'npg

www.nature.com/ismej

ORIGINAL ARTICLE Aerobic nitrous oxide production through N-nitrosating hybrid formation in ammonia-oxidizing archaea

Michaela Stieglmeier¹, Maria Mooshammer², Barbara Kitzler³, Wolfgang Wanek², Sophie Zechmeister-Boltenstern^{3,4}, Andreas Richter² and Christa Schleper¹ ¹Department of Ecogenomics and Systems Biology, Archaea Biology and Ecogenomics Division, University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria; ²Department of Microbiology and Ecosystem Science, Division of Terrestrial Ecosystem Research, University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria; ³Federal Research and Training Centre for Forests, Natural Hazards and Landscape, Unit of Soil Biology, Vienna, Austria and ⁴University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences, Institute of Soil Research, Vienna, Austria

Soil emissions are largely responsible for the increase of the potent greenhouse gas nitrous oxide (N_2O) in the atmosphere and are generally attributed to the activity of nitrifying and denitrifying bacteria. However, the contribution of the recently discovered ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) to N₂O production from soil is unclear as is the mechanism by which they produce it. Here we investigate the potential of Nitrososphaera viennensis, the first pure culture of AOA from soil, to produce N₂O and compare its activity with that of a marine AOA and an ammonia-oxidizing bacterium (AOB) from soil. N. viennensis produced N₂O at a maximum yield of 0.09% N₂O per molecule of nitrite under oxic growth conditions. N₂O production rates of 4.6 ± 0.6 amol N₂O cell⁻¹ h⁻¹ and nitrification rates of 2.6 \pm 0.5 fmol NO₂⁻ cell⁻¹ h⁻¹ were in the same range as those of the AOB Nitrosospira multiformis and the marine AOA Nitrosopumilus maritimus grown under comparable conditions. In contrast to AOB, however, N₂O production of the two archaeal strains did not increase when the oxygen concentration was reduced, suggesting that they are not capable of denitrification. In ¹⁵N-labeling experiments we provide evidence that both ammonium and nitrite contribute equally via hybrid N_2O formation to the N_2O produced by *N. viennensis* under all conditions tested. Our results suggest that archaea may contribute to N₂O production in terrestrial ecosystems, however, they are not capable of nitrifier-denitrification and thus do not produce increasing amounts of the greenhouse gas when oxygen becomes limiting.

The ISME Journal (2014) 8, 1135–1146; doi:10.1038/ismej.2013.220; published online 9 January 2014 Subject Category: Microbial ecosystem impacts

Keywords: greenhouse gas; nitrification; N₂O; soil; co-denitrification

Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is a greenhouse gas with 298 times the global warming potential of carbon dioxide over a 100-year period (IPCC, 2007). It contributes to the destruction of the stratospheric ozone layer (Conrad, 1996) and is even predicted to remain the dominant ozone-depleting substance of the twenty first century (Ravishankara *et al.*, 2009). The increasing food demand of the human population

has led to an excessive use of fertilizers in agriculture, which consequently increased N_2O emissions considerably in the last century (Skiba and Smith, 2000; Galloway *et al.* 2008; Smith *et al.*, 2012). As summed up by Smith *et al.* (2012) already in the year 2000 total N_2O emissions accounted for 15.8 Tg N_2O -N year⁻¹, in which 5.6–6.5 Tg N_2O -N year⁻¹ could be assigned to an anthropogenic source and 4.3–5.8 Tg N_2O -N year⁻¹ to a land or coastal biological source.

The main processes responsible for gaseous nitrogen emissions from soil are microbial transformations of ammonium, nitrite, nitrate and to a lesser extent chemodenitrification (Colliver and Stephenson, 2000; Baggs, 2008, 2011; Campbell *et al.*, 2011). Both ammonia-oxidizing and denitrifying microorganisms produce N_2O by dissimilatory nitrate (or nitrite) reduction mostly under oxygenlimiting or anoxic conditions, whereas ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) can additionally produce

Correspondence: A Richter, Department of Microbiology and Ecosystems Research, University of Vienna, Althanstrasse 14, 1090 Vienna, Austria.

E-mail: andreas.richter@univie.ac.at

or C Schleper, Department of Ecogenomics and Systems Biology, University of Vienna, Althanstrasse 14, 1090 Vienna, Austria. E-mail: christa.schleper@univie.ac.at

Received 6 August 2013; revised 25 October 2013; accepted 28 October 2013; published online 9 January 2014

 N_2O via hydroxylamine oxidation under oxic conditions, albeit to a lower extent (Hooper and Terry, 1979; Arp and Stein, 2003; Stein, 2011). It has been estimated that ammonia oxidizers can contribute considerably to direct terrestrial N_2O emissions, depending on soil type and environmental conditions (Mummey *et al.*, 1994; Webster and Hopkins, 1996; Gödde and Conrad, 1999; Pihlatie *et al.*, 2004). In addition, they have an indirect influence on denitrification and thus N_2O production through the production of the oxidized N-compound nitrite, the substrate for nitrite-oxidizing bacteria to produce nitrate, which in turn is used as a substrate by denitrifying microorganisms (Zhu *et al.*, 2013).

The various N-transforming processes in soils that lead to N_2O production are complex and the contributing microbial partners and environmental factors that influence its production are little understood (Baggs, 2011; Schreiber *et al.*, 2012). For estimations or models of future greenhouse gas production and for the development of mitigation strategies it is therefore of great importance to identify all biological sources of N_2O production and to characterize the environmental factors that influence their activity.

Recently, a novel group of ammonia oxidizers of the domain Archaea has been discovered to be widespread in marine and terrestrial environments, often outnumbering their bacterial counterparts by orders of magnitude (Leininger et al., 2006; Wuchter et al., 2006). The energy metabolism and general physiology of these ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) is still not fully understood. Although it has been shown recently that hydroxylamine is an intermediate of ammonia oxidation in AOA (Vajrala et al., 2013) it has been argued that they might not have the capacity to produce N_2O through a side reaction of ammonia oxidation, because they lack genes for a homolog of hydroxylamine oxidoreductase known to be responsible for N₂O formation in AOB (Hooper and Terry, 1979) and in methanotrophic bacteria (Campbell *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, although AOA contain homologous genes of a nitrite reductase (NIR; Bartossek *et al.*, 2010), they lack genes encoding a potential NO-reductase (NOR), which is involved in nitrifier-denitrification and thus N₂O production in bacteria (Walker *et al.*, 2010; Campbell et al., 2011; Stein, 2011; Tourna et al., 2011). Nevertheless, stable isotope-labeling experiments of marine enrichment cultures and measurements of a marine isolate have recently shown that AOA are indeed capable of N₂O production (Santoro et al., 2011; Loescher et al., 2012). However, it has remained unclear under which conditions AOA produce N₂O and if they are able to perform nitrifierdenitrification, the process that contributes most to direct N₂O production of AOB in soils (Shaw *et al.*, 2006). The characterization of the first AOA from soil obtained in a pure laboratory culture (Tourna *et al.*, 2011) now allows studying the extent of N_2O production in this group of organisms and to test the Here we present data from extensive laboratory incubations and a range of ¹⁵N-labeling experiments, designed to shed light on the mechanisms of formation and the environmental conditions under which N_2O is produced by AOA.

Materials and methods

Strains and cultures

The AOA Nitrososphaera viennensis EN76 was maintained at 37 °C in fresh water medium according to Tourna et al. (2011). The AOA Nitrosopumilus maritimus SCM1 was incubated at 28 °C in SCM medium according to Könneke et al. (2005). N. viennensis and N. maritimus cultures were supplied with 1 mm ammonium and in addition with 0.1 mm pyruvate and 0.1 mm oxaloacetate, respectively. The media of N. viennensis and N. maritimus cultures were buffered with HEPES to a pH of 7.5. The AOB Nitrosospira multiformis ATCC 25196^T (supplied by Jim Prosser, Aberdeen) was cultivated at 28 °C in Skinner and Walker (S+W) medium (Skinner and Walker, 1961) containing 1 mM ammonium and phenol red (0.5 mg) as pH indicator at a pH of 7.5-8. The pH was regularly adjusted by adding Na₂CO₃. Cultures were inoculated with 10% volumes of culture.

