

1 **Water column biogeochemistry of oxygen minimum zones in the eastern tropical**
2 **North Atlantic and eastern tropical South Pacific Oceans**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Recent modeling results suggest that oceanic oxygen levels will decrease significantly over the
3 next decades to centuries in response to climate change and altered ocean circulation. Hence the
4 future ocean may experience major shifts in nutrient cycling triggered by the expansion and
5 intensification of tropical oxygen minimum zones (OMZs). There are numerous feedbacks
6 among oxygen concentrations, nutrient cycling and biological productivity; however, existing
7 knowledge is insufficient to understand physical, chemical and biological interactions in order to
8 adequately assess past and potential future changes.

9 The following summarizes the current state of research on the influence of low environmental
10 oxygen conditions on marine biota, viruses, organic matter formation and remineralization, with a
11 particular focus on the nitrogen cycle in OMZ regions of the eastern tropical North Atlantic and
12 eastern tropical South Pacific. The impact of sulfidic events on water column biogeochemistry,
13 originating from a specific microbial community capable of highly efficient carbon fixation,
14 nitrogen turnover and N₂O production is further discussed. Based on our findings, an important
15 role of sinking particulate organic matter in controlling nutrient budgets of the water column is
16 suggested. These particles can enhance degradation processes in OMZ waters by acting as
17 microniches, with sharp gradients enabling different processes to happen in close vicinity, thus
18 altering the interpretation of oxic and anoxic environments.

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1 Introduction

Oxygen (O₂) plays a central role for life on Earth. Therefore, deciphering the oceanic O₂ distribution and its consequences for biogeochemical and ecological processes is one of the central aims of marine biogeochemistry. Oceanic oxygen minimum zones (OMZ) - alternatively also called oxygen deficiency zones - are defined as regions where the concentration of dissolved O₂ is significantly below the expected O₂ equilibrium concentration. The O₂ equilibrium concentration depends on seawater temperature, salinity, and the partial pressure of O₂ in the atmosphere at the time when a water mass was last in contact with the atmosphere. Significant O₂ depletion in the water column of the oceans is mainly resulting from microbial oxic respiration of organic matter. The most prominent and permanent OMZs (with midwater O₂ concentrations of less than 20 μmol kg⁻¹) are found in the eastern tropical North and South Pacific Oceans (ETNP and ETSP, respectively) as well as in the northwestern and northeastern Indian Ocean (i.e. Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal, respectively) (see, e.g., Paulmier and Ruiz-Pinto (2009), Figure 1). The estimated volume of OMZs with O₂ concentrations <20 μmol kg⁻¹ is about 1% of the global ocean volume (Lam and Kuypers, 2011). Approximately 0.05% of the global ocean volume has O₂ levels below 5 μmol kg⁻¹. This is generally considered the O₂ level where oxic respiration stops and alternative electron acceptors are used (Codispoti et al., 2001). Water masses with O₂ concentrations <20 μmol kg⁻¹ are generally considered suboxic; however, no consistent definition of suboxia exists (Canfield and Thamdrup, 2009). Anoxia has been defined by the lowest measurable O₂ concentration, but because of the continued improvements in O₂ sensing this level is changing with time (Banse et al., 2014;Revsbech et al., 2009;Thamdrup et al., 2012). For the purpose of this review, we will use the terms oxic, suboxic, anoxic and sulfidic according to the definitions presented in Table 1.

Several OMZ regions are associated with wind-driven eastern boundary upwelling regions (Capone and Hutchins, 2013). Coastal upwelling supplies abundant nutrients to the surface and in turn fuels high phytoplankton productivity. The resulting increase in export production promotes a high O₂ consumption driven by respiration of organic matter in the underlying waters.

When oceanic O₂ concentrations decrease below certain (albeit not well defined and process dependent) threshold concentrations, major changes in remineralization processes and associated marine sources and sinks of important nutrient elements such as nitrogen, phosphorus and iron can occur in the water column as well as in the underlying sediments (see e.g., Wright et al. (2012)). Paleo-records give evidence for periods of dramatically reduced oceanic oxygen

1 concentrations that had major consequences for both marine biogeochemical cycles and
2 ecosystems (e.g., Kuypers et al. (2004)).

3 The effects of O₂-sensitive nutrient cycling processes occurring in these relatively small regions
4 (Codispoti, 2010) are conveyed to the rest of the ocean (see e.g. Deutsch et al. (2007)). Hence
5 comparatively "small" volumes of OMZs such as in the eastern tropical Pacific and NW Indian
6 Oceans can significantly impact nutrient budgets particularly the nitrogen (N) budget, biological
7 productivity and the overall CO₂ fixation of the ocean. For example, current estimates ascribe
8 30–50% of the global N loss to OMZs (Codispoti et al., 2001; Emery et al., 1955; Gruber, 2004),
9 producing negative N* values, i.e. nitrogen deficiency. This has been proposed to promote N₂
10 fixation in adjacent surface waters (Deutsch et al., 2007). As hotspots for N turnover processes,
11 OMZs are also major areas of greenhouse gas production, such as nitrous oxide (N₂O) (Arévalo-
12 Martínez et al., 2015; Codispoti, 2010). Modeling results (Bopp et al., 2013; Cocco et al., 2013),
13 predict that O₂ levels will decrease significantly over the next decades in response to climate
14 change and eutrophication. Hence, the future ocean may experience major shifts in nutrient
15 cycling triggered by the possible expansion and intensification of tropical OMZs (Codispoti,
16 2010).

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18 The following review of the major biogeochemical processes in OMZ waters is based on studies
19 of the Collaborative Research Centre 754 (SFB754) “Climate-Biogeochemistry Interactions in
20 the Tropical Ocean” (www.sfb754.de). The focus here is on the eastern tropical North Atlantic
21 (ETNA) and the eastern tropical South Pacific (ETSP) OMZs, because of their contrasting O₂
22 concentrations. The ETNA has O₂ concentrations typically above 40 μmol kg⁻¹, while the large
23 and persistent OMZ in the ETSP located off Peru and Chile has O₂ concentrations below the
24 detection limit based on conventional methods (~2 μmol kg⁻¹) (Figure 1). The two contrasting
25 OMZs were chosen to improve our understanding of the role of biogeochemical processes for the
26 development and maintenance of OMZs.

27

28 2 Marine biota and viruses in OMZs

29 2.1 Background

30 Viruses, microbes, protozoa and metazoa are responsible for remineralization processes under
31 oxic conditions; however, their contributions can change when O₂ concentrations decrease.

1 Metazoan activity and abundance is most sensitive to lower O₂ concentrations, whereas microbes
2 can thrive under diverse redox conditions using e.g. nitrate as electron acceptor. Microbial,
3 protozoan and metazoan energetics are governed by redox reactions and O₂ is the most
4 thermodynamically favorable electron acceptor (Danovaro et al., 2010;Fenchel and Finlay, 1990).
5 O₂ concentrations, which are saturated in surface waters, are depleted by respiration at depth. The
6 sensitivity and kinetics of metabolic reactions to gradual changes in O₂ concentrations are not
7 well understood under *in situ* conditions. The following section explores recent developments in
8 our understanding of the effect of O₂ on the living organisms and their impact on OMZ
9 biogeochemistry.

10

11 2.2 Microbes in OMZ waters

12 Classically, the most abundant organisms detected in OMZs belong to the Proteobacteria,
13 Bacteroidetes, Thaumarchaeota of the marine group A, Actinobacteria and Planctomycetes
14 (Schunck et al., 2013;Wright et al., 2012). Several candidate clusters have previously been
15 identified among which are the SAR11, SAR324 and SUP05 clusters (Schunck et al.,
16 2013;Wright et al., 2012). Most investigations of the microbial phylogenetic and functional
17 diversity resort to observing and correlating changes in oxygen concentrations to changes in the
18 microbial phylogenetic diversity. Indeed, several studies, including our own datasets corroborate
19 this idea: A combined statistical analysis of our metagenomic data of the ETSP OMZ (Kalvelage
20 et al., 2015) and datasets from the Chilean OMZ (Canfield et al., 2010;Stewart et al., 2011) has
21 resulted in a partitioning of the OMZ in 5 different habitats, namely surface, subsurface (defined
22 as below the mixed layer and above waters with O₂ > 20μmol kg⁻¹), oxyclines, OMZ core (O₂ < 5
23 μmol kg⁻¹) and sulfidic waters (Figure 2). High-resolution sampling in the eastern tropical North
24 Pacific OMZ has shown that the microbial richness is highest at the base of the euphotic zone and
25 the upper oxycline (Beman and Carolan, 2013), often along with high organic flux, low O₂
26 concentrations and dynamic cycling of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and sulfur (S). It has been
27 suggested that sinking particles promote a diverse community of heterotrophs, whereas the low
28 abundant microorganisms such as sulfur-oxidizers, purple sulfur bacteria (Chromatiales) and
29 anammox bacteria rather seem to contribute to the OMZs “rare biosphere” (Beman and Carolan,
30 2013;Pedros-Alio, 2012).

31 Microorganisms are generally considered responsible for most of the remineralization in the
32 ocean. This view is probably justified with respect to carbon, given the high rates of microbial

1 respiration (del Giorgio and Cole, 1998). Owing to the relatively low N and phosphorous (P)
2 content of dissolved organic matter, however, bacteria may be less important for the
3 remineralization of N and P and in fact often compete with phytoplankton for inorganic nutrients
4 in the surface ocean (Anderson and Williams, 1998;Pahlow and Vézina, 2003). Remineralization
5 of N and P may thus be largely due to zooplankton activity (Caron et al., 1988;Garber,
6 1984;Pahlow et al., 2008).

7

8 2.3 Metazoans in OMZ waters

9 The adaptive response of marine metazoan animals to O₂ availability has been the focus of
10 several studies (for extensive reviews see Ekau et al., (2010); Seibel, (2011)). Abundance and
11 biomass of metazoans living permanently at extremely low oxygen concentrations is rather low
12 (Auel and Verheye, 2007;Escribano et al., 2009;Fernández-Álamo and Färber-Lorda,
13 2006;Saltzmann and Wishner, 1997;Wishner et al., 1998). However, many zooplankton and
14 nekton species feed in surface waters during the night and migrate to midwater depth **at daybreak**
15 to avoid **predation** (Lampert, 1989), and to conserve energy (McLaren, 1963). This behavior is
16 known as diel vertical migration (DVM) and some, but not all species can conduct DVMs to
17 hypoxic or even anoxic waters. In addition to changes in temperature with depth, DVM
18 organisms experience low O₂ concentrations **during** daytime as well as elevated pCO₂ (Brewer
19 and Peltzer, 2009;Paulmier et al., 2011). Animals that have evolved physiological (such as
20 metabolic suppression) and/or morphological adaptations (such as increased gill surface area)
21 allowing them to temporarily or permanently cope with O₂ depleted conditions include copepods,
22 e.g. *Eucalanus inermis*, (Flint et al., 1991), euphausiids, e.g. *Euphausia mucronata* (Antezana,
23 2009), decapods (Pearcy et al., 1977), cephalopods, e.g. *Dosidicus gigas* (Rosa and Seibel, 2010),
24 and teleosts (Friedman et al., 2012;Luo et al., 2000). **According to Seibel (2011), adaptations to**
25 **low oxygen levels are needed below approximately 40 μmol O₂ kg⁻¹.** Strong physiological
26 adaptations seem necessary to thrive in the ETSP OMZ, but not in the ETNA OMZ where O₂
27 concentrations are normally higher than 40 μmol kg⁻¹ (Teuber et al., 2013).

