

## RESEARCH LETTER

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## Key Points:

- A microbial ocean model predicts a larger O<sub>2</sub> deficient zone (ODZ) with slower nitrogen (N) loss than its geochemical approximation
- Resource competition drives gradients in ecological stoichiometry and the dominant microbial pathway of N loss across the ODZ
- Declining O<sub>2</sub> raises the efficiency of N loss within the ODZ, implying a higher sensitivity to climate change than previously predicted

## Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1
- Figure S1
- Figure S2
- Figure S3
- Figure S4
- Figure S5
- Figure S6
- Figure S7

## Correspondence to:

J. Penn,  
jpenn@uw.edu

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## Microbial functional diversity alters the structure and sensitivity of oxygen deficient zones

Justin Penn<sup>1</sup>, Thomas Weber<sup>1</sup>, and Curtis Deutsch<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Oceanography, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, USA

**Abstract** Oxygen deficient zones (ODZs) below the ocean surface regulate marine productivity by removing bioavailable nitrogen (N). A complex microbial community mediates N loss, but the interplay of its diverse metabolisms is poorly understood. We present an ecosystem model of the North Pacific ODZ that reproduces observed chemical distributions yet predicts different ODZ structure, rates, and climatic sensitivity compared to traditional geochemical models. An emergent lower O<sub>2</sub> limit for aerobic nitrification lies below the upper O<sub>2</sub> threshold for anaerobic denitrification, creating a zone of microbial coexistence that causes a larger ODZ but slower total rates of N loss. The O<sub>2</sub>-dependent competition for the intermediate nitrite produces gradients in its oxidation versus reduction, anammox versus heterotrophic denitrification, and the net ecological stoichiometry of N loss. The latter effect implies that an externally driven ODZ expansion should favor communities that more efficiently remove N, increasing the sensitivity of the N cycle to climate change.

### 1. Introduction

The flux of organic matter sinking from the surface ocean can exceed the oxidative capacity of available dissolved O<sub>2</sub> in deeper water. Under the resulting O<sub>2</sub> deficient conditions, the most energetically favorable oxidant is nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), an essential macronutrient for phytoplankton [Capone *et al.*, 2008]. The influence of N removal from the oxygen deficient zones (ODZs) is spread well beyond their small volumes (0.1% of the ocean) to encompass most of the low-latitude surface ocean, where biological productivity is N limited. Geochemical models of the N cycle, which convert NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> directly to N<sub>2</sub> gas with a constant stoichiometry [Paulmier *et al.*, 2009], predict that the rate of total N loss is controlled by the extent of the ODZs and the amount of organic matter they receive [Moore and Doney, 2007; Bianchi *et al.*, 2012; Deutsch *et al.*, 2011, 2014].

The loss of N results from a diverse microbial community exchanging multiple N-bearing substrates through interdependent metabolic pathways [Lam and Kuypers, 2011]. The first step of heterotrophic denitrification yields NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> from organic matter and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> from the initial reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. These products can fuel autotrophic bacteria, including anaerobic ammonia oxidizers (anammox bacteria) [Dalsgaard *et al.*, 2003] and two groups of aerobic nitrifiers (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> oxidizers). Anammox bacteria combine the metabolites to form N<sub>2</sub>, while the nitrifiers reoxidize them to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, diverting NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> from further reduction by heterotrophs [Anderson *et al.*, 1982]. Competition for the scarce intermediates can therefore either enhance or short-circuit the N loss process. The rates of these three metabolic pathways in the major ODZs are highly variable and unpredictable, and their relative importance to long-term N cycling remains controversial [Kuypers *et al.*, 2005; Ward *et al.*, 2009; Beman *et al.*, 2013; Dalsgaard *et al.*, 2012; Ward, 2013; Peng *et al.*, 2015].

### 2. Methods

To investigate the effect of diverse metabolisms on the large-scale rates and stoichiometry of N loss we developed a microbial ecosystem model that simulates the biogeochemical cycles of N and O<sub>2</sub> (Figure S1a in the supporting information). Organic matter is formed by phytoplankton in the surface ocean and is remineralized by four microbial populations. Heterotrophic bacteria are facultative denitrifiers, switching from oxic respiration to a multistep denitrification (reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, then to N<sub>2</sub>) when O<sub>2</sub> falls below a critical threshold (O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup>) [Devol, 1978; Zamora *et al.*, 2012; Brewer *et al.*, 2014]. The NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> released from organic N is used by three autotrophic species: anammox bacteria with a slow and O<sub>2</sub>-inhibited growth rate [Jensen *et al.*, 2008; Kalvelage *et al.*, 2011; Kartal *et al.*, 2012; Dalsgaard *et al.*, 2014] and aerobic NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> oxidizing archaea and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> oxidizing bacteria with nanomolar O<sub>2</sub> sensitivities [Kalvelage *et al.*, 2011, 2013; Tiano *et al.*, 2014].

