Evolutionary ecology of natural comammox *Nitrospira* populations

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Microbes commonly exists in diverse and complex communities where species interact, and their genomic repertoires evolve over time. Our understanding of species interactions and evolution has increased in the last decades, but most studies of evolutionary dynamics are based on single species in isolation or in experimental systems composed of few interacting species. Here, we use the microbial ecosystem found in groundwater-fed sand filters as a model to avoid this limitation. In these open systems, diverse microbial communities experience relatively stable conditions, and the coupling between chemical and biological processes is generally well defined. Metagenomic analysis of 12 sand filters revealed systematic co-occurrence of at least five comammox *Nitrospira* species, likely promoted by low ammonium concentrations. These *Nitrospira* species showed intra-population sequence diversity, although possible clonal expansion was detected in few abundant local comammox populations. They showed low homologous recombination and strong purifying selection, the latter process being especially strong in genes essential in energy metabolism. Positive selection was detected on genes related to resistance to foreign DNA and phages. We found that, compared to other habitats, groundwater-fed sand filters impose strong purifying selection and low recombination on comammox *Nitrospira* populations. These results suggest that evolutionary processes are more affected by habitat type than by species identity. Together, this study improves our understanding of species interactions and evolution in complex microbial communities, and sheds light on the environmental dependency of evolutionary processes.

Introduction

Microorganisms dominate the tree of life based on species diversity, and they play an essential role in all global biogeochemical cycles. Microbial species interact with each other and with the environment (ecological processes), and also undergo changes in their genomic repertoire over time (evolutionary processes). Yet, the interaction between ecological and evolutionary processes is largely unknown, especially for complex open communities. For many years, most studies of microbial communities in open, complex environments have focused on ecological aspects as it was believed that evolutionary changes happen at much larger timescale (1). However, in recent years, with the development of population-genomics analysis, researchers have started to investigate jointly the ecological and evolutionary processes. Yet, most studies of evolutionary dynamics remain based on single species in isolation (2) or on experimental systems composed of only a few interacting species (3). While these analyses have helped to better understand some aspects of evolutionary patterns, they have limitations because they lack many characteristics of true natural populations (e.g., spatial structure, existence of microdiversity, predation, immigration). On the other hand, observing populations in the wild also has limitations because the conditions vary with little control (hence, uncontrolled variation in population size, selection regime) and because the typically unknown ecophysiology of retrieved genomes makes it difficult to interpret the observed patterns. Therefore, studying well-defined model microbial ecosystems can help to understand ecological and evolutionary processes in microbial communities (4).

Rapid sand filters (RSF), widely used to produce drinking water from surface- or groundwater, are useful model systems as they are characterized by stable conditions; active growth, primarily driven by the oxidation of ammonia, methane, and other inorganic compounds present at low concentration in the influent water; large populations (10^9 – 10^{10} cells/g); significant mixing; continuous but limited immigration from prokaryotes in the influent water; no dispersal between separate sand filters (resulting in allopatric populations); and relatively well defined coupling between chemical and biological processes (5–8). In addition, the microbial communities inhabiting these systems, which are usually stable across time (9), have been broadly described, showing a general dominance of complete ammonia oxidizers (comammox) (6, 10, 11). These recently discovered microorganisms are expected to have a relatively simple ecology (due to their chemolithoautotrophic metabolism) (12), yet are poorly studied in terms of what drives their diversity, distribution and evolution. Furthermore, as comammox bacteria occur in RSF as coexisting populations (10, 13), RSF offer an opportunity for resolving fine-scale genomic heterogeneity within closely related strains, and investigate if they show similar patterns in evolutionary processes (such as selection or recombination).

Of particular interest is to what extent the evolutionary processes that drive the diversification of comammox *Nitrospira* are dependent on their environment, as opposed to intrinsic properties of the species. Environmental dependency of microbial evolution has been investigated from different perspectives. Several studies have focused on genome signatures variations (GC, tetranucleotide signatures, codon usage, purine-pyrimidine ratio) associated with different environments (reviewed in Dutta and Paul (2012) (14)). Others have studied bacterial adaptation to shifting environments (15), or have targeted a specific evolutionary process across several lifestyles (e.g.: homologous

recombination (16) or selection (17)). Most of these studies, however, considered different species living in different environments, or closely related species with a different lifestyle (i.e. free-living organisms vs pathogens). Yet, little is known about ongoing evolutionary processes of species belonging to the same lineage inhabiting different open environments. In this study, taking advantage of the multiple comammox species present in several groundwater-fed RSF, we thoroughly investigated evolutionary processes in this environment, and compared these observations with those in comammox species inhabiting other environments.

