

Title: Shifts in the Isotopic Composition of Nitrous Oxide between El Niño and La Niña in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific

Noah Gluschankoff¹, Alyson E. Santoro², Carolyn Buchwald³, and Karen L. Casciotti^{1,4}

¹Stanford University, Department of Earth System Science, Stanford, CA, USA

²University of California, Department of Ecology, Evolution and Marine Biology, Santa Barbara, CA USA

³Dalhousie University, Department of Oceanography, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada

⁴Stanford University, Oceans Department, Stanford, CA, USA

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Key Points:

1. La Niña in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific led to a six-fold increase in nitrous oxide concentrations compared to El Niño.
2. Isotopocule analysis indicates incomplete denitrification and hybrid production both contributed to the accumulation of nitrous oxide.
3. Numerous co-occurring production and consumption pathways likely explain the nitrous oxide distributions.

Abstract

The El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is a natural climate phenomenon that alters the biogeochemical and physical dynamics of the Eastern Tropical Pacific Ocean. Its two phases, El Niño and La Niña, are characterized by decreased and increased coastal upwelling, respectively, which have cascading effects on primary productivity, organic matter supply, and ocean-atmosphere interactions. The Eastern Tropical South Pacific (ETSP) oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) is a source of nitrous oxide (N₂O), a potent greenhouse gas, to the atmosphere. While nitrogen cycling in the ETSP OMZ has been shown to be sensitive to ENSO, we present the first study to directly compare N₂O distributions during both ENSO phases using N₂O isotopocule analyses. Our data show that during La Niña, N₂O accumulation increased six-fold in the upper 100 m of the water column, and N₂O fluxes to the atmosphere increased up to 100-fold. N₂O isotopocule data demonstrated substantial increases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ up to 60.5‰ and decreases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ down to -10.3‰, signaling a shift in N₂O cycling during La Niña in the oxycline compared to El Niño.

N₂O production via the hybrid pathway and incomplete denitrification with overprinting of N₂O consumption are likely co-occurring to maintain the high site preference (SP) values (17‰ – 26.7‰), corroborating previous hypotheses. Ultimately, our results illustrate a strong connection between upwelling intensity, biogeochemistry, and N₂O flux to the atmosphere, and highlight the importance of repeat measurements in the same region to constrain N₂O interannual variability and cycling dynamics under different climate scenarios.

Plain Language Summary

Nitrous oxide is a greenhouse gas that is 300 times more potent than carbon dioxide in its ability to warm Earth, and it can be produced and consumed through the activities of microorganisms in the ocean. The low-oxygen waters of the Eastern Tropical South Pacific are a known global ‘hotspot’ for nitrous oxide cycling, as the chemical and physical conditions there provide fuel for nitrous oxide production. A natural climate cycle known as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation, which has a warm and cold phase, can affect the conditions that raise or lower the speed of nitrous oxide cycling. We used isotopes – small, but measurable natural differences in the masses of molecules and atoms – to understand how nitrous oxide cycling changes during each phase. We found a decrease in nitrous oxide accumulation during the warm phase, and enhanced production during the cold phase. This enhanced production is connected to more nitrous oxide being released to the atmosphere from the ocean during the cold phase.

Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data

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1. Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is a powerful greenhouse gas naturally formed in the ocean via microbial processes. N_2O has a greenhouse warming potential up to 300 times that of carbon dioxide (CO_2) on a per molecule basis, and is also the most prominent chemical agent contributing to the depletion of stratospheric ozone (Crutzen, 1970; Ravishankara et al., 2009). Global emissions of N_2O are dominated by terrestrial sources such agriculture and natural emissions from soils, however approximately 20% of all N_2O emitted to the atmosphere is derived from natural processes in marine environments (Thompson et al., 2014, 2019; Tian et al., 2020). Of those marine environments, regional oxygen (O_2) minimum zones (OMZs) and eastern boundary upwelling systems, such as the Eastern Tropical South Pacific (ETSP), are among the most significant sources of N_2O (Arévalo-Martínez et al., 2015; Nevison et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2020).

A characteristic OMZ includes a shallow, well ventilated mixed layer, underlain by a steep decreasing O_2 gradient, known as the oxycline, where N_2O is rapidly produced (Farías et al., 2009; Frey et al., 2020; Ji et al., 2015). Below the oxycline is the oxygen deficient zone (ODZ), a region of functional anoxia where fixed nitrogen is removed by denitrification and anammox (Bourbonnais et al., 2015; Cohen & Gordon, 1978; Kuypers et al., 2005; Ward et al., 2009), and N_2O is reduced to nitrogen gas (N_2) (Babbin et al., 2015; Bulow et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2020). It is at the oxic-anoxic boundary found between the base of the oxycline and the ODZ where the most intense N_2O cycling occurs, as N_2O can be both produced by nitrification and denitrification, and also consumed by denitrification (Bourbonnais et al., 2017; Casciotti et al., 2018).

Denitrification is the anaerobic stepwise reduction of nitrate (NO_3^-) or NO_2^- to nitrogen gas (N_2) via nitric oxide (NO) and N_2O . When the process does not go to completion, it can produce N_2O at high rates. The enzymes responsible for each step in denitrification are increasingly sensitive to dissolved O_2 concentrations, thus, incomplete denitrification can produce N_2O when nitrous oxide reductase is inhibited by the presence of dissolved O_2 (Bonin et al., 1989). It is thought that denitrification produces N_2O at rates up to 2 orders of magnitude higher than nitrification in the suboxic ocean ($[\text{O}_2] < 20 \mu\text{M}$; Babbin et al., 2015; Frey et al., 2020; Ji et al., 2015). In the functionally anoxic regions ($[\text{O}_2] < 5 \mu\text{M}$) of the water column, consumption of N_2O via denitrification dominates its cycling, leading to a local minima in N_2O concentration, but N_2O production may continue to occur (Casciotti et al., 2018; Cohen & Gordon, 1978; Elkins et al., 1978; Kelly et al., 2021; Monreal et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2020; Suntharalingam & Sarmiento, 2000).

In oxic waters, N₂O production is largely linked to nitrification (Elkins et al., 1978; Nevison et al., 2003; Yoshinari, 1976), and it is recognized that ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) represent the dominant oceanic nitrifiers and sources of N₂O in the oxygenated ocean (Francis et al., 2005; Frey et al., 2020; Santoro et al., 2011; Toyoda et al., 2019). AOA may produce N₂O through multiple pathways, including a putative “hybrid mechanism,” combining nitrogen atoms sourced from ammonium (NH₄⁺) – derived from the degradation of organic matter – and from nitrite (NO₂⁻) to produce N₂O (Frame et al., 2017; Frey et al., 2020; Kozłowski et al., 2016; Löscher et al., 2012; Santoro et al., 2011; Stein, 2019; Stieglmeier et al., 2014). Rates of hybrid N₂O production appear to represent more than 70% of N₂O produced from NH₄⁺ in OMZs (Frey et al., 2020; Ji et al., 2015; Santoro et al., 2021). Ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) may also produce N₂O, but the role AOB play in oceanic N₂O production appears to be small (Francis et al., 2005; Löscher et al., 2012; Santoro et al., 2010). The N₂O yields from AOA and AOB have been shown to increase under high NO₂⁻ and low O₂ concentrations (Frame & Casciotti, 2010; Frey et al., 2020; Ji et al., 2018; Löscher et al., 2012; Santoro et al., 2021). Thus, organisms involved with both nitrification and denitrification can produce N₂O at significant rates in suboxic waters; however, their relative contributions on a global scale remain unresolved (Martinez-Rey et al., 2015).

Of the ocean’s three primary OMZs, the ETSP OMZ is believed to be the single largest natural oceanic source of N₂O, and its biogeochemical dynamics are sensitive to interannual variability, such as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO; Ji et al., 2019; Llanillo et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2017, 2020). ENSO oscillates approximately every two to seven years and shifts the spatial distribution of biologically limiting nutrients, dissolved O₂, and microbial community composition in the equatorial Pacific Ocean through alterations to the dominant ocean circulation patterns (Espinoza-Morriberón et al., 2019; Llanillo et al., 2013; Mogollón & Calil, 2017). These shifts in ocean circulation modulate the ventilation of the upper ocean and organic matter supply in the tropical Pacific Ocean, which in turn, alters the cycling and emissions of N₂O (Babbin et al., 2020; Espinoza-Morriberón et al., 2019; Ji et al., 2019; Mogollón & Calil, 2017; Thompson et al., 2014). In climate model simulations, the more oxic conditions and decreased organic matter (OM) supply in near-shore waters of the ETSP OMZ during El Niño have been predicted to decrease the rates of suboxic processes like denitrification, which could decrease overall N₂O production and consumption (Mogollón & Calil, 2017; Yang et al., 2017). The opposite scenario would be expected during La Niña, with an expanded ODZ volume and increased OM supply increasing N₂O production and consumption in the oxycline and ODZ, respectively (Yang et al., 2017).

Projections of increased ocean deoxygenation, as well as increased frequency and intensity of ENSO events, have significant implications for ocean biogeochemistry with potential repercussions to N₂O cycling and emissions to the atmosphere (Babbin et al., 2020; Cai et al., 2014, 2015; Horak et al.,

2016; Schmidt et al., 2017; Stramma et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2017). The distinct oceanographic conditions observed during both phases of ENSO can be harnessed as natural experiments of modified ocean biogeochemistry and circulation. We hypothesized that the expanded low oxygen waters, enhanced upwelling, and greater substrate availability in shallower waters during La Niña, compared to El Niño, could increase the overall production of N₂O through both denitrification and nitrification in the oxycline, and increase the N₂O flux to the atmosphere.

N₂O is composed of numerous isotopocules, molecules that differ only in their isotopic composition. As N has two stable isotopes, ¹⁴N and ¹⁵N, and O has three stable isotopes, ¹⁶O, ¹⁷O, and ¹⁸O, the primary isotopocules of N₂O are ¹⁴N-¹⁴N-¹⁶O, ¹⁵N-¹⁴N-¹⁶O, ¹⁴N-¹⁵N-¹⁶O, ¹⁴N-¹⁴N-¹⁷O, and ¹⁴N-¹⁴N-¹⁸O, where ¹⁵N-¹⁴N-¹⁶O and ¹⁴N-¹⁵N-¹⁶O are also referred to as ‘isotopomers’, or isotopic isomers. The stable isotope ratios of nitrogen (¹⁵N/¹⁴N) and oxygen (¹⁸O/¹⁶O) in N₂O, are reported relative to standards atmospheric N₂ and VSMOW, respectively, using delta notation, where $\delta = (R_{N_2O}/R_{std} - 1) * 1000$ (‰). The bulk values of $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ are affected by the substrate’s isotopic composition and isotopic fractionation associated with chemical or enzymatic reaction. The isotope ratios thus serve as powerful tools to elucidate the N₂O cycling mechanisms, as each process imparts predictable isotopic fractionation on water column N₂O (Ostrom et al., 2007; Schmidt et al., 2004; Sutka et al., 2006; Toyoda, 2002; Toyoda et al., 2005). Due to the asymmetrical linear geometry of N₂O, the distribution of ¹⁵N between isotopomers that contain ¹⁵N in the inner (alpha: α) versus outer (beta: β) nitrogen atoms provide an independent constraint from the isotopes of N₂O beyond the bulk compositions of nitrogen and oxygen isotopes (Schmidt et al., 2004; Sutka et al., 2006; Toyoda et al., 2005; Toyoda & Yoshida, 1999). The difference in $\delta^{15}N$ of the inner and outer atoms in N₂O is known as site preference ($SP = \delta^{15}N^{\alpha} - \delta^{15}N^{\beta}$), and this value is thought to reflect the mechanism of N₂O production and consumption.