Autotrophs assimilate  $\text{NH}_4^+$  for cellular structure, while heterotrophs utilize dissolved organic nitrogen (DON), which is released by phytoplankton, sinking particles, and all populations upon mortality. Microbial parameters including growth and mortality rates, nutrient kinetics, and  $\text{O}_2$  sensitivities were taken from appropriate laboratory measurements where available (Table S1 in the supporting information).

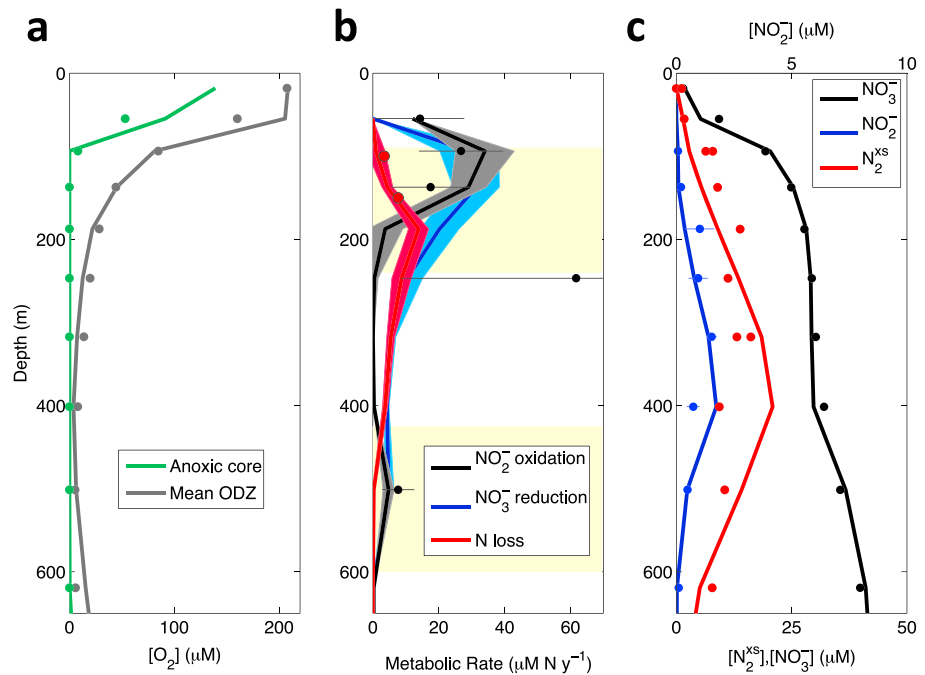
Microbial biomass and chemical tracers were simulated in an ocean model covering the world's largest ODZ, in the eastern tropical North Pacific (ETNP) [Karstensen *et al.*, 2008]. We used an ocean general circulation model that is optimized to fit tracer observations (temperature, salinity,  $^{14}\text{C}$ , and CFCs), with a horizontal resolution of  $2^\circ$  latitude and longitude and 24 vertical levels [DeVries and Primeau, 2011, ; DeVries *et al.*, 2012]. Tracer transport was computed using an annual-mean flow field within the ETNP domain, which extends from the equator to  $35^\circ\text{N}$ , the coast to  $180^\circ\text{W}$ , and the surface ocean to 2000 m depth. Observed annual mean concentrations of  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  from the 2009 World Ocean Atlas [Antonov *et al.*, 2010] were transported into the domain at its open boundaries. This ensures that the fidelity of solutions reflects model skill for ODZ processes alone and prevents remote and unrelated errors from propagating into the region of interest.