Results and Discussion

We examined ecological and evolutionary patterns within comammox dominated-bacterial communities inhabiting groundwater-fed rapid sand filters. To that end, we retrieved metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) from 12 similarly operated waterworks in Denmark, using a combination of automatic and manual binning, followed by several refinement steps to improve the bin quality (Fig. S1). To remove redundancy, a single representative was selected for each set of genomes that shared an average nucleotide identity (ANI) greater than 99%. This resulted in a total of 189 MAGs (genome completeness = 83.9% ± 13.6, contamination = 1.9% ± 1.4; Table S1), 18 of them classified as *Nitrospira* spp. (completeness = 89.1% ± 9.2, contamination = 2.5% ± 1.1; Table S2). These *Nitrospira* MAGs spanned 16 putative species (further on simply referred to as 'species') using a threshold average nucleotide identity (ANI) of ≥ 95% (18–20). The phylogenomic analysis placed one *Nitrospira* species into lineage I, 14 into lineage II, and one into other lineages (Fig. 1). Of the 16 *Nitrospira* species, 12 were classified as comammox *Nitrospira* (5 clade A and 7 clade B) (Fig. 1). As expected, the genomes classified as comammox *Nitrospira* also contained genes essential for complete ammonia oxidation, such as those of the ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) and hydroxylamine dehydrogenase (HAO) operons. Further description of the *Nitrospira* MAGs can be found elsewhere (21).

Fig. 1. Phylogenomic affiliation of *Nitrospira* MAGs retrieved from 12 waterworks.

A phylogenetic tree was built based on the concatenation of 120 proteins. *Nitrospira* MAGs retrieved in this
study are highlighted in boldface. Lineages and sublineages are shown with colours (lineage I, green; lineage
II, light brown; Other lineages, grey; comammox clade A purple; comammox clade B, orange). *Leptospirillum*
was used to root the tree. The strength of support for internal nodes as assessed by bootstrap replicates is
indicated as coloured circles (top left legend).

Nitrospira species comprised a large proportion of the microbial communities of the
waterworks (27 - 70%), and comammox represented a large fraction of *Nitrospira* spp. (76 - 98%)
(Fig. 2 and Table S3). For most of the RSFs, the variation among the abundance of the different
Nitrospira MAGs between duplicate samples was low (Fig. S2), suggesting a high spatial
homogeneity in the top layer of the filters, probably due to the frequent mixing caused by backwash,
and hence supporting the representativity of our sampling. Multiple *Nitrospira* species (at least 5; 10
on average) co-occurred in all the waterworks (Fig. 2). However, there was no consistent dominance
pattern. In some cases, a single species, but not always the same, dominated (WW4 and WW5), while,
in other, two (WW9 and WW12) or more species dominated (Fig. 2). The chemical characteristics of
the water explained 57% of the variance in *Nitrospira* composition (permutation test: $p < 0.001$; Table
S4), suggesting that water chemistry is a strong filter for the assembly of these nitrifying
communities. Among the measured water constituents, the influent ammonium concentration best
explained *Nitrospira* distribution (explained 18%; permutation test: $p_{adjust} = 0.02$) (Table S4).
Higher comammox species richness was detected in waterworks treating lower ammonium
concentration (Fig. S3, $R^2 = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$). Canonical *Nitrospira* and canonical ammonia oxidizers
were more abundant in waterworks receiving influent with higher ammonium (Fig. S4). These
observations are in line with the prediction that higher ammonium concentration favours the
emergence of division of labour between canonical ammonia and nitrite oxidiser (22). Nevertheless,
we observed that a comammox species (RSF3) seemed to cope with slightly higher ammonium
concentrations as well (Fig. S4). Interesting, besides the mentioned RSF3, the other comammox
Nitrospira spp. tended to cluster with those ones sharing clade affiliation (Fig. S4), which is based
on the phylogeny of ammonia monooxygenase subunit. On another note, the distribution pattern of
Nitrospira species across the waterworks was not related to their geographic distance (Mantel test: r
statistics = 0.08 and significance > 0.05).
Significant correlation among the abundances of the comammox species was rare; only few
strong positive correlations were detected (RSF5 and RSF15_CG24_B (ρ=0.84), RSF6 and RSF11
(ρ=0.84)), while no significant negative correlations were observed (Fig. S5). This absence of obvious
competitive exclusion pattern, together with the aforementioned description of co-existence of
multiple comammox species, suggest that these microorganisms seem to exploit slightly different
niches. A possible explanation might be that the co-occurrent comammox *Nitrospira* species had
different ammonia affinities, and they would occupy different sites in the highly porous filter material
(23). So far, little is known about the variability of ammonia affinity in comammox *Nitrospira* as this
feature has only been reported for two comammox species (24, 25), however, a wide range of
ammonia affinities have been observed in other ammonia oxidizers (26). Another reason could lie in
the abundance of unique genes in each comammox *Nitrospira* species (> 250 in average (21)).
Although the function of most of them is still unknown, these unique genes might promote ecological

