Long solids retention times and attached growth phase favor prevalence of comammox

bacteria in nitrogen removal systems.

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Highlights

• Clade A comammox bacteria were detected in wastewater nitrogen removal systems.

• New qPCR assay targeting the *amoB* gene of clade A comammox bacteria was developed.

• Comammox bacteria are prevalent in mainstream conventional and simultaneous

nitrification-denitrification systems with long solids retention times (>10 days).

• Comammox bacteria were not detected in sidestream partial nitrification-anammox

systems included in this study.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

ABSTRACT

The discovery of the complete ammonia oxidizing (comammox) bacteria overturns the traditional two-organism nitrification paradigm which largely underpins the design and operation of nitrogen removal during wastewater treatment. Quantifying the abundance, diversity, and activity of comammox bacteria in wastewater treatment systems is important for ensuring a clear understanding of the nitrogen biotransformations responsible for ammonia removal. To this end, we conducted a yearlong survey of 14 full-scale nitrogen removal systems including mainstream conventional and simultaneous nitrification-denitrification and side-stream partial nitrification-anammox systems with varying process configurations. Metagenomics and genome-resolved metagenomics identified comammox bacteria in mainstream conventional and simultaneous nitrification-denitrification systems, with no evidence for their presence in side-stream partial nitrification-anammox systems. Further, comammox bacterial diversity was restricted to clade A and these clade A comammox bacteria were detected in systems with long solids retention times (>10 days) and/or in the attached growth phase. Using a newly designed qPCR assay targeting the *amoB* gene of clade A comammox bacteria in combination with quantitation of other canonical nitrifiers, we show that long solids retention time is the key process parameter associated with the prevalence and abundance of comammox bacteria. The increase in comammox bacterial abundance was not associated with concomitant decrease in the abundance of canonical nitrifiers; however, systems with comammox bacteria showed significantly better and temporally stable ammonia removal compared to systems where they were not detected. Finally, in contrast to recent studies, we do not find any significant association of comammox bacterial prevalence and abundance with dissolved oxygen concentrations in this study.

1.0 Introduction

Nitrification, the oxidation of ammonia to nitrate via nitrite, coupled with denitrification where nitrate is reduced to dinitrogen gas are key processes in the removal of nitrogen from wastewater (Klotz and Stein 2008). Traditionally, nitrification was considered as a two-step process driven by two distinct nitrifying guilds, i.e., ammonia oxidation by the aerobic ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) (Kowalchuk and Stephen 2001) or archaea (AOA) (Stahl et al. 2012) followed by nitrite oxidation by the aerobic nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) ((Daims et al. 2016). Ammonia oxidizers within the *Betaproteobacteriales* genera *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrosospira* (Siripong and Rittmann 2007, Wu et al. 2019) and NOB within the genus *Nitrospira* (Juretschko et al. 1998, Wu et al. 2019) and more recently *Nitrotoga* (Saunders et al. 2016) are thought to be dominant nitrifiers in wastewater treatment systems. However, the discovery of complete ammonia oxidizing (i.e., comammox) bacteria (Daims et al. 2015, Pinto et al. 2015, van Kessel et al. 2015) has added new complexity to nitrogen biotransformation in wastewater systems. For instance, comammox bacteria can completely oxidize ammonia to nitrate and may compete with canonical AOB and NOB, as well as anaerobic ammonia oxidizing (anammox) bacteria in partial nitritation-anammox (PNA) systems, also known as deammonification systems. The potential competition for ammonia and possibly nitrite among comammox bacteria and other nitrifiers could have implications for process design and operation not only in wastewater treatment but also across other ecosystems.

Comammox bacteria have been detected in geothermal springs (Daims et al. 2015), aquaculture systems (van Kessel et al. 2015), drinking water (Pinto et al. 2015, Tatari et al. 2017, Wang et al. 2017), rapid gravity sand filters treating groundwater (Fowler et al. 2018, Palomo et al. 2016), soils (Hu and He 2017, Orellana et al. 2018), as well as a range of wastewater treatment bioreactors (Annavajhala et al. 2018, Camejo et al. 2017, Chao et al. 2016, Fan et al. 2017, Gonzalez-Martinez et al. 2016, Pjevac et al. 2017, Roots et al. 2019, Spasov et al. 2019, Wang et al. 2018, Xia et al. 2018). The key to evaluating the impact of comammox bacteria on wastewater process operations is to understand the impact of key process variables on whether comammox prevalence and abundance and in turn how this impacts overall activity and function of the engineered system. This can then help delineate laboratory-, pilot-, or even full-scale experiments to probe competitive dynamics between comammox bacteria and other nitrifiers in scenarios that are relevant from a process operations perspective. To address this issue, the current study presents a systematic year-

long evaluation of nitrifying populations, including comammox bacteria, in full-scale wastewater

treatment plants to provide a baseline of process configurations, operations, and environmental

conditions under which comammox bacteria might be important.

All detected comammox bacteria belong to genus *Nitrospira* (lineage II) and exhibit close

phylogenetic relatedness to canonical *Nitrospira*-NOB. Recent work suggests that the capacity to

oxidize ammonia via the ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) and hydroxylamine dehydrogenase

(HAO) enzymes may have been acquired by comammox *Nitrospira* via horizontal gene transfer

(Palomo et al. 2018). Nonetheless, the close phylogenetic affiliation of comammox bacteria with

canonical NOB represents a major challenge with their detection and quantitation. Specifically,

the 16S rRNA gene and subunits A (*nxrA*) and B (*nxrB*) of the nitrite oxidoreductase (NXR) genes

cannot distinguish between comammox bacteria from canonical NOB within the genus *Nitrospira*.

One alternative to identify and obtain relative abundance of comammox bacteria within a complex

nitrifying consortium involves the use of shotgun DNA sequencing (i.e., metagenomics). This has

been employed by several studies (Annavajhala et al. 2018, Camejo et al. 2017, Chao et al. 2016,

Fan et al. 2017, Gonzalez-Martinez et al. 2016, Pinto et al. 2015, Roots et al. 2019, Spasov et al.

2019, Xia et al. 2018) to demonstrate that comammox bacterial presence in wastewater systems is

primarily dominated by clade A comammox bacteria closely related to *Ca* Nitrospira nitrosa.

