

CO₂ maximum in the oxygen minimum zone (OMZ)

A. Paulmier¹, D. Ruiz-Pino² and V. Garçon¹

[1]{LEGOS/IRD/CNRS, Toulouse, France}

[2]{LOCEAN/UPMC, Paris, France}

Correspondence to: A. Paulmier (aurelien.paulmier@legos.obs-mip.fr)

Abstract

Oxygen minimum zones (OMZs), known as suboxic layers mainly localized in the Eastern Boundary Upwelling Systems, are expanding since the 20th “high CO₂ “century, probably due to the global warming. OMZs are also known to contribute significantly to the oceanic production of N₂O, a greenhouse gas (GHG) more efficient than CO₂. However, the contribution of the OMZs on the oceanic sources and sinks budget of CO₂, the main GHG, still remains to be established.

We present here the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) structure, associated locally with the Chilean OMZ and globally with the main most intense OMZs (O₂<20 μmol/kg) in the open ocean. To achieve this, we jointly examine simultaneous DIC and O₂ data collected off Chile during 4 cruises (2000-2002) and a monthly monitoring (2000-2001) in one of the shallowest OMZ (from ~20 m deep), along with international DIC and O₂ databases and climatology for other OMZs.

High DIC concentrations (>2225 μmol/kg, up to 2350 μmol/kg) have been reported over the whole OMZ thickness, allowing to define for all studied OMZs a Carbon Maximum Zone (CMZ). Locally off Chile, the shallow cores of the OMZ and CMZ are spatially and temporally collocated at 21°S, 30°S and 36°S despite different cross-shore, long-shore and seasonal configurations. Globally, the mean state of the main OMZs also corresponds to the largest carbon reserves of the ocean in subsurface waters. The CMZs-OMZs could then induce a positive feedback for the atmosphere during upwelling activity, as potential direct local sources of CO₂. The CMZ paradoxically presents a slight “carbon deficit” in its core (~10%), meaning a DIC increase from the oxygenated ocean to the OMZ lower than the corresponding O₂ decrease (assuming classical C/O molar ratios). This “carbon deficit” would be related to regional thermal mechanisms affecting faster O₂ than DIC (due to the carbonate buffer effect) and occurring upstream in warm waters (e.g. in the Equatorial Divergence),

1 where the CMZ-OMZ core originates. The “carbon deficit” in the CMZ core would be mainly
2 compensated locally at the oxycline, by a “carbon excess” induced by a specific
3 remineralization. Indeed, a possible co-existence of bacterial heterotrophic and autotrophic
4 processes usually occurring at different depths could stimulate an intense aerobic-anaerobic
5 remineralization, inducing deviation of C/O molar ratio from the canonical Redfield ratios.
6 Further studies to confirm these results for all OMZs are required to understand the OMZ
7 effects on both climatic feedback mechanisms and marine ecosystem perturbations.

9 **1 Introduction**

10 The most intense ($O_2 < 20 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) and largest oxygen minimum zones (OMZs),
11 known as suboxic layers, are mainly localized in subsurface of the upwelling regions in the
12 Eastern Pacific and Northern Indian open oceans (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008). OMZs can
13 be considered as analogs of the primitive anoxic ocean associated with a high CO_2
14 atmosphere ($>1000 \text{ ppmv}$: Royer et al., 2004), because of comparable reduced chemical
15 conditions and similarities between ancient bacteria and those living in the OMZs (e.g.
16 Planctomycetales: Gribaldo and Philippe, 2002). OMZs appear as a refuge of abundant
17 specific microbes capable of chemolithoautrophic carbon assimilation (Walsh et al., 2009)
18 and organisms adapted to low O_2 (e.g. zooplankton as specific copepods and euphausiids:
19 Wishner et al., 2008; Antezana, 2009). These biological specificities and perturbations,
20 associated with shift in animals distribution and changes in ecosystems structure (e.g. towards
21 gelatinous species as jellyfish and salps: Childress and Siebel, 1998), may potentially impact
22 the carbon export. In addition, OMZs are submitted to climate changes (lower ventilation by
23 stratification and O_2 solubility decrease) and natural or anthropogenic fertilization
24 (remineralization increase) through nutrient or metal inputs by upwelling, rivers or dust
25 (Fuhrman and Capone, 1991; Naqvi et al., 2006; Rabalais et al., 2010). In the past, OMZs
26 have probably extended and contracted in warm (interglacial) and cold (glacial) periods (e.g.
27 Cannariato and Kennett, 1999; Rogers, 2000), associated with high (300 ppmv) and low (180
28 ppmv) atmospheric CO_2 (Jansen et al, 2007), respectively. In the present and according to the
29 last decades observations associated with high anthropogenic CO_2 uptake by the ocean
30 (Sabine et al., 2004), OMZs would increase or intensify (Stramma et al., 2008), or even new
31 ones appear locally and episodically (Chan et al., 2008).

OMZs are known for playing an essential role in the nitrogen cycle, in which different autotrophic and heterotrophic bacterial processes intervene (e.g. Arrigo, 2005) such as ammonification, nitrogen assimilation, anammox, DNRA (Dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia), denitrification and nitrification. As a result of these two last processes, OMZs would produce up to 50% of the oceanic N₂O (e.g. Bange, 2008), a greenhouse gas, ~300 times more efficient than CO₂ (Jain et al., 2000; Ramaswamy et al., 2001). So far, no study has investigated the direct link between OMZs and the most important greenhouse gas, CO₂. However, OMZs may play an indirect role on the carbon reservoir through denitrification which converts nitrate, one of the main oceanic nutrients, into gaseous nitrogen (e.g. N₂, N₂O) lost towards the atmosphere. Indeed, according to Falkowski's (1997) hypothesis, the denitrification process would decrease the oceanic nitrogen reserve, and consequently total primary production reduction will limit atmospheric CO₂ sequestration by the ocean. In addition, Koeve and Kähler (2010) show theoretically that the combined effects of the processes in the OMZ core turn out to be clearly heterotrophic, suggesting net direct OMZ CO₂ release.

The main objective of this study is thus to determine and discuss the total CO₂ or DIC (dissolved inorganic carbon) structures which are forming in the OMZs, from a local and temporal study focused in the OMZ off Chile and extended to the global ocean. Indeed, the eastern tropical south Pacific (ETSP) OMZ is fully adequate for a detailed study. The ETSP presents high DIC concentrations in subsurface (>2250 µmol/kg; e.g. Copin-Montégut and Raimbault, 1995), mainly reported in very local areas. Because the ETSP presents the shallowest OMZ (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008), the ETSP OMZ is closely exposed to ocean-atmosphere CO₂ exchanges, which may be amplified by the intense upwelling activity (Strub et al., 1998). Its twice as high total (new and exported) production (855 gC/m²/yr: Chavez and Messié, 2009) than for the eastern tropical north Pacific (ETNP) allows to study the DIC structure naturally associated with the OMZ. In particular, the OMZ off Chile (cf. Paulmier et al., 2006) is characterized by a shallow (5-20 m) very intense (>1 µmol/kg/m) and stratified oxycline associated with an O₂ continuum from oxic (O₂>200 µmol/kg) to suboxic (O₂<20 µmol/kg) conditions. The Chilean OMZ also presents a very low oxygenated core (O₂<20 µmol/kg, down to <1 µmol/kg), which is one of the thickest ones, relatively to the upper and lower O₂ gradients (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008), allowing a significant denitrification (anerobic remineralization) activity (e.g. Graco, 2002). High DIC concentrations have been measured off Chile (e.g. Takahashi and Goddard,

1998; Torres, 2001), although never related with the OMZ influence. Various studies indicated intense sources of CO₂ (at 23°–30°S: ~+5 mmol/m²/d; Torres, 2001; Lefèvre et al., 2002), 5 times higher than the oceanic average. In addition, locally in the OMZ off Chile, Paulmier et al. (2006) suggested a specific remineralization at the oxycline up to 5 times more intense than in the oxygenated ocean, which consequently produces more CO₂ than classically. However, and in addition to its specificity of being shallow and intercepting the euphotic layer, the OMZ off Chile is characterized by an important temporal variability. The primary production (0.5–20 mgC/m²/d; Daneri et al., 2000) and the sea surface biomass (0.2–1.2 mg/m³; Paulmier et al., 2006) are up to 3 times higher in summer and at the coast and in the Centre (30–36°S) than in spring and winter, offshore and in the North (21°S), respectively. The air-sea CO₂ fluxes also present a high spatio-temporal modulation (between -3 and 25 mmol/m²/d; Paulmier et al., 2008). Indeed, they can shift in austral summer and winter from an intense CO₂ source (e.g., pCO₂>1000 µatm at 23°S, Torres, 2001) to a strong sink (e.g., pCO₂<150 µatm at 30°S, Lefèvre et al., 2002). This work thus presents a DIC and O₂ data set collected off Chile in order to study locally in detail the specific DIC structure on the same 4 cruises and monitoring (Fig. 1), associated with an OMZ already described in Paulmier et al. (2006).