variation. Traits such as chemotactic strategies, attachment to particles strategies, secondary
metabolism or defence against predation have been proposed to explain this phenomenon in other
coexisting microorganisms (Reviewed in Louca *et al.*, (2018) (27)).
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185 **Fig. 2. Abundance of *Nitrospira* species across 12 waterworks**.
186 Relative abundance of 16 *Nitrospira* species in 12 waterworks. Comammox and canonical *Nitrospira* species
187 are denoted in blue and green, respectively.
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Microdiversity within *Nitrospira* species
Strain-level analysis across the waterworks revealed that the *Nitrospira* populations
contained intra-population sequence diversity. We exploited the shotgun metagenomic data to
perform strain-level analyses on the 12 most abundant *Nitrospira* species (genome completeness =
92.4% ± 5.5, contamination = 2.7% ± 0.8) based on single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). The
number of SNPs/Mbp in the populations across the waterworks ranged from 14,437 to 45,664 (Table
S5). Looking into the populations at local scale (species within waterworks), the number of
SNPs/Mbp ranged from 249 to 37,663 (Table S6).
We observed a wide range of microdiversity (measured as nucleotide diversity (π)) among
populations (Fig. 3A): canonical *Nitrospira* RSF8 was the most diverse species, with three times
more nucleotide diversity than the less diverse *Nitrospira* species of our study (RSF1 and RSF12)
(Fig. 3A). Depending on the *Nitrospira* population, we detected instances of both homogeneous
microdiversity across the waterworks (e.g., RSF5 and RSF8), as well as a high microdiversity

variation depending on the waterworks (e.g., RSF1, RSF9 and RSF11) (Fig. S6). Based on our observations of high species-level comammox *Nitrospira* diversity at low ammonium concentration, we hypothesised that such conditions also promote high microdiversity. However, this was not the case, as the correlations of microdiversity with ammonium concentration or with comammox species richness were not significant for any species ($p > 0.05$). This suggests different drivers for inter-species vs within-species diversities.

While all species showed significant microdiversity across waterworks, we detected a few highly abundant comammox populations with almost no microdiversity at the local scale (e.g., comammox *Nitrospira* RSF1 and RSF12 in in WW4 and WW9, respectively; Fig. S7), which suggests local clonal expansions of these comammox populations. Along the same line, the analysis of major allele frequencies of common SNPs revealed that only a fraction of the within-species variants diversity is found locally. Thus, for specific species, we detected different within-species variants among the waterworks, in some cases, distinct single variants being dominants (e.g.: comammox RSF3 in WW10B vs WW5; Fig. S8). These results contrast with species level observations, where all the diversity was represented in each waterworks (as they all contain most of the *Nitrospira* spp.; Fig. 2).

Similar to what we observed at species level, there was no significant correlation between similarity in subspecies composition and the geographic distance of the waterworks, with the exceptions of *Nitrospira* sp. RSF2 ($p < 0.01$) and *Nitrospira* sp. RSF8 ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. S9). However, we observed an inter-waterworks organisation of the genetic structure at most loci across the studied genomes, indicating that the *Nitrospira* populations were more similar within than between waterworks. For each gene, we calculated pairwise fixation indexes (F_{ST}) to measure differences in allele frequencies between populations of the same species found in two distinct waterworks. The mean gene F_{ST} values were $\geq 15\%$ for all *Nitrospira* species (Fig. S10), the most extreme case being RSF5 ($F_{ST} > 40\%$) (Fig. S10). In few species (RSF2, RSF7 and RSF8), a higher dispersal ($F_{ST} < 20\%$) of most alleles between waterworks was observed (Fig. S10). These observations differ from those on soil bacterial populations across a meadow obtained using the same approach, where most of the populations had mean gene F_{ST} values $< 5\%$ (28). These contrasting results support the notion that populations in the waterworks are much more allopatric than the ones in other environments such as the mentioned meadow.

