Constraining the contribution of aerobic nitrite oxidation to oxygen consumption in

oceanic oxygen minimum zones

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analytical tools, and J.M.B. wrote the paper.

Competing Interest Statement: The authors have no competing interests.

This PDF file includes:

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Main Text Word Count: 5321

Reference Count: 60

Abstract

Oceanic oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) are globally significant sites of biogeochemical

cycling where microorganisms deplete dissolved oxygen (DO) to concentrations <20 µM. Amid

intense competition for DO in these metabolically challenging environments, aerobic nitrite

oxidation may consume significant amounts of DO and help maintain low DO concentrations,

but this remains unquantified. Using parallel measurements of oxygen consumption rates and

^{15}N-nitrite oxidation rates, applied to both water column profiles and oxygen manipulation

experiments, we show that the contribution of nitrite oxidation to overall DO consumption

systematically increases as DO declines below 2 µM. Nitrite oxidation was dominant only under

DO concentrations <393 nM. These patterns were consistent across sampling stations and

experiments, reflecting coupling between nitrate reduction and nitrite-oxidizing *Nitrospina* with

high oxygen affinity (based on isotopic and omic data). Collectively our results provide new

insight into the contribution of nitrite oxidation to the maintenance and biogeochemical

dynamics of OMZs.

Introduction

Aerobic nitrite oxidation is pervasive throughout much of the oceanic water column, playing a central role in deep ocean chemoautotrophy and carbon cycling[1,2], as well as in the oceanic nitrogen (N) cycle[3,4]. Nitrite oxidation rates are typically undetectable using $^{15}NO_2^-$ isotopic tracer in the sunlit euphotic zone, peak at the base of the euphotic zone, and subsequently decline with depth[5]. However, nitrite oxidation rate profiles deviate from this pattern in oceanic oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) that are depleted in dissolved oxygen (DO): rapid rates have been reported despite low DO concentrations[6-9], and nitrite oxidation itself may consume DO to low levels. OMZs are ultimately generated by high sinking fluxes of organic matter combined with reduced ventilation at depth, and are typically defined by DO concentrations <20 µM (ref. 10). Regions of the tropical oceans containing no measurable DO—termed anoxic marine zones (AMZs; ref. 11)—are further distinguished by the accumulation of nitrite to comparatively high (>1 µM) concentrations[12]. These secondary nitrite maxima (SNM) result from anaerobic nitrate reduction to nitrite under low DO[11-13]. Accumulated nitrite may be subsequently reduced via denitrification and anaerobic ammonium oxidation—resulting in gaseous N loss[14]—or, alternatively, oxidized by NOB. Nitrite is therefore rapidly produced and consumed via multiple processes in OMZs, linking the oceans' N, carbon (C), and oxygen cycles.

Despite its centrality in OMZ biogeochemical cycles, nitrite oxidation is still poorly understood in these dynamic regions of the ocean. In particular, DO can be photosynthetically produced[15] or physically introduced to OMZs[12,16,17], requiring subsequent DO consumption in order to maintain the existence of the OMZ itself[4]. High rates of nitrite oxidation within OMZs suggest that marine nitrite-oxidizing bacteria potentially contribute to DO depletion, and therefore to the ultimate generation and maintenance of OMZs[4,6-9,15,17]. However, the contribution of nitrite oxidation to DO drawdown has not been directly quantified. While nitrite oxidation has been measured in several OMZs[6-9], oxygen consumption rate (OCR) measurements in OMZs are rare[16,18,19]. Yet simultaneous measurements are necessary to directly quantify the contribution of nitrite oxidation to oxygen consumption and to the maintenance of OMZs.

The central question addressed by our research is whether or not nitrite oxidation is a significant DO sink in OMZs, and, if so, over what range of DO concentrations does this occur? This has direct implications for our understanding of how OMZs form and expand[4,11]—as well as associated consequences for C and N cycling and loss[3,14]. For example, an additional diagnostic

feature of AMZs is the presence of a secondary chlorophyll maximum (SCM) where distinct

ecotypes of the globally important cyanobacterium *Prochlorococcus* produce DO within low DO

waters[15,20,21]. Photosynthetic DO production is non-trivial, as production rates of 211-2,520 nM-

O_2 d^{-1} occur in the SCM—requiring corresponding DO consumption so that DO does not

accumulate[15]. SCM-based DO production can overlap with nitrite supply via nitrate reduction,

but the degree to which nitrite oxidation (versus other processes) consumes DO in the SCM

remains poorly constrained[15]. Greater DO consumption via nitrite oxidation implies that less DO

is used to respire organic C, while the oxidation of nitrite precludes its further reduction to

gaseous forms of $N^{3,14}$.

Our understanding of how nitrite-oxidizing bacteria (NOB) oxidize nitrite in OMZs and

other low-DO habitats is also evolving. NOB gain energy by oxidizing nitrite to nitrate while

using DO as a terminal electron acceptor. NOB appear to have high affinity for DO (K_m values

of 778-900 nM DO or lower), allowing them to aerobically oxidize nitrite even at nanomolar

concentrations of DO[22,23]. Omic data further indicate that some NOB are metabolically

flexible[24], and perhaps able to survive anaerobically through the use of alternative electron

donors and acceptors[13,25]. Adaptations to low DO are evident in different NOB, and both

Nitrospina and *Nitrococcus* may contribute to oceanic nitrite oxidation varying degrees[25,26]. But

although *in situ* nitrite oxidation rates are typically highest under low DO, experimental oxygen

manipulations show the opposite pattern: declining rates with declining DO[22]. This may be

explained by variations in genomic content among different NOB that allow them to occupy

distinct, highly-resolved DO niches throughout the water column[4,7,22,23,25]—including those that

occur from the edge (20 µM) to the core (<5 nM DO) of OMZs. These details are essential to

understand in the context of ocean deoxygenation, as seemingly small variations in DO may

have significant biogeochemical implications if different ecotypes within different functional

groups (such as nitrite oxidizers, nitrate reducers, and organisms respiring organic matter

aerobically) are adapted to specific DO concentration ranges, and so display varying sensitivities

to DO.

