and thus does not allow
500 robust interpretation.

501 **4.2.4 Oxygen**

502 Dissolved O_2 can have a considerable influence on N_2 fixation due to the O_2 sensitivity of
503 the key enzyme nitrogenase (Postgate, 1998; Dixon & Kahn, 2004). Bioturbating and
504 bioirrigating organisms can transport O_2 much deeper into sediments than molecular
505 diffusion (Orsi et al., 1996; Dale et al., 2011). In coastal waters, the bioturbation and
506 bioirrigation activity of ghost shrimps was found to reduce N_2 fixation when sediments
507 were highly colonized by these animals (Bertics et al., 2010). While bottom water O_2
508 concentrations in the Peruvian OMZ were below the detection limit at St. 1 to 8 (70 m to
509 407 m), thereby mainly excluding benthic macrofauna, O_2 concentrations increased to
510 above 40 μM at St. 10 (1025 m) where a diverse bioturbating and bioirrigating benthic
511 macrofauna community was observed (Mosch et al., 2012). Accordingly, St. 10 revealed
512 some of the lowest N_2 fixation activity. We speculate that the low organic matter content
513 at this St. was mainly responsible for the low N_2 fixation rates and not the high bottom
514 water O_2 concentrations, as the statistics showed a positive correlation between integrated
515 N_2 fixation and organic carbon content.

516 **4.3 Comparison of benthic N₂ fixation in different environments**

517 We compiled a list of N₂ fixation rates from different marine sedimentary environments to
518 gain an overview of the magnitude of N₂ fixation rates measured in the Peruvian OMZ
519 sediments (Tab. 2). We found that N₂ fixation rates from the Peruvian sediments exceed
520 those reported for open ocean sediments (2800 m) (Howarth et al., 1988), bioturbated
521 coastal lagoon sediment (Bertics et al., 2010) and sediments >200 m water depth from
522 various sites worldwide (Capone, 1988). The highest integrated N₂ fixation rate determined
523 in our study (0.4 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹, St. 6) closely resembles highest rates found in salt
524 marshes (0.38 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹) and *Zostera* estuarine sediments (0.39 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹)
525 (Capone, 1988). Further, our rates were characterized by a similar range of N₂ fixation rates
526 that were previously measured in an organic-rich hypoxic basin in the Baltic Sea (0.08 - 0.22
527 mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹, Bertics et al., 2013). In contrast to the above examples, our N₂ fixation
528 rates were 8.5 times lower compared to shallow (< 1 m) soft-bottom sediment off the
529 Swedish coast (Andersson et al., 2014) and 17 times lower than coral reef sediments
530 (Capone, 1988). However, in these environments, phototrophic cyanobacterial mats
531 contributed to benthic N₂ fixation. Given the dark incubation, N₂ fixation of the present
532 study seems to be attributed to heterotrophic diazotrophs, which is additionally confirmed
533 by the *nifH* gene analysis, where none of the sequences clustered with cyanobacteria (Fig.
534 7).

535 **5. Summary**

536 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study combining N₂ fixation and SR rate
537 measurements together with molecular analysis in OMZ sediments. We have shown that
538 N₂ fixation occurred throughout the sediment and that activity often overlapped with SR.
539 The PCA showed a weak positive correlation between activity depth profiles of N₂ fixation
540 and sulfate reduction. The molecular analysis of the *nifH* gene confirmed the presence of
541 heterotrophic diazotrophs at all sampling sites, but only a few of the sequences were
542 related to known sulfate reducers. Instead, many sequences clustered with uncultured
543 organisms. In combination, our results indicate that N₂ fixation and SR were coupled to
544 some extent, but additional coupling to other metabolic pathways is very likely. The major
545 environmental factor controlling benthic diazotrophs in the OMZ appears to be the organic
546 matter content. Sulfide was identified as a potential inhibitor for N₂ fixation. We further

547 found no inhibition of N₂ fixation by high NH₄⁺ concentration, highlighting gaps in our
548 understanding of the relationship between NH₄⁺ availability and the stimulation of N₂
549 fixation. N₂ fixation rates determined in the Peruvian OMZ sediments were in the same
550 range of other organic-rich benthic environments, underlining the relation between organic
551 matter, heterotrophic activity, and N₂ fixation.

552

553 **Author contribution**

554 J. G. and T. T. collected samples and designed experiments. J. G. performed nitrogen
555 fixation experiments and T. T. conducted sulfate reduction experiments. S. S. and A. W. D.
556 measured porosity, DIC, organic carbon content and C/N. J. G., T. T., C. R. L. and S. S.
557 analyzed the data. J. G. and C. R. L. performed molecular analysis and statistical analysis. J.
558 G. prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors and T. T. supervised the
559 work.

560 **Acknowledgments**

561 We would like to thank the captain and the crew of the RV Meteor cruise M92, as well as S.
562 Kriwanek, A. Petersen and S. Cherednichenko of the GEOMAR Technology and Logistics
563 Center, for all of their assistance in field sampling. We also thank B. Domeyer, A. Bleyer, U.
564 Lomnitz, R. Suhrberg, S. Trinkler and V. Thoenissen for geochemical analyses. Additional
565 thanks goes to the members of the Treude and Schmitz-Streit working groups, especially V.
566 Bertics for her methodological guidance, G. Schuessler, P. Wefers, N. Pinnow, and B. Mensch
567 for their laboratory assistance and to J. Maltby and S. Krause for scientific discussions. We
568 further thank the authorities of Peru for the permission to work in their territorial waters.
569 We thank the editor and three reviewers for their valuable comments. This study is a
570 contribution of the Sonderforschungsbereich 754 "Climate – Biogeochemistry Interactions
571 in the Tropical Ocean" (www.sfb754.de), which is supported by the German Research
572 Foundation.

573 **References**

- 574 Andersson, B., Sundbäck, K., Hellman, M., Hallin, S. & Alsterberg, C. (2014). Nitrogen
575 fixation in shallow-water sediments: Spatial distribution and controlling factors.
576 *Limnology and Oceanography*. 59 (6). p.pp. 1932–1944.
- 577 Bertics, V.J., Löscher, C.R., Salonen, I., Dale, A.W., Gier, J., Schmitz, R.A. & Treude, T. (2013).
578 Occurrence of benthic microbial nitrogen fixation coupled to sulfate reduction in the
579 seasonally hypoxic Eckernförde Bay, Baltic Sea. *Biogeosciences*. 10 (3). p.pp. 1243–
580 1258.
- 581 Bertics, V.J., Sohm, J., Treude, T., Chow, C., Capone, D., Fuhrman, J. & Ziebis, W. (2010).

