This is the preprint of the contribution published as:

Kraft, B., **Jehmlich, N.**, Larsen, M., Bristow, L.A., Könneke, M., Thamdrup, B., Canfield, D.E. (2022):

Oxygen and nitrogen production by an ammonia-oxidizing archaeon *Science* **375** (6576), 97 - 100

The publisher's version is available at:

http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.abe6733

Title: Oxygen production by an ammonia-oxidizing archaeon

Authors: Beate Kraft^{1,*}, Nico Jehmlich², Morten Larsen¹, Laura Bristow¹, Martin Könneke³, Bo 2 Thamdrup¹, Donald E. Canfield^{1,†}

Affiliations: 4

1

3

12

- 5 ¹Nordcee, Department of Biology, University of Southern Denmark, Odense, Denmark
- 6 ²Department of Molecular Systems Biology, Helmholtz-Centre for Environmental Research UFZ
- 7 GmbH, Leipzig, Germany
- ³Marine Archaea Group, MARUM, Center for Marine Environmental Sciences & Department of 8
- Geosciences, University of Bremen, Bremen, Germany 9
- *Correspondence to: bkraft@biology.sdu.dk 10
- †Villum investigator 11

Abstract:

Ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) are one of the most abundant groups of microbes in the world's oceans and are key players in the nitrogen cycle. Their energy metabolism, the oxidation of ammonia to nitrite, requires oxygen. Nevertheless, AOA are abundant in environments where oxygen is undetectable. In incubation experiments, where oxygen concentrations were resolved to the nanomolar range, we show that *Nitrosopumilus maritimus* produces oxygen (O₂) and dinitrogen (N₂). The pathway is not completely resolved, but it has nitric oxide as a key intermediate. Part of the oxygen produced is directly used for ammonia oxidation, while some accumulates in the surrounding environment. *N. maritimus* joins a small handful of organisms known to produce oxygen in the dark, and based on this ability, we re-evaluate their role in oxygen-depleted marine environments.

Main Text:

Ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) are only known to oxidize ammonia to nitrite using oxygen: NH₃ + 1.5 O₂ \rightarrow NO₂⁻ + H₂O + H⁺ (1, 2). Yet, AOA are highly abundant in environments with very low or even undetectable oxygen concentrations such as marine oxygen-minimum zones (OMZs) (3–5). The role of AOA in such environments is enigmatic as they have no known anaerobic metabolism. We used trace luminescence oxygen sensors (hereafter: optodes) (6) to explore the physiology of AOA at low nanomolar oxygen concentrations and functional anoxia (oxygen levels below detection) as typically found in OMZs (7, 8), discovering oxygen production by the marine AOA *Nitrosopumilus maritimus SCM 1*(9). Dark, non-photosynthetic, oxygen production is rare in nature with three known pathways including chlorite dismutation during perchlorate/chlorate respiration (ClO₂⁻ \rightarrow Cl⁻ + O₂), detoxification of reactive oxygen species (e.g. H₂O₂ dismutation) and nitric oxide dismutation (2NO₂⁻ \rightarrow 2NO \rightarrow N₂ + O₂) (10). While not fully resolved, we show that the pathway of oxygen production

by N. maritimus is none of these and thus novel. Given the abundance of N. maritimus in oxygen-sparse environments, anaerobic oxygen production may be common in nature. We also show that oxygen production is linked to N_2 production and thereby identify a previously unknown and potentially environmentally significant N_2 production pathway.

We first grew axenic cultures of *N. maritimus* aerobically as an ammonia oxidizer. The cultures were then sparged with argon to oxygen levels below 5μM, where the remaining oxygen was consumed by *N. maritimus* through continued ammonia oxidation, indicating physiologically active cells. Surprisingly, after oxygen was completely consumed, it immediately started to increase again (Fig. 1A). A series of additions of oxygen-saturated water showed the same recurring pattern: oxygen was consumed and increased directly thereafter (Fig. 1A). When no oxygen additions were made, oxygen build-up continued over hours and reached levels of 100-200nM (Fig. 1A). This pattern was observed reproducibly in multiple incubations carried out over 2 years.

In comparison, no oxygen build-up was detected in filtered abiotic controls or when cells were killed by the addition of mercuric chloride (Fig. S1) ruling out the possibility of abiotic oxygen production or intrusion of oxygen into the incubation bottle. Contamination by oxygen intrusion was further ruled out with incubations in an anaerobic chamber showing the same trend of oxygen production (Fig. S2). Involvement of medium components (e.g. HEPES, EDTA) in oxygen production was also excluded (Fig. S3), and furthermore, oxygen microelectrodes, which make use of a different oxygen measurement principle, showed the same patterns of oxygen increase as the optode measurements (Fig. S4). Incubations with *N. maritimus* in medium containing pyruvate showed no difference compared to incubations without pyruvate (Fig. S5). This experiment rules out oxygen production by H_2O_2 dismutation ($H_2O_2 \rightarrow H_2 + O_2$) as pyruvate reacts with and removes H_2O_2 via an abiotic decarboxylation reaction (11).

