

Regulation of nitrous oxide production in low oxygen waters off the coast of Peru

Claudia Frey^{1,2,*}, Hermann W. Bange², Eric P. Achterberg³, Amal Jayakumar¹, Carolin R. Löscher⁴, Damian L. Arévalo-Martínez², Elizabeth León-Palmero⁵, Mingshuang Sun², [Xin Sun¹](#), Ruifang C. Xie³, Sergey Oleynik¹, Bess B. Ward¹

¹Department of Geoscience, Princeton University, Princeton, Guyot Hall, 08544 Princeton, USA

² Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Düsterbrookweg 20, 24105 Kiel, Germany

³ Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Wischhofstr. 1-3, 24149 Kiel, Germany

⁴ Department of Biology, Nordsee, Danish Institute for Advanced Study, University of Southern Denmark,

⁵ Departamento de Ecología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de Granada, 18071, Granada, Spain

*current address: Department of Environmental Science, University of Basel, Bernoullistrasse 30, 4056 Basel, Switzerland

Keywords: ETSP, ODZ, denitrification, nitrification, N₂O production, ¹⁵N tracer incubations

Abstract. Oxygen deficient zones (ODZs) are major sites of net natural nitrous oxide (N₂O) production and emissions. In order to understand changes in the magnitude of N₂O production in response to global change, knowledge on the individual contributions of the major microbial pathways (nitrification and denitrification) to N₂O production and their regulation is needed. In the ODZ in the coastal area off Peru, the sensitivity of N₂O production to oxygen and organic matter was investigated using ¹⁵N-tracer experiments in combination with qPCR and microarray analysis of total and active functional genes targeting archaeal *amoA* and *nirS* as marker genes for nitrification and denitrification, respectively. Denitrification was responsible for the highest N₂O production with a mean of 8.7 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ but up to 118 ± 27.8 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ just below the oxic-anoxic interface. Highest N₂O production from ammonium oxidation (AO) of 0.16 ± 0.003 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ occurred in the upper oxycline at O₂ concentrations of 10 - 30 μmol L⁻¹ which coincided with highest archaeal *amoA* transcripts/genes. During AO, N₂O can be produced from two ¹⁵N-labeled NH₄⁺ (double-labelled) or from only one ¹⁵N-labelled NH₄⁺ and one unlabeled nitrogen source (single-labelled N₂O). Single-labelled N₂O, representing H₂ hybrid N₂O formation, (i.e. N₂O getting with one N atom from NH₄⁺ and the other from other substrates such as NO₂⁻) was the dominant species, comprising 70 – 85 % of total produced N₂O from NH₄⁺, regardless of the ammonium oxidation rate or O₂ concentrations. Oxygen responses of N₂O production varied with substrate, but production and yields were generally highest below 10 μmol L⁻¹ O₂. Particulate organic matter additions increased N₂O production by denitrification up to 5-fold suggesting increased N₂O production during times of high particulate organic matter export. High N₂O yields of 2.1% from AO were measured, but the overall contribution by AO to N₂O production was still an order of magnitude lower than that of denitrification. Hence, these findings show that denitrification is the most important N₂O production process in low oxygen conditions fueled by organic carbon supply, which implies a positive feedback of the total oceanic N₂O sources in response to increasing oceanic deoxygenation.

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA), Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA), Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA), Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA), Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA), Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA), Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA), Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, Nicht Fett, Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is a potent greenhouse gas (IPCC 2013) and precursor for nitric oxide (NO) radicals, which can catalyze the destruction of ozone in the stratosphere (Crutzen 1970, Johnston 1971), and is now the single most important ozone-depleting emission (Ravishankara et al. 2009). The ocean is a significant N₂O source, accounting for up to one third of all- natural emissions (IPCC 2013) and this source may increase substantially as a result of eutrophication, warming, and ocean acidification (see e.g. Capone and Hutchins 2013, Breider et al. 2019). Major sites of oceanic N₂O emissions are regions with steep oxygen (O₂) gradients (oxycline), which are usually associated with coastal upwelling regions with high primary production at the surface. There, high microbial respiratory activity during organic matter decomposition leads to the formation of anoxic waters also called oxygen deficient zones (ODZs), in which O₂ may decline to functionally anoxic conditions (O₂ <10 nmol kg⁻¹, Tiano et al. 2014). The most intense ODZs are found in the eastern tropical North Pacific (ETNP), the eastern tropical South Pacific (ETSP) and the northwestern Indian Ocean (Arabian Sea). The anoxic waters are surrounded by large volumes of hypoxic waters (below 20 μmol L⁻¹ O₂) which are strong net N₂O sources (Codispoti 2010; Babbin et al. 2015). Latest estimates of global, marine N₂O fluxes (Buitenhuis et al. 2018, Ji et al. 2018) agree well with the 3.8 Tg N y⁻¹ (1.8 – 9.4 Tg N y⁻¹) reported by the IPCC (2013), but have large variability in the resolution on the regional scale, particularly along coasts where N₂O cycling is more dynamic. The expansion of ODZs is predicted in global change scenarios and has already been documented in recent decades (Stramma et al. 2008, Schmidtko et al. 2017). This might lead to further intensification of marine N₂O emissions, which will constitute a positive feedback on global warming (Battaglia and Joos, 2018). However, decreasing N₂O emissions have also been predicted based on reduced nitrification rates due to reduced primary and export production (Martinez-Rey et al. 2015, Landolfi et al. 2017) and ocean acidification (Beman et al. 2011, Breider et al. 2019). The parametrization of N₂O production and consumption in global ocean models is crucial for realistic future predictions, and therefore better understanding of their controlling mechanisms is needed.

N₂O can be produced by both nitrification and denitrification. Nitrification is a two-step process, comprising the oxidation of ammonia (NH₃) to nitrite (NO₂⁻) (ammonia oxidation, AO) and NO₂⁻ to nitrate (NO₃⁻) (NO₂⁻ oxidation). The relative contributions to AO by autotrophic ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) and ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) have been inferred, based on the abundance of the archaeal and bacterial *amoA* genes, which encode subunit A of the key enzyme ammonia monooxygenase (e.g. (Francis et al. 2005, Mincer et al. 2007, Santoro et al. 2010, Wuchter et al. 2006)). These studies consistently revealed the dominance of archaeal over bacterial ammonia oxidizers, particularly in marine settings (Francis et al. 2005, Wuchter et al. 2006, Newell et al. 2011). In oxic conditions, AO by AOB and AOA forms N₂O as a by-product (Anderson 1964; Vajjala et al. 2013; Stein 2019) and AOA contribute significantly to N₂O production in the ocean (Santoro et al. 2011; Löscher et al. 2012). While hydroxylamine (NH₂OH) was long thought to be the only obligate intermediate in AO, NO has recently been identified as an obligate intermediate for AOB (Caranto and Lancaster 2017) and presumably AOA (Carini et al. 2018). Both intermediates are present in and around ODZs and correlated with nitrification activity (Lutterbeck et al. 2018, Korth et al. 2019). Specific details about the precursor of NO to form N₂O in AOA remains controversial. Stiegelmeier et al. (2014) concluded that NO is derived from NO₂⁻ reduction to form N₂O, while Carini et al. (2018) hypothesized that NO is derived from NH₂OH oxidation, which can then form N₂O. A hybrid N₂O production mechanism in AOA has been suggested, where NO from NO₂⁻ reacts with NH₂OH from NH₄⁺, which is thought to be abiotic, i.e., non-enzymatic (Koslovski et al. 2016). Abiotic N₂O production, [also known as chemodenitrification](#), from intermediates like NH₂OH, NO or NO₂⁻ can occur under acidic conditions (Frame et

al. 2017), or in the presence of reduced metals like Fe or Mn and catalyzing surfaces (Zhu-Barker et al. 2015), but the evidence of abiotic N₂O production/chemodenitrification in ODZs is still lacking.

80 When O₂ concentrations fall below 20 μmol L⁻¹, nitrifiers produce N₂O from NO₂⁻, a process referred to as nitrifier - denitrification (Frame & Casciotti 2010), which has been observed in cultures of AOB (Frame & Casciotti 2010) and AOA (Santoro et al. 2011). During nitrifier-denitrification (and denitrification), two NO₂⁻ molecules form one N₂O, which thus differentiates this process from hybrid N₂O production. It has also been suggested that high concentration of organic particles create high NO₂⁻ and low-O₂ microenvironments enhancing nitrifier-denitrification (Charpentier et al. 2007). Overall, the yield of N₂O per NO₂⁻ generated from AO is lower in AOA than AOB (Hink et al. 2017a, 2017b) but it should be noted that the degree to which N₂O yield increases with decreasing O₂ concentrations is variable varies with cell densities in cultures and among field sites, which favors higher N₂O production by nitrification in hypoxic waters. (Cohen & Gordon 1978; Yoshida 1988; Goreau et al. 1980; Frame & Casciotti 2010, Santoro et al. 2011, Löscher et al. 2012, Ji et al. 2015a, 2018a).

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Feldfunktion geändert

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) +Textkörper (Calibri)

90 The anaerobic oxidation of ammonia by NO₂⁻ (anammox) to form N₂ is strictly anaerobic and important in the removal of fixed N from the system, but it is not known to contribute to N₂O production (Kartal et al. 2007, van der Star et al. 2008, Hu et al. 2019). In suboxic and O₂ free environments, oxidized nitrogen is respired by bacterial denitrification, which is the stepwise reduction of NO₃⁻ nitrate to elemental N₂ via NO₂⁻, NO and N₂O. N₂O as an intermediate can be consumed or produced, but at the core of the ODZ N₂O consumption through denitrification is enhanced, leading to an under saturation in this zone (Bange 2008, Kock et al. 2016). Reducing enzymes are highly regulated by O₂ concentrations and of the enzymes in the denitrification sequence, N₂O reductase is the most sensitive to O₂ (Zumft 1997), which can lead to the accumulation of N₂O along the upper and lower ODZ boundaries (Kock et al. 2016). N₂O accumulation during denitrification is mostly linked to O₂ inhibiting the N₂O reductase, but other factors such as sulfide accumulation (Dalsgaard et al. 2014), pH (Blum et al. 2018), high NO₃⁻ or NO₂⁻ concentrations (Ji et al. 2018), or copper limitation (Granger and Ward 2003) may also be relevant. Recent studies contrast the view of nitrification vs. denitrification as the main N₂O source in ODZs (Nicholls et al. 2007, Babbin et al. 2015, Ji et al. 2015a, Yang et al. 2017). They show the importance of denitrification in N₂O production in the ETNP from model outputs (Babbin et al. 2015) and in the ETSP from tracer incubation experiments (Dalsgaard et al. 2012, Ji et al. 2015a), based on natural abundance isotopes in N₂O (Casciotti et al. 2018) or from water mass analysis of apparent N₂O production (ΔN₂O) and O₂ utilization (AOU) (Carrasco et al. 2017).^{45,46}N₂O production from the addition of ¹⁵N-labeled NH₄⁺, NO₂⁻ and/or NO₃⁻ revealed nitrification as a source of N₂O within the oxic-anoxic interface, but overall denitrification dominated N₂O production with higher rates at the interface and in anoxic waters (Ji et al. 2015a, 2018a). Denitrification is driven by organic matter exported from the photic zone and fuels blooms of denitrifiers leading to high N₂ production (Dalsgaard et al. 2012, Jayakumar et al. 2009, Babbin et al. 2014). Denitrification to N₂ is enhanced by organic matter additions and the degree of stimulation varies with quality and quantity of organic matter (Babbin et al. 2014). Because N₂O is an intermediate in denitrification, we hypothesize that its production should also be stimulated by organic matter, possibly leading to episodic and variable N₂O fluxes.

115 N₂O concentration profiles around ODZs appear to be at steady state (Babbin et al. 2015), but are much more variable in regions of intense coastal upwelling where high N₂O emissions can occur (Arévalo-Martínez et al. 2015). The contributions of and controls on the two N₂O production pathways under different conditions of O₂ and organic matter supply, are not well understood and may contribute to this variability. Hence, the goal of this study is to understand the factors regulating N₂O production around ODZs in order to better constrain how future

changes in O₂ concentration and carbon export will impact production, distribution and emissions of oceanic N₂O. Our goal was to determine the impact of O₂ and particulate organic matter on N₂O production rates using ¹⁵N tracer experiments in combination with qPCR and functional gene microarray analysis of the marker genes, *nirS* for denitrification and *amoA* for AO by archaea, to assess how the abundance and structure of the community impacts N₂O production rates from the different pathways. ¹⁵N-labelled NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ was used to trace the production of single- (⁴⁵N₂O) and double- labelled (⁴⁶N₂O) N₂O to investigate the importance of hybrid N₂O production during AO along an O₂ gradient.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Sampling sites, sample collection and incubation experiments

Seawater was collected from 9 stations in the upwelling area off the coast of Peru in June 2017 onboard R/V Meteor (Figure 1). Water samples were collected from 10 L Niskin bottles on a rosette with a conductivity-temperature-depth profiler (CTD, seabird electronics 9plus system). In-situ O₂ concentrations (detection limit 2 μmol L⁻¹ O₂), temperature, pressure and salinity were recorded during each CTD cast. NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ concentrations were measured on board by standard spectrophotometric methods (Hydes et al. 2010) using a QuAatro autoanalyzer (SEAL Analytical GmbH, Germany). NH₄⁺ concentrations were determined fluorometrically using ortho-phthalaldehyde according to Holmes et al. (1999). For N₂O, bubble-free triplicate samples were immediately sealed with butyl stoppers and aluminum crimps and fixed with 50 μL of a saturated mercuric chloride (HgCl₂). A 10 mL He headspace was created and after an equilibration period of at least 2 hours the headspace sample was measured with a gas chromatograph equipped with an electron capture detector (GC/ECD) according to Kock et al. (2016). The detection limit for N₂O concentration is 2nM ± 0.7nM. At all experimental depths nucleic acid samples were collected by filtering up to 5 L of seawater onto 0.2 μm pore size Sterivex-GP capsule filters (Millipore, Inc., Bedford, MA, USA). Immediately after collection filters were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -80°C until extraction.

Three different experiments were carried out at coastal stations, continental slope and offshore stations. Experiments 1 and 2 aimed to investigate the influence of O₂ concentration along a natural and artificial O₂ gradient and experiment 3 targeted the impact of large particles (>50 μm) on N₂O production. Serum bottles were filled from the Niskin bottles with Tygon tubing after overflowing three times to minimize O₂ contamination. Bottles were sealed bubble free with grey butyl rubber septa (National Scientific) and crimped with aluminum seals immediately after filling. The grey butyl rubber septa were boiled in MilliQ for 30min to degas and kept in a He atmosphere until usage. A 3 mL helium (He) headspace was created and samples from anoxic (O₂ < below detection) water depths were He purged for 15min. He purging removed dissolved oxygen contamination which is likely introduced during sampling and the headspace prevents possible oxygen leakage from the rubber seals (DeBrabandere et al. 2012). Natural abundance 2000 ppb N₂O carrier gas (1000 μL in He) was injected to trap the produced labeled N₂O and to ensure a sufficient mass for isotope analysis. For all experiments, ¹⁵N-NO₂⁻, ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻, and ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ tracer (¹⁵N/(¹⁴N+¹⁵N) = 99 atom-%) were injected into five bottles each from the same depth to a final concentration of 0.5 μmol L⁻¹, except for the NO₃⁻ incubations where 2 μmol L⁻¹ final concentration were anticipated to obtain 10 % label of the NO₃⁻ pool. The fraction labeled of the substrate pools was 0.76 – 0.99 for NH₄⁺, 0.11 – 0.99 for NO₂⁻, 0.055 – 0.11 for NO₃⁻. In the ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ treatment, ¹⁴N-NO₂⁻ was added to trap the

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

label in the product pool for NO_3^- nitrate reduction rates and in the $^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ treatment, $^{14}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ was added to a final concentration of $0.5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ to trap the label in the product pool for AO rates.

For the O_2 manipulation experiments, all serum bottles were He purged and after the addition of different amounts of air saturated site water a final headspace volume of 3 mL was achieved. headspace volume was adjusted depending on the amount of site water added and all samples were He purged. Site water from the incubation depth was shaken and exposed to air to reach full O_2 saturation. Then 0, 0.2, 0.5, 2 and 5 mL O_2 saturated seawater was added into serum bottles and to reach final measured O_2 concentration of $0 \pm 0.18 \mu\text{M}$, $0.4 \pm 0.24 \mu\text{M}$, $1.6 \pm 0.12 \mu\text{M}$, $5.2 \pm 0.96 \mu\text{M}$ and $11.7 \pm 1.09 \mu\text{M}$ in seawater. For the $^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ incubations two more O_2 treatments with 21.5 ± 2.8 and $30.2 \pm 3.35 \mu\text{M O}_2$ were carried out to extend the range of a previous study in which N_2O production from $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ did not decrease in the presence of up to $7 \mu\text{M O}_2$ (Ji et al. 2018). For the $^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ incubations two more O_2 treatments with 21.5 ± 2.8 and $30.2 \pm 3.35 \mu\text{M O}_2$ were carried out. The O_2 concentration was monitored with an O_2 sensor spot in one serum bottle per treatment using an O_2 probe and meter (FireSting, PyroScience, Aachen, Germany; Figure S1). The sensor spots are highly sensitive in the nanomolar range and prepared according to Larsen et al. (2016).

For the organic matter additions, concentrated particles $> 50 \mu\text{m}$ from 3 different depths were collected with a Challenger stand-alone pump system (SAPS *in situ* pumps, Liu et al. 2005), autoclaved and He purged. before 200 μL of POC solution were added to each serum bottle before $^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ or $^{14}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ tracer injection. The final particle concentrations and C/N ratios varied between $0.18 - 1.37 \mu\text{M C}$ and $8.1 - 15.4$, respectively (Table 2). The concentration and C/N ratio of PON and POC of the stock solutions were analyzed by mass spectrometry using GV Isoprime mass spectrometer.

A set of five bottles was incubated per time course. One bottle was sacrificed at t_0 , two bottles at t_1 and two at t_2 to determine a single rate. Total incubation times were adjusted to prevent bottle effects, which become significant after 20 h based on respiration rate measurements (Tiano et al. 2014). Hence, for each experiments varied lasted from 12 hours (at the shelf stations) to 24 hours (at the slope stations). Incubation was terminated by adding 0.1 mL saturated mercuric chloride (HgCl_2). All samples were stored at room temperature in the dark and shipped back to the lab.

2.2 Isotope measurement and rate determination

The total N_2O in each incubation bottle was extracted with a purge-trap system according to Ji et al. (2015). Briefly, serum bottles were flushed with He for 35 min (38 ml min^{-1}), N_2O was trapped by liquid nitrogen, H_2O removed with an ethanol trap, a Nafion® trap and a $\text{Mg}(\text{ClO}_4)_2$ trap and CO_2 removed with an Ascarited CO_2 -Adsorbance column and afterwards mass 44, 45, 46 and isotope ratios 45/44, 46/44 were detected with a GC-IRMS system (Delta V Plus, Thermo). Every two to three samples, a 20 mL glass vial with a known amount of N_2O gas was measured to calibrate for the N_2O concentration (linear correlation between N_2O peak size and concentration, $r^2=0.99$). The isotopic composition of the reference N_2O was $\delta^{15}\text{N}=1.75 \pm 0.10 \text{ ‰}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}=1.9 \pm 0.19 \text{ ‰}$ present in $^{15}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$ or $^{14}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$ for $^{45}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and the less abundant $^{15}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$ for $^{46}\text{N}_2\text{O}$. To evaluate the analyses of ^{15}N -enriched N_2O samples, internal isotope standards for $^{15}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ were prepared by mixing natural abundance KNO_3 of known $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values with 99% $\text{Na}^{15}\text{NO}_3$ (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) and converted to N_2O using the denitrifier method (Sigman et al. 2001, Weigand et al. 2016). Measured and expected values were compared based on a binominal distribution of ^{15}N and ^{14}N within the N_2O pool (Frame et al. 2017).

Formatiert: Nicht Hervorheben

After N₂O analysis, samples incubated with ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁵NO₃⁻ were analyzed for ¹⁵NO₂⁻ to determine rates of NH₄⁺ oxidation and NO₃⁻ reduction, respectively. The individual sample size, adjusted to contain 20 nmol of N₂O, was transferred into 20 mL glass vials and He purged for 10 min. NO₂⁻ was converted to N₂O using sodium azide in acetic acid (McIlvin and Altabet, 2005) and the nitrogen isotope ratio was measured on a Delta V Plus (Thermo).

For each serum bottle, total N₂O concentration (moles) and ⁴⁵N₂O/⁴⁴N₂O and ⁴⁶N₂O/⁴⁴N₂O ratios were converted to moles of ⁴⁴N₂O, ⁴⁵N₂O and ⁴⁶N₂O. N₂O production rates were calculated from the slope of the increase in mass 44, 45 and 46 over time (Figure S2). To quantify the pathways for N₂O production, rates were calculated based on the equations for N₂ production for denitrification and anammox (Thamdrup and Dalsgaard, 2002). In incubations with ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and unlabeled NO₂⁻, it is assumed that AO produces ⁴⁶N₂O from two labeled NH₄⁺ (equation 1) and some ⁴⁵N₂O-labeled N₂O based on binomial distribution (equation 2). If more single labelled N₂O is produced than what is expected (equation 2 and 3), then a hybrid formation of one nitrogen atom from NH₄⁺ and one from NO₂⁻ (equation 4) is assumed to be taking place as found in archaeal ammonia oxidizers (Kozłowski et al. 2016). In incubations with ¹⁵NO₂⁻, we assume that ⁴⁶N₂O comes from nitrifier-denitrification or denitrification, which cannot be distinguished (equation 1). Hence, any production of ⁴⁵N₂O not attributed to denitrification stems from hybrid N₂O formation by archaeal nitrifiers (equation 4). In incubations with ¹⁵NO₃⁻, denitrification produces ⁴⁶N₂O and was the only process considered and hence was calculated based on equation (1). Rates (R) are calculated as nmol N₂O L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Trimmer et al. 2016):

$$(1) R_{external} = slope^{46}N_2O \times (f_N)^{-2}$$

$$(2) R_{expected} = slope^{46}N_2O \times 2 \times (1 - f_N) \times (f_N)^{-1}$$

$$(3) R_{above} = slope^{45}N_2O - p^{45}N_2O_{expected}$$

$$(4) R_{hybrid} = (f_N)^{-1} \times (slope^{45}N_2O + 2 \times slope^{46}N_2O \times (1 - f_N^{-1}))$$

$$(5) R_{total} = pN_2O_{external} + pN_2O_{hybrid}$$

where f_N is the fraction of ¹⁵N in the substrate pool (NH₄⁺, NO₂⁻ or NO₃⁻), which is assumed to be constant over the incubation time. Hence, changing f_N due to any other concurrent N-consumption or production process during the incubation is neglected. Nevertheless, this assumption the assumption of constant f_N brings some initial considerations which need to be accounted for has implications that may affect the results. There is a potential for overestimating hybrid N₂O production in ¹⁵NO₃⁻ incubations by 5% in samples with high NO₃⁻ reduction rates. But in incubations from anoxic depths with high NO₃⁻ reduction rates, no hybrid N₂O production is was found at all. For example, accounting for a decrease in f_N of the NO₃⁻ nitrate pool by active NO₂⁻ oxidation, the process with highest rates (Sun et al. 2017), had an effect of only ± 0.2% on the final rate estimate. The presence of DNRA complicates ¹⁵N-labelling incubations because it can change f_N in all three tracer experiments. In ¹⁵NO₃⁻ incubations, active DNRA produces ¹⁵NO₂⁻ and ¹⁵NH₄⁺ from ¹⁵NO₃⁻, which can contribute to ⁴⁶N₂O production by AO. Even when a maximum DNRA rate (20 μM d⁻¹, in Lam et al. 2009) is assumed to produce 0.02 nM ¹⁵NH₄⁺ during the 24 h incubations and all of it is oxidized (maximum N₂O production from AO 0.16 nM d⁻¹, this study) its contribution to ⁴⁶N₂O production is likely minor and within the standard error of the high N₂O production rates from NO₃⁻, hence an overestimation of the N₂O production rates is unlikely. The same applies in incubations with ¹⁵N-NO₂⁻ when DNRA produces ¹⁵NH₄⁺, additional ⁴⁶N₂O can be produced with a hybrid mechanism by AO. In ¹⁵NO₂⁻ incubations with high starting f_N (>0.7) the production of ¹⁴NO₂⁻ by NO₃⁻ reduction (which decreases

Formatiert: Nicht Hervorheben

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

240 f_N) leads to an underestimation by ~~max. upto~~ 9%, whereas in incubations with a low f_N (<0.3) the effect is less
 245 with ~~max. upto~~ 3% underestimation of N_2O production rates). In $^{15}NH_4^+$ incubations (f_N > 0.9), ~~maximum~~ DNRA
 rate would lead to an underestimation of 3.5%. Slope of $^{46}N_2O$ and slope of $^{45}N_2O$ represent the $^{46}N_2O$ and $^{45}N_2O$
 production rates, which were tested for significance based on a linear regression (n=5, student t-test, $R^2 > 0.80$,
 p<0.05). Linear regressions that were not significantly different from zero were reported as 0. The error for each
 N_2O production rate was calculated as the standard error of the slope. Detection limits were 0.002 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ for
 N_2O production from AO and 0.1 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ for N_2O production from denitrification based on the average
 measured standard error for rates (Dalsgaard et al. 2012). The curve-fitting tool of Sigma Plot was used for the O_2
 265 sensitivity experiments. A one-way ANOVA was performed on the N_2O production rates to determine if rates
 were significantly different between POM treatments.