- 582 Burrowing deeper into benthic nitrogen cycling: the impact of bioturbation on
583 nitrogen fixation coupled to sulfate reduction. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*. 409.
584 p.pp. 1–15.
- 585 Bertics, V.J. & Ziebis, W. (2010). Bioturbation and the role of microniches for sulfate
586 reduction in coastal marine sediments. *Environmental Microbiology*. 12. p.pp. 3022–
587 3034.
- 588 Bohlen, L., Dale, A.W., Sommer, S., Mosch, T., Hensen, C., Noffke, A., Scholz, F. &
589 Wallmann, K. (2011). Benthic nitrogen cycling traversing the Peruvian oxygen
590 minimum zone. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*. 75 (20). p.pp. 6094–6111.
- 591 Brandes, A., Devol, A.H. & Deutsch, C. (2007). New developments in the marine nitrogen
592 cycle. *Chemical reviews*. 107 (2). p.pp. 577–89.
- 593 Brandes, J.A. & Devol, A.H. (2002). A global marine-fixed nitrogen isotopic budget:
594 Implications for Holocene nitrogen cycling. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*. 16 (4). p.pp.
595 1–14.
- 596 Capone, D.G. (1983). Benthic nitrogen fixation. In: E. J. Carpenter & D. G. Capone (eds.).
597 *Nitrogen in the Marine Environment*. New York: John Wiley & Sons Ltd, pp. 85–123.
- 598 Capone, D.G. (1988). Benthic Nitrogen Fixation. In: T. H. Blackburn & J. Sorensen (eds.).
599 *Nitrogen cycling in coastal marine environments*. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, pp. 85–123.
- 600 Capone, D.G. (1993). Determination of nitrogenase activity in aquatic samples using the
601 acetylene reduction procedure. In: P. F. Kemp, B. F. Sherr, E. B. Sherr, & J. J. Coles
602 (eds.). *Handbook of methods in aquatic microbial ecology*. Boca Raton: CRC Press LLC,
603 pp. 621–631.
- 604 Capone, D.G., Bronk, A.A., Mulholland, M.R. & Carpenter, E.J. (2008). *Nitrogen in the*
605 *marine environment*. 2nd Ed. Elsevier.
- 606 Capone, D.G., Burns, J.A., Montoya, J.P., Subramaniam, A., Mahaffey, C., Gunderson, T.,
607 Michaels, A.F. & Carpenter, E.J. (2005). Nitrogen fixation by *Trichodesmium* spp.: An
608 important source of new nitrogen to the tropical and subtropical North Atlantic
609 Ocean. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*. 19. p.pp. 1–17.
- 610 Capone, D.G. & Knapp, A.N. (2007). A marine nitrogen cycle fix? *Nature*. 16 (445). p.pp.
611 159–160.
- 612 Chen, J.-S. (2005). Nitrogen Fixation in the Clostridia. In: W. Klipp, B. Masepohl, J. R. Gallon,
613 & W. E. Newton (eds.). *Genetics and Regulation of Nitrogen Fixation in Free-Living*
614 *Bacteria*. Nitrogen Fixation: Origins, Applications, and Research Progress. Dordrecht:
615 Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 53–64.
- 616 Codispoti, L.A. (2007). An oceanic fixed nitrogen sink exceeding 400 Tg N a⁻¹ vs the
617 concept of homeostasis in the fixed-nitrogen inventory. *Biogeosciences*. 4 (2). p.pp.
618 233–253.
- 619 Dale, A.W., Sommer, S., Bohlen, L., Treude, T., Bertics, V.J., Bange, H.W., Pfannkuche, O.,
620 Schorp, T., Mattsdotter, M. & Wallmann, K. (2011). Rates and regulation of nitrogen
621 cycling in seasonally hypoxic sediments during winter (Boknis Eck, SW Baltic Sea):
622 Sensitivity to environmental variables. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*. 95 (1).
623 p.pp. 14–28.
- 624 Dale, A.W., Sommer, S., Lomnitz, U., Bourbonnais, A. & Wallmann, K. (2016). Biological

- 625 nitrate transport in sediments on the Peruvian margin mitigates benthic sulfide
626 emissions and drives pelagic N loss during stagnation events. *Deep-Sea Research Part*
627 *I: Oceanographic Research Papers*. 112. p.pp. 123–136.
- 628 Dale, A.W., Sommer, S., Lomnitz, U., Montes, I., Treude, T., Liebetrau, V., Gier, J., Hensen,
629 C., Dengler, M., Stolpovsky, K., Bryant, L.D. & Wallmann, K. (2015). Organic carbon
630 production, mineralisation and preservation on the Peruvian margin. *Biogeosciences*.
631 12. p.pp. 1537–1559.
- 632 Dekaezemacker, J. & Bonnet, S. (2011). Sensitivity of N₂ fixation to combined nitrogen
633 forms (NO₃ – and NH₄⁺) in two strains of the marine diazotroph *Crocospaera*
634 *watsonii* (Cyanobacteria). *Marine Ecology Progress Series*. 438. p.pp. 33–46.
- 635 Dekaezemacker, J., Bonnet, S., Grosso, O., Moutin, T., Bressac, M. & Capone, D.G. (2013).
636 Evidence of active dinitrogen fixation in surface waters of the eastern tropical South
637 Pacific during El Niño and La Niña events and evaluation of its potential nutrient
638 controls. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*. 27 (3). p.pp. 768–779.
- 639 Deutsch, C., Berelson, W., Thunell, R., Weber, T., Tems, C., McManus, J., Crusius, J., Ito, T.,
640 Baumgartner, T., Ferreira, V., Mey, J. & van Geen, A. (2014). Centennial changes in
641 North Pacific anoxia linked to tropical trade winds. *Science*. 345 (6197). p.pp. 665–8.
- 642 Dilworth, M.J. (1966). Acetylene reduction by nitrogen-fixing preparations from *Clostridium*
643 *pasteurianum*. *Biochimica et biophysica acta*. 127. p.pp. 285–294.
- 644 Dixon, R. & Kahn, D. (2004). Genetic regulation of biological nitrogen fixation. *Nature*
645 *reviews. Microbiology*. 2 (8). p.pp. 621–631.
- 646 Donohue, M.J.O., Moriarty, D.J.W. & Rae, I.C. Mac (1991). Nitrogen Fixation in Sediments
647 and the Rhizosphere of the Seagrass *Zostera capricorni*. *Microbiology Ecology*. 22.
648 p.pp. 53–64.
- 649 Duteil, O., Böning, C.W. & Oschlies, A. (2014). Variability in subtropical-tropical cells drives
650 oxygen levels in the tropical Pacific Ocean. *Geophysical Research Letters*. 41. p.pp. 1–
651 9.
- 652 Falkowski, P.G., Barber, R.T. & Smetacek, V. (1998). Biogeochemical Controls and
653 Feedbacks on Ocean Primary Production. *Science*. 281 (5374). p.pp. 200–7.
- 654 Farnelid, H., Andersson, A.F., Bertilsson, S., Al-Soud, W.A., Hansen, L.H., Sørensen, S.,
655 Steward, G.F., Hagström, Å. & Riemann, L. (2011). Nitrogenase gene amplicons from
656 global marine surface waters are dominated by genes of non-cyanobacteria. *PloS one*.
657 6 (4). p.pp. 1–9.
- 658 Fernandez, C., González, M.L., Muñoz, C., Molina, V. & Farias, L. (2015). Temporal and
659 spatial variability of biological nitrogen fixation off the upwelling system of central
660 Chile (35–38.5°S). *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*. 120 (5). p.pp. 3330–3349.
- 661 Fossing, H., Gallardo, V.A., Jørgensen, B.B., Hüttl, M., Nielsen, L.P., Schulz, H., Canfield,
662 D.E., Forster, S., Glud, R.N., Gundersen, J.K., Küver, J., Ramsing, N.B., Teske, A.,
663 Thamdrup, B. & Ulloa, O. (1995). Concentration and transport of nitrate by the mat-
664 forming sulphur bacterium *Thioploca*. *Nature*. 374. p.pp. 713–715.
- 665 Fuenzalida, R., Schneider, W., Garces-Vargas, J., Bravo, L. & Lange, C. (2009). Vertical and
666 horizontal extension of the oxygen minimum zone in the eastern South Pacific Ocean.
667 *Deep-Sea Research Part II*. 56 (16). p.pp. 992–1008.