As described in more detail below, we measured nitric oxide (NO) concentrations with a microelectrode and found that NO slightly interferes with the optode measurements of O₂ (Fig. S6) but not the O₂ microelectrode measurements. Therefore, when optode O₂ concentrations and NO were simultaneously measured, a NO correction was applied to the O₂ measurements. The correction, however, was relatively small (0-17%) and fully predictable from the NO concentrations. This correction was only applied when NO and O₂ were simultaneously measured, recognizing that other optode O₂ measurements may be slight overestimates (depending on the NO concentration) of the actual O₂ concentration (Fig. S7).

Despite this small interference on our oxygen measurements, *N. maritimus* clearly produces oxygen when the culture reaches anoxia. We hypothesize that oxygen accumulates as a net balance of simultaneous oxygen production and oxygen consumption by ammonia oxidation, where plateauing oxygen concentrations over time represent a balance between these processes. To test this hypothesis, cyanide (0.5 mM) was added to the oxygen-producing culture. Cyanide inhibits oxygen respiration by the heme–copper oxygen reductase, and thus inhibits ammonia oxidation (*12, supplementary information*). Upon cyanide addition, and after an initial lag phase, oxygen concentrations steadily increased at rates ca. 5 times higher (65±12 nmol/L/h) than before cyanide addition (14±2 nmol/L/h) (Fig. 1B). In similar experiments where NO was also measured, O₂ increase was uncoupled from NO concentration after cyanide addition (Fig. S8). Overall, these results are consistent with the hypothesis that, in the absence of cyanide, some portion of oxygen production by *N. maritimus* is utilized within the cells and does not accumulate into the surroundings.

We tracked the conversion of ¹⁵N-labelled ammonium to nitrite to directly explore if *N. maritimus* continues to oxidize ammonia while producing oxygen. In this experiment, cell cultures were washed to reduce the high nitrite background that accumulated (ca. 1 mM) during normal aerobic growth. After this, ¹⁵N-ammonium (I: 5 μM and II: 25 μM) was added as well as a small

amount of ¹⁴N-nitrite to "capture" any produced ¹⁵N-nitrite from further transformations. The labelling experiments showed continued ammonia oxidation to nitrite during oxygen production (Fig. 2). These results, consistent with the cyanide addition experiments, confirmed that ammonia oxidation occurs together with oxygen production. Furthermore, the rates of ammonia oxidation in these duplicate experiments were 46 (I) and 39 nM/h (II) (table 1), requiring an oxygen production rate of 69 and 60 nM/h respectively, given the stoichiometry of ammonia oxidation (NH₃ + 1.5O₂ \Rightarrow NO₂⁻ + H₂O + 1H⁺). Oxygen accumulated at an average rate of only 1.2 nM/h in both experiments. Our results further demonstrate that most of the oxygen produced by *N. maritimus* was immediately consumed through ammonia oxidation. The cell density in these incubations was 1.3*10⁷ cells mL⁻¹, and therefore, the average ammonia oxidation rate per cell was 3-3.5 amol/cell/h. In marine OMZs with typical AOA cell densities of about 1-10*10⁴ cells mL⁻¹ this would correspond to ammonia oxidation rates of 1-10 nM/d, which are in the range of anammox rates in open-ocean oxygenminimum zones, the so far only known anaerobic ammonia oxidation process that is considered to be relevant in marine OMZs (8).

To explore for translational changes associated with oxygen production, we performed differential proteomic analysis comparing *N. maritimus* performing standard aerobic metabolism to its metabolism during oxygen production. The proteome translation profile during aerobic metabolism matched earlier findings (14, see supplementary information for details). However, compared to the mid-log phase during normal aerobic growth, 88 of the 1453 recovered proteins had significantly increased abundances when the culture produced oxygen, while 11 proteins were significantly decreased in abundance (P<0.05; table S1).