Here we address these open questions through parallel measurements of nitrite oxidation

and overall OCR in the oceans' largest OMZ, the eastern tropical North Pacific Ocean (ETNP).

Nitrite oxidation rate measurements (using $^{15}NO_2^-$), OCR measurements (using optical sensor

spots), and ammonia oxidation rate measurements (using $^{15}NH_4^+$) were made along depth

profiles at six stations in the ETNP, including three OMZ stations and three AMZ stations

(Figure 1). At each station, we sampled in the upper 100 m to capture the primary nitrite

maximum and an expected peak in nitrite oxidation rates at the base of the euphotic zone (EZ).

We then sampled a range of DO values (from 200 µM to the anoxic SNM at AMZ stations) to

quantify rate variations in response to vertical gradients in DO. How nitrite oxidation varies

from the OMZ edge to its anoxic core is critical to our understanding of ocean biogeochemical

cycles; we therefore conducted oxygen manipulation experiments and examined the response of

nitrite oxidation and OCR. Combined with natural abundance stable isotope data, 16S rRNA

sequencing, and metagenomes, we show that nitrite oxidation is a substantial—and occasionally

even dominant—sink for oxygen in the ETNP.

Results

Nitrite oxidation rates in the ETNP

We sampled six stations in the ETNP OMZ with DO concentrations <20 µM at depth (Figs 1 and

2). Three stations extending out from the coast of Mexico (Stations 1-3) were AMZ stations

with distinct SCMs and accumulations of nitrite in SNMs indicative of anaerobic N cycling

(Figure 2). We expected that these would be hotspots of nitrite oxidation given oxygen supply

via photosynthesis in the SCM overlapping with nitrite supply via nitrate reduction. Across all

stations and depths, we observed the highest nitrite oxidation rates at the AMZ stations (Fig. 2C,

G, and K). Station 1 is located nearest the coast and had a shallow OMZ at the time of our

sampling, with 20 µM DO at 28 m depth, and nitrite > 1 µM at 100 m (Fig. 2A). Chlorophyll

concentrations were also high in the upper water column (up to 5 mg m^{-3} at 20 m), with an SCM

spanning 70-125 m (Fig. 2B). Nitrite oxidation displayed a local maximum at the base of the EZ

at Station 1 (20-30 m), and then increased to higher levels (>100 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}; Fig. 2C). This

increase at 100 and 125 m corresponded with the overlap between the bottom of the SCM and

the top of the SNM. Nitrite oxidation rates then reached higher values at 150 m within the SNM

at Station 1. Stations 2 and 3 displayed similar nitrite oxidation rate profiles to each other,

including elevated rates in the SCM (Fig. 2G and K). Nitrite oxidation rates were similar in

magnitude, and peak values at the base of the EZ and in the OMZ were also similar (69-96 nmol

L^{-1} d^{-1}). Depth patterns tracked oceanographic differences across the three AMZ stations, as the

depth of all features increased moving offshore from Station 1 to 2 to 3. For example, the SCM

extended from 105-155 m at Station 2, while nitrite concentrations began to increase below 100

m; nitrite oxidation rates were elevated at 140 m and declined slightly with increasing depth (Fig.

2E-G). At Station 3, the SCM (120-180 m) and SNM (>140 m) depths were deeper, and nitrite

oxidation rates increased from 100 to 200 m (Fig. 2I-K).

In contrast to these three AMZ stations (Stations 1-3), rate profiles at Stations 4-6 showed

peaks at the base of the EZ followed by decreases with depth, and lacked a pronounced rate

increase within the OMZ (Supplementary Figure 1). Parallel measurements of ammonia

oxidation rates also showed this type of pattern at all stations (Supplementary Figure 1).

Subsurface maxima in ammonia oxidation tracked variations in the EZ across all six stations, but

rates were not elevated in OMZ/AMZ waters—again contrasting with nitrite oxidation rate

profiles at the AMZ stations. These data accord with earlier work in OMZs showing contrasting

ammonia and nitrite oxidation rate profiles, and particularly high rates of nitrite oxidation in

OMZ waters[6-8,27-29].

Initial DO concentrations for these measurements closely matched *in situ* values above

the SCM (where DO concentrations are higher), and starting DO ranged from 260-1500 nM for

measurements in and below the SCM. These DO concentrations are generally lower than those

used for previous nitrite oxidation rate measurements in OMZs[6,9], but similar to work examining

the oxygen affinity of nitrite oxidation[22] and overall oxygen consumption[16,19]. Elevated nitrite

oxidation in the limited number of samples (n=5) collected below the SCM (> 125 m at Station

1, >155 m at Station 2, and >180 m at Station 3)—where little to no DO is available—could have

a number of possible explanations discussed below. Within the SCM, our data support the idea

that nitrite oxidation contributes to 'cryptic' oxygen cycling[15]—i.e., that DO produced via

oxygenic photosynthesis is rapidly consumed.

Oxygen consumption via nitrite oxidation

We determined the contribution of nitrite oxidation to overall oxygen consumption via parallel

measurements of oxygen consumption rates (OCR) using *in situ* optical sensor spots—which are

non-invasive, provide nearly identical results as other low-level measurement approaches[30], are

the only effective means of achieving of substantial replication, and for which sensitivity

increases as DO decreases[30,31]. Decreases in DO were measured in both nitrite and ammonia

oxidation rate sample bottles, as well as in three additional replicates, to leverage statistical

power for increased sensitivity to low-level DO consumption (see Materials and Methods).

Water column OCR profiles at all stations showed exponential declines with depth and

decreasing DO concentrations (Fig. 2D, H, and L and Supplementary Figure 1). Rates were

highest in the upper water column, and declined sharply within the upper portion of the OMZ

above the SCM. The majority of measurements within the SCM—where DO may be produced

via photosynthesis—were 100s of nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}, with an overall range of 160-1380 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}.

Below the SCM, DO would be available more rarely (e.g., ref. 16), and OCR measurements

represent potential rates should oxygen be supplied; OCR ranged from 120-390 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}.

OCR also tracked variations in DO across stations, with progressively steeper declines in OCR

with depth from Station 6 through Station 1.