28 The main strategy to survive low oxygen conditions seems to be a down-regulation of aerobic
29 metabolism, which in its extreme form also results in rather sluggish behavior of otherwise highly
30 active animals (e.g., Trübenbach et al. (2013), for *Dosidicus gigas*). The main triggers for down-
31 regulation appear to be temperature and O₂, but also external pCO₂ (Pörtner et al., 2004). Effects

1 of ambient temperature, pO_2 and pCO_2 on metabolic rates of marine species have been studied
2 primarily in single factor experiments (reviewed, e.g., by (Ekau et al., 2010;Seibel, 2011)). In one
3 of the few studies that addressed the effect of all three factors, each of them alone reduced
4 metabolic rates of *Dosidicus gigas* (Rosa and Seibel, 2008). The combined effects on the
5 regulation of aerobic metabolism, however, remain not well understood.
6 In extreme OMZs, such as in the Eastern Tropical Pacific or the Arabian Sea with anoxic
7 conditions, vertically migrating animals may temporarily switch to an anaerobic metabolism.
8 This is only possible for restricted time periods – ultimately, all metazoans (besides a few
9 exceptions, see Danovaro et al. (2010)) rely on aerobic respiration. In invertebrates, the dominant
10 anaerobic pathway is glycolysis with lactate as an end product. The activity of the enzyme that
11 converts pyruvate to lactate, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), is used as an indicator of its anaerobic
12 capacity. In the Humboldt Current system, Gonzales & Quiñones (2002) observed that the
13 weight-specific LDH activity was two orders of magnitude higher in *Euphausia mucronata*
14 compared to the copepod *Calanus chilensis*. This inferred that these two key species have very
15 different DVM behaviors (which, in spite of their large phylogenetic difference, proved right). In
16 a scyphomedusa (*Periphylla periphylla*) the LDH activity was significantly higher in those
17 individuals caught in the Californian OMZ than in their open-ocean conspecifics (Thuesen et al.,
18 2005). However, the accumulation of lactate is energetically costly, and the animal must return to
19 oxygenated waters to oxidize lactic acid, and to replenish depleted ATP and phosphocreatine. In
20 teleost fishes, the alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) catalyzing the reduction of pyruvate to ethanol,
21 was shown to be more active in OMZ species than in ecological analogs of the same family in
22 oxygenated waters (Torres et al., 2012). The end product, ethanol, can be easily excreted via the
23 gills of the fish, thus preventing the accumulation of lactate. Previous studies had concluded that
24 mesopelagic fishes entering OMZs do not switch to anaerobic metabolism to avoid accumulation
25 of lactate (Childress and Seibel, 1998;Friedman et al., 2012).

26 27 2.4 Organic matter fluxes mediated by zooplankton and nekton

28 Zooplankton and nekton organisms are essential components of the biological pump as they are
29 responsible for the agglomeration of organic matter into rapidly sinking fecal pellets. Food is
30 consumed at night in the euphotic zone, whereas during the day pelagic species conducting
31 DVMs respire, excrete and egest in mid-water layers, enhancing export of organic matter from
32 the photic zone (Burd et al., 2010;Hannides et al., 2009;Robinson et al., 2010;Steinberg et al.,

1 2000). Migration depths are species specific and mostly controlled by light intensity (Lampert,
2 1989).

3 O₂ concentrations below a certain threshold level hinder DVM of most zooplankton and nekton.
4 On a regional scale (e.g. in the Peruvian upwelling system), studies addressing the vertical
5 distribution of zooplankton demonstrated that the upper boundary of the oxycline is the single
6 most critical factor structuring the habitat of most organisms (Escribano et al., 2009). The
7 expansion and intensification of OMZs may thus reduce zooplankton and nekton mediated fluxes
8 by decreasing DVM. Nevertheless, some specifically adapted species that are able to
9 downregulate their metabolic activity at low oxygen levels actively migrate into severely suboxic
10 to anoxic OMZs (e.g. *Eucalanus inermis* and *Euphausia mucronata*; Escribano et al. (2009)).
11 Estimates of zooplankton and nekton mediated carbon fluxes in OMZ regions are rare. For the
12 northern Chilean upwelling in the ETSP, Escribano (2009) found that migrations of only two key
13 species (*Eucalanus inermis* and *Euphausia mucronata*) contribute approximately 7.2 g C m⁻² d⁻¹
14 to the OMZ through respiration, mortality, and production of fecal pellets within the OMZ. In
15 comparison, passive sinking of C off northern Chile at 60 m depth is estimated to range from
16 0.093 to 0.152 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ (Gonzalez et al., 2000). In a much less intense OMZ area (e. g. in the
17 tropical Atlantic at the Bermuda Atlantic Time Series Station), DVM-related transport was found
18 to account for 30% of C and 57% of N export from the euphotic zone, relative to trap particulate
19 C and N (Steinberg et al., 2002), thus demonstrating the significance of DVM as export
20 mechanism.

21 A specific role of DVMs for the N cycle results from the secretion of ammonium: Ammonium is
22 an important nutrient in the anammox reaction which represents nearly 30-50% of N-loss activity
23 in the OMZ (Codispoti et al., 2001; Emery et al., 1955; Gruber, 2004). Bianchi et al. (2014)
24 suggested that DVMs could supply as much as 30% of the ammonium for the anammox reaction,
25 however assuming no reduction of ammonium excretion at OMZ conditions, which in fact occurs
26 quite drastically (Kiko et al., 2015a; Kiko et al., 2015b). Although the full significance of
27 anammox activity in the ETSP is still not well understood, it may be a major term in the N cycle
28 in that region (see section 4).

29

30 2.5 Why viruses are important for (understanding) OMZ biogeochemistry

1 With an estimated number of 4×10^{30} , viruses outweigh the number of prokaryotes ($\sim 1.2 \times 10^{29}$) in
2 the ocean by thirty times (Suttle, 2005; Whitman et al., 1998) and parasitize approximate 5-30%
3 of the marine cyanobacteria and heterotrophic bacteria (Ostfeld et al., 2010). Thus, it has been
4 proposed that viruses have potentially profound effects on microbe-driven biogeochemical
5 processes in the oxic waters as well as in OMZ waters (Cassman et al., 2012).

6 Without viral infection, microbial communities would be dominated by few competitive taxa that
7 most effectively scavenge the available resources (Thingstad and Lignell, 1997). However,
8 viruses can effectively regulate the most active microbes by controlling their numbers. On the
9 other hand, viruses can change nutrient stoichiometry in the water column directly through lytic
10 events. Lysis of bacterial cells leads to a release of organic compounds stored within them
11 (Breitbart, 2012). This transfer of nutrients from living organisms into the dissolved phase is
12 called the 'viral shunt' (Breitbart, 2012). Approximately 5-40% of the organic matter from, e.g.,
13 cyanobacteria and other prokaryotes, is recycled to dissolved organic matter (Ostfeld et al.,
14 2010), increasing microbial respiration rates and decreasing the efficiency of carbon transfer to
15 higher trophic levels (Suttle, 2005). Specifically, (cyano)phages in the ETSP have been shown to
16 release micronutrients such as iron into surrounding waters at an estimated flux of $10 \text{ pmol L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$
17 (Poorvin et al., 2004). Likewise, virus-induced bacterial lysis is responsible for a global N release
18 of $\sim 1-6 \text{ Gt a}^{-1}$, which significantly supports phytoplankton production (Shelford et al., 2012).
19 Viruses further impact the efficiency of the biological pump (Azam, 1998) by influencing particle
20 formation and disaggregation through discharging adhesive cell components (Peduzzi and
21 Weinbauer, 1993) and cell lysis (Weinbauer et al., 2011), respectively.

22 Cassman et al. (2012) discovered high abundances of DNA sequences originating from
23 siphoviruses, a family of bacteriophages within the order Caudovirales (see Figure 2 in Clokie et
24 al. (2011)) in the ETSP OMZ core. Siphoviruses are frequently lysogenic (Dwivedi et al., 2013).
25 This supports the hypothesis that viral lysogeny is more active in extreme environments (Maurice
26 et al., 2011; Cassman et al., 2012). If lysogeny is the prevailing mode of existence in OMZ core
27 viruses, one would expect changing environmental conditions such as temperature shifts (Bertani
28 and Nice, 1954; Seeley and Primrose, 1980) to induce lysis of host cells. This would consequently
29 lead to shifts in water column nutrient budgets that cannot be accounted for in biogeochemical
30 models by microbial processes alone.

31 Bacteriophages often carry auxiliary metabolic genes (AMGs) for critical rate-limiting steps of a
32 host's metabolism (Breitbart, 2012). For example, AMGs have been involved in photosynthesis

1 (Alperovitch-Lavy et al., 2011), nucleotide metabolism, carbon metabolism, phosphate
2 metabolism, stress response, antioxidation and translational/posttranslational modification
3 (Breitbart, 2012 and references therein). Interestingly, various genes involved in the cycling of
4 nitrogen and sulfur have been also found in viromes of ETSP waters (see Tables S3 and S4 in
5 Cassman et al. (2012)). These studies point towards a role of prokaryotic viruses in driving
6 microbial metabolic diversity and thus biogeochemical processes in OMZ waters.
7 To approach the role of OMZ microbial viruses in lysis, lysogeny and transfer of AMGs,
8 knowledge of the 'host-virus susceptibility pairs' - which microbes are infected by which viruses
9 – is required. A search of OMZ viral sequences in matching microbial metagenomic libraries
10 failed to identify such pairs (Cassman et al., 2012). The authors conjectured that host microbes of
11 OMZ viruses may be particle-bound and hence have been overlooked due to their removal in pre-
12 filtering steps. As particle-associated microbes are fairly common in OMZs as highly productive
13 environments (Ganesh et al., 2014), the respective viruses would be expected to be associated
14 with particulate matter, too.

15
16 **3 Fluxes of organic matter in tropical shallow OMZs**
17 Physical diffusive and advective transport processes largely control the supply of O₂ to the OMZ,
18 whereas sinks involve biological processes including respiration of organic matter (OM). In the
19 following section we shortly review key components of organic matter fluxes (passive sinking of
20 particles, physical downward transport of DOM; the role of zooplankton mediated fluxes has
21 already been described in Section 2) in tropical OMZs and synthesize recent ideas on that topic.

22
23 **3.1 Sinking of particles**
24 Knowledge about particle fluxes in areas of tropical OMZs is scarce and predominantly derived
25 from deep moored traps (Honjo et al., 2008). Only few studies have addressed upper ocean
26 export fluxes and mesopelagic flux attenuation in tropical OMZs, such as Martin et al. (1987),
27 Devol and Hartnett (2001) and VanMooy et al. (2002) for the Eastern Tropical Pacific by means
28 of surface tethered sediment traps, Buesseler et al. (1998) for the Arabian Sea by means of ²³⁴Th,
29 and Iversen et al. (2010) at the northern edge of the ETNA OMZ by means of particle camera
30 profiling. In the eastern tropical north Pacific (ETNP; Martin et al. (1987); Van Mooy et al.
31 (2002); Devol and Hartnett (2001)), as well as in the ETSP (Martin et al. 1987; Dale et al. (2015))
32 mesopelagic POC fluxes were less attenuated with depth (Martin curve exponent 'b' of 0.32-

1 0.81) compared with the widely used “open ocean composite” of $b=0.86$ (Martin et al. 1987).
2 Those studies indicate that a greater proportion of the sinking OM escapes degradation while
3 sinking through the eastern tropical Pacific OMZ. On the other hand, it has been shown that
4 microbial degradation of organic N and proteins under suboxia is not strongly affected (Pantoja et
5 al., 2009;Pantoja et al., 2004;Van Mooy et al., 2002). Still, little is known about the microbial
6 controls on the decomposition of organic matter under lower O_2 concentrations. An alternative
7 hypothesis could be that the diminished abundance of metazoans in the core of the OMZ results
8 in a lowered flux attenuation. If particles are not repackaged, fed upon, or destroyed, they might
9 sink at greater speeds through the OMZ, which would result in decreased degradation.