The plastocyanin Nmar_1665, the multicopper oxidase type 3 Nmar_1354 and the putative nitroreductase Nmar_1357, were among the most up-regulated proteins during oxygen production, suggesting that they could play a role in the oxygen-production pathway (Fig. S9). Indeed, nitric

oxide processing has been suggested for the gene cluster Nmar_1352-1357 (13, 14), which would be consistent with the tight coupling of oxygen production and nitric oxide accumulation as explored below. The 17 small blue Cu-containing plastocyanins encoded by *N. maritimus* have a proposed function in hydroxylamine (NH₂OH) oxidation (14). Of these, Nmar_1665 was the only plastocyanin with a significant upregulation under oxygen production, while all other plastocyanins were abundant under both metabolic modes. Other proteins that are either significantly up or down regulated include different transcriptional regulators: e.g members of the AsnC family (Nmar_1524 [up], Nmar_1292 [up], Nmar_1628 [down] (Fig. S9)). Archaeal AsnC regulatory proteins have a function in the regulation of central and energy metabolism, and a role in the switch between aerobic and anaerobic metabolism has been suggested (15, 16). The NADH dehydrogenase 30 kDa subunit Nmar_0278 was significantly down regulated. Otherwise, no proteins with functions in energy or carbon metabolism changed significantly in abundance.

Overall, the few significant changes in the proteome between aerobic respiration and oxygen production suggest that most proteins are needed and active under both metabolic modes. However, some of the upregulated proteins could be involved in catalyzing and regulating oxygen production in AOA.

We now explore possible metabolic pathways for dark oxygen production in *N. maritimus*. Of the three known pathways of dark oxygen production, we rule out perchlorate/chlorate respiration as our cultures were perchlorate/chlorate/chlorite free. Furthermore, as discussed above, we also rule out hydrogen peroxide dismutation as a source of oxygen. As *N. maritimus* metabolizes nitrogen and accumulates NO under normal aerobic ammonia oxidation (*17*), NO dismutation becomes a potential source of oxygen in our experiments. So far, NO dismutation is only known among the NC10 bacteria (*10*). These organisms are methane oxidizers and generate NO for dismutation to oxygen and dinitrogen (*18*), where the oxygen is used to oxidize methane. Because oxygen production and

consumption are tightly coupled, methane-oxidizing NC10 bacteria are not known to liberate free oxygen into the environment (18).

Using NO microelectrodes, we noted that NO and oxygen production were mostly tightly coupled (Fig. S7) (although the coupling was less tight in other cases; Fig. S8)). Furthermore, when the NO scavenger PTIO (2-Phenyl-4,4,5,5-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl 3-oxide) was added, oxygen production ceased (Fig. S10). Taken together, these results suggest that NO is a crucial intermediate in oxygen production.

We used ¹⁵N-labelled nitrite to further unravel the pathways of nitrogen and oxygen cycling during oxygen production by *N. maritimus*. In incubations with added ¹⁵N-nitrite, ³⁰N₂ was produced during oxygen production (Fig 3A, S12 and 13), while no formation of ²⁹N₂ was detected (Fig. 3B). Dinitrogen production by *N. maritimus* or other AOA isolates has not previously been reported. Our results furthermore show that both nitrogen atoms in the N₂ originated from nitrite, with none coming from ammonium. This result was confirmed by incubations with ¹⁵N-ammonium, where no immediate conversion of ¹⁵N-ammonium to ²⁹N₂ or ³⁰N₂ was detected (Fig. 3A, B). Instead, ¹⁵N-ammonium was most likely converted to nitrite and diluted into the large existing nitrite pool in this experiment. In contrast, when ¹⁵N-labelled ammonium was added to washed cultures with a small nitrite pool (5 and 25 μM), the ¹⁵N-nitrite produced from ammonia oxidation was further converted to N₂ (Fig. 2B and S11) consistent with our experiments with ¹⁵N-labelled nitrite.

Thus far we have shown that NO is a likely intermediate in oxygen production and that N₂ is produced together with O₂ by *N. maritimus*. Rates of O₂ accumulation and N₂ production from the different incubations shown in Figs. 2 and 3 are summarized in table 1. These results would generally be consistent with NO dismutation as a source of both N₂ and O₂, where NO is produced from the reduction of nitrite. In incubations with added ¹⁵N-nitrite, however, oxygen accumulation exceeded N₂ production in the first 20 h (incubations 3 and 4 in Table 1, Fig. 3c, S12 and S13), demonstrating

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

a decoupling of O_2 and N_2 production in this phase of the experiment. As net rates of O_2 accumulation may underestimate gross rates of O_2 production, as explored above, and as N_2 production in our experiments is a gross production rate, there is an imbalance between the production rates of O_2 and N_2 . Such an imbalance would be inconsistent with O_2 and O_2 production directly from NO dismutation. In this case the O_2 accumulation rates should not exceed O_2 production rates, but the imbalance we measure suggests that further intermediate(s) must exist between NO, and O_2 production. We suggest that O_2 may be such an intermediate, where O_2 accumulation rates are intermediate, where O_2 and O_3 production.