While metagenomics provides a snapshot overview, it is not ideally suited for high-throughput

profiling of large number of samples particularly for microbial groups that are typically low-to-

medium abundance (e.g., nitrifiers) due to sequencing cost and sequencing depth issues. To this

end, the ammonia monooxygenase (amo) gene sequences provide a convenient approach for

detection and quantitation. Specifically, both the subunit's A (*amoA*) and B (*amoB*) of the ammonia

monooxygenase genes form distinct clusters from other known AOB and AOA. This sequence

divergence has been used to develop primer sets targeting the *amoA* gene of clade A and clade B

comammox bacteria separately (Pjevac et al. 2017) and together (Bartelme et al. 2017, Fowler et

al. 2018, Wang et al. 2018). A consistent challenge with these primers is the formation of

unspecific products and our experience in the study suggests that they are also unable to capture

comammox bacteria detected via metagenomics (see results section). Alternatively, (Beach and

Noguera 2019) proposed the use of species specific primers that target comammox bacterial *amoA*

gene depending on the process of interest. For instance, they proposed that since *Ca* Nitrospira

nitrosa are dominant in low energy wastewater treatment systems, utilizing primers that capture

Ca Nitrospira nitrosa would be ideal. While this circumvents the challenge of unspecific product

formation, a species-specific approach eliminates the possibility of detecting other closely related

comammox bacteria. In this study, we used a metagenomic approach to recover *amoA* and *amoB*

genes from several full-scale nitrogen removal systems and use them in combination with

previously published gene sequences to design and validate clade level primers for the *amoB* gene

of clade A comammox bacteria; this is to our knowledge the primary comammox clade of

relevance of wastewater treatment systems.

The overall objectives of this study were (1) to identify nitrogen removal process configurations

for wastewater treatment where comammox bacteria are likely to be relevant, (2) develop a qPCR

assay for quantitation of comammox bacteria in complex nitrifying communities, and (3) perform

a temporal survey across a range of process configurations to determine the influence of

environmental and variable process operation conditions on the abundance of nitrifying

populations inclusive of comammox bacteria. This was accomplished through year-long

quantitative tracking of nitrifying populations in fourteen nitrogen removal systems with varying

process configuration using genome resolved metagenomics and qPCR combined with appropriate

statistical analyses.

2.0 Materials and Methods

2.1 Sampling sites, sample processing, and data collection.

Samples were collected on a monthly basis from June 2017 to June 2018 at fourteen nitrogen

removal systems which included seven full-scale suspended growth nitrification-denitrification

(ND) systems, one full-scale integrated fixed film activated sludge (IFAS) ND system, two full-

scale simultaneous ND (SND) systems, one full-scale suspended growth side stream PNA system,

and two full-scale IFAS PNA systems. Table 1 provides an overview of the nitrogen removal

systems sampled in this study. Sample collection and processing were conducted according to the

MIDAS field guide (McIlroy et al. 2015). Specifically, samples were collected from the nitrifying

bioreactors by operational personnel at each of the wastewater utilities and 100 ml of sample was

shipped overnight in coolers with icepacks to Northeastern University (NU). Immediately upon

arrival to NU, the samples were homogenized using the Hei-TORQUE Value 400 (Heidolph, Cat.

No. 036093070) in a 30-mL glass/Teflon tissue grinder (DWK Life Sciences Wheaton, Cat. No.

357984) for 1 minute (2nd gear, speed 9, 10 times from top to bottom of the glass tissue grinder)

following the MIDAS protocol, and four 1 mL homogenized aliquots per sample were transferred

to Lysing Matrix E tubes (MP Biomedical, Cat. No. 6914100). Samples were centrifuged at

10,000g for 5 minutes and the supernatant was discarded and biomass pellet was stored at -80°C

until DNA extraction. Further, ~20 mg of media attached biomass samples from the IFAS system

were also stored in Lysing Matrix E tubes at -80°C. In addition, the utilities provided data on pH,

temperature, ammonia, nitrite, nitrate, chemical oxygen demand (COD), biological oxygen

demand (BOD), total suspended solids (TSS), volatile suspended solids (VSS), mixed liquor TSS

(MLSS) and mixed liquor VSS (MLVSS) from the influent, nitrification reactor, and effluent for

each sampling time point, as well as hydraulic retention time (HRT), solids retention time (SRT)

and dissolved oxygen (DO) data from the nitrification reactors.

Table 1: Overview of sampling locations, sampling scheme used in this manuscript, process type and sub-type, operational scale and sampling time-frame for this study.

Site code	Process type	Process sub-type	Treatment stream	Sampling Start (mm/yy)	Sampling End (mm/yy)
NEU	ND[1]	Four/five stage	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
DUR	PNA[2]	Anitamox	Sidestream	06/17	06/18
YAN	SND[3]	ORP control[a]	Mainstream	11/17	05/18
GRE	ND[1]	SBR[b]	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
DCWM	ND[1]	Five stage	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
KIN	ND[1]	MBR/MLE[c]	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
WIL	ND[1]	Five stage	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
JAMM	ND[1]	IFAS[d]	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
JAMS	PNA[2]	Anitamox	Sidestream	06/17	06/18
YORM	ND[1]	Conventional	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
YORS	PNA[2]	DEMON	Sidestream	06/17	06/18
BOA	ND[1]	High MLSS	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
NAN	SND[3]	Five stage	Mainstream	06/17	06/18
ARM	ND[1]	Five stage	Mainstream	06/17	06/18

[1]Nitrification-denitrification, [2]Partial nitritation-anammox, [3]Simultaneous nitrification-denitrification, [a]Oxidative-Reduction Potential Control, [b]Sequencing batch reactor, [c]Membrane bioreactor/Modified Ludzack-Ettinger, [d]Integrated Fixed-film Activated Sludge

2.2 DNA extraction.

Samples were subject to DNA extraction using the DNAeasy PowerSoil kit (Qiagen, Inc., Cat.

No.12888) with automated extraction instrument QIAcube (Qiagen, Inc., Cat. No. 9002160)

following manufacturer instructions with some modifications in the sample preparation step.

Briefly, the lysing buffer from the PowerBead Tubes provided in the DNAeasy PowerSoil kit was

transferred to the lysing matrix tubes containing the samples and 60 µL of Solution C1 from the

kit was added to each sample. To complete cell lysis, bead-beating was performed using a

FastPrep-24 instrument (MP Bio, Cat. No. 116005500) four times for 40 seconds each (McIlroy

et al. 2015). Between each 40 second bead beating interval, samples were kept on ice for 2 min to

prevent excess heating. Samples were centrifuged at 10,000g for 30 seconds and the supernatant

was further purified using the QIAcube Protocol Sheet for the DNeasy PowerSoil Kit. Ten samples

and two blanks (only reagents) were extracted for each DNA extraction run. Extracted DNA was

quantified using Qubit instrument with Qubit dsDNA Broad Range Assay (ThermoFisher

Scientific, Cat. No. Q32850) and a subset of samples were randomly selected for analysis using

1% agarose gel electrophoresis to visualize DNA shearing. Extracted DNA concentrations ranged

from 2 to 254 ng/µL. DNA extracts were stored at -80°C until further analysis.