Growth was followed via photometric determination of ammonium consumption and nitrite production using a salicylic acid assay (Kandeler and Gerber, 1988) or a Grieß reagent system (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) for the latter. Screenings for contaminations were done regularly using light microscopy and PCR. Late exponential cultures were used to inoculate cultures for the determination of N_2O production (10% inoculum), which have been set up in serum bottles (122 ml total; 20–30 ml medium; sealed with butyl rubber stoppers).

DNA extraction

Nucleic acids were extracted based on a modified protocol of Griffiths *et al.* (2000) using 2-ml Lysing Matrix E tubes (MP biomedicals, Eschwege, Germany) containing a mixture of silica, ceramic and glass beads in combination with the BIO101/ Savant FastPrepFP120A Instrument (Qbiogene, Illkirch, France) for bead beating. Briefly, 1 ml of culture was harvested and the cell pellet was dissolved in 0.5 ml SDS extraction buffer (0.7 M NaCl, 0.1 M Na₂SO₃, 0.1 M Tris/HCl (pH 7.5), 0.05 M EDTA (pH8), 1% SDS). The further extraction was performed as described in the study by Nicol *et al.* (2005) with a DNA precipitation over night at 4 °C.

Quantitative PCR

Archaeal *16S rRNA* genes were quantified using the primers Cren771F and Cren957R (Ochsenreiter

1137

et al., 2003). Amplification was performed in 20 µl reactions containing 10 µl OuantiFast SYBR Green PCR Mix (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), 0.5 µм of each primer and 2 µl DNA template. For the standard curve a serial dilution of the linearized 16 S rRNA gene of N. viennensis was used with an efficiency of 101% and a slope of -3.3. The qPCR was performed in a realplex cycler (Mastercycler ep realplex, Eppendorf, Vienna, Austria) with the following PCR conditions: 95 °C for 15 min, 40 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 54 °C and 30 s at 72 °C followed by a melting curve analysis at the end of the run to indicate the amplification of specific products. qPCR data were generated from independent DNA extractions of quadruplicate cultures with duplicated PCR amplifications.

N₂O quantification

Cultures for the quantification of N₂O were set up in replicates (3–5 cultures each) in serum bottles containing 20 ml fresh water medium. In addition, one blank with medium only and another one with dead cells (autoclaved culture) as inoculum were prepared. Production of N₂O was tested under one fully aerated condition with 21% oxygen in the headspace and three oxygen limited conditions. To achieve this, reduced pressure was applied for 30 s followed by flushing with sterile filtered N_2 (0% oxygen in headspace). To achieve a concentration of 10% and 3% oxygen in the gaseous phase a defined amount of N₂ was replaced by sterile filtered air. Initial oxygen concentrations in the aqueous phase of the N. viennensis cultures (37 °C) were measured with an oxygen microsensor (Presens, Regensburg, Germany). Initial O₂ concentrations in N. maritimus and N. multiformis cultures (28 °C) were calculated according to Henry's law. Oxygen concentrations measured in the aqueous phase revealed that the aimed gaseous O₂ concentrations were approximately achieved: $217 \pm 1 \,\mu\text{M}$ in the aqueous phase (corresponds to 21% O_2 in gas phase), $114 \pm 4 \mu M$ (corresponds to 10% O_2 in gas phase), $48 \pm 7 \mu M$ (corresponds to 3% O_2 in gas phase) and $28 \pm 8 \,\mu\text{M}$ (corresponds to $0\% O_2$ in gas phase). Owing to residual O₂ dissolved in the medium measured values were slightly higher than expected.

Acetylene, an inhibitor of the ammonia monooxygenase, was added during exponential growth in a final concentration of 0.01%, which is sufficient to inhibit AOB as well as AOA (Hynes and Knowles, 1978; Offre *et al.*, 2009).

Gas samples were taken at several time points during growth and 12 ml were transferred to 10-ml evacuated and sealed glass containers which were stored at 4 °C until analysis by GC (AGILENT 6890 N, Vienna, Austria; injector: 120 °C, detector: 350 °C, oven: 35 °C, carrier gas: N₂) connected to an automatic sample-injection system (DANI HSS 86.50, Headspace-Sampler, Sprockhövel, Germany). N₂O concentration was detected with a 63Ni-electron-capture detector. Standard gases (Inc. Linde Gas, Vienna, Austria) contained 0.5, 1 and 2.5 μ l l⁻¹N₂O. Further details are described elsewhere (Schaufler *et al.*, 2010).

The removed gas in the cultures was replaced immediately by the respective gas phase (as described above; air, 10% and 3% O_2 in N_2 or only N_2) in order to prevent reduced pressure. Furthermore, samples (220 µl) to determine nitrite and ammonium concentration were taken and analyzed photometrically as described above.

¹⁵N-labeling experiments

For N. viennensis, experiments with added $^{15}NH_4^+$ $(1 \text{ mm} {}^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}; 5.05 \text{ at\%}) \text{ or } {}^{15}\text{NO}_2^{-1}$ (0.2 mM $Na^{15}NO_2^-$; 9.69 at%) were carried out under oxic and oxygen-limited conditions $(3\% O_2)$. In order to obtain comparable conditions between both ¹⁵N-labeling experiments we also added 0.2 mM of unlabeled $NaNO_2^-$ to the cultures with ¹⁵NH₄⁺-label. Bottles containing $0.2 \text{ mM} \text{ NaNO}_2^-$ and $1 \text{ mM} \text{ NH}_4\text{Cl}$ but no inoculum were set up as media blanks. The precise isotopic composition of the label was determined by elemental analyzer (EA 1110, CE Instruments, Wigan, UK) coupled to an IRMS system (Finnigan ConFlo III interface and Finnigan Delta^{PLUS} isotope ratio mass spectrometer, Thermo Fisher, Vienna, Austria). Additionally, we performed an N₂O isotope pool dilution assay for *N. viennensis* under oxygen-limited conditions $(3\% O_2)$ by applying exogenously ¹⁵N-labeled N₂O (\sim 300 nM, \sim 49at%). ¹⁵N-labeled N₂O was produced by the reduction of $^{15}NO_2^-$ (98at%) to $^{15}N_2O$ by using azide (see below). Gross rates of N₂O production and consumption were calculated based on isotope pool dilution theory (Kirkham and Bartholomew, 1954).

For all ¹⁵N-labeling experiments, we used serum bottles inoculated with 10% volumes of culture to a final volume of 30 ml. For each sampling during the growing phase (four times) quadruplicate bottles were prepared and triplicate un-inoculated media served as controls. We followed changes in concentration of NH_4^+ , NO_2^- and N_2O as well as isotopic composition of NO_2^- and N_2O over time. Headspace samples were transferred to helium-flushed and pre-evacuated vials (12-ml exetainers) for N_2O determination. Liquid samples for NH_4^+ and NO_2^- analysis were immediately frozen to -20 °C until used.

