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Original Article

Active bacteria driving N_2O mitigation and dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium in ammonia recovery bioreactors

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Abstract

Shifting from ammonia removal to recovery is the current strategy in wastewater treatment management. We recently developed a microaerophilic activated sludge system for retaining ammonia whereas removing organic carbon with minimal N₂O emissions. A comprehensive understanding of nitrogen metabolisms in the system is essential to optimize system performance. Here, we employed metagenomics and metatranscriptomics analyses to characterize the microbial community structure and activity during the transition from a microoxic to an oxic condition. A hybrid approach combining high-quality short reads and Nanopore long reads reconstructed 98 medium- to high-quality non-redundant metagenome-assembled genomes from the communities. The suppressed bacterial ammonia monooxygenase (amoA) expression was upregulated after shifting from a microoxic to an oxic condition. Seventy-three reconstructed metagenome-assembled genomes (>74% of the total) from 11 bacterial phyla harbored genes encoding proteins involved in nitrate respiration; 39 (~53%) carried N₂O reductase (nosZ) genes with the predominance of clade II nosZ (31 metagenome-assembled genomes), and 24 (~33%) possessed nitrite reductase (ammonia-forming) genes (nrfA). Clade II nosZ and nrfA genes exhibited the highest and second-highest expressions among nitrogen metabolism genes, indicating robust N₂O consumption and ammonification. Non-denitrifying clade II nosZ bacteria, Cloacibacterium spp., in the most abundant and active phylum Bacteroioda, were likely major N₂O sinks. Elevated dissolved oxygen concentration inhibited clade II nosZ expression but not nrfA expression, potentially switching phenotypes from N₂O reduction to ammonification. Collectively, the multi-omics analysis illuminated bacteria responsible for N₂O reduction and ammonification in microoxic and oxic conditions, facilitating high-performance ammonia recovery.

Keywords: ammonia retention, dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia, metagenomics, metatranscriptomics, nitrous oxide

Introduction

In conventional wastewater treatment plants, nitrogen in wastewater is removed by converting reactive nitrogen into dinitrogen gas via nitrification-denitrification. Although this process alleviates the environmental burden associated with nitrogen constituents, the requirements of energy-intensive aeration, external organic carbon, and waste sludge disposal make the process incompatible with sustainable development goals [1, 2]. A transition from nitrogen removal to recovery was initiated in wastewater treatment plants toward sustainable nitrogen management. Ammonia recovery from high-strength nitrogenous organic wastewater ensures energy stored in ammonia, overcoming the high energy demand in conventional nitrogen removal and preventing the emission of nitrous oxide (N2O), which is a potent greenhouse gas with a global warming potential 273 times higher than that of CO2 and accounts for nearly 80% of the total CO2 footprint of a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) [3].

We recently developed a microaerophilic activated sludge (MAS) system to retain ammonia in nitrogenous wastewater

whereas removing organic carbon [4, 5]. Setting low dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations (< 0.1 mg/L) and short solids retention times (< 5 d) in a MAS system out-selects nitrifying bacteria for suppressing ammonia oxidation, which saves energy and prevents N_2O emissions. In contrast, decreases in influent loadings (e.g. decreasing organic carbon concentration) increase oxygen concentrations, initiating nitrification and producing N_2O in the system [5]. Understanding the microbial community and functions regarding carbon and nitrogen metabolisms in the MAS system is essential to optimize the system operation for removing organic carbon, enriching ammonia, and mitigating N_2O emissions.

Mitigating N_2O emission entails a better understanding of N_2O -reducing bacteria. N_2O -reducing bacteria reduce N_2O to N_2 anaerobically by a copper-dependent N_2O reductase (NosZ) [6]. This enzyme is phylogenetically classified into two clades, which differ in nos gene clusters, translocation (clade I) or secretory (clade II) pathways [7, 8]. Clade I nosZ is typically present in canonical denitrifiers possessing an entire set of denitrifying genes. Over

half of the bacteria containing clade II nosZ are non-denitrifiers, missing genes encoding nitrate and nitrite reductases [9]. Studies reported higher abundances of clade II nosZ bacteria in soils and WWTPs than clade I nosZ bacteria [7, 10], likely because of their higher competitiveness and energy efficiency under N2Olimited conditions. These physiological traits, however, have been controversial, claiming higher growth yields and N2O affinities of clade II nosZ bacteria [11-13] and vice versa [14, 15]. Thus, understanding clade I and II nosZ ecophysiologies is indispensable for N2O mitigation. Exploring active N2O-reducing bacteria under microoxic conditions in the MAS system is crucial for the sustainable mitigation of sporadically occurring N2O emission [5] as the MAS system employs a microoxic condition. Recently, multiple phenotypes of N₂O reduction in the presence of oxygen, i.e. intolerant, sensitive, and tolerant trends, were reported [12, 16-19]. Their complex phenotypes, nevertheless, are still under

Bacteria exerting dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia (DNRA) are likely key guilds in the MAS system for improving ammonia recovery. These bacteria possess pentaheme c-type (c552) cytochrome nitrite reductase (encoded by nrfA genes), NADH-dependent nitrite reductases (encoded by nirB genes), or octaheme tetrathionate reductase (encoded by octR genes) [20, 21]. Despite the ubiquitous presence of DNRA bacteria, studies of DNRA in WWTPs have been limited. A lower abundance and activity of DNRA than denitrifying bacteria in WWTPs was previously reported [22]. Applying their functions in ammonia recovery [23, 24] requires more research.

Bacteria performing both N2O reduction and DNRA could be harnessed in the MAS system. Nearly one-third of non-denitrifiers with clade II nosZ also possess nrfA, suggesting the omnipresence of these specialized bacteria in the environment [8]. Pure culture works revealed the growth conditions and regulatory mechanisms between DNRA and denitrification (canonical denitrifiers) or N₂O respiration (non-denitrifiers) [25-27]. Nevertheless, knowledge about the N2O-reducing and DNRA specialists, especially in engineered systems, is scarce. A comprehensive understanding of the intricate genotypes and transcripts of these specialists may allow the development of conditions to maximize N₂O reduction and DNRA activities, enhancing the ammonia recovery performance of the MAS systems.

Microoxic conditions in MAS systems are likely to influence microbial selection based on the presence or absence of lowand high-affinity terminal oxidases [28]. The expression of highaffinity oxidases not only facilitates oxygen respiration to support microbial growth [17] but also scavenges oxygen to protect oxygen-sensitive enzymes, such as NosZ [18]. However, it remains unclear whether oxygen functions primarily as a terminal electron acceptor or acts competitively against denitrification pathways within microbial populations in MAS systems.

This study used a meta-omics approach by hybrid sequencing to elucidate the ecophysiologies of nitrogen-transforming microorganisms in a MAS system. Characterizing the microbial community structure and activity under microoxic and oxygenelevating conditions is essential to manage the MAS system. We hypothesized that (i) At an elevated DO concentration, oxygen activates ammonia-oxidizing microorganisms (AOMs), whereas the activity of N2O reducers is compromised, leading to N2O emissions; (ii) the microbial guilds responsible for N₂O reduction contribute to the mitigation of N2O emission under microoxic conditions; and (iii) DNRA bacteria possess the metabolic potential of N2O reduction. To examine these hypotheses, the objectives of this study were as follows: (i) to reveal which AOMs

are responsible for nitrification at an elevated DO concentration; (ii) to characterize the bacteria actively reducing nitrogen oxides, particularly N2O under microoxic and oxic conditions; and (iii) to unravel the phylogeny of bacteria exerting N2O-reducing and DNRA in the MAS system.

