Differences between coastal and open ocean distributions of N$_2$O in the oxygen minimum zone off Peru

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Abstract

Depth profiles of nitrous oxide ($N_2O$) were measured during six cruises to the upwelling area and oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) off Peru in 2009 and 2012/13, covering both the coastal shelf region and the adjacent open ocean. $N_2O$ profiles displayed a strong sensitivity towards oxygen concentrations. Open ocean profiles showed a transition from a broad maximum to a double-peak structure towards the centre of the OMZ where the oxygen minimum was more pronounced. Maximum $N_2O$ concentrations in the open ocean were about 80 nM. A linear relationship between $\Delta N_2O$ and apparent oxygen utilization (AOU) could be found for all measurements within the upper oxycline, with a slope similar to studies in other oceanic regions. $N_2O$ profiles close to the shelf revealed a much higher variability, with $N_2O$ concentrations in the upper oxycline reaching up to several hundred nanomoles per liter at selected stations. Due to the extremely sharp oxygen gradients at the shelf, these maxima occurred in very shallow water depths of less than 50 m. In this area, a linear relationship between $\Delta N_2O$ and AOU could not be observed. $N_2O$ concentrations above 100 nM were observed at oxygen concentrations ranging from close to saturation to suboxic conditions. Our results indicate that the coastal upwelling off Peru at the shelf causes conditions that lead to extreme $N_2O$ accumulation.

1 Introduction

Nitrous oxide ($N_2O$) acts as a strong atmospheric greenhouse gas and contributes substantially to the stratospheric ozone depletion (IPCC, 2013; WMO, 2011). The ocean is a major source for $N_2O$ as it is naturally produced in the water column (Ciais et al., 2013; Bange, 2008). While in large parts of the surface ocean $N_2O$ concentrations are close to saturation, high emissions of $N_2O$ have been observed in upwelling areas where subsurface waters enriched in $N_2O$ are transported to the surface (e.g. Nevison et al., 2004). The global distribution of $N_2O$ in the ocean is closely linked to the oceanic
oxygen distribution, and particularly high supersaturations are found in upwelling areas which overlay pronounced oxygen minimum zones (OMZ), e.g. in the Arabian Sea (Bange, 2004) or in the eastern South Pacific Ocean (Charpentier et al., 2010).

These OMZs are key regions for the marine nitrogen (N) cycling where active N loss via canonical denitrification and anaerobic ammonium oxidation (anammox) takes place. Recent studies furthermore indicate that they are also zones of intense nitrogen fixation (Deutsch et al., 2007; Löscher et al., 2014; Fernandez et al., 2011), and in areas where the OMZ is fuelled by high export production, high rates of other N transformation processes, such as nitrification, have been observed (Hu et al., 2015; Kalvelage et al., 2013).

Within the nitrogen cycle, N\textsubscript{2}O evolves during nitrification and denitrification (Bange, 2008). Both processes strongly depend on the oxygen availability in the water column, with different responses to the oxygen concentration. Under oxic conditions the first step of nitrification, ammonium-oxidation to nitrite, is known to be the main production pathway for N\textsubscript{2}O, with an increasing N\textsubscript{2}O yield at decreasing oxygen concentrations (Goreau et al., 1980; Löscher et al., 2012; Frame and Casciotti, 2010). During bacterial ammonium-oxidation, N\textsubscript{2}O can either be produced as a side product during the oxidation of ammonia to nitrite or through the reduction of nitrite to N\textsubscript{2}O (nitrifier-denitrification) (Stein, 2011). Nitrifier-denitrification has been identified as an important production pathway of N\textsubscript{2}O at low oxygen concentrations and may thus be responsible for the increased N\textsubscript{2}O production under these conditions (Ni et al., 2014).

While the N\textsubscript{2}O production pathways during bacterial nitrification have been studied for several decades, archaeal ammonium oxidation has only recently come into focus as a main production pathway for N\textsubscript{2}O. The exact mechanism and the extent to which ammonium oxidation or a nitrifier-denitrification pathway are responsible for archaeal N\textsubscript{2}O production as well as the effect of environmental controls on archaeal N\textsubscript{2}O production are subject to ongoing research (Stieglmeier et al., 2014; Löscher et al., 2012; Santoro et al., 2011).
During denitrification, the canonical reduction of nitrate to molecular nitrogen, N2O evolves as an intermediate product. Denitrifying genes are widespread among different groups of microorganisms, but active denitrification is restricted to suboxic to anoxic conditions (e.g. Firestone et al., 1980; Dalsgaard et al. 2014). Depending on the environmental conditions, N2O production or consumption due to denitrification can be observed in environmental samples.