- 668 Fukui, M., Teske, A., Assmus, B., Muyzer, G. & Widdel, F. (1999). Physiology, phylogenetic
669 relationships, and ecology of filamentous sulfate-reducing bacteria (genus
670 *desulfonema*). *Archives of microbiology*. 172 (4). p.pp. 193–203.
- 671 Fulweiler, R., Brown, S., Nixon, S. & Jenkins, B. (2013). Evidence and a conceptual model for
672 the co-occurrence of nitrogen fixation and denitrification in heterotrophic marine
673 sediments. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*. 482. p.pp. 57–68.
- 674 Fulweiler, R.W., Heiss, E.M., Rogener, M.K., Newell, S.E., LeCleur, G.R., Kortebein, S.M. &
675 Wilhelm, S.W. (2015). Examining the impact of acetylene on N-fixation and the active
676 sediment microbial community. *Frontiers in Microbiology*. 6 (418). p.pp. 1–9.
- 677 Fulweiler, R.W., Nixon, S.W., Buckley, B. a & Granger, S.L. (2007). Reversal of the net
678 dinitrogen gas flux in coastal marine sediments. *Nature*. 448 (7150). p.pp. 180–2.
- 679 Glock, N., Schönfeld, J., Eisenhauer, A., Hensen, C., Mallon, J. & Sommer, S. (2013). The role
680 of benthic foraminifera in the benthic nitrogen cycle of the Peruvian oxygen minimum
681 zone. *Biogeosciences*. 10. p.pp. 4767–4783.
- 682 Grasshoff, K., Kremling, K. & Ehrhardt, M. (1999). *Methods of Seawater Analysis*. 3rd Ed.
683 Weinheim: Wiley–VCH.
- 684 Großkopf, T., Mohr, W., Baustian, T., Schunck, H., Gill, D., Kuypers, M.M.M., Lavik, G.,
685 Schmitz, R. a., Wallace, D.W.R. & LaRoche, J. (2012). Doubling of marine dinitrogen-
686 fixation rates based on direct measurements. *Nature*. p.pp. 1–4.
- 687 Gruber, N. (2004). The dynamics of the marine nitrogen cycle and its influence on
688 atmospheric CO₂ variations. In: T. Oguz & M. Follows (eds.). *Carbon Climate*
689 *interactions*. pp. 97–148.
- 690 Gruber, N. (2008). The Marine Nitrogen Cycle : Overview and Challenges. In: D. G. Capone,
691 D. A. Bronk, M. R. Mulholland, & E. J. Carpenter (eds.). *Nitrogen in the Marine*
692 *Environment*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, pp. 1–50.
- 693 Guerinot, M.L., West, P.A., Lee, J. V. & Colwell, R.R. (1982). *Vibrio diazotrophicus* sp. nov., a
694 Marine Nitrogen-Fixing Bacterium. *International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology*. 32
695 (3). p.pp. 350–357.
- 696 Gutiérrez, D., Enríquez, E., Purca, S., Quipúzcoa, L., Marquina, R., Flores, G. & Graco, M.
697 (2008). Oxygenation episodes on the continental shelf of central Peru: Remote forcing
698 and benthic ecosystem response. *Progress in Oceanography*. 79 (2-4). p.pp. 177–189.
- 699 Hartwig, E.O. & Stanley, S.O. (1978). Nitrogen fixation in Atlantic deep-sea and coastal
700 sediments. *Deep Sea Research*. 25 (4). p.pp. 411–417.
- 701 Howarth, R.W., Marino, R., Lane, J. & Cole, J.J. (1988). Nitrogen fixation in freshwater,
702 estuarine, and marine ecosystems. 1. Rates and importance. *Limnology and*
703 *Oceanography*. 33. p.pp. 669–687.
- 704 Jørgensen, B.B. (1978). A comparison of methods for the quantification of bacterial sulfate
705 reduction in coastal marine sediments. *Geomicrobiology Journal*. 1. p.pp. 11–27.
- 706 Jørgensen, B.B. (1983). *SCOPE 21 -The Major Biogeochemical Cycles and Their Interactions.*
707 *Processes at the Sediment-Water Interface*. In: 1983.
- 708 Jørgensen, B.B. & Gallardo, V.A. (1999). *Thioploca* spp. : filamentous sulfur bacteria with
709 nitrate vacuoles. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*. 28. p.pp. 301–313.
- 710 Joye, S.B. & Hollibaugh, J.T. (1995). Influence of sulfide inhibition of nitrification on

- 711 nitrogen regeneration in sediments. *Sciences*. 270. p.pp. 623–625.
- 712 Kallmeyer, J., Ferdelman, T.G., Weber, A., Fossing, H. & Jørgensen, B.B. (2004). Evaluation
713 of a cold chromium distillation procedure for recovering very small amounts of
714 radiolabeled sulfide related to sulfate reduction measurements. *Limnology and*
715 *Oceanography: Methods*. 2. p.pp. 171–180.
- 716 Kamykowski, D. & Zentara, S.-J. (1990). Hypoxia in the world ocean as recorded in the
717 historical data set. *Deep Sea Research Part A. Oceanographic Research Papers*. 37 (12).
718 p.pp. 1861–1874.
- 719 Kartal, B., Kuypers, M.M.M., Lavik, G., Schalk, J., Op den Camp, H.J.M., Jetten, M.S.M. &
720 Strous, M. (2007). Anammox bacteria disguised as denitrifiers: nitrate reduction to
721 dinitrogen gas via nitrite and ammonium. *Environmental microbiology*. 9 (3). p.pp.
722 635–42.
- 723 Kessler, W.S. (2006). The circulation of the eastern tropical Pacific: A review. *Progress in*
724 *Oceanography*. 69. p.pp. 181–217.
- 725 Knapp, A.N. (2012). The sensitivity of marine N₂ fixation to dissolved inorganic nitrogen.
726 *Frontiers in microbiology*. 3. p.pp. 1–14.
- 727 Letunic, I. & Bork, P. (2007). Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL): An online tool for phylogenetic
728 tree display and annotation. *Bioinformatics*. 23. p.pp. 127–128.
- 729 Letunic, I. & Bork, P. (2011). Interactive Tree of Life v2: Online annotation and display of
730 phylogenetic trees made easy. *Nucleic Acids Research*. 39. p.pp. 1–4.
- 731 Levin, L., Gutierrez, D., Rathburn, A., Neira, C., Sellanes, J., Munoz, P., Gallardo, V. &
732 Salamanca, M. (2002). Benthic processes on the Peru margin: a transect across the
733 oxygen minimum zone during the 1997–98 El Niño. *Progress In Oceanography*. 53.
734 p.pp. 1–27.
- 735 Löscher, C.R., Großkopf, T., Desai, F.D., Gill, D., Schunck, H., Croot, P.L., Schlosser, C.,
736 Neulinger, S.C., Pinnow, N., Lavik, G., Kuypers, M.M.M., Laroche, J. & Schmitz, R.A.
737 (2014). Facets of diazotrophy in the oxygen minimum zone waters off Peru. *The ISME*
738 *journal*. p.pp. 1–13.
- 739 Mosch, T., Sommer, S., Dengler, M., Noffke, A., Bohlen, L., Pfannkuche, O., Liebetrau, V. &
740 Wallmann, K. (2012). Factors influencing the distribution of epibenthic megafauna
741 across the Peruvian oxygen minimum zone. *Deep Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic*
742 *Research Papers*. 68. p.pp. 123–135.
- 743 Mussmann, M., Ishii, K., Rabus, R. & Amann, R. (2005). Diversity and vertical distribution of
744 cultured and uncultured Deltaproteobacteria in an intertidal mud flat of the Wadden
745 Sea. *Environmental microbiology*. [Online]. 7 (3). p.pp. 405–18. Available from:
746 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15683401>. [Accessed: 5 March 2013].
- 747 Muyzer, G. & Stams, A.J.M. (2008). The ecology and biotechnology of sulphate-reducing
748 bacteria. *Nature reviews. Microbiology*. 6. p.pp. 441–54.
- 749 Nevin, K.P., Holmes, D.E., Woodard, T.L., Hinlein, E.S., W, O.D. & R, L.D. (2005). *Geobacter*
750 *bemidjiensis* sp. nov. and *Geobacter psychrophilus* sp. nov., two novel Fe(III)-reducing
751 subsurface isolates. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology*.
752 55. p.pp. 1667–1674.
- 753 Nielsen, L.B., Finster, K., Welsh, D.T., Donnelly, A., Herbert, R.A., de Wit, R. & Lomstein, B.A.