We also investigated local regions of the *Nitrospira* genomes with significantly higher F_{ST} values, as this is characteristic of local population-specific (here, in each waterworks) selective pressures (28). A few loci with unusually high F_{ST} were found in some of the *Nitrospira* populations (Fig. S11 and Table S7), one of them containing genes involved in nitrogen assimilation (*Nitrospira* sp. RSF2) (Table S7). However, only two of these loci with unusually high site-specific differentiation of alleles (high F_{ST}) also had few recombinant events, and low nucleotide diversity (Table S7), which can be considered as a signal of recent selective sweep (28). These results suggest that, contrary to what has been observed in several natural populations (28–31), gene-specific sweeps seem to play a minor role in the evolution of *Nitrospira* spp. inhabiting the waterworks. A possible explanation could be the low recombination rate that characterised the waterworks *Nitrospira* populations (Fig. 3B, discussed below), as opposed to genome-wide sweeps that are associated to low recombination rates, gene-specific sweeps are expected to occur with high recombination rates (32).

244   Overall, across the 12 waterworks, all species presented significant genomic microdiversity
245   but this diversity was not always represented locally, with a few occurrences of patterns consistent
246   with clonal expansion. The reason for the difference of within-species diversity across waterworks is
247   unknown but the allopatric nature of the communities likely contributes to their persistence.
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Evolutionary processes at whole-genome level
The *Nitrospira* populations were characterised by a low degree of homologous recombination.
We investigated this evolutionary process based on linkage disequilibrium (D' is only < 1 if all
possible combinations of a pair of biallelic sites are observed (33); lower D' values indicate higher
levels of homologous recombination; Fig. 3B). A similar low degree of homologous recombination
was observed for other non-*Nitrospira* abundant populations inhabiting the waterworks (n=12;
genome completeness = 92.6% ± 5.5, contamination = 2.1% ± 2.0) (Fig. 3B and Table S5). In general,
this evolutionary process was lower in the waterworks populations than in populations inhabiting a
grassland meadow (Fig. 3B), where a similar strain-level analysis was conducted (28). To further
examine the relative effect of homologous recombination on the genetic diversification of the
populations, we measured the rates at which nucleotides become substituted as a result of
recombination versus mutation using the *r/m* ratio. Most of the *Nitrospira* populations had a relatively
low *r/m* (*r/m* < 2) compared to recombinogenic species reported in literature (*r/m* > 4) (34) (Fig. S12),
although in one case (RSF15_CG24_B) the rate was similar to the value reported for a *S. flavogriseus*
population (*r/m* = 28) considered to be approaching panmixia (35). Overall, these results suggest a
low effect of recombination in the populations inhabiting the waterworks. Increasing recombination
rate has been associated with fluctuating environments as a source of variation which can accelerate
adaptation favouring survival in this type of environments (36, 37). On the other hand, constant
environments - as the waterworks studied here - tend to reduce the recombination rate of their
residents (36).
The *Nitrospira* populations were characterised by strong purifying selection. We used the
relation between non-synonymous and synonymous polymorphisms (pN/pS) to investigate this
evolutionary process. We detected pN/pS < 1, indicating purifying selection, for all *Nitrospira* species
(Fig. 3C). Similar results were observed for other abundant populations of the waterworks (Fig. 3C).
Purifying selection has frequently been observed in wild populations, and it was the case for
populations inhabiting a grassland meadow (28) (pN/pS = 0.56 ± 0.17, n = 19), but this process seems
to be especially strong in the waterworks populations (pN/pS = 0.34 ± 0.05, n = 24) (Two-Sample t-

test, p < 0.0001) (Fig. 3C). This suggests that their genomes could have reached an adaptive optimum
for this stable environment, which is maintained by purging non-synonymous mutations.

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Fig. 3. Evolutionary metrics of *Nitrospira* populations across 12 waterworks compared to other
organisms and locations.
A) Nucleotide diversity (π) of the most abundant bacterial populations across 12 waterworks, and the most
abundant bacterial populations across a grassland meadow (denoted as 'Soil') [38]. B) Homologous
recombination (D') of most abundant bacterial populations across 12 waterworks, and most abundant bacterial
populations across grassland meadow. C) Selection (pN/pS ratio) of most abundant bacterial populations
across 12 waterworks, and most abundant bacterial populations across grassland meadow. AOB: ammonia
oxidizing bacteria, CMX: comammox, NOB: nitrite oxidizing bacteria, Others: non-nitrifying abundant
bacteria present in the waterworks. The data reported in this table (including the MAGs ID) can be found in
Table S5.

