



Controls on nitrite oxidation in the upper Southern Ocean: insights from winter kinetics 1 2 experiments in the Indian sector 3 Mhlangabezi Mdutyana^{1,2*}, Tanya Marshall¹, Xin Sun^{3,4}, Jessica M. Burger¹, Sandy J. Thomalla^{2,5}, Bess B. 4 Ward³ and Sarah E. Fawcett^{1,5} 5 ¹Department of Oceanography, University of Cape Town, Rondebosch, South Africa 6 ²Southern Ocean Carbon and Climate Observatory (SOCCO), CSIR, Rosebank, South Africa 7 ³Department of Geosciences, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey, USA 8 ⁴Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, USA 9 ⁵Marine and Antarctic Research centre for Innovation and Sustainability (MARIS), University of Cape 10 Town, Cape Town, South Africa 11 *Corresponding author: M. Mdutyana, mdtmhl001@myuct.ac.za 12 13 Abstract 14 15 Across the Southern Ocean in winter, nitrification is the dominant mixed-layer nitrogen cycle process, 16 with some of the nitrate produced therefrom persisting to fuel productivity during the subsequent 17 growing season, potentially weakening the spring/summer biological CO2 sink. To better understand 18 the controls on Southern Ocean nitrification, we conducted nitrite oxidation kinetics experiments in 19 surface waters across the western Indian sector in winter. While all experiments (seven in total) yielded 20 a Michaelis-Menten relationship with substrate concentration, the nitrite oxidation rates only increased 21 substantially once the nitrite concentration exceeded 115±2.3 to 245±18 nM, suggesting that nitrite 22 oxidizing bacteria (NOB) require a minimum (i.e., "threshold") nitrite concentration to produce nitrate. 23 The half-saturation constant ranged from 134±8 to 403±24 nM, indicating a relatively high affinity of 24 Southern Ocean NOB for nitrite, in contrast to results from culture experiments. Despite the high affinity of NOB for nitrite, its concentration rarely declines below 150 nM in the Southern Ocean's 25 26 mixed layer, regardless of season. In the upper mixed layer, we measured ammonium oxidation rates 27 that were two- to seven-fold higher than the coincident rates of nitrite oxidation, indicating that nitrite 28 oxidation is the rate-limiting step for nitrification in the winter Southern Ocean. The decoupling of 29 ammonium and nitrite oxidation, combined with a possible nitrite concentration threshold for NOB, 30 may explain the non-zero nitrite that persists throughout the Southern Ocean's mixed layer year-round. 31 We hypothesize that the apparent threshold nitrite requirement of NOB indicates nitrite undersaturation 32 of the heme-rich nitrite oxidoreductase enzyme, perhaps driven by the limited availability of iron in

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surface waters.





1. Introduction

The cycling of nitrogen (N) in the upper ocean is central to the role that phytoplankton and bacteria play in atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2) consumption and production. Annually, the Southern Ocean accounts for ~35% of total oceanic CO_2 removal (DeVries et al., 2017; Gruber et al., 2019; Watson et al., 2020) and absorbs ~40% of anthropogenic CO_2 (Khatiwala et al., 2009; Hauck et al., 2015; Gruber et al., 2019; Watson et al., 2020). The contribution of biology to CO_2 drawdown can be evaluated using the new production paradigm, among other approaches. This framework defines phytoplankton growth on nitrate (NO_3) supplied from below the euphotic zone as "new production" and phytoplankton growth on ammonium (NH_4) recycled within the euphotic zone as "regenerated production" (Dugdale and Goering 1967). Over appropriate timescales, new production is equivalent to "export production", the latter referring to the organic matter produced by phytoplankton that escapes recycling in surface waters and sinks into the ocean interior, thereby sequestering atmospheric CO_2 at depth (Dugdale and Goering, 1967; Eppley and Peterson ,1979; Volk and Hoffert, 1985; Raven and Falkowski, 1999). The occurrence of nitrification in the euphotic zone, which produces regenerated NO_3 , complicates applications of the new production paradigm since phytoplankton growth fuelled by this NO_3 will drive no net removal of $CO_2(Yool$ et al., 2007).

In the Southern Ocean, nitrification appears to be largely confined to the dark waters below the euphotic zone during the summertime period of maximum NO₃⁻ consumption by phytoplankton (DiFiore et al., 2009; Mdutyana et al., 2020). By contrast, the Southern Ocean winter is characterized by elevated mixed-layer nitrification, coincident with low rates of NO₃⁻ uptake (Smart et al., 2015; Mdutyana et al., 2020). Some of the NO₃⁻ regenerated in the winter mixed layer will be supplied to phytoplankton during the proceeding spring and summer growing season, with negative implications for CO₂ removal on an annual basis. That said, there is evidence that ammonia oxidizing archaea, the organisms that are dominantly responsible for NH₄⁺ oxidation (the first step in the nitrification pathway) (Beman et al., 2008; Newell et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2016) have a high iron requirement (Shafiee et al., 2019), such that NH₄⁺ oxidation may at times experience iron limitation (Mdutyana, 2021). If this limitation is verified and proves widespread in the environment, one implication is that the iron-deplete conditions of the surface Southern Ocean may restrict mixed-layer nitrification and by extension, its putative role in weakening the biological CO₂ sink.

Nitrification is a chemoautotrophic process involving two pathways usually facilitated by different groups of microorganisms. The first step is NH₄⁺ oxidation, which involves the oxidation of NH₄⁺ via hydroxylamine and nitric oxide to NO₂⁻ (Walker et al., 2010; Vajrala et al., 2013; Kozlowski et al., 2016; Caranto and Lancaster, 2017) by ammonia oxidizing archaea and bacteria (AOA and AOB, respectively; collectively, ammonia oxidizing organisms, AOO). The second step is the oxidation of

removal by phytoplankton.





NO₂⁻ to NO₃⁻ by nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB), a polyphyletic group of microbes that is not wellunderstood in the ocean (Watson et al., 1986; Beman et al., 2013; Daims et al., 2016; Pachiadaki et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2021). In general, NO₂⁻ oxidation rate data are limited, with few rate measurements available for the Southern Ocean (Bianchi et al., 1997; Mdutyana et al., 2020; Olson, 1981a). Such measurements are critical, however, if we are to better understand the controls on nitrification in the Southern Ocean mixed layer and the connection between NO₃⁻ production by NOB and its subsequent

One approach for investigating the controls on NO_2^- oxidation is through experiments designed to yield a hyperbolic Michaelis-Menten relationship between NO_2^- oxidation rate and NO_2^- concentration. Useful kinetic parameters can be derived from this relationship, such as the maximum oxidation rate (V_{max}) and the half-saturation constant (K_m) , with the latter indicating the NO_2^- concentration at which the oxidation rate equals $V_{max}/2$. Estimates of K_m provide information regarding the efficiency of NOB in acquiring substrate NO_2^- , with a lower K_m indicating a higher affinity for NO_2^- , while V_{max} denotes the maximum rate of NO_2^- oxidation that can be achieved under a particular set of conditions by a particular NOB community. In the ocean, direct measurements of NO_2^- oxidation kinetic parameters are extremely limited (Olson, 1981; Sun et al., 2017, 2021; Zhang et al., 2020), with no estimates available for the Southern Ocean. K_m values derived from culture studies of NOB range from 9-544 μ M (Nowka et al., 2015; Ushiki et al., 2017), orders of magnitude higher than the existing estimates for natural assemblages of NOB in coastal waters and oxygen deficient zones (ranging from 0.07-0.51 μ M; Olson, 1981; Sun et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). This discrepancy emphasizes the gaps in our understanding of NO_2^- oxidation and the organisms that catalyse it.

Generally, NO₂⁻ concentrations in the low-latitude oxygenated ocean reach a maximum near the base of the mixed layer (i.e., the primary nitrite maximum; PNM), with much lower concentrations above and below this depth (Lomas and Lipschultz, 2006). By contrast, at higher latitudes including in the Southern Ocean, the NO₂⁻ concentrations are elevated (100-400 nM) and fairly invariant throughout the mixed layer in all seasons (Zakem et al., 2018; Fripiat et al., 2019; Mdutyana et al., 2020). A possible explanation for this NO₂⁻ accumulation is a decoupling of the NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ oxidation rates, with NO₂⁻ oxidation being the rate-limiting step in the nitrification pathway, contrary to expectations for oxygenated marine waters (Kendall, 1998; Walker et al., 2010; Vajrala et al., 2013). However, this idea has yet to be examined using observations.

To better understand the controls on NO₂⁻ oxidation (and thus, nitrification) in the Southern Ocean, we conducted a series of NO₂⁻ oxidation kinetics experiments in wintertime surface waters across the western Indian sector. At every station (seven in total) along a transect between the Subtropical and Marginal Ice Zones, NO₂⁻ oxidation rates increased with increasing NO₂⁻ concentrations, as per the





expected Michaelis-Menten relationship. The derived K_m values were low and increased with increasing ambient NO_2^- . Additionally, there appeared to be a minimum NO_2^- concentration that was required before the NO_2^- oxidation rates increased significantly, implying a "threshold" NO_2^- requirement of the enzyme that catalyses the oxidation of NO_2^- to NO_3^- . Finally, coincident measurements of euphotic zone NH_4^+ and NO_2^- oxidation rates suggest that NO_2^- oxidation is rate-limiting for nitrification across the Southern Ocean in winter.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sampling site and experimental design

A winter cruise was undertaken onboard the R/V *SA Agulhas II* in July 2017 between Cape Town, South Africa, and the Marginal Ice Zone (MIZ; encountered at 61.7°S; de Jong et al., 2018), returning to South Africa along the meridional WOCE I06 transect (30°E) (Figure 1). Sampling was conducted on two legs – between 37°S and 62°S on the southward leg (Leg 1) and between 59°S and 41°S on the return northward leg along the WOCE I06 line (Leg 2). During Leg 1, only surface samples were collected, while on Leg 2, the deployment of conductivity-temperature-depth (CTD) hydrocasts allowed for depth-profile sampling.