Materials and methods Bioreactor operation and sampling

Two parallel MAS systems (R1 and R2) were operated for nearly 300 days. These systems were designed to retain ammonia and remove organic matter from high-strength nitrogenous wastewater by suppressing ammonia oxidation and minimizing N2O emissions. The operation, performance, 16S rRNA gene-based microbial profiles, and qPCR of functional genes of the systems over time were previously reported [5]. For metagenomics, biomass samples were collected from R1 and R2 on day 268. For metatranscriptomics, biomass samples were collected in triplicate from R2 on day 268 under microoxic (control) conditions with an aeration rate of 2.0 L/min and DO of <0.02 mg/L. The aeration rate doubled (4 L/min), concomitantly increasing DO concentration. After 19 h, triplicate biomass samples were collected. Aeration rate, DO concentration, NH₄+, and NO₃- concentrations were recorded every minute by a DO electrode (MultiLine Multi 3510 IDS Multi-Parameter Portable Meter, WTW, Germany) and NH₄+/NO₃sensors (VARiON plus 700 IQ, WTW). Off-gas N2O concentration was measured by GC-MS (GCMS-QP2010 SE, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). These data are presented in Supplementary Fig. S1.

DNA/RNA extraction and high-throughput sequencing

Fresh biomass samples were subjected to DNA extraction using a Fast DNA spin kit for soil and a FastPrep-24 instrument (MP-Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol. DNA quality was checked by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop 2000, ThermoFisher Scientific, MA, USA). DNA concentration was determined with the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and diluted to 50 ng/ μ l. Sequencing libraries were prepared with the MGIEasy FS PCR Free DNA library prep set (MGI Tech, Shenzhen, China) following the manufacturer's protocol. The 150-bp paired-end sequencing was performed using DNBSEQ-G400RS (MGI Tech).

RNA was extracted in triplicate from biomass samples collected before and after increasing the DO concentration, and subjected to triplicate metatranscriptomic analyses to minimize potential uncertainties and biases. Prior to RNA extraction, the samples were immediately immersed into RNAlater RNA Stabilization Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Briefly, 50 ml biomass was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 30 s. The supernatant was pipetted out to leave 1 ml, and the residue was mixed with 10 ml of RNAlater reagent in 15 ml tubes. The mixture was kept at 4°C for 24 h and then stored at -20°C. Following the manufacturer's protocol, total RNA was extracted using a FastRNA Pro Blue kit (MP Biomedicals, CA, USA). After depleting rRNA with a NEBNext rRNA Depletion Kit (Bacteria) (New England Biolabs, MA, USA) and confirming DNA concentrations were below the detection limit, fragmented 250-bp RNA was used for preparing complementary DNA sequencing libraries with the MGIEasy RNA Directional Library Prep Set (MGI Tech) following the manufacturer's protocol. The sequencing was performed with DNBSEQ-G400RS (MGI Tech). DNA and RNA short-read sequencing was conducted by Genome-Lead Co., Ltd (Tokyo, Japan).

High molecular weight DNA extraction and nanopore sequencing

For long-read nanopore sequencing, DNA was extracted from R2 biomass samples in duplicate using a phenol-chloroform method [29]. RNA was removed by RNase, and genomic DNA was precipitated and washed with ice-cold ethanol. Extracted DNA was resuspended in TE buffer and stored at 4°C. The integrity and purity of extracted DNA were checked by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and a Nanodrop spectrophotometer. The extracted DNA concentration and purity were quantified by a Qubit

High molecular weight DNA (1 μ g) was subjected to library preparation using the ligation sequencing kit SQK-LSK109 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, United Kingdom). Following the manufacturer's protocol, Nanopore sequencing was performed using a MinION Mk1B instrument (R.9 flow cell, FLO-MIN106; Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Base calling was conducted after sequencing using Guppy software version 5.0.11 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies).

Metagenomic assembly

Quality control of paired-end short reads (SR) was performed by Fastp (v 0.20.1) [30] with specific parameters (-q 30 -n 20 -t 1 -T 1 -l 30). After quality control, more than 35 million pairs and 31 million pairs of reads were obtained for R1 and R2, respectively. The quality-filtered SR from R1 and R2 samples were assembled individually using Megahit (v1.2.9) with parameters (--k-min 21 -k-max 141 -k-step 12).

Nanopore sequencing produced 970718 sequences, with the longest sequence of 261 486 bp and a mean read length of 5981 bp; 100% reads were above Q7, and more than 85% reads were above Q10. The raw reads were directly subjected to assembly using Flye (v2.9-b1768) with the "-meta" setting and the "-nano-hq" mode. The quality-filtered SR were mapped to the assembled contigs of long reads (LR) using Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA)-MEM (v0.7.17-r1188) [31] with default parameters. The resulting sequence alignment and map (SAM) files were converted to binary alignment and map (BAM) files and subsequently sorted using SAMtools (v1.14) [32]. The sorted BAM files were used for polishing the assembly of LR using Pilon v1.24 [33] with the option "—fix bases."

Recovery of metagenome-assembled genomes

Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) from R1 and R2 were recovered as previously described [34] with some modifications. Briefly, the polished contigs of LR assembly were merged with the assembled contigs of paired-end SR (individually for R1 and R2) using the function Merge_wrapper.py in Quickmerge (v0.3) [35] with parameters (-ml 7500 -c 3 -hco 8). The merged results were then processed individually for each sample. Automatic binning was performed using MetaWRAP (v1.3.2) [36] binning module with three genome binners: CONCOCT [37], Maxbin2 [38], and Metabat2 [39]. Additional binning was done with Vamb (v3.0.2) [40]. The bins from all binning tools were consolidated using the Bin_refinement module (parameters: -c 50 -x 10) of MetaWRAP (v1.3.2). The subsequent steps included extraction of SR and LR for the individual bin, reassembly of LR for each bin and reassembly of each bin, and bin polishing, as described elsewhere [34]. The final bins, MAGs, were selected on the basis of quality (completeness – $5 \times$ contamination > 50) [41] determined by CheckM (v1.1.3).

MAGs from both R1 and R2 were combined and dereplicated using dRep (v3.2.2) [42] (-p 32 -l 2000 -pa 0.90 -sa 0.99 -comp 50 -con 10 -nc 0.1). The processed MAGs were first divided into primary clusters using Mash [43] at a 90% average nucleotide identity (ANI) (specified by -pa 0.90). Each primary cluster was then used to form secondary clusters at the threshold of 99% ANI (-sa 0.99) with at least 25% overlap between genomes. The best MAG was selected within each cluster on the basis of completeness, redundancy, N50 of contigs, and fragmentation. MAG taxonomic assignment was obtained using the "classify_wf" workflow of Genome Taxonomy Database (GTDB)-Tk (v2.4.0) [44] with the GTDB R220 [45].

Metatranscriptomics processing

The remaining adapter sequences in metatranscriptomic data were trimmed with trim galore (v0.6.6) (https://www.bioinforma tics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/). Quality control of paired-end metatranscriptomic reads was then processed using the trimFilterPE function of FastqPuri (v1.0) [46] with specified parameters (--length 150 -q 20 -m 20 -Q ENDS -z yes). The rRNA reads in the quality-trimmed reads were filtered out using SortMeRNA (v4.3.4) [47] with the SILVA database (16S and 23S rRNA genes for bacteria and archaea; 18S and 28S rRNA genes for eukaryotes) and Rfam database (5S and 5.8S rRNA genes).

