Author's response to the comments of Peter Kraal and Tom Jilbert on the manuscript:

First of all, we would like to thank both reviewers for the time they put into evaluating this manuscript and their constructive and valuable comments. Both reviewers underlined their interest in the combined approach of water column and sediment sampling for a benthic P budget in the Peruvian OMZ. We try to clarify all issues raised by the reviewers below.

In response to the comments of Peter Kraal, received and published 16 Nov 2015:

- 1 It would be nice if the pore water PO4 profiles are referred to before the freeze-thaw experiments as background to the resulting calculated PO₄ fluxes.
 - *Author's response:* The benthic chamber TPO₄ fluxes from in situ measurements and the diffusive TPO₄ fluxes calculated from the PO₄³⁻ pore water profiles are addressed in section 4.2.1. before the freeze-thaw experiments in section 5.2.2. We will provide a clearer link to the pore water profiles shown in Fig. 7 in section 4.2.1 in a new version of the manuscript.
- 2 P56, L21. A few more words could be spent to clarify the statements regarding phosphorite formation.
 - *Author's response:* We will briefly extent the information on the indications for recent phosphorite formation found in the study area in the abstract. Anyhow, phosphorite formation is addressed in more detail in chapter 5.2.3.
- 3 P57, L21-22. Perhaps some nuance is needed here. Under certain conditions (such as nutrient-rich upwelling regions off Peru and Namibia), extensive (microbially-mediated) CFA authigenesis has been found. And during burial below the oxygen penetration depth, reductive release of P from metal (oxyhydr)oxides triggers apatite formation, often in disperse form at low concentrations (sensu Ruttenberg, Slomp). These are two very different, anoxic mechanisms, where the latter may be more representative for non-upwelling oceanic settings.
 - *Author's response:* This is a very good aspect. We will address specifics on CFA authigenesis in the new manuscript as suggested by the reviewer.
- 4 P68, L7. "except slightly increasing ratios close to the seafloor" Clearly state that this refers to the difference between the deepest water column sample and the sediment surface (as there is a general decrease between the deepest water column sample and the one immediately above it).
 - Author's response: We will change the wording in a revised manuscript accordingly.
- 5 P68, L9. Description of the trend at Stat VIII deserved a little more detail. Truncated profile, cyclicity?
 - *Author's response:* We will describe the sediment profile for the POC/POP ratios of Sta. VIII in more detail in the results section and will provide more explanations for the profile shape in the discussion section 5.1. Obviously the POC/POP profile is truncated, but there are no indications for sedimentary events in the ²¹⁰Pb profiles shown by Dale et al., 2015. More likely, the sharp increase of POC/POP ratios below 2 cm of sediment depth is driven by authigenic formation of phosphorites.

6 P68, L23-24. Unclear what is meant here; I do not see any consistent strong changes in the deepest water column sample.

Author's response: It is meant that there is a drop between the deepest water column sample and the first sediment sample at station VIII. We will clarify this in the new version of the manuscript.

7 P70, L6. "that could be triggered by the TPP", rephrase and mention mechanism/process

Author's response: This will be modified in the manuscript.

The measured benthic TPO₄ fluxes exceed the phosphate fluxes that could be generated from TPP degradation by a factor of 6, but the potential TPO₄ fluxes are still higher (Table 4).

8 P73, L21. Here, phrasing could be more clear: enhanced POC preservation and/or enhanced P release could lead to higher C/P in anoxic sediments compared to oxic. Current phrasing is convoluted while an answer is not (and cannot) be provided regarding the main driver.

Author's response: The last sentence of the section will be rephrased according to the reviewers comment.

9 P75, L21-27. It seems from this that the authors assume that terrestrial P, i.e. P associated with riverine suspended particles, would not show up at all in the PIP fraction on the filters from the water column samples? If riverine particulate matter sinks through the water column (or do the authors assume all riverine input is lateral?), and consists at least in part of Ca-P and oxide-associated P, why would it not (partially) be part of the measured PIP on the filters? Even though it is a minor P source, the authors might want to elaborate slightly on why riverine P is treated as a completely separate P input.

Author's response: We were aiming to estimate the maximal effect of terrestrial P input to the sediments with this approach. Riverine transported material from the continent is likely underrepresented on our water column filter samples due to fast sinking speed of such particles and/or a laterally dominated transport. However, we do not exclude that a small fraction of the riverine transported material can be found on our filter samples. Anyhow, the results of the calculations show that terrestrial P input is of minor importance for the presented P budget.

10 P76, L12-18. Could sinking of fish debris through anoxic waters not provide a rapidly sinking source of both apatite and organic matter to the seafloor (biological fish remains, collagen etc. in fish bones)? Then, would fish debris necessarily leave a signature of very low C/P ratios? If these fish debris are indeed missed during water column sampling (or perhaps have a strong seasonal character), the associated OC would also be missed in the budgets, which would have an impact on the argument of the theoretically required low C/P ratio of incoming particles. Perhaps C/P ratios alone are insufficient to dismiss a potential role for fish debris as (additional) PO4 source? The authors show nice links between PO4 fluxes and sedimentary bacterial (biological) activity, which can be used to hypothesize on the likely source(s) of PO4. Perhaps it would be better to focus on the evidence for the contribution of bacteria, to the point where other P sources are not necessarily required to close the budgets.

Author's response: We are convinced that an imprint of fish debris in the sediments which have not been sampled on the water column particle filters must lead to differences in the

POC/TPP ratios between the water column and sediment ratios. Since this difference is not observed it is likely that fish debris can be ruled out for closing the P budget during the sampling campaign.

However, if we only consider the bacterial P release as additional P source to the sediments, it is very likely that questions about the other mentioned sources arise. Hence, we want to make sure to discuss potential other sources briefly and show that the role of bacteria are key to the understanding of the P-budget.

11 78, L13-14. In fact, highest freeze-thaw P release was found in sediments with abundant foraminifera rather than microbial mats (Stat VIII). This deserves a bit more attention here, as it might put the potential role of bacteria in more context?

Author's response: This is a good point. However, the PO₄³⁻ concentrations after the freeze-thaw experiments of the stations V and IV, where sulfide-oxidizing bacteria are still abundant, are only slightly lower compared to station VIII. Hence, we assume that the occurring sulfide-oxidizing bacteria at station V and VI as well as the foraminifera observed at station VIII are contributing phosphate to the pore waters. However, it remains to be shown how these mechanisms play out in detail (e.g. nutrient concentration thresholds, time scales, P release from Marithioploca-related bacteria and foraminifera) and the impact on benthic P release in oxygen and nitrate deficient environments on longer time scales.

12 P80, L1-3. If foraminifera represent such an efficient sink of BW PO₄, it would be good if the authors provide their preferred mechanism by which the internally-stored PO4 makes it into authigenic apatite. Would this be a matter of release after death fueling apatite formation rather than uptake by living forams? What type of redox-dependent PO4 uptake/release behavior do forams display?

Author's response: This is another interesting aspect, but unfortunately the mechanisms how the P release from foraminifera work in detail remains unknown and requires more detailed experimental work (e.g. are the foraminifera alive or dead releasing the P, redox-dependent P uptake and release?) and will be addressed in more planned experimental work in the study area in the near future. There are two expeditions planned to the Peruvian OMZ where detailed experiments will carried out in order to answer this type of questions.

13 P80, L18-26. This is crucial information regarding potential PO₄ release mechanisms and should be included in the discussion. The conclusions should not contain such crucial new information, but rather should concisely synthesize the findings and interpretations already presented in the results and discussion.

Author's response: We will take this into account in the revised manuscript and suggest changes on P77, L13-17 and P80, L18-26.

All technical corrections will be considered in a revised version of the manuscript.

In response to the comments of Tom Jilbert, received and published: 22 Nov 2015:

Major:

One of the main challenges associated with the approach employed here is that the fluxes being measured are generally not in steady state, and a single sampling moment (i.e. one cruise) will struggle to tell the full story. The authors have acknowledged this and indeed conclude that their budget cannot be closed for this reason, but I agree with Peter Kraal's comment (re. P80 L18-26) that more specific contextual information about the variable redox regime of the study site should be included earlier in the paper. The authors refer to the studies of Guiterrez et al., 2008 and Schunk et al., 2013 in section 2 but perhaps it would be good to show in graphical form (e.g. incorporated into Fig. 1) how much the redox conditions can actually change at these sites, and how frequently. For example, can potential loading-unloading cycles for the bacterial P 'capacitor' the authors postulate be identified from past data?

Author's response: Due to the lack of time series data available for longer time scales and more water depth than presented in Gutièrrez et al. (2008), we decided to not duplicate any figure in this manuscript. However, we will provide more detailed information on where to find information for redox changes in the water column in the text of the revised manuscript (e.g. Noffke et al., 2012; Scholz et al., 2011).

I recommend that the authors present not only the various C/P ratios (e.g. Fig. 2) but also the raw C and P data in graphical form (these are currently given in table form and only in the supplement). This is important because in both the water column and sediments, trends in C and P concentrations may help to indicate transformations (e.g. breakdown of organic matter, precipitation of CFA), which are relevant for the interpretation of the data.

Author's response: We will add a new figure to the manuscript.

In the case of the water column data, I miss a conclusive statement from the authors about what they believe the PIP phase on their filters actually is.

Author's response: More detailed information will be added concerning this aspect. Nevertheless, a final conclusion on the composition of PIP cannot be made based on the available data set.

According to Labry et al. (2013) we expect the PIP phase to be comprised of inorganic P phases originating from abiotic particulate phosphorus as well as inorganic P phases from that are biogenic origin. Abiotic PIP comprises mineral associated P, e.g. from terrestrial sources. The inorganic phosphorus from biotic particulate phosphorus is composed of orthophosphates, pyrophosphates and polyphosphates incorporated into organic cells.

3.1. The authors refer to the paper of Sanudo-Wilhelmy et al. which describes P adsorbed on the surface of living Trichodesmium tissue, probably associated with hydrous Mn oxides. There are several questions which follow from this: How representative are the conclusions of that study in a high-productivity upwelling system such as this one, considering the different primary producer assemblages? And if there is indeed a major fraction of surface-adsorbed P associated with surface-water POC, is it realistic that P will be preserved in such a form as this material sinks through the water column?

Author's response: This is indeed a very interesting aspect. Sanudo-Wilhelmy et al. (2004) suspect that the finding of surface P-adsorption might be a general feature comprising all phytoplankton groups. To date, this statement has, unfortunately, neither been confirmed nor disproved by other studies. However, if it applies, there shouldn't be any general differences between low nutrient and upwelling areas. On the other hand, it doesn't seem likely that Mnoxides play a major role off Peru. Mn-oxide concentrations were not measured on the filter samples, but SEM-analyses of the filter samples (data are not presented here) indicate that the overall concentrations are very low. In addition, Mn-oxides are not contained in surface sediments, indicating that they are continuously dissolved when sinking through the water column. The adsorbed P should be released during transport, but given the low concentrations the effect on our measured C/P ratios is likely negligible.

Generally, one should assume that remineralization in the water column leads to a decrease in the reactivity of the organic matter. However, our data do not reveal evidence that POP is transformed to PIP during transport. Statements about the quality of the organic matter or changes in reactivity would remain purely speculative.

The water column POC data from the offshore sites (Table S1) suggest export of ~5% of surface-water POC to the deep waters at Station VI (see POC at 10m vs. 240 m) and ~20% at Station VIII. What can the authors say about the quality of the exported POC, and what does this imply for the fate of any surface-adsorbed P? Furthermore, how would hydrous Mn-oxide bound P be expected to behave while sinking through the anoxic water column?

Author's response: The example the reviewer chose for estimating and comparing the POC export from the POC concentrations is biased. The POC concentration at 10 m water depth at station VI is by far the highest concentration compared to the other POC concentrations found at the same water depth (stations I, III and IV) and represents an outlier in our data set, which will explicitly marked as such in a new version of the manuscript.

As outlined above (comment 3.1) we don't believe that Mn-oxide-bound P plays a major role in this context, because of the low concentrations. However, any Mn-oxide-bound P would be released in the anoxic water column due to the continuous dissolution of Mn-oxides.

It is indeed remarkable that POC/TPP is so close to Redfield throughout the water column. Could there be a role for conversion of POP to polyphosphates as suggested by Diaz et al. (Global Biogeochem. Cycles 26, 2012) or to CFA (Jilbert and Slomp, GCA 107, 2013), during the decay of organic matter in the water column? If P bearing molecules are preferentially broken down, and P is then stored in these forms, POC/TPP could stay quite constant as observed here. In summary, I think a discussion of these various options for the PIP phase is essential, including statements about the expected extraction behavior of the candidate phases (e.g. are polyphosphates expected to count as POP or PIP?).

Author's response: On the basis of our dataset, such a conversion can only be observed within the sediments, especially at station VIII and at some stations between the bottom water sample and the surface sediment sample (e.g. station I, IV, VI and VIII) as described in the manuscript. Here is likely a shift in the POP and PIP concentrations. The POP concentration drops while the PIP concentration increases, which could be a hint to such a process. Due to the fact, that we have not conducted sequential extraction it is not possible to follow up precisely which PIP phase (e.g. polyphosphates or CFA) is formed.

- In the case of the sediment data, I would also like to see the raw plots of TPP, POP and PIP to see if there is evidence for transformations with depth, such as the precipitation of CFA as observed in many open ocean studies (Ruttenberg and Berner, GCA 57, 1993). As stated by Peter Kraal it is important to distinguish between different mechanisms of CFA formation and with all the data available here it is possible to say something more about this.
 - Author's response: According to comment 2 of the reviewer, we would like to include an additional figure similar to Fig. 2 that shows the water column and sediment raw concentrations of TPP, POP, PIP and POC. On the basis of that figure we will further explore on CFA formation mechanisms in section 5.2.3.
- A further concern I have about the sediment data is the way in which the burial fluxes of P have been calculated. This has been done using average P concentrations in the top 10 cm and mass accumulation rates (Page 66). In the supplemental data it can be seen that TPP concentration decreases from the sediment surface downwards, so the ultimate burial flux is probably better calculated from the value at 10 cm rather than an average including the surface sediments. In fact the authors state that a previous related study (Dale et al., 2015) employed exactly this approach to determine carbon budgets. How would the P budget change if the same was done here?

Author's response: The numbers given in the manuscript were calculated from the average P concentration of the first 11 cm of sediment depth (11 cm is due to our sampling resolution). However, using the P concentration at 11 cm sediment depth would not lead to significant chances of the P burial fluxes. Only at the station V the burial flux would change slightly and the P deficit would deviate for less than 10% from the value given in the manuscript. Since there are no changes at any other station and only a change of less than 10% for station V, we would like to stick to the calculation using the average P concentration of the first 11 cm of sediment depth which was also applied in Dale et al. (2015).

Minor/technical corrections: We thank the reviewer for his minor/technical corrections and will address these in the revised manuscript.

- Page 61, Lines 16-20. What was the pH during analysis? The way this is phrased, it sounds like you carried out the analyses at neutral pH but normally this is not done. Please clarify.
 - *Author's response:* The analysis was carried out at low pH. The NaOH was added to the sample solutions to slightly raise the pH. It was done because the slope of the calibration curve was to flat for our low concentration measurements. However, due to the reagents added to the sample solution, the pH remained low.
- Page 62, Line 25 onwards. Related to my earlier comment, it would be good to state somewhere which P phases are expected to dissolve in the 1M HCl (pre-combustion) extraction. Especially in this study where intracellular polyphosphate pools, and surface-adsorbed P, may be quantitatively important, the expected extraction behavior of different phases should be clarified.
 - *Author's response:* Please find the author's response related to that comment above (comment 3).
- Page 73, Lines 10-20. Here I would state more clearly the role of Fe in sedimentary P cycling in oxic conditions i.e. the observation that POC/TPP in oxic sediments is typically 10-50 is primarily due to the association of P with Fe (oxy)hydroxides in surface sediments after release from decaying organic matter. Also check the reference given as Baturin (2007). In the reference list the only article with this first author is Baturin and Savenko, Oceanologia 37, 1997.
 - *Author's response*: We will clarify this in the revised manuscript and replace Baturin et al. (1997) with Baturin (2007).
- 4 Page 77, Lines 1-10. Again, add some more contextual statements about the expected role of Fe in P cycling in the OMZ environment. Iron availability in the surface sediments should vary greatly with water depth through the OMZ but this is not expressly discussed here.
 - *Author's response:* This is a good point. We will extent the information on Fe oxyhydroxides in the sediments in the revised manuscript accordingly.
 - Fe oxyhydroxides are expected to be important carriers for phosphorus from the water column to the sediments. Due to their dissolution in the sediments, the adsorbed P is released to the pore waters. However, in the Peruvian OMZ oxygen concentrations are already very low in the water column. In consequence, similar to Mn-oxides, a large part of the Fe oxyhydroxides is already dissolved in the water column and, as such, cannot be an important P source to the sediments (see P budget calculations).
- 5 Page 80, Lines 1-3. Once again I agree with Peter's comment, that the mechanism of the proposed foraminiferal P uptake should be discussed in more detail. If true this could be an exciting new process in sedimentary P cycling so it deserves more attention
 - Author's response: Please find the author's response in comment 12 of P. Kraal.

Benthic phosphorus cycling in the Peruvian Oxygen

2 Minimum Zone

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Abstract

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Oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) that impinge on continental margins favor the release of phosphorus (P) from the sediments to the water column, enhancing primary productivity and the maintenance or expansion of low-oxygen waters. A comprehensive field program in the Peruvian OMZ was undertaken to identify the sources of benthic Pat six stations, including the analysis of particles from the water column, surface sediments and pore fluids as well as in situ benthic flux measurements. A major fraction of solid phase P was bound as particulate inorganic P (PIP) both in the water column and in sediments. Sedimentary PIP increased with depth in the sediment at the expense of particulate organic P (POP). The ratio of particulate organic carbon (POC) to POP exceeded the Redfield Reatio both in the water column (202 ± 29) and in surface sediments (303 \pm 77). However, the POC to total particulate P (TPP = POP + PIP) ratio was close to Redfield in the water column (103 ± 9) and in sediment samples $(102 \pm 15 \text{ This suggests that the relative burial efficiencies of POC}$ and TPP are similar under low oxygen conditions and that the sediments underlying the anoxic waters on the Peru margin are not depleted in P compared to Redfield.) taken from the core of the OMZ. This observation suggests that the burial efficiencies of POC and TPP are similar under the low oxygen conditions prevailing in the Peruvian OMZ. Benthic fluxes of dissolved P were extremely high (up to 1.04 ± 0.31 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹), however, showing that a lack of oxygen promotes the intensified release of dissolved P from sediments, whilst preserving the POC/TPP burial ratio. Benthic dissolved P fluxes were always higher than the TPP rain rate to the seabed, which is proposed to be caused by transient P release) and exceeded the fluxes resulting from the degradation of particulate organic matter raining to the seabed. Most of the excess P may have been released by bacterial mats that had stored P during previous periods when bottom waters were less reducing. At one station located at the lower rim of the OMZ, dissolved P was taken up by the sediments indicating recent phosphorite formation. At one station located at the lower rim of the OMZ, dissolved P was taken up by the sediments indicating ongoing phosphorite formation. This is further supported by decreasing porewater phosphate concentrations with sediment depth, whereas solid phase P concentrations were comparatively high. At this site, the POC/TPP and POC/PIP ratios dropped from average water column values (close to Redfield for POC/TPP and POC/PIP ~250) to very low sedimentary ratios of ~ 7 (POC/TPP and POC/PIP), indicative of intensive P enrichment in the sediments.

1 Introduction

- Phosphorus is an essential nutrient; it serves as an energy carrier for all living species and is a limiting macronutrient for marine primary production on geological time scales [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Föllmi, 1996; McManus et al., 1997; Filippelli, 2002; Paytan and McLaughlin, 2007; Tsandev et al., 2012; Ruttenberg, 2014][Filippelli, 2002; Föllmi, 1996; Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; McManus et al., 1997; Paytan and McLaughlin, 2007; Tsandev et al., 2012]. Due to its impact on marine primary production, the oceanic phosphorus inventory modulates the atmospheric CO₂ level and Eearth's climate [Ganeshram et al., 2002; Wallmann, 2003; Ingall, 2010][Ganeshram et al., 2002; Ingall, 2010; Wallmann, 2003]. Hence, it is crucial to understand feedback mechanisms of the P cycle to make future predictions.
- Particulate and dissolved phosphorus in the ocean originate from terrestrial chemical weathering of the P containing mineral group of apatite on land [Filippelli, 2002]. Only around 30% of the P discharged to the oceans is potentially bioavailable [Compton et al., 2000] including as dissolved P-phases, inorganic P-phases adsorbed to the surface of clay minerals or associated with to Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides metal oxides as well as and -P bound within particulate organic matter. However, the largest fraction of the delivered fluvial P is immediately trapped in estuaries or buried in continental margin sediments and thereby removed from the P cycle before it reaches the open ocean [Compton et al., 2000]. The P delivery of P to the sediments in the open ocean is mainly composed of organic and inorganic P-forms associated with the export of dead-organic detritus matter and other particles from the photic zone. Furthermore, P adsorbed to minerals such as Mn and Fe (oxyhydr)oxides or carbonate fluorapatites (CFA) is accumulated in the sediments [Föllmi, 1996; Delany, 1998; Faul et al., 2005 | Delany, 1998; Faul et al., 2005; Föllmi, 1996 | are further sources, as well as . Additionally, P input to sediments by from fish debris that is may be particularly important in productive upwelling regions [Suess, 1981; Schenau and DeLange, 2001; Diaz-Ochoa et al., 2009; Noffke, 2014][Diaz-Ochoa et al., 2009; Noffke, 2014; Schenau and DeLange, 2001; Suess, 1981].
- P cycling is strongly affected by redox-dependent processes. P can be scavenged by Fe (oxyhydr)oxides in oxic sediment and released across the sediment-water interface due to the

reduction dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides in anoxic sediments [Sundby et al., 1986; Slomp et al., 1998]. Furthermore, recent studies showed that sulfur bacteria found in surface sediments of anoxic environments can internally store and release P under oscillating redox conditions [Ingall and Jahnke, 1997 and references therein]. Therefore, these organisms are a key player for the modulation of porewater P concentrations and benthic P release to the

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Additionally, hypoxic or anoxic conditions favor the precipitation of P in the form of authigenic carbonate fluorapatie (CFA) [Froelich et al., 1988; Suess and von Huene, 1988; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Ingall, 2010; Schenau and De Lange, 2000]. For non-upwelling areas, the required phosphate oversaturation in the porewaters has been attributed to the reductive dissolution of P bearing Fe (oxyhydr)oxides [e.g. Ruttenberg et al, 1993, Slomp et al., 1996]. In contrast, the CFA formation in sediments of the Namibian upwelling area was

88 linked to microbial P release into the porewaters [Schulz and Schulz, 2005].