As nitrification is one major process accompanying the remineralization of organic matter, a positive correlation between the excess N2O (∆N2O) and the apparent oxygen utilization (AOU) is often interpreted as an indication for nitrification as the main N2O production pathway (e.g. Walter et al., 2006; Forster et al., 2009). An increase in the ∆N2O/AOU ratio at low oxygen concentrations has been observed in several studies in different oceanic areas with reduced oxygen concentrations (Ryabenko et al., 2012; Upstill-Goddard et al., 1999; De Wilde and Helder, 1997), whereas a breakdown of this relationship due to N2O consumption is observed when oxygen concentrations fall below a certain, not well defined, threshold (Zamora et al., 2012).

There is a strong indication that at low oxygen concentrations nitrification and denitrification may take place in close proximity (Kalvelage et al., 2011), and the N2O production and consumption under these conditions are strongly influenced by the interaction of both processes. Stable isotope measurements of N2O in oxygen-deficient waters indicated that N2O accumulation within the oxycline as a result of the coupling between nitrification and denitrification whereas N2O consumption in the OMZ core was associated with denitrification (Farias et al., 2007). The exact oxygen concentration where N2O consumption starts is not yet well determined, however (Cornejo and Farias, 2012; Zamora et al., 2012).

Measurements of denitrification and anammox rates in different oceanic OMZs have raised the question whether denitrification or anammox is the main pathway for nitrogen loss in the water column (Hamersley et al., 2007; Ward et al., 2009; Voss and Montoya, 2009). In the ETSP, anammox has been found to play the major role in N loss, whereas denitrification was only rarely detectable (Kalvelage et al., 2013; Hamersley et al., 2007).
sley et al., 2007) (Thamdrup et al., 2006). As N\textsubscript{2}O is not supposed to be involved in the anammox process (Kartal et al., 2011), anammox does not influence the N\textsubscript{2}O distribution and only denitrification is thought to be responsible for N\textsubscript{2}O consumption at suboxic to anoxic conditions (Bange, 2008). The widespread N\textsubscript{2}O consumption in the OMZ core is thus an indicator for denitrification taking place in the ETSP (Fárias et al., 2007). One explanation for these contradicting findings is that denitrification is stimulated by the supply of organic carbon or hydrogen sulfide which could lead to only sporadically increased rates of denitrification (Chang et al., 2014; Dalsgaard et al., 2014; Galan et al., 2014).

Here we present N\textsubscript{2}O measurements in the water column off Peru from six measurement campaigns during the upwelling in the ETSP. This region is characterized by one of the largest and most intense OMZs in the oceans, extending from the Peruvian shelf about 1000 km offshore with a maximum thickness of more than 600 m (Fuenzalida et al., 2009). It is located in the shadow zone of large ocean current systems which leads to a sluggish ventilation and long residence times of waters within the OMZ. Along the continental margin, high primary productivity due to coastal upwelling and high remineralization rates in the underlying waters lead to a further drawdown in oxygen concentrations (Karstensen et al., 2008). Active N loss can be observed in large parts of the OMZ which is reflected in a pronounced secondary nitrite maximum and a strong nitrogen deficit in the OMZ core (Codispoti et al., 1986). The OMZ extends over large parts of the Peruvian shelf where sulfidic conditions within the water column are frequently observed (Schunck et al., 2013). These conditions are comparable to the West Indian shelf where exceptionally high N\textsubscript{2}O concentrations have been measured (Naqvi et al., 2000) which indicates favorable conditions for enhanced N\textsubscript{2}O production (Codispoti, 2010). Only a few measurements of N\textsubscript{2}O from the Peruvian OMZ are available so far (Friederich et al., 1985; Nevison et al., 1995; Pierotti and Rasmussen, 1980), however. N\textsubscript{2}O measurements from the OMZ off Chile indicated the potential for high N\textsubscript{2}O production and emissions due to the proximity of the OMZ to coastal up-
welling taking place in this area (Charpentier et al., 2007; Castro-Gonzalez and Farías, 2004).