Through analysis of the isotopocules of N₂O, nitrate (NO₃⁻), and nitrite (NO₂⁻), in conjunction with supporting hydrographic and biogeochemical data, such as temperature, salinity, nutrient, and dissolved oxygen concentrations, we evaluated the mechanistic underpinnings of N₂O cycling in the ETSP during both ENSO states. Understanding the role ENSO has on N₂O cycling and emissions is imperative, as each ENSO event represents an altered climate-ocean dynamic that has occurred in the past or can occur in the future. To our knowledge, this work is the first to directly compare N₂O cycling under both phases of ENSO in the ETSP OMZ using isotopic measurements.

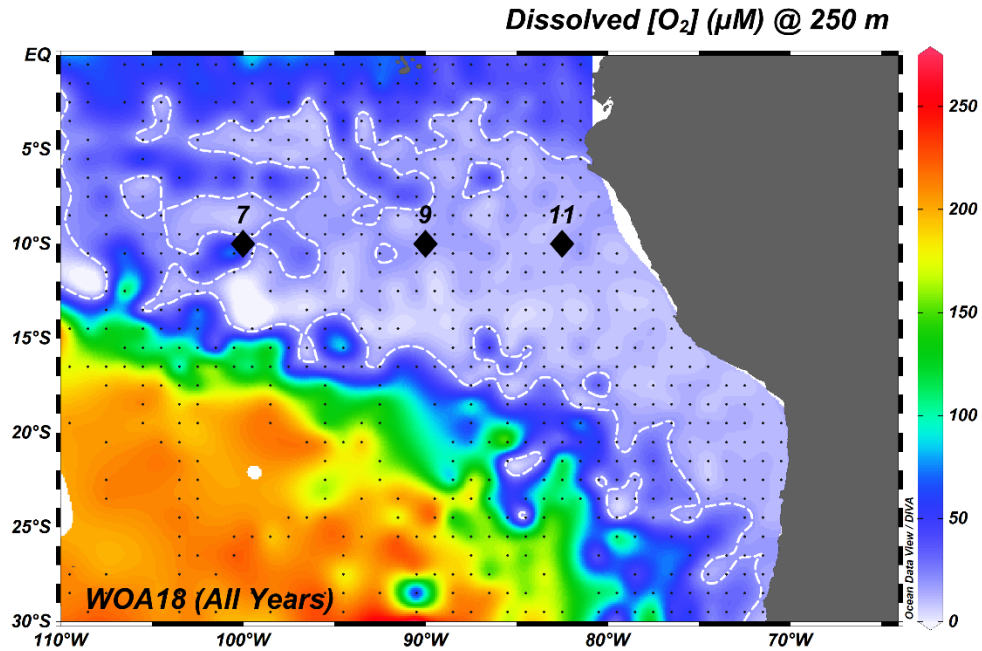


Figure 1: Map of stations analyzed along 10 °S (black diamonds): Station 7 (100 °W), Station 9 (90 °W), and Station 11 (82.5 °W) overlain on dissolved oxygen concentrations (μM) at 250 m from World Ocean Atlas 2018 (WOA18), using yearly averaged data from the entire climatology, illustrated using DIVA interpolation. The limit of suboxic waters ([O₂] < 20 μM) is illustrated in a dashed white contour line, and the locations of grid points from WOA18 are shown in black dots.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Cruise and N₂O Sampling Details

Samples for N₂O isotopes were collected from the ETSP OMZ aboard the R/V *Atlantis* (Cruise AT15-61) from January to March 2010 and R/V *Melville* (Cruise MV1104) from March and April 2011 (Knapp et al., 2016; Santoro et al., 2021). Three stations were evaluated for this work along 10 °S: Station 7 (100 °W), Station 9 (90 °W), and Station 11 (82.5 °W) (Fig. 1). Each cruise collected N₂O concentration and isotopocule samples at the same stations, with greater vertical sampling resolution during the 2011 cruise. The 2010 and 2011 cruises utilized a 24 and 36 Niskin bottle CTD rosette, respectively. N₂O samples were collected through silicone tubing directly into Wheaton 160 mL glass serum bottles (Wheaton prod. no. 223748) and overflowed twice before filling. The tubing was removed, and a 1 mL headspace was introduced into each bottle before capping with a grey butyl septum (MicroLiter Analytics Prod #20-0025). After collection, 100 µL of saturated mercuric chloride was added to each bottle and then resealed with the grey butyl septum and an aluminum crimp seal. Samples were stored in the dark at room temperature until analysis.

2.2 N₂O Isotopic Analysis

All 247 N₂O samples from the 2010 cruise were analyzed soon after the cruise at the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution in 2010 using a Thermo Fisher Scientific Delta^{PLUS} XP isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) over approximately one month. Samples collected in the 2011 cruise were analyzed at Stanford University over three different analytical years and with two different instruments: a Delta^{PLUS} XP, used in 2012 and 2014, and a Thermo Fisher Scientific DeltaV Plus IRMS used in 2017. Of the 440 samples analyzed from the 2011 cruise, 324 (73.6%), 59 (13.4%), and 57 (13%) samples were analyzed in 2012, 2014, and 2017, respectively.

In all cases, samples were extracted and analyzed using a custom automated purge and trap inlet system and normalized to an injection of calibrated pure N₂O reference gas introduced prior to the elution of each sample peak (McIlvin & Casciotti, 2010). Isotope ratios were referenced initially to the calibrated N₂O reference tank to create a set of ‘ratio of ratios’ ($^{31}\text{R}_{\text{sample}}/^{31}\text{R}_{\text{reference}}$, $^{45}\text{R}_{\text{sample}}/^{45}\text{R}_{\text{reference}}$, $^{46}\text{R}_{\text{sample}}/^{46}\text{R}_{\text{reference}}$). Next, the data were size corrected in reference to a calibrated 20 volt-second (Vs) peak area for a mass to charge ratio of 44 (m/z 44). Finally, ‘scrambling coefficients’ were applied to the isotopomer data to correct the measured $^{15}\text{R}^{\alpha}$ and $^{15}\text{R}^{\beta}$ for the rearrangement of nitrogen atoms in N₂O when the gas is ionized in the mass spectrometer ion source (Frame et al., 2014; Frame & Casciotti, 2010; Kelly et al., 2021). The isotope ratios of N and O atoms in N₂O, $^{15}\text{R}_{\text{sample}}$ or $^{18}\text{R}_{\text{sample}}$, respectively, are expressed in delta notation (δ), where the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are defined relative to the isotope ratios of

certified standards: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ or $\delta^{18}\text{O} = (R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000$. The R_{standard} values used for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are the ratios of $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ and $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ in atmospheric N_2 and Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW), respectively. Analytical precision for $\delta^{15}\text{N}^\alpha$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}^\beta$, SP, $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for 2010 data were 0.33‰, 0.39‰, 0.66‰, 0.12‰, 0.2‰, respectively, and 1.25‰, 1.03‰, 2.08‰, 0.52‰, 0.89‰ for 2011 data, respectively.

Inconsistencies in the isotopocule data between the 2010 and 2011 datasets became apparent when data interpretation began. To assess isotopic offsets between the two cruise years, deep water samples (herein defined as all samples below 1000 m) for $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$, SP, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ were evaluated. Samples from 2010 were plotted against those from 2011 found within five meters, and deviations from a 1:1 line were used to identify offsets. $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ values were higher in 2011 by approximately 1‰-2‰, except for three outliers that were about 3‰-5‰ below 2010 values, but the offset varied depending on the year the 2011 data were analyzed. SP had more variance in both directions from the 1:1 line, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was consistently 2‰ higher in the 2011 samples than in 2010. Following the intercalibration methods used in (Mohn et al., 2014), we identified two potential methods for post-analysis corrections for N_2O isotopocules: an offset correction and a two-point correction. Ultimately, it was determined that an offset correction, using deep water isotopocule values as a comparative standard, would best serve our data correction needs. In this correction scheme, we averaged each isotopic value of N_2O for overlapping depths measured during the 2010 and 2011 cruises below 1000 m. We further broke the averages down for each analytical year for the 2011 measurements (2012, 2014, and 2017) and found the difference between each year's deep water isotopic values and the 2010 values. The difference was then applied as an offset to the 2011 cruise data to better resolve year to year differences in the N_2O isotopic measurements. The exact offset correction applied to the 2011 data can be found in the supplement (Table S1).

2.3 N_2O Concentrations

The N_2O concentration ($[\text{N}_2\text{O}]$) was also determined for each gas sample. The m/z 44 peak area for each sample was converted to a nmole quantity using a calibrated conversion factor between nmols of N_2O and peak area (Vs) of the mass 44 (McIlvin & Casciotti, 2010). Based on extraction system testing, the sample volume was assumed to be 153.8 ± 0.5 mL (McIlvin and Casciotti, 2010). Repeat measurements of duplicate N_2O samples yielded average $[\text{N}_2\text{O}]$ precisions for Stations 7, 9, and 11 of 0.54 nmol/L and 2.45 nmol/L for 2010 and 2011, respectively, and were previously reported (Santoro et al., 2021)

2.4 N₂O Air-Sea Flux

Air-sea N₂O flux calculations were performed for each station during both ENSO phases using measured average mixed layer [N₂O], the expected [N₂O] at equilibrium with the atmosphere, and the 10-meter wind speed (Wanninkhof, 2014). Calculations were made using monthly averaged 10-meter wind speed data for the month leading up to each station's sampling date. Wind speed was derived using the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis 2 data product using four-time daily wind speed measurements and were averaged for the monthlong period (National Centers for Environmental Prediction, National Weather Service, NOAA, U.S. Department of Commerce, 2000). Atmospheric N₂O mixing ratios were derived from NOAA's Global Monitoring Laboratory (<https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/hats/insitu/cats/conc.php?site=mlo&gas=n2o>)

and converted to equilibrium [N₂O] using the surface salinity and temperature data derived from the CTD (Weiss & Price, 1980). If atmospheric N₂O data were not available for the same day that the station was occupied, then the closest date of sampling was used.

2.5 Isotopic Analysis of Nitrate and Nitrite

All NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ isotopic analyses were performed using a Thermo Fisher Scientific Delta^{PLUS} XP IRMS. For sample preservation, NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ samples were filtered at sea, and NO₂⁻ isotopic samples were treated with 2 M sodium azide in 20% acetic acid in a crimp sealed 20 mL vial (McIlvin & Altabet, 2005). The NO₂⁻ sample preservation method, known as the "azide method," converts NO₂⁻ to N₂O which can then be analyzed on an IRMS (McIlvin & Altabet, 2005). During analysis, the produced N₂O was purged from the vial, cryogenically trapped, and analyzed on the IRMS. Samples were corrected against NO₂⁻ isotopic standards RSIL-N20, N7373, and N10219 made from sodium nitrite salts converted in parallel at sea (Casciotti et al., 2007). Nitrite isotope samples are reported in delta notation, where $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_2^-$ are in reference to atmospheric N₂ and VSMOW, respectively. Precision for $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_2^-$ in both 2010 and 2011 were approximately 0.2‰ and 0.3‰, respectively.