2.3 Metagenomic sequencing and data analyses.

One sample from each system was selected for metagenomic sequencing based on qPCR estimates

of AOB and *Nitrospira* (see qPCR details in section 2.4). Specifically, samples with high

Nitrospira:AOB ratios were selected for metagenomic sequencing under the assumption that these

samples were likely to consist of comammox *Nitrospira* bacteria. For systems that included

distinct suspended and attached growth phase (e.g., IFAS system from JAMM and PNA systems

from JAMS and DUR), one sample each for the attached and suspended phase were included in

the sequencing run resulting in a total of 18 metagenomes. Extracted DNA was shipped frozen to

the Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center at University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign Sequencing

Core for sequencing. The DNA extracts were subject to PCR-free library preparation using Hyper

Library construction kit from Kapa Biosystems and subsequently sequenced on 300 cycle run

(2x150nt reads) on two lanes of Illumina HiSeq 4000. This resulted in a total of 1.35 billion paired-

end reads. Raw data for these 18 metagenomes was deposited in NCBI with bioproject number

PRJNA552823. The reads were subject to adaptor removal and quality trimming using

Trimmomatic (Bolger et al. 2014) which included adaptor removal, clipping of the first and last

three bases, trimming of sequences where four-bp sliding window quality threshold was below

Q20, and discarding of all trimmed sequences less than 75 bp in length. This resulted in a total of

1.03 billion paired end reads which were analyzed using a few different approaches (see below).

2.3.1 Reference genomes based annotation.

A total of 53 publicly available Genomes/genome assemblies for nitrifying organisms were

downloaded from NCBI (RefSeq version 86) (Table S1). This included genome assemblies for 12

AOA, five anammox bacteria, 17 AOB, 10 comammox bacteria, and nine NOB. Reads from all

samples were competitively mapped to the reference genomes using bwa (Li and Durbin 2010)

followed by extraction of properly paired mapped reads (samtools view -f2) using SAMtools (Li

et al. 2009). The extracted reads were then again competitively aligned against reference genomes

using BLAST (Altschul et al. 1990) with a criterion of 90% sequence identity and 90% read

coverage. The reads per kilobase million (RPKM) metric was used as a measure of the reference

genome relative abundance in each sample and was estimated by dividing the number of reads

aligning to reference genome at aforementioned criteria with the number of kilobases in each

reference genome and the millions of reads per sample.

2.3.2 SSU rRNA based community characterization.

The paired end metagenomic reads were assembled using MATAM (Pericard et al. 2018) with the

SILVA SSU rRNA (Release 132) database (Quast et al. 2013) as the reference for assembly of the

16S rRNA genes with a minimum 16S rRNA gene length threshold of 500 bp. The assembled 16S

rRNA genes were classified against the RDP database (Cole et al. 2014) using Naïve Bayesian

classifier approach (Wang et al. 2007). The relative abundance of each 16S rRNA gene was

estimated by dividing the number of reads mapping to each MATAM assembled 16S rRNA gene

with the total number of reads mapping to all assembled 16S rRNA genes per sample.

2.3.3 Gene-centric de novo assembly.

The paired end reads from each sample assembled into contigs using metaSpades (Nurk et al.

2017); where two sets of reads were available from attached and suspended phase from same

bioreactor (i.e., JAMM, JAMS, DUR) or from two parallel operated bioreactors (GRE), these were

co-assembled. MetaSpades assembly/co-assembly was carried out with kmers 21, 33, 55, 77, 99,

and 127. The assembled contigs were filtered to remove all contigs smaller than 500 bp and subject

to gene calling using prodigal (Hyatt et al. 2010) and annotation against the KEGG database

(Kanehisa et al. 2016) using DIAMOND (Buchfink et al. 2015). Genes identified as encoding for

amoA (KO:K10944), *amoB* (KO:K10945), and *nxrA* (KO:K00370) were extracted for further

analyses. An analysis of genes assembled using *de novo* assembly approach for the complete

metagenome revealed that several of the identified genes were highly fragmented. To circumvent

this limitation, gene-centric *de novo* assembly was used. Specifically, paired end reads were

mapped to a curated amino acid database of *amoA*, *amoB*, and nxrA genes using DIAMOND

(Buchfink et al. 2015). The mapped reads were then assembled into contigs metaSpades (Nurk et

al. 2017), followed by gene calling using prodigal (Hyatt et al. 2010) and annotation against the

KEGG database (Kanehisa et al. 2016). The *amoA*, *amoB*, and *nxrA* genes identified using the

complete and gene-targeted *de novo* assembly approach were combined, de-duplicated, and further

curated by evaluating phylogenetic placement of assembled genes. Specifically, reference

alignments for *amoA*, *amoB*, and *nxrA* genes were created by extracting corresponding genes from

the reference assemblies and aligning with MUSCLE (Edgar 2004) followed by construction of a

reference tree for each gene using RAxML (Stamatakis 2014). The *amoA*, *amoB*, and *nxrA* genes

were placed on the gene-specific reference tree using pplacer (Matsen et al. 2010). Annotated

genes that did not conform to known phylogeny of *amoA* and *amoB* for AOB, AOA, and

comammox bacteria and *nxrA* genes for NOB and comammox bacteria were discarded. Finally,

the relative abundance of the curated genes in each sample was estimated using the RPKM metric.

Specifically, the sum of reads mapping to contig containing gene of interest per sample were

divided by number of kilobases in for each contig and the millions of reads per sample.

2.3.4 Recovery, phylogenomic placement, and annotation of Nitrospira metagenome

assembled genomes.

Assembled contigs from nine metagenomes corresponding to seven nitrogen removal systems

where comammox bacteria were detected (i.e., DCWM, GRE1/GRE2, JAMM/JAMMSM, KIN,

NEU, WIL, and YAN) were pooled. Reads from each metagenome were mapped to all contigs

with bowtie2 (default parameters, version 2.1.0) (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) prior to binning

with MetaBAT2 (-m 2000, version 2.12.1) (Kang et al. 2015). The completion and redundancy of

the resulting bins were estimated with CheckM (lineage_wf, version 1.0.12) (Parks et al. 2015).

Reads mapping to bins ≥ 50% complete were extracted and used to re-assemble the bin with

Unicycler (default parameters, version 0.4.7) (Bankevich et al. 2012, Li et al. 2009, Wick et al.

2017). The quality and taxonomy of re-assembled bins were evaluated with CheckM (Parks et al.

2015) and the Genome Taxonomy Database Toolkit (GTDB-Tk 0.2.2, database release r86 v3)

(Parks et al. 2018). Bins greater than 70% complete and classified as Nitrospira by GTDB-Tk were

retained for manual refinement with Anvi'o (Eren et al. 2015). Following refinement, the quality

and taxonomy of the bins were re-assessed with CheckM (Parks et al. 2015) and the Genome

Taxonomy Database Toolkit (Parks et al. 2018), selecting metagenome assembled genomes

(MAGs) with completeness and redundancy estimates of ≥ 70% and ≤ 10%, respectively. Open

reading frames (ORFs) were predicted using Prodigal (Hyatt et al. 2010) v2.6.3 for all *Nitrospira*

MAGs recovered from this study (n=10). KEGG orthologies (KO) were assigned to predicted

ORF's in these 10 genomes against 10,108 HMM models of prokaryota in KEGG(Kanehisa et al.