To determine the sensitivity of model predictions to uncertainty in microbial traits, we conducted model simulations across a wide swath of parameter space. Microbial growth and mortality rates and nutrient half-saturations were varied by an order of magnitude, and the  $\text{O}_2$  tolerances of heterotrophs and anammox bacteria were shifted from 1 to 10 and 15  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively [Babbin *et al.*, 2014; Brewer *et al.*, 2014; Devol, 1978; Dalsgaard *et al.*, 2014; Zamora *et al.*, 2012; Kalvelage *et al.*, 2011, 2015]. Each of the 89 resulting model solutions was vetted using field data from the ETNP, including climatological distributions of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{O}_2$  and profile compilations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ , and excess  $\text{N}_2$  gas (Figure 1). Parameter combinations that could not reproduce all tracer distributions simultaneously were not used for further analysis (Figure S2 and Table S1). A representative parameter set was chosen as our standard model case and integrated for 250 years to achieve a long-term steady state. A more detailed description of the methodology can be found in the supporting information [Betlach and Tiedje, 1981; Parsonage *et al.*, 1985; Servais *et al.*, 1985; Fasham *et al.*, 1990; Anderson, 1995; Fukuda *et al.*, 1998; Strous *et al.*, 1998; Koch *et al.*, 2000; Rittmann and McCarty, 2001; Dalsgaard and Thamdrup, 2002; Van Mooy *et al.*, 2002; Martens-Habbenha *et al.*, 2009; Munz *et al.*, 2011; Ni *et al.*, 2011].

### 3. Results

The model accurately reproduces observed patterns in metabolic rates and the distributions of chemical tracers (Figure 1). The predicted microbial community structure and associated metabolic rates vary between different habitats of the ODZ that are defined by distinct  $\text{O}_2$  thresholds (Figures 1a and 1b). Heterotrophic respiration occurs aerobically in oxic water ( $\text{O}_2 > \text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$ ) [Devol, 1978; Kalvelage *et al.*, 2015]. In these regions, aerobic-nitrifying populations are the dominant sink for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . These obligate aerobes account for  $\sim 17\%$  of  $\text{O}_2$  consumption in oxic waters, but are the major consumers of  $\text{O}_2$  in the ODZ. Indeed, they determine the lowest  $\text{O}_2$  concentration attainable, which occurs when aerobic growth falls below mortality, halting the further consumption of  $\text{O}_2$ . This break-even  $\text{O}_2$  concentration ( $\text{O}_2^*$ ) [Tilman, 1982] depends on the nitrifier's half-saturation constants, growth, and mortality rates and defines the core anoxic zone. For the ecosystem model parameters used here,  $\text{O}_2^*$  ranges from 0.14 to 1.5 nM, consistent with the lowest observed  $\text{O}_2$  concentration in the ocean [Revsbech *et al.*, 2009; Thamdrup *et al.*, 2012; Tiano *et al.*, 2014]. In waters with  $\text{O}_2 = \text{O}_2^*$ , heterotrophs denitrify  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{N}_2$ , and anammox bacteria act as the dominant sink for  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , declining into oxic water because of  $\text{O}_2$  inhibition.

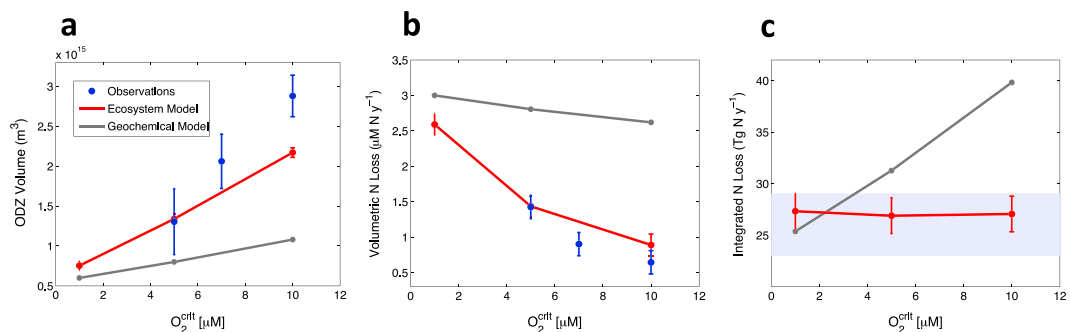
Between the two  $\text{O}_2$  thresholds,  $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$  and  $\text{O}_2^*$ , nitrifying and denitrifying populations coexist in a shell of suboxic water that surrounds the anoxic core of the ODZ. The simulated coexistence of these groups is consistent with simultaneous rate measurements [Lipschultz *et al.*, 1990; Füssel *et al.*, 2011; Kalvelage *et al.*, 2013; Babbin *et al.*, 2014; Peng *et al.*, 2015], paired rate-gene data [Beman *et al.*, 2013], and N isotopes [Casciotti and McIlvin, 2007; Buchwald *et al.*, 2015]. To achieve such coexistence in a steady state requires the  $\text{O}_2$  threshold for denitrification ( $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$ ) to be above the minimum value required by nitrification ( $\text{O}_2^*$ ). Because the value of  $\text{O}_2^*$  is constrained by observations to be in the nanomolar range, the overlap between aerobic and anaerobic habitat depends primarily on  $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$ . The model's sensitivity to this uncertain threshold is examined below.