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Interestingly, the degree of recombination and diversity across different *Nitrospira*
populations varied substantially with habitat (Fig. 4). High variability of recombination in closely
related bacterial species has occasionally been reported (38), and lifestyle appears as one of the most
relevant factors to explain this variability (16, 38). Our analysis in *Nitrospira* populations from
different habitats (drinking water treatment plants (DWTP), freshwaters and soils) suggests that the
environment also influences ongoing evolutionary processes: different bacterial types in the same
environment tended to share similar features (Fig. 4), while the evolutionary characteristics of
comammox *Nitrospira* populations differed depending on the environment where they were retrieved
(Fig. 4). Comammox species in the studied waterworks and in other DWTP were characterised by
low recombination, strong purifying selection and moderate microdiversity (Fig. 4). On the other
hand, comammox present in freshwater and in soils had higher microdiversity and, especially,
recombination rate (Fig. 4 and Table S5). Intriguingly, we consistently observed that, in drinking
water treatment systems, canonical *Nitrospira* species showed features similar to those of comammox
Nitrospira but with even stronger purifying selection (Fig. 4). This feature, together with the much
lower richness observed in canonical *Nitrospira* compared to comammox bacteria (Fig. 2), suggests

that competition can play a more intense role in canonical *Nitrospira,* which might select for few
species optimally adapted to this type of stable environment. However, a broader analysis is required
to confirm this hypothesis.

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Fig. 4. Impact of environment and microbial type in evolutionary metrics
Triplot composed of the nucleotide diversity, pN/pS ratio and D' values for the bacterial populations of this
study (WW), the most abundant bacterial populations across a grassland meadow [38] (Soil), and other
abundant *Nitrospira* populations recovered from other systems (Table S5; CMX_FW, CMX_DWTP,
NOB_DWTP, and CMX_Agric.Soil). The data reported in this table (including the MAGs ID) can be found
in Table S5.

Evolutionary processes at the gene level
In addition to a genome-wide analysis, we investigated the evolutionary processes at the gene
level. In the studied *Nitrospira* populations, genes involved in nitrification (ammonia
monooxygenase: *amoA* and *amoB*; hydroxylamine dehydrogenase: *haoA* and *haoB*; nitrite
oxidoreductase: *nxrA* and *nxrB*) generally had a similar nucleotide diversity (π) (Fig. 5A) and
homologous recombination rate (D') (Fig. 5B) compared to the rest of the genome, but with higher
levels of purifying selection (pN/pS) (Fig. 5C). The nucleotide diversities of genes related to

nitrification were very similar with the exception of *amoB*, which had a significantly lower nucleotide diversity than *nxrB* (p < 0.05) (Fig. 5A). A similar pattern was detected for the recombination, but in this case *amoA*, as well as *amoB*, had significantly lower recombination than *nxrB* (p < 0.05) (Fig. 5B). We observed a very strong purifying selection for most of the nitrifying genes, especially for *amoA*, *nxrA*, and *nxrB* (p < 0.01) (Fig. 5C). In the case of *nxrB*, not a single non-synonymous mutation was found in most of the *Nitrospira* species (0-1 non-synonymous sites vs 17-66 synonymous sites), even though this gene had a higher nucleotide diversity and homologous recombination (Fig. 5A and Fig. 5B). Our observations on selection are in line with previous studies, as generally, essential genes and enzymes catalysing reactions that are difficult to by-pass through alternative pathways are subject to higher purifying selection compared to nonessential ones (39–42).

Even though the average pN/pS values were below 1 in all *Nitrospira* species (Fig. 3), indicating purifying selection, genes with pN/pS values above 1 and significantly higher than the genomic average were detected in each species (Fig. S13). Many of those genes under positive selection were related to defence mechanism against phages (e.g. genes putatively involved in phage entry into cells, ribonucleases, genes coding proteins associated to restriction-modification systems, and genes related to toxin-antitoxin systems (Table S8)). Comparable findings were made in other abundant species from the waterworks (Table S9), in the additional *Nitrospira* populations retrieved from other environments (Table S9), as well as in *E. coli* and *Vibrio* sp. strains, respectively (43, 44). These observations suggest that positive selection in phage-related genes is widespread across bacteria, and highlights the evolutionary arms race occurring between phages and bacteria as an important driver in bacterial ecology and evolution (32, 45, 46). Additionally, we found nondefense, mobile genetic elements, such as transposons and integrases, with significantly higher pN/pS values than the genome average in the *Nitrospira* spp. (Table S10).