2016) database v90.1 using kofamscan (Aramaki et al. 2019). To investigate the phylogeny of

these 10 *Nitrospira* MAGs recovered from this study, 32 previously publicly available N*itrospira*

genomes were downloaded from Genbank (Table S2) (Poghosyan et al. 2019) and used as

reference genomes for phylogenetic tree reconstruction. Phylogenomic tree reconstruction was

conducted by Anvi'o (Eren et al. 2015) v5.5. ORFs were predicted for aforementioned 32 reference

genomes and 10 MAGs from this study using Prodigal (version 2.6.3) (Hyatt et al. 2010)   and

then searched against a collection of HMM models summarized by Campbell et al. (Campbell et

al. 2011) using hmmscan (version 3.2.1) (Eddy 2011) including 48 ribosomal proteins. Only

genomes containing more than genes encoding for 40 of the 48 ribosomal proteins were included

in downstream phylogenomic analyses. Alignments for each gene were conducted using muscle

(Edgar 2004), alignments were concatenated, and finally phylogenomic tree was constructed using

FastTree (version 2.1.7) (Price et al. 2010).

2.4 Quantitative PCR for total bacteria and nitrifying populations and design of primers

targeting *amoB* gene of clade A comammox bacteria.

PCR thermocycling and reaction mix conditions of previously published primer sets for qPCR-

based quantification of 16S rRNA gene of total bacteria (Caporaso et al. 2011), AOB (Hermansson

and Lindgren 2001) and *Nitrospira* (Graham et al. 2007) and ammonia monoxygenase subunit A

(*amoA*) gene for AOB (Rotthauwe et al. 1997) are shown in Table 2. Further, qPCR assays

targeting the *amoA* gene of comammox bacteria were conducted using previously published primer

sets (Fowler et al. 2018, Pjevac et al. 2017) and additional comammox *amoA* primer sets designed

a part of this study (Table 2). However, these assays either resulted in unspecific product formation

and non-detection of comammox bacteria in samples where metagenomic analyses indicated

presence of comammox bacteria. As a result, new primer sets targeting the *amoB* gene of clade A

comammox bacteria (only clade A comammox bacteria were detected via metagenomic analyses

in this study) were designed. To do this, the *amoB* genes assembled from the metagenomic data

were combined with *amoB* gene sequences from previous studies (Daims et al. 2015, Palomo et

al. 2016, Pinto et al. 2015, van Kessel et al. 2015) and two primer sets were designed (Table 2).

These new set of primers were tested with samples that were positive and negative for comammox

bacteria, along with DNA extracts from *Ca* Nitrospira inopinata as positive control involving

variation in annealing temperature, primer concentration, and template concentration.

The qPCR assays were performed on a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System (ThermoFisher

Scientific, Cat. No. A28567) in 20 µL reaction volume including: 10 µL Luna Universal qPCR

Master Mix (New England Biolabs, Inc., Cat. No. NC1276266), primers listed in Table 2, 5 µL of

10 times diluted DNA template and the required volume of DNAse/RNAse-Free water (Fisher

Scientific, Cat. No. 10977015) to reach 20 µL reaction. Reactions were prepared by the epMotion

M5073 liquid handling system (Eppendorf, Cat. No. 5073000205D) in triplicate. The cycling

conditions were as follows: initial denaturing at 95°C for 1 min followed by 40 cycles of denaturing

at 95°C for 15 s, annealing temperatures and times listed in Table 2, and extension at 72°C for 1

min. Melting curve analyses was performed at 95°C for 15 s, 60°C for 1 min, and 95°C for 15 s. A

negative control (NTC) and a standard curve ranging from 10^3-10^9 copies of 16S rRNA gene of

Nitrosomonas europaea for total bacteria assay and $10^2 – 10^8$ copies of 16S rRNA genes for

Nitrosomonas europaea and *Ca* Nitrospira inopinata for the AOB and *Nitrospira* assays,

respectively and $10^2 – 10^8$ copies for *amoA* of *Nitrosomonas europaea* and *Ca* Nitrospira inopinata

for the AOB and comammox assays, respectively and *amoB* gene of *Ca* Nitrospira inopinata for

the comammox assays were included in the qPCR analysis.

2.5 Statistical analyses.

Statistically significant differences in the abundance of nitrifying organisms between nitrogen removal systems was evaluated using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis or Wilcoxon rank sum test in R as appropriate (RCoreTeam 2014). Correlations between any two variables were determined using Spearman rank correlations and BIOENV analysis within the R package "vegan" to identify process and environmental variables that demonstrate significant correlation with changes in nitrifier population abundances. All statistical tests and figure generation (Wickham 2009) were performed in R (RCoreTeam 2014).

340 **Table 2**: A summary of qPCR primers used and tested as part of this study (*equimolar proportions of forward and/or reverse primers if multiple primers are used).

Primer set	Assay	Gene	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Product size (bp)	Annealing Temp (ºC)/Time (sec)	Reference
F515 - R806	Total bacteria	16S rRNA	GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA	GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT	291	50/15	(Caporaso et al. 2011)
CTO189FA/B/C* - RT1R	AOB	16S rRNA	GGAGRAAAGCAGGGGATCG GGAGGAAAGTAGGGGATCG	CGTCCTCTCAGACCARCTACTG	116	57/30	(Hermansson and Lindgren 2001)
amoA1F - 2R	AOB	*amoA*	GGGG TTTCTACTGGTGGT	CCCCTCKGSAAAGCCTTCTTC	491	54/30	(Rotthauwe et al. 1997)
Nspra675F - 746R	Nitrospira	16S rRNA	GCGGTGAAATGCGTAGAKATCG	TCAGCGTCAGRWAYGTTCCAGAG	93	58/30	(Graham et al. 2007)
comaA-D 244F - 659R	Comammox (clade A)	*amoA*	TAYAAYTGGGTSAAYTA	ARATCATSGTGCTRTG	415	52/45	(Pjevac et al. 2017)
comaB-D 244F - 659R	Comammox (clade B)	*amoA*	TAYTTCTGGACRTTYTA	ARATCCARACDGTGTG	415	52/45	(Pjevac et al. 2017)
comaA 244F* - 659R*	Comammox (clade A)	*amoA*	TACAACTGGGTGAACTA TATAACTGGGTGAACTA TACAATTGGGTGAACTA TACAACTGGGTCAACTA TACAACTGGGTCAATTA TATAACTGGGTCAATTA	AGATCATGGTGCTATG AAATCATGGTGCTATG AGATCATGGTGCTGTG AAATCATGGTGCTGTG AGATCATCGTGCTGTG AAATCATCGTGCTGTG	415	52/45	(Pjevac et al. 2017)
comaB 244F*- 659R*	Comammox (clade B)	*amoA*	TAYTTCTGGACGTTCTA TAYTTCTGGACATTCTA TACTTCTGGACTTTCTA TAYTTCTGGACGTTTTA TAYTTCTGGACATTTTA TACTTCTGGACCTTCTA	ARATCCAGACGGTGTG ARATCCAAACGGTGTG ARATCCAGACAGTGTG ARATCCAAACAGTGTG AGATCCAGACTGTGTG AGATCCAAACAGTGTG	415	52/45	(Pjevac et al. 2017)
Ntspa-amoA 162F - 359R	Comammox	*amoA*	GGATTTCTGGNTSGATTGGA	WAGTTNGACCACCASTACCA	197	52/45	(Fowler et al. 2018)
comaA - F/R	Comammox (clade A)	*amoA*	CARTGGTGGCCBATCGT	TTNGACCACCACCACCA	170	52/45	This study
comaB - F/R	Comammox (clade B)	*amoA*	GGNGACTGGGAYTTCTGG	GCCCACCARTACCARGC	190	52/45	This study
Cmx_amoB_1	Comammox (clade A)	*amoB*	TGACSATGGATAABGAGG	TCCGGATCGTGRAGAATGTC TCTGGATCGTGRAGAATGTC	114	52/45	This study
Cmx_amoB_2	Comammox (clade A)	*amoB*	TGGTAYGAYACNGAATGGG	CCCGTGATRTCCATCCA	337	52/45	This study

