Nitrate supply routes and impact of internal cycling in the North Atlantic Ocean inferred from nitrate isotopic composition

F. Deman 1,2 , D. Fonseca-Batista 1,3 , A. Roukaerts 1 , M. I. García-Ibáñez 4 , E. Le Roy 5 , E. P. D. N. Thilakarathne 1,6 , M. Elskens 1 , F. Dehairs 1 , and F. Fripiat 7

¹Analytical, Environmental, and Geochemistry, Earth System Sciences Research Group, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium.

²Unité d'Océanographie Chimique, Freshwater and oceanic science unit of research, Université de Liège, Liège, Belgium.

³Department of Biology, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada.

⁴Instituto de Investigaciones Marinas, IIM-CSIC, Vigo, Spain.

⁵Department of Marine Chemistry and Geochemistry, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, Massachusetts 02543, United States of America.

⁶Department of Animal Science, Uva Wellassa University, Badulla, Sri Lanka.

⁷Department of Geosciences, Environment and Society, Université libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium.

Corresponding author: Florian Deman (florian.deman@vub.be)

Key Points:

- □ Nitrate assimilation controls the nitrate isotopic composition in surface waters of the North Atlantic subpolar gyre.
- □ Nitrate isotopic composition reveals that nitrate is supplied from subpolar to subtropical gyre by Ekman transport and isopycnal mixing.
- □ N2 fixation and Mediterranean outflow have an impact on nitrate isotopic composition in the North Atlantic Ocean.

Keywords:

- □ Nitrate
- □ Isotopy
- ☐ Atlantic

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Abstract

In this study we report full-depth water column profiles for nitrogen and oxygen isotopic composition (δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O) of nitrate (NO₃⁻) during the GEOTRACES GA01 cruise (2014). This transect intersects the double gyre system of the subtropical and subpolar regions of the North Atlantic separated by a strong transition zone, the North Atlantic Current. The distribution of NO₃- δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O shows that assimilation by phytoplankton is the main process controlling the NO₃⁻ isotopic composition in the upper 150 m, with values increasing in a NO₃⁻ δ^{18} O versus δ^{15} N space along a line with a slope of one towards the surface. In the subpolar gyre, a single relationship between the degree of NO_3^- consumption and residual $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ supports the view that NO₃ is supplied via Ekman upwelling and deep winter convection, and progressively consumed during the Ekman transport of surface water southward. The cooccurrence of partial NO₃⁻ assimilation and nitrification in the deep mixed layer of the subpolar gyre elevates subsurface $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ in comparison to deep oceanic values. This signal propagates through isopycnal exchanges to greater depths at lower latitudes. With recirculation in the subtropical gyre, cycles of quantitative consumption-nitrification progressively decrease subsurface $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ toward the $\delta^{18}O$ of regenerated NO_3^- . The low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ observed south of the Subarctic Front is mostly explained by N2 fixation, although a contribution from the Mediterranean outflow is required to explain the lower $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ signal observed between 600 and 1500 m depth close to the Iberian margin.

1. Introduction

The biological carbon pump plays a crucial role in the regulation of Earth's climate and the distribution of biogeochemical properties in the ocean, by exporting to the deep ocean CO₂ that is fixed into biomass during photosynthesis in the sunlit surface layer, through the sinking of particles and their subsequent remineralization. Phytoplankton requires macro-nutrients for the synthesis of organic matter. Nitrogen (N) is considered as one of the most important nutrients since it limits productivity in many oceanic regions (Moore et al., 2013). The North Atlantic Ocean, which hosts one of the most productive spring phytoplankton blooms of the world's ocean (Longhurst, 2007), is estimated to be a significant contributor to the global oceanic export production (Falkowski et al., 1998; Sanders et al., 2014).

The North Atlantic Ocean is characterized by the classical double gyre system of the subtropical and subpolar gyres (Figure 1). Both gyres harbour contrasting physical and biogeochemical features (Sanders et al., 2014) and are separated by a strong transition area, the North Atlantic Current (NAC). In addition, the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) is a key

component of the Earth's climate system, with the NAC carrying a northward flow of warm and salty waters balanced by a southward flow of colder deep waters (North Atlantic Deep Water) (Buckley & Marshall, 2016). The North Atlantic subtropical gyre is considered to be a year-round stratified oligotrophic N-limited area (Moore et al., 2008, 2013), where N₂ fixation performed by diazotrophs plays an important role in providing fixed N (or bioavailable N) to the surface waters (Capone et al., 2005, 2008). In contrast, a strong seasonality is observed in the North Atlantic subpolar gyre. The relief of winter light limitation induces the onset of a spring phytoplankton bloom supported by nutrients supplied through deep winter convection and leads to a strong pulse in export production (Follows & Dutkiewicz, 2002; Harrison et al., 2013; Henson et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2011).