Annotation and functional analysis

All MAGs were annotated using Prokka (v1.14.5) [48]. Metabolic profiles of MAGs were also generated with the METABOLIC-C.pl program in METABOLIC software (v4.0) [49]. The functional marker genes encoding key enzymes responsible for N-cycle were searched from both Prokka annotation and HMM search results of METABOLIC. The markers' nucleotide and amino acid sequences were extracted using the "Subseq" function of Seqtk (https:// github.com/lh3/seqtk). The results were compared, manually curated, i.e. length, locus position, and presence of other genes in the operons, and confirmed by Blastp amino acid sequences against NCBI nr databases. Genes encoding putative high-affinity terminal oxidases (cytochrome bd ubiquinol oxidases cydAB and cbb3-type cytochrome c oxidases ccoNO) and low-affinity terminal oxidases (caa3-type cytochrome c oxidases coxAB) were obtained from MAGs [28].

The amoA genes encoding ammonia monooxygenase were not found in any recovered MAGs. To conduct a more comprehensive search of amoA gene, HMM profiles of amoA- ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) (archaeal amoA), amoA- ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) (bacterial amoA), and amoA- complete ammoniaoxidizing bacteria (comammox) (Nitrospira comammox amoA) were downloaded from Fungene [50]. Hmmsearch using these profiles was conducted against all contigs (> 500 bp), and the results were checked by Blastp.

Universal single copy marker (SCM) genes were extracted using the fetchMGs tool (available at https://motu-tool.org/fetchMG. html). A subset of 10 SCMs (COG0012, COG0016, COG0018, COG0172, COG0215, COG0495, COG0525, COG0533, COG0541, COG0552) were selected following previous studies [17, 51]. The median transcript abundance of these 10 SCMs was applied to estimate the transcription activity of the MAG [51, 52].

Calculating relative abundance and mRNA expression

The quality-filtered metagenomic SR and non-rRNA metatranscriptomic reads of each sample were mapped to all dereplicated MAGs using BWA-MEM (v0.7.17-r1188) [31] with the default setting. The unmapped reads were filtered out with SAMtools view (-hbS -F4), and the BAM file was subsequently sorted with

SAMtools sort. The coverage of each MAG was calculated using the "genome" mode of coverM (v0.6.1) (https://github.com/wwood/ CoverM) with the transcripts per million (TPM) method [53].

To calculate the abundance and mRNA expression of functional marker genes, the reads were mapped against the extracted nucleotide sequences using Bowtie2 [54] in "-very-sensitive" mode (to ensure unique mapping). The mapped reads were filtered and sorted as described above. The coverages of marker genes in each sample were obtained by the "contig" mode of coverM (v0.6.1) (https://github.com/wwood/CoverM). The TPM values were normalized to total reads mapped to a sample. The raw-read count was obtained from coverM (v0.6.1) with the "count" method for statistical analysis of the differential mRNA expression using DESeq2 [55].

Phylogenomic analyses of MAGs and phylogenetic analyses of functional genes

To construct the phylogenetic tree of MAGs, the multiple sequence alignment of 120 bacterial marker genes (gtdbtk.bac120.user_msa. fasta) identified and generated by the "classify_wf" workflow of GTDB-tk (v2.4.0) was used to infer the maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree using IQ-TREE2 (v2.2.0) (-T AUTO -m LG). A Newick tree output file was visualized with iTOL v6 (https://itol.embl.de/).

For functional marker genes, amino acid sequences were clustered at a 95% similarity threshold using Cd-hit. The corresponding references for each marker are presented in Table S1. The amino acid sequence clusters and reference sequences were combined and aligned with Muscle [56] (for the individual key functional genes). The phylogenetic tree was inferred with IQ-TREE2 (v2.2.0) (-m MFP -B 1000 -T AUTO) [57]. The best model for a phylogenetic tree was selected in accordance with Bayesian information criterion scores and weights (BIC). The tree was visualized with iTOL v6 and used to phylogenetically classify the sequences in this study (Figs. S2 and S3).

Data depositions

The raw 16S rRNA gene amplicon, metagenomic, and metatranscriptomic sequencing data are available in the DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ) nucleotide sequence database under bioproject accession numbers of PRJDB17920, 17921, and 17922, respectively. Assembled and annotated MAGs have been deposited in the DDBJ nucleotide sequence database with the accession numbers SAMD00776737-SAMD00776788. Metatranscriptomic sequencing data have been deposited with the accession numbers SAMD00770009-SAMD00770012.

Results

Dynamics of nitrogen species

The MAS systems were stably operated on day 268, just before the aeration rate was doubled. DO was below the detection limit at an aeration rate of 2 L/min. Gaseous N_2O in the headspace of R2 was 2.6 ppmv, whereas NO₃ - concentration ranged from undetectable levels to 0.7 mg-N/L (Fig. S1). The increase in the aeration rate to 4 L/min for 15 h surged DO concentration to 6.5 mg/L, in conjunction with a linear increase in NO₃⁻ concentration of 2.8 mg-N/L (Fig. S1). The off-gas N_2O concentration was thought to increase to 6.5-10.3 ppmv, in line with our previous observation [5]. Reducing aeration to the original level (2 L/min) lowered DO and NO₃⁻ concentrations. This stepwise change in aeration activated ammonia oxidation at a high DO concentration and increased N2O emission when transitioning from anoxic to oxic conditions.

Microbial community structure

Ninety-seven and one non-redundant MAGs belong to Bacteria and Archaea (genus Methanomassiliicoccus), respectively. Among these, 53 MAGs were above the criteria, with completeness >90% and contamination <5%; the average completeness and contamination were 85.7% and 1.6%, respectively (Supplementary Text S1 and Table S2). In total, 82.4% and 84.3% of high-quality SR from metagenomic data of R1 and R2 samples, respectively, were mapped to the 98 non-redundant MAGs. Additionally, $84.5 \pm 0.01\%$ (n=3) and $82.8 \pm 0.00\%$ (n=3) non-rRNA metatranscriptomic reads mapped to 98 MAGs for control and high DO samples, respectively, indicating that the recovered MAGs well represented the microbial community in MAS systems.

In an overall comparison, the microbial profiles by the MAGs and by amplicon sequencing of the V4 16S rRNA gene region displayed a similar composition of the dominant phyla/class (R1_16S vs. R1_MG and R2_16S vs. R2_MG in Fig. 1). A similar trend of the relative abundance at a phylum level (class for Proteobacteria) between R1 and R2 was captured by both methods (R1_16S vs. R2_16S and R1_MG vs. R2_MG). Higher relative abundances of Gamma- and Alphaproteobacteria were detected in R2 than in R1, whereas those of Chloroflexota and Bacillota were higher in R1 than in R2 (Fig. 1).

Amplicon sequencing of 16S rRNA gene showed higher fractions in Proteobacteria (55.3%–68.7%) and Bacillota (3.8%–9.6%) than MAGs data (24.9%-31.2% for Proteobacteria and 1.1%-1.8% for Bacillota), whereas the opposite trend was obtained regarding the fractions of Bacteroidota [30.9%–34.9% (MAG) vs. 12.3%–12.7% (16S)] and Chloroflexota [23.8%-28.6% (MAG) vs. 10.2%-13.7% (16S)]. Additionally, the metagenomics approach retrieved MAGs affiliated with the families of Ozemobacteraceae, Candidatus Hinthialibacteraceae, and JAAZCA01 in three Candidatus phyla, Riflebacteria, Hinthialibacterota, and UBA10199, that were not captured by 16S rRNA gene amplicons. The differences are presented in Text S1.