10

11 3.2 Physical fluxes of DOM

12 In contrast to particle fluxes, DOM transport is due exclusively to physical transport processes.
13 Here, we discuss horizontal and vertical DOM fluxes induced by mesoscale (horizontal scales of
14 10 – 100 km) and sub-mesoscale (100 m – 10 km) motion and vertical fluxes due to diapycnal
15 mixing. As an example of lateral eddy transport, elevated DOM concentrations have been
16 detected ($+11 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$) in the Canada Basin within an eddy originating from the shelf region
17 (Mathis et al., 2007). Lasternas et al. (2013) suggested a mechanism for DOM accumulation
18 within anticyclonic eddies, where nutrient downwelling causes a progressive oligotrophication,
19 enhanced cell mortality and lysis, which results in additional DOM release. Numerical model
20 simulations of the Peruvian upwelling regime show that mesoscale dynamics increase the
21 downward and offshore export of nutrients and biomass out of the coastal surface ocean
22 (Lathuiliere et al., 2010). Gruber et al. (2011) found that mesoscale eddy activity in upwelling
23 regimes results in a net reduction of biological productivity. Additionally, sub-mesoscale
24 upwelling filaments can enhance the off-shelf flux of labile DOM (Alvarez-Salgado et al., 2001).
25 Vertical velocities are higher at sub-mesoscale density fronts (Klein and Lapeyre, 2009;Levy et
26 al., 2012;Thomas et al., 2008), which are prominent features in eastern boundary upwelling
27 systems (Durski and Allen, 2005). These vertical velocities often extend to below the mixed layer
28 (Klein et al., 2008), where they can drive sizeable vertical fluxes of solutes. Mahadevan (2014)
29 proposes the subduction of organic matter-rich surface water into the subsurface layers within
30 submesoscale cold filaments as a new export mechanism, which differs strongly from export via
31 particle sinking. In filaments the organic matter is subducted together with large amounts of O_2 ,

1 which then can directly be used for decomposition of organic matter. Vertical mixing of DOM
2 from the euphotic into to the upper mesopelagic zone is another important transport mechanism
3 in (sub)tropical waters (Hansell, 2002). The Bermuda Atlantic Time-Series Study provides a
4 well-documented example of this process (Carlson et al., 1994). The efficiency of the downward
5 DOM transport depends on the concentration gradient of DOM between the surface layer and the
6 OMZ, and on the activity of the microbial population along this gradient. Produced by high
7 primary production in upwelling regions, DOM can accumulate in the euphotic zone with
8 maximum concentrations of 100-300 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ off Peru (Franz et al., 2012a; Romankevich and
9 Ljutsarev, 1990). Due to the vicinity of the DOM-rich surface layer above and the O₂-depleted
10 waters below the shallow and sharp oxycline of the Peruvian OMZ, physical vertical transport
11 may bring large amounts of labile organic matter to the OMZ, where it may be utilized by
12 heterotrophic communities (Hoppe et al., 2000; Hoppe and Ullrich, 1999; Pantoja et al., 2009).
13 DOM supply via (sub-) mesoscale vertical transport processes and diapycnal mixing may
14 therefore contribute importantly to sustaining microbial activity in the Peruvian OMZ and may
15 thus largely impact biogeochemical cycles. A particular role for N turnover processes is discussed
16 in the following section.

17

18 4 The Nitrogen Cycle in OMZ waters

19 4.1 Background

20 N is an essential nutrient and a fundamental component of living organisms. OMZ waters play a
21 crucial role in regulating the availability of N containing nutrients and are a main site of nitrous
22 oxide (N₂O) formation in the ocean (see Section 6). OMZs account for around 30–50% of
23 oceanic N loss by heterotrophic denitrification and anammox, the anaerobic ammonium oxidation
24 with nitrite (Codispoti et al., 2001). There is an ongoing debate on whether the marine N budget
25 is balanced (Gruber and Sarmiento, 1997), as several studies have suggested that N loss might
26 exceed N₂ fixation (Gruber and Sarmiento, 1997; 2007). Based on the N deficit present in OMZ
27 regions, it has been suggested by model studies, that OMZ waters may provide a niche for N₂
28 fixation (Deutsch et al., 2007), which had previously not been taken into account. From this
29 background, the following major goals with regard to the N cycle were identified: (i) investigate
30 the O₂ sensitivity of N cycle processes, (ii) unravel the impact of changes in dissolved O₂ on
31 nutrient stoichiometry, (iii) better constrain N₂ fixation rates, which may have been
32 underestimated, before, and (iv) identify feedback controls of the N cycle.

1 In order to approach these goals, a combination of rate measurements of N₂ fixation, nutrient
2 regeneration, N turnover, N loss processes and N₂O production were performed in the ETNA and
3 ETSP OMZ waters. Key players of marine N cycle processes were identified and quantified using
4 meta-omics and mesocosm studies were used to gain insights into controls on nutrient
5 stoichiometry in OMZs.

6

7 4.2 O₂ - a major control of N cycle processes in two contrasting OMZ regions

8 Under O₂ depletion, N is continuously removed by anammox, (Francis et al., 2007; Kuypers et al.,
9 2005; Kuypers et al., 2003; Thamdrup and Dalsgaard, 2002), which has been shown to be the
10 dominating N loss process in the OMZ waters off Namibia (Kuypers et al., 2005), Peru
11 (Hamersley et al., 2007) and Chile (Thamdrup et al., 2006). Moreover, N is (i) lost by
12 denitrification (the 4-step reduction of NO₃⁻ to N₂ (Devol, 2008)), which has been identified as
13 the dominant N loss process in the Arabian Sea OMZ (Ward et al., 2009), or (ii) recycled by both
14 DNRA (the dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium, as hypothesized by Lam et al. (2009))
15 and nitrification (the aerobic oxidation of ammonium via NO₂⁻ to NO₃⁻ under oxic to suboxic
16 conditions (Ward, 2008)). Although different anaerobic microbial processes may have different
17 O₂ tolerance i.e. as an adaptation to transient O₂ conditions (Jensen et al., 2007; Kuypers et al.,
18 2005) the regulation of these processes in OMZ waters are still poorly understood.

19 An apparent dominant role of anammox for N loss in the Peruvian and Namibian OMZs
20 challenges our understanding of organic matter remineralization in these regions (see Figure 3 for
21 an overview of N cycle processes in the OMZ off Peru). Previously, organic matter
22 remineralization in OMZ waters with low to non-detectable (<5 μmol kg⁻¹) O₂ concentrations
23 was attributed to heterotrophic denitrification (e.g. Codispoti et al. (2001)). Without
24 remineralization of NH₄⁺ from organic matter via denitrification, it is unclear how anammox
25 could be sustained. Combined ¹⁵N-incubation experiments and functional gene expression
26 analyses indicate that anammox in the Peruvian OMZ benefits from other N-cycling processes for
27 reactive substrates (Kalvelage et al., 2011). Excretion of ammonium and other reduced N-
28 compounds by diel vertical migrators was also proposed (Bianchi et al., 2014), but recent
29 experiments indicate that ammonium excretion of diel vertical migrators is strongly reduced at
30 anoxia (Kiko et al. 2015 a, Kiko et al. 2015 b). Additionally, anammox activity has been
31 described to depend on export of organic matter (Kalvelage et al., 2013), potentially resulting

1 from the availability of ammonium recycled from particulate organic N (Ganesh et al., 2015). In
2 the absence of significant denitrification, these results indicate that anammox relies on NH_4^+
3 oxidation and NO_3^- reduction as NO_2^- source. Further, NH_4^+ may be derived from
4 remineralization of organic matter via NO_3^- reduction with a possibly important role of
5 microaerobic respiration (Kalvelage et al., 2015). The overlap between aerobic and anaerobic N-
6 cycling processes in particular in the coastal shelf waters and the upper part of the OMZ is
7 supportive of microaerobic activity in the OMZ. As DNRA was insignificant in the water column
8 during our studies in the ETSP, sedimentary fluxes could be an important ammonium source,
9 particularly for the inner shelf sediments (Bohlen et al., 2011; Kalvelage et al., 2013). However, it
10 has been suggested that sulfate reduction is more widespread in OMZ waters than previously
11 believed and could be responsible for substantial NH_4^+ production (Canfield et al., 2010) and
12 sulfate reducers have been detected in the Peruvian OMZ (Schunck et al., 2013). Direct evidence
13 for the actual link between sulfate reduction and NH_4^+ production is, however, still missing.

14
15 In contrast to the ETSP, the open ETNA, with O_2 concentrations usually above $40 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$,
16 shows classically no sign of water column N loss (see, e.g., Bange et al. (2010)). It is
17 characterized by nitrification as the only N turnover process in this area (Löscher et al., 2012).
18 However, recent studies on the presence of anoxic mesoscale water masses show a potential for
19 denitrification (Löscher et al., 2015). Still, the impact of those mesoscale eddies for N cycling in
20 that region is to date not clear. The strong difference between the ETNA and ETSP OMZs is
21 mirrored by a diverging $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ -nitrate signal, which is strongly positive in the ETSP but has
22 negative values in nitrate depleted surface waters of the ETNA (Ryabenko et al., 2012),
23 indicating different N turnover processes characteristic for these two regions.

24
25 4.3 The role of nutrient stoichiometry for primary production and N turnover in OMZ
26 waters

27 Despite the fundamental differences between the OMZs of the ETNA and ETSP with regard to N
28 loss, the results of short-term mesocosm experiments implied N limitation of surface plankton
29 communities in both areas (Franz et al., 2012a; Franz et al., 2012b). The loss of bioavailable N in
30 OMZ waters through denitrification and anammox in combination with the release of reactive
31 phosphorus from sediments exposed to anoxic waters generates extremely low inorganic N:P
32 ratios. This abnormal stoichiometry of nutrients supplied to the euphotic zone can impact primary

1 production. Franz et al. (2012b) investigated the partitioning and elemental composition of
2 dissolved and particulate organic matter during cruises to the tropical South East Pacific and
3 North East Atlantic. Maximum accumulation of POC and PON was observed under high N
4 supply, indicating that primary production was controlled by N availability. Part of the excess P
5 was consumed by non-Redfield production, predominantly by diatoms. While particulate N:P of
6 the accumulated biomass generally exceeded the supply ratio (Franz et al., 2012b), excess P of
7 the dissolved nutrient pool was channeled into release of dissolved organic phosphorus (DOP) by
8 phytoplankton. These results demonstrated that excess P upwelled into the surface ocean
9 overlying O₂-deficient waters represents a net source for DOP and motivated further dedicated
10 mesocosm experiments in the ETNA to elucidate the fate of DOP. Here, a general stimulating
11 effect of DOP on N₂ fixation has been observed (Meyer et al., 2015). Moreover, recent modeling
12 based on large-scale surface data sets of global DON and Atlantic Ocean DOP suggests an
13 important role of DOP for stimulating growth of N₂ fixing organisms (Somes and Oschlies,
14 2015). This model indicates that the marine N- budget is sensitive to DOP, provided that access
15 to the relatively labile DOP pool expands the ecological niche for N₂ fixing organisms, so called
16 diazotrophs.