Fig. 5. Evolutionary metrics of nitrification genes in *Nitrospira* populations across 12 waterworks.

Left) Boxplot of nucleotide diversity of *Nitrospira* bacterial populations for whole genome (all *Nitrospira* and comammox *Nitrospira*) and nitrification genes. Differences between the mean nucleotide diversities were assessed by a Dunn's test; same letter means no significant difference ($p < 0.05$). Middle) Boxplot of linkage disequilibrium of *Nitrospira* bacterial populations for whole genome (all *Nitrospira* and comammox *Nitrospira*) and nitrification genes. Differences between the mean linkage disequilibriums were assessed by a Dunn's test; same letter means no significant difference ($p < 0.05$). Right) Boxplot of pN/pS ratios of *Nitrospira* bacterial populations for whole genome (all *Nitrospira* and comammox *Nitrospira*) and nitrification genes. Differences between the mean pN/pS ratios were assessed by a Dunn's test; same letter means no significant difference ($p < 0.01$).

Conclusions

A major unresolved question is how the relationship between ecology and evolution shapes complex communities in the environments. Here we use a model microbial system with relatively stable conditions to examine this question. By analysing the microbial communities in 12 groundwater-fed rapid sand filters, we observed that co-occurring comammox *Nitrospira* spp. dominate all sites, but with local differences in species composition. This suggest that the abundant comammox *Nitrospira* spp. exploit slightly different niches, which could partially be explained by the inlet water chemistry composition and the different genetic repertory. At subspecies level, comammox *Nitrospira* spp. are characterised by strong purifying selection and low recombination. These features, together with the occasional genome sweeps we detected, suggest that the subspecies possibly occupy a narrow niche to which they are optimally adapted. In contrast, we also showed that the relative magnitude of these evolutionary processes was different in comammox *Nitrospira* in habitats where environmental conditions are less stable and immigration more intense. Thus, we conclude that the evolutionary processes that drive the diversification of *Nitrospira* are dependent on the environment, as opposed to intrinsic properties of the species.

Materials and methods

Sampling, sequencing, and metagenomic assembled genomes recovery

The sampling description, DNA extraction and sequencing have been previously described (21). Briefly, filter material was collected from two locations at the top of the filters of 12 Danish waterworks. DNA was extracted from 0.5 g of sand material using the MP FastDNA Spin Kit (MP Biomedicals LLC, Solon, USA). DNA libraries were generated using the 24 extracted DNA with the Nextera XT DNA library preparation kit (Illumina Inc.) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were sequenced in one lane, with 2×150 paired read sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq4000 at BGI's facility in Copenhagen. Generated reads were trimmed and filtered, including adapters removal, using Trimmomatic v0.22 (threshold quality=15; minimum length=40) (47). FastQC (Babraham Bioinformatics (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/)) was used to evaluate the quality of the obtained reads. Co-assembly of high-quality reads was conducted using IDBA-UD (48) with the options --pre_correction --min_contig 1000. Additionally, 24 single-sample assemblies were performed following the same procedure. As it has been shown that the combination of multiple binning algorithms outperforms the usage of one single algorithm (49), here we performed metagenomic binning using MetaBAT (50), MaxBin2 (51), CONCOCT (52), MyCC (53), Binsanity