**Figure 1.** Chemical distributions and metabolic rates from the eastern tropical North Pacific ODZ. Observations (points) are shown with the mean model simulated value (lines) and the standard deviation (shading) among 43 model simulations with different microbial parameters that reproduce all chemical data (see supporting information). (a) Depth profiles of  $O_2$  concentrations taken through the core of the ODZ and averaged over its horizontal extent (Figure S2). The ODZ core profile is computed as the minimum  $O_2$  concentration on a given depth surface. Uncertainty in modeled chemical tracer distributions is smaller than the line thickness. The green points are the measurements from the anoxic core made using a high-precision STOX sensor at station BB2 [Tiano *et al.*, 2014]. The grey points are from the World Ocean Atlas (WOA) annual climatology [Antonov *et al.*, 2010]. (b) Depth profiles of metabolic rates from the core of the ODZ. The coexistence of aerobic and anaerobic processes is marked by yellow bands.  $NO_2^-$  oxidation measurements from station 3 of Beman *et al.* [2013] and the offshore stations of Peng *et al.* [2015] are averaged onto the model grid, and their standard error is displayed as horizontal black lines. A single rate outlier lies outside the range displayed ( $\sim 124 \mu M N yr^{-1}$  at 190 m). Observed N loss rates are from offshore in situ particle incubation experiments [Babbitt *et al.*, 2014]. Metabolic rates were not used for model vetting and thus provide an independent check on the ecosystem model parameters. (c) Depth profiles of nitrogen compounds averaged over the regions shown in Figure S2. Uncertainty in modeled chemical tracer distributions is smaller than the line thickness. The standard error of  $NO_2^-$  observations is shown as horizontal blue lines. Simulated  $NH_4^+$  concentrations (not shown) are at or near the observable detection limit ( $\sim 10$  nM), in agreement with the measurements presented in Figure S2. The  $NO_2^-$  data are from Zamora *et al.* [2012],  $NO_3^-$  data are from the WOA annual climatology [Antonov *et al.*, 2010], and excess  $N_2$  gas measurements are from Chang *et al.* [2012].

The microbial metabolic rates are also recorded in the observed distributions of key metabolites, providing strong constraints on time-mean community structure. Within the anoxic zone, the net reduction of  $NO_3^-$  to  $NO_2^-$  forestalls the downward increase in  $NO_3^-$ , shunting it into a subsurface maximum in  $NO_2^-$  (Figure 1c) [Ward *et al.*, 2009; Thamdrup *et al.*, 2012; Zamora *et al.*, 2012]. The further reduction of  $NO_2^-$  to  $N_2$  by both heterotrophic and anammox bacteria yields an accumulation of excess  $N_2$  [Chang *et al.*, 2012] with no detectable  $NH_4^+$  in anoxic water [Babbitt *et al.*, 2014; Tiano *et al.*, 2014]. In the oxic ocean, aerobic nitrification maintains both  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_2^-$  at low levels without production of  $N_2$ . Across a range of parameter sets ( $n = 43$ ; see Table S1), the model simultaneously reproduces these chemical patterns, implying realistic balances among biological nutrient exchanges and physical fluxes. We use this group of model solutions to quantify the effect of both individual physiological traits and the entire microbial ecosystem on the large-scale cycling of  $O_2$  and N.