These OCR results are similar to the limited previous measurements that have been

conducted in OMZ regions, with some key differences. In particular, they are consistent with

previous measurements of rapid DO production and consumption in the SCM, with rates ranging

from 482-1,520 nmol-O_2 L^{-1} d^{-1} in the ETSP, and from 55-418 nmol-O_2 L^{-1} d^{-1} in the ETNP[15].

Earlier OCR measurements conducted in the ETNP near Stations 1 and 3 (across a wide range of

DO values) likewise ranged from 420-828 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} in the SCM near Station 1, and from 101-

269 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} in the SCM near Station 3 (ref. 16). Above the SCM, previous OCR

measurements in the ETNP spanned 2,260 to 662 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} from the EZ to the edge of the

OMZ; these values are lower than our measurements at 44 and 67 m depth at Station 2, but in

line with our remaining measurements above the SCM. OCR reached 1610 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} in the

SCM off Namibia, and 200-400 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} in the SCM off Peru[18]. Kalvelage et al.[18]

furthermore observed sharp decreases with depth in the ETSP, with rates declining from >1000

nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} above the SCM.

This pattern of declining OCR with increasing depth and decreasing DO was also evident

in our dataset, and contrasted with that of nitrite oxidation rates, which were notably elevated in

the SCM at the AMZ stations (Fig. 2). We directly compared nitrite oxidation rates with OCR,

assuming that each mole of nitrite is oxidized using ½ mole of O_2 (ref. 5). We found that nitrite

oxidation systematically increased as a proportion of overall OCR at lower DO levels (Figure 3A

and B). Nitrite oxidation was responsible for up to 69% of OCR at Station 1, although most

values were closer to 10-40% at Stations 2 and 3 (Fig. 3A and B). In contrast, ammonia

oxidation contributed < 5% of oxygen consumption in the OMZ (Supplementary Figure 1).

Overall, these data demonstrate consistent patterns in the contribution of nitrite oxidation to

OCR, as the proportion of DO consumed by nitrite oxidation increased at progressively lower

DO concentrations across multiple stations.

Effects of oxygen manipulation experiments on nitrite oxidation and OCR

We corroborated these observations by experimentally manipulating DO concentrations to

measure the response of OCR, as well as $^{15}NO_2^-$ nitrite oxidation rates, to changing DO (Figure

4). To examine responses of different assemblages in different depth regions, we conducted

experiments on the edge of the OMZ at Stations 2-4, in the SCM at Stations 2 and 3, and in the

SNM at Station 3 and an additional sampling Station 3.5 (Table 1). (We could not conduct

additional experiments at Stations 1 and 2 owing to a hurricane in the region at the time of

sampling in 2018, and added Station 3.5 as a result.) Oxygen manipulations were designed to

quantify OCR and nitrite oxidation across the full spectrum of DO concentrations that occur

from the OMZ edge to its core—rather than solely probing their lower limits—in order to

constrain rate responses to changing DO within OMZs.

Oxygen manipulation experiments were consistent with water column profiles and

provide additional evidence that nitrite oxidation can be a substantial oxygen sink. In all

experiments, we found that OCR declined with experimentally decreased DO (Fig. 4). These

declines were particularly steep below 1-2 µM DO across different experiments. For the SCM

and SNM experiments, DO concentrations >1 µM are obviously higher than expected to occur *in*

situ, but these concentrations were included for comparison across experiments and with earlier

studies[9,15]; OCR measurements for SCM and SNM samples conducted at DO concentrations >1

µM therefore represent potential rates. For OMZ edge samples, OCR values in the µM range

were higher than observed in profiles—most likely due to the effects of bubbling[19], which could

physically break down organic matter present in higher concentrations at these depths (Table 1).

Throughout all experiments, rate magnitudes in the 100s of nM DO concentration range (11-820

nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}) were similar to profile measurements (Fig. 2), as well as to previous measurements

in OMZs[15,16,18,19] (see above).

DO concentrations were also continuously monitored in a subset of experimental bottles,

and DO consumption was consistently linear (see Methods). The few exceptions occurred in

several experiments conducted at DO concentrations <235 nM; in these experiments, OCR

declined as DO was consumed over time. These observations are consistent with Tiano et al.[16]

and allowed us to calculate the low-level DO affinity of the community (following ref. 16), in

addition to overall values based on variations across all experimental incubations (following ref.

19; Supplementary Note 1). However, we note that both reflect mixed assemblages of

microorganisms that use DO to oxidize a variety of substrates (Supplementary Note 1). These

substrates can include nitrite, as well as different forms of organic matter, reduced sulfur

compounds, and possibly methane[32]. Low-level results were consistent with previous

observations indicating high affinity for DO (K_m ranged from 53-127 nM DO), and, importantly,

all data demonstrate that OCR decreases as DO decreases (Supplementary Note 1, Table 1).

In line with earlier work[22,23], nitrite oxidation rates also declined in response to

decreasing DO in most of our experiments (Fig. 4). However, nitrite oxidation rates were less

sensitive to declining DO than OCR. Nitrite oxidation was therefore responsible for

progressively higher proportions of overall OCR as DO was experimentally decreased (Fig. 3C).

In fact, we found that 97% of OCR in the SCM at Station 2 could be explained by measured

nitrite oxidation rates—indicating that nitrite oxidation alone can sustain all DO consumption at

DO concentrations just below 393 nM. However, most values were closer to 10-20%. Overall,

patterns in experiments were notably similar to results from rate profiles: both showed increases

in the contribution of nitrite oxidation to DO consumption below 2 µM DO, and both displayed

similar values (Fig. 3B and C).