17 Franz et al. (2012a) reported in situ observations along an east-west transect in the ETSP at 10°S
18 stretching from the upwelling region above the narrow continental shelf to the well-stratified
19 oceanic section of the eastern boundary regime. They showed that new production in the coastal
20 upwelling was driven by large-sized phytoplankton (e.g. diatoms) with generally low N:P ratios
21 (<16:1). A deep chlorophyll *a* maximum consisting of nano- (*Synechococcus*, flagellates) and
22 microphytoplankton occurred within a pronounced thermocline in subsurface waters above the
23 shelf break associated with intermediate particulate N:P ratios close to Redfield proportions. High
24 PON:POP (>20:1) ratios were observed in the stratified open ocean section, coinciding with a
25 high abundance of the pico-cyanobacterium *Prochlorococcus*. Excess P was present along the
26 entire transect but did not appear to stimulate growth of N₂ fixing cyanobacteria, as pigment
27 fingerprinting and phylogenetic studies did not indicate the presence of diazotrophic
28 cyanobacteria at most of our sampling stations (Franz et al., 2012a; Löscher et al., 2014), mostly
29 in accordance with other studies from this area (Bonnet et al., 2013; Fernandez et al., 2011; Turk-
30 Kubo et al., 2014). A large fraction of the excess P generated within the OMZ was consumed by
31 non-Redfield processes, likely primary production by large phytoplankton found in shelf surface
32 waters. N₂ fixation in this region responds significantly to Fe and organic carbon additions

1 (Dekaezemacker et al., 2013). N_2 fixation could be directly limited by inorganic nutrient
2 availability, or indirectly through the stimulation of primary production and the subsequent
3 excretion of dissolved organic matter and/or the formation of micro-environments favorable for
4 heterotrophic N_2 fixation (Dekaezemacker et al., 2013).

5 It is generally assumed that both zooplankton and heterotrophic bacteria vary much less in their
6 elemental stoichiometry than phytoplankton (e.g., Touratier et al. (2001)). In both cases, the
7 heterotrophs appear to respond to variable nitrogen content in their food by regulating their gross
8 growth efficiency for carbon (Anderson and Williams, 1998; Kiørboe, 1989). In OMZ regions,
9 this implies that strong nutrient limitation in the surface ocean, which is associated with high C:N
10 ratios in primary producers (e.g., data used in Pahlow et al. (2013)), should intensify
11 denitrification in the OMZ relative to the export flux from the surface. Higher surface nutrient
12 concentrations would then be expected to reduce C:N ratios in the export flux and hence have a
13 somewhat mitigating effect. Since denitrification and anammox in the OMZ cause lower nitrate
14 concentrations in upwelled waters, the variable stoichiometry of phytoplankton could add to the
15 positive feedback between denitrification and N_2 fixation by increasing C:N ratios in response to
16 decreasing surface nitrate concentrations. However, one of the predictions of the optimality-based
17 model of N_2 fixation by Pahlow et al. (2013), which is based on the assumption that natural
18 selection should tend to produce organisms optimally adapted to their environment, is that the
19 competitive advantage of diazotrophs is most pronounced under conditions of low dissolved
20 inorganic N and increased dissolved inorganic P (DIN, DIP) availability (Houlton et al., 2008).
21 The ability to compete for DIP should be less important at high DIP. Thus, high phosphate
22 concentrations above the ETSP OMZ might actually reduce the selective advantage of
23 diazotrophs compared to ordinary phytoplankton. This could partially explain why cyanobacterial
24 N_2 fixers were apparently not stimulated by excess phosphate in the abovementioned transect.

25

26 4.4 N_2 fixation- an underestimated term of the N budget in OMZs

27 The atmospheric pool of N_2 is only available to living organisms via biological N_2 fixation,
28 which is restricted to a limited group of prokaryotes (Capone and Carpenter, 1982). Until
29 recently, oceanic N_2 fixation was mainly attributed to phototrophic cyanobacteria, such as
30 *Trichodesmium* or *Crocospaera*, which due to their light demand are restricted to usually
31 nutrient depleted surface or subsurface waters (Capone et al., 1997; Zehr and Turner, 2001). Thus,

1 estimates of N₂ fixation might be strongly biased as they focused exclusively on N₂ fixation by
2 those cyanobacterial diazotrophs in the euphotic zone (Codispoti, 2007). Model studies (Deutsch
3 et al., 2007), assuming that a N-deficit with respect to Redfield stoichiometry provides a niche for
4 diazotrophs and that a coupling of N loss in OMZs and N₂ fixation in overlying surface waters
5 might restore the N:P ratio towards Redfield proportions.

6 O₂ concentrations at the sea surface are not favorable for N₂ fixation, as the key enzyme for this
7 process, the nitrogenase, is irreversibly inhibited by O₂ (Dixon and Kahn, 2004). Laboratory
8 culture studies of the unicellular N₂ fixing cyanobacterium *Crocospaera watsonii* grown under
9 different O₂ levels suggest that respiration at 5% O₂ level could already provide sufficient energy
10 for the energy-consuming N₂ fixation process, hence the low O₂ in OMZ waters would likely
11 favor N₂ fixers (Großkopf and LaRoche, 2012). Moreover, a growing number of different *nifH*
12 sequences (the key functional gene of N₂ fixation, encoding the α subunit of nitrogenase)
13 detected within the Peruvian OMZ (Fernandez et al., 2011; Löscher et al., 2014; Bonnet et al.,
14 2013; Dekaezemacker et al., 2013; Turk-Kubo et al., 2014), as well as in OMZ waters of the
15 ETNA (Joshi, Löscher et al., unpublished), did not belong to common oxygenic phototrophs, but
16 to some unknown diazotrophic microorganisms that might be specifically adapted to O₂ deficient
17 conditions. This broad diversity of diazotrophs, as well as the extension of their habitat to deeper
18 waters might be one reason for the possible underestimation of N gain compared to N loss in the
19 ocean (Codispoti, 2007). While the possibility of N imbalance cannot be fully excluded at this
20 point, estimates for N₂ fixation may have been systematically underestimated when extrapolated
21 from discrete measurements (Codispoti, 2007). A methodological problem associated with the
22 commonly used ¹⁵N₂-tracer technique and subsequent calculation (Montoya et al., 1996) resulted
23 in a significant underestimation of N₂ fixation rates (Mohr et al., 2010). A revised method was
24 subsequently developed (Mohr et al., 2010) and its application in the Atlantic (Großkopf et al.,
25 2012) revealed up to 6-fold higher N₂ fixation rates than those determined with the classical
26 method. Großkopf et al. (2012) extrapolated the revised rates to all ocean basins resulting in a
27 rate of 177 ± 8 Tg N yr⁻¹, which still does not compensate for the N loss from the ocean (400 Tg
28 N yr⁻¹, Codispoti, (2007)). If taking into account only the water column N loss of 150 Tg N yr⁻¹,
29 the revised N₂ fixation rate of Großkopf et al. (2012) would balance the water column N budget.
30 However, an imbalance resulting from benthic N loss of ~150 Tg N yr⁻¹ (Bohlen et al., 2012)
31 remains to be explained. A recent study demonstrated, that N₂ fixation rates may have largely
32 been misinterpreted as the applied gas stocks were to different degrees contaminated with other

1 ¹⁵N compounds, such as nitrate or ammonium (Dabundo et al., 2014). This study raised concern
2 about previously measured N₂ fixation rates. Alternative approaches such as natural N isotope
3 analysis seem to produce substantially higher integrated N₂ fixation rates (Hauss et al.,
4 2013; Sandel et al., 2015).

5

6 4.5 Feedback controls of the N cycle in OMZ waters

7 During aerobic respiration surface derived organic matter is remineralized back to the inorganic
8 forms of carbon and N. These inorganic forms are available again for primary producers after
9 subsequent transport to the surface via mixing or upwelling. N₂ fixing bacteria can counter to
10 some degree the N-loss processes by converting N₂ back to bioavailable ammonium in the OMZ.
11 N₂ fixation and N loss processes predominantly determine the global oceanic N:P ratio since the
12 phosphorus content stays relatively constant.

13 In OMZs, the N deficit resulting from N loss and the simultaneous release of phosphorus (P)
14 from anoxic shelf sediments (Ingall and Jahnke (1994)), is proposed to provide niches for
15 diazotrophs and thus may promote N₂-fixation. A spatial connection of N loss and N input via N₂
16 fixation in OMZs has therefore been hypothesized (e.g., Deutsch et al. (2007)). The prevalence of
17 novel *nifH* genes and active N₂ fixation, derived from samples collected directly in the OMZ
18 waters off Peru, where anammox bacteria were abundant and active (Kalvelage et al.,
19 2013; Löscher et al., 2014), supports the view of a positive feedback between N loss and N gain
20 communities (Figure 4). Evidence for co-occurrence of denitrification and N₂ fixation has
21 previously been documented only for an anoxic lake (Halm et al., 2009), and for cyanobacterial
22 aggregates in the Baltic Sea (Klawonn et al., 2015). Recent investigations from Baltic Sea
23 sediments on N₂ fixation and diazotrophic abundance in sediments show, however, that a very
24 close spatial link between N loss and N₂ fixation might exist (Bertics et al., 2013). Still, too little
25 is currently known about the interactions among the stoichiometry of inorganic nutrient supply,
26 primary production, N₂ fixation, and remineralization under anoxic conditions, to allow a definite
27 characterization of the conditions leading to fixed-nitrogen exhaustion in the OMZs.

28 Model studies, suggest that denitrification of N₂ fixation-derived organic matter may lead to a net
29 N loss that further stimulates N₂ fixation, because 120 moles of nitrate per mole of phosphorus
30 are used to remineralize Redfield organic matter via denitrification (Landolfi et al., 2013). In
31 contrast, N₂ fixation fixes only 16 moles N (per mole P). Because of those stoichiometric

1 constraints, denitrification of newly fixed N would lead to a net loss of N, which would
2 then enhance the N deficit, promoting further N₂ fixation, a cycle that ultimately leads to a
3 runaway N-loss (Landolfi et al., 2013). Only by spatial or temporal decoupling of N₂ fixation and
4 N loss, e.g., by reduced remineralization rates in the OMZ (Su et al., 2015), iron limitation or
5 dissolved organic matter cycling, the N inventory may stabilize, otherwise the OMZ would
6 become completely void of fixed inorganic N. That this does not occur in today's major oceanic
7 OMZs indicates that the positive feedback between N₂ fixation and denitrification does not
8 operate at full strength, if at all.

9 Because denitrification removes more fixed N than is contained in the remineralized organic
10 matter, any addition of fixed N to the surface ocean only exacerbates the problem (Canfield,
11 2006) unless the corresponding primary production is prevented from being remineralized in the
12 underlying OMZ (Landolfi et al., 2013). The net rate of N loss in OMZs is determined by the
13 balance of remineralization of sinking particulate organic carbon (POC) and O₂ supply to the
14 OMZ. While the supply of O₂ is mostly determined by physical transport, the rate of N loss
15 depends on the activity of the bacteria responsible for denitrification and anammox as well as the
16 POC export and sinking velocity.

17 The intensity of this feedback may be overestimated in current biogeochemical models, owing to
18 spurious nutrient trapping (Dietze and Loeptien, 2013). The extent of the coupling between
19 primary production at the surface and denitrification in the OMZ, and hence the strength of the
20 positive feedback, is a strong function of the elemental (C:N:P) stoichiometry of the exported
21 primary production. Phytoplankton C:N:P stoichiometry in turn is influenced by the
22 stoichiometry of inorganic nutrients (Franz et al., 2012a; Franz et al., 2012b). Recently developed
23 process models of primary production and N₂ fixation (Pahlow et al., 2013; Pahlow and Oschlies,
24 2013) specifically address the response of phytoplankton elemental stoichiometry to ambient
25 nutrient concentrations and light.