- 754 (2001). Sulphate reduction and nitrogen fixation rates associated with roots, rhizomes
755 and sediments from *Zostera noltii* and *Spartina maritima* meadows. *Environmental*
756 *microbiology*. 3 (1). p.pp. 63–71.
- 757 Oksanen, J., Blanchet, F., Kindt, R., Legendre, P., Minchin, P. & O’Hara, R. (2013). *vegan:*
758 *Community ecology package. R package version 2.0-10*. 2013.
- 759 Orcutt, K.M., Lipschultz, F., Gundersen, K., Arimoto, R., Michaels, A.F., Knap, A.H. & Gallon,
760 J.R. (2001). A seasonal study of the significance of N₂ fixation by *Trichodesmium* spp.
761 at the Bermuda Atlantic Time-series Study (BATS) site. *Deep Sea Research Part II:*
762 *Topical Studies in Oceanography*. 48 (8-9). p.pp. 1583–1608.
- 763 Orsi, T.H., Werner, F., Milkert, D., Anderson, A.L. & Bryant, W.R. (1996). Environmental
764 overview of Eckernförde Bay , northern Germany. *Geo-Marine Letters*. 16. p.pp. 140–
765 147.
- 766 Patriquin, D. & Knowles, R. (1972). Nitrogen fixation in the rhizosphere of marine
767 angiosperms. *Marine Biology*. 16 (1). p.pp. 49–58.
- 768 Pennington, J.T., Mahoney, K.L., Kuwahara, V.S., Kolber, D.D., Calienes, R. & Chavez, F.P.
769 (2006). Primary production in the eastern tropical Pacific: A review. *Progress in*
770 *Oceanography*. 69. p.pp. 285–317.
- 771 Postgate, J.R. (1998). *Nitrogen fixation*. 3rd Ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 772 Postgate, J.R. (1982). *The Fundamentals of Nitrogen Fixation*. Cambridge University Press.
- 773 Reis, M.A., Almeida, J.S., Lemos, P.C. & Carrondo, M.J. (1992). Effect of hydrogen sulfide on
774 growth of sulfate reducing bacteria. *Biotechnology and bioengineering*. 40 (5). p.pp.
775 593–600.
- 776 Riederer-Henderson, M.-A. & Wilson, P.W. (1970). Nitrogen Fixation by Sulphate-reducing
777 Bacteria. *Journal of General Microbiology*. 61. p.pp. 27–31.
- 778 Riemann, L., Farnelid, H. & Steward, G.F. (2010). Nitrogenase genes in non-cyanobacterial
779 plankton: Prevalence, diversity and regulation in marine waters. *Aquatic Microbial*
780 *Ecology*. 61 (3). p.pp. 235–247.
- 781 Røy, H., Weber, H.S., Tarpgaard, I.H., Ferdelman, T.G. & Jørgensen, B.B. (2014).
782 Determination of dissimilatory sulfate reduction rates in marine sediment via
783 radioactive ³⁵S tracer. *Limnology and Oceanography: Methods*. 12. p.pp. 196–211.
- 784 Schulz, H.N. (1999). Dense Populations of a Giant Sulfur Bacterium in Namibian Shelf
785 Sediments. *Science*. 284 (5413). p.pp. 493–495.
- 786 Schulz, H.N. & Jørgensen, B.B. (2001). Big bacteria. *Annual review of microbiology*. 55. p.pp.
787 105–137.
- 788 Seitzinger, S.P. & Garber, J.H. (1987). Nitrogen fixation and ¹⁵N₂ calibration of the
789 acetylene reduction assay in coastal marine sediments. *Marine Ecology Progress*
790 *Series*. 37. p.pp. 65–73.
- 791 Sisler, F.D. & ZoBell, C.E. (1951). Nitrogen Fixation by Sulfate-reducing Bacteria Indicated by
792 Nitrogen/Argon Ratios. *Science*. 113. p.pp. 511–512.
- 793 Sohm, J.A., Webb, E.A. & Capone, D.G. (2011). Emerging patterns of marine nitrogen
794 fixation. *Nature reviews. Microbiology*. 9 (7). p.pp. 499–508.
- 795 Stegge, T. & Paerl, H. (2002). Potential N₂ fixation by sulfate-reducing bacteria in a marine

796 intertidal microbial mat. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology*. [Online]. 28. p.pp. 1–12. Available
797 from: <http://www.int-res.com/abstracts/ame/v28/n1/p1-12/>.

798 Stewart, W.D.P., Fitzgerald, G.P. & Burris, R.H. (1967). In situ studies on N₂ fixation using
799 the acetylene reduction technique. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
800 *of the United States of America*. 58. p.pp. 2071–2078.

801 Stramma, L., Johnson, G.C., Sprintall, J. & Mohrholz, V. (2008). Expanding oxygen-minimum
802 zones in the tropical oceans. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*. 320 (5876). p.pp. 655–8.

803 Strous, M., Kuenen, J.G. & Jetten, M.S. (1999). Key physiology of anaerobic ammonium
804 oxidation. *Applied and environmental microbiology*. 65 (7). p.pp. 3248–50.

805 Tam, T.-Y., Mayfield, C.I., Inniss, W.E. & Knowles, R. (1982). Effect of Sulfide on Nitrogen
806 Fixation in a Stream Sediment- Water System. *Appl. Environm. Microbiol.* 43 (5). p.pp.
807 1076–1079.

808 Tamura, K., Dudley, J., Nei, M. & Kumar, S. (2007). MEGA4: Molecular Evolutionary
809 Genetics Analysis (MEGA) software version 4.0. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*. 24.
810 p.pp. 1596–1599.

811 Tichi, M.A. & Tabita, F.R. (2000). Maintenance and control of redox poise in *Rhodobacter*
812 *capsulatus* strains deficient in the Calvin-Benson-Bassham pathway. *Archives of*
813 *microbiology*. 174 (5). p.pp. 322–33.

814 Turk, K.A., Rees, A.P., Zehr, J.P., Pereira, N., Swift, P., Shelley, R., Lohan, M., Woodward,
815 E.M.S. & Gilbert, J. (2011). Nitrogen fixation and nitrogenase (nifH) expression in
816 tropical waters of the eastern North Atlantic. *The ISME journal*. 5 (7). p.pp. 1201–
817 1212.

818 Ward, B.B. & Bronk, D.A. (2001). Net nitrogen uptake and DON release in surface waters:
819 importance of trophic interactions implied from size fractionation experiments.
820 *Marine Ecology Progress Series*. 219. p.pp. 11–24.

821 Welsh, D.T., Bourgues, S., de Wit, R. & Herbert, R.A. (1996). Seasonal variations in nitrogen-
822 fixation (acetylene reduction) and sulphate-reduction rates in the rhizosphere of
823 *Zostera noltii*: nitrogen fixation by sulphate-reducing bacteria. *Marine Biology*. 125.
824 p.pp. 619–628.