The rates (R) of NH_4^+ oxidation to NO_2^- and NO_3^- reduction to NO_2^- were calculated based on the slope
 of the linear regression of $^{15}NO_2^-$ enrichment over time (n = 5) (equation 6).

$$(6) R = f_N^{-1} \times slope \delta^{15}NO_2^-$$

270 where f_N is the fraction of ^{15}N in the substrate pool (NH_4^+ or NO_3^-).

Yield (%) of N_2O production during NH_4^+ oxidation was defined as the ratio of the production rates (equation 7).

$$(7) Yield_{NH_4} = \frac{N - N_2O \left(\frac{nM}{d}\right)}{N - NO_2^- \left(\frac{nM}{d}\right)} \times 100\%$$

Yields of N_2O production during denitrification were calculated based on the fact that N_2O is not a side product
 during NO_3^- nitrate reduction to NO_2^- but rather the next intermediate during denitrification (equation 8).

$$(8) Yield_{NO_3} = \frac{N - N_2O \left(\frac{nM}{d}\right)}{N - NO_2^- \left(\frac{nM}{d}\right) + N - N_2O \left(\frac{nM}{d}\right)} \times 100\%$$

All rates, yields and errors are reported in Table S3.

2.3 Molecular Analysis – qPCR, Microarrays

260 DNA and RNA were extracted using the DNA/RNA ALLPrep Mini Kit (Qiagen) followed by immediate
 cDNA Synthesis from purified and DNA-cleaned RNA using a SuperScript III First Strand Synthesis System
 (Invitrogen). The PicoGreen dsDNA Quantification Kit (Invitrogen) was used for DNA quantification and Quant-
 it OliGreen ssDNA Quantification Kit (life technologies) was used for cDNA quantification.

265 The abundances of total and active *nirS* and archaeal *amoA* communities were determined by quantitative
 PCR (qPCR) with assays based on SYBR Green staining according to methods described previously (Jayakumar
 et al. 2013, Peng et al. 2013). Primers *nirS*1F and *nirS*3R (Braker et al. 1998) were used to amplify a 260-bp
 conserved region within the *nirS* gene. The *nirS* pPrimers are not specific for epsilon-proteobacteria (Murdock et
 al. 2017), but in previous metagenomes from the ETSP epsilon-proteobacteria where below 3-4 % of the reads or
 not found, except in very sulfidic, coastal stations (Stewart et al. 2011, Wright et al. 2012, Ganesh et al. 2012,
 Schunck et al. 2013, Kavelage et al. 2015). Primers Arch-*amoA*F and Arch- *amoA*R (Francis et al. 2005) were
 270 used to quantify archaeal *amoA* abundance. A standard curve containing 6 serial dilutions of a plasmid with either
 an archaeal *amoA* fragment or a *nirS* fragment was used on respective assay plates. Assays were performed in a
 Stratagene Mx3000P qPCR cyclor (Agilent Technologies) in triplicates of 20- 25ng DNA or cDNA, along with a
 no primer control and a no template control. Cycle thresholds (Ct values) were determined automatically and used

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Kursiv

275 to calculate the number of *nirS* or archaeal *amoA* copies in each reaction, which was then normalized to copies per
milliliter of seawater (assuming 100% recovery). The detection limit was around 15 copies mL⁻¹ based on the Ct
values of the no template control.

280 Microarray experiments were carried out to describe the community composition of the total and active
nirS and archaeal *amoA* groups using the DNA and cDNA qPCR products. Pooled qPCR triplicates were purified
and cleaned using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen). Microarray targets were prepared according to
Ward and Bouskill (2011). Briefly, dUaa was incorporated into DNA and cDNA targets during linear amplification
with random octomers and a Klenow polymerase using the BioPrime kit (Invitrogen) and then labeled with Cy3,
purified and quantified. Each probe is a 90-mer oligonucleotide consisting of a 70-mer archetype sequence
combined with a 20-mer reference oligo as a control region bound to the glass slide. Each archetype probe
285 represents a group of related sequences with 87 ± 3% sequence identity of the 70-mer sequence. Microarray targets
were hybridized in duplicates on a microarray slide, washed and scanned using a laser scanner 4200 (Agilent
Technologies) and analyzed with GenePix Pro 6.0. The resulting fluorescence ratio (FR) of each archaeal *amoA*
or *nirS* probe was divided by the FR of the maximum archaeal *amoA* or *nirS* FR on the same microarray to calculate
the normalized FR (nFR). nFR represents the relative abundance of each archetype and was used for further
analyses.

290 Two different arrays were used, BCO16 which contains 99 archaeal *amoA* archetype probes representing
~8000 archaeal *amoA* sequences (Biller et al. 2012) and BCO15 which contains 167 *nirS* archetype probes
representing ~2000 sequences (collected from NCBI in 2009). A total of 74 assays were performed with 21 *nirS*
cDNA targets, 21 *nirS* DNA targets, 16 *amoA* cDNA targets and 16 *amoA* DNA samples. The original microarray
data from BCO15 and BCO16 are available via GEO (Gene Expression Omnibus;
295 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/>) at NCBI (National Center for Biotechnology Information) under GEO
Accession No [GSE142806XXXX](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/record/acc/GSE142806XXXX).

2.4. Data analysis

300 Spearman Rank correlation was performed from all N₂O production rates, AO and NO₃⁻ nitrate reduction
rates, environmental variables, *nirS* and archaeal *amoA* gene and transcript abundance as well as the 20 most
abundant archetypes of total and active *nirS* and *amoA* using R. Only significant values (p<0.05) are shown.
Archetype abundance (nFR) data were square-root transformed and beta-diversity was calculated with the Bray-
Curtis coefficient. Alpha diversity of active and total *nirS* and *amoA* communities was estimated by calculating
the Shannon diversity index using PRIMER6. Bray-Curtis dissimilarities were used to perform a Mantel test to
determine significant differences between active and total communities of *nirS* and *amoA* using R (Version 3.0.2,
305 package “vegan” (Oksanen et al., 2019). Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) (Legendre & Legendre 2012)
was used to visualize differences in community composition dependent upon environmental conditions using the
software PAST (Hammer et al. 2001). Before CCA analysis, a forward selection (Borcard et al. 1992) of the
parameters that described the environmental and biological variables likely to explain the most significant part of
the changes in the archetypes was performed.

310 The `make.lefse` command in MOTHUR was used to create a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect
size (LEfSe) (Segata et al. 2011) input file from the MOTHUR shared file. This was followed by a LEfSe
(<http://huttenhower.sph.harvard.edu/lefse/>) to test for discriminatory archetypes between O₂ levels. With a
normalized relative abundance matrix, LEfSe uses the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test to detect features with
significantly different abundances between assigned archetypes in the different O₂ levels and performs an LDA to

315 estimate the effect size of each feature. A significant alpha of 0.05 and an effect size threshold of 2 were used for
all marker genes discussed in this study.

3. Results

3.1 Hydrographic conditions

320 The upwelling system off Peru is a hot spot for N₂O emissions (Arévalo-Martínez et al. 2015) with most
intense upwelling in austral winter but maximum chlorophyll during December to March (Chavez and Messié,
2009; Messié and Chavez, 2015). The sampling campaign took place during austral fall in the absence of intense
upwelling or maximum chlorophyll. The focus of this study was the region close to the coast, which has highly
variable N₂O concentration profiles (Kock et al. 2016) and N₂O emissions (Arévalo-Martínez et al. 2015). The
325 Peru Coastal Water (PCW, temperature <19.5°C, salinity 34.9 - 35.1) and the equatorial subsurface waters (ESSW,
temperature 8-12°C, salinity 34.7 - 34.9) (Pietri et al. 2013) were the dominant water masses off the Peruvian
coast sampled for N₂O production rate measurements (Table 1). At the southern-most transect at 15.5° - 16°S a
meso-scale anticyclonic mode water eddy (McGillicuddy et al. 2007), which was about to detach from the coast,
was detected from deepening/shoaling of the main/seasonal pycnoclines (Bange et al. 2018, Figure S34).
330 Generally, the stations were characterized by a thick anoxic layer (254 m - 427 m) reaching to the seafloor at two
shelf stations (894, 883). NO₂⁻ concentration accumulated only up to 2 μmol L⁻¹ in the secondary NO₂⁻ maximum
(SNM) at the northern transect (stations 882, 883), but up to 7.19 μmol L⁻¹ along the southern transect (Figure 2,
station 907, 912). N₂O concentration profiles showed a high variability with respect to depth and O₂ concentrations
(Figure 2). The southern transect (station 907,912) showed the lowest N₂O concentrations (5 nmol L⁻¹) in the center
335 of the anoxic zones. At the same time, station 912 in the center of the eddy showed highest N₂O concentration
with 78.9 nmol L⁻¹ at [O₂] below detection limit in the upper part of the anoxic zone. Above the ODZ, the maximum
N₂O peak ranged from 57.9 - 78.9 nmol L⁻¹ and was found at an O₂ concentration range from below detection
(883, 894, 892, 912) up to 67 μmol L⁻¹ (907). Three stations (892, 894 and 904) showed high surface N₂O
concentrations of 64 nmol L⁻¹.

340

3.2 Depth Distribution of N₂O production rates and total and active nirS and amoA abundance

N₂O production varied with depth and substrate (Figure 3, Table S3). In the oxycline, highest AO (34 ±
0.1 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ and 35 ± 9.2 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹) coincided with highest N₂O production from AO (0.141 ± 0.003 nmol
L⁻¹ d⁻¹ and 0.159 ± 0.003 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹) at both stations of the northern transect, stations 883 and 882, respectively
345 (Figure 3(I)a, b). NH₄⁺ oxidation and its N₂O production decreased to zero in the ODZ. The rates of the reductive
source pathways for N₂O increased with depth. N₂O production from NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ displayed similar patterns
with highest production at or below the oxic -anoxic interface (Figure 3(II)). N₂O production from NO₂⁻ showed
highest rates of 3.06 ± 1.17 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (912) and 2.37 ± 0.54 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (906) further south (Figure 3(II) m, q)
compared to lower rates at northern stations, where the maximum rate was 0.71 ± 0.38 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Figure 3(II)
350 c, 883). A similar trend was found for N₂O production from NO₃⁻: lower maximum rates at northern stations with
2.7 ± 0.4 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (882) and 5.7 ± 2.8 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (883, Figure 3(II) b) and highest rates in southern transects
with 7.2 ± 1.64 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ ((Figure 3(II) l, 904) in transect 3 and up to 118.0 ± 27.8 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Figure 3(II) p,
912) in transect 4. Generally, N₂O production rates from NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ were 10 to 100-fold higher than from AO.

qPCR analysis detected lowest gene and transcript numbers of archaeal *amoA* and *nirS* in the surface mixed layer (Figure 3(I) k, l, 3(II)r, s). Highest archaeal *amoA* gene and transcript abundance was in the oxycline (1 – 40 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ O_2) with $24,500 \pm 340$ copies mL^{-1} and 626 ± 29 copies mL^{-1} at station 883 (Figure 3(I)c, d). *amoA* gene and transcript number decreased in the ODZ to 1000 – 6500 gene copies mL^{-1} and 20 - 250 transcript copies mL^{-1} . The profiles of *nirS* gene and transcript abundance were similar to each other (Figure 3(II) d, e) with highest abundance in the ODZ up to 1×10^6 copies mL^{-1} and 2.9×10^5 copies mL^{-1} , respectively. Denitrifier *nirS* genes and transcripts peaked in the anoxic layer and were significantly correlated with N_2O production from NO_2^- but not from NO_3^- . Archaeal *amoA* gene and transcript abundances were significantly correlated with AO and, N_2O production from AO (Figure S53). N_2O concentrations did not correlate with any of the measured variables (Figure S53).

3.3 Influence of O_2 concentration on N_2O production

N_2O production along the *in situ* O_2 gradient for the substrates NO_2^- and NO_3^- decreased exponentially with increasing O_2 concentrations (Figure 4b, c) while for NH_4^+ , the N_2O production was highest at highest sampled O_2 concentration (Figure 4a). At *in situ* O_2 levels above $8.4 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ N_2O production decreased by 100% and 98% from NO_3^- and NO_2^- , respectively (Figure 4b, c).

In the manipulated O_2 treatments from the oxic - anoxic interface (S11, S19) a unimodal response of N_2O production from NH_4^+ and NO_2^- to O_2 is apparent (Figure 4d, e). Increasing and decreasing O_2 concentrations inhibited N_2O production from NH_4^+ and NO_2^- with the highest N_2O production rate between $1.4 - 6 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$. However, this response was only significant in sample S11 (Figure 4d, e). There was no significant response to O_2 concentration of N_2O production from NO_3^- . O_2 did not inhibit N_2O production from NO_3^- up to $23 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Figure 4f).

The proportion of hybrid N_2O produced during AO, i.e., the formation of N_2O from one ^{15}N from the labelled- NH_4^+ and one ^{14}N from a non-labelled-N compound (excluding NH_4^+) such as NO_2^- , NH_2OH or NO , was consistently between 70 – 85 % across different O_2 concentrations for manipulated and natural O_2 concentrations (Figure 5a, c). Hybrid formation during N_2O production from NO_2^- varied between 0 and 95% along the natural O_2 gradient (Figure 5b). In manipulated O_2 treatments hybrid formation from NO_2^- did not change across different O_2 treatments but with respect to the original depth, 0% in sample S11 which originated from 145 m of station 892 or 78% in sample S19 from 120m of station 894 (Figure 5d).

Highest N_2O yields during AO (over 1%) occurred between 1.4 and $2 \mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$, and decreased at both higher and lower O_2 concentrations (Figure 6a). However, only the increase in yield from nmol O_2 to $1.4 - 2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{O}_2$ was significant (t-test, $p < 0.05$) and the following decrease in yield was not (t-test, $p > 0.05$). In the manipulated O_2 treatment of sample S19 (Figure 6c) the same significant pattern was observed, whereas in S11 highest yield was found at $12 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{O}_2$. N_2O yield during NO_3^- nitrate reduction to NO_2^- decreased to zero at $8.4 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{O}_2$ along the natural O_2 gradient (Figure 6b) while no significant response occurred in the manipulated O_2 treatments (Figure 6d). There, NO_3^- nitrate reduction was decreasing with increasing O_2 but N_2O production was steady with increasing O_2 leading to high yields between $38.8 \pm 9 \%$ - $91.2 \pm 47 \%$ at $23 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{O}_2$.

3.4 Effect of large particulate organic matter on N_2O production

The autoclaving of the concentrated POM solution liberated NH_4^+ from the particles, reducing the N/C ratio of the particles compared to non-autoclaved particles (Table 2). The highest NH_4^+ accumulation is found in samples with the largest difference in N/C ratios between autoclaved and non-autoclaved particles (Table 2, 904-20m, 898-100 m). Addition of 0.17 – 1.37 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ of autoclaved particles > 50 μm (Table 2) produced a significant increase in N_2O production by up to 5.2- and 4.8-fold in 10 and 7 out of 19 additions for NO_2^- and NO_3^- respectively (Figure 7a, b). There was no linear correlation of the origin (mixed layer depth, oxycline or anoxic zone), the quality (N/C ratio) or the quantity of the organic matter on the magnitude of the increase. Only samples S20 and S17 were not stimulated by particle addition and N_2O production from denitrification did not significantly differ from the control (Figure 7b).

3.5 Diversity and community composition of total and active *nirS* and *amoA* assemblages and its correlation with environmental parameters

nFR values from functional gene microarrays were used to describe the nitrifier and denitrifier community composition of AOA and *nirS* assemblages, respectively. nFR was averaged from duplicate microarrays, which replicated well ($R^2 = 0.89 - 0.99$). Alpha- diversities of *nirS* and archaeal *amoA* were not statistically different for total and active communities (students t-test, $p > 0.05$), but were overall lower for RNA (3.2 ± 0.3) than DNA (3.8 ± 0.4) (Table S1). Principle Coordinate Analysis of Bray–Curtis similarity for each probe group on the microarray indicated that the community structure of archaeal *amoA* genes was significantly different from that of archaeal *amoA* transcripts whereas community structure of *nirS* genes and transcripts did not differ significantly (Figure S42). To identify which archetypes were important in explaining differences in community structure of key nitrification and denitrification genes, we identified archetypes that accounted for more than 1% of the total fluorescence for their probe set and that were significantly different with respect to ambient O_2 using a lfe analysis (Table S2). Furthermore, we used CCA to test whether the community composition, or even single archetypes, could explain the N_2O production rates.

The nFR distribution showed greater variability in the active (cDNA) AOA community than in the total community (DNA) among depths, stations and O_2 concentrations (Figure 8a, b). Archetypes over 1% made up between 76% (DNA) - 83% (cDNA) of the *amoA* assemblage and only 61% (DNA) - 68% (cDNA) of the *nirS* assemblage. The 4 most abundant AOA archetypes AOA55, AOA3, AOA21 and AOA32 made up 20% - 65% of the total and active community (Figure 8a, b). DNA of archetypes AOA55 and AOA79, both related to uncultured AOA in soils, significantly correlated with *in situ* NH_4^+ concentrations (Figure S53). DNA and cDNA from AOA3 and AOA83 were significantly enriched in oxic waters and AOA7, closely related with crenarchaeote SCGC AAA288-M23 isolated from station ALOHA near Hawaii (Swan et al. 2011), was significantly enriched in anoxic and hypoxic waters for DNA and cDNA respectively (Table S2). All other archetypes did not vary with O_2 levels. DNA of AOA 3, closely related to *Nitrosopelagicus brevis* (CN25), identified as the only archetype to be significantly correlated with N_2O production and yield from AO (Figure S53).

The total and active denitrifier communities were dominated by Nir7, derived from an uncultured clone from the ODZ in the ETSP (Lam et al. 2009), and Nir7 was significantly more enriched in the active community (Figure 8c, d). DNA from ODZ depths of the eddy, S15 (907, 130 m) and S17 (912, 90 m), diverged most obviously from the rest and from each other (Figure 8c, d). Interestingly, these two samples were not divergent among the active *nirS* community (Figure 8c, d; Figure S42). DNA of Nir35, belonging to the Flavobacteriaceae derived from coastal waters of the Arabian Sea (Goréguès et al., 2004), was most abundant (12.3 %) at the eddy edge (S15) as

435 opposed to the eddy center (S17) where nir167, representing Anammox sequences from Peru, was most abundant (12.0 %). Interestingly, Nir4 and Nir14, among the top 5 abundant archetypes, were significantly enriched in oxic water masses (Table S2). nFR signal of nir166, belonging to Scalindua, and Nir23 were among the top 5 abundant archetypes and significantly enriched in anoxic depths.

440 CCA is a direct gradient analysis, where the gradient in environmental variables is known a priori and the archetypes are considered to be a response to this gradient. Composition from total and active AOA community did not differ between stations and all samples cluster close together (Figure S64a, b). S18 (912, 5 m) is a surface sample with lowest NO₃⁻ concentration (8 μmol L⁻¹), highest temperature and salinity of the data set and the DNA is positively related with O₂ and driven by AOA55, AOA32 and AOA79. RNA of S17 (912, 90 m) clusters with AOA70. AOA55 was abundant and its distribution is driven by O₂ and NH₄⁺ (Figure S53).

445 CCA clustered the denitrifier community DNA into one main group with a few exceptions (Figure S64 c). Two surface samples (S16, S18) clustered separate and were positively correlated with Nir4 and Nir14 and O₂. Two anoxic samples from the eddy core (S17) and eddy edge (S15) clustered separate with S17 being driven by 3 nirS archetypes – Nir54, Nir10 and Nir167 and S15 by Nir23, Nir35 and Nir133 (Figure S64 c). Total and active nirS community composition did not differ as a function of O₂. Although, composition of active and total nirS communities were not significantly different, the active community clustered slightly differently. For nirS RNA, surface and oxycline samples (S16 and S10) grouped together and were correlated positively with O₂, temperature and salinity, whereas the anoxic eddy samples did not differ from the rest (Figure S64d). N₂O production from NO₂⁻ significantly correlated with nirS gene and transcript abundance but both reductive N₂O production pathways were not linked with a single dominant nirS archetype (Figure S53)

455

4. Discussion

Most samples originated from Peru Coastal Water (PCW) characterized by supersaturated N₂O concentrations (Kock et al. 2016, Bourbonnais et al. 2017). Only the deepest sample (S1, 882 - 350m) saw the presence of a different water mass, the equatorial subsurface waters. Thus, our findings about regulation of N₂O production at different stations probably apply to the region as a whole. Several studies indicate that water mass hydrography plays an important role in shaping microbial community diversity (Biller et al. 2012, Hamdan et al. 2012) and a coupling of amoA alpha diversity to physical conditions such as salinity, temperature and depth has been shown in coastal waters off Chile (Bertagnolli and Ulloa 2017). While salinity, temperature and depth were prominent factors in shaping the community compositions of nitrifiers and denitrifiers (Figure S64), for N₂O production rates correlations with physical and chemical parameters were not consistent. On one hand, oxidative N₂O production from NH₄⁺ positively correlated with temperature, salinity, oxygen and negatively with depth and PO₄³⁻ concentration. On the other hand, reductive N₂O production from NO₂⁻ positively correlated with NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ concentrations, but negatively with NO₃⁻ concentrations (Figure S53), suggesting when NO₃⁻ is abundant, denitrifiers are less likely to use NO₂⁻ for N₂O production during denitrification. Both oxidative (AO) and reductive (NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ reduction) N cycling processes produced N₂O with differential effects of O₂ on them. Measured N₂O production rates were always highest from NO₃⁻, followed by NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺, which is consistent with previous studies that showed denitrification as a dominant N₂O source in Peruvian coastal waters harboring an ODZ (Ji et al. 2015a, Casciotti et al. 2018). A low contribution of AO to N₂O production in low O₂ waters is in line with a previous study in this area estimating N₂O production based on isotopomer measurements combined with a 3-D Reaction-Advection-Diffusion Box model (Bourbonnais et al. 2017). The low percentage that AO

475

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

contributed to total N₂O production was between 0.5 – 6%, with one exception in the shallowest sample S5 with 30 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ where AO contributed 86% to total N₂O production. We found strong positive effects of decreasing O₂ concentration and increasing particulate matter concentrations on N₂O production in the upper oxycline.

