

1 Active and abundant alphaproteobacterial nitric oxide transforming enzymes in a marine oxygen  
2 deficient zone

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4 Claire E. Elbon<sup>1</sup>, Frank J. Stewart<sup>2</sup>, and Jennifer B. Glass<sup>1\*</sup>

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6 <sup>1</sup>School of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA;

7 <sup>2</sup>Department of Microbiology & Cell Biology, Montana State University, Bozeman, MT, USA

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9 \*Corresponding author: Jennifer B. Glass, [Jennifer.Glass@eas.gatech.edu](mailto:Jennifer.Glass@eas.gatech.edu)

10

## 11 Abstract

12 Marine oxygen deficient zones (ODZs) are portions of the ocean where intense nitrogen loss  
13 occurs primarily via denitrification and anammox. Despite many decades of study, the identity of  
14 the microbes that catalyze nitrogen loss in ODZs are still being elucidated. Intriguingly, high  
15 transcription of genes in the same family as nitric oxide dismutase from *Methyloirabilota* have  
16 been reported in the anoxic core of ODZs. Here, we show that the most abundantly transcribed  
17 *nod* genes in the Eastern Tropical North Pacific ODZ belong to *Rhodospirillaceae*  
18 (Alphaproteobacteria), rather than *Methyloirabilota* as previously assumed.  
19 Gammaproteobacteria and Planctomycetia also transcribe *nod*, but at lower relative abundance  
20 than *Rhodospirillaceae* in the upper ODZ. The *Rhodospirillaceae* are likely methylotrophs that  
21 oxidize methanol as a source of electrons for aerobic respiration; additional electrons may come  
22 from sulfide oxidation. Molecular oxygen for aerobic respiration may originate from nitric oxide  
23 dismutation via cryptic oxygen cycling. The *Rhodospirillaceae* also transcribe multiheme  
24 cytochrome (here named *ptd*) genes for a putative porin-cytochrome protein complex of  
25 unknown function, potentially involved in extracellular reduction electron transfer. Our results  
26 implicate *Rhodospirillaceae* as a significant player in marine nitrogen loss and highlight its  
27 potential in one-carbon, nitrogen, and sulfur metabolism in ODZs.

28 **Significance statement**

29 In marine oxygen deficient zones, microbes transform bioavailable nitrogen to gaseous nitrogen,  
30 with nitric oxide as a key intermediate. The Eastern Tropical North Pacific contains the world's  
31 largest oxygen deficient zone, but the identity of the microbes transforming nitric oxide remain  
32 unknown. Here, we show that highly transcribed nitric oxide dismutase (*nod*) genes belong to  
33 *Rhodospirillaceae* (Alphaproteobacteria). These *Rhodospirillaceae* perform aerobic respiration,  
34 using oxygen potentially sourced from nitric oxide dismutase, and possess a novel porin-  
35 cytochrome protein complex with unknown function. Gammaproteobacteria and Planctomycetia  
36 transcribe *nod* at lower levels. Our results pinpoint the microbes mediating a key step in marine  
37 nitrogen loss and reveal an unexpected metabolism for marine Alphaproteobacteria.

38 **Introduction**

39 Marine oxygen deficient zones (ODZs) contribute up to half of the ocean's nitrogen loss  
40 (DeVries et al., 2013) and are a major source of marine emissions of the potent greenhouse gas  
41 nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ) (Yang et al., 2020). The primary source of the  $N_2O$  at the oxic-anoxic  
42 interface and in anoxic waters in ODZs is denitrification (Babbin et al., 2015; Frey et al., 2020).  
43 The microbial enzyme responsible for  $N_2O$  production during denitrification is nitric oxide  
44 reductase (Nor), which uses electrons from cytochrome *c* (cNor) or quinol (qNor), to reduce  
45 nitric oxide (NO) to  $N_2O$  (Wasser et al., 2002; Zumft, 2005; Kraft et al., 2011). In the qNor  
46 family, there are *bona fide* qNor enzymes and NO dismutase (NOD). NOD proteins lack the  
47 quinol-binding site, seemingly preventing the enzyme from taking up external electrons; instead,  
48 NOD is theorized to disproportionate NO into dinitrogen and  $O_2$  in methane-oxidizing  
49 *Methyloirabilota* bacteria (Ettwig et al., 2010; Ettwig et al., 2012) and alkane-oxidizing  
50 gammaproteobacterium HdN1 (Zedelius et al., 2011).

51 The Eastern Tropical North and South Pacific (ETNP and ETSP) ODZs are the world's  
52 largest and second largest ODZs, and the subjects of extensive microbial ecology studies.  
53 Abundant NO reductase-like genes and transcripts in the ETNP and ETSP ODZ cluster in the  
54 same enzyme subfamily as NOD (Dalsgaard et al., 2014; Ganesh et al., 2014; Padilla et al., 2016;  
55 Fuchsman et al., 2017). Due to the similarity of ODZ Nod proteins to those of *Methyloirabilota*  
56 (NC10), it was initially presumed that ODZ bacteria also used Nod proteins to disproportionate  
57 NO into  $N_2$  and  $O_2$  for use in intra-aerobic methane oxidation (Dalsgaard et al., 2014; Padilla et  
58 al., 2016; Thamdrup et al., 2019). However, Fuchsman et al. (2017) found that the peak of *nod*  
59 gene abundance in the ETNP ODZ correlates with a peak of modeled  $N_2O$  production (Babbin et  
60 al., 2015) and does not correlate with abundance of methane monooxygenase genes, suggesting

61 that Nod proteins in the ETNP ODZ are potentially an important source of N<sub>2</sub>O, and are unlikely  
62 to be involved in methane oxidation. The plausibility that Nod proteins can reduce NO to N<sub>2</sub>O is  
63 supported by a study of a novel eukaryotic denitrification pathway in foraminifera  
64 (*Globobulimina* spp.) that produces N<sub>2</sub>O while expressing Nod (Woehle et al., 2018). Yet, the  
65 phylogenetic identity and metabolic context of marine Nod proteins, which are a key biological  
66 source of either N<sub>2</sub>O or O<sub>2</sub>+N<sub>2</sub> in marine ODZs, remain unresolved.