Based on these data, we used several approaches to calculate the DO level at which nitrite

oxidation may be expected to consume all DO. First, we fit power law curves to the

relationships in Figure 3, which suggest that nitrite oxidation would be responsible for all OCR

at DO concentrations of 15 nM (based on experiments; r^2=0.40, P<0.0005) to 44 nM (based on

profiles; r^2=0.51, P<0.0001). However, as the data above indicate, this contribution is obviously

variable across experiments: our experiment in the SCM at Station 2 showed that nitrite

oxidation can consume all available DO at ca. 393 nM DO (Fig. 4C), while the experiment with

20 µM [DO] water at Station 2 suggests that, even at low DO levels, nitrite oxidation would not

consume all DO (Fig. 4B). In general, nitrite oxidation is unlikely to be dominant on the edge of

the OMZ due to higher DO and organic matter concentrations, along with lower nitrite

concentrations (Figs. 2 and 3, Table 1). We therefore applied multiple approaches to the SCM

and SNM experiments, including using regression and calculating kinetic parameters based on

experimental treatments (Supplementary Note 2). These calculations collectively indicate that

nitrite oxidation can account for all DO consumption at up 267 nM in the DCM station 2 (based

on regression); for the other experiments, nitrite oxidation is estimated to consume all DO below

concentrations of 9-46 nM (Supplementary Note 2).

These data tie together multiple aspects of OMZ biogeochemistry into a coherent picture.

Although nitrite oxidation rates decline as DO is experimentally decreased at individual depths—

and so with particular assemblages of NOB—different depths/assemblages display different

properties (Fig. 4 and Supplementary Note 2). More importantly, this decline is always less

severe for nitrite oxidation than for overall OCR (Figs. 2-4). NOB are therefore effective at

scavenging DO (Figs. 3 and 4; ref. 15), and the concentration range over which this occurs in our

experiments matches model predictions (0.2-1 µM DO) involving a nitrogen-oxygen feedback

loop in OMZs driven by oxygen depletion via nitrite oxidation[17].

Isotopic, 16S rRNA, and metagenomic constraints on nitrite oxidation

To further verify our findings, we applied natural abundance stable isotope measurements, 16S

rRNA sequencing, and metagenome sequencing to water samples and nucleic acid samples

collected in parallel with nitrite oxidation rate measurements (Figure 5). The dual N and O

isotopic composition of dissolved nitrate (δ^{15}N and δ^{18}O, respectively; Supplementary Figure 2)

is thought to provide an effective constraint on nitrite oxidation under low DO conditions due to

isotopic 'overprinting' by nitrite oxidation[33,34]. While the respiratory reduction of nitrate

(denitrification) leads to equal 1:1 increases in δ^{15}N and δ^{18}O (refs. 35, 36), deviations in 1:1

N:O isotope behavior arise from a decoupling of the N and O systems. These deviations are

widely interpreted as reflecting cryptic re-oxidation of nitrite under low DO, where the reduction

of nitrate to nitrite removes an O atom, and the subsequent re-oxidation of nitrite to nitrate

appends a new O atom derived from ambient water[37,38]. Deviations from the 1:1 relationship are

represented via Δ(15,18) values[39], where more negative values represent larger departures from

the 1:1 relationship.

At Stations 1-3, dual nitrate isotope values exhibited non-linear trends (Figure 5B and

Supplementary Figure 3) that are consistent with isotopic overprinting by nitrite oxidation[33,34].

Δ(15,18) values were lowest (i.e., deviations were largest) at 50-150 m at Station 1, 100-140 m at

Station 2, and 110-160 m at Station 3. The lower portions of these depth ranges overlapped with

the upper portion of the SCM (75-125 m, 105-155 m, and 120-180 m, respectively) and tracked

depth variations between stations. Peak deviations at Stations 1 and 2 were just above the SCM

(75 and 100 m), while the peak at Station 3 corresponded closely with the SCM (140 m).

Throughout these ETNP OMZ sites, our nitrate isotope data are consistent with previous

observations and interpretations of rapid recycling between nitrate and nitrite[33,39,40], ultimately

evidenced by isotopic overprinting of the nitrate reduction signal by nitrite oxidation.

      16S rRNA gene and transcript sequencing revealed a similar pattern to rate profiles,

experiments, and isotopic data, while also enabling identification of NOB that are abundant and

active in the ETNP OMZ. Based on DNA, *Nitrospina* 16S rRNA amplicon sequence variants

(ASVs; ref. 41) comprised up to 3.4-5.4% of all ASVs at Stations 1-3 (Fig. 5C), and relative

abundances were consistent with the isotopic anomalies—abundances and anomalies were well-

correlated (r^2=0.70-0.84, P<0.05) at Stations 1 and 3, for instance. These patterns were

accentuated for RNA samples, but with discrete peaks in 16S rRNA transcripts generally

occurring at deeper depths (Fig. 5D). *Nitrospina* 16S rRNA peaked at 125 m at Sta 1 (1.8% of

all 16S rRNA transcripts; with an additional upper water column peak at 50 m), 140 m at Station

2 (3.2%), and particularly 140-180 m at Station 3 (1.6-7.1%). All of these depths lie within the

SCM at each station. Although 20 *Nitrospina* ASVs were identified, three were dominant (each

>1% of all ASVs, together constituting 72-100% of all *Nitrospina* 16S rRNA gene sequences

and transcripts). One of these ASVs was found only in OMZ samples at Stations 1-3, and was

not detected above the OMZ, nor at Stations 4 and 5. This was also the lone ASV observed in

the OMZ at Station 3, where *Nitrospina* were most active based on their comparatively high

percentages of all 16S rRNA transcripts. In contrast, no *Nitrococcus* ASVs and only one low-

abundance *Nitrospira* ASV were identified out of >11,000 ASVs and >3.5 million 16S

sequences from 73 DNA and 73 RNA samples. In line with earlier work in the ETNP[7,25], other

OMZs[6,42], and the variations in DO affinity observed across oxygen manipulation experiments

(Fig. 4), these results indicate that particular *Nitrospina* ecotypes—and one ASV in particular—

are significant for low-oxygen nitrite oxidation, while other ASVs may be more important at

different depths and DO concentrations.