2 Methodology

To characterize locally the DIC structure associated with an OMZ, a high vertical resolution sampling (5–10 m), adapted to low O₂ concentrations (<20 µmol/kg), has been performed simultaneously for DIC and O₂ in the OMZ off Chile to capture the intense biogeochemical gradients. This sampling is based on 3 sites (in the North: Iquique, 21°S; in the Centre: Coquimbo, 30°S; on the continental shelf, Concepción, 36°S) between 2000 and 2002 in non El Niño years during four cruises and a monthly monitoring. The four cruises have been performed at 21°S with a bottom depth of 80–1880 m (09/2000, day/night station; 05/2001, cross-shore transect; 04/2002, biogeochemical station) and at 30°S with a bottom depth of 700–4000 m (04/2002, biogeochemical station). The monthly monitoring took place at 36°S off a semi-enclosed bay with a bottom depth of 60 m (from September 2000 to May 2001, S14 station). This sampling allows to document illustrative spatio-temporal variations, associated with different biogeochemical and dynamical regimes mentioned in the Introduction section and detailed in Paulmier et al. (2006).

Total dissolved inorganic CO₂ (DIC) samples were analyzed by potentiometry (Bradshaw and Brewer, 1988) with the National CO₂ measurement Service (SNAPCO₂, Paris, France) protocols (e.g. Corbière et al., 2007). From 15 certified Dickson standards (Batches #44 and #49, SCRIPPS, USA), an accuracy of ~1.7 µmol/kg and, a reproducibility of ~2.7 µmol/kg, based on 16 replicates, have been determined (Paulmier et al., 2008). O₂ samples were analyzed according to the Winckler method, improved and adapted to low concentration detection (O₂<40 µmol/kg) following Broenckow and Cline (1969), with an accuracy of 1 µmol/kg and reproducibility of 1.8 µmol/kg (Paulmier et al., 2006).

To validate results obtained at local scale off Chile for the most intense OMZs of the world ocean (O₂<20 µmol/kg; Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008), the DIC structure was determined in the permanent OMZs in the Tropical Pacific ocean (North – ETNP: Costa Rica, Mexico; South – ETSP: Peru) and Northern Indian ocean (Arabian sea – AS; Bay of Bengal - BB), in the seasonal OMZs in the West Bering Sea (WBS) and the Gulf of Alaska (GA), and in the Eastern Boundary Upwellings of the Atlantic Ocean (Canary and Benguela/Namibia). Globally, the study has been investigated mainly in the most intense OMZs in the Tropical Pacific and the Northern Indian Oceans. The international data bases GLODAP (GLObal Ocean Data Analysis Project; Sabine et al., 2005) for DIC and WOA2005 (World Ocean Atlas 2005; Boyer et al., 2006) for O₂ have been used at the global scale. For a more consistent comparison between DIC and O₂ data in terms of spatio-temporal coverage and sampling protocols, the analysis has been focused on the same cruises carried out during the WOCE program (World Ocean Circulation Experiment, www.coaps.fsu.edu/woce; >300 transects between 1992 and 1998). Indeed, the horizontal coverage by WOCE cruises measuring both DIC and O₂ (between 1992 and 1995, also in non El Niño years) is very similar in the main OMZ regions of the Pacific and Indian Oceans. Both accuracy and reproducibility of the data, respecting WOCE standards quality (WOCE Operation Manual, 1994), are: ~4 µmol/kg for DIC; ~2 µmol/kg (with a detection limit of ~10 µmol/kg) for O₂. In addition, sensitivity tests on DIC and O₂ averages have been performed, taking into account the lower and upper vertical levels of the GLODAP and WOA2005 grids for each OMZ limit: 137.5 and 225 m for the upper limit (175 m); 850 and 1050 m for the lower limit (950 m). These tests have been summarized in Table 1 for the total OMZs, each OMZ and the global ocean. In general, the average DIC are more sensitive to the choice of the lower OMZ limit and in the ETNP (±8 µmol/kg), where the DIC concentrations are the highest. On the contrary, the average O₂ are more sensitive to the choice of the upper OMZ limit,

corresponding to the highest O₂ concentrations close to the saturation values. They are less sensitive in AS, with the lowest O₂ concentration in the thickest OMZ core. The maximal differences for both DIC and O₂, lower than to the data accuracy + reproducibility (cf. above), suggest that the choice of the upper and lower OMZ limits does not have a significant effect limits for the determination of the associated DIC structure on the analysis proposed in the Results section here.

For comparing DIC increase versus O₂ decrease due to remineralization, which has been considered as the main mechanism responsible of the existence of all O₂ minima observed in the ocean (Wyrski, 1962), an index is proposed:

$$\text{DIC}^* = \text{DIC} + 0.69 \text{ O}_2 \quad (1)$$

0.69 = 117/170 is the stoichiometric carbon to oxygen ratio C/O of Anderson and Sarmiento (1994). It corresponds to the lowest and most commonly used C/O ratio value in the data analysis literature.

DIC* is defined as the sum of the observed DIC and DIC produced during remineralization by O₂ consumption. DIC* can be considered as an analogue of nitrogen deficit index (e.g.: NO of Broecker, 1974; N* of Gruber and Sarmiento, 1997) or P* (Deutsch et al., 2007). DIC* should be conservative if no physico-chemical and/or biological mechanisms are affecting DIC and O₂ concentrations other than remineralization and/or photosynthesis with the same C/O stoichiometry. The accuracy and reproducibility of DIC and O₂ measurements lead to an accuracy and reproducibility for DIC* lower than 4.5 μmol/kg.

A water mass analysis based on an inverse method is performed to estimate the biogeochemical contributions for DIC production and O₂ consumption locally within the OMZ off Chile. This hydrological method (e.g. Minas et al., 1986) has been already described for O₂ in Paulmier et al. (2006) and detailed in Paulmier (2005). The contribution due to mixing processes has been determined with a correlation coefficient R² of ~0.9, using potential temperature and salinity as semi-conservative parameters. The measured DIC and O₂ concentrations can be expressed as the sum of a contribution due to mixing processes (DIC_{mixing} and O_{2 mixing}) and a contribution due only to biogeochemical processes called ΔDIC and ΔO₂ (the residuals). Positive or negative ΔDIC and ΔO₂ indicate (DIC and O₂) production or consumption, respectively. To compare the biogeochemical effect on O₂ of the OMZ communities at each sampled profile, we chose to apply locally our method to infer a local biogeochemical residual within the OMZ and in particular at the oxycline level. This implies a minor effect of the local horizontal mixing and advection which does not significantly affect

the vertical O_2 mixing (Paulmier, 2005). The biogeochemical residuals can be interpreted as a resulting *in situ* DIC or O_2 consumption or production of the OMZ communities for each location, depth and period.

3 Results

DIC and O_2 data sets collected off Chile (Fig. 1) show a specific DIC structure associated with an OMZ already described in Paulmier et al. (2006), mainly characterized by an upper O_2 gradient (oxycline) and a core ($O_2 < 20 \mu\text{mol/kg}$, down to $< 1 \mu\text{mol/kg}$). In particular, the oxycline is: i) very intense ($> 1 \mu\text{mol/kg/m}$) and stratified; ii) associated with an O_2 continuum from oxic ($O_2 > 200 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) to suboxic ($O_2 < 20 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) conditions; iii) shallow (from 5-20 m), then intercepting the euphotic layer depth. Then, in order to determine if the description of the DIC structure detailed locally and temporally for the OMZ off Chile can be extended to the global scale, the representative DIC structure has been analyzed globally in the main most intense OMZs.

3.1 Carbon maximum zone (CMZ) along the OMZ off Chile

The DIC structure, observed at 21°S from the shelf to off-shore (Iquique: Fig. 1 a and c) but also at 30°S (Coquimbo: Fig. 1c; stations location in Fig. 1f), corresponds to a permanent structure off northern and central Chile. The DIC structure at 21°S shows low values ($\text{DIC} < 2140 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) in surface, and a strong increase with depth from 20 m called carboncline (by analogy with the oxycline) up to maximal DIC concentrations ($> 2300 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) on the continental shelf. The continental slope induces a 30-40 m shoaling of the carboncline (cf. DIC isolines between 2200 and $2275 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) and of the maximal DIC ($> 2250 \mu\text{mol/kg}$: in red-white, Fig. 1a). This shoaling follows the oxycline and OMZ core shoaling (cf. the $20 \mu\text{M } O_2$ isoline, Fig. 1d). The DIC structure at 21°S ($\sim 2300 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in average on the core) presents higher concentrations than at 30°S by $\sim 50 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (Fig. 1c), also associated with a less intense OMZ at Coquimbo from $\sim 40 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (Fig. 1f). At 36°S on the shelf (Concepcion Bay), DIC concentrations are much more variable than at 21°S and 30°S , with the highest concentrations reported off Chile ($> 2500 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in spring 2000; Fig. 1 b and c). The highest DIC concentrations ($> 2250 \mu\text{mol/kg}$: in red, Fig. 1b) appear from the bottom (~ 50 m depth) up to 10 m depth in austral spring-summer (October to March), associated with the OMZ establishing ($O_2 < 20 \mu\text{M}$ from 20 to 50 m in white: Fig. 1e). The

DIC maximum ($>2250 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) starts to settle in spring during the high upwelling activity period, simultaneously with the OMZ core. In fall (April-May), the $2175 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ DIC isoline extends from 5 m near the surface to the bottom (Fig. 1b), indicative of a homogenized water column with lower DIC. It is coincident with the complete OMZ destruction (Fig. 1e). In the OMZ off northern and central Chile, the DIC maximum appears spatially and temporally collocated with the O_2 minimum of the OMZ core, despite differences in the OMZ intensity and shape between each site (Fig. 1f).