2 Methods

In total, 146 depth profiles (0–~ 4200 m) of N$_2$O were measured on two cruises between December 2008 and February 2009 (M77-3 and M77-4) and four cruises between October 2012 and March 2013 (M90–M93) to the upwelling area and the adjacent open ocean off Peru onboard the German research vessel Meteor. The locations of the sampled stations are shown in Fig. 1. While the M77-4 and M90 cruises mainly covered the open ocean area, the M77-3 and M91–M93 cruises mainly took place in the Peruvian shelf area. The work was part of the German DFG collaborative research project (SFB) 754 (https://www.sfb754.de/) and the BMBF project SOPRAN (Surface Ocean PRocesses in the Antropocene, sopran.pangaea.de). The N$_2$O data set described here has been archived in MEMENTO, the MarinE MethanE and NiTrous Oxide database (https://memento.geomar.de) (Kock and Bange, 2015).

Triplicate samples were taken from 10 L Niskin bottles mounted on a rosette water sampler or a pump-CTD (M77-3) in 25 mL (M77-3 and M77-4) and 20 mL (M90–M93) opaque glass vials and sealed with butyl rubber stoppers and aluminum caps, thereby avoiding the inclusion of air bubbles.

Samples were treated with 0.2 mL (M77-3 and M77-4) and 0.05 mL (M90–M93) of a saturated mercuric chloride solution directly after the sampling to inhibit microbial N$_2$O production or consumption. The samples were either analyzed onboard (M77-3 and M77-4, M91, partly M90 and M93) within a few days or shipped to GEOMAR by air freight for later analysis (M92, partly M90 and M93). Samples that were shipped to Germany were additionally sealed with paraffin wax and stored upside down to avoid the formation of air bubbles in the samples due to temperature and pressure changes during transportation.
Samples were analyzed using a static equilibration method: 10 mL helium (99.9999% AirLiquide, Düsseldorf, Germany) was manually injected into each vial which was vigorously shaken for about 20 s and allowed to equilibrate at ambient temperature for a minimum of two hours. A subsample of the equilibrated headspace was manually injected into a GC-ECD system (Hewlett-Packard 5890 Series II, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), equipped with a 6′ 1/8″ packed column (molsieve, 5Å, W. R. Grace and Co.-Conn., Columbia, MY). The GC was operated at 190 °C, using argon/methane (95/5%, ECD purity, AirLiquide, Düsseldorf, Germany) as carrier gas at a flow rate of 30 mL min⁻¹.

The GC was calibrated on a daily basis with a minimum of 2 (M77-3 and M77-4) or 4 (M90–M93) different standard gas mixtures (N₂O in synthetic air, Deuste-Steininger GmbH, Mühlhausen, Germany and Westfalen AG, Münster, Germany) which were calibrated against NOAA primary standards at the Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry in Jena, Germany, if the standard gas concentrations were within the calibration range of the NOAA gases. Gases with higher N₂O concentrations were internally calibrated using an LGR N₂O/CO analyzer (Los Gatos Research, Mountain View, CA, USA), which was proven to have a linear response and minimal drift within the calibration range (Arévalo-Martínez et al., 2013). The N₂O concentration in the samples was calculated according to Walter et al. (2006) using the solubility function of Weiss and Price (1980). The average precision of the measurements, calculated as median standard deviation from triplicate measurements, was 0.7 nM.

ΔN₂O was calculated as the difference between the in-situ concentration [N₂O]w and the equilibrium concentration [N₂O]eq:

\[
\Delta N_2O = [N_2O]_w - [N_2O]_eq
\]

We used the contemporary atmospheric mixing ratio measured at Cape Grim, Tasmania (http://agage.mit.edu/data/agage-data) for the calculation of [N₂O]eq. This calculation underestimates the N₂O excess in subsurface waters which have been isolated from the surface for a long time as it does not account for the increase in the at-
mospheric mixing ratio since the beginning of the industrial revolution (Freing et al., 2009). The use of the contemporary N$_2$O mixing ratio of 2013 would lead to a maximum $\sim$ 17 % overestimate of [N$_2$O]$_{eq}$, thus leading to only a small error compared to the maximum N$_2$O concentrations measured in our study, and the use of the contemporary atmospheric mixing ratio still allows a qualitative analysis of the $\Delta$N$_2$O/AOU relationship in order to investigate the formation and consumption processes of N$_2$O.