67 In this study, we sought to determine the identity, metabolism, and environmental niche  
68 of the ODZ organism responsible for the highly transcribed *nod* genes first discovered in Padilla  
69 et al. (2016). We found that the most abundantly transcribed *nod* genes in the ETNP ODZ belong  
70 to Alphaproteobacteria related to *Rhodospirillaceae*. Significant transcription of *nod* genes was  
71 limited to waters with <1 μM O<sub>2</sub>. These *nod*-transcribing alphaproteobacteria also transcribe  
72 genes involved in aerobic respiration, which was unexpected given that they inhabit anoxic  
73 waters, as well as genes involved in oxidation of formaldehyde, likely indicating methylotrophy.  
74 Genes encoding multi-heme cytochrome proteins potentially implicated in nitrogen or iron  
75 cycling were also transcribed.

76

## 77 **Results**

78 ***Transcribed nod sequences in the ETNP ODZ belong to Alphaproteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria, and Planctomycetia.*** Our reanalysis of highly transcribed *nod* genes  
79 (“ETNP 2014 Stn10 150m” and “ETNP 2013 Stn6 300m”) in the ETNP ODZ (Padilla et al.,  
80 2016) shows that these genes belong to Alphaproteobacteria rather than a member of  
81 *Methylomirabilota* as previously assumed. Querying the Nod amino acid sequences from Padilla  
82 et al. (2016) against ETNP ODZ metagenomes in the IMG-JGI database returned multiple 100%

84 identity matches, including a gene co-occurring on a scaffold (Ga0066848\_10003785) with  
85 hypothetical genes with 100% identity to *Rhodospirillaceae* metagenome-assembled genomes  
86 (MAGs) from the ETNP ODZ (Uzun et al., 2020) (**Table S1**). Binning of ETNP ODZ  
87 metagenomes Ga0066848 (ETNP201310SV72) and Ga0066829 (ETNP201306SV43) placed the  
88 two contigs with the most highly transcribed *nod* genes into MAGs assigned to  
89 Alphaproteobacteria (GTDB taxonomy: UBA11136 sp002686135; GTDB species  
90 representative: *Rhodospirillaceae* bacterium isolate ARS27) with 97% average nucleotide  
91 identity. Querying the Nod amino acid sequences from Padilla et al. (2016) against NCBI's non-  
92 redundant protein database returned matches to Alphaproteobacteria/*Rhodospirillaceae* MAGs  
93 from low-oxygen marine settings (ETNP, Saanich Inlet, and the Black Sea; 78-80% identity), the  
94 marine magnetotactic alphaproteobacterium *Magnetovibrio blakemorei* MV-1 (75% identity),  
95 Gammaproteobacterium HdN1 (66% identity), and *Methylomirabilota* spp. (66% identity; **Table**  
96 **S2**).

97 To glean additional insights into the evolutionary relationships of ODZ *nod* genes, we  
98 gathered Nod amino acid sequences from cultured organisms and large ODZ metagenome  
99 datasets (ETNP and Saanich Inlet), and created a Nod phylogeny (**Figure 1A; Table S3**). The  
100 topology was generally consistent with a previous phylogeny from Fuchsman et al. (2017), with  
101 additional taxonomic data from MAGs in the TARA oceans dataset further constraining Nod  
102 placement (Tully et al., 2018). Six unique Nod ODZ protein sequences (two of which were  
103 present in multiple metagenomes) clustered with Planctomycetia (OTU I in Fuchsman et al.  
104 (2017), hereafter “Planctomycetia-type Nod”), and were primarily found in free-living cells (0.2-  
105 1.6 micron, “FL”). Four unique ODZ Nod sequences clustered with marine  
106 Gammaproteobacteria (OTU II in Fuchsman et al. (2017), hereafter “Gamma-type Nod”); these

107 sequences were monophyletic with a cluster of gammaproteobacterial Nod cluster sequences  
108 from sewage sludge, including *gammproteobacterium HdN1* (Ehrenreich et al., 2000) and other  
109 wastewater gammproteobacteria. Multiple ETNP ODZ metagenomes contained Gamma-type  
110 Nod sequences identical to those of Gammaproteobacteria NP964 (MBP20251). Several ODZ  
111 Nod sequences, all from the particle fraction (>1.6 micron, “PF”) clustered with marine  
112 Deltaproteobacteria in a clade monophyletic with *Methylomirobalis*, Deltaproteobacteria, and  
113 Acidobacteria MAGs from groundwater. As expected based on the binning and BLAST results,  
114 the Nod sequence from Padilla et al. (2016) clustered phylogenetically with marine  
115 alphaproteobacteria (OTU III in Fuchsman et al. (2017), hereafter “Alpha-type Nod”); this clade  
116 contained three unique sequences, all of which were present in multiple metagenomes and all  
117 from the free-living fraction, and one of which was identical to that of *Rhodospirillaceae*  
118 NP1106 (MBV28360). Intriguingly, two ODZ sequences clustered in the eukaryotic  
119 *Globobulimina* clade.