Considering all sampled data in the OMZ off Chile (Fig. 1), the whole DIC and O_2 profiles confirm a same DIC structure associated with the OMZ: low concentrations in surface waters and an increase with depth, as in the oxygenated ocean (cf. classical profile out of the OMZ: Fig. 1c). However, in average, the observed increase off Chile is ~ 5 times stronger than the usual increase. DIC concentrations reach values as high as $2330 \pm 60 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ at 50-100 m. Usually for the same area but out of the OMZ, these high DIC are observed from 1000 m and deeper (WOCE 1992-95; Takahashi and Goddard, 1998). In addition, DIC concentrations in the OMZ off Chile remain high ($>2250 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) on the whole core thickness (O_2 minimum between 30 and 750 m). Thus, as compared with a representative classical DIC profile out of the OMZ, the OMZ off Chile presents a relative maximum of DIC (hatched in red: Fig. 1c). This DIC maximum, defined by $\text{DIC}_{\text{CMZ}} = \text{DIC}_{\text{Average in OMZ}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{Classical out of OMZ}}$, is called, by analogy with the OMZ, a carbon maximum zone (CMZ). Although the CMZ defined here and the OMZ off Chile are relatively well correlated in terms of position and thickness, some differences appear, especially between the carboncline and the oxycline. The carbonclines start from the surface, at shallower depths than the oxyclines (from 5-10 m). In addition, the carbonclines are associated with some extreme DIC peaks (up to $>2350 \mu\text{mol/kg}$), whereas smooth low O_2 profiles can be observed at the oxycline.

3.2 Towards a validation of the CMZ existence at the global scale

The hypothesis of the CMZs existence at the global scale for all the most intense OMZs is tested with GLODAP and WOA2005 datasets.

Vertically, the DIC distributions in the OMZs in the eastern tropical south and north Pacific (ETSP and ETNP), in the Arabian Sea (AS) and in the Bay of Bengal (BB), are low in surface (between 1900 and $2100 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) and increase with depth up to $2300 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (from Fig. 2a). As observed in the OMZ off Chile, all these OMZs present high DIC concentrations (always $>2225 \mu\text{mol/kg}$, Fig. 2a) over their core depths in average between ~ 175 and ~ 950 m

depth (Fig. 2b). These high DIC concentrations in the OMZ cores are associated with a large DIC relative maximum, higher than 100 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ as compared to the global averaged DIC profile (continuous profile in Fig. 2a). These large DIC relative maxima allow to suggest the existence of CMZs in all main OMZs, as defined for the OMZ off Chile.

The CMZs are the most intense in ETNP ($\text{DIC} > 2300 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) and the least intense in AS and BB, up to 150 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ and $\sim 100 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ higher than the average for the global ocean, respectively (Fig. 2a). This is likely a consequence of the higher accumulation of DIC along the Conveyor Belt in the ETNP CMZ than for the CMZs in the Northern Indian Ocean. In particular, the CMZ in BB presents for the whole regional bay the lowest DIC concentrations near the surface ($\text{DIC} \approx 1800 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ from the mean BB profile), probably due to the advection of important riverine freshwaters (e.g. Brahmaputra, Gange).

Horizontally, the analysis has been illustrated on DIC and O_2 fields over the 175 and 950 m layer, intercepting the core of all main tropical OMZs (Fig. 2 b and d). The highest DIC concentrations ($>2225 \mu\text{mol/kg}$; in red-orange, Fig. 2b) are found in the tropical eastern north (ETNP) and south (ETSP) Pacific and northern Indian Oceans (AS; BB), and at high latitude around 60°N in the northern Pacific. These regions correspond to the most intense ($\text{O}_2 < 20 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) OMZs and to the seasonal OMZs of the West Bering Sea and the Gulf of Alaska, respectively (in blue-purple, Fig. 2d). The Canary and Benguela upwelling systems and the China Sea, corresponding to the least intense O_2 minima ($\text{O}_2 \geq 40 \mu\text{mol/kg}$; Karstensen et al., 2008; Chen et al., 1995; respectively) also correspond to high DIC (maxima around $2225 \mu\text{mol/kg}$), albeit lower concentrations than for the Pacific and Indian OMZs. All main OMZs appear thus as potential CMZs. The reciprocal is not true, since the high DIC concentrations averaged between 175 and 950 m depth south of 50°S in the Southern Ocean ($\sim 2250 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) are not correlated with an OMZ. These high DIC concentrations are mainly associated with the deepest maximal mixed layer depths ($\geq 250 \text{ m}$; De Boyer Montégut et al., 2004).

4 Discussion

The existence of CMZ, reported locally and temporally in the OMZ off Chile (Fig. 1), has been validated globally in all main OMZs on both vertical mean profiles for each OMZs (Fig. 2 a, c) and horizontal distribution (Fig. 2 b, d). The CMZs-OMZs, because of the accumulation of high DIC ($>2225 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) in subsurface, constitute the largest reserves of carbon near the surface in the global ocean, $\sim 570 \text{ PgC}$, i.e. a comparable stock to the total

atmospheric CO₂ content. This simple calculation is based on a mean DIC concentration of ~2225 μmol/kg, reported over 940 m of the OMZ thickness between 10 and 950 m, multiplied by the total area of the tropical shallow OMZs (22.2 10⁶ km²: from Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008). The high DIC concentrations of ~2225 μmol/kg are considered on both the carboncline-oxycline (10-175 m, as reported from local cruises: cf. Fig. 1c) and CMZ cores (175-950 m, as reported from global data bases: cf. Fig. 2a). The existence of such CMZ explains why the OMZ can be an intense GHG oceanic local source of N₂O but also CO₂ (e.g. off Chile: Paulmier et al., 2008).

The mechanisms responsible for the carbon maximum structure (CMZ) associated with the OMZ are discussed. We will first examine the physico-chemical mechanisms inducing a differential CO₂ accumulation and deoxygenation in the CMZ-OMZ core. We will then focus our attention on more local and biogeochemical processes, associated with remineralization and carbon to oxygen molar ratio (C/O) at the carboncline-oxycline of the Chilean OMZ.

4.1 Differential regional physico-chemical CO₂ accumulation and deoxygenation in the CMZ-OMZ core

It is in no way surprising to find DIC maxima associated with O₂ minima in subsurface, since remineralization degrading organic matter into CO₂ occurs mainly in subsurface layer and is classically aerobic, i.e. consuming O₂. CMZ in the OMZ is thus a logical consequence of remineralization end-products accumulation, agreeing with subsurface fields of nitrate, phosphate and silicate at the depth of the OMZ core. This accumulation of remineralization end-products is not distributed uniformly horizontally (Fig. 2b) and vertically (Fig. 2a). It mainly occurs in privileged zones, in particular the OMZs in the top 1000 meters. The same dynamical mechanisms acting at different scales, already proposed for the OMZ formation contribution (e.g. Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008; Karstensen et al., 2008), contribute to the CMZ formation. At the global scale, DIC accumulation occurs in the oldest waters, following the Conveyor Belt (Broecker and Peng, 1982) with the highest concentrations in Northern Pacific (the seasonal West Bering Sea and Gulf of Alaska OMZs). Low subsurface ventilation of shadow zones (Luyten et al., 1983) and confinement in regions surrounded by continents explain why CMZ-OMZs are located in the eastern Pacific and in the Northern Indian Ocean rather than in the Western Pacific and in the Southern Indian, respectively. The location of tropical shadow zones with older waters (10<100 years: Karstensen et al., 2008) explains why the DIC maximum and O₂ minimum are found in the equatorwards subsystems of the eastern

boundary upwelling in both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The upwelling activity (intensity; typology of cells: Endoh, 1976) and undercurrents transport (intensity, depth), as well as mixed-layer depth, affects the position of the CMZ-OMZs in subsurface (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008). In particular, the upwelling explains why the DIC maximum starts from shallower (<175 m) in the CMZ-OMZs than the rest of the ocean in average (Fig. 2 b, d).

However, despite of similarities and co-localization of CMZ and OMZ, some differences appears. Let's assume that the dynamical transport and accumulation of DIC produced by remineralization is the only cause explaining the CMZ existence in an OMZ, then the DIC increase should be proportional to the O₂ decrease. The proportionality factor should be the C/O stoichiometric coefficient, if the molar C/O ratio of remineralization is constant. In this case, values of DIC* (= DIC + 0.69 O₂; Equation 1) should be similar in the oxygenated ocean and in the OMZs. But, as illustrated in Figure 3a-b, DIC* averages in OMZs core (DIC*_{OMZ}) are slightly lower than the average in the global ocean (DIC*_{Global}) for the same depth layer, by a significant difference of ~10-20 µmol/kg ranging from 7 (ETNP) up to 25 (AS) µmol/kg. The DIC deficit in the global mean CMZ-OMZ core thickness is much clearer for the AS CMZ around 1000 m deep since the AS OMZ core is ~20% deeper than the other OMZ cores (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino, 2008). This difference is higher than the DIC* uncertainty (Cf. Methodology). This difference suggests that the CMZ core exhibits a slight DIC deficit as compared to the DIC expected maximum, i.e. the DIC produced by a remineralization (Re) consuming the entire O₂ amount necessary to form the OMZ and following the chosen constant C/O stoichiometry. Estimating a DIC_{Re} of ~93 µmol/kg (= 0.69*(157-22) from O₂ OMZ=22 µmol/kg and O₂ Global ocean=157 µmol/kg; Tab. 1), the DIC deficit is accounting around >10% of the total DIC produced by remineralization. Note that for all DIC* calculations presented here, sensitivity tests were performed, especially with a higher C/O value (the canonical C/O = 106/138 from Redfield et al., 1963). These tests did not change the conclusions.