The potential temperature of the water parcel at a certain depth was calculated using the Gibbs Seawater Oceanographic Toolbox (McDougall and Barker, 2011).

Oxygen concentrations were measured either with a Seabird (M77-3 and M77-4: SBE-5; M90-M93: SBE 43) oxygen sensor (Sea-Bird Electronics, Bellevue, WA, USA) mounted on the CTD rosette or from 100 mL discrete samples taken from the Niskin bottles and analyzed using the Winkler titration method (Grasshoff et al., 1999). The oxygen sensor was calibrated against the Winkler measurements.

Recent studies using highly sensitive STOX (Switchable Trace amount Oxygen) sensors for oxygen measurements indicate that measurements with conventional oxygen sensors that are calibrated against Winkler measurements may be biased towards higher concentrations at near-zero oxygen conditions. Thamdrup et al. (2012) therefore argued that anoxic conditions are prevalent in the core of the Peruvian OMZ where oxygen concentrations of several µM have been found using the conventional Winkler-calibrated measurements. As STOX sensor measurements were not available for all measurement campaigns presented here, the minimum oxygen measurements reported here from the core of the OMZ (3–5 µM) should be considered as an overestimation.

The Apparent Oxygen Utilization (AOU) was calculated from the oxygen concentrations [$O_2$]$_w$ using the CSIRO SeaWater library, version 3.2 (http://www.cmar.csiro.au/datacentre/ext_docs/seawater.htm) to calculate oxygen saturation [$O_2$]$_{eq}$:

$$AOU = [O_2]_w - [O_2]_{eq}$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)
Nutrient samples from the CTD rosette were analyzed onboard following the nutrient analysis methods according to Hansen et al. (1999). Samples taken from the pump-CTD during M77-3 were stored at $-20^\circ$C and shipped to Germany for later analysis. $N'$ was calculated as a measure for the nitrogen deficit from the nitrate ([NO$_3^-$]), nitrite ([NO$_2^-$]) and phosphate ([PO$_4^{3-}$]) concentrations as follows (Altabet et al., 2012):

$$N' = ([NO_3^-] + [NO_2^-]) - 16 [PO_4^{3-}]$$

(3)

3 Results and discussion

The oxygen profiles revealed an intense oxygen minimum zone throughout the studied area, with a vertical thickness of several hundreds of meters. In the open ocean, the oxygen concentrations in the core of the OMZ increased towards the north from below 3 µM south of 5°S to ~10 µM at the equator. South of 13°S the mixed layer depth significantly increased from ~50 to ~100 m, which is reflected in the oxygen and N$_2$O distributions (Fig. 2). Due to the coastal upwelling, the depth of the upper OMZ boundary significantly decreased towards the coast, with a well oxygenated mixed layer of ~50 m in the open ocean and a mixed layer depth of less than 5 m on the shelf. Oxygen was strongly undersaturated in the surface waters on the shelf as a result of upwelling of waters from the underlying OMZ. Elevated phosphate concentrations in the surface waters at the coast also reflected the upwelling on the shelf (Fig. 3).

The vertical profiles showed characteristic nutrient distributions that marked the zones of nitrogen depletion: accumulation of nitrite was observed in the core of the OMZ where oxygen concentrations fell below ~5 µM and low N’ values coincided with the nitrite maxima in the OMZ https://www.sfb754.de/. The maximum nitrite concentration reached ~13 µM, with a more pronounced maximum at the shelf than in open ocean waters. Additionally, many profiles showed an additional, less pronounced primary nitrite maximum within the upper oxycline that is associated with nitrifica-
The $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ depth distribution showed a strong sensitivity to oxygen concentrations throughout the study area. In the offshore waters, surface $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ concentrations were close to saturation, with a strong increase below the mixed layer (Fig. 2). Two types of depth profiles could be identified: a broad $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ maximum at the depth of the oxygen minimum was found at the northern and southern periphery of the oxygen minimum zone where the minimum oxygen concentrations did not fall below 5 µM. In contrast, $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ depletion was found in the core of the OMZ, where oxygen concentrations below 5 µM were observed over a wide depth range. The $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ depth profiles in the central OMZ thus revealed a double-peak structure with narrow $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ maxima in the upper and lower oxycline (Fig. 4). This depth profile structure has been frequently observed in other oceanic areas with highly depleted oxygen concentrations (e.g. Bange et al., 2010). $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ depletion coincided with nitrite accumulation in the OMZ core and high nitrate to phosphate ratios. In all offshore profiles $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ concentrations did not exceed 80 nM.