Overall response of microbial activity to DO concentration

The metatranscriptomic data showed that Bacteroidota, which are facultative anaerobes [58], was the most active population in the MAS system, accounting for 66.9% of gene expression under the microoxic condition; it decreased to 38.3% under high DO conditions (Fig. 1). The second and third transcriptionally active groups were Chloroflexota and Gammaproteobacteria, respectively. The transcription activities were two and three times lower in microoxic condition than in the high DO condition for Chloroflexota [15.2% (control) vs. 28.7% (high O₂)] and Gammaproteobacteria [6.5% (control) vs. 20.3% (high O₂)], respectively.

The most downregulated population under a high DO condition was Bdellovibrionota (15-fold), followed by Cloacimonadota (5.7-fold). Other bacterial taxa (Riflebacteria, Campylobacterota, and Desulfobacterota) were downregulated by factors of 4.4-4.8. In contrast, increasing DO concentration activated Alphaproteobacteria (26-fold), followed by Actinobacteriota (23-fold), Verrucomicroiota (16fold), and Gemmatimonadota (9.2-fold).

Predominant and active bacterial members of MAS systems

Analyzing the relative abundance and RNA expression of the recovered MAGs allowed for predicting the in situ contribution of the community members to the system performance. Overall, the predominant and transcriptionally active bacterial species in the MAS system were identical. An unclassified species

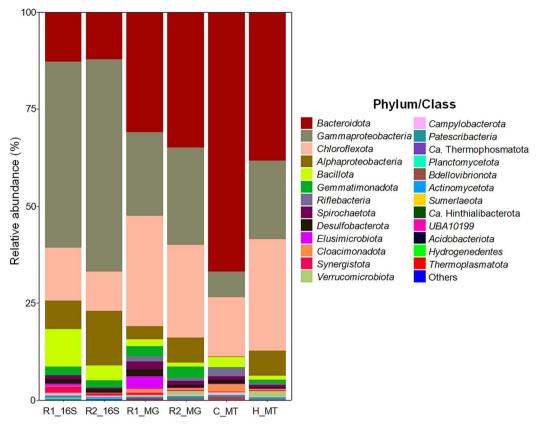


Figure 1. Relative abundance and RNA expression profiles of the microbial community at phylum (class level for Proteobacteria) level in microoxic activated sludge systems based on amplicon sequencing of the V4 region in the 16S rRNA gene (R1_16S and R2_16S), metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) (R1_MG and R2_MG), and metatranscriptomic reads of reactor 2 (R2) under microoxic (C_MT) and high DO (H_MT) conditions mapped to MAGs. Bacterial phyla with abundance <0.03% were grouped into others.

(UBA8950 R1_bin.54_o, Chloroflexota) was the most prominent MAG (average log₂TPM of 17.5) and was the third and the second most active member under control (log₂TPM of 16.6) and high DO conditions (log₂FC of 0.8), respectively (Fig. 2). The following top abundant MAGs are affiliated with Bacteroidota (in decreasing order of average abundance): unclassified species of UBA6192 (R2_bin.12_r, log₂TPM of 16.1), Cloacibacterium sp. 002422665 (R1_bin.104_o, log₂TPM of 16.0), and unclassified species of genus Paludibacter (R2_bin.117_r, log₂TPM of 15.7). Although activities of these three Bacteroidota members slightly decreased with increasing DO concentrations, Cloacibacterium sp. 002422665 was the most active member in the community under both controls (log₂TPM of 18.4) and high DO (log₂TPM of 17.8) conditions. UBA6192 MAG and Paludibacter MAG were the top active bacterial species under both conditions (Fig. 2). Other abundant bacterial species belong to Gammaproteobacteria (Rubrivivax, Thermomonas, and Burkholderiaceae) with an average log₂TPM of 15.0-15.4. Thermomonas MAG was the top active member under both conditions. In contrast, the transcription activities of Rubrivivax (R1_bin.6_o) and Burkholderiaceae (R1_bin.59_o) were moderate under microoxic conditions (log₂TPM of 12.1 and 11.1, respectively) and significantly upregulated (log₂FC of 2.2 and 3.2, respectively) at a high DO concentration (adj P value <0.05). The downregulated and upregulated bacterial members at the high DO concentration are provided in Supplementary Text S2.

Nitrogen metabolism Ammonia oxidation

The MAS system aims to retain ammonia by suppressing ammonia oxidation [5]. As expected, an HMM search using hmm profiles of archaeal, bacterial, and comammox AmoA did not return a hit from the 98 recovered MAGs. A comprehensive search against all assembled contigs (> 500 bp) obtained three hits for both bacterial and comammox AmoA profiles (with each contig <1000 bp), whereas no hit was returned for the archaeal AmoA profile. The phylogenomic analysis identified them as Nitrosomonas AmoA (Fig. 3). The presence of amoA genes in the metagenomic data was sporadic, with total abundances of 0.16 TPM (R1) and 0.34 TPM (R2). The expression under the microoxic condition was 0.05-1.01 TPM (Table 1). Increasing DO concentration induced the expression of amoA genes with a total expression of 22.7–29.1 TPM, which was an average 57.7 times higher than expression in the microoxic condition (Table 1). This result highlighted the suppressive effect of the microoxic condition on AOMs in the MAS systems. A low amount of AOB (Nitrosomonas) was present in the system, whereas AOA and comammox bacteria were absent.

Microbial activity of nitrate respiration in MAS community

All genes involved in nitrogen oxide respiration were found in the recovered MAGs (Fig. 4A). The most abundant gene was narG (386-405 TPM), followed by nrfA (285-366 TPM), nirS (241-242 TPM), and clade II nosZ (129-254 TPM). The dominant gene types in reduction of nitrogen oxides were narG among nitrate reductase (~5.1 times of napA), nirS among nitrite reductase (~3.2 times of nirK), cnorB among nitric oxide (NO) reductase (~1.6 times of qnorB), clade II nosZ among N_2O reductase (\sim 9.4 times of clade I nosZ), and nrfA among DNRA (~2.9 times of octR and ~19 times of nirB). Clade I nosZ was the least abundant (18–22 TPM) of all genes for nitrogen oxide reduction.

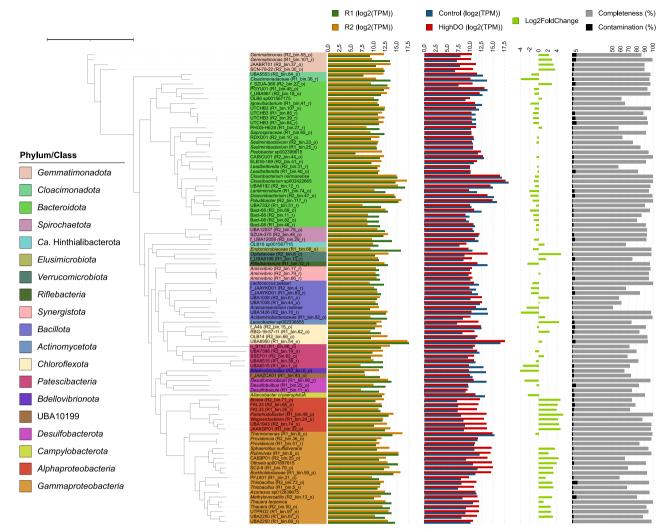


Figure 2. The phylogenomic tree of 97 bacterial metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) recovered from this study. The phyla in the tree are colored, whereas the phylum Proteobacteria is further broken down into a class level. The tip labels are the lowest taxonomic classification of MAGs by GTDB-tk (v2.4.0) with GTDB R220. The MAG IDs are included in the square brackets, except for MAGs, which are assigned with species names. The innermost bar plots show the relative abundance (log₂TPM) of MAGs recovered from metagenomics data of R1 and R2. The second innermost bar plots represent the average mRNA expression (log₂TPM) of MAGs in metatranscriptomics data of triplicate biomass samples from R2 under microxic (control) and high dissolved oxygen conditions. The next column is the normalized mRNA expression over the control value as the denominator, [log2 foldchange (high DO/control)], calculated by DEseq2. Only statistically different values (adj p-value < 0.05) are shown. The outermost bar plots show the contamination (maximum value = 6.26%) and completeness of MAGs by CheckM. The tree was constructed by IQ-TREE2 (v2.2.0) using multiple sequence alignment of 120 bacterial marker genes generated by "classify_wf" of GTDB-tk. The tree scale represents 1.