825 Westrich, J.T. & Berner, R.A. (1984). The role of sedimentary organic matter in bacterial
826 sulfate reduction : The G model tested '. *Limnol. Oceanography*. 29 (2). p.pp. 236–249.

827 Zehr, J.P., Mellon, M., Braun, S., Litaker, W., Steppe, T. & Paerl, H.W. (1995). Diversity of
828 heterotrophic nitrogen fixation genes in a marine cyanobacterial mat. *Applied and*
829 *environmental microbiology*. 61 (7). p.pp. 2527–32.

830 Zehr, J.P., Mellon, M.T. & Zani, S. (1998). New Nitrogen-Fixing Microorganisms Detected in
831 Oligotrophic Oceans by Amplification of Nitrogenase (nifH) Genes. *Appl. Environ.*
832 *Microbiol.* 64 (9). p.pp. 3444–3450.

833 Zehr, J.P. & Turner, P.J. (2001). Nitrogen Fixation : Nitrogenase Genes and Gene Expression.
834 In: J. H. Paul (ed.). *METHODS IN MICROBIOLOGY, Volume 30*. San Diego, CA: Academic
835 Press, pp. 271–286.

836

837

838 **Figure captions**

839 Fig. 1: Cross-section of dissolved O₂ concentrations (μM) along the continental margin of
840 the Peruvian OMZ at 12°S. The vertical lines represent CTD cast for O₂ measurement during
841 the cruise M92. Stations 1 to 10 for multicorer (MUC) sampling are indicated by station
842 numbers according to Dale et al. (2015).

843

844 Fig. 2: Biogeochemical porewater profiles in MUC cores from sampling stations along the
845 12°S depth transect. Graphs show NH₄⁺ (μM), SO₄²⁻ (mM), sulfide (μM), organic carbon
846 content (C_{org}, wt%) and the C/N ratio (molar). Water depths and bottom water O₂
847 concentrations (BW O₂, μM) are detailed on the right.

848

849 Fig. 3: Sediment profiles of N₂ fixation (nmol N₂ cm⁻³ d⁻¹, average of three replicates) and
850 sulfate reduction rates (SR, nmol SO₄²⁻ cm⁻³ d⁻¹, two replicates (R1 and R2)) from 0 - 20 cm
851 at the six stations. The upper x-axis represents the N₂ fixation, while the lower x-axis
852 represents the SR. Error bars indicate standard deviation of N₂ fixation.

853

854 Fig. 4: Integrated nitrogen fixation (mmol N m⁻² d⁻¹, grey bars, average of three replicates)
855 and integrated sulfate reduction (mmol SO₄²⁻ m⁻² d⁻¹, green bars, two replicates) from 0 - 20
856 cm, including dissolved inorganic carbon flux (DIC, mmol m⁻² d⁻¹, red curve from Dale et al.,
857 (2015)) and bottom water O₂ (μM, blue curve) along the depth transect (m). Error bars
858 indicate standard deviation of N₂ fixation.

859

860 Fig. 5: Integrated nitrogen fixation (mmol N₂ m⁻² d⁻¹, grey bars, average of three replicates),
861 average organic carbon content (C_{org}, wt%, orange curve) and the average C/N molar ratio
862 (yellow curve) from 0-20 cm along the depth transect (m). Error bars indicate standard
863 deviation.

864

865 Fig. 6: Principle component analysis (PCA) from two different angles of Hellinger
866 transformed data of N₂ fixation and environmental parameters along vertical profiles.
867 Correlation biplots (a) of principle components 1 and 2 and of (b) principle components 2
868 and 3 in a multidimensional space are shown. Samples are displayed as dots while variables
869 are displayed as lines. Parameters pointing into the same direction are positively related;
870 parameters pointing in the opposite direction are negatively related.

871

872 Fig. 7: Phylogenetic tree of *nifH* genes based on the analysis of 120 sequences (~ 20
873 sequences per sample) from the six sampling stations between 70 and 1025 m water depth.
874 Novel detected clusters consisting of several sequences from the same sampling depth are
875 indicated by grey triangles. Reference sequences consist of the alternative nitrogenase
876 *anfD*, *anfG*, *anfK*. Cluster III sequences as defined by Zehr and Turner (2001) are highlighted
877 in blue, Cluster I cyanobacterial sequences are highlighted in green and Cluster I
878 proteobacterial sequences are highlighted in orange. The scale bar indicates the 10%
879 sequences divergence. Sequences marked with an asterisk represent potential PCR
880 contaminated products, with novel clusters distant from those clusters. Sequences
881 determined in this study are termed OMZ plus the corresponding water depth.

882

883

884 **Tables**

885 Tab. 1: Sampling deployments, including station number according to Dale et al. (2015),
 886 core ID, sampling date and coordinates. Water depth (m) recorded by the ship's winch and
 887 bottom water temperature (°C) and bottom water O₂ concentration (μM; bdl=below
 888 detection limit: 5 μM) measured on the CTD.

Station	Core ID	Date (2013)	Latitude (S)	Longitude (W)	Depth (m)	Temp. (°C)	O ₂ (μM)
1	MUC 13	January 11	12°13.492'	77°10.511'	70	14	bdl
4	MUC 11	January 09	12°18.704'	77°17.790'	144	13.4	bdl
6	MUC 6	January 07	12°23.322'	77°24.181'	253	12	bdl
8	MUC 23	January 15	12°27.198'	77°29.497'	407	10.6	bdl
9	MUC 17	January 13	12°31.374'	77°35.183'	770	5.5	19
10	MUC 28	January 19	12°35.377'	77°40.975'	1025	4.4	53

889

890

891

892

893

894

895

896 Tab. 2: Integrated rates of benthic nitrogen fixation ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) in the Peruvian OMZ
 897 sediments from this study compared to other marine benthic environments. Only the
 898 highest and lowest integrated rates are shown, as well as the integrated sediment depth
 899 (cm) and the method used (ARA=acetylene reduction assay, MIMS=membrane inlet mass
 900 spectrometry).

Benthic Environment	N_2 fixation ($\text{mmol N}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$)	Depth of integration (cm)	Method	Reference
PERU OMZ	0.01 – 0.4	0 – 20	ARA	This study
COASTAL REGION				
Baltic Sea, hypoxic basin	0.08 – 0.22	0 – 18	ARA	Bertics et al., 2013
Bioturbated coastal lagoon	0.8 – 8.5	0 – 10	ARA	Bertics et al., 2010
Brackish-water	0.03 – 3.4	0 – 1	ARA	Andersson et al., 2014
Coral reef	6.09 (\pm 5.62)	-	-	Capone 1983
Eelgrass meadow	0.15 – 0.39	0 – 5	ARA	Cole and McGlathery, 2012
Eutrophic estuary	0 – 18	0 – 20	MIMS	Rao and Charette, 2012
Mangrove	0 – 1.21	0 – 1	ARA	Lee and Joye, 2006
Salt marsh	0.38 (\pm 0.41)	-	-	Capone 1983
Subtidal	0.6 – 15.6	0 – 30	MIMS	Fulweiler et al., 2007
Zostera estuary	0.39	-	-	Capone 1983
OPEN OCEAN				
Atlantic ocean (2800 m)	0.00008	-	ARA	Howarth et al., 1988
< 200 m, various sites	0.02 (\pm 0.01)	-	-	Capone 1983
Mauritania OMZ	0.05 – 0.24	0 – 20	ARA	Bertics and Treude, unpubl.

