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The Marine Cyanate Cycle

Brittany Widner

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THE MARINE CYANATE CYCLE

by

Brittany Widner
B.S. May 2008, The University of Akron
M.S. August 2011, Old Dominion University

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of
Old Dominion University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

OCEANOGRAPHY

OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY
May 2016

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ABSTRACT

THE MARINE CYANATE CYCLE

Brittany Widner
Old Dominion University, 2016
Co-Directors: Dr. Margaret R. Mulholland
Dr. Kenneth Mopper

Cyanate (OCN⁻) is a reduced nitrogen compound with the potential to serve as a nitrogen and carbon source for marine microbes. Evidence from genomes and culture studies indicated that several marine cyanobacterial groups, including representatives of the globally important genera *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus*, might be capable of cyanate assimilation. However, prior to this study, the distribution, bioavailability, and production pathways of cyanate were unknown in natural systems due to the absence of a sensitive cyanate assay; and the ability of organisms to assimilate cyanate on relevant timescales was unknown because we lacked a suitable tracer for measuring uptake. I developed a cyanate assay to measure cyanate concentrations in estuarine and seawater samples, and then measured distribution at sites in the coastal western temperate North Atlantic (NA) and eastern tropical South Pacific (ETSP) including the Oxygen Deficient Zone. Cyanate concentrations ranged from below the limit of detection (0.4 nM) to 65 nM in natural samples examined to date. Cyanate was produced photochemically and in senescent diatom cultures, but cyanate was not detectable in wet and dry offshore atmospheric deposition. Using a custom-synthesized $^{13}$C$^{15}$N-labeled cyanate compound, I also measured rates of cyanate uptake by natural microbial communities in the NA and ETSP. Cyanate N uptake ranged from undetectable (< 0.02) to 13 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹ and was significantly higher than cyanate C uptake on all cruises. Cyanate N uptake was up to 10% of total measured N uptake at an offshore oligotrophic station in the NA but contributed a smaller fraction of total measured N uptake (< 2%) at coastal stations in the NA and ETSP. The results of this dissertation indicate that: 1) cyanate concentrations are measureable in the marine environment and cyanate has a biological-like distribution in marine systems; 2) cyanate is taken up in surface waters, probably by phytoplankton; 3) cyanate is produced photochemically in sunlit waters and from degradation of organic matter throughout the water column or through
direct release by phytoplankton; and 4) cyanate is consumed in the mesopelagic region probably by either conversion to ammonium and then to nitrate or by cyanate-supported anaerobic ammonium oxidation (cyanammox) in oxygen deficient waters.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen (N) is a vital macronutrient for all living organisms that limits phytoplankton growth in much of the world's oceans. N speciation controls phytoplankton community composition and primary production in N-limited regions and drives global marine carbon flux on glacial/interglacial timescales (McElroy 1983). Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), nitrate (NO$_3^-$), nitrite (NO$_2^-$), and ammonium (NH$_4^+$), and labile dissolved organic N (DON) are available as N sources to marine microbes (Mulholland and Lomas 2008). DON can comprise a substantial fraction of N uptake with urea alone accounting for > 50% of N uptake in some systems (Mulholland and Lomas 2008; Sipler and Bronk 2015). Urea and cyanate can be utilized in place of NH$_4^+$ by some aerobic ammonia oxidizers (Alonso-Sáez et al. 2012; Koops and Pommerening-Röser 2001; Palatinszky et al. 2015; Qin et al. 2014). Despite its significance in biogeochemical cycles, the DON pool remains poorly characterized (Sipler and Bronk 2015), and we lack sensitive methods for measuring many components of the DON pool.

Cyanate (OCN$^-$) is a simple organic N compound that may be available as a source of N and C for microbes. The genes for uptake and assimilation of cyanate (OCN$^-$), cyanate hydratase (see Appendix A for enzyme structure) and a cyanate transporter, have been identified in strains of the ubiquitous marine cyanobacteria, *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus*, which, together account for two thirds of marine and one third of global primary productivity (Bryant 2003; Field et al. 1998). Microorganisms, including *Prochlorococcus* MED4, *Synechococcus* WH8102, and the harmful marine dinoflagellate, *Prorocentrum donghaiense*, have been grown on culture media supplied with OCN$^-$ as the sole N source (Berube et al. 2015; Dorr and Knowles 1989; Harano et al. 1997; Hu et al. 2012; Kamennaya et al. 2008; Miller and Espie 1994; Taussig 1960; Wood et al. 1998).

Possible sources of cyanate to natural waters include abiotic decomposition of urea (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948) produced autochthonously and supplied via urban and agricultural runoff (Glibert et al. 2006), and industrial water discharges (Lin et al. 2008). OCN$^-$ may also be released to marine systems by rapid decomposition of carbamoyl phosphate (Allen and Jones 1964, see Appendix B for proposed intracellular pathway and Appendix C for abiotic pathway).
and other metabolic intermediates, direct release by intact cells, as a result of cell death, cell lysis, and sloppy feeding (Sorokin et al. 2001).

Despite the evidence for a "cyanate cycle", prior to this work, research was hampered by the lack of methods for measuring cyanate concentrations in the environment, its uptake by microorganisms, and its production in aquatic systems. I developed a nanomolar cyanate assay for estuarine and sea water employing derivatization to a fluorescent product and high performance liquid chromatography (Chapter II) and employed this method and stable isotope ($^{15}$N$^{13}$C) techniques to address three questions: 1) What is the distribution of cyanate in marine systems? 2) What are the sources of cyanate to marine systems? 3) Is cyanate bioavailable?

The distribution of a dissolved constituent reflects the balance of production and consumption of that constituent, and the distributions of most dissolved N species are controlled biologically by assimilatory processes, such as N uptake for growth, and dissimilatory processes, such as nitrification and denitrification (Gruber 2008). In N-limited regions, biologically available N cycling intermediates, such as NH$_4^+$ and NO$_2^-$, are generally present at nanomolar or sub-nanomolar concentrations throughout most of the water column. Higher concentrations of NH$_4^+$ and NO$_2^-$ are often present near the base of the euphotic zone where production and consumption are spatially uncoupled (Gruber 2008). The NO$_3^-$ distribution is also controlled biologically, but, while the NO$_3^-$ distribution is similar to those of NH$_4^+$ and NO$_2^-$ in surface waters, NO$_3^-$ concentrations are uniformly high below the euphotic zone. Biologically unavailable DON compounds can also accumulate in the deep ocean where they are present in micromolar concentrations. The vertical distribution of cyanate, therefore, should reveal clues as to its bioavailability and production. In this dissertation, I describe the distribution of cyanate and discuss its implications for biological and geochemical nitrogen cycling in diverse environments. I also provide direct measurements of several likely sources of cyanate to marine systems. Because of the genomic and culture evidence for cyanate uptake by cyanobacteria, I assessed cyanate bioavailability using measurements of cyanate uptake primarily in the euphotic zone.

In Chapter III I present the initial measurements of the cyanate distribution in the western temperate coastal North Atlantic (NA) and measurements of cyanate production in laboratory and field studies. A transect of cyanate concentrations was measured across the Gulf of Maine which encompasses geographical diversity in advection, nutrient supply, sediment exchange, and
microbial community composition. Cyanate production was measured from photochemistry, wet and dry atmospheric deposition, and organic matter degradation. To evaluate biological release of cyanate from organic matter, cyanate production was measured in diatom and cyanobacterial cultures in experiments designed to mimic phytoplankton growth in the euphotic zone and the degradation of sinking phytoplankton in the dark ocean.

In Chapter IV I present cyanate distribution and uptake data from the NA which has a broad continental shelf, abundant riverine input, and a seasonally variable water column (Townsend et al. 2006). The cyanate distribution was measured at stations on the continental shelf, in the basin of the Gulf of Maine, and on the continental shelf slope. I compared cyanate concentrations between these regions and between onshore and offshore locations. I examined relationships between cyanate concentrations and phytoplankton biomass, the primary nitrite maximum, and the nitracline. Seasonal, regional, and vertical variability in cyanate N and C uptake were described using measurements of uptake from four cruises (May/June 2010, November 2010, May/June 2011, and August 2012) across the study region.

The eastern tropical South Pacific (ETSP) is a region with a narrow continental shelf, high primary productivity, low seasonal variability, and coastal and equatorial upwelling (Pennington et al. 2006). The oxygen deficient zone (ODZ) located below this highly productive region contributes significantly to the marine loss of fixed N (Codispoti 2007; Codispoti et al. 2001). In Chapter V, the vertical distribution of cyanate was measured along two transects. The first was located 200 nm off the coastline and parallel to the coastline, and the second was a longitudinal transect along 17 °S. The cyanate distribution was compared to those of NH$_4^+$, NO$_2^-$, and NO$_3^-$ as well as chlorophyll a and dissolved oxygen concentrations and temperature and salinity. To determine whether cyanate was an important N source in this region, I compared cyanate, urea, and NH$_4^+$ uptake kinetics. I also calculated the fraction of measured N uptake attributed to cyanate. Cyanate N and C uptake rates were measured over a diurnal cycle in surface water, and cyanate, urea, and NH$_4^+$ uptake rates were measured in the ODZ where rates of N uptake have not been previously measured. ODZ uptake rates were compared to rates of anammox supported by cyanate, urea, and NH$_4^+$.

In Chapter VI, I synthesize the cyanate distributions, production rates, and uptake rates described in Chapters II - V with recent discoveries made by other researchers regarding cyanate bioavailability to describe the marine cyanate cycle.
CHAPTER II

CHROMATOGRAPHIC DETERMINATION OF NANOMOLAR CYANATE
CONCENTRATIONS IN ESTUARINE AND MARINE WATERS BY PRECOLUMN
FLUORESCENCE DERIVATIZATION

PREFACE

The content of this Chapter is reprinted with permission from Widner, B., Mulholland, M.R., and Mopper, K. 2013. Chromatographic determination of nanomolar cyanate concentrations in estuarine and sea waters by precolumn fluorescence derivatization. Anal. Chem. 85(14): 6661-6666. Copyright 2013. American Chemical Society. See Appendix D for the copyright permission, and the manuscript can be found online at http://pubs.acs.org/doi/abs/10.1021/ac400351c.

INTRODUCTION

In the marine environment, N is often the nutrient that limits primary productivity by phytoplankton. However, because dissolved N is stable in a variety of chemical forms and oxidation states in aquatic environments, the N cycle is complex and involves feedbacks between various dissolved N pools and the microbes, including phytoplankton and bacteria, that mediate their production, consumption, and transformation. Phytoplankton and bacteria take up both organic N and inorganic N compounds (Mulholland and Lomas 2008) and the genetic capability for uptake and assimilation of this diverse N pool has recently been confirmed within individual microbes and microbial communities (Hewson and Fuhrman 2008; Scanlan and Post 2008). Based on recent genomic and physiological evidence, it has been hypothesized that cyanate (OCN⁻), a reduced N compound, contributes to the N and C requirements of marine microbial communities (Kamennaya and Post 2011; Palenik et al. 2003; Rocap et al. 2003).

Genes encoding a cyanate-specific transporter as well as an enzyme catalyzing intracellular cyanate decomposition, cyanase, have been identified in strains of the globally important marine cyanobacterial groups, Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus (Palenik et al.
Because these two genera are thought to account for up to two-thirds of oceanic primary production and one-third of global primary production (Bryant 2003), cyanate could be a quantitatively significant component of the marine N cycle that has not yet been examined. Genes related to cyanate metabolism have also been identified in other marine microorganisms (Berg et al. 2008; Kamennaya and Post 2011). In addition, *Synechococcus* WH8102 (Kamennaya and Post 2011), *Prochlorococcus* MED4 (Kamennaya and Post 2011), the dinoflagellate *Prorocentrum donghaiense* (Hu et al. 2012), and some heterotrophic bacteria (Dorr and Knowles 1989; Guilloton and Karst 1987; Wood et al. 1998) have been cultured in media containing cyanate as the sole N source, attesting to the bioavailability of this compound. Potential sources of cyanate to natural waters include discharges from gold mining, combustion, and protein manufacturing (Lin et al. 2008), *in situ* release of cyanate by the microbial community as a by-product of cellular metabolism (Sorokin et al. 2001), cyanate release through cell lysis or “sloppy feeding” by grazers, spontaneous decomposition of the metabolic intermediate carbamoyl phosphate (Allen and Jones 1964, Appendices B and C) and other organic cellular metabolites, herbicide runoff (Koshiishi et al. 1997), and urea runoff from urban and agricultural settings (Glibert et al. 2006) followed by spontaneous aqueous decomposition to cyanate (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948).

Despite the growing evidence that cyanate is bioavailable to aquatic microorganisms and there are many potential sources of cyanate to aquatic systems, it is unclear whether cyanate contributes to the N demands of microorganisms in nature because there are no measurements of cyanate in aquatic systems. The distributions of nutrient elements provide clues as to their chemical and biological reactivity in natural systems, and quantifying cyanate distributions is a necessary first step toward understanding the cycling of this compound in natural aquatic systems. In many estuarine and seawater samples, dissolved inorganic N concentrations range from at or below the limit of analytical detection (1-2 nM for most dissolved N compounds) to 35 µM (McCarthy and Bronk 2008). In offshore marine surface waters, where phytoplankton are often N limited, tight coupling of production and consumption of reduced inorganic N leads to ambient concentrations that are often at or near the limit of analytical detection, even though reduced inorganic N contributes the bulk of the N fueling primary productivity (Gruber 2008). Cyanate concentrations are likely to be similarly low in surface waters in N-depleted oceanic
regions, therefore quantification of cyanate in surface waters requires a detection limit in the low nanomolar range.

While methods for quantitative cyanate determination have been developed for medical and industrial use, these methods generally have detection limits (low micromolar range) higher than those appropriate for natural waters. Methods for measuring cyanate concentrations in aqueous solutions include both colorimetric and chromatographic techniques and many employ derivatization steps. A qualitative test for measuring the presence of cyanate in aqueous saline solutions (Marier and Rose 1964) was developed using a copper cyanate-pyridine complex (Werner 1923), but this method was not quantitative. Ion chromatographic (IC) methods have also been developed for cyanate determination (Black and Schulz 1999; Lin et al. 2004; Nonomura and Hobo 1989), but these are largely inappropriate for seawater samples because the chloride ion and other anions produce large interfering peaks and because the ~2 µM detection limit is not low enough for natural waters. Cyanate was measured in blood by derivatization with 2-nitro-5-thiobenzoic acid followed by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Eiger and Black 1985); however, like the IC methods, the 1 µM detection limit of this method is likely not low enough for most natural aquatic samples. Cyanate concentrations in freshwater bioremediation tanks were measured after converting OCN⁻ to NH₄⁺ using the cyanase enzyme, and then measuring NH₄⁺ colorimetrically (Luque-Almagro et al. 2003), but this method also has a relatively high detection limit (0.5 µM) and would need to account for NH₄⁺ already present in natural waters. A colorimetric method for quantitative cyanate determination in aqueous solution based on the derivatization of cyanate to 2,4-quinazolinedione (benzoylene urea) from 2-aminobenzoic acid (anthranilic acid) (Guilloton and Karst 1985; Lange and Sheibley 1963) was employed to measure cyanate in gold mine drainage samples (Zvinowanda et al. 2008) and was adapted by Lundquist et al. (1993) to quantify cyanate in blood plasma using HPLC and fluorescence detection to an 8 nM detection limit. We have significantly modified this method to measure cyanate concentrations at the low nanomolar level in natural aqueous samples. Here we report not only the method itself but also the first measurements of cyanate concentrations in estuarine and marine waters.
METHODS

Derivatization Procedure

Cyanate was measured in saline and brackish natural water samples by reacting it with 2-aminobenzoic acid in aqueous solution to form the 2,4-quinazolinedione derivative followed by HPLC with fluorescence detection to quantify 2,4-quinazolinedione against a standard curve as described below. A 30 mM aqueous solution of 2-aminobenzoic acid was prepared from a solid stock (Sigma-Aldrich, ≥ 99.5% purity) by heating at 80 ºC until fully dissolved. After cooling to room temperature, the solution was stored for up to three days. As recommended by Guilloton and Karst (1985), the 2-aminobenzoic acid solution was prepared in an amber glass bottle and stored in an opaque bottle. 2,4-Quinazolinedione was purchased from Acros organics (98%). Potassium cyanate (KOCN, Sigma-Aldrich, 96%) was stored in a desiccator to slow decomposition of OCN⁻ to NH₄⁺ and CO₂ (Amell 1956). Primary KOCN standards were prepared in deionized water (DI) and were stored at 4 ºC for up to one month. Working standards were prepared fresh in artificial seawater of the same salinity as the samples. Standard curves were prepared by derivatizing standards and samples simultaneously using the same reagents for each set of samples.

Samples were derivatized as follows. A 1 mL, filtered (0.2 µm) sample or standard solution was combined with 0.4 mL 30 mM 2-aminobenzoic acid in a combusted 4 mL amber borosilicate glass vial (Fisher Scientific) with a polyproplene "top hat" cap (Sigma-Aldrich, PTFE/silicone septum). The vials were placed in a 35 ºC water bath for 30 minutes. Immediately upon removal from the water bath, 1.4 mL 12N HCl (reagent grade) was added to each sample (6N HCl final concentration). Samples were then run immediately on an HPLC equipped with a refrigerated autosampler (4 ºC).

HPLC Conditions

A modular Shimadzu HPLC was used to measure cyanate concentrations in derivatized aqueous samples. The pumps were model LC-10ATvp, the degasser was a DGU-14A, the autosampler was a SIL-10advp, the fluorescence detector was a RF-10AXL, and the system controller was a SCL-10Avp. Shimadzu CLASS-VP VP1 software was employed for peak enumeration and integration. Mobile phase components were HPLC grade methanol (99.9%;
Fisher Scientific), HPLC grade trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) (97%, Fisher Scientific), and Nanopure deionized water from a Barnstead system. The mobile phase was 60:40 5% TFA/100% MeOH and the flow rate was 100 µL/min.

We used a poly(styrene-divinylbenzene) column with broad pH stability (Hamilton, PRP-1, 2.1x150 mm, 5 µm). Cyanate (as 2,4-quinazolinedione) was quantified using a fluorescence detector set at excitation and emission wavelengths of 312 nm and 370 nm, respectively. Sample injection volume was 100 µL and the run time was 20 minutes.

The PRP-1 column is stable for at least two years (~120 L mobile phase), however certain HPLC components, specifically the autosampler, were easily damaged by the concentrated HCl (6 N) in the samples. To minimize instrument damage and disruption of analyses, we recommend use of acid-tolerant components, pre-injection neutralization, or frequent autosampler preventative maintenance and consumable replacement.

Separation was first achieved using an isocratic mobile phase of 86:14 5% TFA/acetonitrile (ACN) and a flow rate of 110 µL/min. We later determined that use of methanol (MeOH) as the organic solvent was more cost effective than ACN. Subsequently, the method was altered so that the mobile phase was 60:40 5% TFA/100% MeOH and the flow rate was 100 µL/min. Although lower column backpressure and shorter retention times were observed using ACN as the organic modifier, both sets of conditions yielded similar precision and accuracy. We recommend use of MeOH, however the results presented here from the Chesapeake Bay Mouth were analyzed using ACN.

Statistical Calculations and Recovery

Concentrations calculated from both peak area and peak height were very accurate, but at low cyanate concentrations (<2 nM, lower S/N) peak height yielded better precision. Therefore, we used peak height to calculate cyanate concentrations using a standard curve prepared from stock KOCN. $R^2$ values for standard curves were 0.9999 or better for all analyses. The limit of detection (LOD) was calculated as three times the standard deviation of seven blanks.

The derivatization yield was determined by calculation of absolute recovery using the peak height of a derivatized 50 nM KOCN standard divided by the peak height of 50 nM 2,4-quinazolinedione in the reagent matrix. Analytical recovery was calculated to assess the efficiency of the derivatization procedure in a sample matrix. A natural sample was spiked with 50 nM KOCN, and the cyanate concentration of this spiked sample was divided by the sum of a
50 nM standard plus the sample cyanate concentration. Absolute recovery and analytical recovery were calculated each time samples were analyzed.