As for transcripts, clade II nosZ was the most expressed gene in the control (microoxic) condition (2375 \pm 282 TPM, n = 3) (Fig. 4A and B). The second and third most expressed genes were nrfA $(1130 \pm 359 \text{ TPM}, n = 3)$ and nirS $(861 \pm 372 \text{ TPM}, n = 3)$, respectively, which were approximately 3.5 times as high as the gene abundances (Fig. 4A and B). Other gene expressions were low, ranging from 0 (nirB) to 269 TPM (qnorB). The narG transcript was half of its metagenomic abundance under microoxic conditions. Clade I nosZ and nirB genes were scarcely expressed.

Increasing DO concentration significantly repressed the expression of clade II nosZ and cnorB, which decreased by ~3.8 times $(633 \pm 91 \text{ TPM}, n=3)$ and $\sim 2.5 \text{ times} (76 \pm 17 \text{ TPM})$ in high DO conditions, respectively. qnorB gene expression was kept constant (269 \pm 44 TPM and 270 \pm 17 TPM under microoxic and high DO conditions). In stark contrast, narG, nirS, and nifA gene expressions increased by ~3.0, 1.9, and 1.7 times under high DO conditions, respectively (Fig. 4A and B). Although clade I nosZ expression doubled at high DO concentrations, the total expression was negligible (11 \pm 4 TPM, n = 3) (Fig. 4A).

Microbial sinks of N₂O in MAS systems

Of the 98 recovered MAGs, 73 MAGs (>74%) from 11 bacterial phyla harbor genes involved in nitrate respiration. Of the 73 MAGs, 39 MAGs (~53%) carried nosZ genes. The phylogenetic allocation at a genus level is shown in Fig. S2. Notably, 31 MAGs harbor clade II nosZ and were distributed mainly in Bacteroidota (22 MAGs), followed by Gammaproteobacteria (5 MAGs), Gemmatinomadota (three MAGs), and Chloroflexota (1 MAG) (Fig. 5). Only eight MAGs carried clade I nosZ and consisted exclusively of Alpha- (four MAGs) and Gammaproteobacteria (4 MAGs). All Alphaproteobacteria MAGs carrying clade I nosZ possessed only nirK and cnorB as denitrifying genes. These MAGs expressed low levels of nirK (3.1-5.3 TPM) and generally did not express other genes (Fig. 5).

Six MAGs possessed a complete set of denitrification genes, all belonging to the order Burkholderiales (Gammaproteobacteria). These canonical complete denitrifiers harbor nirS type (no nirK type) and cnorB (except for Thiobacillus harboring both cnorB and qnorB). Three complete denitrifying MAGs, i.e. two unclassified Thiobacillus species (R1_bin.5_r and R2_bin.72_o) and Thauera

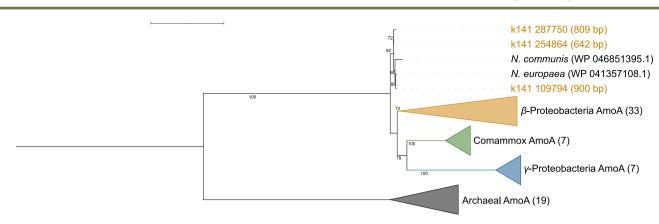


Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree of ammonia monooxygenase subunit A (AmoA) proteins. Amino acid sequences obtained in this study (k141_287750, k141_254864, and k141_109794) are shown. The lengths of nucleotide sequences (bp) are included in parentheses. The reference AmoA sequences for AOB, Comammox, and AOA were downloaded (seed sequences) from FunGene (http://fungene.cme.msu.edu/, accessed date: 23 March 2022). The number of reference sequences in the collapse clades is indicated in each parenthesis. The bootstrap numbers (1000 replicates) are shown along the branches. The scale bar indicates estimated substitutions of amino acids. The tree was rooted at the midpoint. The tree scale represents 1.

Table 1. The relative abundance and expression of the amoA gene, expressed as TPM (normalized to the gene length and total reads mapped to the sample).

| Contig | Metagenomics | | Metatranscriptomics (R2) | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------------|------|--------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | R1 | R2 | Control 1 | Control 2 | Control 3 | High DO 1 | High DO 2 | High DO 3 |
| k141_254864 (642 bp) | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.07 | 0.00 | 0.11 | 0.15 | 0.22 |
| k141_109794 (900 bp) | 0.09 | 0.19 | 0.02 | 0.84 | 0.22 | 17.53 | 20.61 | 19.46 |
| k141_287750 (809 bp) | 0.04 | 0.15 | 0.00 | 0.10 | 0.05 | 7.49 | 8.32 | 2.97 |
| Sum | 0.16 | 0.34 | 0.05 | 1.01 | 0.27 | 25.13 | 29.09 | 22.65 |

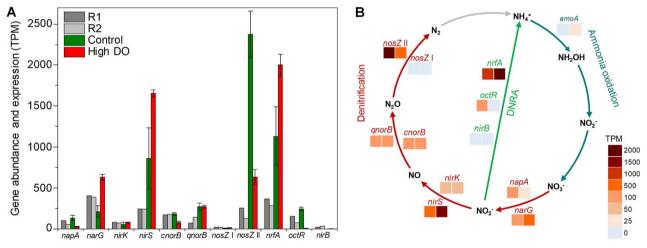


Figure 4. (A) Relative abundance (metagenomics R1 and R2) and expression (metatranscriptomics control and high DO) of nitrate respiration genes. Values represent transcripts per million (TPM). Error bars represent the standard deviation of triplicate metatranscriptomic samples. (B) A diagram of nitrogen metabolisms in the MAS system: nitrification, denitrification, and DNRA. Heatmap color bars indicate the expression level of genes (transcriptomics) with control in the left squares and high DO in the right squares.

terpenica (R2_bin.16_o), carried clade I nosZ. The other three complete denitrifying MAGs carried clade II nosZ (two unclassified UBA2250 species [R1 bin.60 r and R1 bin.67 r] and one unclassified Thauera species [R2_bin.50_o]). Notably, the six complete denitrifying MAGs do not have nrfA genes, but all contain octR genes for DNRA. Regardless of the clade type, all denitrifying genes in these MAGs were expressed at low levels.

Among 31 MAGs harboring clade II nosZ, 18 MAGs were nondenitrifying bacteria missing genes encoding nitrate and nitrite reductases (Fig. 5). Although the expression level decreased from a microoxic to a high DO condition (970 TPM to 250 TPM), the highest expressions levels of clade II nosZ were found in two Cloacibacterium species (Cloacibacterium normanense [R1 bin.29 r] and Cloacibacterium sp. 002422665 [R1_bin.104_o]) in both conditions. These two species harbor the cnorB gene but no nitrate and nitrite reductase genes (Fig. S4). The cnorB gene expressions of Cloacibacterium sp. 002422665 and C. normanense were suppressed at a high DO concentration (< 2 TPM).

