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Key Points:

- $\label{eq:states} \begin{array}{l} \delta^{1s} N \mbox{ and } \delta^{18} O \mbox{ of } NO_3^- + NO_2^- \mbox{ and } NO_3^- \mbox{ only suggest expression of } NO_3^- \mbox{ -} NO_2^- \mbox{ equilibrium isotope effect, } \\ likely \mbox{ due to enzyme reversibility } \end{array}$
- Interconversion of NO_3^- and NO_2^- is correlated with seasonal mixed layer deepening and suggests a role for entrained NO_2^- oxidizers
- Interconversion may occur where NO_2^- oxidizers are transported into regions that inhibit NO_2^- oxidation, including oxygen-deficient zones

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information S1

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Enzyme-level interconversion of nitrate and nitrite in the fall mixed layer of the Antarctic Ocean

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Abstract In the Southern Ocean, the nitrogen (N) isotopes of organic matter and the N and oxygen (O) isotopes of nitrate (NO₃⁻) have been used to investigate NO₃⁻ assimilation and N cycling in the summertime period of phytoplankton growth, both today and in the past. However, recent studies indicate the significance of processes in other seasons for producing the annual cycle of N isotope changes. This study explores the impact of fall conditions on the ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ($\delta^{15}N$) and ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ ($\delta^{18}O$) of NO₃⁻ and nitrite (NO₂⁻) in the Pacific Antarctic Zone using depth profiles from late summer/fall of 2014. In the mixed layer, the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ increase roughly equally, as expected for NO_3^- assimilation; however, the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_3^- -only (measured after NO₂⁻ removal) increases more than does NO₃⁻-only δ^{18} O. Differencing indicates that NO₂⁻ has an extremely low δ^{15} N, often < -70% versus air. These observations are consistent with the expression of an equilibrium N isotope effect between NO_3^- and NO_2^- , likely due to enzymatic NO_3^- - NO_2^- interconversion. Specifically, we propose reversibility of the nitrite oxidoreductase (NXR) enzyme of nitrite oxidizers that, having been entrained from the subsurface during late summer mixed layer deepening, are inhibited by light. Our interpretation suggests a role for NO_3^{-} - NO_2^{-} interconversion where nitrifiers are transported into environments that discourage NO_2^- oxidation. This may apply to surface regions with upwelling, such as the summertime Antarctic. It may also apply to oxygen-deficient zones, where NXR-catalyzed interconversion may explain previously reported evidence of NO₂⁻ oxidation.

1. Introduction

Production and export of organic carbon from the high-latitude surface ocean lowers the atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) directly through the removal of dissolved inorganic carbon to the deep ocean and indirectly by driving an increase in whole-ocean alkalinity [*Sigman and Boyle*, 2000]. In the modern Southern Ocean, nutrient consumption in surface waters is incomplete due to limitation of phytoplankton by iron and light [*Martin*, 1990; *Sunda and Huntsman*, 1997]. The upper ocean surrounding Antarctica is thus enriched in nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P), the production and export of organic carbon is much less than potential export [*Reuer et al.*, 2007], and much of the upwelled CO₂ degasses to the atmosphere [*Sigman et al.*, 2010]. Increasing nutrient consumption in the Southern Ocean could stem this CO₂ leakage and has been proposed as an explanation for the lower atmospheric CO₂ concentrations of past ice ages [*Knox and McElroy*, 1984; *Sarmiento and Toggweiler*, 1984; *Siegenthaler and Wenk*, 1984].

In the Antarctic Zone (AZ), the southernmost region of the Southern Ocean, nutrients are supplied to the surface ocean through seasonal mixing and wind-driven upwelling. In winter, the Antarctic surface cools and increases in salinity due to sea ice formation, deepening the mixed layer and importing nutrients from the deep ocean into surface waters. Furthermore, NO_3^- -rich deep water upwells into the surface ocean due to Ekman divergence induced by circumpolar westerly winds. During summer, surface warming melts the ice and shoals the mixed layer, stratifying the water column. No longer light-limited, phytoplankton in the summertime mixed layer draw down NO_3^- and other nutrients. The water below the summertime mixed layer, which was the base of the winter mixed layer, retains the low temperatures of the Antarctic winter and is called the temperature minimum (T_{min}) layer. The T_{min} layer is thought to be a summertime record of winter

conditions as well as a reflection of the initial state from which the surface ocean evolves throughout the summer [*Altabet and Francois*, 2001].

The ¹⁵N/¹⁴N and ¹⁸O/¹⁶O ratios of seawater NO₃⁻ can be used to study nutrient consumption in the Southern Ocean. Phytoplankton consuming surface NO₃⁻ preferentially assimilate the lighter isotopes of nitrogen and oxygen, ¹⁴N and ¹⁶O, relative to the heavier isotopes, ¹⁵N and ¹⁸O [*Wada and Hattori*, 1978; *Pennock et al.*, 1996; *Waser et al.*, 1998; *Needoba et al.*, 2004], such that consumption increases the $\delta^{15}N$ (([¹⁵N/¹⁴N]_{sample}/[¹⁵N/¹⁴N]_{air} – 1)×1000) and $\delta^{18}O$ (([¹⁸O/¹⁶O]_{sample}/[¹⁸O/¹⁶O]_{VSMOW} – 1)×1000) of the NO₃⁻ remaining in seawater. This isotopic change in the NO₃⁻ pool is commonly simulated using the Rayleigh model, which describes an approximately linear relationship between the $\delta^{15}N$ of the NO₃⁻ substrate and the natural logarithm of the fraction of NO₃⁻ remaining [*Mariotti et al.*, 1981]. The slope of the line approximates ¹⁵_E, the N isotope effect for nitrate assimilation, which is defined as ¹⁵_E = (¹⁴k/¹⁵k – 1)×1000, where ¹⁴k and ¹⁵k are the rate coefficients for the assimilation of ¹⁴N and ¹⁵N-bearing NO₃⁻, respectively. Below, we refer to plots of NO₃⁻ $\delta^{15}N$ or $\delta^{18}O$ against the natural logarithm of NO₃⁻ as "Rayleigh space." The Rayleigh model assumes a closed substrate pool, which is largely the case for NO₃⁻ in the AZ during the summer, when NO₃⁻ supply is weak relative to NO₃⁻ assimilation. Moreover, because the fractional consumption of NO₃⁻ in the summer-time surface is relatively low, violations of the Rayleigh model assumptions due to Ekman-driven NO₃⁻ supply or in situ remineralization have minimal effect [*Sigman et al.*, 1999].

The Rayleigh model, however, fails to capture seasonal patterns in the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of NO_3^- , which recent studies of NO_3^- and NO_2^- isotopes from the Southern Ocean have begun to document [*DiFiore et al.*, 2010; *Smart et al.*, 2015]. In particular, the Rayleigh model fails to explain the chemistry of the temperature minimum layer, due at least in part to wintertime nitrification of the low- $\delta^{15}N$ NH₄⁺ resulting from intensive biological N recycling in the late summer mixed layer [*Lourey et al.*, 2003; *Smart et al.*, 2015].