P cycling is strongly affected by redox dependent processes, due to the fact that P is typically scavenged by Fe oxyhydroxides. Reduction of Fe oxyhydroxides during anoxic diagenesis induces the release of phosphate across the sediment water interface [Slomp et al., 1998; Sundby et al., 1986]. Additionally, hypoxic or anoxic conditions favor the precipitation of P in the form of CFA [Froelich et al., 1988; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Ingall, 2010; Schenau and De Lange, 2000; Suess and von Huene, 1988]. The resulting feedback on oceanic primary production and atmospheric O₂ and CO₂ levels triggered by changes in benthic P release and P burial from anoxic sediments sequestration is still unclear. Presently, there are three opposing views in literature related to feedback mechanisms of the P cycling and its effect on the oceanic and atmospheric processes: have been raised: (1) Intensified phosphate release from the sediments to the water column caused by an expansion of low oxygen waters [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Stramma et al., 2008] could stimulate the primary production in the surface waters [Wallmann, 2003]. This, in turn, may lead to a more intensified oxygen demand and a positive feedback with benthic P release [Slomp and Van Cappellen, 2007; Wallmann, 2010; Moffit et al., 2015 Moffit et al., 2015; Slomp and Van Cappellen, 2007; Wallmann, 2010]. (2) A negative feedback on P release scenario—has been postulated based on the precipitation observations of CFA mineral precipitations found in the present-day oxygen depleted upwelling areas [Schulz and Schulz, 2005; Arning et al., 2009a; Arning et al., 2009b; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Cosmidis et al., 2013Arning et al., 2009a; Arning et al., 2009b;

Kommentar [LU1]: P. Kraals comment

Cosmidis et al., 2013; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Schulz and Schulz, 2005]. Being a major sink—CFA mineral formation is a major sink—for bioavailable P in marine environments [Delaney, 1998; Ingall, 2010], it has been argued that. Hence, it is thought that—the expansion of OMZs may increase the precipitation of CFA precipitation-minerals in the sediments and thus mitigateoutbalance the benthic phosphate release from anoxic sediments [Ganeshram et al., 2002; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Ingall, 2010]. (3) A third scenario suggests that the formation of CFA is in balance with enhanced P release from anoxic sediments, implying that the dissolved oceanic P inventory is largely unaffected by oxygen concentrations [Delaney, 1988; Anderson et al., 2001; Roth et al., 2014Anderson et al., 2001; Delaney, 1988; Roth et al., 2014]. These conflicting scenarios show that there is further need to explore the benthic-pelagic P cycling in oxygen deficient environments in order to enable improved predictions.

In this study, we explore P cycling in We address this topic using a comprehensive data set from the Peruvian OMZ to identify and quantify P sources to the sediment and the return of inorganic dissolved P back to the water column. Our data set comprises samples of particulate matter from the water column as well as pore-water, and sediment samples and samples of filamentous sulfur bacteria. We present in situ benthic phosphate fluxes, particulate matter C/P ratios for water column particles and surface sediments and P burial fluxes, and relative abundances of sulfur bacteria for 6 stations along the depth transect across the Peruvian shelf at 12°S. From the data, we derive a mass balance for P cycling in the sediments, we conclude that the benthic P sources and sinks were, in general, imbalanced resolving the input of P, P burial and benthic P releas during our sampling campaign.e.

2 Study Area

The study area is located in the center of the Peruvian OMZ at 12°S covering the shallow shelf from \sim 70 m water depth to mid-slope depths of about at \sim 400 m (Fig. 1). During our sampling campaign in January 2013 neutral or slightly negative El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) conditions dominated (http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov) and the bottom water oxygen concentrations were below detection limit of the Winkler titration (5 μ mol L⁻¹) down to \sim 450 m water depth (Fig. 1, Table 1). Below the OMZ, oxygen concentrations rise increased to 19 and 53 μ M at 770 m and 1025 m water depth, respectively. Nitrate concentrations were below 12 μ M from 128 to 407 m water depth (Table 1). During the measuring period, the bottom

water at station I (74 m) was sulfidic and depleted in nitrate (Table 1; Sommer et al., <u>in reviewsubmitted</u>).

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The oxygen deficient waters off Peru belong to one of the world's most prominent OMZs. Southeasterly trade winds that are driven by the Pacific Subtropical Anticyclone engender offshore transport of surface waters and upwelling of subsurface waters from the poleward propagating Peru undercurrent (PUC) [Strub et al., 1998]. These water masses are oxygen depleted and rich in nutrients, favoring primary production of up to 3.6 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ in surface waters [Pennington et al., 2006]. As a consequence, the intense oxygen consumption induced by the degradation of sinking particulate organic matter and a sluggish ventilation induce the development of a strong OMZ. Based on the definition that the oxycline of an OMZ is at ~22 μ M [Fuenzalida et al., 2009], the Peruvian OMZ extends from approximately 50 – 700 m water depth. The greatest upwelling strength is reached during austral winter and spring between 5 and 15°S [Strub et al., 1998]. The phases of strong upwelling are followed by high rates of primary production vity rates in austral summer. The coastal area off Peru is-displays a highly variable hydrographic regime underlying the ENSO. Especially during positive ENSO periods coastal trapped waves emerging from equatorial Kelvin waves in the equatorial East Pacific occur frequently [Gutiérrez et al., 2009 and references therein; Mosch et al., 2012]. Consequently, the thermocline and the oxycline shift downwards by ca. for 100 m and bottom watermore downwards and oxygen concentrations can increase from practically zero to around-variations from 0 to 100 μM can occur in the timespan of in days to weeks [Gutiérrez et al., 2008; Schunck et al., 2013; Graco et al., 2016Guitérrez et al., 2008; Schunck et al., 2013]. Seasonally, bottom waters of the shelf (75 m) can transition from oxic or hypoxic between austral winter/spring (low primary production) to anoxic throughout the rest of the year [Noffke et al., 2012]. Furthermore, porewater uranium (U) profiles at 11°S indicate variable redox conditions at the upper rim of the OMZ [Scholz et al., 2011]. The shelf area above 200m water depth is therefore characterized by non-steady state conditions, whereas the oxygen concentrations in the core OMZ (~200-400 m water depth) are predominantly below the detection limit of 5 µM throughout the year.

The sediments of the Peruvian OMZ have POC contents ranging from 15-20 wt. % within the OMZ and > 5 wt. % <u>below the OMZ and</u> on the shelf-and <u>below-[Dale et al., 2015]</u>. The fine-grained, diatomaceous mud lens between 11°S and 15°S accumulates under low PUC bottom water velocities in 50 to 500 m water depth [Krissek et al., 1980]. This favors high

Kommentar [LU2]: T. Jilbert comment

sedimentation rates, carbon preservation and burial [Suess et al., 1987; Dale et al., 2015]. Further down, at mid-slope depth, a high energy regime favoring erosive settings leads to the formation of phosphorites [Reimers and Suess, 1983; Glenn and Arthur, 1988; Arning et al., 2009b; Mosch et al., 2012 Glenn and Arthur, 1988; Arning et al., 2009b; Reimers and Suess, 1983]. Another interesting observation between 70 and ~ 300 m of water depth is the occurrence of mat-forming filamentous sulfur bacteria [Mosch et al., 2012]. Bacterial mats are not conspicuous below below 300 to 400 m water depth, and instead foraminiferal sands are more common.

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Methods 3

Sampling of water column particulate matter and sediment cores as well as the deployment of the benthic landers BIGO I and II (Biogeochemical Observatories) was conducted along the 12°S depth transect during the RV Meteor cruise M92 in January 2013. The geographical position and water column properties for the main stations are reported in Table 1. The datasetdata set on in situ phosphate fluxes comprised 10 stations from 74 to 989 m water depth. The water column particle sampling was performed at 6 stations from 74 to 407 m water depth. These stations are considered as main stations and for consistency the stations are numbered according to the data set published in Dale et al. (2015). Hydrographic parameters and oxygen concentrations were obtained by deploying a CTD/rosette equipped with a Seabird oxygen sensor (detection limit is 5 μM) calibrated by Winkler titration.

Water column particles 3.1

Particulate matter was filtered using water from Niskin bottles from the CTD/rosette and analyzed for total particulate phosphorus (TPP), particulate inorganic phosphorus (PIP) and particulate organic carbon (POC) concentrations. Following Labry et al. (2013), we expect the PIP phase to be comprised of inorganic P phases originating from abiotic particulate P as well as inorganic P from biogenic particulate P. Abiotic PIP comprises detrital P associated to minerals from terrigenous sources. Biotic PIP is composed of orthophosphates, pyrophosphates and polyphosphates within eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells.

Between three and six water depths were sampled per station. The water was filled into 10 HL eans PE containers rinsed beforehand with ultrapure water (MilliQ) before. The eans

Kommentar [LU3]: T. Jilbert comment

containers were shaken before filtration which was performed within 24 h after sample retrieval. Approximately 2 to 4 ½ of sea—water were filtered through pre-weighed and combusted (450°C, 5h) 0.7 μM Whatman GF/F filter using a sea—water vacuum pump and Duran bottle top filters. After filtration, all filters were immediately frozen at -20°C. At the shore-based laboratory the GF/F filters were dried over night at 45°C, and divided into 3 equally sized pieces using a scalpel. The total filtered water volume was divided by three to calculate elemental concentrations on each filter section assuming homogenous coverage of particles on the filters.

3.1.1 Total particulate phosphorus (TPP), particulate inorganic phosphorus (PIP) and particulate organic phosphorus (POP)

The determination of TPP and PIP concentrations by combustion and colorimetric methods has been was described by Asahi et al. (2014), Aspila et al. (1976), Loh and Bauer (2000) and others.-However, the combustion and acid dissolution (HTC/hydrolysis) that has been applied for PIP-determination is limited by the fact that polyphosphates are only partly hydrolysed, but provides the best compromise compared to other methods (Labry et al., 2013). Although polyphosphates are underestimated, it includes intracellular P that is often dominant in plankton and only small amounts of organic P. In the case of TPP we used the Aspila (1976) method without an oxidant (e.g. MgSO₄) during combustion, which underestimates the TPP concentration in water column particles. However, for the sediments, the results following of the Aspila (1976) method were compared total digestions showing an average recovery of the Aspila method of approximately 102%. In two samples we found an overestimation in total digestion of more than 100% and in one sample an underestimation of 32%, possibly due to heterogeneity of the samples caused by very small phosphorite granules.

Filter segments for TPP concentration were combusted at 550°C for 90 min and afterwards soaked with 20 ml 1 N hydrochloric acid (HCl) and shaken for 24 h at room temperature. Then, the solution was filtered and 0.35 ml triple reagent (40 ml 9.8 N sulfuric acid, 12 ml ammonium molybdate and 4 ml potassium antimonyl tartrate solution) and 0.175 ml ascorbic acid and 3 ml 1 N HCl were added to 3.75 ml of the sample solution. Then, 0.3 ml of 12.5 N sodium hydroxide (NaOH) was added to the solution before colorimetric measurement of phosphate at 880 nm using a Hitachi U-2001 photospectrometer. This was done because test runs with the standard series revealed that the slope of the calibration curve was not steep

232 enough to measure the low phosphate concentrations expected. To resolve this issue, the pH 233 of the solution was slightly increased using NaOH. Measurements were accompanied using a standard series consisting of 8 standards ranging from 5 to 100 μM PO₄³-, prepared from a 234 235 Merck phosphate stock solution. We used 0.75 ml of each standard for the standard series and 236 treated each of them in the same manner as described above. Before colorimetric 237 measurement of phosphate at 880nm using a Hitachi U 2001 photospectrometer the solution 238 was neutralized for the HCl by 0.3 ml 12.5 N sodium hydroxide (NaOH) in order to adjust the 239 pH. Measurements were u ranging from 5 to 100 µM. The samples were measured undiluted 240 due to low concentrations and the technical detection limit of a 1 cm cuvette. Hence, we used 241 3.75 ml of the filtered sample solution, added the reagents mentioned above and divided the concentrations by a factor of 5 to adjust the measurements results to the those ones of the 242 standard series. A factor of 0.02 was used to transform the concentration unit to µmol L⁻¹. The 243

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each sample):

Kommentar [LU4]: T. Jilbert comment

Kommentar [LU5]: P. Kraal comment

TPP or PIP [μ mol L⁻¹] = $\frac{[PO_4^{3-}] \cdot 0.02}{5 \cdot f}$

amount of filtered water (f) refers to 1/3 of the total filtered water volume (f is different for

Kommentar [LU6]: P Kraals comment

 $TPP / PIP [umol t^{-1}] = (measured concentration / 5 * 0.02) / (1/3 of the amount of filtered)$ water)

The same procedure was performed for PIP without the combustion step. The POP concentration was calculated by the difference of the measured (as phosphate) TPP and PIP 250 concentrations.

3.1.2 Organic carbon concentration concentration

The filter sections for the analysis of POC concentration concentration were fumed with 37 % HCl overnight to remove inorganic carbon, dried and wrapped into tin caps. Samples were measured by flash combustion with a Carlo Erba elemental analyzer (NA1500). The analytical precision and detection limit amounted towere 0.04 dry weight percentwt. % $\frac{(\%)}{...}$ The water column POC concentrations are given in μ mol L^{-1} .

3.2 Pore-water and solid phase analysis

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Sediment cores were recovered using video-guided multiple corers (MUC) equipped with PVC liners with an inner diameter of 10 cm. The pore-water and solid phase sub-sampling was performed immediately after recovery in an argon-filled glove bag at in situ sea-floor temperature. The bottom water was siphoned with a plastic tube and filtered through cellulose acetate filters. Afterwards, the cores were sectioned into 0.5 cm intervals from 0-5 cm sediment depth and 1 cm intervals afterwards. The sediment samples were filled into centrifuge tubes and the pore-water was separated from the sediments by centrifuging for 20 min at 4500 rpm. The supernatant pore-water was filtered through cellulose acetate filters inside the glove bag. Samples were immediately analyzed for total dissolved phosphate (TPO₄) and dissolved ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) after pore water extraction using a Hitachi U-2001 spectrophotometer. The analyses were performed according to the standard techniques described in Grasshoff et al. (1999). A sediment subsample was taken from each sediment depth and stored refrigerated in pre-weighed air-tight plastic cups to determine the water content, porosity and total organic carbon (TOC) content. The residual sediments were stored frozen at -20°C (sediment and filter samples) and the pore water samples were or refrigerated at 4°C for land-based analytics.

Kommentar [LU7]: clarified after P. Kraals comment 22

The TOC eontent concentration (in μmol mg⁻¹) of freeze-dried and ground sediment samples was determined by flash combustion in a Carlo Erba Elemental Analyzer (NA 1500). For POC determination, samples were decalcified with 2.5 N HCl prior to the measurement. Solid phase TPP and PIP concentrations were measured according to the method of Aspila et al. (1976) in a similar manner as described before for the water column particles. 50 mg of freeze-dried and ground sediment were digested in 1N HCl for a minimum of 24 hours to dissolve the sedimentary PIP phase. Sediment portions analyzed for TPP were combusted at 550°C for 90 min before adding 1 N HCl. The solutions were filtered and the reagents mentioned before above were added prior tobefore measurement. We used the sedimentary reference standards SDO-1 (Devonian Ohio Shale, USGS; Govindaraju, 1994) and MESS-3 (Marine Sediment Reference Material, Canadian Research Council) and replicate measurements of samples to ensure measurement accuracy. The standard series applied to the measurements covered a concentration range from 5 to 100 μM.

Kommentar [LU8]: P. Kraals comment 23

To determine the terrigenous P input flux to the sediments, and to calculate the TPP burial flux (for calculation see section 3.6 and Table 2), sediments were analyzed using total digestion. About 100 mg of freeze dried and ground sediment was digested in hydrofluoric acid (40%, supra pure), nitric acid (65%, supra pure) and perchloric acid (60%, supra pure). For measurement accuracy the reference standards SDO-1 and MESS-3 as well as methodological blanks were included in the analysis. The aluminum concentration in the digestion solutions wasere measured using an inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES, Varian 720 ES). The relative standard deviation (RSD) for [Al] was found to be < 1%.

Kommentar [LU9]: changed after P. Kraals comments 24 & 25

The XRD data of core 107MUC23 from 407 m water depth were obtained from approximately 1 g of freeze dried and ground sediment in the lab of the University of Bremen.

3.3 POC in relation to various fractions of P (POC/xP ratios)

The molar POC/xP ratios (where xP = TPP, PIP and-or_POP) of the water column particles at stations I, IV and V were calculated from two independent sample measurements on two filter samples per water depth. For these samples a minimum and maximum value was calculated. For the other stations III, VI and VIII, it was only one sample per water depth was available. Here, we assumed an average error nutral variability calculated from the duplicate measurements of stations I, IV and V for each P species (supplementary material). For sediment samples we calculated a standard deviation for each station (supplementary material). For sediment samples we calculated a standard deviation from repeated measurements of the sediment standards MESS-3 and SDO-1 (supplementary material).

Kommentar [LU10]: P. Kraal comment

3.4 Benthic lander fluxes

Benthic lander deployments were performed at 10 stations along the 12°S transect (I to X according to Dale et al., 2015). In situ benthic fluxes were obtained using the two BIGOs I and II (BIGO: <u>Biogeochemical Observatory</u>). They were equipped with two circular flux chambers (internal diameter 28.8 cm, area 651.4 cm²) [Sommer et al., 2009]. An online videocontrolled launch system allowed precise placement of the <u>chambers-BIGO</u> at the seafloor directly located beneath the particle sampling stations in the water column and in proximity to the multi-corer stations. After a 2-4 hour rest <u>period</u> at the seafloor during which surrounding

316 bottom water was periodically flushed into the chamber, the chambers were slowly driven 317 into the sediment. The BIGOs stayed for 28 hours at the seafloor, while 8 water samples per 318 chamber were taken via glass syringes. In order to obtain bottom water background 319 information, additional samples were taken every 8 hours from the ambient bottom water. 320 Phosphate concentrations in the syringe samples were measured on board using an auto 321 analyzer. The standard series covered a concentration range from 0.05 to 3.5 µM. The fluxes 322 were calculated from the slope of linear regression of all 8 data points versus the sampling 323 time (supplementary material) and corrected for the water volume in the chamber and the 324 dead volume of the 1 m long Vygon tubes connecting the syringes with the flux chambers. 325 The error caused by the dilution from the dead volume of these tubes was calculated from the 326 chloride concentration measured in the syringe samples. Benthic lander TPO₄ fluxes for most 327 sites are based on two replicate chamber measurements. The uncertainty given for the TPO₄ 328 fluxes is the difference between the minimum and maximum fluxes from the average of the 329 two benthic chambers. At two stations (IV and V), it was only possible to calculate the flux 330 from one chamber. For further details on the benthic flux measurements during the M92 331 cruise see Dale et al. (2015).

3.5 Diffusive flux calculations

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The diffusive fluxes of TPO₄ and Fe²⁺ from the sediment to the bottom water were calculated

by applying Fick's First Law of diffusion:

335 $F_{TPO4/Fe2+} = -\phi D_{SED}(\underline{d}[C]/\underline{dx})$ (1)

where the term d[C]/dx describes the concentration gradient between the bottom water and the

first pore-water sample of the surface sediment divided by the corresponding sediment depth

(0.25~cm~or~0.5~cm) and ϕ is the porosity of the surface sediment. The diffusion coefficient,

339 D_{SED} , for sediments was calculated according:

 $340 \quad D_{SED} = D_{SW}/\theta^2$ (2)

The diffusion coefficients for TPO₄ and Fe²⁺ under standard conditions ($\underline{D_{SW}}$) under standard

conditions (298.15 K and 1 bar) wasere taken from Li and Gregory (1974) and corrected for

the in situ temperature and pressure using the Stokes-Einstein equation. The tortuosity (θ^2)

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was derived from the sediments porosity according to the modified Weissberg formulation

[Boudreau, (1996]):

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Uncertainty in the diffusive flux was calculated at St. I as the difference between the fluxes calculated from two separate sediment cores. For the other stations, only one core was available to calculate the flux.