Theoretically, the history of the water masses which give origin to the CMZ-OMZ will affect the DIC and O₂ values in addition to the strict biological effect. Water masses forming the CMZ-OMZs cores come from surface equatorial and/or tropical warm waters. In the Pacific, CMZs-OMZs waters mainly originate from the Pacific equatorial waters advected through zonal equatorial undercurrents (e.g. Tsuchiya, 1981; Karstensen et al., 2008): i) from the Equatorial SubSurface Water through the Peru-Chili undercurrent (PCU) for the ETSP (Strub

et al., 1998; Paulmier et al. 2006); ii) from the SubTropical Underwater Water formed near the Equator for the ETNP (O’Conner et al., 2002; Maske et al., 2010). The AS CMZ-OMZs waters originate from the Red Sea and Persian Gulf (Morrison et al., 1999) and the BB subsurface waters come from the surface equatorial Indian ocean (Rao et al., 1996; Sarma et al., 1998). The equatorial regions are net O₂ sinks, despite a thermal O₂ source effect (Najjar and Keeling, 2000), which tends to diminish the surface O₂ concentration thereby affecting DIC*. Since $DIC^* = DIC + 0.69 O_2$, a decrease of DIC* is expected in the warm regions due to the higher temperature lowering the gas solubility. Indeed, an increase of temperature from 15° to 25°C, corresponding to the mean subsurface and surface temperatures for tropical and equatorial regions, and for a standard mean salinity of 35 (CARS database, 2009), would decrease the O₂ solubility by >10% (Weiss, 1970). A similar additional effect is occurring on dissolved CO₂ (Weiss, 1974), but it remains negligible because of the buffer effect due to the CO₂ dissociation (<1%; Lewis and Wallace, 1998).

The global dataset analysis confirms that the differential CO₂ accumulation and deoxygenation is occurring upstream in the regions where the CMZs-OMZs water are pre-formed, mainly in the equatorial regions (Fig. 4). In the subsurface layer (175-950 m) corresponding to the CMZs-OMZs depths, DIC* is decreasing from the global ocean to the equatorial regions by ~10 µmol/kg (Fig. 4c), whereas DIC* is similar in the CMZs-OMZs and in equatorial regions. For Chile, OMZ DIC and O₂ concentrations in PCU confirm this result, since PCU is advecting waters poorer in O₂ (Paulmier et al., 2006) than richer in DIC, inducing a lower DIC*. The differential thermal effect on DIC and O₂ is needed to explain why DIC* decreases from the global ocean (GO) to Equatorial regions (ER), from a DIC* value of 2311 µmol/kg to a DIC* value of 2300 µmol/kg (Fig. 4c). Let’s use the DIC* definition and the decomposition of DIC*, DIC and O₂ into the physical and biogeochemical components. Let’s assume that the thermal effect (Th) and remineralization (Re) can be associated to the physical and biogeochemical components in subsurface waters, respectively.

$$DIC^*_{GO} - DIC^*_{ER} = (DIC^*_{GO Th} + DIC^*_{GO Re}) - (DIC^*_{ER Th} + DIC^*_{ER Re})$$

Because $DIC^*_{GO Re} - DIC^*_{ER Re} = 0$ by definition,

$$\begin{aligned} DIC^*_{GO} - DIC^*_{ER} &= DIC^*_{GO Th} - DIC^*_{ER Th} \\ &= (DIC_{GO Th} + 0.69 O_{2 GO Th}) - (DIC_{ER Th} + 0.69 O_{2 ER Th}) \\ &= (DIC_{GO Th} - DIC_{ER Th}) + 0.69 (O_{2 GO Th} - O_{2 ER Th}) \end{aligned}$$

Considering here $DIC_{GO Th} - DIC_{ER Th} \approx 0.01 (CO_{2 GO Th} - CO_{2 ER Th})$ with a constant CO₂ buffer effect of 1% and a negligible temperature effect on this Revelle factor of 0.01 (Lewis

and Wallace, 1998), and assuming $\text{CO}_2 \text{ GO Th} - \text{CO}_2 \text{ ER Th} \approx \text{O}_2 \text{ GO Th} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Th}$ (similar solubility variation for CO_2 and O_2):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DIC}^*_{\text{GO}} - \text{DIC}^*_{\text{ER}} &= 0.01 (\text{O}_2 \text{ GO Th} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Th}) + 0.69 (\text{O}_2 \text{ GO Th} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Th}) \\ &= 0.70 (\text{O}_2 \text{ GO Th} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Th}) \end{aligned}$$

With $\text{O}_2 \text{ GO Th} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Th} = (\text{O}_2 \text{ GO} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER}) - (\text{O}_2 \text{ GO Re} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Re})$ and

$$(\text{O}_2 \text{ GO Re} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Re}) = -(\text{DIC}_{\text{GO Re}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{ER Re}}) / 0.69 \approx -(\text{DIC}_{\text{GO}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{ER}}) / 0.69$$

$$\text{O}_2 \text{ GO Th} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER Th} = (\text{O}_2 \text{ GO} - \text{O}_2 \text{ ER}) + (\text{DIC}_{\text{GO}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{ER}}) / 0.69$$

$$= 77 - 61 / 0.69 = 16 \mu\text{mol/kg} \text{ (from the dashed arrows: Fig. 4a-b),}$$

and $\text{DIC}^*_{\text{GO}} - \text{DIC}^*_{\text{ER}} = 0.70 * 16 \approx 11 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ as expected from the direct calculation.

Therefore, the temperature effect on the solubility appears to be the mechanism decreasing the O_2 concentration in the CMZs-OMZs originating regions, and mainly driving and explaining the slightly lower DIC^* observed in the CMZs-OMZs (Fig. 3). In particular, the faster air-sea exchanges for O_2 than for CO_2 should explain why carbonclines start slightly shallower (by 5-10 m) than oxyclines, in addition to the photosynthesis effect in surface depleting more DIC than the supersaturating O_2 (e.g. Minas et al., 1986). Our approach only demonstrates that a DIC deficit ($\text{DIC}^* < \text{DIC}^*_{\text{Global}}$) could be due to physico-chemical mechanisms prior to the complete CMZ-OMZ formation, since dynamical connection between Equator waters and OMZ cores is complex, indirect and still not very well known.

4.2 Local remineralization and biogeochemical C/O variations at the carboncline-oxycline

In addition to regional physico-chemical contribution to the DIC deficit of the CMZ-OMZ core, specific local mechanisms could affect C/O in OMZs, and thus help to explain why $\text{DIC}^*_{\text{OMZ}}$ is different from $\text{DIC}^*_{\text{Global}}$. Off Chile (Fig. 3c), the CMZ-OMZ core also presents a DIC^* ($\sim 2225 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) lower than in oxygenated waters, by a difference up to $\sim 60 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ and $\sim 20 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in average similar to those discussed from the global dataset (Fig. 3a-b). On the contrary, above the core, at the carboncline-oxycline depths between 10 and 175 m depending on the site, $\text{DIC}^*_{\text{Chile}}$ is much higher by $\sim 80 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ in average than in oxygenated waters and in the core (Fig. 3c). The highest variability (up to $\sim 750 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) and concentrations ($\text{DIC}^* > 2500 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) correspond to 36°S (Fig. 3c), the shallowest site on the continental margin associated with a seasonal CMZ-OMZ (Fig. 1 b and e). The variation of DIC^* can be due to the local deviation of the C/O in the CMZ-OMZ from the fixed value chosen for the global scale analysis. Indeed, a plot of $[\text{DIC}]$ over $[\text{O}_2]$ for the global ocean

(85 650 data points from the WOCE cruises; Fig. 5a) indicates that a linear regression leads to a slope of 0.7 very close to $C/O=0.69$ (Anderson and Sarmiento, 1994) chosen for our DIC^* computation. This plot presents strongly higher and lower deviations from a linear regression, indicated by a low coefficient $R^2=0.25$. We thus investigated for local C/O deviations, especially at the carbonline-oxycline. To study the potential influence of the high remineralization on DIC production contributing to the CMZ formation, we evaluated the biogeochemical DIC production. Results of the hydrological method provide generally positive $\Delta DIC = DIC_{\text{measured}} - DIC_{\text{mixing}}$, indicating a net “new” DIC production by biogeochemical processes (Fig. 1c), in opposition with an “old” DIC advected in the CMZ-OMZ. Note that this approach provides a time-integrated information for the biogeochemical contribution to DIC concentration: Δ are expressed in terms of concentration ($\mu\text{mol/kg}$), and not in terms of rate.