Indeed, in our incubations supplied with ¹⁵N-nitrite, ⁴⁶N₂O accumulated before ³⁰N₂ production accelerated (Fig. 3D), and the rates of N₂ production and N₂O accumulation taken together in the first 20 h match the O₂ accumulation rates within the uncertainties (table 1). Furthermore, the dismutation of NO(aq) to $O_2(aq)$ and $N_2O(aq)$ is thermodynamically favorable (ΔG^0 '= -165 KJ/mol O₂,). However, for this pathway to occur, an unknown N₂O reductase would need to be present in the genome of N. maritimus (14). N-nitrosating hybrid formation, in which one N atom from NO₂⁻ and one from NH₄⁺ (or an intermediate of ammonia oxidation) combine to form N₂O, has been proposed as a possible source for N₂O production in AOA (19), but the isotopic signature of the N₂O produced in our experiments (46N2O) does not support this pathway (expected 45N2O). In incubations supplied with ¹⁵N-ammonium and a small nitrite pool (Fig. 2), N₂O accumulated transiently as well (Fig. S14). In these incubations N₂ production far exceeded O₂ accumulation and no N₂O accumulation would be required for a mass balance. This is not surprising as high rates of ammonia oxidation (Table 1, Fig 2) indicate that O₂ accumulation rates in these experiments far underestimate gross rates of O₂ production as explored above. This does not mean that N₂O was not an intermediate in these experiments, only that these incubations did not demonstrate an initial imbalance between O2 and N2 production.

To summarize, like for NO dismutation in NC10 bacteria, O₂ production in *N. maritimus* has NO as an intermediate and produces N₂. However, unlike for NC10 bacteria, our results suggest that the pathway of O₂ production employed by *N. maritimus* has an extra intermediate that may be N₂O. A proposal for the metabolic pathway associated with oxygen production in *N. maritimus* is shown in figure 4. While ammonia oxidation to nitrite is accomplished by the O₂ produced by *N. maritimus*, the conversion of nitrite to N₂ requires reducing equivalents regardless of the O₂ production pathway. The required electrons can partly, but not fully, be obtained from the ongoing oxidation of ammonia. Another source of electrons could be intra- or extracellular organic matter produced during normal aerobic ammonia oxidation (*20*) or, *in situ*, by dissolved organics available in the water column.

By showing that the O₂ production pathway in AOA is coupled to N₂ production, we also uncovered a new, potentially environmentally significant, pathway of N₂ production. Furthermore, by converting ammonium through nitrite to N₂, AOA perform a so far unrecognized pathway of anaerobic ammonia oxidation. ¹⁵N-tracer experiments currently performed to measure N-cycling rates in marine oxygen-depleted environments would overlook this pathway and account for its N₂ production as canonical denitrification and/or anammox.

AOA are one of the most abundant groups of microbes in the global ocean and key players in the marine nitrogen cycle, also in low-oxygen environments. Thus, a widely distributed oxygen-producing pathway by AOA could have far-reaching implications for the microbial ecology and biogeochemical cycling in oxygen-depleted environments, including the possibility that some of the produced could be used by other microbial cells. The discovery of an anaerobic oxygen-producing pathway in AOA can explain the presence and role of AOA in such environments solving a longstanding enigma.

References and Notes:

- 203 1. C. Schleper, G. W. Nicol, Ammonia-oxidising archaea--physiology, ecology and evolution.
- 204 *Adv. Microb. Physiol.* **57**, 1–41 (2010).
- 205 2. D. A. Stahl, J. R. de la Torre, Physiology and Diversity of Ammonia-Oxidizing Archaea.
- 206 Annu. Rev. Microbiol. 66, 83–101 (2012).
- 207 3. C. Berg, V. Vandieken, B. Thamdrup, K. Jürgens, Significance of archaeal nitrification in
- 208 hypoxic waters of the Baltic Sea. *ISME J.* **9**, 1319–1332 (2015).
- 4. M. Labrenz, E. Sintes, F. Toetzke, A. Zumsteg, G. J. Herndl, M. Seidler, K. Jürgens,
- Relevance of a crenarchaeotal subcluster related to Candidatus Nitrosopumilus maritimus to
- ammonia oxidation in the suboxic zone of the central Baltic Sea. *ISME J.* **4**, 1496–1508
- 212 (2010).
- 5. F. J. Stewart, O. Ulloa, E. F. Delong, Microbial metatranscriptomics in a permanent marine
- oxygen minimum zone. *Environ. Microbiol.* **14**, 23–40 (2012).
- 215 6. P. Lehner, C. Larndorfer, E. Garcia-Robledo, M. Larsen, S. M. Borisov, N.-P. Revsbech, R.
- N. Glud, D. E. Canfield, I. Klimant, LUMOS A Sensitive and Reliable Optode System for
- Measuring Dissolved Oxygen in the Nanomolar Range. *PLoS One.* **10**, e0128125 (2015).
- 218 7. L. Tiano, E. Garcia-Robledo, N. P. Revsbech, A New Highly Sensitive Method to Assess
- Respiration Rates and Kinetics of Natural Planktonic Communities by Use of the Switchable
- Trace Oxygen Sensor and Reduced Oxygen Concentrations. *PLoS One.* **9**, e105399 (2014).
- 221 8. P. Lam, M. M. M. Kuypers, Microbial nitrogen cycling processes in oxygen minimum zones.
- 222 Ann. Rev. Mar. Sci. 3, 317–45 (2011).
- 9. M. Könneke, A. E. Bernhard, J. R. de la Torre, C. B. Walker, J. B. Waterbury, D. a Stahl,
- Isolation of an autotrophic ammonia-oxidizing marine archaeon. *Nature.* **437**, 543–6 (2005).

- 225 10. K. F. Ettwig, D. R. Speth, J. Reimann, M. L. Wu, M. S. M. Jetten, J. T. Keltjens, Bacterial
- oxygen production in the dark. Front. Microbiol. 3, 1–8 (2012).
- 11. J.-G. Kim, S.-J. Park, J. S. Sinninghe Damsté, S. Schouten, W. I. C. Rijpstra, M.-Y. Jung, S.-
- J. Kim, J.-H. Gwak, H. Hong, O.-J. Si, S. Lee, E. L. Madsen, S.-K. Rhee, Hydrogen peroxide
- detoxification is a key mechanism for growth of ammonia-oxidizing archaea. *Proc. Natl.*
- 230 *Acad. Sci.* **113**, 7888–7893 (2016).
- 231 12. M. T. Wilson, G. Antonini, F. Malatesta, P. Sarti, M. Brunori, Probing the oxygen binding
- site of cytochrome c oxidase by cyanide. *J. Biol. Chem.* **269**, 24114–9 (1994).
- 233 13. W. Qin, S. A. Amin, R. A. Lundeen, K. R. Heal, W. Martens-Habbena, S. Turkarslan, H.
- Urakawa, K. C. Costa, E. L. Hendrickson, T. Wang, D. A. Beck, S. M. Tiquia-Arashiro, F.
- Taub, A. D. Holmes, N. Vajrala, P. M. Berube, T. M. Lowe, J. W. Moffett, A. H. Devol, N.
- S. Baliga, D. J. Arp, L. A. Sayavedra-Soto, M. Hackett, E. V. Armbrust, A. E. Ingalls, D. A.
- Stahl, Stress response of a marine ammonia-oxidizing archaeon informs physiological status
- of environmental populations. *ISME J.* **12**, 508–519 (2018).
- 239 14. C. B. Walker, J. R. de la Torre, M. G. Klotz, H. Urakawa, N. Pinel, D. J. Arp, C. Brochier-
- Armanet, P. S. G. Chain, P. P. Chan, A. Gollabgir, J. Hemp, M. Hugler, E. A. Karr, M.
- Konneke, M. Shin, T. J. Lawton, T. Lowe, W. Martens-Habbena, L. A. Sayavedra-Soto, D.
- Lang, S. M. Sievert, A. C. Rosenzweig, G. Manning, D. A. Stahl, Nitrosopumilus maritimus
- 243 genome reveals unique mechanisms for nitrification and autotrophy in globally distributed
- 244 marine crenarchaea. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **107**, 8818–8823 (2010).
- 15. K. Yokoyama, S. A. Ishijima, L. Clowney, H. Koike, H. Aramaki, C. Tanaka, K. Makino, M.
- Suzuki, Feast/famine regulatory proteins (FFRPs): Escherichia coli Lrp, AsnC and related
- archaeal transcription factors. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **30**, 89–108 (2006).