This study provides additional insights into the seasonal origin of non-Rayleigh NO₃⁻ isotope dynamics in the Southern Ocean. We report δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O for both NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only in samples from eight profiles collected in the Pacific Antarctic Zone during the 2014 U.S. Repeat Hydrography cruise along the P16S line. In the combined NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ data, we recover the previously observed non-Rayleigh behavior of the T_{min} layer and derive values for the N and O isotope effects of NO₃⁻ assimilation that are consistent with prior estimates from the region. The coupled N and O isotope measurements of the combined NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ pool indicate close to equivalent increases in δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O into the surface mixed layer, consistent with expectations for NO₃⁻ assimilation from culture studies [*Granger et al.*, 2004, 2008, 2010; *Karsh et al.*, 2012, 2014].

However, we find that the δ^{15} N of NO₃⁻-only increases more than does the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻-only, which is not expected given known Southern Ocean processes. By differencing the $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ and NO_3^- -only measurements, we calculate very low values for NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N in the upper ~90 m. These observations suggest the expression of an equilibrium N isotope effect between NO_3^- and NO_2^- in the late summer surface ocean, which preferentially partitions 15 N into NO₃⁻ and 14 N into NO₂⁻. This equilibration could result from the bidirectional interconversion of NO_3^- and NO_2^- , likely catalyzed by biochemical reaction reversibility. The NO₂⁻ oxidoreductase (NXR) enzyme, a bidirectional enzyme in certain nitrifying microorganisms that catalyzes both the oxidation of NO_2^- and the reduction of NO_3^- [Sundermeyer-Klinger et al., 1984], has previously been implicated in isotope exchange between NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ [Friedman et al., 1986; Wunderlich et al., 2013]. We suggest that NO₃⁻⁻NO₂⁻⁻ interconversion across NXR results in expression of the equilibrium N isotope effect between NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻, which would explain the very low values of $NO_2^- \delta^{15}N$ that we calculate for the Southern Ocean surface. Moreover, differences in estimates of the assimilation isotope effects between $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ and NO_3^- -only data suggest that the intensity of NO₃⁻⁻NO₂⁻⁻ interconversion is linked to the seasonal deepening of the mixed layer, suggesting a role for nitrifiers entrained from the dark T_{min} layer into the sunlit surface mixed layer. Enzyme-level interconversion of NO_3^- and NO_2^- is a new complication in our understanding of the marine N cycle. This process has the potential to be important in the many oceanographic environments where NO_2^- oxidizers can be transported across light or chemical gradients into waters with conditions unfavorable for NO₂⁻ oxidation.



Figure 1. (a) Temperature (°C), (b) salinity (psu, practical salinity unit), (c) oxygen concentration $(\mu mol/kg)$, and (d) NO₃⁻ concentration $(\mu mol/kg)$ along 150°W. White dots show the locations of samples analyzed in this study, with station number given at the top of each profile. UCDW: Upper Circumpolar Deep Water; LCDW: Lower Circumpolar Deep Water; AABW: Antarctic Bottom Water; AAIW: Antarctic Intermediate Water; SAMW: Subantarctic Mode Water.

2. Methods

2.1. Cruise Track and Sample Collection

Seawater samples were collected during the 2014 U.S. Repeat Hydrography P16S cruise onboard the RVIB *Nathaniel B. Palmer*. From 20 March to 5 May, the cruise occupied a total of 90 stations from 67°S to 15°S along 150°W, and hydrographic information for each cast was collected from a Sea-Bird Electronics CTD. Water samples were collected every 25 to 50 m in the surface ocean and every 100 to 400 m at depth. The onboard science crew analyzed the samples for the concentrations of major nutrients, and measurements are presented here in their reported units.

The samples analyzed in this study were collected from eight stations between 57°S and 67°S (Figure 1, white circles). While some sampled profiles extended to the ocean floor, others were sampled only through the upper water column. Seawater was collected in 50 mL bottles that were rinsed three times with sample prior to filling and were frozen at -20° C within 2 h of collection. Inserts were added to the frozen sample bottles within 1 week of freezing. Initial isotopic analysis revealed that some of the collected samples were depleted in NO₃⁻ by as much as 50% of their shipboard-measured concentrations. Refractometer testing indicated that these samples also had reduced salinity, with measured-to-reported salinity ratios of 50-100%. The NO3⁻ and salinity ratios fall close to a 1:1 line and suggest a linear relationship between salt loss and NO₃⁻ loss. These observations are consistent with the loss of brine, which likely formed and escaped when the sample froze in storage. To adjust for this brine loss, we measured the salinity of each sample and used regression lines to generate an estimate of actual NO_3^- concentration, which was then used to calculate the desired injection volume for our mass spectrometer measurements (see below). While our data set may be compromised modestly by this brine loss and associated variations in the volume of sample injections, inspection of the data for correlations between brine loss and isotopic composition yielded no compelling trends (supporting information Text S1 and Figure S1). Here we report NO₃⁻ concentrations as measured at sea, not the compromised concentrations in our sample bottles.

2.2. Isotopic Analysis of $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ and NO_3^- -Only

 $NO_3^{-} \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ were measured using the denitrifier method, in which bacteria lacking an active nitrous oxide (N_2O)-reductase quantitatively convert seawater NO_3^- to N_2O gas [Sigman et al., 2001; Casciotti et al., 2002]. Additionally, the denitrifier method converts any NO_2^- in the sample to N₂O, which can confound interpretations of measured δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O. NO₂⁻ in seawater affects measurements of δ^{18} O because, during bacterial conversion, NO₂⁻ loses a smaller fraction of O atoms than NO₃⁻ as the two N species are converted to N_2O (3/4 in NO_2^- versus 5/6 in NO_3^-). The isotopic impact of such differential O loss is that N₂O generated from NO₂⁻ has a δ^{18} O that is ~25‰ lower than N₂O produced from NO₃⁻ with the same initial δ^{18} O [*Casciotti et al.*, 2007], implying that our measured values systemically underestimate the true δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻. To correct for this methodological bias, we increased the measured δ^{18} O of $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ by the product of 25‰ and the fraction of NO_2^- in each sample ($[NO_2^-]/[NO_3^- + NO_2^-]$); the magnitude of this correction ranges from 0.00 to 0.31‰. It is important to note that this correction only applies to δ^{18} O, not to δ^{15} N, and that the magnitude of the correction is much smaller than the NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O difference between the surface ocean and deep ocean. Lastly, uncertainty in the exact correction factor, here taken as 25‰, is insufficient to explain the signals identified and discussed in the interpretation below. All further references to NO_2^- effects refer to the isotopic signal of NO_2^- in the water column and not to this methodological correction.

In order to isolate the NO₃⁻-only isotopic signal, all samples with detectable NO₂⁻ (concentrations \geq 0.01 µmol/kg) were treated with sulfanilamide prior to analysis with the denitrifier method. During treatment, 200 µL of 1% sulfanilamide in 10% HCl were added per 10 mL of sample or standard and left for 7–10 min. 90–100 µL of 2 M NaOH was then added to increase sample pH to 6–8, as measured using pH indicator strips. This sulfanilamide-based protocol was undertaken as part of a methodological comparison with the sulfamic acid-based protocol of *Granger and Sigman* [2009]. The method comparison showed extremely similar results for the two protocols, for samples both with and without NO₂⁻, consistent with prior testing of nitrite-spiked nitrate reference solutions [*Weigand et al.*, 2016]. Hereafter, the results from our samples and their NO₂⁻ removed counterparts are always distinguished because the presence or absence of NO₂⁻ is central to the discussion. We use "NO₃⁻-only" to refer to samples treated for NO₂⁻ removal or samples without any reported NO₂⁻, while "NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻" refers to the original (untreated) sample. NO₃⁻-only and NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ plotted for deep samples without any reported NO₂⁻ represent the same measurements of untreated samples.