The occurrence of an anticyclonic mode water eddy at 16°S (transect 4, stations 912, 907) at the time of sampling was not unusual, as such eddies have been reported at a similar position (Stramma et al. 2013). High N loss, a large SNM with low NO₃⁻ concentrations and strong N₂O depletion in the core of ODZ of the eddy result in reduced N₂O inside of this kind of eddies as they age and are advected westward (Cornejo D’Ottone et al. 2016, Arévalo-Martínez et al. 2016). Our study found similar patterns with largest SNM (5.23 μM NO₂⁻), lowest NO₃⁻ (14 μmol L⁻¹) and N₂O (4 nmol L⁻¹) concentrations in the eddy center. For the first time N₂O production rates were measured in an eddy, and the rates of up to 118 ± 2720 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ are the highest N₂O production rates from denitrification reported in the ETSP. Previously reported maximum rates were up to 86 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Dalsgaard et al. 2012) based on ¹⁵N tracer incubations. Much smaller maximum rates, ranged from 49 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Bourbonnais et al. 2017) and 50 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Farias et al. 2009), were obtained using both based on a N₂O isotope and isotopomer approaches, which provides a time (weeks – months) and process integrated signals, up to 86 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Dalsgaard et al. 2012) based on ⁴⁵N tracer incubations. Hence, the deviation of maximum rates can be explained by 1) the different approaches and 2) the sampling of the core of the eddy, both extreme N₂O production at a certain time point and integrated N₂O production over long timescale could be obtained. N₂ production measurements (from anammox and denitrification) were not measured performed in this study, but should be in future studies to account for potential artefacts by co-occurring NO₃⁻ reduction processes. Here, so it cannot be determined whether the eddy only stimulated incomplete denitrification to N₂O production but not N₂ production from denitrification (i.e. increasing the N₂O/N₂ yield) or if the eddy also increased complete denitrification to N₂ by this high N₂O production represents a high N₂O/N₂ yield or if the N₂ production rates were also 10 times compared to stations higher than outside of the eddy. Considering that at some depths only incomplete denitrification (also known as “stop- and go” denitrification) to N₂O is at work, it would not be surprising that N₂O production can reach the same order of magnitude as N₂ production from complete denitrification. Aged eddies also show lower N₂O concentration maxima at the upper oxycline (Arévalo-Martínez et al. 2016), which was not the case in this study where a young eddy was just about to detach from the coast. In fact, the eddy stations show the highest N₂O peak in the upper oxycline within this data set. Eddies and their age imprint mesoscale patchiness and heterogeneity in biogeochemical cycling. It appears that young eddies close to the coast with high N₂O concentrations and high N₂O production rates have a great potential for high N₂O emissions compared to aged eddies or waters surrounding eddies.

4.1 Effect of O₂ on reductive and oxidative N₂O production

The relationship between O₂ concentrations and N₂O production by nitrification and denitrification is very complex in ODZs. While poorly constrained, the reported O₂ threshold level (1.7 μmol L⁻¹ O₂) for reductive N₂O production is lower (Dalsgaard et al. 2014) than the reported O₂ threshold level (8 μmol L⁻¹) for N₂O consumption in the ETSP (Cornejo and Farias 2012). Nevertheless, the suboxic zone between 1 – 8 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ carries high N₂O concentrations indicating higher N₂O production than consumption. In this study, we focused on this suboxic water masses above the ODZ and determined bulk kinetics of O₂ sensitivity in batch experiments, which reflect the metabolism of the microbial community. The effect of O₂ on N₂O production differed between natural O₂ concentrations with varying communities vs. manipulated O₂ concentrations within a community. While

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Nicht Hervorheben

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt, Nicht Hervorheben

Formatiert: Nicht Hervorheben

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt, Nicht Hervorheben

Formatiert: Nicht Hervorheben

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

N₂O production from NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ decreased exponentially along the natural O₂ gradient, it did not always decrease for the manipulated O₂ treatments. Unchanged N₂O production with higher O₂ levels in NO₃⁻ treatments showed that at least a portion of the community can respond very differently to a sudden increase in O₂ than predicted from natural O₂ gradients with communities acclimated to a certain O₂ concentration. In the ETNP, this pattern has been observed before (Ji et al. 2018a) but the mechanism behind it is unknown. Different responses of N₂O production rates to O₂ between *in situ* assemblages and incubated samples were not unexpected because different rates at different depths were likely not only due to O₂ differences but also other factors such as different organic matter fluxes and different amounts and types of N₂O producers at different depths. In addition, sampling with Niskin bottles and purging can induce stress responses (Stewart et al. 2012) and changeshift the richness and structure of the microbial community from the *in situ* community (Torres-Beltran et al. 2019), which can be one potential explanation for the different responses between manipulated oxygen and *in situ* oxygen experiments). The removal of other gases like H₂S during purging introduces another potential artefact. However, it is unlikely as measurable H₂S concentrations have mostly been found at very shallow coastal stations (< 100 m deep) (Callbeck et al. 2018), which was not the case in the environment of this study. On the contrary, high abundances (up to 12%) of sulfur oxidizing gamma proteobacteria, like SUP05 can be found in eddy-transported offshore waters where they actively contributed to autotrophic denitrification (Calbeck et al. 2018). In this study, we cannot differentiate between autotrophic or organotrophic denitrification, but a contribution of autotrophic denitrification in the eddy center is likely. Off the Chilean coast, active N₂O production by denitrification was found at up to 50 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ (Farías et al. 2009). These results reinforce prior studies showing that distinct steps of multistep metabolic pathways, such as denitrification, can differ in O₂ sensitivity (Dalsgaard et al. 2014, Bristow et al. 2016a, 2016b). In various bacterial strains and natural communities, the NO₃⁻ reductase enzyme (*Nar*) which catalyzes the first step in denitrification, is reportedly the most O₂ tolerant, followed by the more O₂ sensitive steps of NO₂⁻ reduction (*Nir*) and N₂O reduction (Körner und Zumft 1989, McKenney et al. 1994, Kalvelage et al. 2011). The fact, that N₂O production is insensitive to manipulated O₂ we see this pattern only in the NO₃⁻ treatments and not in the NO₂⁻ treatments is evidence that it is not due to inhibition of the reduction of N₂O to N₂ at higher O₂ because then both treatments would look similar. It further indicates that high N₂O production from NO₃⁻ in high oxygen treatments is unlikely an effect of anoxic micro-niches. While anoxic micro-niches in batch incubations can never be fully ruled out, there is no reason why they should systematically change N₂O production in NO₃⁻ from NO₂⁻ incubations at the same oxygen treatment. We suggest a stimulation of incomplete denitrification, which leads to the accumulation of N₂O in our serum bottles rather than a stimulation of overall denitrification rates to N₂. While NO₃⁻ nitrate reduction was inhibited by higher O₂ concentrations, N₂O production was not, leading to very high yields of N₂O production per NO₂⁻ produced. We hypothesize that there is a direct channeling of reduced NO₃⁻ to N₂O without exchange of an internal NO₂⁻ pool with the surrounding NO₂⁻. Long turnover times for NO₃⁻ have been inferred from δ¹⁸O of NO₃⁻, which was fully equilibrated with water in the offshore waters (Bourbonnais et al. 2015) and more dynamic in the coastal waters (Hu et al. 2016) supporting our hypothesis. If NO₂⁻ does not exchange, our rate estimates for NO₃⁻ reduction based on produced ¹⁵N-NO₂⁻ are underestimated resulting in high yields. A low NO₂⁻ exchange rate has been shown before (Ji et al. 2018b). Based on the assumption that all labelled N₂O from ¹⁵NO₃⁻ has gone through the NO₂⁻ pool, we include the NO₂⁻ pool into calculating f_{N₂O}. In ¹⁵NO₃⁻ incubations the enrichment of the substrate pool was low (f_{N₂O} = 0.05 – 0.1) and including NO₂⁻ resulted in an underestimation of no more than 5 % depending on the *in situ* NO₂⁻ concentration, and thus does not explain the high rates.

520

525

530

535

540

545

550

555

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Kursiv

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Kursiv

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett, Kursiv

Formatiert: Schriftart: Nicht Fett

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: Symbol

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftfarbe: Automatisch, Englisch (Großbritannien)

One N₂O producing process not considered in this study is fungal denitrification, but it deserves mentioning because in soils and coastal sediments it contributes substantially to N₂O production (Wankel et al. 2017, Shoun et al. 2012). With ¹⁵N-labelling experiments it is not possible to distinguish between bacterial and fungal denitrification. In ODZs, marine fungal communities show a wide diversity (Jebaraj et al. 2012) and a high adaptive capability is suggested (Richards et al. 2012). Most fungal denitrifiers lack the capability to reduce N₂O to N₂, hence all NO₃⁻ nitrate reduction results in N₂O production (Richards et al. 2012). In a culture study, the fungus, *Fusarium oxysporum*, needed O₂ exposure before it started to denitrify (Zhou et al. 2001). To what extent marine fungi play a role in denitrification in open ocean ODZs and their O₂ sensitivity remains to be investigated.

N₂O production from NH₄⁺ did not decrease exponentially with increasing O₂ as shown previously for the ETSP (Qin et al. 2017, Ji et al. 2018a, Santoro et al. 2011). N₂O production rather increased with increasing *in situ* oxygen and had an optimum between 1.4 – 6 μmol O₂ L⁻¹ in manipulated O₂ treatments. A similar optimum curve was observed in cultures of the marine AOA *Nitrosopumilus maritimus*, where N₂O production reached maxima at O₂ concentrations between 2 - 10 μmol L⁻¹ (Hink et al. 2017a). Furthermore, N₂O production by *N. viennensis* and *N. maritimus* was not affected by O₂ but instead by the rate of AO (Stieglmeier et al. 2014, Hink et al. 2017a). To find out if this is the case in our study, we plotted AO rate against N₂O production from NH₄⁺ for natural and manipulated O₂ samples (Figure S75). The resulting significant linear fit (R² = 0.75, p < 0.0001) implies that the rate of AO was the main driver for the intensity of N₂O production from NH₄⁺ and oxygen had a secondary effect.

Discrepancies in estimates of the O₂ sensitivity of N₂O production by nitrification and denitrification are likely due to a combination of taxonomic variation as well as differences in sensitivity among the various enzymes of each pathway.

4.2 N₂O yields and hybrid N₂O formation from NH₄⁺

N₂O yields of AO were 0.15 – 2.07 % (N₂O-N mol/ NO₂-N mol = 1.5 x 10⁻³ – 20.7 x 10⁻³) which are at the higher end of most marine AOA culture or field studies (Hink et al 2017b, Qin et al. 2017, Santoro et al. 2011, Stieglmeier et al. 2014). Only in 2015 off the coast of Peru a higher maximum yield of 3.14% was reported (Ji et al. 2018a). While high N₂O yields are usually found in low O₂ waters (<6 μmol L⁻¹), in this study AO had also high yields at higher oxygen concentrations, 0.9 % at 30 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ compared to previous studies (0.06% at > 50 μmol L⁻¹ Ji et al. 2018a). Not only high N₂O yields in low O₂ waters (< 6 μmol L⁻¹), but also higher yields at higher O₂ concentrations, 0.9 % at 30 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ compared to 0.06% at > 50 μmol L⁻¹ (Ji et al. 2018a) were found. In near coastal regions, higher N₂O yield at higher O₂ concentrations expands the overall water volume where N₂O production by AO contributes to high N₂O concentration, which is more likely to be emitted to the atmosphere.

Insights into the production mechanism of N₂O is gained from hybrid-N₂O formation based on differentiating between production of single (⁴⁵N₂O) and double (⁴⁶N₂O) - labelled N₂O. If the production of ⁴⁵N₂O is higher than what is expected based on the binomial distribution, then an additional source of ¹⁴N can be assumed. In ¹⁵NH₄⁺ incubations, as potential ¹⁴N substrates (besides NH₄⁺), NO₂⁻, NH₂OH and HNO are most likely. Even though, *in situ* NH₄⁺ is below detection in almost all water depths (f_{N₂O} > 0.9), hence in our incubations this pool is 99% labelled, there remains the potential for ¹⁵NH₄⁺ pool dilution by remineralization and DNRA during the incubation. Studies have shown fast turnover for NH₄⁺, despite low NH₄⁺ concentrations (e.g.f.e. Klawonn et al. 2019). Even if hybrid N₂O production rates are overestimated, it remains the major N₂O production mechanisms off from AO in this study. In future ¹⁵N -labelling studies, co-occurrence of NH₄⁺ production by DNRA or

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

600 degradation should be measured along with N₂O production to account for pool dilution. ~~As potential ¹⁴N~~
~~substrates, NO₂⁻, NH₂OH and HNO are most likely.~~ Whether hybrid N₂O formation is purely abiotic, a mix of
605 biotic and abiotic or biotic reactions, is debatable (Stieglmeier et al. 2014, Kozłowski et al. 2016, Carini et al.
2018, Lancaster et al. 2018, Stein 2019). Hybrid N₂O production from NO₂⁻ was variable with depth and oxygen,
which can be explained by the different proportions of nitrifier versus denitrifier NO₂⁻ reduction to N₂O. For
example, in the interface sample S19 (892, 144 m, 3.69 μmol L⁻¹ NO₂⁻) N₂O production from NO₂⁻ (0.72 ± 0.19
610 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹) was 20 times higher than from NH₄⁺ (0.033 ± 0.0004 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹) and no hybrid N₂O formation from
NO₂⁻ was found (Figure 5d). There, the major N₂O production mechanism seems to be by denitrification rather
than nitrification, and even if there was a hybrid production we were not able to detect it within the given error
ranges. Hybrid N₂O production from NH₄⁺ was independent of the rate at which N₂O production took place and
independent of the O₂ concentration and varied little (70 – 86% of total N₂O production) during AO. Therefore, a
615 purely abiotic reaction outside and without the vicinity of the cell can be excluded because concentrations of
potential substrates for abiotic N₂O production like Fe(II), Mn, NO, NH₂OH vary with depth and O₂ concentration
(Zhu-Barker et al. 2015, Kondo and Moffet 2015, Lutterbeck et al. 2018, Korth et al. 2019). Additionally, at four
depths the potential for abiotic N₂O production in ¹⁵NO₂⁻ addition experiments showed variations with depth and
no significant impact of HgCl₂ fixation (Figure S9). Hence, any ¹⁴N which is integrated into N₂O to produce a
620 hybrid/single labelled N₂O has to be passively or actively taken up by the cell first (Figure 9). There, it reacts with
an intermediate product (¹⁵NO or ¹⁵NH₂OH) of AO inside the cell. With this set of experiments, it is not possible
to disentangle if hybrid production is based on an enzymatic reaction or an abiotic reaction inside the cell. Caranto
et al. (2017) showed that the main substrate of NH₂OH oxidation is NO, making NO an obligate intermediate of
AO in AOB and suggested the existence of an unknown enzyme that catalyzes NO oxidation to NO₂⁻ (further
625 details also in Stein 2019). If NO is an obligate intermediate of AO in AOA (Lancaster et al. 2018), a constant rate
of spontaneous abiotic or enzymatic N₂O production is very likely, which always depends on the amount of NO
produced in the first place. This could explain why we consistently find ~80% hybrid formation at high as well as
at low AO rates. Further studies are needed to investigate the full mechanisms.

625 4.3 Effect of particulate organic matter on N₂O production

A positive stimulation of N₂O production from denitrification by particulate organic matter was found,
indicating carbon limitation of denitrification in the ETSP. The experimental POM amendments simulated a low
POC export flux and represented a flux that happens over 2 - 15 days, assuming an export flux of 3.8 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹
630 and that 8% of the total POC pool is >50 μm (Boyd et al. 1999, Martin et al. 1987, Haskell et al. 2015). We are
aware that the POM collected by *in situ* pumps is a mix of suspended and sinking particles and hence the flux
should be considered a rough estimate. However, the particle size (>50 μm) used in the experiments is indicative
of sinking particles. The stimulation of N₂ production from denitrification by particulate organic matter has been
shown in ODZs before (Ward et al. 2008, Chang et al. 2014), with quantity and quality of organic matter
635 influencing the degree of stimulation (Babbin et al. 2014). In this study, amendments of POM at different
degradation stages resulted in variable magnitudes of N₂O production from NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ with no significant
correlations between magnitude of the rates and amount, origin or quality of POM added. The processing of the
particles has reduced the original N/C ratios of POM from the mixed layer more than of the POM from the ODZ,
resulting in similar N/C ratios of particles from different depths. This could be one possible explanation for a lack
of correlation of N₂O production with origin of the POM. Furthermore, N₂ production was not quantified and

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

640 hence it is not possible to evaluate potential relationships between overall N loss and POM additions or whether
the partitioning between N₂O and N₂ varied among treatments and depths. N₂O/N₂ production ratio can vary from
0 - 100% (Dalsgaard et al. 2014, Bonaglia et al. 2016). A temporary accumulation of N₂O before further reduction
to N₂ in the incubations can be ruled out as N₂O accumulated linearly over time. The only station, where POM
645 additions did not stimulate N₂O production was in the center of the young eddy (912-S17). There, the highest rates
of N₂O production from NO₃⁻ (118 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹) were found, indicating that denitrification was not carbon limited.
This is consistent with previous studies on anti-cyclonic eddies, which have shown high N loss in the core of a
young eddy that weakened with aging of the eddy (Stramma et al. 2013, Bourbonnais et al. 2015, Löscher et al.
2016). A direct link between the freshly produced POM fueling N loss on one hand, and decreased N loss with
aging due to POM export out of the eddy on the other hand, was proposed (Bourbonnais et al. 2015, Löscher et al.
650 2016). In this study, the young eddy is a hot spot for N₂O production.

Besides carbon availability as electron donor for denitrification, copper limitation and high NO₃⁻
availability may play a role. Copper limitation has been argued to lead to N₂O accumulation by inhibiting the
copper-dependent N₂O reductase (Granger and Ward 2003, Bonaglia et al. 2016), but it was not a limiting factor
for denitrification in the three major ODZs previously (Ward et al. 2008). Water sampling from Niskin bottles in
655 our study was not trace metal clean and could be contaminated with Copper from the sampling system, making a
limitation of trace metals in our incubations unlikely. However, OM fueled N₂O production may have become
limited by the availability of copper during the incubation.

High NO₃⁻ availability increases N₂O production from denitrification in salt marshes (Ji et al. 2015b) and
in soils (Weier et al. 1993), systems which are generally not carbon limited. Also, at the oxic - anoxic interface of
660 Chesapeake Bay, the ratio of NO₂⁻ to NO₃⁻ concentration was identified as a driver for high N₂O production from
NO₃⁻ (Ji et al. 2018b). This study also found higher N₂O production rates from NO₃⁻ than NO₂⁻, which linearly
correlated with the ratio of NO₂⁻/NO₃⁻ concentrations (Figure S86). Intracellularly produced NO₂⁻ does not seem
to exchange with the surrounding pool, but ambient NO₃⁻ is directly converted to N₂O, a process identified as
“NO₂⁻ shunting” in N₂ production studies (de Brabandere et al. 2014, Chang et al. 2014). POM as electron donor
665 is an important regulator for reductive N₂O production.

4.4 Effect of abundance of total and active community composition on N₂O production rates

The abundances of both *amoA* and *nirS* genes found in the ETSP are similar to those reported in earlier
studies in the ETSP (Peng et al. 2013, Ji et al. 2015a, Jayakumar et al. 2013). The *amoA* gene abundances were
670 similar to those reported for the coastal ETSP by Lam et al. (2009), but *nirS* abundances reported here were higher
than the *nirS* abundances in that study, probably due to the use of different PCR primers. The community
composition of AOA did not significantly differ along the O₂ gradient as shown previously (Peng et al. 2013), but
a significant correlation between archaeal *amoA* transcript abundance and N₂O production was shown in this study.
The combination of qPCR and microarray analysis offered a great advantage to relate the total abundances to the
675 production rates and additionally link particular community components to biogeochemical activities. To
determine whether a particular archetype drives the correlation of N₂O production by AO, a Bray-Curtis
dissimilarity matrix revealed archetype AOA3 related to *Nitrosopelagicus brevis* (CN25) to be significantly
correlated with the N₂O production by AO. This clade is abundant in the surface ocean and typically found in high
abundances in the lower euphotic zone (Santoro et al. 2011, 2015). With the demonstration of high abundances of
680 AOA3 coincident with high nitrification rates and high N₂O production rates, we suggest that *Nitrosopelagicus*

brevis related AOA likely play an important role in N₂O production in near surface waters in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific.

The lack of significant correlation between community composition or single members of the community and reductive N₂O production is consistent with the fact that *nirS* is not the enzyme directly synthesizing N₂O and *nirS* communities are sources as well as sinks for N₂O. Taxonomic analysis of the *nirS* gene and transcripts suggested that there is high taxonomic diversity among the denitrifiers, which is likely linked to a high variability of the total denitrification gene assembly (including *nos*, *nor*, *nir*). In particular the abundance and diversity of nitric oxide reductase (*nor*), the enzyme directly synthesizing N₂O, would be of interest, but it is present in nitrifiers and denitrifiers (Casciotti and Ward 2005) and one goal of this study was to differentiate among N₂O produced by nitrifiers and denitrifiers. However, *nirS* gene and transcript abundance correlated with N₂O production from NO₂⁻ making it a possible indicator for one part of reductive N₂O production. It is also worth noting that anammox related *nirS* genes and transcripts (*nirS* 166, 167) contribute up to 12% of the total copy numbers putting a wrinkle on *nirS* abundance as marker gene for denitrifiers only. The subtraction of the anammox related *nirS* genes from total copy numbers did not change the results from Bray-Curtis Analysis. These data indicate that the extent to which gene or transcript abundance patterns or community composition of marker genes of processes can be used as proxies for process rate measurements is variable, likely due to complex factors, including the relative dominance of different community members, the modular nature of denitrification, differences in the level of metabolic regulation (transcriptional, translational, and enzymatic), and the range of environmental conditions being observed.

4.5 Summary and conclusion

In this study we used a combined approach of ¹⁵N tracer techniques and molecular techniques in order to investigate the factors that control N₂O production within the upper oxycline of the ODZ in the ETSP. Our results suggest that denitrification is a major N₂O source along the oxic - anoxic interface of the upper oxycline. Highest N₂O production rates from NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ were found at or below the oxic-anoxic interface, whereas highest N₂O production from AO was slightly shallower in the oxycline. Overall, *in situ* O₂ threshold below 8 μmol L⁻¹ favored NO₃⁻ nitrate and NO₂⁻ reduction to N₂O and high N₂O yields from AO up to 2.2%. A different pattern was observed for the community response to increasing oxygen, with highest N₂O production from NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ between 1.4 – 6 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ and high N₂O production from NO₃⁻ even at O₂ concentrations up to 22 μmol L⁻¹. This study highlights the diversity of N₂O production regulation and the need to conduct further experiments where single community members can be better constrained. Our experiments provide the first insights into N₂O regulation by particulate organic matter in the ETSP with particles greatly enhancing N₂O production (up to 5fold). Furthermore, the significant positive correlation between *Nitrosopelagicus brevis* (CN25) and N₂O produced from AO could indicate its importance in N₂O production and points out the great value of combining biogeochemical rate measurements with molecular analysis to investigate multifaceted N₂O cycling. This study shows that short term oxygen increase can lead to high N₂O production even from denitrification and extends the existing O₂ thresholds for high reductive N₂O production up to 22 μmol L⁻¹ O₂. Together with high N₂O yields from AO up to O₂ levels of 30 μmol L⁻¹, an expansion of low oxygenated waters around ODZs predicted for the future can significantly increase marine N₂O production.

Regardless of which processes are responsible for N₂O production in the ODZ, high N₂O production at the oxic-anoxic interface of the upper oxycline sustains high N₂O concentration peaks with a potential for intense

N₂O emission to the atmosphere during upwelling events. An average total N₂O production rate of 3.1 nmol N₂O L⁻¹ d⁻¹ in a 50 m thick suboxic layer with 0 – 20 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ leads to an annual N₂O efflux of 0.5 Tg N y⁻¹ in the Peruvian upwelling (2.22 × 10⁵ km², Arévalo-Martínez et al. 2015), which is within the estimates based on surface N₂O concentration measurements from 2012-2013 (Arévalo-Martínez et al. 2015, Bourbonnais et al. 2017). The importance of the Peru upwelling system for global N₂O emissions (5 – 22% of global marine N₂O emissions) is directly linked to the extreme N₂O accumulations in coastal waters. Coastal N₂O hotspots are well known (Bakker et al. 2014) and this study shows that they can be explained by considering denitrification as a major N₂O source. While this study does not help to resolve temporal variability, manipulation experiments give valuable insights into the short-term response of N₂O production to oxygen and ~~With~~ particles. With the further parametrization of POM export as a driver for N₂O production from denitrification, models may be able to better predict N₂O emissions in highly productive coastal upwelling regions and to evaluate how fluxes might change with changing stratification and deoxygenation.