3.0 Results and Discussion

3.1 Overview of nitrogen removal systems included in this study.

As part of this study, we sampled fourteen full-scale nitrogen removal systems of varying process configurations. Specifically, we sampled nine nitrification-denitrification (ND), two simultaneous nitrification-denitrification (SND) mainstream systems, and three partial nitrification-anammox (PNA) sidestream systems with diverse process subtypes (Table 1). The process sub-types ranged from multi-stage suspended growth systems with secondary clarification to sequencing batch reactors (SBRs) ones to membrane bioreactors (KIN) to systems with significant attached growth components (e.g., DUR, JAMM, JAMS). The typical process parameters for each of these systems is shown in Figure 1. All nitrogen removal systems included in this study performed normally during this study with no significant and sustained process upset.

Figure 1: Overview of key process parameters and performance metrics monitored as part of this study for 14 nitrogen removal systems. Column indicated with "*" indicates lack of relevant process data for the respective nitrogen removal system.

3.2 Identification of nitrifying populations using reference genome mapping and 16S rRNA gene assembly.

Mapping of reads to reference genomes indicated that *Nitrospira*-like bacteria were dominant members of the nitrifying communities in all ND and SND systems followed by *Nitrosomonas*-like bacteria, with no or very low detection of AOA (Figure 2A). Nearly all detected AOB belonged to the genus *Nitrosomonas* with low levels of detection of AOB within the genera *Nitrosococcus* and *Nitrosospira* in two systems (i.e., ARM and BOA). Metagenomic reads mapped to comammox references genomes within the genus *Nitrospira* for samples from six ND and one SND system, with abundances higher than canonical *Nitrospira*-NOB for three ND systems (i.e., GRE, KIN, and NEU) and one SND system (i.e., YAN). Genera containing other canonical NOB, i.e. *Nitrotoga* and *Nitrobacter*, were detected in two ND and one SND system with *Nitrotoga* being the primary NOB in BOA. Mapping of metagenomic reads from PNA systems to reference genomes primarily resulted in the detection of anammox bacteria (genus: *Brocadia*) and AOB (genus: *Nitrosomonas*), with no detectable presence of *Nitrospira*. It is important to note that while metagenomic reference genome based approach may be useful for detection of organisms, its quantitative value is limited. This limitation likely emerges from the reliance of a reference database of genomes and the stringent criteria used for read mapping (i.e., 90% sequence identity between metagenomic read over 90% of the read length). Thus, it is possible that the significant over representation of *Nitrospira* in the metagenomic reference genome-based approach emerges from a high level of genomic similarity between *Nitrospira* in the samples and in the reference database and under representation of AOB emerges from a low level of genomic similarity between AOB in the samples and in the reference database. This is the most likely scenario because genomic similarity between organisms within the same genus can be as low as 75% (Jain et al. 2018).

In contrast, a subset of genes (particularly ribosomal genes) may be far more reliable for relative quantitation of microbial abundance within the larger community. Thus, we used MATAM to identify reads originating from the 16S rRNA gene within each metagenomic sample and subsequently assemble them and finally determine the relative abundance of each gene in the sample microbial community. The reference genome mapping results were largely consistent with classification of MATAM-assembled 16S rRNA genes (Figure 2B) with *Nitrospira*- and

Nitrosomonas-like bacteria dominant in ND and SND systems and *Brocadia*- and *Nitrosomonas*-

like bacteria being dominant in PNA systems. Three of the 14 systems included in this study

consisted of distinct suspended and attached growth phase, i.e., ND IFAS system (i.e., JAMM)

and two side-stream PNA systems (DUR and JAMS). Relative abundances of *Nitrospira*- and

Nitrosomonas-like bacteria were similar between the suspended and attached growth phase for

JAMM while *Brocadia*-like bacteria were enriched in the attached growth phase for DUR and

JAMS. The key differences between reference genome- and 16S rRNA gene analyses were for the

PNA systems and one ND system (i.e., BOA). Specifically, *Nitrospira*-like bacteria were also

detected in all PNA system included in this study using 16S rRNA gene analyses compared to

reference mapping of metagenomics reads and while *Nitrolancea*-like bacteria were the primary

nitrifying bacteria in BOA, 16S rRNA gene analyses suggested high abundance of *Brocadia*-like

bacteria in KIN as well. The discrepancies between reference genome based analyses and 16S

rRNA gene assembly based analyses may result from the limitation of the prior (as stated above),

inefficient assembly of 16S rRNA genes due to highly conserved regions (Miller et al. 2011,

Pericard et al. 2018), or a combination of both.

Figure 2: Relative abundance of nitrifying organisms in nitrogen removal systems based on (A) mapping of reads to reference genomes and (B) classification of MATAM assembled 16S rRNA genes. Bar colors indicate type of nitrifying organism detected (see color legend below each figure), while facet color indicates process type (i.e., red: PNA, Blue: ND, and Yellow: SND). GRE1/GRE2* panels present abundance of nitrifying populations from two different reactors at the same treatment plant. JAMM/JAMMSM**, DUR/DURSM***, and JAMS/JAMSSM**** panels present abundance of nitrifying populations in the suspended phase and attached growth phase of the system, respectively.