The other two non-denitrifying MAGs with the top expressions of clade II nosZ were RDXD01 MAG [R2_bin.10_o] and CAISCU01

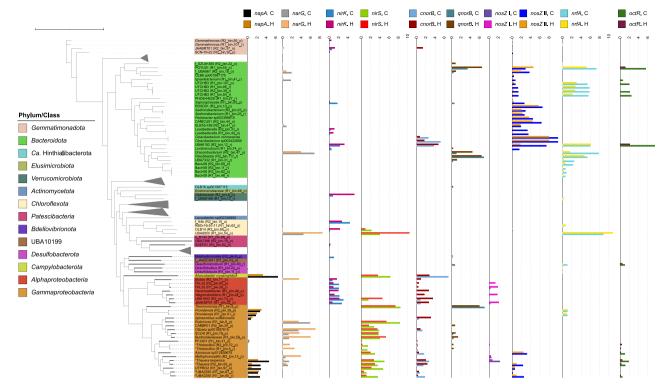


Figure 5. The expression of nitrogen cycle-associated genes of metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) obtained from a MAS system. The gene expression was expressed as log₂ (TPM + 1). The "*" indicates MAGs possessing all denitrifying genes (canonical complete denitrifying bacteria). The tree scale represents 1.

MAG [R2_bin.44_o] in Bacteroidota (Fig. 5). These MAGs possess only nosZ gene among denitrifying genes. Expression of nosZ decreased from 92.3 \pm 20.9 to 51.8 \pm 6.8 TPM (RDXD01 species) and 80.9 ± 9.4 to 20.1 ± 4.0 TPM (CAISCU01 species) upon switching from microoxic to high DO conditions.

The uncharacterized UBA6192 species (R2_bin.12_r) in Bacterioidota, possessing clade II nosZ, nirK, cnorB, and DNRA genes (nrfA and octR), showed the unique gene expression patterns. It displayed marginal expressions of nirK and cnorB genes. Introducing a high DO condition from the microoxic condition suppressed the gene expressions of nosZ and octR, whereas maintaining the gene expression level of nrfA and increasing nirK and cnorB gene expressions (8.5 \pm 0.3 TPM and 25.0 \pm 2.5 TPM, respectively).

Microbial source of NO and N2O in MAS systems

Thermomonas (R1_bin.8_o, Gammaproteobacteria), Paludibacter (R2_bin.117_r, Bacteroidota), and Aliarcobacter (R2_bin.54_o, Campylobacterota) devoid of nosZ genes displayed high expressions of norB genes, likely ascribed to N2O sources in the MAS system. Thermomonas showed the highest expressions of both nirS $(328.4 \pm 99.1 \text{ TPM})$ and qnorB $(134.8 \pm 36.1 \text{ TPM})$ under microoxic conditions. Both gene expressions decreased by half under high DO conditions (157.3 \pm 11.5 TPM for nirS and 62.8 \pm 5.2 TPM for qnorB). Paludibacter species possessed only the qnorB gene among denitrifying genes, with high expression (121.1 ± 5.3 TPM), and nrfA gene, with moderate expression (40.1 ± 4.4 TPM), under microoxic conditions. Both qnorB and nrfA genes were slightly suppressed (~1.5 times) under high DO conditions.

The potential contribution to the microbial NO sources in the MAS system stemmed from the activities of Rubrivivax (R1_bin.6_o, Gammaproteobacteria) and UBA8950 (R1_bin.54_o, Chloroflexota). Both species carried only narG and nirS among the denitrifying genes. Under the microoxic condition, Rubrivivax species showed high expressions of nirS (309.2 ± 181.2 TPM) and narG (58.5 \pm 42.5 TPM); these levels were noticeably suppressed by 87% and 68%, respectively, after switching to a high DO condition. In contrast, nirS and narG gene expressions of UBA8950 species were low under microoxic conditions (14.7 \pm 13.6 TPM and 20.4 ± 15.1 TPM, respectively) and significantly increased $(1344.4 \pm 26.1 \text{ TPM} \text{ and } 371.7 \pm 22.8 \text{ TPM}, \text{ respectively})$ at high DO concentrations. UBA8950 displayed the same transcription trend of nrfA gene, which is addressed in the later section.

DNRA

Among the 73 MAGs carrying nitrate respiration-related genes, 24 MAGs (~33%) possessed the nrfA gene; this group mainly comprised Bacteroidota (15 MAGs); others belong to Desulfobacterota (3 MAGs), Chloroflexota (2 MAGs), Gammaproteobacteria (2 MAGs), Gemmatinonadota (1 MAG), and Verrucomicrobiota (1 MAG). The phylogenetic allocation at a genus level is shown in Fig. S3. Notably, all 8 MAGs harboring the clade I nosZ did not carry the nrfA, whereas 8 MAGs (~26%) of 31 MAGs harboring clade II nosZ also carried nrfA. Among the claded II nosZ MAGs, UBA8950 (R1_bin.54_o, Chloroflexota) actively expressed nrfA most. This MAG was the most abundant species and harbored narG and nirS genes (Figs. 2 and 5). Increasing a DO concentration upregulated nrfA expression, from 445.5 ± 335.5 TPM (microoxic condition) to 1849.0 ± 172.3 TPM (high DO concentration), together with the upregulation of nirS and narG genes (Fig. 5). This trend was exclusively observed among the MAGs possessing both nirS and nrfA for nitrite reduction.

The active DNRA members under microoxic conditions were Bacteroidota. Draconibacterium (R2_bin.47_o) and PGYU01 (R1_bin.45_o) had high nrfA expressions of 222.0 \pm 9.9 TPM and 154.2 ± 15.9 TPM, respectively. The other six MAGs of Bacteroidota (one UBA6192, four UTCHB3, and one Paludibacter) expressed nrfA

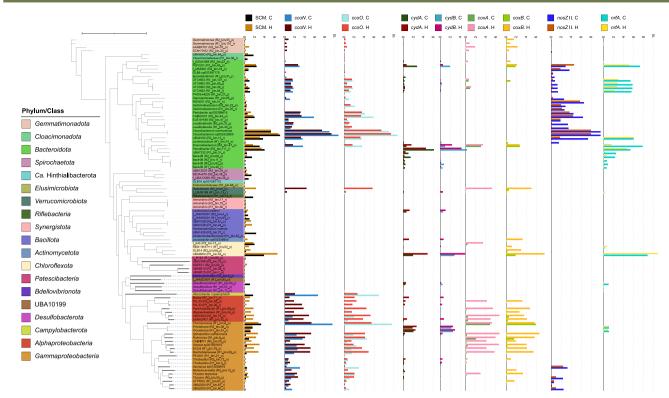


Figure 6. Transcript abundances of high-affinity terminal oxidases (ccoNO and cydAB) and low-affinity terminal oxidases (ccoAB) in comparison with transcript abundances of clade II nosZ (nosZ II), nrfA, and single copy markers (SCM). "C" and "H" represent control and high DO conditions, respectively. The gene expression was expressed as log₂(TPM + 1). The TPM value of SCM is the median TPM of the 10 selected SCMs. The tree scale represents 1.

in the range of 40.1-62.4 TPM (Fig. 5). Except for UBA6192, nrfA expressions from all these MAGs were downregulated under high DO conditions.