Concentrations of NH_4^+ and NO_2^- were measured as described above. Isotopic composition of $NO_2^$ was determined by a method based on the reduction of NO_2^- to N_2O by using azide under acidified conditions following the protocol of Lachouani *et al.* (2010). Briefly, 1 ml sample or standard was transferred to 12-ml exetainer and 1 ml 1 M HCl was added. After purging the vials with helium to eliminate air- N_2O in the sample headspace, 150 µl 1 M sodium azide buffer (in 10% acetic acid solution) were injected and the vials were placed on a shaker at 37 °C for 18 h. The reaction was stopped by injecting $250 \,\mu$ l of $10 \,M$ NaOH. For mass calibration, NO_2^- standards ranging from natural abundance to 8at% were analyzed. N₂O concentration and isotopic ratio of the azide conversion as well as the headspace samples were determined using a purge-and-trap GC/IRMS system (PreCon, GasBench II headspace analyzer, Delta Advantage V; Thermo Fischer, Vienna, Austria). Isotopic ratios of N₂O of the headspace samples were corrected for blanks.

Calculations

The N₂O concentration was calculated per l culture at 25 °C and was corrected for the ambient concentration of N₂O in air (or the respective gas atmosphere of the cultures). The N₂O yield is the average ratio of μ mol N₂O per μ mol NO₂⁻ produced and was generated from values of 2–4 time points during exponential growth. For the calculation of the nitrification rate (fmol cell⁻¹h⁻¹) and N₂O production rate (amol cell⁻¹h⁻¹) the average cell density between two time points during exponential growth as approximated by qPCR was used.

The ¹⁵N-labeling experiments are closed systems where we can assume that there are only two possible sources for the formation of N₂O: NH₄⁺ (or an intermediate stemming from NH₄⁺) and NO₂⁻. We used a two-pool mixing model to determine the percentage contribution of each source pool to the product pool. Because of temporal changes in concentration and therefore in isotopic composition of NO₂⁻ through the input by ammonia oxidation calculations were performed for time intervals along the growing phase. The isotopic ratio of N₂O produced in a certain time interval (Δ at %) was calculated as follows:

$$\Delta at\% = \frac{(C_{t2} \cdot at\%_{t2} - C_{t1} \cdot at\%_{t1})}{\Lambda C}$$
(1)

where C_{t1} , C_{t2} , $at\%_{t1}$ and $at\%_{t2}$ are N₂O concentrations and atom% of N₂O at t1 and t2 representing sampling time. ΔC is the increase in N₂O concentration from t1 to t2. In this time interval the contribution of NO₂⁻ (source1) to N₂O production was estimated by a two-pool mixing model:

proportion derived from source
$$1 = \frac{(at\% \text{ product} - at\% \text{ source2})}{(at\% \text{ source1} - at\% \text{ source2})} \cdot 100$$
(2)

where $at\%_{product}$ is the isotopic ratio of N₂O (according to Equation (1)). As the atom% of the NO₂⁻ pool changed in the course of time due to the input from ammonia oxidation we used the mean isotopic composition of NO₂⁻ between *t1* and *t2* as the atom% of NO₂⁻ ($at\%_{source1}$). At enrichment levels, as applied here, the discrimination between isotopic composition of the NH₄⁺ pool is constant over time. Thus, we used natural abundance (0.3663 atom%) and 5.05 atom% (which was determined as described above) for the unlabeled and labeled

substrate addition experiments, respectively, as the source for N_2O which derives from the NH_4^+ pool or an intermediate stemming from NH_4^+ ($at\%_{source2}$).

Following up on the results of the two-pool mixing model, we generated a probability model in order to distinguish whether the produced N₂O was derived from hybrid formation or a combination of nitrifierdenitrification and ammonia oxidation. Owing to different labeled N sources $(NH_4^+ \text{ and/or } NO_2^-)$ different N₂O-forming processes will yield a distinctive fraction of N_2O , which is double-labeled (¹⁵N¹⁵NO). Therefore, the model predicts the concentration of double-labeled N_2O (¹⁵ $N^{15}NO$) as a function of N₂O concentration (that is, sum of N₂O with mass 44, 45 and 46). It is based on the theoretical probability of the occurrence of N_2O with mass 46 (⁴⁶N₂O; including natural abundance of oxygen isotopes). The probability of the occurrence of ${}^{46}N_2O$ is the sum of the probabilities of four isotopologs:

$$\begin{aligned} P(^{46}N_2O) &= P(^{15}N^{15}N^{16}O) + P(^{14}N^{15}N^{17}O) \\ &+ P(^{15}N^{14}N^{17}O) + P(^{14}N^{14}N^{18}O) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

To determine the probability of each isotopolog, we multiplied the respective relative natural abundance of the O isotope (16 O, 17 O or 18 O), the relative 15 N abundance $[P(^{15}N)]$ and/or the relative abundance of ¹⁴N of the N source $[P(^{14}N) = 1 - P(^{15}N)]$. In the case that N₂O is solely produced during ammonia oxidation, $P({}^{46}N_2O)$ is based on the isotopic composition of the NH_4^+ pool. Assuming that only nitrifier-denitrification occurs, $P({}^{46}N_2O)$ is calculated from the isotopic composition of the NO_2^- pool. If those two processes occur simultaneously, $P(^{46}N_2O)$ is the sum of their relative contributions. In case of hybrid N₂O formation (that is, one N atom stems from NO_2^- and one from NH⁺₄ or an intermediate of ammonia oxidation), the model considers that one N atom of each isotopolog derives from NH_4^+ and the other one from NO_2^- , which are combined to form hybrid N_2O . For the ${}^{15}NO_2$ -labeling experiments, we computed $P(^{46}N_2O)$ for the different scenarios based on the isotopic composition of NH_4^+ , which was constant at natural abundance, and NO_2^- , which varied between \sim 2–4.4 at% due to input by ammonia oxidation. We accounted for this variability in the NO₂⁻ isotopic composition by considering the ¹⁵N relative abundance of the NO_2^- pool as a function of N_2O concentration. For each scenario using the respective $P(^{46}N_2O)$ function, we calculated the cumulative $^{46}N_2O$ concentration (that is, $^{15}N^{15}NO$) as a function of N₂O produced according to Equation 4.

$${}^{46}N_2O(x) = \int\limits_{xt0}^{x} P({}^{46}N_2O)dx + {}^{46}N_2O_{xt0} \qquad (4)$$

where x is the N₂O concentration, xt0 is the N₂O concentration at the first sampling time and ${}^{46}N_2O_{xt0}$ is the concentration of ${}^{46}N_2O$ at the first sampling time.

In case of using independent variables for calculation (that is, independent samples of two samplings during the growth phase) the standard error was estimated by propagation of error. Analysis of variance, Holm–Sidak *post hoc* tests and *t*-tests ($\alpha = 0.05$) were performed using SigmaPlot 11.0 (Systat Software Inc., San Jose, CA, USA).

Results

Quantification of N₂O production

 N_2O production was measured in *N. viennensis* cultures amended with different initial headspace oxygen concentrations (21%, 10%, 3% and 0%) and compared with N_2O production from the AOA *N. maritimus* and the AOB *N. multiformis*, grown under the same initial ammonia and oxygen concentrations. N_2O accumulation, nitrite production and ammonia consumption are shown in Figure 1.

N₂O production paralleled nitrite production in all strains over the incubation period. N₂O production of *N. viennensis* and *N. maritimus* was dependent on

ammonia oxidation and was not significantly affected by the varying oxygen concentrations (Figure 1, Supplementary Table S1) with stable N₂O yields at all tested oxygen concentrations. There was no increase in N_2O production with decreasing oxygen. In contrast, both strains reached slightly higher maximal N₂O concentrations and yields at higher oxygen concentrations (Table 1). Independent of the oxygen concentration N. viennensis produced almost twice as much N_2O as *N. maritimus*. For example, N. viennensis had a maximal yield of 0.09 (\pm 0.00) % N₂O/NO₂⁻ and a maximal N₂O concentration of 0.80 (\pm 0.08) μ M N₂O at 21% O₂ in the headspace, whereas N. maritimus produced at maximum 0.44 (\pm 0.04) μ M N₂O with an N₂O yield of 0.05 (\pm 0.02) % N₂O/NO₂⁻ at the same oxygen level.