3.6 Mass balance of benthic phosphorus cycling

To investigate benthic P cycling quantitatively, a mass balance was developed considering P input, P burial, and P release. The equations for the P mass balance calculations are shown in Table 2. Under steady state conditions, the total P rain rate should balance the P buried in the sediments and the benthic TPO₄ flux (Eq. 4 in Table 2, Eq. 4). The rain rates of particulate P delivered to the sediments are differentiated in inorganic P (RR_{PIP}) (Eq. 5 in Table 2, Eq. 5) and organic P (RR_{POP}) (Eq. 6, Table 2, Eq. 6). The rates were calculated using the POC/xP ratio of the water column particles that were taken as close as possible to the sea-floor at each station (2-5 m above ground) and the POC rain rate (RR_{POC}) (Table 4 and supplementary material). RR_{POC} for the same stations along the 12°S transect were previously calculated by Dale et al. (2015) as the sum of the measured benthic DIC flux and the POC accumulation rate at 10 cm sediment depth. The terrigenous P input (RR_{Pterr}) (Eq. 7 in Table 2, Eq. 7) can be estimated by multiplying the solid phase aluminum—Al concentration of the first sediment centimeter sample by with the mass accumulation rate [Dale et al., 2015] and a P/Al ratio of 0.02 that characterizes the P/Al ratio of riverine transported particles originating from the continents [Viers et al., 2009].

The P burial flux (F_{Pbur}) (Eq. 8 in Table 2, Eq. 8) was calculated by multiplying the mass accumulation rate (MAR) and the average solid phase P concentration of the first $10\underline{1}$ sediment eentimeters (P_{11}) (11 cm is due to our sampling resolution). This approach was chosen according to Dale et al. (2015) who also calculated POC accumulation rate for the OMZ stations (i.e. not on the shelf or below the OMZ) using the elemental average concentration of the first 10 cm of sediment. The sediment mass accumulation rate (MAR) (Eq. 9 in Table 2, Eq. 9) was calculated from the sedimentation rate ($\underline{\omega}_{acc}$ in cm $\underline{y}^{-1}SR$ in em $\underline{k}\underline{y}^{-1}$), dry bulk density (ρ_{dry} ; in g cm⁻³) and the average porosity of the sediments at the

lower core end (ϕ_{∞}) . Sedimentation accumulation rates were determined from particle-bound $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ measurements using a modeling approach. A detailed method description and the values used for this work are published in Dale et al. (2015). The error derived from modeling the sedimentation rate was given as 20 % and propagates to all subsequent calculations where it was used.

3.7 Freeze/thaw experiments

In order to determine the amount of polyphosphate stored in sulfide-oxidizing bacteria, foraminifera and other bacteria we conducted additional sediment experiments at all transect stations, except station IV. Sediments from MUC corers were sliced into 1 cm thick slices from the surface sediment to 10 cm sediment depth. Before phosphate analysis, sediments slices were repeatedly frozen at -80°C and defrosted in order to burst microbial cells and release the internally stored P to the pore-water.

Kommentar [LU11]: P. Kraals comment 26

3.8 Molecular quantification of filamentous bacteria

In order to quantify the abundance of filamentous microbes at the benthic boundary layer, we used a molecular approach. Nucleic acid purification was performed on 0.5 g sediment following established protocols [Bertics et al., 2013]. DNA was quality checked on an agarose gel and quantified using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Peqlab, Erlangen, Germany). A-16S rDNA PCR was performed with universal primers 27F and 1492R and obtained fragments were Topo TA cloned using the Topo TA cloning Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) and Sanger sequenced as previously described [e.g. Löscher et al., 2012]. fragments were taken from a previously generated metagenome from this region (GenBank Bioproject PRJNA280940) and the respective sequence counting's were deposited at GenBank (ID KU312264-KU312267). Sequencing was carried out in the Institute of Celinical Mmolecular Beiology at Kiel University. Sequences were analyzed using a Clustal W alignment tool on Mega 6 [Tamura et al., 2013]—and deposited on GenBank (submitted). A qPCR primer and probe set was established using the Primer Express software (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA) with the forward primer 5' AGAAGCACCGGCTAACTCTG-3', the reverse primer, 5'-TCGAATTAAACCACA 3'

5' -CCAGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGT-3' and the probe 829-Thioploca 5'-GGATTAATTTCCCCCAACAT-3' [Teske et al., 1995]. Primers and probes were tested in silico on the Silva database and cross amplification was excluded on a variety of 16S rDNA clones. The qPCRs were performed in technical duplicates on a ViiA7 system (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA) as previously described [Löscher et al., 2014] using 1x TaqMan PCR buffer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA), 100 nM2.5 pmol μL-1 TaqMan probe, 5 pmol µl⁻¹ of each primer, 400 ng µl⁻¹ bovine serum albumin (to avoid PCR inhibition without affecting standard curves or detection limits), 3 µl PCR water, and 5 µl of either standard DNA or environmental sample. A plasmid containing the target sequence was used to generate a standard dilution series for absolute quantification. The melting temperature was set to 50°C. A theoretical detection limit of 4 copies per PCR reaction was calculated. The results of the analysis are given in copies g⁻¹ of 16S rDNA sequences of sulfur bacteria that are related to Marithioploca.

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4.1 P composition of water column particulate matter and surface sediments

PCR reaction has been calculated. The results of the analysis are given in copies g⁻¹ whereas a

copy of the target 16S gene is equal to a single organism of Thioploca spp.

4.1.1 TPP, PIP, POP and POC concentrations

The TPP concentrations ranged from 0.02 to 0.2 μmol L⁻¹ in the water column particles and from 0.04 to 2.37 μmol mg⁻¹ in the surface sediments (supplementary material). Overall, the profiles along the transect show no significant trends through the water column (Fig. 2A). The highest concentrations occurred in the surface waters around 10 m of water depth. At stations I, V and VIII (74, 195 and 407 m) the TPP concentrations slightly increased close to the seafloor, whereas at the other stations no such trend was observed (Fig. 2A and supplementary material). In the sediments the TPP concentrations slightly decreased with sediment depth, except at station VIII (407 m). Here, the highest sedimentary TPP concentrations across the transect were found at 2.25 cm sediment depth (17 μmol mg⁻¹). Below that depth the concentrations decreased, but remained high compared to the other stations.

The PIP and POP concentrations (water column and sediments) generally followed the trends of the TPP profiles and contributed roughly equally to TPP. The PIP fraction accounted for 21 to 74 % of TPP in the water column particles (Fig. 3), similar as reported in previous studies [Paytan et al., 2003; Faul et al., 2005; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2007; Lyons et al., 2011; Sekula-Wood et al., 2012]. At stations I, VI and VIII (74, 244 and 407 m), the PIP concentrations were larger than POP. The opposite occurred at station V (195 m) where the POP fraction was clearly larger than the PIP fraction throughout the entire water column. In comparison to the water column particles, the PIP fraction was larger than POP in most samples reaching between 48 to 98% of TPP. However, the strongest deviation between PIP and POP concentrations was found in the sediments of station VIII (407 m) where the PIP concentration was up to a factor of ~ 50 larger than the POP concentration and comprised up to 98% of TPP. XRD data from that station revealed that 7 to 16 wt.% of the sediments consisted of apatite and other particulate phosphates (data not shown).

The particulate organic carbon concentrations ranged from 2.2 to 17.6 μmol L⁻¹ in the water column particles and from 2.8 to 13.4 μmol mg⁻¹ in the surface sediments. Within the water column the highest concentrations occurred in the surface water samples, while the concentration measured at station VI (244 m) is about 5 times higher than compared to other samples from the same water depth. Below the surface water concentration peak, the concentrations were on average 7 μmol L⁻¹ with distinct depth trends. The sedimentary POC concentrations were on average 7.7 μmol mg⁻¹ for the whole transect. Overall, the POC concentrations showed little variability with sediment depth. At station III, VI and VIII (128, 244 and 407 m) the concentrations increased slightly with sediment depth. At station I (74 m) the concentration decreased slightly with sediment depth.

PIP and POP fractions of TPP

 The PIP fraction made up a large portion (21 to 74%) of TPP in the water column particles (Fig. 3), as observed in previous studies [Benitez Nelson et al., 2007; Faul et al., 2005; Lyons et al., 2011; Paytan et al., 2003; Sekula Wood et al., 2012]. The PIP fraction in the sediments reached 48 to 98%. In comparison to the water column particles, the average sedimentary PIP fraction of TPP increased at each station, except at station VI. However, the strongest effect occurred at station VIII where the sedimentary PIP fraction comprised 98 % of TPP. XRD

data from that station revealed that 7-16 wt. % of the sediments consisted of apatite and other phosphates (data not shown).

4.2 Particulate organic carbon to phosphorus (POP, PIP, TPP) ratios

465 POC/POP ratios

The molar POC/POP ratios of the water column particles and of the surface sediments were consistently higher than the Redfield ratio at all stations (Fig. 2<u>B</u>). The average POC/POP ratio of the water column particles was 202 ± 29. There was no clear trend through the water column, except slightly increasing ratios—close to the seafloor between the deepest water column samples and the surface sediment samples. In the surface sediments, the ratios increased within the <u>upperanalyzed 0 to 6 cm of sediment depth</u>, except at station VIII, with an average POC/POP ratio of 303 ± 77. Station VIII (407 m) is an exception, and here the ratio decreased to 81 within the first ~ 2 cm of sediment and then strongly increased to ≥600.

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474 POC/PIP ratios

The average POC/PIP ratio of the water column particles was 248 ± 34 . Similar to the POC/POP ratios, there was no significant trend through the water column. At the majority of the stations, the ratios decreased close to the seabed. The average POC/PIP ratio of the surface sediments was 184 ± 34 and almost eonstant-invariable with water over depth. In the sediments, the ratios showed no significant down-core trend. At station VIII (407 m) the ratio in the sediments showed a dramatic decrease compared to the water column, with-drastically decreased to a an average of 7, similar to the POC/TPP ratios (below).

POC/TPP <u>ratios</u>

The POC/TPP ratios of the water column particles and surface sediments consistently ranged varied around the Redfield ratio. The exceptions are , with the exception of the sedimentary ratios at the shallowest (Stastation: I; (74 m)) and the deepest stations (Sta. VIII, 407 m). At station I, the sediments showed measurements indicated significantly lower ratios—than Redfield ratios with an average of 69 in the surface sediments. The average POC/TPP ratio of the surface sediments at station VIII (407 m) was 7. Between the deepest water column sample and the first sediment sample, the POC/TPP ratios were rather constant without a

consistent trend, again with the exception of station VIII (407 m) where the ratios decreased sharply.

Kommentar [LU14]: modified after P. Kraals comment (6)

Close to the seabed, the POC/TPP ratios were stable or slightly increasing, with exception of station VIII where the ratios decreased sharply.

4.1.11.1.1 PIP and POP fractions of TPP

The PIP fraction made up a large portion (21 to 74%) of TPP in the water column particles (Fig. 3), as observed in previous studies [Benitez Nelson et al., 2007; Faul et al., 2005; Lyons et al., 2011; Paytan et al., 2003; Sekula Wood et al., 2012]. The PIP fraction in the sediments reached 48 to 98%. In comparison to the water column particles, the average sedimentary PIP fraction of TPP increased at each station, except at station VI. However, the strongest effect occurred at station VIII where the sedimentary PIP fraction comprised 98 % of TPP. XRD data from that station revealed that 7-16 wt. % of the sediments consisted of apatite and other phosphates (data not shown).

4.24.3 In situ benthic chamber fluxes

The benthic lander TPO₄ fluxes (F_{TPO4}) are presented in Table 3 and Fig. 4A. Positive fluxes are defined as directed from the sediments into the water column. The highest TPO₄ flux along the depth transect of about 1.04 ± 0.31 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ occurred at station I at 74 m water depth (74 m). Below 74 m water depth, fluxes decreased at least by at least a factor of 3 from $\frac{100 \text{ to } 144 \text{ m}}{195 \text{ m}}$ water to 0.2 - 0.3 mmol m² d⁻¹ at $\frac{144 \text{ m}}{195 \text{ m}}$ water depth. Measurements at station $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ water depth showed a slightly increased TPO₄ flux of 0.44 ± 0.07 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹, while the fluxes measured at $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ and $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ water depth decreased to the before mentioned levels. At $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ water depth $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ water depth $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ the $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ has believe the OMZ (Sta. IX, 756 m and Sta. X, 989 m water depth), the fluxes increased to slightly positive values, but remained low at $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ water depth), the fluxes increased to slightly positive values, but remained low at $\frac{1}{195 \text{ m}}$ water depth), the fluxes increased to slightly positive

4.2.14.3.1 Comparison of benthic chamber TPO₄ fluxes and diffusive TPO₄

fluxes

The measured benthic chamber TPO₄ fluxes and the calculated diffusive TPO₄ fluxes show<u>ed</u> large discrepancies. The <u>calculated</u> diffusive fluxes <u>weare consistently higher than the benthic</u>

Kommentar [LU15]: P. Kraals

fluxes (<u>Table 4</u>, Fig. 4B). In contrast to the in situ measured benthic chamber TPO₄ release rates, the calculation of diffusive TPO₄ fluxes relies on bottom water and pore water PO₄³⁻ concentrations. A subsurface PO₄³⁻ peak occur<u>reds</u> at all stations in the uppermost depth interval at 0-0.25 cm causing a large concentration gradient between the bottom water and the pore water PO₄³⁻ concentrations (<u>Fig. 7</u>). <u>Even though</u> <u>Tthe measured benthic TPO₄ fluxes exceeded the fluxes that could be triggered generated by <u>TPP degradation by a factor by the TPP by a factor of approximately 6</u>, <u>but the potential diffusive TPO₄ fluxes weare still higher (Table 4)</u>. Hence, the diffusive TPO₄ flux will be referred to as potential TPO₄ flux in the</u>

Kommentar [LU16]: modified according P Kraal's comment (7)

4.34.4 TPP burial fluxes and TPP burial efficiency

The P burial fluxes reported in Table 4 decrease decreased with increasing water depth (Table 4). Station I (74 m) hashowed by far the highest P burial flux with at 10 cm sediment depth with 0.23 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹. In contrast the P burial efficiency at this station (Eq. 10) was comparatively low reaching only approximately 26 %. At Station VIII (407 m), the TPP burial flux wais 0.103 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ and the P burial efficiency exceeded 100 % exceeds 100 % due to the uptake of dissolved P from ambient bottom waters.

4.4<u>4.5</u> Molecular <u>analysis and relative abundance of filamentous sulfur</u> <u>bacteriamethods</u>

Molecular analysis indicated the presence of Marithioploca-related bacteria [Salman et al., 2011] in the surface sediments (0-5 cm). Gene sequencing revealed that the filamentous sulfur bacteria in the surface sediments (0-5 cm) were *Thioploca ingrica*. By now, Thioploca was described to have one single 16S rDNA gene. Hence, the number of copies of this gene per g sediment can be directly translated into the abundance. Our analysis may, however, underestimate the absolute abundance of these organisms due to a self-splicing mechanism of the 16S rDNA gene (Salman et al., 2012) and is therefore only indicative for their relative abundance.

 following.

Their <u>relative</u> abundance <u>of Marithioploca-related bacteria</u> decreased with increasing water depth (Table 4). <u>HHs highest relative</u> abundance with more than 4000 copies g⁻¹ sediment was

found at station I $\underline{(74 \text{ m})}$, decreasing by more than a factor of 20 to 190 copies g^{-1} sediment at station VIII $\underline{(407 \text{ m})}$.

5 Discussion

5.1 POC/xP ratios in water column particles and sediments

In order to characterize the fate of P in oxygen deficient waters and anoxic sediments we determined POC/xP ratios from both environments. Previous studies were focused either on the water column or on the sediments [Anderson et al., 2001 and references therein; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2004; Faul et al., 2005; Jilbert et al., 2011; Lyons et al., 2011; Sekula-Wood et al., 2012]. The present data set provides a more complete insight into-of P compositional changes between the water column and surface sediment. Furthermore, itand allows us to more rigorously constrain the sedimentary P mass balance compared to earlier studies [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Mort et al., 2010; Kraal et al., 2012; Noffke, 2014]. Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Kraal et al., 2012; Mort et al., 2010; Noffke, 2014].

Both water column particles and the surface sediments from the Peruvian OMZ displayed POC/POP ratios above Redfield, indicating depletion of organic P relative to organic C. Similar observations have been reported before from this and other regions of the ocean [Loh and Bauer, 2000; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2004; Faul et al., 2005; Franz et al., 2012 and others]. Preferential remineralization of P phases from sinking particles should lead to increasing POC/POP ratios with increasing water depth, as observed in oxygenated areas of the ocean [reviewed by Ruttenberg, 2014]. However, in the anoxic Cariaco Basin, no such preferential P mineralization was noted [Benitez-Nelson et al., 2004]. Our results also showed no clear decrease in the POC/POP ratio in the water column, with the possible exception of St. I and VIII. Higher than Redfield POC/POP ratios were observed at Peru on a previous occasion, and may instead be driven by the C-to-P composition of the diatomaceous phytoplankton communities [Franz et al., 2012] rather than preferential P dissolution or other controls such as the input of terrestrial plant material with high POC/POP ratios.

Preferential POP over POC remineralization in anoxic sediments remains controversial [Ingall and Van Cappellen, 1990; Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Colman et al., 1997; Anderson et al, 2001;

Kommentar [LU17]: P. Kraals

McManus et al, 1997; Ruttenberg, 2003; Jilbert et al, 2011]. Our results, however, also showed no clear trend across all stations. At station I, IV and VI (74, 141 and 244m) the POC/POP increased with sediment depth indicating preferential POP over POC remineralization. At station III (128 m) this trend occured only in the upper cm and at station V (195 m) no preferential POP over POC remineralization was found. POC/POP ratios at station VIII (407 m) showed a POP enrichment over the upper 2 cm of the sediment. Below this depth, there was a sudden increase in POC/POP ratios, which is likely due to intense POP remineralization and subsequent authigenic formation of phosphorites (sink-switching, see section 5.2.3). Another interesting finding pointing to sink-switching can be found in the POC/POP and POC/PIP ratios of the deepest water column particle sample and the first sediment sample at stations I, IV, VI and VIII (74, 141 and 407 m). Increasing POC/POP and decreasing POC/PIP ratios indicate that POP is converted into PIP while the TPP content of the sediment is conserved (Fig. 2A and B). In agreement with similar findings in anoxic sediments [Ruttenberg and Berner, 1993; Faul et al., 2005 and others] we assume that the observed POP to PIP transformation is due to the formation of CFAs. However, our results emphasize that sink-switching is obviously occurring at the interface between bottom waters and sediments. Interestingly, the water column POC/TPP ratios were close to Redfield ratio. This could be an effect of surface adsorption of P on phytoplankton as previously described by Sanudo-Wilhelmy et al. (2004). Those authors investigated different species of Trichodesmium from the Atlantic Ocean and found that the intracellular P pool was strongly depleted relative to C, whereas the combination of the intracellular plus the surface adsorbed P was close to the Redfield ratio. Although we did not exactly differentiate between internal and external P pools, and considering that additional P sources like terrigenous P are negligible (see section 5.2.1), our results generally support the findings of Sanudo-Wilhelmy et al. (2004). However, future studies are required to substantiate this hypothesis. Sedimentary POC/TPP ratios were also close to Redfield, except at station I and VIII (74 and 407 m). Thus, on the one hand, the sink switching mechanism operates efficiently under low oxygen conditions and on the other hand, the relative degradation of TPP and POC are not changing from the water column to the sediments (Fig. 2B). This is an important finding because at first sight this observation seems to be inconsistent with the long-standing

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paradigm that low oxygen conditions promote the enhanced release of dissolved P from sediments [Van Cappellen and Ingall, 1996]. However, it should be noted that marine sediments covered by oxygenated bottom waters display molar POC/TPP ratios ranging from about 10 to 50 [Baturin 2007]. These ratios are much lower than Redfield because P is retained in sediments via adsorption, authigenic mineral precipitation such as Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and microbial P sequestration [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994], and because POC is more efficiently degraded under aerobic conditions [Hedges et al., 1999, Wallmann, 2010]. In contrast, our data set implies that oxygen deficiency causes a shift of POC/TPP ratios to values closer to Redfield compared to oxygenated regions, which is due to both, the enhanced preservation of POC (Dale et al., 2015) and release of dissolved phosphate under low oxygen conditions. It remains puzzling why the extreme P depletion observed in some black shale sequences (e.g. POC/TPP > 3000, Ingall and Jahnke, 1994) are not found in modern anoxic sediments such as those on the Peru margin.

5.2 P mass balance

P release rates from sediments underlying oxygen deficient waters are strongly enhanced compared to oxygenated marine settings, especially in the Peruvian OMZ [Noffke et al., 2012 and 2016]. Nonetheless, the sources for the enhanced P release are still not completely identified. The widely held view is that POP raining from the water column to the sediments represents the main source for sedimentary P in high productive areas like the Peru upwelling system [Delaney, 1998; Filippelli, 2008]. Mass balance approaches that resolve the P regeneration versus burial in oxygen deficient environments by combining sedimentary data and benthic P fluxes are rare [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Ingall et al., 2005; Mort et al., 2010; Kraal et al., 2012; Noffke, 2014Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Kraal et al., 2012; Mort et al., 2010; Noffke, 2014]. These studies are all based on sediment data only, that is, the external P input to the sediments is estimated or ignored. Furthermore, the study areas were often not covered by fully anoxic bottom waters. Noffke (2014) presented an approach that combines measurements of solid phase P speciation, sediment burial fluxes and benthic chamber flux measurements for a mass balance on benthic P cycling in the Peruvian OMZ. Interestingly, the measurements on the solid phase P speciation revealed that organic P accounted for only 18-37% of the total sedimentary P on the shelf and upper slope [Noffke, 2014]. Furthermore, it was found that P bound to Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and detrital-terrigenous P was of minor importance for the total sedimentary P inventory. However, authigenic Ca-P with a high 640 amount of fish-P accounted for up to 47% of the total P in sediments down to 300 m water 641 depth and for up to 70% in sediments below 300 m water depth. Consequently, Noffke (2014) 642 suggested that authigenic Ca-P phases are an additional major P source besides organic P for 643

benthic P release in the Peruvian OMZ.