- 16. L. Lemmens, H. R. Maklad, I. Bervoets, E. Peeters, Transcription Regulators in Archaea:
- 249 Homologies and Differences with Bacterial Regulators. J. Mol. Biol. 431, 4132–4146 (2019).
- 250 17. W. Martens-Habbena, W. Qin, R. E. A. Horak, H. Urakawa, A. J. Schauer, J. W. Moffett, E.
- V. Armbrust, A. E. Ingalls, A. H. Devol, D. A. Stahl, The production of nitric oxide by
- marine ammonia-oxidizing archaea and inhibition of archaeal ammonia oxidation by a nitric
- oxide scavenger. *Environ. Microbiol.* 17, 2261–2274 (2015).
- 18. K. F. Ettwig, M. K. Butler, D. Le Paslier, E. Pelletier, S. Mangenot, M. M. M. Kuypers, F.
- Schreiber, B. E. Dutilh, J. Zedelius, D. de Beer, J. Gloerich, H. J. C. T. Wessels, T. van Alen,
- F. Luesken, M. L. Wu, K. T. van de Pas-Schoonen, H. J. M. Op den Camp, E. M. Janssen-
- Megens, K.-J. Francoijs, H. Stunnenberg, J. Weissenbach, M. S. M. Jetten, M. Strous,
- Nitrite-driven anaerobic methane oxidation by oxygenic bacteria. *Nature.* **464**, 543–548
- 259 (2010).
- 260 19. M. Stieglmeier, M. Mooshammer, B. Kitzler, W. Wanek, S. Zechmeister-Boltenstern, A.
- Richter, C. Schleper, Aerobic nitrous oxide production through N-nitrosating hybrid
- formation in ammonia-oxidizing archaea. *ISME J.* **8**, 1135–1146 (2014).
- 263 20. B. Bayer, R. L. Hansman, M. J. Bittner, B. E. Noriega-, Ammonia-oxidizing archaea release
- a suite of organic compounds potentially fueling prokaryotic heterotrophy in the ocean, 1–26
- 265 (2019).
- 266 21. F. Widdel, F. Bak, in The prokaryotes (Springer, New York, 1992), pp. 3352–3378.
- 22. W. Martens-Habbena, P. M. Berube, H. Urakawa, J. R. de la Torre, D. A. Stahl, Ammonia
- oxidation kinetics determine niche separation of nitrifying Archaea and Bacteria. Nature.
- **461**, 976–979 (2009).

- 270 23. L. De Brabandere, B. Thamdrup, N. P. Revsbech, R. Foadi, A critical assessment of the
- occurrence and extend of oxygen contamination during anaerobic incubations utilizing
- commercially available vials. J. Microbiol. Methods. **88**, 147–154 (2012).
- 273 24. X. Gong, E. Garcia-Robledo, A. Schramm, N. P. Revsbech, Respiratory Kinetics of Marine
- Bacteria Exposed to Decreasing Oxygen Concentrations. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 82,
- 275 1412–1422 (2016).
- 276 25. N. P. Revsbech, An oxygen microelectrode with a guard cathode. Limnol. Oceanogr. 34,
- 277 474–478 (1989).
- 278 26. C. E. Bower, T. Holm-Hansen, A Salicylate-Hypochlorite Method for Determining
- 279 Ammonia in Seawater. Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci. **37**, 794–798 (1980).
- 280 27. K. Bendschneider, R. J. Robinson, A new spectrophotometric method for the determination of
- 281 nitrite in sea water. J. Mar. Res. 11, 87–96 (1952).
- 282 28. T. Dalsgaard, B. Thamdrup, L. Farías, N. P. Revsbech, Anammox and denitrification in the
- oxygen minimum zone of the eastern South Pacific. Limnol. Oceanogr. 57, 1331–1346
- 284 (2012).
- 285 29. S.-B. Haange, N. Jehmlich, M. Hoffmann, K. Weber, J. Lehmann, M. von Bergen, U.
- Slanina, Disease Development Is Accompanied by Changes in Bacterial Protein Abundance
- and Functions in a Refined Model of Dextran Sulfate Sodium (DSS)-Induced Colitis. J.
- 288 Proteome Res. 18, 1774–1786 (2019).
- 289 30. L. Käll, J. D. Canterbury, J. Weston, W. S. Noble, M. J. MacCoss, Semi-supervised learning
- for peptide identification from shotgun proteomics datasets. Nat. Methods. 4, 923–925
- 291 (2007).

- 292 31. A. B. Hooper, K. R. Terry, Specific inhibitors of ammonia oxidation in Nitrosomonas. J.
- 293 Bacteriol. 115, 480–5 (1973).
- 294 32. C. Bédard, R. Knowles, Physiology, biochemistry, and specific inhibitors of CH4, NH4+,
- and CO oxidation by methanotrophs and nitrifiers. Microbiol. Rev. 53, 68–84 (1989).