The oceanic inventory of fixed N is set by both inputs (mostly N_2 fixation) and outputs (mostly sedimentary and water-column denitrification) (Deutsch et al., 2007; DeVries et al., 2013; Gruber & Galloway, 2008). Within the ocean, the distribution of N into the different pools is controlled by oceanic circulation and internal cycle processes such as assimilation, remineralization (i.e., particulate N to ammonium) and nitrification (i.e., ammonium to nitrate). The majority of fixed N exists in the form of nitrate (NO₃-) and the coupled nitrogen (δ^{15} N) and oxygen (δ^{18} O) isotopic composition is a powerful tool to study both the oceanic budget and the internal cycling (δ^{15} N = ((15 N/ 14 N)_{sample} / (15 N/ 14 N)_{ref} – 1), expressed in ‰ with atmospheric N₂ as the reference; δ^{18} O = ((18 O/ 16 O)_{sample} / (18 O/ 16 O)_{ref} – 1), expressed in ‰ with Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) as the reference). Measurable changes in NO₃- δ^{15} N and NO₃- δ^{18} O are induced by N transformations that occur with different degrees of kinetic fractionation. The latter are expressed as isotope effects (ϵ) defined by the ratio of reaction rates at which the two isotopes are converted from reactant to product (i.e., $^{15}\epsilon$ (‰) = (1-(15 k/ 14 k)) for N and $^{18}\epsilon$ (‰) = (1-(18 k/ 16 k)) for O, where x k is the conversion rate coefficient for the x N or x O-containing reactant).

NO₃⁻ isotopic measurements are still scarce and only a few studies have been performed in the subpolar and inter-gyre regions of the North Atlantic Ocean (Marconi et al., 2017, 2019; Peng et al., 2018; Van Oostende et al., 2017). In the present study we report full-depth water column profiles for nitrogen and oxygen isotopic composition of NO₃⁻ along the GEOTRACES GA01 transect (hereafter referred to as GEOVIDE). The main objectives are to understand (i) how NO₃⁻ is supplied into and exchanged between the subpolar and subtropical gyres, and (ii) the impacts of biological activity such as NO₃⁻ assimilation, N₂ fixation and remineralization-nitrification on the NO₃⁻ pool.

2. Material and methods

The GEOVIDE cruise took place from 15 May to 30 June 2014 on board the R/V 'Pourquoi pas?' along the OVIDE transect in the North Atlantic Ocean (from the Iberian margin to Greenland) and across the Labrador Sea (from Greenland to Newfoundland) (Figure 1; see also Sarthou et al., 2018). The complete water column was sampled at 78 stations using a rosette equipped with a SBE 911 CTD and 24 Niskin bottles. Temperature, salinity and oxygen were measured from surface to bottom while seawater samples for biogeochemical measurements were collected from bottom to surface during the first deployment of the rosette (Lherminier & Sarthou, 2017; Zunino et al., 2017). Additional samples were collected during a subsequent rosette deployment to achieve a greater vertical resolution in the upper 200 m of the water column (see Supporting Information Table S1).

At each station concentrations of nitrite ([NO₂-]) and nitrate ([NO₃-] being calculated from ([NO₃-]+[NO₂-]) - [NO₂-]) of the full-depth water column samples were analysed onboard using a Seal Analytical AutoAnalyserIII and standard colorimetric methods (Grasshoff et al., 1999; Perez et al., 2018). Additional samples from the subsequent rosette deployment (upper 200 m) were filtered (Acrodiscs; 0.2 μm porosity) and stored at -20°C for nutrient analysis at the homebased laboratory (AMGC, VUB, Brussels, Belgium) using a Seal Analytical QuAAtro39 and the same standard colorimetric methods. The standard deviation and detection limit for [NO₃-] were 100 nmol l⁻¹ and 90 nmol l⁻¹, respectively (Fonseca-Batista et al., 2019; García-Ibáñez et al., 2018).

Nitrate isotope samples were collected throughout the depth of the water column at 12 selected stations (Figure 1). Seawater was filtered (Acrodiscs; 0.2 μ m porosity), stored in HDPE bottles pre-rinsed with sample water and kept frozen at -20°C until analysis. At the home-based laboratory, NO₃- δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O were determined for all samples with [NO₃-] $\geq 2 \mu$ mol l⁻¹, using the denitrifier method (Casciotti et al., 2002; Sigman et al., 2001). Briefly, denitrifying bacteria (*Pseudomonas chlororaphis ssp. aureofaciens*) were used to quantitatively reduce 20 or 30 nmol of NO₃- into N₂O prior to measurement by gas chromatography/isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC/IRMS, Thermo DeltaV), using a custom-build 'purge and cryo-trap' system similar to the one described by Casciotti et al. (2002). Measurements were referenced to atmospheric N₂ (for δ^{15} N) and VSMOW (for δ^{18} O) using international NO₃- certified reference materials: IAEA-N3 (δ^{15} N = +4.7 ‰; δ^{18} O = +25.6 ‰) and USGS-34 (δ^{15} N = -1.8 ‰; δ^{18} O = -27.9 ‰) (Böhlke et al., 2003; Gonfiantini et al., 1995). Nitrite (NO₂-) was removed from the samples by reaction with sulfamic acid prior to the NO₃- isotope analyses to avoid any interference with NO₃-