Different from that of *N. viennensis* and *N. maritimus*, N₂O production and yields of the AOB *N. multiformis* increased 3–4-fold under decreasing oxygen concentrations, which is in line with earlier studies (Goreau *et al.*, 1980; Anderson and Levine, 1986). *N. multiformis* showed a maximal N₂O production of $3.32 (\pm 0.30) \mu M N_2O$ and the highest

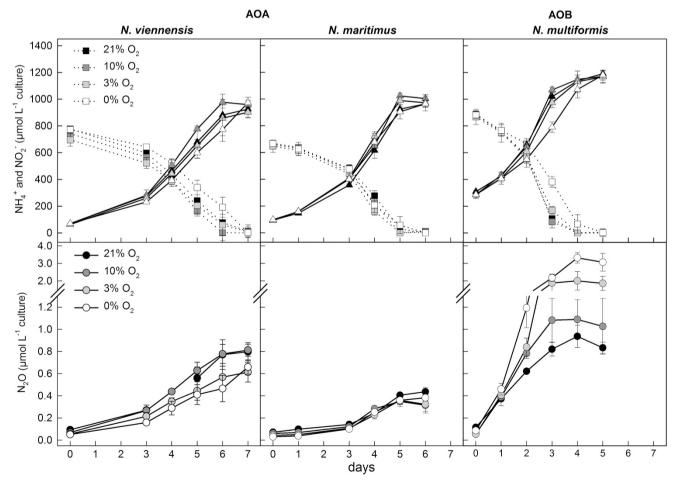


Figure 1 Near stoichiometric conversion of ammonium (squares, dotted lines) to nitrite (triangles, solid lines; upper plots) and concurrent N_2O production (circles; lower plots) during the growth of the AOA *N. viennensis* and *N. maritimus* as well as the AOB *N. multiformis.* The strains have been cultivated under four different oxygen concentrations (21%: black; 10%: dark gray; 3%: light gray; 0%: white). Mean values of triplicate or quadruplicate experiments, respectively, are shown with standard deviations plotted.

Table 1 Maximal N₂O production and N₂O yields of *N. viennensis*, *N. maritimus* and *N. multiformis* under different oxygen conditions

Strain	NH4+ (тм)	O_2 (%)	$N_2O \max_{(\mu M)^{ m a}}$	N₂O yield (%) ^b
AOA				
N. viennensis	1	21	0.80 ± 0.08	0.09 ± 0.00
		10	0.81 ± 0.05	0.09 ± 0.01
		3	0.61 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.01
		0	0.66 ± 0.06	0.07 ± 0.00
N. maritimus	1	21	0.44 ± 0.04	0.05 ± 0.02
		10	0.35 ± 0.03	0.04 ± 0.01
		3	0.36 ± 0.06	0.03 ± 0.00
		0	0.36 ± 0.04	0.03 ± 0.01
AOB				
	1	21	0.94 ± 0.10	0.09 ± 0.01
		10	1.09 ± 0.18	0.10 ± 0.02
		3	2.00 ± 0.53	0.14 ± 0.05
		0	3.32 ± 0.30	0.27 ± 0.05

^аMaximal N₂O value (µм) measured during growth.

 ${}^{b}N_{2}O/NO_{2}^{-}$ ratio (%). Yields are calculated for the exponential growth phase only. Data represent average values of triplicate or quadruplicate experiments with standard deviations.

Table 2 N₂O and NO2⁻
production rates of N. viennensis at two
different oxygen concentrations

	21% oxygen	3% oxygen
Net NO_2^- production $\mu mol l^{-1} h^{-1}$ fmol cell ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	7.7 ± 0.6 2.6 ± 0.5	6.2 ± 0.5 2.8 ± 0.5
Net N ₂ O production nmol l ⁻¹ h ⁻¹ amol cell ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	$\begin{array}{c} 13.6 \pm 1.2 \\ 4.6 \pm 0.6 \end{array}$	9.3 ± 1.1 4.2 ± 0.1
$\begin{array}{c} \mbox{Cell density}^{a} \\ \mbox{Cells} \times 10^{9} l^{-1} \end{array}$	2.9 ± 1.0	2.2 ± 0.7

Data represent average values of quadruplicate experiments with standard deviations.

^aMeasured by qPCR.

 N_2O yield of 0.27 (±0.05) % N_2O/NO_2^- under 0% O_2 in the headspace. In comparison with both AOA the maximal N_2O production of *N. multiformis* (AOB) was significantly higher at all tested oxygen concentrations (see Supplementary Table S1 for statistical tests).

Nitrification and N₂O production rates were determined for *N. viennensis* by relating production to cell numbers estimated by quantitative PCR of the 16S rRNA gene, which occurs only once in the genome (Tourna *et al.*, 2011). The N₂O production rates were 4.6 (\pm 0.6) amol cell⁻¹h⁻¹ under ambient oxygen and 4.2 (\pm 0.1) amol cell⁻¹h⁻¹ under reduced oxygen (3% O₂ in headspace), with nitrification rates of 2.6 (\pm 0.5) and 2.8 (\pm 0.5) fmol nitrite cell⁻¹h⁻¹, respectively (Table 2).

When 0.01% of the ammonia oxidation inhibitor acetylene was supplied to an exponentially growing culture of *N. viennensis*, both nitrite production and N_2O production ceased immediately, indicating that N_2O production was linked to the process of ammonia oxidation as has been shown for AOB (Supplementary Figure S1). Furthermore, controls with inactivated cells or media blanks without cell inoculum but supplemented with nitrite did not show any increase in N_2O concentration over the incubation period (not shown).

Contribution of ammonia-N and nitrite-N to N_2O

To elucidate the potential mechanism of N₂O production in *N. viennensis* we conducted ¹⁵N-labeling experiments using either ¹⁵N-labeled ammonium plus unlabeled nitrite or vice versa. When exogenous ¹⁵NH₄⁺ was supplied, a continuous increase in the $^{15}N/^{14}N$ ratio of the NO₂ pool over time was observed, reflecting the enrichment of labeled NO_2^- from ammonia oxidation (Figures 2a and b and Supplementary Figures S2A and B). The ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratio of the concurrently produced N₂O was higher compared with NO_2^{-} throughout the experiment. The addition of 15 N-labeled NO $_2^-$ (together with unlabeled NH_4^+) resulted in a decrease of the ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratio of the NO_2^- pool over time due to the input of unlabeled NO_2^- from ammonia oxidation (Figures 2c and d and Supplementary Figures S2C and D). In this case the concurrently produced N_2O had a lower $^{15}N/^{14}N$ ratio compared with NO₂⁻ at both oxygen concentrations. Thus, in both labeling experiments the differences between the isotopic composition of NO_2^- and N_2O indicated that both NO_2^- and NH_4^+ contributed to the production of N_2O .

The ¹⁵N-labeling experiments were closed system experiments with only two possible N-sources for the formation of N₂O: NH_4^+ (or an intermediate of ammonia oxidation stemming from NH_4^+) and NO_2^- . Therefore, a two-pool mixing model was used to elucidate the contribution of NO_2^- to the formation of N₂O. The contribution of NO_2^- to the formation of N₂O under ambient oxygen concentrations was 40.2% and 40.8% in the ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁵NO₂⁻-labeling experiments, respectively, and under reduced oxygen conditions 46.6% and 45.1%, respectively (Figure 3a). These results show a nearly equal contribution of NH_4^+ and NO_2^- to the N₂O production at both oxygen levels tested.

We found no significant difference in the contribution of NO_2^- to N_2O between ambient and reduced oxygen condition, which was corroborated by two independent ¹⁵N-labeling approaches with ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁵NO₂⁻.

In order to distinguish whether the produced N_2O by *N. viennensis* was derived from hybrid formation (that is, one N atom stems from NO_2^- and one from NH_4^+ or an intermediate of ammonia oxidation) or a combination of two simultaneous processes (that

Hybrid-N2O formation by ammonia-oxidizing archaea M Stieglmeier *et al*

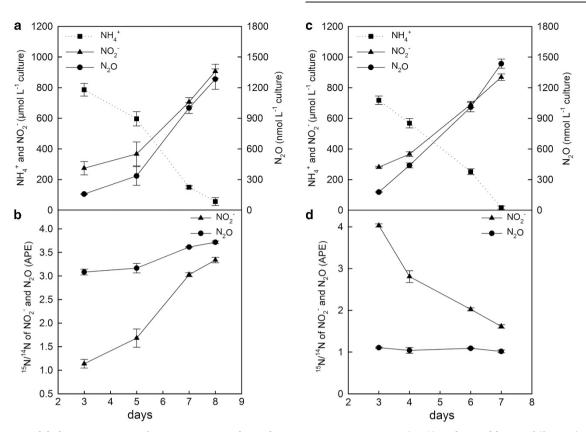


Figure 2 15N-labeling experiment of *N. viennensis* under ambient oxygen concentration (21%) with an addition of ${}^{15}NH_{4}^+$ (**a**, **b**; 1mM ${}^{15}NH_{4}^+$ and 0.2mM ${}^{14}NO_2^-$) and ${}^{15}NO_2^-$ (**c** and **d**; 0.2mM ${}^{15}NO_2^-$ and 1mM ${}^{14}NH_{4}^+$). The concentrations of NH₄⁺, NO₂⁻ and N₂O were followed during the growth phase (**a**, **c**). The NO₂⁻ concentrations presented here were corrected for the exogenously supplied NO₂⁻. The isotopic composition of NO₂⁻ and N₂O are atom percent excess (APE; **b**, **d**). When ${}^{15}NO_2^-$ was exogenously supplied, no label was recovered as NH₄⁺. At each sampling day samples were harvested from independent flasks. Each data point represents the mean value of four replicates (± 1 s.e.).

is, nitrifier-denitrification and ammonia oxidation) we calculated the concentration of double-labeled N_2O (¹⁵N¹⁵NO) for different N_2O -forming processes. Each process, or a combination of them, will yield a distinctive fraction of double-labeled N_2O (⁴⁶ N_2O). The probability model shows that a combination of nitrifier-denitrification and ammonia oxidation with a relative contribution between 40 and 60% as indicated by the two-pool mixing model was unlikely, under both oxygen conditions tested (Figures 3b and c). The model fitted to the measured data suggests under oxic conditions a relative contribution of $\sim 20\%$ and 80% by nitrifier-denitrification and ammonia oxidation, respectively, and of $\sim 14\%$ and 86% under reduced oxygen conditions, which stands in contrast to the results of the two-pool mixing model. The results of the probability model point to N₂O production via hybrid formation or only via ammonia oxidation, whereas the latter case can be excluded because we detected ¹⁵N₂O while labeling the nitrite pool. Taken together, the results of the two-pool mixing model and the probability model indicate hybrid N₂O formation by N. viennensis.

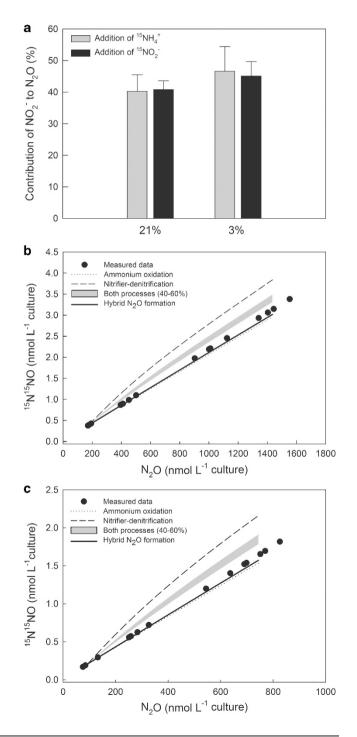
To clarify whether the produced N_2O was further metabolized, for example to N_2 , we used an isotope pool dilution assay in which we labeled the N_2O pool with ${}^{15}N_2O$ enabling us to calculate gross and net production rates of the greenhouse gas under oxygen-limiting conditions in *N. viennensis*. The gross N_2O production (14.4 nmol $l^{-1}h^{-1}\pm 1.1$) was not significantly different from net N_2O production (12.1 nmol $l^{-1}h^{-1}\pm 1.2$), indicating that N_2O was neither reduced further to N_2 nor re-assimilated.

Discussion

The growth of *N. viennensis* in pure culture allowed us to determine, for the first time, gross nitrification and N_2O production rates of an AOA from soil.

Despite its relatively small cell size, N₂O production rates (4.2–4.6 amol N₂O-N h⁻¹ cell⁻¹) of *N. viennensis* were comparable to many bacterial ammonia-oxidizing soil strains (*N. multiformis* ATCC 25196: 7.6 amol N₂O-N h⁻¹ cell⁻¹, *Nitrosospira* sp. strain 40KI: 4.6 amol N₂O-N h⁻¹ cell⁻¹, *Nitrosospira* sp. strain NpAV: 3.9 amol N₂O-N h⁻¹ cell⁻¹ (Shaw *et al.*, 2006)) but lower than those measured for strains of the genus *Nitrosomonas* (Goreau *et al.*, 1980; Hynes and Knowles, 1984; Anderson and Levine, 1986; Remde and Conrad, 1990; Shaw *et al.*, 2006). Similarly, molar yields of N₂O (expressed as a percentage of moles of NO_2^- produced) were of the same order of magnitude as those reported for many AOB (Jiang and Bakken, 1999; Shaw *et al.*, 2006).

 N_2O yields of *N. viennensis* (0.07–0.09% N_2O/NO_2^-) were higher compared with group I.1a AOA enrichment cultures (0.0022–0.055% N_2O/NO_2^- (Santoro *et al.*, 2011), 0.065% N_2O/NO_2^- (Jung *et al.*, 2011)) and to the pure culture of *N. maritimus* (0.03–0.05% N_2O/NO_2^- (this study), 0.002–0.026% N_2O/NH_4^+ (Loescher *et al.*, 2012)). The measured N_2O yields for *N. maritimus* were thus in



accordance with reported values and slightly higher than reported earlier (Loescher *et al.*, 2012). However, Loescher et al. (2012) have obtained maximal N₂O yields for *N. maritimus* under limited oxygen concentrations (initial concentration: $112 \mu M O_2$; in line with 10% O₂ culture in our study) and reported decreasing N₂O concentrations with increasing oxygen levels. At ambient oxygen concentrations Loescher et al. (2012) have shown 20 times lower N₂O yields for *N. maritimus* compared with yields obtained in our study for the same organism. In this study, we could not observe a significant difference (P < 0.001) in maximal N₂O concentrations produced by *N. maritimus* at the four different oxygen concentrations tested. Different from the study by Loescher et al. (2012) we have added oxaloacetate to the culture medium, which led to an increased growth rate and also higher cell numbers for N. maritimus and this might have also caused higher N_2O production.

The equally high production of N_2O by N. viennensis and N. maritimus under different oxygen levels and especially the lack of an increase in N_2O production under oxygen limitation indicate that AOA are not capable of nitrifier-denitrification $(N_2O \text{ production from nitrite alone})$. This is supported by the absence of genes for *bona fide* nitric oxide reductase (NOR) in the genomes of AOA (Walker et al., 2010; Tourna et al., 2011; Spang et al., 2012) and is also in agreement with earlier isotopic studies in which the site preferences of $\tilde{N_2}O$ indicated that it is mainly not produced via nitrifier-denitrification (Santoro *et al.*, 2011: Loescher et al., 2012).