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Data availability: The data presented here were archived in the SFB754 database (www.sfb754.de). The N₂O data are also available from the Marine Methane and Nitrous Oxide (MEMENTO) database (<https://memento.geomar.de/de/n2o>).

Feldfunktion geändert

Feldfunktion geändert

Author contributions: CF, HWB and BW conceptualized the study. CF and MS performed experiment. CF and ELP analyzed samples. RX and EA collected POM. DLAM sampled and measured N₂O concentrations. AJ performed qPCR. SO supported mass spectrometer analysis. XS supported experimental methods and assisted with data analysis. CF analyzed data and led the writing effort, with substantial contributions from all co-authors.

Competing interests: Authors declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgement: The work presented here was made possible by the DFG-funded Joint Collaborative Centre SFB754 Phase III (<http://www.sfb754.de>) and by a fellowship of the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) program 'Postdoctoral Researchers International Mobility Experience (PRIME, ID 57350888) awarded to CF. MS was supported by the China Scholarship Council (No. 201406330054). E.L-P had a FPU-PhD fellowship (014/02917) from the Spanish Ministry of Education and a PhD International Mobility scholarship from the Universidad de Granada. CRL was funded by a EU H2020 Marie Curie Individual Fellowship (NITROX, Grant #704272) and by the Villum Foundation (Grant# 16518). EA, HWB and RX were funded by the DFG-funded Joint Collaborative Centre SFB754 program. We thank the captain and crew of R/V Meteor. Moreover, we thank the Peruvian authorities for the permission to work in their territorial waters.

Feldfunktion geändert

References

- Anderson, J. H. (1964). The metabolism of hydroxylamine to nitrite by *Nitrosomonas*. *Biochemistry Journal*, *91*(1948), 8–17. <https://doi.org/10.1042/bj0910008>
- 760 Arévalo-Martínez, D. L., Kock, A., Löscher, C. R., Schmitz, R. A., Bange, H. W., Arevalo-Martínez, D., ...
Bange, H. W. (2015). Massive nitrous oxide emissions from the tropical South Pacific Ocean. *Nature*
Geoscience, *8*(7), 530–533. <https://doi.org/10.1038/NGEO2469>
- Arévalo-Martínez, Damian L., Kock, A., Löscher, C. R., Schmitz, R. A., Stramma, L., & Bange, H. W. (2016).
765 Influence of mesoscale eddies on the distribution of nitrous oxide in the eastern tropical South Pacific.
Biogeosciences, *13*(4), 1105–1118. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-1105-2016>
- Babbin, A. R., Bianchi, D., Jayakumar, A., & Ward, B. B. (2015). Rapid nitrous oxide cycling in the suboxic
ocean. *Science*, *348*(6239), 1127–1129. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaa8380>
- Babbin, A. R., Keil, R. G., Devol, A. H., & Ward, B. B. (2014). Organic matter stoichiometry, flux, and oxygen
770 control nitrogen loss in the ocean. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, *344*(6182), 406–408.
<https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1248364>
- Bakker, D. C. E., Bange, H. W., Gruber, N., Johannessen, T., Upstill-Goddard, R. C., Borges, A. V., ... Santana-
Casiano, J. M. (2014). Air-Sea Interactions of Natural Long-Lived Greenhouse Gases (CO₂, N₂O, CH₄) in a
Changing Climate. In *Ocean-Atmosphere Interactions of Gases and Particles* (pp. 55–112).
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-25643-1>
- 775 Bange, H. W. (2008). Gaseous nitrogen compounds (NO, N₂O, N₂, NH₃) in the ocean. In *Nitrogen in the marine*
environment (pp. 51–94). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Battaglia, G., & Joos, F. (2018). Marine N₂O Emissions From Nitrification and Denitrification Constrained by
Modern Observations and Projected in Multimillennial Global Warming Simulations. *Global*
Biogeochemical Cycles, *32*(1), 92–121. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GB005671>
- 780 Beman, J. M., Chow, C., King, A. L., Feng, Y., & Fuhrman, J. a. (2011). Global declines in oceanic nitrification
rates as a consequence of ocean acidification. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*
United States of America, *108*(1), 208–213. [https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1011053108/-](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1011053108/-/DCSupplemental)
[/DCSupplemental](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1011053108). www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.1011053108
- Bertagnolli, A. D., & Ulloa, O. (2017). Hydrography shapes community composition and diversity of amoA-
785 containing Thaumarchaeota in the coastal waters off central Chile. *Environmental Microbiology Reports*,
9(6), 717–728. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-2229.12579>
- Billler, S. J., Mosier, A. C., Wells, G. F., & Francis, C. A. (2012). Global Biodiversity of Aquatic Ammonia-
Oxidizing Archaea is Partitioned by Habitat. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *3*, 252.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2012.00252>
- 790 Blum, J. M., Su, Q., Ma, Y., Valverde-Pérez, B., Domingo-Félez, C., Jensen, M. M., & Smets, B. F. (2018). The
pH dependency of N-converting enzymatic processes, pathways and microbes: effect on net N₂O
production. *Environmental Microbiology*, *20*(5), 1623–1640. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.14063>
- Bonaglia, S., Klawonn, I., De Brabandere, L., Deutsch, B., Thamdrup, B., & Brüchert, V. (2016). Denitrification
and DNRA at the Baltic Sea oxic–anoxic interface: Substrate spectrum and kinetics. *Limnology and*
Oceanography, *61*(5), 1900–1915. <https://doi.org/10.1002/lno.10343>
- 795 Borcard, D., Legendre, P., & Drapeau, P. (1992). Partialling out the Spatial Component of Ecological Variation.
Ecology, *73*(3), 1045–1055. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1940179>
- Bourbonnais, A., Altabet, M. A., Charoenpong, C. N., Larkum, J., Hu, H., Bange, H. W., & Stramma, L. (2015).
N-loss isotope effects in the Peru oxygen minimum zone studied using a mesoscale eddy as a natural tracer
800 experiment. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, *29*, 793–811. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GB005001>
- Bourbonnais, A., Letscher, R. T., Bange, H. W., Échevin, V., Larkum, J., Mohn, J., ... Altabet, M. A. (2017).
N₂O production and consumption from stable isotopic and concentration data in the Peruvian coastal
upwelling system. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, *31*(4), 678–698. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GB005567>
- Bouskill, N. J., Eveillard, D., O'Mullan, G., Jackson, G. A., & Ward, B. B. (2011). Seasonal and annual
805 reoccurrence in betaproteobacterial ammonia-oxidizing bacterial population structure. *Environmental*
Microbiology, *13*(4), 872–886. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2010.02362.x>
- Boyd, P. W., Sherry, N. D., Berges, J. A., Bishop, J. K. B., Calvert, S. E., Charette, M. A., ... Wong, C. S.
(1999). Transformations of biogenic particulates from the pelagic to the deep ocean realm. *Deep Sea*
Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography, *46*(11–12), 2761–2792.
810 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645\(99\)00083-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645(99)00083-1)
- Braker, G., Fesefeldt, A., & Witzel, K. P. (1998). Development of PCR primer systems for amplification of
nitrite reductase genes (*nirK* and *nirS*) to detect denitrifying bacteria in environmental samples. *Applied*
and Environmental Microbiology, *64*(10), 3769–3775.
- Breider, F., Yoshikawa, C., Makabe, A., Toyoda, S., Wakita, M., Matsui, Y., ... Yoshida, N. (2019). Response
815 of N₂O production rate to ocean acidification in the western North Pacific. *Nature Climate Change*, *9*(12),
954–958. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-019-0605-7>
- [Bristow, L. A., Callbeck, C. M., Larsen, M., Altabet, M. A., Dekaezemacker, J., Forth, M., ... Canfield, D. E.](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-019-0605-7)

- (2016a). N₂ production rates limited by nitrite availability in the Bay of Bengal oxygen minimum zone. *Nature Geosci. advance on*(December). <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo2847>
- 820 Bristow, Laura A., Dalsgaard, T., Tiano, L., Mills, D. B., Bertagnolli, A. D., Wright, J. J., ... Thamdrup, B. (2016b). Ammonium and nitrite oxidation at nanomolar oxygen concentrations in oxygen minimum zone waters. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 113(38), 201600359.
- Buitenhuis, E. T., Suntharalingam, P., & Le Quéré, C. (2018). Constraints on global oceanic emissions of N₂O from observations and models. *Biogeosciences*, 15(7), 2161–2175. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-15-2161-2018>
- 825 [Callbeck, C. M., Lavik, G., Ferdelman, T. G., Fuchs, B., Gruber-Vodicka, H. R., Hach, P. F., ... Kuypers, M. M. M. \(2018\). Oxygen minimum zone cryptic sulfur cycling sustained by offshore transport of key sulfur oxidizing bacteria. *Nature Communications*, 9\(1\), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-04041-x>](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-04041-x)
- Capone, D. G., & Hutchins, D. A. (2013). Microbial biogeochemistry of coastal upwelling regimes in a changing ocean. *Nature Geoscience*, 6(9), 711–717. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo1916>
- 830 Caranto, J. D., Lancaster, K. M., Ma, C., Jensen, M. M., Smets, B. F., Thamdrup, B., ... Lancaster, K. M. (2017). Nitric oxide is an obligate bacterial nitrification intermediate produced by hydroxylamine oxidoreductase. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 114(31), 8217–8222. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1704504114>
- 835 Carini, P., Dupont, C. L., & Santoro, A. E. (2018). Patterns of thaumarchaeal gene expression in culture and diverse marine environments. *Environmental Microbiology*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.14107>
- Carrasco, C., Karstensen, J., & Farias, L. (2017). On the Nitrous Oxide Accumulation in Intermediate Waters of the Eastern South Pacific Ocean. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 4, 24. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2017.00024>
- 840 Casciotti, L., & Ward, B. (2005). Phylogenetic analysis of nitric oxide reductase gene homologues from aerobic ammonia-oxidizing bacteria. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*, 52(2), 197–205. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.femsec.2004.11.002>
- Casciotti, K. L., Forbes, M., Vedamati, J., Peters, B., Martin, T., & Mordy, C. W. (2018). Nitrous oxide cycling in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific as inferred from isotopic and isotopomeric data. *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, (xxxx), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.DSR2.2018.07.014>
- 845 Chang, B. X., Rich, J. R., Jayakumar, A., Naik, H., Pratihary, A., Keil, R. G., ... Devol, A. H. (2014). The effect of organic carbon on fixed nitrogen loss in the eastern tropical South Pacific and Arabian Sea oxygen deficient zones. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 59(4), 1267–1274. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2014.59.4.1267>
- 850 Charpentier, J., Farias, L., Yoshida, N., Boontanon, N., & Raimbault, P. (2007). Nitrous oxide distribution and its origin in the central and eastern South Pacific Subtropical Gyre. *Biogeosciences*, 4(5), 729–741. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-4-729-2007>
- Chavez, F. P., & Messié, M. (2009). A comparison of Eastern Boundary Upwelling Ecosystems. *Progress in Oceanography*, 83(1–4), 80–96. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2009.07.032>
- 855 Codispoti, L. A. (2010). Interesting Times for Marine N₂O. *Science*, 332, 1339–1340.
- Cohen, Y., & Gordon, L. (1978). Nitrous oxide in the oxygen minimum of eastern tropical North Pacific: evidence for its consumption during denitrification and possible mechanisms for its production. *Deep Sea Research*, 25(1977), 509–524.
- 860 Cornejo DOttone, M., Bravo, L., Ramos, M., Pizarro, O., Karstensen, J., Gallegos, M., ... Karp-Boss, L. (2016). Biogeochemical characteristics of a long-lived anticyclonic eddy in the eastern South Pacific Ocean. *Biogeosciences*, 13(10), 2971–2979. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-2971-2016>
- Crutzen, P. J. (1970). The influence of nitrogen oxides on the atmospheric ozone content. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 96(408), 320–325. <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.49709640815>
- 865 Dalsgaard, T., Stewart, F. J., Thamdrup, B., De Brabandere, L., Revsbech, N. P., Ulloa, O., ... Delong, E. F. (2014). Oxygen at nanomolar levels reversibly suppresses process rates and gene expression in anammox and denitrification in the oxygen minimum zone off northern Chile. *MBio*, 5(6), e01966. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01966-14>
- Dalsgaard, T., Thamdrup, B., Farias, L., Peter Revsbech, N., & Revsbech, N. P. (2012). Anammox and denitrification in the oxygen minimum zone of the eastern South Pacific. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 57(5), 1331–1346. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2012.57.5.1331>
- 870 De Brabandere, L., Canfield, D. E., Dalsgaard, T., Friederich, G. E., Revsbech, N. P., Ulloa, O., & Thamdrup, B. (2014). Vertical partitioning of nitrogen-loss processes across the oxic-anoxic interface of an oceanic oxygen minimum zone. *Environmental Microbiology*, 16(10), 3041–3054. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.12255>
- 875 Farias, L., Castro-González, M., Cornejo, M., Charpentier, J. J., Faúndez, J., Boontanon, N., ... Yoshida, N. (2009). Denitrification and nitrous oxide cycling within the upper oxycline of the eastern tropical South Pacific oxygen minimum zone. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 54(1), 132–144. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2009.54.1.0132>
- Frame, C. H., & Casciotti, K. L. (2010). Biogeochemical controls and isotopic signatures of nitrous oxide

Formatiert: Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

- 880 production by a marine ammonia-oxidizing bacterium. *Biogeosciences*, 7, 3019–3059.
<https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-7-2695-2010>
- Frame, C. H., Lau, E., Nolan, E. J., Goepfert, T. J., & Lehmann, M. F. (2017). Acidification Enhances Hybrid N₂O Production Associated with Aquatic Ammonia-Oxidizing Microorganisms. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 7(January), 2104. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.02104>
- 885 Francis, C. A., Roberts, K. J., Beman, J. M., Santoro, A. E., & Oakley, B. B. (2005). Ubiquity and diversity of ammonia-oxidizing archaea in water columns and sediments of the ocean. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 102(41), 14683–14688. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0506625102>
- [Ganesh, S., Parris, D. J., Delong, E. F., & Stewart, F. J. \(2014\). Metagenomic analysis of size-fractionated picoplankton in a marine oxygen minimum zone. *ISME Journal*, 8\(1\), 187–211. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2013.144>](https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2013.144)
- 890 Goreau, T. J., Kaplan, W. A., Wofsy, S. C., McElroy, M. B., Valois, F. W., & Watson, S. W. (1980). Production of NO₂⁻ and N₂O by Nitrifying Bacteria at Reduced Concentrations of Oxygen. *Appl. Envir. Microbiol.*, 40(3), 526–532.
- Goréguès, C., Michotey, V., & Bonin, P. (2004). Isolation of hydrocarbonoclastic denitrifying bacteria from berre microbial mats. *Ophelia*, 58(3), 263–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00785236.2004.10410234>
- 895 Granger, J., & Ward, B. B. (2003). Accumulation of nitrogen oxides in copper-limited cultures of denitrifying bacteria. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 48(1), 313–318. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2003.48.1.0313>
- Hamdan, L. J., Coffin, R. B., Sikaroodi, M., Greinert, J., Treude, T., & Gillevet, P. M. (2012). Ocean currents shape the microbiome of Arctic marine sediments. *The ISME Journal*, 7(4), 685–696. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2012.143>
- 900 Hammer, Ø., HARPER, D. A. T., & Ryan, P. D. (2001). PAST: Paleontological statistics software package. *Palaeontologia Electronica*, 4(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcp.2008.05.025>
- Haskell, W. Z., Kadko, D., Hammond, D. E., Knapp, A. N., Prokopenko, M. G., Berelson, W. M., & Capone, D. G. (2015). Upwelling velocity and eddy diffusivity from 7Be measurements used to compare vertical nutrient flux to export POC flux in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific. *Marine Chemistry*, 168, 140–150. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MARCHEM.2014.10.004>
- 905 Hink, L., Lycus, P., Gubry-Rangin, C., Frostegård, Å., Nicol, G. W., Prosser, J. I., & Bakken, L. R. (2017)^a. Kinetics of NH₃-oxidation, NO₃⁻ turnover, N₂O-production and electron flow during oxygen depletion in model bacterial and archaeal ammonia oxidisers. *Environmental Microbiology*, 19(12), 4882–4896. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.13914>
- 910 Hink, L., Nicol, G. W., & Prosser, J. I. (2017)^b. Archaea produce lower yields of N₂O than bacteria during aerobic ammonia oxidation in soil. *Environmental Microbiology*, 19(12), 4829–4837. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.13282>
- Holmes, R. M., Aminot, A., Kérouel, R., Hooker, B. A., & Peterson, B. J. (1999). A simple and precise method for measuring ammonium in marine and freshwater ecosystems. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, 56, 1802–1808.
- 915 [Hu, H., Bourbonnais, A., Larkum, J., Bange, H. W., & Altabet, M. A. \(2016\). Nitrogen cycling in shallow low-oxygen coastal waters off Peru from nitrite and nitrate nitrogen and oxygen isotopes. *Biogeosciences*, 13\(5\), 1453–1468. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-1453-2016>](https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-1453-2016)
- 920 Hu, Z., Wessels, H. J. C. T., Alen, T., Jetten, M. S. M., & Kartal, B. (2019). Nitric oxide-dependent anaerobic ammonium oxidation. *Nature Communications*, 10(1244), 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-09268-w>
- Hydes, D., Aoyama, M., Aminot, A., Bakker, K., Becker, S., Coverly, S., ... Zhang, J. Z. (2010). Determination of dissolved nutrients (N, P, Si) in seawater with high precision and inter-comparability using gas-segmented continuous flow analysers. *The GO-SHIP Repeat Hydrography Manual IOCCP Report*, 134(14), 1–87.
- IPCC. (2013). *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge UK and New York, USA: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.010>
- 930 Jayakumar, A., Peng, X., & Ward, B. (2013). Community composition of bacteria involved in fixed nitrogen loss in the water column of two major oxygen minimum zones in the ocean. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology*, 70(3), 245–259. <https://doi.org/10.3354/ame01654>
- Jayakumar, D. A., Naqvi, S. W. A., & Ward, B. B. (2009). Distribution and relative quantification of key genes involved in fixed nitrogen loss from the Arabian Sea oxygen minimum zone. *Indian Ocean Biogeochemical Processes and Ecological Variability*, 187–203.
- 935 Jebaraj, C. S., Forster, D., Kauff, F., & Stoeck, T. (2012). Molecular Diversity of Fungi from Marine Oxygen-Deficient Environments (ODEs) (pp. 189–208). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-23342-5_10
- 940 Jetten, M. S. M., Ward, B. B., & Jensen, M. M. (2008). The microbial nitrogen cycle. *Environmental Microbiology*, 10(11), 2903–2909. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2008.01786.x>
- Ji, Q., Babbitt, A. R., Jayakumar, A., & Ward, B. B. (2015a). Nitrous oxide production by nitrification and

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

Formatiert: Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Deutsch (Schweiz)

- denitrification in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific oxygen minimum zone. *Geophysical Research Letters*.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/2015GL066853>
- 945 Ji, Q., Babbín, A. R., Peng, X., Bowen, J. L., Ward, B. B., & Ji, Q. (2015b). Nitrogen substrate-dependent
 nitrous oxide cycling in salt marsh sediments. *Journal of Marine Research*, 7373, 71–92.
- Ji, Q., Buitenhuis, E., Suntharalingam, P., Sarmiento, J. L., & Ward, B. B. (2018). Global nitrous oxide
 production determined by oxygen sensitivity of nitrification and denitrification.
<https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GB005887>
- 950 Ji, Q., Frey, C., Sun, X., Jackson, M., Lee, Y., Jayakumar, A., ... Ward, B. B. (2018). Nitrogen and oxygen
 availabilities control water column nitrous oxide production during seasonal anoxia in the Chesapeake
 Bay, (March), 6127–6138.
- Johnston, H. (1971). Reduction of Stratospheric Ozone by Nitrogen.Oxide Catalysts from Supersonic Transport
 Exhaust. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, 173, 517–522.
- 955 Jr., D. J. M., Anderson, L. A., Bates, N. R., Bibby, T., Buesseler, K. O., Carlson, C. A., ... Steinberg, D. K.
 (2007). Eddy / Wind Interactions Stimulate Extraordinary Mid-Ocean Plankton Blooms. *Science*, 316,
 1021–1026. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1136256>
- Kalvelage, T., Jensen, M. M., Contreras, S., Revsbech, N. P., Lam, P., Günter, M., ... Kuypers, M. M. M. M.
 (2011). Oxygen sensitivity of anammox and coupled N-cycle processes in oxygen minimum zones. *PLoS*
ONE, 6(12), e29299. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0029299>
- 960 [Kalvelage, T., Lavik, G., Jensen, M. M., Revsbech, N. P., Loescher, C., Schunck, H., ... Kuypers, M. M. M. \(2015\). Aerobic Microbial Respiration In Oceanic Oxygen Minimum Zones. *Plos One*, 10\(7\).
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0133526>](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0133526)
- Kartal, B., Kuypers, M. M. M., Lavik, G., Schalk, J., Op den Camp, H. J. M., Jetten, M. S. M., & Strous, M.
 (2007). Anammox bacteria disguised as denitrifiers: nitrate reduction to dinitrogen gas via nitrite and
 ammonium. *Environmental Microbiology*, 9(3), 635–642. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2006.01183.x>
- 965 [Klawonn, I., Bonaglia, S., Whitehouse, M. J., Littmann, S., Tienken, D., Kuypers, M. M. M., ... Ploug, H. \(2019\). Untangling hidden nutrient dynamics: rapid ammonium cycling and single-cell ammonium
 assimilation in marine plankton communities. *The ISME Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-019-0386-4>](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-019-0386-4)
- 970 Kock, A., Arévalo-Martínez, D. L., Löscher, C. R., & Bange, H. W. (2016). Extreme N₂O accumulation in the
 coastal oxygen minimum zone off Peru. *Biogeosciences*, 13(3), 827–840. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-827-2016>
- 975 Kondo, Y., & Moffett, J. W. (2015). Iron redox cycling and subsurface offshore transport in the eastern tropical
 South Pacific oxygen minimum zone. *Marine Chemistry*, 168, 95–103.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MARCHEM.2014.11.007>
- Körner, H., & Zumft, W. G. (1989). Expression of denitrification enzymes in response to the dissolved oxygen
 level and respiratory substrate in continuous culture of *Pseudomonas stutzeri*. *Applied and Environmental*
Microbiology, 55(7), 1670–1676.
- 980 Korth, F., Kock, A., Arévalo-Martínez, D. L., & Bange, H. W. (2019). Hydroxylamine as a Potential Indicator of
 Nitrification in the Open Ocean. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 46(4), 2158–2166.
<https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GL080466>
- Kozłowski, J. A., Stieglmeier, M., Schleper, C., Klotz, M. G., & Stein, L. Y. (2016). Pathways and key
 intermediates required for obligate aerobic ammonia-dependent chemolithotrophy in bacteria and
 Thaumarchaeota. *The ISME Journal*, 10(8), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2016.2>
- 985 Lam, Lavik, G., Jensen, M. M., Vossenberg, J. van de, Schmid, M., Woebken, D., ... Kuypers, M. M. M. (2009).
 Revising the nitrogen cycle in the Peruvian oxygen minimum zone. *Proceedings of the National Academy*
of Sciences, 106(12), 4752–4757.
- 990 Lancaster, K. M., Caranto, J. D., Majer, S. H., & Smith, M. A. (2018). Alternative Bioenergy : Updates to and
 Challenges in Nitrification Metalloenzymology. *Joule*, 2(3), 421–441.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joule.2018.01.018>
- Landolfi, A., Sömes, C. J., Koeve, W., Zamora, L. M., & Oschlies, A. (2017). Oceanic nitrogen cycling and N₂O
 flux perturbations in the Anthropocene. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 31(8), 1236–1255.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GB005633>
- 995 Larsen, M., Lehner, P., Borisov, S. M., Klimant, I., Fischer, J. P., Stewart, F. J., ... Glud, R. N. (2016). In situ
 quantification of ultra-low O₂ concentrations in oxygen minimum zones: Application of novel optodes.
Limnology and Oceanography: Methods, 14(12), 784–800. <https://doi.org/10.1002/lom3.10126>
- Legendre, P., & Legendre, L. (2012). *Numerical ecology*. New York, NY, USA: Elsevier.
- 1000 Liu, Z., Stewart, G., Kirk Cochran, J., Lee, C., Armstrong, R. A., Hirschberg, D. J., ... Miquel, J.-C. (2005).
 Why do POC concentrations measured using Niskin bottle collections sometimes differ from those using
 in-situ pumps? *Deep Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers*, 52(7), 1324–1344.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/J.DSR.2005.02.005>
- Löscher, C. R., Kock, A., Könneke, M., LaRoche, J., Bange, H. W., & Schmitz, R. A. (2012). Production of