Of all the microbial traits, the  $O_2$  threshold of denitrification ( $O_2^{crit}$ ) exerts the strongest influence on the size of the ODZ and its mean volumetric rate of N loss (see supporting information), two key features of ODZ biogeochemistry. As  $O_2^{crit}$  is increased from 1 to 10  $\mu M$ , the volume of the ODZ defined by that threshold grows by nearly threefold (Figure 2a), in simulations as in climatological observations [Deutsch *et al.*, 2011]. In contrast, the mean rate of N loss declines by a fraction similar to the increase in ODZ size (Figure 2b). The net



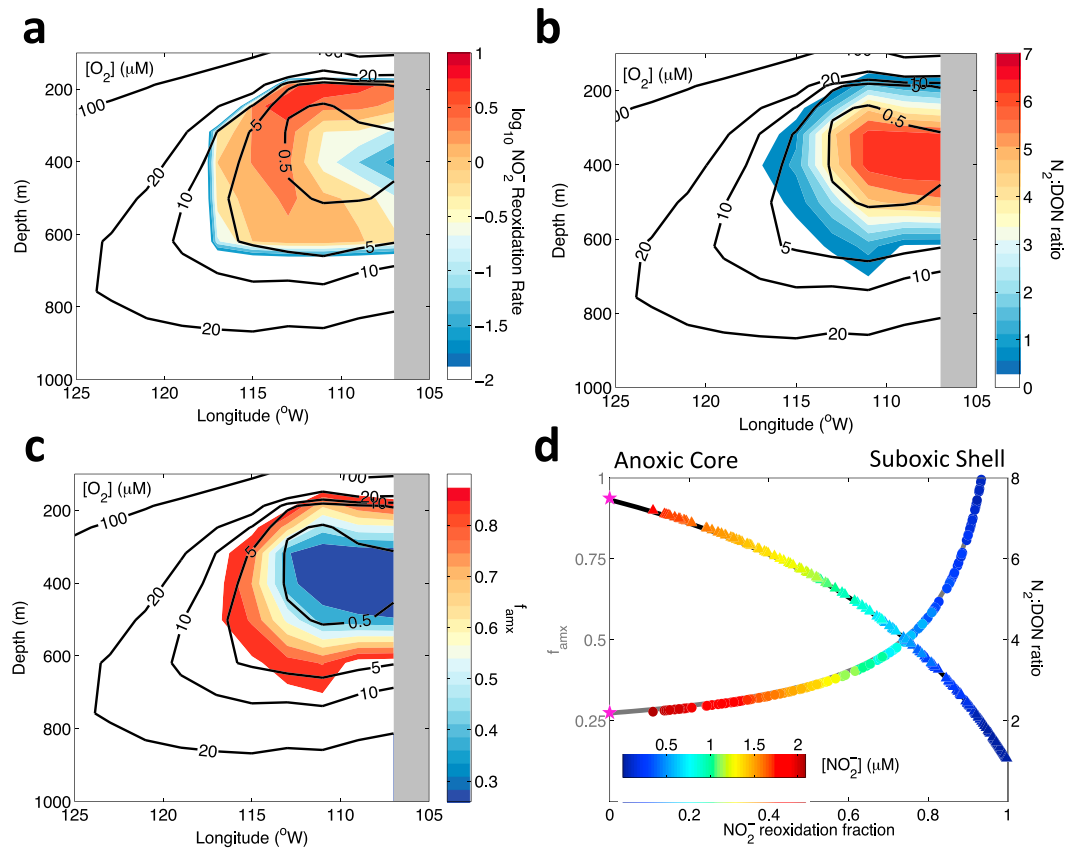
**Figure 2.** (a) Annual mean ODZ volume and (b) the volumetric and (c) integrated rates of N loss from observations and predicted by the microbial ecosystem and geochemical models, as a function of the critical O<sub>2</sub> threshold for denitrification (O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup>). ODZ volume is computed as the volume of water with O<sub>2</sub> < O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup> in the upper 700 m, where the rate of N loss is significant. The error bars on observed volumes represent their monthly standard deviations. Observed volumetric rates are computed by dividing the total rate of N loss [DeVries *et al.*, 2012] by the observed annual ODZ volumes in Figure 2a. The error in the observed volumetric rates represents the 1σ uncertainty in the total rate of N loss, which is shown as greyish blue shading in Figure 2c. Ecosystem model error bars are computed as the standard deviation among data-fitting simulations for the scenario in which O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup> = 5 μM (Figure S3).

effect of this trade-off between volume and volumetric rate is that the ecosystem model maintains a constant total rate of N<sub>2</sub> production (Figure 2c) as well as of regional O<sub>2</sub> consumption (not shown), irrespective of the O<sub>2</sub> concentration at which denitrification begins. Although increases in O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup> reduce aerobic heterotrophic respiration, that change is compensated for by increases in O<sub>2</sub> consumption via NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> oxidation coupled to heterotrophic NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction in the suboxic zone. These pathways have the same O<sub>2</sub> demand and net NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> yield per unit DON remineralization [Lam and Kuypers, 2011]. The O<sub>2</sub> threshold for denitrification therefore cannot be reliably inferred from distributions of O<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, or N<sub>2</sub>.