Of 15 MAGs with octR genes, only 2 (UBA6192 and PGYU01) significantly expressed octR gene (178.7 \pm 26.7 TPM and 46.3 \pm 10.0 TPM, respectively). Expressions of octR were downregulated under a high DO condition. Although six Gammaproteobacteria MAGs with an entire set of denitrifying genes harbored nirB gene, they did not express nirB under both examined conditions.

Growth strategy of microorganisms in MAS systems

The transcripts of genes encoding terminal oxidases, clade II nosZ, and nrfA genes (Fig. 6) were compared to characterize the growth strategies of microorganisms in the MAS system. Briefly, the transcription patterns were diverse. Cloacibacterium sp. 002422665 (R1_bin.104_o) showed noticeable expression of high-affinity terminal oxidase ccoNO (> 12 times of SCM) and clade II nosZ (7 times of SCM) under the microoxic condition (Fig. 6). The increase in the DO concentration downregulated both ccoNO and clade II nosZ gene expressions by 2.6 and 3.8 times, respectively. Bacteroidota UBA6192 (R2_bin.12_r) showed higher expressions of clade II nosZ and octR genes than ccoNO under microoxic yet not high DO conditions (Figs. 5 and 6). Meanwhile, the expression levels of nrfA and ccoNO remained relatively constant. Chloroflexota UBA8950 (R1_bin.54_o), possessing cydAB devoid of ccoNO, upregulated high-affinity terminal oxidase cydAB, nrfA, and nirS genes under a high DO condition, with the SCM expression increased by >7.0 times (Figs. 5 and 6). A higher gene expression of low-affinity oxidases (coxAB) and narG than SCM was also observed after increasing DO concentration (Figs. 5 and 6). The expression patterns of other active members are described in Supplementary Text S3.

Discussion

A profound understanding of the microbial community and activity in a MAS system is critical for optimizing the system design and operation for innovative ammonia retention and recovery [5]. This study used hybrid sequencing of high-quality short-reads and Nanopore long-reads and recovered MAGs to unravel the phylogeny, functions, and transcriptomic activities of MAS communities. Metagenomics and metatranscriptomics analyses supported our hypotheses, in which: (i) N₂O reduction by non-denitrifying bacteria was compromised under high DO conditions, causing N₂O emission likely by AOB; (ii) clade II nosZ non-denitrifying bacteria (mainly Bacteroidota) were responsible for N2O reduction under microoxic conditions; and (iii) 26% of clade II nosZ bacteria (8 out of 31 MAGs) harbor nrfA, potentially connecting N2O consumption and DNRA. According to the environmental conditions, i.e. neutral pH and an undetected nitrite level, abiotic N2O production was less likely because it is facilitated at a low pH and high nitrite concentration [59, 60]. We further revealed transcriptionally active bacteria driving nitrogen conversions, their functional roles in nitrogen metabolisms, and transcriptional responses to changes in DO concentration in the MAS system (Fig. 7).

Identification of AOM and amoA gene expression

No AOM MAG was recovered from the community, and metagenomic data confirmed the rare existence of the Nitrosomonas amoA gene in the MAS system. Operation under the microoxic condition successfully inhibited amoA expression; however, increasing DO concentration upregulated amoA expression, resulting in ammonia oxidation, congruent with the increase in nitrate concentration (Fig. S1). This finding agrees with AOB detection (but unnoticeable respiratory activities) by 16S rRNA gene

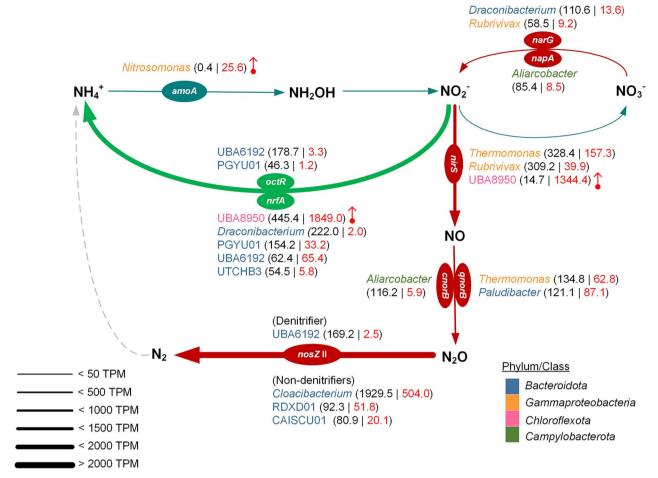


Figure 7. Diagram illustrating the contribution of pivotal microbial members to nitrogen transformations in the MAS system. Three key pathways, nitrification, denitrification, and DNRA, with the key enzymes detected in metatranscriptomic data, are shown. The thickness of each continuous arrow indicates the transcription level of an assigned metabolic pathway of nitrogen transformation in the community. The microbial members responsible for each pathway are appended and colored according to phylum/class. The numbers in parentheses show the transcripts (> 45 TPM) of the key enzymes from each microbial member under control (left) and high DO (right) conditions. The remarkable gene upregulation under a high DO condition is highlighted by a vertical arrow.

amplicon sequencing, qPCR, and fluorescence in situ hybridization [5]. Hence, precise control of DO concentration was the key to retaining ammonia in the MAS system.

Genotypes and transcriptions of N₂O-reducing bacteria

The highest expression of clade II nosZ gene among nitrogen metabolism genes (Fig. 4A) highlighted the vital role in reducing N₂O under the microoxic condition (Fig. 7). This observation explains low or marginal N2O emissions from the MAS system [5]. Crucial roles of clade II nosZ bacteria in N2O reduction in WWTPs were previously reported [10, 61]. Repressing clade II nosZ gene expression at an elevated DO concentration likely explains the increased N2O emissions observed in this study (Fig. S1) and our previous work [5].

The metatranscriptomics disclosed non-denitrifying bacteria belonging to Bacteroidota, particularly Cloacibacterium, as major N_2O sinks in the MAS system (Figs. 5 and 7). The Cloacibacterium highly expressed high-affinity terminal oxidase (ccoNO) and clade II nosZ (Figs. 5 and 6). Expression of ccoNO is instrumental in efficiently scavenging oxygen under microoxic conditions, which conserves energy for bacterial growth and protects NosZ from oxygen inhibition. The potential nosZ gene expression mechanism

is congruent with a previous work reporting oxygen uptake by oxygen-tolerant N₂O reducers [18]. Downregulation of both ccoNO and clade II nosZ genes in these non-denitrifiers at a high DO concentration indicated compromising N2O reduction at an elevated DO concentration (Fig. 7). The phylogenetic tree of Cloacibacterium species shows two distinctive branches; one contains the MAGs recovered in this study (Cloacibacterium sp002422665 and C. normanense) and the other comprises Cloacibacterium sp002337005 and Cloacibacterium rupense (Fig. S4A). The branch covering the two MAGs in this study possesses cnorB and clade II nosZ, whereas the other branch (Cloacibacterium sp002337005 and C. rupense) misses norB (Fig. S4B). All Cloacibacterium species possess high-affinity terminal oxidase cbb3-type, whereas Cloacibacterium rupense, Cloacibacterium caeni_A (a.k.a. CB-01), Cloacibacterium caeni_B (CB-03) [62], and Cloacibacterium sp002337005 additionally possess cydBD-type (Fig. S4B), likely harboring the nature of oxygen tolerance.