120 We investigated gene neighborhoods surrounding ODZ *nod* genes in the three main  
121 phylogenetic clusters of ODZ sequences: Planctomycetia-type Nod, Gamma-type Nod, and  
122 Alpha-type Nod. Whereas “unknown Nor-related” marine *Bacteroidota* sequences were located  
123 on an operon with other *nor* genes, there was no consistent gene neighborhood for *nod* sequences  
124 (**Figure 1B**). Planctomycetia-type *nod* genes were not located in the vicinity of any genes with  
125 recognizable related function. Gamma-type *nod* gene neighborhoods contained ferredoxins and  
126 cytochrome *b*<sub>561</sub> genes for electron transport. Upstream of the Alpha-type *nod* in  
127 *Rhodospirillaceae* NP1106 is a cluster of formylmethanofuran dehydrogenase genes (*fmd/fwd*)  
128 used in C1 metabolism via tetrahydromethanopterin/methanofuran-linked reactions.

129                   Immediately upstream or downstream of *nod* genes, helix-turn-helix transcriptional  
130 regulators were common (**Figure 1B**). Neighboring Gamma-type and *Methylophilobacter* *nod*  
131 genes, LuxR-type regulators were common; these regulators have diverse functions and their  
132 potential connection to Nod remains unclear. Neighboring Alpha-type and Bacteroidota (e.g.  
133 *Cecembia calidifontis*) *nod* genes, Rrf2-type regulators were present. The protein NsrR in the  
134 Rrf2 family regulates global cellular response to NO toxification by directly sensing NO with an  
135 iron-sulfur cluster (Bodenmiller and Spiro, 2006; Tucker et al., 2010). The presence of this  
136 NsrR-like regulator suggests that Nod in marine *Rhodospirillaceae* and Bacteroidota may be  
137 involved in nitrosative stress response and NO detoxification.

138                   **Alphaproteobacterial nod is highly transcribed in anoxic waters.** We assessed  
139 transcription of Alpha, Gamma-, and Planctomycetia-type *nod* genes from the oxycline to upper  
140 ODZ (secondary nitrite maximum) using ETNP ODZ metatranscriptomes from an onshore  
141 station with a shallower oxycline (P1; **Figure 1C**) and an offshore station with a deeper oxycline  
142 (P2; **Figure 1D**) (Mattes et al., 2022). In both oxyclines, transcription was low (4-10 reads per  
143 kilobase per million mapped reads (RPKM), n=8) for all three *nod* types (**Figure 1C, D**). Below  
144 the oxyclines, *nod* transcripts began to rise and were highest at the secondary nitrite maxima,  
145 with Alpha-type (184-274 RPKM, n=4) > Gamma-type (55-95 RPKM, n=4) > Planctomycetia-  
146 type (13-19 RPKM, n=4; **Table S4**).

147                   **Alphaproteobacteria transcribe genes for formate metabolism, aerobic respiration, and**  
148 **a multiheme cytochrome complex.** To glean insight into potential roles for Nod in cellular  
149 context, we sought to reconstruct the electron transport chain of the alphaproteobacterium that  
150 most highly transcribed *nod* genes (Alphaproteobacterium MAG ETNP2013\_S06\_300m\_15 and  
151 Alphaproteobacterium MAG ETNP2013\_S10\_300m\_22, 69% and 73% estimated completeness,

152 respectively) at the secondary nitrite maximum. In both MAGs, *nod* was in the top three most  
153 transcribed genes in the ETNP ODZ (~44,000 FPKM; **Table S5**), after a bacterial nucleoid  
154 DNA-binding protein and a potassium gated channel protein. In addition to *nod*, we found that  
155 genes for formaldehyde oxidation via tetrahydromethanopterin/methanofuran-linked reactions,  
156 including formylmethanofuran dehydrogenase (*fwd/fmd*) and formylmethanofuran--  
157 tetrahydromethanopterin N-formyltransferase (*ftr*), were transcribed in both MAGs (**Table S5**).  
158 Both MAGs also transcribed NAD-dependent formate dehydrogenase (**Table S5**). Thus, the  
159 alphaproteobacterium appears to be capable of conversion of formaldehyde to formate and use of  
160 formate as a source of electrons for NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase (Complex I; **Figure 2**).  
161 The source of formaldehyde is likely methanol oxidation, as pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ)-  
162 dependent ethanol/methanol dehydrogenases were found in *Rhodospirillaceae* MAGs from low-  
163 oxygen marine settings (**Table S6**). Methane monooxygenase genes were not found in the partial  
164 *Rhodospirillaceae* MAGs, precluding our ability to rule out the possibility of these genes in the  
165 missing portions of the genomes. The *Rhodospirillaceae* PQQ-dependent dehydrogenase genes  
166 contained the motif DYDG (**Table S6**), which is characteristic of the lanthanide-containing form  
167 of the enzymes rather than calcium form (Keltjens et al., 2014).