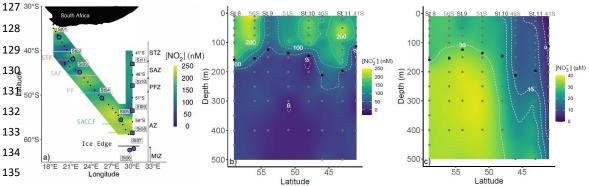


Figure 1: a) Map of the cruise track showing the kinetics stations (large circle symbols) and locations of the underway stations sampled during Leg 1 (small symbols), overlaid on the measured surface (~7 m) nitrite concentrations ([NO₂]). Additionally, the locations of the hydrocast stations occupied during Leg 2 are shown, with the stations at which depth-profile experiments were conducted shown by the large square symbols. The coloured horizontal lines denote the frontal positions at the time of sampling and the major zones of the Southern Ocean are indicated by the vertical lines and dots – STZ, Subtropical Zone; STF, Subtropical Front; SAZ, Subantarctic Zone; SAF, Subantarctic Front; PFZ, Polar Frontal Zone; PF, Polar Front; AZ, Antarctic Zone; SACCF, Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Front; MIZ, Marginal Ice Zone. Also shown are water column (0-500 m) profiles of the concentrations of b) nitrite (NO₂-) and c) nitrate (NO₃-) sampled during Leg 2. The vertical grey dots indicate the sampling depths at all the hydrocast stations (eight in total), with the four stations at which depth profile experiments were conducted (St 08 to St 11) labeled above the panel. The black dots show the mixed layer depths.





2.1.1 Hydrography and nutrient collections: The positions of the major hydrographic fronts (the Subtropical Front, STF; Subantarctic Front, SAF; Polar Front, PF; and Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front, SACCF; Figure 1) were determined from temperature and salinity measured by the ship's hull-mounted thermosalinograph (~7 m), augmented by temperature, salinity, and oxygen concentrations measured on Leg 2 by the CTD sensors (Orsi et al., 1995; Belkin and Gordon, 1996; Pollard et al., 2002; Read et al., 2002). For the hydrocast stations, the mixed layer depth was determined for each CTD (up)cast as the depth between 10 m and 400 m of maximum Brunt Väisälä frequency squared (i.e., N²) (Schofield et al., 2015; Carvalho et al., 2017).

2.1.2 Nutrient samples: Seawater samples were collected every four hours from the ship's underway system (~7 m intake) on Leg 1 for the determination of NO₂⁻ concentrations (Figure 1a). During Leg 2, samples were collected from Niskin bottles fired remotely between the surface and 500 m at eight hydrocast stations for the analysis of NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ concentrations (see Figure 1b and c for station locations and sampling depths). For NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻, unfiltered seawater was collected in duplicate 50 mL polypropylene centrifuge tubes that were analysed shipboard within 24 hours of collection (NO₂⁻) or stored frozen at -20°C until analysis (NO₃⁻). Seawater samples for NH₄⁺ were collected unfiltered in duplicate high-density polyethylene (HDPE) bottles that had been "aged" with orthophthaldialdehyde (OPA) working reagent, and analysed shipboard within 24 hours of collection.

2.1.3 NO₂ oxidation kinetics experiments: On Leg 1, seawater samples were collected from the surface via the ship's underway system at seven stations spanning the different zones of the Southern Ocean (the Subtropical Zone (STZ) to the north of the STF, at the STF, the Subantarctic Zone (SAZ) between the STF and SAF, the Polar Frontal Zone (PFZ) between the SAF and PF, the Open Antarctic Zone (OAZ) between the PF and SACCF, and the Marginal Ice Zone (MIZ) south of the SACCF; St 01 to St 07 in Figure 1a). At each station, 25 L of seawater were collected in a single carboy that was gently shaken to homogenize the contents before the seawater was filtered through a 200 μm nylon mesh to remove zooplankton grazers and then dispensed into 250 mL acid-washed opaque HDPE bottles. All the bottles were rinsed three times with sample water prior to filling. Eight sets of duplicate 250 mL bottles were amended with Na¹⁵NO₂ to yield ¹⁵NO₂ concentrations ranging from 10 nM to 1500 nM.

 2.1.4 Depth distribution of NO₂⁻ oxidation: On Leg 2, seawater was collected at four stations (one each in the Polar Antarctic Zone (PAZ; just north of the edge of the MIZ), OAZ, PFZ, and SAZ; St 08 to St 11 in Figure 1a-c) using a CTD-rosette equipped with 24 12-L Niskin bottles. Seawater from six depths (10 m, 25 m, 50 m, 75 m, 200 m, and 500 m) was pre-filtered (200 μm nylon mesh) and transferred into rinsed 250 mL acid-washed opaque HDPE bottles. Duplicate bottles from each depth were amended with Na¹⁵NO₂ to yield a final ¹⁵NO₂⁻ concentration of 200 nM. From all incubation bottles (for kinetics and depth-profile experiments), initial (T₀) subsamples were collected in 50 mL centrifuge tubes





immediately after the addition of ¹⁵NO₂. The HDPE bottles from the upper 75 m were then incubated in custom-built on-deck incubators supplied with running surface seawater, while those from 200 m and 500 m were incubated in a ~2°C cold room. The incubations lasted 23-30 hours and were terminated via the collection of final (T_f) subsamples (50 mL). Subsamples were filtered (0.2 µm) and stored frozen at -20°C until analysis.

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2.1.5 Depth distribution of NO₃ uptake: To assess the extent to which mixed-layer NO₂ oxidation supports wintertime NO₃ uptake by phytoplankton, we also conducted NO₃ uptake experiments over the upper 75 m (the approximate depth of the euphotic zone) at St 08 to St 11 on Leg 2. Seawater was collected from four depths – 10 m, 25 m, 50 m, and 75 m – in duplicate 2 L clear polycarbonate bottles following filtration (200 μm nylon mesh) to remove zooplankton grazers. Na¹⁵NO₃ was added to each bottle to yield a final ¹⁵NO₃ concentration of 3 µM, and the bottles were then transferred to custombuilt deck-board incubators equipped with neutral density screens that allowed for the penetration of 55%, 30%, 10%, and 1% of surface photosynthetically active radiation (PAR). The bottles were kept at near in situ temperature via a supply of continuously-running seawater from the underway system. Samples were incubated for 3-6 hours, and incubations were terminated by filtering the bottle contents through pre-combusted (450°C for 8 hours) 0.3 µm glass fibre filters (GF-75; Sterlitech) that were subsequently enclosed in foil envelops (pre-combusted at 500°C for 5 hours) that were stored at -80°C until analysis.

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2.2. Laboratory analyses

2.2.1 Nutrient concentrations: Samples were analysed for NO₂ concentrations onboard the ship using the colorimetric method of Grasshoff et al., (1983) and a Thermo Scientific Genesys 30 Visible spectrophotometer (detection limit of 20 nM, precision of ±20 nM). NO₃ +NO₂ concentrations were measured ashore using a Lachat Quick-Chem flow injection autoanalyzer (Egan, 2008) in a configuration with a detection limit of 0.2 μ M and precision of $\pm 0.3 \mu$ M. The concentration of NO₃ was determined by subtracting NO2 from NO3+NO2. Aliquots of a certified reference material (JAMSTEC) were included in each NO2 and NO3+NO2 run to ensure measurement accuracy. The NH₄⁺ concentrations were also determined shipboard using the fluorometric method of Holmes et al. (1999); the methodological details and NH₄⁺ data are discussed at length in (Mdutyana, 2021).

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221 222 $2.2.2 \, NO_2$ oxidation rates: Using the denitrifier-isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) method (Sigman et al., 2001; McIlvin and Casciotti, 2011), we measured the δ^{15} N of NO₃ (δ^{15} N-NO₃) produced from $^{15}\text{NO}_2$ oxidation for both the kinetics and depth-profile experiments (δ^{15} N, in ‰ vs. air, = $(^{15}N/^{14}N_{sample}/^{15}N/^{14}N_{air}-1)\times 1000)$. Samples were measured using a Delta V Plus IRMS with a custombuilt purge-and-trap front end (McIlvin and Casciotti, 2011) in a configuration with a detection limit of





223 0.2 nmol of N and a $\delta^{15}N$ precision of 0.2%. Prior to isotope analysis, samples were treated with

sulfamic acid (15 mM) for 1 hour to remove ¹⁵NO₂ remaining at the end of the experiments, after which

225 sample pH was adjusted to ~7-8 via the addition of 2 M NaOH. To account for inefficiencies in ¹⁵NO₂-

226 removal, both the T_f and T_0 samples were treated with sulfamic acid and analysed for δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (more

227 accurately, δ¹⁵N-NO₃ +NO₂), with the difference between them taken as the ¹⁵NO₃ enrichment due to

228 ¹⁵NO₂ oxidation (Peng et al., 2015). International reference materials (IAEA-N3, USGS 34, USGS 32)

were used to calibrate the measured δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻.