Formatiert: Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

- oceanic nitrous oxide by ammonia-oxidizing archaea. *Biogeosciences*, 9(7), 2419–2429. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-9-2419-2012>
- 1005 Löscher, Carolin R., Bange, H. W., Schmitz, R. A., Callbeck, C. M., Engel, A., Hauss, H., ... Wagner, H. (2016). Water column biogeochemistry of oxygen minimum zones in the eastern tropical North Atlantic and eastern tropical South Pacific oceans. *Biogeosciences*, 13(12), 3585–3606. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-3585-2016>
- 1010 Lutterbeck, H. E., Arévalo-Martínez, D. L., Löscher, C. R., & Bange, H. W. (2018). Nitric oxide (NO) in the oxygen minimum zone off Peru. *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, (xxxx), 0–1. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2017.12.023>
- Martin, J. H., Knauer, G. A., Karl, D. M., & Broenkow, W. W. (1987). VERTEX: carbon cycling in the northeast Pacific. *Deep Sea Research Part A. Oceanographic Research Papers*, 34(2), 267–285. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0198-0149\(87\)90086-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0198-0149(87)90086-0)
- 1015 Martínez-Rey, J., Bopp, L., Gehlen, M., Tagliabue, A., & Gruber, N. (2015). Projections of oceanic N₂O emissions in the 21st century using the IPSL Earth system model. *Biogeosciences*, 12(13), 4133–4148. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-12-4133-2015>
- 1020 McIlvin, M. R., & Altabet, M. A. (2005). Chemical Conversion of Nitrate and Nitrite to Nitrous Oxide for Nitrogen and Oxygen Isotopic Analysis in Freshwater and Seawater. *Analytical Chemistry*, 77(17), 5589–5595.
- McKenney, D. J., Drury, C. F., Findlay, W. I., Mutus, B., McDonnell, T., & Gajda, C. (1994). Kinetics of denitrification by *Pseudomonas fluorescens*: Oxygen effects. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 26(7), 901–908.
- 1025 Messié, M., & Chavez, F. P. (2015). Seasonal regulation of primary production in eastern boundary upwelling systems. *Progress in Oceanography*, 134, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2014.10.011>
- Mincer, T. J., Church, M. J., Taylor, L. T., Preston, C., Karl, D. M., & DeLong, E. F. (2007). Quantitative distribution of presumptive archaeal and bacterial nitrifiers in Monterey Bay and the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre. *Environmental Microbiology*, 9(5), 1162–1175. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2007.01239.x>
- 1030 [Murdock, S. A., & Juniper, S. K. \(2017\). Capturing Compositional Variation in Denitrifying Communities: a Multiple-Primer Approach That Includes Epsilonproteobacteria. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 83\(6\), 1–16.](#)
- Newell, S. E., Babbín, A. R., Jayakumar, A., & Ward, B. B. (2011). Ammonia oxidation rates and nitrification in the Arabian Sea. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 25(4), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010gb003940>
- 1035 Nicholls, J. C., Davies, C. A., & Trimmer, M. (2007). High-resolution profiles and nitrogen isotope tracing reveal a dominant source of nitrous oxide and multiple pathways of nitrogen gas formation in the central Arabian Sea. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 52(1), 156–168. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2007.52.1.0156>
- Oksanen, J., Blanchet, F. G., Friendly, M., Kindt, R., Legendre, P., Mcglinn, D., ... Maintainer, H. W. (2019). Package “vegan” Title Community Ecology Package. *Community Ecology Package*, 2(9), 1–297.
- 1040 Peng, X., Jayakumar, A., & Ward, B. B. (2013). Community composition of ammonia-oxidizing archaea from surface and anoxic depths of oceanic oxygen minimum zones. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 4(JUL), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2013.00177>
- Pietri, A., Testor, P., Echevin, V., Chaigneau, A., Mortier, L., Eldin, G., ... Grados, C. (2013). Finescale Vertical Structure of the Upwelling System off Southern Peru as Observed from Glider Data. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 43(3), 631–646. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JPO-D-12-035.1>
- 1045 Qin, W., Meinhardt, K. A., Moffett, J. W., Devol, A. H., Armbrust, E. V., Ingalls, A. E., & Stahl, D. A. (2017). Influence of Oxygen Availability on the Activities of Ammonia-oxidizing Archaea. *Environmental Microbiology Reports*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-2229.12525>
- 1050 Ravishankara, A. R., Daniel, J. S., & Portmann, R. W. (2009). Nitrous oxide (N₂O): the dominant ozone-depleting substance emitted in the 21st century. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, 326(5949), 123–125. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1176985>
- Richards, T. A., Jones, M. D. M., Leonard, G., & Bass, D. (2012). Marine Fungi: Their Ecology and Molecular Diversity. *Annual Review of Marine Science*, 4(1), 495–522. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-120710-100802>
- 1055 Ryabenko, E., Kock, a., Bange, H. W., Altabet, M. a., & Wallace, D. W. R. (2011). Contrasting biogeochemistry of nitrogen in the Atlantic and Pacific oxygen minimum zones. *Biogeosciences Discussions*, 8(4), 8001–8039. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bgd-8-8001-2011>
- Santoro, A. E., Buchwald, C., McIlvin, M. R., & Casciotti, K. L. (2011). Isotopic Signature of N₂O Produced by Marine Ammonia-Oxidizing Archaea. *Science*, 333, 1282–1285. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1208239>
- 1060 Santoro, A. E., & Casciotti, K. L. (2011). Enrichment and characterization of ammonia-oxidizing archaea from the open ocean: phylogeny, physiology and stable isotope fractionation. *The ISME Journal*, 5(11), 1796–1808. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2011.58>
- Santoro, A. E., Casciotti, K. L., & Francis, C. A. (2010). Activity, abundance and diversity of nitrifying archaea

Formatiert: Englisch (USA)

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Calibri

- 1065 and bacteria in the central California Current. *Environmental Microbiology*, 12(7), 1989–2006.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2010.02205.x>
- Santoro, A. E., Dupont, C. L., Richter, R. A., Craig, M. T., Carini, P., McIlvin, M. R., ... Saito, M. A. (2015). Genomic and proteomic characterization of “Candidatus Nitrosopelagicus brevis”: An ammonia-oxidizing archaeon from the open ocean. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(4), 1173–1178.
<https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1416223112>
- 1070 Schmidtko, S., Stramma, L., & Visbeck, M. (2017). Decline in global oceanic oxygen content during the past five decades. *Nature*, 542(7641), 335–339. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature21399>
- Schunck, H., Lavik, G., Desai, D. K., Großkopf, T., Kalvelage, T., Löscher, C. R., ... Laroche, J. (2013). Giant hydrogen sulfide plume in the oxygen minimum zone off Peru supports chemolithoautotrophy. *PLoS One*, 8(8), e68661. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0068661>
- 1075 Segata, N., Izard, J., Waldron, L., Gevers, D., Miropolsky, L., Garrett, W. S., & Huttenhower, C. (2011). Metagenomic biomarker discovery and explanation. *Genome Biology*, 12(6), R60.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/gb-2011-12-6-r60>
- Shoun, H., Fushinobu, S., Jiang, L., Kim, S. W., & Wakagi, T. (2012). Fungal denitrification and nitric oxide reductase cytochrome P450nor. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 367(1593), 1186–1194. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2011.0335>
- 1080 Sigman, D. M., Casciotti, K. L., Andreani, M., Barford, C., Galanter, M., & Böhlke, J. K. (2001). A Bacterial Method for the Nitrogen Isotopic Analysis of Nitrate in Seawater and Freshwater. *Analytical Chemistry*, 73, 4145–4153.
- 1085 Stein, L. Y. (2019). Insights into the physiology of ammonia-oxidizing microorganisms. *Current Opinion in Chemical Biology*, 49, 9–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CBPA.2018.09.003>
- Stewart, F. J., Ulloa, O., & Delong, E. F. (2011). Microbial metatranscriptomics in a permanent marine oxygen minimum zone. *Environmental Microbiology*, 14(1), 23–40. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2010.02400.x>
- 1090 Stewart, F. J., Dalsgaard, T., Young, C. R., Thamdrup, B., Revsbech, N. P., Ulloa, O., ... Delong, E. F. (2012). Experimental incubations elicit profound changes in community transcription in OMZ bacterioplankton. *PLoS One*, 7(5), e37118. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0037118>
- Stieglmeier, M., Mooshammer, M., Kitzler, B., Wanek, W., Zechmeister-Boltenstern, S., Richter, A., & Schleper, C. (2014). Aerobic nitrous oxide production through N-nitrosating hybrid formation in ammonia-oxidizing archaea. *The ISME Journal*, 8(5), 1135–1146. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2013.220>
- 1095 Stramma, L., Bange, H. W., Czeschel, R., Lorenzo, A., & Frank, M. (2013). On the role of mesoscale eddies for the biological productivity and biogeochemistry in the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean off Peru. *Biogeosciences*, 10(11), 7293–7306. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-10-7293-2013>
- Stramma, Lothar, Johnson, G. C., Sprintall, J., & Mohrholz, V. (2008). Expanding Oxygen-Minimum Zones in the Tropical Oceans. *Science*, 320, 655–659.
- 1100 Sun, X., Ji, Q., Jayakumar, A., & Ward, B. B. (2017). Dependence of nitrite oxidation on nitrite and oxygen in low-oxygen seawater. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 44(15), 7883–7891.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL074355>
- Swan, B. K., Martinez-Garcia, M., Preston, C. M., Sczyrba, A., Woyke, T., Lamy, D., ... Stepanauskas, R. (2011). Potential for chemolithoautotrophy among ubiquitous bacteria lineages in the dark ocean. *Science*, 333(6047), 1296–1300. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1203690>
- 1105 Thamdrup, B., & Dalsgaard, T. (2002). Production of N₂ through Anaerobic Ammonium Oxidation Coupled to Nitrate Reduction in Marine Sediments. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 68(3), 1312–1318.
<https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.68.3.1312-1318.2002>
- 1110 Thomsen, J. K., Geest, T., & Cox, R. P. (1994). Mass Spectrometric Studies of the Effect of pH on the Accumulation of Intermediates in Denitrification by *Paracoccus denitrificans*. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 60(2), 536–541.
- Tiano, L., Garcia-Robledo, E., Dalsgaard, T., Devol, A. H., Ward, B. B., Ulloa, O., ... Peter Revsbech, N. (2014). Oxygen distribution and aerobic respiration in the north and south eastern tropical Pacific oxygen minimum zones. *Deep-Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers*, 94, 173–183.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2014.10.001>
- Torres-Beltrán, M., Mueller, A., Scofield, M., Pachiadaki, M. G., Taylor, C., Tyshchenko, K., ... Hallam, S. J. (2019). Sampling and processing methods impact microbial community structure and potential activity in a seasonally anoxic fjord: Saanich inlet, British Columbia. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 6(MAR), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00132>
- 1120 Trimmer, M., Chronopoulou, P.-M., Maanoja, S. T., Upstill-Goddard, R. C., Kitidis, V., & Purdy, K. J. (2016). Nitrous oxide as a function of oxygen and archaeal gene abundance in the North Pacific. *Nature Communications*, 7, 13451. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms13451>
- 1125 Vajrala, N., Martens-Habbena, W., Sayavedra-Soto, L. A., Schauer, A., Bottomley, P. J., Stahl, D. A., & Arp, D. J. (2013). Hydroxylamine as an intermediate in ammonia oxidation by globally abundant marine archaea. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 110(3), 1006–1011.

Formatiert: Deutsch (Schweiz)

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

Formatiert: Deutsch (Schweiz)

- <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1214272110>
- 1130 Van Der Star, W. R. L., Van De Graaf, M. J., Kartal, B., Picioreanu, C., Jetten, M. S. M., & Van Loosdrecht, M. C. M. (2008). Response of anaerobic ammonium-oxidizing bacteria to hydroxylamine. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 74(14), 4417–4426. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00042-08>
- Wankel, S. D., Ziebis, W., Buchwald, C., Charoenpong, C., De Beer, Di., Dentinger, J., ... Zengler, K. (2017). Evidence for fungal and chemodenitrification based N₂O flux from nitrogen impacted coastal sediments. *Nature Communications*, 8, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms15595>
- 1135 Ward, B. B., Tuit, C. B., Jayakumar, A., Rich, J. J., Moffett, J., & Naqvi, S. W. a. (2008). Organic carbon, and not copper, controls denitrification in oxygen minimum zones of the ocean. *Deep-Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers*, 55(12), 1672–1683. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2008.07.005>
- Weier, K. L., Doran, J. W., Power, J. F., & Walters, D. T. (1993). Denitrification and the Dinitrogen/Nitrous Oxide Ratio as Affected by Soil Water, Available Carbon, and Nitrate. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 57(1), 66. <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1993.03615995005700010013x>
- 1140 Weigand, M. A., Foriel, J., Barnett, B., Oleynik, S., & Sigman, D. M. (2016). Updates to instrumentation and protocols for isotopic analysis of nitrate by the denitrifier method. *Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry*, 30(12), 1365–1383. <https://doi.org/10.1002/rcm.7570>
- Wright, J. J., Konwar, K. M., & Hallam, S. J. (2012). Microbial ecology of expanding oxygen minimum zones. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 10(6), 381–394. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro2778>
- 1145 Wuchter, C., Abbas, B., Coolen, M. J. L., Herfort, L., van Bleijswijk, J., Timmers, P., ... Sinninghe Damsté, J. S. (2006). Archaeal nitrification in the ocean. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 103(33), 12317–12322. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0600756103>
- Yang, S., Gruber, N., Long, M. C., & Vogt, M. (2017). High ENSO driven variability of denitrification and suboxia in the Eastern Pacific Ocean. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles* 31(10) 1470-1487. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GB005596>
- 1150 Yoshida, N. (1988). ¹⁵N-depleted N₂O as a product of nitrification. *Nature*, 335(6190), 528–529. <https://doi.org/10.1038/335528a0>
- Zhou, Z., Takaya, N., Sakairi, M. A. C., & Shoun, H. (2001). Oxygen requirement for denitrification by the fungus *Fusarium oxysporum*. *Archives of Microbiology*, 175(1), 19–25. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s002030000231>
- 1155 Zhu-Barker, X., Cavazos, A. R., Ostrom, N. E., Horwath, W. R., & Glass, J. B. (2015). The importance of abiotic reactions for nitrous oxide production. *Biogeochemistry*, 126(3), 251–267. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533-015-0166-4>
- 1160 Zumft, W. G. (1997). Cell biology and molecular basis of denitrification. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews*, 61(4), 533–616.

Formatiert: Englisch (Großbritannien)

Tables

Table 1: Overview of characteristics of samples. bd - below detection limit of Winkler method and seabird sensor ($2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), x - analysis includes qPCR and microarray with qPCR products, x* - only qPCR, no microarray

ID	Stat #	Coordinates/position	bottom depth (m)	sampling depth (m)	water column feature	Tem. ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Sal.	O_2 (μM) seabird	NO_3^- (μM)	NO_2^- (μM)	NH_4^+ (μM)	^{15}N incubation	Tracer added	nirS	amoA
S2	882	10.95W 78.56N	1075	352	anoxic core	11.4	34.82	bd	32.51	0.68	0.01	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S1	882		1075	299	below interface	12.1	34.86	bd	30.21	0.52	0.00	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S3	882		1075	259	oxic-anoxic interface	13.0	34.92	bd	29.39	1.63	0.01	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S4	882		1075	219	above interface	13.7	34.96	6.06	31.65	0.13	0.01	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S5	882		1075	74	oxycline	15.4	35.05	15.04	30.00	0.02	0.00	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S6	883	10.78W 78.27N	305	305	anoxic core	12.2	34.87	bd	27.27	1.72	0	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S7	883		305	268	below interface	12.8	34.91	bd	26.61	2.05	0	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S8	883		305	250	oxic-anoxic interface	13.1	34.92	bd	28.06	1.66	0	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S9	883		305	189	above interface	13.8	34.97	bd	30.47	0.00	0	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S10	883		305	28	oxycline	16.4	35.09	30.06	26.81	0.04	0	depth profile	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S19	892	12.41W 77.81N /	1099	144	below oxic-anoxic interface	13.51	34.91	bd	19.01	3.69	0.13	O_2 manipulation	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S11	894	12.32W 77.62N /	502	120	oxic-anoxic interface	14.21	34.98	bd	28.92	0.01	0.00	O_2 manipulation	NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S12	904	13.99W 76.66N	560	179	below interface	13.46	34.94	bd	25.54	1.25	0.00	POM addition (from 898)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x*
S13	904		560	124	oxic-anoxic interface	14.40	35.00	bd	27.57	0.09	0.00	POM addition (from 898)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x*
S14	906	14.28W 77.17N	4761	149	below interface	13.70	34.96	bd	25.80	0.90	0.04	POM addition (from 904)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x*
S20	906		4761	92	oxic-anoxic interface	14.50	35.00	bd	20.03	3.87	0.33	POM addition (from 904)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x*
S15	907	15.43W 75.43N	800	130	below interface	14.21	34.98	bd	14.63	5.23	0.03	POM addition (from 904)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S16	907		800	9.9	surface	17.82	35.13	208.3	16.09	0.99	0.16	POM addition (from 904)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S17	912	15.86W 76.11N	3680	90	below interface	15.09	35.03	bd	19.38	2.85	0.03	POM addition (from 906)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S18	912		3680	5	surface	18.05	35.18	206.0	8.31	0.47	0.12	POM addition (from 906)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x
S21	917	14.78W 78.04N /	4128	140	Interface	13.1	34.86	bd	17.3	3.9	0.0	POM addition (from 906)	NO_2^- , NO_3^-	x	x*

Table 2: Quality (N/C), quantity (Addition $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and origin (station and depth) of added, autoclaved and non-autoclaved particulate organic matter (POM) and increase in NH_4^+ concentration after autoclaving.

POM	Feature	Station	Depth (m)	Addition ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	N/C of autoclaved POM	N/C of non-autoclaved POM	NH_4^+ (μM) after autoclaving
POM 1	mixed layer depth	898	60	0.55	0.10	0.15	0.7
		904	20	0.17	0.09	0.17	1.56
		906	50	0.48	0.07	0.11	0.57
POM 2	oxycline	898	100	1.37	0.06	0.13	0.85
		904	50	0.38	0.09	0.12	0.46
		906	100	0.44	0.08	0.10	0.55
POM 3	anoxic zone	898	300	0.43	0.09	0.10	0.15
		904	150	0.19	0.10	0.10	0.20

1170

Figure Legends:

1175 **Figure 1:** Study area [with the distribution of near-surface chlorophyll concentrations \(monthly averaged for June 2017\) from MODIS satellite obtained from the NASA Ocean Color Web site at 4-km resolution. Study site](#) showing transect and station numbers, in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific during cruise M138.

Figure 2: Depth profiles of O₂, nutrients and N₂O in the upper 400 m for all stations. Panel numbers 1 - 4) refer to the transect numbers.

1180 **Figure 3:** (I) Profiles of AO, (a, e, I), N₂O production rates from NH₄⁺ (b, f, j), archaeal *amoA* gene (c, g, k) and transcript copy numbers mL⁻¹ (d, h, l). (II) Profiles of [NO₃⁻ nitrate](#) reduction rates (a, f, k, o), N₂O production rates from NO₃⁻ (b, g, l, p) and NO₂⁻ (c, h, m, q) and *nirS* gene (d, I, n, r) and transcript copy numbers mL⁻¹ (e, j, m, s). In (I) and (II), the panel numbers 1 - 4 correspond to transect numbers. Negative values on the y-axis represent shallower, oxic depths and the positive values represent deeper, anoxic depth (0 = interface). Shaded area indicates the anoxic zone. Note different scale for N₂O production rates.

1185 **Figure 4:** O₂ dependence of N₂O production rates from NH₄⁺ (a, d), NO₂⁻ (b, e) and NO₃⁻ (c, f). Upper panel (a-c) is N₂O production along natural O₂ gradient from all stations. [Figure 4 \(b, c\) are additionally zoomed up in to oxygen concentrations below 5 μmol L⁻¹.](#) Lower panel (d-f) is N₂O production in manipulated O₂ experiments with water from oxic - anoxic interface from slope station 892 (S11, 0 μmol L⁻¹ O₂, 145m) and shelf station 894 (S19, 0 μmol L⁻¹, 120 m). Note different scale for N₂O production rates from NH₄⁺. Vertical error bars represent ± Standard error (n = 5 per time course). Horizontal error bars represent ± Standard error of measured O₂ over the time of incubations (n = 6).

1190 **Figure 5:** O₂ dependency of hybrid N₂O formation from NH₄⁺ (a, c) and NO₂⁻ (b, d) along the natural O₂ gradient (a, b) and for the O₂ manipulations (c, d) from sample S11 (0 μmol L⁻¹ O₂, 145m) and S19 (894, 0 μmol L⁻¹, 120 m)

1195 **Figure 6:** Yields (%) of N₂O production during NH₄⁺ oxidation (a, c) and during [NO₃⁻ nitrate](#) reduction (b, d) along the natural O₂ gradient (a, b) and for the O₂ manipulations (c, d) from sample S11 (892, 0 μmol L⁻¹ O₂, 145m) and S19 (894, 0 μmol L⁻¹, 120 m). Error bars present ± SD calculated as error propagation.

1200 **Figure 7:** Bar plots [of N₂O production after](#) additions of autoclaved suspended and sinking particles >50 μm (See Table 2). POM1 = mixed layer depth, POM2 = oxycline, POM3 = ODZ. Error Bars represent ± SE of linear regression. * indicates significant difference to control rate (p < 0.05)

Figure 8: Stacked bar plot of community composition of AOA *amoA* archetypes (a, b) and *nirS* archetypes (c, d). Only archetypes over 1% contribution are shown. (a, c) total community composition (DNA). (b, d) active community composition (cDNA).

1205 **Figure 9:** Scheme illustrating the possible reactions for hybrid N₂O formation. The ellipse represents an AOA cell.