168 A full aerobic electron transport chain (Complex I, II, III, and IV) and F0F1-type ATP  
169 synthase were transcribed in both bins (**Table S5**). Complex IV (cytochrome c oxidase) was type  
170 A1 according to the Sousa et al. (2012) classification, and the *cox* operon in the GTDB species  
171 representative Rhodospirallaceae ARS27 was subtype b (COX2-COX1-CtaB-CtaG\_Cox11-  
172 COX3-DUF983-SURF1-CtaA1-M32-Tsy-M16B) according to the Geiger et al. (2023)  
173 classification. Sulfur oxidation genes, including flavocytochrome c sulfide dehydrogenase

174 (FccAB), sulfane hydrogenase (SoxCD), and carrier protein SoxYZ, were also transcribed, as  
175 were numerous transposes (**Table S5**).

176 Genes for a multiheme cytochrome complex were transcribed in both bins. To our  
177 knowledge, this putative operon has not previously been described. Hereafter, we designate it the  
178 *ptdABCDEFG* operon for its sequence of penta/tetra/deca-heme proteins, interspersed with other  
179 conserved proteins. *ptdAB* genes are highly transcribed in our *Rhodospirillaceae* MAGs, but it is  
180 unclear if the rest of the operon is also highly transcribed, because it was truncated in our MAGs'  
181 scaffolds. The *ptd* gene cluster consists of a penta-heme protein with a C-terminal beta-sandwich  
182 (PtdA), a porin (PtdB), a FAD/NAD(P)-binding oxidoreductase (PtdC), a periplasmic tetra-heme  
183 protein (PtdD), a cyclic nucleotide-binding domain protein with two 4Fe-4S clusters (PtdE), a  
184 cytoplasmic transmembrane ferric reductase-like protein (PtdF), and a periplasmic deca-heme  
185 protein (PtdG; **Figure 2; Tables S7, S8**). The function of this complex is unknown, but the  
186 presence of genes encoding a porin and multiple multiheme proteins resembles porin-  
187 cytochrome protein complexes involved in extracellular reduction electron transfer during Fe(III)  
188 and Mn(IV) reduction (Richardson et al., 2012; Shi et al., 2014). PtdA has a homolog to a penta-  
189 heme cytochrome c<sub>552</sub> protein of unknown function in a thermophilic purple sulfur  
190 gammproteobacterium (Chen et al., 2019) and is in the same COG family (COG3303) as formate  
191 dependent nitrite reductase, NrfA. *ptdABCDEFG* genes were prevalent in Alphaproteobacteria,  
192 Gammaproteobacteria, Nitrospirales, and Planctomycetes MAGs from marine or high salinity  
193 environments (**Figure 3**).

194

195 **Discussion**

196 This study illuminates the previously ambiguous identity of the microorganisms that make the  
197 dominant nitric oxide-transforming protein (Nod) in the world's largest ODZ, the Eastern  
198 Tropical North Pacific. Extensive horizontal gene transfer of *nod* genes between microbial  
199 genomes is evident from the lack of conservation of gene neighborhood and patchy phylogeny  
200 (Fuchsman et al., 2017), which may be mediated by viral infection (Gazitúa et al., 2021). We  
201 found that the most transcriptionally active *nod* genes in the ETNP upper ODZ belong to  
202 Alphaproteobacteria related to *Rhodospirillaceae*. Alpha-type *nod* transcript abundances (~200  
203 RPKM) are similar to those of dissimilatory nitrate reductase (*narG*) in the ODZ (Tsementzi et  
204 al., 2016). The *nod*-transcribing *Rhodospirillaceae* are likely methylotrophs, and transcribe genes  
205 for formaldehyde oxidation, likely as a source of electrons to the respiratory chain via NAD  
206 reduction by formate dehydrogenase. Sulfide may be used as a supplemental electron donor  
207 and/or may be concomitantly oxidized for detoxification (Callbeck et al., 2021; Schmitz et al.,  
208 2023).

209 Our discovery of a putative porin-cytochrome complex (*ptd* operon) in marine bacteria  
210 was unexpected. Porin-cytochrome complexes have been best studied for their role in  
211 extracellular electron transport, particularly for respiratory metal reduction and oxidation  
212 (Richardson et al., 2012; Shi et al., 2014). It is conceivable that the Ptd complex is involved in  
213 iron reduction in ODZs; there is iron reduction at the secondary nitrite maximum and it is  
214 hypothesized to be bacterially mediated, but the microbes involved have yet to be determined  
215 (Moffett et al., 2007; Glass et al., 2015). Alternatively, the presence of *ptdABCDEFG* genes in  
216 numerous nitrite-oxidizing bacteria (Nitrospirales) could imply the involvement of these genes in  
217 nitrogen cycling; PtdA was in the same COG family as formate-dependent nitrite reductase  
218 (Simon et al., 2000) and PtdC is similar to a flavohemoprotein with predicted nitric oxide

219 dioxygenase activity, also annotated as hydroxylamine oxidoreductase-linked cytochrome. The  
220 function of PtdABCDEF remains completely unknown and requires future biochemical  
221 characterization.

222 On the other end of the electron transport chain, high transcription of a heme/copper  
223 terminal oxidase suggests that O<sub>2</sub> is being used as the terminal electron acceptor in *nod*-  
224 transcribing *Rhodospirillaceae*. The transcribed heme/copper oxidase is A1-type (low O<sub>2</sub>  
225 affinity), also present in mitochondria, and adapted for high O<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Low O<sub>2</sub> affinity  
226 A1-type heme/copper oxidases are transcribed in other anoxic environments (Berg et al., 2022).  
227 Because ODZs have extremely low concentrations of molecular oxygen below the oxycline, O<sub>2</sub>  
228 for aerobic respiration may be generated *in situ* and rapidly consumed. Given that the function of  
229 Nod is proposed to be dismutation of two NO molecules into N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> (Ettwig et al., 2010), it is  
230 possible that the O<sub>2</sub> source for aerobic respiration in *Rhodospirillaceae* is NO dismutation,  
231 although other sources of O<sub>2</sub> in anoxic waters are also conceivable (Garcia-Robledo et al., 2017).  
232 The physiological uses of Gamma-type and Planctomycetia-type Nod may be different from  
233 Alpha-type Nod, although this remains to be investigated.