The isotopic composition of N₂O was measured by gas chromatography-isotope ratio mass spectrometry using a purpose-built online N₂O extraction and purification system and Thermo MAT 253 mass spectrometer [*Weigand et al.*, 2016]. Seawater solutions of the international NO₃⁻⁻ reference materials IAEA-NO3 and USGS34 as well as gaseous injections from an in-house N₂O tank were run in parallel throughout the run, interspersed among the samples. Vials containing bacteria but no injected sample were also included in every batch to constrain bacterial blanks, and we conducted both within-batch and between-batch replications. On average, every sample was measured four times, and we report the simple average of the replicate measurements. The δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻⁻ + NO₂⁻⁻ was measured in 184 samples, and the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻⁻-only was measured in 88 samples. The pooled standard deviation of replicate sample measurements was 0.05‰ for δ^{15} N and 0.14‰ for δ^{18} O (*n* = 272). There was no significant difference in reproducibility between samples treated with sulfanilamide and their untreated counterparts. For an in-house seawater sample from the deep North Pacific that was measured two to three times in each run, the standard deviation was 0.04‰ for δ^{15} N and 0.12‰ for δ^{18} O (*n* = 94).

3. Results

3.1. Hydrography

Major water masses are identified from temperature, salinity, oxygen, and NO_3^- concentration (Figure 1). Upper Circumpolar Deep Water (UCDW) is characterized by high NO_3^- and low oxygen concentrations, properties typically associated with the remineralization of sinking organic matter in the middepths of the low-latitude Indo-Pacific. While UCDW upwells in the Open Antarctic Zone (OAZ) north of the Southern Antarctic Circumpolar Current Front (SACCF), Lower Circumpolar Deep Water (LCDW) upwells farther south



Figure 2. Depth profiles of (a) NO₂⁻ concentration, (b) NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N, (c) NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ δ^{18} O, (d) NO₃⁻ concentration, (e) NO₃⁻-only δ^{15} N, and (f) NO₃⁻-only δ^{18} O. Note the different vertical scales between the first two rows of panels and the third row of panels.

within the Polar Antarctic Zone (PAZ). LCDW is relatively saline due to its incorporation of North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW) and is depleted in NO_3^- and enriched in oxygen relative to UCDW. Three stations in this analysis are in the OAZ between the Antarctic Polar Front (APF) and the SACCF, and five stations are in the PAZ south of the SACCF. Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) is characterized by cold temperatures and high oxygen concentrations, which result from its recent contact with the surface and the high solubility of oxygen at low temperatures. Finally, Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) and Subantarctic Mode Water (SAMW) are nutrient-rich, low-salinity water masses that form near the APF and the Subantarctic Front (SAF), respectively [*Orsi et al.*, 1995], and provide nutrients to the low-latitude upper ocean [*Sarmiento et al.*, 2004].

Several features of the Ross Sea Gyre between 57°S and 67°S are evident in the hydrographic data. The isolated remnant base of the winter mixed layer is identified as the T_{min} layer near 100 m, with the temperature minimum reaching between -2° C and -0.5° C (Figure 1a). The surface is significantly fresher than the underlying water, with the highest salinity for a given depth occurring between 62°S and 63°S (Figure 1b). The deeper isothermals and isohalines are domed, reflecting regional upwelling associated with the core of the cyclonic Ross Sea Gyre. There is also a region of greater oxygen depletion from 200 m to 350 m between 60°S and 64°S where oxygen concentrations are less than 180 µmol/kg (Figure 1c); the same region is characterized by a maximum in NO₃⁻ concentration (Figure 1d). Mixed layer depths for each station were determined by visually inspecting profiles of potential density for rapid increases in density relative to the average of the surface ocean. Mixed layer depths range from 58 m to 81 m, with the deepest mixed layer occurring at the station in the core of the gyre.

3.2. Isotopic Impact of NO₂⁻ Removal

Onboard nutrient analysis revealed NO₂⁻ concentrations less than 0.01 µmol/kg in samples collected below 300 m and concentrations ranging from 0.19–0.29 µmol/kg in the mixed layer, up to 1.3% of the combined NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ pool (Figure 2a). Despite the small fractional contribution of NO₂⁻ to the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ pool, removing NO₂⁻ altered δ^{15} N by -0.1‰ to 1.0‰; that is, it tended to raise δ^{15} N, with larger changes observed in samples with higher NO₂⁻ concentrations (Figures 2b and 2e). Removing NO₂⁻ altered δ^{18} O by -0.4‰ to 0.3‰ but without a clear tendency (Figures 2c and 2f) (supporting information Text S2 and Figure S2).

3.3. Major Isotopic Signals in the Water Column

At all stations, the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ are quite uniform in the deeper water column (Figure 2, third row of panels). Below 1000 m, where there is no detectable NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N is 4.7 ± 0.0‰ and NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O is $2.0 \pm 0.1\%$ (1 σ , n = 46). In the upper 200 m, the dominant signal is a rise in both δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O (Figures 2b, 2c, 2e, and 2f) coincident with the decrease in NO_3^- concentration (Figure 2d). The largest changes in all three parameters occur from below 200 m to above 50 m, where the mean NO_3^- concentration decreases from $32.6 \pm 0.6 \,\mu$ mol/kg to $24.3 \pm 1.2 \,\mu$ mol/kg. For NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻, the mean δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O increase from 4.7 ± 0.1‰ to 6.1 ± 0.2‰ and from 1.9 ± 0.1‰ to 3.5 ± 0.3‰, respectively; for NO₃⁻-only, the mean δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O increase from 4.7±0.1‰ to 6.8±0.2‰ and from 1.9±0.1‰ to 3.4±0.3‰, respectively (1 σ , n = 118 below 200 m, n = 22 above 50 m). In the upper 50 m, NO₃⁻ concentration and δ^{15} N are relatively constant, while δ^{18} O varies slightly but without a clear trend. The large changes in NO₃⁻ concentration and isotope ratios from the subsurface into the surface ocean are attributable to NO_3^- assimilation by phytoplankton, which removes nutrients and causes the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of the remaining NO₃⁻ to rise [Wada and Hattori, 1978; Pennock et al., 1996; Waser et al., 1998; Needoba et al., 2004]. We do not observe strong meridional trends in NO_3^- concentration or isotopic composition, but the stations nearest to 61°S are consistently characterized by higher NO₃⁻ concentrations and lower NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O. This is likely due to the proximity of these stations to the core of the Ross Sea Gyre, where upwelling is expected to be strongest.

3.4. Non-Rayleigh Dynamics and Estimation of Isotope Effects

In most profiles, $NO_3^{-} \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ resemble LCDW at depth, consistent with their position south of the SACCF, while the northernmost stations 15 (58°S) and 23 (57°S) transition upward from LCDW to UCDW before the T_{min} is reached (Figure 3). According to the Rayleigh model, the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of NO_3^{-} versus $ln(NO_3^{-})$ should fall along linear trends connecting the subsurface water NO_3^{-} source, either UCDW or LCDW, with the surface samples. However, in all profiles the $\delta^{15}N$ of the T_{min} layer falls well below the linear trend defined by deeper and shallower NO_3^{-} (Figure 3, dashed black box indicating the concave-up "kink"), except for at station 15 (58°S) where samples from the T_{min} layer resemble underlying deep water. No comparable nonlinearity is observed for $\delta^{18}O$. Plots of the depth profiles in Rayleigh space are thus consistent with previous observations of non-Rayleigh behavior for NO_3^{-} samples in the remnant of the winter mixed layer [*Sigman et al.*, 1999; *DiFiore et al.*, 2010; *Smart et al.*, 2015].