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Their mass balance approach was solely based on benthic work and has large uncertainties regarding the particulate P input from the water column. Our approach includes the particulate organic and inorganic P input from the water column, benthic P flux measurements and the P burial fluxes and is based on the steady state assumption that the P input has to be sufficient to maintain the benthic P flux and P burial flux. The P mass balance calculations (Table 4) illustrate the variability in TPO₄ release and burial as well as in the magnitude of particulate organic (Fig. 5A) and particulate inorganic P input (Fig. 5B) across the transect. Following the general assumption that POP is the major P phase delivered to the sediments [Delaney, 1998; Filippelli, 2008], we first calculated whether the rain rate of POP (RR_{POP}) to the seafloor can account for the measured benthic P fluxes (F_{TPO4}) and P burial fluxes (F_{Pbur}) (Fig. 5A, Table 4). However, as already suggested in the first order estimate oby f Noffke et al. (2012 and 2014), and in Noffke (2014), the POP fraction is by far too small to balance the measured benthic fluxes in the Peruvian OMZ. The POP rain rates calculated along the transect can account for only 245 to 48% of the measured TPO4 fluxes (Fig. 5A), suggesting the likely presence of an additional inorganic source of dissolved -source of inorganic P phosphate [Noffke, 2014]. Similar to previous studies [Paytan et al., 2003; Faul et al., 2005; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2007; Lyons et al., 2011; Sekula-Wood et al., 2012Benitez Nelson et al., 2007; Faul et al., 2005; Lyons et al., 2011; Paytan et al., 2003; Sekula-Wood et al., 2012], we found that the PIP fraction in water column particles ranging from 75 to 407_m water depth comprises between 21-74% of TPP (Fig. 3). In the sediments, the average PIP fraction rises to 48-98% of TPP (Fig. 3). Furthermore, POC and PIP were correlated (r²=0.74) in the water column particles indicating highly reactive material.

The The mass balance approach including the particulate inorganic phosphorus PIP rain rate to the seafloor (Fig. 5B) allows the depth transect to be divided into two sections. The first transect section I (station I, 74 m and III, 128 m) is characterized by high P input and release rates. The calculations on the P budget show a balance between the particulate P input, the benthic P fluxes and the P burial fluxes within the error margin (± 20%). In transect section two-II (stations IV, 141 m, V, 195 m and VI, 244 m), the P input decreases drastically (Fig.

Kommentar [LU18]: P. Kraals

- 672 5B, Table 4) whereas the benthic P fluxes are still comparatively high. The distinct mismatch
- 673 in P input and P output prevails as the particulate P rain rates only supported only 377 to 6531
- % of the measured TPO₄ fluxes and calculated burial fluxes. This leads to the question: What 674
- 675 drives the excess TPO₄ release in the core of the Peruvian OMZ?

5.2.1 Additional P input

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677 Besides the particulate matter raining to the sediments, other potential other P sources can be

678 considered. Firstly, riverine transported material from the continent may be an additional

source of P to the sediments. Due to fast sinking speed and laterally dominated transport it is

possible that this P fraction is at least underrepresented on the filter samples. In order to

provide a maximum estimate for the contribution of the terrigenous P input to the sediments,

this fraction was calculated using the mass accumulation rate of Al in the first centimeter of

sediment and an average molar P/Al-ratio (Table 2) of 0.02 for riverine suspended particles

[Viers et al., 2009]. The resulting terrigenous P flux accounted for 5-19 % of the total P input,

which is insufficient to explain the observed discrepancies in the P budget of transect section

II (Table 4, Fig. 4C, 5B).

687 Laterally transported particles enriched in P from the very shallow shelf could be an 688

additional P source [e.g. Jahnke, 1990]. However, the particles would have need to be

strongly enriched in P, which is not the case. In addition, this would have to be reflected in

the POC/TPP ratios of the surface sediments in transect section II (Fig. 2B). The ratios are

not, or only slightly, enriched in TPP compared to the water column particles, which leads

leading to the conclusion that lateral transport of P-enriched particles to the sediments is an

unlikely candidate for the missing P source.

694 Another alternative alternative is the existence of an additional PIP phase supplied by fast

695 sinking material (e.g. P containing fish scales; Suess, 1981) that was not sampled during CTD

casts, and hence-is not-underrepresented on our filter samples. Díaz-Ochoa et al. (2009)

showed that fish P can make up to 20% of the total sedimentary P inventory in the shelf

sediments of the Peruvian OMZ. Hence, the Fish P input should be depicted in strongly

699 depletedlow sedimentary POC/TPP ratios compared to the water column particles. Since this

difference is not observed it is likely that fish debris can be ruled out for closing the P budget

during the sampling campaign, which are not found, as described above. Theoretically,

sediments need to be composed of particles having POC/TPP ratios between 11 ± 1 and 25 ± 1

Kommentar [LU19]: P. Kraals

12 (Table 4) to maintain the measured P release rates in transect section II. It seems unlikely that the mismatch in the P mass balance is caused by additional particles deposited at the seabed since their POC/TPP ratio would need to be much lower than any value observed in our data set.

5.2.2 Non steady state scenarios – internal sedimentary P pools

Besides an additional P input to the sediments from the water column, episodic regeneration dissolution of particulate P within the sediment could contribute to the excess P release [Noffke et al., 2012]. This could include P solubilized released from the dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides or the degradation of internally stored polyphosphates by within sulfide-oxidizing bacteria. Such Driving factors could include the temporal variability in bottom water oxygen and nutrient concentrations induced by the passage of internal Kelvin waves and/or interannual variability related to El Niño and La Niña non steady state scenarios can be induced by repeatedly occurring short term changes in the bottom water geochemistry. Annual changes like El Niño and La Niña events as well as internally occurring Kelvin waves cause oxygenation events and influence nutrient concentrations [Guitérrez et al., 2008].

It is well known-recognized that the sedimentary cycles of Fe and P are strongly linked [e.g. Sundby et al., 1986Kraal et al., 2015]. -Fe (oxyhydr)oxides are expected to be important carriers for phosphorus from the water column to the sediments. Following dissolution of solid Fe minerals in the sediments, the adsorbed P is released to the porewaters. However, in the Peruvian OMZ, oxygen concentrations in the water column are generally below detection limit. Consequently, Fe (oxyhydr)oxides are likely already dissolved in the water column and not such an important P source to the sediments. and the reductive dissolution of Fe oxyhydroxides leads to an enhanced PO₄³-accumulation in the pore waters of anoxic sediments. -An minimum estimate of TPO₄-phosphate released during the reduction of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides can be calculated from the diffusive Fe²⁺ fluxes and the molar Fe/P ratio that is-typically found in Fe (oxyhydr)oxides. The diffusive Fe²⁺ fluxes were in the range of 0.03-0 to 0.03 0-mmol m⁻² d⁻¹during the M92 cruise (Table 4), and -Tthe molar Fe/P ratio of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides in sediment is aboutround 10 [Slomp et al., 1996]. The calculation of the minimum-TPO₄ release rates from Fe (oxyhydr)oxides (Eq. 14 in Table 2) results in a maximum-flux of 0.003 mmol PO₄³⁻ m⁻² d⁻¹ (Table 4, Fig. 4C and 5B), which is equivalent to less than 5% of the benthic P flux and burial flux.

Kommentar [LU20]: T. Jilbert comment 14

Another An additional internally activated P pool is phosphate released from large sulfuroxidizing bacteria, e.g. Beggiatoa [Sannigrahi and Ingall, 2005; Brock and Schulz-Vogt, 2011Brock and Schulz Vogt, 2011; Sannigrahi and Ingall, 2005]. These microorganisms store P in the form of intracellular polyphosphate granules when terminal electron acceptors for sulfide oxidation are available (oxic conditions) and release dissolved P during periods when these oxidants are scarce (anoxic conditions). Hence, it is generally assumed that they strongly affect benthic TPO₄ fluxes in a system with frequently changing bottom water redox conditions [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Sannigrahi and Ingall, 2005; Schulz and Jørgensen, 2005; Brock and Schulz-Vogt, 2011; Dale et al., 2013 Brock and Schulz Vogt, 2011; Dale et al., 2013; Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Sannigrahi and Ingall, 2005; Schulz and Jørgensen, 2005].-Hence, pPolyphosphates have been shown to are an important P pool in the sediments of highly productive upwelling areas [Kraal et al., 2015]. Along the depth transect at Peru, dense mats of sulfur bacteria related to MariTthioploca ingrica-were observed on the sediments during video-launched MUC and benthic lander deployments down to 300 m water depth [Dale et al., 2015]. This was also Similar findings extended distributions of microbial mats along a latitudinal transect at 11°S off were also previously described by Mosch et al. (2012) and Gutiérrez et al. (2008) previously described by Mosch et al. (2012) and references therein. Although, it is not confirmed that Thioploca sppthese organisms: are not known to store polyphosphates like has a mechanism to store and degrade polyphosphates similar like its their close relatives, the sulfur bacteria Beggiatoa spp. and Thiomargarita spp. [Høgslund et al., 2009; Holmkvist et al., 2010Holmkvist et al., 2010; Høgslund et al., 2009], our findings provide circumstantial indications for P uptake and release by that this is also applicable to Thioploca spp Marithioploca-related bacteria.

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Firstly, we found that the <u>relative</u> abundance of copies of <u>Marit</u>Thioploca<u>-related bacteria</u>-per g⁻¹ sediment and the measured benthic TPO₄ release rates <u>have a correlate</u> linearly relationship with a correlation factor of (r²=0.92, -(Fig. 6). This finding <u>may</u>-supports the suggestion that bacteria <u>have aexert an important systematic</u> control on benthic P fluxes. Secondly, a comparison of the in situ measured benthic P fluxes and the diffusive P fluxes calculated from the difference of the TPO₄ bottom water concentration and the TPO₄ pore water concentration of the surface sediments revealed <u>great large</u> differences (Fig. 4B). Such a difference could be explained by the lysis of bacterial cells during sample retrieval followed by the release of the internally stored polyphosphate pool into the pore-water. Following this

Kommentar [LU21]: P. Kraal comment

Kommentar [LU22]: T. Jilbert comment 15

argument, the diffusive P fluxes cannot be taken as real fluxes, but as a measure for potential maximum release rates of P by <u>Mari</u><u>Tthioploca-related bacteria</u>. <u>MoreoverIt should be noted that</u>, the potential fluxes are <u>by farmore than</u> sufficient to compensate for the missing P fraction in transect section II (ranging from $0.0\underline{5}6 \pm 0.02$ to $0.3 \pm 0.04\underline{1.6}$ mmol m⁻² d⁻¹; Table 4, Fig. 4CB).

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In aAdditionally to the established pore—water extraction procedure, we carried out freeze/thaw experiments to quantify the amount of P stored in sulfide-oxidizing bacteria (see method section 3.7). However using this method, it cannot be excluded that the P released during the procedure originates also from other bacteria and foraminifera in the sediments. The released polyphosphates from the microbial cells after repeated freeze/thaw cycles are rapidly hydrolyzed to orthophosphate under acidic conditions [Jager and Heyns, 1998]. Hence, the standard method to determine phosphate in the pore-waters using acidic reagents will likely supportsavor the hydrolysis of polyphosphates enabling us the measure its concentration in the pore-waters after conducting the experiments.- However, this method cannot exclude P release from other bacteria and, possibly, foraminifera in the sediments. A comparison of the pore-water phosphate concentrations and the experiment results shows that the amount of the internal additionally released-P reservoir is as twice as high as the pore water P concentration in transect section I and more than 10ten times higher larger in section II (Fig. 7). These results are coincident with the findings from the mass balance approach, where the largest discrepancies occur in transect section II and are another indication for the bacterial impact on the benthic P release. Interestingly, the highest phosphate concentrations after the freeze/thaw experiments were found at station VIII (407 m) with abundant foraminifera rather than sulfide-oxidizing bacteria. Those results are coincident with the finding from the mass balance approach, where the largest discrepancies occur in transect section II and are another indication for the bacterial impact on the benthic P release. Hence, we assume that the sulfide-oxidizing bacteria at station IV, V and VI (141, 194 and 244 m) and, potentiallay, the foraminifera observed at station VIII (407 m) are contributing phosphate to the porewaters. To our knowledge, P storage by foraminifera has not been demonstrated previously and awaits further study.

Kommentar [LU23]: P. Kraal comment

It remains to be shown how these mechanisms play out in detail (e.g. nutrient concentration thresholds, time scales, P uptake and release time scales from by Mari Tthioploca related bacteria) and how they impact on benthic P release in oxygen and nitrate deficient

environments on longer time scales. Summarizing the results of the mass balance it should be noted, that even with the relevant data on-determining the particulate P rain rates—from the water column to the sediments, the benthic P mass balance for the core of the Peruvian OMZ is imbalanced and requires an additional P source to maintain the benthic TPO₄ fluxes. We suggest that and P burial fluxe sulfur bacteria make an important contribution to this missing P sources.

5.2.3 Indications for active phosphorite formation

In contrast to the stations between 74 and 244 m water depth characterized by P release, data from of station VIII at 407 m water depth indicate the uptake of phosphate from the bottom water. To our best knowledge, this is the first time that a downward flux of dissolved phosphate from bottom waters into phosphorite-bearing surface sediments has been documented by in situ benthic flux measurements. Furthermore, the PIP concentrations in the surface sediments of station VIII (Fig. 2a) were 10 to 60 times higher compared to the shallower stations where P was released from the sediments. Taken together, these observations indicate that a PIP phase, likely phosphorite, is precipitating from the porewater phosphate at the time of sampling. This is also reflected in decreasing porewater phosphate concentrations (Fig. 7).

Arning et al. (2008) presented investigations on phosphorites that were recovered from the Peruvian OMZ including a station at 12°S from the same water depth (~ 400 m) and in close vicinity to sampling station VIII. The suboxic bottom waters and low sedimentation rates in that area seem to be favorable for phosphorite formation close to the sediment-water interface [Arning et al., 2009b]. Cosmidis et al. (2013) suggested three mechanisms how high pore water phosphate concentrations that are essential for the phosphogenesis can be generated in the sediments: (1) remineralization of organic matter mainly through bacterial sulfate reduction releasing phosphate to the pore—waters, (2) reductive dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and the release of adsorbed P and (3) use—synthesis of internally stored polyphosphates by large sulfide-oxidizing bacteria. Using the same mass balance approach as presented before, we calculate a P accumulation rate of 33 ± 4 mmol m⁻² yr⁻¹ at station VIII where most of the P is derived from ambient bottom waters (26 mmol m⁻² yr⁻¹). Hence, our data suggest that the phosphorite nodules at this station contain phosphate that originates predominantly from ambient bottom waters. Additionally, as already mentioned, Sediments

Kommentar [LU24]: T. Jilbert comment 6

at station VIII were covered by benthic foraminifera instead of mat-forming sulfur bacteria. The release of phosphate from frosted and defrostedfrozen samples from this site may indicate that these foraminifera are storing a source for large quantities of polyphosphates in their cells (see section 3.7 and Fig. 7). Contrary to the findings of Goldhammer et al. (2010) and Schulz and Schulz (2005), oOur observations suggest that polyphosphate storing benthic foraminifera rather than bacterial mats might facilitate the uptake of bottom water phosphate and the formation of phosphorites at this station—VIII. However, this remains an open question and should be addressed in future field campaigns.

The P uptake rate of ~ 26 mmol P m⁻² yr⁻¹ derived from our lander measurements may be compared to previous estimates on phosphorite growth rates in the area. However, the latter approach is based on the dDating of phosphoric laminites and yields a P uptake rate of only 3 mmol P m⁻² yr⁻¹ for a ca. 1 Ma old nodule [Arning et al., 2009a]. These is differentee fluxes may be at least partly explained by the methodological difference (present flux measurement vs. long-term average). Hhowever, growth rates determined on modern nodules are broadly consistent with our flux measurements [Burnett et al., 1982].

6 Conclusions

This study aimed to identify the P sources of benthic P release in the Peruvian OMZ. We determined the rain rates of organic particulate organic phosphorus and inorganic particulate inorganic phosphorus and determined as well as benthic P release rates and P burial fluxes.

Our calculations revealed that in nearly all eases rain rates within the core OMZ particulate phosphorus rain rates cannot account for compensate measured benthic P fluxes and burial fluxes. From Ssystematic analysis of potential P sources, we conclude revealed that periodic most likely P release froorm sulfidesulfur-oxidizing bacteria that store and release P under oscillation redox conditions could strongly modulate is (periodically) increasing benthic P fluxes, and hence compensation explain for thea missing P source. These bacteria store P when terminal electron acceptors for sulfide oxidation are available and release dissolved P during periods when these oxidants are scarce. We visited the area during austral summer when oxygen and nitrate levels were depleted by high export production and respiration. It is possible that the Peruvian OMZ was less reducing prior to our sampling period due to lower

Kommentar [LU25]: P. Kraals

Kommentar [LU26]: P. Kraals comment 13

respiration rates and/or better ventilation. Thus, we propose that the bacterial mats on the <u>Peruvian margin</u> act as <u>a-phosphorus</u> capacitors being, <u>unloaded_discharged_during</u> austral summer and recharged during other periods of the year when bottom waters are less reducing, <u>as_which_was_previously_proposed_in_Dale_et_al.</u> (2013). This hypothesis could be_tested_verified/falsified_by <u>a_systematic_studying_of_the_seasonality_of_benthic_fluxes_in_the_Peruvian_up-welling_system_and_P_dynamics_within_the_bacterial_community.</u>

In addition, measurements at the phosphoriteone station VIII—(407 m water depth) showed clear indications for the uptake of dissolved phosphate by the sediments facilitating phosphorite formation. Our data imply that most of the P accumulating in these authigenic minerals originates from ambient bottom waters. Since this site was marked by a high abundance of P-bearing benthic foraminifera, we speculate that phosphate uptake and phosphorite formation may be supported by linked to the presence of these organisms. This requires further stuy.

There was no clear preferential mineralization of POP relative to POC with depth in the water column. POC/TPP ratios in both water column particles and sediments were close to Redfield at most sites in the Peruvian OMZ. This observation strongly suggests that the relative burial efficiencies of POC and TPP are similar under low oxygen conditions. Importantly, it further shows that the sediments underlying the anoxic waters on the Peru margin are not depleted in P compared to Redfield. Rather, they are depleted relative to sediments underlying oxic waters, which show POC/TPP ratios well below Redfield (Wallmann, 2010). Thus, at Peru, a lack of oxygen promotes the intensified release of dissolved P from sediments, whilst preserving a POC/TPP burial ratio that is—whereas TPP is better conserved than POC in the presence of oxygen-similar to Redfield.

[Wallmann, 2010]. Thus, a lack of oxygen promotes the release of dissolved P from sediments and the preservation of POC (Dale et al. 2015) until both phases are buried at a ratio similar to Redfield.

Our data support the hypothesis that benthic P release <u>triggers</u> is <u>linked via</u> a positive feedback loop leading to intensified primary production in the surface water and <u>enhanced</u> oxygen demand <u>in the water column specifically</u> during periods where a <u>lack of terminal electron acceptors in ambient bottom water redox conditions</u> promotes the release of P from <u>bacterial mats the sediments</u>. However, this positive feedback is limited by the formation of

authigenic inorganic P phases <u>that maintainsning</u> the long-term average POC/TPP burial ratio close to Redfield.

Author contribution

UL, AD and SS supported the shipboard work, geochemical analysis and contributed to the manuscript—preparations. CH, KW and AN helped with fruitful discussions related to the manuscript and helped with the manuscript preparation. CL carried out the molecular analysis and contributed to the manuscript.

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Tables

Table 1: Station list for the sites of the benthic lander (BIGO), multi-corer (MUC) and CTD deployments including. Also shown are the bottom water concentrations of oxygen (O₂), nitrate (NO₃⁻) and sulfide (H₂S) in μ M. The station numbers were ehosen according for comparability according to Dale et al., 2015. bdl=below detection limit (5 μ M)

	Nr.	Station	Gear	Date (2013)	Longitude (°W)	Latitude (°S)	Water depth (m)	BW O ₂ (μM)	BW NO ₃ - (μM)	BW H ₂ S (μM)
•		98	CTD26	14.01.	12°13.504'	77°10.799'	75			·
	I	220	MUC39	25.01.	12°13.531'	77°10.061'	72	bdl	-	33.22
		110	BIGO1-2	15.01.	12°13.506 <u>'</u>	77°10.793 <u>'</u>	74			
		269	CTD79	29.01.	12°16.690'	77°14.999'	128			
	III	248	MUC46	27.01.	12°16.697'	77°15.001'	129	bld	0.02	-
		165	BIGO2-4	20.01.	12°16.690 <u>'</u>	77°14.995 <u>'</u>	128			
		111	CTD29	15.01.	12°18.729'	77°17.757'	145			
	IV	36	MUC10	09.01.	12°18.708'	77°17.794	145	bdl	7.1	
		57	BIGO1-1	11.01.	12°18.711 <u>''</u>	77°17.803 <u>'</u>	141			
		279	CTD81	30.01.	12°21.490'	77°21.713'	195			
	V	247	MUC45	27.01.	12°21.491'	77°21.702'	195	bdl	6.3	-
		201	BIGO1-4	23.01.	12°21.502 <u>'</u>	77°21.712 <u>'</u>	195			
		92	CTD24	13.01.	12°23.300'	77°24.200'	244			
	VI	198	MUC34	23.01.	12°23.300'	77°24.228'	244	bdl	11.9	-
		74	BIGO2-2	12.01.	12°23.300 <u>'</u>	77°24.186 <u>'</u>	244			

	66	CTD16	12.01.	12°27.535'	77°29.593	414			
VIII	107	MUC23	15.01.	12°27.198'	77°29.497'	407	bdl	12.1	-
	207	BIGO2-5	24.01.	12°27.207'	77°29.517'	409			

Table 2: Equations for the P mass balance calculations. Results are shown in Table 4.