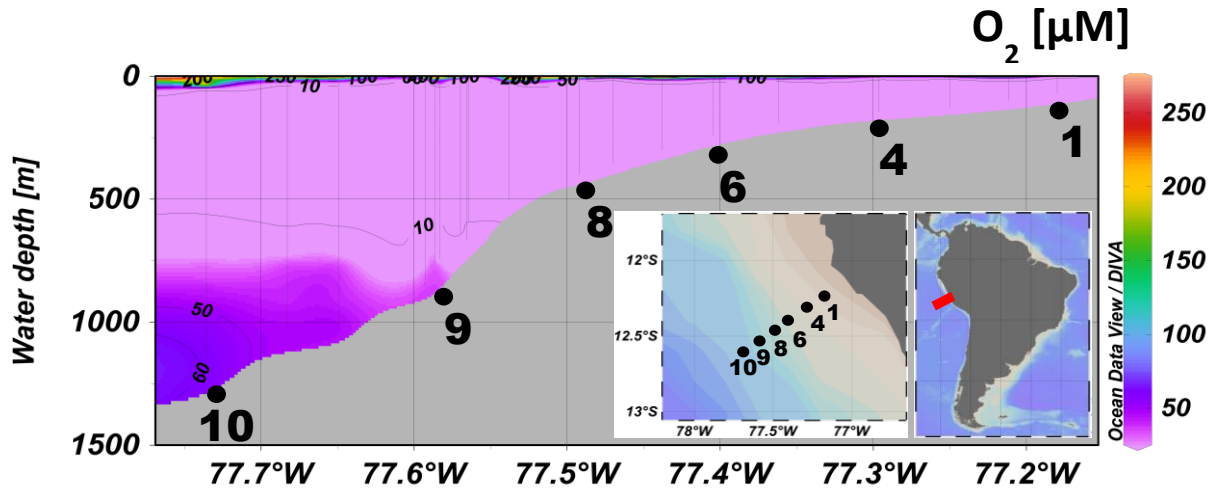
901
 902
 903
 904
 905
 906
 907
 908
 909
 910
 911