The insensitivity of integrated N loss to O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup> in the ecosystem model differs markedly from the predictions of traditional geochemical models, which do not explicitly represent microbial populations. Geochemical models assume no resource competition between nitrifying and denitrifying microbes and can be mimicked in the ecosystem model by excluding nitrifying populations from the ODZ (Figure S1b). Across the simulated range in O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup>, the ecosystem model produces an ODZ that is 25% to 100% larger than the geochemical approximation (Figure 2a) but with rates of N loss that are 14% to 66% slower on average (Figure 2b). These differences are independent of microbial growth and mortality rates and nutrient half-saturations (Figure S3). In contrast to the ecosystem model, regional N loss from the geochemical model increases with O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup> because it causes the ODZ volume to rise without a concomitant reduction in volumetric N loss. As O<sub>2</sub><sup>crit</sup> decreases, so does the overlap of aerobic and anaerobic habitat, causing the ecosystem and geochemical models to converge.

The ecosystem's dilution of N loss across a more expansive ODZ results from interactions between nitrifying and denitrifying bacteria. Nitrifiers are assumed to have a lower half-saturation constant for NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> than the heterotrophic populations (Table S1), giving them a competitive advantage when O<sub>2</sub> is available. Indeed, this higher NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> affinity is required in the model to reproduce the observed lack of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> in oxic water and its accumulation in anoxic waters (Figure 1). As a result of this advantage, nitrifying bacteria that thrive in the suboxic shell surrounding the core anoxic zone limit complete heterotrophic denitrification to N<sub>2</sub> by reoxidizing NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> produced by the first step of denitrification (Figure 3a). The additional consumption of O<sub>2</sub> by nitrifiers leads to the simulated growth of the ODZ relative to the geochemical model, in which NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> reoxidation is precluded. While concentrated at the boundaries of the anoxic zone, where O<sub>2</sub> falls below the detection limit of traditional methods, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> oxidation continues into the core [Peng *et al.*, 2015], maintaining O<sub>2</sub> at levels below the detection limit of the most sensitive sensors [Revsbech *et al.*, 2009; Tiano *et al.*, 2014]. In the anoxic core, O<sub>2</sub> limitation of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> oxidation allows NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to accumulate, favoring complete heterotrophic denitrification to N<sub>2</sub>.

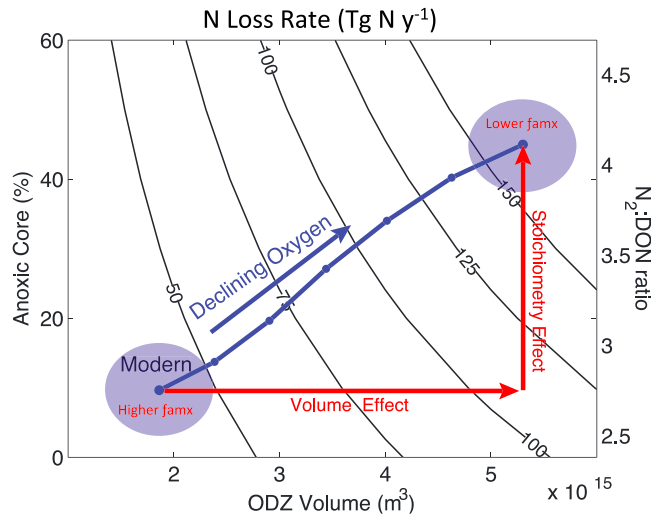
The competitive advantage of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> oxidizers in the suboxic shell reduces the mean volumetric rate of N<sub>2</sub> production via its effect on the average stoichiometry of N loss (Figure 3b). By diverting NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> from further reduction, nitrifying bacteria substantially lower the total amount of N<sub>2</sub> produced per mole of DON