Equations for P mass balance calculations

P Input to the sediments (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹)

(4) Total particulate phosphorus rain rate

$$RR_{TPP} = RR_{PIP} + RR_{POP} = F_{TPO4} + F_{Pbur}$$

(5) Particulate inorganic phosphorus rain rate

$$RR_{PIP} = RR_{POC} / \left(\frac{POC}{PIP}\right)$$

(6) Particulate organic phosphorus rain rate

$$RR_{POP} = RR_{POC} / \left(\frac{POC}{POP}\right)$$

(7) Terrigenous P input (P/Al = 0.02, Vier et al., 2009)

$$RR_{Pterr} = Al_{(0-1)} * MAR * \frac{0.02}{Al} \frac{P}{Al}$$

P Burial in the sediments (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ and g m⁻² d⁻¹) at 11 cm

(8) Phosphorus burial flux

$$F_{Pbur} = MAR + *P_{101}$$

(9) Mass accumulation rate

$$MAR = \rho_{dry} * (1 - \phi_{\infty} \Leftrightarrow) * SR$$

(10) TPP burial efficiency

$$PBE = MAR * \left(\frac{P_{101}}{RR_{TPP}}\right) * 100 \%$$

P release from the sediments (mmol m^{-.2} d⁻¹)

Benthic P fluxes (F_{TPO4}) and the potential diffusive P fluxes were determined as descried in the methods above

$$\begin{split} F_{P(Red)} &= F_{DIC}/106PBE \\ &= MAR* \left(\frac{P_{TB}}{RR_{TPP}}\right)*100 \end{split}$$

(12) True P release from POP

$$F_{P(POP)} = F_{DIC} / \left(\frac{POC}{POP}\right) \frac{F_{P(POP)}}{F_{P(POP)}} = \frac{F_{DIC}}{106}$$

(13) P release from total particulate phosphorus

$$F_{P(TPP)} = F_{DIC} / \left(\frac{POC}{TPP}\right)$$

(14) P release from the dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides (Fe/P = 10, Slomp et al., 1996)

$$F_{P(Fe)} = F_{Fe2+} / \left(\frac{Fe}{P}\right)$$

(15) P deficit to outbalance the P budget

$$\begin{split} F_{P(deficit)} &= RR_{TPP} + RR_{terr} + F_{P(Fe)} \\ &- (F_{TPO4} + F_{Pbur}) \end{split}$$

 $-RR_{TPP} + RR_{terr} + F_{P(Fe)}$

Table 3: In situ benthic chamber TPO₄ fluxes in mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ along the 12°S transect. The numbers are shown as an average calculated from the minimum and maximum flux determined from two benthic chambers. In the cases where only a single number is displayed, the benthic flux was determined from only one benthic chamber. The averages are given where both benthic chambers were completely recovered and the uncertainty corresponds to the mean difference between the minimum and maximum fluxes from the two benthic chambers.

5	Station	Water depth (m)	F_{TPO4} (mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹)
I	BIGO1_2	74	1.04 ± 0.31
II	BIGO1_5	101	0.35 ± 0.01
III	BIGO2_4	128	0.30 ± 0.05
IV	BIGO1_1	141	0.23 a
V	BIGO1_4	195	0.12 a
VI	BIGO2_2	243	0.44 ± 0.07
VII	BIGO2_1	306	$0.26\ \pm0.04$
VIII	BIGO2_5	409	-0.07 a
IX	BIGO2_3	756	0.06 a
X BIGO1_3		989	$0.02\ \pm0.02$

^a only one benthic flux was measured

Table 4: Measured and calculated parameters for the P mass balance along the 12°S transect. The numbers in front of key parameters correspond to equations in Table 2.

		Transec	t section I				Transect s	ection II		Pho				
12°S	Statio				Station IV 141 m		Station V 195 m		Station VI 244 m		Station VIII 407 m			
Benthic chamber TPO ₄ flux (F _{TPO4})* mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	1.04	± 0.31	0.3	± 0.05	0.23	-	0.12	-	0.44	± 0.07	-0.07	-		
Potential (diffusive) TPO ₄ flux (pot. F _{TPO4}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	1.07	± 0.23	2.0	Ξ	<u>0.5</u>	Ξ	<u>1.6</u>		<u>1.5</u>	Ξ				
Relative abundance of Marithioploca- related bacteria* copies g ⁻¹ (0-5_cm sediment depth)	4159				1687		3072				190 1			
Benthic chamber DIC flux (F _{DIC})** mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	65.9	± 21	20.4	± 7	8	± 0.4	3.2	± 1	4.7	± 1	2.2	± 0.3		
POC rain rate (RR _{POC})** mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	79.5	± 33	28.2	± 12	10.5	± 3	12.5	± 6	10.6	± 4	2.7	± 1		
Sediment accumulation rate (ω _{acc})** cm yr ⁻¹	0.45	± 0.09	0.2	± 0.04	0.04	± 0.008	0.1	± 0.02	0.07	± 0.014	0.01	± 0.002		
Mass accumulation rate (MAR)** g m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	1800	± 360	600	± 120	128	± 26	320	± 64	182	± 37	44	± 9		
Reatios for particulate matter from the water column (2 to 5 m above the sea					I I						l I			
floor <u>)</u> :					I -						!			
POC÷/_TPP*_	76	± 4	68	± 9	94	± 10	132	± 36	62	± 9	96	± 9		
POC <u>/</u> ÷PIP <u>*</u>	197	± 17	125	± 34	291	± 79	385	± 7	217	± 34	209	±34		
POC <u>/</u> ÷POP <u>*</u>	126	± 17	149	± 29	142	± 3	214	± 87	87	± 29	178	±29		
(4) TPP rain rate (RR _{TPP})	1.00	± 0.31	0.40	± 0.09	0.11	±0.02	0.09	± 0.02	0.17	± 0.02	0.03	± 0.01		

	mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹					ı						1	
	(5) PIP rain rate (RR _{PIP}) mmol $m^{-2} d^{-1}$	0.39	± 0.14	0.22	± 0.04	0.04	± 0	0.03	± 0.02	0.05	± 0.01	0.01	± 0.01
	(6) POP rain rate (RR _{POP}) mmol $m^{-2} d^{-1}$	0.61	± 0.18	0.18	± 0.05	0.07	±0.02	0.06	± 0.01	0.12	± 0.01	0.01	± 0.01
	(7) Terrigenous P input (RR _{Pterr})	0.10	-	0.02	-	0.01	-	0.02	-	0.01	-	0.00	-
	(8) Burial flux (F_{Pbur}) in $10\underline{1}$ cm					ı						1	
	sediment depth	0.23	-	0.089	-	0.0 <u>52</u>	-	0.0 <u>58</u>	-	0.04	-	0. <u>1</u> 03	-
	mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹					!						!	
	Avg. Al conc. of(0-1 cm sediment)											;	
	depth	0.99	_	0.70	_	1.10	_	0.97	_	0.72	_	I 0.66	_
	(Al ₀₋₁)*					ı						1	
	mmol g ⁻¹					ı						1	
	Avg. P conc. of first 10. (0-11 cm	0.05		0.05		0.1405		0.007		0.007		1 1050.0	
	sediment depth-(P ₁₀₁)*	0.05	-	0.05	-	0. 1 4 <u>07</u>	-	0.0 <u>9</u> 6	-	0.0 <u>8</u> 7	-	<u>1.05</u> 0.2	-
1	mmol g ⁻¹											i	
	(10) P burial efficiency (PBE) at at 10	26	± 8	202	. 4	2347	1.50	6192	± 1204	212	. 22	490 106	± 100 23
	11 cm sediment depth	26	± 8	20 <u>3</u>	± 4	<u>23</u> 47	± <u>5</u> &	01 92	± <u>+20</u> 4	24 <u>3</u>	± 3 <u>2</u>	490100	± 100 23
	(11) P release from POP degradation					!						!	
	according to Redfield (F _{P(Red)})	0.62	± 0.2	0.19	± 0.06	0.08	± 0.01	0.03	± 0.01	0.04	± 0.02	0.02	± 0
	mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	0.02	10.2	0.17	_ 0.00	. 0.00	2 0.01	0.03	_ 0.01	0.01	2 0.02	1	_ 0
	(12) P release from POP degradation					!						!	
	(F _{P(POP)}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	0.52	± 0.16	0.14	± 0.05	0.06	± 0.01	0.02	± 0.01	0.05	± 0.02	0.01	± 0
	(13) P release from TPP degradation					! -						!	
	(F _{P(TPP)})	0.87	± 0.17	0.3	± 0.1	0.09	± 0.01	0.02	± 0.01	0.08	± 0.02	0.02	± 0.01
	mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	0.07	_ 0.17	0.5	- 0.1	J.09	± 0.01	0.02	- 0.01	0.00	± 0.02	0.02	_ 0.01
	Benthic diffusive TPO ₄ flux (potential					ı						1	
	P flux)*	1.08	± 0.23	2.0	-	0.5	-	1.6	-	1.5	-	1 -	-
	,					•						I	

Diffusive Fe ²⁺ flux (F _{Fe2+})*)* (14) P released from Fe	0.04	± 0.02	0.01	1	0.02	0.0	0.03	0.0
(oxyhydr)oxides (F _{P(Fe)}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	0.004	± 0.002	0.001	1	0.002	0.0	0.003	0.0
(15) <u>P deficit to outbalance the P</u> <u>budget Potential bacterial P release</u>	-		_	0.1	5 <u>0.12</u> ± 0.02	<u>-</u> 0.06 <u>9</u> <u>-</u> ±0.02	0.3 <u>-</u> ±0.04	1
(F _{P(Bastdeffcit)}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹								

^{*} measuredthis study

^{**}published data from Dale et al. (2015)

1210	Figure captions
1211	Figure 1 : Study area, sampling stations and O ₂ concentration <u>in μM</u> along the 12°S transect.
1212	Figure 2A: Concentration profiles of TPP, PIP, POP and POC of the water column particles
1213	and the surface sediments along the 12°S transect. Water column particle concentrations
1214	(upper panel) are given in μmol L-1 and surface sediment concentrations (lower panel) are
1215	shown in μmol mg ⁻¹ . Note that the water column particle concentrations shown for station V
1216	(244 m) at 10 m water depth are \sim 5 times higher than at the other stations.
1217	Figure 2B: Ratios of POC to TPP, PIP and POP (POC/xP) along the 12°S depth transec
1218	offrom water column particles and surface sediments from (0 - 5.5 cm sediment depth) o
1219	station I to VIII (74 to 407 m).
1220	Figure 3: Average distribution of POP and PIP (%) per station in the water column particle
1221	and in the top 5.5 cm of the sediments.
1222	Figure 4A: Measured benthic TPO ₄ fluxes (mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹) at 12°S. The black line shows the
1223	theoretical TPO ₄ flux generated from organic matter degradation remineralization with a
1224	Redfield POC/POP ratio of 106.
1225	Figure 4B: Potential TPO ₄ fluxes (mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹) calculated from porewater profiles diffusive
1226	flux calculations compared to the measured benthic TPO ₄ fluxes (mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹) of thea
1227	stations I to VIII (74 to 407 m). The black line with triangles depicts the TPO ₄ flux that could
1228	be generated from during degradation of the total particulate phosphorus. by organic matte
1229	remineralization.
1230	
1231	Figure 4C: The bar chart illustrates the percentages of the different P input-sources and the
1232	missing P that is needed to maintain the measured TPO4 release rates and P burial fluxes fo
1233	stations IV, V and VI (141, 195 and 244 m) of transect section II. The missing P is assumed to
1234	be supplied by sulfide-oxidizing Marithioploca-related bacteria- (see Discussion) Thioploca-
1235	ingrica .
1236	Figure 5: Mass balance calculations and measured benthic TPO ₄ fluxes [mmol m⁻² d⁻¹] fo

stations I to VIII (74 to 407 m). All fluxes are in mmol m⁻² d⁻¹

238	Figure 5A: POP rain rates, TPO4 fluxes and P burial rates only. The number in percent
239	depicts-denotes missing P needed to sustain the benthic TPO ₄ fluxes.
240	Figure 5B: Mass balance calculations including the POP and PIP rain rates, the terrigenous P
241	input, P release from the reductive dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and the benthic TPO ₄
242	fluxes into the bottom waters as well as the P burial rates _z .
243	Figure 6: Measured TPO ₄ fluxes versus relative Aabundance of Mari Tthioploca in cells g ⁻¹ in
244	the first upper 5 cmentimeter of the sediment. in correlation to the measured benthic TPO ₄
245	fluxes. Highest abundance and TPO ₄ flux was found at station I. The other data points are for
246	the stations IV, VI and VIII (with decreasing abundance and TPO ₄ flux).
247	Figure 7: Comparison of pore water PO ₄ ³⁻ concentrations -before (eirelesblue) and after
۷۳/	Figure 7. Comparison of pore water 1 04 concentrations_octore (energy and arter
248	(triangles) the freeze/thawing experiments (red) in μmol L ⁻¹ .

1 Benthic phosphorus cycling in the Peruvian Oxygen

2 Minimum Zone

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Abstract

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Oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) that impinge on continental margins favor the release of phosphorus (P) from the sediments to the water column, enhancing primary productivity and the maintenance or expansion of low-oxygen waters. A comprehensive field program in the Peruvian OMZ was undertaken to identify the sources of benthic P at six stations, including the analysis of particles from the water column, surface sediments and pore fluids as well as in situ benthic flux measurements. A major fraction of solid phase P was bound as particulate inorganic P (PIP) both in the water column and in sediments. Sedimentary PIP increased with depth in the sediment at the expense of particulate organic P (POP). The ratio of particulate organic carbon (POC) to POP exceeded the Redfield ratio both in the water column (202 ± 29) and in surface sediments (303 \pm 77). However, the POC to total particulate P (TPP = POP + PIP) ratio was close to Redfield in the water column (103 \pm 9) and in sediment samples (102 ± 15) . This suggests that the relative burial efficiencies of POC and TPP are similar under low oxygen conditions and that the sediments underlying the anoxic waters on the Peru margin are not depleted in P compared to Redfield. Benthic fluxes of dissolved P were extremely high (up to 1.04 ± 0.31 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹), however, showing that a lack of oxygen promotes the intensified release of dissolved P from sediments, whilst preserving the POC/TPP burial ratio. Benthic dissolved P fluxes were always higher than the TPP rain rate to the seabed, which is proposed to be caused by transient P release by bacterial mats that had stored P during previous periods when bottom waters were less reducing. At one station located at the lower rim of the OMZ, dissolved P was taken up by the sediments indicating ongoing phosphorite formation. This is further supported by decreasing porewater phosphate concentrations with sediment depth, whereas solid phase P concentrations were comparatively high. At this site, the POC/TPP and POC/PIP ratios dropped from average water column values (close to Redfield for POC/TPP and POC/PIP ~250) to very low sedimentary ratios of ~ 7 (POC/TPP and POC/PIP), indicative of intensive P enrichment in the sediments.

1 Introduction

- 40 Phosphorus is an essential nutrient; it serves as an energy carrier for all living species and is a
- 41 limiting macronutrient for marine primary production on geological time scales [Ingall and
- Jahnke, 1994; Föllmi, 1996; McManus et al., 1997; Filippelli, 2002; Paytan and McLaughlin,
- 43 2007; Tsandev et al., 2012; Ruttenberg, 2014]. Due to its impact on marine primary

44 production, the oceanic phosphorus inventory modulates the atmospheric CO₂ level and Earth's climate [Ganeshram et al., 2002; Wallmann, 2003; Ingall, 2010]. Hence, it is crucial 45 to understand feedback mechanisms of the P cycle to make future predictions. 46 47 Particulate and dissolved phosphorus in the ocean originate from terrestrial chemical 48 weathering of the P containing mineral group of apatite [Filippelli, 2002]. Only around 30% 49 of the P discharged to the oceans is potentially bioavailable [Compton et al., 2000] as

dissolved P, inorganic P adsorbed to minerals or associated with metal oxides and P bound within particulate organic matter. However, the largest fraction of the fluvial P is trapped in estuaries or buried in continental margin sediments and thereby removed from the P cycle before it reaches the open ocean [Compton et al., 2000]. The delivery of P to the sediments in the open ocean is mainly composed of organic and inorganic P associated with the export of organic detritus and other particles from the photic zone. P adsorbed to minerals such as Mn 55

and Fe (oxyhydr)oxides [Föllmi, 1996; Delany, 1998; Faul et al., 2005] are further sources, as

well as P input from fish debris that is may be particularly important in productive upwelling

regions [Suess, 1981; Schenau and DeLange, 2001; Diaz-Ochoa et al., 2009; Noffke, 2014]. 58

P cycling is strongly affected by redox-dependent processes. P can be scavenged by Fe (oxyhydr)oxides in oxic sediment and released across the sediment-water interface due to the reduction dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides in anoxic sediments [Sundby et al., 1986; Slomp et al., 1998]. Furthermore, recent studies showed that sulfur bacteria found in surface sediments of anoxic environments can internally store and release P under oscillating redox conditions [Ingall and Jahnke, 1997 and references therein]. Therefore, these organisms are a key player for the modulation of porewater P concentrations and benthic P release to the

water column. 66

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Additionally, hypoxic or anoxic conditions favor the precipitation of P in the form of 67 68 authigenic carbonate fluorapatie (CFA) [Froelich et al., 1988; Suess and von Huene, 1988; 69 Goldhammer et al., 2010; Ingall, 2010; Schenau and De Lange, 2000]. For non-upwelling 70 areas, the required phosphate oversaturation in the porewaters has been attributed to the 71 reductive dissolution of P bearing Fe (oxyhydr)oxides [e.g. Ruttenberg et al, 1993, Slomp et al., 1996]. In contrast, the CFA formation in sediments of the Namibian upwelling area was 72

linked to microbial P release into the porewaters [Schulz and Schulz, 2005]. 73

74 The resulting feedback on oceanic primary production and atmospheric O₂ and CO₂ levels triggered by changes in benthic P sequestration is still unclear. Presently, three opposing 75

views have been raised: (1) Intensified phosphate release from the sediments to the water 76 77 column caused by an expansion of low oxygen waters [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Stramma et al., 2008] could stimulate the primary production in the surface waters [Wallmann, 2003]. 78 79 This, in turn, may lead to a more intensified oxygen demand and a positive feedback with 80 benthic P release [Slomp and Van Cappellen, 2007; Wallmann, 2010; Moffit et al., 2015]. (2) A negative feedback on P release has been postulated based on observations of CFA mineral 81 82 precipitation in the present-day oxygen depleted upwelling areas [Schulz and Schulz, 2005; Arning et al., 2009a; Arning et al., 2009b; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Cosmidis et al., 2013]. 83 84 Being a major sink for bioavailable P [Delaney, 1998; Ingall, 2010], it has been argued that 85 the expansion of OMZs may increase the CFA precipitation in the sediments and thus 86 mitigate benthic phosphate release [Ganeshram et al., 2002; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Ingall, 2010]. (3) A third scenario suggests that the formation of CFA is in balance with enhanced P 87 88 release from anoxic sediments, implying that the dissolved oceanic P inventory is largely 89 unaffected by oxygen concentrations [Delaney, 1988; Anderson et al., 2001; Roth et al., 2014]. These conflicting scenarios show that there is further need to explore the benthic-90 91 pelagic P cycling in oxygen deficient environments in order to enable improved predictions. In this study, we explore P cycling in the Peruvian OMZ to identify and quantify P sources to 92 93 the sediment and the return of inorganic dissolved P back to the water column. Our data set comprises samples of particulate matter from the water column as well as porewater, sediment 94 95 and samples of filamentous sulfur bacteria. We present in situ benthic phosphate fluxes, particulate matter C/P ratios for water column particles and surface sediments, P burial fluxes 96 and relative abundances of sulfur bacteria for 6 stations along the depth transect across the 97 Peruvian shelf at 12°S. From a mass balance for P cycling in the sediments, we conclude that 98 99 the benthic P sources and sinks were, in general, imbalanced during our sampling campaign.

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2 Study Area

The study area is located in the center of the Peruvian OMZ at 12°S covering the shallow shelf from \sim 70 m water depth to mid-slope depths of about at \sim 400 m (Fig. 1). During our sampling campaign in January 2013 neutral or slightly negative El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) conditions dominated (http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov) and the bottom water oxygen concentrations were below detection limit of the Winkler titration (5 μ mol L⁻²) down to \sim 450

m water depth (Fig. 1, Table 1). Below the OMZ, oxygen concentrations increased to 19 and 53 µM at 770 m and 1025 m water depth, respectively. Nitrate concentrations were below 12 µM from 128 to 407 m water depth (Table 1). During the measuring period, the bottom water at station I (74 m) was sulfidic and depleted in nitrate (Table 1; Sommer et al., in review).