912 **Figures**

913

914 **Fig. 1**

915



916

917

918

919

920

921

922

923

924

925

926

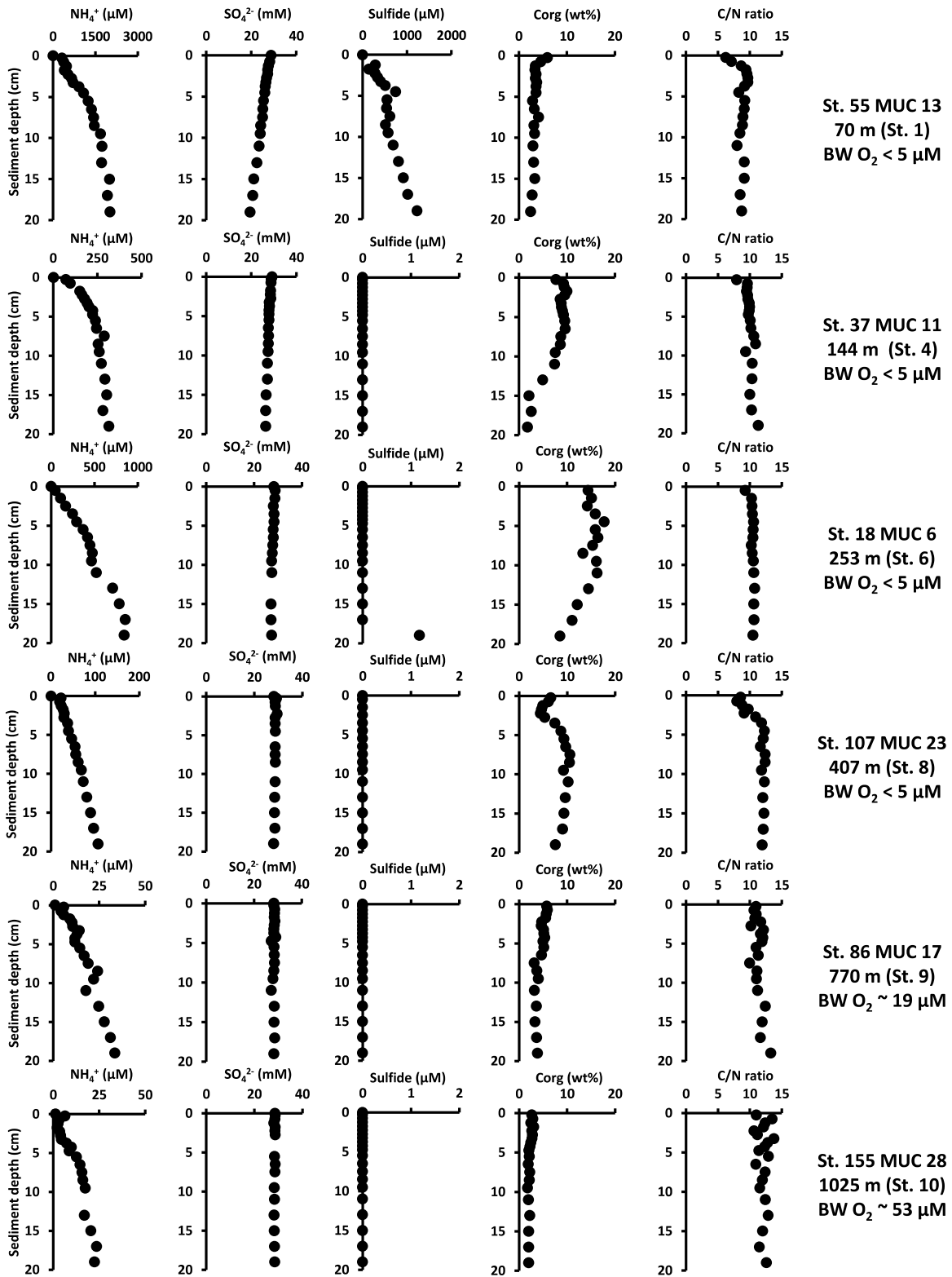
927

928

929

930

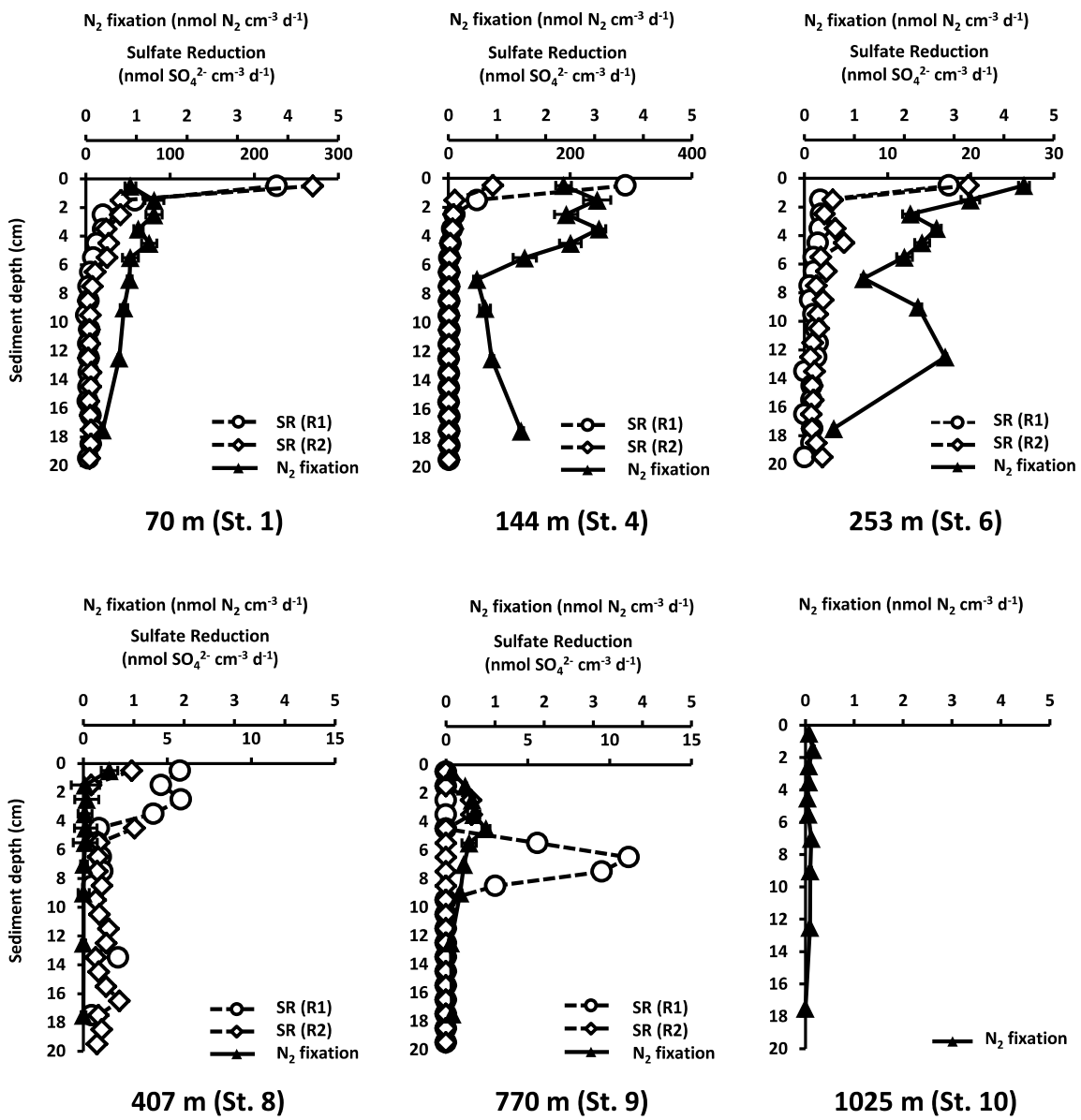
931



933

934

935



937

938

939

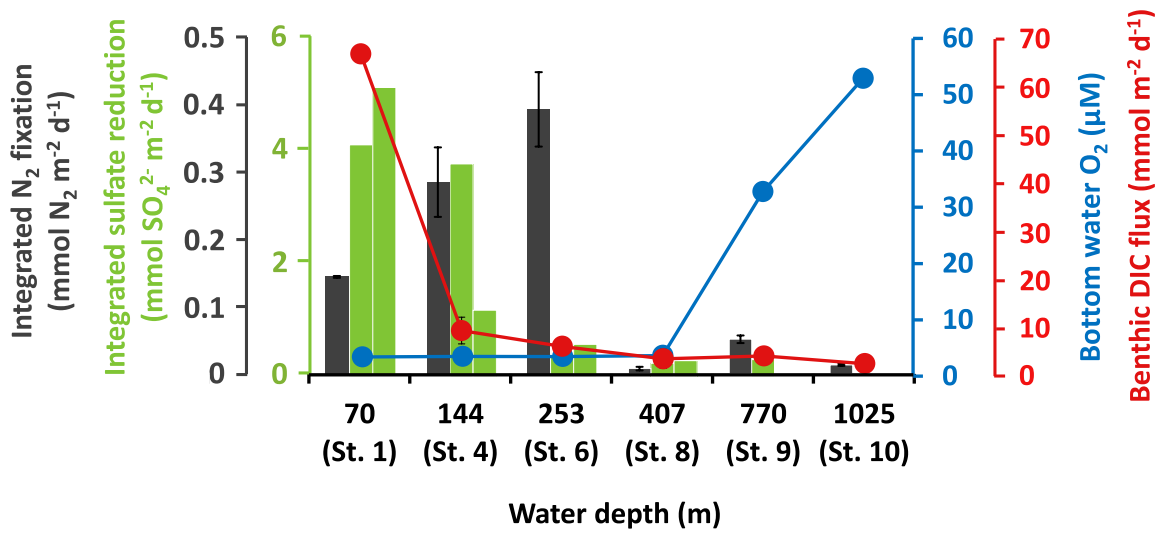
940

941

942

943

944 Fig. 4



945

946

947

948

949

950

951

952

953