A large difference between offshore stations and the stations on and in proximity to the shelf could be observed: compared to the offshore waters, the $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ distribution at the shelf break and on the shelf showed a much larger variability. $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ depletion was in fact observed at oxygen concentrations below 5 µM, too, but $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ accumulation with $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ concentrations above 100 nM was frequently observed, and several profiles showed an extreme $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ accumulation with concentrations up to $\sim$ 850 nM (Fig. 4). The location and shape of the $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ maxima in the different profiles was highly variable, which resulted in a very patchy distribution of $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ in the water column over the shelf and in the adjacent waters (Fig. 3). A characteristic shape of the profiles could not be identified: profiles with a subsurface $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ maximum in the oxycline were observed as well as profiles with multiple maxima or a surface $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ maximum (Fig. 4). These surface maxima are not necessarily a signal for surface production of $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ as has been proposed before (e.g. Zamora and Oschlies, 2014) but could result from advection of...
highly supersaturated waters that were brought to the surface by coastal upwelling elsewhere. High resolution measurements of surface $N_2O$ during M90, M91 and M93 also revealed a heterogeneous $N_2O$ distribution with remarkably high concentrations of $N_2O$ in vicinity of the main upwelling cells off Peru (Arévalo-Martínez et al., 2015).

In the open ocean, a bilinear $\Delta N_2O/AOU$ relationship has been identified in the upper oxycline for waters with oxygen concentrations higher than 5 µM during the M77-4 cruise that took place in the offshore waters of the OMZ (Ryabenko et al., 2012). We found a very similar relationship for all data from the offshore cruises M77-4 and M90 with no systematic difference between the data from the M77-4 (January/February 2009) cruise and the M90 (November 2012) cruise (Figs. 2 and 5a). This indicates a comparable setting of the open ocean OMZ waters during both cruises. We furthermore found no difference in the $\Delta N_2O/AOU$ relationship between stations with a broad $N_2O$ maximum and a double-peak structure.

In contrast to the open ocean waters, a correlation between $\Delta N_2O$ and AOU was not observed for the data from cruises that took place at the shelf (M77-3, M91–M93) (Fig. 5b). The $\Delta N_2O/AOU$ ratio from the offshore waters serves as a lower limit for the coastal stations, where numerous values with much higher $\Delta N_2O/AOU$ ratios were observed. The $N_2O$ values that showed the strongest deviation from the offshore $\Delta N_2O/AOU$ ratio were associated with low N’ values as a signal for a large nitrogen deficit (Fig. 5b). This indicates that these waters with extreme $N_2O$ accumulation had been subject to extensive N loss. The high oxygen concentrations within these waters excludes in-situ denitrification or anammox, however (see e.g. Babbin et al., 2014; Dalsgaard et al., 2014), and the extraordinarily high $N_2O$ concentrations as well as the low N’ values seem to be old signals that were preserved during re-ventilation.

Extreme accumulation of $N_2O$ with concentrations up to 765 nM in the oceanic water column has also been found in the Arabian Sea where oxygen depleted waters extend to the West Indian shelf (Naqvi et al., 2010, 2006) and at a time series station off Chile (Farías et al., 2015), where maximum concentrations of ~ 500 nM were found. Naqvi et al. (2000) explained the extreme $N_2O$ accumulation over the Indian shelf with the
response of denitrifying enzymes to transient oxygen depletion. N\textsubscript{2}O thus accumulated when oxygen reached suboxic conditions and consumption of N\textsubscript{2}O started when these waters became sulfidic (Naqvi et al., 2010). Fariás et al. (2015) measured N\textsubscript{2}O accumulation during the transition from oxic to anoxic conditions, too, but at variable oxygen concentrations whereas N\textsubscript{2}O depletion was dominant under suboxic conditions. In contrast to the results from the Indian Ocean, they identified enhanced remineralization due to short-term variability in coastal upwelling as the main driver for N\textsubscript{2}O accumulation.