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The rate of NO₂ oxidation (NO₂ ox; nM d⁻¹) was calculated following Peng et al., (2015) as:

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$$NO_{2_{0X}}^{-} = \frac{\Delta[^{15}NO_{3}^{-}]}{f_{NO_{2}}^{15} \times T}$$
 (1)

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Where Δ [$^{15}NO_3$ $^{-}$] is the change in the concentration of $^{15}NO_3$ $^{-}$ between the start and end of the incubation

due to NO_2^- oxidation, calculated from the difference in the measured $\delta^{15}N$ - NO_3^- between the T_f and T_0

samples, $f_{NO_2}^{15}$ is the fraction of the NO_2 substrate pool labelled with ^{15}N at the start of the incubation,

and T is the incubation length (days). Detection limits for NO_{2 ox} rates ranged from 0.11 to 0.36 nM d⁻¹

¹, calculated according to Santoro et al., (2013) and Mdutyana et al., (2020).

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2.2.3 Kinetic model: Kinetic parameters are typically calculated using the Michaelis-Menten (MM)

equation for enzyme kinetics (Monod, 1942):

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$$V = \frac{V_{\text{max}} \times S}{K_{\text{m}} + S}$$
 (2)

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where V is the measured reaction rate, V_{max} is the maximum reaction rate achievable under in situ

247 conditions at saturating substrate (S) concentrations, and K_m is the half-saturation constant, defined as

the substrate concentration at which $V = V_{max}/2$.

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250 The MM equation (equation 2) is a rectangular hyperbola, meaning that the asymptotes along the x-

and y-axes are perpendicular. By definition, when S (the x-axis variable) is equal to zero, V (the y-axis

variable) is also zero, forcing the model through the origin (0,0). In the case of NO_2^- oxidation, the assumption that once S > 0, V > 0 is appropriate in waters where the ambient NO_2^- concentration is

assumption that once S > 0, V > 0 is appropriate in waters where the ambient NO_2^- concentration is near-zero or where NO_2^- is non-zero but considerably lower than the K_m . In the Southern Ocean, mixed-

layer NO₂ concentrations are typically always ≥150 nM (Cavagna et al., 2015; Zakem et al., 2018;

Fripiat et al., 2019; Mdutyana et al., 2020) and forcing the MM model through the origin results in a





poor fit to the measurements (red line in Figure S1). This poor fit, in turn, leads to clearly inaccurate estimates of the kinetic parameters, particularly K_m (Table S1).

While not typical for studies of NO₂ oxidation kinetics in the ocean, the standard form of non-linear regression models, including the MM equation, can be modified to better fit observations (e.g., Birch, 1999; Tsoularis and Wallace, 2002; Archontoulis and Miguez, 2014). For application to our dataset, we

modified equation 2 to allow V = 0 at S > 0 by subtracting a location parameter, C, from S (Figure 2;

Archontoulis and Miguez, 2014). In other words, we set the y-intercept (i.e., where V=0) equal to C

rather than to zero, which yields equation 3:

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$$V = \frac{V_{\text{max}} \times (S-C)}{K_{\text{m}*} + (S-C)}$$
 (3)

Using a non-linear, least-squares optimization method (Scipy Imfit package, Python 3.7.6), we solved equation 3 for V_{max} , K_{m^*} , and C. The value of K_{m^*} derived thus is relative to C, such that the substrate concentration at which $V = V_{max}/2$ (i.e., K_m) is actually equal to $K_{m^*} + C$ (Supplemental Information). Mechanistically, C represents a "threshold" substrate concentration; when $S \leq C$, V = 0. All kinetic

parameters are reported as the best fit plus 95% confidence interval (i.e., mean $\pm 2\sigma$; Table 1).

2.2.4 Revising the depth distribution of NO_2^- oxidation using K_m : For the NO_2^- oxidation experiments conducted at the Leg 2 hydrocast stations (i.e., depth-profile experiments; St 08 to St 11), the $Na^{15}NO_2^-$ was added to yield a final $^{15}NO_2^-$ concentration of 200 nM at all the sampled depths. However, at low ambient NO_2^- concentrations (<1-2 μ M), an amendment of this magnitude may stimulate NO_2^- oxidation, leading to an overestimation of the *in situ* rates. We thus revised our measured NO_2^- ox rates using the derived K_m values as per Rees et al., (1999), Diaz and Raimbault, (2000), and Horak et al., (2013):

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$$\operatorname{corrNO}_{2_{Ox}}^{-} = \frac{\operatorname{NO}_{2_{Ox}}^{-}}{\operatorname{\frac{[NO_{2}^{-}]_{total}}{K_{m} + [NO_{2}^{-}]_{total}}} \times \frac{K_{m} + [NO_{2}^{-}]_{amb}}{[NO_{2}^{-}]_{amb}}$$
 (4)

Here, $corrNO_{2^{-}ox}$ is the revised rate of $NO_{2^{-}ox}$, $NO_{2^{-}ox}$ is the measured $NO_{2^{-}}$ oxidation rate (equation 1), $[NO_{2^{-}}]_{amb}$ is the ambient $NO_{2^{-}}$ concentration measured at each depth, $[NO_{2^{-}}]_{total}$ refers to the $[^{15}NO_{2^{-}}]_{tracer}] + [NO_{2^{-}}]_{amb}$, and K_m is the derived half-saturation constant. We estimated a K_m for each sample depth from the equation resulting from the linear regression of all derived K_m values on $[NO_{2^{-}}]_{amb}$ (see section 4.2 below). We also computed $corrNO_{2^{-}ox}$ using the K_m derived from the Leg 1 kinetics experiment located nearest each hydrocast station, which yielded very similar results. The values of $corrNO_{2^{-}ox}$ presented here were computed using the K_m values derived from the linear regression





equation. Rates of NH_4^+ oxidation measured coincident with $NO_{2^- ox}$ on Leg 2 (see Mdutyana 2021) were similarly revised (to yield corr NH_4^+ ox) using the K_m values derived from kinetics experiments conducted during Leg 1 – for St 08 and 09, K_m =137 nM, for St 09, K_m = 67 nM, and for St 11, K_m = 28 nM.

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2.2.5 Isotopic dilution of $^{15}NO_2$ by co-occurring NH_4^+ oxidation: The focus of this study is the second step in the nitrification pathway. However, not only will NO₂ have been consumed in our incubation bottles (i.e., oxidized to NO₃), but it will also have been produced by NH₄+ oxidation, the first step in the nitrification pathway. For all of our NO₂ oxidation rate experiments (kinetics and depth-profile), we measured the coincident rates of NH₄⁺ oxidation (Mdutyana, 2021), and these data can be used to account for any dilution of the ¹⁵NO₂- pool by ¹⁴NO₂- produced from ¹⁴NH₄+ oxidation (following the approach of Glibert et al., 1982, 1985; Mulholland and Bernhardt, 2005). We found that isotopic dilution in the mixed layer was minor because the ambient NO₂ concentrations were reasonably high (mean of 157 ± 54 nM, range of 64 to 226 nM for all the depths at which experiments were conducted; Figure 1a-b) and the NH₄⁺ oxidation rates were fairly low (mean of 13.4 ± 4.0 nM d⁻¹, range of 7.8 to 22.0 nM d⁻¹; see Figure 3f-j for the depth profile rates and Mdutyana (2021) for the kinetics station rates). Below the mixed layer where the ambient NO₂ concentrations were near-zero, so too were the NH₄⁺ oxidation rates, which again resulted in minimal dilution of the ¹⁵NO₂⁻ pool. Accounting for isotope dilution increased the NO_2 oxidation rates by 0 to 12% (mean of 3.9 \pm 0.3% and median of 3.7 $\pm 0.3\%$), which is within the experimental error associated with the rate measurements; we thus consider the effect of isotope dilution to be negligible

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2.2.6 Nitrate uptake rates: On shore, the GF-75 filters were oven-dried at 45°C for 24 hours, then pelletized into tin cups following the removal of unused peripheral filter. The concentration and isotopic composition of the particulate organic N (PON) captured on the filters was analyzed using a Delta V Plus IRMS coupled to a Flash 2000 elemental analyser, with a detection limit of 1 μ g N and precision of ± 0.005 At%. Blanks (combusted unused filters + tin capsules) and laboratory running standards calibrated to international reference materials were run after every five to ten samples. The absolute rates of NO₃ uptake (ρ NO₃; nM d⁻¹) were calculated after blank correction according to the equations of Dugdale and Wilkerson (1986) assuming a day-length of between 7 and 10 hours, depending on the station latitude. To compute the fraction of the mixed-layer NO₃ pool consumed by phytoplankton that derived from *in situ* nitrification, we trapezoidally-integrated ρ NO₃ and corrNO_{2 ox} over the mixed layer following Mdutyana et al., (2020), and then divided the integrated values of corrNO_{2 ox} by ρ NO₃.

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3. Results

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3.1 Hydrography and nutrient concentrations





The positions of the major hydrographic fronts during both legs of the cruise are shown in Figure 1a. At the hydrocast stations (Leg 2), the mixed layer depth (MLD) averaged 143 m in the OAZ, 146 m in the PFZ, 205 m in the SAZ, and 113 m in the STZ, which is within the reported climatological range for the western Indian sector in winter (Sallée et al. 2010). Underway ambient NO₂⁻ concentrations (Leg 1) ranged from 74 nM to 232 nM (transect average of 168 ± 48 nM, median of 177 nM) and generally increased with latitude, albeit with a high degree of variability (Figure 1a; Figure S2). The ambient NO₂⁻ concentrations at the hydrocast stations were fairly constant throughout the mixed layer (ranging from 150 ± 100 nM, decreasing rapidly to values below detection by 150 - 200 m (Figure 1b). Mixed-layer NO₂⁻ showed no clear latitudinal trend, mainly because of the anomalously low concentrations measured at St 09 (100 ± 100) (100 ± 100) mixed-layer average of 100 ± 100 nM, compared to 100 ± 100 nM, compared to 100 ± 100 nM at the seven other hydrocast stations). The NO₃⁻ concentrations were also near-homogenous throughout the mixed layer, decreasing from an average of 100 ± 100 nM at the southernmost station (St 100 ± 100) to 100 ± 100 nM at the northernmost station (100 ± 100), and increasing below the mixed layer as expected (Figure 1c).