**Figure 3.** Cross sections through the ODZ of (a) the  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reoxidation rate ( $\mu\text{M N yr}^{-1}$ ), (b) the ratio of total  $\text{N}_2$  produced per mole of DON remineralized via denitrification ( $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratio), and (c) the contribution of anammox to total N loss ( $f_{\text{amx}}$ ) from the standard ecosystem model scenario.  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reoxidation is defined as  $\text{NO}_2^-$  that is produced from  $\text{NO}_3^-$  during the first step of heterotrophic denitrification but is oxidized back to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  during nitrification. Note the  $\log_{10}$  scaling of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reoxidation rates in Figure 3a. Rates and ratios are overlain by time-mean  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations (contours). The grey shading denotes the eastern boundary of the Pacific Ocean. (d)  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratios (triangles) and  $f_{\text{amx}}$  (circles) versus the  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reoxidation fraction from the standard ecosystem model scenario. The  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reoxidation fraction includes the accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  (colors) in the anoxic core, which is eventually reoxidized to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the suboxic shell. Model values conform exactly to steady state predictions (lines; grey for  $f_{\text{amx}}$  and black for  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$ ) based on the known reaction stoichiometries (see supporting information) [Koeve and Kähler, 2010]. The values predicted by geochemical models are shown as pink stars.

remineralized by heterotrophic denitrifiers (herein the  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratio), below the 7.5 assumed in traditional geochemical models (Figure S4) [Paulmier et al., 2009]. Depending on the value of  $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$ , the mean  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratio in the suboxic shell lies between 3.9 and 1.4. As  $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$  is increased, this decreases the ODZ's average stoichiometry of N loss by expanding the niche of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizers. The  $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$  threshold defines the volume of the suboxic shell, where  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidizers are dominant, but not the anoxic core, where  $\text{NO}_2^-$  uptake is controlled by denitrification. Increases in  $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$  thus raise the ratio of suboxic to anoxic water, which shifts the stoichiometry of N loss toward the low values found in the suboxic shell, causing the slower mean volumetric rate of N loss (Figure 2b). In the geochemical model, volumetric N loss is maintained even as  $\text{O}_2^{\text{crit}}$  is increased, because it lacks a suboxic zone in which  $\text{NO}_2^-$  oxidation outcompetes heterotrophic denitrification.

Associated with these stoichiometric gradients are large variations in the fraction of N loss contributed by autotrophic anammox bacteria versus the heterotrophs, denoted  $f_{\text{amx}}$  (Figure 3c). The attribution of  $\text{N}_2$  production to these different populations from direct rate measurements in the field has proven controversial due to substantial variability with unknown cause [Kuypers et al., 2005; Ward et al., 2009; Dalsgaard et al., 2012; Kalvelage et al., 2013; Ward, 2013]. The microbial ecosystem produces spatial variations in  $f_{\text{amx}}$  as a natural consequence of resource competition in the suboxic zone. In contrast to heterotrophs, the uptake of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  by nitrifiers has little effect on anammox bacteria because they are  $\text{NH}_4^+$  limited [Dalsgaard et al.,



**Figure 4.** Predicted rates of N loss in the Pacific Ocean (contours;  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$ ) for a given total ODZ volume, anoxic volume percentage, and ratio of total  $\text{N}_2$  produced per mole of DON remineralized via denitrification ( $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratio). N loss rates are computed as  $J^{\text{N}_2} = J^{\text{DON}}(r^{\text{anx}}V^{\text{anx}} + r^{\text{sub}}V^{\text{sub}})$ , where  $r^{\text{anx}}$  is the  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratio in the anoxic core (6.2),  $r^{\text{sub}}$  is the  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratio in the suboxic shell (2.4),  $J^{\text{DON}}$  is the mean anaerobic remineralization rate ( $7.6 \times 10^{-15} \text{ Tg N m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), and  $V^{\text{anx}}$  and  $V^{\text{sub}}$  are the potential volumes ( $\text{m}^3$ ) of anoxic and suboxic waters, respectively.  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratios and rates of anaerobic DON remineralization are diagnosed from the standard ecosystem model scenario. The solid blue line is the relationship between annual mean ODZ volume and its anoxic percentage in the Pacific Ocean, as derived from the World Ocean Atlas climatology [Antonov et al., 2010], assuming the ODZ starts at  $\text{O}_2 < 5 \mu\text{M}$ . Uncertainty in modern ocean values (blue shading around the leftmost point) is calculated as the standard deviation across monthly observations and is propagated to the deoxygenated ODZ. Potential volumes and anoxic percentages (points to the right of modern) are calculated from observations by subtracting  $\text{O}_2$  in increasing  $1 \mu\text{M}$  increments in a spatially uniform pattern. The component of N loss change that results from a change in mean N loss stoichiometry is indicated by the vertical red vector, while the component that results from a total volume change is indicated by the horizontal vector.