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

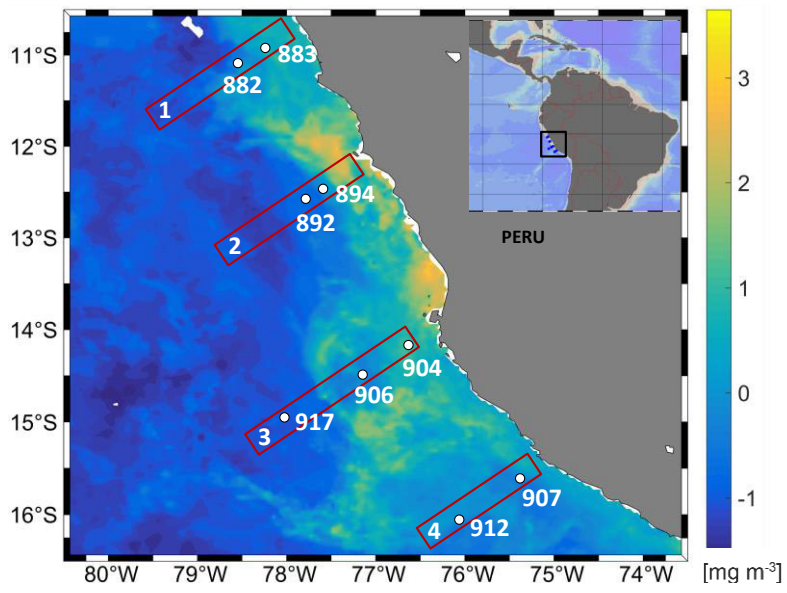
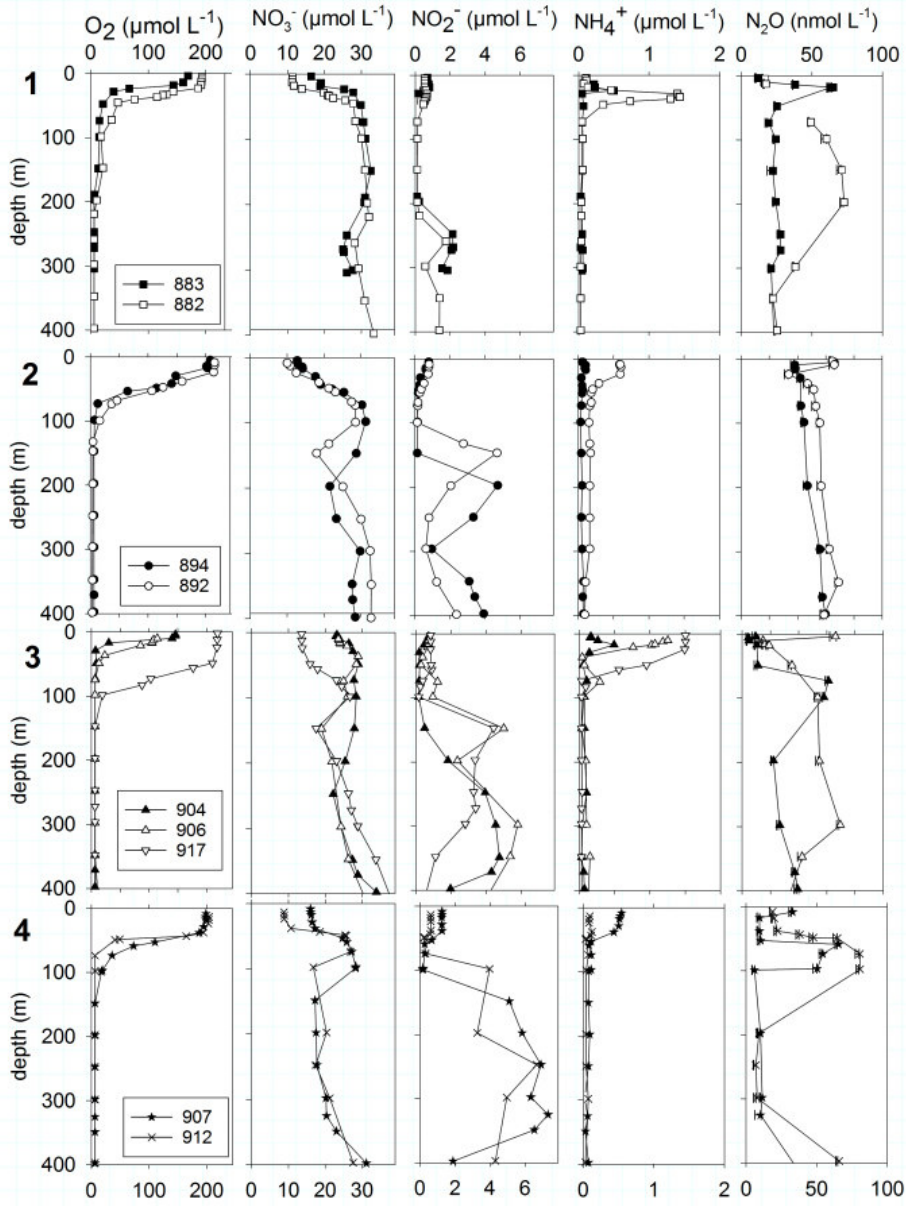


Figure 1



1210

Figure 2

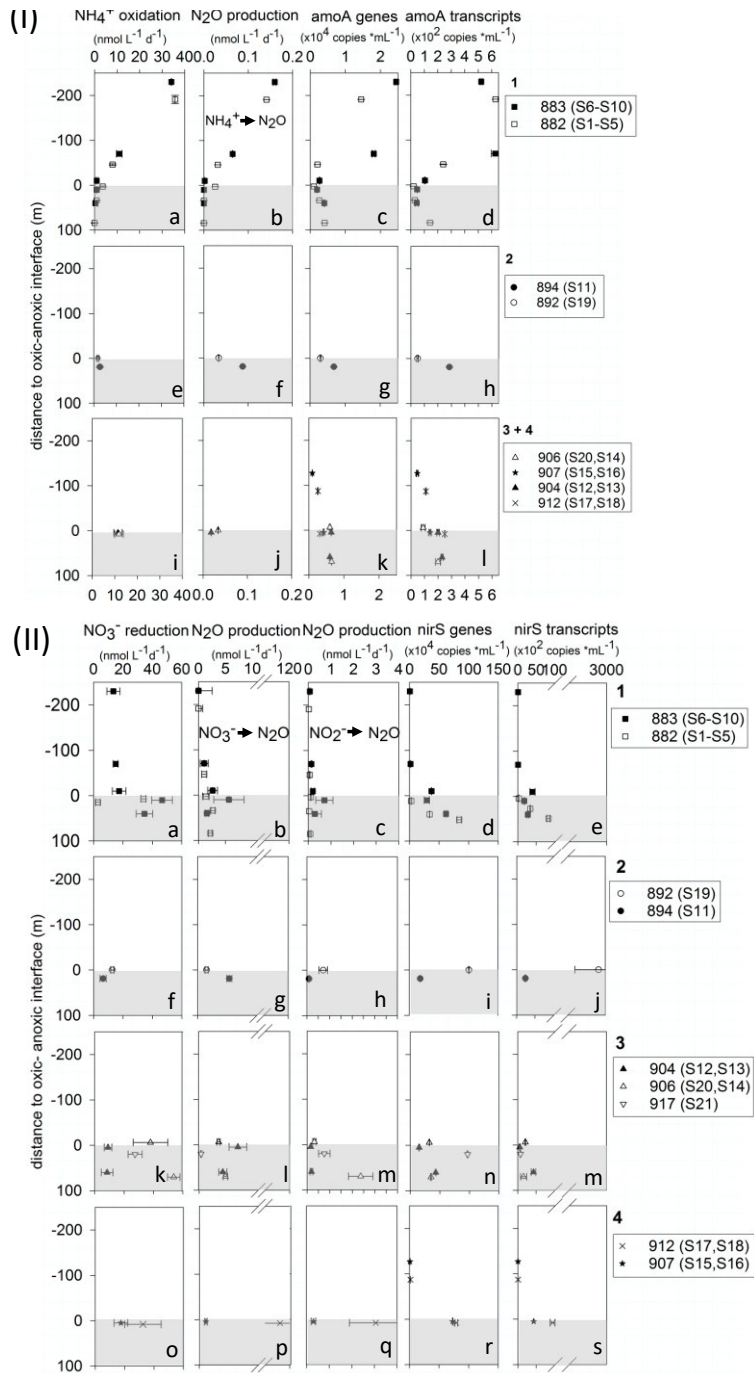
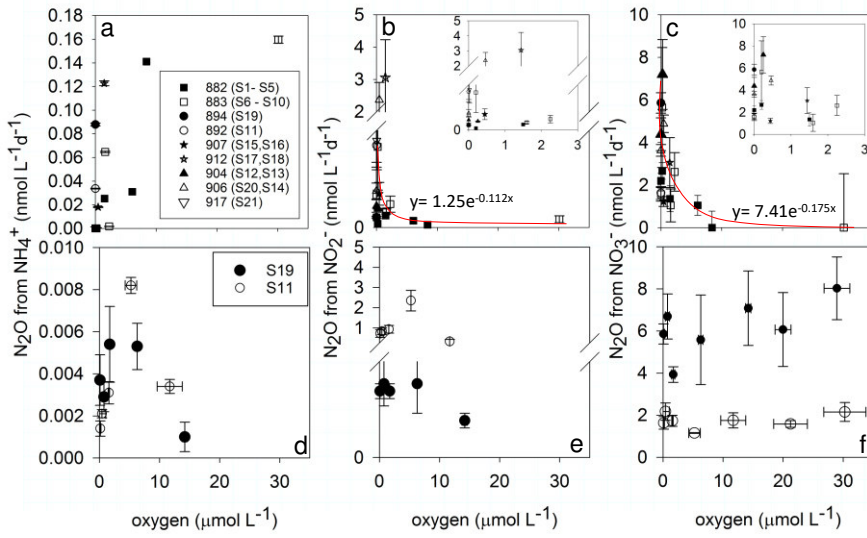


Figure 3



1215 **Figure 4**

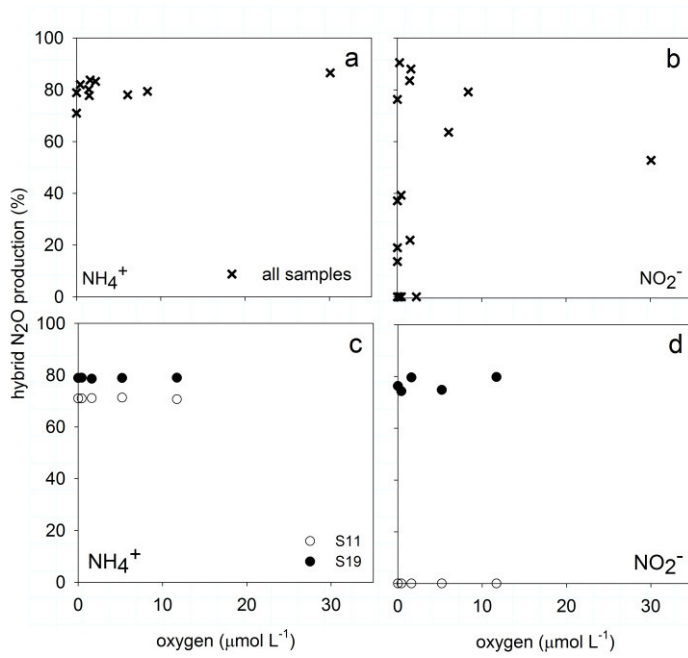
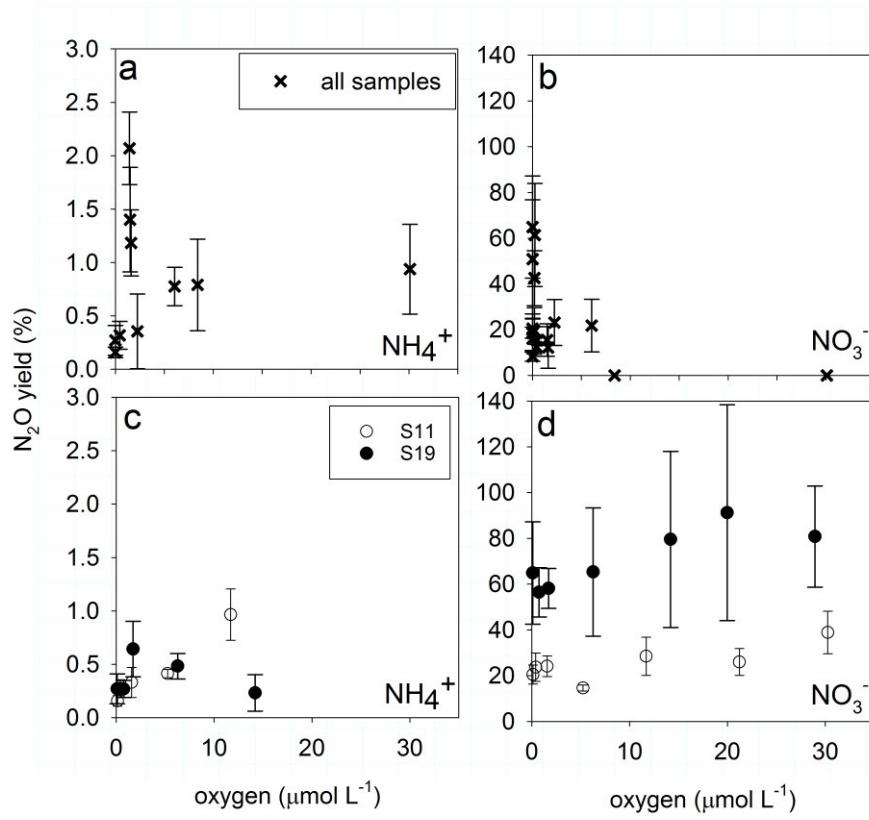


Figure 5



1220

Figure 6

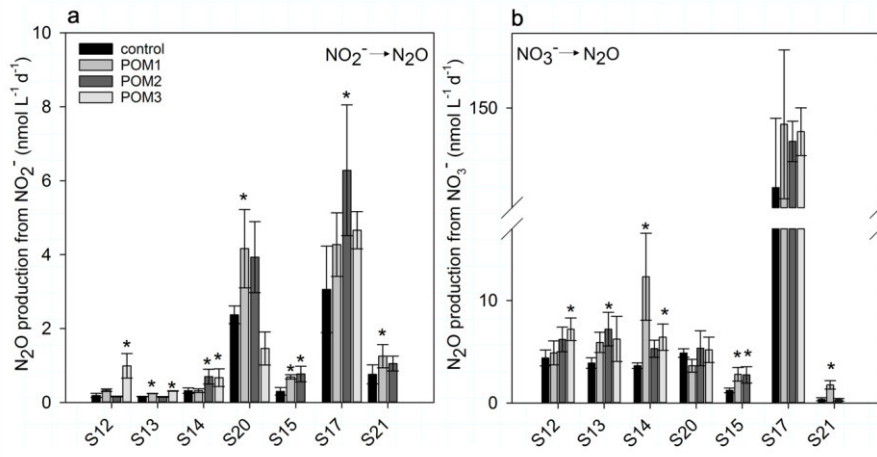


Figure 7

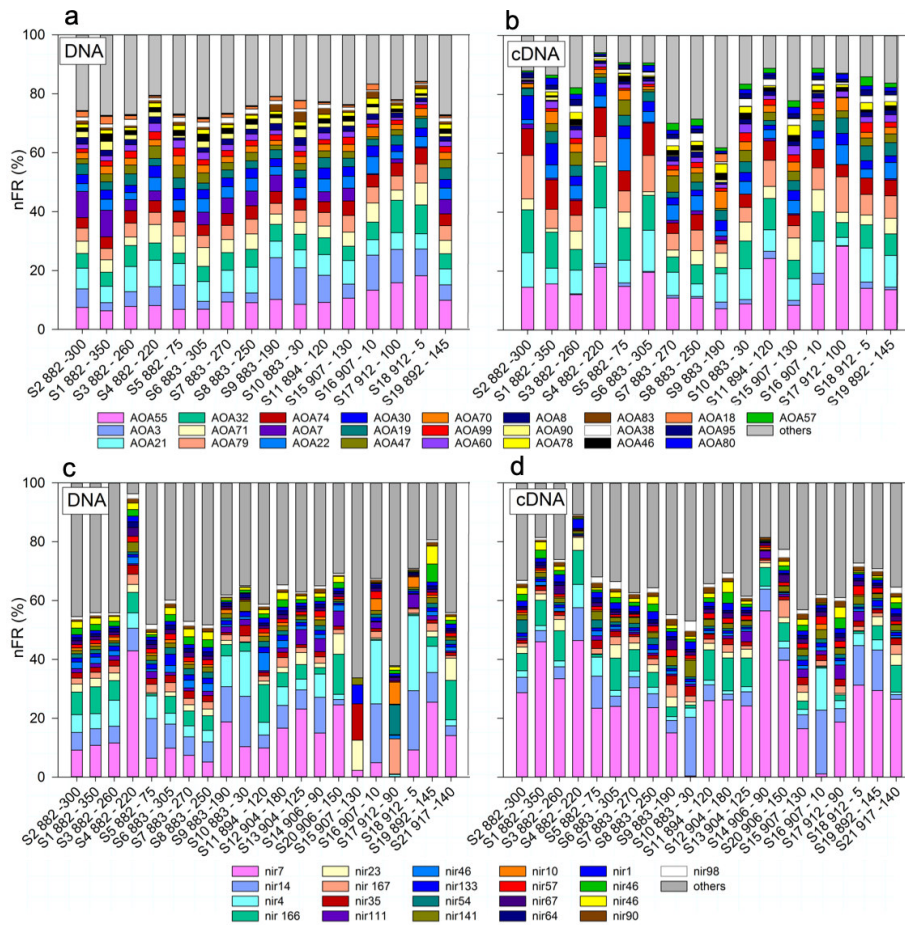


Figure 8

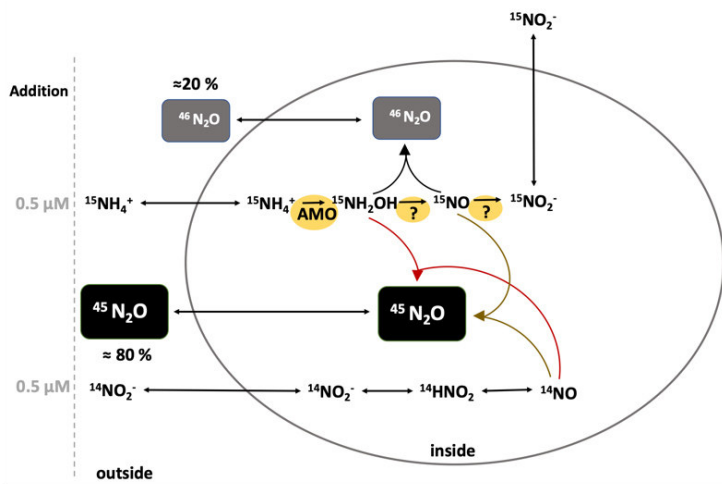


Figure 9

1235

Supplements

**Regulation of nitrous oxide production in low oxygen waters
off the coast of Peru**

- 5 Claudia Frey^{1,2,*}, Hermann W. Bange², Eric P. Achterberg³, Amal Jayakumar¹, Carolin R. Löscher⁴, Damian L. Arévalo-Martínez², Elizabeth León-Palmero⁵, Mingshuang Sun², [Xin Sun¹](#), Ruifang C. Xie³, Sergey Oleynik¹, Bess [B. Ward¹](#)

Table S1: Average alpha diversities of total and active archaeal *amoA* and *nirS* communities.

	<i>nirS</i>	<i>amoA</i>
DNA	3.8 ± 0.4	3.6 ± 0.1
cDNA	3.4 ± 0.5	3.2 ± 0.3

Table S2: Overview of abundant archetypes (> 1%) that are significantly enriched in respective O₂ levels (Lefse analysis). O₂ levels were split in 3 categories: anoxic (<1 μmol L⁻¹ O₂, Seabird O₂ and Winkler titration detection limits), hypoxic (1 – 10 μmol L⁻¹ O₂), oxic (> 10 μmol L⁻¹ O₂).

<i>amoA</i>	archetype	anoxic	hypoxic	oxic	<i>nirS</i>	archetype	anoxic	hypoxic	oxic
DNA	AOA3			x	DNA	nir4			x
	AOA7	x				nir14			x
	AOA78			x		nir23	x		
	AOA83			x		nir46	x		
						nir166	x		
cDNA	AOA3			x	cDNA	nir4			x
	AOA7		x			nir14			x
	AOA83			x		nir23	x		
						nir141			x
						nir166	x		

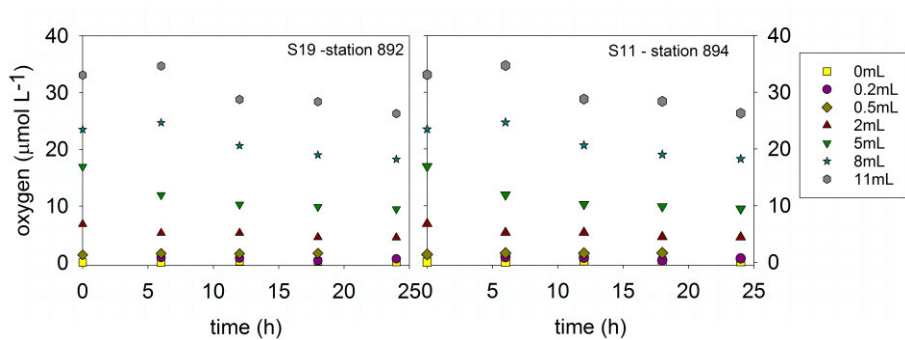


Figure S1: Dissolved oxygen concentrations inside the serum bottles during the 24h incubations of the oxygen manipulation experiments at station 892 and 894. No tracer was added to ~~the~~ these bottles. Only the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ incubations received 8mL and 11mL additions of saturated site water.

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

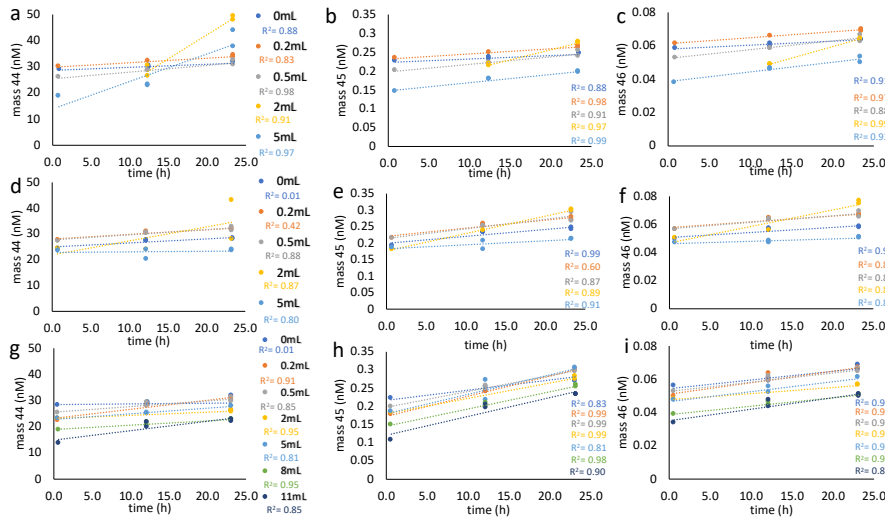


Figure S2: Examples of the production of mass 44 (a,b,c), 45 (d,e,f), and 46 (g,h,i) over 24h from the oxygen manipulation experiment performed at station 892, sample S11. R^2 of the linear regression are given for each treatment and mass. Treatments in center and right panels are same as labeled in the left panel.

30

Formatiert: Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Links, Abstand Vor: 0 Pt., Nach: 0 Pt., Zeilenabstand: einfach

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) +Textkörper (Calibri), 11 Pt., Nicht Fett

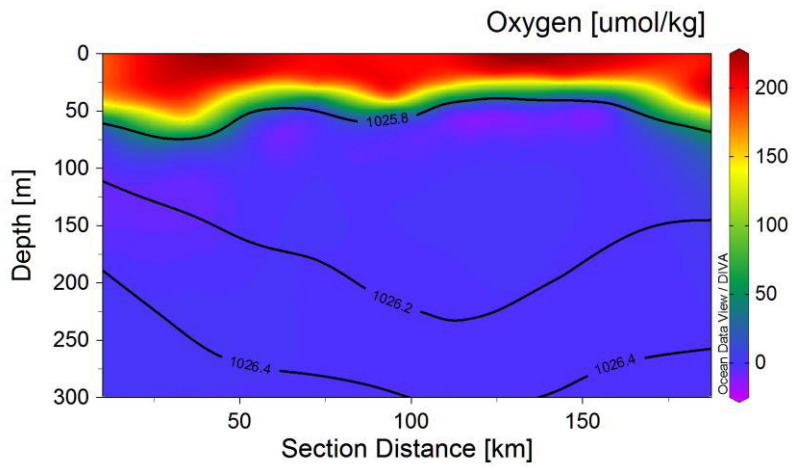


Figure S34: Oxygen and density contours plot from CTD data [across the eddy transect 4](#).