3.2. NO₂ oxidation rates

3.2.1 Kinetics experiments: At all the kinetics stations (St 01 to St 07; Leg 1), an MM curve could be fit to the NO₂⁻ oxidation rate *versus* substrate concentration measurements using equation 3 (Figure 2). The derived kinetic parameters varied across the transect (Table 1). The maximum NO₂⁻ oxidation rate (V_{max}) increased southwards from from 5.2 ± 0.1 nM d⁻¹ at the STF (St 02; Figure 2b) to 13 ± 0.4 nM d⁻¹ in the AZ (St 05; Figure 2e), before decreasing in the MIZ to 8.2 ± 0.1 nM d⁻¹ at St 06 (Figure 2f) and 6.6 ± 0.3 nM at St 07 (Figure 2g). The average V_{max} for the transect was 9.0 ± 1.1 nM d⁻¹. The half-saturation constant, K_m, increased from 134 ± 8.0 nM at the STF (St 02) to 403 ± 24 nM in the MIZ (St 06), with a transect average of 277 ± 31 nM. The value of C showed a positive relationship with [NO₂-lamb and no strong relationship with latitude, and ranged from 115 ± 2.3 nM at the STF (St 02) to 245 ± 18 nM in the AZ (St 05), with a transect average of 181 ± 45 nM.

Table 1: Kinetic parameters (V_{max}, K_m and C) associated with NO₂⁻ oxidation experiments conducted across the western Indian sector of the Southern Ocean in winter 2017. Included here is the best fit and 95% confidence interval ("CI") for each kinetic parameter, derived using a non-linear, least-squa7res optimization method (Scipy lmfit package, Python 3.7.6).

Station name	Latitude	Longitude	[NO2] amb (nM)	V_{max} (nM d ⁻¹)	95%CI (nM d ⁻¹)	K _m (nM)	95%CI (nM)	C (nM)	95%CI (nM)
St 01	37°S	19°E	157	9.1	7.9 to 10	263	192 to 350	193	144 to 206
St 02	42°S	21°E	108	5.2	4.8 to 5.5	134	109 to 163	115	105 to 119
St 03	45°S	22°E	103	8.3	7.4 to 9.3	206	15 to 373	139	-11 to 163
St 04	50°S	26°E	162	13	11 to 15	288	104 to 538	172	68 to 204
St 05	55°S	28°E	212	14	13 to 15	329	183 to 458	245	138 to 272
St 06	62°S	30°E	226	8.2	7.8 to 8.6	403	320 to 499	163	129 to 187
St 07	62°S	30°E	226	6.6	6.0 to 7.4	317	234 to 395	237	190 to 255





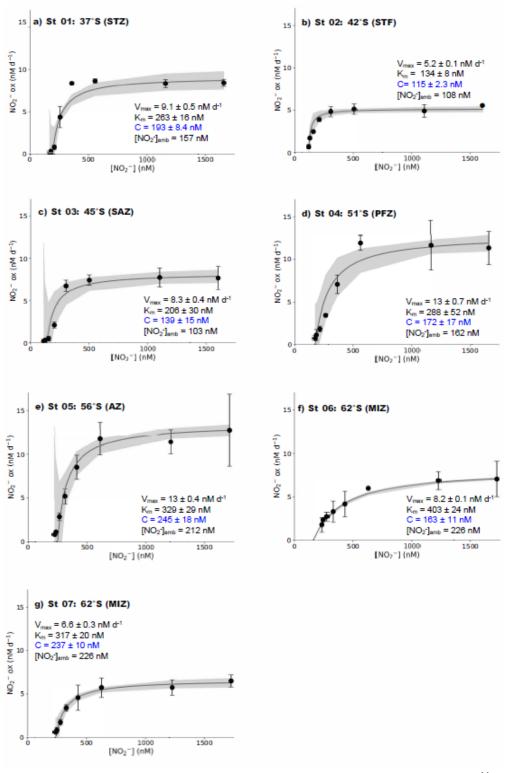




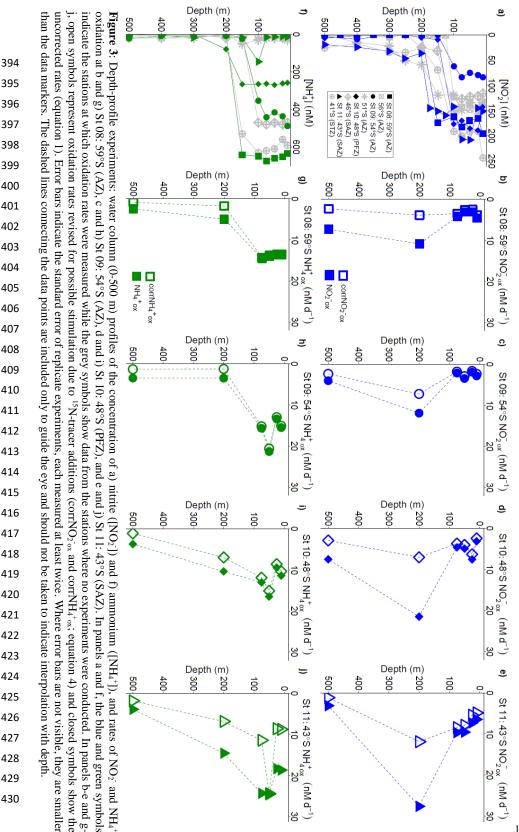


Figure 2: Kinetics experiments: the dependence of NO_2^- oxidation rates on NO_2^- concentration ([NO_2^-]) at the surface (~7 m) in winter at a) St 01: 37°S (STZ), b) St 02: 42°S (STF), c) St 03: 45°S (SAZ), d) St 04: 51°S (PFZ), e) St 05: 55°S (OAZ), f) St 06: 62°S (MIZ), and g) St 07: 62°S (MIZ). The solid lines show the Michaelis-Menten best fit, with the derived values of V_{max} , K_m , and C, as well as the ambient concentration of nitrite ([NO_2^-] $_{amb}$), indicated on each panel. Error bars indicate the standard error of replicate experiments, each measured at least twice. Where errors bars are not visible, they are smaller than the data markers. The grey shaded area shows the 95% confidence interval associated with the model fit. Note that the x-axis represents total [NO_2^-] (i.e., [$^{15}NO_2^-$ tracer] + [NO_2^-] $_{amb}$).

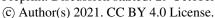
3.2.2 Depth-profile experiments: NO_2^- oxidation rates at St 08 to St 11, calculated using equation 1, were low and largely invariant over the upper 75 m, ranging from 1.9 to 9.7 nM d⁻¹ (average of 4.9 \pm 2.4 nM d⁻¹; filled symbols in Figure 3b-e). All stations showed a maximum NO_2^- oxidation rate at 200 m (roughly coincident with or just below the base of the mixed layer), ranging between 11 and 28 nM d⁻¹ (average of 18 ± 7.0 nM d⁻¹). The NO_2^- oxidation rates showed a latitudinal gradient, with lower rates in the AZ (St 08 and 09) than in the PFZ (St 10) and SAZ (St 11).

Revising the NO₂ oxidation rates using equation 4 decreased their 0-75 m values by 13 to 26% (i.e., corrNO $_{2\text{ ox}}$ ranged from 1.6 to 8.5 nM d⁻¹ and averaged 4.0 \pm 2.0 nM d⁻¹ over the upper 75 m; open symbols in Figure 3b-e). The largest decrease (of 39 to 68%) occurred at 200 m and 500 m, coinciding with very low ambient NO₂ concentrations (Figure 3a); nonetheless, at all but St 08, the maximum NO₂ oxidation rate was still observed at 200 m, although its magnitude was lower. The coincidentallymeasured and revised NH₄⁺ oxidation rates (corrNH₄⁺_{ox}) showed a similar pattern, with the largest decrease occurring at the depths with the lowest ambient NH₄⁺ concentrations (Figure 3f-j) – over the upper 75 m, the rates decreased by 1 to 9% at St 08 to St 10 where the mixed-layer ambient NH₄⁺ concentrations averaged 263 ± 4.3 to 655 ± 15 nM, while at St 11 where the mixed-layer ambient NH₄⁺ concentration averaged 13 ± 1.6 nM, the rates decreased by $40 \pm 23\%$. Similar to the NO_2 oxidation rates, the NH₄⁺ oxidation rates decreased most at 200 m and 500 m, between 33% and 70%. Hereafter, we use the revised NO₂ and NH₄ oxidation rates (corrNO_{2 ox} and corrNH₄ ox, respectively) when referring to the depth distributions of these processes, including in Figures 5 and 6. We note, however, that the revised rates may still not be entirely accurate since K_m was not derived individually for each depth at each station (Horak et al., 2013). Nonetheless, because of the high concentration of the 15Ntracer amendments relative to all derived K_m values, we are confident that the revised rates are more representative of in situ conditions than the rates computed using equation 1.