Nitrate isotope samples for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ were analyzed in duplicates, at minimum, using the 'denitrifier method' which involves the microbial reduction of NO₃⁻ to N₂O (Casciotti et al., 2002; Sigman et al., 2001). These data are also reported in delta notation in reference to atmospheric N₂ and VSMOW, and samples were analyzed alongside reference material with known isotopic values (USGS32, USGS34, and USGS35). Samples were treated with sulfamic acid to remove NO₂⁻, if present (Granger & Sigman, 2009). Analytical precisions for $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ were 0.20‰ and 0.14 ‰ for 2010 and 2011, respectively, and precisions for 2010 and 2011 $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ were 0.37‰ and 0.18‰, respectively.

2.6 El Niño-Southern Oscillation

The warm and cold phases of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), known as El Niño and La Niña, respectively, are defined through the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Ocean Niño Index (https://origin.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/analysis_monitoring/ensostuff/ONI_v5.php). ENSO events are determined when sea-surface temperature (SST) anomalies in the central equatorial Pacific region, known as Niño 3.4, are ± 0.5 °C over a 3-month running mean, using the previous 30 years as a baseline (NOAA's Climate Prediction Center, n.d.). Using the running mean of SST anomalies for the Niño 3.4 region for both cruise years, 2010 and 2011, they were defined as moderate El Niño and La Niña events, respectively.

3. Results

3.1 Study Site Characteristics

Stations 7, 9, and 11 during both cruise years maintained ODZ-like properties, such as having two N₂O maxima separated by a local minimum in N₂O concentrations, coinciding with the lowest dissolved O₂ concentrations (Fig. 2). These stations were also characterized by sustained suboxia ([O₂] < 20 µM) below the mixed layer into intermediate waters. Upwelling velocities, calculated using beryllium-7 (⁷Be) measurements, were high at these stations (1.09-2.95 m d⁻¹) compared to other stations measured along 20 °S (0-0.33 m d⁻¹) during the same expeditions, suggesting greater supply of “new” nutrients to the euphotic zone at 10 °S (Berelson et al., 2015; Fuenzalida et al., 2009; Haskell et al., 2015).

The oxycline bases for Stations 9 and 11 were found at shallower depths during La Niña (75 m - 80 m) compared to El Niño (125 m - 200 m; Fig. 2). As a result, thicker ODZs were found during La Niña at Stations 9 and 11 compared to El Niño, and ODZ ventilation for all three stations occurred between 600 m and 700 m. At all stations during both years, a shallow N₂O concentration maximum was found at the base of the oxycline, with maximal oxycline N₂O concentrations ranging from 75 nM to 145 nM (Fig. 2). At Station 7, the most offshore station, a larger N₂O maximum was found in the oxycline during El Niño compared to La Niña despite having comparable oxycline depths during both ENSO states (Fig. 2A). However, the impacts of ENSO do not appear to have a substantive impact on the hydrographic features at Station 7, overall. At Stations 9 and 11, the [N₂O] maximum at the base of the oxycline was larger, and shallower, during La Niña than during El Niño.

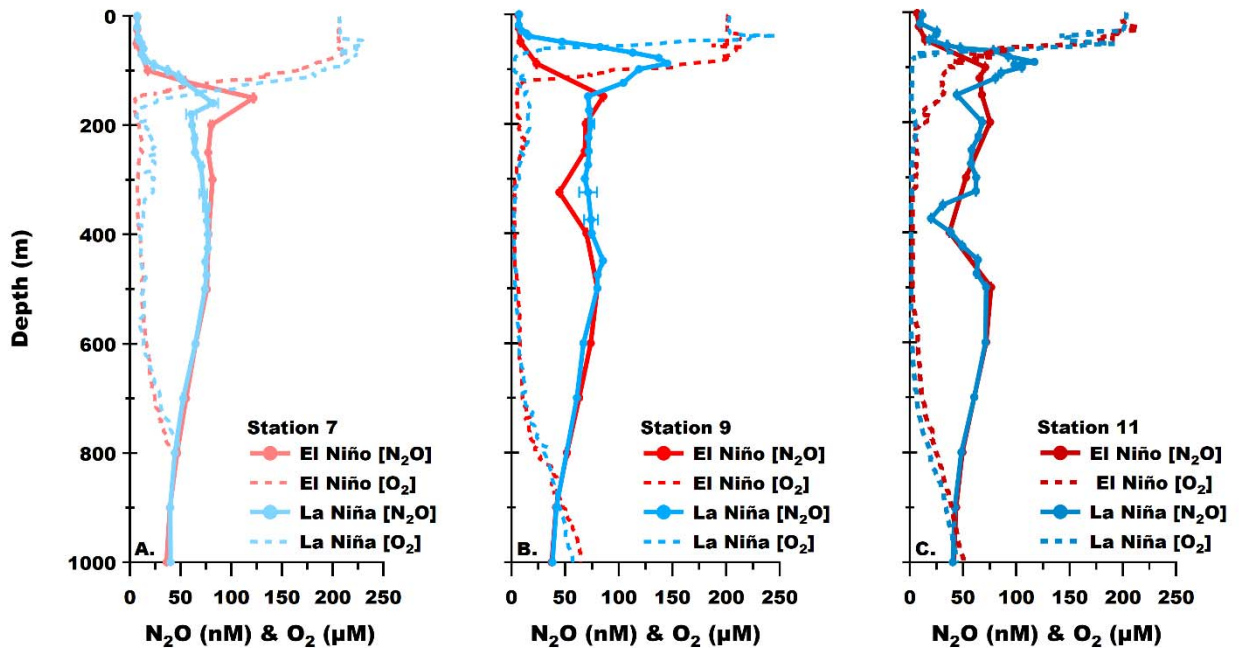


Figure 2: Dissolved N_2O (nmol/L; solid lines) and O_2 ($\mu\text{mol/L}$; dashed lines) concentrations for A) Station 7; B) Station 9; and C) Station 11. El Niño measurements are in shades of red, while La Niña measurements are in shades of blue.

A primary nitrite maximum (PNM) was observed at each station, ranging from $1 \mu\text{M}$ – $2 \mu\text{M}$ (Santoro et al., 2021). During El Niño, the PNM was found at greater depths moving westward, occurring at 40 m at Station 11 and 150 m at Station 7, with concentrations ranging from $1.2 \mu\text{M}$ - $1.4 \mu\text{M}$. During La Niña, the PNM features were generally at lower potential density horizons and shallower depths, at 35 m-80 m depth, with concentrations ranging from $1 \mu\text{M}$ - $2 \mu\text{M}$. A secondary nitrite maximum (SNM), indicative of functional anoxia, was found at Station 11 during both years, but only during El Niño at Station 9. At Station 11, the SNM reached $2.1 \mu\text{M}$ and $1.8 \mu\text{M}$ during El Niño and La Niña, respectively. A small, but measurable third nitrite peak of $0.5 \mu\text{M}$ was observed at Station 11 at 150 m during La Niña, where a sharp decrease in N_2O concentration was also measured. At Station 9 during El Niño, a SNM of $0.4 \mu\text{M}$ was observed at 325 m. Significant concentrations of ammonium between $1 \mu\text{M}$ - $2.5 \mu\text{M}$ were also measured at all stations in both years, however, no ammonium measurements were made at Station 7 during El Niño (Santoro et al., 2021).

3.2 Upper Ocean N₂O Inventory and Atmospheric Flux

Apparent differences in the upper ocean N₂O inventory for Station 7, 9, and 11 led us to quantify the depth-integrated N₂O concentrations for comparison between stations and sampling campaigns (Fig. 3). Integrations were performed from 0 to 100 m at Stations 7, 9, and 11 using a trapezoidal Riemann sum. Because no measurement was made at 100 m at Station 9 during El Niño, we interpolated a value at 100 m between measurements made at 90 m and 150 m, to make comparable interpretations. N₂O accumulation was greater at every station during La Niña compared to El Niño, with Station 9 having a six-fold higher N₂O accumulation: from approximately 1 mmol/m² during El Niño to 5 mmol/m² during La Niña. While comparable in magnitude, N₂O accumulation at Station 11 was lower than Station 9, despite Station 11 being the closest station to the coast where N₂O cycling is presumably the most intense. Only a minor increase in N₂O accumulation was observed at Station 7 between El Niño and La Niña, as O₂ concentrations remained high during both years in the upper 100 m, thus limiting the difference in N₂O production between years.

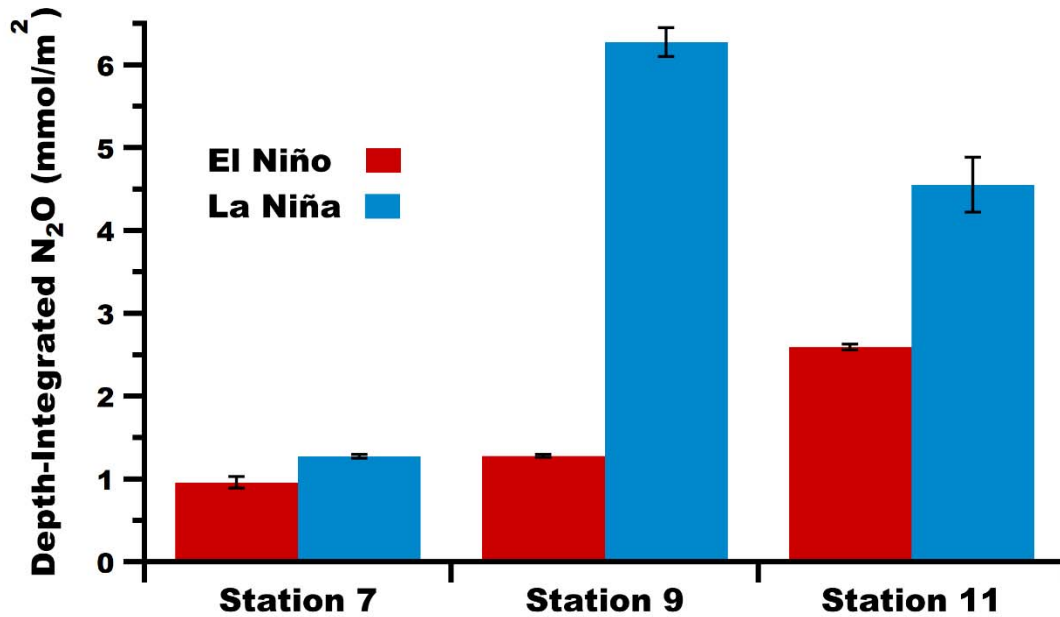


Figure 3: Depth-integrated N₂O during El Niño (red) and La Niña (blue) calculated to 100 m for Stations 7, 9, and 11.

Given comparable winds, higher N₂O accumulation in the upper 100 m and in the mixed layer should increase the N₂O flux to the atmosphere during La Niña relative to El Niño. Expanding on N₂O flux estimates from 2010 reported earlier (Santoro et al., 2021), estimated N₂O fluxes were up to two

orders of magnitude greater during La Niña than during El Niño (Table 1). Station 11 had the largest N₂O flux of 22.2 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ during La Niña, which is primarily driven by the 173% saturation of [N₂O] at the surface.