**Determination of Reagent, Standard, and Sample Stability**

To measure reagent stability, a 30 mM aqueous 2-aminobenzoic acid solution was stored for one month. At time points of 3, 10, and 30 days, the absolute recovery was determined using the stored reagent to derivatize a freshly prepared 50 nM KOCN standard.

To determine optimal storage conditions for samples destined for cyanate analysis, a 50 nM KOCN spike was added to a water sample collected from the Elizabeth River on February 4, 2012 when salinity was 20. Salinity measurements in natural waters are unitless values which roughly correspond to the parts per thousand (ppt) salinity measured in artificial seawater (Harrison et al. 1980). Aliquots of the spiked sample (1 mL) were transferred to twelve 8 mL borosilicate tubes and then divided into four groups of three. One group each was frozen at two different temperatures, -20 ºC and -80 ºC. Another group was frozen at -20 ºC after the addition of a preservative (10 mg/L final concentration of HgCl$_2$). The last group of samples was immediately derivatized prior to storage at -20 ºC. At the same time that natural samples were prepared and stored, standard curves were prepared, divided into four groups, and stored in the same way as spiked natural water samples. After 14 and 270 days, the concentration of cyanate in the natural water sample was measured and calculated using both a standard curve prepared and stored on the same date and under the same conditions as the sample. These were compared to standard curves that had been prepared fresh, the day samples were analyzed. The cyanate concentrations calculated from the freshly prepared standard curve was used for all statistical analyses except in the case of the samples derivatized at the time of sample collection where a stored standard curve was used.

The stability of primary stock KOCN standards (100 mM) stored at 4 ºC was evaluated after 30 days by calculating the change in absolute recovery. Seawater differs from freshwater in ionic strength, buffering capacity, and pH; therefore the stability of the primary standard was tested in freshwater (0 ppt) and artificial seawater (20 and 35 ppt).

**Natural Samples: Collection and Processing**

Samples were collected from twelve stations along a north-south transect across the Chesapeake Bay Mouth (CBM) on November 7, 2011 aboard the *Research Vessel (R/V) Fay*
Slover. This 25 km transect crosses a highly variable estuarine region influenced by three channels through which estuarine and oceanic waters exchange. At each station, Niskin bottles were used to collect water samples from two depths: the first approximately 2 meters below the surface and the second at the depth of maximum chlorophyll fluorescence (460 nm excitation, 685 nm emission) which generally corresponds to the depth where phytoplankton concentrations are highest. Water was filtered directly from the Niskin bottle through a 0.2 µm Supor Pall capsule filter using a peristaltic pump and constant positive pressure (5 mm Hg), and the filtrate was collected in sterile 50 mL polypropylene centrifuge tubes. Duplicate 1 mL sample aliquots were transferred from the polypropylene tubes into 8 mL acid-washed and combusted borosilicate tubes with polycarbonate screw caps. Samples were stored in a -20 ºC freezer aboard the ship and derivatized immediately upon return to the laboratory (within four hours of collection).

In addition to the estuarine CBM samples, cyanate concentrations were analyzed at a station on the North American mid-Atlantic continental shelf from samples collected on August 10, 2012, during a cruise aboard the R/V Henry B. Bigelow. This station was located approximately 65 km offshore in relatively shallow waters (55 m) that are strongly influenced by coastal currents and riverine inputs (Townsend et al. 2004). As for the CBM cruise, water samples were collected approximately 2 meters below the surface and at the fluorescence maximum using Niskin bottles. Samples were filtered through a 0.2 µm Supor polycarbonate filter by gravity directly from the Niskin bottle, and the filtrate was collected in sterile 15 mL polypropylene centrifuge tubes. Triplicate 1 mL aliquots were transferred to 4 mL pre-combusted amber borosilicate glass vials, and samples were immediately stored at -20 ºC and derivatized within 48 hours of collection onboard the ship. Derivatized samples were then stored at -20 ºC until analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Derivatization Optimization and Parameters

There are two reactions in the formation of 2,4-quinazolinedione from cyanate and 2-aminobenzoic acid. In the first reaction, 2-aminobenzoic acid and cyanate react to form 2-
ureidobenzoic acid (Step I, Figure 1). Second, strong acid converts 2-ureidobenzoic acid to 2,4-quinazolinedione (Step II, Figure 1).

![Reaction Diagram](image)

**Figure 1.** Derivatization reaction modified from Guilloton and Karst (1985).

The derivatization was optimized to reduce the reagent blank and maximize recovery of 2,4-quinazolinedione. All optimizations were performed using a Sargasso Sea sample (location in Table 1) to account for matrix effects. In Step I, recovery was consistent at or above 8.5 mM 2-aminobenzoic acid (Figure 2 left). The optimal reaction temperature was 35 °C, and the optimal reaction time was 30 minutes (Figure 2 right). We examined the pH of Step I and found consistent recovery between pH 3.5 and 5 (data not shown). The pH of 2-aminobenzoic acid (30 mM) was 3.7, and when this was added to a sample (pH 8.4) the resulting pH was 4.5. The pH of typical marine and estuarine samples ranges from 7.5 to 8.4 (ref), so it is unnecessary to buffer the Step I reaction.
Table 1. Matrix effects as determined by analytical recovery and the method of standard additions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Latitude (°N)</th>
<th>Longitude (°W)</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>Analytical Recovery (%)</th>
<th>[OCN⁻] (nM)</th>
<th>[OCN⁻] (nM)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sargasso Sea</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>2.64 (0.12)</td>
<td>2.88 (0.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia Beach</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>13.5 (0.94)</td>
<td>13.5 (0.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chesapeake Bay</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td>35.2 (0.51)</td>
<td>38.7 (0.90)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Analytical recovery calculated from DI standard curve.
2 [OCN⁻] calculated from DI standard curve
3 [OCN⁻] calculated by method of standard additions.

Figure 2. Derivatization Step I optimization. Change in recovery in relation to final concentration of 2-aminobenzoic acid (left) and change in fluorescence intensity due to Step I reaction temperature (grey squares) and time (black diamonds) (right). Optimizations were determined using a 1 µM KOCN spike in a sample from the Sargasso Sea and analyzed on a spectrofluorophotometer (emission 312 nm, excitation 370 nm). Recovery was verified in an unmanipulated sample after optimization. In both panels, error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation (n=3).
Step II was also optimized. Recovery decreased below 6 N HCl (final concentration) and was consistent above 6N. The Step II reaction proceeded rapidly and with full recovery at room temperature (data not shown). This result differs from previously published methods (Guilloton and Karst 1985; Lundquist et al. 1993) where the reaction temperature was 100 °C. Additionally, Lundquist et al. (1993) halted both reaction steps by immersion of samples in an ice bath, but we consistently obtained ≥ 98% recovery without cooling samples.

To lower the LOD, decrease the blank signal, and eliminate interfering and contaminating compounds, 2-aminobenzoic acid was recrystallized twice in hot water. The blank peak height was reduced approximately two-fold by this process, but the LOD decreased only marginally (~9%) to 0.4 nM (SD of seven blanks, 1.24%). Despite this limited improvement, 2-aminobenzoic acid recrystallization is recommended to minimize variability between reagent batches. However, over the one month period, the retention time shifted by as much as one minute and the standard curve slope varied by 10%, highlighting the need to run standard curves with each group of samples. Within a 24 hour period, the retention times and the slopes were essentially constant.

Potential matrix effects were investigated by comparing the cyanate concentration calculated from an external standard curve prepared in deionized water (DI) and a standard curve prepared using the method of standard additions in three different matrices: open ocean water from the Sargasso Sea in the North Atlantic, a coastal sample collected from the Virginia Beach, VA, fishing pier located in coastal waters near the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay, and an estuarine sample from the Chesapeake Bay. These three locations differ in salinity (Table 1) and dissolved organic matter (DOM) concentration and composition, with the estuarine sample being strongly influenced by terrestrial DOM (Minor et al. 2006). The analytical recoveries were between 94 and 106%, and the cyanate concentration calculated from the DI curve did not deviate more than 10% from the concentration calculated using the method of standard additions (Table 1). Given this negligible matrix effect, we recommend that external standards be prepared in deionized water for estuarine and marine samples. When sampling a very different matrix from those examined here we recommend a matrix comparison between the method of standard additions and a DI standard curve.
**Reagent, Standard, and Sample Stability**

When 2-aminobenzoic acid solutions (40 mM) older than three days were used to derivatize freshly prepared 50 nM KOCN, absolute recoveries of standard additions were inconsistent; on some occasions absolute recovery decreased, while on others it was as high as 280%. We therefore recommend the solution be stored no longer than three days.

After 270 days, the mean concentrations of cyanate in stored samples ranged from 84.8% to 131% of those in the original fresh sample (Table 2). The relative standard deviations (RSD) of the samples did not increase when stored at -80 ºC or when derivatized before storage at -20 ºC (RSD < 1.0%, Table 2); however the RSD increased 50-fold and 7-fold during storage at -20 ºC with and without HgCl₂ preservation, respectively (Table 2). These large standard deviations would be problematic for samples in which cyanate concentrations are near the LOD of 0.4 nM.

For unmanipulated samples stored at -20 ºC, the cyanate concentrations increased 31% during storage (Table 2). In addition, the standards stored at -20 ºC with and without HgCl₂ preservation produced poor standard curves compared to those from the other treatments and the freshly prepared standard curve (see $R^2$ values, Table 2). For these reasons long-term storage at -20 ºC with or without the addition of a preservative is not recommended.

The high variability of the -20 ºC samples stored with and without HgCl₂ precluded comparison of all treatment mean cyanate concentrations to the cyanate concentration measured at the time of sample collection using ANOVA (Brown-Forsythe test, $F = 3.73, p = 0.04$). Therefore, we compared the mean cyanate concentrations of the treatments which did not violate ANOVA assumptions (storage at -80 ºC and immediate derivatization followed by storage at -20 ºC) to the mean cyanate concentration before storage and found a significant difference (ANOVA, $F = 280.73, p << 0.05$). The concentration of cyanate in samples stored at -80 ºC was not statistically different from the concentration measured in fresh samples (Dunnett's test, $p = 0.96$), but the concentration of cyanate in samples derivatized at the time of sample collection and stored at -20 ºC was 15% lower than the concentration measured in fresh samples (Dunnett's test, $p << 0.05$). There was no significant difference in cyanate concentration and no change in RSD when treatment means were compared after 14 days of storage (data not shown). We therefore recommend that for sample storage lasting longer than two weeks, samples be stored at -80 ºC immediately following collection until derivatization and analysis. If storage at -80 ºC is
not possible, samples should be derivatized immediately and stored at -20 °C, and if storage will be less than two weeks, any of the methods tested produce consistent results.

KOCN primary stocks (100 mM) were stable up to one month at 4 °C, and no differences in stability were observed between salinities. We recommend that fresh KOCN stock be prepared after one month in storage.

Table 2. Determination of sample stability under different storage conditions. Results are from samples stored for 270 days.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>15 [OCN(^-)] (nM)(^3)</th>
<th>Standard deviation (nM)(^3)</th>
<th>Stored standard curve R(^2)</th>
<th>15 [OCN(^-)] (nM)(^3)</th>
<th>Standard deviation (nM)(^3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>time zero</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-20</td>
<td>65.9</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>0.9827</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>5.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-80</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.9996</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-20p</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>0.9369</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-20d</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.9991</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Elizabeth River samples (20 ppt) spiked with KOCN (50 nM) stored under conditions: time zero- concentration measured immediately after sample collection, -20 were stored at -20°C, -80 were stored at -80 °C, -20p were stored at -20 °C after preservation with HgCl\(_2\), and -20d were derivatized immediately after sample collection and stored at -20 °C.

2 R\(^2\) of freshly prepared standard curve was 0.9997. R\(^2\) of the time zero standard curve was 0.9999.

3 OCN\(^-\) concentrations and standard deviations were calculated from three replicates for all treatments.

HPLC and Detection Optimization

Fluorescence emission and excitation wavelengths were selected to maximize 2,4-quinazolinedione fluorescence and minimize 2-aminobenzoic acid fluorescence. At the excitation wavelength of 312 nm, the wavelength of maximum emission by 2,4-quinazolinedione is 370 nm, while the wavelength of maximum emission by 2-aminobenzoic acid is 418 nm (Figure 3).
Figure 3. Fluorescence spectra of 40 mM 2-aminobenzoic acid. Spectra at pH ≤ 2.5 are shown by solid lines where the darkest line is pH 2.5 and the lightest line is pH 0. The spectrum for 10 μM 2,4-quinazolinedione is shown for pH 2 (dotted line). The fluorescence intensity of 2-aminobenzoic acid decreased with decreasing pH. At pH > 2.5, the fluorescence intensity of 2-aminobenzoic acid is greater than or equal to that at pH 2.5 (data not shown). The fluorescence spectra of 2,4-quinazolinedione at varying pH values are not shown because the spectrum does not change with pH. The excitation wavelength was 312 nm.

Following derivatization, Lundquist et al. (1993) employed additional extraction and purification steps to isolate cyanate specific to their sample matrix (blood plasma), which were unnecessary steps for seawater samples. This simplification permitted HPLC analysis immediately following derivatization and greatly reduced the potential for contamination and low recovery. However, we had to contend with a large excess 2-aminobenzoic acid peak which would have been eliminated using the extraction procedures of Lundquist et al. (1993). As a zwitterion, 2-aminobenzoic acid is protonated, neutral, or negatively charged, depending on the solution pH. At neutral pH, such as the mobile phase employed by Lundquist et al. (1993), 2-aminobenzoic acid is negatively charged (pKₐ 4.85), but at very low pH, 2-aminobenzoic acid is
protonated (pK\textsubscript{a} 2.17) and has a much lower fluorescence quantum yield (Figure 3) than the negatively charged and neutral species. By reducing the aqueous mobile phase component pH to 0.5, we significantly reduced the magnitude of the 2-aminobenzoic acid peak and obtained excellent separation of 2-aminobenzoic acid and 2,4-quinazolinedione (Figure 4). Consequently, we replaced the neutral pH 70:30 water/methanol mobile phase of Lundquist et al. (1993) with a low pH (< 1) mobile phase. The pH tolerance of most C18 columns, including that used by Lundquist et al. (1993), is not appropriate for a mobile phase of this pH, so we employed a poly(styrene-divinylbenzene) column which is stable to a pH of 0. Trifluoroacetic acid (pKa 0.2) was chosen to adjust the aqueous phase pH over other acids, such as phosphoric acid, because it did not require a salt buffer and was less corrosive to the instrument.

**Figure 4.** Sample chromatograms. Shown are (a) a reagent blank (relative SD (RSD) 3%), (b) a 50 nM standard (RSD 1.5%), and (c) a sample from the Elizabeth River (21.4 nM, RSD 1.9%) (c) using MeOH in the mobile phase. In all panels, the negative peak at 5 minutes is the solvent, the peak at 8 minutes is excess 2-aminobenzoic acid, and the peak at 12 minutes is the 2,4-quinazolinedione (cyanate) peak.
Mobile phase composition and flow rate were optimized to achieve full peak separation and short retention times. Separation was first achieved using an isocratic mobile phase of 86:14 5% TFA/acetonitrile (ACN) and a flow rate of 110 µL/min.

Environmental Concentrations

Cyanate concentrations ranged from 16 to 40 nM in samples collected from surface waters and at the depth of the fluorescence maximum along the CBM transect where salinities ranged from 16.4 to 27.8 (Table 3). In the coastal water samples salinities were higher: 31.8 and 33.2 at the surface and depth of maximum fluorescence, respectively. Cyanate concentrations in coastal North Atlantic waters were substantially lower: 1.44 nM in surface waters and 0.93 nM at the depth of the fluorescence maximum. Our LOD of 0.4 nM was sufficient for quantification of cyanate concentrations in all CBM and coastal samples, although the concentrations in coastal samples were very close to the detection limit. The absolute recovery was 98%, and the analytical recovery was 99% for both sets of samples, but the relative average deviation was 4% for samples in the CBM (n=2) and the relative standard deviation was 24% for the coastal samples (n=3) where cyanate concentrations were very close to the analytical detection limit. The measurements reported here from the Chesapeake Bay mouth and the North American mid-Atlantic continental shelf are the first measurements of cyanate concentrations from natural waters.
Table 3. Cyanate concentrations for representative Chesapeake Bay Mouth stations and one North Atlantic station.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latitude (°N)</th>
<th>Longitude (°W)</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Salinity&lt;sup&gt;i&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>[OCN&lt;sup&gt;−&lt;/sup&gt;] (AD) (nM)&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Salinity&lt;sup&gt;i&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>[OCN&lt;sup&gt;−&lt;/sup&gt;] (AD) (nM)&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36.987</td>
<td>76.163</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>30.0 (1.21)</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>26.6 (0.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.013</td>
<td>76.152</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>27.3 (2.14)</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>16.6 (0.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.046</td>
<td>76.137</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>29.7 (0.46)</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>34.7 (1.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.072</td>
<td>76.113</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>41.1 (0.79)</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>33.8 (3.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.833&lt;sup&gt;3&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>74.579</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>1.44 (0.41)</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>0.93 (0.18)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>i</sup>Salinity measured in natural samples is a unitless value that roughly corresponds to parts per thousand.

<sup>2</sup>[OCN<sup>−</sup>] shown are the average of two replicates with the exception of the coastal station. Average deviation (AD) in parentheses.

<sup>3</sup>For the coastal station (final row), [OCN<sup>−</sup>] is an average of three replicates.
CHAPTER II

SOURCES OF CYANATE TO MARINE SYSTEMS AND AN INITIAL SURVEY OF CYANATE DISTRIBUTION AND UPTAKE IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC

PREFACE

Part of the content of this Chapter is submitted to Environmental Science and Technology Letters. Due to size limitations of Environmental Science and Technology Letters, the Chapter presented here has been modified to expand the body of the manuscript and include supplemental information in the main text.

INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen (N) limits phytoplankton growth in most marine environments. Consequently, identifying sources and sinks of bioavailable N is critical for estimating oceanic primary and secondary productivity. While many dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) compounds are known to be bioavailable, much of that pool is uncharacterized (Sipler and Bronk 2015). Recently it was discovered that some microbes have the genetic capacity to take up and metabolize cyanate (OCN⁻), perhaps the simplest DON compound. Genes encoding intracellular cyanate decomposition and a cyanate-specific transporter have been identified in marine cyanobacteria (Kamennaya and Post 2013; Palenik et al. 2003; Rocap et al. 2003). In addition, isolates of Synechococcus (WH8102), Prochlorococcus (MED4), the harmful dinoflagellate, Prorocentrum donghaiense, and some heterotrophic bacteria have been cultured using cyanate as the sole N source (Guilloton et al. 1993; Hu et al. 2012; Kamennaya and Post 2011), and cyanate was recently shown to support nitrification as both a reductant and N source in chemoautotrophic bacterial cultures (Palatinszky et al. 2015).

Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus account for two thirds of present day oceanic primary production (Bryant 2003), therefore cyanate utilization by these two groups could be globally significant and its biogeochemistry may affect global primary and secondary production. It has been hypothesized that the evolution of Prochlorococcus strains has been
driven by the availability of different N sources. Because Prochlorococcus have streamlined genomes containing only the genes necessary for survival (Bryant 2003; Garcia-Fernandez et al. 2004), it is likely that Prochlorococcus strains living in the modern ocean and containing cyanate-related genes utilize this compound in the environment.

Cyanate is produced by urea decomposition (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948) and by decomposition of carbamoyl phosphate, an intermediate in numerous biochemical pathways (Jones 1963, Appendices B and C). As a simple molecule with chemical linkages common in organic matter, cyanate is likely produced by other largely unexplored biotic and abiotic processes in aquatic systems such as pyrimidine, protein and peptide decomposition. However, the abundance and distribution of cyanate and its reactivity in marine environments is unknown because, until recently, we lacked a sensitive method to quantify it. Cyanobacterial cyanate hydratase appears to have evolved early (Kamennaya and Post 2011) suggesting cyanate could have served as an N source for cyanobacteria living on the pre-oxygenated Earth (Allen and Jones 1964). Cyanate may have formed on the prebiotic Earth by electric discharges in the presence of the prebiotic gases N₂, CO₂, and H₂ (Danger et al. 2012; Yamagata and Mohri 1982), and it is possible that cyanate played important roles in early Earth biogeochemistry (Falkowski 1997), contributing to the abiotic synthesis of pyrimidines (Ferris et al. 1968), adenosine diphosphate (ADP) (Yamagata 1999), N-carbarmoyl amino acids (Commeyras et al. 2005), and peptides (Danger et al. 2006). Understanding cyanate cycling in the modern ocean may therefore give important clues to both present day and early Earth N cycling.