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431 3.3 NO₃ uptake rates

432 The rates of NO₃ uptake (ρ NO₃) were low and relatively homogenous over the upper 75 m at each

433 station (Figure S3a). Average euphotic zone ρNO_3 increased northwards, from 2.9 ± 1.1 nM d⁻¹ at St

434 08 in the AZ to 12 ± 2.0 nM d⁻¹ at St 11 in the SAZ, with a transect average of 6.2 ± 3.4 nM d⁻¹. The

435 euphotic zone PON concentrations also increased northwards, from $0.24 \pm 0.02~\mu M$ at St 08 to $0.47 \pm$

0.08 µM at St 11 (Figure S3b). 436

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438 Integrated over the mixed layer, corrNO_{2 ox} accounted for an average of 122% of pNO₃ (range of 63%

439 at St 09 to 237% at St 08 in the AZ; Table S2), as has been observed previously in the wintertime

440 Southern Ocean (Mdutyana et al., 2020). These data confirm that, at least in a mass balance sense, most

441 of the mixed-layer NO₃ consumed by phytoplankton in winter, and likely also a significant fraction

442 assimilated in spring, supports regenerated rather than new production, thus weakening the biological

443 CO₂ sink and complication the use of new production as a proxy for carbon export (Yool et al., 2007;

444 Mdutyana et al., 2020).

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4. Discussion

NO₂ oxidation, the ultimate step in the nitrification pathway, is important in oceanic N cycling because it produces NO₃, the most oxidized and dominant form of N that controls phytoplankton growth across most of the global ocean (Moore et al., 2013). Experiments designed to measure the kinetics of NO₂ oxidation, as conducted here, allow for an examination of the controls on marine nitrification. Across all the major zones of the wintertime Southern Ocean, the addition of NO₂ to samples of surface seawater stimulated NO2 oxidation following a Michaelis-Menten relationship, suggesting that substrate availability plays a dominant role in determining the rate of NO₃ production in the Southern Ocean's winter mixed layer. Curiously, however, we also observed an apparent minimum substrate requirement of NO₂ oxidation (i.e., a "threshold" NO₂ concentration, ranging from 115 to 245 nM), which is in contrast to expectations for a "classical" Michaelis-Menten relationship (i.e., V is assumed to increase as soon as S > 0, assuming S is limiting to V; Monod, 1942). Below, we examine our findings in the context of existing estimates of NO₂ oxidation kinetic parameters and then evaluate the potential drivers of the trends that we observe. We also discuss possible reasons for the apparent requirement of Southern Ocean NOB for a threshold ambient NO₂ concentration and consider the implications thereof

461 462 for the regional N cycle.

463 4.1 Southern Ocean NO₂ oxidation kinetic parameters in the context of existing estimates

Measurements of NO2 oxidation rates are limited in the Southern Ocean, with only two studies that 464

465 have directly measured this pathway in open-ocean waters (Bianchi et al., 1997; Mdutyana et al., 2020).

466 For NO₂ oxidation kinetics, there are no data at all for the Southern Ocean. This scarcity of

467 measurements is unsurprising given that in situ NO₂ oxidation kinetics studies are generally limited;





indeed, to our knowledge, there are only two studies from the coastal ocean (Olson, 1981a; Zhang et al., 2020) and two from the Eastern Tropical North Pacific oxygen deficient zone (ETNP ODZ; with experiments conducted across a range of ambient oxygen concentrations; Sun et al., 2017, 2021). By contrast, there exist numerous estimates of NO_2 oxidation kinetic parameters determined from studies using cultured marine NOB (e.g., Sorokin et al., 2012; Nowka et al., 2015; Jacob et al., 2017; Kits et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). In general, culture experiments suggest far higher kinetic constants compared to the limited *in situ* observations from the ocean, particularly for K_m (i.e., culture-based estimates of 9-544 μ M; Blackburne et al., 2007; Nowka et al., 2015; Ushiki et al., 2017).

The high K_m values derived for cultured NOB suggest that the affinity of these organisms for NO_2 is low. However, this is not what is observed in the environment, which indicates that the most abundant NOB in the ocean are not represented in the culture collection. For the Southern Ocean, we report high substrate affinities of NOB, with K_m values ranging from 134 to 403 nM, which is largely within the range documented for coastal waters (27-506 nM; Zhang et al., 2020) and the oxygenated open ocean (27-506 nM; Olson, 1981; Zhang et al., 2020) (Table 2). In the low- to zero-oxygen waters of the ETNP ODZ, similarly low K_m values have been reported (254 \pm 161 nM; Sun et al., 2017), as have values >5 μ M (Sun et al., 2021). These latter estimates were associated with ambient NO_2 concentrations >1 μ M. We explore the relationship between ambient NO_2 concentration and K_m in detail in section 4.2 below. Our focus is on the K_m values derived under conditions of low ambient NO_2 given that (some of) the environmental factors affecting NO_2 oxidation at high ambient NO_2 concentrations appear to be unique. For example, oxygen has been shown to decrease the rate of NO_2 oxidation in the ODZs (Sun et al., 2017, 2021) where novel clades of NOB have been detected (Sun et al., 2021).

Table 2: A selection of previously derived K_m values from various regions of the open ocean, along with the concurrently-measured ambient concentrations of nitrite ([NO₂-]_{amb}). The numbers in parenthesis are standard errors.

493	Region	[NO ₂ -] (nM)	Sampled depth (m)	Km (nM)	Reference
404	Indian Southern Ocean: St 01: 37°S	157	7	263 (16)	This study
494	Indian Southern Ocean: St 02: 42°S	108	7	134 (8)	This study
495	Indian Southern Ocean: St 03: 45°S	103	7	206 (30)	This study
400	Indian Southern Ocean: St 04:51°S	162	7	288 (52)	This study
496	Indian Southern Ocean: St 05: 56°S	212	7	329 (29)	This study
497	Indian Southern Ocean: St 06: 62°S	226	7	403 (24)	This study
400	Indian Southern Ocean: St 07: 62°S	226	7	317 (20)	This study
498	Southern California Bight	20	60	70	Olson 1981
499	Eastern Tropical North Pacific	100	53	281 (151)	Sun et al. 2017
	Eastern Tropical North Pacific	50	170	227 (55)	Sun et al. 2017
500	South China Sea	51	110	195 (33)	
501	South China Sea	71	95	175 (37)	Zhang et al. 2020 Zhang et al. 2020
502	South China Sea	31	150	49 (15)	Zhang et al. 2020
	South China Sea	185	75	506 (82)	Zhang et al. 2020
503	South China Sea	34	200	27 (11)	Zhang et al. 2020
504	Subtropical South Atlantic	14	150	74 (29)	Fawcett et al. in prep
	Subtropical South Atlantic	152	150	167 (4.3)	Fawcett et al. in prep





505 Across our Southern Ocean transect, V_{max} ranged from 5 to 14 nM d⁻¹, which is relatively low compared 506 to estimates from other regions (Table 2), although such a comparison may not be particularly 507 informative as our rates (and typically those of others) are not normalized for NOB abundance. Our 508 V_{max} estimates are also low compared to a previous study of mixed-layer nitrification in the winter 509 Southern Ocean (Mdutyana et al., 2020). This difference may in part be due to the fact that the kinetics experiments were conducted using surface (~7 m) seawater (and thus, the surface NOB community that 510 511 had been exposed to surface conditions, including elevated light), yet the highest rates of NO₂ oxidation 512 often occur near the base of the mixed layer, including in the Southern Ocean (Figure 3b-e; Sun et al., 513 2017; Peng et al., 2018; Mdutyana et al., 2020). The opposite pattern has also been observed, however, 514 with deeper samples yielding a lower V_{max} than samples collected in shallow waters (Sun et al., 2017; 515 Zhang et al., 2020). 516 517 4.2 Environmental drivers of the NO₂ oxidation kinetic parameters 518 We report maximum NO₂ oxidation rates that generally increase towards the south and with decreasing SST (recognizing that these parameters co-vary), although St 01 in the STZ and St 06 and 07 in the 519 MIZ deviate from this trend (Figure 4a and b; $R^2 = 0.019$; p = 0.77 and $R^2 = 0.12$; p = 0.45, respectively 520 when all the stations are considered, and $R^2 = 0.92$; p = 0.041 and $R^2 = 0.94$; p = 0.029, respectively, 521 522 when St 01, 06, and 07 are excluded). It is possible that changes in the NOB community (composition 523 and/or abundance) across the transect explains some of the observed variability. Nonetheless, taking 524 latitude as a qualitative proxy for light, it is perhaps unsurprising that the maximum NO₂ oxidation 525 rates increase southwards given that NOB are known to be at least partially light inhibited (Peng et al., 526 2018; Ward, 2005; Olson, 1981b). This hypothesis does not hold for the stations in the MIZ, however, at which V_{max} decreases sharply despite these waters receiving the least light (less than 5 hours of weak 527 sunlight, versus ~7 hours at 55°S to ~9 hours at 37°S). The temperature at the MIZ stations was <0°C, 528 which raises the possibility of a temperature effect on V_{max} . Indeed, we previously observed a strong 529 decline in the V_{max} associated with NH₄+ oxidation at SSTs <0°C in the Southern Ocean, while at SSTs 530 531 ranging from 0.6°C to 16°C, V_{max} was near invariant (Mdutyana, 2021). 532 533 Marine nitrification has been reported to be largely unaffected by temperature variations (Bianchi et al., 534 1997; Horak et al., 2013; Baer et al., 2014), although NH₄⁺ and NO₂ oxidation may respond differently to similar changes in temperature. For example, marine NOB incubated at temperatures ranging from 535 536 10°C to 35°C responded far more slowly to an increase in temperature than co-incubated AOA, resulting 537 in an accumulation of NO₂ in the incubation bottles (Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017). By contrast, we previously observed no robust relationship between temperature and the maximum NH₄⁺ oxidation rate 538 539 in the Southern Ocean (Mdutyana, 2021), a finding that is consistent with studies of NH₄⁺ oxidation in the Arctic and temperate coastal ocean (Horak et al., 2013; Baer et al., 2014). Far less work has been 540

done to assess the response of NOB to temperature changes. In the absence of experiments specifically





designed to test the response of Southern Ocean NOB communities to temperature, it is difficult to disentangle the effect(s) on NO_2^- oxidation of temperature *versus* light (and possibly other parameters that co-vary with latitude, such as NO_2^- and/or micronutrient availability).