Year	Station	Flux ($\mu\text{mol/m}^2/\text{d}$)
El Niño (2010)	7	1.5 (1.4-1.7)
	9	0.6 (0.5-0.6)
	11	4.3 (3.9-4.8)
La Niña (2011)	7	6.7 (6.1-7.5)
	9	6.5 (6.0-7.3)
	11	22.2 (20.3-24.8)

Table 1: Air-Sea fluxes of N₂O from all three stations during both ENSO phases. Surface N₂O concentrations for flux calculations were derived using the average mixed layer N₂O concentrations. Range of uncertainty given in parentheses is based on a 20% error associated with the Schmidt number.

3.3 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of Nitrite and Nitrate

During La Niña, trends of increasing $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ and decreasing $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_2^-$ were observed from the surface into the oxycline at Station 9 (Fig. 4A). In contrast, NO₂⁻ isotopes at Station 11 during La Niña were relatively constant, ranging from -10.9‰ to -14.2‰ and 12.1‰ to 10.7‰ for $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_2^-$, respectively (Fig. 4B). The one exception to this trend at Station 11 during La Niña was at 60 m where the $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ increased to -3.2‰, which could be associated with enhanced nitrite reduction, or lower rates of nitrite oxidation. During El Niño, the lower nitrite concentrations and sampling resolution meant that only one measurement for $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_2^-$ was made for each of Stations 9 and 11 in the upper 100 m (Fig. 4, S1). The $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_2^-$ measured during El Niño was similar to those values measured during La Niña, while $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_2^-$ was higher at Station 9 and lower at Station 11 (Fig. 4, S1).

The vertical distributions of $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ in the upper water column were impacted by ENSO in parallel with changes in chemical and physical properties, like the oxycline and density layers being found shallower in the water column during La Niña (Fig. 4, Fig. S1). Station 7 NO₃⁻ isotopes were similar between ENSO events, maintaining a surface maximum followed by a general decrease with depth (Fig. S2G). No changes were observed in $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ or $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ at ODZ depths at Station 7, which is consistent with the lack of variation in N₂O concentration and isotopes between ENSO phases at this station. At Stations 9 and 11, high surface $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ were found during both ENSO events, however, the decrease in $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ occurred at shallower depths and followed a

steeper gradient during La Niña (Fig. 4B, C). In fact, the shallow NO_3^- isotope minimum was measured 90 m shallower at Station 9 during La Niña compared to El Niño (Fig. 4B). Both $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_3^-$ were elevated within the ODZ at Stations 9 and 11 during El Niño, consistent with nitrate reduction occurring within the ODZ. A similar level of heavy isotope enrichment was observed during La Niña at Station 11, but less so at Station 9. The depths where elevated $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_3^-$ values were found corresponded with the lowest $[\text{N}_2\text{O}]$ in the ODZs, supporting the impact of denitrification on water column N species distributions. Though the nitrate isotope profiles shoaled during La Niña, $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_3^-$ appear to be significantly less sensitive to the contrasting biogeochemical impacts imparted by each ENSO state, relative to N_2O .

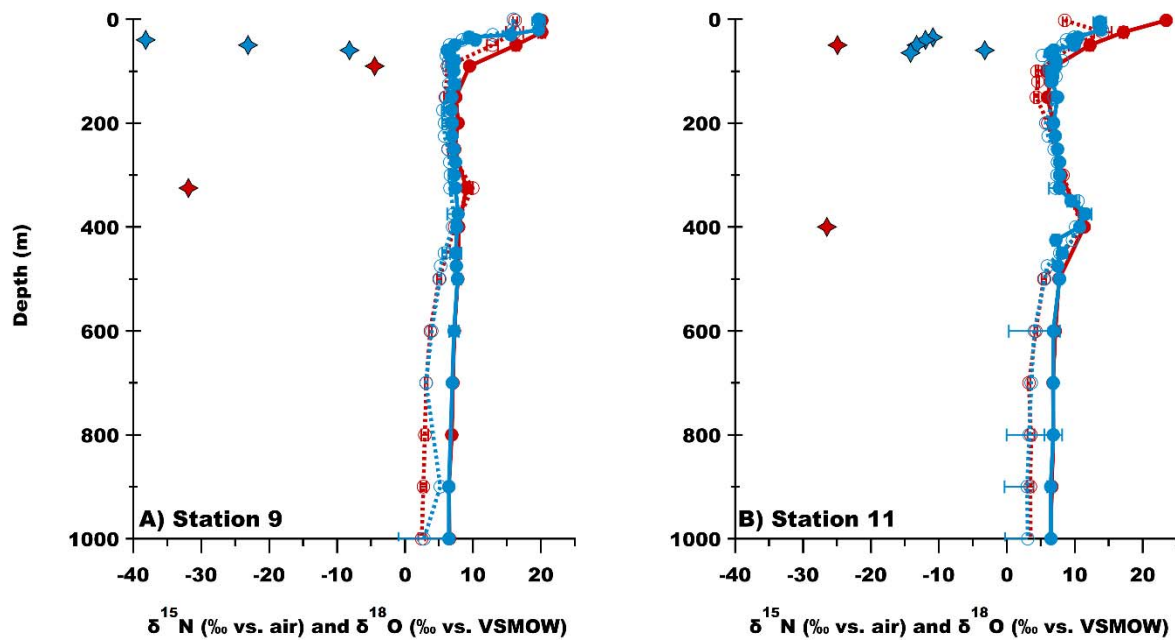


Figure 4: Station 9 (A) and Station 11 (B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_3^-$ (filled circles, solid line), $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_3^-$ (open circles, dashed line), and $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_2^-$ (diamonds). Data from El Niño (red) and La Niña (blue).

3.4 Isotopic Composition of N_2O

At each station in both years, surface $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$, closely reflected the isotopic composition of atmospheric N_2O , ranging from 5.8 - 6.8‰ (Fig. 5B). $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ generally decreased to subsurface minima, ranging from 2.8‰ to 5‰, coinciding with the near surface $[\text{N}_2\text{O}]$ maxima. For Stations 9 and 11, distinct increases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ were observed from the shallow $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ minimum to their ODZ maxima, found between 325 - 400 m (Fig. 5). Conversely, the increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ at Station 7 was more gradual and did not exhibit a defined peak in the ODZ (Fig. S2B). A unique shallow $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ maximum was found at 150 m at Station 11 during La Niña, corresponding to increases in other isotopocule measurements and a

decrease in N₂O concentration. This feature is sandwiched between two lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ values and larger N₂O concentration measurements, thus, potentially reflecting intrusion of anoxic waters that had experienced N₂O consumption.

Similar to $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$, mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ values in surface waters generally reflected that of atmospheric N₂O, averaging 45.5‰ in both years (Fig. 5C). At all stations during El Niño, and Station 7 during La Niña, $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ slightly decreased from the surface to 40-43‰ near 100 m, then gradually increased to maximum values of 55-80‰ in the ODZ, where [N₂O] decreased (Fig. S2, S3). During La Niña, $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ initially decreased to a minimum at 50 m at Station 9 and then increased to 48.6‰ at 100 m, below the [N₂O] maximum at 90 m. Station 11 during La Niña demonstrated the most variability in the upper 100 m, and it had the largest observed $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ of 94‰ in the ODZ (Fig. S3). Also at Station 11 during La Niña, a significant near surface $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ peak of 79.5‰ at 150 m coincided with the reduction in N₂O concentration and elevated $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ mentioned above.

The distribution of $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ in both years was tightly coupled to the distribution of $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ (Fig. 5E). During both years, $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ values decreased from near-surface values to minima (6-9.5‰) in the oxycline, above the [N₂O] maximum. Local maxima in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ occurred at 90 m at Station 9 and 150 m at Station 11 during La Niña. Subsurface $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ maxima (17.3-31.6‰) coincided with water column [N₂O] minima in the anoxic core of the ODZ at Station 11 (Fig. 5). These $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ maxima also coincided with elevated $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$, likely representing N₂O consumption.

Surface values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ were typically low, ranging between -4.5‰ and -1‰, which span the expected atmospheric value of -3.3‰. From there, $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ decreased into the [N₂O] maxima at Stations 9 and 11 during La Niña, whereas $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ values slightly increased at the [N₂O] maximum during El Niño. The minima in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ seen at Stations 9 and 11 corresponded with lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ and higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ values in the upper 100 m (Fig. 5, S3). Low $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ values are often observed within oxygen deficient waters. Indeed, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ values reached their overall minima with the ODZ coinciding with marked decreases of [N₂O] in both ENSO phases at Station 11. Thus, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ minima found in oxycline waters at Stations 9 and 11 during La Niña (where high N₂O accumulation was measured) may result from a different set of processes that will be further addressed below (Fig. S3).

Site preference (SP) values in surface waters ranged from approximately 13.8 - 21.4‰, which span the atmospheric value of 19‰ (Mohn et al., 2014). A subsurface SP minimum found near the base of the oxycline at each station ranged from 5.5 - 9.2‰, with the lowest SP observed in the oxycline at Station 11 during La Niña. During La Niña, high SP values (20 - 44‰) were found at 150 m and within the ODZ, coinciding with marked reductions in N₂O concentrations, as well as elevated $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ and

$\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ values (Fig. S3). At Station 9 in La Niña, however, the SP maximum at 90 m coincided with the station's near-surface N_2O concentration maximum and corresponded with a local maximum in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ and minimum in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ (Fig. 5E & 5F).