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The oxygen deficient waters off Peru belong to one of the world's most prominent OMZ. Southeasterly trade winds that are driven by the Pacific Subtropical Anticyclone engender offshore transport of surface waters and upwelling of subsurface waters from the poleward propagating Peru undercurrent (PUC) [Strub et al., 1998]. These water masses are oxygen depleted and rich in nutrients, favoring primary production of up to 3.6 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ in surface waters [Pennington et al., 2006]. As a consequence, the intense oxygen consumption induced by the degradation of sinking particulate organic matter and a sluggish ventilation induce the development of a strong OMZ. Based on the definition that the oxycline of an OMZ is at ~22 μM [Fuenzalida et al., 2009], the Peruvian OMZ extends from approximately 50 – 700 m water depth. The greatest upwelling strength is reached during austral winter and spring between 5 and 15°S [Strub et al., 1998]. The phases of strong upwelling are followed by high rates of primary production in austral summer. The coastal area off Peru displays a highly variable hydrographic regime. Especially during positive ENSO periods coastal trapped waves emerging from equatorial Kelvin waves in the equatorial East Pacific occur frequently [Gutiérrez et al., 2009 and references therein; Mosch et al., 2012]. Consequently, the thermocline and the oxycline shift downwards by ca. 100 m and bottom water oxygen concentrations can increase from practically zero to around 100 µM in days to weeks [Gutiérrez et al., 2008; Schunck et al., 2013; Graco et al., 2016]. Seasonally, bottom waters of the shelf (75 m) can transition from oxic or hypoxic between austral winter/spring (low primary production) to anoxic throughout the rest of the year [Noffke et al., 2012]. Furthermore, porewater uranium (U) profiles at 11°S indicate variable redox conditions at the upper rim of the OMZ possibly related to ENSO [Scholz et al., 2011]. The shelf area above 200m water depth is therefore characterized by non-steady state conditions, whereas the oxygen concentrations in the core OMZ (~200-400 m water depth) are predominantly below detection limit throughout the year.

The sediments of the Peruvian OMZ have POC contents ranging from 15-20 wt. % within the OMZ and > 5 wt. % below the OMZ and on the shelf [Dale et al., 2015]. The fine-grained, diatomaceous mud lens between 11°S and 15°S accumulates under low PUC bottom water

velocities in 50 to 500 m water depth [Krissek et al., 1980]. This favors high sedimentation rates, carbon preservation and burial [Suess et al., 1987; Dale et al., 2015]. Further down, at mid-slope depth, a high energy regime favoring erosive settings leads to the formation of phosphorites [Reimers and Suess, 1983; Glenn and Arthur, 1988; Arning et al., 2009b; Mosch et al., 2012]. Another interesting observation between 70 and ~300 m of water depth is the occurrence of mat-forming filamentous sulfur bacteria [Mosch et al., 2012]. Bacterial mats not conspicuous below 300 to 400 m water depth, and instead foraminiferal sands are more common.

3 Methods

Sampling of water column particulate matter and sediment cores as well as the deployment of the benthic landers BIGO I and II (Biogeochemical Observatories) was conducted along the 12° S depth transect during the RV *Meteor* cruise M92 in January 2013. The geographical position and water column properties for the main stations are reported in Table 1. The data set on in situ phosphate fluxes comprised 10 stations from 74 to 989 m water depth. The water column particle sampling was performed at 6 stations from 74 to 407 m water depth. These stations are considered as main stations and for consistency the stations are numbered according to the data set published in Dale et al. (2015). Hydrographic parameters and oxygen concentrations were obtained by deploying a CTD/rosette equipped with a Seabird oxygen sensor (detection limit is 5 μ M) calibrated by Winkler titration.

3.1 Water column particles

Particulate matter was filtered using water from Niskin bottles from the CTD/rosette and analyzed for total particulate phosphorus (TPP), particulate inorganic phosphorus (PIP) and particulate organic carbon (POC) concentrations. Following Labry et al. (2013), we expect the PIP phase to be comprised of inorganic P phases originating from abiotic particulate P as well as inorganic P from biogenic particulate P. Abiotic PIP comprises detrital P associated to minerals from terrigenous sources. Biotic PIP is composed of orthophosphates, pyrophosphates and polyphosphates within eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells.

Between three and six water depths were sampled per station. The water was filled into 10 L PE containers rinsed beforehand with ultrapure water (MilliQ). The containers were shaken before filtration which was performed within 24 h after sample retrieval. Approximately 2 to 4 L of seawater were filtered through pre-weighed and combusted (450°C, 5h) 0.7 μM Whatman GF/F filter using a seawater vacuum pump and Duran bottle top filters. After filtration, all filters were immediately frozen at -20°C. At the shore-based laboratory the GF/F filters were dried over night at 45°C, and divided into 3 equally sized pieces using a scalpel. The total filtered water volume was divided by three to calculate elemental concentrations on each filter section assuming homogenous coverage of particles on the filters.

3.1.1 Total particulate phosphorus (TPP), particulate inorganic phosphorus (PIP) and particulate organic phosphorus (POP)

The determination of TPP and PIP concentrations by combustion and colorimetric methods has been described by Asahi et al. (2014), Aspila et al. (1976), Loh and Bauer (2000) and others. However, the combustion and acid dissolution (HTC/hydrolysis) that has been applied for PIP-determination is limited by the fact that polyphosphates are only partly hydrolysed, but provides the best compromise compared to other methods (Labry et al., 2013). Although polyphosphates are underestimated, it includes intracellular P that is often dominant in plankton and only small amounts of organic P. In the case of TPP we used the Aspila (1976) method without an oxidant (e.g. MgSO₄) during combustion, which underestimates the TPP concentration in water column particles. However, for the sediments, the results following the Aspila (1976) method were compared to total digestions, showing an average recovery of the Aspila method of approximately 102%. In two samples we found an overestimation in total digestion of more than 100% and in one sample an underestimation of 32%, possibly due to heterogeneity of the samples caused by very small phosphorite granules.

Filter segments for TPP concentration were combusted at 550°C for 90 min and afterwards soaked with 20 ml 1 N hydrochloric acid (HCl) and shaken for 24 h at room temperature. Then, the solution was filtered and 0.35 ml triple reagent (40 ml 9.8 N sulfuric acid, 12 ml ammonium molybdate and 4 ml potassium antimonyl tartrate solution) and 0.175 ml ascorbic acid and 3 ml 1 N HCl were added to 3.75 ml of the sample solution. Then, 0.3 ml of 12.5 N sodium hydroxide (NaOH) was added to the solution before colorimetric measurement of phosphate at 880 nm using a Hitachi U-2001 photospectrometer. This was done because test

runs with the standard series revealed that the slope of the calibration curve was not steep enough to measure the low phosphate concentrations expected. To resolve this issue, the pH of the solution was slightly increased using NaOH. Measurements were accompanied using a standard series consisting of 8 standards ranging from 5 to 100 μM PO₄³⁻, prepared from a Merck phosphate stock solution. We used 0.75 ml of each standard for the standard series and treated each of them in the same manner as described above. The samples were measured undiluted due to low concentrations and the technical detection limit of a 1 cm cuvette. Hence, we used 3.75 ml of the filtered sample solution, added the reagents mentioned above and divided the concentrations by a factor of 5 to adjust the results to those of the standard series. A factor of 0.02 was used to transform the concentration unit to μmol L⁻¹. The amount of filtered water (f) refers to 1/3 of the total filtered water volume (f is different for each sample):

TPP or PIP [
$$\mu$$
mol L⁻¹] = $\frac{[PO_4^{3-}] \cdot 0.02}{5 \cdot f}$

The same procedure was performed for PIP without the combustion step. The POP concentration was calculated by the difference of the measured (as phosphate) TPP and PIP concentrations.

3.1.2 Organic carbon concentration

The filter sections for the analysis of POC concentration were fumed with 37 % HCl overnight to remove inorganic carbon, dried and wrapped into tin caps. Samples were measured by flash combustion with a Carlo Erba elemental analyzer (NA1500). The analytical precision and detection limit were 0.04 dry wt. %. The water column POC concentrations are given in μmol L⁻¹.

3.2 **Porewater** and solid phase analysis

Sediment cores were recovered using video-guided multiple corers (MUC) equipped with PVC liners with an inner diameter of 10 cm. The porewater and solid phase sub-sampling was performed immediately after recovery in an argon-filled glove bag at in situ seafloor temperature. The bottom water was siphoned with a plastic tube and filtered through cellulose acetate filters. Afterwards, the cores were sectioned into 0.5 cm intervals from 0-5 cm

sediment depth and 1 cm intervals afterwards. The sediment samples were filled into centrifuge tubes and the porewater was separated from the sediments by centrifuging for 20 min at 4500 rpm. The supernatant porewater was filtered through cellulose acetate filters inside the glove bag. Samples were immediately analyzed for total dissolved phosphate (TPO₄) and dissolved ferrous iron (Fe²⁺) after porewater extraction using a Hitachi U-2001 spectrophotometer. The analyses were performed according to the standard techniques described in Grasshoff et al. (1999). A sediment subsample was taken from each sediment depth and stored refrigerated in pre-weighed air-tight plastic cups to determine the water content, porosity and total organic carbon (TOC) content. The residual sediments were stored frozen at -20°C (sediment and filter samples) and the porewater samples were refrigerated at 4°C for land-based analytics.

The TOC concentration (in μmol mg⁻¹) of freeze-dried and ground sediment samples was determined by flash combustion in a Carlo Erba Elemental Analyzer (NA 1500). For POC determination, samples were decalcified with 2.5 N HCl prior to the measurement. Solid phase TPP and PIP concentrations were measured according to the method of Aspila et al. (1976) in a similar manner as described before for the water column particles. 50 mg of freeze-dried and ground sediment were digested in 1N HCl for a minimum of 24 hours to dissolve the sedimentary PIP phase. Sediment portions analyzed for TPP were combusted at 550°C for 90 min before adding 1 N HCl. The solutions were filtered and the reagents mentioned above were added prior to measurement. We used the sedimentary reference standards SDO-1 (Devonian Ohio Shale, USGS; Govindaraju, 1994) and MESS-3 (Marine Sediment Reference Material, Canadian Research Council) and replicate measurements of samples to ensure measurement accuracy. The standard series applied to the measurements covered a concentration range from 5 to 100 μM.

To determine the terrigenous P input to the sediments, and to calculate the TPP burial flux (for calculation see section 3.6 and Table 2), sediments were analyzed using total digestion. About 100 mg of freeze dried and ground sediment was digested in hydrofluoric acid (40%, supra pure), nitric acid (65%, supra pure) and perchloric acid (60%, supra pure). For measurement accuracy the reference standards SDO-1 and MESS-3 as well as methodological blanks were included in the analysis. The aluminum concentration in the digestion solutions was measured using an inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES, Varian 720 ES). The relative standard deviation (RSD) for [Al] was found to be < 1%.

The XRD data of core 107MUC23 from 407 m water depth were obtained from approximately 1 g of freeze dried and ground sediment in the lab of the University of Bremen.

3.3 POC in relation to various fractions of P (POC/xP ratios)

The molar POC/xP ratios (where xP = TPP, PIP or POP) of the water column particles at stations I, IV and V were calculated from measurements on two filter samples per water depth. For these samples a minimum and maximum value was calculated. For the other stations III, VI and VIII, only one filter sample per water depth was available. Here, we assumed an average natural variability calculated from the duplicate measurements of stations I, IV and V for each P species (supplementary material). For sediment samples we calculated a standard deviation from repeated measurements of the sediment standards MESS-3 and SDO-1 (supplementary material).

3.4 Benthic lander fluxes

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Benthic lander deployments were performed at 10 stations along the 12°S transect (I to X according to Dale et al., 2015). In situ benthic fluxes were obtained using the two BIGOs I and II (BIGO: Biogeochemical Observatory). They were equipped with two circular flux chambers (internal diameter 28.8 cm, area 651.4 cm²) [Sommer et al., 2009]. An online videocontrolled launch system allowed precise placement of the BIGO at the seafloor directly located beneath the particle sampling stations in the water column and in proximity to the multi-corer stations. After a 4 hour rest period at the seafloor during which surrounding bottom water was periodically flushed into the chamber, the chambers were slowly driven into the sediment. The BIGOs stayed for 28 hours at the seafloor, while 8 water samples per chamber were taken via glass syringes. In order to obtain bottom water background information, additional samples were taken every 8 hours from the ambient bottom water. Phosphate concentrations in the syringe samples were measured on board using an auto analyzer. The standard series covered a concentration range from 0.05 to 3.5 µM. The fluxes were calculated from the slope of linear regression of all 8 data points versus the sampling time (supplementary material) and corrected for the water volume in the chamber and the dead volume of the 1 m long Vygon tubes connecting the syringes with the flux chambers. The error caused by the dilution from the dead volume of these tubes was calculated from the chloride concentration measured in the syringe samples. Benthic lander TPO₄ fluxes for most

sites are based on two replicate chamber measurements. The uncertainty given for the TPO₄ fluxes is the difference between the minimum and maximum fluxes from the average of the two benthic chambers. At two stations (IV and V), it was only possible to calculate the flux from one chamber. For further details on the benthic flux measurements during the M92 cruise see Dale et al. (2015).

3.5 Diffusive flux calculations

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- 293 The diffusive fluxes of TPO₄ and Fe²⁺ from the sediment to the bottom water were calculated
- by applying Fick's First Law of diffusion:

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$$F_{TPO4/Fe2+} = -\phi D_{SED} (d[C]/dx)$$
 (1)

- where the term d[C]/dx describes the concentration gradient between the bottom water and the
- 297 first porewater sample of the surface sediment divided by the corresponding sediment depth
- 298 (0.25 cm or 0.5 cm) and ϕ is the porosity of the surface sediment. The diffusion coefficient,
- 299 D_{SED} , for sediments was calculated according:

$$300 D_{SED} = D_{SW}/\theta^2 (2)$$

- The diffusion coefficients for TPO₄ and Fe²⁺ (D_{SW}) under standard conditions (298.15 K and 1
- bar) were taken from Li and Gregory (1974) and corrected for the in situ temperature and
- pressure using the Stokes-Einstein equation. The tortuosity (θ^2) was derived from the
- sediments porosity according to Boudreau (1996):

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$$\theta^2 = 1 - \ln(\phi^2)$$
 (3)

- Uncertainty in the diffusive flux was calculated at St. I as the difference between the fluxes
- calculated from two separate sediment cores. For the other stations, only one core was
- available to calculate the flux.

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3.6 Mass balance of benthic phosphorus cycling

- To investigate benthic P cycling quantitatively, a mass balance was developed considering P
- input, P burial, and P release. The equations for the P mass balance calculations are shown in
- Table 2. Under steady state conditions, the total P rain rate should balance the P buried in the
- sediments and the benthic TPO₄ flux (Eq. 4 in Table 2). The rain rates of particulate P

delivered to the sediments are differentiated in inorganic P (RR_{PIP}) (Eq. 5 in Table 2) and organic P (RR_{POP}) (Eq. 6 in Table 2). The rates were calculated using the POC/xP ratio of the water column particles that were taken as close as possible to the seafloor at each station (2-5 m above ground) and the POC rain rate (RR_{POC}) (Table 4 and supplementary material). RR_{POC} for the same stations along the 12°S transect were previously calculated by Dale et al. (2015) as the sum of the measured benthic DIC flux and the POC accumulation rate. The terrigenous P input (RR_{Pterr}) (Eq. 7 in Table 2) can be estimated by multiplying the solid phase Al concentration of the first sediment sample by the mass accumulation rate (MAR) [Dale et al., 2015] and a P/Al ratio of 0.02 that characterizes the P/Al ratio of riverine particles originating from the continent [Viers et al., 2009].

The P burial flux (F_{Pbur}) (Eq. 8 in Table 2) was calculated by multiplying the mass accumulation rate (MAR) and the average solid phase P concentration of the first 11 sediment centimeters (P_{11}) (11 cm is due to our sampling resolution). This approach was chosen according to Dale et al. (2015) who also calculated POC accumulation rate for the OMZ stations (i.e. not on the shelf or below the OMZ) using the elemental average concentration of the first 10 cm of sediment. MAR (Eq. 9 in Table 2) was calculated from the sedimentation accumulation rate (ω_{acc} in cm y^{-1}), dry bulk density (ρ_{dry} ; in g cm⁻³) and the average porosity of the sediments at the lower core end (ϕ_{∞}). Sedimentation accumulation rates were determined from particle-bound $^{210}Pb_{xs}$ measurements using a modeling approach. A detailed method description and the values used for this work are published in Dale et al. (2015). The error derived from modeling the sedimentation rate was given as 20 % and propagates to all subsequent calculations where it was used.

3.7 Freeze/thaw experiments

In order to determine the amount of polyphosphate stored in sulfide-oxidizing bacteria, foraminifera and other bacteria we conducted additional sediment experiments at all transect stations, except station IV. Sediments from MUC corers were sliced into 1 cm thick slices from the surface sediment to 10 cm sediment depth. Before phosphate analysis, sediment slices were repeatedly frozen at -80°C and defrosted in order to burst microbial cells and release the internally stored P to the porewater.

3.8 Molecular quantification of filamentous bacteria

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In order to quantify the abundance of filamentous microbes at the benthic boundary layer, we used a molecular approach. Nucleic acid purification was performed on 0.5 g sediment following established protocols [Bertics et al., 2013]. DNA was quality checked on an agarose gel and quantified using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Peglab, Erlangen, Germany). 16S rDNA fragments were taken from a previously generated metagenome from this region (GenBank Bioproject PRJNA280940) and the respective sequence counting's were deposited at GenBank (ID KU312264-KU312267). Sequencing was carried out in the Institute of Clinical Molecular Biology at Kiel University. Sequences were analyzed using a Clustal W alignment tool on Mega 6 [Tamura et al., 2013]. A qPCR primer and probe set was established using the Primer Express software (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA) with the forward primer 5' AGAAGCACCGGCTAACTCTG-3', the reverse primer, 5' -**CCAGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGT-3**' 829-Thioploca 5'and the probe GGATTAATTTCCCCCAACAT-3' [Teske et al., 1995]. Primers and probes were tested *in silico* on the Silva database and cross amplification was excluded on a variety of 16S rDNA clones. The qPCRs were performed in technical duplicates on a ViiA7 system (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA) as previously described [Löscher et al., 2014] using 1x TagMan PCR buffer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA), 2.5 pmol μL⁻¹ TagMan probe, 5 pmol µl⁻¹ of each primer, 400 ng µl⁻¹ bovine serum albumin (to avoid PCR inhibition without affecting standard curves or detection limits), 3 µl PCR water, and 5 µl of either standard DNA or environmental sample. A plasmid containing the target sequence was used to generate a standard dilution series for absolute quantification. The melting temperature was set to 50°C. A theoretical detection limit of 4 copies per PCR reaction was calculated. The results of the analysis are given in copies g⁻¹ of 16S rDNA sequences of sulfur bacteria that are related to Marithioploca.

369 4 Results

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4.1 P composition of water column particulate matter and surface sediments

4.1.1 TPP, PIP, POP and POC concentrations

372 The TPP concentrations ranged from 0.02 to 0.2 µmol L⁻¹ in the water column particles and from 0.04 to 2.37 µmol mg⁻¹ in the surface sediments (supplementary material). Overall, the 373 374 profiles along the transect show no significant trends through the water column (Fig. 2A). The 375 highest concentrations occurred in the surface waters around 10 m of water depth. At stations 376 I, V and VIII (74, 195 and 407 m) the TPP concentrations slightly increased close to the 377 seafloor, whereas at the other stations no such trend was observed (Fig. 2A and 378 supplementary material). In the sediments the TPP concentrations slightly decreased with 379 sediment depth, except at station VIII (407 m). Here, the highest sedimentary TPP 380 concentrations across the transect were found at 2.25 cm sediment depth (17 µmol mg⁻¹). 381 Below that depth the concentrations decreased, but remained high compared to the other 382 stations. 383 The PIP and POP concentrations (water column and sediments) generally followed the trends 384 of the TPP profiles and contributed roughly equally to TPP. The PIP fraction accounted for 21 385 to 74 % of TPP in the water column particles (Fig. 3), similar as reported in previous studies 386 [Paytan et al., 2003; Faul et al., 2005; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2007; Lyons et al., 2011; Sekula-387 Wood et al., 2012]. At stations I, VI and VIII (74, 244 and 407 m), the PIP concentrations 388 were larger than POP. The opposite occurred at station V (195 m) where the POP fraction was 389 clearly larger than the PIP fraction throughout the entire water column. In comparison to the 390 water column particles, the PIP fraction was larger than POP in most samples reaching 391 between 48 to 98% of TPP. However, the strongest deviation between PIP and POP 392 concentrations was found in the sediments of station VIII (407 m) where the PIP 393 concentration was up to a factor of ~ 50 larger than the POP concentration and comprised up 394 to 98% of TPP. XRD data from that station revealed that 7 to 16 wt.% of the sediments 395 consisted of apatite and other particulate P (data not shown). The particulate organic carbon concentrations ranged from 2.2 to 17.6 µmol L⁻¹ in the water 396 397 column particles and from 2.8 to 13.4 µmol mg⁻¹ in the surface sediments. Within the water 398 column the highest concentrations occurred in the surface water samples, while the

- concentration measured at station VI (244 m) is about 5 times higher than compared to other samples from the same water depth. Below the surface water concentration peak, the concentrations were on average 7 μmol L⁻¹ with distinct depth trends. The sedimentary POC concentrations were on average 7.7 μmol mg⁻¹ for the whole transect. Overall, the POC concentrations showed little variability with sediment depth. At station III, VI and VIII (128, 244 and 407 m) the concentrations increased slightly with sediment depth. At station I (74 m)
- the concentration decreased slightly with sediment depth.