234 The source of NO, the presumed substrate for Nod, may be generated in the same  
235 organism using Nod, or generated by a different organism (or chemical pathway). Nitric oxide  
236 was positively correlated with nitrite in the Eastern Tropical South Pacific ODZ, and was only  
237 detectable when O<sub>2</sub> was <1-2 μM (Lutterbeck et al., 2018). In the Eastern Tropical North Pacific,  
238 NO concentration and turnover rates were elevated at O<sub>2</sub> <100 μM (Ward and Zafiriou, 1988).  
239 Both studies suggest that the NO in ODZs likely originates from nitrification or nitrifier  
240 denitrification, while genomic analyses indicate that the copper-containing nitrite reductase  
241 (*nirK*) in SAR11 bacteria (presumably performing denitrification) may be a key source of NO

242 (Fuchsman et al., 2017). Because most ODZ denitrifiers specialize in only one of the three steps  
243 ( $\text{NO}_2^-$  reduction, NO reduction, and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reduction) (Zhang et al., 2023), and known nitrite  
244 reductases were not identified in our MAGs, existing data indicate that the NO that is used as a  
245 substrate for *Rhodospirillaceae* Nod is not generated *in vivo*. (Only 4 out of 32 *nod*-containing  
246 MAGs contained a nitrite reductase gene: two Gammaproteobacteria MAGs contained *nirK*, one  
247 Myxococcota MAG contained *nirS*, and one Scalindua MAG contained *nirS*). It is also possible  
248 that another uncharacterized enzyme produces NO.

249 This study suggests that marine alphaproteobacteria (*Rhodospirillaceae*) are actively  
250 reducing NO under anoxia, as implied by their abundant transcription of *nod* genes. While we  
251 can be fairly certain that the substrate for Nod is NO, the products of this enzyme ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  vs.  
252  $\text{N}_2+\text{O}_2$ ) remain uncertain. Nod is theorized to disproportionate NO into  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  in methane-  
253 oxidizing *Methylomirabilota* bacteria (Ettwig et al., 2010; Ettwig et al., 2012), but no  
254 biochemical characterizations of Nod have been published to date, and foraminifera expressing  
255 Nod produce  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (Woehle et al., 2018). The apparent lack of other denitrification genes in *nod*-  
256 transcribing *Rhodospirillaceae* is consistent with the observation that denitrification in ODZ is  
257 largely divided into distinct microbial taxa (Dalsgaard et al., 2014; Fuchsman et al., 2017; Zhang  
258 et al., 2023). For example, although nitrate reductase (*narG*) genes are widely distributed  
259 amongst ODZ microbes (Zhang et al., 2023), SAR11 bacteria appear to dominate in *narG*  
260 transcriptional activity (Tsementzi et al., 2016). Our finding that the transcription of *nod* is  
261 catalyzed primarily by marine alphaproteobacteria implies that this taxa contributes significantly  
262 to marine nitrogen loss.

263

264 **METHODS**

265 **Nod phylogeny and gene neighborhood.** Amino acid sequences of highly transcribed *nod* genes  
266 “ETNP 2014 Stn10 150m” and “ETNP 2013 Stn6 300m” were acquired from the authors of  
267 Padilla et al. (2016) (see Table S2 for sequences). These sequences were used for BLASTP  
268 searches of ODZ metagenomes in the IMG-JGI database and the non-redundant protein (nr)  
269 database in NCBI. Sequences (n=53, 731 gap-free sites) were aligned using the MAFFT online  
270 server with the L-INS-i method (Katoh et al., 2019). A phylogeny was generated with 1000  
271 bootstraps using model LG+I+G4 using W-IQ-Tree (Trifinopoulos et al., 2016). The phylogeny  
272 was visualized using FigTree v.1.4.4, and the fasta file (Trimmed\_NOD\_tree) is available as a  
273 supplemental figure. Gene neighborhoods were generated using the EFI Gene Neighborhood  
274 Tool (Zallot et al., 2019) with single sequence BLAST of the UniProt database using the amino  
275 acid sequence Ga0066848\_100037855 (JGI IMG) as the Nod query with an e-value cutoff of 10<sup>-5</sup>  
276 and with 10 genes upstream and downstream the gene of interest.

277 **Transcription of nod genes in ETNP ODZ depth profiles.** Magic Basic Local Alignment  
278 Search Tool (Boratyn et al., 2019) was used to search ETNP ODZ metatranscriptomes  
279 (PRJNA727903; Mattes et al. (2022)) using representative nucleotide sequences for  
280 Planctomycetia-like (Ga0066826\_100064333 (JGI IMG)), Gamma-like  
281 (PBRC01000062.1:19833-22205 (NCBI)), and Alpha-like (Ga0066848\_100037855 (JGI IMG))  
282 *nod* genes. Default parameters were used except for the score threshold (18). Read hits were  
283 normalized to reads per kilobase million (RPKM).