      To validate the genetic potential for nitrite oxidation by *Nitrospina* under low DO

concentrations, we sequenced metagenomes collected on the OMZ edge, at the SCM, and within

the OMZ core at Stations 1, 2, and 3. Nitrite oxidoreductase genes from *Nitrospina* were

prevalent at all stations and depths, establishing the genomic potential for nitrite oxidation

throughout the ETNP OMZ (Table 2). In addition, multiple high-affinity cytochrome C oxidase

genes from *Nitrospina* were present in all samples—indicating that *Nitrospina* are capable of

consuming DO at the low concentrations found within the OMZ. These genes were more

common in SCM and SNM metagenomes than at the OMZ edge, consistent with *Nitrospina*

ecotype distributions, and with the lower DO concentrations found in the SCM and SNM (Table

2). Cytochrome *bd*-type oxidase genes from *Nitrospina* were also detected in all metagenomes

except the OMZ edge sample at Station 1, although these lack quinol binding sites and may not

function as canonical oxidases[25,43]. Sun et al.[25] also suggested that chlorite dismutase genes may

be relevant for anaerobic metabolism in *Nitrospina*, and these were present in all metagenomes

(Supplementary Table 1). We also recovered formate dehydrogenase and nitrate reductase genes

indicative of anaerobic metabolism in *Nitrospina*[24] (Supplementary Table 1). Both of these

genes were absent from OMZ edge metagenomes at Stations 1 and 2, showing higher relative

abundances in the SCM, and especially the SNM. *Nitrospina*-derived nitrate reductase genes

were present at similar levels as nitrite oxidoreductase in the SNM, while less common in the

SCM (Supplementary Table 1).   Finally, *Prochlorococcus* genes were prevalent from the OMZ

edge to core, and especially within the SCM, supporting the idea that oxygenic photosynthesis

and cryptic oxygen cycling occur throughout the ETNP OMZ (Table 2). Overall, metagenomic

data are consistent with experimental data and 16S data, and indicate *Nitrospina* are tightly tuned

to DO concentrations in the ETNP.

Discussion

Assembled together, our results provide a comprehensive view of nitrite oxidation and its

contribution to oxygen consumption in the ocean's largest OMZ. Rate measurements, oxygen

manipulation experiments, stable isotopic data, and molecular data all converge on the fact that

nitrite oxidation is active from the base of the euphotic zone into the OMZ. Nitrite oxidation was

particularly significant within the SCM at Stations 1-3: nitrite oxidation rates were elevated (Fig.

2), isotopic overprinting of nitrate by nitrite oxidation was evident (Fig. 5B and Supplementary

Figure 3), and *Nitrospina* were abundant and active (Fig. 5C and D). All of these data tracked

systematic progression in the depth of the SCM across stations (Fig. 2), and indicate that nitrite

oxidation is important for DO utilization in the SCM. Based on rate profiles, nitrite oxidation

ranged from 10-47% of OCR in the SCM (Fig. 3B), while experiments indicate maximum

percentages of 13-97% (Fig. 3C). Stations 4-6—which lack a SCM and SNM—provide a

notable contrast, as do ammonia oxidation rate profiles (Supplementary Figure 1).

Peaks in the magnitude of departure from a 1:1 nitrate reduction signal (e.g., isotopic

overprinting by nitrite oxidation), and in *Nitrospina* ASV abundances, further indicate that nitrite

oxidation is active above and below the SCM (Fig. 5). At Stations 2 and 3, nitrite oxidation rates

above the SCM were similar to rates deeper in the water column, while Station 1 showed a rate

increase within the AMZ (Fig. 2). In OMZs/AMZs, DO may be photosynthetically produced in

the SCM[15] or introduced through physical mixing[12,16], but both of these DO sources would be

less significant below the SCM. Instead, the introduction of DO during sample manipulation

effectively measures the potential for oxygen consumption in samples collected below the SCM.

Short of conducting *in situ* incubations, such DO contamination is essentially unavoidable, and is

the reason that we also performed oxygen manipulation experiments (Fig. 4)—which also have

limitations[19]. In line with earlier work in OMZs facing these same challenges[16,18], oxygen

consumption potential was significant even below the SCM. Most importantly, inclusion of DO

sensor spots in all bottles allowed us to directly measure DO in every incubation, and therefore

to quantify nitrite oxidation and OCR as a function of DO across all profiles and experiments.

Patterns in OCR and nitrite oxidation were notably consistent between profiles and experiments

(Fig. 3B and 3C). This similarity indicates that—independent of methodology—nitrite oxidation

increases in relative importance below 2 µM DO.

To make our findings widely relevant to current and emerging OMZ regions, we

examined the full range of DO concentrations found in OMZs, rather than in the AMZ

exclusively. However, consistent with isotopic data, we found that *Nitrospina* 16S rRNA

transcripts increased in relative abundance within the AMZ (Fig. 5). RNA samples were

collected from the CTD rosette and rapidly filtered, so if these data capture a response to oxygen

exposure, this response is exceptionally rapid and consistent. Alternatively, these data indicate

that *Nitrospina* are active within the AMZ. One possibility is that *Nitrospina* survive

anaerobically for periods of time until provided DO[24]. Oxygen-evolving mechanisms from

nitrite have also been proposed for anaerobic methane-oxidizing bacteria[44] that are active in

OMZs[45]. The presence of *Prochlorococcus* below the SCM may allow low-level DO production

via oxygenic photosynthesis (Table 2). Finally, Tiano et al.[16] previously detected DO at 500 m

depth within the core of the ETNP AMZ. This is substantially deeper than our experiments and

well below the SCM (Fig. 2)—suggesting that DO can be periodically introduced even deep

within the AMZ. Regardless of the mechanism, isotopic data and 16S rRNA data suggest that

transient nitrite oxidation coupled to nitrate reduction occurs below the SCM[17].

However, our primary focus was on oxygen consumption via nitrite oxidation and its

implications for the formation, maintenance, and expansion of OMZs. Two clear and

remarkably consistent patterns emerged from both water column profiles and oxygen

manipulation experiments: (i) overall OCR declined with decreasing DO in profiles and

experiments (Figs. 2C and 4), while (ii) nitrite oxidation increased as a proportion of OCR as DO

declined in both profiles and experiments (Fig. 3B and C). Nitrite oxidation was significant

throughout the OMZ and experiments, but increased in relative importance below 2 µM DO—

typically ranging from 10-40% of OCR—and was only dominant at low DO concentrations

(Table 1). For example, nitrite oxidation consumed nearly all DO produced in the SCM

experiment at Station 2 (Fig. 3C). Variation in the proportion of overall OCR attributable to

nitrite oxidation could reflect fluctuations through time[17], as well as differences in substrate

availabilities and affinities relative to DO for different processes consuming DO. Other than

nitrite oxidation, aerobic respiration of organic matter is most significant for OCR given relative

substrate concentrations (organic C > CH_4 or reduced S compounds; refs. 45–47), as well as high

affinities for DO among heterotrophic bacteria[48-50]. Our data indicate that aerobic respiration is

likely the dominant DO-consuming process from the edge of the OMZ (20 µM DO) until OCR

declines precipitously (Figure 4 and Table 1).