I have developed a method to measure cyanate in seawater (Widner et al. 2013), and here I provide the first observations of: 1) cyanate distributions in present day North Atlantic coastal waters, 2) cyanate production through biotic and abiotic processes, and 3) cyanate uptake by natural microbial communities.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample Collection and Analysis of N compounds in the coastal North Atlantic

Samples and in situ field data were collected during a research cruise on the NOAA vessel, R/V Henry B. Bigelow, in the coastal North Atlantic Ocean, August 8-23, 2012 (Figure 5). Water samples were collected using twelve Niskin bottles mounted to a CTD rosette. Samples
for cyanate, urea, nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium analyses were filtered by gravity through a 0.2 µm membrane Millipore filter attached directly to the Niskin bottle and collected in duplicate sterile 15 mL polypropylene tubes. Three, 1 mL aliquots were transferred from the polypropylene tubes to acid-cleaned, combusted 4 mL amber glass vials for cyanate analysis. The remaining contents of the 15 mL tubes were stored at -20 °C for later analysis of urea, nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium concentrations.

Urea, nitrate, and nitrite concentrations were measured on an Astoria Pacific nutrient autoanalyzer using standard methods (Parsons et al. 1984). Ammonium was analyzed using the manual phenol-hypochlorite method (Solorzano 1969). Samples for cyanate analysis were derivatized at sea < 48 hours after collection and stored at -20 °C until they were quantified using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Widner et al. 2013). The method detection limits were 80, 70, 70, 40, and 0.4 nM for urea, nitrite, nitrate, ammonium, and cyanate analyses, respectively.

**Figure 5.** Station Locations for Chapter III. Mid-Atlantic Bight station (circle), Oligotrophic station (square), and the Gulf of Maine Transect stations (1-9), are superimposed on averages of satellite-derived sea surface chlorophyll (left) and temperature (right) during the sampling period for the August 2012 cruise. Six aerosol samples and three rain samples collected using the NADP sampler were collected inside the white box and three aerosol samples and two rain samples collected using the funnel were collected inside the black box.
Sample Collection and Analysis of N Compounds in a North Atlantic Oligotrophic Gyre

Samples and hydrographic data from the North Atlantic oligotrophic gyre were collected on August 9, 2014 aboard the R/V Hugh Sharp at 72.2 °West longitude and 31.5 °North latitude (Figure 5). Samples were collected using Niskin bottles mounted on a CTD rosette. Samples for cyanate, urea, nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium analysis were filtered using a peristaltic pump through a 0.2 µm membrane Millipore filter attached with cleaned silicone hosing to the Niskin bottle and filtrate was collected in sterile 15 mL polypropylene tubes for nitrate, nitrite, and urea, 2 mL sterile polypropylene tubes for cyanate, and 15 mL polypropylene tubes pre-conditioned with the orthophthalaldehyde (OPA) reagent for ammonium analysis (Holmes et al. 1999). To minimize ammonium contamination from filtration, the filtration apparatus was plastic, and the filter was rinsed with 2 L of site water before sample collection began. Filtration is believed by many to contaminate nanomolar ammonium samples, but I consistently measured sample fluorescence equal to the reagent blank, and I consider filtration necessary to stabilize samples for short-term storage in the refrigerator. Nutrient samples were stored at 4 °C until analysis within 48 hours of collection for nitrate, nitrite, and urea and 24 hours for ammonium. Cyanate samples were stored at -80 °C until analysis within 1 year of collection.

Urea, nitrate, and nitrite were analyzed on an Astoria Pacific nutrient autoanalyzer according to the manufacturer’s specifications and using standard colorimetric methods (Parsons et al. 1984). A waveguide was used for nitrate and nitrite to increase the sensitivity of these analyses (Zhang 2000). Ammonium was analyzed using the OPA method (Holmes et al. 1999) with modifications outlined by Taylor et al. (2007). Samples for cyanate analysis were thawed then derivatized immediately before quantification by HPLC (Widner et al. 2013). Detection limits were 80, 10, 10, 10, and 0.4 nM for urea, nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, and cyanate, respectively.

Atmospheric Deposition Measurements

Nine aerosol and five rain water samples were collected during the August 2014 cruise aboard the R/V Hugh Sharp (Figure 5). Aerosol and rainwater samplers were mounted on a platform above the ship's wheelhouse as far as possible from overhanging structures, masts, and cables. Samples were collected when the ship was steaming into the prevailing wind to avoid contamination from the ship's stacks and when there was minimal risk of contamination due to sea spray.
Aerosol samples were collected using a sampler equipped with a cascade impactor (Tisch Series 235) loaded with six acid-cleaned (0.5 N hydrochloric acid) Whatman 41 cellulose filters designed to capture particles in two size fractions (less than and greater than 1 μm) (Baker et al. 2003; Baker et al. 2007). One quarter of each filter was leached using 750 mL of nanopure water. The leachate was filtered (0.4 μm polycarbonate) and stored according to the methods described above for nutrient and cyanate analysis.

Two rainwater samples were collected using an automated N-Con Systems NADP rainwater sampler and three rain water samples were collected using a trace-metal clean polyethylene funnel attached to a 2L low density polyethylene (LDPE) bottle by a Teflon collar (Sedwick et al. 2007). The rain collection funnel and bottle were removed from their mountings immediately after rainfall ceased and samples were filtered and stored as described above.

**Photochemical Experiments**

Water samples for the photochemical experiments were collected from three different water systems: the Dismal Swamp (freshwater site) on December 5, 2012, the Elizabeth River (estuarine site) on January 16, 2013, and the Virginia Beach oceanfront (coastal oceanic site) on January 13, 2013 (Table 1). Water was filtered through a 0.2 μm Supor filter using a vacuum pump pressure of less than 5 mm Hg, the salinity was determined using a refractometer, and samples were stored in amber glass bottles until irradiation on January 16, 2013. Samples were irradiated in a solar simulator which mimicked springtime noon sunlight in the UV range between 295 and 365 nm (Helms et al. 2008; Minor et al. 2006). Nine quartz tubes for each water type were prepared, 3 of which were wrapped in aluminum foil, and placed in the solar simulator. After 2, 4, and 8 hours, duplicate quartz tubes and a dark tube were removed from the solar simulator to measure cyanate concentrations. The absorbance of each sample at 300 nm was determined using an Agilent 8453 UV-Vis Diode Array Spectrophotometer to account for differences between samples of different matrices. Photoproduction rates were normalized to the sample absorptivity at 300 nm (Bushaw-Newton and Moran 1999). Here, I report both absolute and normalized photoproduction rates (Table 1).

**Culture Experiments**

Cultures of two diatoms (*Thalassiosira pseudonana* and *Thalassiosira oceanica*) and one cyanobacterium (*Synechococcus* FWRI isolate CCFCW 502) were grown on f/2 media (Guillard
1975) with sodium silicate added for diatom cultures in quadruplicate bottles. All cultures were incubated in batch in loosely capped 1 L acid-washed and combusted borosilicate bottles under fluorescent lighting (39.5 uE m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) supplied on a 12 h light/12 h dark cycle. *T. pseudonana* and *Synechococcus* were incubated at 21 °C and *T. oceanica* was incubated at 25 °C. The *Thalassiosira* cultures were axenic prior to the experiment, but I microscopically confirmed the presence of bacteria after the cultures had incubated for one week. Non-autofluorescent bacteria were present in the *Synechococcus* cultures both before and during the experiment. In vivo fluorescence and cyanate concentrations were monitored daily for 17 days and then biweekly for 40 additional days. When cultures reached senescence, as determined by in vivo fluorescence, two culture bottles were placed in 24 hour darkness, while the other two bottles were maintained under the original light/dark cycle. At each time point, each culture bottle was tightly capped and gently inverted 3 times and then a 15 mL aliquot was removed using a sterile pipette to measure in vivo fluorescence on a Turner TD-700 Fluorometer equipped with a PN 7000-962 optical filter kit (436 nm excitation, 680 nm emission). This sample was then filtered through a 0.2 µm sterile Supor filter, and the filtrate was transferred to a sterile polypropylene tube and stored at -80 °C until cyanate analysis. Abiotic controls consisting of sterile f/2 media in acid-washed, combusted borosilicate bottles were also incubated and sampled at each time point for cyanate.

**Nitrogen Uptake**

Uptake of N from NH$_4$$^+$, NO$_3^-$, NO$_2^-$, urea, and cyanate was measured at 3 depths at a station in the oligotrophic North Atlantic during a cruise aboard the R/V Hugh Sharp (72.2 °W, 31.5 °N, Figure 5) using stable isotopes as tracers. Incubations were initiated with the addition of 100 nM of highly enriched (96-99%) $^{15}$N-labeled substrate. Samples were incubated for two hours at simulated in situ temperature and light conditions in a flow-thru deck incubator under neutral density screens. After two hours, incubations were filtered through pre-combusted GF/F filters. Particulate isotope enrichment was measured using a Europa 20/20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer equipped with an automated N and C analyzer. Uptake rates were calculated using a mixing model (Montoya et al. 1996; Mulholland et al. 2006; Orcutt et al. 2001). When ambient substrate concentrations were below detection, as was the case at most depths for urea, ammonium, and nitrite, a value one half that of the detection limit was used to calculate the uptake rate. This may have caused an over-estimation of some uptake rates.
Satellite Data

Sea surface temperature data are from MODIS, and sea surface chlorophyll data are from SeaWIFS and MODIS-Aqua obtained from the Ocean Biology Processing Group at the Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD. Both are averages over the cruise dates (August 8-23, 2012).

Gulf of Maine Section Plots

The Gulf of Maine section plots were constructed using Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, R., Ocean Data View, http://odv.awi.de, 2014).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Vertical profiles of cyanate were measured in the North Atlantic Ocean on the continental slope near the Mid-Atlantic Bight (MAB, Figure 5). Cyanate, urea, nitrite, and ammonium concentrations exhibited surface minima, consistent with biological consumption in the photic zone, and subsurface maxima, indicative of excess production over consumption at the base of the photic zone (Figure 6). Profiles of this shape are generally thought to reflect the balance of biological consumption in surface waters, production in subsurface waters as a result of remineralization, and oxidation to nitrate below the nitracline (Gruber 2008). Therefore, I infer that cyanate is biologically labile. Because cyanate exhibited vertical distributions similar to urea, ammonium, and nitrite, it is likely that, cyanate production and consumption processes are similar to or linked with those N compounds at the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Profiles of ammonium and nitrite generally reflect rates of removal through phytoplankton uptake in surface waters and ammonification and ammonium and nitrite oxidation (nitrification) in subsurface waters and rates of production through excretion and organic matter degradation (Gruber 2008; Lomas and Lipschultz 2006). Recent evidence suggests that cultured nitrifying bacteria can also oxidize cyanate when ammonium is unavailable (Palatinszky et al. 2015). If this process happens in the environment, it may partially explain the subsurface cyanate maximum as well as the depletion of cyanate below approximately 200 m. The gradual depletion of cyanate in deep waters, is likely due to abiotic and/or biotic degradation of cyanate to ammonium followed by nitrification. Although maximal cyanate concentrations were lower than those of urea, ammonium, and nitrite,
cyanate utilization and remineralization can still be quantitatively important if its production and consumption are tightly coupled as has been shown for ammonium (Gruber 2008).

Figure 6. Cyanate Distribution at the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Vertical profiles of density (black dashed line, sigma theta, kg m\(^{-3}\)), chlorophyll \(a\) (grey solid line, mg m\(^{-3}\)), nitrate (NO\(_3^-\)) (μM), nitrite (NO\(_2^-\)) (μM), ammonium (NH\(_4^+\)) (μM), urea (μM), and cyanate (OCN\(^-\)) (μM) from a Mid-Atlantic Bight station. The dashed vertical lines are the method detection limits (S/N=3), and the dashed horizontal line indicates the depth of the chlorophyll maximum. Concentrations below the detection limit were plotted as equal to the detection limit. Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation.

To determine whether the relationship between cyanate distributions and those of other simple N compounds is consistent across a highly productive coastal environment, cyanate, ammonium, nitrite, and nitrate distributions were examined with respect to salinity, temperature and chlorophyll \(a\) concentrations in a physically, biologically, and chemically heterogeneous shallow coastal region in the Gulf of Maine (GOM). Vertical profiles were measured at nine stations along a south to north transect from the continental shelf slope, across Georges Bank
(GB) and the GOM to the coast of Nova Scotia (Figures 5 and 7, Appendix E). Cyanate was generally more abundant on GB and in the GOM than in the more oligotrophic Gulf Stream-influenced slope waters. At stations on the slope and interior GOM basin, there were cyanate peaks below the chlorophyll maximum similar to what was observed in the MAB (Figure 7). However, on GB and at the nearshore station, elevated surface cyanate concentrations were coincident with weak stratification and high surface chlorophyll $a$ concentrations, and on GB, cyanate and chlorophyll $a$ concentrations were also high near the bottom suggesting a possible sedimentary source of cyanate (Figure 7). At these stations ammonium, nitrite, and nitrate were depleted in surface waters (Figure 7).

To help explain the vertical distributions of cyanate concentrations, I evaluated cyanate production from organic matter degradation. In the *Thalassiosira* cultures, cyanate concentrations increased linearly as biomass decreased during late stationary phase. Cyanate production slowed and stopped when cultures were placed in the dark but continued to increase in cultures supplied light (Figure 8 A-D), suggesting that cyanate was produced by a light-sensitive process such as N release by senescent diatoms. Cyanate production continued at the same rate in the *T. pseudonana* cultures during senescence and when the cultures began growing exponentially again after 40 days without additional nutrient amendments or transfer (Figure 8A). Cyanate did not accumulate in the *Synechococcus* cultures possibly because they didn’t produce it or because it was taken up at rates similar to production. Tight coupling between production and consumption has been observed for other reduced N compounds (Gruber 2008).
Figure 7. Cyanate and Dissolved Inorganic Nitrogen Distributions in the Gulf of Maine. Chlorophyll $a$ (mg m$^{-3}$), temperature ($^\circ$C), cyanate (nM), nitrate (μM), ammonium(μM), nitrite (μM), density (sigma theta, kg m$^{-3}$), and salinity (kg m$^{-3}$) along a transect in the Gulf of Maine here the colored contours represent interpolations of the given parameters between data points and data points are represented by grey lines and dots for continuous and discrete profiles, respectively. To the left is the offshore station (station 1, Figure 5) and to the right is the nearshore station (station 9, Figure 5). The Gulf of Maine (GOM) and Georges Bank (GB) are indicated in grey boxes. See Appendix E for cyanate, nitrate, ammonium, and nitrite concentrations.
Figure 8. Cyanate Production in Phytoplankton Cultures. The cultures were *Thalassiosira oceanica* (A and B), *Thalassiosira pseudonana* (C and D), and *Synechococcus* CCFCW 502 (E and F). Cultures maintained on a 12 hour light/dark cycle for the entire experiment are shown in panels A, C, and E, and cultures that were transferred to 24 hour darkness after reaching stationary phase are shown in panels B, D, and F where the shaded area indicates when the cultures were placed in the dark. *In vivo* fluorescence was used as a proxy for biomass and is shown in black, and cyanate concentrations corrected for sterile controls are shown in grey. Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation (n=2). Cyanate production rates during the linear portions were 5.0, 4.5, 9.1, and 6.5 nM d⁻¹ in *T. pseudonana* cultures in the light and dark and *T. oceanica* cultures in the light and dark, respectively (*R²* 0.97, 0.97, 0.93, and 0.94, respectively; all slope *p*-values <0.0001).
The vertical zonation of microbial communities with respect to light, physical gradients, and availability of nitrogenous substrates results in separation of nutrient regeneration processes by depth and the sequential accumulation of N cycle intermediates within and below the euphotic zone (Meeder et al. 2012). In vertical profiles collected from the MAB (Figure 6), the cyanate maximum was below that of urea indicating that cyanate might be produced from urea decomposition, analogous to the observation that nitrite accumulates below the ammonium maximum as a result of nitrification (Meeder et al. 2012). There is currently no known mechanism for biotic conversion of urea to cyanate, but abiotic decomposition of biologically produced urea and carbamoyl phosphate have been proposed as sources of cyanate production in marine systems (Kamennaya et al. 2008). Because C-N linkages are so common in organic matter it is also likely that there are many other pathways of cyanate production and decomposition, both biotic and abiotic, that remain to be discovered. Phytoplankton are also known to release labile metabolic intermediates when stressed (Bronk and Steinberg 2008), and so it is possible that *T. pseudonana* and *T. oceanica* directly released cyanate or that they released urea or carbamoyl phosphate which then degraded to cyanate either abiotically or through unknown biotic pathways. Direct phytoplankton release could explain the light-dependence of cyanate production in *Thalassiosira* cultures and the elevated cyanate concentrations correlated with high chlorophyll fluorescence on GB and at the nearshore end of the GOM transect. Organic matter degradation could also explain this trend and that of cyanate accumulation below the subsurface chlorophyll maxima.

Atmospheric N deposition (AND) can provide N for new production and contribute to eutrophication in the coastal ocean (Howarth and Marino 2006). Gaseous isocyanic acid (HOCN) is released by fossil fuel combustion (Nicholls and Nelson 2000), biomass burning (Roberts et al. 2011), and atmospheric photoproduction (Roberts et al. 2011). This isocyanic acid could be deposited to marine systems through precipitation (wet deposition) and through direct contact of aerosol particles and gases with the ocean surface (dry deposition). I measured wet and dry deposition of cyanate to the seasonally oligotrophic western North Atlantic which is known to receive large inputs of atmospheric N. Cyanate was below the limit of detection (0.4 nM) and urea was less than 1 μM in all and most rain water samples, respectively although dissolved inorganic nitrogen was present at micromolar concentrations in both wet and dry deposition samples (C. Sookhdeo pers. comm.). Isocyanic acid is rapidly hydrolyzed in clouds,
resulting in a lifetime of two hours to five days, depending on cloud encounter rates (Barth et al. 2013) and so any cyanate present in the air mass over land would likely have degraded to ammonium before deposition and so its absence from rain water is not entirely unexpected.

I observed cyanate photoproduction rates ranging from 0.4 to 14 nM h\(^{-1}\) (Figure 9, Table 4). These rates were similar in magnitude to previously reported ammonium and amino acid photoproduction rates (Mopper et al. 2015). Photoproduction of cyanate could have contributed to the elevated surface cyanate concentrations on GB and at the nearshore end of the GOM transect, particularly if biotic uptake was lower than photoproduction as has been observed for other simple organic compounds (Kieber et al. 1989). Alternatively, GOM coastal waters experience dense algal blooms which could produce large amounts of labile dissolved organic matter including cyanate and/or cyanate precursors. Cyanate production from degrading organic matter could occur within dense algal blooms, just below them, or in the sediments where they are deposited. Cyanate can then accumulate in place or nearby, depending on the rate of its production and circulation patterns. High cyanate concentrations near the coast relative to continental slope waters south of GB (Figure 7) could also indicate terrestrial cyanate sources, including urban, industrial, and agricultural runoff and decomposition of N compounds therein (such as urea and organic matter) to cyanate (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948; Glibert et al. 2006). Cyanate is not monitored in industrial or municipal wastewater discharges (Johnson 2015) so it is not known whether they are significant sources of cyanate to receiving waters.

When I compared cyanate uptake rates with those of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, and urea, I found that cyanate contributed up to 10% of total N uptake, and cyanate uptake rates were comparable to those of nitrate and nitrite but lower than those of ammonium and urea which together accounted for > 50% of total N uptake (Figure 10, Table 5). As for other N compounds, cyanate uptake was higher near the surface corresponding to lower cyanate concentrations (< 1 nM) than at the chlorophyll fluorescence maximum where cyanate concentrations were highest (Figure 10A). Cyanate turnover times were 1.6 and 76 hours in surface waters and at the chlorophyll maximum, respectively, which were shorter than turnover times calculated for nitrate and nitrite (Table 5).
Figure 9. Cyanate Photoproduction. The samples irradiate were sterile (0.2 μm filtered) fresh (open circles), estuarine (squares), and coastal oceanic (closed circles). The cyanate concentrations shown are the concentration measured in each sample less the cyanate concentration in the corresponding dark control. Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation (n=2).