Hybrid N₂O formation in N. viennensis

Stable isotope-labeling experiments with N. viennensis showed a nearly equal contribution of nitrogen from ammonia and nitrite to the N_2O production

Figure 3 Two-pool mixing model (a) showing the comparison of percentage contribution of NO_2^- to the N_2O formation between ¹⁵N-labeling experiments (addition of ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁵NO₂⁻) at each O_2 -treatment (21% and 3%) for *N. viennensis*. Data presented are means of all time intervals along the growth phase for each experiment (\pm 1s.e.). We found no significant difference in the mean of the percentage contribution of NO_2^- to the N₂O formation between ¹⁵NH₄⁺- and ¹⁵NO₂⁻-labeling experiments at each O₂ treatment (t-test, 21% oxygen, $t_4 = 0.0868$, P = 0.935; 3% oxygen, $t_4 = 0.167$, P = 0.876). Within each labeling experiment, there is also no significant difference between the mean of the O_2 -treatments (*t*-test, ¹⁵NH₄⁺-labeling, $t_4 = -0.677$, P = 0.536; $^{15}NO_{2}^{-1}$ -labeling, $t_{4} = -0.810$, P = 0.463). Probability models (**b**, **c**) showing predicted double-labeled N₂O (¹⁵N¹⁵NO; based on the theoretical probability of the occurrence of N_2O with mass 46) produced by different possible pathways compared with measured data of the $^{15}\mathrm{NO}_2^-$ -labeling experiment under oxic (b) and reduced oxygen (C; $3\% O_2$ in headspace) conditions. The grey shaded area represents a combination of ammonia oxidation and nitrifier-denitrification with a contribution of each process between 40 and 60%. The upper border of the grey shaded area represents a contribution of nitrifier-denitrification with 60% and ammonia oxidation with 40% and vice versa for the lower border.

1143

at all oxygen levels tested. This was further supported, when we modeled the amount of dually labeled N₂O molecules (¹⁵N-¹⁵N-O) to determine the different possible pathways that could be used to synthesize N_2O and compared the calculated values to the actual measurements obtained from our experiments with ¹⁵N-labeled nitrite under ambient and reduced oxygen concentrations (Figures 3b and c). Thus, N. viennensis seems to produce N₂O during aerobic ammonia oxidation, from nitrite and an intermediate of ammonia oxidation mostly via a hybrid formation mechanism. Such a mechanism of N₂O formation is also known from denitrifying fungi and bacteria mainly under anoxic or reduced oxygen conditions, where it is described as co-metabolic denitrification (that is, co-denitrification) through a biotically mediated N-nitrosation reaction (Spott et al., 2011). In this process one N from nitrite or NO is combined in an enzymatic reaction with one N from a co-substrate (ammonium, hydroxylamine, amines, and so on). NIR and NOR have been suggested as possible enzyme candidates catalyzing this reaction (Spott et al., 2011). As all published thaumarchaeal genomes (except that of Cenarchaeum symbiosum) contain a nirK homolog (encoding NIR) (Bartossek et al., 2010) and as it has been shown in metatranscriptomic studies that this thaumarchaeal gene is highly expressed in planktonic samples (Frias-Lopez et al., 2008; Hollibaugh et al., 2011), sponge tissues (Radax et al., 2012) and in soil (Urich et al., 2008), it might be a good candidate for performing this reaction. However, one has to note that the term co-denitrification has so far been used for a process that increases with decreasing oxygen concentrations (Spott et al., 2011), which was not the case for N₂O production in our AOA study.

There are two main N₂O production mechanisms described for bacterial ammonia oxidizers. Under oxic conditions AOB oxidize hydroxylamine by hydroxylamine oxidoreductase to NO, which is further oxidized to N₂O by a yet unknown enzyme (Hooper and Terry, 1979; Schreiber et al., 2012). However, cytochrome c554 and NorS have been discussed as potential candidates for this reaction in AOB (Stein, 2011), whereas CytS has been described to have a role in NO-detoxification in methaneoxidizing bacteria (Poret-Peterson et al., 2008; Campbell et al., 2011). Under reduced oxygen conditions N₂O is produced via the process of nitrifier-denitrification, which is the reduction of nitrite to NO by NIR and a further reduction to N₂O by NOR (Goreau et al., 1980; Arp and Stein, 2003). However, some nitrifier-denitrification of AOB has also been demonstrated under oxic conditions (Shaw et al., 2006). In addition, it has been discussed that aerobic N₂O production in AOB might proceed via a different and unknown pathway including HNO as a further intermediate of ammonia oxidation, which might react abiotically to N₂O (Schreiber *et al.*, 2012). Further, a recent study has shown the emission of HONO and NO by the AOB Nitrosomonas europaea (Oswald et al., 2013).

The pathway of ammonia oxidation in AOA is still not fully understood. Although it has been shown recently that hydroxylamine is an intermediate of ammonia oxidation in N. maritimus (Vajrala et al., 2013) homologous genes of hydroxylamine oxidoreductase have not been identified in their genomes (Walker et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2011; Tourna *et al.*, 2011; Spang *et al.*, 2012). Thus, biotic production of hybrid $N_2 O$ via the yet unidentified second enzyme of ammonia oxidation cannot be excluded. However, we can also not exclude an abiotic formation of hybrid N₂O via an N-nitrosation reaction of nitrite and an intermediate of ammonia oxidation, for example, hydroxylamine, HNO or NO (Zollinger, 1988; Spott et al., 2011), which have been discussed to be possible intermediates of AOA (Schleper and Nicol, 2010; Walker et al., 2010; Vajrala *et al.*, 2013). Noteworthy, recent studies by Yan et al. (2012) and our laboratory (Shen et al., 2013) have demonstrated inhibition of ammonia oxidation by carboxy-PTIO (2-(4-carboxyphenyl)-4, 4,5,5-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl-3-oxide), а scavenger of NO (Amano and Noda, 1995; Akaike and Maeda, 1996), indicating that NO does indeed have an important role in the energy metabolism of AOA as postulated earlier (Schleper and Nicol, 2010; Walker *et al.*, 2010).

Conclusion

N. viennensis and N. maritimus, the only available pure cultures of AOA, produced N₂O under oxic conditions at similar yields and rates as bacterial ammonia oxidizers grown under similar conditions (for example, same ammonia supply). However, both AOA are not capable of nitrifier-denitrification like AOB and thus do not produce increasing amounts of the greenhouse gas when oxygen becomes limiting. ¹⁵N-labeling studies performed with N. viennensis indicate N_2O production that results in hybrid formation independent of the oxygen concentration.

Extrapolating from our data obtained with two representatives of the two major clades of AOA (soil and marine clade) and considering the vast numbers of AOA (Karner et al., 2001; Leininger et al., 2006; Wuchter et al., 2006; Adair and Schwartz, 2008; Shen et al., 2008) and their ammonia-oxidizing activity in both terrestrial and oceanic environments (Martens-Habbena et al., 2009; Offre et al., 2009; Di et al., 2010; Verhamme et al., 2011) one can assume that AOA contribute directly to continuous persistent N₂O emissions, albeit at low rates, comparable to those of AOB under oxic conditions and low ammonia supply. As AOB might produce more N₂O under higher ammonia concentrations than supplied in our experiments their relative contribution to N₂O emissions in the environment is certainly higher than that of AOA on a per-cell

basis. A bigger contribution to global N₂O production through AOA might occur rather indirectly through the production of oxidized nitrogenous compounds (mostly NO_2^-) that are converted into substrates for denitrifying organisms.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

We thank Daniela Teichmann, Romana Bittner, Michaela Djordjevic and Margarete Watzka for technical assistance, Daniel Schenz for help with data analysis, Rebecca Hood-Nowotny and Ricardo E Alves for critically reading the manuscript and Jim Prosser (Aberdeen) for supply of strain N. multiformis. This work was supported by the University of Vienna, Faculty of Life Sciences, and by FWF (Austrian Science Fund) grant P23000 to CS.