284 **Metagenomic binning.** Binning of metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) and  
285 metatranscriptomic mapping to MAGs was performed using the KBase platform (Arkin et al.,  
286 2018). Assemblies for the ETNP ODZ metagenomes containing Alpha-type *nod* genes  
287 (ETNP201310SV72 (GOLD Analysis Project ID Ga0066848; stn10 300m) and

288 ETNP201306SV43 (GOLD Analysis Project ID Ga0066829; stn6 300m) were imported from  
289 JGI IMG into Kbase. Metagenomic assemblies were binned into MAGs using MaxBin2 v2.2.4  
290 (Wu et al., 2016). The two MAGs containing *nod* genes (MAG ETNP2013\_S10\_300m\_22 from  
291 ETNP201310SV72 and ETNP2013\_S06\_300m\_15 from ETNP201306SV43) were selected for  
292 further analysis. Average nucleotide identity was calculated using FastANI (Jain et al., 2018).  
293 MAG taxonomy was evaluated by GTDB-Tk v2.3.2 (Chaumeil et al., 2022). MAGs were  
294 annotated with RASTtk v1.073 (Brettin et al., 2015).

295 ***Mapping transcripts to metagenomic bins.*** Metatranscriptomic fragments were imported  
296 from the depth with highest *nod* transcription at the secondary nitrite maximum (NCBI run  
297 SRR14460584). Fragments were aligned to MAGs using Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg,  
298 2012). Transcripts were assembled from RNA-seq read alignments using Cufflinks v2.2.1  
299 (Trapnell et al., 2012). Fragment hits were normalized to fragments per kilobase million  
300 (FPKM), which differ from the above RPKM because fragments are derived from paired-end  
301 RNA-seq data where there can be two reads corresponding to a single fragment.

302 ***Cellular localization and heme numbers.*** Cellular locations of Ptd proteins were  
303 predicted using PSORTb v3.0.3 analysis (Yu et al., 2010). Numbers of heme-binding motifs per  
304 protein were identified by counting CXXCH sequences. Ptd gene neighborhoods was generated  
305 using the EFI Gene Neighborhood Tool (Zallot et al., 2019) with single sequence BLAST of the  
306 UniProt database using the amino acid sequence Ga0066848\_100031354 (JGI IMG) as the PtdA  
307 query, with an e-value cutoff of  $10^{-5}$  and with 10 genes upstream and downstream the gene of  
308 interest.