Table 4. Cyanate Photoproduction Rates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Latitude (°N)</th>
<th>Longitude (°W)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>Production Rate (nM h⁻¹)</th>
<th>Normalized Production Rate (nM m h⁻¹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1²</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Dismal Swamp</td>
<td>36.600</td>
<td>76.382</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.6 (0.7)</td>
<td>2.3 (0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elizabeth River</td>
<td>36.886</td>
<td>76.319</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.4 (0.0)</td>
<td>8.4 (3.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia Beach</td>
<td>36.903</td>
<td>75.988</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0.4 (0.4)</td>
<td>3.4 (1.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Normalized rates were the production rate normalized to the absorbance at 300 nm.
² Rates were calculated for the first two hours (1), second 2 hours (2), and final 4 hours (3).
Figure 10. Cyanate and Total Nitrogen Uptake in at the North Atlantic Oligotrophic Station. A) Cyanate uptake (diamonds), cyanate concentration (circles), and chlorophyll fluorescence (dashed line). Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation (n=3). B) Total N uptake at each depth as the sum of ammonium (diagonal lines), nitrate (solid black), nitrite (hatched), urea (solid grey), and cyanate (black and white checked) uptake.
Table 5. Concentration, Uptake Rates, and Turnover Times of N compounds at the Oligotrophic Station.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Concentration (nM)</th>
<th>Nitrate</th>
<th>Nitrite</th>
<th>Ammonium</th>
<th>Urea</th>
<th>Cyanate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</td>
<td>0.3(0.1)</td>
<td>3.5(0.6)</td>
<td>3.6(0.2)</td>
<td>2.1(0.2)</td>
<td>0.6(0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Turnover Time (h)</td>
<td>109.9</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Concentration (nM)</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</td>
<td>0.1(0.1)</td>
<td>0.4(0.1)</td>
<td>2.7(1.8)</td>
<td>2.1(1.0)</td>
<td>0.6(0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Turnover Time (h)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>Concentration (nM)</td>
<td>691.0</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</td>
<td>0.3(0.0)</td>
<td>0.1(0.1)</td>
<td>1.8(0.3)</td>
<td>2.0(1.0)</td>
<td>0.1(0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Turnover Time (h)</td>
<td>2217</td>
<td>402.9</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 b.d.l. signifies concentrations below the method detection limit.
2 Standard deviations (n = 3) are in parentheses.
3 Turnover times could not be calculated when concentrations were below the limit of detection.

The distribution of cyanate and the similarity in magnitude of production and community uptake rates relative to those of other dissolved N compounds suggests that cyanate is an important component of nitrogen cycling in coastal marine environments and that its production and consumption are tightly coupled. Here I provide the first comprehensive set of measurements comparing the distributions of cyanate to those of other biogeochemically important N compounds in the ocean. I also demonstrate for the first time that cyanate can be produced via decomposition of phytoplankton and photoproduction, and that cyanate uptake is quantitatively important in the environment. However, many questions remain regarding the biotic and abiotic sources and sinks of cyanate in disparate marine environments, the organisms and biochemical pathways that produce and consume cyanate in the present day ocean, regional and seasonal trends in cyanate biogeochemistry, and its possible role in the evolution of life.
CHAPTER IV

CYANATE DISTRIBUTION AND UPTAKE IN NORTH ATLANTIC COASTAL WATERS

PREFACE

The content of this Chapter is submitted for publication in *Limnology and Oceanography*.

INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen (N) limits phytoplankton growth and primary productivity in much of the world's oceans, yet the majority of the dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) pool remains uncharacterized and therefore the biogeochemical reactivity of most DON compounds unknown (Sipler and Bronk 2015). Cyanate (OCN⁻) is arguably the simplest organic N compound, and it is a source of N for marine microbial communities (B. Widner et al. unpubl.). Genes for cyanate metabolism evolved early suggesting cyanate could have contributed to cyanobacterial evolution. These genes were likely more common in ancestral cyanobacteria than they are today (Kamennaya and Post 2011).

In modern cyanobacteria, cyanate uptake and intracellular decomposition is encoded by an ABC-type cyanate-specific transporter (*cynABD*) (Espie et al. 2007) and a cyanate lyase (*cynS*) which catalyzes bicarbonate-dependent decomposition of cyanate to ammonium (NH₄⁺) and carbon dioxide (CO₂) (Anderson et al. 1990). *cynABDS* was identified in cultured strains of the marine cyanobacteria *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* (Palenik et al. 2003; Rocap et al. 2003) and later identified in natural cyanobacterial populations from diverse geographical regions including the Red Sea, Southern Ocean, Mediterranean Sea, Indian Ocean (Kamennaya and Post 2013), and temperate North Pacific Ocean (A. Post pers. comm.) leading to the hypothesis that cyanate may serve as a N source for these ubiquitous organisms. A second cyanate lyase, *cynH*, has been identified in cyanobacteria (Kamennaya and Post 2011), and a putative cyanate transporter, *cynX*, has been identified in some environmental microorganisms, including an aquatic bacterium, *Chromobacterium violaceum*, and a marine ammonium oxidizing bacterium, *Nitrosococcus oceani* (Anderson et al. 1990; Carepo et al. 2004; Klotz et al. 2006; Pao et al. 1998). To our knowledge, no cyanate transporter has been identified in
eukaryotes, but \textit{cynS} has been identified in species of animals, plants, and fungi as well as some bacteria (Guilloton et al. 2002) and archaea (Spang et al. 2012).

The marine phytoplankton \textit{Prochlorococcus} MED4, \textit{Synechococcus} WH8102, and \textit{Prorocentrum donghaiense} have been cultured on cyanate as the sole N source (Hu et al. 2012; Kamennaya et al. 2008; Palenik et al. 2003), as has an ammonium oxidizing archaea, \textit{Nitrososphaera gargensis}, which also utilized cyanate as the sole reductant, oxidizing cyanate N to nitrite (Palatinszky et al. 2015). Bacteria that have been grown on cyanate as the sole N source include \textit{Escherichia coli} (Guilloton and Karst 1987), \textit{Pseudomonas fluorescens} (Dorr and Knowles 1989), and \textit{Methylobacterium thiocyanatum} (Wood et al. 1998). Cultures of \textit{Synechococcus sp.} PCC6301 took up cyanate C (Espie et al. 2007), and coastal microbial populations had a high affinity for cyanate, similar to those measured for ammonium, nitrate, and urea (Mulholland and Lomas, 2008; Chapter III). Using a newly developed sub-nanomolar assay we measured cyanate concentrations from 0.9 to 40 nM in samples from the Chesapeake Bay and Mid-Atlantic Bight (Widner et al. 2013), and on the North Atlantic continental shelf and slope cyanate accumulated below the deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) but was depleted in surface and deeper waters (Chapter III), a distribution that has also been observed for nitrite and ammonium (Gruber 2008) and is suggestive of net consumption in surface waters and production below.

In this study, we measured cyanate concentrations in coastal waters at 35 stations from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia including stations in the Mid-Atlantic Bight, Gulf of Maine, and Georges Bank. We also measured cyanate concentrations and N- and C- specific cyanate uptake during four cruises to the study region in three seasons, and we evaluated trends in uptake rate by season, geographical region, and depth.

\textbf{METHODS}

\textit{Study Site and Sample Collection}

Cyanate uptake was measured in samples collected during cruises aboard the NOAA Ship \textit{Delaware II} during May 26 - June 9, 2010, November 6-21, 2010, June 3-15, 2011, and aboard the NOAA Ship \textit{Henry B. Bigelow} during August 8-23, 2012 at stations selected at random as part of the NOAA Ecological Monitoring (EcoMon) program. Randomized sampling was
advantageous for this study because these were the first measurements of cyanate uptake and a more focused sampling strategy may have biased the results. Cyanate concentrations were measured during the August 2012 cruise at stations selected nonrandomly by the EcoMon program to monitor nutrient distributions and fluxes within important basins and at major estuarine outflows. The region sampled was a portion of the North American North Atlantic continental shelf and slope between Cape Hatteras and Nova Scotia (65-76°W, 35-45 °N). The study site is characterized by three distinct ecoregions: the Mid-Atlantic Shelf (MAS), the Gulf of Maine (GOM), and Georges Bank (GB; Figure 11). Water samples were collected and vertical profiles of temperature, salinity, chlorophyll fluorescence, and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) were measured to a maximum depth of 500 m using a CTD mounted to a 12 Niskin rosette. Euphotic depth was calculated as the depth at which PAR was 1% of surface irradiance, and mixed layer depth (MLD) was defined as a sigma-t change of 0.125. Chlorophyll inventory was calculated using trapezoidal integration of the continuous chlorophyll profile collected by the CTD.

Figure 11. Distribution stations from August 2012. The dotted line represents the division between the Mid-Atlantic Shelf (MAS) and Gulf of Maine/Georges Bank (GBGOM) study regions, and the shading represent bathymetry.
Water samples for nitrate, nitrite, ammonium and cyanate analyses were collected from the Niskin bottles by gravity filtering (0.2 μm Millipore filter) water directly into duplicate polypropylene conical tubes (15 ml) for ammonium and single polypropylene conical tubes (15 ml) for nitrate and nitrite. Sub-samples were then transferred from the polypropylene tubes into 3 amber glass vials (4 ml) for cyanate analysis. The remaining samples were frozen and stored at -20 °C until analysis.

**Nutrient and Chlorophyll a Analysis**

Nitrate and nitrite were analyzed on an autoanalyzer using standard methods (Parsons et al. 1984). Ammonium was measured using the phenol hypochlorite method (Solorzano 1969). Detection limits were 70, 70, and 40 nM for nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium, respectively. The nitracline depth was calculated as the middle depth between the first sample with a concentration > 100 nM and the sample above it (Dore and Karl 1996). Chlorophyll a samples were collected onto GF/F filters (0.7 μM) and analyzed fluorometrically (Welschmeyer 1994).

**Cyanate Analysis and Modifications to Method**

Cyanate was derivatized at sea in the amber vials and stored at -20 °C until analysis using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with modifications to the Widner et al. (2013) method. We encountered some anomalously high and variable data that was likely the result of sample contamination. We believe this occurred at sea as the derivatization process requires manipulation steps during which the samples could have been exposed to airborne contaminants. We therefore recommend sample storage at -80 °C and derivatization in a more controlled laboratory environment.

Derivatized samples contain 6 N hydrochloric acid which damaged the HPLC autosampler after repeated use leading to irregular injection volume, injection of bubbles, and costly instrument repairs. To ameliorate this problem, we neutralized the samples by adding 10 N sodium hydroxide (0.72 mL) to 0.9 mL derivatized sample in a 2 ml combusted amber vial. A precipitate formed upon addition of NaOH, and so, when the samples reached room temperature we inverted them 5 times and waited for the precipitate to settle to the bottom prior to injection on the HPLC. The needle height was adjusted to prevent injection of the precipitate, and the autosampler chiller was turned off to prevent sample stratification from uneven cooling. We found that derivatized, neutralized samples were stable up to 72 hours at room temperature. The
mobile phase was adjusted to 70:30 5% TFA/100% methanol, and the flow rate and sample injection volume were adjusted to 200 μL/min and 400 μL, respectively.

All cyanate, nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium concentrations can be found in Appendix F, and a link to the CTD data can be found in Appendix G.

**Uptake Methods**

Cyanate uptake was measured in water collected from the surface and the DCM depth on each cruise. Whole water from each depth was transferred from Niskin bottles into 10 L carboys from which 500 ml PETG incubation bottles were filled for tracer experiments. When weather conditions did not permit deployment of the CTD rosette, surface water was collected from the ships' flow-through systems which were located at depths of approximately 3.7 and 5 m on the bows of the NOAA Ships Delaware and Bigelow, respectively, and were cleaned with 5% bleach or flushed with freshwater before each cruise for the Delaware and Bigelow, respectively. Uptake experiments were initiated by amending incubation bottles with $^{15}$N$^{13}$C-labeled potassium cyanate ($K^13C^15N$). Our intent was to make trace additions (2-10%) to avoid perturbing the community and thereby obtain realistic rates of *in situ* cyanate uptake (Mulholland et al. 2009). In May/June 2010, marine cyanate concentrations were unknown, so we added 100 nM $K{}^{13}C^{15}N$ so that tracer additions of cyanate were the same as those used to measure ammonium, nitrite, nitrate, and urea uptake (M. R. Mulholland pers. comm.). Prior to the November 2010 cruise, we made the first measurements of cyanate in a Chesapeake Bay estuary and found that concentrations were < 50 nM (Chapter II). Consequently, on the remaining cruises, we decreased tracer additions to 30 nM. This addition was greater than 10% of the *in situ* cyanate concentrations during the 4th cruise and so it is possible that uptake was stimulated by the tracer addition in some or all of our experiments.

Bottles were incubated in one of two deck incubators equipped with flow-through surface seawater to maintain surface water temperature and neutral density screens to reduce incident light to approximately 55% and 30% of ambient. After two hours, each sample was filtered through a combusted GF/F filter (0.7 μM), rinsed with filtered seawater, placed in a sterile cryovial, and stored at -20 °C. Upon return to the laboratory, filters were dried at 40 °C, pelletized in tin capsules, and analyzed on a Europa 20/20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer equipped with an automated N and C analyzer. Uptake rates were calculated using a mixing model (Montoya et al. 1996; Mulholland et al. 2006; Orcutt et al. 2001). On cruises where
cyanate concentrations were not measured (May/June 2010, November 2010, June 2011), the average cyanate concentration from August 2012 (3 nM) was used to calculate cyanate uptake rates. Limits of detection (LOD) were calculated as the uptake rate calculated when the atom percent enrichment was equal to the LOD of the mass spectrometer (3 x the standard deviation of 7 standards of 12.5 µg N/ 100 µg C). Because the LOD was influenced by incubation time and particulate N and C concentrations, we calculated an individual LOD for each experiment and used that number to determine if the corresponding rate was below the LOD (BDL). The average LODs were 0.02 and 0.03 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹ for N and C uptake, respectively and ranged from < 0.01 to 0.13 and < 0.01 to 0.05 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹ for N and C, respectively. In statistical calculations uptake rates that were BDL were reported as 0.01 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹.

**Calculation of cyanate production from abiotic urea decomposition**

Abiotic urea decomposition to cyanate and cyanate decomposition to NH₄⁺ are first order reactions (Equations (1) and (2)) (Amell 1956; Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948; Hagel et al. 1971).

\[
\text{urea} \rightarrow \text{cyanate} + \text{NH}_4^+ \\
\text{cyanate} \rightarrow \text{NH}_4^+ + \text{CO}_2
\]

Hypothetical cyanate production from abiotic urea decomposition was calculated using two methods. For both methods, we assumed a urea concentration of either the mean or maximum observed by Filippino et al. (2011) in the Mid-Atlantic Bight (0.1 and 0.6 µM, respectively). First, a cyanate production rate was calculated using the urea decomposition rate constant that Hagel et al. (1971) developed in a sodium nitrate solution with ionic strength 0.25 at 25 °C (k, 5.04e-8 min⁻¹) according to Equation (3).

\[
\text{rate} = k \times [\text{urea}]
\]

Then a new k was calculated from the NH₄⁺ production experiments of Kamennaya and Post (2008) and utilized to calculate urea decomposition to cyanate. Because one mole of urea produces one mole of NH₄⁺ during decomposition (Equation 2) and another mole of NH₄⁺ is produced following the decomposition of the cyanate produced (Equation 3), the abiotic NH₄⁺ production rate can be calculated from Equation (4) where rate_{urea} is the rate of urea decomposition (Equation 2), rate_{cyanate} is the rate of cyanate decomposition (Equation 3), and rateₜ is the total rate of NH₄⁺ production from urea. To make this calculation, we assumed that abiotic decomposition of urea and cyanate were the only processes consuming urea, producing
and consuming cyanate, and producing \( \text{NH}_4^+ \) and that the rates of reverse reactions were negligible.

\[
\text{rate}_{\text{cyanate}} + (2 \times \text{rate}_{\text{urea}}) = \text{rate}_T \tag{4}
\]

Kamennaya and Post (2008) measured production of \( \text{NH}_4^+ \) from 20 \( \mu \text{M} \) urea and cyanate in solutions of abiotic Sargasso seawater. \( \text{NH}_4^+ \) production from urea and cyanate was 8.3 and 19.3 nmol l\(^{-1}\) h\(^{-1}\), respectively. We used these production rates and Equation (1) to calculate a cyanate production rate constant \( k \) of 0.00028 h\(^{-1}\) from 20 \( \mu \text{M} \) urea. This rate constant was substituted into Equation (1) to calculate a hypothetical cyanate production rate in the Mid-Atlantic Bight based on urea concentrations observed there by Filippino et al. (2011).

**Statistics**

All statistical analyses were performed using Matlab software. In order to test differences between cyanate uptake by season, region, and depth, we performed 3 separate 3-way ANOVAs for N-specific uptake, C-specific uptake, and uptake C:N ratio where the factors were cruise (May/June 2010, November 2010, June 2011, and August 2012), region (Mid-Atlantic Shelf and Georges Bank/Gulf of Maine), and depth (surface and DCM). We included interaction terms in the ANOVAs and used a Type III Sum of Squares because of uneven sample sizes. The assumption of normality of residuals was not met, so we created a randomized F distribution with 10,000 iterations to calculate the p value (Manly 1997). P values that met the criterion of \( \alpha < 0.05 \) were considered significant.

**RESULTS**

**Cyanate Distribution**

The study region was heterogeneous physically, chemically, and biologically. Surface temperature and salinity ranged from 5 to 25 °C and 32 to 36, respectively. Using temperature-salinity (TS) diagrams (Figure 12) and bathymetric features, we organized stations into three categories: Shelf, Slope, and Basin stations. Shelf stations were located on the continental shelf, excluding deep stations in the interior Gulf of Maine, and ranged in salinity from 32 to 34.3. Slope stations were located in relatively deep waters on the continental slope and were more saline than Shelf stations ranging in salinity from 34 to 37. Stations located in the interior Gulf of Maine with a maximum depth of at least 200 m were classified as Basin stations because
physical and bathymetric features in the Gulf of Maine cause this continental shelf sea to have characteristics of both Shelf and Slope stations (Townsend et al. 2006).
Figure 12. Temperature-Salinity diagrams of each station category. Shelf (A), Basin (B), and Slope (C) stations are depicted. Shading corresponds to cyanate concentration (nM). Some data are reproduced from Chapter III.
In surface waters, cyanate concentrations were higher nearshore than offshore, and cyanate was slightly elevated on shallow Georges Bank and near the Bay of Fundy (Figure 12) where the water column was well-mixed and chlorophyll was elevated at the surface (Chapter III, this Chapter). At the majority of stations, cyanate was depleted in surface waters (Figure 13) and accumulated below the DCM (Figures 14 & 15). This was especially true at Slope stations where cyanate concentrations decreased below the subsurface maximum (Figures 12A & 14D). At Basin stations, cyanate decreased below the subsurface maxima but remained detectable (~5 nM) at the bottom of the water column (Figures 12C & 14D). Cyanate profiles were more variable at Shelf stations than at Basin and Slope stations, probably because of the increased physical, bathymetric, and biological heterogeneity of these stations. At some Shelf stations there was a subsurface cyanate maximum as observed at Slope and Basin stations (Figures 12B, 14A), whereas at other Shelf stations, the water column was well-mixed and cyanate was uniformly distributed with depth (Figures 12B & 14B). At other Shelf stations cyanate accumulated to maximum levels near the bottom of the water column (Figures 12B and 14C),
possibly due to the shallowness of the water column relative to the DCM depth or to a sediment cyanate source.