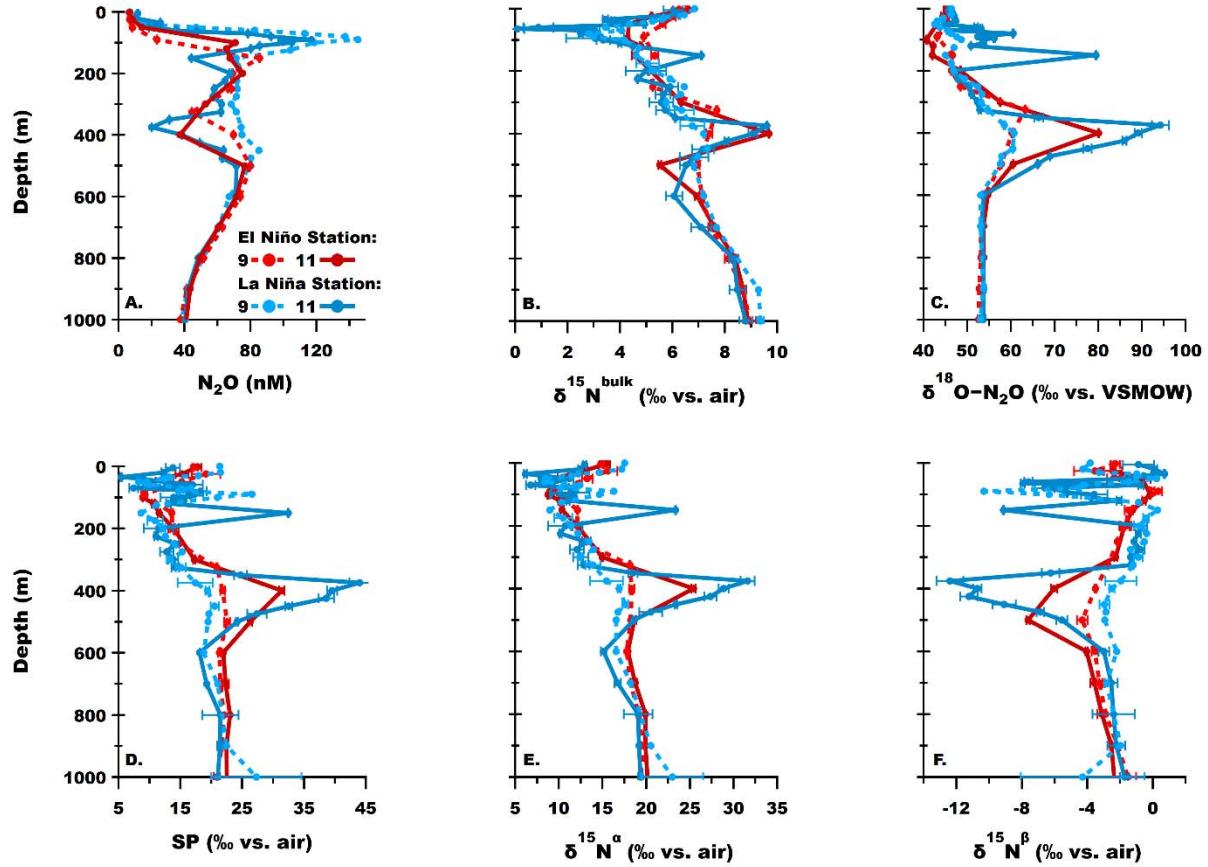


Figure 5: N_2O A) concentrations (nM); B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ (‰ vs. air); C) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰ vs. VSMOW); D) SP (‰ vs. air); E) $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ (‰ vs. air); and F) $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ (‰ vs. air) illustrated for Stations 9 (90 °W; dashed line) and 11 (82.5 °W; solid line) during El Niño (red) and La Niña (blue).

4. Discussion

4.1 La Niña Shoaling Increased N_2O Flux and Accumulation

Our data demonstrated a 100-fold increase in the estimated N_2O flux to the atmosphere (Table 1) and up to a six-fold increase in accumulated N_2O in the upper 100 m of the water column between El Niño and La Niña (Fig. 3), as major biogeochemical features like the N_2O maximum corresponding with the oxycline base were shoaled into this layer (Fig. 2). During El Niño, the trade winds weakened, resulting in the return of warm, salty surface waters to the eastern Pacific, a deepening of the mixed layer, and slowed coastal upwelling. The opposite occurred during La Niña, where enhanced upwelling

transported sub-surface N₂O into shallower depths. Similarly, N₂O at shallower depths were likely upwelled into the mixed layer leading to the increase in N₂O fluxes during La Niña. Atmospheric backtracking demonstrated a significantly greater N₂O flux in our study region during La Niña compared to El Niño (Babbin et al., 2020); our results provide a complementary ocean-based view of these findings. Whether the larger accumulation of N₂O in the upper 100 m during La Niña is due to transport alone or also due to alterations to the pathways of N₂O formation are evaluated below.

4.2 Limited N₂O Cycling in Surface and Oxycline Waters During El Niño

Although limited by lower sample resolution, little isotopocule heterogeneity was observed above the oxyclines at Stations 9 and 11 during La Niña, as well as in and above the Station 9 and 11 oxyclines during El Niño (Fig. 5). In these regions, similar isotopocule values and trends indicate similar sources with low N₂O production rates due to the low N₂O accumulation. Generally, N₂O in these waters had lower $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$, SP, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}^a$ values relative to atmospheric N₂O with increasing depth, while $\delta^{15}\text{N}^b$ increased. These same isotopocules in the El Niño oxyclines of Stations 9 and 11 corresponded with lower N₂O accumulation relative to La Niña. The moderate SP (9.1‰-17.1‰; Fig. 5D) and low $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$ (Fig. 5C) observed in the El Niño oxyclines does not point to a single specific N₂O source. While prior studies have shown N₂O production rates from NH₄⁺ reached maximum values in the upper oxycline at Stations 9 and 11 during El Niño, indicating a role for hybrid N₂O production, rates of hybrid n₂o production can be up to 2 orders of magnitude lower than incomplete denitrification (Ji et al., 2015; Santoro et al., 2021). It is also possible that lateral mixing from more coastal waters -- where incomplete denitrification can produce N₂O with a low SP -- is influencing the isotopic composition of N₂O we observed in the oxyclines of Stations 9 and 11 during El Niño, as described in other work (Fig. 6; Ji et al., 2019). Finally, due to the significant deepening of the thermocline that occurs during El Niño, it is likely that local production of N₂O was diminished in the less steep oxycline during this time. Under these conditions, consumption of NH₄⁺ or organic matter would be concentrated in the upper oxycline waters where O₂ concentrations are still high enough to maintain low N₂O yields from ammonia oxidation. Thus, the combination of low N₂O accumulation and low isotopic heterogeneity in El Niño surface and oxycline waters and La Niña surface waters suggest limited local cycling of N₂O.

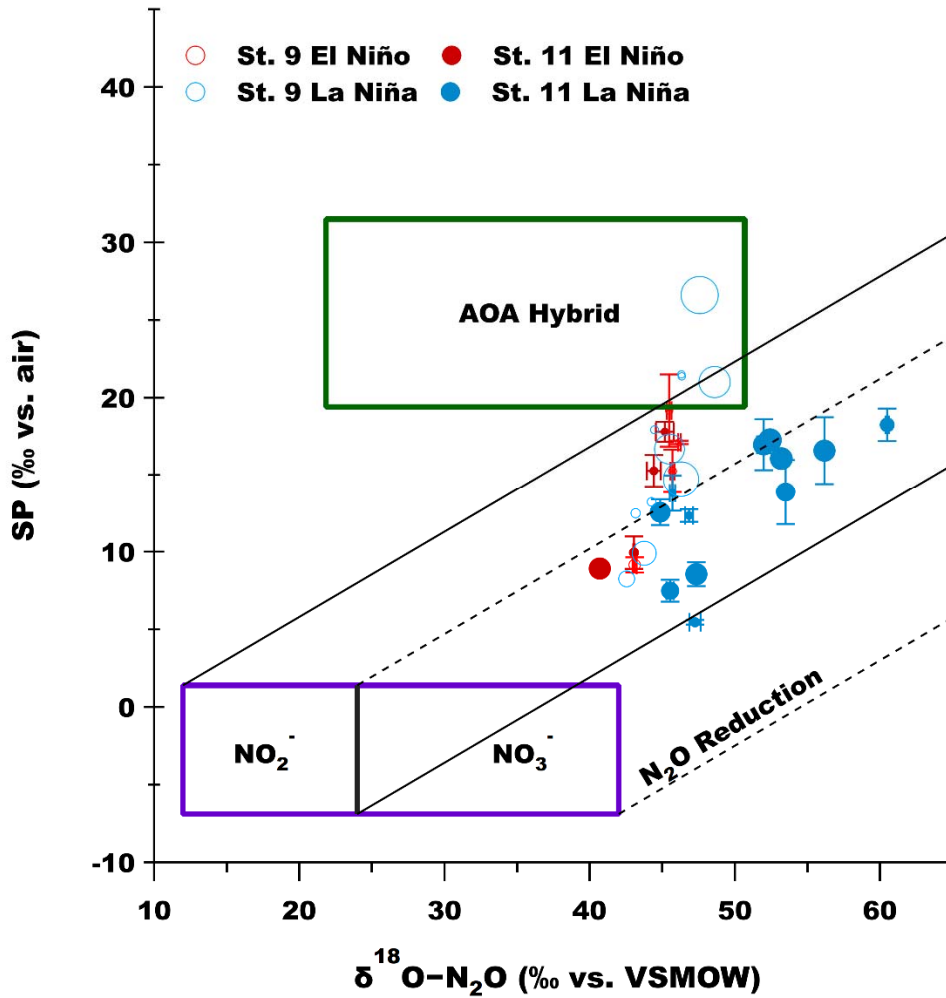


Figure 6. N₂O Isotope mixing plot for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ vs SP. Stations 9 and 11 samples from both ENSO states in the upper 100 m are illustrated. Marker sizes indicates N₂O concentration in nM ranging from 6.6 nM to 145.2 nM. Range of potential delta values for N₂O produced by AOA hybrid production (green box) and incomplete denitrification from NO₂⁻ (left purple box) or NO₃⁻ (right purple box) are shown. Known regression slopes for N₂O consumption from nitrite (black solid lines) and nitrate (dashed solid lines) are also illustrated.

4.3 Intense N₂O Cycling Through Multiple Pathways in Oxycline Waters During La Niña

We used our measured N₂O, NO₂⁻, and NO₃⁻ isotopic data data together with previously published SP values to examine the potential relative contributions of competing microbial N₂O production and consumption pathways (Fig. 6). The high accumulation of N₂O in the oxyclines of Stations 9 and 11 during La Niña demonstrated distinct isotopic values that point toward local production from incomplete denitrification with overprinting signals of hybrid production and/or N₂O consumption (Fig. 6). During

La Niña at Station 9, from the top of the oxycline at 50 m to the $[N_2O]$ maximum at 90 m, increases in SP and $\delta^{18}O-N_2O$ coincided with a decrease in $\delta^{15}N^{\beta}$ (Fig. 5C, D, F). Additionally, from 50 m to 60 m, the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_2^- significantly increased from -23.12‰ to -8.16‰, corresponding with the $N_2O-\delta^{15}N^{\beta}$ minimum found 5 m below (-7.9‰; Fig. 5B). The increased $\delta^{15}N-NO_2^-$ indicates that NO_2^- reduction likely superseded NO_2^- oxidation there, as NO_2^- reduction causes ^{15}N enrichment in NO_2^- (Martin & Casciotti, 2016), whereas NO_2^- oxidation exhibits an inverse isotope effect (Casciotti, 2009), thus supporting a role for enhanced N_2O production from NO_2^- . At the same time, the SP values exceed that expected from incomplete denitrification, and suggest a role for an additional source from hybrid N_2O production (Fig. 6). Indeed, most of the points from the Station 9 La Nina oxycline fall within the mixing space between the hybrid pathway and denitrification of NO_3^- , or solely within the isotopic composition expected from hybrid N_2O production (Fig. 6). Recent modeling studies suggest that overall denitrification increases during La Niña in the ETSP due to a shoaling and expansion of low O_2 waters (Mogollón & Calil, 2017; Yang et al., 2017). Together, these effects could allow denitrifying organisms to utilize organic matter closer to the surface, where there is a greater organic matter flux, resulting in more production and consumption of N_2O via denitrification, thus corroborating our findings in our study.

Station 11 during La Niña exhibited signals of N_2O production from hybrid N_2O production and incomplete denitrification with evidence of partial N_2O consumption (Fig. 6). Consistently lower $\delta^{15}N^{bulk}$ (Fig. 5B) and increased $\delta^{18}O-N_2O$ values (Fig. 5C) between the surface and the $[N_2O]$ maximum of Station 11 during La Niña reflect a low substrate $\delta^{15}N$ and significant enrichment of ^{18}O in N_2O , respectively, two indications for N_2O production from the denitrification of NO_2^- or co-occurring production and consumption (Bourbonnais et al., 2017; Casciotti et al., 2018). The higher $\delta^{18}O-N_2O$ values measured at Station 11, compared to Station 9, during La Niña could represent: 1) a greater contribution of N_2O from NO_3^- relative to NO_2^- due to its larger branching isotope effects; 2) a small, but significant overprinting signal of N_2O consumption, or 3) a combination of these effects.