In our study, N\textsubscript{2}O accumulation did not coincide with the accumulation of nitrite. We found N\textsubscript{2}O depletion in samples that showed marked nitrite accumulation (Fig. 4) and similar to the measurements off Chile, we found strongly elevated N\textsubscript{2}O concentrations (> 100 nM) over the full range of oxygen concentrations (Fig. 5), whereas N\textsubscript{2}O accumulation on the Indian shelf was restricted to suboxic conditions.

Our results indicate that N\textsubscript{2}O accumulation took place during increasing oxygen concentrations: the large N deficits we measured may be the result of earlier N loss and subsequent re-ventilation of these waters. This re-ventilation could have also induced an abrupt increase in N\textsubscript{2}O production and subsequent N\textsubscript{2}O accumulation in the water column. The accumulated N\textsubscript{2}O could have remained preserved in the water column when these waters were further ventilated as there is no known consumption process for N\textsubscript{2}O in oxygenated waters (Bange, 2008). This effect would disturb the linear ΔN\textsubscript{2}O/AOU relationship over a wide range of oxygen concentrations, whereas decreasing oxygen concentrations would lead only to a temporal accumulation with subsequent depletion of N\textsubscript{2}O, similar to the observations over the Indian shelf.

Enhanced production of N\textsubscript{2}O after re-ventilation is a known process occurring in soils (e.g. Morley et al., 2008). In a recent incubation study, Dalsgaard et al. (2014) found no indication for an increased N\textsubscript{2}O production by denitrification due to changes in the oxygen concentration at nanomolar levels, however. Instead, autotrophic denitrification and N\textsubscript{2}O production have been shown to be stimulated by the addition of hydrogen sulfide (H\textsubscript{2}S) (Galan et al., 2014; Dalsgaard et al., 2014). In our measurements N\textsubscript{2}O was
depleted in all samples that contained H₂S and although we found extreme N₂O accumulation at the boundary of H₂S-containing waters at some stations (Löscher et al., 2015), similarly high concentrations were present at stations without any signals of H₂S, too. We cannot exclude that the high N₂O production we frequently observed at the shelf is stimulated by a coupling of denitrification with sulfur cycling, though: Canfield et al. (2010) found evidence for active sulfur cycling in the ETSP without H₂S accumulation, and a potential coupling between H₂S oxidation and denitrification has been demonstrated before (Galan et al., 2014; Jensen et al., 2009). Indeed, active denitrification was only found in proximity to H₂S plumes in the water column during M77-3 (Kalvelage et al., 2013), where the highest N₂O concentrations during this cruise were found, too (Löscher et al., 2015).

In the ocean, increased N₂O production was also associated with the onset of nitrification after re-ventilation of the water column in a seasonal study in the Baltic Sea, but at relatively low concentrations (Naqvi et al., 2010). Yu et al. (2010) found increased N₂O production by nitrifying bacteria that was stimulated by the availability of ammonium during recovery from anoxic conditions in a chemostat culture experiment. Their results point towards an increased N₂O production via the ammonium-oxidation pathway, while N₂O production by nitrifier-denitrification seemed not to be stimulated by the shift from anoxic to oxic conditions. Studies of the isotopic and isotopomeric N₂O composition could reveal more detailed insights whether N₂O is produced via the ammonium oxidation or the nitrite reduction pathway during extreme accumulation.

Together with the high N₂O concentrations we found low N’ values that were associated with oxygenated waters only at the shelf, whereas in the open ocean N depletion was restricted to the OMZ core. This could indicate that re-ventilation of the oxygen-deficient waters mainly happens at the shelf, whereas waters in the open ocean OMZ are less affected by mixing processes. Strong diapycnal and isopycnal mixing has indeed been observed on the shelf has indeed been reported from the Peruvian and Mauritanian upwelling region (Schafstall et al., 2010; Thomsen et al., 2015). The upwelling-induced high primary production in the surface ocean furthermore fuels rapid
oxygen consumption in the underlying waters due to the export and remineralization of organic matter, thereby creating strong small-scale variability in oxygen concentrations. Kalvelage et al. (2013) showed that these high remineralization rates also induce strong N cycling in the subsurface layer. Turnover rates for different N species are therefore much faster on the shelf than in the open ocean OMZ (Hu et al., 2015), which is also reflected in the distribution of different functional gene abundances (Löscher et al., 2014). One factor that also contributes to the N$_2$O accumulation on the shelf could thus be generally higher rates of nitrification and/or denitrification on the shelf than in the open ocean.