In this study, no direct *in situ* measurement of any bacterial activity has been performed along the Chile OMZ allowing to identify microbial organisms and to prove the existence of biogeochemical processes. However, from theoretical stoichiometric equations for the known biogeochemical processes, although under-constrained and taking into account the uncertainties in the inverse method, it is possible to detect the “signature” of different dominant processes on both DIC and O_2 . For example, aerobic remineralization produces DIC ($\Delta DIC > 0$) and consumes O_2 ($\Delta O_2 < 0$), and inversely for photosynthesis. Anaerobic remineralization (e.g. denitrification, or even DNRA) produces DIC ($\Delta DIC > 0$) without consuming O_2 ($\Delta O_2 \approx 0$) by definition. Bacteria involved in the autotrophic processes such as nitrification and anammox should consume DIC (carbon source for assimilation; $\Delta DIC < 0$), but do ($\Delta O_2 < 0$) and do not ($\Delta O_2 \approx 0$) consume O_2 as aerobic and anaerobic process, respectively. All computed (ΔDIC , ΔO_2) for our sampling off Chile are reported in the carbonline-oxycline (Fig. 5b) where DIC^*_{Chile} appears the highest and most variable. Here, the ΔDIC - ΔO_2 diagram (Fig. 5b) can only provide qualitative information only, since each point corresponds to the predominance of a given process, and a large spatio-temporal variability is expected (e.g. between shelf and open ocean). Each situation corresponding theoretically to one dominant identified biogeochemical process (Fig. 5b) has been already observed off Chile and/or in other global OMZs. Indeed, for the same sites and/or periods off the Chilean OMZ, denitrification (Graco, 2002), anammox (Thamdrup et al., 2006; Galán et al., 2009) and nitrification (Molina et al., 2007) were observed to occur and tend to confirm the results of our simple biogeochemical approach. The reported (ΔDIC , ΔO_2) correspond to a

net biogeochemical contribution, which is the net result of different superimposed processes. In particular, the situations ($\Delta\text{DIC}>0$, $\Delta\text{O}_2>0$), because of unknown biogeochemical process, could be interpreted as the superimposition of remineralization processes and photosynthesis. One needs to be very cautious concerning the indirect anammox detection, because anammox would correspond to two groups of (ΔDIC , ΔO_2) points: $\Delta\text{DIC}\approx -70$ $\mu\text{mol/kg}$, and ≈ -300 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$. Note also that DIC and O_2 can be affected not only from biogeochemical processes occurring in the water column, but also from sedimentary mechanisms (respiration), particularly active off the semi-enclosed Bay of Concepción as early diagenesis (e.g. Graco, 2002). Especially in non El Niño periods, bottom waters are influenced by a benthic organic remineralization (e.g. Graco et al., 2006) and then could produce DIC.

Net heterotrophy (remineralization) appears to be coexistent with net autotrophy (e.g. mainly nitrification but also anammox and photosynthesis: Fig. 5b), as suggested by chemolithoautrophic evaluations for same sampling location than this study (36°S ; Farias et al., 2009). However, net heterotrophy ($\Delta\text{DIC}>0$) corresponds to most situations (>50% of the points in Fig.5b), compared to net autotrophy ($\Delta\text{DIC}<0$). In aerobic configurations ($\Delta\text{O}_2<0$), net heterotrophy would induce higher DIC production versus O_2 consumption than expected from reference $\text{C}/\text{O}_{\text{Re}}$ ratio, with mainly $110>\Delta\text{DIC}>40$ $\mu\text{mol/kg}$, whereas net autotrophy correspond mainly to $-40<\Delta\text{DIC}<0$ $\mu\text{mol/kg}$. This suggests a potential predominance of heterotrophy versus autotrophy for ΔDIC , which would lead to higher C/O at the oxycline, and explaining the high $\text{DIC}^*_{\text{ChileOxyclyne}}$ compared to the oxygenated ocean reported in Figure 3c. This heterotrophy over autotrophy predominance would also be associated with predominance of net aerobic (the highest ΔDIC correspond to the most negative ΔO_2 : <20 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$) over net anaerobic (anammox and denitrification with low ΔDIC : <40 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ on axis $\Delta\text{O}_2=0$) activity (Fig. 5b). Referring to Paulmier et al. (2006), heterotrophy and autotrophy would correspond to active and passive OMZ phases, with high ($|\Delta\text{O}_2|>20$ $\mu\text{mol/kg}$) and low ($|\Delta\text{O}_2|<20$ $\mu\text{mol/kg}$) O_2 consumption, respectively. The transition from active to passive phases suggests the importance of a potential coupling between mechanisms for C/O variations: heterotrophic-autotrophic (e.g. remineralization-photosynthesis); aerobic-anaerobic (e.g. aerobic remineralization-denitrification; nitrification-anammox, cf. Lam et al., 2007); but also photic-aphotic (photosynthesis-nitrification). Local high DIC production contributing to CMZ formation (ΔDIC up to 110 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$) would be associated with high O_2 consumption, stimulated by O_2 availability in the oxycline rather than surface biomass availability (Paulmier et al., 2006). This DIC production would be encouraged by specific

characteristics of the shallow oxycline (e.g. large range of O_2 concentrations; well-lit; stratified) allowing a potential co-existence of different bacterial processes (Fig. 5b) which usually do not occur at the same depth. This high DIC production could be also associated to a potential sedimentary effect and to a possible effect of carbonate dissolution as an additional DIC source. In fact, together with high particulate organic matter sinking within these productive areas, calcium carbonate may also be produced in the euphotic layer (e.g. coccolithophorids in the upwelling regions: Giraudeau et al., 1993). The high DIC in the OMZ may thus be produced not only by high organic carbon remineralization but also probably by relatively high carbonate dissolution. The carbonate dissolution could be higher in than out of the OMZs due to both growth of calcifying plankton (e.g. coccolithophorids and foraminifera) in the euphotic layer and high dissolution favored in the ultra-low O_2 concentration by corrosion (Wollast and Chou, 1998) in subsurface. These different hypotheses have to be tested, since, as for O_2 consumption, intense DIC productions estimated at the oxycline agree with previous works in configurations of oxic-anoxic oscillation (e.g. Abril et al., 1999, 2010) and other experimental works (e.g. Sun et al., 2002). In addition to the net heterotrophy of the suboxic OMZ core, demonstrated by Koeve and Kähler (2010), the oxycline would highly contribute to the CMZ formation.

DIC production (heterotrophy) and consumption (autotrophy) at the oxycline can affect C/O molar ratios but also C/N ratios. Here, $\Delta DIC/\Delta O_2$ corresponds to the drawdowns from a superimposition of several processes with different molar biomass ratio. $\Delta DIC/\Delta O_2$ do not exactly correspond to strict C/O Redfield ratios (RR) determined in organic matter, but provide a first C/O approximation according to the Redfield definition linking molar ratios to biological processes (Redfield et al., 1963). In the oxycline, we have $|\Delta DIC|_{\max}/|\Delta O_2|_{\max}$ varying from 0.6 to 1.5, and $|\Delta DIC|_{\max}/|\Delta NO_3^-|_{\max}$ varying from ~0 to 16, quite concomitantly (data not shown). $|\Delta DIC|_{\max}/|\Delta O_2|_{\max}$ and $|\Delta DIC|_{\max}/|\Delta NO_3^-|_{\max}$ differ from the classical canonical RR of $106/138 \approx 0.8$ and $106/16 \approx 6.6$, respectively. In average for the whole dataset in the oxycline off Chile, $|\Delta DIC|_{\max}/|\Delta O_2|_{\max}$ (1.1 ± 0.3) are twice as high as the RR, and $|\Delta DIC|_{\max}/|\Delta NO_3^-|_{\max}$ (8.4 ± 4.5) is 20% higher than RR.

In OMZs, anomalous low N/P (<10 instead of 16) have been classically reported as for example off Peru (Codispoti and Christensen, 1985). Abnormally high C/O of ~1.1 (Millero et al., 1998) and C/N of 7-8 (Graco, 2002) have also already been observed, but in iron fertilization experiment (IRONEX II, Indian Ocean) and anoxic sediments (on the shelf off Chile), respectively. The OMZ specific remineralization associated with the coexistence of

different bacterial processes should be a key-element to understand why $|\Delta\text{DIC}|_{\text{max}}/|\Delta\text{O}_2|_{\text{max}}$ ratio in the carbonline-oxycline is abnormally variable. High ΔDIC and $|\Delta\text{DIC}|_{\text{max}}/|\Delta\text{O}_2|_{\text{max}}$ could theoretically and locally result from higher rates of DIC production but also from more complete carbonated organic matter (OM) degradation and different OM stoichiometries (cf. Van Mooy et al., 2002; Paulmier et al., 2009). Abnormality of $|\Delta\text{DIC}|_{\text{max}}/|\Delta\text{O}_2|_{\text{max}}$ molar ratios reported here in the OMZ off Chile suggests a perturbation of the ecosystem as compared to the oxygenated ocean, and could provide some information about molar ratios of the primitive anoxic ocean.