3.3 Functional gene based metagenomic identification of ammonia and nitrite oxidizing bacteria.

Mapping of reads to curated *amoA*, *amoB*, and *nxrA* genes, followed by gene-centric *de novo* assembly was used to detect and estimate the relative abundance of AOB, comammox bacteria, and NOB in the metagenomic datasets from the 14 systems. Subsequently, all assembled and annotated genes were placed on gene specific phylogenetic trees to eliminate potentially misannotated *amoA*, *amoB*, and *nxrA* genes. This analysis revealed that nearly all annotated AOB belonged to *Betaproteobacteriales* (Figure 3A) and contained representative sequences from ND, SND, and PNA systems, while *amoA* and *amoB* sequences from comammox bacteria were detected in DCWM, GRE, JAMM/JAMMSM, KIN, NEU, WIL, and YAN (Figure 3B). These results are qualitatively consistent (i.e., presence/absence of comammox bacteria) with those obtained by reference genome based analyses of comammox bacteria. The relative abundance of comammox bacteria was higher than AOB in JAMM/JAMMSM, while both were equally abundant two ND systems (i.e., GRE and NEU) and one SND system (i.e., YAN). In contrast, comammox were less abundant than AOB in DCWM and WIL; both of these are ND systems. Interestingly, no AOB were detected in KIN (an MBR/MLE system) with comammox being the only ammonia oxidizer. The results for KIN were consistent with that of reference genome based and 16S rRNA gene based analyses, where no AOB were detected. Further, the similarity in relative abundance of *amoA*, *amoB*, and *nxrA* genes indicates that all detected *Nitrospira* bacteria in this system are likely to be comammox bacteria. The non-detection of other AOB (e.g., *Nitrosospira*, *Nitrosococcus*) and NOB (e.g., *Nitrotoga*) that were detected by reference genome based or 16S rRNA gene assembly based analyses could be due to challenges with *de novo* assembly genes from low abundance microorganisms (i.e., insufficient sequencing depth and thus low coverage).

A consistent aspect of systems with prevalent comammox populations was their high total solids retention time (SRT). For instance, KIN is an MBR system with an estimated SRT of ~30 days, DCWM is a ND system with a total SRT of ~30 days, and GRE is an SBR system with an SRT > 30 day. While JAMM/JAMMSM (i.e., James River) has an SRT of 2.5 days for the suspended phase, this is an IFAS system with a significant attached growth component. This suggests that irrespective of the process configuration type (ND, SND) and/or mode of operation (continuous,

SBR, attached growth), the key similarity among comammox prevalent systems is their high SRT
or presence of attached growth component (i.e., implicitly high SRT). This is consistent with
thermodynamic and metabolic pathway modeling that suggests that comammox bacteria have a
very low specific growth rates compared to AOB and NOB (Costa et al. 2006). For instance, recent
literature suggests that comammox maximum specific growth rates are 3-10, 5-11, and 2 times
lower than that of Nitrospira-NOB, AOB, and AOA (Kits et al. 2017, Lawson and Lücker 2018).
While this explains the prevalence of comammox in long SRT system, it does not explain the
absence of AOA in these systems. While AOA are highly prevalent in other ecosystems (i.e., soils,
drinking water, marine environments) (Prosser and Nicol 2008), they are rarely detected in
wastewater systems (Chao et al. 2016, Pjevac et al. 2017) including those in this project. It is
plausible that the absence of AOA and presence of comammox may be explained by the difference
in their affinity for ammonia, i.e., AOA with K_m (NH$_3$) ranging from 0.36 to 4.4 μM compared
with reported *Ca* Nitrospira inopinata K_m (NH$_3$) of 0.049 μM (Kits et al. 2017, Lawson and Lücker
2018).

Figure 3: (A) Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of *amoA* genes recovered from gene centric *de novo* assembly along with reference *amoA* and *pmoA* gene sequences. Clades are colored by functional grouping and labels for reference sequences within each cluster are colored according to the functional group, while amoA sequences recovered from this study are shown in black labels. Red and orange arrows indicate amoA gene sequences recovered from PNA and SND systems respectively, while those recovered from ND systems are not annotated. amoA gene sequences from YAN and KIN are not shown in the phylogenetic tree due to recovery of short sequences not suitable for tree construction. (B) Abundance (RPKM) of amoA, amoB gene sequences of AOB and comammox bacteria, and nxrA gene sequences of Nitrospira are shown. (C) Phylogenetic placement of Nitrospira MAGs (red label) with 32 reference genomes (black label). Clade A (black squares), clade B (grey squares) comammox bacteria and canonical NOB (open squares).

All comammox based *amoA* and *amoB* gene sequences detected using metagenomic sequencing

closely clustered with *Ca* Nitrospira nitrosa and distinct from other clade A bacteria (e.g., *Ca*

Nitrospira nitrificans, *Ca* Nitrospira inopinata) (Figure 3B). Further, all Nitrospira MAG's

recovered from the genome binning process were associated with either lineage 1 or 2 *Nitrospira*

and included six canonical NOB and four clade A comammox. Genome statistics for the recovered

MAGs are shown in Table 3. Consistent with previously described clade A comammox bacteria,

all comammox MAGs contained some or all genes associated with both ammonia and nitrite oxidation, except for *Nitrospira* MAG 248 which is likely due to lower completeness (i.e., 70%). Similarly, these comammox MAG's contained genes involved in urea uptake and hydrolysis - a feature shared with the other recovered canonical *Nitrospira* NOB MAGs. Further, similar to other clade A comammox bacteria, the recovered comammox MAG's lacked ammonium transporter (Amt) or any of formate dehydrogenase genes which are reported present in clade B comammox as well as canonical NOB within lineage II *Nitrospira* (Poghosyan et al. 2019). Finally, similar to previously reported clade A comammox bacteria, the comammox MAG's recovered in this study also indicated presence of genes associated with group 3b [NiFe] hydrogenase.

Table 3: Statistics of the Nitrospira MAG's assembled in this study and their functional grouping.