296 Acknowledgments:

- 297 We thank Annie Glud for assistance with microelectrode measurements and providing
- 298 microelectrodes. Funding: This work was supported by the Villum Foundation, Denmark (Villum
- Young Investigator Grant No. 25491 to BK and Villum Investigator Grant No. 16518 to DEK) and
- the Independent Research Fund Denmark (Grant No. 14181-00025 to DEC). Autor contributions:
- B.K. and D.E.C. designed the experiments. B.K. performed the experiments and analyzed data with
- input from M.L, L.B., M.K., B.T. and D.E.C.. N.J. performed proteomics. B.K. and D.E.C. wrote the
- manuscript, with contributions and approval from all other authors. Competing interests: The
- authors declare no conflict of interest. Data and materials availability: All data is available in the
- main text or the supplementary materials.

Supplementary Materials:

- 307 Materials and Methods
- 308 Figures S1-S14
- Tables S1-S2

311

310 References (21-30)

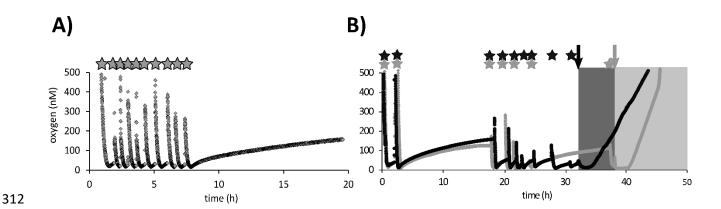


Fig. 1. Oxygen production by *N. maritimus*. a) after supplied oxygen is consumed, oxygen concentrations immediately start to increase again (0-8h). The oxygen concentration increases over time when no oxygenated water is added (8h-20h). b) cyanide additions lead to a strong increase in oxygen production. Two parallel incubations showed the same pattern as observed in 1a: oxygen increased immediately after added oxygen had been consumed and accumulated over time when no oxygen additions were performed. After the additions of cyanide (0.5mM final concentration, shaded areas), oxygen accumulations strongly increased. Stars: additions of oxygen saturated water, arrows: addition of cyanide. Colors: black and grey lines represent parallel incubations.

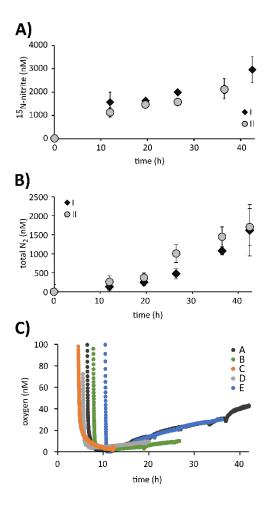


Fig. 2. Ammonia oxidation to nitrite and N₂ during oxygen production by *N. maritimus*. A) ¹⁵N- nitrite production from ¹⁵N-ammonium for two sets of incubations of washed *N. maritimus* culture. Incubation I contained a ¹⁴N-nitrite pool of 5 μM and incubation II had a ¹⁴N-nitrite pool of 25 μM. ¹⁵N-nitrite production continued after supplied oxygen was consumed (10h). B) Total N₂ production in incubations I and II. Results include ²⁸N₂ from ¹⁴N-nitrite as well as ³⁰N₂ and ²⁹N₂ from added ¹⁵N-ammonium that was converted to ¹⁵N-nitrite and partly captured in the small ¹⁴N-nitrite pool before further conversion to ³⁰N₂ and ²⁹N₂ (results in Fig. S11). C) Oxygen accumulation in a subset of exetainers. Extainers A and B belong to incubation I, and C, D and E to incubation II. Error bars represent the standard deviation of 3 replicates.

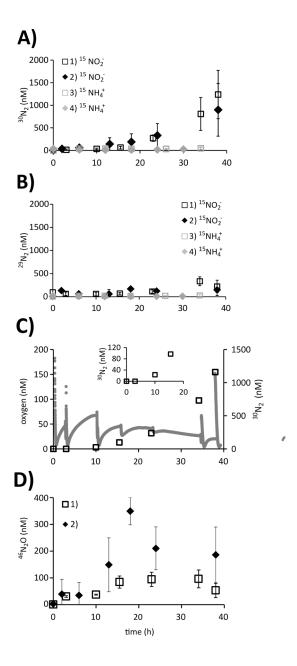


Fig. 3. N₂ production and N₂O accumulation by *N. maritimus* during simultaneous oxygen production. After sparging with argon, *N. maritimus culture* was incubated with either ¹⁵N-nitrite or ¹⁵N-ammonium and the production of (A) ³⁰N₂ and (B) ²⁹N₂ were tracked in two independent sets of incubations for each tracer addition (3-4 replicates each). N₂ production was only detected in incubations with ¹⁵N-nitrite. For the corresponding oxygen measurements see fig. S12 and 13. C) Oxygen accumulation and ³⁰N₂ production for a single replicate of the incubation series 1). The insert shows ³⁰N₂ production in the first 20h. Disturbances in the oxygen time series at T=0, 3, 10,