**Figure 14.** Representative profiles of N and chlorophyll $a$. Profiles are shown for shelf (A-C), basin (D), and slope (E) stations depicting chlorophyll $a$ (chl $a$, shaded region), cyanate (OCN$^-$, open circles), nitrite (NO$_2^-$, closed circles), and nitrate (NO$_3^-$, squares). Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation ($n = 3$).
Figure 15. Correlations between the depth of the cyanate and nitrite peaks and euphotic depth (A), nitracline (B), and deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) (C) depths. Cyanate and nitrite maximum depths are depicted in black and grey, respectively, for Basin stations (squares), Shelf stations (diamonds), and Slope stations (circles). Dashed lines represent a 1 to 1 relationship and solid and dotted lines represent statistically significant correlations for cyanate ($y = 1.4 + 20, p = 0.010, R^2 = 0.47$ for panel C) and nitrite ($y = 1.1 + 22, p = 0.055, R^2 = 0.42$ for panel B and $y = 1.5 - 3.8, p = 0.001, R^2 = 0.95$ for panel C), respectively for criteria $\alpha = 0.1$. Some data are reproduced from Chapter III.
Because the cyanate maximum was below the DCM, similar to the typical profiles of other labile, regenerated N compounds such as ammonium and nitrite (Gruber 2008), we compared vertical profiles of cyanate to these compounds as well as nitrate. We were unable to directly compare the cyanate maximum with the ammonium maximum because ammonium maxima were not observed at many stations, possibly due to our high detection limit (0.04 μM). The cyanate maximum (CM) was generally deeper than the primary nitrite maximum (PNM), euphotic depth, nitracline, and DCM (Figure 15). The depth of the cyanate maximum was not correlated with euphotic or nitracline depth, but it was loosely correlated with the DCM depth ($R^2 = 0.47$, $p = 0.010$, Figure 15C) independent of station type. The maximum cyanate concentration for each station was correlated with depth-integrated chlorophyll $a$ in the overlying water (Figure 16A, $R^2 = 0.79$, $p < 0.001$) at Basin and Shelf stations but not at Slope stations. Cyanate was not directly correlated with chlorophyll $a$ concentrations (Figure 16B). The maximum nitrite concentration for each station was not significantly correlated with depth-integrated chlorophyll $a$ in the euphotic zone (Figure 16A, $R^2 = 0.52$, $p = 0.081$) for criteria $\alpha = 0.05$, probably due to the small sample size.

**Cyanate Uptake**

Cyanate uptake was observed on all four cruises (Figure 17, Tables 6-9). N uptake from cyanate was higher on average than C uptake from cyanate ($1.3 \pm 1.9$ and $0.4 \pm 0.6$ nmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$, respectively, paired t-test, $p < 0.001$) suggesting that cyanate was used primarily as an N source. Despite low data density in this heterogeneous study region, 3-way ANOVAs revealed significant differences between: 1) cruises for N uptake ($F = 5.4$, $p = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.12$), C uptake ($F = 5.9$, $p = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.14$), and C:N uptake from cyanate ($F = 16.2$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.27$); 2) regions for C uptake ($F = 3.7$, $p = 0.049$, $R^2 = 0.03$) and C:N uptake from cyanate ($F = 14.7$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.08$); and 3) the interaction between cruise and region for C:N uptake from cyanate ($F = 10.5$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.18$). No significant differences were found between: 1) regions for N uptake, 2) depth for N and C uptake and C:N uptake from cyanate; or 3) any of the other interaction terms.
Figure 16. Relationship between cyanate concentration and chlorophyll $a$. A) The maximum concentrations of cyanate and nitrite at each station where a well-resolved cyanate or nitrite subsurface maximum was found. Maximum cyanate and nitrite concentrations are depicted in black and grey, respectively, for Basin (squares), Shelf (diamonds), and Slope (circles) stations. The maximum cyanate and nitrite concentrations were significantly correlated with chlorophyll inventory for all stations for $\alpha = 0.05$ and 0.1, respectively ($y = 0.02x + 3.7$, $p = 0.007$, $R^2 = 0.37$ for cyanate and ($y = 0.001x + 0.01$, $p = 0.081$, $R^2 = 0.52$ for nitrite, dashed line), but the correlation for cyanate was stronger when slope stations were excluded ($y = 0.04 + 2.5$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.79$, solid line) and there was no significant correlation for Slope stations alone. B) There was no direct correlation between chlorophyll $a$ and cyanate concentrations. Some data are reproduced from Chapter III. Error bars for cyanate are ± 1 standard deviation ($n = 3$).

C uptake from cyanate was significantly higher in August 2012 than in May/June 2010 (Table 10), while N uptake from cyanate was significantly higher in May/June 2010 and June 2011 than in November 2010 (Table 10). C:N uptake from cyanate was significantly higher in November 2010 than during the other three cruises (Table 10). Both C uptake and the C:N ratio from cyanate uptake were significantly higher in the MAS than GBGOM, while there was no significant difference in N uptake from cyanate by region (Table 10). The C:N uptake ratio was significantly higher during the November 2010 cruise in the MAS region than during any of the other cruises and regions (Table 10). This is likely a result of the extremely low N uptake rates from cyanate in November 2010 and higher cyanate C uptake rates on the MAS independent of cruise.
Although there was no significant difference between N uptake, C uptake, or C:N uptake from cyanate between DCM and surface waters, at 65% of stations, N uptake from cyanate at the surface exceeded that at the DCM, at 73% of stations, cyanate C uptake at the DCM exceeded that measured at the surface, and the cyanate C:N uptake ratio was higher at the DCM than at the surface at 69% of stations (Figure 18). Cyanate uptake was not correlated with NO$_3^-$+NO$_2^-$ concentration, chlorophyll concentration (Figure 19), cyanate concentration (August 2012 only), temperature, or salinity (data not shown) except where temperature reflected seasonality. However, the highest rates of both N and C uptake from cyanate occurred at relatively low NO$_3^-$+NO$_2^-$ concentrations (Figures 19A and B).

**Figure 17.** Binned uptake data from all four cruises at the surface. The circle sizes correspond to the binned N-specific uptake rate. Cruises are May/June 2010 (A), November 2010 (B), June 2011 (C), and August 2012 (D). The greyscale represents sea surface chlorophyll (mg m$^{-3}$).
Figure 18. Cyanate uptake at the surface and deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM). A) N uptake, B) C uptake, and C) C:N of cyanate uptake depicted by cruise: May/June 2010 (grey diamonds); November 2010 (black squares); June 2011 (black circles); and August 2012 (open circles). Error bars are ± 1 average deviation (panels A and B only). The dashed line is the 1:1 line where surface and chlorophyll maximum rates would be equal. Uptake rates below their respective detection limit were plotted as 0.02 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹.
Figure 19. Correlation between N- and C- specific cyanate uptake and \( \text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^- \) and chlorophyll \( \alpha \) for all cruises: May/June 2010 (grey diamonds), November 2010 (black squares), June 2011 (black circles), and August 2012 (open circles). Error bars are ± 1 average deviation.
Table 6. Water properties and cyanate uptake rates (N and C) in May/June 2010. All samples were collected on the NOAA ship Delaware II. Standard deviations are in parentheses. Standard deviations of 0.00 or 0.0 indicate that the standard deviation was < 0.01 or 0.1, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latitude (°N)</th>
<th>Longitude (°W)</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Chl a (µg/L)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>NO₃+NO₂ (µM)</th>
<th>Cyanate uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>MAS</td>
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<td>0.09(0.00)  0.10(0.01) 1.10</td>
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Table 6. Continued

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<th>Chl a (µg/L)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>NO3+NO2 (µM)</th>
<th>Cyanate uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</th>
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<td>32.8</td>
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Table 7. Water properties and cyanate uptake rates (N and C) All samples were collected on the NOAA ship Delaware II. Standard deviations are in parentheses. Standard deviations of 0.00 or 0.0 indicate that the standard deviation was < 0.01 or 0.1, respectively.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Latitude (°N)</th>
<th>Longitude (°W)</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Chl a (µg/L)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>NO3+NO2 (µM)</th>
<th>Cyanate uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</th>
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<td>0.5(0.1)</td>
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<td>7.1(1.1)</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>b.d.l. 0.40(0.02) N/A</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14.6</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>3.98(4.23)</td>
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<td>Temperature (°C)</td>
<td>Salinity</td>
<td>NO$_3$+NO$_2$ (µM)</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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* Sample collected from ship's flow through system.
Table 8. Water properties and cyanate uptake rates (N and C) in June 2011. All samples were collected on the NOAA ship *Delaware II*. Standard deviations are in parentheses. Standard deviations of 0.00 or 0.0 indicate that the standard deviation was < 0.01 or 0.1, respectively.

<table>
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<th>Latitude  °N</th>
<th>Longitude  °W</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Chl a (µg/L)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>NO₃+NO₂ (µM)</th>
<th>Cyanate uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>C:N</th>
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<td>33.3</td>
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<td>31.9</td>
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<td>32.3</td>
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Table 8. Continued

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<th>Longitude (°W)</th>
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<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Chl a (µg/L)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>NO$_3$+NO$_2$ (µM)</th>
<th>Cyanate uptake (nmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$)</th>
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<th>C</th>
<th>C:N</th>
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<td>b.d.l.</td>
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<td>10.4</td>
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<td>0.08(0.00)</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Sample collected from ship's flow through system.

Table 9. Water properties and cyanate uptake rates (N and C) in August 2012. All samples were collected on the NOAA ship *Henry B. Bigelow*. Standard deviations are in parentheses. Standard deviations of 0.00 or 0.0 indicate that the standard deviation was < 0.01 or 0.1, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latitude (°N)</th>
<th>Longitude (°W)</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Chl a (µg/L)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Salinity</th>
<th>NO$_3$+NO$_2$ (µM)</th>
<th>Cyanate uptake (nmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>C:N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40.371</td>
<td>-71.671</td>
<td>MAS</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.5(0.4)</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>b.d.l.</td>
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<td>MAS</td>
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<td>31.2</td>
<td>1.08(1.35)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>MAS</td>
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<td>26.8</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>0.22(0.10)</td>
<td>0.74(0.09)</td>
<td>0.16(0.05)</td>
<td>0.21</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>b.d.l.</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Chl a (µg/L)</td>
<td>Temperature (°C)</td>
<td>Salinity</td>
<td>NO$_3$+NO$_2$ (µM)</td>
<td>Cyanate uptake (nmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>C:N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
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<td>34.3</td>
<td>0.18(0.02)</td>
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<td>32.7</td>
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<td>16.1</td>
<td>35.2</td>
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<td>32.5</td>
<td>0.28(0.00)</td>
<td>0.42(0.09)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14.9</td>
<td>35.5</td>
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<td>0.69(0.39)</td>
<td>1.50(0.01)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>-67.077</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>0.3(0.4)</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>33.1</td>
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<td>31.7</td>
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<td>0.58(0.09)</td>
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</table>
**Table 10.** Means associated with ANOVAs + Tukey significance for cyanate uptake. Interaction means are only shown for region and cruise because depth was not significant for anything. Tukey test p-values are indicated by symbols below the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cruise</th>
<th>N uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</th>
<th>C uptake (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹)</th>
<th>Uptake C:N</th>
<th>Cruise Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GBGOM</td>
<td>MAS</td>
<td>Cruise Total</td>
<td>GBGOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.0(0.0)</td>
<td>0.1(0.1)†</td>
<td>0.2(0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.8(2.9)†</td>
<td>0.0(0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 2012</td>
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<td>1.0(1.1)</td>
<td>1.1(1.0)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region Total</td>
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<td>1.6(2.4)</td>
<td>0.3(0.4)β</td>
<td>0.4(0.8)β</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p = 0.0017; † p = 0.0048; a p = 0.0006; β p = 0.0480; γ p < 0.0001; ♯ p < 0.0001; ♦ p < 0.0001; ¤ p = 0.0002; η p < 0.0001;
θ p < 0.0001; ♦ p < 0.0001; ξ p < 0.0001; δ p < 0.0001; ε p < 0.0001; ζ p < 0.0001; † p < 0.0001; ♦ p < 0.0001; ♦ p < 0.0
Cyanate Production from Urea

Using the rate constant of Hagel et al. (1971), we calculated that the rate of abiotic cyanate production from urea at the Mid-Atlantic Bight could be 0.0004 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹ and up to 0.002 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹ based on previously reported average and maximum urea concentrations in this region (Filippino et al. 2011). However, building upon the work of Kamennaya and Post (2008) and assuming that the urea decomposition rate is independent of its concentration, the rate of abiotic cyanate production from urea could have been as high as 0.03 or 0.20 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹ for the mean and maximum urea concentrations, respectively.

DISCUSSION

During August, 2012, cyanate concentrations in coastal waters in the Gulf of Maine, Georges Bank, and mid-Atlantic Bight ranged from below the limit of detection (0.4 nM) to 11 nM (Figure 11, Appendix G). Nanomolar concentrations are typical for small biologically labile reduced N compounds (Sipler and Bronk 2015), and absolute concentrations reflect the balance of production and consumption. For example, while ammonium is frequently at the limit of analytical detection in surface waters, it typically accounts for a large fraction of the total N utilization and its production and consumption are tightly coupled (Bronk and Steinberg 2008; Mulholland and Lomas 2008). Cyanate concentrations were generally higher nearshore than offshore, suggesting either a terrestrial source or higher production rates nearshore where organic matter and bacterial and phytoplankton biomass are also higher (Pan et al. 2011). Overall, cyanate concentrations were lower in coastal waters than in the Chesapeake Bay and its estuaries (17 to 41 nM and up to 100 nM (Widner et al. 2013)) and slightly higher closer to shore than on the slope which may indicate a terrestrial or estuarine source of cyanate to coastal systems. Typically estuarine dissolved N and DOM concentrations are higher than in coastal waters as a result of natural and anthropogenic processes in these highly productive systems. Consequently, estuaries can be a large source of both N and DOM to coastal ecosystems (Raymond and Spencer 2015; Seitzinger and Harrison 2008).

Cyanate likely enters marine systems through both allochthonous and autochthonous sources. Cyanate may be produced in riverine, estuarine, and terrestrial systems from degrading organic matter and photoproduction (Chapter III). In situ production of cyanate has been
demonstrated in phytoplankton cultures and primary production and degradation of sinking organic matter has been used to explain vertical distributions of cyanate in marine systems (Chapter III). As such, variability in cyanate concentrations may be related to the trophic status of the system, as has been observed for other N compound (Gruber 2008). Terrestrial processes may also input cyanate to coastal regions and these include release of cyanate or its precursors from urban runoff and wastewater and industrial and agricultural discharges (Boening and Chew 1999; Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948; Glibert et al. 2006; Kamennaya et al. 2008). However, a comprehensive investigation of cyanate sources was beyond the scope of this study.

Surface cyanate concentrations were not always correlated with chlorophyll \(a\) concentrations (Figure 14, Chapter III) which suggests that cyanate production is either temporally or spatially uncoupled from phytoplankton biomass or that consumption of cyanate exceeds its production in sunlit waters where chlorophyll \(a\) concentrations are highest. An exception was that cyanate concentrations were high in surface waters at the northernmost station sampled in the Gulf of Maine (Figure 13B) and on Georges Bank (Chapter III) where chlorophyll \(a\) concentrations were also high. These areas experience persistently high chlorophyll \(a\) concentrations and frequent phytoplankton blooms (Townsend et al. 2006), which can result in rapid release and accumulation of DON in surface waters (Boneillo and Mulholland 2014; Egerton et al. 2014; Mulholland et al. 2009). Deep water in the Gulf of Maine originates from the Slope, which introduces water through the Northeast Channel below 75 m, and the Scotian Shelf, which introduces water at the surface (Townsend 1998). In the stratified summer months, tidal upwelling transports deep water to the surface at the northern edge of the Gulf of Maine (Townsend et al. 1987). This nitrate-rich plume flows southwest parallel to the coastline and fuels phytoplankton growth including that of the harmful bloom-forming *Alexandrium* sp. In August 2012, we observed elevated nitrate concentrations at the northern edge of the Gulf of Maine suggestive of such an upwelling plume (Figures 12 and 13 and Chapter III). However, the elevated cyanate concentrations in the same water cannot be explained by upwelling because deep Gulf of Maine waters had lower cyanate concentrations. It is more likely that high surface cyanate concentrations were produced by the high *in situ* productivity there.

The vertical distribution of cyanate was similar to those of ammonium and nitrite (Figure 14, Chapter III) with a surface minimum, subsurface maximum, and a minimum below the nitracline suggesting uptake by phototrophs in the euphotic zone, production by organic matter
degradation at the base of the photic zone, and oxidation in deeper water below (Gruber 2008). At most stations, the subsurface cyanate peak was substantially deeper than the DCM, PNM, nitracline, and euphotic depths (Figure 15) and deeper than is typical for the nitrite and ammonium maxima with respect to the DCM, nitracline, and euphotic depth (Dore and Karl 1996; Mackey et al. 2011). So, while the depth of the cyanate maximum probably depends on the balance between multiple depth-dependent consumption and production processes, we do not yet fully understand what those processes are and how they are affected by other vertical gradients in the sea. Overall the cyanate maximum appears to be analogous to the PNM suggesting it is an intermediate in organic matter degradation. However, the processes involved in the formation of the PNM are better understood as are its relationship with the DCM depth and the depth of the nitracline (Adornato et al. 2005; Dore and Karl 1996; Kiefer et al. 1976; Lomas and Lipschultz 2006).

The correlation between the maximum cyanate concentrations in vertical profiles and depth-integrated chlorophyll concentrations (Figure 16) suggests that cyanate is likely a product of organic matter degradation and dependent on the sinking flux of phytoplankton from surface waters. To the best of my knowledge, no other study has examined the correlation between the maximum concentrations of a decomposition product in subsurface waters with the total overlying phytoplankton biomass. The maximum nitrite concentration was significantly correlated with depth-integrated chlorophyll $a$ concentrations only for the criteria $\alpha = 0.1$, but this most likely reflects the small sample size and low sampling resolution. Nitrite is also produced from phytoplankton biomass either by direct release or as an intermediate species in nitrification (Ward 2008) and might be expected to be correlated with overlying phytoplankton biomass.

At most Slope and Basin stations, cyanate was depleted below the subsurface maximum. This indicates that cyanate production is slow at depth or that cyanate is consumed by processes at depth which may include abiotic degradation or biologically-mediated transformation. Cyanate abiotically degrades to ammonium (Kamennaya et al. 2008) which can then be oxidized to nitrate. Abiotic degradation of cyanate to ammonium is slow in seawater, which could explain why cyanate concentrations below the cyanate maximum were not as low at the shallower Basin stations in the Gulf of Maine and the Shelf stations compared to Slope stations. It would also explain the broad tail below the cyanate maximum at some Slope stations. In slope waters,
cyanate can mix into the vast deep ocean reservoir where it can slowly degrade, whereas in the basin of the Gulf of Maine, physical removal of water is slow (Townsend et al. 2006), so cyanate may accumulate. Elevated bottom water cyanate concentrations on the Shelf may reflect a sediment source of cyanate potentially by oxidation of sedimentary thiocyanate or cyanide (Kamyshny et al. 2013).

Abiotic urea decomposition has been proposed as a mechanism of cyanate production in marine systems (Kamennaya et al. 2008), and in vertical profiles collected from the Mid-Atlantic Bight the cyanate maximum was below that of urea (Chapter III) indicating that cyanate could have been produced from urea decomposition, analogous to the observation that nitrite accumulates below the ammonium maximum as a result of ammonium oxidation (Meeder et al. 2012). Although abiotic cyanate production from urea decomposition was slow when calculated using Hagel et al.’s (1971) hypothetical rate constant (~ 0.001 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹), the rate calculated based on ammonium production from urea and cyanate in sterile, particle-free Sargasso seawater (~ 0.1 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹) (Kamennaya et al. 2008) was similar in magnitude to typical rates of urea regeneration (Bronk et al. 1998; Cho and Azam 1995; Mulholland and Lomas 2008). Cyanate has also been shown to be produced by spontaneous decomposition of carbamoyl phosphate (Allen and Jones 1964, see Appendices B and C) which could be released from cells by sloppy feeding and cell lysis. While there are no known biological pathways of cyanate production from urea or other organic compounds, aside from carbamoyl phosphate (Allen and Jones 1964), it is likely that cellular or extracellular pathways exist as carbon-nitrogen linkages are common in all biological systems.