(Granger & Sigman, 2009). Sulfamic acid was also applied to NO₃⁻ certified reference materials to ensure that no contamination originated from this treatment. Since measurements of NO₃⁻ δ¹⁸O are sensitive to NO₃⁻ concentration (Weigand et al., 2016), NO₃⁻ reference materials were diluted using low-nutrient Sargasso Sea surface water to generate standards with concentrations that bracket the ones of the samples. Any trend between the measured $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ of the two certified reference materials bracketing the concentrations of the samples were used to generate a linear regression to correct for any concentration effect (Marconi et al., 2015; Weigand et al., 2016). Samples (n = 302) were analysed in duplicate, yielding median standard deviation values (1 SD) of 0.13 % and 0.25 % for $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$, respectively (see Supporting Information Table S1). Previous studies in the subtropical gyres corrected for the effect of salinity-driven depth variation in the δ^{18} O of seawater on NO_3 - δ^{18} O (Knapp et al., 2008; Fawcett et al., 2015), using a linear relationship between salinity and δ^{18} O of ambient seawater (Bigg & Rohling, 2000) and assuming that most of the NO_3^- is nitrified in situ (i.e., $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ being set by H_2O $\delta^{18}O + 1.1$ %). Given the much smaller variations in salinity in our study (i.e., 0.3), this correction (i.e., 0.17‰) is below our precision for $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ and is, therefore, not considered further.

3. Results

The Subarctic Front (SAF), roughly centered around 50°N and associated with the central branch of the NAC, separates colder and fresher waters of the subpolar gyre from warmer and saltier waters of the subtropical gyre (Figure 2a,b), characterized by a counter-clockwise and clockwise circulation, respectively (Daniault et al., 2016; Rossby, 1996; Zunino et al., 2017). These two gyres have contrasting biogeochemical and physical properties, with the subpolar gyre being well ventilated with nutrient-rich deep ocean waters due to winter vertical mixing and Ekman upwelling, and the subtropical gyre having low-nutrient surface waters which are isolated from the deep ocean by a permanent thermocline (Figure 2c). The GEOVIDE hydrographic transect intersects different regions of the North Atlantic Ocean (Figure 1): the subtropical gyre south of the SAF (stations 1, 13, 17 and 21; red) and the subpolar gyre north of the SAF comprising the Iceland basin (stations 26, 32 and 38; green), the Irminger basin (stations 44 and 48; yellow) and the Labrador basin (stations 64, 69 and 77; blue). Despite the limited number of stations, a transition from the subpolar to subtropical gyre was clearly observed for NO_3 - concentration, $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$ and $\Delta(15$ -18) (i.e., NO_3 - $\delta^{15}N$ - NO_3 - $\delta^{18}O$; Rafter et al., 2013) (Figure 3).

 $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ were relatively homogenous at depths ≥ 1500 m (hereafter referred to as "deep ocean"; Figure 3b,c), with average values of 4.87 \pm 0.13 ‰ and 1.98 \pm 0.28 ‰ respectively, implying a $\Delta(15\text{-}18)$ of 2.89 \pm 0.31 ‰ (Figure 3d). These deep ocean values are in good agreement with values reported for other North Atlantic sectors (Fawcett et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2008; Marconi et al., 2015, 2019; Peng et al., 2018).

Stations located in the subpolar gyre (stations 26 to 77) presented relatively constant $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ values between 150 m depth and the seafloor, indistinguishable from the deep ocean signature (4.87 \pm 0.13 ‰; p-value > 0.1), independent of the basin or depth range considered (Figure 3b; Table 1). $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ at stations south of the SAF (stations 1 to 21) was generally lower between 150 and 600 m depth (4.41 \pm 0.14 ‰) compared to the deep ocean (p-value < 0.001; Table 1), reaching a $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ minimum around 300 m (ranging from 4.13 to 4.32 ‰). A relatively low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ (4.65 \pm 0.17 ‰) was also observed between 600 and 1500 m south of the SAF (p-value < 0.001; Table 1). However, this feature was mostly observed at stations 1 and 13 (4.54 \pm 0.12 ‰, p-value < 0.001), with stations 17 and 21 presenting values close to the deep ocean signature (Table 1).

Despite a larger scatter apparent in the profiles, $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ did exhibit a different trend from the one of $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$. $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ increased from the deep ocean (1.98 \pm 0.28 ‰) to 150 m depth, associated with decreasing NO_3^- concentration (Figure 3a,c). This increase in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ was largest for stations located south of the SAF, reaching up to 4.50 ± 0.28 ‰ at 150 m depth. The Irminger and Labrador basins presented the smallest increase in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ toward the surface, reaching only 2.55 ± 0.17 ‰ at 150 m depth, while $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ increased to 3.27 ± 0.27 ‰ in the Iceland basin. This contrasting vertical evolution of $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ towards the surface led to deviations of $\Delta(15-18)$ relative to the deep ocean value (Figure 3d). For the stations located south of the SAF, the decrease in $\Delta(15-18)$ was driven by the combined increase in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ and decrease in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ only.