Many aerobic heterotrophs are also facultatively anaerobic, switching to nitrate reduction

under low DO[13,51]. Along with a substrate-driven decline in aerobic respiration rates with

decreasing DO, this shift to nitrate reduction likely explains the steep declines in OCR observed

in our experimental data (Fig. 4). Production of nitrite from nitrate reduction also provides a

needed substrate for nitrite oxidation, and is consistent with isotopic data (Fig. 5B and

Supplementary Figure 3). We suggest that such cryptic nitrite/nitrate cycling explains the

adaptations of particular *Nitrospina* bacteria to AMZs: although these are low-DO environments,

they are also high-nitrite environments, representing a trade-off in the availability of electron

donor and acceptor. The fact that nitrite oxidation rates increase with increasing nitrite into the

micromolar range[9], and that nitrate is reduced at similar rates[52], provides additional support for

this idea. Our results further indicate that nitrite oxidation is carried out by just a few *Nitrospina*

ASVs under these conditions—in contrast with the diversity of other microbial groups that may

be involved in overall oxygen consumption[4,53]. These *Nitrospina* are disproportionately

biogeochemically important given their roles in DO consumption and regeneration of nitrate,

which precludes its further reduction. For these organisms, the costs of life at low DO are offset

by the advantages of persistently elevated nitrite concentrations.

At the same time, efficient scavenging of DO by *Nitrospina* can maintain DO at low

levels favorable for nitrate reduction[17,54]. This represents a form of biogeochemical symbiosis,

in that microorganisms performing nitrite oxidation and nitrate reduction mutually benefit from

their biogeochemical interaction. Rate profiles, oxygen manipulation experiments, natural

abundance measurements, 16S rRNA sequencing, and metagenomic data all favor this idea: the

proportion of DO consumed by nitrite oxidation increased at progressively lower DO

concentrations in both profiles and experiments (Fig. 3B and C); isotopic anomalies are

indicative of coupled nitrite oxidation and nitrate reduction (Figs. 5B and Supplementary Figure

3); and the low-oxygen adaptations of particular *Nitrospina* support high abundances and activity

(Table 2, Fig. 5C and D). These data also provide multiple lines of direct evidence that verify

model results showing co-existence of nitrite oxidation and nitrate reduction emerging below ~1

μM DO (refs. 17, 54). By placing entirely new bounds on the contribution of nitrite oxidation to

DO consumption, we resolve the niche of nitrite-oxidizing *Nitrospina* within OMZs, quantify

their contributions to coupled oxygen and nitrogen cycling, and convincingly establish that

nitrite oxidation is pivotal in the maintenance and biogeochemical dynamics of these important

regions of the ocean.

Materials and Methods

Sample Collection. Samples were collected in April 2017 and June 2018 aboard the *R/V*

Oceanus. At each station, conductivity/salinity, temperature, depth, pressure, chlorophyll

fluorescence, and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) were measured by a SeaBird SBE-

9plus CTD, SBE-3F temperature sensor, SBE-43 DO sensor, WetLabs ECO-FLR Fluorometer,

and Biospherical QCP2200 PAR sensor. Initial casts were used to measure DO and nutrient

profiles to guide subsequent sampling. Nutrient samples were analyzed for NH_4^+ and NO_2^-

aboard the ship, with additional shore-based analyses of combined $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ and PO_4^{3-} at the

University of California Santa Barbara Marine Science Institute Analytical Lab (Supplementary

Materials and Methods).

At all stations, water samples were collected in the upper 100 m to capture variation in

the upper water column, and we then sampled across a range of DO levels and nitrite levels to

capture variation in the OMZ. Samples were collected at 200, 100, 50, 20, 10, 5, and 1 µM [DO]

at all stations. Because the OMZ is shallower and more intense moving south and nearshore in

the ETNP (Fig. 1), these DO levels can occur within the upper 100 m, such that upper 100 m and

DO-based sampling overlapped. This overlap was greater at Station 1, followed by 2 and 3. At

these AMZ stations, samples were also collected at three depths between the 1 µM [DO] level

and the SNM. Experiments were conducted for 24 hours in the dark in a cold van adjusted to

ambient temperature, with separate incubations (and therefore temperatures) conducted for

samples from the upper 100 m, for oxygen/nitrite-based sampling, and for oxygen manipulation

experiments at each station.

OCR Measurements and Oxygen Manipulations. Two types of sensor spots were used to

measure OCR and manipulate DO, one with a wider range and detection limit of 100 nM (Fibox,

Loligo Systems, Viborg, Denmark), as well as trace-level spots with a detection limit of 10 nM

(FireSting, Pyroscience, Aachen, Germany)[31]. Loligo sensor spots were used for water column

profiles given the wider DO range, while FireSting trace-level spots were used to establish

oxygen manipulation experiments and measure OCR within them. Optical sensors were

calibrated using DO-saturated water and sodium sulfite-saturated and He-purged water. On the

upper end, Fibox sensor spot DO measurements were highly correlated with CTD DO values

(r^2=0.996, slope=0.997, P<0.00001) for [DO] > 1 µM. On the lower end, we regularly checked

the '0 nM' concentration with repeated measurements of sodium sulfite-saturated water and He-

purged water, and our lowest values measured in experiments were consistently within 10 nM of

0. In both profiles and experiments, OCR was measured by the decrease in DO over the course

of experiments[30,55]. Oxygen-based measurements such as these are often converted to C-based

respiration rates assuming oxidation of Redfield-type organic material, but our results

demonstrate that this assumption does not hold in OMZs.