(54) and COCACOLA (55) (Fig. S1). The quality of the resulted genomes was improved using
Binning refiner (56). Simultaneously, we ran the software metaWRAP (57), which also take
advantage of multiple binning tools to recover genomes from the co-assembly. The generated bins
were improved using the refinement module of metaWRAP. Selection of the best genomes recovered
with the different binning algorithms was done with DAS Tool (58). dRep (59) was applied to
dereplicate all the selected best bins with the secondary clustering threshold set at 99% genome-wide
Average Nucleotide Identity (gANI). On the other hand, mmgenome (60) was applied to the single-
sample assemblies to recover *Nitrospira* genomes following the strategy described elsewhere (13).
The generated *Nitrospira* genomes were combined with the dereplicated bins, and subjected to the
reassembly module of metaWRAP with the aim of improving the quality of the bins. dRep at 99%
gANI was used again for dereplication. RefineM (--cov_corr = 0.8) (61) was used to refine the
resulting dereplicated bins by removing scaffolds with divergent GC-content or tetranucleotide
frequencies. Furthermore, the binning and refinement modules from metaWRAP were applied to the
co-assembly of the six RSF samples used in Palomo et al. (2018) (5). Obtained bins together with the
reported ones in Palomo et al. (2016 and 2018) (5, 13) were dereplicated using dRep at 99% gANI.
A refinement step with RefineM was applied on the resulting dereplicated bins. These refined bins,
together with the bins recovered from the 12 waterworks of this study were dereplicated as described
above. In addition, the assembly quality of the *Nitrospira* bins were improved by alignment against
related complete or draft genomes using the Multi-Draft based Scaffolder (MeDuSa) (62). The overall
procedure here described can be visualised in the Fig. S1. The completeness and contamination of
the bins were evaluated using CheckM (63).
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Species abundance estimation
A 95% average nucleotide identity (ANI) cut-off was used to define species as proposed by
Klappenbach *et al.* (2007) (18). The retrieved MAGs were dereplicated using dRep with the
secondary clustering threshold set at 95% gANI. Among the genomes classified as belonging to the
same species, the one with higher quality was chosen as representative genome. The species
abundance and coverage of each representative genome across the metagenomes were assessed using
MIDAS (64). Briefly, MIDAS uses reads mapped to 15 universal single-copy gene families (with
ability to accurately recruit metagenomic reads to the correct species (64)) to estimate the abundance
and coverage of bacterial species from a shotgun metagenome. We used the species retrieved in this
study to build the database of universal-single-copy genes.
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427   **Genome classification and annotation**
428   MAGs were classified using the classify workflow of the GTDB-Tk v.0.1.3 tool (65). Open reading
429   frames were predicted using Prodigal v. 2.63 (66), and annotated using blastp (67) against NCBI nr
430   (68), UniProt (69), KEGG (70), PFAM (71) and eggNOG (72). Genes were assigned to antiphage
431   defense systems using the strategy described in Doron *et al.* (2018) (73).
432
433   **Phylogenetic analysis**
434   Phylogenetic analyses of *Nitrospira* genomes were conducted with the GTDB-Tk v.0.1.3 tool (65)
435   [21] using the *de novo* workflow with a set of 120 single copy marker proteins and the genome

taxonomy database (GTDB) (74). Concatenated alignments were used to construct a maximum likelihood tree using RAxML v. 8.2.11 (75) with 200 rapid bootstraps (determined using the autoMRE option) and the LG likelihood model of amino acid substitution with gamma distributed rates and fraction of invariant sites (-m PROTGAMMAILGF; best model determined using ProtTest v. 3.4.2 (76)). The tree was rooted using two *Leptospirillum* species as outgroup. The rooted tree was visualized using the online web tool from the Interactive Tree of Life (iTol) (77).

Read mapping, SNP calling, and population genomic analysis
The population genomic analysis was done following the approach described in Crits-Christoph et al (2020) (28). High-quality reads were mapped to an indexed database of the 176 species MAGs recovered from the waterworks using BWA-MEM (78). The resulting alignments were filtered using samtools (79) view -q30 to remove reads with mapping quality less than 30, and also with the script filter_reads.py (28) (with the options: -m 96 to retain reads with a percent identity of at least 96% to the reference; and -q 2 to assure uniquely best mapping read pairs in the index). Downstream population genomic analysis was performed on the 24 most abundant species genomes (12 *Nitrospira* ones, and 12 other abundant species genomes). For each of these species genomes, we analysed data in samples that passed a cutoff of at least 50% of the genome being covered with at least 5× coverage. 149 out of 576 sample genome comparisons (24 genomes × 24 samples) passed this minimum requirement. Sample read mappings were pooled by each waterworks and by all samples across the waterworks. Nucleotide diversity (π), linkage disequilibrium (D') and pN/pS ratio were calculated for each sample, each waterworks and across all the waterworks as described elsewhere (28) using the scripts provided by the authors. F_{ST} was calculated following the same procedure but on sites segregating across two waterworks being compared (for all the possible waterworks comparisons). As Crits-Christoph *et al*. (2020) (28) recommended, only sites with a coverage of at least 20× in each waterworks was used to calculate F_{ST}. In addition, genes with coverage in a waterworks outside of the range of two standard deviations were excluded from the analysis. As previously suggested (28), a two-sample Wilcoxon test was conducted to find out if average linkage of highly differentiated loci differed from the genomic average for each species. Similarly, a two-sample *t*-tests was used to conclude if average nucleotide diversity of highly differentiated loci differed from the genomic average. Both sets of tests were corrected for multiple hypotheses using the Benjamini–Hochberg method. Recombination to mutation ratios were inferred using mcorr (34).
Same strain-level analysis as the one described above was conducted in other *Nitrospira* MAGs previously recovered (21) that passed a cutoff of at least 50% of the genome being covered with at least 5× coverage in any of the metagenomes were *Nitrospira* MAGs were found to be present (21).