In the upper 150 m, both $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ increased up to 12.4 ‰ and 14.0 ‰ respectively (Figure 3b,c), while NO_3^- concentration decreased towards the surface (Figure 3a). Note that NO_3^- concentration was below the detection limit of the denitrifier method (< 2 µmol I^{-1}) for most of the surface samples south of the SAF (i.e., upper 40 m at stations 1 to 21) and in the Labrador basin (i.e., upper 20 m at stations 69 and 77) (Figure 1; Supporting Information Table S1). Therefore, no surface nitrate isotope data are presented for these stations.

4. Discussion

4.1. Upper ocean nutrient dynamics from the subpolar to the subtropical gyre

4.1.1. Nitrate assimilation and Ekman transport in the upper ocean layer

In the upper 150 m, the negative correlation between NO_3^- concentration and both $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ reflects the kinetic isotopic fractionation during NO_3^- assimilation (Figure 3a,b,c). NO_3^- assimilation by phytoplankton preferentially incorporates ^{14}N into biomass, leaving the residual NO_3^- pool enriched in ^{15}N (Sigman et al., 1999; Wada & Hattori, 1978). This also holds for O isotopes, with the preferential conversion of ^{16}O compared to ^{18}O , but with the particularity that O atoms are not incorporated into biomass (i.e., NO_3^- being first converted to ammonium and then to organic N) (Granger et al., 2004, 2010; Karsh et al., 2012, 2014).

 NO_3^- assimilation discriminates against the N and O isotopes to the same extent ($^{15}\epsilon \sim ^{18}\epsilon$), as observed in laboratory culture experiments (Granger et al., 2004, 2010; Karsh et al., 2012) and field studies (DiFiore et al., 2009; Fawcett et al., 2015). Accordingly, in a $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ versus $\delta^{15}N$ space, residual NO_3^- falls along a line with a slope of 1, anchored on the isotopic composition of the initial NO_3^- pool (Sigman et al., 2005). Our observations clearly suggest that NO_3^- assimilation is the predominant driver of the NO_3^- isotopic composition in the upper 150 m along the entire transect (Figure 4a). We report slopes in the $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ versus $\delta^{15}N$ space ranging between 0.99 and 1.18 for the upper 150 m, indistinguishable from a slope of 1. The somewhat larger slope observed at station 69 in the Labrador basin (= 1.53) should be interpreted with care since this station has only one surface sample with high $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values.

If NO_3^- assimilation proceeds with a constant isotope effect and if the reactant N pool (i.e., NO_3^-) is neither replenished nor subject to loss other than consumption, the isotopic evolutions of the residual NO_3^- pool are described by Rayleigh fractionation kinetics, implying a linear relationship in a $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ or $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ vs. $ln([NO_3^-])$ space and with the slope reflecting the negative isotope effect (Sigman et al., 1999). Negative linear correlations between $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ and $ln([NO_3^-])$, as well as between $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ and $ln([NO_3^-])$, further support assimilation of NO_3^- in the upper 150 m as the predominant process (Figure 4b,c). The isotope effects for stations located south of the SAF (stations 1, 13, 17 and 21) are 5.4 ± 0.6 % ($R^2 = 0.82$, p-value < 0.001) and 6.1 ± 0.8 % ($R^2 = 0.72$, p-value < 0.001) for $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ ($= 1^5\epsilon$) and $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ ($= 1^8\epsilon$), respectively. Stations in the Iceland basin (stations 26, 32 and 38) and Irminger basin (stations 44 and 48) present isotope effects of 5.9 ± 0.4 % ($R^2 = 0.89$, p-value < 0.001) and 6.9 ± 0.4 % ($R^2 = 0.92$, p-value < 0.001) for $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$, respectively. These values fall

within the range of isotope effects reported in the literature for other oceanic regions (Fripiat et al., 2019). In contrast, lower isotope effects are observed in the Labrador basin (stations 64, 69 and 77), with $^{15}\epsilon$ and $^{18}\epsilon$ being 3.3 \pm 0.3 ‰ (R^2 = 0.90, p-value < 0.001) and 3.7 \pm 0.3 ‰ (R^2 = 0.90, p-value < 0.001), respectively. These lower estimates are likely due to artifacts from mixing at these stations that are characterized by both NO_3 -depleted surface water and large vertical NO_3 - concentration gradients. Indeed, any resupply of NO_3 - to a water parcel that has experienced NO_3 - assimilation will deflect the isotopic signature of such water parcel downward from the Rayleigh fractionation line. The degree of deviation from the Rayleigh fractionation line increases with increasing degree of NO_3 - consumption (Sigman et al., 1999).