N-specific cyanate uptake rates ranged from below the limit of detection (0.02) to 12.8 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹ which is similar in magnitude to reported rates of uptake of other dissolved inorganic and small organic N compounds (Mulholland and Lomas 2008). At the majority of stations, cyanate uptake was ~1% of total N uptake, but at some stations it was as high as 13% of total measured N uptake (which included NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, NH₄⁺, urea, cyanate, and dissolved free amino acids; M.R. Mulholland, pers. comm.). Overall cyanate uptake was a lower fraction of total N uptake in this coastal system than at an oligotrophic N. Atlantic station (Chapter III). However, natural microbial populations from the Mid-Atlantic continental shelf had a high affinity and high maximum uptake rates for cyanate (Widner unpubl.) suggesting that microbes are capable of taking up cyanate at high rates under a range of environmental concentrations. It is possible
that cyanate uptake is episodic following sporadic cyanate inputs (Espie et al. 2007) or varies temporally and with physiological state as is the case for other N compounds (Mulholland and Lomas 2008).

Seasonality and spatial heterogeneity resulted in large differences in temperature, water column structure, community structure, biomass, nutrient availability, mixing, and light availability between cruises (Tables 6-9). Cyanate N uptake was higher during the summer cruises when the water column was generally stratified and mixed layer DIN concentrations were low. Picoeukaryotes and cyanobacteria, which are known to utilize cyanate (Kamennaya and Post 2013; Palenik et al. 2003; Rocap et al. 2003), comprise a large fraction of the phytoplankton community during late summer (Pan et al. 2011; Townsend et al. 2006) and regenerated N compounds typically fuel productivity at this time of year when the water column is stratified (Lalli and Parsons 1997). During November cyanate uptake rates were lower. This is a time of year when winter mixing typically results in increased availability of upwelled NO$_3^-$ and the phytoplankton community is typically dominated by large eukaryotes (Pan et al. 2011) in which cyanate-related genes have not yet been identified.

C uptake from cyanate was generally low suggesting that cyanate was used primarily as an N source by microbes. However, C uptake from cyanate and hence the C:N uptake ratio from cyanate were both higher during November than during the summer and in microbial assemblages collected from the DCM relative to those collected from well-lit surface waters. Like urea, cyanate contains reduced N and oxidized C which are converted to NH$_4^+$ and CO$_2$ intracellularly (Anderson et al. 1990; Berges and Mulholland 2008). Most microbes readily incorporate NH$_4^+$-N, but only autotrophs are able to reduce and fix CO$_2$. If cyanate-derived CO$_2$ is not rapidly fixed it diffuses out of the cell resulting in higher N than C incorporation, which may explain why we observed statistically higher overall uptake of N than C. Cyanate C could be used to augment photosynthetic C uptake, but low light during winter and at the depth of the DCM would have limited light-mediated C assimilation, and primary productivity was significantly higher at the surface compared to the DCM in this study region (M.R. Mulholland, unpubl.).

C uptake in excess of N could also result from the occurrence of a dissimilatory nitrogen process coupled with C fixation. Recent evidence indicates that ammonium oxidizers may oxidize urea-N and fix urea-C (Alonso-Sáez et al. 2012). Since ammonium oxidation is
dissimilatory, this process would result in excess C uptake relative to N. We speculate that a similar process might be at work for cyanate. CynS has been identified in an ammonium oxidizing archaeon from a microbial mat (Spang et al. 2012), cynX has been identified in a marine ammonium oxidizing bacterium (Klotz et al. 2006), and an ammonium-oxidizing archaeon, Nitrososphaera gargensis, has been grown on cyanate as the sole source of N and reductant (Palatinszky et al. 2015). CynS is also widespread in nitrite oxidizing bacteria, and Palatinszky et al. (2015) demonstrated that a nitrite oxidizing bacteria, *Nitrospira moscoviensis*, decomposed cyanate when it was supplied at millimolar concentrations. The resultant NH$_4^+$ was then available for ammonium oxidation and subsequent nitrite oxidation by *N. moscoviensis*. However, no cyanate uptake transporter has been identified in nitrite oxidizers and it is unknown whether this process occurs at the nanomolar cyanate concentrations observed in marine and estuarine systems to date. If cyanate is an intermediate species in nitrification, the subsurface cyanate maximum could reflect vertical zonation of this process relative to cyanate production pathways.

To date, *cynA* and *cynX* have only been identified in bacteria (Kamennaya and Post 2013; Pao et al. 1998), and *cynA* expression has been primarily observed in cyanobacteria, largely *Prochlorococcus*. It has been suggested that eukaryotic phytoplankton are also capable of utilizing cyanate (Berg et al. 2008; Hu et al. 2012; Wurch et al. 2011; Zhuang et al. 2015), but cyanate uptake has not been conclusively demonstrated for these organisms and no cyanate transporter has been identified in their genomes or in any eukaryotic genome published to date. Our study region was not dominated by *Prochlorococcus* as this genus is less abundant in coastal waters and north of 40 °N (Partensky et al. 1999). There are coastal strains of *Synechococcus* (Scanlan et al. 2009), but no cyanobacterial *cynA* was amplified from samples collected during the May/June 2010 cruise at stations where cyanate uptake was observed (A. Post, pers. comm.). Although failure to detect cyanobacterial *cynA* does not unequivocally confirm its absence, these results combined with the dominance of eukaryotic phytoplankton in this system (Pan et al. 2011) suggest that cyanate was likely taken up by eukaryotes.

Decomposition of cyanate converts 1 mole each of HCO$_3^-$ and cyanate to two moles of CO$_2$, and it has been suggested that CynS may function as a carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM) in photosynthetic organisms (Guilloton et al. 2002). The highest cyanate concentrations observed to date in marine environments are three orders of magnitude lower than typical
oceanic CO$_2$ concentrations (Emerson and Hedges 2008), and the half-saturation constants of phytoplankton RuBisCo (range from 6 to 185 μM) are three to five orders of magnitude higher than the highest cyanate concentrations in marine and estuarine waters (Badger et al. 1998; Widner et al. 2013, this study, Chapter III). So, even if cyanate uptake were energetically favorable in comparison to other CCMs, this process would not likely generate enough CO$_2$ to be assimilated by RuBisCo at a similar rate to HCO$_3^-$-derived CO$_2$.

Overall, we have demonstrated that cyanate has a biological distribution over a large coastal region, cyanate is taken up in surface waters, and that cyanate is likely produced by organic matter degradation resulting in a subsurface cyanate maximum and higher cyanate concentrations below productive surface waters where phytoplankton biomass is also high. As for other N compounds, the subsurface cyanate maximum is likely due to the balance between its production and consumption: cyanate is taken up in surface waters, produced as a result of decaying organic matter in subsurface waters, and oxidized slowly at depth.
CHAPTER V

CYANATE DISTRIBUTION AND UPTAKE ABOVE AND WITHIN THE EASTERN TROPICAL SOUTH PACIFIC OXYGEN DEFICIENT ZONE

INTRODUCTION

Simple, reduced, organic nitrogen compounds are potentially important sources of nitrogen for assimilation and energy in marine systems (Alonso-Sáez et al. 2012; Palatinszky et al. 2015; Sipler and Bronk 2015) and yet much is still unknown about the cycling of these compounds. Cyanate (OCN⁻) is perhaps the simplest organic N compound and has only recently been measured in marine systems (Widner et al. 2013). OCN⁻ is produced from algal degradation, photochemical reactions, and abiotic urea degradation (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948; Kamennaya et al. 2008; Widner et al. submitted). Urea [CO(NH₂)₂] accounts for approximately one third of nitrogen uptake across all aquatic systems and is released to marine systems by bacteria, fecal pellet leaching, sloppy feeding, zooplankton excretion, atmospheric deposition and anthropogenic sources such as wastewater and fertilizer (Bronk and Steinberg 2008; Glibert et al. 2006; Mulholland and Lomas 2008; Sipler and Bronk 2015). Both urea and OCN⁻ are taken up and produced by marine microbes and therefore have distributions that are biologically controlled, similar to those of ammonium (NH₄⁺) and nitrite (NO₂⁻) (Gruber 2008; Chapter II; Chapter III). Urea uptake represents 27.7 ±19.0 % of measured N uptake across all aquatic and marine systems (Sipler and Bronk 2015). We found that urea uptake accounted for up to 50 % of the total measured N uptake at a station in the oligotrophic North Atlantic Ocean while OCN⁻ uptake accounted for up to 10 % of total N uptake (Chapter III).

The genetic capacity for urea uptake and intracellular decomposition are widespread among marine microbes, and the gene for intracellular OCN⁻ decomposition, cynS, has been identified in plants, phytoplankton, bacteria, and archaea (Guilloton et al. 2002). In addition, a OCN⁻ transporter, cynABD, has been identified in some bacteria, including strains of the ubiquitous marine cyanobacteria Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus (Palenik et al. 2003; Rocap et al. 2003), and cynA expression has been observed in marine systems (Kamennaya and Post 2013). Cultured populations of Synechococcus WH8102 (Palenik et al. 2003), Prochlorococcus MED4 and SB (Berube et al. 2015; Kamennaya et al. 2008), and Prorocentrum
**donghaiense** (Hu et al. 2012) have been grown on OCN\(^-\) as the sole source of nitrogen, and more recently, OCN\(^-\) and urea have been shown to support nitrification (Alonso-Sáez et al. 2012; Palatinszky et al. 2015) and anaerobic ammonium oxidation (Babbin et al. submitted).

The region of the Eastern Tropical South Pacific (ETSP) adjacent to the Peruvian and Northern Chilean coastline is unique in that rapid coastal upwelling leads to high rates of primary productivity and consequently the largest tonnage fishery in the world (Pennington et al. 2006). Below these highly productive waters, decomposition of sinking particulate organic matter coupled with poor ventilation of subsurface waters leads to the formation of a permanent oxygen deficient zone (ODZ) where oxygen concentrations are below the limit of detection (10 nM) (Revsbech et al. 2009). Although the three major oceanic ODZs in the Eastern Tropical North and South Pacific and Arabian Sea account for just 0.1 % of the ocean’s volume (Codispoti et al., 2001), they are biogeochemically significant because they account for a third of oceanic N losses (Codispoti 2007) and because oxygen deficient zones are projected to expand in the future based on global change scenarios (Stramma et al. 2008). These N losses occur via two dissimilatory anaerobic pathways - "canonical" denitrification, a heterotrophic process whereby oxidized nitrogen compounds are reduced to N\(_2\), and anaerobic ammonium oxidation (anammox), a chemoautotrophic process by which NO\(_2^-\) and NH\(_4^+\) are converted to N\(_2\) (Devol 2008).

ODZs may be analogous in some ways to the ancient preoxygenated Earth and prebiotic ocean (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino 2009). The genes for OCN\(^-\) assimilation are ancient, and it has been hypothesized that OCN\(^-\) may have been a key nitrogen source for early cyanobacteria in ancient oceans (Kamennaya and Post 2011). OCN\(^-\) is likely present in abiotic extraterrestrial environments (Cole et al. 2015) and may have been abundant on the prebiotic Earth (Jones and Lipmann 1960; Yamagata and Mohri 1982) where it could have contributed to the synthesis of pyrophosphates (Hagan et al. 2007; Miller and Parris 1964), pyrimidines (Ferris et al. 1968), adenosine diphosphate (ADP) (Yamagata 1999), and peptides (Danger et al. 2006; Danger et al. 2012) and have been linked to cyanobacterial evolution.

In this study, we measured OCN\(^-\) concentrations and OCN\(^-\) uptake in the ETSP within and above the ODZ. We compared the water column distribution and uptake of OCN\(^-\) to those of urea, NH\(_4^+\), NO\(_2^-\), and nitrate (NO\(_3^-\)) in the shallow oxic layer (urea distribution was not measured at all stations), the distributions of these compounds in the underlying waters, and rates
of uptake and $^{15}$N$_2$ production (Babbin et al. submitted) from OCN$^-$, urea, and NH$_4^+$ within the ODZ.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

*Study Site, Sample Collection, and Cyanate and Nutrient Analysis*

All measurements and samples were collected during a cruise aboard the R/V Nathaniel B. Palmer from June 27 - July 21, 2013. Stations were located in the ETSP between 10 and 18 °S and 70 and 86 °W (Figure 20). Stations along two transects, one approximately 200 nm offshore and roughly parallel to the coastline and the other along 17 °S from 79 to 86 °W at 1 ° intervals and two process stations (BB1 and BB2), were occupied during the cruise. Station BB2 was located within an area experiencing intense coastal upwelling but this intensity decreased farther offshore (Figure 1A). Temperature, salinity, *in situ* chlorophyll a fluorescence (chl a), photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, Biospherical), and oxygen (Seabird) were measured using a CTD mounted to a 24-bottle rosette (10 L Niskin bottles) except at station BB2 where they were measured using a CTD mounted to an *in situ* pump profiler. The location of the ODZ was verified using a highly sensitive STOX sensor (detection limit 10 nM). No oxic intrusions were observed within the ODZ as has been shown previously in this area (Revsbech et al. 2009; Tiano et al. 2014; Garcia-Robledo pers. comm.).

At station BB2, OCN$^-$, urea, NO$_3^-$, NO$_2^-$, and NH$_4^+$ profiles were collected using an *in situ* pump profiler at ~ 4 m resolution. At all other stations, OCN$^-$ samples were collected from the Niskin bottles by gravity filtration through a 0.2 μm membrane filter (Millipore) into triplicate sterile 2 ml polypropylene microcentrifuge tubes (Thomas Scientific, catalog number 1219F50). OCN$^-$ samples were stored at -80 °C until derivatization and analysis by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) according to Widner et al. (2013) and Chapter IV and urea samples were stored at -20 °C until analysis by nutrient autoanalyzer (Price and Harrison 1987). At all stations other than BB2, NO$_3^-$ and NO$_2^-$ samples were collected directly from Niskin bottles into 30 ml acid-washed high density polyethylene (HDPE) bottles and analyzed shipboard within 24 hours using a nutrient autoanalyzer. Unfiltered NH$_4^+$ samples were collected directly from Niskin bottles into 60 mL pre-conditioned HDPE bottles and
analyzed using the OPA method (Holmes et al. 1999). Limits of detection for \( \text{NO}_3^- \), \( \text{NO}_2^- \), \( \text{NH}_4^+ \), urea, and \( \text{OCN}^- \) were 70, 70, 50, 70, and 0.4 nM, respectively.

**Figure 20.** Station Map for the Eastern Tropical South Pacific. Locations of all CTD casts (circles) and stations 9, BB1, and BB2 (stars) overlie satellite-derived sea surface temperature (left). The longitudinal transect (Figures 21 and 22) and the transect parallel to the coastline (Figures 23 and 24) are shown in red and green boxes, respectively. Surface cyanate concentrations are shown in the right panel.

**Oxic Uptake Methods**

N uptake (\( \text{NO}_3^- \), \( \text{NO}_2^- \), \( \text{NH}_4^+ \), urea, and \( \text{OCN}^- \)) was measured at the surface and deep chl \( \alpha \) maximum (DCM) at stations 9 and BB1; \( \text{NH}_4^+ \), urea, and \( \text{OCN}^- \) uptake were measured at station BB2. Oxygenated water samples collected from Niskin bottles mounted to the CTD rosette were transferred directly to 1 L PETG incubation bottles. Uptake experiments were initiated by adding highly enriched (98 %) \( ^{15}\text{N} \)-labeled \( \text{NH}_4^+ \), \( \text{NO}_3^- \), \( \text{NO}_2^- \), and \( ^{15}\text{N}^{13}\text{C} \)-labeled urea and \( \text{OCN}^- \). Substrate additions for oxic incubations were targeted to be between 2 and 10 % of the ambient concentrations of \( \text{NH}_4^+ \), \( \text{NO}_3^- \), \( \text{NO}_2^- \), urea, and \( \text{OCN}^- \) to yield reliable uptake rate measurements. When ambient concentrations were unknown prior to the initiation of experiments (urea and \( \text{OCN}^- \)) or were < 300 nM (sometimes true for \( \text{NO}_2^- \) and \( \text{NH}_4^+ \)), 30 nM substrate additions were
made, which led to enrichments ≥ 10 % and may have stimulated uptake. Incubation bottles were placed in deck incubators equipped with flow-through seawater and 1, 2, or 4 neutral density screens to simulate in situ light conditions (55, 28, and 14 % of ambient incident light). Incubations were terminated after 2 hours by vacuum filtration (0.7 μm GF/F, ≤ 5 mm Hg) and filters were stored at -20 °C until analysis. Filters were dried at 40 °C, pelletized in tin capsules and analyzed on a Europa 20/20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer equipped with an automated N and C analyzer. Uptake rates were calculated using a mixing model (Montoya et al. 1996; Mulholland et al. 2006; Orcutt et al. 2001), and limits of detection were calculated as in Chapter IV.

Uptake kinetics of NH\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{+}, urea, and OCN\textsuperscript{-} were measured at stations BB1 and BB2 by making 15N-labeled substrate additions ranging from 10 to 1000 nM and incubating bottles for 2 hours as described above. To determine diurnal variability in OCN\textsuperscript{-} uptake in surface waters, OCN\textsuperscript{-} uptake experiments were conducted using water sampled from the ship's flow-through system at station BB2 and collected from a patch of water the ship followed using floating sediment traps as drogues. Diurnal uptake experiments were initiated approximately every 4 hours over a 27 hour period.

Anoxic Uptake Rates

Uptake rates were determined in anoxic, sub-euphotic waters at station BB2. To our knowledge, uptake rates have not been previously measured in anoxic waters below the euphotic zone. Anoxic samples were incubated in duplicate acid-washed, helium-purged, evacuated, 3.8 L, 2-mil thick, polyvinyl fluoride (PVF) opaque gas sampling bags with dual entry points: one a nickel-plated brass hose barb and the other a septum (Tedlar, Cole Parmer EW-01409-92). Water was transferred from Niskin bottles into the bags using teflon tubing attached to the barb. Any helium remaining in the bag after filling was removed by syringe through the septum port. To minimize oxygen contamination from air at the top of the Niskin bottle, Niskin bottles remained sealed until immediately prior to sampling, and only one bag was filled per Niskin bottle. Although these bags were used successfully on a previous cruise (Jayakumar et al. unpubl.), the batch of bags ordered for this cruise was unexpectedly fragile and even with careful handling, approximately 30 % of the bags ruptured leading to loss of replicates.
For all anoxic incubations, ambient concentrations of urea, NH$_4^+$, and OCN$^-$ were below the limit of detection, and substrate additions ranged from 105 to 145 nM N consequently, rate estimates should be considered maximum rates. All bags were incubated in the dark at 11 °C in a cold room. Because some of the anoxic incubations included water from the secondary chl $a$ maximum, uptake by phytoplankton may have been underestimated in dark incubations although PAR at the secondary chl $a$ maximum was < 0.1 % of surface PAR. Because N uptake has not previously been measured in this environment and at such low biomass, each bag was sampled at multiple time points to determine the linearity of uptake over time and the optimal incubation length. Incubation times (12 to 48 hours) were longer than typical uptake incubations (McCarthy and Bronk 2008) because particle flux, and by extension microbial biomass and uptake rates, decreases exponentially with depth below the euphotic zone (Martin et al. 1987). Samples to measure uptake rates were collected using a peristaltic pump fitted with a GF/F (0.7 μm) housed in a swinnex filter holder. The filtrate was collected in a graduated cylinder to determine the volume filtered at each time point. Filters were stored at -20 °C until analysis as described above. Uptake rates were calculated in two ways. First, a rate was calculated for each time point using the standard method (hereon referred to as the standard calculation) described above for the oxic incubations and second, a rate was calculated by fitting a simple linear regression to N taken up over time for all replicate bags and time points (hereon referred to as the time series calculation), the typical method for calculating rates of dissimilatory nitrogen processes such as anammox (Dalsgaard et al. 2003) which was estimated in parallel incubations (Babbin et al. submitted) and with which we compare our uptake rates.