Statistical Analyses.
All statistical tests were performed using R v3.5.2 (80). Due to the compositional nature of sequencing data (81), for all statistical analyses, species abundances were analysed as followed: zeros were replaced with an estimate value using the Count Zero Multiplicative approach with the zCompositions R package (82), and data were further centred log-ratio transformed. *Nitrospira* community dissimilarities were calculated using the Jaccard index. The correlation between the *Nitrospira* community dissimilarities and geographic distances was calculated using the Mantel test

(significance obtained after 100,000 permutations). Same analysis was used to assess the correlation
between the *Nitrospira* community dissimilarities and the water composition dissimilarity, as well as
the correlation between major allele dissimilarities and geographic distances.
Proportionality between abundances of the species across the 24 metagenomes were calculated using
the propr R package (83) (with the options metric = "rho", ivar = "clr") and visualised using the
corrplot R package (84). For the network analysis, the function getNetwork from propr R package
was used to retain proportionalities > 0.56 (FDR < 5%). The network was visualised using the igraph
R package (85).
Redundancy analysis (RDA) was performed in a stepwise way using the *ordiR2step* function of the
vegan package (86). The analysis was conducted using centred log-ratio transformed *Nitrospira*
species abundances and chemical data of influent water. The constrained ordination model and the
variable significance were determined by permutation tests (1000 permutations) with anova.cca in
vegan. Before this analysis, collinearity among explanatory variables was evaluated using variance
inflation factor (VIF) in the *fmsb* package (87). The function *vif_func* was used to perform a stepwise
approach until all variables above a VIF of 5 were excluded (88). Ternary plot was performed using
the R package ggtern (89) using the nucleotide diversity, pN/pS ratio and D' values for the bacterial
populations retrieved from the waterworks, as well as most abundant bacterial populations across
grassland meadow (28), and other *Nitrospira* populations abundant in other systems (Table S5).
Differences between the mean nucleotide diversities of the nitrifying genes, whole *Nitrospira*
genomes, and whole comammox *Nitrospira* genomes were assessed using Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA
followed by Dunn's test with the Holm-Bonferroni correction. Same analysis was performed for
linkage disequilibrium and pN/pS ratios.
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Chemical analysis of influent water
Ammonium was measured using a standard colorimetric salicylate and hypochlorite method (90),
while nitrite was analysed using a standard method adapted from Grasshoff *et al.* (1983) (91). Nitrate
and sulfate were measured by ion chromatography according to AWWA-WEF method 4110 (92).
Iron, manganese and copper were determined by ICP-MS (7700x, Agilent Technologies), while
calcium by ICP-OES (Varian, Vista-MPX CCD Simultaneous ICP-OES). Dissolved oxygen and pH
were measured with a handheld meter (WTW, Multi 3430, with FDO® 925 and SenTix® 940
probes).
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Data availability
All raw sequence data and *Nitrospira* genomes retrieved from the Danish rapid sand filters have been
deposited at the NCBI BioProject database under accession number PRJNA384587. The rest of the
retrieved draft genomes from the Danish rapid sand filters are available on figshare
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12962075). Data produced from the strain-level analysis
(nucleotide diversity, SPNs, linkage statistics and F_{ST} metrics) are available on figshare
(https://figshare.com/projects/Evolutionary_ecology_of_natural_comammox_Nitrospira_population
s/91217).
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Authors contributions

A.P conceived the study and performed the bioinformatic analyses. A.P and A.D led interpretation of the results supported by O.X.C and B.F.S. A.P drafted the manuscript with input from A.D, O.X.C and B.F.S. All authors contributed to manuscript revision, and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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