5 Conclusions

This study has showed that the OMZ off Chile is associated with very high DIC concentrations (mean of $2330 \pm 60 \mu\text{mol/kg}$) at depths from ~175-950 m. These high DIC concentrations, corresponding to a local DIC maximum as compared to the oxygenated ocean, allow to define a carbon maximum zone (CMZ) over the whole OMZ thickness, including a carbonline associated with the oxycline. At the global scale, all OMZs form CMZs ($\text{DIC} > 2225 \mu\text{mol/kg}$), with comparable vertical and horizontal structures and similar biogeochemical characteristics.

The existence of CMZs associated with all OMZs suggests that marine remineralization and/or accumulation of remineralized end-products are not uniformly distributed, but mainly occur in the OMZs. CMZ and OMZ are probably forming simultaneously with the same dynamical (low ventilation and upwelling) and biogeochemical (remineralization producing DIC and consuming O_2) mechanisms. However and paradoxically, CMZs exhibit a “carbon deficit” (DIC^*) in its core of ~10% of the remineralized DIC. This “carbon deficit” can be related to the physico-chemical (thermal effect) genesis of CMZ-OMZ core from upstream (e.g. equatorial) waters. Locally, the “carbon deficit” in the CMZ core appears to be compensated by a “carbon excess” at the carbonline-oxycline, induced by an intense aerobic-anaerobic remineralization. This specific remineralization is due to a potential net heterotrophic co-existence of different bacterial processes usually occurring at different depths. This co-existence contributes to a shallow and strong CO_2 production easy to be released toward the atmosphere, and may induce C/O ratio deviation from canonical Redfield ratios. However, if OMZs are associated with high remineralization activity, phytoplankton in surface could benefit from an “OMZ-regenerated” primary production after an upwelling

episode, inducing a negative feedback effect on the oceanic CO₂ release. Indeed, OMZs highly recycle main nutrients such as phosphates and silicates, much less nitrate due to denitrification and anammox. Reduced conditions created in OMZs could be also favourable to more bio-availability for metals such as iron.

The existence of the CMZs-OMZs would imply anomalous molar ratios, which remain to be confirmed for all main OMZs. High DIC, associated with relatively low alkalinity (~2325 µeq/kg) and predominance of aerobic remineralization and nitrification, would largely acidify the OMZ core waters. This acidification would induce perturbations of marine biogeochemistry and ecosystems in addition of the respiratory barrier due to the O₂ deficit. CMZs-OMZs can be considered as “natural laboratories” of a low O₂ and already “high CO₂” ocean. They are ideally suited for studies looking back in the past and aiming to predict the future, as planned in international programs, such as SOLAS (Surface Ocean Lower Atmosphere Study) mid-term strategies.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by a French CNRS Ph.D. Fellowship to A. Paulmier and financial support provided by the ECOS Sur program (Foreign Office Ministry), by EU contract N° SIP3-CT-2003-502885 to LEGOS/CNRS (IP-MERSEA project), and IRD. We thank to O. Ulloa and L. Farias for making possible the DIC sampling during the cruises, and to the R/V Vidal Gormaz, Carlos Porter and Kay-Kay crews. We also thank C. Duarte, H.J. Minas and M. Graco for previous fruitful discussions. Reviews by two anonymous referees greatly improved the quality of the manuscript.

References

- Antezana, T.: *Euphausia mucronata*: A keystone herbivore and prey of the Humboldt Current System, *Deep- Sea Research II*, doi:10.1016/j.dsr2.2009.10.014, 2009.
- Anderson, L. and Sarmiento, J.: Redfield ratios of remineralization determined by nutrient data analysis, *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 8, 65–80, 1994.
- Arrigo, K.R.: Marine microorganisms and global nutrient cycles, *Nature* 437, 349-355, 2005.
- Abril, G., Etcheber, H., Le Hir, P., Bassoullet, P., Boutier, B., and Frankignoulle, M.: Oxic/Anoxic Oscillations and Organic Carbon Mineralization in an Estuarine Maximum Turbidity Zone (The Gironde, France), *Limnology and Oceanography* 44 (5), 1304-1315, 1999.
- Abril, G., Commarieu, M-V., Etcheber, H., Deborde, J., Deflandre, B., Zivacinovic, M.K., Chaillou, G., and Anschutz, P.: In vitro simulation of oxic/suboxic diagenesis in an estuarine fluid mud subjected to redox oscillations, *Estuar. Coast. Shelf Sci.*, doi:10.1016/j.ecss.2010.04.003, 2010.
- Bange, H.W.: Gaseous Nitrogen Compounds (NO, N₂O, N₂, NH₃) in the Ocean, in *Nitrogen in Marine Environment* (eds Capone et al.), Chapter 2, 51-94 (Elsevier), 2008.
- Boyer, T.P., Antonov, J.I., Garcia, H.E., Johnson, D.R., Locarnini, R.A., Mishonov, A.V., Pitcher, M.T., Baranova, O.K., and Smolyar, I.V.: *World Ocean Database 2005*, Levitus, S. (Ed.), NOAA Atlas NESDIS 60, Washington, DC, 190pp., DVDs, 2006
- Bradshaw, A.L., and Brewer, P.G., 1988. High precision measurements of alkalinity and total carbon dioxide in seawater by potentiometric titration, *Marine Chemistry* 23, 69-86.
- Broecker, W.S.: “NO”, a conservative water-mass tracer, *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* 23, 100-107, 1974 .
- Broecker, W.S., Peng, T.H.: *Tracers in the sea*, Eldigio Press, 1982.
- Broenckow, W.W. and Cline, J.D.: Colorimetric determination of dissolved oxygen at low concentrations, *Limnology and Oceanography* 14, 450-454, 1969.
- Cannariato, K. and Kennett, J.: Climatically related millennial-scale fluctuations in strength of California margin oxygen-minimum zone during the past 60 k.y., *Geology* 27, 975-978, 1999.
- CARS: CSIRO Atlas of Regional Seas, <http://www.marine.csiro.au/~dunn/cars2009/#refs>.
- Chan, F., Barth, J., Lubchenko, J., Kirincich, A., Weels, H., Perterson, W., and Menge, A.: Emergence of Anoxia in the California Current Large Marine Ecosystem, *Science* 319, 920, 2008.

- 1 Chavez, F.P., and Messié, M.: A comparison of Eastern Boundary Upwelling Ecosystems.
2 Progress in Oceanography 83, 80-96, 2009.
- 3 Chen, C.T.A., Ruo, R., Pai, S.C., Liu, C.T., and Wong, G.T.F.: Exchange of water masses
4 between the East China Sea and the Kuroshio off northeastern Taiwan., Continental Shelf
5 Research 15, 19-39, 1995.
- 6 Childress, J.J. and Siebel, B.A.: Life at stable low oxygen levels: adaptations of animals to
7 oceanic oxygen minimum layers, J. Exp. Biol. 201, 1223-1232, 1998.
- 8 Codispoti, L.A. and Christensen, J.P.: Nitrification, denitrification, and nitrous oxide cycling
9 in the Eastern Tropical Southern Ocean, Mar. Chem. 16, 277-300, 1985.
- 10 Copin-Montégut, C. and Raimbault, P.: The Peruvian upwelling near 15°S in August 1986.
11 Results of continuous measurements of physical and chemical properties between 0 et 200
12 m depth. Deep-Sea Research 41, 439-467, 1994.
- 13 Corbière, A., Metzl, N., Reverdin, C., and Takahashi, T.: Interannual and decadal variability
14 of the oceanic carbon sink in the North Atlantic subpolar gyre, Tellus B, 59(2), 168-178,
15 2007.
- 16 Daneri G., Dellarosa V., Quiñones R., Jacob B., Montero P., and Ulloa, O. : Primary
17 production and community respiration in the Humboldt current system off Chile and
18 associated areas. Marine Ecology Progress Series 197, 41-49, 2000.
- 19 De Boyer Montégut C., Madec, G., Fischer, A. S., Lazar A., Iudicone, D.: Mixed layer depth
20 over the global ocean: an examination of profile data and a profile-based climatology,
21 Journal of Geophysical Research 109, 1-20, 2004.
- 22 Deutsch, C., Sarmiento, J.L., Sigman, D.L., Grüber, N, and Dunne, J.P.: Spatial coupling of
23 nitrogen inputs and losses in the ocean, Nature 445, 163-167, 2007.
- 24 Endoh, M.: Double-celled circulation in coastal upwelling, Journal of Oceanography 33, 30-
25 37, 1976.
- 26 Falkowski, P.G.: Evolution of the nitrogen cycle and its influence on the biological
27 sequestration of CO₂ in the ocean, Nature 387, 272-275, 1997.
- 28 Farías, L., Fernández, C., Faúndez, Cornejo, M., and Alcaman, M.E.: Chemolithoautotrophic
29 production mediating the cycling of the greenhouse gases N₂O and CH₄ in an upwelling
30 ecosystem, Biogeosciences, 6, 3053–3069, 2009.
- 31 Fuhrman, J.A. and D.G. Capone: Possible biogeochemical consequences of ocean
32 fertilization, Limnol. Oceanogr. 36, 1951-1959, 1991.