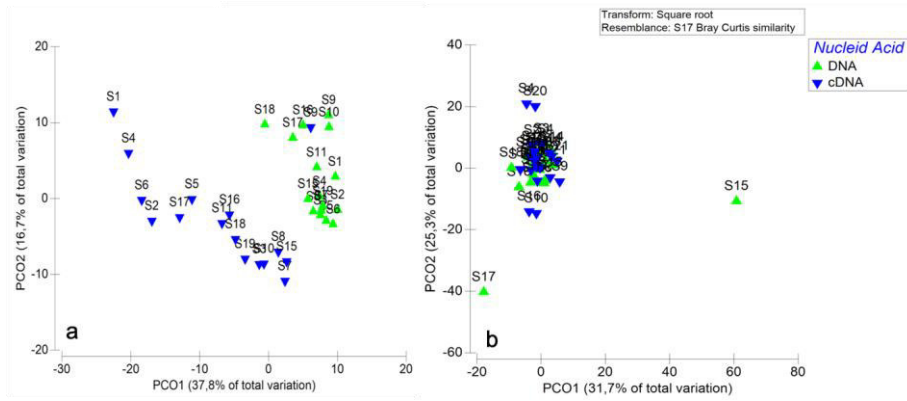


Figure S42: Principle component analysis of *amoA* DNA and cDNA (a) and *nirS* DNA and cDNA (b).

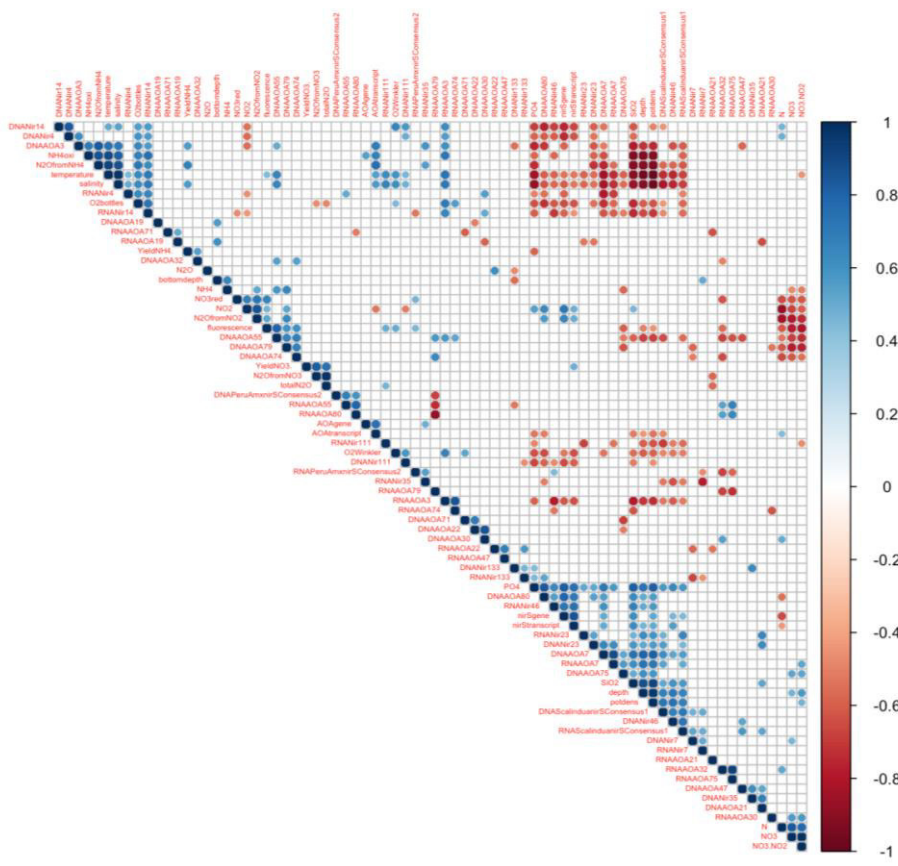


Figure S53: Heat map of significant positive (blue) or negative (red) correlations ($p < 0.05$) based on a Spearman Rank correlation analysis.

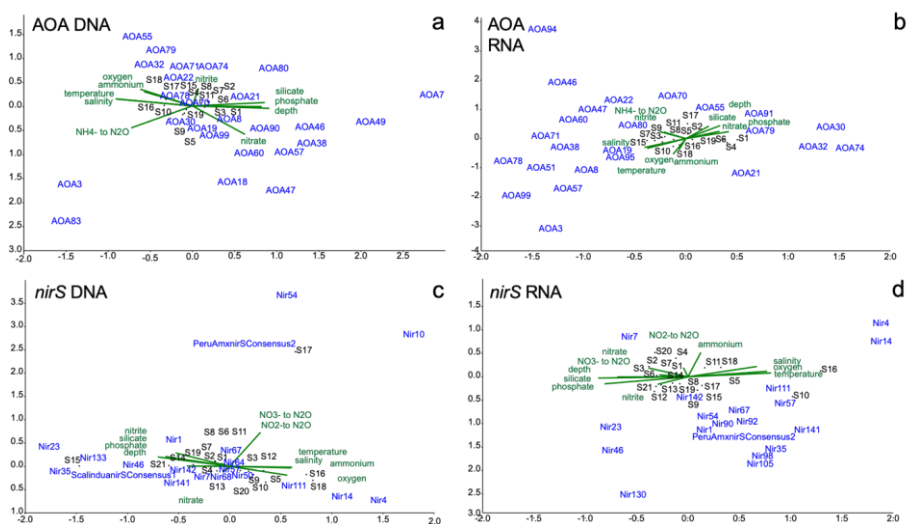


Figure S64: Triplot of Canonical Correspondence Analysis showing the archetype composition as a response to the environmental parameters. Upper panel shows *amoA* archetypes (a,b) and lower panel *nirS* archetypes (c,d). On the right is the DNA (a,c) and on the left is the cDNA (b,d).

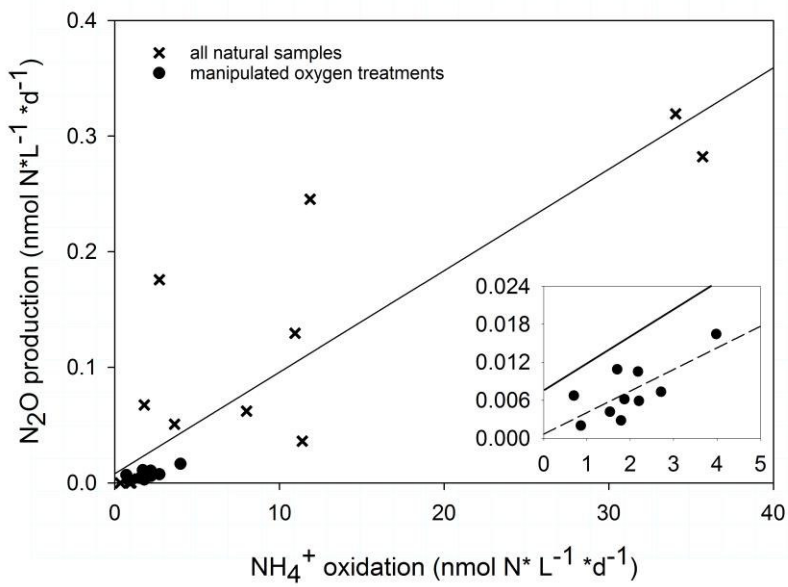
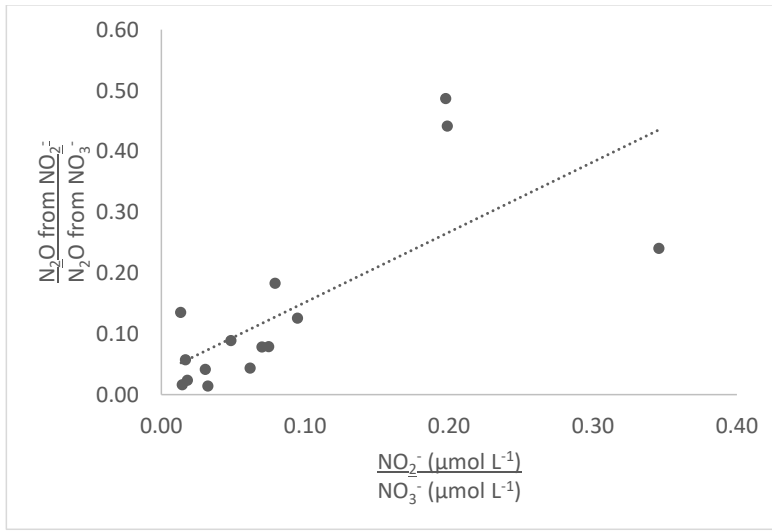


Figure S75: Scatter plot of AO versus N₂O production from NH₄⁺ with linear fit through all data (with $y = 0.0088x + 0.0080$, $R^2 = 0.75$, $p < 0.0001$). Zoom up in shows manipulated treatments with small AO rates and linear fit through all data with $y = 0.0088x + 0.0080$, $R^2 = 0.75$, $p < 0.0001$ treatments with $(y = 0.0034x + 0.0007, R^2 = 0.73, p < 0.0001)$.

55

Formatiert: Schriftart: 10 Pt.



60 **Figure S86:** Scatter plot of the ratio of N₂O production rates from NO₂⁻ and that from NO₃⁻ plotted against ratio of NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ concentrations. Linear fit with $(y = 12.153267 x \pm 0.0365254 R^2 = 0.6286, p < 0.0001)$.

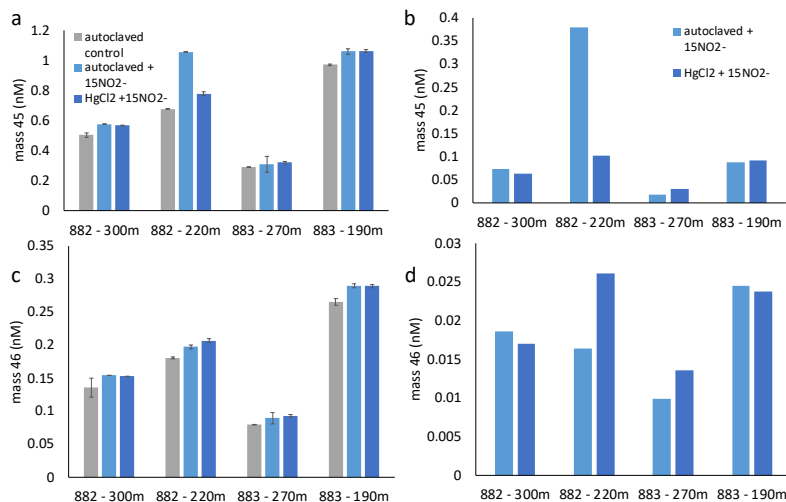


Figure S9: Abiotic N_2O Production of mass 45 (a) and mass 46 (c) from $^{15}NO_2^-$ for 4 depths. The control did not receive tracer addition. The bottles incubated for 65 - 80 days from simultaneous tracer and $HgCl_2$ addition or autoclaving until the measurement in the lab. Figure (b) and (d) show offset between control and the treatments. Error bars are from duplicates. There is little abiotic production from both masses, between 0.018 - 0.37 for mass 45 and 0.009 - 0.026 for mass 46. There was no significant difference between addition of $HgCl_2$ and autoclaving to stop biological activity. Only at station 882, depth 220m mass 45 and 46 responded very differently.

65

70

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Arial, 10 Pt., Fett

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt.

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt., Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt.

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt., Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt.

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt., Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt., Hochgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt.

Formatiert: Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt.

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt., Tiefgestellt

Formatiert: Schriftart: (Standard) Times New Roman, 10 Pt.

Formatiert: Englisch (USA)

Interactive comment “Regulation of nitrous oxide production in low oxygen waters off the coast of Peru”

Response to Referee #1:

We are grateful to the reviewer for the positive feedback and constructive suggestions which greatly helped us in preparing a revised manuscript. We addressed the specific suggestions below (our replies in bold).

Abstract: Another important finding is that hybrid N₂O formation represented 70-86% of the N₂O production during ammonium oxidation, regardless of the ammonium oxidation rate or O₂ concentrations. One sentence about this should be added to the abstract.

We added: “Hybrid N₂O formation (i.e. N₂O getting one N atom from NH₄⁺ and the other from other substrates such as NO₂⁻) was the dominant species, comprising 70 – 86 % of total produced N₂O from NH₄⁺, regardless of the ammonium oxidation rate or O₂ concentrations.”

Introduction Lines 70-75: The distinction between hybrid N₂O production by ammonia oxidizing archaea and chemodenitrification (e.g. nitrite reduction coupled to iron II oxidation) should be better made. Hybrid N₂O formation (mediated by AOA) has been observed in the ODZ water-column, but not chemodenitrification (also referred to as abiotic N₂O production; Wankel et al., 2017), likely due to substrate limitation (Fe, Mn).

In line 74, we added: Abiotic N₂O production, also known as chemodenitrification, from intermediates like NH₂OH, NO or NO₂⁻ can occur under acidic conditions (Frame et al. 2017), or in the presence of reduced metals like Fe or Mn and catalyzing surfaces (Zhu-Barker et al. 2015, Wankel et al. 2017), but the evidence of abiotic N₂O production (chemodenitrification) in ODZs is still lacking.

line 78: Correct nitrifier-denitrification for denitrification.

We added (line 80) denitrification, but did not replace nitrifier-denitrification because this is what the paragraph is about.

Lines 79-81: It should be noted that Frame and Casciotti (2010) only observed higher yields at decreasing O₂ concentrations for high starting cell densities. At lower cell densities (closer to values found in ODZs), the impact of decreasing O₂ on N₂O yield was much lower than observed in other studies.

We re-wrote the sentence as follow (line 83-87): Overall, the yield of N₂O per NO₂⁻ generated from AO is lower in AOA than AOB (Hink et al. 2017, 2018) but it should be noted that the degree to which N₂O yield increases with decreasing O₂ concentrations is variable with cell densities in cultures or field sites, (Cohen & Gordon 1978; Yoshida 1988; Goreau et al. 1980; Frame & Casciotti 2010, Santoro et al. 2011, Löscher et al. 2012, Ji et al. 2015a, 2018a).

Lines 102-104: Charpentier et al (2007) also suggested that nitrifier-denitrification is enhanced by high concentration of organic particles, which creates high NO₂⁻ and low-O₂ microenvironments.

We added a sentence in line 81-83. “It has also been suggested that high concentration of organic particles create high NO₂⁻ and low-O₂ microenvironments enhancing nitrifier-denitrification (Charpentier et al. 2007).”

Lines 113-114: It would also be relevant to look at *nor* genes which are encoding nitric oxide reductase.

The reviewer is correct, but the goal here was to distinguish between nitrifiers and denitrifiers and for that the *nor* gene is not ideal as it is present in both. Furthermore, in Fuchsmann et al. (2017) (doi10.3389/fmicb.2017.02384) the canonical forms of the gene *norB* and *qnorB* were very low abundant, suggesting that there might be other genes encoding enzymes mediating NO reduction to N₂O.

Materials and methods:

Line 136: It is not clear why a 3 mL He helium headspace is created before incubating, since it will impact in-situ O₂ concentrations.

The headspace was added for several reasons: 1) to avoid diffusion of oxygen from the septum into the liquid directly, headspace provided an additional barrier, 2) to be able to purge the serum bottles and 3) to avoid artificial differences by different treatments, all bottles received a headspace. We added (line 148 – 150): “He purging removed dissolved oxygen contamination which is likely introduced during sampling and the headspace prevents direct oxygen leakage from the rubber seals (DeBrabandere et al. 2012).”

Line136-137: I assume purging is done to avoid O₂ contamination? What is the O₂ threshold defining anoxia here? One potential problem with purging is that it also removes other gases (e.g., H₂S) involved in autotrophic denitrification (for instance, see Callbeck *et al.*, 2018).

Yes, purging was done to decrease oxygen contamination during sampling. We rewrote the sentence as such (line 147-148): A 3 mL helium (He) headspace was created and samples from anoxic (O₂ < below detection) water depths were He purged for 15min. We also added line 148 – 150, as written as answer to your previous comment. The point of H₂S removal during purging is added into the discussion section line 511- 521: “In addition, sampling with Niskin bottles and purging can induce stress responses (Stewart et al. 2012) and shift the richness and structure of the microbial community from the *in situ* community (Torres-Beltran et al. 2019), which can be one potential explanation for the different responses between manipulated O₂ and *in situ* O₂ experiments. The removal of other gases like H₂S during purging introduces another potential artefact. However, this is unlikely because measurable H₂S concentrations have mostly been found at very shallow coastal stations (< 100 m deep) (Callbeck et al. 2018), which have not been sampled in this study. On the contrary, high abundances (up to 12 %) of sulfur oxidizing gamma proteobacteria, like SUP05 can be found in eddy-transported offshore waters where they

actively contributed to autotrophic denitrification (Callbeck et al. 2018). This study cannot differentiate between autotrophic or organotrophic denitrification, but a contribution of autotrophic denitrification in the eddy center is likely.”

Lines 150-153: How did O₂ vary during the incubations? These data should perhaps be included as part of the supplementary materials.

The oxygen concentrations stayed constant in the low oxygen treatments, while it decreased in higher oxic treatments. That explains the higher standard deviation in higher treatments. Oxygen concentrations over time are added to the supplements Figure S1.

Line 153: Explain the rationale for using particles >50 µm.

It is the fraction that is sinking. This is stated in line 607-608: “However, the particle size (>50 µm) used in the experiments is indicative of sinking particles.”

Lines 192-219: Plots showing increase in ¹⁵N labeled products over time should be included in the supplementary materials. Were the relationships always linear?

Linear relationships were used to calculate the slopes and only significant slopes were included as written in line 233-235. We added example time plots from the oxygen manipulation experiments into the supplements. See Figure S2.

Lines 228-229: These nirS primers exclude epsilon-proteobacteria (Murdock, et al., 2017). Epsilon proteobacteria are often the dominant portion of autotrophic sulfur oxidizers in sulfidic waters (e.g., Grote et al., 2008), thus this aspect should be discussed.

We added a statement in the methods that we are aware that epsilon-proteobacteria are not captured with the Primer we used. Line 260 - 263: “The nirS Primers are not specific for epsilon-proteobacteria (Murdock et al. 2017), but in previous metagenomes from the ETSP epsilon-proteobacteria were below 3-4% or not found, except in very sulfidic, coastal stations (Stewart et al. 2011, Wright et al. 2012, Ganesh et al. 2012, Schunck et al. 2013, Kavelage et al. 2015).”

Line 256: Add accession number.

Added. GEO Accession No GSE142806

Results:

Lines 282-283: Could a contour plot of chlorophyll concentration added to the supplementary material for reference?

We added surface Chlorophyll data to the station map. See Figure 1.

Lines 334-335: This result is a bit puzzling as previous studies (e.g., Dalsgaard et al., 2014), observed fifty percent inhibition of N₂O production by denitrification at about 300nM O₂. These observations are also unlike results from their *in situ* O₂ gradient experiment.

This is not contradictory to Dalsgaard et al. 2014. They were in depths with high NO₂- concentration indicative for the core of the anoxic zone, whereas this study took place at the upper part of the anoxic zone and in the oxycline.

Lines 349-350: It is also surprising to observe the highest yield for N₂O production at highest O₂ concentrations, for which N₂O production should be inhibited (Dalsgaard et al., 2014).

This is not to be confused with the N₂O yield/N₂. The yields are for NO₃- and not like in Dalsgaard with ¹⁵NO₂- which apparently makes a large difference as we can show in this study!!!

Discussion:

Lines 421-426: Some of these are likely causal relationships.

Yes, absolutely.

Lines 425-426: This suggest that when NO₃- is abundant, denitrifying bacteria are less likely to use NO₂- (either from their internal pool or outside the cell) for N₂O production during denitrification.

This comment is added to the text line 460 - 461.

Line 441: What is the detection limit for [N₂O]?

The detection limits is 2nM. We added that information into the method section 2.1. line 137.

Lines 441-444: Bourbonnais et al. (2017) used biogeochemical tracers (N₂O concentrations and isotopes) that integrates over longer timescales compared to ¹⁵N-labeled incubations, which are more like taking a snapshot in time. Therefore, discrepancies between N₂O production rate is expected and should be discussed in this context.

We rewrote that section: “Previously reported maximum rates were up to 86 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Dalsgaard et al. 2012) based on ¹⁵N tracer incubations. Much smaller maximum rates, 49 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Bourbonnais et al. 2017) and 50 nmol L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Farias et al. 2009), were obtained using N₂O isotope and isotopomer approaches which provide time and process integrated signals. Hence, the deviation of maximum rates can be explained by 1) the different approaches and 2) the sampling of the core of the eddy. “

Line 451: Cite Fassbender et al. (2018) that discusses impacts of eddies on biogeochemical processes at different scales.

We did not add Fassbender here, because the recommended paper does not contain information on impact of eddy age on the N₂O distribution, which is the point we are trying to make here.

Lines 443: The error on this higher rate estimate seems rather large (in Figure 3, p).

We added the exact rate with the standard deviation.

Lines 458-460: This part is confusing. The O₂ threshold for reductive N₂O production should be higher than for N₂O consumption, not the converse. In other words, nitric oxide reductase should be more O₂ tolerant than nitrous oxide reductase (Dalsgaard et al., 2014). Otherwise, N₂O would not accumulate.

This is exactly my point. There is a discrepancy between the thresholds in rates we find and the N₂O concentration maxima we measure between 1 – 8 μM O₂. If N₂O production is so sensitive from denitrification then where is all the N₂O coming from? Just NH₄⁺ oxidation is unlikely based on the N₂O production rates we find from NH₄⁺ oxidation. There might be a higher threshold for N₂O production from denitrification?

Lines 445-446: I do not understand this statement.

We did not measure N₂ production rates, so we cannot say anything about the N₂O/N₂ yield during denitrification. This yield is subject to changes and not constant, Because of that, we have no chance to make an estimate on the N₂ production rate. Maybe in the Eddy incomplete denitrification to N₂O was favored and that is what we measured or complete denitrification was fueled and this is what we measured. We rephrased the sentence (line 481- 485) to “N₂ production measurements were not performed in this study, so it cannot be determined whether the eddy only stimulated N₂O production but not N₂ production from denitrification (i.e. increasing the N₂O/N₂ yield) or if the eddy also increased complete denitrification to N₂ by 10 times compared to stations outside of the eddy. “

Lines 479-481: This hypothesis is also supported by a rather long turnover time for NO₂⁻ as inferred from the δ¹⁸O of NO₂⁻, which is generally fully equilibrated with water in offshore waters (Bourbonnais et al., 2015). This is not the case in coastal waters, where NO₂⁻ seems to be more dynamic (see and cite Hu et al., 2016).

We added this statement into the manuscript as follow (line 532 – 534): “Long turnover times for NO₂⁻ have been inferred from d¹⁸O of NO₂⁻, which was fully equilibrated with water in the offshore waters (Bourbonnais et al. 2015) and more dynamic in the coastal waters (Hu et al. 2016) supporting our hypothesis. “

Lines 495-496: How can these contrasting results be reconciled?

We attribute this to the intensity of the ammonium oxidation rate which exerts a first order control on the N₂O production rate. Meaning if the NH₄⁺ oxidation rates would exponential decrease with O₂ concentration then we would find that relationship in the N₂O production rates. We discuss this further down in line 554 – 556.

Lines 522-524: If hybrid N₂O formation during AOA is purely (or even partly) abiotic, then measured rates would be overestimated as HgCl₂ would not stop N₂O production at the end of the incubations. For how long were these samples stored before being measured? This point should be better discussed.