In the Irminger and Iceland basins (i.e., from subpolar gyre to SAF), a single relationship is observed between the degree of NO_3^- consumption and residual $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ (Figure 4b,c). This suggests that NO_3^- is supplied from a single source and progressively depleted by NO_3^- assimilation and export production. We suggest that NO_3^- is supplied by Ekman upwelling and deep winter convection, with Labrador Sea Water (LSW) as the ultimate source. NO_3^- is then progressively consumed during the Ekman transport of surface water from the subpolar gyre to the SAF. Just south of the SAF (stations 17 and 21), samples in the mixed layer fall on or slightly below the relationship observed in the Irminger and Iceland basins, while subsurface samples (i.e., below the mixed layer depth) clearly fall below it (Figure 4b,c). This suggests that assimilation of nitrate in the mixed layer does not only draw on the local subsurface pool but more likely on the nitrate pool advected from the subpolar gyre. We thus argue that surface water just south of the SAF is also partly supplied in summer by Ekman transport across the inter-gyre boundary, in agreement with Oschlies (2002) and Williams and Follows (1998). Note that the deviation of the subsurface samples observed south of the SAF will be discussed in the following sections.

4.1.2. High latitude control on low-latitude permanent thermocline properties

While NO_3^- assimilation controls the distribution of both NO_3^- concentration and its isotopic composition in the upper 150 m along the GEOVIDE transect, the characteristics of the subsurface NO_3^- pools (i.e., ~ 150 m depth) differ between basins. Indeed, the assimilation trends are parallel to each other in a $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ versus $\delta^{15}N$ space (Figure 4a), i.e., starting from subsurface pools with different properties. While in the Labrador and Irminger basins the subsurface NO_3^- pool presents characteristics (i.e., $[NO_3^-]$, $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$) close to the deep oceanic values, subsurface $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ progressively increases in the Iceland basin and in the subtropical gyre, uncorrelated to an increase in $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$. In this section, we suggest that

this decoupling of N and O isotopes in subsurface NO_3^- results from a combination of physical and biogeochemical processes that occur where the isopycnals representative of the low-latitude permanent thermocline ($\sim 27.4-27.5~kg~m^{-3}$) outcrop in the subpolar gyre. This imprint is then transmitted to the low-latitude permanent thermocline by isopycnal mixing (McCartney & Talley, 1982) and becomes progressively erased by low-latitude production and remineralization-nitrification processes (Sigman et al., 2009).

In the subpolar gyre, the occurrence of deep convection in winter (Clarke & Gascard, 1983; Pickart et al., 2003; Våge et al., 2008; Yashayaev, 2007) resets the upper 1500 m of the water column to the initial conditions (Holte et al., 2017; Yashayaev & Loder, 2016). This deep vertical mixing in winter implies that NO₃⁻ assimilation and remineralization-nitrification of sinking particles occur mostly within the same water parcel. The co-occurrence of NO₃assimilation and nitrification in the same water parcel has no effect on the NO₃⁻ N-isotope budget, as these processes are part of the internal cycle for N atoms. Indeed, remineralization of organic matter followed by nitrification produce NO_3^- with the same $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ as the assimilated NO₃ (Marconi et al., 2019; Rafter et al., 2013; Sigman et al., 2005). In contrast, NO₃⁻ assimilation and nitrification are respectively a sink and a source for the O atoms. Their co-occurrence affects the NO₃- O-isotope budget (Fawcett et al., 2015; Sigman et al., 2009). Partial NO₃⁻ assimilation in the subpolar gyre causes NO₃⁻ δ¹⁸O to increase since assimilated $NO_3^- \delta^{18}O$ is lower (down to -3 %) than NO_3^- produced by nitrification (i.e., H_2O $\delta^{18}O + 1.1$ ‰; Supporting Information Figure S1) (Peng et al., 2018; Marconi et al., 2019). The cooccurrence of partial NO₃⁻ assimilation and nitrification in the same water parcel will, therefore, raise $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ while $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ remains constant, as observed (Figures 3c,d and 4a). This mechanism is likely more strongly expressed in the Iceland basin because of an overall higher export production (Falkowski et al., 1998) and lower prevailing NO₃⁻ concentration there.

South of the SAF, in the subtropical gyre, this increase in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ is observed relatively deep in the water column (down to 600-800 m; Figure 3c), implying that this feature must be generated remotely. Indeed, the low-latitude permanent thermocline imposes a relatively shallow winter convection (< 250 m) with most of the NO_3^- assimilation and nitrification occurring in the upper 250 m. This may partly explain the increase in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ in the upper 250 m but not the increase deeper in the water column. We suggest that this deeper signal arises in the surface waters of the subpolar gyre before being transmitted to the low-latitude permanent thermocline by isopycnal mixing (McCartney & Talley, 1982). The comparison between $\Delta(15-$

18) and winter potential density anomaly contours further supports this hypothesis (Figure 5b), as $\Delta(15\text{-}18)$ values are similar along isopycnals.