References

- Adair KL, Schwartz E. (2008). Evidence that ammoniaoxidizing archaea are more abundant than ammoniaoxidizing bacteria in semiarid soils of northern Arizona, USA. Microb Ecol 56: 420-426.
- Akaike T, Maeda H. (1996). Quantitation of nitric oxide using 2-phenyl-4,4,5,5-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl 3-oxide (PTIO). Methods Enzymol 268: 211-221.
- Amano F, Noda T. (1995). Improved detection of nitric oxide radical (NO.) production in an activated macrophage culture with a radical scavenger, carboxy PTIO and Griess reagent. FEBS Lett 368: 425-428.
- Anderson IC, Levine JS. (1986). Relative rates of nitric oxide and nitrous oxide production by nitrifiers, denitrifiers, and nitrate respirers. Appl Environ Microbiol 51: 938-945.
- Arp DJ, Stein LY. (2003). Metabolism of inorganic N compounds by ammonia-oxidizing bacteria. Crit Rev Biochem Mol Biol 38: 471-495.
- Baggs EM. (2008). A review of stable isotope techniques for N2O source partitioning in soils: recent progress, remaining challenges and future considerations. Rapid Commun Mass Spectrom 22: 1664-1672.
- Baggs EM. (2011). Soil microbial sources of nitrous oxide: recent advances in knowledge, emerging challenges and future direction. Curr Opin Environ Sustainability 3: 321-327.
- Bartossek R, Nicol GW, Lanzen A, Klenk HP, Schleper C. (2010). Homologues of nitrite reductases in ammoniaoxidizing archaea: diversity and genomic context. Environ Microbiol 12: 1075–1088.
- Campbell MA, Nyerges G, Kozlowski JA, Poret-Peterson AT, Stein LY, Klotz MG. (2011). Model of the molecular basis for hydroxylamine oxidation and nitrous oxide production in methanotrophic bacteria. FEMS Microbiol Lett 322: 82-89.
- Colliver BB, Stephenson T. (2000). Production of nitrogen oxide and dinitrogen oxide by autotrophic nitrifiers. Biotechnol Adv 18: 219-232.

- Conrad R. (1996). Soil microorganisms as controllers of atmospheric trace gases (H2, CO, CH4, OCS, N2O, and NO). Microbiol Rev 60: 609-640.
- Di HJ, Cameron KC, Shen JP, Winefield CS, O'Callaghan M, Bowatte S et al. (2010). Ammonia-oxidizing bacteria and archaea grow under contrasting soil nitrogen conditions. FEMS Microbiol Ecol 72: 386-394.
- Frias-Lopez J, Shi Y, Tyson GW, Coleman ML, Schuster SC, Chisholm SW et al. (2008). Microbial community gene expression in ocean surface waters. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 105: 3805-3810.
- Galloway JN, Townsend AR, Erisman JW, Bekunda M, Cai Z, Freney JR et al. (2008). Transformation of the nitrogen cycle: recent trends, questions, and potential solutions. Science 320: 889-892.
- Gödde M, Conrad R. (1999). Immediate and adaptational temperature effects on nitric oxide production and nitrous oxide release from nitrification and denitrification in two soils. Biol Fert Soil 30: 33–40.
- Goreau TJ, Kaplan WA, Wofsy SC, Mcelroy MB, Valois FW, Watson SW. (1980). Production of No₂- and N₂o by nitrifying bacteria at reduced concentrations of oxygen. Appl Environ Microbiol 40: 526-532.
- Griffiths RI, Whiteley AS, O'Donnell AG, Bailey MJ. (2000). Rapid method for coextraction of DNA and RNA from natural environments for analysis of ribosomal DNA- and rRNA-based microbial community composition. Appl Environ Microbiol 66: 5488–5491.
- Hollibaugh JT, Gifford S, Sharma S, Bano N, Moran MA. (2011). Metatranscriptomic analysis of ammoniaoxidizing organisms in an estuarine bacterioplankton assemblage. ISME J 5: 866-878.
- Hooper AB, Terry KR. (1979). Hydroxylamine oxidoreductase of nitrosomonas production of nitric-oxide from hydroxylamine. Biochim Biophys Acta 571: 12-20.
- Hynes RK, Knowles R. (1978). Inhibition by acetylene of ammonia oxidation in Nitrosomonas-Europaea. FEMS Microbiol Lett 4: 319-321.
- Hynes RK, Knowles R. (1984). Production of nitrous-oxide by Nitrosomonas-Europaea-effects of acetylene, pH, and oxygen. Can J Microbiol 30: 1397-1404.
- IPCC (2007). Climate change 2007: the physical science basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Chapter 2.2. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Jiang QQ, Bakken LR. (1999). Nitrous oxide production and methane oxidation by different ammonia-oxidizing bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 65: 2679–2684.
- Jung MY, Park SJ, Min D, Kim JS, Rijpstra WI, Sinninghe Damste JS et al. (2011). Enrichment and characterization of an autotrophic ammonia-oxidizing archaeon of mesophilic crenarchaeal group I.1a from an agricultural soil. Appl Environ Microbiol 77: 8635-8647.
- Kandeler E, Gerber H. (1988). Short-term assay of soil urease activity using colorimetric determination of ammonium. Biol Fert Soils 6: 68-72.
- Karner MB, DeLong EF, Karl DM. (2001). Archaeal dominance in the mesopelagic zone of the Pacific Ocean. Nature 409: 507-510.
- Kim BK, Jung MY, Yu DS, Park SJ, Oh TK, Rhee SK et al. (2011). Genome sequence of an ammonia-oxidizing soil archaeon, 'Candidatus Nitrosoarchaeum koreensis' MY1. J Bacteriol 193: 5539-5540.
- Kirkham DON, Bartholomew WV. (1954). Equations for following nutrient transformations in soil, utilizing tracer data. Soil Sci Soc Amer Proc 18: 33-34.