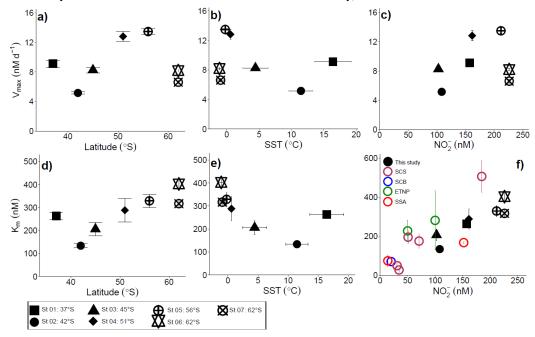


Figure 4: Potential controls on the kinetic parameters associated with NO_2 oxidation. V_{max} and K_m are shown as a function of a and d) latitude, b and e) sea surface temperature (SST), and c and f) the ambient nitrite concentration ($[NO_2]_{amb}$). Vertical error bars show the propagated error associated with V_{max} and K_m computed using a non-linear, least-squares optimization method (Scipy lmfit package, Python 3.7.6), while the symbols and horizontal error bars on panels b and e indicate the average (\pm standard deviation) SST experienced by the samples during the incubations. In panel f, black symbols show our Southern Ocean data, maroon symbols show K_m values from the South China Sea (SCS; Zhang et al. 2020), the blue symbol shows the K_m value derived for the South California Bight (SCB; Olson 1981a), the green symbol shows K_m values from Eastern Tropical North Pacific oxygen deficient zone (ETNP; Sun et al. 2017), and the red symbols show K_m values derived for the subtropical southeast Atlantic (SSA; Fawcett et al. unpubl.).

 Plotting V_{max} as a function of the ambient substrate concentration ([NO₂-]_{amb}) reveals a strong positive relationship for all but the MIZ stations (Figure 4c; $R^2 = 0.73$; p = 0.065 if the MIZ stations are excluded). In particular, the STZ station (St 01), which appeared anomalous in the plots of V_{max} versus latitude and SST, is consistent with the other non-MIZ stations when evaluated in V_{max} versus [NO₂-]_{amb} space. The positive relationship of V_{max} to $[NO_2-]_{amb}$ could be taken as evidence that NO_2- availability strongly controls the maximum achievable rate of NO_2- oxidation. However, V_{max} varies four-fold across the transect while $[NO_2-]_{amb}$ only changes by a factor of two, and $[NO_2-]_{amb}$ is also correlated with latitude ($R^2 = 0.51$, $P = 1.1 \times 10^{-5}$ for all surface $[NO_2-]_{amb}$ data; Figure S2). Additionally, previous wintertime Southern Ocean NO_2- oxidation rates (albeit not V_{max}) showed no relationship with ambient





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 NO_2^- concentration (Bianchi et al., 1997; Mdutyana et al., 2020). The extent to which V_{max} is directly controlled by $[NO_2^-]_{amb}$ is thus unclear, and it is likely that NOB community composition, light availability, and temperature also play a role, with SST perhaps becoming more important at very low temperatures (i.e., in the MIZ).

Our estimates of K_m reveal that NOB in the wintertime Southern Ocean have a high affinity for NO₂ that appears to decrease (i.e., the K_m rises) at higher latitudes (i.e., lower light) and lower temperatures, with St 01 in the STZ again emerging as an exception (Figure 4d and e; $R^2 = 0.86$, p = 0.0075 and $R^2 =$ 0.86, p = 0.0076, respectively). Plotting our K_m values as a function of $[NO_2]_{amb}$ reveals a strong positive relationship (Figure 4f; $R^2 = 0.83$, p = 0.0044; black data points), implying that NO_2 - availability rather than temperature or light exerts the dominant control on K_m. This trend further suggests that NOB are well-adapted to the environment (or Southern Ocean region) in which they are found. Southern Ocean mixed-layer NO₂ concentrations are almost never <150 nM, regardless of the season (Fripiat et al., 2019; Mdutyana et al., 2020; Zakem et al., 2018), yet the relationship of K_m to [NO₂-]_{amb} also holds at far lower NO_2 concentrations. The coloured data points in Figure 4f show K_m versus $[NO_2]_{amb}$ for four additional regions where a Michaelis-Menten relationship of NO₂ oxidation rate to NO₂ concentration was observed and where $[NO_2^-]_{amb}$ was <250 nM (two coastal ocean sites, the South China Sea (SCS; Zhang et al., 2020) and Southern California Bight (SCB; Olson, 1981); one oligotrophic ocean site, the subtropical South Atlantic (SSA; Fawcett et al. unpubl.); and two stations from the ETNP ODZ, where oxygen concentrations ranged from 0 µM to 16.8 µM (Sun et al., 2017)). The robust positive relationship of K_m to $[NO_2^-]_{amb}$ that emerges when these previous results are combined with our Southern Ocean data ($R^2 = 0.68$, $p = 5.2 \times 10^{-5}$) strongly implicates [NO₂]_{amb} as the dominant control on the K_m of NO₂ oxidation in the ocean, particularly at low [NO₂]_{amb}.

The production of NO_2 from NH_4^+ oxidation has recently been hypothesized to be vulnerable to iron limitation (Mdutyana, 2021) since AOB rely on iron-rich *cytochrome c* proteins (Arp et al., 2002; Walker et al., 2010) and some AOA appear to have a low affinity for inorganic iron (Shafiee et al., 2019). NOB also contain iron-rich enzymes, such as nitrite oxidoreductase, which is responsible for converting NO_2 to NO_3 (Meincke et al., 1992; Spieck et al., 1998). While we have no iron data with which to compare our kinetic parameters, dissolved iron concentrations ([DFe]) were measured at the depth-profile stations (St 08 to St 11; Mdutyana, 2021). The revised NO_2 oxidation rates at these stations are weakly positively correlated with [DFe] ($R^2 = 0.35$, p = 0.016; Figure 5), indicating a potential role for iron in controlling NO_2 oxidation. Combined with the evidence that iron may also constrain marine NH_4 oxidation (Shafiee et al., 2019), this observation implies that mixed-layer nitrification in the Southern Ocean may be iron-limited. Since phytoplankton consumption of regenerated NO_3 yields no net removal of atmospheric CO_2 (Yool et al., 2007), an iron-related control on mixed-layer nitrification would help to limit the extent to which this process can weaken the





Southern Ocean's biological pump. It would also lead to enhanced competition between phytoplankton and nitrifiers.

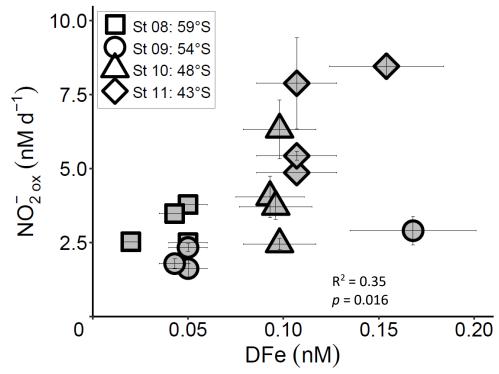


Figure 5: Euphotic zone (0-75 m) rates of NO₂ oxidation measured at the depth-profile stations (St 08 to St 11) plotted against coincident dissolved iron concentrations (DFe). Error bars indicate the standard error of replicate experiments/collections, each measured at least twice. Where errors bars are not visible, they are smaller than the data markers.

4.3 The persistence of elevated NO₂ concentrations throughout the Southern Ocean's mixed layer

While still limited, there is growing evidence that marine AOA have a very high affinity for NH_4^+ (more correctly, ammonia (NH_3), the substrate for NH_4^+ oxidation; Mdutyana, 2021; Martens-Habbena et al., 2009; Horak et al., 2013; Newell et al., 2013; Peng et al., 2016). Marine NOB also appear able to access low concentrations of substrate, based on the few *in situ* studies conducted to-date, including this one (Figure 4f; Olson, 1981; Sun et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). This high substrate affinity is perhaps unsurprising given that NO_2^- concentrations are generally near-zero throughout the oxygenated ocean, rising modestly to values typically <500 nM at the PNM in (sub)tropical waters (Lomas and Lipschultz, 2006; Zakem et al., 2018) and <400 nM over the mixed layer in (sub)polar regions (Zakem et al., 2018). The average surface NO_2^- concentration measured during Leg 1 of our cruise was 168 ± 48 nM (Figure 1a) and the average mixed-layer concentration for Leg 2 was 137 ± 57 nM (Figures 1b and 3a). Similar concentrations have been observed previously across the Southern Ocean, including in other seasons





(Cavagna et al., 2015; Fripiat et al., 2019; Mdutyana et al., 2020). Thus, while NO₂⁻ oxidation in Southern Ocean surface waters is characterized by a low K_m, the affinity of NOB for NO₂⁻ is apparently not high enough to completely remove the available NO₂⁻.