Water column profiles of OCR were measured using 5 replicates at each depth, including

one each with tracer level (5-10% *in situ* concentration measured at sea) addition of $^{15}NH_4^+$ or

$^{15}NO_2^-$ to measure ammonia/nitrite oxidation (see below). Loligo sensor spots were attached to

the inside of 300 mL Wheaton BOD glass bottles using silicone glue. At sea, bottles were filled

to at least three times overflowing via slow laminar flow, were rapidly capped and transferred to

the cold van, and initial DO measurements were made. DO was measured subsequently at 10-14

hours, and at the end of the 20-24 hour incubations. The majority of OCR rates calculated from

both measurement time points were highly correlated (r^2= 0.968-0.995; all P<0.0001) with slopes

ranging from 1.06-1.19 (across different stations), indicating that OCR did not accelerate or

decrease substantially over the course of the incubations. The only exceptions were three

sampling depths from station 3 (77, 87, 97 m) showing nonlinearity, and so we report data from

measurements conducted at similar depths (75, 88, 100 m) the previous day. After incubation,

endpoint DO measurements were made and then 50 mL samples from relevant bottles were

frozen for nitrite and ammonia oxidation rate measurements.

Oxygen manipulation experiments were conducted in 500 mL serum bottles with

attached FireSting sensor spots. We conducted a total of seven experiments, with experiments

on the OMZ edge and in the SCM at Station 2; on the OMZ edge, in the SCM, and in the SNM at

Station 3; in the SNM at Station 3.5; and on the OMZ edge at Station 4. For each experiment, a

total of 24 bottles were filled with water collected at a specific depth, sealed with deoxygenated

stoppers, and then bubbled with ultrapure He gas (15-30 minutes) while DO was monitored. We

introduced an He headspace of 20 mL, and air was injected into bottles to raise DO

concentrations when needed. For each experiment, we established initial DO values ranging

from 10s to 1000s of nM (Figure 4), and 8 bottles had tracer-level $^{15}NO_2^-$ additions, 8 bottles had

tracer-level $^{15}NH_4^+$ additions, and 8 were unlabeled. For all experiments and water column

profiles, bottles were cleaned with 0.1 M HCl and triple rinsed with water between incubations,

and dedicated bottles were used for the different ^{15}N labels.

OCR was measured in all experimental bottles based on starting and ending DO values,

and samples for nitrite oxidation were collected from $^{15}NO_2^-$ labeled bottles at the end of the

experiments. Four to eight bottles in each experiment were also continuously monitored for DO

concentration changes throughout the experiment. We tested DO consumption curves for

linearity over time using the Maximal Information Coefficient (MIC; ref. 56.) and linear

regression. MIC effectively captures both linear and nonlinear relationships, such that

differences between higher MIC scores and lower regression coefficients are indicative of

nonlinear relationships, whereas high MIC scores combined with high r^2 values are indicative of

strong linear relationships[56]. We found the vast majority of DO time courses were linear ($r^2 > 0.6$,

MIC-$r^2 < 0.2$). The few exceptions—one incubation bottle each in the SCM at Stations 2 and 3,

one in the SNM at Station 3, two in the SNM at Station 3.5, and one on the OMZ edge at Station

4—all showed a decline in OCR over time. All of these incubation bottles had average DO <235

nM, and were used to calculate affinity for DO at these low concentrations (Supplementary Note

1).

Nitrate isotopic measurements. Both natural abundance and ^{15}N-tracer-based nitrate isotopes

were quantified by use of the denitrifier method[57,58]. Samples were collected from the rosette or

at the end of incubations, filtered through a 0.2 µm filter, and then frozen until analysis. In the

lab, 20-30 nmoles of NO_3^- were quantitatively converted to N_2O by a culture of the denitrifying

bacterium, *Pseudomonas aureofaciens*. Product N_2O was cryogenically purified and trapped

under flow of ultra-high purity He, before being introduced to an IsoPrime 100 isotope ratio

mass spectrometer. Isotope ratios were normalized to international reference materials (USGS

32, USGS 34, USGS 35) and reported using standard delta notation. Any nitrite present in the

sample was removed by addition of sulfamic acid[35]. In samples from the upper 100 m, where

NO_3^- concentrations were low, 'carrier' NO_3^- of known isotopic composition was added and

sample compositions were calculated by mass balance. Precision of natural abundance isotope

ratio measurements was ±0.3‰ and ±0.4‰ for $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$, respectively. $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$

values were used to calculate the $\Delta(15,18)$ deviation from the 1:1 line following Sigman et al.[39].

Nitrite Oxidation Rates. Nitrite oxidation rates were measured by adding 98 atom percent

(atom%) $^{15}NO_2^-$ to a final concentration of 12-184 nmol L^{-1}—representing 5-10% of *in situ* NO_2^-

concentrations (with the exception of some samples in the upper 100m with no measurable

nitrite)—and measuring the accumulation of ^{15}N label in the NO_3^- pool following Beman et al.[7].

After incubation for ~24 hours, samples were frozen at sea. Upon thawing in the laboratory,

excess $^{15}NO_2^-$ was removed following Granger and Sigman[35]. In brief, sulfamic acid (~8-10 µL

mL^{-1}) was added, the samples were shaken and allowed to sit for >5 minutes, and then samples

were neutralized by adding NaOH (4 M, ~11 µL mL^{-1}) prior to analysis.

Rates of $^{15}NO_2^-$ oxidation ($^{15}R_{ox}$) were calculated using equation 1 from Beman et al. [7]

adapted from Ward et al. (ref. 59):

$$^{15}R_{ox} = \frac{(n_t - n_{oNO_3^-}) \times [NO_3^-]}{(n_{NO_2^-}) \times t}$$ (1)

where n_t is the atom% ^{15}N in NO_3^- measured at time t corrected for $^{15}NO_3^-$ contamination of the

$^{15}NO_2^-$ stock; $n_{oNO_3^-}$ is the measured atom% ^{15}N of unlabeled NO_3^-; $[NO_3^-]$ is the concentration of

the NO_3^- pool; and $n_{NO_2^-}$ is the exponential average atom% of NO_2^- over time t. $n_{NO_2^-}$ was

calculated by isotope mass balance based on initial NO_2^- concentrations, measured isotopic

composition, added ^{15}N-labeled NO_2^-, and measured $^{15}NH_4^+$ oxidation rates (which produce

unlabeled NO_2^-; ammonia oxidation rate measurements followed Beman et al.[28]).