- Könneke M, Bernhard AE, de la Torre JR, Walker CB, Waterbury JB, Stahl DA. (2005). Isolation of an autotrophic ammonia-oxidizing marine archaeon. *Nature* **437**: 543–546.
- Lachouani P, Frank AH, Wanek W. (2010). A suite of sensitive chemical methods to determine the δ15N of ammonium, nitrate and total dissolved N in soil extracts. *Rapid Commun Mass Spectrom* **24**: 3615–3623.
- Leininger S, Urich T, Schloter M, Schwark L, Qi J, Nicol GW et al. (2006). Archaea predominate among ammoniaoxidizing prokaryotes in soils. Nature 442: 806–809.
- Loescher CR, Kock A, Koenneke M, LaRoche J, Bange HW, Schmitz RA. (2012). Production of oceanic nitrous oxide by ammonia-oxidizing archaea. *Biogeosciences Discuss* 9: 2095–2122.
- Martens-Habbena W, Berube PM, Urakawa H, de la Torre JR, Stahl DA. (2009). Ammonia oxidation kinetics determine niche separation of nitrifying Archaea and Bacteria. *Nature* **461**: 976–979.
- Mosier AC, Allen EE, Kim M, Ferriera S, Francis CA. (2012a). Genome sequence of 'Candidatus Nitrosoarchaeum limnia' BG20, a low-salinity ammoniaoxidizing archaeon from the San Francisco Bay estuary. *J Bacteriol* **194**: 2119–2120.
- Mosier AC, Allen EE, Kim M, Ferriera S, Francis CA. (2012b). Genome sequence of 'Candidatus Nitrosopumilus salaria' BD31, an ammonia-oxidizing archaeon from the San Francisco Bay estuary. *J Bacteriol* **194**: 2121–2122.
- Mummey DL, Smith JL, Bolton Jr H. (1994). Nitrous oxide flux from a shrub-steppe ecosystem: sources and regulation. *Soil Biol Biochem* **26**: 279–286.
- Nicol GW, Tscherko D, Embley TM, Prosser JI. (2005). Primary succession of soil Crenarchaeota across a receding glacier foreland. *Environ Microbiol* **7**: 337–347.
- Ochsenreiter T, Selezi D, Quaiser A, Bonch-Osmolovskaya L, Schleper C. (2003). Diversity and abundance of Crenarchaeota in terrestrial habitats studied by 16S RNA surveys and real time PCR. *Environ Microbiol* 5: 787–797.
- Offre P, Prosser JI, Nicol GW. (2009). Growth of ammoniaoxidizing archaea in soil microcosms is inhibited by acetylene. *Fems Microbiol Ecol* **70**: 99–108.
- Oswald R, Behrendt T, Ermel M, Wu D, Su H, Cheng Y *et al.* (2013). HONO emissions from soil bacteria as a major source of atmospheric reactive nitrogen. *Science* **341**: 1233–1235.
- Pihlatie M, Syvasalo E, Simojoki A, Esala M, Regina K. (2004). Contribution of nitrification and denitrification to N2O production in peat, clay and loamy sand soils under different soil moisture conditions. *Nutr Cycling Agroecosyst* **70**: 135–141.
- Poret-Peterson AT, Graham JE, Gulledge J, Klotz MG. (2008). Transcription of nitrification genes by the methane-oxidizing bacterium, Methylococcus capsulatus strain Bath. *ISME J* 2: 1213–1220.
- Radax R, Rattei T, Lanzen A, Bayer C, Rapp HT, Urich T et al. (2012). Metatranscriptomics of the marine sponge Geodia barretti: tackling phylogeny and function of its microbial community. Environ Microbiol 14: 1308–1324.
- Ravishankara AR, Daniel JS, Portmann RW. (2009). Nitrous oxide (N2O): the dominant ozone-depleting substance emitted in the 21st century. *Science* **326**: 123–125.
- Remde A, Conrad R. (1990). production of nitric-oxide in nitrosomonas-europaea by reduction of nitrite. Arch Microbiol 154: 187–191.

- Santoro AE, Buchwald C, McIlvin MR, Casciotti KL. (2011). Isotopic signature of N(2)O produced by marine ammonia-oxidizing archaea. *Science* **333**: 1282–1285.
- Schaufler G, Kitzler B, Schindlbacher A, Skiba U, Sutton MA, Zechmeister-Boltenstern S. (2010). Greenhouse gas emissions from European soils under different land use: effects of soil moisture and temperature. *Eur J Soil Sci* 61: 683–696.
- Schleper C, Nicol GW. (2010). Ammonia-oxidising archaea-physiology, ecology and evolution. Adv Microb Physiol 57: 1-41.
- Schreiber F, Wunderlin P, Udert KM, Wells GF. (2012). Nitric oxide and nitrous oxide turnover in natural and engineered microbial communities: biological pathways, chemical reactions and novel technologies. *Front Microbiol* **3**: 372.
- Shaw LJ, Nicol GW, Smith Z, Fear J, Prosser JI, Baggs EM. (2006). Nitrosospira spp. can produce nitrous oxide via a nitrifier denitrification pathway. *Environ Microbiol* 8: 214–222.
- Shen JP, Zhang LM, Zhu YG, Zhang JB, He JZ. (2008). Abundance and composition of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria and ammonia-oxidizing archaea communities of an alkaline sandy loam. *Environ Microbiol* **10**: 1601–1611.
- Shen T, Stieglmeier M, Dai J, Urich T, Schleper C. (2013). Responses of the terrestrial ammonia-oxidizing archaeon Ca. Nitrososphaera viennensis and the ammonia-oxidizing bacterium Nitrosospira multiformis to nitrification inhibitors. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 344: 121–129.
- Skiba U, Smith KA. (2000). The control of nitrous oxide emissions from agricultural and natural soils. *Chemosphere Global Change Sci* **2**: 379–386.
- Skinner FA, Walker N. (1961). Growth of Nitrosomonas europaea in batch and continuous culture. Arch Microbiol **38**: 339–349.
- Smith KA, Mosier AR, Crutzen PJ, Winiwarter W. (2012). The role of N2O derived from crop-based biofuels, and from agriculture in general, in Earth's climate. *Philos Trans R Soc B Biol Sci* **367**: 1169–1174.
- Spang A, Poehlein A, Offre P, Zumbragel S, Haider S, Rychlik N *et al.* (2012). The genome of the ammoniaoxidizing Candidatus Nitrososphaera gargensis: insights into metabolic versatility and environmental adaptations. *Environ Microbiol* **14**: 3122–3145.
- Spott O, Russow R, Stange CF. (2011). Formation of hybrid N2O and hybrid N-2 due to codenitrification: first review of a barely considered process of microbially mediated N-nitrosation. *Soil Biol Biochem* **43**: 1995–2011.
- Stein LY. (2011). Surveying N2O-producing pathways in bacteria. *Methods Enzymol* **486**: 131–152.
- Tourna M, Stieglmeier M, Spang A, Konneke M, Schintlmeister A, Urich T *et al.* (2011). Nitrososphaera viennensis, an ammonia oxidizing archaeon from soil. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **108**: 8420–8425.
- Urich T, Lanzen A, Qi J, Huson DH, Schleper C, Schuster SC. (2008). Simultaneous assessment of soil microbial community structure and function through analysis of the meta-transcriptome. *PLoS One* **3**: e2527.
- Vajrala N, Martens-Habbena W, Sayavedra-Soto LA, Schauer A, Bottomley PJ, Stahl DA et al. (2013). Hydroxylamine as an intermediate in ammonia oxidation by globally abundant marine archaea. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 110: 1006–1011.

- Verhamme DT, Prosser JI, Nicol GW. (2011). Ammonia concentration determines differential growth of ammonia-oxidising archaea and bacteria in soil micro-cosms. *ISME J* 5: 1067–1071.
- Walker CB, de la Torre JR, Klotz MG, Urakawa H, Pinel N, Arp DJ et al. (2010). Nitrosopumilus maritimus genome reveals unique mechanisms for nitrification and autotrophy in globally distributed marine crenarchaea. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA **107**: 8818–8823.
- Webster FA, Hopkins DW. (1996). Contributions from different microbial processes to N2O emission from soil under different moisture regimes. *Biol Fert Soils* 22: 331–335.
- Wuchter C, Abbas B, Coolen MJL, Herfort L, van Bleijswijk J, Timmers P *et al.* (2006). Archaeal nitrification in the ocean. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **103**: 12317–12322.
- Yan J, Haaijer SC, Op den Camp HJ, van Niftrik L, Stahl DA, Konneke M *et al.* (2012). Mimicking the oxygen minimum zones: stimulating interaction of aerobic archaeal and anaerobic bacterial ammonia oxidizers in a laboratory-scale model system. *Environ Microbiol* **14**: 3146–3158.
- Zhu X, Burger M, Doane TA, Horwath WR. (2013). Ammonia oxidation pathways and nitrifier denitrification are significant sources of N2O and NO under low oxygen availability. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **110**: 6328–6333.
- Zollinger H. (1988). Diazotizations in highly concentrated mineral acids—the nitrosation mechanism of anilinium and hydroxylammonium ions through proton loss from the ammonio group. *Helv Chim Acta* **71**: 1661–1664.

Supplementary Information accompanies this paper on The ISME Journal website (http://www.nature.com/ismej)

1146