As a result of this non-Rayleigh behavior, we estimate larger N and O isotope effects for NO₃⁻ assimilation, ¹⁵ ε and ¹⁸ ε , respectively, when taking the linear trend connecting the mixed layer samples with samples in the T_{min} than when regressing against full depth profiles. Because the T_{min} layer is thought to represent the initial concentration and isotopic composition of NO₃⁻ in the summertime surface [*Altabet and Francois*, 2001], regressions through the T_{min} likely yield the best approximation for the isotope effect of NO₃⁻ assimilation over a single season [*DiFiore et al.*, 2010]. For NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ samples, estimates of ¹⁵ ε calculated from regressions on samples from the surface to the core of the T_{min} layer range from 4.8 ± 0.3‰ to 6.1 ± 0.4‰, and estimates of ¹⁸ ε range from 2.5 ± 1.5‰ to 5.6 ± 0.7‰. For NO₃⁻ -only samples, estimates of ¹⁵ ε range from 6.9 ± 0.4‰ to 11.7 ± 1.0‰, and estimates of ¹⁸ ε range from 2.5 ± 0.8‰ to 5.4 ± 0.7‰ (supporting information Text S3 and Figure S3). These cited ranges exclude station 15 (58°S), where sampled T_{min} water was nearly identical to underlying deep water in nitrate δ^{15} N and concentration and thus did not capture the characteristic δ^{15} N/ln(NO₃⁻) relationship of the temperature minimum layer.



Figure 3. The δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only data in Rayleigh space. Except for station 15, all stations show a concave-up δ^{15} N "kink" at the T_{min} layer (dashed black box), where NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N is lower for its concentration than the Rayleigh model predicts [*Sigman et al.*, 1999; *DiFiore et al.*, 2010]. No corresponding feature is seen in δ^{18} O. Values do not change substantially when plotted against ln(NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻) instead of ln(NO₃⁻).

4. Discussion

4.1. Observed $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ in $NO_3^-+NO_2^-$ and NO_3^--Only Samples 4.1.1. $NO_3^-+NO_2^ \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$

In the absence of other processes, the nearly equal N and O isotope effects of NO₃⁻ assimilation would cause surface NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O to increase in parallel [*Granger et al.*, 2004, 2008, 2010; *Karsh et al.*, 2012, 2014]. Graphically, NO₃⁻ assimilation causes the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ to rise along a 1:1 slope in δ^{18} O versus δ^{15} N space. Below the T_{min} , NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ samples show a uniform difference between δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of $\sim 3\%$ (Figure 4a), consistent with previous Southern Ocean measurements [*Rafter et al.*, 2013; *Smart et al.*, 2015]. In the T_{min} , NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ samples fall slightly above the 1:1 line in δ^{18} O versus δ^{15} N space, reflecting the decrease in NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N relative to ln(NO₃⁻) within the T_{min} layer (i.e., the kink). This feature has been observed previously in winter data from the Atlantic sector of the AZ and is hypothesized to result from the remineralization of low- δ^{15} N N remaining in the mixed layer at the end of the summer [*Smart et al.*, 2015]. Moving into the surface ocean, the difference between δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O remains constant as the N and O isotope systems evolve in approximately the 1:1 fashion expected from NO₃⁻ assimilation acting alone. This 1:1 evolution continues until, in the surface samples, δ^{18} O changes slightly in some profiles.

4.1.2. NO₃⁻-Only δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O

For the NO₃⁻-only samples, δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O show the same uniform difference of ~3‰ below the T_{min} layer that is observed in the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ data (Figure 4b). Likewise, in NO₃⁻-only as for NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻, δ^{15} N rises less than δ^{18} O from depth into the T_{min} layer. However, into the surface mixed layer, NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N and NO₃⁻-only δ^{15} N diverge. For the NO₃⁻-only data, δ^{15} N increases relative to δ^{18} O such that the shallowest samples fall below the 1:1 line extending from deep NO₃⁻. Such a large increase in δ^{15} N relative to δ^{18} O



Figure 4. Cross plots of (a) NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and (b) NO₃⁻-only δ^{18} O against δ^{15} N.

has not been observed previously. Moreover, the observations of both the 1:1 evolution of $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ from the T_{min} into the surface and the larger increase in $\delta^{15}N$ relative to $\delta^{18}O$ for NO_3^- -only are inconsistent with the expected results from previously described Southern Ocean dynamics.

4.2. Estimated and Predicted NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O

4.2.1. Anomalously Low $\delta^{15} N$ of NO_2^- Derived Through Mass Balance

The δ^{15} N of NO₃⁻-only samples is higher than that of the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ samples, indicating a low δ^{15} N for NO_2^- relative to NO_3^- . The $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_2^- was calculated using an isotope mass balance, with error propagation derived from a Monte Carlo simulation. For each sample, we adjusted the reported concentration of NO_3^- and NO_2^- , as well as the measured values of $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$, by values drawn randomly from normal distributions with characteristic standard deviations. In accordance with estimates of accuracy and precision derived from shipboard measurements of the Reference Materials for Nutrients in Seawater, the standard deviation was 0.21 μ mol/kg for the NO₃⁻ distribution and 0.006 μ mol/kg for the NO₂⁻ distribution. The standard deviation was 0.05% for δ^{15} N in untreated samples and 0.04% for δ^{15} N in treated samples, reflecting the pooled standard deviations of replicate measurements across our entire data set. After shifting each term in the mass balance equation, we recalculated NO₂ $^{-}$ δ^{15} N 100,000 times, and here we report the standard deviation of the resulting distribution as the uncertainty in $NO_2^{-}\delta^{15}N$ for each sample. The uncertainties in average $NO_2^{-}\delta^{15}N$ are given as the standard deviation of the constituent $NO_2^{-}\delta^{15}N$ values. Excluding samples with NO_2^- concentrations less than 0.10 μ mol/kg, for which uncertainty in the calculation is highest, $NO_2^- \delta^{15}N$ ranges from $-91 \pm 18\%$ to $-6 \pm 22\%$, with an average value of $-58 \pm 52\%$ (2σ , n = 55; Figure 5). NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N is depth dependent, with an average value above 90 m of $-69 \pm 33\%$ (2 σ , n = 41) that is lower than the value below 90 m of $-24 \pm 38\%$ (2σ , n = 14; Figure 5, grey bar). In addition, the surface NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N is significantly lower than that calculated by Smart et al. [2015] for the Atlantic sector of the Antarctic Zone; using a similar approach, they estimated NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N to range from -40‰ to -20‰ in the winter mixed layer.