26 Tropical OMZs have been widening and intensifying over recent decades (Stramma et al., 2008),
27 which could also indicate a strengthening of the fixed-N sink. The occurrence of widespread
28 ocean anoxic events in Earth's history (Jenkyns, 2010) is a clear sign that further positive
29 feedbacks in the biogeochemical cycles of O₂ and N may be triggered once a certain tipping point
30 is reached.

1

2 **5 Oceanic sulfidic events and detoxification by sulfide-oxidizers in the Peruvian** 3 **upwelling: Open questions**

4 5.1 Background

5 Burt (1852) with a study off Peru can be credited with the first observation of the effect of toxic
6 hydrogen sulfide on marine organisms. Burt states, “The fish, during this evolution, rose in vast
7 numbers from the bottom; and after struggling for some time in convulsions upon the surface,
8 died.” This devastating phenomenon, known as a sulfidic event, is harmful economically to
9 productive coastal fisheries in the Peruvian upwelling but also elsewhere (Hamukuaya et al.,
10 1998; Hart and Currie, 1960; Weeks et al., 2002; Copenhagen, 1953; Naqvi et al., 2000). The next
11 earliest observation off Peru was in the 1970’s which brought further attention to sulfidic events
12 indicating both the occurrence of sulfide by smell, and intriguingly the absence of nitrate and
13 nitrite at the same water depth (Dugdale et al., 1977). The authors correctly incited the microbial
14 removal of sulfide by nitrate reduction to N_2 or N_2O . To date sulfidic events have been reported
15 in three of the five OMZs by only a handful of studies and hence our current understanding of
16 their regulation, initiation and termination is still limited. Possible analogs for oceanic events are
17 permanently sulfidic areas in enclosed basins of the Baltic Sea (Brettar et al., 2006; Brettar and
18 Rheinheimer, 1991; Glaubitz et al., 2009), the Black Sea (Glaubitz et al., 2010; Jørgensen et al.,
19 1991; Sorokin et al., 1995), the Cariaco basin off Venezuela (Hayes et al., 2006; Taylor et al.,
20 2001; Zhang and Millero, 1993) and Saanich Inlet in Canada (Tebo and Emerson, 1986; Walsh et
21 al., 2009). Oceanic sulfidic events are understood to mostly originate from sulfide production in
22 sediments (Figure 5). Here, the sulfide accumulates to milli-molar concentrations under O_2 and
23 nitrate-free conditions and is released by a **diffusive** flux into the overlying pelagic water column
24 where it reaches low micro-molar concentrations (Lavik et al., 2009; Schunck et al., 2013). These
25 events are then terminated or detoxified in the pelagic water column by a community of sulfide-
26 oxidizing bacteria. This occurs when sulfide and nitrate are both present thus stimulating sulfide-
27 oxidizing nitrate-reducing bacteria (soNRB). soNRB re-oxidize sulfide back to sulfate or
28 elemental sulfur while reducing nitrate to either N_2 via autotrophic denitrification or NH_4^+ via
29 dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (Lam and Kuypers, 2011). If nitrate is limiting,
30 sulfur is the more likely end product of sulfide oxidation, which occurs in the following reaction
31 stoichiometry for the denitrification pathway, $2NO_3^- + 5HS^- + 7H^+ \rightarrow N_2 + 5S^0 + 6H_2O$. A steady
32 state is reached when the diffusive fluxes ($mmol\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$) of nitrate and sulfide are in a 1:2.5 ratio.

1 If the sulfide flux exceeds the nitrate flux by more than a factor of 2.5, then sulfide will diffuse
2 into the oxic layer (Lam and Kuypers, 2011). Importantly, the activity of soNRB help to detoxify
3 sulfide to sulfur, preventing it from reaching overlying productive surface waters, hence most
4 sulfidic events likely go unnoticed (Lavik et al., 2009). However, with the increase in
5 eutrophication and the expansion of OMZs in both the Atlantic and Pacific (Stramma et al.,
6 2008), sulfidic events are expected to become more frequent., as already demonstrated for a time
7 series station in the Baltic Sea (Lennartz et al., 2014).

8

9 5.2 Sulfidic events off Peru

10 The first quantitative measurements and detailed profiles of a sulfidic event in the Peruvian
11 upwelling came from Schunck et al. (2013). During RV Meteor cruise M77/3 in January 2009
12 sulfidic waters covered >5500 km² and contained approximately 2.2 x 10⁴ tons of sulfide, making
13 it one of the largest plumes recorded. A total of 9 stations were taken along the coastal transect
14 from Lima to Pisco which showed a ~80 m thick sulfide-rich layer extending at times just below
15 the oxycline. At this interface oxygen (< 1 μmol kg⁻¹), nitrate (<1 μmol kg⁻¹) and nitrite (2 μmol
16 kg⁻¹) profiles overlapped with detectable sulfide concentrations. Stable isotope rate measurements
17 and targeted gene assays using quantitative PCR indicated that various oxidants could have been
18 used by the microbial community to oxidize sulfide at the time of sampling. The most abundant
19 sulfide oxidizers identified from the 16S rRNA diversity belonged to the phylum proteobacteria
20 within the subphylum gamma-, including the SUP05/ARCTIC96BD-19-clade, *Candidatus*
21 *Ruthia magnifica*, and *Candidatus Vesicomysocius okutanii*, but also epsilon- such as
22 *Sulfurovum* spp. Metagenomics confirmed that all were capable of sulfide or sulfur oxidation,
23 either with nitrate and oxygen (facultative soNRB) or exclusively with oxygen. Indeed, both
24 subphyla appear to be ubiquitous in other seasonally oxic/anoxic waters and OMZs, (Canfield et
25 al., 2010;Lavik et al., 2009;Stevens and Ulloa, 2008;Stewart et al., 2011;Stewart et al.,
26 2012;Walsh et al., 2009;Swan et al., 2011). Both gamma- and epsilon- proteobacteria members
27 are known chemolithoautotrophs, which assimilate carbon dioxide as the carbon source without
28 the use of sunlight. Subsurface C- assimilation rates were between 0.9 to 1.4 μmol C L⁻¹ d⁻¹
29 during this sulfidic event. In this study, “dark” primary production had contributed up to 25% of
30 the total CO₂ fixation in the Peruvian upwelling region at the time of sampling, which is
31 comparable to values observed in the Baltic and Black Seas (Schunck et al. (2013) and references
32 therein). Paradoxically, some of these studies showed that measured rates of CO₂ assimilation

1 exceed rates possible by chemolithoautotrophic processes alone. Thus, while
2 chemolithoautotrophic CO₂-fixation is considered a significant process, the specific activity and
3 main contributors of CO₂-fixation during sulfidic events (down to the genus-level) still remain
4 unknown.

5 Different from our current knowledge of OMZ sulfur cycling is whether the production of sulfide
6 can originate as well from pelagic waters itself. Simultaneous reduction of different electron
7 acceptors (like NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and CO₂) can occur in defined niches where particle aggregates have
8 formed and are sinking through the water column (Wright et al., 2012). These aggregates, more
9 commonly known as marine snow, contain micro-scale redoxclines under anoxic conditions
10 (Aldredge and Cohen, 1987;Karl and Tilbrook, 1994;Woebken et al., 2007). Moreover,
11 aggregate communities appear to be distinct from bulk water collected samples (Fuchsman et al.,
12 2011). These communities were suggested to have active manganese reduction, sulfate reduction
13 and sulfide oxidation at the interior of the aggregates. How much sulfide is generated in the water
14 column during a sulfidic event is not well resolved. Nevertheless, *in situ* incubation experiments
15 done in the Chilean upwelling have shown the capacity for sulfate reduction in the offshore OMZ
16 occurring under thermodynamically unfavorable nitrate-rich conditions. In separate incubations
17 measured rates of potential sulfide oxidation were larger than rates of sulfate reduction indicating
18 that any produced sulfide is immediately re-oxidized (Canfield et al., 2010). The authors
19 intriguingly suggested an active but cryptic sulfur cycle linked to nitrogen cycling in the pelagic
20 OMZ. From a biogeochemical perspective large-scale sulfate-reduction coupled to organic matter
21 remineralization releasing inorganic nitrogen could represent a significant supply of ammonium
22 for anammox bacteria.

23 6 Trace gases

24 6.1 Background

25 The upper 1000 m of the ocean (incl. the euphotic zone) are the key regions where the production
26 of climate-relevant trace gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), nitrous oxide (N₂O), methane (CH₄)
27 and dimethyl sulfide (DMS) occurs (see, e.g., Liss and Johnson (2014)). While the pathways of
28 CO₂ and DMS are dominated by phytoplankton in the oxic euphotic zone, N₂O and CH₄
29 pathways are dominated by microbial processes at midwater depth (i.e. in the OMZ). This is
30 especially important since some OMZs are connected to coastal upwelling regions where OMZ
31 waters — enriched in both nutrients and trace gases such as CO₂, N₂O and CH₄ — are brought to

1 the surface fuelling phytoplankton blooms and releasing trace gases to the atmosphere (see, e.g.,
2 Capone and Hutchins (2013)). Thus, although they are usually not in direct contact with the
3 atmosphere, OMZs play an important role for oceanic emissions of climate-relevant trace gases
4 (see e.g. Arévalo-Martinez et al. (2015)).

6 6.2 Nitrous oxide (N₂O) in OMZ

7 A comprehensive overview of both nitrous oxide (N₂O) distributions and pathways in OMZ has
8 been published in (Naqvi et al., 2010). Therefore, we concentrate here on recent findings from the
9 ETNA and ETSP.

10 N₂O production in the ocean is dominated by microbial nitrification and denitrification processes.
11 It is formed as a by-product during nitrification and as an intermediate during denitrification. The
12 paradigm that N₂O is exclusively produced by bacteria has been challenged by the discovery of
13 nitrifying (i.e. NH₄⁺ oxidising) archaea dominating N₂O production in the ETSP and ETNA
14 (Löscher et al., 2012), which is supported by results of a culture study (Löscher et al., 2012) and a
15 marine microbial enrichment experiment (Santoro et al., 2011). The production of N₂O by
16 archaea (and bacteria) depends on dissolved O₂ and is **increasing** with decreasing O₂
17 concentrations (Frame and Casciotti, 2010; Löscher et al., 2012). Denitrifying bacteria do not
18 produce N₂O in the presence of O₂ (> 10 μmol kg⁻¹); however, when O₂ concentrations are
19 approaching 0 μmol kg⁻¹, N₂O is consumed during denitrification. There is no N₂O production
20 under anoxic conditions. The significance of N₂O production during anammox (Kartal et al.,
21 2007) and DNRA (Giblin et al., 2013) in OMZs (see Section 5) remains to be proven.

22 The detailed investigation of ΔN₂O/AOU (= excess N₂O/apparent oxygen utilization) and ΔN₂O/
23 Δ¹⁵NO₃⁻ relationships from the ETNA and ETSP **revealed two facts** (Ryabenko et al., 2012): (i)
24 The lower O₂ concentrations found in the core of the OMZ of the ETSP (< 5 μmol kg⁻¹) favour
25 N₂O consumption by denitrification which is not observed in the ETNA because of its
26 comparably high O₂ concentrations and (ii) the maximum observed N₂O concentrations were
27 higher in the ETSP than in the ETNA. This is in line with the results of two model studies of N₂O
28 in the ETSP by Zamora et al. (2012) and Cornejo and Farias (2012), which suggested that the
29 switching point between N₂O production and N₂O consumption occurs at higher O₂ concentration
30 (~ 8-10 μmol kg⁻¹) than previously thought.