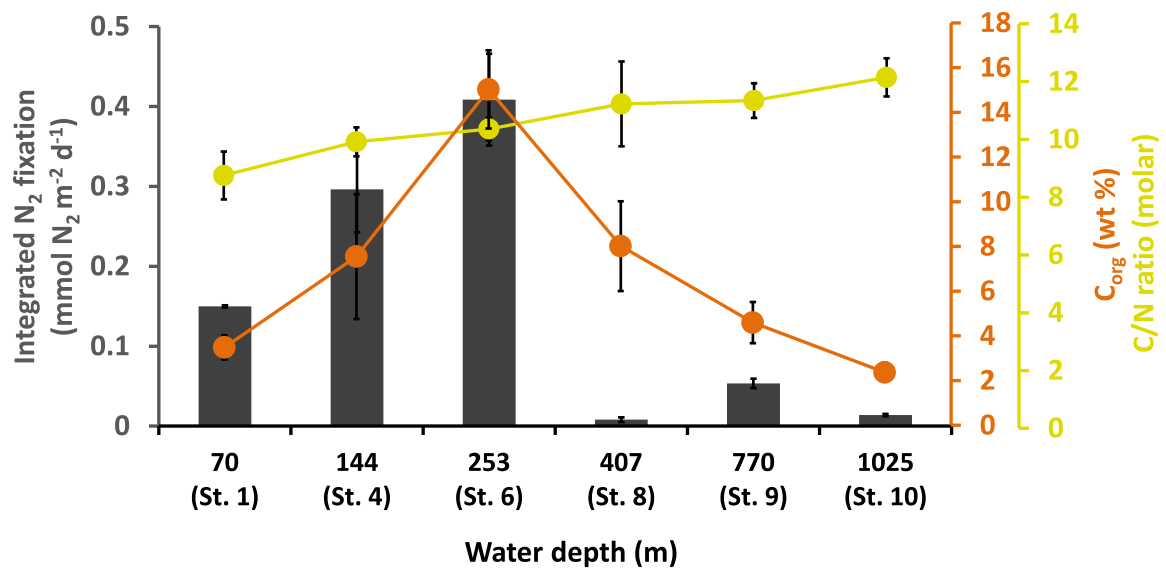
954

955

956

957 Fig. 5

958



959

960

961

962

963

964

965

966

967

968

969

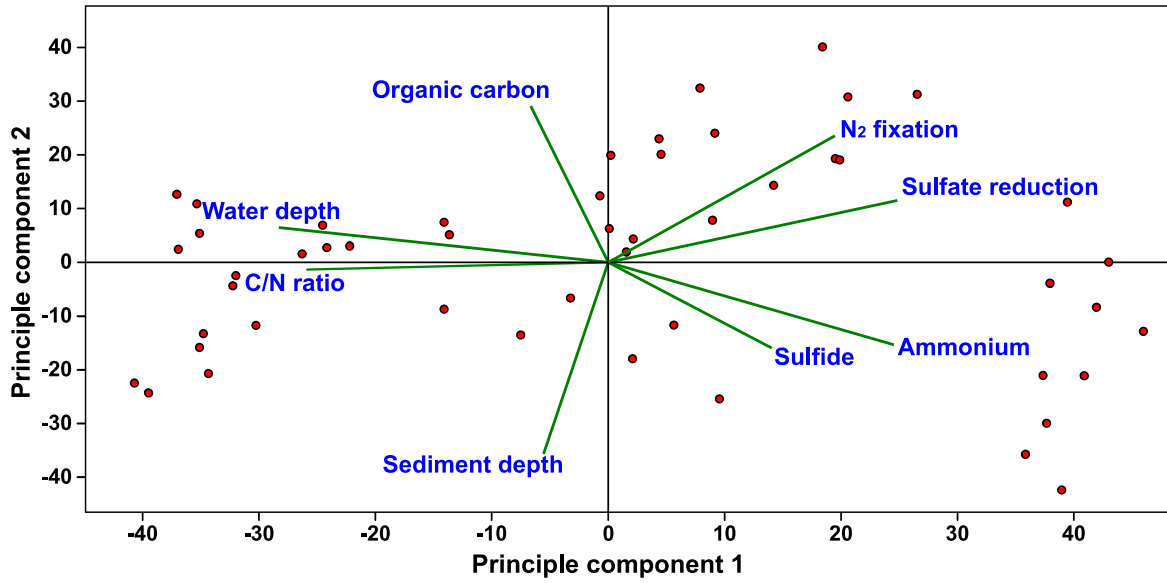
970

971

972 Fig. 6

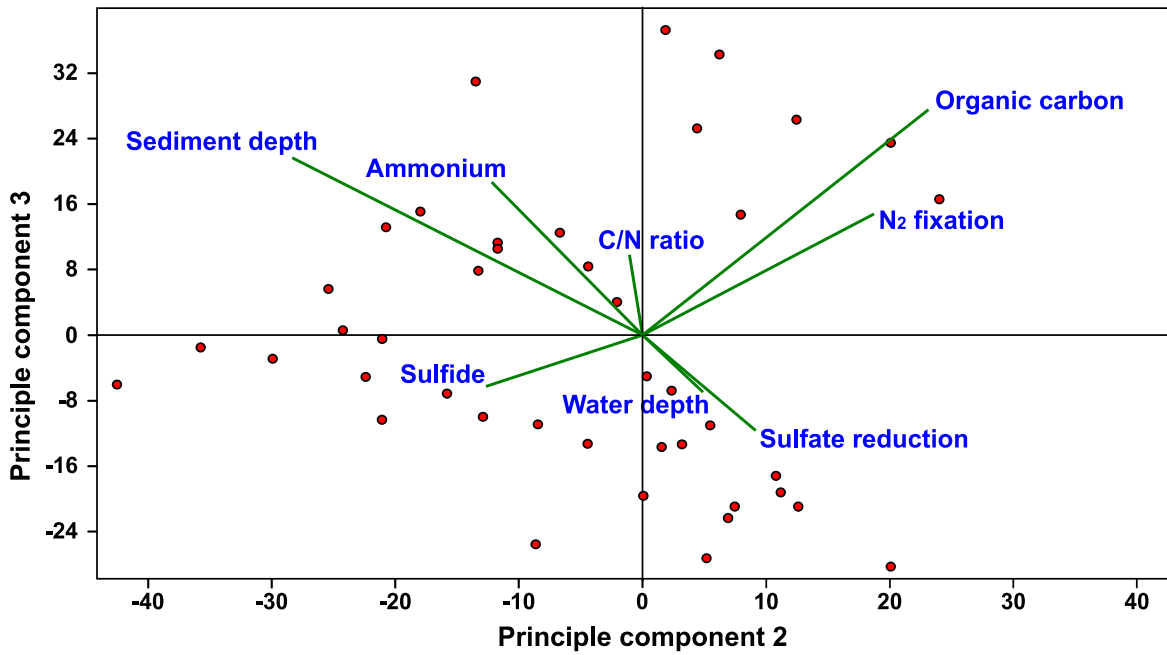
973

974 **a**

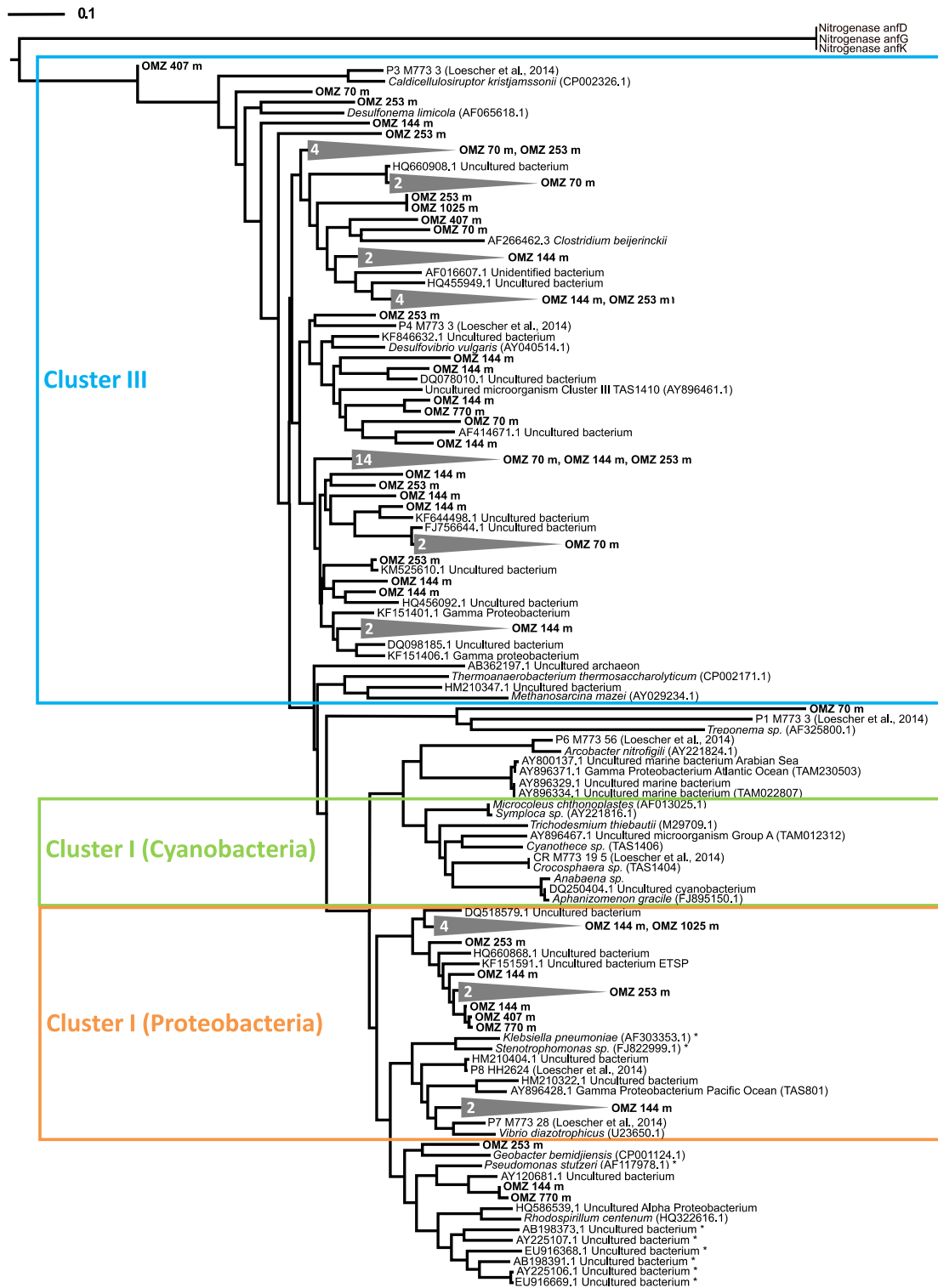


975
976

977 **b**



978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986



988
989
990
991