The samples were stored between 2 – 5 month. Abiotic N₂O production would take place and continue until we measure the samples, indeed. But it also goes on in all samples raising the N₂O baseline (in mass 44,45,46) for all and not just in specific ones. This impact will likely vary with depth, but then all the timepoints are affected by the same abiotic production. The rates are calculated from the increase over time making them independent of the baseline. We added a figure to the supplements S9, where results for abiotic production from ¹⁵NO₂⁻ tracer are shown from 4 depths from 2 stations. The addition of ¹⁵NO₂⁻ tracer results in little abiotic production; 0.018 – 0.37 nM ⁴⁵N₂O and 0.009 – 0.026 nM ⁴⁶N₂O up to the point of mass spec analysis, but independent HgCl₂ addition. We added this point into the discussion line 281. However, we did not test abiotic N₂O from NH₄⁺ tracer, hence this can not be fully ruled out. We added that point in line 588-590: “Additionally, at four depths the potential for abiotic N₂O production in ¹⁵NO₂⁻ addition experiments showed variations with depth and no significant impact of HgCl₂ fixation (Figure S9).”

Lines 565-566: What was the chlorophyll concentration in the center of the eddy?

Low, below 1mg/m³. We added a map with surface Chlorophyll, see Figure 1.

Lines 641-643: N₂O emission to the atmosphere are possible only if the water is upwelled.

We rephrased the sentence to (line 698): “Regardless of which processes are responsible for N₂O production in the ODZ, high N₂O production at the oxic-anoxic interface of the upper oxycline sustains high N₂O concentration peaks with a potential for intense N₂O emission to the atmosphere during upwelling events.”

Lines 649-652: Temporal variability is particularly not well captured in observational studies.

We added a sentence to pick up on that comment (line 705 – 706): “While this study does not help to resolve temporal variability, manipulation experiments give valuable insights on the short-term response of N₂O production to oxygen and particles.”

Figure legends:

Rename Figure 7: N₂O production after additions of...

The figure was renamed accordingly.

Figures 2 and 3 are too small. Legend (station #) is almost impossible to read.

The figure Legend and axis label were adjusted.

Figure 5: Samples impacted by denitrification should be more clearly indicated (by a circle or rectangle and in the Figure legend) in Figure 5b.

In all samples in Figure 5b, N₂O production from 15NO₃⁻ was found. If that is what the reviewer means. There was no adjustment done to the figure.

Supplements:

Figures S1: I recommend expanding the scale at lower O₂ concentrations since this is the focus of the paper.

We did not expand the scale here as the focus is the shallowing of the oxycline in the center of the eddy , which is nicely visible in this figure.

Figure S5: Add linear regression and r-square for natural samples in the zoom up plot.

Linear regressions and equations were added to the Figure S7.

Figure S6: Since there are only a few data points for [NO₂-]/[NO₃-] higher than 0.10, I don't think the outlier (light gray dot) can be removed. There is much more scatter in Figure 5 in Ji et al. (2018) for the same relationship.

The point was included into the regression.

Response to Referee #2:

We thank to reviewer for the positive feedback and valuable suggestions which greatly improved the quality of the manuscript.

We addressed the specific suggestions below (our replies in bold).

General comments:

Check nitrite/NO⁻ throughout manuscript 2

We checked for consistency and changed all nitrites to NO₂⁻.

You note differences in process rates and between the communities exposed *in situ* to O₂ gradients and in the O₂ manipulation experiments (e.g. Line 463-4). I think at least some discussion is needed as to the potential effects of purging the samples with gas as described in refs below (e.g. Dalsgaard et al, deBrabandere et al, Holtappels et al, Stewart et al.)

We added a sentence to the method section, line 148-151: “He purging removed dissolved oxygen contamination which is likely introduced during sampling and the headspace prevents possible oxygen leakage from the rubber seals (DeBrabandere et al. 2012)” and in line 158/159: “Total incubation times were adjusted to prevent bottle effects, which become significant after 20 h based on respiration rate measurements (Tiano et al. 2014). “

Furthermore, we added a part in the discussion line 508-521. “Different responses of N₂O production rates to O₂ between *in situ* assemblages and incubation were not unexpected because different rates at different depths were likely not only due to O₂ differences but also other factors such as different organic matter fluxes and different amounts and types of N₂O producers at different depths. In addition, sampling with Niskin bottles and purging can induce stress responses (Stewart et al. 2012) and shift the richness and structure of the microbial community from the *in situ* community (Torres-Beltran et al. 2019), which can be one potential explanation for the different responses between manipulated oxygen and *in situ* oxygen experiments. The removal of other gases like H₂S during purging introduces another potential artefact. However, it is unlikely as measurable H₂S concentrations have mostly been found at very shallow coastal stations (< 100 m deep) (Calbeck et al. 2018), which was not the case in this study. On the contrary, high abundances (up to 12%) of sulfur oxidizing gamma proteobacteria, like SUP05 can be found in eddy-transported offshore waters where they actively contributed to autotrophic denitrification (Calbeck et al. 2018). In this study, it cannot differentiate between autotrophic or organotrophic denitrification, but a contribution of autotrophic denitrification in the eddy center is likely.”

Can you be sure that there is no DNRA occurring in your experiments – in particular given the Lam et al. 2009 ‘Revising the N cycle...’ paper also off the Peruvian coast. The presence of DNRA would complicate your isotope pairing experiments with ¹⁵NO₃⁻ and ¹⁵NO₂⁻ by transferring ¹⁵N into the NH₄⁺ pool and you would get ‘hybrid’ N₂O of ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁵NO₂⁻ forming ⁴⁶N₂O and be wrongly assigned. DNRA would also potentially dilute your ¹⁵NH₄⁺ pool with ¹⁴N from background NO₃⁻ and alter the assumed 99% labelling in these experiments. I realise the contribution of AO to N₂O production is small relative to denit, but the artefacts of DNRA on the rates/data should be discussed as it could lead to some N₂O from AO being ‘hidden’.

The reviewer raises a very important point and no, we cannot be sure that the occurrence of DNRA is impacting our results. We added this consideration to the manuscript in line 216 - 232. “Nevertheless, this assumption brings some initial considerations which need to be accounted for. There is a potential for overestimating hybrid N₂O production in ¹⁵NO₂⁻ incubations by 5% in samples with high NO₃⁻ reduction rates. But in incubations from anoxic depths with high NO₃⁻ reduction rates, no hybrid N₂O production is found at all. For example, accounting for a decrease in f_N of the NO₃⁻ pool by active NO₂⁻ oxidation, the process with highest rates (Sun et al. 2017), had an effect of only ± 0.2 % on the final rate estimate. The presence of DNRA complicates ¹⁵N-labelling incubations because it can change f in all three tracer experiments. In the vicinity of DNRA in ¹⁵NO₃⁻ incubations, ¹⁵NO₂⁻ and ¹⁵NH₄⁺ can be produced from ¹⁵NO₃⁻ which can contribute to ⁴⁶N₂O production by AO. Even when a maximum DNRA rate (20 nM d⁻¹ in Lam et al. 2009) is assumed to produce 0.02 nM ¹⁵NH₄⁺ in 24 h with all of it being oxidized to N₂O (max. N₂O production from AO 0.16 nM d⁻¹, this study), its contribution to ⁴⁶N₂O production is likely minor and within the standard error of N₂O production rates from NO₃⁻. Hence an overestimation of the N₂O production rates is unlikely. The same applies in incubations with ¹⁵N-NO₂⁻ when DNRA produces ¹⁵NH₄⁺, additional ⁴⁶N₂O can be produced with a hybrid mechanism by AO not accounted for in the present rate calculations. In ¹⁵NO₂⁻ incubations with high starting f (>0.7) the production of ¹⁴NO₂⁻ by NO₃⁻ reduction (which decreases f) leads to an underestimation by max. 9%, whereas in incubations with a low f (<0.3) the effect is less with max. 3 % underestimation of N₂O production rates. In ¹⁵NH₄⁺ incubations (f >0.9), max. DNRA rate would lead to an underestimation of 3.5 %.”

Specific comments:

Section 2.1: As with other papers with many sites, sampling points and manipulation experiments a written methods text quickly becomes very complicated with different additions, concentrations, replicates, time points etc. I think as a result of the text being quite confusing some information has been missed/is unclear. Adding a table of experiments, stations, variables, sampling routine (e.g. time points), number of replicates, other factors (e.g. whether O₂ was measured in vials) would be informative/helpful to readers who are interested in comparing/replicating experiments.

It is correct, that such set ups can get confusing very quickly, but in table 1 stations, depths, measured variables and the kind of experiment performed are given. However, we added one column with the kind of tracer addition we did. The replicates and time points did not vary between experiments and hence is only stated in the test. We only measured oxygen in one bottle with each incubation per depth or treatment, which was also consistent and written in the text line 168/169.

Also Section 2.1: Missing info on NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ analyses (e.g. shown in Fig 2).

The measurement of nitrite and nitrate concentrations is given in line 130-132.

Line 145 (O₂ manipulation experiments): Why was such a ‘coarse’ O₂ range used compared to previous studies which use O₂ manipulations generally below 1-2μM (e.g. Dalsgaard et al 2014, Bristow et al 2016)?

In Bristow et al. 2016 a and b the maximal oxygen concentration in their manipulation experiments was 10uM and 20uM dissolved oxygen, so we are not quite sure what the referee means. Dalsgaard et al 2014 performed a really nice microcosm experiment, where oxygen concentrations were monitored online in the flask they subsampled. In our case, each time point was a separate bottle making it impossible to use such an approach. For the experimental design in this study, it was important to choose oxygen levels where we can be sure that oxygen concentrations are different enough from each other that we can differentiate the two treatments (f.e. 100nM and 200nM would be tricky to tell apart with our standard deviations of 180nM and 240nM over 24h). We added a plot of oxygen over time into the supplements Figure S1.

Line 145 (O₂ manipulation experiments): This is a bit confusing: ‘...headspace volume was adjusted depending on the amount of site water added...’. Do you mean that after the addition of different oxygenated water volumes you also wanted to end up with a 3mL headspace as in the ‘natural gradient’ O₂ experiment? Please rephrase and explain more clearly.

Yes, that is exactly what we were trying to do. The sentence was rephrased (line 163 – 164) to “For the O₂ manipulation experiments, all serum bottles were He purged and after the addition of different amounts of air saturated site water a final headspace volume of 3 mL was achieved.”

Line 153 (OM experiments): So only total N₂O was measured in the OM experiments? Or were ¹⁵N substrates also added. Unclear as it is written now.

¹⁵N substrates were also added in the organic matter addition experiments. We changed the text to : “For all experiments,..” in line 151 and adjusted line 174 as followed: “200μL of POC solution were added to each serum bottle before ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ or ¹⁴N-NO₂⁻ tracer injection.”

Line 166: Do you mean ‘Ascarite’ instead of Ascarid?

Yes, we mean “Ascarite” and it was changed.

Line 186-8: Rephrase to: ‘If more single labelled N₂O is produced than expected (...), a hybrid formation of one nitrogen atom from nh₄⁺ and one from no₂⁻ (...) is assumed to be taking place se found in archaeal ammonia oxidizers’

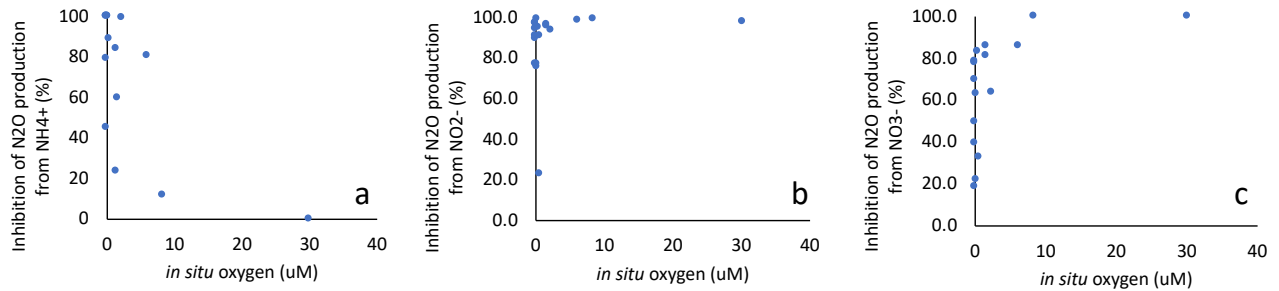
The sentence was rephrased as recommended.

Line 191: What about ⁴⁵N₂O formed from dilution from background ¹⁴N₂O₃⁻ and ¹⁴N₂O₂⁻ in samples? Then you will get ⁴⁵N₂O from ¹⁵N₂O_x + ¹⁴N₂O_x ... You note earlier (ca Line 140) that there is likely substantial ¹⁴N₂O₃⁻ (at least in some samples/depths) which will be reduced to ¹⁴N₂O₂⁻ and dilute your ¹⁵N₂O₂⁻ pool. Perhaps there is something I have missed in the text but this doesn’t make sense to assume all ⁴⁵N₂O in incubations with ¹⁵N₂O₂⁻, especially in anoxic/low O₂ manipulations where NO_x can be respired.

Indeed, there is a potential for overestimating hybrid N₂O production in ¹⁵N₂O₂⁻ incubations by 5% in samples with high NO₃⁻ reduction rates. But in incubations from anoxic depths with high NO₃⁻ reduction rates, no hybrid N₂O production is found at

all. We added all potential problems which come with the assumption of a constant f into that section, starting line 217.

Section 3.3: Could the % inhibition of processes be plotted to help comparison to other relevant studies on O₂ manipulation on AO/no₂-ox/denit (e.g. Kalvelage et al 2011, Dalsgaard et al 2014, Bristow et al 2016). I think at least some short discussion is warranted in relation to O₂ effects on processes in these previous papers.



We added the inhibition curves along the natural O₂ gradient here, but we stay with the same figures in the main text as we want to show absolute rates. Section 3.3 is a results section, so we do not refer to papers there. However, in the discussion part 4.1 we cited Kalvelage et al. 2011 (line 525) and Dalsgaard et al. 2014 (line 522). Bristow et al. 2016 is added to the section 4.1. Out of these papers, only Dalsgaard et al. 2014 measured N₂O production, hence the focus in the discussion is on their paper.

Section 3.4: This is a little confusing, additional ¹⁴NH₄⁺ was also added along with the POC to experiments? Or was the POC filtered/rinsed after autoclaving?

The particles were in 0.2um filtered low nutrient seawater and during autoclaving some nitrogen from the particles was liberated into that solution. By adding 200uL of that concentrated POM solution with max. 1.56μM of NH₄⁺ means we added minor amounts of NH₄⁺ into our incubation bottles (0.3nM NH₄⁺), which is neglectable from that perspective. It may be more important with respect to the change in N/C ratios. We adjusted the text, which reads now (line 386 – 389): “The autoclaving of the concentrated POM solution liberated NH₄⁺ from the particles, reducing the N/C ratio of the particles compared to non-autoclaved particles (Table 2). The highest NH₄⁺ accumulation is found in samples with the largest difference in N/C ratios between autoclaved and non-autoclaved particles (Table 2, 904-20m, 898-100 m).”

Line 466: In relation to the ‘Unchanged N₂O production with higher O₂ levels in NO₃-treatments...’ sentence: Can anoxic niches be ruled out in these experiments? You do note the sampling being during low upwelling and chl period but the settling of small particulates during experiments may create anoxic/low O₂ zones to sustain anaerobic processes.

Anoxic micro niches can never be fully ruled out, if not investigated. The Chlorophyll concentrations were in deed low for an upwelling area, max 5mg/m³, but on average 1mg/m³ and less. Figure 1, map of the study site was adjusted with Chlorophyll concentrations. The treatment was identical between depth profile samples and manipulation samples, so if the particles settle, they would settle in all of the bottles and create microniches in the samples from the depth profile as well. There is no

plausible explanation why more anoxic micro niches should be in the oxygen manipulations compared to the others.

Sentence line 470-472 Bristow et al 2016 should also be a ref here in relation to kinetics of multi-step processes

Bristow et al. 2016a and b were added.

Line 477: How can you be sure none of the N₂O was consumed without further measurements (e.g. ¹⁵N-N₂)? Production may just be much faster than consumption.

We are not able to say anything about N₂ production, we can only assume. We added sufficient amounts of ⁴⁴N₂O carrier prior to the incubation to trap ¹⁵N-labelled N₂O. If N₂O reduction is taking place at high rates, we would see a decrease in the N₂O pool over time. A plot with the mass 44, 45 and 46 over time was added to the supplements (Figure S2).

Line 512-515: Confusing sentences, consider rephrasing.

Sentence was rephrased (line 565 – 567): “ While high N₂O yields are usually found in low O₂ waters (<6 μmol L⁻¹), in this study AO had also high yields at higher oxygen concentrations, 0.9 % at 30 μmol L⁻¹ O₂ compared to previous studies (0.06% at > 50 μmol L⁻¹ Ji et al. 2018a).”

Line 521: This is a bit of an oversimplification - because something is below detection doesn't necessarily mean nothing is happening, more likely a tight coupling between consumption and production (e.g. see Figure 4 in Klawonn et al 2019 and Figure 3 in Olofsson et al 2019 references). Could there be a dilution of your ¹⁵NH₄⁺ pool to consider due to rapid cryptic cycling on shorter scales than your experiments? Ideally ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and total NH₄⁺ would be followed through the time series to check for dilution effects. Both show very rapid NH₄⁺ turnover (within ~5h) in oligotrophic waters

The ¹⁵NH₄⁺ substrate was not measured on the GC-IRMS because high ¹⁵N label/ almost pure tracer is always problematic to analyze. We added the possibility of an overestimation of hybrid production to the method section line 217 and rephrased the wording here to (line 573-575) “Even though, *in situ* NH₄⁺ is below detection in almost all water depths (*f* > 0.9), there remains the potential for ¹⁵NH₄⁺ pool dilution by remineralization and DNRA during during the incubation. Despite below detection limit studies have shown fast turnover for NH₄⁺ (Klawonn et al. 2019).”

Line 532: If measured, the accumulation and consumption of intermediates (e.g. NO₂⁻) could also be used to imply biotic vs abiotic mechanisms (e.g. Betlach and Tiedje 1981 reference).

We measured NO₂⁻ concentrations and isotopic composition in the ¹⁵NH₄⁺ treatments, but not other intermediates like NH₂OH or NO. The change in concentration was below our detection limit 50nM. Abiotic N₂O production was seen in the ¹⁵NO₂⁻ treatments in the anoxic depth. A supplementary figure was added Figure S9.

Line 560-3: Could a ^{15}N recovery/inventory be calculated for the experiments (e.g. ^{15}N recovery from initial substrate, measured intermediates and ^{15}N - N_2O ?) This could help infer a % N_2O production from denitrification which is important for putting the N_2O production from denit in context – i.e. how do variations in O_2 impact the proportion of N_2O produced by denit relative to N_2 ?

The reviewers make a good point, having both the N_2 and N_2O production from the same flask at low rates would be very nice. We do not think that there is a way we can come to a $\text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{N}_2$ yield without measuring N_2 . The biological variations in the NO_3^- pool were so big that the little change in $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ was too small to be detected. Therefore, the yield of $\text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{NO}_2^-$ was calculated.

Fig 4 b, c & Fig 6 b: consider zoomed-in insert of x-axis (e.g. similar to Fig S5)

Zoom ups are added into the figures.

Figure S5: Seems to be two different slopes here from manipulated vs natural O_2 gradients – could also be discussed in relation to purging artefacts.

Both slopes are indicated in figure S7 now. Yes, this could be a purging artefact, but the scatter at the lower range is very high.

Response to second round of Referee #2 suggestions:

Dear Referee,

we appreciate your additional suggestions to our first response and integrated them into our current manuscript. We outlined our point to point reply below (in bold).

General comments:

Thanks, I realise it will be a small % but important to acknowledge. It would also be good to add a sentence in the discussion to suggest that DNRA (& anammox) are measured in addition in future work to rule out potential artefacts – there are now several (sediment) papers on the artefacts of the co-occurrence of NO_3^- reducing processes on the IPT assumptions.

We added the importance of measuring N_2 production in future studies in the discussion:
Line 574: “In future ^{15}N -labelling studies, DNRA should be measured to rule out potential pool dilution by the co-occurrence of NH_4^+ production. “

Line 482- 485: “ N_2 production measurements (from anammox and denitrification) were not performed in this study, but should be carried out in future studies to account for potential artefacts by co-occurring NO_3^- reduction processes.”

I think you just need to change “In the vicinity of DNRA in $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ incubations...” to “In relation to DNRA in $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ incubations...”

We rephrased the whole sentence in the results section to: “In $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ incubations, active DNRA produces $^{15}\text{NO}_2^-$ and $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ from $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ which can contribute to $^{46}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ production by AO.”

I meant that in Bristow et al. and Dalsgaard et al that a lot of their measurements are concentrated below 1-2 μM oxygen and fewer concentrations in the ‘higher’ 10-20 μM range... i.e. focusing on the concentrations where the inhibition/regulation really ‘happens’. But I understand the reasons you describe above given the standard deviations of O_2 measurements and without more sensitive sensors it would be difficult to designate concentrations, I agree. I appreciate that Dalsgaard et al do have a nice reactor/microcosm set up which I realise is very specialised for precisely these experiments and with larger volumes than the serum vials – also that it is a lot of work with these types of experiments. I think it would still be good to add a sentence/statement as to why ‘your’ oxygen concentrations were chosen (e.g. given the reasons above, SD in measurements etc) if possible.

We think that the standard deviations of the different oxygen levels explain why we did not resolve the lower end better and did not add anything there. However, we agree with the referee that it does not become clear why a larger range was applied for the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ treatments, so we explained that better:

Line 167-169: “For the ^{15}N - NO_3^- incubations two more O_2 treatments with 21.5 ± 2.8 and $30.2 \pm 3.35 \mu\text{M}$ O_2 were carried out to extend the range of a previous study in which N_2O production from $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ did not decrease up to O_2 concentration of $7 \mu\text{M}$ (Ji et al. 2018).”

But if there is the same amount of particles in all vials/O₂ manipulations then there is potential for some anoxic processes to be 'unaffected' by O₂ additions - with some changes in anoxic microsite volume with O₂ diffusion into particles. I realise this is hard to rule out – especially as you collect small particles from the water column to use, indicating that they are there. I think it would be important to write something shortly about why you consider it unlikely that any (significant) anoxic niches occur.

We do not consider it unlikely that anoxic niches occur, but we do think that anoxic niches do not explain the large difference in response of N₂O production at high oxygen levels in the depth profiles (no to little N₂O production) compared to the manipulated oxygen treatments (very high N₂O production), because the potential for anaerobic microsites is given in all incubations. We added the potential for anaerobic processes inside microniches in line 530 – 534: „It further indicates that high N₂O production from NO₃⁻ in high oxygen treatments is unlikely an effect of anoxic micro niches. While anoxic micro niches in batch incubations can never be fully ruled out, there is no reason why they should systematically change N₂O production in NO₃⁻ from NO₂⁻ incubations at the same oxygen treatment. “

Shortly suggest/indicate benefits of also measuring other end products (e.g. ¹⁵N-N₂ and maybe also ¹⁵NH₄⁺ from DNRA) in the text (i.e. how does the 'efficiency' of denit change with changing O₂)

We added the advantage of measuring several potential end products in line 574 about DNRA and in line 482- 485 about anammox and denitrification (see first comment). The advantage of having production rates of N₂O and N₂ together is already discussed starting in line 485, and also starting in line 532, where we highlight the value of having the N₂O yields. The different responses/efficiency of denitrification to oxygen is extensively discussed in lines 523 onwards.

Some kind of 'conclusion' is needed at the end of the last sentence in relation to your study. Papers referring to 'cryptic' biogeochemical cycling in ODZ waters would also be nice to include in relating to 'hidden' processes.

As suggested, we added a conclusion to in line 581: “Even if hybrid N₂O production rates are overestimated, it remains the major N₂O production mechanisms of AO in this study.”

In this paragraph we want to explain the occurrence of hybrid N₂O formation rather than hidden process – so we did not add papers on cryptic cycling there.