4.2 Particulate organic carbon to phosphorus (POP, PIP, TPP) ratios

407 POC/POP ratios

- 408 The molar POC/POP ratios of the water column particles and of the surface sediments were
- 409 consistently higher than the Redfield ratio at all stations (Fig. 2B). The average POC/POP
- ratio of the water column particles was 202 ± 29 . There was no clear trend through the water
- 411 column, except slightly increasing ratios between the deepest water column samples and the
- surface sediment samples. In the surface sediments, the ratios increased within the upper 6 cm
- with an average POC/POP ratio of 303 ± 77 . Station VIII (407 m) is an exception and here the
- ratio decreased to 81 within the first \sim 2 cm of sediment and then strongly increased to \geq 600.
- 415 *POC/PIP ratios*
- The average POC/PIP ratio of the water column particles was 248 ± 34 . Similar to the
- 417 POC/POP ratios, there was no significant trend through the water column. At the majority of
- 418 the stations, the ratios decreased close to the seabed. The average POC/PIP ratio of the
- surface sediments was 184 ± 34 and almost invariable with water depth. In the sediments, the
- ratios showed no significant down-core trend. At station VIII (407 m) the ratio in the
- sediment showed a dramatic decreased compared to the water column, with an average of 7,
- similar to the POC/TPP ratios (below).
- 423 *POC/TPP* ratios
- The POC/TPP ratios of the water column particles and surface sediments consistently varied
- around the Redfield ratio. The exceptions are station I (74 m) and the deepest station (Sta.
- 426 VIII, 407 m). At station I, the sediments showed significantly lower than Redfield ratios with
- an average of 69 in the surface sediments. The average POC/TPP ratio of the surface

- sediments at station VIII (407 m) was 7. Between the deepest water column sample and the
- first sediment sample, the POC/TPP ratios were rather constant without a consistent trend,
- again with the exception of station VIII (407 m) where the ratios decreased sharply.

4.3 In situ benthic chamber fluxes

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- The benthic lander TPO_4 fluxes (F_{TPO_4}) are presented in Table 3 and Fig. 4A. Positive fluxes
- are defined as directed from the sediments into the water column. The highest TPO₄ flux
- along the depth transect of 1.04 ± 0.31 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ occurred at station I (74 m). Below 74 m
- water depth, fluxes decreased by at least a factor of 3 to 0.2 0.3 mmol m² d⁻¹ at 144 m water
- depth. Measurements at station V (198 m) showed a slightly increased TPO₄ flux of 0.44 ±
- 437 0.07 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹, while the fluxes measured at 244 m (St. VI) and 306 m (St. VII) decreased
- 438 to the before mentioned levels. At 407 m water depth (St. VIII) the TPO₄ flux was negative,
- indicating a phosphate uptake by the sediment. Below the OMZ, the fluxes increased to
- slightly positive values, but remained low at 0.06 and 0.02 ± 0.02 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹.

4.3.1 Comparison of benthic chamber TPO₄ fluxes and diffusive TPO₄ fluxes

- The measured benthic chamber TPO₄ fluxes and the calculated diffusive TPO₄ fluxes showed
- large discrepancies. The calculated diffusive fluxes were consistently higher than the benthic
- fluxes (Table 4, Fig. 4B). In contrast to the in situ measured benthic chamber TPO₄ release
- rates, the calculation of diffusive TPO₄ fluxes relies on bottom water and porewater PO₄³-
- concentrations. A subsurface PO₄³- peak occurred at all stations in the uppermost depth
- interval at 0-0.25 cm causing a large concentration gradient between the bottom water and the
- porewater PO₄³⁻ concentrations (Fig. 7). Even though the measured benthic TPO₄ fluxes
- exceeded the fluxes that could be generated by TPP degradation by a factor of approximately
- 450 6, the diffusive TPO₄ fluxes were still higher (Table 4). Hence, the diffusive TPO₄ flux will
- be referred to as potential TPO₄ flux in the following.

4.4 TPP burial fluxes and TPP burial efficiency

- The P burial fluxes decreased with increasing water depth (Table 4). Station I (74 m) showed
- by far the highest P burial flux with 0.23 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹. In contrast the P burial efficiency at
- 455 this station (Eq. 10) was comparatively low reaching only 26 %. At Station VIII (407 m), the

TPP burial flux was 0.03 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ and the P burial efficiency exceeded 100 % due to the uptake of dissolved P from ambient bottom waters.

4.5 Molecular analysis and relative abundance of filamentous sulfur bacteria

- Molecular analysis indicated the presence of Marithioploca-related bacteria in the surface
- sediments (0-5 cm) [Salman et al., 2011]. Our analysis may, however, underestimate the
- absolute abundance of these organisms due to a self-splicing mechanism of the 16S rDNA
- gene (Salman et al., 2012) and is therefore only indicative of their relative abundance.
- 463 The relative abundance of Marithioploca-related bacteria decreased with increasing water
- depth (Table 4). Highest relative abundance with more than 4000 copies g⁻¹ sediment was
- found at station I (74 m), decreasing by more than a factor of 20 to 190 copies g⁻¹ sediment at
- 466 station VIII (407 m).

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468 **5** Discussion

5.1 POC/xP ratios in water column particles and sediments

- 470 In order to characterize the fate of P in oxygen deficient waters and sediments we determined
- POC/xP ratios from both environments. Previous studies focused either on the water column
- or on the sediments [Anderson et al., 2001 and references therein; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2004;
- 473 Faul et al., 2005; Jilbert et al., 2011; Lyons et al., 2011; Sekula-Wood et al., 2012]. The
- present data set provides a more complete insight into compositional changes and allows us to
- 475 more rigorously constrain the sedimentary P mass balance compared to earlier studies [Ingall
- and Jahnke, 1994; Mort et al., 2010; Kraal et al., 2012; Noffke, 2014].
- Both water column particles and the surface sediments from the Peruvian OMZ displayed
- 478 POC/POP ratios above Redfield, indicating depletion of organic P relative to organic C.
- Similar observations have been reported before from this and other regions of the ocean [Loh
- and Bauer, 2000; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2004; Faul et al., 2005; Franz et al., 2012 and others].
- Preferential remineralization of P phases from sinking particles should lead to increasing
- 482 POC/POP ratios with increasing water depth, as observed in oxygenated areas of the ocean
- 483 [reviewed by Ruttenberg, 2014]. However, in the anoxic Cariaco Basin, no such preferential P

484 mineralization was noted [Benitez-Nelson et al., 2004]. Our results also showed no clear 485 decrease in the POC/POP ratio in the water column, with the possible exception of St. I and 486 VIII. Higher than Redfield POC/POP ratios were observed at Peru on a previous occasion, 487 and may instead be driven by the C-to-P composition of the diatomaceous phytoplankton 488 communities [Franz et al., 2012] rather than preferential P dissolution or other controls such 489 as the input of terrestrial plant material with high POC/POP ratios. 490 Preferential POP over POC remineralization in anoxic sediments remains controversial [Ingall 491 and Van Cappellen, 1990; Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Colman et al., 1997; Anderson et al, 2001; 492 McManus et al, 1997; Ruttenberg, 2003; Jilbert et al, 2011]. Our results, however, also 493 showed no clear trend across all stations. At station I, IV and VI (74, 141 and 244m) the 494 POC/POP increased with sediment depth indicating preferential POP over POC 495 remineralization. At station III (128 m) this trend occurred only in the upper cm and at station 496 V (195 m) no preferential POP over POC remineralization was found. POC/POP ratios at 497 station VIII (407 m) showed a POP enrichment over the upper 2 cm of the sediment. Below 498 this depth, there was a sudden increase in POC/POP ratios, which is likely due to intense POP 499 remineralization and subsequent authigenic formation of phosphorites (sink-switching, see 500 section 5.2.3). 501 Another interesting finding pointing to sink-switching can be found in the POC/POP and 502 POC/PIP ratios of the deepest water column particle sample and the first sediment sample at 503 stations I, IV, VI and VIII (74, 141 and 407 m). Increasing POC/POP and decreasing 504 POC/PIP ratios indicate that POP is converted into PIP while the TPP content of the sediment 505 is conserved (Fig. 2A and B). In agreement with similar findings in anoxic sediments 506 [Ruttenberg and Berner, 1993; Faul et al., 2005 and others] we assume that the observed POP 507 to PIP transformation is due to the formation of CFAs. However, our results emphasize that 508 sink-switching is obviously occurring at the interface between bottom waters and sediments. Interestingly, the water column POC/TPP ratios were close to Redfield ratio. This could be an 509 effect of surface adsorption of P on phytoplankton as previously described by Sanudo-510 511 Wilhelmy et al. (2004). Those authors investigated different species of *Trichodesmium* from 512 the Atlantic Ocean and found that the intracellular P pool was strongly depleted relative to C, 513 whereas the combination of the intracellular plus the surface adsorbed P was close to the 514 Redfield ratio. Although we did not exactly differentiate between internal and external P pools, and considering that additional P sources like terrigenous P are less important (see section 5.2.1), our results generally support the findings of Sanudo-Wilhelmy et al. (2004).

However, future studies are required to substantiate this hypothesis.

Sedimentary POC/TPP ratios were also close to Redfield, except at station I and VIII (74 and 407 m). Thus, on the one hand, the sink switching mechanism operates efficiently under low oxygen conditions and on the other hand, the relative degradation of TPP and POC are not changing from the water column to the sediments (Fig. 2B). This is an important finding because at first sight this observation seems to be inconsistent with the long-standing paradigm that low oxygen conditions promote the enhanced release of dissolved P from sediments [Van Cappellen and Ingall, 1996]. However, it should be noted that marine sediments covered by oxygenated bottom waters display molar POC/TPP ratios ranging from about 10 to 50 [Baturin 2007]. These ratios are much lower than Redfield because P is retained in sediments via adsorption, authigenic mineral precipitation such as Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and microbial P sequestration [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994], and because POC is more efficiently degraded under aerobic conditions [Hedges et al., 1999, Wallmann, 2010]. In contrast, our data set implies that oxygen deficiency causes a shift of POC/TPP ratios to values closer to Redfield compared to oxygenated regions, which is due to both, the enhanced preservation of POC (Dale et al., 2015) and release of dissolved phosphate under low oxygen conditions. It remains puzzling why the extreme P depletion observed in some black shale sequences (e.g. POC/TPP > 3000, Ingall and Jahnke, 1994) are not found in modern anoxic sediments such as those on the Peru margin.

5.2 P mass balance

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P release rates from sediments underlying oxygen deficient waters are strongly enhanced compared to oxygenated marine settings, especially in the Peruvian OMZ [Noffke et al., 2012 and 2016]. Nonetheless, the sources for the enhanced P release are still not completely identified. The widely held view is that POP raining from the water column to the sediments represents the main source for sedimentary P in high productive areas like the Peru upwelling system [Delaney, 1998; Filippelli, 2008]. Mass balance approaches that resolve the P regeneration versus burial in oxygen deficient environments by combining sedimentary data and benthic P fluxes are rare [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Ingall et al., 2005; Mort et al., 2010; Kraal et al., 2012; Noffke, 2014]. These studies are all based on sediment data only, that is,

the external P input to the sediments is estimated or ignored. Furthermore, the study areas were often not covered by fully anoxic bottom waters. Noffke (2014) presented an approach that combines measurements of solid phase P speciation, sediment burial fluxes and benthic chamber flux measurements for a mass balance on benthic P cycling in the Peruvian OMZ. Interestingly, the measurements on the solid phase P speciation revealed that organic P accounted for only 18-37% of the total sedimentary P on the shelf and upper slope [Noffke, 2014]. Furthermore, it was found that P bound to Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and terrigenous P was of minor importance for the total sedimentary P inventory. However, authigenic Ca-P with a high amount of fish-P accounted for up to 47% of the total P in sediments down to 300 m water depth and for up to 70% in sediments below 300 m water depth. Consequently, Noffke (2014) suggested that authigenic Ca-P phases are an additional major P source besides organic P for benthic P release in the Peruvian OMZ.

Their mass balance approach was solely based on benthic work and has large uncertainties regarding the particulate P input from the water column. Our approach includes the particulate organic and inorganic P input from the water column, benthic P flux measurements and the P burial fluxes and is based on the steady state assumption that the P input has to be sufficient to maintain the benthic P flux and P burial flux. The P mass balance calculations (Table 4) illustrate the variability in TPO₄ release and burial as well as in the magnitude of particulate organic (Fig. 5A) and particulate inorganic P input (Fig. 5B) across the transect. Following the general assumption that POP is the major P phase delivered to the sediments [Delaney, 1998; Filippelli, 2008], we first calculated whether the rain rate of POP (RR_{POP}) to the seafloor can account for the measured benthic P fluxes (F_{TPO4}) and P burial fluxes (F_{Pbur}) (Fig. 5A, Table 4). However, as already suggested by Noffke et al. (2012 and 2014), the POP fraction is far too small to balance the measured benthic fluxes in the Peruvian OMZ. The POP rain rates calculated along the transect can account for only 25 to 48% of the measured TPO₄ fluxes (Fig. 5A), suggesting likely the presence of an additional inorganic source of dissolved phosphate [Noffke, 2014]. Similar to previous studies [Paytan et al., 2003; Faul et al., 2005; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2007; Lyons et al., 2011; Sekula-Wood et al., 2012], we found that the PIP fraction in water column particles ranging from 75 to 407 m water depth comprises between 21-74% of TPP (Fig. 3). In the sediments, the average PIP fraction rises to 48-98% of TPP (Fig. 3). Furthermore, POC and PIP were correlated (r²=0.74) in the water column particles indicating highly reactive material.

The mass balance approach including the PIP rain rate to the seafloor (Fig. 5B) allows the depth transect to be divided into two sections. The transect section I (station I, 74 m and III, 128 m) is characterized by high P input and release rates. The calculations on the P budget show a balance between the particulate P input, the benthic P fluxes and the P burial fluxes within the error margin (± 20%). In transect section II (stations IV, 141 m, V, 195 m and VI, 244 m), the P input decreases drastically (Fig. 5B, Table 4) whereas the benthic P fluxes are still comparatively high. The distinct mismatch in P input and P output prevails as the particulate P rain rates supported only 37 to 53 % of the measured TPO₄ fluxes and calculated burial fluxes. This leads to the question: What drives the excess TPO₄ release in the core of the Peruvian OMZ?

5.2.1 Additional P input

Besides the particulate matter raining to the sediments, other potential other P sources can be considered. Firstly, riverine transported material from the continent may be an additional source of P to the sediments. Due to fast sinking speed and laterally dominated transport it is possible that this P fraction is at least underrepresented on the filter samples. In order to provide a maximum estimate for the contribution of the terrigenous P input to the sediments, this fraction was calculated using the mass accumulation rate of Al in the first centimeter of sediment and an average molar P/Al-ratio (Table 2) of 0.02 for riverine suspended particles [Viers et al., 2009]. The resulting terrigenous P flux accounted for 5-19 % of the total P input, which is insufficient to explain the observed discrepancies in the P budget of transect section II (Table 4, Fig. 4C, 5B).

Laterally transported particles enriched in P from the very shallow shelf could be an additional P source [e.g. Jahnke, 1990]. However, the particles would need to be strongly enriched in P, which is not the case. In addition, this would have to be reflected in the POC/TPP ratios of the surface sediments in transect section II (Fig. 2B). The ratios are not, or only slightly, enriched in TPP compared to the water column particles, which leads to the conclusion that lateral transport of P-enriched particles to the sediments is an unlikely candidate for the missing P source.

Another alternative is the existence of an additional PIP phase supplied by fast sinking material (e.g. P containing fish scales; Suess, 1981) that was not sampled during CTD casts and hence underrepresented on our filter samples. Díaz-Ochoa et al. (2009) showed that fish P

can make up to 20% of the total sedimentary P inventory in the shelf sediments of the Peruvian OMZ. Fish P input should be depicted in low sedimentary POC/TPP ratios compared to the water column particles. Since this difference is not observed it is likely that fish debris can be ruled out for closing the P budget during the sampling campaign. Theoretically, sediments need to be composed of particles having POC/TPP ratios between 11 \pm 1 and 25 \pm 12 (Table 4) to maintain the measured P release rates in transect section II. It seems unlikely that the mismatch in the P mass balance is caused by additional particles deposited at the seabed since their POC/TPP ratio would need to be much lower than any value observed in our data set.

5.2.2 Non steady state scenarios – internal sedimentary P pools

Besides an additional P input to the sediments from the water column, episodic dissolution of particulate P within the sediment could contribute to the excess P release [Noffke et al.,

2012]. This could include P solubilized from Fe (oxyhydr)oxides or the degradation of

internally stored polyphosphates within sulfide-oxidizing bacteria. Driving factors could

include the temporal variability in bottom water oxygen and nutrient concentrations induced

by the passage of internal Kelvin waves and/or interannual variability related to El Niño and

625 La Niña [Gutiérrez et al., 2008].

benthic P flux and burial flux.

It is well recognized that the sedimentary cycles of Fe and P are strongly linked [e.g. Sundby et al., 1986]. Fe (oxyhydr)oxides are expected to be important carriers for phosphorus from the water column to the sediments. Following dissolution of solid Fe minerals in the sediments, the adsorbed P is released to the porewaters. However, in the Peruvian OMZ, oxygen concentrations in the water column are generally below detection limit. Consequently, Fe (oxyhydr)oxides are likely already dissolved in the water column and not such an important P source to the sediments. An estimate of phosphate released during the reduction of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides can be calculated from the diffusive Fe²⁺ fluxes and the molar Fe/P ratio typically found in Fe (oxyhydr)oxides. The diffusive Fe²⁺ fluxes were in the range of 0 to 0.03 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹during the M92 cruise (Table 4) and the molar Fe/P ratio of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides in the sediments is around 10 [Slomp et al., 1996]. The calculation of the TPO₄ release rates from Fe (oxyhydr)oxides (Eq. 14 in Table 2) results in a flux of 0.003 mmol PO₄³⁻ m⁻² d⁻¹ (Table 4, Fig. 4C and 5B), which is equivalent to less than 5% of the

An additional internally activated P pool is phosphate released from large sulfur-oxidizing bacteria, e.g. Beggiatoa [Sannigrahi and Ingall, 2005; Brock and Schulz-Vogt, 2011]. These microorganisms store P in the form of intracellular polyphosphate granules when terminal electron acceptors for sulfide oxidation are available (oxic conditions) and release dissolved P during periods when these oxidants are scarce (anoxic conditions). Hence, it is generally assumed that they strongly affect benthic TPO₄ fluxes in a system with frequently changing bottom water redox conditions [Ingall and Jahnke, 1994; Sannigrahi and Ingall, 2005; Schulz and Jørgensen, 2005; Brock and Schulz-Vogt, 2011; Dale et al., 2013]. Polyphosphates have been shown to be an important P pool in the sediments of highly productive upwelling areas [Kraal et al., 2015]. Along the depth transect at Peru, dense mats of sulfur bacteria related to Marithioploca were observed on the sediments during video-launched MUC and benthic lander deployments down to 300 m water depth [Dale et al., 2015]. Similar findings extended distributions of microbial mats along a latitudinal transect at 11°S off were also previously described by Mosch et al. (2012) and Gutiérrez et al. (2008). Although, these organisms are not known to store polyphosphates like their close relatives, Beggiatoa spp. and Thiomargarita spp. [Høgslund et al., 2009; Holmkvist et al., 2010], our findings provide circumstantial indications for P uptake and release by Marithioploca-related bacteria.

Firstly, we found that the relative abundance of copies of Marithioploca-related bacteria per g⁻¹ sediment and the measured benthic TPO₄ release rates correlate linearly (r²=0.92, Fig. 6). This finding supports the suggestion that bacteria exert an important control on benthic P fluxes. Secondly, a comparison of the in situ measured benthic P fluxes and the diffusive P fluxes calculated from the difference of the TPO₄ bottom water concentration and the TPO₄ porewater concentration of the surface sediments revealed large differences (Fig. 4B). Such a difference could be explained by the lysis of bacterial cells during sample retrieval followed by the release of the internally stored polyphosphate pool into the porewater. Following this argument, the diffusive P fluxes cannot be taken as real fluxes, but as a measure for potential maximum release rates of P by Marithioploca-related bacteria. It should be noted that, the potential fluxes are more than sufficient to compensate for the missing P fraction in transect section II (ranging from 0.5 to 1.6 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹; Table 4, Fig. 4B).

In addition to the established porewater extraction procedure, we carried out freeze/thaw experiments to quantify the amount of P stored in sulfide-oxidizing bacteria (see method section 3.7). The released polyphosphates from the microbial cells after repeated freeze/thaw

cycles are rapidly hydrolyzed to orthophosphate under acidic conditions [Jager and Hevns, 1998]. Hence, the standard method to determine phosphate in the porewaters using acidic reagents will favor the hydrolysis of polyphosphates enabling us the measure its concentration in the porewaters after conducting the experiments. However, this method cannot exclude P release from other bacteria and, possibly, foraminifera in the sediments. A comparison of the porewater phosphate concentrations and the experiment results shows that the internal P reservoir is as twice as high as the porewater P concentration in transect section I and more than ten times larger in section II (Fig. 7). These results are coincident with the findings from the mass balance approach, where the largest discrepancies occur in transect section II and are another indication for the bacterial impact on the benthic P release. Interestingly, the highest phosphate concentrations after the freeze/thaw experiments were found at station VIII (407) m) with abundant foraminifera rather than sulfide-oxidizing bacteria. Hence, we assume that the sulfide-oxidizing bacteria at station IV, V and VI (141, 194 and 244 m) and, potentially, the foraminifera observed at station VIII (407 m) are contributing phosphate to the porewaters. To our knowledge, P storage by foraminifera has not been demonstrated previously and awaits further study.

It remains to be shown how these mechanisms play out in detail (e.g. nutrient concentration thresholds, P uptake and release time scales by Marithioploca-related bacteria) and how they impact benthic P release in oxygen and nitrate deficient environments on longer time scales. Summarizing the results of the mass balance, it should be noted, that, even with the relevant data on particulate P rain rates, the benthic P mass balance for the core of the Peruvian OMZ is imbalanced and requires an additional P source to maintain the benthic TPO₄ fluxes. We suggest that sulfur bacteria make important contribution to this missing P source.