4.2.2. $NO_2^{-} \delta^{15}N$ Predicted From NH_4^+ and NO_2^- Oxidation and Assimilation

We first consider a mechanism suggested previously to explain observations of $low \delta^{15}N NO_2^{-1}$ in samples from the wintertime Atlantic AZ. *Lourey et al.* [2003] report that the $\delta^{15}N$ of surface suspended particulate nitrogen (PN) in the Pacific AZ decreases from ~0‰ to ~ -5‰ from early to late summer, an observation best explained as reflecting an increase in the assimilation of regenerated N, predominantly NH₄⁺ [*Fawcett et al.*, 2011, 2014]. Relative to NO₃⁻⁷, NH₄⁺ is low in $\delta^{15}N$ because of the net isotopic fractionation imparted by zooplankton metabolism and excretion [*Checkley and Miller*, 1989] and by the bacterial degradation of PN [*Lehmann et al.*, 2002]. At the end of the summer, the combined NH₄⁺ and organic N pool in the AZ mixed layer will thus be low in $\delta^{15}N$ [*Lourey et al.*, 2003].

Simplistically, there are two possible fates for NH_4^+ in surface waters: assimilation by phytoplankton or oxidation to NO_2^- by nitrifying bacteria and archaea (i.e., the first step of nitrification). Nitrifier activity has been found to be inhibited by light [*Vanzella et al.*, 1989; *Guerrero and Jones*, 1996], although it may not be



Figure 5. NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N with 2σ error for samples with NO₂⁻ concentrations greater than 0.10 µmol/kg. Predicted values for a system dominated by NH₄⁺ oxidation are shown in green, a system dominated by NH₄⁺ assimilation in red, and accounting for NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ equilibration in blue. The fading of the shaded regions at lower δ^{15} N indicates the influence of net NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N.

completely halted [Ward, 2005]. Coupled with the significant competitive advantage that phytoplankton have over nitrifiers for NH_4^+ [Ward, 1985; Smith et al., 2014], this typically leads to NH4⁺ oxidation being restricted to the dark waters below the photic zone and NH4⁺ assimilation dominating in surface waters. However, in the late summer AZ, the deepening mixed laver results in a decrease in the mean light level experienced by mixed layer organisms, potentially leading to the cooccurrence of NH4⁺ assimilation and nitrification. In this case, the $\delta^{15}N$ of the produced upper ocean $NO_2^$ depends on the relative rates of NH4⁺ assimilation and NH4⁺ oxidation. At the low NH₄⁺ concentrations typical of AZ surface waters [Gordon et al., 2000], the isotope effect of NH₄⁺ assimilation is expected to be near 0‰ [Hoch et al., 1992; Liu et al., 2013]. By contrast, the NH_4^+ oxidation isotope effect is thought to be 14-19‰ across a broader range of

ammonium concentrations [*Casciotti et al.*, 2003]. Assuming a starting NH₄⁺ δ^{15} N of -5% in the late summer AZ surface [*Lourey et al.*, 2003], if most of the NH₄⁺ is oxidized and only a small fraction is assimilated, despite the substantial isotope effect of NH₄⁺ oxidation, the δ^{15} N of the NO₂⁻ produced by oxidation will approximate the δ^{15} N of the NH₄⁺ source, -5%. Conversely, if assimilation is the dominant process and only a small fraction of the available NH₄⁺ is oxidized, the NH₄⁺ oxidation isotope effect will lower the δ^{15} N of NO₂⁻ produced by oxidation to roughly -24% to -19%.

The NO₂⁻ produced from NH₄⁺ oxidation can either be assimilated with an isotope effect of ~0‰ [*Waser* et al., 1998] or be oxidized to NO₃⁻ with an inverse isotope effect of -12.8% [*Casciotti*, 2009]. If most of the NO₂⁻ is assimilated, the δ^{15} N of the unassimilated NO₂⁻ will remain effectively unchanged, at either -5% or in the range of -24% to -19%. If the regime is dominated by NO₂⁻ oxidation, however, the inverse isotope effect will have a significant impact. If ~63% of the available NO₂⁻ is oxidized, the unoxidized NO₂⁻ will be left with a δ^{15} N of -17.8% for the system dominated by NH₄⁺ oxidation (Figure 5, green shading) or -36.8% for the system dominated by NH₄⁺ assimilation (Figure 5, red shading). Although the minimum NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N suggested by the scenarios outlined above is very low, it is still significantly higher than many of the NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N values calculated here for the AZ surface.

Furthermore, NH₄⁺ oxidation and NH₄⁺ assimilation cannot explain our observation that NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O evolve along an approximately 1:1 trend while NO₃⁻-only samples exhibit elevated δ^{15} N relative to δ^{18} O. The generation of a low- δ^{15} N NO₂⁻ pool would cause a larger discrepancy from expectations in the δ^{15} N to δ^{18} O relationship of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ than of NO₃⁻-only, with the latter only impacted if there is some oxidation of NO₂⁻ to NO₃⁻. Instead, we observe the opposite situation, in which the expected 1:1 relationship between δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O is seen in the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ data but we observe a substantial deviation from expectations in the NO₃⁻-only data.

4.2.3. $NO_2^{-} \delta^{18}O$ Altered During Storage

Abiotic oxygen exchange between NO_2^- and H_2O during sample storage very likely removed any relevant oceanographic information from the $NO_2^- \delta^{18}O$ of our samples [*Casciotti et al.*, 2007; *Casciotti and McIlvin*,

2007] but does not appear to have significantly altered the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻. The incorporation of O from H₂O likely had only minor impacts on the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ because the δ^{18} O of NO₂⁻ equilibrated with H₂O is roughly comparable to the δ^{18} O of partially consumed NO₃⁻ [*Buchwald and Casciotti*, 2013], an interpretation that is supported by the observation that δ^{18} O is very similar between NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only analyses (Figure 2). While the δ^{18} O of NO₂⁻ in our samples does not contain relevant information, the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ may record previous interactions with the NO₂⁻ pool, as described below.

4.3. Evidence for Enzyme-Level NO₃⁻⁻NO₂⁻⁻ Interconversion

4.3.1. Nitrogen Isotopes in NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻

Interconversion of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ at an intracellular/periplasmic, enzyme scale can explain both the positive deviation of mixed layer NO₃⁻-only δ^{15} N relative to δ^{18} O (Figure 4b) and the extremely low δ^{15} N of surface NO₂⁻ (Figure 5). Such interconversion would lead to expression of the N equilibrium isotope effect between NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻, which would enrich NO₃⁻ in ¹⁵N and deplete NO₂⁻ in ¹⁵N [*Casciotti*, 2009] while not altering the combined δ^{15} N of the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ present in the summer mixed layer. Thus, the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ data would evolve according to expectations for NO₃⁻ assimilation, but because NO₂⁻-removed samples contain only the NO₃⁻ enriched in ¹⁵N by interconversion, NO₃⁻-only δ^{15} N would increase more rapidly than does NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N. Likewise, because NO₂⁻ is depleted in ¹⁵N during interconversion, we would calculate low values for NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N. The impact of interconversion on the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ is complex, involving multiple processes and considerations, including the incorporation of oxygen from ambient H₂O during nitrification and abiotic exchange as well as the isotope effects of oxygen incorporation and loss [*Buchwald and Casciotti*, 2013]. As discussed below, the δ^{18} O in NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ does appear to be impacted by NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion, with data indicating a δ^{18} O decline in both NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ - only measurements.