- 1 Galán, A., Molina, V., Thamdrup, B., Woebken, D., Lavik, G., Kuypers, M.M.M.: Anammox
2 bacteria and the anerobic oxidation of ammonium in the oxygen minimum zone off
3 northern Chile, Deep-Sea Research II, doi:10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.09.016, 2009.
- 4 Giraudeau, J., Monteiro, P.S., and Nikodemus, K.: Distribution and malformation of living
5 coccolithophores in the northern Benguela upwelling system off Namibia. Mar.
6 Micropaleontol. 22, 93-110, 1993.
- 7 Graco, M.: Variación temporal de la producción de amonio en un area de surgencias de Chile
8 Central (36°S). Factores y procesos involucrados en su reciclaje, PhD.Thesis. UPMC Paris
9 VI-France, Universidad de Concepción-Chile, 2002.
- 10 Graco, M., Gutiérrez, D., Farías, L.: Interannual variability of the pelagic-benthic coupling in
11 the upwelling system off central Chile, Adv. Geosci. 6, 127–132, 2006.
- 12 Gribaldo, S. and Philippe, H.: Ancient Phylogenetic Relationships, Theoretical Population
13 Biology 61, 391-408, 2002.
- 14 Gruber, N and Sarmiento, J.L.: Global patterns of marine nitrogen fixation and denitrification,
15 Global Biogeochem. Cy., 11(2), 235-266, 1997.
- 16 Ivanoff, A.: Introduction à l'océanographie. Propriétés physiques et chimiques des eaux de
17 mer. Vuibert, Paris, 2, 208, 1972
- 18 Jain, A. K., Briegleb, B. P., Minschwaner, K., and Wuebbles, D. J.: Radiative forcing and
19 global warming potentials of 39 greenhouse gases, J. Geophys. Res. 105(D16), 20,773–
20 20,790, 2000.
- 21 Jansen, E., J. Overpeck, K.R. Briffa, J.-C. Duplessy, F. Joos, V. Masson-Delmotte, D. Olago,
22 B. Otto-Bliesner, W.R. Peltier, S. Rahmstorf, R. Ramesh, D. Raynaud, D. Rind, O.
23 Solomina, R. Villalba, and D. Zhang: Palaeoclimate, In: *Climate Change 2007: The*
24 *Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report*
25 *of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* [Solomon, S., D. Qin, M. Manning, Z.
26 Chen, M. Marquis, K.B. Averyt, M. Tignor and H.L. Miller (eds.)]. Cambridge University
27 Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2007.
- 28 Karstensen, J., Stramma, L., and Visbeck, M.: Oxygen minimum zones in the eastern tropical
29 Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Progress in Oceanography 77, 331-350, 2008.
- 30 Koeve, W., and Kähler, P.: Heterotrophic denitrification vs. autotrophic anammox –
31 quantifying collateral effects on the oceanic carbon cycle, Biogeosciences Discussions 7,
32 1813-1837, 2010.

- 1 Lam, P., Jensen, M.M., Lavik, G., McGinnis, D.F., Müller, B., Schubert, C.J., Amann, R.,
2 Thamdrup, B., and Kuypers, M.M.M.: Linking crenarchaeal and bacterial nitrification to
3 anammox in the Black Sea, PNAS 104 (17), 7104-7109, 2007.
- 4 Lefèvre, N., Aiken, J., Rutllant, J., Daneri, G., Lavender, S., Smyth, T.: Observations of pCO₂ in
5 the coastal upwelling off Chile: spatial and temporal extrapolation using satellite data.
6 Journal of Geophysical Research 107(C6), 3055, doi:10.1029/2000JC000395, 2002.
- 7 Lewis, E., and Wallace, D. W. R.: Program developed for CO₂ system calculations,
8 ORNL/CDIAC-105, Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National
9 Laboratory, U.S. Department of Energy, 1998
- 10 Luyten, J. L., Pedlosky, J., and Stommel, H.: The ventilated thermocline, Journal of Physical
11 Oceanography 13, 292-309, 1983.
- 12 Maske, H., Medrano, R.C., Castro, A.T., Mercado, A.J., Jauregui, C.O.A, Castro, G.G., and
13 Ochoa, J.: Inorganic carbon and biological oceanography above a shallow oxygen
14 minimum in the entrance to the Gulf of California in the Mexican Pacific, Limnol.
15 Oceanogr. 55(2), 481–491, 2010.
- 16 Millero, F.J., Degler, A.A., O'Sullivan, D.W., Goyet, C., and Eiseid., G.: The carbon
17 dioxide system in the Arabian Sea, Deep-Sea Res. 45, 2225-2252, 1998.
- 18 Minas H.J., Minas, M., and Packard, T.T.: Productivity in upwelling areas deduced from
19 hydrographic and chemical fields, Limnology and Oceanography, 31(6), 1182-1206, 1986.
- 20 Molina, V., Ulloa, O., Farias, L., Urrutia, H., Ramirez, S., Junier, and P., Witzel, K.P.:
21 Ammonia-Oxidizing β -Proteobacteria from the Oxygen Minimum Zone off Northern
22 Chile, Applied and Environmental Microbiology 73, 3547-3555, 2007.
- 23 Morrison, J.M., Codispoti, L.A., Smith, S.L., Wishner, K., Flagg, C., Gardner, W.D., Gaurin,
24 S., Naqvi, S.W.A., Manghnani, V., Prosperie, L., and Gundersen, J.S., The oxygen
25 minimum zone in the Arabian Sea during 1995, Deep-Sea Research 46, 1903–1931, 1999.
- 26 Najjar, R. G. and Keeling, R. F.: Mean annual cycle of the air-sea oxygen flux: A global view,
27 Global Biogeochem. Cy., 14 (2), 573-584, 2000.
- 28 Naqvi, S.W. A., Naik, H., Pratihary, A., D'Souza, W., Narvekar, P. V., Jayakumar, D. A.,
29 Devol, A. H., Yoshinari, T., and Saino, T.: Coastal versus open-ocean denitrification in the
30 Arabian Sea, Biogeosciences, 3, 621–633, 2006.
- 31 O'Conner, B. M., Fine, R. A., Maillet, K. A., and Olson, D.B., Formation rates of subtropical
32 underwater in the Pacific Ocean, Deep-Sea Res. I 49: 1571–1590, 2002.

- 1 Paulmier, A.: Zones de Minimum d'Oxygène (OMZs) de l'océan moderne, Ph.D. Thesis,
2 University Pierre et Marie curie, Paris, France, pp 248, 2005.
- 3 Paulmier, A., Ruiz-Pino, D., Garçon, V., Farías, L.: Maintaining of the East South Pacific
4 Oxygen Minimum Zone (OMZ) off Chile, *Geophysical Research Letter* 33, L20601, 2006.
- 5 Paulmier, A. and Ruiz-Pino, D.: Oxygen Minimum Zones (OMZs) in the modern ocean,
6 *Progress In Oceanography*, doi:10.1016/j.pocean.2008.05.001, 2008.
- 7 Paulmier, A., Ruiz-Pino, D., and Garçon, V.: The Oxygen Minimum Zone (OMZ) off Chile
8 as intense source of CO₂ and N₂O. *Continental Shelf Research* 28 (20), 2746-2756,
9 doi:10.1016/j.csr.2008.09.012, 2008.
- 10 Paulmier, A., Kriest, I., and Oschlies, A.: Stoichiometries of remineralisation and
11 denitrification in global biogeochemical coupled ocean models. *Biogeosciences* 6, 923-
12 935, 2009.
- 13 Rabalais, N. N., Díaz, R. J., Levin, L. A., Turner, R. E., Gilbert, D., and Zhang, J.: Dynamics
14 and distribution of natural and human-caused hypoxia, *Biogeosciences* 7, 585-619, 2010.
- 15 Ramaswamy, V., Boucher, O., Haigh, J., Hauglustaine, D., Haywood, J., Myhre, G.,
16 Nakajima, T., Shi, G. Y., and Solomon, S.: Radiative forcing of climate change, In
17 "Climate CHANGE 2001: The scientific basis. Contribution of working group I to the
18 third assessment report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change" (Houghton, J.
19 T., Ding, Y., Griggs, D. J., Noguer, M., Van der Linden, P. J., Dai, X., Maskell, K., and
20 Johnson, C. A., eds.). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK. pp. 349–416, 2001.
- 21 Rao, D.P., Sarma, V.V., Subba Rao., V. Sudhakar, U., and Gupta, G.V.M.: On watermass
22 mixing ratios and regenerated silicon in the Bay of Bengal, *Indian Journal of Marine*
23 *Sciences* 25, 56-61, 1996.
- 24 Redfield, A.C., Ketchum, B.H., Richards, P.A.: The influence of organisms on the
25 composition of seawater, In: *The sea*, vol. 2, Hill (ed), Interscience Publishers, N.Y, 26–77,
26 1963.
- 27 Rogers, A.D.: The role of the oceanic oxygen minima in generating biodiversity in the deep-
28 sea, *Deep-Sea Research* 47 (1-2), 119-148, 2000.
- 29 Royer, D.L., Bemer, R.A., Montañez, I.P., Tabor, N.J., and Beerling, D.J.: CO₂ as a primary
30 driver of Phanerozoic climate, *GSA Today* 14(3), doi: 10.1130/1052-5173, 2004.
- 31 Sabine, C.L., Feely, R.A., Gruber, N., Key, R.M., Lee, K., Bullister, J.L., Wanninkhof, R.,
32 Wong, C.S., Wallace, D.W.R., Tilbrook, B., Millero, F.J., Peng, T.H., Kozyr, A., Ono, T.,
33 and Rios, A.F.: The Oceanic Sink for Anthropogenic CO₂, *Science* 305, 367-371, 2004.