1 In contrast to the open ocean, OMZs in coastal (i.e. shelf) regions show a higher spatial and
2 temporal variability: Seasonally occurring suboxic or even anoxic/sulfidic OMZs have been
3 observed in coastal regions worldwide (see e.g. Diaz and Rosenberg (2008)). One of the most
4 prominent areas where widespread sulfidic conditions have been recently observed is the shelf off
5 Peru (Schunck et al., 2013) (Section 5). Figure 6 shows the distribution of N₂O, water
6 temperature, nutrients and H₂S during the sulfidic event described by Schunck et al. (2013) on the
7 shelf off Peru during December 2008/January 2009. Here, extreme N₂O concentrations are found
8 at the boundary to the H₂S containing bottom waters. No N₂O is found in the core sulfidic layer.
9 This suggests again that there is a narrow range of low O₂ concentrations which is associated
10 with exceptionally high N₂O production. As soon as the O₂ concentrations are close to zero
11 (anoxic/sulfidic conditions) N₂O production turns into N₂O consumption. Similar N₂O
12 distributions during anoxic/sulfidic events were found off the west coast of India, in the Gotland
13 Deep (central Baltic Sea) and in Saanich Inlet (Brettar and Rheinheimer, 1991;Naqvi et al.,
14 2000;Cohen, 1978). Brettar and Rheinheimer (1991) suggested a close coupling between H₂S
15 oxidation and NO₃⁻ reduction in a narrow layer where NO₃⁻ and H₂S coexist. This is in line with
16 recent findings from the anoxic event off Peru by Schunck et al. (2013) and similar to the
17 suggestion of a cryptic sulfur cycle where sulfate reduction is coupled to rapid H₂S oxidation by
18 NO₃⁻ proposed for the OMZ off Chile by Canfield et al. (2010).

19

20 6.3 The role of OMZs in trace gas emissions

21 In OMZs with O₂ concentrations below 20 μmol kg⁻¹, N₂O production does not take place in the
22 core of the OMZ. Instead, N₂O production is found at the oxycline. Exceptionally high N₂O
23 concentrations have so far only been found in temporarily occurring anoxic/sulfidic regions off
24 Peru/Chile and West India (Naqvi et al., 2010;Farías et al., 2015). Stagnant sulfidic systems such
25 as in the Baltic and Black Seas as well as the Cariaco Basin, have shown only slightly enhanced
26 N₂O concentrations at the oxic/anoxic interfaces (Bange et al., 2010, and references therein). This
27 **implies** that significant pulses of N₂O emissions to the atmosphere occur only when a shallow
28 coastal system rapidly shifts from oxic to anoxic/sulfidic conditions and vice versa (Bange et al.,
29 2010). This can be explained by a lag of N₂O reduction by denitrifiers, when they switch from
30 oxygen to nitrogen respiration (Codispoti, 2010) or N₂O production during the reestablishment of
31 nitrification after O₂ ventilation (Schweiger et al., 2007).

1 CH₄ production is also tightly connected to OMZs (see overview in Naqvi et al., 2010). Similar to
2 N₂O, upwelling areas are considerable hotspots for CH₄ emissions, albeit organic material-
3 enriched shallow coastal zones such as estuaries and mangroves or shallow sediments with
4 geological CH₄ sources show higher emissions (Bakker et al., 2014).

5 Since DMS is produced by phytoplankton in the euphotic zone, an accumulation of DMS in
6 OMZs appears unlikely. However, measurements at the Candolim Time-Series Station (CaTS) on
7 the shelf off Goa (India) revealed an unprecedented 40-fold increase in DMS concentrations in
8 the sulfidic layers during an anoxic event (Shenoy et al., 2012). These high concentrations could
9 not be explained by any known pathways and may imply an unknown — most likely microbial
10 — DMS production pathway under anoxic conditions either in the water column or in the
11 underlying sediments (Shenoy et al., 2012). Only recently it has been shown that phytoplankton
12 communities exposed to anoxic conditions increase their DMS production significantly (Omori et
13 al., 2015). This implies a potential accumulation of DMS at oxic/anoxic boundaries of coastal
14 OMZs which, in turn, might result in high DMS emissions from shallow coastal zones during
15 anoxic/sulfidic events.

16

17 6.4 Trace gas production in OMZ and environmental changes

18 Trace gas production in OMZs is expected to be influenced primarily by deoxygenation (Naqvi et
19 al., 2010;Stramma et al., 2012). It is also well-known that eutrophication, warming and supply of
20 limiting nutrients (e.g. iron) will increase subsurface respiration of organic material, which leads
21 to deoxygenation in open ocean and coastal OMZs (Bijma et al., 2013;Gruber, 2011).
22 Acidification of the upper ocean may result in a decrease of calcium carbonate (produced by
23 calcifying organisms), which can act as ballast material for sinking organic matter. Less ballast
24 means a reduction in the sinking speed of organic particles, which could increase the residence
25 time of organic material and cause higher respiration rates (Riebesell et al., 2009). Therefore, on-
26 going environmental changes such as deoxygenation, eutrophication, warming and acidification
27 have both direct and indirect effects on trace gas production in OMZs. In general, we might
28 expect enhanced production of N₂O, CH₄ and DMS in OMZs because of the on-going loss of O₂.
29 Deoxygenation in open ocean and coastal environments may lead, on the one hand, to enhanced
30 N₂O production when approaching the N₂O production/consumption switching point (see above),
31 but on the other hand, when O₂ concentrations fall below the switching point this may lead to a

1 consumption of N₂O (Zamora et al., 2012). Moreover, we do not know whether the frequency of
2 coastal anoxic events will continue to increase and how this may affect the coastal net N₂O
3 production/consumption. A recent modelling study on the influence of anthropogenic nitrogen
4 aerosol deposition and its effect on N₂O production has revealed that the effect is small on a
5 global scale but that the OMZ of the Arabian Sea is especially sensitive to atmospheric nitrogen
6 deposition resulting in an enhanced N₂O production (Suntharalingam et al., 2012).

7

8 7 Summary & Outlook

9 In the following, the predominant processes and biogeochemical interplays are summarized for
10 the ETNA and ETSP, respectively (Figure 7). Our major findings on microbial species
11 distribution and functionality are derived from the ETSP study site: In accordance with several
12 previous studies (Stevens and Ulloa, 2008; Stewart et al., 2012) a large part of the microbial
13 community has been identified to be phylogenetically similar throughout the OMZ. This
14 microbial community does not show pronounced variations on a horizontal perspective, neither
15 with regard to phylogeny nor to functionality, but expresses pronounced vertical patterns
16 (Neulinger and Löscher, unpublished). This overlap in the distributions of microorganisms is
17 also reflected in one of our major findings on N cycle processes, which shows that anaerobic
18 processes such as anammox and denitrification occur along with classical aerobic processes such
19 as nitrification (Kalvelage et al., 2011; Löscher et al., 2012). This combined with the strong
20 correlation between N cycling processes in the OMZ and the organic matter export point towards
21 an important role of microniches, i.e. in aggregated particles containing strong redox gradients
22 that possibly allow the co-occurrence of anaerobic and aerobic processes.

23 We hypothesize that DOM supply via (sub-) mesoscale vertical transport processes and
24 diapycnal mixing is generally highly important to sustain microbial activity in the Peruvian
25 OMZ. While DOM is transported via horizontal or vertical mixing, large fractions of the POM
26 can be exported to the OMZ via DVM, thus fueling N loss in OMZ waters. Although some
27 organisms performing DVM have certain strategies to cope with anoxic conditions, mostly by
28 down-regulating the aerobic metabolism, there are limits for zooplankton and nekton. Thus, we
29 expect a reduction of OM export by DVM with a further expansion and deoxygenation of OMZs,
30 which might then alter degradation mechanisms due to changes in particle characteristics. A
31 quantification of DOM and POM import and export rates to and from the ETNA is currently not

1 available, an extensive discussion of POC dynamics from the ETSP OMZs is provided in this
2 issue (Dale et al., 2015). Information on the character of microbial processes responsible for
3 POM degradation within the OMZ is however missing.

4 We suggest that OMZs can reverse the role of remineralization for N cycling, as anoxic
5 remineralization causes net removal of fixed nitrogen, e.g., through denitrification or anammox.
6 Enhanced primary production due to N₂ fixation strengthens the net fixed-nitrogen removal and
7 could trigger a positive feedback leading to the total removal of all fixed nitrogen from an OMZ.
8 An explanation for why this does not happen in the present ocean could be the variable
9 stoichiometry in primary production and the decreased remineralization rates under anoxic
10 conditions. In both systems, the ETNA and ETSP primary production could be stimulated by the
11 exclusive addition of N, but not by a combined addition of N and P sources or solely P (Franz et
12 al., 2012b). This indicates N limitation in both areas, which might either result from multiple
13 factors; lower biomass production and consecutively lower organic matter export, a decrease in
14 the N:P composition in primary producers, or in enhanced diazotrophy. We could confirm that
15 non-Redfieldian primary production occurs and that diazotrophy is indeed enhanced in OMZ
16 waters (Löscher et al., 2014), and is directly coupled to N loss.

17 We further found an enormous stimulation of all N turnover processes connected to a sulfidic
18 event in shallow coastal waters, which was linked to benthic processes. Here, a specific
19 microbial community is present, which seems to couple the N and S cycles (Canfield et al.,
20 2010). Within this sulfidic zone, we found high rates of dark carbon fixation which account for
21 ~25% of total CO₂ fixation in the water column. The regulation of sulfidic events in the Peruvian
22 upwelling still remains a major open question, as so far most reports have been largely based on
23 qualitative observations (Burtt, 1852;Cabello et al., 2002;de Lavalley y Garcia, 1917;Dugdale et
24 al., 1977;Libes and Deuser, 1988;Sorokin, 1978). Steps are now being taken to set up a
25 continuous monitoring program via regional collaborations to better establish a baseline for
26 sulfide seasonality, intensity and frequency in the Peruvian upwelling region. This will certainly
27 be critical if we want to assess the significance of sulfidic events to biogeochemical cycling of
28 carbon and the impact they may have on regional productivity as a result of global change.

29 Massive supersaturation of N₂O, connected to sulfidic plumes, has been detected repeatedly.
30 OMZs are important sites of enhanced production of climate relevant trace gases such as N₂O,
31 CH₄, and DMS. N₂O production is significantly enhanced at oxic/anoxic boundaries of OMZs

1 and we suggest that it mainly results from habitat compression, where in extreme cases (such as
2 sulfidic events, sharpening gradients) nitrification and denitrification can occur simultaneously.
3 Maximum N₂O concentrations and subsequent emissions to the atmosphere have been observed
4 in dynamic coastal systems that rapidly shift from oxic to anoxic conditions and vice versa.
5 Although OMZs are usually not in direct contact with the atmosphere, their vicinity to coastal
6 upwelling systems plays an important role for oceanic emissions of climate-relevant trace gases
7 such as N₂O, CH₄, and DMS.

8 While there is a growing amount of data on the pelagic N cycle in OMZ waters, quantitative
9 estimates of microbial production and respiration, particularly at ultra-low O₂ levels, are rather
10 scarce. Further unresolved is the role of particulate organic matter that could act as microniches
11 for microbes and thus host certain processes such as microaerobic respiration in OMZ waters. By
12 containing strong redox gradients in relatively narrow vicinity, and by providing nutrients and
13 trace metals, particles might strongly influence biogeochemical cycles. It is well-known that in
14 the core of OMZs adjacent to coastal upwelling regions, such as those found off Peru, Mauritania
15 and the Arabian Sea, a pronounced POM/particle-enriched turbid layer (a so-called intermediate
16 nepheloid layer) exists (see, e.g., Stramma et al. (2013); Naqvi et al. (1993); Fischer et al.
17 (2009)). The microbial activity of the nepheloid layer is supposed to be high and thus it seems to
18 play a role for the biogeochemistry and the maintenance of the OMZ, but it is hitherto not very
19 well defined, neither qualitatively nor quantitatively, which may be an important missing factor
20 for biogeochemical estimates.