In the subtropical gyre, the permanent thermocline waters recirculate from the eastern to the western North Atlantic (i.e. Sargasso Sea) following a predominant anticyclonic pattern. Nearly complete NO_3^- consumption in surface waters implies that assimilated NO_3^- is initially higher in $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ (2-4%) than the regenerated $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ (H₂O $\delta^{18}O$ + 1.1 ‰; Supporting Information Figure S1; Marconi et al., 2019). A series of quantitative consumption-remineralization-nitrification cycles progressively decreases $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ toward regenerated $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ (Rafter et al., 2013; Sigman et al., 2009). This mechanism is in agreement with lower $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ values observed at equivalent isopycnals in the permanent thermocline of the Sargasso Sea (Fawcett et al., 2015).

4.2. N₂ fixation and influence of the Mediterranean outflow

South of the SAF subsurface waters have lower $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ values than the deep ocean (Table 1; Figure 3c and Figure 5a). Low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ values are commonly reported in the subtropical gyre of the North Atlantic Ocean, a features which has been mostly attributed to an incorporation of new N in surface waters by biological N_2 fixation (Bourbonnais et al., 2009; Fawcett et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2008; Marconi et al., 2015, 2017, 2019; Riou et al., 2016). The $\delta^{15}N$ of organic N produced by N_2 fixation is estimated to range from -2 to 0 % (Carpenter et al., 1997; Montoya et al., 2002). Remineralization of this low- $\delta^{15}N$ sinking particles, followed by nitrification, transmit this low- $\delta^{15}N$ signal to the subsurface NO_3^- pool (Bourbonnais et al., 2009; Knapp et al., 2008). Alternatively, the low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ may also result from the deposition of atmospheric N, harboring a $\delta^{15}N$ between -6 and -2 % (Altieri et al., 2013; Hastings et al., 2003; Knapp et al., 2010). However, based on the work of Altieri et al. (2016) who show that N deposition primarily originates from a marine biogenic source, Marconi et al. (2019) estimated that atmospheric N deposition represents only 10 % of the N_2 fixation inputs to the North Atlantic Ocean.

South of the SAF, N_2 fixation explains therefore both the low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ values and a fraction of the decoupling between $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ (Figure 3). Here, lower subsurface $\Delta(15\text{-}18)$ values in comparison to the deep ocean are driven by the combined increase in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ and a smaller decrease in $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ (Figure 3). While the increase in $NO_3^-\delta^{18}O$ likely results from the co-occurrence of partial NO_3^- assimilation and nitrification in the outcropping region of the permanent pycnocline (see section 4.1.2), the decrease in $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ likely results from N_2 fixation in subtropical surface waters followed by remineralization-nitrification in the upper

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water column. Newly fixed N can be generated locally or remotely. Especially low- δ^{15} N NO₃ is observed in subsurface waters in the western North Atlantic, as low as 2.5 ‰ (Fawcett et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2008; Marconi et al., 2015; Van Oostende et al., 2017). The predominant anticyclonic circulation in the subtropical gyre will carry this low- δ^{15} N signal from the western North Atlantic to our studied area (Alvarez et al., 2002; Fernández-Castro et al., 2019). While an advection from the west is likely a significant contributor to the low subsurface NO₃- δ^{15} N, significant N₂ fixation rates (from 141 to 384.5 µmol N m⁻² d⁻¹) were observed south of the SAF during GEOVIDE (stations 1 to 21) by Fonseca-Batista et al. (2019) using the 15 N₂ dissolution incubation method (Großkopf et al., 2012; Mohr et al., 2010). These observations imply that the low NO₃- δ^{15} N is partly generated locally. However, our data do not allow to differentiate the signal produced locally and the one advected from the west. Further investigations are needed to quantify their respective contribution to the low NO₃- δ^{15} N observed in our studied area.

Close to the Iberian margin (stations 1 and 13), a low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ signal is observed deep in the water column, i.e., between 600 and 1500 m depth. Since most of the remineralization-nitrification of the sinking organic matter occurs above this depth, this signal must be generated remotely. Mediterranean Water (MW; Figure 1) is centered around 1000 m (i.e., salinity maximum in Figure 2b) and originates from the mixing of Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW; \pm 34 %) with subsurface (Eastern North Atlantic Central Water, ; \pm 57 %) and intermediate waters (Labrador Surface Water and diluted Antarctic Intermediate Water; < 10 %) of the Northeast Atlantic basin (Carracedo et al., 2016). Low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ is reported in the Mediterranean Sea, i.e., 3.4 ± 0.5 % for the western Mediterranean basin (Pantoja et al., 2002), and results from N_2 fixation (Pantoja et al., 2002) and/or atmospheric N deposition (Emeis et al., 2010; Mara et al., 2009). The co-occurrence of MW and low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ in our studied area suggests that the Mediterranean Sea has an impact on $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ in the North Atlantic Ocean.