Most data from Station 11 during La Niña extend from between the nitrate and nitrite bounds or as a mixture of hybrid and incomplete denitrification, suggesting a potential combination of N_2O substrates and sources (Fig. 6). In particular, the low $\delta^{15}N^{\beta}$ and $\delta^{15}N^{bulk}$ values paired with the most elevated $\delta^{18}O-N_2O$ point toward incomplete denitrification as a significant production mechanism. Specifically, the low $\delta^{15}N^{bulk}$ and $\delta^{15}N^{\beta}$ values in the oxycline could represent NO_2^- as a key source of N_2O due to the low $\delta^{15}N-NO_2^-$ values measured. The $\delta^{15}N-NO_2^-$ values in the oxycline during La Niña ranged from -38.2‰ to -8.16‰ and -14.18‰ to -3.22‰ at Stations 9 and 11, respectively (Fig. 4A, B), thus representing an ^{15}N -depleted pool that would decrease $\delta^{15}N^{bulk}$ and $\delta^{15}N^{\beta}$ values in N_2O . In contrast, $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ values ranged from 5-20‰ over this depth range (Fig. 4). The cluster of Station 11 La Niña

data outside of the mixing bounds of the potential source boxes with $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{N}_2\text{O} > 50\text{‰}$ are unique to this station (Fig. 6). The enhancement of both $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and SP for these data likely results from N_2O consumption occurring on top of the background N_2O source mixture, whereas Station 9 data points during La Niña are found within the mixing bounds of hybrid production and incomplete denitrification sources.

In addition to denitrification, hybrid N_2O production likely also contributed to the accumulation of N_2O at Station 11 during La Niña (Fig. 6). In prior work, a relatively high rate of N_2O production from NH_4^+ was measured at 70 m in the Station 11 oxycline during La Niña ($0.156 \text{ nmol N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$; Santoro et al., 2021). Additionally, Station 11 in La Niña corresponded with the highest abundance of Water Column A ammonia monooxygenase genes (*amoA*), a genetic marker for AOA (Santoro et al., 2021). Thus, the easternmost station, where we observed the greatest variability of N_2O cycling in oxycline waters, also has a high potential for ammonia oxidation to N_2O due to an abundant AOA community.

While mixing between N_2O production from the hybrid mechanism and incomplete denitrification can partially explain the increase in SP (and $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{N}_2\text{O}$) in the oxycline waters of Stations 9 and 11, modeling work has also suggested that denitrification with a positive SP (25‰), which has been shown to occur for one strain of denitrifying bacteria (Toyoda et al., 2005), may play an important role in N_2O dynamics in ODZ regions (Casciotti et al., 2018; Kelly et al., 2021; Monreal et al., 2022). In this case, denitrification could itself explain the isotopic patterns. Alternatively, hybrid N_2O production by AOA could produce N_2O with a SP that is lower than 30‰. For example, AOA from soils were shown to produce N_2O with SP ranging from 20‰-30‰ (Jung et al., 2014). Although the enzymology and exact mechanism of this reaction have yet to be described, its hybrid nature implies that it could have a variable SP. This is because the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ difference between the alpha and beta nitrogen positions could be affected by independent variations in the oxidized and reduced substates combining to form hybrid N_2O . Thus, the production of N_2O via incomplete denitrification with a site preference, or hybrid N_2O production with a lower SP, cannot be excluded from consideration in the interpretation of N_2O isotopocule analysis in low O_2 waters. If this is the case, they could provide an explanation for the high measured SP values coinciding with elevated $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and low $\delta^{15}\text{N}^\beta$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ values found here. Finally, culture experiments have also demonstrated the ability for fungi produce to N_2O with a high SP of ~22-37‰ through a ‘denitrification-like’ pathway (Maeda et al., 2015; Rohe et al., 2014; Sutka et al., 2008). Indeed, fungi have been observed to account for as much as 50% of the total N_2O produced at certain depths in the low oxygen waters of the ETSP, thus representing a significant source of N_2O and potential driver for non-traditional expectations of N_2O isotopomers (Peng & Valentine, 2021).

4.4 The Dynamic Nature of N₂O at Station 11 during La Niña

We expanded on the results of the mixing diagram (Fig. 6) and applied an open and closed system irreversible kinetic Rayleigh model to determine what fraction of N₂O needed to be consumed via denitrification to explain the elevated SP and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values at Station 11 during La Niña. There, data points in the isotope mixing diagram were found outside of the source mixing bounds and must have incurred N₂O consumption (Fig. 6). The open system Rayleigh model (Eq. 2) assumes steady state, meaning that the N₂O we observed would be explained by the continuous balance of production and consumption signals. Alternatively, the closed system Rayleigh model (Eq. 3) assumes non-steady state whereby a parcel of N₂O is being consumed without replenishment.

$$\delta_{obs} = \delta_{predicted} + \varepsilon * [1 - f] \quad (2)$$

$$\delta_{obs} = \delta_{predicted} - \varepsilon * \ln(f) \quad (3)$$

We used measured isotopocule values within the source mixing bounds and values found outside of the source mixing bounds as our $\delta_{predicted}$ and $\delta_{observed}$ values, respectively. Depending on whether we used the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -N₂O or SP as our isotopocule values in the models and their associated isotope effects for N₂O consumption (ε), we calculated between 50-60% of the N₂O remained (f) after consumption using the closed system model and 30-50% of the N₂O remained after consumption using the open system model. Thus, given the cluster of Station 11 La Niña measurements found outside of the source mixing bounds with strongly negative $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ values, co-occurring production and consumption of N₂O must be occurring there to explain the N₂O isotopic composition. While the results of both Rayleigh model scenarios are plausible, modelling work has shown that ODZ environments may not be in steady-state, and thus, the results of closed system model may be more representative of the amount of N₂O consumption that has occurred at Station 11 during La Niña.

Parallel measurements on these cruises indicate non-steady state hydrographic conditions at Station 11 in 2011, during La Niña, which could explain the nature of N₂O concentrations and isotopocules measured there. For example, ⁷Be measurements were found to exceed the expected value for water below the mixed layer, and upwelling velocities were up to an order of magnitude higher than all other stations during La Niña, thus representing the potential for substantial bidirectional vertical movement (Haskell et al., 2013) (Haskell et al., 2015). Additional work from these cruises similarly found high variability for ²³⁴Th measurements in the upper 100 m at Station 11 during La Niña, also indicating non-steady state conditions. The “zig-zagging” nature of our N₂O isotopic profiles, such as $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -N₂O, at Station 11 during La Niña loosely mimics the variability observed in the ²³⁴Th measurements found in Haskell 2013, potentially representing similar physical mechanisms.

We suggest that the variable N₂O isotopic content found at Station 11 during La Niña also represents non-steady state conditions, whereby ODZ waters in which N₂O consumption via denitrification has occurred have mixed into the oxycline. The notion that low-oxygen waters with partial N₂O consumption may be interacting with more oxic waters during La Niña is not surprising due to the higher predicted rates of denitrification and generally greater kinetic energy and stronger upwelling velocities found during La Niña, which can respond rapidly depending on local fluctuations in wind patterns (Mogollón & Calil, 2017).

4.5 The Isotopic Composition of Accumulated N₂O

To better describe the impacts ENSO has on the sources of N₂O in the upper 100 m of the water column, we calculated a depth-averaged isotope value (δ_{avg}) for the accumulated N₂O at each station:

$$\delta_{avg} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\left(\frac{\delta_i \times [N_2O]_i + \delta_{i-1} \times [N_2O]_{i-1}}{2} \right) \times (z_i - z_{i-1}) \right]}{\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\left(\frac{[N_2O]_i + [N_2O]_{i-1}}{2} \right) \times (z_i - z_{i-1}) \right]} \quad (1)$$

where δ_i is the isotopic composition of N₂O measured for sample *i* at depth *z_i*, and [N₂O]_{*i*} is the N₂O concentration at that depth. The sum of these concentration-weighted isotopic values is then divided by the depth-integrated N₂O concentration for the depth range under consideration (Table 2).

We initially applied a Keeling model, a commonly used isotope and mass balance equation, to compute the isotopic composition of the produced N₂O from these data (Casciotti et al., 2018; Fujii et al., 2013; Yamagishi et al., 2007); however, there were evident violations of the model's assumptions, such as N₂O consumption. Comparing differences in the depth-averaged N₂O isotopic composition provides a holistic view of the net changes in accumulated N₂O in the upper 100 m between El Niño and La Niña conditions. As expected from inspection of the depth profiles (Fig. S2), the depth-averaged isotope calculations at Station 7 showed no substantive changes between El Niño and La Niña (Table 2). As described in Section 4.2, low N₂O accumulation coupled with low variability in the isotopocule measurements suggest little change in the rates and mechanisms of N₂O production at Station 7 between ENSO states. Here at Station 7, we rule out significant inputs from local denitrification as oxygen concentrations are most likely too high to support reductive processes. However, the isotopocule signals could be explained by a mixture of hybrid N₂O production and N₂O derived from denitrification, via long-range transport.

El Niño	$\delta^{15}N^{\alpha}_{avg}$	$\delta^{15}N^{\beta}_{avg}$	SP _{avg}	$\delta^{15}N^{bulk}_{avg}$	$\delta^{18}O_{avg-N_2O}$
Station 7	13.2 (0.1)	-1.6 (0.1)	14.8 (0.2)	5.8	45.4 (0.1)
Station 9	11.5 (0.2)	-0.9 (0.3)	12.4 (0.5)	5.3 (0)	44.2 (0.1)

Station 11	9.4 (0.1)	-0.5 (0.1)	9.9 (0.2)	4.5 (0)	41.6 (0.1)
La Niña	$\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}_{\text{avg}}$	$\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}_{\text{avg}}$	SP_{avg}	$\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}_{\text{avg}}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{avg}}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$
Station 7	12.5 (1.1)	-0.9 (0.8)	13.4 (1.9)	5.8	44.1 (0.4)
Station 9	12.3 (1.2)	-5.2 (1.0)	17.5 (2.3)	3.6 (0.2)	46.0 (0.2)
Station 11	10.1 (0.7)	-4.1 (0.4)	14.2 (1.1)	3.0 (0.3)	51.9 (0.2)

Table 2: Depth-averaged N₂O isotopocule values (in ‰) for the upper 100 m. Clear increases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{avg}}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ and SP_{avg} and decreases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}_{\text{avg}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}_{\text{avg}}$ occurred at Stations 9 and 11 from El Niño to La Niña, whereas, only minute changes were calculated at Station 7. Calculation uncertainties (in parantheses) were based on the standard deviation of each isotopic measurement, instead of the calculated δ_{avg} -values from Equation 1.

At Station 9, the depth-averaged $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ during La Niña were lower by 4.3‰ and 1.7‰, respectively, compared to El Niño. However, no significant change to $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ was observed. To achieve this, a source relatively depleted in ^{15}N must be contributing to $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ during La Niña, while a competing mechanism maintains a steady $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$. At the same time, there was a six-fold increase in the overall N₂O accumulation during La Niña from the previous year's El Niño, thus N₂O production is likely enhanced by the significantly steeper and shallower oxycline found during La Niña (Fig. 7). From this, we again propose N₂O production from mixed sources with the potential for NO₂⁻ to be an important substrate of N₂O in these waters to lower the $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ during La Niña, while hybrid production from AOA or partial N₂O consumption could be maintaining the $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ values. The combined effect of these processes on the isotopic composition of N₂O could support the intermediate SP and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ values found during La Niña where N₂O accumulation was enhanced (Fig. 6). The low N₂O accumulations found at Station 9 during El Niño, as well as its isotopocule signatures, appeared to be similar to Station 7, reflecting relatively low N₂O production in the upper 100 m.