15.5, 23, 34 and 38h correspond to the time points when samples for N_2 analysis were taken, which led to slight oxygen intrusion. Gray dots: oxygen, black open squares: $^{30}N_2$. D) $^{46}N_2O$ accumulation in incubations 1) and 2) supplied with ^{14}N -ammonium and 1 mM ^{15}N -nitrite. Only $^{46}N_2O$ accumulated in these incubations with a large 15N-nitrite pool indicating that all produced N_2O originated from nitrite. Error bars represent the standard deviation of 4 (incubations 1 and 3) or 3 (incubations 2 and 4) replicates.

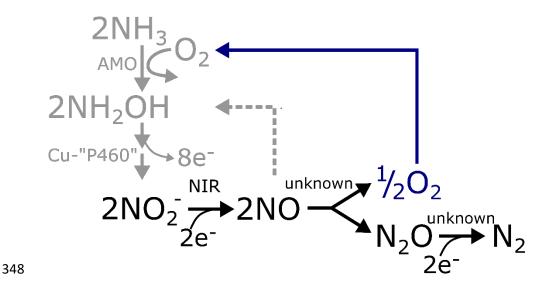


Fig. 4. Proposed pathway of oxygen and dinitrogen production in *N. maritimus*. Ammonia oxidation pathway (gray): for the aerobic oxidation of ammonia to nitrite, oxygen is needed to activate ammonia oxidation by the ammonia monooxygenase (AMO), additionally four electrons per oxidized NH₄⁺ are transferred to the terminal oxygen reductase, which reduces oxygen. Proposed oxygen production pathway (black): Nitrite is reduced to nitric oxide by the NirK nitrite reductase (NIR). Nitric oxide is dismutated to oxygen and nitrous oxide. The accumulating oxygen is partly consumed during ammonia oxidation. Likewise, part of the nitric oxide may be used for driving the hydroxylamine oxidation step of the ammonia oxidation pathway. Finally, nitrous oxide becomes reduced to dinitrogen. This pathway requires four electrons per produced N₂. These may partly be supplied by the ammonia oxidation reaction, which in return would reduce the oxygen demand by the ammonia oxidation pathway. Cu-"P460": the hydroxylamine oxidizing enzyme, unknown: unknown enzyme.

Table 1: Summary of rates extracted from incubations with ¹⁵NH₄⁺ or ¹⁵NO₂⁻ additions presented in Figs. 2 and 3. Oxygen accumulation rates were taken when the accumulation rate was at its maximum at the start of oxygen production. In incubations I and II oxygen supplied to the culture at the beginning of the incubation was consumed after 10h (Fig. 2C). Therefore, only time points after 10h were used to calculate ammonia oxidation rates during oxygen production. The means of the rates from replicate incubations and its standard deviation are presented. n. d.: not determined, -: no N₂O accumulation was detected. N₂ production rates refer to the total N₂ production, which in case of incubations 1 and 2 equal ³⁰N₂ production rates.

Incubation	O ₂ accumulation (nM/h)	NH ₃ oxidation to NO ₂ - (nM/h)	N ₂ production (first 20h) (nM/h)	N ₂ production (20-40h) (nM/h)	N ₂ O accumulation (first 20h) (nM/h)
$^{15}\text{NH}_4{}^+$, 5 μM $^{14}\text{NO}_2{}^-$ (fig. 2, incubation I)	1.2 (±0.2)	46 (±12)	49 (±12)		-
$^{15}\text{NH}_4{}^+\text{, }25\mu\text{M}$ $^{14}\text{NO}_2{}^-\text{ (fig. 2, incubation II)}$	1.2 (±0.2)	39 (±9)	51 (±6)		3(±1)
$^{14}\mathrm{NH_4^+}$, 1mM $^{15}\mathrm{NO_2^-}$ (fig. 4, incubation 1)	21 (±8)	n. d.	9 (±3)	51 (±13)	5 (±2)
$^{14}\mathrm{NH_4}^+,1\mathrm{mM}$ $^{15}\mathrm{NO_2}^-$ (fig. 4, incubation 2)	24 (±8)	n. d.	11 (±5)	37 (±20)	22(±6)