Nitrospira MAGs	79	137	149	237	242	245	246	248	266	275
Nitrospira lineage	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1
Completeness (%)	94.94	87.92	75.23	93.3	89.09	82.17	84.94	70.99	71.75	97.67
Redundancy (%)	1.36	9.15	1.14	3.86	2.36	4.6	4.09	2.12	1.75	1.36
Genome size (Mbp)	3.49	4.07	3.08	4.54	4.02	3.8	3.78	2.59	1.88	3.91
GC content	59.14	58.05	54.87	54.83	58.41	54.64	58.36	54.86	58.42	58.79
Number of contigs	136	410	229	48	114	203	98	412	179	54
N50 of contigs	40833	25623	21078	171941	177531	34975	85503	8266	19532	794701
genes	3361	4115	3141	4498	3886	3779	3694	2693	1842	3753
Protein coding genes	3322	4062	3113	4455	3845	3743	3653	2668	1821	3708
rRNA	0	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
tRNA	38	51	26	40	41	36	41	25	21	44
Functional group	NOB	NOB	CMX	CMX	NOB	CMX	NOB	CMX	NOB	NOB

3.4 Development of qPCR assay for quantitative detection of comammox bacteria.

We used previously developed primer sets (Fowler et al. 2018, Pjevac et al. 2017) to quantify the abundance of comammox bacteria in samples collected as part of the study (Table 2). Pjevac et al. (2017) provided two different primer sets targeting the *amoA* gene both clade A and clade B comammox bacteria; one primer set was the degenerate primer set while the other contained an equimolar proportion of six forward and six reverse primers. In contrast, Fowler et al. (2017) developed a single primer set targeting the *amoA* gene of both clade A and clade B comammox

bacteria. While both primer sets showed excellent PCR efficiency with DNA extracts from pure
culture of *Ca* Nitrospira inopinata, efforts to PCR amplify the *amoA* gene from samples included
in this study demonstrated either non-detection of comammox bacteria in the six systems with
metagenomic evidence of their presence or unspecific product formation (Figure 4A, B). This was
also consistent for *amoA* specific primers designed in this study (Table 2). The same issue was
also highlighted by Beach and Noguera, (2019), who suggested the use of species primers for
comammox detection based on the system of interest (i.e., wastewater, drinking water, etc). The
comammox *amoA* primers were also tested against the comammox *amoA* genes recovered from
the metagenomic sequencing data. This *in silico* analysis indicated that primer sets comaA-D
(244f-659R), comaA (244F-659R), and comA-F/R matched recovered *amoA* genes, yet the issue
with unspecific product amplification and non-detects in some samples were persistent despite
additional efforts to optimize annealing temperatures, template concentration and PCR additives
(i.e., DMSO, BSA, magnesium, etc). Therefore, we developed new primer sets targeting the *amoB*
gene of comammox bacteria, specifically clade A comammox bacteria; the primary comammox
clade detected in our study and in wastewater treatment systems by recent studies (Chao et al.
2016, Pjevac et al. 2017, Roots et al. 2019, Spasov et al. 2019). The *amoB* gene exhibits
phylogenetic clustering consistent with that of *amoA* gene and places comammox bacteria in a
distinct cluster from all other ammonia oxidizers. Thus, we developed two primers sets targeting
the *amoB* gene of comammox bacteria with an expected product size of 114 and 337 bp. Both
primer sets resulted in high specificity (i.e., no unspecific amplification) (Figure 4C), high PCR
efficiency (~94%) (Figure 4D), and a clean melting curve (Figure 4E). Further, the qPCR bases
estimates of the ratio of comammox bacteria (determined using *amoB* specific primers) to total
ammonia oxidizers was highly correlated for the ratio of comammox bacteria to total ammonia
oxidizers determined using metagenomic data involving gene centric *de novo* assembly (Figure
4F) and mapping of metagenomic reads to reference genomes (Figure 4G). This suggests that the
newly designed primers are specific to clade A comammox bacteria and accurately capture their
abundance in complex nitrifying communities.

Figure 4: Previously published primer sets for the amoA gene of comammox bacteria, i.e. (A) comaA, and (B) Ntspa-amoA, result in non-detection and unspecific amplification samples from DCWM, GRE, JAMM, KIN, NEU where comammox bacteria were detected using metagenomics. In contrast the newly designed *amoB* specific primers (C) result in a single band formation of the right size for these samples which is consistent with that amplified from Ca Nitrospira inopinata (N.in). BLK stands for PCR negative control. The primers exhibit excellent PCR efficiency (D), demonstrate clean melting curves (E), and provide estimates of comammox bacterial abundance consistent with those seen in PCR-free metagenomics analyses (F, G).

3.5 Quantitative detection of nitrifying populations including comammox bacteria.

Initial assessment of qPCR results from the *amoA* assay for AOB underestimated AOB abundance when compared to the qPCR data targeting the 16S rRNA gene for AOB (Supplemental Figure S1). In contrast, 16S rRNA gene based qPCR estimates for AOB were consistent with those obtained using metagenomics (Supplemental Figure S1). This issue was also reported by Dechesne et al. (2016) (Dechesne et al. 2016) who indicated that a*moA* primer sets do not provide sufficient

coverage for AOB, while the 16S rRNA primer sets likely capture some non-AOB sequences as
well. Our analyses suggest that while *amoA* primer sets did not provide sufficient coverage for
AOB in our study, comparisons with metagenomic data indicated no evidence on unspecific non-
AOB detection with 16S rRNA gene primers. As a result, all subsequent measurements of AOB
were conducted using 16S rRNA gene based assays.

Canonical AOB and *Nitrospira* (including comammox and NOB) were detected in all systems
irrespective of the nitrogen removal process configuration. The relative abundance of both groups
ranges from 0.25 to 9% of total bacteria with an average of 1.71 and 1.65%, respectively, except
for *Nitrospira* in the attached growth of JAMM/JAMMSM which reached a maximum relative
abundance of 20% with an average of 8.56% (Figure 5A, B). For several systems, the abundance
of *Nitrospira* in proportion to AOB was significantly and consistently above what would be
expected if nitrification was being driven by AOB and NOB alone. These included the following
ND systems: DCWM, attached growth phase of JAMM (i.e., JAMMSM), KIN, SND system:
YAN, and PNA systems: attached growth phase of JAMS (i.e., JAMS). While comammox
bacteria were detected in most systems with higher proportional abundance of *Nitrospira* over
AOB (except for the PNA system: JAMS), the presence of comammox bacteria was not exclusive
to them (Figure 5B). For instance, comammox bacteria were also detected in GRE and NEU where
the abundance of *Nitrospira* and AOB were largely in line with expected proportions if nitrification
was primarily driven by AOB and NOB (Costa et al. 2006). Comammox bacteria were not detected
in four ND systems (ARM, BOA, NAN, YORM), one SND system (NAN), and the three PNA
systems (DUR/DURSM, JAMS/JAMSSM, YORS), which was consistent with metagenomic
observations. In all, comammox bacteria were detected in six ND systems (i.e., DCWM, GRE,
NEU, WIL, KIN, JAM/JAMSM) and one SND system (i.e., YAN). The abundance of comammox
bacteria in these systems ranged from 0.5% to ~3% of total bacteria in the suspended growth phase,
while it was as high (as high as ~17%) in the attached phase of the IFAS systems (i.e., JAMMSM).
In systems that included only suspended growth phase, comammox bacteria constituted between
20-70% of all ammonia oxidizers (i.e., AOB + comammox) for the duration of the study, with
abundances equal to that of AOB in two ND systems (i.e., GRE and NEU). The proportion of
comammox bacteria to that of total ammonia oxidizers varied significantly for two systems with

low dissolved oxygen, i.e., KIN (ND) and YAN (SND), from 1 to 70% and at times significantly

surpassed that of AOB.