The largest apparent difference in N₂O sources between ENSO phases occurred at Station 11. The depth-averaged $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ during La Niña was 10‰ greater than during El Niño, indicating a greater role for N₂O production and/or consumption from denitrification during La Niña. Similar to Station 9, $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ values were 3.6‰ and 1.4‰ lower, respectively, during La Niña. Despite the high N₂O concentrations, we believe that the higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ values observed during La Niña reflect co-occurring N₂O consumption overprinting strong production signals at Station 11 (Fig. 6). For example, at 80 m during La Niña, we observed increases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ and SP concurrent with a decrease in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$, which could be indicative of simultaneous N₂O production and consumption in suboxic waters ([O₂] = 7.2 μM) (Fig. 5; Bourbonnais et al., 2017; Casciotti et al., 2018). These conditions contrast with the upper 100 m

during El Niño, in which $[O_2]$ reached a minimum of $\sim 38 \mu M$. During El Niño, the calculated SP (9.84‰) and $\delta^{18}O-N_2O$ (41.38‰) achieved the lowest values observed for all stations in either ENSO event (Fig. S2C, D). Consequently, we suggest that hybrid N_2O formation and a lesser degree of N_2O consumption via denitrification resulted in the depth-averaged SP and $\delta^{18}O-N_2O$ values we found during El Niño (Bourbonnais et al., 2017; Casciotti et al., 2018; Ji et al., 2019).

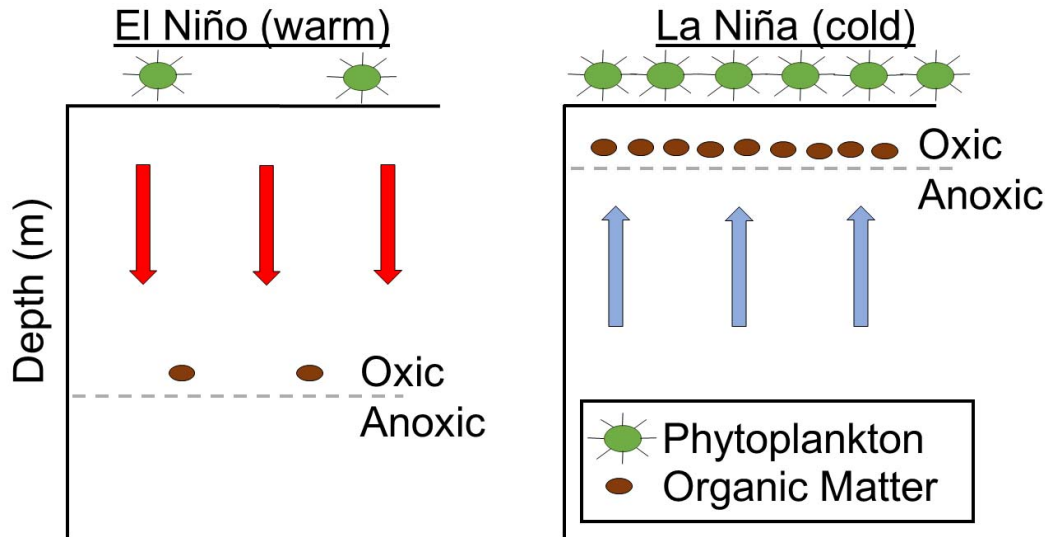


Figure 7: Idealized cartoon highlighting key hydrographic and biogeochemical differences between El Niño and La Niña. During El Niño, lower primary productivity (green phytoplankton) and organic matter (brown circles) accompany less upwelling and a deeper oxycline (dashed line), ultimately suppressing high N_2O production. The opposite is true during La Niña, when the oxycline is upwelled and more organic matter reaches low oxygen waters, leading to an increase in denitrification processes and greater N_2O accumulation in near-surface waters.

4.6 Impact of ENSO Event Intensity on N_2O Cycling

ENSO event strength (mild, moderate, or strong) has a significant influence on the net N_2O flux to the atmosphere from the tropical Pacific ocean (Babbin et al., 2020). The data from the current study allowed us to investigate how the relative intensity of an ENSO event influences the microbial sources of N_2O and its accumulation from the oceanographic perspective. We did this by comparing our data to other published N_2O concentrations and isotopocule data from a location approximately a half degree longitude to the east of Station 11, during 2015, a strong El Niño year (Ji et al., 2019). Similarity in accuracy of isotopic measurements between datasets was assessed by comparing N_2O isotopologues at deepest common depth (1000 m). Measurements between datasets were comparable and any differences were smaller than the difference in values between ENSO states.

The key N₂O concentration difference between the strong 2015 El Niño and the moderate 2010 El Niño is that in 2010, the [N₂O] maximum started at 100 m and stayed roughly at the same concentration (within 10 nM) until 200 m, where it then matched the 2015 data. In the upper 60 m of the water column, N₂O concentrations in the 2015 El Niño were more similar to our higher La Niña measurements than our 2010 El Niño measurements (Fig. S4A). The comparatively shallow oxycline in the 2010 El Niño likely allowed for N₂O production to occur closer to the surface, whereas the significantly depressed isopycnals and oxycline in 2015 (not shown) likely prevented strong N₂O production occurring in the upper 100 m.

The N₂O isotopic measurements during the strong El Niño followed similar trends to our moderate El Niño measurements in the upper 100 m at Station 11, although the values were offset. Generally, during both El Niño events, $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$ values were low ($<45\text{‰}$) and SP values decreased from the surface to 100 m (Fig. S4B). The Keeling model result (SP_{prod}) from the previous study in the ‘N₂O peak’ (45-500 m, 5-20 μM O₂, and NO₂⁻ $< 1 \mu\text{M}$) for all of their stations was also within 2‰ of our El Niño depth-integrated SP from 0-100 m and yielded the same $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$ as ours. Thus, we propose that lateral mixing from the more coastal OMZ where N₂O is being produced from denitrification is a more likely candidate for the low SP, in addition to an overprinting signal of local hybrid N₂O production, which would maintain the low $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$ (Fig. 6). This is in agreement with the findings from the earlier study (Ji et al., 2019). In contrast, incomplete denitrification and N₂O consumption likely contribute to the accumulation of N₂O in oxycline waters at Station 11 during La Niña, based on the elevated $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$ coincident with low $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ values. Comparing these findings with the results from a moderate and strong El Niño supports the hypothesis that denitrification plays a more significant role in the local cycling of N₂O during La Niña relative to El Niño.

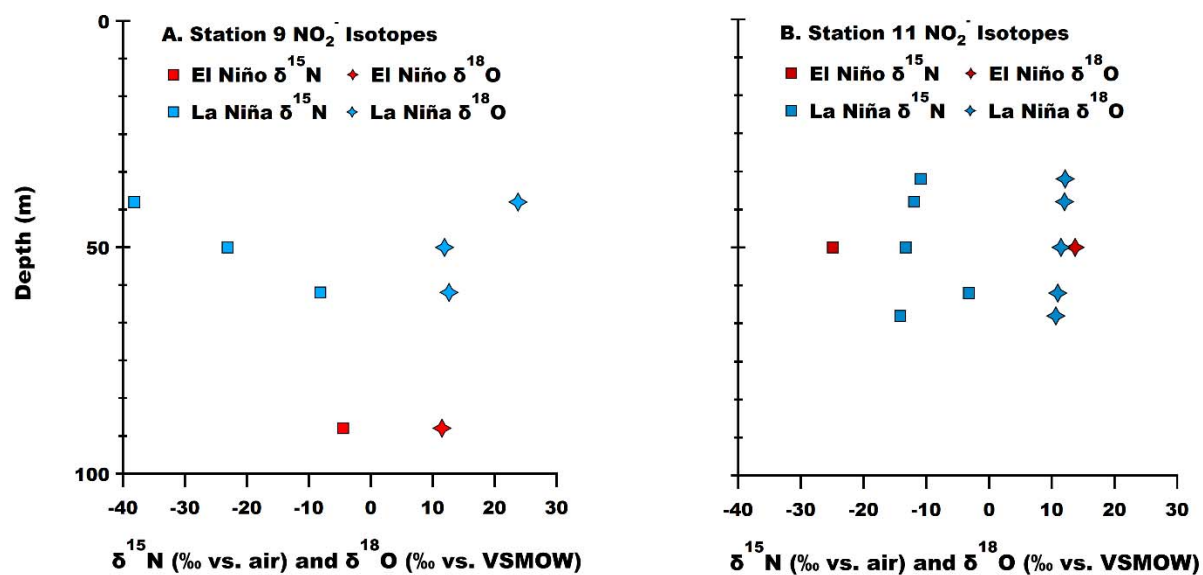
Finally, it is noteworthy to highlight the global impact that enhanced upwelling, manifested through varying physical mechanisms, has on N₂O cycling. Here, we found mixed N₂O sources partially derived from NO₂⁻ to play a substantial role, likely due to the shallower oxycline interacting with a greater organic matter supply to fuel greater nitrification and denitrification rates (Fig. 7; Yang et al., 2017). Similarly, Babbin et al. (2021) found enhanced upwelling during La Niña in the South Pacific to expand the total volume of suboxic waters, leading to large increases to the region’s overall N₂O flux to the atmosphere. Other recent studies in the Eastern Tropical North Pacific ODZ (Kelly et al., 2021; Monreal et al., 2022) and in the Tropical North Atlantic (Grundle et al., 2017) found the shoaling effects of eddies to increase total N₂O accumulation, with isotopocule signatures also pointing toward incomplete denitrification as a significant source. Further, the hypothesized upwelling of N₂O to more oxygenated waters from waters that previously experienced strong denitrification, were used to explain dramatic increases in $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$ and decreases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$, of similar magnitudes to those observed in our study

(Bourbonnais et al., 2017). Thus, the interpreted effects of La Niña (or El Niño) on N₂O cycling and accumulation could be extended to other marine environments where extended periods of altered upwelling can occur.