4 Summary and conclusions

We observed extreme N$_2$O accumulations over the Peruvian shelf with maximum concentrations similar to the observations made by Naqvi et al. (2000) and Farías et al. (2015) over the Indian shelf, whereas N$_2$O concentrations in the open ocean OMZ off Peru were comparably moderate. Similar to results from the Indian Ocean and the ETSP off Chile, our results indicate that high N$_2$O accumulation is associated with a large variability in the oxygen concentrations together with elevated nitrification and denitrification rates on the shelf.

We found strong evidence that N$_2$O accumulations are preserved during the ventilation of the water column and that waters with high N$_2$O concentrations are directly and frequently transported to the surface ocean. This makes this region one of the most important oceanic regions for N$_2$O emissions to the atmosphere (Arévalo-Martínez et al., 2015). This direct link between unusually high N$_2$O production and emissions over the Peruvian shelf makes it necessary to understand the biogeochemical processes involved in N$_2$O production and consumption to produce reliable predictions of oceanic emissions from this area. Current approaches to model the N$_2$O distribution rely on parameterizations based on the linear $\Delta$N$_2$O/AOU relationship (Suntharalingam and Sarmiento, 2000; Nevison et al., 2003; Freing et al., 2012). These approaches could
in fact reproduce the oxygen distribution in the open ocean OMZ off Peru reasonably well, but they fail to account for the extreme N$_2$O accumulation and its high spatial and temporal variability over the shelf area. They thus significantly underestimate the emissions from the Peruvian upwelling and potentially other upwelling areas with similar conditions, too.

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Figure 1. Station maps of the sampled N$_2$O stations from cruises (a) M77-3, December 2008–January 2009 (●) and M77-4, January–February 2009 (○), (b) M90, November 2012 (●) and M91, December 2012 (○), (c) M92, January 2013 (●) and M93, February–March 2013 (○). Section annotations in (a and b) correspond to the vertical sections shown in Figs. 2 and 3.
Figure 2. Spatial distributions of oxygen (a, b), nitrite (c, d) and $N_2O$ (e, f) along 86°W during M77-4 (2009, a, c, e) and M90 (2012, b, d, f). Small dots indicate location and depth of the discrete samples. Data gridding: ODV/DIVA.
Figure 3. Cross-shelf distribution of (a) Oxygen, (b) Phosphate, (c) Nitrate, (d) N', (e) Nitrite and (f) N2O during M91 (Section F).
Figure 4. Selected depth profiles of oxygen (black dots, dotted line), sigma-theta (grey line) and N$_2$O (red line, open circles) (left panel) and nitrate (grey line), nitrite (black circles, dotted line) and N’ (red line, small dots) (right panel) from selected open ocean and shelf stations during M90–M93. Depth profiles of oxygen and sigma-theta were taken from the CTD sensors, the other parameters are taken from discrete samples. The locations of the respective stations are shown in the map. Please note the changes in the scales for N$_2$O, sigma-theta and nitrite.
Figure 5. $\Delta$N$_2$O/AOU relationship from (a) offshore cruises (M77-4 (circles), M90 (diamonds)) and (b) near-shore cruises (M77-3 (open diamonds), M91 (open circles), M92 (filled circles), M93 (filled diamonds)). Samples from the upper OMZ and oxycline (sample depth < 350 m) are color-coded with N'. The black line denotes the $\Delta$N$_2$O/AOU relationship from the M77-4 and M90 data for samples with O$_2$ > 50 $\mu$M and depth < 350 m ($y = 0.118x + 4.29; r^2 = 0.773$). Please note the change in the scaling for $\Delta$N$_2$O values of 0–100 nM and 100–1000 nM (dotted line).