RNA/DNA Extractions, 16S rRNA Sequencing and Analysis, Metagenome Sequencing and

Analysis, and Organic Matter Analysis are reported in the Supplementary Materials and

Methods.

Sequence data are available in the Sequence Read Archive under BioProjects PRJNA192803

(16S data), and PRJNA634212 (metagenomes).

Statistical analyses were carried out in the R statistical environment (RStudio Version 1.0.136).

Linear regressions were performed using the 'lm' function in R; Michaelis-Menten curve fits

were performed using the 'drm' function in the R package drc (ref. 60).

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by NSF CAREER grant OCE-1555375 to J.M.B. Metagenome

sequencing was supported by the UCMEXUS-CONACyT Collaborative Grants Program (to

J.M.B. and José García Maldonado). We thank the officers and crew of the *R/V Oceanus* for

their help at sea, and thank Sarah Abboud, Daniela Alonso, DeVonyo Bills, Jorge Montiel

Molina, and Kevin Testo for their assistance in the field.

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Figures (for initial submission)

Figure 1: Station locations (numbered symbols) in the ETNP plotted on dissolved oxygen

concentrations (in µM) at 100 m depth from the World Ocean Atlas. Triangles denote AMZ

Stations 1-3.5 and circles denote OMZ stations 4-6.

Figure 2: Depth profiles of (A,E,I) DO (solid lines) and nitrite (data points connected by dashed lines), (B,F,J) chlorophyll a, (C,G,K) nitrite oxidation rates, and (D,H,L) OCR (error bars denote

722 standard deviation of five replicates) show consistent variation across (A-D) Station 1, (E-H)

723 Station 2, and (I-L) Station 3 (denoted by different colors). Black horizontal lines denote the

724 depth of the OMZ, and shaded areas show the SCM at each station. Maximum chlorophyll

725 values at Station 1 plot off-axis.

Figure 3: DO consumption via nitrite oxidation as a percentage of OCR with (A) depth, and as a

function of average DO in (B) depth profiles and (C) oxygen manipulation experiments. Colors

denote different stations. Only measurements for DO <18 μM are included in panel B, and all

experimental bottles with dual nitrite oxidation and OCR are shown in C. In panel C, different

symbols denote different experiments, with two experiments conducted at Station 2 (SCM and

OMZ edge), three at Station 3 (SCM, SNM, and OMZ edge), and one each at Stations 3.5 (SNM)

and 4 (OMZ edge).

Figure 4: Nitrite oxidation rates (filled symbols) and OCR (open symbols) as a function of average DO in oxygen manipulation experiments. Colors denote different stations, with panels displaying data from different experiments: A) Station 2 OMZ edge (20 µM DO), B) Station 2 SCM, C) Station 3 SCM, D) Station 3 SNM, E) Station 3 OMZ edge, F) Station 3.5 SNM, and G) Station 4 OMZ edge. Note differences in vertical axes between experiments, and differences in horizontal axis in panel A compared with the remaining panels.

Figure 5: Depth profiles of (A) DO (solid lines) and nitrite (data points connected by dashed

lines), (B) Δ(15,18) dual-isotope deviations in nitrate, and *Nitrospina* ASVs as a percentage of

(C)16S rDNA sequence libraries and (D) 16S rRNA sequence libraries. Colors denote different

sampling stations.

Table 1: Details of oxygen manipulation experiments, including: station, depth, region, and
experiment length; starting DO, total organic carbon (TOC), and nitrite concentrations; and
calculated parameters for OCR (including both low-level and overall K_m values) and nitrite
oxidation rates (K_m values are for dissolved oxygen in all cases). NA=not applicable, and
NS=parameter estimate not significant.

Experiment	2-1	2-2	3-1	3-2	3-3	3.5-1	4-1
Station	2	2	3	3	3	3.5	4
Depth (m)	90	140	130	170	110	80	100
Depth region	OMZ edge	SCM	SCM	SNM	OMZ edge	SNM	OMZ edge
Length (hr)	22	19	16	16	22	17	24
DO (nM)	19940	480	293	260	12800	274	3480
TOC (nM)	57965	45318	49118	46929	51211	44339	47397*
Nitrite (nM)	203	205	100	2410	73	2650	68
OCR							
Low-level K_m (nM)	NA	124	127	81	NA	53-104	82
Overall K_m (nM)	3262	1787	1804	6382[NS]	4247[NS]	1621	1738
v_{max} (nmol L^{-1} d^{-1})	4164	2757	2765	5973	4025	1612	2075
r^2	.878	.811	.569	.757	.868	.846	.776
Nitrite oxidation							
Overall K_m (nM)	1876[NS]	185	63.8	38.4[NS]	346	34.1	1015
v_{max} (nmol L^{-1} d^{-1})	23.3[NS]	43.9	149	71.2	23.0	122	47.5
r^2	.347	.445	.665	.019	.910	.269	.825

759 *Station 4 TOC sample was collected at 90 m

761 **Table 2:** Relative abundance of *Nitrospina* reads, functional genes from *Nitrospina*, and

762 *Prochlorococcus* reads within metagenomes (expressed per million reads).

Sta.	Depth	Depth region	DO (μM)	*Nitrospina*	Nitrite oxido-reductase	Cyto-chrome c	Cyto-chrome bd	*Prochloro-coccus*
1	25	OMZ edge	19.9	1084	2	0	0	865
1	87.5	SCM	0.46	31920	65	20	3	47992
1	100	SNM	0.30	21196	37	22	2	10765
2	89	OMZ edge	15.3	22442	38	12	10	57194
2	130	SCM	0.78	33290	57	20	4	33522
2	160	SNM	0.60	21725	37	28	2	4157
3	123	OMZ edge	13.0	18647	34	10	2	54709
3	140	SCM	0.74	34227	55	18	4	37202
3	180	SNM	0.45	17617	30	26	2	4881