5.2.3 Indications for active phosphorite formation

In contrast to the stations between 74 and 244 m water depth characterized by P release, data from station VIII at 407 m water depth indicate the uptake of phosphate from the bottom water. To our best knowledge, this is the first time that a downward flux of dissolved phosphate from bottom waters into phosphorite-bearing surface sediments has been documented by in situ benthic flux measurements. Furthermore, the PIP concentrations in the surface sediments of station VIII (Fig. 2A) were 10 to 60 times higher compared to the shallower stations where P was released from the sediments. Taken together, these

observations indicate that a PIP phase, likely phosphorite, was precipitating from the porewater phosphate at the time of sampling. This is also reflected in decreasing porewater phosphate concentrations (Fig. 7).

Arning et al. (2008) presented investigations on phosphorites recovered from the Peruvian OMZ including a station at 12°S from the same water depth (~ 400 m) close to sampling station VIII. The suboxic bottom waters and low sedimentation rates in that area seem to be favorable for phosphorite formation close to the sediment-water interface [Arning et al., 2009b]. Cosmidis et al. (2013) suggested three mechanisms how high porewater phosphate concentrations that are essential for the phosphogenesis can be generated in the sediments: (1) remineralization of organic matter mainly through bacterial sulfate reduction releasing phosphate to the porewaters, (2) reductive dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and the release of adsorbed P and (3) synthesis of internally stored polyphosphates by large sulfide-oxidizing bacteria. Using the same mass balance approach as presented before, we calculated a P accumulation rate of 33 ± 4 mmol m⁻² vr⁻¹ at station VIII where most of the P is derived from ambient bottom waters (26 mmol m⁻² yr⁻¹). Hence, our data suggest that the phosphorite nodules at this station contain phosphate that originates predominantly from ambient bottom waters. Additionally, as already mentioned, sediments at station VIII were covered by benthic foraminifera instead of mat-forming sulfur bacteria. The release of phosphate from frozen samples from this site may indicate that these foraminifera are a source for polyphosphates (see section 3.7 and Fig. 7). Our observations suggest that benthic foraminifer arather than bacterial mats might facilitate the uptake of bottom water phosphate and the formation of phosphorites at this station. However, this remains an open question and should be addressed in future field campaigns.

The P uptake rate of ~ 26 mmol P m⁻² yr⁻¹ derived from our lander measurements may be compared to previous estimates on phosphorite growth rates in the area. Dating of phosphoric laminites yields a P uptake rate of only 3 mmol P m⁻² yr⁻¹ for a ca. 1 Ma old nodule [Arning et al., 2009a]. These different fluxes may be at least partly explained by the methodological difference (present flux measurement vs. long-term average). However, growth rates determined on modern nodules are broadly consistent with our flux measurements [Burnett et al., 1982].

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6 Conclusions

735 This study aimed to identify the P sources of benthic P release in the Peruvian OMZ. We 736 determined the rain rates of particulate organic phosphorus and particulate inorganic 737 phosphorus as well as benthic P release rates and P burial fluxes.

Our calculations revealed that within the core OMZ particulate phosphorus rain rates cannot account for measured benthic P fluxes and burial fluxes. From systematic analysis of potential P sources, we conclude that periodic P release from sulfur bacteria that store and release P under oscillating redox conditions could strongly modulate benthic P fluxes, and hence explain the missing P source. We visited the area during austral summer when oxygen and nitrate levels were depleted by high export production and respiration. It is possible that the Peruvian OMZ was less reducing prior to our sampling period due to lower respiration rates and/or better ventilation. Thus, we propose that the bacterial mats on the Peru margin act as phosphorus capacitors, being discharged during austral summer and recharged during other periods of the year when bottom waters are less reducing, as previously proposed in Dale et al. (2013). This hypothesis could be tested by studying of the seasonality of benthic fluxes in the Peruvian up-welling system and P dynamics within the bacterial community.

In addition, measurements at one station (407 m water depth) showed clear indications for the uptake of dissolved phosphate by the sediments facilitating phosphorite formation. Our data imply that most of the P accumulating in these authigenic minerals originates from ambient bottom waters. Since this site was marked by a high abundance of P-bearing benthic foraminifera, we speculate that phosphate uptake and phosphorite formation may be linked to the presence of these organisms. This requires further study.

There was no clear preferential mineralization of POP relative to POC with depth in the water column. POC/TPP ratios in both water column particles and sediments were close to Redfield at most sites in the Peruvian OMZ. This observation strongly suggests that the relative burial efficiencies of POC and TPP are similar under low oxygen conditions. Importantly, it further shows that the sediments underlying the anoxic waters on the Peru margin are not depleted in P compared to Redfield. Rather, they are depleted relative to sediments underlying oxic waters, which show POC/TPP ratios well below Redfield (Wallmann, 2010). Thus, at Peru, a lack of oxygen promotes the intensified release of dissolved P from sediments, whilst preserving a POC/TPP burial ratio that is similar to Redfield.

Our data support the hypothesis that benthic P release is linked via a positive feedback loop to intensified primary production in the surface water and oxygen demand in the water column during periods where bottom waters redox conditions promote the release of P from the sediments. However, this positive feedback is limited by the formation of authigenic inorganic P phases that maintains the long-term average POC/TPP burial ratio close to Redfield.

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Author contribution

- 773 UL, AD and SS supported the shipboard work, geochemical analysis and contributed to the
- 774 manuscript. CH, KW and AN helped with fruitful discussions related to the manuscript and
- with the manuscript preparation. CL carried out the molecular analysis and contributed to the
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Tables

Table 1: Station list for the sites of the benthic lander (BIGO), multi-corer (MUC) and CTD deployments including the bottom water concentrations of oxygen (O_2), nitrate (NO_3) and sulfide (H_2S) in μ M. The station numbers were according to Dale et al., 2015. bdl=below detection limit (5 μ M)

Nr.	Station	Gear	Date (2013)	Longitude (°W)	Latitude (°S)	Water depth (m)	BW O ₂ (μM)	BW NO ₃ - (μM)	BW H ₂ S (μM)
	98	CTD26	14.01.	12°13.504'	77°10.799'	75			
I	220	MUC39	25.01.	12°13.531'	77°10.061'	72	bdl	-	33.22
	110	BIGO1-2	15.01.	12°13.506 <mark>'</mark>	77°10.793 <mark>'</mark>	74			
	269	CTD79	29.01.	12°16.690'	77°14.999'	128			
III	248	MUC46	27.01.	12°16.697'	77°15.001'	129	bld	0.02	-
	165	BIGO2-4	20.01.	12°16.690 <mark>'</mark>	77°14.995 <mark>'</mark>	128			
	111	CTD29	15.01.	12°18.729'	77°17.757'	145			
IV	36	MUC10	09.01.	12°18.708'	77°17.794	145	bdl	7.1	
	57	BIGO1-1	11.01.	12°18.711 <mark>'</mark>	77°17.803 <mark>'</mark>	141			
	279	CTD81	30.01.	12°21.490'	77°21.713'	195			
V	247	MUC45	27.01.	12°21.491'	77°21.702'	195	bdl	6.3	-
	201	BIGO1-4	23.01.	12°21.502 <mark>'</mark>	77°21.712 <mark>'</mark>	195			
	92	CTD24	13.01.	12°23.300'	77°24.200°	244			
VI	198	MUC34	23.01.	12°23.300'	77°24.228'	244	bdl	11.9	-
	74	BIGO2-2	12.01.	12°23.300 <mark>°</mark>	77°24.186 <mark>'</mark>	244			

	66	CTD16	12.01.	12°27.535'	77°29.593	414			
VIII	107	MUC23	15.01.	12°27.198'	77°29.497'	407	bdl	12.1	-
	207	BIGO2-5	24.01.	12°27.207'	77°29.517'	409			

Table 2: Equations for the P mass balance calculations. Results are shown in Table 4.

Equations for P mass balance calculations

P Input to the sediments (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹)

$$RR_{TPP} = RR_{PIP} + RR_{POP} = F_{TPO4} + F_{Pbur}$$

$$RR_{PIP} = RR_{POC} / \left(\frac{POC}{PIP}\right)$$

$$RR_{POP} = RR_{POC} / \left(\frac{POC}{POP}\right)$$

(7) Terrigenous P input
$$(P/Al = 0.02, Vier et al., 2009)$$

$$RR_{Pterr} = Al_{(0-1)} * MAR * \frac{P}{Al}$$

P Burial in the sediments (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ and g m⁻² d⁻¹) at 11 cm

$$F_{Pbur} = MAR * P_{11}$$

$$MAR = \rho_{dry} * (1 - \frac{\phi_{\infty}}{}) * SR$$

$$PBE = MAR * \left(\frac{P_{11}}{RR_{TPP}}\right) * 100 \%$$

P release from the sediments (mmol m^{-.2} d⁻¹)

Benthic P fluxes (F_{TPO4}) and the potential diffusive P fluxes were determined as descried in the methods

$$F_{P(Red)} = F_{DIC}/106$$

$$F_{P(POP)} = F_{DIC} / \left(\frac{POC}{POP}\right)$$

$$F_{P(TPP)} = F_{DIC} / \left(\frac{POC}{TPP}\right)$$

(14) P release from the dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides (Fe/P =
$$10$$
, Slomp et al., 1996)

$$F_{P(Fe)} = F_{Fe2+} / \left(\frac{Fe}{P}\right)$$

$$F_{P(deficit)} = \frac{RR_{TPP} + RR_{terr} + F_{P(Fe)}}{- (F_{TPO4} + F_{Pbur})}$$

Table 3: In situ benthic chamber TPO₄ fluxes in mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ along the 12°S transect. The numbers are shown as an average calculated from the minimum and maximum flux determined from two benthic chambers.

	Station	Water depth	F_{TPO4}
	Station	(m)	$(mmol \ m^{-2}d^{-1})$
I	BIGO1_2	74	1.04 ± 0.31
II	BIGO1_5	101	0.35 ± 0.01
Ш	BIGO2_4	128	0.30 ± 0.05
IV	BIGO1_1	141	0.23 ^a
\mathbf{V}	BIGO1_4	195	0.12 a
VI	BIGO2_2	243	0.44 ± 0.07
VII	BIGO2_1	306	0.26 ± 0.04
VIII	BIGO2_5	409	-0.07 ^a
IX	BIGO2_3	756	0.06 a
X	BIGO1_3	989	0.02 ± 0.02

1076 a only one benthic flux was measured

Table 4: Measured and calculated parameters for the P mass balance along the 12°S transect. The numbers in front of key parameters
 correspond to equations in Table 2.

	Transect section I					Transect section II						Phosphorite formation		
12°S	Station I 74 m		Station III 128 m			Station IV 141 m		Station V 195 m		Station VI 244 m		Station VIII 407 m		
Benthic chamber TPO ₄ flux (F _{TPO4})* mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	1.04	± 0.31	0.3	± 0.05	0.23	-	0.12	-	0.44	± 0.07	-0.07	-		
Potential (diffusive) TPO ₄ flux (pot.						_					.			
F _{TPO4})	1.07	± 0.23	2.0	-	0.5	-	1.6		1.5	<mark>-</mark>	I			
mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹											ı			
Relative abundance of Marithioploca-											ı			
related bacteria*	4159				1687		3072				190			
copies g ⁻¹ (0- <mark>5 c</mark> m sediment depth)											! -			
Benthic chamber DIC flux (F _{DIC})**	65.9	± 21	20.4	± 7	8	± 0.4	3.2	± 1	4.7	± 1	2.2	± 0.3		
$mmol \ m^{-2} \ d^{-1}$											 I			
POC rain rate (RR _{POC})**	79.5	± 33	28.2	± 12	10.5	± 3	12.5	± 6	10.6	± 4	2.7	± 1		
$mmol m^{-2} d^{-1}$	77.5	- 33	20.2	- 12	10.5	- 3	12.3	- 0	10.0		1	- 1		
Sediment accumulation rate $(\omega_{acc})^{**}$	0.45	± 0.09	0.2	± 0.04	0.04	± 0.008	0.1	± 0.02	0.07	± 0.014	0.01	± 0.002		
cm yr ⁻¹	0.43	± 0.09	0.2	± 0.04	0.04	± 0.008	0.1	± 0.02	0.07	± 0.014	0.01	± 0.002		
Mass accumulation rate (MAR)**	1000	. 260	600	. 120	120	. 26	220		102	. 27	I	. 0		
g m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	1800	± 360	600	± 120	128	± 26	320	± 64	182	± 37	■ 44	± 9		
Ratios for particulate matter from the											I			
water column (2 to 5 m above the sea											ı			
floo <mark>r):</mark>											ı			
POC <mark>/</mark> TPP*	76	± 4	68	± 9	94	± 10	132	± 36	62	± 9	96	± 9		
POC <mark>/</mark> PIP <mark>*</mark>	197	± 17	125	± 34	291	± 79	385	± 7	217	± 34	209	±34		
POC <mark>/</mark> POP <mark>*</mark>	126	± 17	149	± 29	142	± 3	214	± 87	87	± 29	178	±29		
(4) TPP rain rate (RR _{TPP})	1.00	± 0.31	0.40	± 0.09	0.11	±0.02	0.09	± 0.02	0.17	± 0.02	0.03	± 0.01		

$mmol \ m^{-2} \ d^{-1}$					ı							I		
(5) PIP rain rate (RR _{PIP}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	0.39	± 0.14	0.22	± 0.04	0.0)4 ±	: 0	0.03	± 0.02	0.05	± 0.01	I I	0.01	± 0.01
(6) POP rain rate (RR _{POP}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	0.61	± 0.18	0.18	± 0.05	0.0)7 ±6	0.02	0.06	± 0.01	0.12	± 0.01) 	0.01	± 0.01
(7) Terrigenous P input (RR _{Pterr})	0.10	-	0.02	-	0.0)1 -		0.02	-	0.01	-	i	0.00	-
(8) Burial flux (F _{Pbur}) in <mark>11</mark> cm					ı							1		
sediment depth	0.23	-	0.09	-	0.0)2 -		0.08	-	0.04	-	1	0.13	-
mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹					!							!		
Avg. Al conc. (0-1 cm sediment)														
(Al ₀₋₁)*	0.99	-	0.70	-	1.1	0 -		0.97	-	0.72	-	:	0.66	-
mmol g ⁻¹					i							i		
Avg. P conc. (0-11 cm sediment)					I							1		
(<mark>P₁₁)*</mark>	0.05	-	0.05	-	0.0	<mark>)7</mark> -		0.09	-	0.08	-	1	1.05	-
mmol g ⁻¹					!							!		
(40) D. I. I. OH I. (DDD) . 44														
(10) P burial efficiency (PBE) <mark>at 11cm</mark>					_									
sediment depth	26	± 8	23	± 4	1 1	±	: <mark>5</mark>	92	± 20	23	± 2	I I	<mark>490</mark>	± 100
sediment depth %	26	± 8	23	± 4	2	23 ±	: <mark>5</mark>	92	± 20	23	± 2	 	490	± 100
sediment depth % (11) P release from POP degradation					 							 		
sediment depth % (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield (F _{P(Red)})	0.62	± 8 ± 0.2	0.19	± 4 ± 0.06	1 2 1 1 1 0.0		0.01	92 0.03	± 20 ± 0.01	0.04	± 2 ± 0.02	! ! !		± 100 ± 0
sediment depth % (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield (F _{P(Red)}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹					 							 		
sediment depth % (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield (F _{P(Red)}))8 ±								
sediment depth % (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield (F _{P(Red)}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹ (12) P release from POP degradation	0.62	± 0.2	0.19	± 0.06	0.0)8 ±	0.01	0.03	± 0.01	0.04	± 0.02		0.02	± 0
sediment depth $\%$ (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield ($F_{P(Red)}$) mmol m^2 d^{-1} (12) P release from POP degradation ($F_{P(POP)}$)	0.62	± 0.2	0.19	± 0.06	0.0)8 ±	0.01	0.03	± 0.01	0.04	± 0.02		0.02	± 0
sediment depth $\%$ (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield ($F_{P(Red)}$) mmol m^{-2} d^{-1} (12) P release from POP degradation ($F_{P(POP)}$) mmol m^{-2} d^{-1}	0.62	± 0.2	0.19	± 0.06	0.0	08 ±	0.01	0.03	± 0.01	0.04	± 0.02		0.02	± 0
sediment depth $\%$ (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield ($F_{P(Red)}$) mmol m^2 d^{-1} (12) P release from POP degradation ($F_{P(POP)}$) mmol m^{-2} d^{-1} (13) P release from TPP degradation	0.62	± 0.2 ± 0.16	0.19	± 0.06 ± 0.05	0.0	08 ±	0.01	0.03	± 0.01 ± 0.01	0.04	± 0.02 ± 0.02		0.02	± 0 ± 0
sediment depth % (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield (F _{P(Red)}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹ (12) P release from POP degradation (F _{P(POP)}) mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹ (13) P release from TPP degradation (F _{P(TPP)})	0.62 0.52 0.87	± 0.2 ± 0.16 ± 0.17	0.19 0.14 0.3	± 0.06 ± 0.05 ± 0.1	0.0)8 ±	0.01	0.03 0.02 0.02	± 0.01 ± 0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 0.05 0.08	± 0.02 ± 0.02 ± 0.02		0.02	± 0 ± 0
sediment depth $\%$ (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield ($F_{P(Red)}$) mmol m^{-2} d^{-1} (12) P release from POP degradation ($F_{P(POP)}$) mmol m^{-2} d^{-1} (13) P release from TPP degradation ($F_{P(TPP)}$) mmol m^{-2} d^{-1}	0.62	± 0.2 ± 0.16	0.19	± 0.06 ± 0.05 ± 0.1	0.0	08 ±	0.01	0.03	± 0.01 ± 0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 0.05 0.08	± 0.02 ± 0.02		0.02	± 0 ± 0
sediment depth $\%$ (11) P release from POP degradation according to Redfield ($F_{P(Red)}$) mmol m^2 d^{-1} (12) P release from POP degradation ($F_{P(POP)}$) mmol m^2 d^{-1} (13) P release from TPP degradation ($F_{P(TPP)}$) mmol m^2 d^{-1} Benthic diffusive TPO ₄ flux (potential	0.62 0.52 0.87	± 0.2 ± 0.16 ± 0.17	0.19 0.14 0.3	± 0.06 ± 0.05 ± 0.1	0.0	08 ± 06 ± 09 ±	0.01	0.03 0.02 0.02	± 0.01 ± 0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 0.05 0.08	± 0.02 ± 0.02 ± 0.02		0.02	± 0 ± 0

(14) P release from	ı
Fe (oxyhydr)oxides ($F_{P(Fe)}$) 0.004 ± 0.002 0.001 0.002 0.003	0.0
mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	
(15) P required to outbalance the P	
budget (F _{P(deficit)}) - 0.3 -	
mmol m ⁻² d ⁻¹	i

1079 * this study

1080 **published data from Dale et al. (2015)

1081 Figure captions

- 1082 **Figure 1**: Study area, sampling stations and O₂ concentration in μM along the 12°S transect.
- Figure 2A: Concentration profiles of TPP, PIP, POP and POC of the water column particles
- and the surface sediments along the 12°S transect. Water column particle concentrations
- 1085 (upper panel) are given in umol L⁻¹ and surface sediment concentrations (lower panel) are
- shown in µmol mg⁻¹. Note that the water column particle concentrations shown for station VI
- 1087 (244 m) at 10 m water depth are \sim 5 times higher than at the other stations.
- Figure 2B: Ratios of POC to TPP, PIP and POP (POC/xP) along the 12°S depth transect of
- water column particles and surface sediments (0 5.5 cm depth) of station I to VIII (74 to 407)
- 1090 m).
- 1091 Figure 3: Average distribution of POP and PIP (%) per station in the water column particles
- and in the top 5.5 cm of the sediments.
- Figure 4A: Measured benthic TPO₄ fluxes (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) at 12°S. The black line shows the
- theoretical TPO₄ flux generated from organic matter degradation with a Redfield POC/POP
- 1095 ratio of 106.
- 1096 **Figure 4B:** Potential TPO₄ fluxes (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) calculated from porewater profiles
- 1097 compared to the measured benthic TPO₄ fluxes (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) at stations I to VIII (74 to 407)
- 1098 m). The black line with triangles depicts the TPO₄ flux that could be generated during
- degradation of total particulate phosphorus.
- Figure 4C: P percentages of the different P sources and the missing P that is needed to
- maintain the measured TPO₄ release rates and P burial fluxes for stations IV, V and VI (141,
- 1102 195 and 244 m) of transect section II. The missing P is assumed to be supplied by sulfide-
- oxidizing Marithioploca-related bacteria (see Discussion).
- Figure 5: Mass balance calculations and measured benthic TPO₄ fluxes for stations I to VIII
- 1105 (74 to 407 m). All fluxes are in mmol $m^{-2} d^{-1}$.
- 1106 Figure 5A: POP rain rates, TPO₄ fluxes and P burial rates only. The number in percent
- denotes missing P needed to sustain the benthic TPO₄ fluxes.

1108	Figure 5B: Mass balance calculations including the POP and PIP rain rates, the terrigenous P
1109	input, P release from the reductive dissolution of Fe (oxyhydr)oxides and the benthic TPO ₄
1110	fluxes into the bottom waters as well as the P burial rates.
1111	Figure 6: Measured benthic TPO ₄ fluxes versus relative abundance of Marithioploca in cells
1112	g ⁻¹ in the upper 5 cm of the sediment. Highest abundance and TPO ₄ flux was found at station
1113	I. The other data points are for the stations IV, VI and VIII (with decreasing abundance and
1114	TPO ₄ flux).
1115	Figure 7: Comparison of porewater PO ₄ ³⁻ concentrations (blue) before and after the
1116	freeze/thaw experiments (red) in μmol L ⁻¹ .