309

310 **Data availability**

311 The Kbase bioinformatic pipeline and MAGs are at <https://narrative.kbase.us/narrative/106999>.

312 MAGs were also deposited into BioProject PRJNA375524 (ETNP201306SV43) and BioProject

313 PRJNA375542 (ETNP201310SV72).

314

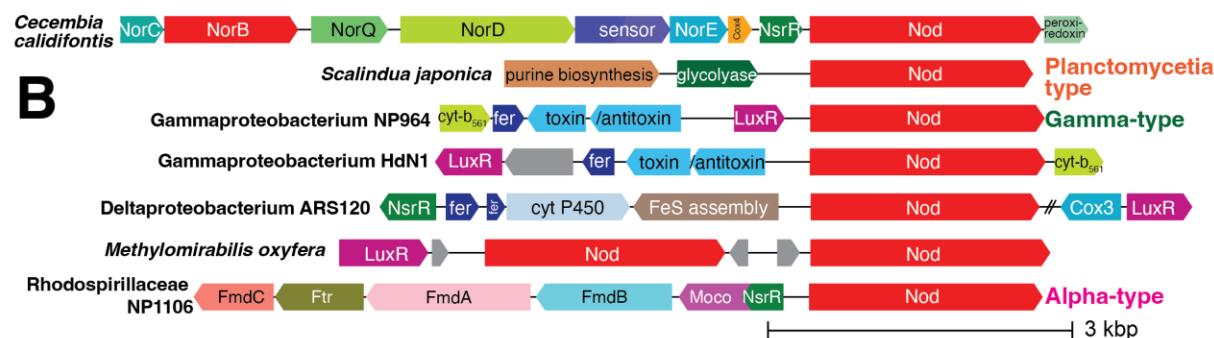
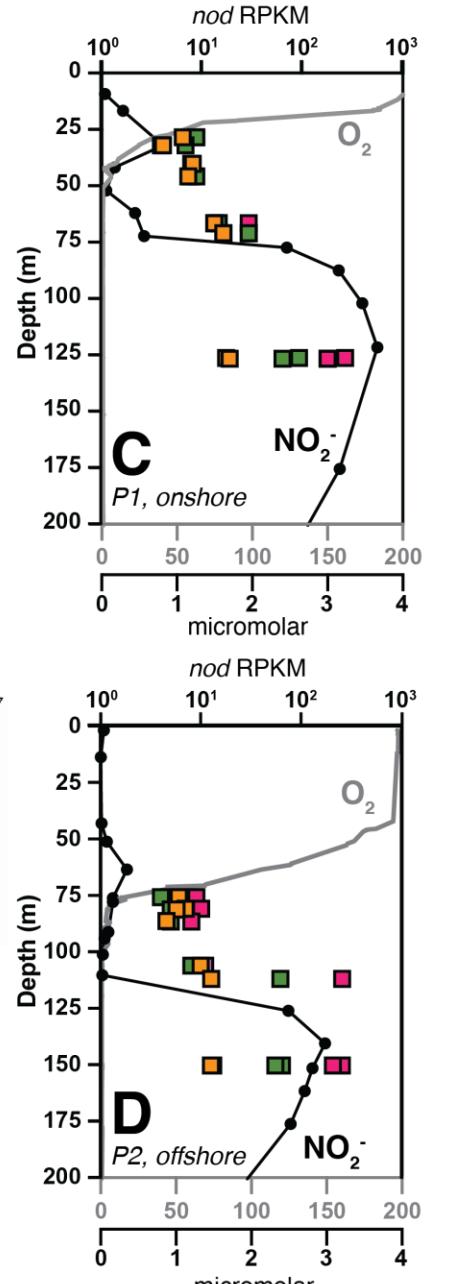
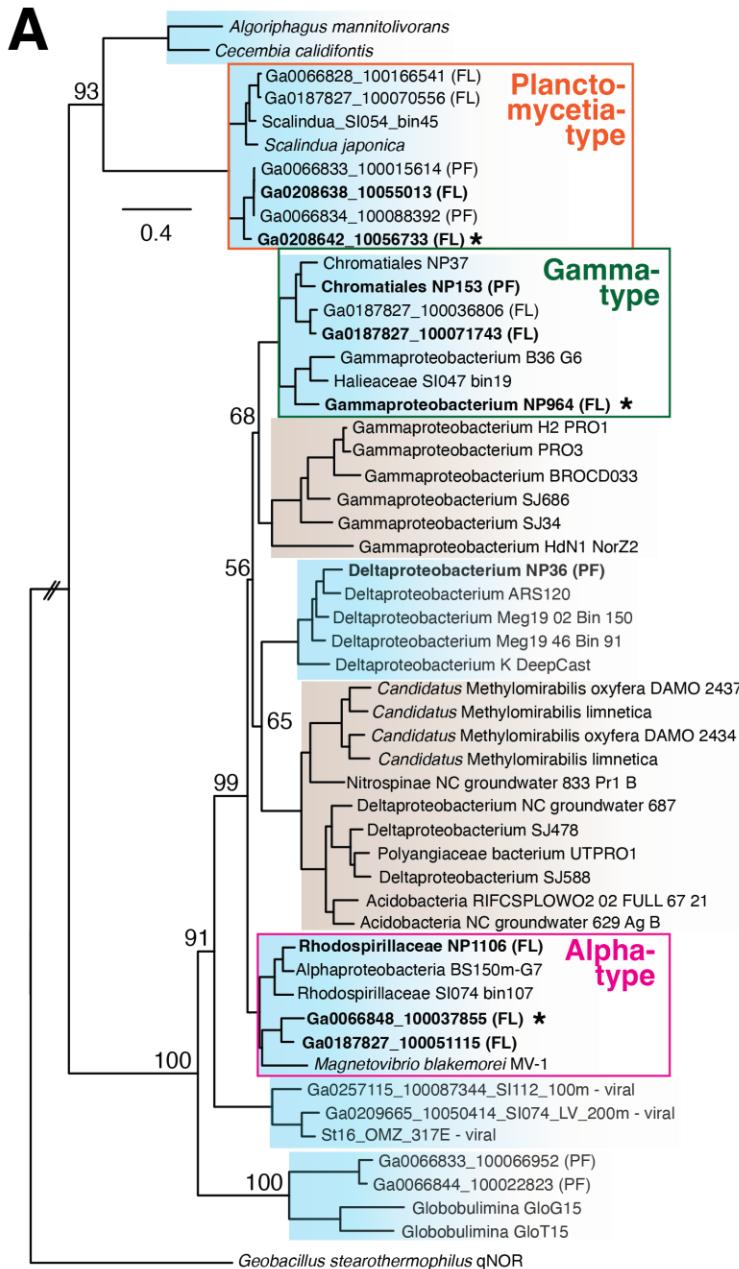
315 **Acknowledgements**