#### 4. Sensitivity of N Loss to Deoxygenation

The gradient of N loss stoichiometry associated with the mean microbial habitat pattern implies a greater sensitivity of the N cycle to climate than previously recognized (Figure 4). The volume of low  $\text{O}_2$  water undergoing N loss is itself quite sensitive to climate-driven changes in tropical  $\text{O}_2$  [Deutsch et al., 2011], but changes in N loss also depend on the ratio of total  $\text{N}_2$  production per unit of organic N remineralization via denitrification, which have not been previously considered. Because  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  ratios increase systematically from the suboxic shell to the anoxic core (Figure 3b), any increase in the ratio of anoxic to suboxic water volume should also accelerate N loss and shift the balance of metabolisms in favor of heterotrophic denitrification over anammox.

To demonstrate this stoichiometric effect, we simulated the influence of a large-scale  $\text{O}_2$  depletion on the contemporary volumes of anoxic and suboxic waters in the Pacific Ocean, by applying a uniform anomaly to the current climatological  $\text{O}_2$  distribution. These idealized  $\text{O}_2$  depletion experiments approximate the response of the ODZ's volume to historical climate variations in more realistic models [Deutsch et al., 2011]. As  $\text{O}_2$  is depleted on the regional scale, the volume of anoxic and suboxic waters both rise, as expected (Figure 4). However, the anoxic water expands proportionally faster, increasing the ratio of the anoxic core volume relative to that of the suboxic shell. Although observational uncertainties in current climatological volumes are considerable, an increase in the core to shell volume ratio is robust to these uncertainties (Figure S6) because it arises from simple geometry; a bounded volume grows proportionally faster than its surrounding surface.

2003; Lam and Kuypers, 2011]. The fractional contribution of anammox to  $\text{N}_2$  production is therefore greatest in the suboxic shell, and declines into the anoxic core of the ODZ, where reoxidation is slowed by scarce  $\text{O}_2$ . Integrated across the ODZ, anammox contributes to between 31% and 49% of N loss (i.e.,  $f_{\text{amx}} = 0.31\text{--}0.49$ ; see section S5 and Figure S5 in the supporting information).

The stoichiometry of steady state anaerobic reactions is thought to imply a mean  $f_{\text{amx}}$  of 0.28 [Koeve and Kähler, 2010] but cannot explain the large observed deviations from this value. Previous studies assume that all  $\text{NO}_2^-$  produced by denitrification is reduced to  $\text{N}_2$  [Babbín et al., 2014]. When accounting for the fraction of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  that is oxidized or accumulates in the water column, simulated spatial variabilities of both  $f_{\text{amx}}$  and  $\text{N}_2:\text{DON}$  can be predicted exactly (Figure 3d). The niche partitioning of aerobic and anaerobic metabolisms along gradients in  $\text{O}_2$  can thus reconcile variations in  $f_{\text{amx}}$  and simple mass balance predictions, without the need for non-Redfieldian organic matter cycling [Babbín et al., 2014] or supplementary sources of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  [Lam et al., 2009; Bianchi et al., 2014].

To estimate the consequence of these volume changes for total N loss rates, we applied the model-predicted gradients in ecosystem stoichiometry throughout the Pacific ODZ. By altering mean N loss stoichiometry, shifts in the relative volumes of these distinct microbial habitat zones further increase N loss by an amount comparable to the ODZ volume expansion itself (Figure 4), thus doubling the impact of O<sub>2</sub> depletion in the metabolically diverse ocean compared to one with fixed N-cycle stoichiometry. A full accounting of the long-term effect of ocean deoxygenation and climate warming on N loss must take into account interactions between ocean circulation, N loss, and biological export, which our calculations have held constant. However, these idealized calculations illustrate a novel and important role for changing ecological stoichiometry due to shifts in the microbial community across the ODZ as the ocean loses O<sub>2</sub>. Accurately predicting the response of N loss to climate change will therefore require ocean models to account for feedback between these microbial ecosystem dynamics and the biogeochemical cycles.

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