The persistence of elevated NO₂⁻ concentrations in the mixed layer at high latitudes has been attributed to the inability of iron- and/or light-limited phytoplankton to fully consume NO₂⁻ transported to the surface with NO₃⁻ during deep mixing events (Zakem et al., 2018). However, subsurface NO₂⁻ concentrations in the Southern Ocean are typically below detection (Figure 1b and 3a; Olsen et al., 2016), so it is unclear how deep mixing could supply measurable NO₂⁻ to the euphotic zone.

 A second possible source of elevated mixed-layer NO_2^- is efflux following partial NO_3^- reduction to NO_2^- by phytoplankton (Lomas and Lipschultz, 2006), which has been extensively documented in laboratory and field studies (see Collos, 1998 for a review). The release of NO_2^- by phytoplankton is hypothesized to result from light limitation of intracellular NO_2^- reduction (Vaccaro and Ryther, 1960; Kiefer et al., 1976), short-term increases in irradiance to which phytoplankton cannot adapt (Lomas and Lipschultz, 2006), iron limitation of NO_3^- assimilation (Milligan and Harrison, 2000), and/or release of phytoplankton from NO_3^- limitation following a period of starvation (Sciandra and Amara, 1994). While some of these mechanisms may be ongoing in the Southern Ocean, they all require the initial uptake of NO_3^- by phytoplankton. This process occurs in the winter mixed layer at rates that are too low to support NO_2^- efflux to the extent that it would allow NO_2^- to accumulate to concentrations of 100-300 nM (Figure S3; Philibert et al., 2015; Mdutyana et al., 2020) while simultaneously being removed by NO_2^- oxidation. Additionally, we observe a reasonable correlation between the NH_4^+ oxidation rates and ambient NO_2^- ($R^2 = 0.46$, p = 0.0003; Figure S4), which implies that NO_2^- derives mainly from NH_4^+ oxidation rather than phytoplankton efflux.

 A third potential explanation for elevated mixed-layer NO₂⁻ is thus a decoupling of NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ oxidation, which appears to be widespread in the environment (e.g., Ward and Zafiriou, 1988; Beman et al., 2013). In the oxygenated ocean, NH₄⁺ oxidation has been considered the rate-limiting step in the nitrification pathway because NO₂⁻ seldom accumulates in the mixed layer (Kendall, 1998; Kowalchuk and Stephen, 2001; Walker et al., 2010; Vajrala et al., 2013). However, rate measurements from numerous ocean regions show contrasting results, with NO₂⁻ oxidation sometimes outpacing NH₄⁺ oxidation (Peng et al., 2018; Dore and Karl, 1996; Bristow et al., 2015; Horrigan et al., 1990) while in other cases, NH₄⁺ oxidation is dominant (Ward and Kilpatrick, 1991; Kalvelage et al., 2013; Clark et al., 2008). The limited data available from previous Southern Ocean investigations show no clear trend (Bianchi et al., 1997; Mdutyana et al., 2020). In the present study, mixed-layer corrNO₂-ox rates are two-to seven-times lower than the coincidentally measured corrNH₄+ox (Figures 3 and 6). Additionally, the maximum rates of NO₂- oxidation (V_{max}) derived for the surface NOB community (~5 to 13 nM d⁻¹;





 Figure 2) are on average half those determined at the same stations for NH_4^+ oxidation (14 to 23 nM d⁻¹; Mdutyana, 2021). At the time of our sampling, therefore, NO_2^- oxidation was rate-limiting for nitrification, which likely accounts for most of the NO_2^- accumulated in the Southern Ocean's winter mixed layer.

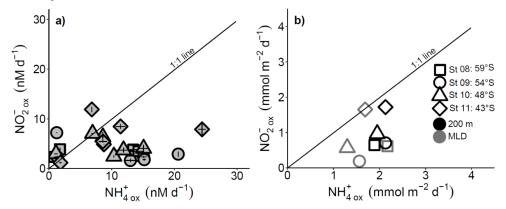


Figure 6: The relationship between the measured rates of NO_2^- and NH_4^+ oxidation for a) each experiment depth in the upper water column (0-500 m) and b) integrated over the mixed layer (grey symbols) and upper 200 m (black symbols). Error bars on panel a indicate the standard error of replicate experiments, each measured at least twice, while on panel b, error bars show the propagated error. Where errors bars are not visible, they are smaller than the data markers. The black diagonal line on both panels has a slope of 1, which is expected if the rates of NH_4^+ and NO_2^- oxidation are tightly coupled.

If a decoupling of NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ oxidation is predominantly responsible for NO₂⁻ accumulation, an obvious question is why these rates are not balanced. Environmental factors like temperature, light, and/or pH may play a role (Ward, 2008; Heiss and Fulweiler, 2017), as may iron limitation and the different ecophysiologies of NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ oxidizers. AOA have been shown to adapt more rapidly than NOB to a change in temperature (Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017); however, the seasonal SST variations within the various zones of the Southern Ocean are fairly small and the aforementioned study showing the differential thermal response of AOA and NOB was conducted at higher temperatures than those experienced in much of the Southern Ocean.

With regards to light, there is evidence from culture and field studies that NOB are more photosensitive than AOA and AOB (Bock, 1965; Olson, 1981b; Qin et al., 2014). Our data are consistent with this notion insofar as the V_{max} associated with NO_2 -oxidation in surface waters rises with increasing latitude (and thus decreasing light; Figure 4a) while the V_{max} derived for NH_4 + oxidation remains largely unchanged across >30 degrees of latitude (Mdutyana, 2021). However, the ambient NO_2 -concentration in Southern Ocean surface waters rises near linearly with latitude (Figure S2a) while the NH_4 + concentration resembles a step function, increasing from ~100 nM north of the SAF to ~700 nM





690 south of the SAF, over a distance of roughly one degree of latitude (Figure S2b). The differing trends 691 in V_{max} may thus have more to do with substrate availability than photoinhibition. 692 Mixing, particularly deep winter overturning, might also contribute to a decoupling of NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ 693 oxidation. In coastal waters, deep winter mixing has been shown to dilute the nitrifier community, 694 particularly NOB, leading to low rates of NO2 oxidation while NH4 oxidation rates remain elevated, ultimately causing NO₂⁻ accumulation in the upper layer (Haas et al., 2021). While a similar effect may 695 696 play a role in NO₂ accumulation in the open Southern Ocean, it is unlikely that the entire NO₂ reservoir 697 can be ascribed to this process. The rates of NH_4^+ oxidation are only slightly higher than NO_2^- oxidation 698 in the winter mixed layer (Figure 3) and the mixed-layer NH₄⁺ concentrations are elevated (Figure 3f), 699 implying that NH₄⁺ oxidizers are limited by something other than NH₄⁺ substrate, preventing them from 700 catalysing higher rates of NO₂- production (and thus NO₂- accumulation). 701 702 A number of studies have shown the negative effect of decreasing pH on NH₄⁺ oxidation in the ocean 703 (e.g., Huesemann et al., 2002; Beman et al., 2011; Kitidis et al., 2011), driven by a reduction in the 704 proportion of NH₃ relative to NH₄⁺. By contrast, NO₂ oxidation may increase as pH declines (Fulweiler 705 et al., 2011; Heiss and Fulweiler, 2017), although such a correlation has only been observed in one 706 coastal region. While a differential response of AOO and NOB to pH would decouple NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ 707 oxidation, the resultant trend should be one of higher NO₂ accumulation in the northern Southern Ocean 708 where surface pH is higher in winter and lower NO₂ accumulation to the south where pH is lower (Key et al., 2004; McNeil and Matear, 2008) - this is not the meridional pattern that we observe (Figure 1b). 709 710 711 Nitrite oxidoreductase (NXR), the enzyme possessed by NOB that is responsible for aerobic NO2 712 oxidation to NO₃, is an iron-sulfur molybdoprotein (Sundermeyer-Klinger et al., 1984; Meincke et al., 713 1992; Lücker et al., 2010). As such, NO₂ oxidation has a significant iron requirement (Saito et al., 2020; 714 Bayer et al., 2021), intimated by the relationship we observe between corrNO_{2 ox} and DFe (Figure 5). 715 Additionally, NO₂ accumulation at the PNM in the California Current has been hypothesized to be 716 caused by iron limitation of NOB (Santoro et al., 2013). AOB also require iron, in particular for the 717 oxidation of hydroxylamine, which is catalyzed by the heme-rich hydroxylamine oxidoreductase 718 (HAO) complex (Arp et al., 2002; Walker et al., 2010). By contrast, AOA, the dominant marine NH₄⁺ 719 oxidizers, rely mainly on copper-containing proteins to mediate NH₄⁺ oxidation (Amin et al., 2013; 720 Walker et al., 2010; Santoro et al., 2015). In the iron-limited Southern Ocean, it is thus possible that 721 iron scarcity more strongly limits NO2 than NH4+ oxidation. However, recent culture and proteomic 722 work suggests that some AOA may actually have a high iron requirement (Santoro et al., 2015; Carini

et al., 2018; Qin et al., 2018; Shafiee et al., 2019), and we have previously hypothesized an iron-related

control on NH₄⁺ oxidation in the Southern Ocean (Mdutyana, 2021). Deeper investigation is thus





required to characterize the role of iron in controlling the relative rates of NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ oxidation, and the implications for the complete nitrification pathway.