Cloacibacterium is promising for N2O mitigation in WWTPs. In a fed-batch experiment, Cloacibacterium was enriched at a low N2O concentration (20 ppmv in supplied gas) with a high abundance, followed by Flavobacterium (Bacteroidota), whereas their abundances decreased at higher N2O concentrations [10]. The recently isolated C. caeni_B [62] showed a low growth rate and affinity for N_2O but long-lasting persistence in soils despite the disadvantageous biokinetics [15]. Non-denitrifying Bacteroidota were also predominant N2O reducers in full-scale Danish WWTPs [61, 63], in which N_2O concentration was below 1 mg-N/L. Additionally, uncultured C. normanense was enriched in anaerobic pig manure digestate supplied with N₂O [64]. No nitrate reduction was confirmed for the isolates of C. normanense NSR1 [65], C. rupense [66], and C. caeni strain B6 [67]. Therefore, Cloacibacterium species are likely persistent non-denitrifying N2O sinks in the MAS system where limited amounts of N_2O and NO_3^- are available (Fig. S1). A follow-up physiological investigation on the N2O affinity of Cloacibacterium species isolated from the system will clarify this claim.

DNRA bacteria and interaction with N₂O consumers

The high nrfA gene expression found in this study likely facilitated the conversion of nitrite into ammonia, resulting in high ammonia retention under microoxic conditions. We show that Chloroflexota UBA8950 MAG (R1_bin54.o) exceptionally upregulated nrfA gene after increasing DO concentration (Fig. 5), concomitant with the upregulation of nirS, narG, low-affinity terminal oxidase (coxB), and high-affinity terminal oxidase (cydAB) genes (Figs. 5 and 6). This expression pattern indicated that UBA8950 utilized different electron acceptors adaptable to alternating redox conditions. The genus UBA8950 currently comprises only two species (GTDB database, v207 Feb 2023) with five draft genomes (four for sp001872455 and one for sp002840685). All genomes were derived from groundwater metagenomes without the culture representative [41]. The UBA8950 MAG in this study was classified as a new species within this genus. The phylogenetic tree position of this MAG lies in the same branch with sp002840685 (Fig. S5A). Functional annotation showed that all UBA8950 genomes possess high-affinity (cydBD) and low-affinity (cox) oxidases. The UBA8950 MAG and sp002840685 genomes carry genes in nitrate reduction, nitrite reduction, and DNRA pathways, whereas genomes of sp001872455 do not (Fig. S5B). Physiological characterization of UBA8950 bacteria will facilitate the practical application in the

Another finding in this study is the coexistence of N₂O reduction and DNRA pathways in the recovered MAGs. Approximately 26% of MAGs possessing clade II nosZ gene also harbor the nrfA gene, congruent with the previous report [8]. The high expression of the clade II nosZ gene and DNRA genes (nrfA and octR) by an unclassified UBA6192 species (R2_bin12.r) in Bacteridota (Fig. 5), taxonomically close to sp002421995 (Fig. S6A), suggests the contribution to N_2O reduction and DNRA in the MAS system. The nrfA expression remained unchanged at an elevated DO concentration, contributing to DNRA even under oxic conditions. Despite carrying nirK and cnorB genes, the low gene expressions of nirK and cnorB implied a minor contribution to N₂O production. These gene expression trends underscore that the UBA6192 MAG (R2_bin12.r) is an ideal candidate for improving N2O mitigation and ammonia recovery, i.e. reducing nitrate to ammonia. There are 17 draft genomes of 11 species in the GTDB database for the uncultured UBA6192 genus. All 11 species have the nitrite reduction pathway, and 7 species harbor DNRA and/or NO reduction, whereas only two species (sp018816765 and sp018336125) possess nosZ (Fig. S6B), showcasing the genotype uniqueness of UBA 6192 MAG (R2_bin12.r).

Another potential candidate to facilitate ammonia recovery is PGYU01 MAG (R2_bin45.o), displaying higher expressions of both nrfA and octR genes before increasing a DO concentration (Fig. 5). The downregulation of nrfA and octR genes and upregulation of qnorB and clade II nosZ genes at a high DO concentration suggests the switching function from DNRA to N₂O reduction. Comparably high nrfA and octR gene expressions in UTCHB3 (Ignavibacteriaceae) bacteria, four MAGs recovered in this study with the genotypes allowing N₂O reduction and DNRA (Fig. S7B), indicate an active involvement in DNRA. Although these bacteria did not pronouncedly express nosZ compared to PGYU01 MAG, all UTCHB3 showed moderate nrfA expression (Fig. 5), potentially instrumental in reducing nitrite to ammonia. PGYU01 and UTCHB3 may support high ammonia recovery by reducing nitrite to ammonia when excessive aeration unwantedly enhances nitrification in the MAS system.

N-converting microorganisms in the presence of DO

The MAS system, supplied with high-strength nitrogenous wastewater, is rate-limited by oxygen supply. Increasing oxygen supply enhances organic carbon removal and, as a downside, initiates ammonia oxidation in conjunction with N2O production by AOMs (Fig. S1). Exploring and harnessing bacteria exerting N₂O reduction and DNRA potentially paves the way towards high ammonia retention with low N2O emissions. Our metatranscriptomic analysis allowed the classification of several phenotypical responses to an increase in DO concentration (Fig. 7).

The predominant bacterial members responsible for N2O reduction and DNRA exhibited high gene expressions of highaffinity terminal oxidases (ccoNO or cydAB) and nitrogen oxide reductases. However, the preferential electron acceptor and the strategy for growth seem diverse. The concomitant decreases in high-affinity terminal oxidases ccoNO and clade II nosZ gene expressions of Cloacibacterium (Figs. 5 and 6) suggest that the effectiveness as an N2O sink could be limited under high DO conditions. The downregulations of clade II nosZ and octR and the unchanged regulation of nrfA and ccoNO at a high DO concentration, observed in Bacteroidota UBA6192, indicate that N2O reduction and DNRA are compromised after increasing DO concentrations. Much higher expressions of nrfA and nirS genes than coxAB and cydAB genes of Chloroflexota UBA8950 at a high DO concentration allude to utilizing nitrogen oxides as the primary electron acceptors and facilitating DNRA at a high DO concentration. Reportedly, DNRA, dependent on NrfA activity, proceeds under oxygen-limited conditions [68], although it may be less oxygen-sensitive than anticipated [69]. The highly expressed terminal oxidase gene (Fig. 6) may scavenge oxygen in the periplasm of Chloroflexota UBA8950. The underlying mechanism and the occurrence of DNRA warrant future investigations.

By combining online monitoring of the MAS system, metagenomic, and transcriptomic analyses, this study identified transcriptomically active bacteria responsible for high ammonia retention efficiency and low N2O emissions in transitioning from microoxic to oxic conditions. Our analysis revealed nondenitrifying N2O-reducing bacteria affiliated with clade II nosZ Cloacibacterium in the phylum Bacterioidota as a promising N₂O sink in microoxic conditions. Whereas Cloacibacterium decreased transcriptomic activities by transitioning from a microoxic to an oxic condition, bacteria responsible for DNRA, e.g. the genus UBA8950 (Chloroflexota), became active, likely switching from N₂O reduction to DNRA as a primary nitrogen transformation function in the microbial community at elevated oxygen levels. Switching such metabolic functions in the community of the MAS system caused by oxygen level transitions allowed high ammonia retention with fewer N2O emissions even during dynamic oxygen

fluctuations, which occasionally occurs in an engineered system for nitrogen management. Our findings may help achieve stable operation for ammonia recovery, a new paradigm that turns nitrogen removal into nitrogen recovery.

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Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at The ISME Journal online.

Conflicts of interest

There is no competing interest present.

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Data availability

The data of this study will be available upon request.

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