5. Conclusion

Measurements of N₂O concentrations and isotopocules from the strong oxygen gradients in the ETSP demonstrate distinct sources of N₂O between moderate El Niño and La Niña events. During El Niño, increasing $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ and decreasing $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ and SP values throughout the top 100 m at Station 7 and above the oxyclines at Stations 9 and 11 suggest a role for hybrid N₂O in local N₂O production, overprinting a remote denitrification signal. In contrast, La Niña oxycline waters had marked decreases in $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ and increases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ and point toward incomplete denitrification as a significant source. Again, if non-traditional isotopic assumptions are introduced into our interpretation, such as N₂O production from incomplete denitrification having a positive SP or hybrid production having a lower SP, then the significantly enhanced N₂O accumulation could also be explained via those mechanisms (Casciotti et al., 2018; Kelly et al., 2021; Monreal et al., 2022). Isotope mixing models and Rayleigh models also indicate that N₂O consumption must be taking place at Station 11 during La Niña, but are not necessary at the other stations during either ENSO event. Our interpretations of N₂O cycling during a moderate El Niño were also tested against a strong El Niño, where findings were quite similar: N₂O in the oxycline and peak was being produced at low rates likely from a hybrid mechanism, but with other potential overprinting signals such as mixing from allochthonous sources from more coastal waters. Ultimately, during El Niño, we found significantly reduced N₂O accumulation at Stations 9 and 11 and atmospheric fluxes up to two orders of magnitude lower, as all water column properties were subdued, and lower rates of N₂O production were occurring in the upper 100 m. This work highlights the power of repeat measurements in the same region to resolve N₂O dynamics in distinct climate scenarios, such as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation, and the need to continue such work to better understand the response of N₂O cycling to climatically relevant alterations to ocean biogeochemistry and circulation. Through this exercise, we strongly recommend that future investigations also consider a range of potential SP values from incomplete denitrification and hybrid production, as sources of N₂O.

680 **Supplementary Figures**



681
682 **Figure S1: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ -NO₂⁻ (squares) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -NO₂⁻ (diamonds) at Station 9 (A) and Station 11 (B). El Niño (red)**
683 **and La Niña (blue).**

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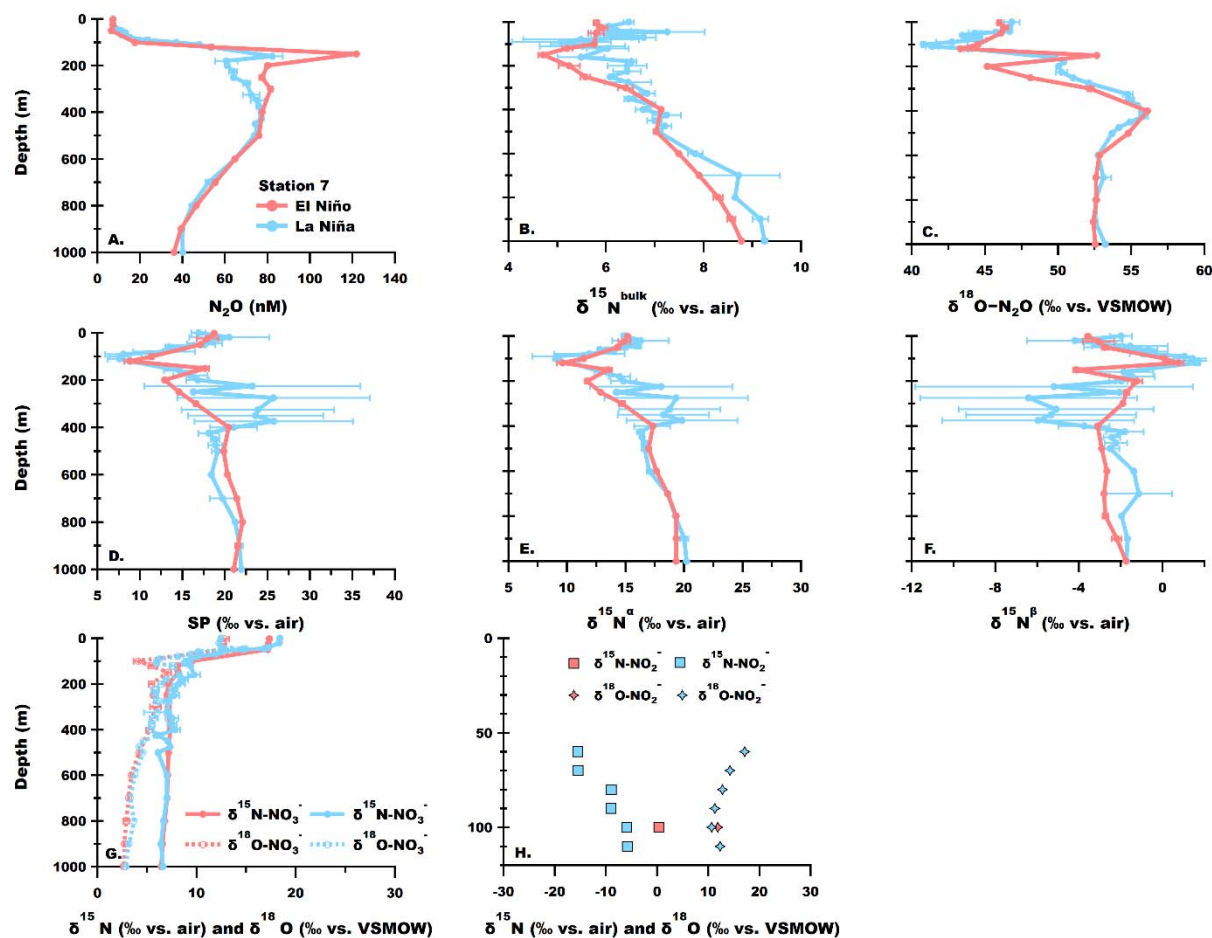


Figure S2: Station 7 El Niño (red) and La Niña (blue) N_2O A) concentrations (nM); B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$ (‰ vs. air); C) $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{N}_2\text{O}$ (‰ vs. VSMOW); D) SP (‰ vs. air); E) $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\alpha}$ (‰ vs. air); F) $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\beta}$ (‰ vs. air); G) $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_3^-$ (filled circles, solid line) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_3^-$ (open circles, dashed line); and H) $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_2^-$ (filled squares) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_2^-$ (filled diamonds) illustrated.

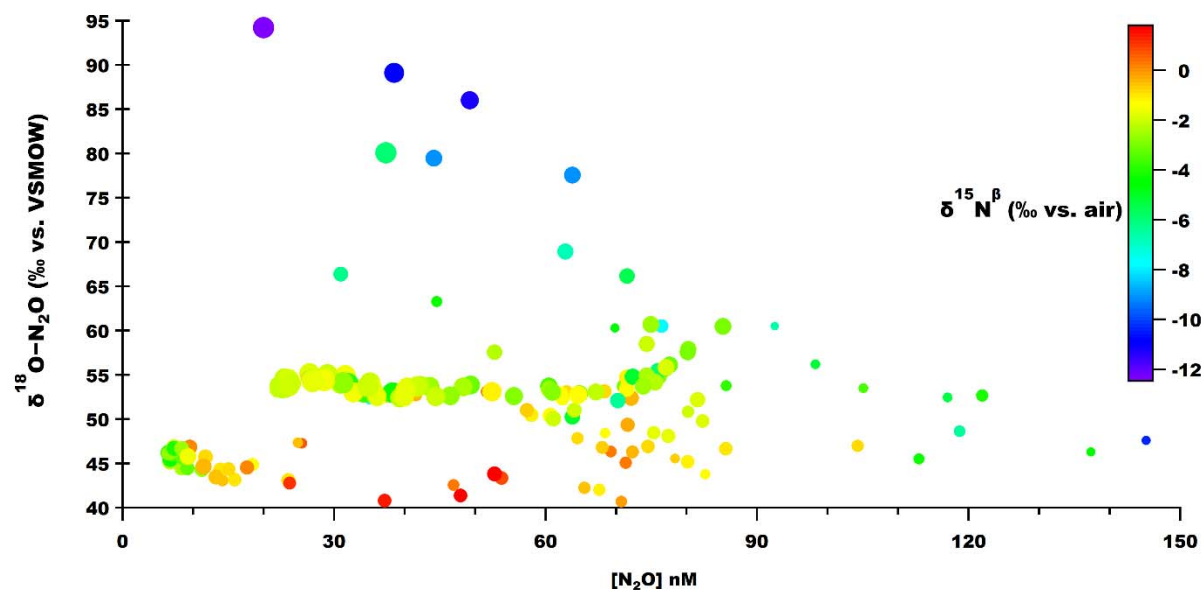


Figure S3: $\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}$ versus $[\text{N}_2\text{O}]$ plotted for all Stations 7, 9, and 11 measurements. Marker color is a function of $\delta^{15}\text{N}^\beta$ and marker size is a function of $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{bulk}}$.

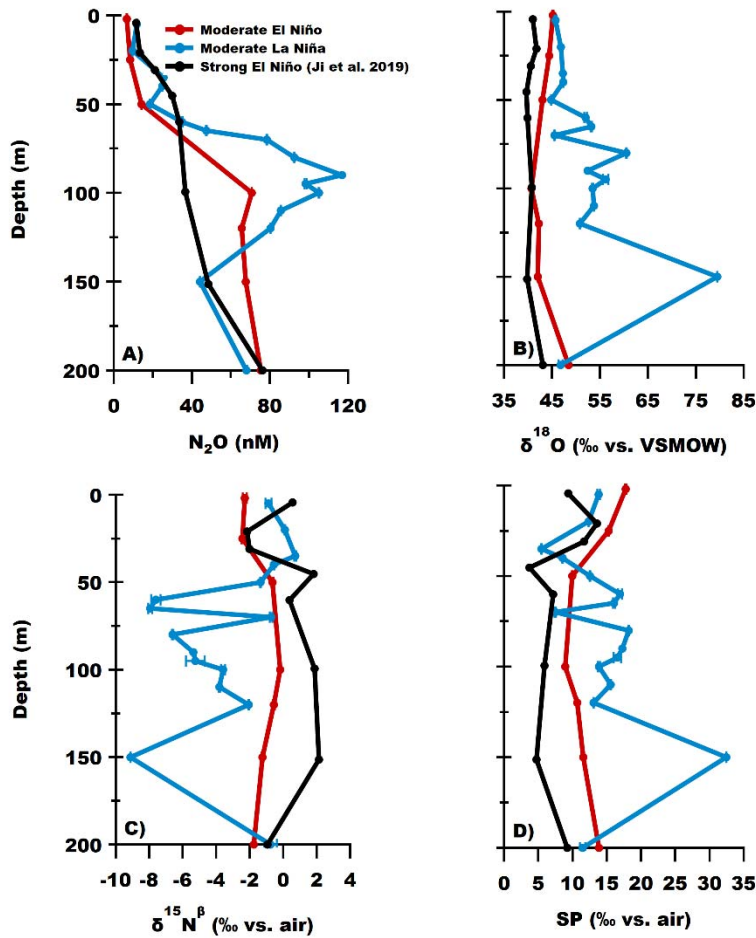


Figure S4: N₂O A) concentrations (nM); B) δ¹⁸O-N₂O (‰ vs. VSMOW); C) δ¹⁵N^β (‰ vs. air); D) SP (‰ vs. air) illustrated for Station 11 and nearby station from Ji et al. (2019). Our data from a moderate El Niño (red) and La Niña (blue) are shown along with the strong 2015 El Niño N₂O data (black; Ji et al., 2019). Most apparent differences between values occur from the oxycline (50 m) into the ODZ (200 m) from both El Niño events, compared to the La Niña.

Offset Correction (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N ^α	δ ¹⁵ N ^β	SP	δ ¹⁵ N ^{bulk}	δ ¹⁸ O-N ₂ O
2012	-0.37	-0.20	-0.17	-0.28	-1.65
2014	-0.25	-0.96	0.71	-0.61	-0.29
2017	-1.37	-1.53	0.16	-1.35	-1.80

Table S1: Offset correction performed on 2011 dataset using differences against 2010 deep water (1000 m-3000 m). Individual corrections were made for each isotopic variable of N₂O for a given analysis year due to annual variability.

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