21 Marine ecosystems and biogeochemical cycles are increasingly impacted by a growing number
22 of stress factors, some of which act locally, such as eutrophication and pollution, others globally.
23 Global stressors are associated with anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions and affect
24 the ocean either directly through CO₂-induced acidification or indirectly through climate change-
25 induced ocean warming and deoxygenation (Ciais et al., 2013). How these stressors will impact
26 marine ecosystems and biogeochemistry, individually or in combination, is still largely
27 unknown.

28 Ocean warming, acidification and deoxygenation occur globally and simultaneously, although
29 with distinct regional differences. Through increased stratification and decreased nutrient supply
30 to the surface layer, ocean warming is expected to decrease the biological production in the
31 already stratified low to mid latitudes.

1 While research on ocean warming is relatively advanced, far less is known about the impacts of
2 ocean acidification and deoxygenation on marine organisms and ecosystems. Because the three
3 stressors have mostly been studied in isolation, knowledge on the combined effects of two or
4 more of them is scarce. In principle, additive, synergistic (more than additive) and antagonistic
5 (less than additive, i.e. compensatory) interactions of effects are possible, but *a priori* it is
6 impossible to judge what the combined effects will be. One example for a synergistic effect is
7 that of ocean acidification narrowing the thermal tolerance window of some organisms,
8 amplifying the impact of warming (Pörtner and Farrell, 2008). However, we consider
9 interactions among stressors in marine communities largely understudied.

10

11 8 Open questions

12 Major issues remaining unresolved, in addition to those highlighted above, concern (1) a
13 mechanistic understanding of organic matter degradation and nutrient cycling at low or variable
14 oxygen concentrations in the water column and the role of DVM for organic matter supply to the
15 OMZ, (2) the sensitivities of heterotrophic microbes and their sensitivity to low oxygen
16 conditions, and (3) biogeochemical feedback processes in oxygen minimum zones and their
17 impacts on local to global scales.

18 Future studies should combine measurements of particle flux, zooplankton abundance, microbial
19 activities and O₂ concentrations in order to answer the following key questions:

- 20 I. What is the effect of low oxygen conditions (below 20 μmol kg⁻¹) on organic matter
21 degradation? And what is the partitioning between DOM and POM in OMZ waters?
- 22 II. How do the rates of nutrient cycling and loss in OMZs relate to particles and associated
23 microniches?
- 24 III. How does nutrient stoichiometry influence phytoplankton production and succession and
25 what is the ultimate fate of excess phosphate?
- 26 IV. What are the rates of oxygen supply and consumption in the upper OMZ? And what is
27 regulating respiration rates?
- 28 V. Do small-scale processes affect fluxes on larger scales? And how can models represent
29 these important processes?

30

31 Acknowledgements

1 We thank IMARPE and INDP for close collaboration and support. We further thank the
2 authorities of Peru, Cape Verde and Mauritania for the permission to work in their territorial
3 waters. We acknowledge the support of the captains, crews of R/V Meteor and the chief
4 scientists. We thank A. Dale for discussion of the benthic perspective of the manuscript.
5 Financial support for this study was provided by the DFG Sonderforschungsbereich 754
6 (www.sfb754.de), and the Max Planck Society (MPG).

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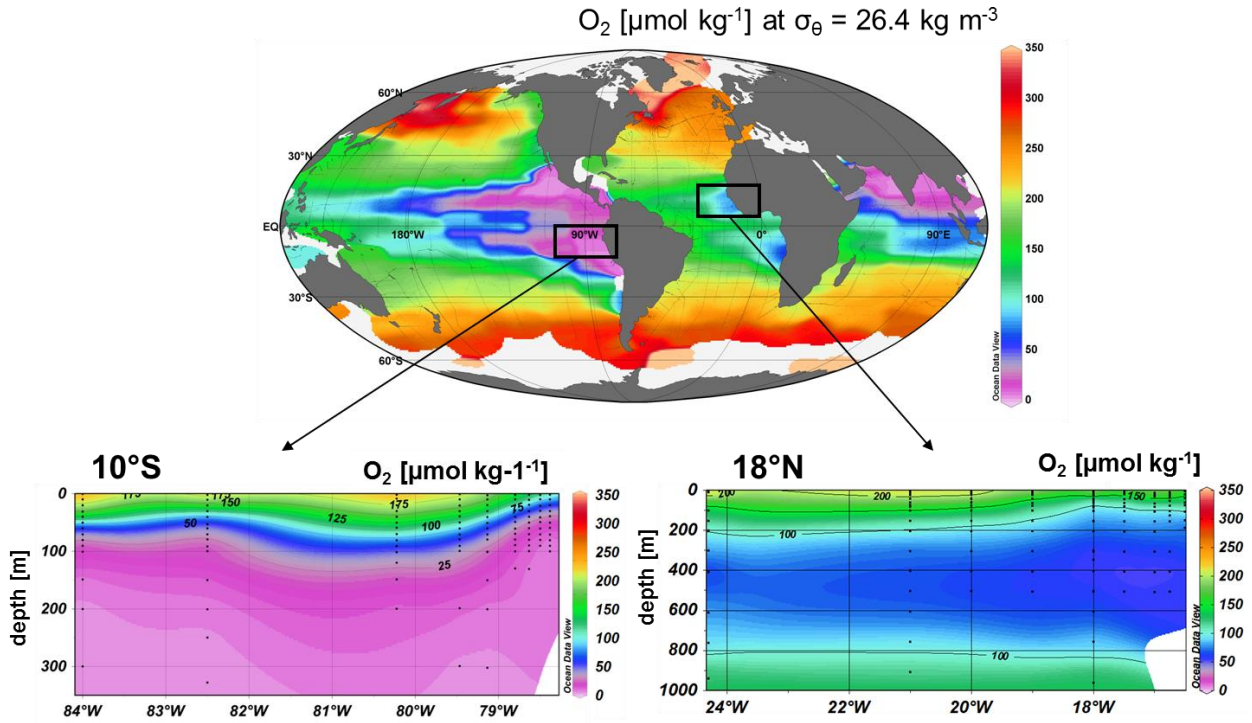
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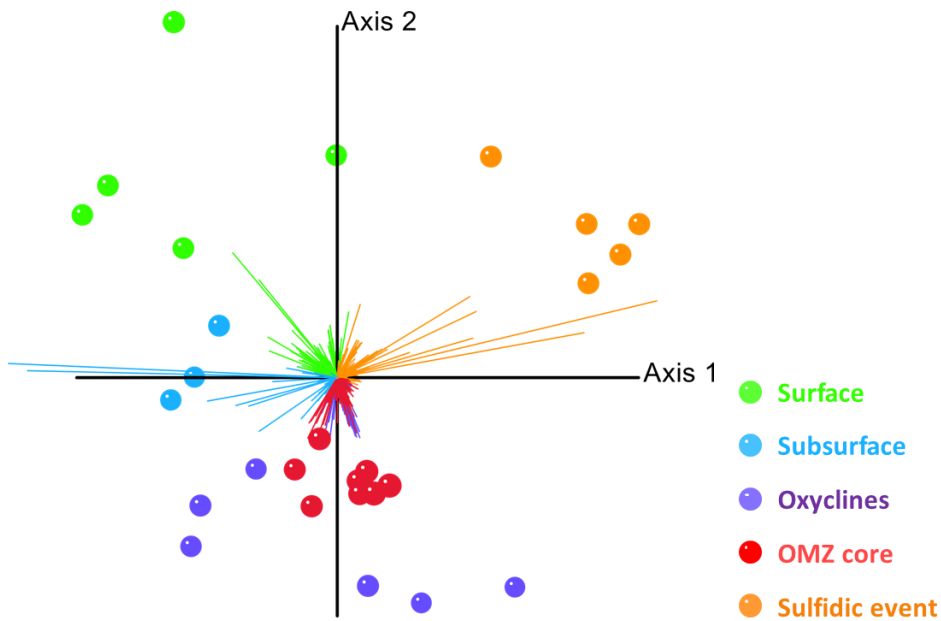
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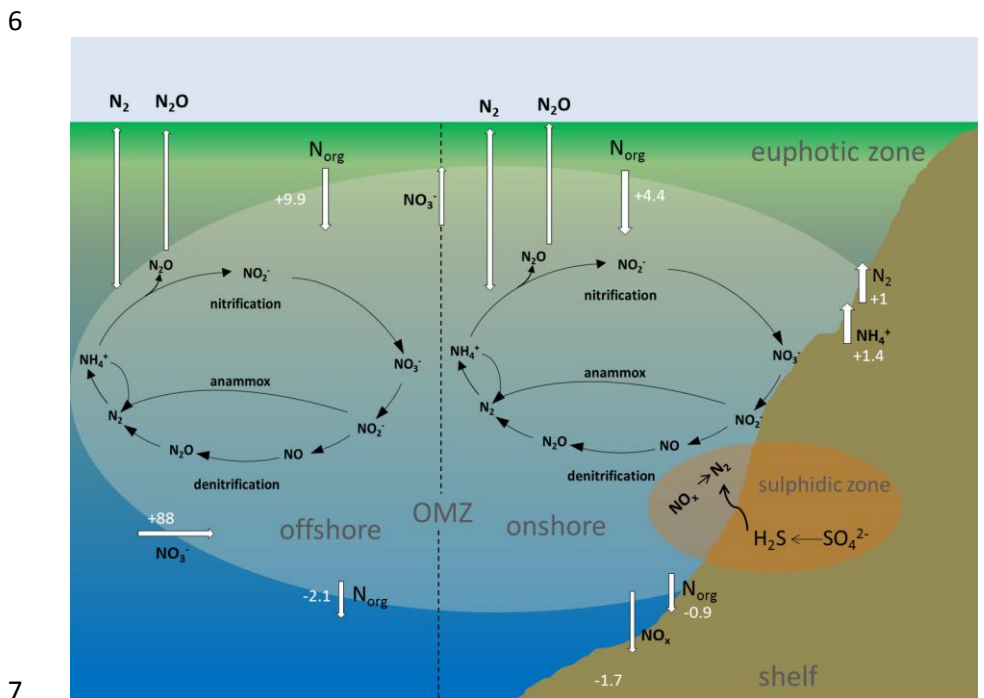
1 **Figures**



2
3 Figure 1. Global distribution of O_2 at $\sigma_{\theta}=26.4 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ ($\sim 400 \text{ m}$ depth): The major regions of low
4 oxygen in the world ocean are all located in the tropical oceans, at shallow to intermediate
5 depths. The area off Peru represents one of the most pronounced OMZs. The investigated areas in
6 the eastern tropical South Pacific and the eastern tropical North Atlantic Oceans are marked with
7 black boxes; examples of the O_2 distribution are given along two sections from the coast to the
8 open ocean at 10°S in the OMZ off Peru and at 18°N in the eastern tropical North Atlantic; O_2
9 concentrations are indicated by the color code.