Ocean Color and Sea Surface Temperature

Ocean color and sea surface temperature data used in this study were produced with the Giovanni online data system, developed and maintained by the National Aeronautic and Space Administration Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services Center (NASA GES DISC) (Acker and Leptoukh 2007).
RESULTS

Hydrographic Parameters and Dissolved N Distributions

Surface waters in the study region were characterized by cold, high chl a water nearshore and warmer, lower chl a water offshore (Figure 20A, data not shown). Surface OCN⁻ concentrations were highest at the northern- and western-most stations of the study region (Figure 20B) where high temperatures indicated that the water mass was influenced by the South Equatorial Current rather than the cold Peru current which flows along the coast (Pennington et al. 2006). Overall, OCN⁻ concentrations ranged from below the limit of detection (b.d.l.; 0.4 nM) to 45 nM above the oxycline where the mean concentration was 5.2 ± 8.5 nM (n = 286, where each n is the average of three replicates) and from b.d.l. to 10 nM in underlying anoxic waters where the mean concentration was 1.4 ± 1.8 (n = 69, where each n is the average of three replicates) (Figures 21-24).
Figure 21. Hydrographic parameters in the upper 150 m along a longitudinal transect at 17 °S. Cyanate concentrations, density, and ammonium, chlorophyll $\alpha$ fluorescence, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations are shown. Black dots and lines represent sampling locations and the colored contours represent interpolations of the given parameters between those data points. See Figure 20 for station locations.
Figure 22. Hydrographic parameters between 150 and 500 m along a longitudinal transect at 17°S. Cyanate concentrations, density, and ammonium, oxygen, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations are shown. Black dots and lines represent sampling locations and the colored contours represent interpolations of the given parameters between those data points. See Figure 20 for station locations.
Figure 23. Hydrographic parameters in the upper 100 m along a transect parallel to the coastline. Cyanate concentrations, density, and ammonium, chlorophyll a fluorescence, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations are shown. Black dots and lines represent sampling locations and the colored contours represent interpolations of the given parameters between those data points. The left side (0 km) represents the northernmost station and the right side (1500 km) represents the southernmost station. See Figure 20 for station locations.
Figure 24. Hydrographic parameters between 100 and 600 m along a transect parallel to the coastline. Cyanate concentrations, density, and ammonium, oxygen, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations are shown. Black dots and lines represent sampling locations and the colored contours represent interpolations of the given parameters between those data points. The left side (0 km) represents the northernmost station and the right side (1500 km) represents the southernmost station. See Figure 20 for station locations along the longitudinal transect, density and NO$_3^-$ concentrations above the pycnocline were higher in the east than in the west (Figure 21), likely indicating coastal upwelling which is common in this region (Pennington et al. 2006). In contrast, OCN$^-$ concentrations above the pycnocline were highest in the western half of the transect and were the highest OCN$^-$ concentrations observed in the study region (up to 45 nM, Figure 21). Above the pycnocline along the longitudinal transect, NH$_4^+$ and NO$_2^-$ ranged from 0.3 to below the limit of detection (b.d.l.) and 0.4 to b.d.l. μM, respectively, with subsurface maxima below the chl $a$ maximum (Figure 21).

Along the longitudinal transect, the ODZ thickened towards the coast, increasing from 40 m in thickness at the farthest west station to 370 m at the easternmost station (Figure 22). Secondary NO$_2^-$ maxima (SNM) were present in the mid to upper ODZ, and an especially strong SNM was observed at the eastern end of the transect which corresponded to a decline in NO$_3^-$. 
concentrations compared to adjacent waters (Figure 22) indicating a zone of incomplete denitrification (Devol 2008). NH$_4^+$ concentrations were less than 0.1 μM or b.d.l. below the oxycline, and OCN$^-$ concentrations were b.d.l. below the oxycline except for small patchy local maxima in the middle of the ODZ mainly in the western half of the transect (Figure 22).

Along the transect parallel to the coastline, density was lower at the northern end (Figure 23) delineating the influence of the warm South Equatorial Current in the North and the cold Peru current in the south, as is also visible from satellite-derived sea surface temperature (Figure 20A). Above the pycnocline, NO$_3^-$, NO$_2^-$, and OCN$^-$ were highest at the northern end of the transect reaching concentrations of 5.5 μM, 0.6 μM, and 27 nM, respectively (Figure 23). NO$_2^-$, NH$_4^+$, and OCN$^-$ concentrations were patchy above the pycnocline, probably due to low sampling resolution in highly productive waters with variable advection along the transect. There was a subsurface NO$_2^-$ concentration maximum in the southern half of the transect (Figure 23).

On the transect parallel to the coastline, the ODZ was 100 to 300 m thick (thicker in the North) with a SNM throughout most of the transect (Figure 24). NO$_2^-$ concentrations in the SNM were highest at the northern end (up to 10 μM), corresponding to a decrease in NO$_3^-$ concentrations relative to adjacent waters (Figure 24), as was observed at the eastern end of the longitudinal transect (Figure 22). NH$_4^+$ concentrations were < 0.1 μM throughout the ODZ. OCN$^-$ concentrations were patchy throughout the ODZ, likely due to low sampling resolution (Figure 24), and there were OCN$^-$ concentration maxima at the northern and southern ends of the transect (6.8 and 6.4 nM). The maximum at the northern location was located between two SNMs at the same station including the highest NO$_2^-$ concentration from the study region, but there was no SNM at the southern end where the other OCN$^-$ maximum was observed (Figure 24). OCN$^-$ concentrations were < 2 nM below 700 m at all stations (data not shown).

At station BB1 chl $a$ was approximately 1 mg m$^{-3}$ above 60 m with a slight maximum centered at 30 m (Figure 25A). The base of the euphotic zone (1% of surface PAR) was at 66 m (data not shown), the nitracline was at 60 m, and the ODZ extended from 190 to 370 m (Figure 25A). NO$_3^-$ increased with depth below the pycnocline but decreased in concentration in the ODZ corresponding to an increase in NO$_2^-$ concentrations (Figure 24B). OCN$^-$ and NH$_4^+$ concentrations were highest at the surface, and there was a subsurface maximum in urea concentration. While urea and NH$_4^+$ concentrations peaked at approximately 0.6 μM, OCN$^-$
concentrations peaked at only 10 nM (Figures 24 C-E). OCN⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentrations decreased to b.d.l. at the upper oxycline, although there was a small OCN⁻ peak within the ODZ (198 m, 3.6 nM).

**Figure 25.** Vertical distributions and uptake rates for station BB1. A) Chlorophyll *a* Fluorescence (Chl *a*, mg m⁻³) is shown in grey and oxygen concentrations (umol kg⁻¹) are shown in black. B) Nitrate (NO₃⁻) and nitrite (NO₂⁻) concentrations (μM) are shown with a dotted line and solid line, respectively, and uptake rates of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ are shown with closed and open circles, respectively. In panels C-E concentrations (nM) of cyanate (OCN⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), and urea are depicted by the solid lines, and uptake rates of OCN⁻, NH₄⁺, and urea (nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹) are depicted with closed circles. Concentrations and uptake rates below the detection limit were plotted as equal to the detection limit (0.6 nM for OCN⁻, 80 nM for urea, 50 nM for NH₄⁺, and 70 nM for NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻). Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation for OCN⁻ concentrations (*n* = 3) and ± 1 average deviation for uptake rates (*n* = 2).
Figure 26. Vertical distributions, uptake rates, and anammox rates for station BB2. A) Chlorophyll $a$ fluorescence (chl $a$, mg m$^{-3}$) is shown in grey and oxygen (µmol kg$^{-1}$) is shown in black. B) Nitrate (NO$_3^-$ µM) is shown with a dotted line and nitrite (NO$_2^-$, µM) is shown with a solid line. In panels C-E concentration (nM) is depicted by the continuous solid line (samples collected every 4 m), uptake rate from the first time point (nmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$) is depicted with closed circles, and rate of $^{15}$N$_2$ production from cyanate (OCN$^-$), urea, and ammonium (NH$_4^+$, nmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$) is depicted by open circles. Concentrations and uptake rates below the detection limit were plotted as equal to the detection limit (0.6 nM for OCN$^-$, 80 nM for urea, and 10 nM for NH$_4^+$). Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation (concentration, $^{15}$N$_2$ production, $n = 3$) and ± 1 average deviation (uptake, $n = 2$). $^{15}$N$_2$ production rates and NO$_3^-$, NO$_2^-$, and oxygen profiles are reproduced from Babbin et al (submitted).
At station BB2 there were two chl $a$ maxima, one in the oxic layer at 25 m and one in the ODZ centered around 99 m (Figure 26A) where PAR was $< 0.1 \%$ of surface irradiance (data not shown). The base of the euphotic zone (1 \% of surface PAR) was at 40 m (data not shown) and the ODZ extended from 90 to 400 m (Figure 26A). As for BB1 and the transects, $NO_3^-$ increased with depth below the pycnocline but then decreased in concentration in the ODZ corresponding to an increase in $NO_2^-$ concentrations (Figure 26B). Vertical profiles of concentrations and uptake rates for OCN$^-$, urea, and NH$_4^+$ are shown in Figures 26 C - E. Although OCN$^-$ concentrations were an order of magnitude lower than urea and NH$_4^+$ concentrations, the vertical profiles of all three were similar in shape with high surface concentrations, a subsurface minimum, and a maximum at 28 m. The OCN$^-$, urea, and NH$_4^+$ maxima were shallower than the primary $NO_2^-$ maximum (PNM, 40 m) and deeper than the nitracline (25 m). Concentrations decreased to below detection near the base of the oxic layer, although the decrease in NH$_4^+$ and urea concentrations with depth was sharper than the decrease in OCN$^-$ concentration.

Cyanate Uptake

OCN$^-$ N uptake in surface waters and at the DCM at stations 9 and BB1 was less than 2 \% of total measured N uptake (NH$_4^+$, urea, $NO_3^-$, $NO_2^-$, and OCN$^-$) (Figures 25 B-E and 27, Table 11), but the OCN$^-$ turnover time was comparable to those of NH$_4^+$ and urea except at the surface at BB1 (Table 11). The majority of N taken up in the upper oxic water column was from NH$_4^+$ and urea, and the turnover times of these were less than 2 days for NH$_4^+$ and $\leq 8$ days for urea (Table 11). At station BB2, OCN$^-$ uptake at the surface and DCM was less than 1 \% of NH$_4^+$ and urea uptake in the surface (Figure 26). OCN$^-$ and urea C uptake was below the limit of detection at stations 9 and BB1.
Figure 27. N uptake at two offshore stations. Total N uptake is the sum of ammonium (NH₄⁺, white), nitrate (NO₃⁻, black), nitrite (NO₂⁻, hatched), urea-N (grey), and cyanate (OCN⁻, black and white checked) uptake. See Table 11 for uptake rates including error.

Table 11. Uptake rates, turnover times, and ambient concentrations of nitrate (NO₃⁻), nitrite (NO₂⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), urea, and cyanate (OCN⁻) for stations BB1 and 9. Values below the limit of detection are indicated as b.d.l., and turnover times that could not be calculated because the uptake rate or concentration was b.d.l. are listed as N/A. Average deviations (n = 2) are shown in parentheses. Uptake rates are in nmol N l⁻¹ h⁻¹, turnover times are in days, and concentrations are in μM N.
OCN⁻ uptake did not reach Michaelis-Menten kinetics saturation at 1000 (BB1) or 600 (BB2) nM (Figure 28). Uptake kinetics could not be determined for urea or NH₄⁺ at either station because concentrations of urea and NH₄⁺ were 100 and 300 nM (for urea) and 300 and 600 nM (for NH₄⁺) at BB1 and BB2, respectively, and uptake for both was saturated at these concentrations (data not shown). OCN⁻ C uptake was b.d.l. for all kinetics experiments. There was significant diurnal variability in OCN⁻ uptake at station BB2 for both N and C uptake (Figure 29). Both volumetric and chl a -normalized N uptake were highest in the afternoon, but uptake was significantly higher on the second day (0.25 ± 0.12 nmol N l⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 16:20) than on the first day (0.04 ± 0.01 nmol N l⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 15:45) suggesting substantial daily variability as well. Volumetric and chl a -normalized C uptake was higher at night than during the day and also exhibited daily variability with higher uptake on the first day (0.3 ± 0.02 nmol C l⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 15:45) than on the second day (b.d.l. (< 0.02 nmol C l⁻¹ h⁻¹) at 16:20).

**Figure 28.** Cyanate uptake kinetics. Cyanate uptake at station BB1 in surface water (closed circles, $R^2 = 0.9981$) and at water collected from the DCM (open circles, $R^2 = 0.9928$), and at station BB2 in surface water (diamonds, $R^2 = 0.9995$). Error bars are ± 1 standard deviation ($n = 2$) where error bars not visible are smaller than the symbol.
Figure 29. Diurnal cyanate uptake at station BB2. Samples were collected from the ship's seawater flow-through system on July 18 and 19, 2013 to measure cyanate uptake. N uptake rates are reported in nmol N l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ (closed circles) and nmol N μg (Chl a)$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ (open circles), and C uptake rates are reported in nmol C l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ (closed diamonds) and nmol C μg (Chl a)$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ (open diamonds). Error bars are ± 1 average deviation ($n=2$) and time is the mean of the incubation length for ~ 2 hour incubations. Carbon uptake rates that were b.d.l. are reported as equal to the average detection limit (0.02 nmol C l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$).

At station BB2, OCN$^-$, urea, and NH$_4^+$ N was taken up just below the oxycline (95 m), at the SNM depth (230 m), and at the base of the ODZ (400 m) (Figures 27 C-E and 30, Table 12). Urea C uptake was b.d.l. at all ODZ depths, and OCN$^-$ C uptake was b.d.l. at all depths and time points except for 95 m after 36 hours calculated using the standard calculation where the rate was 1.4 ±0.8 pmol C l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$. Uptake of picomolar C was detectable because the uptake detection limit is inversely proportional to incubation time. NH$_4^+$ uptake was highest at the depth of the SNM, and urea and OCN$^-$ uptake rates increased with depth within the ODZ and were highest at the base of the ODZ despite concentrations below detection for all three substrates throughout the ODZ (Figures 25 C-E). OCN$^-$ uptake was of similar magnitude throughout the water column while urea and NH$_4^+$ uptake were 1 to 2 orders of magnitude higher at the surface than in the ODZ (Figures 26 D-E). In the ODZ, uptake rates of OCN$^-$, urea, and NH$_4^+$ were similar in magnitude to rates of $^{15}$N$_2$ production from those same compounds (Babbin et al. submitted, Figures 26 D-E). Uptake and $^{15}$N$_2$ production rates were similar at the top of the ODZ for all
three compounds, but uptake was significantly higher than $^{15}$N$_2$ production in the middle of the ODZ for all compounds.

For ODZ N uptake rates calculated using the standard calculation (Montoya et al. 1996; Mulholland et al. 2006; Orcutt et al. 2001), there were no significant differences between the first and second time points for all substrates (NH$_4^+$, OCN$^-$, and urea) and depths (95, 230, and 400 m), except for NH$_4^+$ at 95 m where uptake was significantly lower at the shorter time point (8 hours) compared to the longer time point (36 hours, Figure 30, Table 2), possibly indicating stimulation of uptake by substrate addition. However, uptake rates were linear for pooled replicate bags over the three time points as determined using the time series calculation (linear regression of N taken up over time for significance criterion $\alpha = 0.05$), except for OCN$^-$ at 95 m and NH$_4^+$ at 400 m (Table 12). These deviations from linearity could have resulted from high variability between incubation bags, possibly caused by variable oxygen contamination or low sample size. For future studies of OCN$^-$ N uptake where only one time point is logistically feasible, we recommend incubation lengths of 8 to 12 hours to maximize detectability but minimize bottle effects. To measure C uptake, incubation lengths should be > 36 hours.
Figure 30. Uptake time series in the oxygen deficient zone. N taken up is shown for cyanate (OCN⁻, A), urea (B) and ammonium (NH₄⁺, C) at the first anoxic depth (95 m), at the secondary nitrite maximum (230 m), and just above the base of the ODZ (400 m). All incubations were performed at station BB2 in gas tight bags which were sampled at two time points. Replicate bags are represented by grey diamonds and black circles, and the uptake rate was calculated as the slope of the line of the average of all replicates (solid line). Statistical parameters and uptake rates are shown in Table 2.
Table 12. N uptake rates in the oxygen deficient zone at station BB2 calculated using the standard and time series calculations. For the standard calculation (Montoya et al. 1996; Mulholland et al. 2006; Orcutt et al. 2001), individual rates were calculated for each time point (A and B). Average deviations ($n = 2$ incubation bags) are shown in parentheses and $p$-values are the result of a two-tailed t-test where a bold value indicates a significant difference in uptake rate between time points A and B for $\alpha = 0.05$. For the time series calculation (Dalsgaard et al. 2003), standard errors ($n = 6$ or $3^\beta$) are shown in parentheses, and $p$ values shown in bold and italics indicate statistically significant linear uptake rates for $\alpha = 0.05$ and 0.1 criteria, respectively. Statistical parameters that could not be calculated due to low number of replicates are given as N/A.

<table>
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<th>Depth (m)</th>
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<th>Time Series Calculation</th>
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<td>Uptake (nmol N l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$)</td>
<td>Incubation Time (hours)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
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<td>0.07(0.03)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>230</td>
<td>0.14(0.02)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>400</td>
<td>0.13(0.00)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urea</td>
<td>95</td>
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<td></td>
<td>230</td>
<td>0.34(0.07)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>NH$_4^+$</td>
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DISCUSSION

Oxic Processes

The shallow, euphotic oxic region sampled in the ETSP was characterized by NO$_3^-$ in the low micromolar range, elevated OCN$^-$ relative to deeper waters, patchy NO$_2^-$ and NH$_4^+$, and high concentrations of chl $a$. Micromolar surface DIN concentrations are typical for this region due to the balance between inputs from nutrient-rich equatorial waters, thermocline shoaling, coastal upwelling, and drawdown from high productivity (Pennington et al. 2006). OCN$^-$ concentrations were mostly uniform with depth above the pycnocline and below the limit of detection below the pycnocline with the exception of small maxima within the ODZ at some stations. OCN$^-$ uptake was a small fraction of N uptake in the oxic water column (< 1%), and OCN$^-$ uptake was not saturated after addition of 1 μM substrate, but urea and NH$_4^+$ uptake were saturated for all substrate additions (up to 1 μM). From this we infer that OCN$^-$ did not contribute significantly to N uptake in this system at this time of year.

OCN$^-$ distributions were previously measured in the coastal North Atlantic between Cape Hatteras and the Gulf of Maine where they ranged from 0 to 25 nM (Chapters III and IV) however in the ETSP OCN$^-$ concentrations were at or near the limit of analytical detection (Chapters III and IV). The North Atlantic study region is an N-limited temperate Western boundary area with a wide continental shelf and a mixed, seasonally dynamic phytoplankton community (Townsend et al. 2006), whereas the ETSP is a tropical Eastern boundary with a narrow continental shelf, coastal upwelling, general diatom dominance, and offshore iron limitation (Pennington et al. 2006). At stations on the continental shelf slope in the coastal North Atlantic, the OCN$^-$ concentration was less than 2 nM at the surface and there was a OCN$^-$ maximum below the DCM followed by a gradual decline in OCN$^-$ concentration to below detection below 500 m (Chapters III and IV), whereas in this study, OCN$^-$ concentrations were high (10 to 45 nM) in shallow waters and rapidly declined below the pycnocline with no subsurface maxima associated with the DCM. OCN$^-$ profiles in the coastal North Atlantic were attributed to uptake in sunlit waters, production by degrading organic matter as it sank out of the euphotic zone, and oxidation at depth. In this study, increases in surface OCN$^-$ concentrations along the western half of longitudinal 17 °S transect could have been a result of degradation of
chl a biomass as productive upwelled water moved offshore. High OCN⁻ concentrations above the pycnocline could also be explained by phytoplankton community composition. OCN⁻ is produced in senescing diatom cultures (Chapter III), to our knowledge sequenced diatoms do not have the genes for OCN⁻ utilization (Guilloton et al. 2002), and this system is typically dominated by diatoms (Pennington et al. 2006).