To assess the influence of MW on $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ profiles along the transect, we used an isotopic mixing model coupled with the results of an extended Optimum Multi-Parameter (eOMP) analysis performed for the GEOVIDE cruise, which returns the mixing proportions of different source water types (García-Ibáñez et al., 2018). First, we built a "flat" $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ profile by setting the $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ of all the water masses to the average deep ocean value (4.82 \pm 0.05 ‰) reported by Marconi et al. (2019). The latter is indistinguishable from the values reported in the present study (4.87 \pm 0.13 ‰). This approach is predicated on the idea that NO_3^- is supplied via Ekman upwelling and deep winter convection over the entire subpolar gyre, yielding subsurface

waters with NO₃⁻ isotopic composition indistinguishable from deep ocean values, which is subsequently transmitted south of the SAF by isopycnal mixing (see discussions above). To extract the contribution of MOW to the MW, we used the results of a different eOMP performed by Carracedo et al. (2016) who solved the mixing near Cape St. Vincente (Portugal) between the Mediterranean Outflow Water (MOW; with $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ being set at 3.5 \pm 0.5‰, Pantoja et al., 2002) and other sources waters since the point of overflow from the Mediterranean basin (being set to the deep ocean δ^{15} N value for this analysis). Our isotopic mixing model based on the eOMP performed by Carracedo et al. (2016) shows that the signature of MW $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ is 4.42 ± 0.13 ‰. Using this MW signature and the eOMP performed by García-Ibáñez et al. (2018), the resulting $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ profiles returned by our isotopic mixing model (i.e., thick purple lines in Figure 6) at the selected stations (based on their proximity to the Iberian Peninsula) reveal that an advection of the Mediterranean signal is indeed able to reproduce the low NO₃⁻ δ¹⁵N values observed between 600 and 1500 m depth south of the SAF (i.e., red profiles in Figure 6). As the proportion of MW decreases with increasing distance from the Iberian margin (García-Ibáñez et al., 2018; see also Figure 2b), its influence on NO₃⁻ isotopic composition decreases, in agreement with our modelled values and observations from station 1 to station 26. Note that the influence of MW on $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ could not be traced anymore north of the SAF (i.e., station 26 in Figure 6).

However, the advection of the MW signal is unable to fully account for the $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ minimum observed between 150 and 600 m depth south of the SAF (stations 1 to 21), where the Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACW) is the dominant water mass (> 50%; 27.0 < σ_0 < 27.3; García-Ibáñez et al., 2018). Therefore, the low $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ observed in ENACW is likely the result of both local N_2 fixation and a signal advected from the western North Atlantic, as discussed above. In the present study, the $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ value of samples for which ENACW > 50% (n = 19) averaged 4.41 \pm 0.14 ‰ while NO_3^- concentration averaged 9.9 \pm 1.6 μ mol I^{-1} . These values fall within the range reported by Marconi et al. (2019) for NACW (>20°N) (with $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N = 4.40 \pm 1.80$ ‰, ranging from 2.67 to 16.45 ‰, and NO_3^- concentration = 9.17 \pm 4.88 μ mol I^{-1}). The wider range reported by Marconi et al. (2019) likely results from the inclusion of surface samples impacted by nitrate assimilation and from other types of NACW encountered. Note that, while the proportion of ENACW rapidly decreases (< 50%) north of the SAF, no $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ minimum is observed in subsurface waters (see station 26 in Figure 6).

To conclude, our study shows that not only is N_2 fixation important to generate the pool of low $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ in the North Atlantic Ocean, but that an influence from the Mediterranean Sea needs to be also considered to solve the NO_3^- isotopic budget in the eastern North Atlantic Ocean.

4.3. Paleoceanographic implications

The North Atlantic Ocean is a key component of the meridional overturning circulation and climate in general (Broecker, 1998; Denton et al., 2010; Talley, 2013). The isotopic ratio of N preserved in sedimentary records of the North Atlantic Ocean is a promising tool to reconstruct either surface nitrate concentration in the past, thereby providing insights into past circulation in the high-latitude Atlantic Ocean (Straub et al., 2013a), or variations in the intensity of N_2 fixation (Straub et al., 2013b). The strong relationship between the degree of NO_3^- consumption and residual $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ from the subpolar gyre to the SAF (Figure 4b) supports the usefulness of sedimentary N $\delta^{15}N$ to reconstruct past degree of NO_3^- consumption and thus surface NO_3^- concentration. However, south of the SAF, complete NO_3^- consumption requires that sinking organic N $\delta^{15}N$ is similar to the supplied $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$. Our study shows that the regional subsurface $NO_3^ \delta^{15}N$ supplying surface waters is depleted in S^1 0 due to S^2 1 fixation (Figure 5a). Therefore, a shift in the location of the SAF needs to be considered when interpreting sedimentary S^1 1 records of the North Atlantic Ocean, as the driver for the sedimentary S^1 2 N signal will not be the same north and south of the SAF.

5. Conclusion

The NO_3^- isotopic composition along the GEOTRACES GA01 transect reveals the impact of high-latitude processes on low-latitude areas of the North Atlantic Ocean, with a southward supply of NO_3^- occurring both in the surface waters by wind-driven Ekman transport and in the permanent thermocline via isopycnal mixing. While the co-occurrence of partial assimilation and nitrification at high-latitudes leads to high $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ values, this elevated signal is progressively erased during the recirculation in the subtropical gyre due to the increasing influence of regenerated $NO_3^ \delta^{18}O$ imprint. In addition, our study shows the impact of N_2 fixation on NO_3^- isotopic composition in the temperate Northeast Atlantic Ocean as well as the influence of the Mediterranean outflow deeper in the water column, suggesting that the latter needs to be taken into account to solve the NO_3^- isotopic budget in the eastern North Atlantic Ocean.