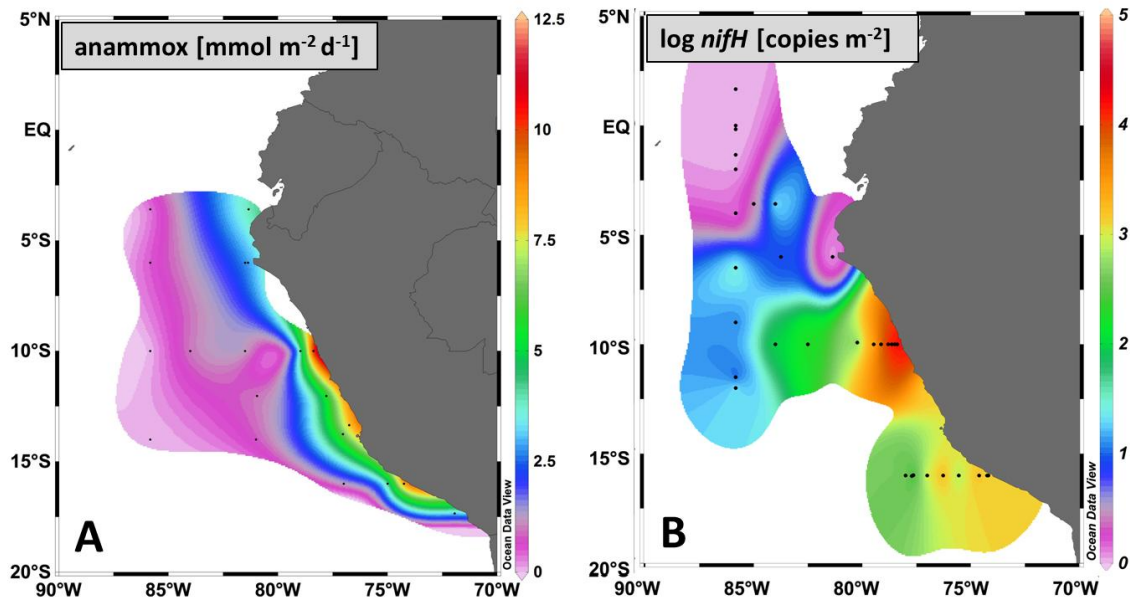


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 2 Figure 2. Redundancy analysis ordination model of microbial taxa (vectors) identified from
 3 pyrosequencing reads of multiple samples (points) in the ETSP. Spherical k-means clustering
 4 revealed a fivefold partitioning that reflects distinct OMZ habitats (see legend). Each point is
 5 colored according to the cluster that dominated the microbial population in the respective sample.



1 Figure 3. The marine nitrogen (N) cycle with the major onshore and offshore processes in the
 2 ETSP OMZ, modified from Kalvelage et al. (2013). Numbers indicate fluxes of N [Tg y⁻¹].

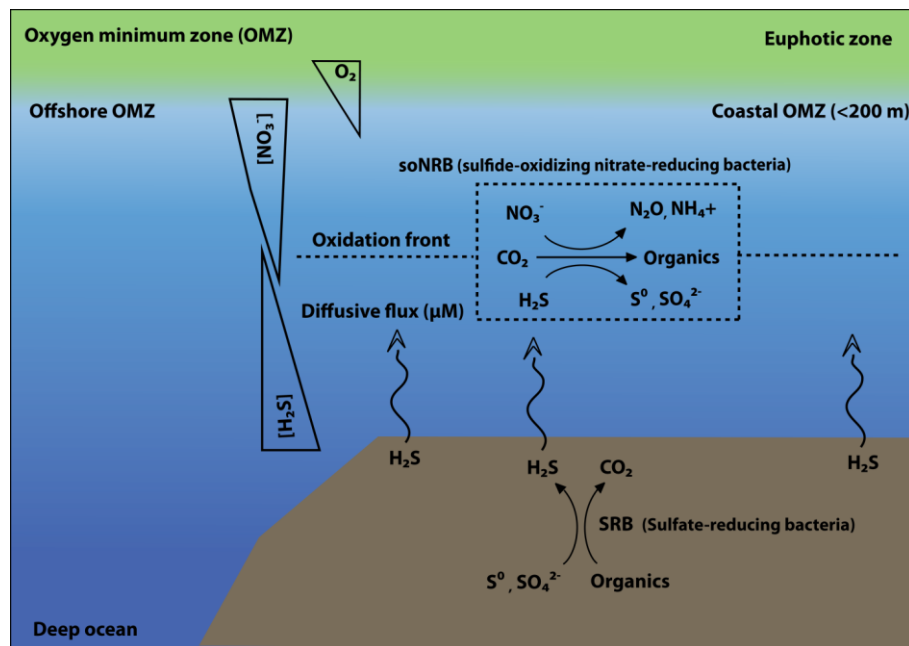
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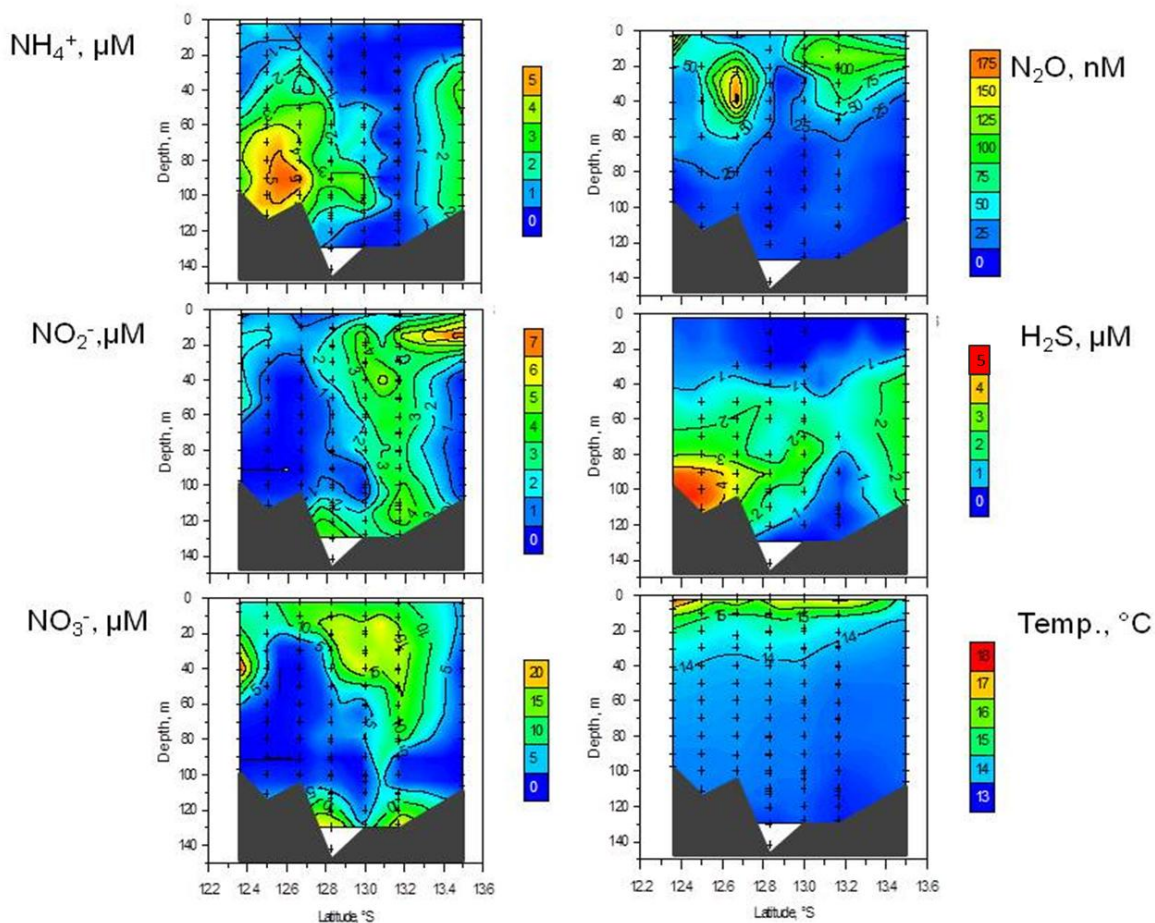
5 Figure 4. Co-occurrence of anammox as determined by rate measurements and the key functional
 6 marker gene for N₂ fixation, *nifH*, in the ETSP OMZ (modified from Kalvelage et al., 2013 and
 7 Löscher et al., 2014).

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1 Figure 5. Schematic representation of the dynamics of a sulfidic event occurring in an oxygen
 2 minimum zone. The sulfide and nitrate fluxes are shown in steady state. Sulfate-reducing bacteria
 3 produce sulfide from the sediment while the complementary detoxification process occurs in the
 4 water column at overlapping profiles.



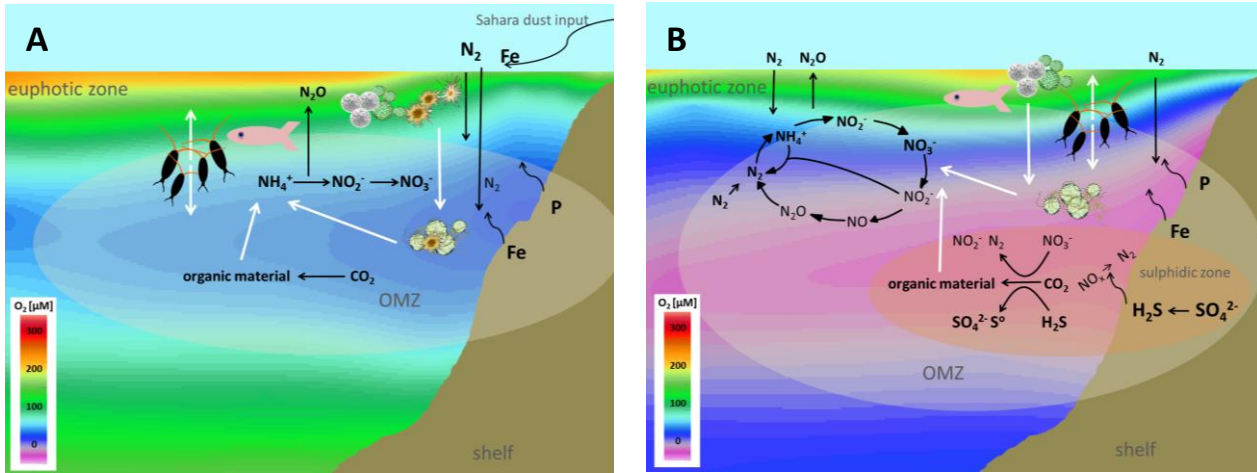
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 6 Figure 6. Distributions of N_2O , NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^- , H_2S , and water temperature during December
 7 2008/January 2009 (R/V Meteor cruise M77/3) on the shelf along the coast of Peru. Max. N_2O
 8 concentrations have been detected right above the sulfidic zone, where a sharp oxycline is present
 9 and ammonium and nitrate are available.

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1 Figure 7. Scheme of the (A) ETNA and (B) ETSP OMZs with major processes identified. The O_2
 2 background is taken from the SOPRAN cruise P399, along $18^\circ N$ in the ETNA and from the
 3 SFB754 cruise M77/3, along $10^\circ S$ in the ETSP.

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1 Table 1: Definitions of different oxygen conditions used in this article.

2

	O₂ range	remarks
oxic	atmospheric saturation - 20 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$	The lower limit is defined from a metabolic view as the concentration where denitrification and anaerobic ammonium oxidation start to occur (Kalvelage et al., 2011)
suboxic	20 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ - 2 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$	The lower limit is defined by the detection limit conventionally defined for the Winkler titration method
anoxic	2 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ - 0 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$	0 is defined by the lower detection limit of the STOX sensor ($\sim 50 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$) as the most sensitive detection method applied in our studies (Revsbech et al., 2009)
sulfidic	0 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in the presence of H ₂ S	Full anoxia with sulfate reduction being present (Naqvi et al., 2010)

3