Previous evidence for N isotopic equilibration between NO_3^- and NO_2^- includes a study by Brunner et al. [2013] wherein a large increase in NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N and a corresponding decrease in NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N was measured in cultures of anaerobic ammonia oxidizing (anammox) bacteria. These observations were interpreted to reflect N exchange and the expression of an equilibrium isotope effect between NO_3^- and NO_2^- , proposed to result from the reversibility of a biochemical reaction. One mechanism that could drive interconversion and N exchange involves the reversibility of the nitrite oxidoreductase (NXR) enzyme, which is used by some nitrifying organisms to oxidize NO_2^- to NO_3^- and which can also catalyze the reduction of NO_3^- to NO_2^- [Sundermeyer-Klinger et al., 1984]. NXR is a membrane-associated enzyme with both cytoplasmic and periplasmic types, which occur in distinct groups of NO₂⁻-oxidizing bacteria [Pester et al., 2014]. Friedman et al. [1986] undertook some of the initial work on the NXR enzyme, using 15 N- and 18 O-labeled NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ to demonstrate O transfer between NO_3^- and NO_2^- in cultures of nitrifying bacteria. Wunderlich et al. [2013] later used ¹⁸O labeling to provide further evidence for O atom exchange among NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, and H₂O in both natural populations of NO_3^- -reducing microorganisms and pure cultures of NO_2^- -oxidizing bacteria under anoxic conditions, which they attributed to the reversibility of NXR. It thus appears that the bidirectional NXR enzyme can catalyze the intracellular coupled oxidation of NO_2^- and reduction of NO_3^- to result in the expression of a NO_3^- - NO_2^- equilibrium N isotope effect, without requiring net oxidation at either the scale of the enzyme or the organism [Friedman et al., 1986; Brunner et al., 2013; Wunderlich et al., 2013].

When NO_2^- oxidation and NO_3^- reduction occur at the organismal scale, the enzymatic isotope effects of the two processes can be underexpressed due to substantial consumption of the substrate within the cells of nitrifiers and denitrifiers [e.g., *Kritee et al.*, 2012]. Thus, compensating NO_3^- reduction and NO_2^- oxidation by a consortium of nitrate reducers and nitrite oxidizers in an ocean water parcel are unlikely to approximate the equilibrium N isotope effect between NO_3^- and NO_2^- . Conversely, the full magnitude of the equilibrium N isotope effect can be captured when the coupled oxidation and reduction occurs intracellularly, where the NO_2^- oxidoreductase enzyme operates on an intracellular (or periplasmic) N pool composed of both NO_3^- and NO_2^- . The proposed intracellular coupling of NO_2^- oxidation and NO_3^- reduction thus would have a different isotopic impact from the counteraction of NO_2^- oxidation and NO_3^- reduction by distinct NO_2^- -oxidizing and NO_3^- -reducing organisms in an ocean water parcel.

Casciotti [2009] used vibrational partition functions to calculate an N equilibrium fractionation factor of 0.9454 at 24.85°C for the reaction ${}^{14}NO_2^- + {}^{15}NO_3^- \Leftrightarrow {}^{15}NO_2^- + {}^{14}NO_3^-$, corresponding to an inverse isotope

Table 1. Estimates of the Equilibrium N Isotope Effect Between NO_3^- and NO_2^- Using Four Different Sets of Molecular Vibrational Frequencies in ¹⁵N and ¹⁴N-bearing NO_3^- and NO_2^{-a}

	$T = 0^{\circ}C$	<i>T</i> = 24.85°C	<i>T</i> =31°C
	Southern Ocean	Standard Temperature	Brunner et al. [2013]
Walters and Michalski [2015]	-59.9‰	-52.9 ‰	-51.4‰
Casciotti [2009]	-61.7‰	-54.6‰	-53.0‰
Begun and Fletcher [1960]	-69.2‰	-61.2‰	-59.4‰
Spindel [1954]	-93.3‰	-83.0‰	-80.7‰

^aVibrational frequencies are for the aqueous phase in *Walters and Michalski* [2015] (averaging results from the B3LYP and EDF2 levels of theory), *Casciotti* [2009], and *Begun and Fletcher* [1960] but are unknown for *Spindel* [1954].

effect of -54.6%. We extended this calculation to a range of temperatures for four different sets of reported molecular vibrational frequencies in ¹⁵N and ¹⁴N-bearing NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ (Table 1). The frequencies are derived from a combination of computational chemistry simulations [*Casciotti*, 2009; *Walters and Michalski*, 2015], empirical observations [*Spindel*, 1954; *Begun and Fletcher*, 1960], and calculations [*Spindel*, 1954]. The resulting estimates of the NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ equilibrium isotope effect range from -83.0% to -52.9% at 24.85°C and from -93.3% to -59.9% at 0°C.

In their experiments incubating cultures of anammox bacteria at 31°C, *Brunner et al.* [2013] empirically derived a value for the NO_3^- - NO_2^- equilibrium isotope effect of $-60.5 \pm 1\%$. This value is very close to the theoretical value of -59.4% derived at this temperature from the vibrational frequencies of *Begun and Fletcher* [1960] but is significantly lower than the values of -51.4% and -53.0% predicted using the frequencies reported in *Walters and Michalski* [2015] and *Casciotti* [2009], respectively. The data from



Figure 6. Proposed dynamics of interconversion of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻. (left) During the summer, the surface ocean is thermally stratified. Diatoms, the dominant phytoplankton group in the Ross Sea region during the growing season [*Peloquin and Smith*, 2007], consume NO₃⁻ in the photic zone, while nitrifiers are largely restricted to the waters below the mixed layer. δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ increase in a 1:1 relationship into the mixed layer as a result of nitrate assimilation. This relationship is preserved in the isotopic composition of the combined NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻. (right) As the mixed layer deepens into the fall and nitrifying organisms are entrained into the surface ocean, the reversible nitrite oxidoreductase enzyme catalyzes the oxidation of NO₂⁻ and the reduction of NO₃⁻. Such a bidirectional reaction may allow for the expression of a large equilibrium N isotope effect, resulting in the production of extremely low- δ^{15} N NO₂⁻ and increasing NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N relative to NO₃⁻ δ^{16} O, causing NO₃⁻-only depth profiles to deviate from the 1:1 line in δ^{18} O versus δ^{15} N space in the manner illustrated by the black curves.

Spindel [1954] differ considerably from the other studies and are based on early calculations, so they are excluded from the remainder of this analysis. Details aside, there is still uncertainty in the magnitude of the $NO_3^--NO_2^-$ equilibrium isotope effect, deriving largely from uncertainty in the different molecular vibrational frequencies of ¹⁵N and ¹⁴N-bearing NO_3^- and NO_2^- .

In the Southern Ocean surface, the expression of an equilibrium isotope effect of -69.2‰ to -59.9‰ would generate $NO_2^- \delta^{15}N$ ranging from roughly -63‰ to -53‰; this range of NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N can be expected for a large range of initial (pre-equilibrated) $NO_2^- \delta^{15}N$ values, assuming a $NO_3^$ concentration of ~25 μmol/kg, a NO_2^- concentration of ~0.25 μ mol/ kg, and an initial NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N of ~6‰. The $NO_2^- \delta^{15}N$ values expected to result from equilibration with NO3-(Figure 5, blue shading) are in much better agreement with the observed values than are the predictions resulting from NH_4^+ and NO_2^- oxidation and assimilation. Even accounting for this equilibrium, however, some samples have a lower NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N than expected. This observation is potentially explained by NO₂⁻ oxidation subsequent to the interconversion, which would further decrease NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N [*Casciotti*, 2009].

The δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only from the wintertime AZ do not show signs of NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion [*Smart et al.*, 2015]. Rather, *Smart et al.* [2015] observed deviations in both NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only toward lower δ^{15} N relative to δ^{18} O, which is a pattern that calls for the nitrification of low- δ^{15} N N. An intensive comparison of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only isotope data from the Sargasso Sea near Bermuda also showed no sign of NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion in that subtropical gyre environment [*Fawcett et al.*, 2015]. Thus, while there are few comparisons of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only isotopic data across the global ocean, it appears that some aspect of the late summer/fall AZ mixed layer is important in leading to NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion.

We suggest that the NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion is encouraged by the deepening of the mixed layer in late March and early April. As the mixed layer deepens into the fall and erodes into the underlying T_{min} layer, where nitrifiers have presumably been active during the summer, some of these nitrifiers may be entrained from the T_{min} layer into the fall surface ocean. Upon exposure to elevated levels of light or other new conditions, the NO₂⁻ oxidizers may slow their activity, such that the unidirectional oxidation of NO₂⁻ to NO₃⁻ is reduced [*Vanzella et al.*, 1989]. Under these conditions, the bifunctional NXR enzyme may catalyze both the forward and back reactions, yielding the isotopic distribution expected from NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion (Figure 6). Our hypothesis of NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion in the Pacific AZ surface is supported by the rapid increase in NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N near the base of the mixed layer in each profile (Figure 5, grey bar), which suggests that the production of low- δ^{15} N NO₂⁻ is confined to the mixed layer, where light levels are highest.

Additional evidence for the scenario proposed in Figure 6 is the difference between the apparent isotope effects of NO₃⁻ assimilation derived from NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-only samples. If high- δ^{15} N N were shuttled into the NO₃⁻ pool, the apparent value of ¹⁵ ε in NO₃⁻-only data would increase and result in ¹⁵ $\varepsilon_{NO3-only} > {}^{15}\varepsilon_{NO3+NO2}$ (Figure 7a, triangle). By this logic, the difference in ${}^{15}\varepsilon$ between NO₃⁻-only and NO₃⁻+NO₂⁻ can be taken as a measure of the degree of NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion. In our data, the NO₃⁻-only samples at all stations yield estimates of ${}^{15}\varepsilon$ that are higher than those derived for NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ samples (Figure 7b). This is best explained as resulting from the 15 N enrichment of NO₃⁻ relative to NO₂⁻ during interconversion. The difference in ${}^{15}\varepsilon$ between NO₃⁻-only data, which we propose as a reflection of the intensity of interconversion, is strongly positively correlated with the depth of the mixed layer (Figure 7c). This may be because greater mixed layer deepening entrains more nitrifying organisms into the surface ocean, leading to greater NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion. The highest intensity of interconversion of NO₂⁻ oxidizers from the T_{min} layer into surface waters due to strong Ekman upwelling and its tendency to yield faster mixed layer deepening in the late summer/fall.

In this framework, the lack of evidence for $NO_3^- \cdot NO_2^-$ interconversion in the wintertime AZ [*Smart et al.*, 2015] can be explained by the low light of the ~175 m deep winter AZ mixed layer, which reduces inhibition of NO_2^- oxidation. While the Sargasso Sea has well-lit surface waters, the strength of density stratification and the net convergence of surface water in the subtropics work against the upward transport of nitrite oxidizers into those well-lit waters, explaining the lack of evidence for $NO_3^- \cdot NO_2^-$ interconversion in the region [*Fawcett et al.*, 2015]. Given a general lack of complementary $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ and NO_3^- -only isotope data, it is unclear whether $NO_3^- \cdot NO_2^-$ interconversion occurs in the midsummer AZ. While the deepening of the mixed layer would not apply to the early summer or midsummer, wind-driven upwelling (of ~3 m/month) may be adequate to drive some transport of nitrite oxidizers into the sunlit summer mixed layer and potentially lead to $NO_3^- \cdot NO_2^-$ interconversion.

4.3.2. Oxygen Isotope Impacts of the Proposed Interconversion

Above, we noted that we observe an approximately 1:1 relationship between $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ in NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ but an increase in $\delta^{15}N$ relative to $\delta^{18}O$ in NO₃⁻ -only (Figure 4). When we look in greater detail, however, the NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ data also show a discrepancy from the 1:1 $\delta^{15}N$ -to- $\delta^{18}O$ relationship expected from nitrate assimilation acting alone (Figure 7a, circle) [*Granger et al.*, 2004, 2008, 2010; *Karsh et al.*, 2012, 2014]. Our

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Figure 7. (a) Schematic showing how interconversion of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ and the associated incorporation of O atoms from H₂O into either NO₃⁻ or NO₂⁻ may affect the apparent values of ¹⁵ ε and ¹⁸ ε . (b) The ¹⁸ ε versus ¹⁵ ε for NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ -only profiles. Note the different scales for ¹⁸ ε and ¹⁵ ε . (c) The difference between ¹⁵ $\varepsilon_{NO3-only}$ and ¹⁵ $\varepsilon_{NO3+NO2}$, a proposed measure for the intensity of NO₃⁻ -NO₂⁻ interconversion, is strongly correlated with mixed layer depth, consistent with mixed layer deepening entraining NO₂⁻ oxidizers into the surface ocean. (d) The apparent intensity of NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion is also strongly inversely correlated with the offset in δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ data from 1:1 expectations, consistent with the incorporation of water oxygen during the interconversion process. Plots exclude station 15 (58°S), where sampled *T*_{min} water was nearly identical to underlying deep water in nitrate δ^{15} N and concentration.

estimates of ${}^{18}e$ from NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ samples are up to 3.6‰ lower than the estimates of ${}^{15}e$ at the same stations (Figure 7b), The implication of this observation is that low- δ^{18} O oxygen is introduced into either mixed layer NO₃⁻ or NO₂⁻ by NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion, lowering the apparent value of $^{18}\varepsilon$ in NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ such that ${}^{15}\varepsilon_{NO3+NO2} > {}^{18}\varepsilon_{NO3+NO2}$ (Figure 7a, square). Consistent with this view, the offset of ${}^{18}\varepsilon$ from ${}^{15}\varepsilon$ in the $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ samples is inversely correlated with the difference in $^{15}\varepsilon$ between $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ and NO_3^- -only (Figure 7d), the latter having been proposed above as a reflection of the intensity of $NO_3^{-}-NO_2^{-}$ interconversion. The decrease in the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ + NO₂⁻ may result from the incorporation of O atoms from ambient H_2O into either NO_2^- or NO_3^- , as NO_3^- - NO_2^- interconversion will ensure that the $\delta^{18}O$ of NO_3^- -only is lowered in either case. Indeed, estimates of ${}^{18}\varepsilon$ from NO₃⁻-only measurements are also lower than ${}^{15}\varepsilon$ from $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ measurements (Figure 7b). While the O isotope systematics expected from the $NO_3^- - NO_2^$ interconversion cannot easily be extracted from existing information on other processes (see supporting information Text S4), it appears that NO_3^{-} - NO_2^{-} interconversion causes an underestimation of the O isotope effect of NO₃⁻ assimilation. Despite these observations, we emphasize that incorporation of low- δ^{18} O oxygen during NO₃⁻⁻NO₂⁻ interconversion can explain only a small portion of the offset of the NO₃⁻⁻only δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O data from 1:1 expectations (Figure 4b); most of this offset results from the increase in NO₃⁻-only δ^{15} N relative to $NO_3^- + NO_2^- \delta^{15}N$.