A further consideration is differences in the ecology of AOA and NOB. Marine NOB are an order of magnitude less abundant than AOA (e.g., Füssel et al., 2012; Beman et al., 2013b; Pachiadaki et al., 2017; Damashek et al., 2019; Kitzinger et al., 2020) and roughly three-times larger (Watson and Waterbury, 1971; Könneke et al., 2005; Martens-Habbena et al., 2009; Pachiadaki et al., 2017). While their affinity for NO2 appears to be high, the in situ Km values derived to-date are not as low as those reported for NH₄⁺ oxidation (Horak et al., 2013; Peng et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020; Mdutyana, 2021), which is perhaps to be expected given their larger size (Aksnes and Egge, 1991; Litchman et al., 2007; Zakem et al., 2018). Additionally, the theoretical energy gain from NO₂-oxidation is lower than from NH₄⁺ oxidation (Bock and Wagner, 2006), and it has been estimated that NOB must consume three-times as much N as NH₄⁺ oxidizers to produce the same amount of biomass (Zakem et al., 2018). Nonetheless, a recent study from the Gulf of Mexico showed that NOB from the phylum Nitrospinae, the dominant NO₂ oxidizers in the ocean, grow five-times faster than AOA and produce roughly four-times as much biomass despite their lower abundance, in part because they can support up to half of their cellular N requirement using organic N compounds such as urea (Kitzinger et al., 2020). This study was conducted in hypoxic shelf waters, however, such that the applicability of its findings to the Southern Ocean is unclear. Nevertheless, it seems likely that the very different life strategies of NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ oxidizers play a role in decoupling the steps of nitrification in the Southern Ocean.

Resource limitation theory posits that nitrifiers require a subsistence concentration of substrate (R^*) to maintain their population, and that those with the lowest R^* will outcompete all other organisms limited by the same resource, provided their V_{max} is greater than their loss rate due to grazing and/or viral lysis (Zakem et al., 2018). Because NOB are considerably larger than AOA (Watson and Waterbury, 1971; Könneke et al., 2005; Martens-Habbena et al., 2009; Pachiadaki et al., 2017), they will have a higher R^* than AOA even before grazing pressure is factored in. Their large size also means that NOB are more likely to be grazed than AOA, which will further increase their R^* , as will the fact that their maximum growth rates are slow and thus vulnerable to being outpaced by their loss rate. Taken together, these factors will increase R^* , potentially resulting in the accumulation of NO_2^- in the water column, and may help to explain why the K_m for NO_2^- oxidation, in the Southern Ocean and elsewhere, is considerably higher than that derived for NH_4^+ oxidation. Additionally, the fact that NOB will be preferentially grazed over AOA may contribute to NO_2^- oxidation being rate-limiting for nitrification.

That NO₂⁻ oxidation was rate-limiting at the time of our sampling does not necessarily explain the accumulation of NO₂⁻ in the Southern Ocean mixed layer year-round. Neither NH₄⁺ nor NO₂⁻ oxidation





762 occur at elevated rates in summer or autumn (Bianchi et al., 1997; Mdutyana et al., 2020), yet the 763 elevated NO₂ concentrations persist during these seasons (Cavagna et al., 2015; Fripiat et al., 2019; 764 Mdutyana et al., 2020). To fit a Michaelis-Menten curve to our experimental data required amending 765 the classical equation (equation 2) to allow for a positive x-intercept (i.e., a non-zero S value at which 766 V was still zero, denoted as the C parameter in equation 3) (Archontoulis and Miguez, 2014). 767 Additionally, at most stations, the NO₂ oxidation rates did not increase substantially following the 768 initial two or three substrate amendments (i.e., in Figure 2, the slope of the relationship between V and 769 S is less steep for the initial two to three values of S than at higher values). Practically, our findings 770 suggest that Southern Ocean NOB require a minimum (i.e., "threshold") NO₂ concentration below 771 which, NO2 becomes severely limiting. Coupled with weak NO2 drawdown by iron- and/or light-772 limited phytoplankton during their incomplete consumption of the NO₃+NO₂ pool, a threshold 773 substrate requirement of NOB can explain the year-round persistence of non-zero mixed-layer NO2 774 since it implies that there is no mechanism by which NO₂ can be completely exhausted.

We hypothesize that the NO₂ concentration threshold is indicative of an undersaturation by substrate

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777 NO₂ of NXR, which is a membrane-bound enzyme (Lücker et al., 2010; Sundermeyer-Klinger et al., 778 1984) that occurs in two forms: 1) with the substrate-binding subunit (NxrA) orientated outwards into 779 the periplasmic space, as in Nitrospira and Nitrospina (Spieck et al., 1998; Lücker et al., 2010; 2013; 780 Koch et al., 2015; Daims et al., 2016) and 2) with NxrA orientated inward towards the cytoplasm, as in 781 Nitrococcus and Nitrobacter (Spieck et al., 1996; Starkenburg et al., 2006; Sorokin et al., 2012). The 782 dominant genera of NOB in the ocean are Nitrospina and Nitrospira (Beman et al., 2013; Füssel et al., 783 2012), with a recent metaproteomic study identifying Nitrospina NXR as the most abundant microbial 784 protein in the mesopelagic zone of the Central Tropical Pacific (Saito et al., 2020). If Nitrospina (and/or 785 Nitrospira) is similarly abundant across the Southern Ocean, as has been intimated for the Pacific Subantarctic (Raes et al., 2020), the fact that its NXR is contained within the periplasmic space suggests 786 787 that substrate undersaturation is possible. This is in contrast to NOB with a cytoplasmic NXR that must 788 first transport NO₂ across the cell membrane and into the cytoplasm where it can accumulate to 789 saturating concentrations before being oxidized (Daims et al., 2016). These NOB (i.e., Nitrococcus and 790 Nitrobacter) have a lower NO₂ affinity than those with a periplasmic NXR (Schramm et al., 1999; 791 Nowka et al., 2015), with the latter group thus better suited to regions of low NO₂. Nonetheless, our 792 data suggest the NXR in the Southern Ocean, probably associated with Nitrospina and Nitrospira (Raes 793 et al., 2020), is substrate-limited, resulting in a perennially elevated concentration of NO₂ in the mixed 794 layer.

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Nitrospina and *Nitrospira* are ubiquitous in the ocean (Beman et al., 2013; Füssel et al., 2012), which raises the question of why a similar NO_2^- concentration threshold has not been reported from other regions. This may partly be due to the very limited number of NO_2^- oxidation kinetics experiments that



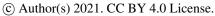


have been conducted in the open ocean and/or to the fact that a classic Michaelis-Menten function is usually imposed upon kinetics data, with V assumed to increase as soon as S > 0. Additionally, depending on the maximum substrate concentration added during kinetics experiments, it can be difficult to discern a possible threshold NO₂ concentration by simply examining the resultant plots. Inspection of published Michaelis-Menten curves reveals the possibility of a non-zero C value in some cases, including in the ETNP ODZ (Sun et al., 2021) and associated with the PNM in the South China Sea (Zhang et al., 2020). However, there are other published curves that clearly do intercept the origin in V versus S space (Olson, 1981a; Sun et al., 2017), which may indicate a different NOB community (e.g., dominated by Nitrococcus). Alternately, environmental factors unique to the Southern Ocean, such as light, temperature, and/or iron availability, may be instrumental in setting the NO₂ threshold and associated elevated mixed-layer NO₂ concentrations that we observe. Indeed, iron limitation of NXR could be implicit in its tendency towards NO₂ undersaturation. Using NXR concentrations, estimates of NXR specific activity, and direct measurements of in situ NO2 oxidation rates, Saito et al., (2020) recently deduced that Nitrospina NXR is undersaturated with NO₂ in the iron-limited tropical Pacific. This finding is consistent with the mechanism we invoke to explain the apparent NO₂concentration threshold in the Southern Ocean, as well as with the existence of such a threshold indicating Nitrospina (and/or Nitrospira) dominance of the in situ NOB community.

5. Concluding remarks

In this study, we present the first NO_2^- oxidation kinetic constants for the Southern Ocean, deriving from surface experiments conducted during winter 2017. All the experiments were well-described by the Michaelis-Menten equation, provided that a location parameter, C, was included in the model. V_{max} ranged from 5.2 ± 0.1 to 13 ± 0.4 nM d⁻¹ and K_m ranged from 134 ± 8 to 403 ± 24 nM, with the latter parameter showing a strong positive relationship with the ambient NO_2^- concentration. We interpret the positive values of C (range of 115 ± 2.3 to 245 ± 18 nM) to indicate an ambient NO_2^- concentration threshold below which NOB are impeded. Additionally, we hypothesize that this threshold indicates substrate limitation of NXR, possibly exacerbated by the low ambient iron concentrations characteristic of the upper Southern Ocean. From depth-profile measurements, we deduce that the rate-limiting step for mixed-layer nitrification in the winter is NO_2^- oxidation. Despite this, NO_3^- production from NO_2^- oxidation accounted for 63-237% of the NO_3^- consumed by phytoplankton, consistent with previous wintertime observations from the Atlantic Southern Ocean (Mdutyana et al., 2020).

NO₂⁻ oxidation, as the ultimate step that connects reduced N to its most oxidized form (NO₃⁻), is important throughout the water column, but particularly in the upper layer where the supply of reduced N is highest. The production of NO₃⁻ within the mixed layer from *in situ* nitrification can complicate the application of the new production paradigm as a framework for estimating export production (Yool et al., 2007; Mdutyana et al., 2020), which advocates for additional measurements of this pathway over







the upper \sim 200 m. Additionally, it is becoming increasingly clear that we lack a mechanistic understanding of the controls on nitrification (both NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ oxidation), which renders it challenging to model both its magnitude and distribution, as well as to assess how these may change in future. In particular, further study of the role of iron in controlling nitrification is required, particularly in the Southern Ocean where the mixed layer's biological N cycle is dominated by nitrification in winter (Smart et al., 2015; Mdutyana et al., 2020) and surface-layer iron is very low throughout the year (Tagliabue et al., 2012).

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