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Data are available in Supporting Information Table S1 and from the LEFE-CYBER database at the address: http://www.obs-vlfr.fr/proof/ftpfree/geovide/db/DATA/NITRATE_ISOTOPY/.

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Table 1. Statistical significance of differences in NO3 δ^{15} N values. (a) Average values of NO3 δ^{15} N, sample size (n) and standard deviation (SD) for different depth ranges in the four studied regions as defined in Figure 1 and t-test results indicating significance of the difference between the means of two groups (p-values, P). Asterisk indicates P < 0.001. (b) Comparison of the 600-1500 m depth range between stations south of the SAF with main basins north of the SAF and the deep ocean.

a)

Figure captions

Figure 1. Sampling locations (n = 78; dots) of the GEOTRACES GA01 (GEOVIDE) cruise along the OVIDE transect in the North Atlantic (from the Iberian margin to Greenland) and in the Labrador Sea (from Greenland to Newfoundland) with a simplified schematic of the circulation (adapted from Daniault et al., 2016). Selected stations for nitrate isotopic composition are represented by colored dots (n = 12; labelled with station number), with colors referring to the studied regions: South of Subarctic Front (SAF; red), Iceland basin (green), Irminger basin (yellow) and Labrador basin (blue). The approximate position of the SAF (50°N; Zunino et al., 2017) is represented by the black bar, while arrows represent the main surface currents (North Atlantic Current (NAC), Greenland Current (GC) and Labrador current (LC)). Intermediate water masses discussed in this study are also represented: Labrador Seawater (LSW) and Mediterranean Water (MW).

Figure 2. Full depth water column profiles of observed (a) potential temperature (θ ; °C), (b) salinity, and (c) nitrate concentration (μ mol l⁻¹), overlaid by black contours of potential density anomaly at 0 dbar (σ_0 ; kg m⁻³). Colored arrows above the panels indicate the four studied regions as in Figure 1: South of Subarctic Front (red), Iceland basin (green), Irminger basin (yellow) and Labrador basin (blue).

Figure 3. Depth profiles of observed (a) nitrate concentration (NO₃⁻; μ mol l⁻¹), (b) NO₃⁻ δ ¹⁵N (‰), (c) NO₃⁻ δ ¹⁸O (‰) and (d) Δ (15-18) (‰). Colors refer to the four studied regions as in Figure 1: South of Subarctic Front (red), Iceland basin (green), Irminger basin (yellow) and Labrador basin (blue).

Figure 4. Plots of (a) $NO_3^- \delta^{18}O$ (‰) versus $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ (‰), (b) $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ (‰) versus $ln([NO_3^-])$ (µmol l^{-1}) and (c) $NO_3^- \delta^{18}O$ (‰) versus $ln([NO_3^-])$ (µmol l^{-1}) for all depth profiles (with colored data points for the upper 150 m, except in the insert of panel (a) where all data points are colored). Colors of GEOVIDE profiles refer to the four studied regions as in Figure 1: South of Subarctic Front (red), Iceland basin (green), Irminger basin (yellow) and Labrador basin (blue). In panel (a), the slope of the linear trendline for the upper 150 m is reported in the legend, the filled black square with error bars represents the average deep oceanic values ($NO_3^- \delta^{15}N = 4.87 \pm 0.13$ ‰ and $NO_3^- \delta^{18}O = 1.98 \pm 0.28$ ‰). Dotted black diagonal lines represent $\Delta(15-18)$ (‰) contours. In panels (b) and (c), dotted black diagonal lines represent fractionation trends with an isotope effect (ϵ) of 5 ‰.

Figure 5. Vertical distribution of observed (a) $NO_3^- \delta^{15}N$ (‰) and (b) $\Delta(15-18)$ (‰) in the upper 2000 m. Colored arrows above the panels indicate the four studied regions as in Figure 1: South of Subarctic Front (red), Iceland basin (green), Irminger basin (yellow) and Labrador basin (blue). Overlaying white contours drawn in panel (b) represent winter potential density anomaly σ_0 at 0 dbar (kg m⁻³) based on the World Ocean Database (WOA13; 1.00 deg.; 1955-2012 Jan-Mar).

Figure 6. Observed $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ (‰) profiles (symbols and colors as in Figure 3) and modeled $NO_3^-\delta^{15}N$ (‰) profiles (thick purple lines) generated using an isotopic mixing model coupled with the results of an extended Optimum Multi-Parameters (eOMP) analysis to study the influence of the Mediterranean Water (see text for details) along the eastern part of the GEOTRACES GA01 (GEOVIDE) transect with increasing distance from the Iberian margin (from station 1 to station 26). Error bars for measured profiles correspond to 1 SD (= 0.13 ‰), while error for the model outputs is shown by the grey shaded envelop (see text for details).