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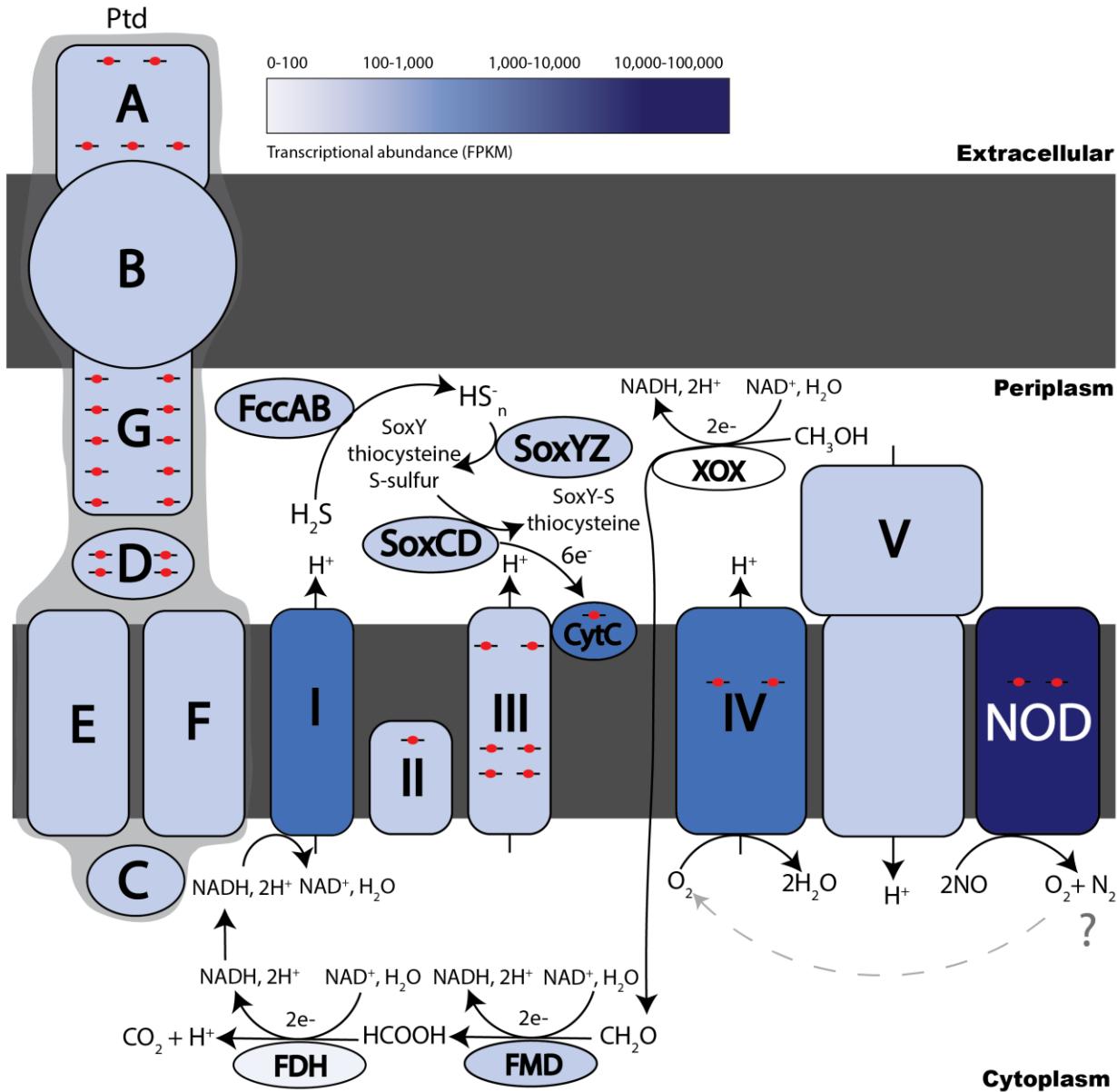
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321 **Figure 1. Marine Nod clades, gene neighborhoods, and depth profiles of transcription. (A)**

322 Maximum likelihood phylogeny of nitric oxide dismutase (Nod) amino acid sequences in marine  
323 (blue) and select terrestrial (brown) taxa. Branch support was evaluated using 1000 rapid  
324 bootstrap replicates, with bootstrap values shown for deep branches. The tree is drawn to scale,  
325 with branch lengths in number of substitutions per site. Bold sequences represent those present in  
326 multiple ETNP ODZ metagenomes (see **Table S3** for duplicate accession numbers). “PF”  
327 indicates genes from the particle fraction (> 1.6 micron fraction) of filters. “FL” indicates genes  
328 from the free-living fraction (0.2-1.6 micron) collected on Sterivex filters. The most highly  
329 transcribed ETNP ODZ sequence is indicated with an asterisk. The qNor sequence *Geobacillus*  
330 *stearothermophilus* was used as the outgroup. (B) Gene neighborhoods surrounding *nod* genes in  
331 select taxa. GenBank contigs: *Cecembia califontis* SGXG01000001, *Scalindua japonica*  
332 BAOS01000045, Gammaproteobacteria NP964 PBRC01000062, Gammaproteobacterium HdN1  
333 FP929140, Deltaproteobacteria NZCL01000067, *Candidatus Methylomirabilis oxyfera*  
334 FP565575, and *Rhodospirillaceae* NP1106 PCBZ01000014. Unlabeled gray genes are  
335 hypothetical. (C) Oxygen and nitrite concentrations, and *nod* transcripts (reads per kilobase per  
336 million mapped reads (RKPM)) with depth in ETNP ODZ P1 (onshore) and P2 (offshore) sites  
337 (Mattes et al., 2022).



338

339 **Figure 2. Schematic of the electron transport chain in *nod*-containing ODZ**  
340 **Rhodospiralleace.** Enzymes were included based on presence and transcriptional activity of  
341 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) assigned to Alphaproteobacteria (GTDB taxonomy:  
342 UBA11136 sp002686135; see text). The color of each protein is chosen according to  
343 transcriptional activity and represented from 0-100, 100-1,000, 1,000-10,000, and 10,000-  
344 100,000 FPKM in gradient from lighter to darker blue (Table S5). Heme proteins are indicated

345 by red circular hemes with the cartoon number corresponding to the number of actual hemes  
346 present on each protein. Hypothetical Ptd proteins are labelled A, B, C, D, E, F, and G, and  
347 location within the cell is determined using Psort bacterial localization prediction tool (Table  
348 S8). ETC complexes I-V found in *Rhodospirillaceae* MAGs are labelled with proposed  
349 interactions between formate oxidation and complex I NADH electron transfer. Highly  
350 transcribed NOD protein and predicted O<sub>2</sub> generation is shown as feeding into A1 type CCO  
351 complex IV reduction. Additional electrons for CytC and the ETC are proposed to come from  
352 sulfur oxidation carried out by the flavocytochrome *c* sulfide dehydrogenase (FccAB, FCC), and  
353 sulfane-sulfur dehydrogenase (SoxCD) with the multi-enzyme carrier complex (SoxYZ).



354

355 **Figure 3. Gene neighborhoods of petaheme-tetraheme-decaheme genes from select**  
356 **organisms. Depicted heme spacing is approximate.**

357 **References**

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