- 1 Sabine, C.L., Key, R.M., Kozyr, A., Feely, R.A., Wanninkhof, R., Millero, F.J., Peng, T.-H.,
2 Bullister, J.L., and Lee, K.: Global Ocean Data Analysis Project: Results and Data.
3 ORNL/CDIAC-145, NDP-083, Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Centre, Oak Ridge
4 National Laboratory, U.S. Department of Energy, Oak Ridge, Tennessee, 110 pp.
5 (unpublished), 2005.
- 6 Sarma, Y.V.B., Rama Rao, E.P., Saji, P.K., and Sarma, V.V.S.S.: Hydrography and
7 Circulation of the bay of Bengal during withdrawal phase of the southwest Monsoon,
8 *Oceanologica Acta* 22, 453-473, 1998.
- 9 Stramma, L., Johnson, G.c., Sprintall, J. and, Mohrholz, V.: Expanding Oxygen-Minimum
10 Zones in the Tropical Oceans. *Science* 320, 655-658, 2008.
- 11 Strub, P., J. Mesías, V. Montecino, J. Rutllant, and S. Salinas: Coastal ocean circulation off
12 Western South America, in *The Sea*, vol. 11, Regional Studies and Synthesis, edited by A.
13 R. Robinson and K. H. Brink, pp. 273– 313, John Wiley, Hoboken, N. J., 1998.
- 14 Sun, M.Y., Aller, R.C., Lee, C., and Wakeham, S.G.: Effects of oxygen and redox oscillation
15 on degradation of cell-associated lipids in surficial marine sediments. *Geochimica et*
16 *Cosmochimica Acta*, 66, 2003-2012, 2002.
- 17 Takahashi, T. and Goddard, J.: Measurements of total CO₂ Concentration and total alkalinity
18 in seawater collected during the Sonne Cruise 102, Final Tech. Report, March 15, 1998.
- 19 Thamdrup, B., Dalsgaard, T., Jensen, M. M., Ulloa, O., Farias, L., and Escobedo, R.:
20 Anaerobic ammonium oxidation in the oxygen deficient waters off northern Chile,
21 *Limnology and Oceanography* 55, 2145 –2156, 2006.
- 22 Torres, R.: Carbon dioxide outgassing in coastal upwelling areas off northern and central
23 Chile. Ph.D. Thesis. Analytical and Marine Chemistry. Göteborg University, 2001.
- 24 Tsuchiya, M.: The origin of the Pacific equatorial 13°C water, *Journal of Physical*
25 *Oceanography* 11, 794–812, 1981.
- 26 Van Mooy, B., Keil, R., and Devol, A.: Impact of suboxia on sinking particulate organic
27 carbon: Enhanced carbon flux and preferential degradation of amino acids via
28 denitrification, *Geochimica and Cosmochimica Acta* 66, 457-465, 2002.
- 29 Viegas, J.A.: The atmospheric carbon dioxide response to oceanic primary productivity
30 fluctuations, *Climatic Changes* 6, 203-215, 1984.
- 31 Walsh, D.A., Zaikova, E., Howes, C.G., Song, Y.C., Wright, J.J., Tringe, S.G., Tortell, P.D.,
32 Hallam, S.J.: Metagenome of a versatile chemolithoautotroph from expanding oceanic
33 dead zones, *Science* 326, 578-582, 2009.

- 1 Weiss, R. F.: The solubility of nitrogen, oxygen and argon in water and seawater, Deep Sea
2 Res., 17, 721-735, 1970.
- 3 Weiss, R. F.: Carbon dioxide in water and seawater: The solubility of a nonideal gas, Mar.
4 Chem., 2, 203– 215, 1974.
- 5 Wishner, K.F., Gelfman, C., Gowing, M.M., Outram, D.M., Rapien, M., Williams, R.L.:
6 Vertical zonation and distributions of calanoid copepods through the lower oxycline of the
7 Arabian Sea oxygen minimum zone, Progr. Oceanogr. 78, 163–191, 2008.
- 8 Wollast R., and Chou L.: Distribution and fluxes of calcium carbonate along the continental
9 margin in the Gulf of Biscay. Aquatic Chemistry 4, 369-393. The Chave Memorial
10 Volume, 1998.
- 11 World Ocean Circulation Experiment: WOCE Operation Manual, vol. 3, The Observational
12 Programme: Part 3.1.3—WHP Operations and Methods, 68/91, Geneva, 1994.
- 13 Wyrski, K.: The oxygen minima in relation to ocean circulation, Deep-Sea Research 9, 11-23,
14 1962.

Figures captions

Figure 1. Vertical sections along an east-west cross-shore transect on 0-100 m (DIC: a; O₂: d) and versus time on 0-50 m (DIC: b; O₂: e). Points indicate sampling locations. Profiles of DIC (c) and O₂ (f) on 0-1000 m for all stations sampled in the OMZ off Chile in 2000-2002. Continuous thin profiles correspond to classical profiles out of the OMZ in the Eastern Equatorial Pacific (for DIC on (c): Viecelli, 1984; for O₂ on (f): Ivanoff, 1972). Continuous thick black profiles indicate representative profiles for DIC on (c) and for O₂ on (f). On c and f, data from Iquique at 21°S (squares), Coquimbo at 30°S (diamonds) and Concepción at 36°S (triangles). On (c): the hatched red area indicates DIC_{CMZ} ($\text{DIC}_{\text{CMZ}} = \text{DIC}_{\text{Average in OMZ}} - \text{DIC}_{\text{Classical out of OMZ}}$) corresponding to the carbon maximum zone (CMZ); continuous thick red profile indicates the representative profile for the sum of DIC_{Classical out of OMZ} and local DIC production contributing to the CMZ ($\text{DIC}_{\text{Classical out of OMZ}} + \Delta\text{DIC}$), with ΔDIC the biogeochemical contribution to DIC. The points on the map in (f) indicate the three sampled latitudes (21°S; 30°S; 36°S).

Figure 2. Vertical profiles of DIC (a) and O₂ (c) on 0-5500 m for the main most intense OMZs in the open ocean from GLODAP and WOA2005 databases. The continuous profile in (a) and (c) corresponds to a mean global profile from all available data sets both in and out the OMZs. Vertical dashed line in (c) corresponds to O₂=20 µmol/kg (upper O₂ concentrations of the OMZs core, and horizontal continuous lines in (a) and (c) correspond to the mean upper (175 m) and lower (950 m) depths of the OMZs core. Mean DIC (b) and O₂ (d) distribution average in µmol/kg on the 175-950 m, a layer intercepting the core of all main tropical OMZs (Cf. Tab. 1). For ETNP, ETSP, AS and BB, same abbreviations than in Table 1 caption.

Figure 3. Vertical profiles of DIC* (= DIC + 0.69 O₂: cf. Methodology and the comments provided for Equation 1) for the main OMZs from GLODAP and WOA2005 databases on 0-5500 m (a), with a zoom in the layer intercepting the core of all considered OMZs (b), and from all stations sampled in the OMZ off Chile in 2000-2002 (c). Continuous profile in (a) and (c) corresponds to a mean profile for the global ocean and for the oxygenated Pacific out of the OMZ, respectively. Rectangles in (a) and (b) indicate the OMZ core. For ETNP, ETSP, AS and BB, same abbreviations than in Table 1 caption.

Figure 4. DIC (a), O₂ (b) and DIC* (c) mean concentrations for global ocean, equatorial regions (Indian and Pacific only, where the main intense OMZs are located; between 10°N and 10°S; between 175 and 950 m, in the same depth layer than the subsurface OMZ core), and CMZs-OMZs. In dashed arrows, the remineralization effect from the global ocean towards the Equatorial regions and the CMZs-OMZs. In thick grey arrows, the temperature effect decreasing mainly the solubility, not visible on DIC (a) because of the buffer effect, but on O₂ (b) and DIC* (c) only.

Figure 5.

a): DIC-O₂ diagram for the global ocean (all WOCE data with both DIC and O₂ available).

b): Δ DIC- Δ O₂ diagram (from all stations sampled in the OMZ off Chile in 2000-2002, mainly focused in the oxycline).

For (a), the grey line corresponds to classical linear regression, with N=85 650 data and a regression coefficient R² of 0.25: $\text{DIC} = -0.7 \text{ O}_2 + 2330$. For (b), Δ DIC and Δ O₂ correspond to the biogeochemical contribution to DIC and O₂, respectively, using an inverse method (Cf. Methodology). Each symbol corresponds to one dominating biogeochemical process, which has been suggested and identified indirectly from theoretical chemical reactions: aerobic remineralization (small squares); nitrification (triangles); anaerobic remineralization (diamonds, mainly near Δ DIC- Δ O₂≈(0,0)); photosynthesis (large squares); anammox (circles). Crosses correspond to non determined process. Accuracy and reproducibility on DIC and O₂ induce an uncertainty on the Δ of ~4 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ (Cf. Paulmier et al., 2006). (C/O)_{Re} corresponds to the reference molar ratio for this study of 117/170 (Anderson and Sarmiento, 1994).