Figure 5: (A) Comparison of the abundance of Nitrospira (% of total bacteria) to that of AOB (% of total bacteria) indicates that several systems with higher proportional abundance of Nitrospira when compared to the theoretical estimates (black line) if nitrification was being driven by AOB and NOB. (B) The abundance of AOB, Nitrospira-NOB, and comammox bacteria as a proportional of total bacterial abundance indicates that comammox bacteria were (1) consistently detected in systems with metagenomic evidence of their presence, (2) their abundance was lower than AOB in suspended growth systems where they were detected and high in systems with attached growth phase. Asterisks levels indicate samples from the same system.

3.6 Comammox bacterial abundance was strongly associated with solids retention time.

Comammox bacteria were prevalent and temporally persistent in systems with long SRTs, despite fluctuations in SRT levels within each system. The abundance of comammox bacteria as a proportion of all ammonia oxidizers (i.e., comammox + AOB) increased with increasing median SRT of the system (Figure 6A, 6B), with high abundances on the attached growth phase of the IFAS systems at JAMM. Further, the mean ammonia removal was typically higher in systems with comammox bacterial present compared to those without comammox bacteria (Wilcoxon rank sum test, p<0.0001) (Figure 6C). And finally, while comammox bacterial abundance increased with SRT (Figure 6F) (Spearman's R = 0.52, p <0.0001), the abundance of *Nitrospira*-NOB and AOB did not exhibit significant association with SRT (Figure 6D, E). This suggests that increases in comammox abundance may not be associated with a concomitant decrease in AOB or NOB concentrations.

These data provide two potential insights into comammox bacterial relevance in nitrogen removal systems and their potential competitive dynamics or lack thereof with canonical nitrifiers. First, as stated earlier (section 3.3), comammox bacteria are preferentially enriched in systems with long SRT's and systems with an attached phase component. While the prevalence in long SRT systems may be explained by their slower net growth rates compared to canonical AOB and NOB (Kits et al. 2017, Lawson and Lücker 2018), this does not provide basis for explaining their preferential enrichment over AOB and NOB with increasing SRT. It is also important to note that the AOB and NOB abundances were not associated with a concomitant increase in comammox bacterial abundance suggests that these bacteria may occupy exclusive niches within the nitrifying consortium. For instance, AOB and comammox may occupy independent niches at different ammonia concentrations due to different affinity levels for ammonia (Kits et al. 2017, Lawson and Lücker 2018) which may allow for their co-existence. In fact, in three ND systems (i.e., DCWM, NEU and YAN) and the IFAS ND system (i.e., JAMMSM) the concentrations of AOB and comammox were positively correlated (R = 0.53 (DCWM), 0.41 (NEU), 0.91 (YAN), 0.60 (JAMMSM), p<0.01), suggesting the potential for some level of cooperation between the two. Further, like other lineage II *Nitrospira*, comammox bacteria demonstrate potential to exhibit diverse metabolic capacities (Daims et al. 2016, Lawson and Lücker 2018) including genes involved in urea uptake and urease for conversion of urea to ammonia (Daims et al. 2016, Koch et

al. 2015, Lawson and Lücker 2018). Thus, it is plausible that the combination of greater metabolic

diversity (e.g., ability to utilize urea) and higher affinities for ammonia of comammox bacteria

compared to that of AOB, may ensure that comammox bacteria may have preferential access to

ammonia (or other electron donors) made available via increased biomass decay products at longer

SRTs. This could likely explain the increase in the abundance of comammox bacteria and not AOB

or NOB with increasing SRT.

The second insight is that systems with comammox bacteria may have higher ammonia removal

efficiencies compared to nitrogen removal systems where they are absent. It is important to note

that this statistically significant observation is confounded by the fact that systems with

comammox bacteria also exhibited higher SRT. Thus, it is difficult to disentangle the role of

comammox bacteria from that of SRT alone in explaining the differences in ammonia removal

efficiency. Finally, we did not find any other significant correlations between comammox bacterial

concentrations and proportions (of total bacteria and ammonia oxidizers) with any of the other

measured process parameters except including loading rates, pH, temperature, and dissolved

oxygen (DO) concentrations. The lack of association with DO concentrations is in contrast with

previous studies (Beach and Noguera 2019, Roots et al. 2019). In fact, comammox bacteria were

present and their abundances stable in systems with DO less than 1 mg/l (i.e., YAN, NEU) as well

as those with DO levels significantly in excess of 2 mg/l (i.e., GRE, JAMM, WIL, KIN). It is

important to note that correlations of comammox bacterial abundance and proportions with process

parameters were estimated on a system-by-system basis, with a maximum of 12 data points per

system. Thus, it is feasible that our correlation efforts were limited by the richness of our dataset

on an individual system basis, where multiple factors may together play a role in influencing

microbial community composition. Thus, while this does not eliminate the possibility that low DO

levels (or other process parameters) impact comammox bacteria, it suggests that SRT plays a more

prominent role compared to other process parameters in the selection of comammox bacteria in

full-scale mainstream nitrogen removal systems.

Figure 6: Increase in solids retention time (A) was associated with comammox bacteria constituting a greater proportion of all ammonia oxidizers (B). (C) Systems with comammox bacteria exhibited greater ammonia removal efficiencies compared to systems without comammox bacteria. This comparison does not include PNA systems. In contrast to AOB (D) and NOB (E), whose abundance was not associated with SRT, comammox bacterial abundance (F) was significantly and positively correlated with system SRT.

4.0 Conclusions

- Comammox bacteria were not prevalent in side-stream PNA systems, including single stage systems that contain attached growth and suspended phase components. This is likely to be associated with the high ambient ammonia concentrations in PNA systems.

- All comammox bacteria detected in full-scale systems belonged to clade A comammox bacteria and are closely associated with *Ca* Nitrospira nitrosa. This study provides a novel primer set and qPCR assay targeting the *amoB* gene of clade A comammox bacteria.

- Comammox bacteria were prevalent in full-scale mainstream nitrogen removal systems with long SRT's and/or systems with attached growth components. This finding is consistent with estimates of slower growth rates for comammox bacteria compared to canonical AOB and NOB.

- Increases in comammox bacterial abundance in systems with sufficient SRT and/or attached growth phase were not associated with a concomitant decrease in the abundance of canonical AOB or NOB indicating that they may occupy niche independent from that of canonical nitrifiers within complex nitrifying communities.

- We found no significant associations between DO concentrations and comammox presence/absence or concentration in this study. While this does not eliminate the possibility that low DO levels favor comammox bacteria in wastewater treatment systems, it suggests that SRT is the key variable driving the prevalence of comammox bacteria.

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