4.4. Implications

4.4.1. Southern Ocean

The observed NO₃⁻⁻NO₂⁻⁻ interconversion represents a previously unrecognized influence on nitrate N and O isotopic dynamics in the Southern Ocean. Our data indicate that this process can significantly alter the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of both NO₃⁻⁻ and NO₂⁻⁻, whereas the two pools were previously thought to be isotopically related only through the kinetic isotope effects associated with NO₂⁻⁻ oxidation and NO₃⁻⁻ reduction. Moreover, in the sunlit upper ocean, vigorous interaction between NO₂⁻⁻ and NO₃⁻⁻ has generally not been expected, with the dominant relevant processes formerly thought to be assimilatory NO₃⁻⁻ reduction followed quickly by NO₂⁻⁻ reduction.

As described above, the existing data suggest that NO₃⁻⁻NO₂⁻ interconversion is important only in specific upper ocean environments. This study captured AZ conditions in the late summer and early fall, when the summertime nutrient uptake has essentially ended and the isotopic signal from interconversion is likely only minimally incorporated into sinking phytoplankton biomass. However, if the imprint of isotopic equilibration is preserved through the winter or redevelops early in the summer, the main pulse of phytoplankton biomass production, including that of diatoms, will incorporate it. This is relevant to paleoceanographic reconstructions of NO₃⁻ consumption using δ^{15} N data. The wintertime AZ shows no sign of the δ^{15} N-to- δ^{18} O elevation in NO₃⁻-only that we observe in the late summer [*Smart et al.*, 2015]. This implies that wintertime processes destroy the signal, most likely by dilution of the fall mixed layer NO₃⁻ with NO₃⁻ from the underlying T_{min} . However, as discussed above, NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion may occur during summer high-growth periods; this will be critical to evaluate with new data.

4.4.2. Oxygen-Deficient Zones

A counterintuitive finding in the ocean's subsurface oxygen-deficient zones (ODZs), both from ¹⁵N tracer studies [*Lipschultz et al.*, 1990; *Füssel et al.*, 2012; *Beman et al.*, 2013; *Peng et al.*, 2015] and natural abundance isotope observations [*Casciotti and Mcllvin*, 2007; *Casciotti et al.*, 2013; *Gaye et al.*, 2013; *Buchwald et al.*, 2015], is that NO₂⁻ appears to undergo oxidation to NO₃⁻ despite the lack of appropriate oxidants in the environment. In tracer studies, this has been shown through the addition of ¹⁵N-labeled NO₂⁻ to seawater samples collected from suboxic zones and the subsequent detection of ¹⁵N-labeled NO₃⁻ after incubation under anoxic conditions [*Füssel et al.*, 2012; *Beman et al.*, 2013; *Peng et al.*, 2015]. In natural abundance studies, the same conclusion of NO₂⁻ oxidation is reached through the observation of a decoupling of NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N from NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O and of very low values of NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N relative to NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N in suboxic waters; these observations have been attributed to forcings from the combined isotope effects of NO₃⁻ reduction, NO₂⁻ reduction and oxidation, and anammox [*Casciotti and Mcllvin*, 2007; *Casciotti*, 2009; *Casciotti et al.*, 2013; *Gaye et al.*, 2013; *Buchwald et al.*, 2015; *Martin and Casciotti*, 2016]. Again, the perplexing aspect of interpretations suggesting NO₂⁻ oxidation in ODZ waters is the lack of appropriate oxidized species in the water column to serve as electron acceptors [*Buchwald et al.*, 2015; *Peng et al.*, 2015].

The subsurface ODZs are another candidate environment for $NO_3^--NO_2^-$ interconversion, due to possible transport of NO_2^- oxidizers into these zones. Indeed, enzyme-level interconversion between NO_3^- and NO_2^- provides a straightforward explanation for the evidence from tracer studies of NO_2^- oxidation in ODZs. If NO_3^- and NO_2^- are able to interconvert without net oxidation due to biochemical reversibility, the high $^{15}N/^{14}N$ ratio of ^{15}N -labeled NO_2^- will appear in NO_3^- even when incubated under anoxic conditions. Thus, tracer study data can be explained without invoking net NO_2^- oxidation at either the enzyme or organism scale. We suggest that the results of such studies be reevaluated in the context of possible enzyme-level NO_3^- - NO_2^- interconversion.

Enzyme-level NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion also provides an alternative explanation for natural abundance isotopic patterns in ODZs that have been interpreted as evidence of organism-scale NO₂⁻ oxidation. The decoupling of NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N from NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O and the increase in NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N relative to NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N may both reflect the equilibrium isotope effect-driven partitioning of ¹⁵N into NO₃⁻ and ¹⁴N into NO₂⁻. As ¹⁵N is concentrated in NO₃⁻, NO₃⁻ δ^{15} N increases, NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N decreases, and NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O changes. While the calculated values of NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N in our surface samples are lower than those observed in ODZs, this can be explained by net NO₂⁻ reduction in ODZs, which would act to increase NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N relative to our observations. We do not intend to suggest that the observed NO₃⁻/NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N differences and the decoupling of δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O in and near ODZs are explained entirely by enzyme-level NO₃⁻-NO₂⁻ interconversion; NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻

reduction, organism-level net NO₂⁻ oxidation, and the various processes involved in anammox are all probably involved. Even regional N fixation may play a role in the decoupling of NO₃⁻⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O in the ODZs [Sigman et al., 2005]. Nevertheless, NO₃⁻⁻-NO₂⁻⁻ interconversion may represent an important component process, especially at the ODZ boundaries.

5. Conclusions

We report $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ for $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ and NO_3^- -only in samples from eight depth profiles in the Pacific sector of the Southern Ocean's Antarctic Zone, collected in late March and early April. We find that the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of the combined $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ pool increase roughly in parallel in accordance with expectations for NO_3^- assimilation, but NO_3^- -only data show a strong elevation in $\delta^{15}N$ relative to $\delta^{18}O$ in the surface mixed layer. Differencing the measurements reveals that NO_2^- in the surface ocean is extremely low in $\delta^{15}N$, on average about -70% versus air. These observations are interpreted to reflect intracellular (cytoplasmic or periplasmic), enzyme-level interconversion between NO_3^- and NO_2^- , possibly mediated by biochemical reversibility of the nitrite oxidoreductase enzyme of NO_2^- oxidizing organisms entrained from the T_{min} layer into the sunlit mixed layer during the early phases of mixed layer deepening in the late summer. According to this interpretation, $NO_3^--NO_2^-$ interconversion can be important where NO_2^- oxidizing organisms are transported into conditions that discourage NO_2^- oxidation; in the case of the late summer Antarctic, NO_2^- oxidizers are mixed into sunlit surface waters and experience light inhibition.

 $NO_3^{-}-NO_2^{-}$ interconversion represents a previously unrecognized influence on NO_3^{-} N and O isotopic distributions in the Southern Ocean, and its consequences for our understanding of upper ocean NO_3^{-} isotope dynamics are not yet clear. If the isotopic signal of interconversion is preserved in the Antarctic mixed layer through the winter or develops early in the summer, then the $\delta^{15}N$ of phytoplankton (including diatoms) will be affected by it, with possible implications for the paleoceanographic record. In addition, intracellular, enzyme-level interconversion between NO_3^{-} and NO_2^{-} may help to explain previous evidence from tracer and natural abundance studies of NO_2^{-} oxidation in oxygen-deficient zones, a possibility that warrants further investigation.

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