OCN⁻ N uptake rates at the surface and DCM were similar (1.7 ± 1.5 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹, n = 29, 1 cruise) to those observed in the coastal North Atlantic Ocean (1.3 ± 1.9 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹, n = 135, 4 cruises, Chapter IV). In both this study and the coastal North Atlantic, OCN⁻ uptake was a small fraction of total N uptake, while in the oligotrophic North Atlantic, OCN⁻ N was up to 10 % of total N uptake (Chapter III) indicating that OCN⁻ may be a quantitatively more important source of N in oligotrophic systems than in nutrient-rich coastal waters as suggested in previous studies (Kamennaya and Post 2013). Stations 9 and BB1 are on the edge of the Peruvian Coastal Upwelling region, which is typically dominated by diatoms which are thought to prefer NO₃⁻ as a N source (Pennington et al. 2006). In the present study, NO₃⁻ only accounted for 10-29 % of total N uptake while the reduced forms of N, urea and NH₄⁺, accounted for 8-53 % and 27-66 % of N uptake, respectively possibly indicating that these stations were outside the main upwelling region.

OCN⁻ N uptake was highest at midday, while OCN⁻ C uptake was highest at night (Figure 29) possibly indicating light dependence and inhibition of OCN⁻ N and C uptake, respectively, which may indicate different groups of organisms utilized OCN⁻ N and C. In the coastal North Atlantic, over four cruises where measurements were made during the afternoon, OCN⁻ N uptake predominated at the surface while OCN⁻ C uptake predominated at the DCM (Chapter IV). We attributed surface N uptake to phytoplankton and speculated that, at deeper depths, high uptake of C relative to N was because of light-inhibited dissimilatory oxidation OCN⁻ N and uptake of OCN⁻ C by chemoautotrophic nitrifiers. OCN⁻ can be used as a source of reductant by some ammonia oxidizers, and many NO₂⁻ oxidizers, including several marine strains, have the genes for OCN⁻ utilization (Palatinszky et al. 2015; Spang et al. 2012). Marine ammonia oxidation has been shown to be higher at night than during the day which may be attributed to reduced competition with phytoplankton (Smith et al. 2014) or photoinhibition of ammonia oxidation (Hooper and Terry 1974). A diurnal cycle of ammonia oxidation would explain the presence of archaeal ammonia oxidation genes and transcripts in surface waters when ammonia oxidation
was previously thought to be confined to the base of the euphotic zone (Church et al. 2010; Pedneault et al. 2014; Santoro et al. 2010). Our results may indicate that, in ETSP surface waters, OCN$^{-}$ N is primarily taken up by photoautotrophs and that OCN$^{-}$ is utilized as a source of reductant by ammonia oxidizers at night resulting in oxidation of OCN$^{-}$ N and assimilation of OCN$^{-}$ C.

**Anoxic Processes**

OCN$^{-}$, urea, and NH$_4^+$ uptake were also measured below the euphotic zone in the ODZ, and their uptake rates increased with depth exceeding rates of anammox attributed to those same substrates at the SNM (Babbin et al. submitted). Uptake rates at the base of the oxycline coincided with a small secondary chl a peak that could have been attributed to low light adapted *Prochlorococcus* which are typically found near the base of the oxycline and are known to be able to utilize OCN$^{-}$ (Goericke et al. 2000; Kamennaya and Post 2013; Lavin et al. 2010). Nitrogen uptake is typically measured in sunlit waters where nitrogen limits phytoplankton growth and reproduction and consequently rates of primary production (Mulholland and Lomas 2008). To our knowledge, nitrogen uptake has not been measured in marine systems in the absence of phytoplankton biomass. However, important heterotrophic and chemoautotrophic biogeochemical processes take place in ODZs (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino 2009) and the nitrogen uptake observed in this study may represent N assimilation supporting the growth of these organisms, some of which are autotrophs. Alternatively, our 30 nM additions could have stimulated NH$_4^+$, urea, and OCN$^{-}$ uptake dependent on microbial community. Denitrifiers are more responsive to episodic nutrient additions than are anammox bacteria (Ward et al. 2009) however the extent to which either process is limited by N for assimilation is not clear. NO$_3^-$ and NO$_2^-$ are the abundant forms of nitrogen available for assimilation in ODZs, but assimilation of these oxidized forms is energetically expensive compared to reduced forms of N (Berges and Mulholland 2008; Mulholland and Lomas 2008).

NH$_4^+$ was taken up at rates equal to or greater than the rate of NH$_4^+$ consumption in support of the anammox reaction (Babbin et al. submitted). While it is most often assumed that N taken up in incubation experiments is assimilated, it could also reflect accumulation of intracellular NH$_4^+$ to support anammox. NH$_4^+$ concentrations were below the limit of analytical detection (50 nM) within the ODZ, as has been observed previously in marine ODZs, and these low concentrations have been attributed to consumption of NH$_4^+$ by anammox (Devol 2008). It
is presently thought that biological degradation of OCN$^{-}$ and urea to NH$_4^+$ are intracellular processes (Miller and Espie 1994; Solomon et al. 2010). If this is the case, NH$_4^+$ produced from degradation of these compounds could be shunted to the anammox reaction assuming that anammox bacteria are capable of taking up OCN$^{-}$ and urea as found by Babbin et al. (submitted). OCN$^{-}$ degrades abiotically to NH$_4^+$ (Amell 1956; Kamennaya et al. 2008), and urea degrades abiotically to OCN$^{-}$ (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948). It is possible that NH$_4^+$ produced from OCN$^{-}$ and urea extracellularly, whether biotically or abiotically, was rapidly taken up as NH$_4^+$ by the anammox bacteria. The $^{29}$N$_2$ excess concentration following the addition of $^{15}$N- OCN$^{-}$ increased linearly over 24 hours, and the rate of OCN$^{-}$-supported anammox was not significantly different from that of traditional anammox (Babbin et al. submitted) suggesting that OCN$^{-}$ may be used directly by anammox bacteria, and there may exist a "cyanammox" pathway. If this is a two-step process, this suggests that either the time-scales of our incubations were too long to detect the lag between NH$_4^+$ production from OCN$^{-}$ or that anammox is the rate limiting step in the coupled reaction. In contrast to OCN$^{-}$, there was a 36 hour lag in urea-supported anammox during incubation experiments (Babbin et al. submitted). This suggests a slow conversion of urea to OCN$^{-}$ or NH$_4^+$ followed by OCN$^{-}$-supported or traditional anammox.

 Because anammox is an intracellular process (van Niftrik et al. 2004), the chemoautotrophic bacteria capable of "cyanammox" could assimilate OCN$^{-}$ C as CO$_2$ is released by cyanase. The ratio of NH$_4^+$ oxidized by the anammox pathway to C fixed by anammox bacteria is 15:1 (van Niftrik et al. 2004). For the rates of "cyanammox" at 95 and 230 m, the maximum OCN$^{-}$ C uptake by anammox bacteria, assuming 100% efficiency of CO$_2$ assimilation, would have been 9.3 and 4.0 pmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$, respectively. In fact, OCN$^{-}$ C uptake at 95 m was b.d.l. after 8 hours but was 1.4 pmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ after 36 hours which equates to a OCN$^{-}$-derived CO$_2$ assimilation efficiency by anammox bacteria of 15% if anammox bacteria were the only autotrophs able to utilize OCN$^{-}$. At 95 m some OCN$^{-}$ C could have been taken up by Prochlorococcus which is generally found in the secondary chl a maximum in ODZs (Figure 7A) (Lavin et al. 2010) and of which some strains can utilize OCN$^{-}$ (Kamennaya and Post 2013; Rocap et al. 2003), resulting in a OCN$^{-}$-C anammox bacteria assimilation efficiency of < 15%. At 230 m, OCN$^{-}$ C uptake was b.d.l. (d.l. = 0.3 pmol l$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ for a 48 hour incubation) indicating a OCN$^{-}$-derived CO$_2$ efficiency by anammox bacteria of less than 68%. Recovery < 100% could indicate that anammox bacteria lack a mechanism to efficiently fix CO$_2$ before it diffuses out of
the cell, that the majority of cyanase activity is not located inside anammox bacteria, or that C fixed by anammox bacteria is released from the cell during incubations.

OCN\(^-\), urea, and NH\(_4\)\(^+\) were taken up and supported anammox in the ODZ despite the fact that these compounds were below their limits of detection, suggesting that the community was "primed" for utilization of these compounds and that there is a tight coupling between production and consumption of these compounds. NH\(_4\)\(^+\) is produced in ODZs by degradation of organic matter by denitrifiers (Devol 2008), and it is conceivable that OCN\(^-\) and urea are produced by similar pathways. Organic matter degradation could explain the OCN\(^-\) maxima observed at some stations within the ODZ, however particle flux and nutrient remineralization decrease exponentially with depth (Martin et al. 1987), and the anoxic OCN\(^-\) maxima were deeper than expected (300 m) for such a feature possibly indicating consumption of OCN\(^-\) in excess of production in the upper ODZ. In previous studies, the OCN\(^-\) maximum was similar in depth to the NO\(_2\)\(^-\) and NH\(_4\)\(^+\) maxima and the nitracline indicating release by phytoplankton or production from degrading organic matter (Chapter IV; Post et al. unpubl.). However, measurements of OCN\(^-\) concentrations are still so limited as to preclude generalizations regarding rationalizations of its distribution in aquatic systems.

Urea is released to marine systems by microbes (Cho and Azam 1995) and zooplankton excretion (Sipler and Bronk 2015). Diurnal vertical migration (DVM) of zooplankton from the euphotic to the mesopelagic zone can contribute significantly to C and N export (Putzeys 2013). Assuming no change in zooplankton excretion rates during migration, Bianchi et al. (2014) calculated that NH\(_4\)\(^+\) excreted by DVM may increase the percentage of N lost by the anammox pathway by 13\% (Bianchi et al. 2014). However, zooplankton NH\(_4\)\(^+\) excretion rates may decrease 4 to 5 fold in anoxic waters, sharply reducing the impact of DVM on anammox rates (Kiko et al. 2015). As a decomposition product of urea (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948), OCN\(^-\) could form abiotically from urea excreted by DVM in the ODZ.

Overall, we have demonstrated that urea and ammonium were the dominant forms of N taken up in the euphotic zone in the study region, and OCN\(^-\) was not heavily utilized by the microbial community above the pycnocline. We identified a novel anoxic pathway of cyanate-supported anammox ("cyanammox") and made, to our knowledge, the first measurements of cyanate, urea, and ammonium uptake in an oxygen deficient zone.
CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

In this work I developed a nanomolar cyanate method appropriate for measuring its concentrations in estuarine and seawater samples. I applied the method to provide the first descriptions of cyanate distributions in the ocean and examine potential pathways of production and consumption in diverse marine environments. Cyanate concentrations were measured throughout the water column in the Chesapeake Bay and the Atlantic and Pacific oceans in oxic and anoxic waters. Using a custom-synthesized $^{15}$N and $^{13}$C labeled cyanate compound, I made the first measurements of cyanate N and C uptake across horizontal and vertical gradients, in three different seasons in North Atlantic coastal waters. Cyanate distribution and uptake measurements were compared along onshore and offshore gradients in both western and eastern boundary systems that included diatom- and picoplankton-dominated waters and in vertical profiles that included oxic and anoxic waters. The major findings of this research are as follows.

- Cyanate can be measured in estuarine and sea water at nanomolar levels (d.l. = 0.4 nM) by derivatization with 2-aminobenzoic acid to 2,4,6-quinazolinedione and detection by fluorescence following high performance liquid chromatography.
- In the marine systems studied here, cyanate concentrations in seawater ranged from below the limit of detection to 45 nM; concentrations were usually < 5 nM.
- Cyanate distributions are non-conservative and biologically-driven.
  - Cyanate concentrations were low in environments dominated by cyanobacteria and picoeukaryotes who are known to take up cyanate.
  - Cyanate concentrations were higher in diatom-dominated systems and in regions with high rates of organic matter degradation because diatoms do not take up cyanate and cyanate is either released directly by diatoms or produced by degrading diatom-derived organic matter.
  - Cyanate was generally below detection below the euphotic zone except for patchy cyanate features within oxygen deficient waters where it was 5 - 8 nM.
- Cyanate is produced autochthonously in marine and estuarine systems.
Cyanate accumulated in senescent diatom cultures either by diatom release or degradation of dead cells.

- Cyanate was produced photochemically.
- Atmospheric deposition was not a source of cyanate in offshore systems.
- Cyanate N and C are taken up in the euphotic zone.
  - Cyanate N was a larger fraction of total N taken up at offshore oligotrophic stations in the Atlantic (10%) relative to nearshore systems in the North Atlantic and eastern tropical South Pacific, where cyanate was a very small fraction of N uptake (< 2%).
  - Cyanate N uptake was higher in surface waters than at the deep chlorophyll maximum, higher during the day than at night, and higher in spring and summer than in autumn in the coastal North Atlantic Ocean.
  - Cyanate C uptake was higher at the DCM than in surface waters, during the night relative to the day, and in the autumn relative to spring and summer.
- Cyanate N is taken up in ODZs at rates similar to ammonium and urea uptake.
- Cyanate also appears to contribute to N loss processes in the ocean, and I present the first evidence that in the eastern tropical South Pacific ODZ there is a cyanate-supported anammox ("cyanammox") pathway.

This work stemmed from "reverse genomics" in that the cyanate utilization pathway was identified in cyanobacterial genomes before cyanate uptake and assimilation were known quantities in natural systems. The discovery of a pathway for cyanate uptake and degradation in the genes of cultured strains of of the globally important cyanobacteria, *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* (Palenik et al. 2003; Rocap et al. 2003) led to the discovery of expressed cyanate genes in marine systems (Kamennaya and Post 2013). I then commenced this work to determine cyanate bioavailability using geochemical tools. Cyanobacterial cyanate utilization was most important in oligotrophic systems where *Prochlorococcus* is the dominant primary producer (Chapter III). However, the small sample size of this study precludes meaningful conclusions about the global significance of cyanate uptake in the vast oligotrophic gyres.

Since the inception of this project, our knowledge of cyanate has expanded to include dissimilatory nitrogen cycle processes. Using stable isotope techniques (15N) as part of this work and in collaboration with Andrew Babbin (Babbin et al. submitted; Chapter V), we discovered
that cyanate can support anaerobic ammonium oxidation (cyanammox). Concurrently, it was demonstrated that cyanate can also support nitrification in place of ammonia in cultured organisms (Palatinszky et al. 2015; Spang et al. 2012).

Our current understanding of the marine cyanate N cycle is summarized in Figure 31 which includes pathways that are supported by direct measurements as well as those that are predicted by indirect measurements, culture studies, and genomes. Biomass burning and fossil fuel combustion produce isocyanic acid (Nicholls and Nelson 2000; Roberts et al. 2011) which rapidly degrades to ammonium and carbon dioxide in aqueous solution. Dry deposition of isocyanic acid may occur close to the combustion source in dry atmospheric conditions (Barth et al. 2013) but is unlikely to be a detectable source of cyanate to offshore waters. There may be natural and anthropogenic fluxes of cyanate from terrestrial to marine systems (Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948; Glibert et al. 2006; Koshiishi et al. 1997; Lin et al. 2008; Chapter II). Terrestrial and marine dissolved organic matter (DOM) may photodegrade to cyanate (Chapter III). Cyanate may be produced by algae (Chapter III) or by microbially-mediated degradation of organic matter (Chapters III-V), including urea and carbamoyl phosphate (Allen and Jones 1964; Dirnhuber and Schutz 1948; Kamennaya et al. 2008), and by heterotrophic bacteria. In the euphotic zone, cyanate can be taken up by cyanobacteria and other groups of phytoplankton (Berg et al. 2008; Kamennaya and Post 2013; Zhuang et al. 2015).

At the base of the euphotic zone, cyanate may be produced by organic matter degradation in sinking particles either directly or through abiotic degradation of urea (Chapters III-IV). Cyanate would then be consumed by one of three processes: 1) slow abiotic conversion to ammonium (Amell 1956); 2) conversion by ammonia oxidizers to nitrite and carbon dioxide; or 3) conversion by nitrite oxidizers to ammonium and carbon dioxide potentially including uptake of cyanate C (Palatinszky et al. 2015; Chapter IV; Chapter V). In oxygen deficient zones (ODZs) cyanate production may occur by one of two pathways: organic matter degradation, probably mediated by denitrifiers, or slow abiotic degradation of urea generated by diurnally migrating zooplankton (Bianchi et al. 2014). Cyanate N would then be oxidized to \( \text{N}_2 \) directly or indirectly by anammox bacteria (Babbin et al. submitted), thereby contributing to marine N loss.
Figure 31. A conceptual model of the marine cyanate cycle. Sources of cyanate are atmospheric, terrestrial, and autochthonous. Sinks are phytoplankton and bacterial uptake, oxidation by nitrifiers to nitrite, and oxidation by anammox bacteria to dinitrogen gas. Abbreviations are: isocyanic acid (HOCN), cyanate (OCN⁻), ammonia (NH₃), carbon dioxide (CO₂), dissolved organic matter (DOM), photochemistry (hν), particulate organic matter (POM), ammonium (NH₄⁺), ammonia oxidizing archaea and bacteria (AOA/B), nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB), nitrite (NO₂⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻), and dinitrogen gas (N₂). The "cyanammox" process is indicated by the red dashed box.
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Paulmier, A. and D. Ruiz-Pino. 2009. Oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) in the modern ocean. Prog. Oceanogr. 80: 113-128

Pedneault, E., P. E. Galand, M. Potvin, J.-É. Tremblay and C. Lovejoy. 2014. Archaeal amoA and ureC genes and their transcriptional activity in the Arctic Ocean. Scientific reports. 4:


Figure 1. Molecular structure of cyanate hydratase (CynS) showing alpha helices (magenta), beta sheets (yellow), and other residues (white). The five active sites of CynS are dimers which bind bicarbonate and cyanate, and CynS requires no cofactors. Redrawn from Walsh et al. (2000) using RCSB Protein Data Bank and Rasmol 2.7.5.2.
APPENDIX B

UREA AND CYANATE CYCLES

Figure 1. Urea cycle and proposed cyanate cycle where enzymes are shown in blue. The urea cycle is redrawn from Nelson and Cox (2008) and the cyanate cycle is redrawn from Guilloton et al. (2002).
**APPENDIX C**

**CARBAMOYL PHOSPHATE DECOMPOSITION**

**Scheme 1.** Abiotic decomposition of carbamoyl phosphate to cyanate. In the absence of stabilizing enzymes, the half life of carbamoyl phosphate is < 2 s (Wang et al. 2008). Redrawn from Wang et al. (2008).
APPENDIX D
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## APPENDIX E

### CONCENTRATIONS FOR THE GULF OF MAINE TRANSECT

Concentrations are given ± 1 standard deviation in parentheses for nitrate, ammonium, nitrite, and cyanate. Concentrations that were below the detection limit are listed as b.d.l. The method detection limits were 70, 40, 70, and 0.4 nM for nitrite, ammonium, nitrate, and cyanate, respectively.

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### APPENDIX E  Continued.

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<th>Depth</th>
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<th>Ammonium (µM)</th>
<th>Nitrite (µM)</th>
<th>Cyanate (nM)</th>
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APPENDIX F

NO$_2^-$, NO$_3^-$, NH$_4^+$, AND OCN$^-$ CONCENTRATIONS FOR CHAPTER IV

All concentrations from Chapter IV are presented as ± 1 standard deviation in parentheses for ammonium (NH$_4^+$, n=2) and cyanate (OCN$^-$, n=3). Samples for nitrate (NO$_3^-$) and nitrite (NO$_2^-$) were not replicated. Concentrations that were below the methodological detection limits are listed as b.d.l. The method detection limits are the same as those listed in Appendix E.

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<th>Nitrate (μM)</th>
<th>Ammonium (μM)</th>
<th>Cyanate (nM)</th>
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APPENDIX G

CTD DATA FOR CHAPTER IV

Continuous profiles of chlorophyll $a$ fluorescence, salinity, temperature, and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) can be found on the NOAA website as given below. The cruise IDs are del1004 for May/June 2010, del1012 for November 2010, del1105 for June 2011, and hb1205 for August 2012.

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B.S., Chemistry and Biology, The University of Akron, 2008

PUBLICATIONS

PUBLICATIONS IN PREPARATION
Widner B., Mulholland, M.R., Mopper, K. Allochthonous sources of cyanate to marine systems.
Widner B. and Mulholland, M.R. Uptake and distribution of cyanate and urea in and above the Eastern Tropical South Pacific Oxygen Deficient Zone.