

1 **Inhibition of ammonia monooxygenase from ammonia oxidising archaea by linear and**
2 **aromatic alkynes**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) is a key nitrogen transforming enzyme belonging to
24 the same copper-dependent membrane monooxygenase family (CuMMO) as the particulate
25 methane monooxygenase (pMMO). The AMO from ammonia oxidising archaea (AOA) is very
26 divergent from both the AMO of ammonia oxidising bacteria (AOB) and the pMMO from
27 methanotrophs and little is known about the structure or substrate range of the archaeal AMO.
28 This study compares inhibition by C₂-C₈ linear 1-alkynes of AMO from two phylogenetically
29 distinct strains of AOA, “*Candidatus Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” C13 and “*Candidatus*
30 *Nitrosotalea sinensis*” Nd2, with AMO from *Nitrosomonas europaea* and pMMO from
31 *Methylococcus capsulatus* (Bath). An increased sensitivity of the archaeal AMO to short-chain-
32 length alkynes ($\leq C_5$) appeared to be conserved across AOA lineages. Similarities in C₂-C₈ alkyne
33 inhibition profiles between AMO from AOA and pMMO from *M. capsulatus* suggested that the
34 archaeal AMO has a narrower substrate range compared to that of *N. europaea* AMO. Inhibition
35 of AMO from “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* by the aromatic alkyne
36 phenylacetylene was also investigated. Kinetic data revealed that the mechanism by which
37 phenylacetylene inhibits “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* is different,
38 indicating differences in the AMO active site between AOA and AOB. Phenylacetylene was
39 found to be a specific and irreversible inhibitor of AMO from “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
40 *franklandus*” which does not compete with NH₃ for binding at the active site.

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45 **Importance**

46 Archaeal and bacterial ammonia oxidisers (AOA and AOB) initiate nitrification by
47 oxidising ammonia to hydroxylamine, a reaction catalysed by ammonia monooxygenase (AMO).
48 AMO enzyme is difficult to purify in active form and its structure and biochemistry remain
49 largely unexplored. The bacterial AMO and the closely related particulate methane
50 monooxygenase (pMMO) have a broad range of hydrocarbon co-oxidation substrates. This study
51 provides insights into the AMO of previously unstudied archaeal genera, by comparing the
52 response of the archaeal AMO, a bacterial AMO and pMMO to inhibition by linear 1-alkynes
53 and the aromatic alkyne, phenylacetylene. Reduced sensitivity to inhibition by larger alkynes
54 suggests that the archaeal AMO has a narrower hydrocarbon substrate range compared to the
55 bacterial AMO, as previously reported for other genera of AOA. Phenylacetylene inhibited the
56 archaeal and bacterial AMO at different thresholds and by different mechanisms of inhibition,
57 highlighting structural differences between the two forms of monooxygenase.

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66 **Introduction**

67 Nitrification is a key microbial process in the global nitrogen cycle. Autotrophic archaeal
68 and bacterial ammonia oxidisers (AOA and AOB, respectively) and comammox bacteria, which
69 carry out the complete oxidation of ammonia to nitrate (1, 2), initiate nitrification through the
70 oxidation of ammonia (NH₃) to hydroxylamine (NH₂OH), a reaction catalysed by ammonia
71 monooxygenase (AMO). The AMO is the only enzyme of the ammonia oxidation pathway
72 which is shared by all three major groups of ammonia oxidisers (3). Quantitative assessments
73 based on the *amoA* gene, which encodes the AmoA subunit of the AMO, have revealed that
74 AOA are ubiquitous in the environment and are among the most numerous living organisms on
75 Earth, often outnumbering AOB in many environments where nitrification occurs (4-7).
76 Environmental surveys using *amoA* as a marker gene have been crucial for our understanding of
77 the distribution and diversity of AOA; however, little is known about the structure or
78 biochemistry of the archaeal AMO and how this differs from that of AOB.

79 The AMO is a copper-dependent multimeric transmembrane enzyme belonging to the
80 CuMMO superfamily which comprises ammonia, methane and alkane monooxygenases (7-9).
81 Members of the CuMMO family have a broad substrate range and it has been suggested that
82 subsequent metabolic steps define the functional role of microbes containing CuMMO (10, 11).
83 For example, the AOB *Nitrosomonas europaea* and *Nitrosococcus oceanii* can oxidise methane
84 but lack necessary downstream enzymes to gain reducing power from methane oxidation (12,
85 13). Likewise, the particulate methane monooxygenase (pMMO) of methanotrophs can co-
86 oxidise NH₃, (14-16) as well as various hydrocarbons, for instance linear 1-alkanes (C₂-C₅) and
87 alkenes (C₂-C₄) (17-19), and halogenated hydrocarbons (20), but none of these oxidation
88 substrates can support growth. The bacterial AMO has a broader substrate range than the pMMO

89 and is capable of co-oxidising 1-alkanes (C₂-C₈) and alkenes (C₂-C₅) (21), halogenated
90 hydrocarbons (22, 23), aromatic compounds (24) and sulfides (25, 26) to yield hydroxylated
91 products. Difficulties in purifying active AMO limit the amount of structural data available and
92 many predictions about the structure of AMO are based on homology to the pMMO (8, 10, 27,
93 and 28). However, the pMMO itself has proven challenging to fully characterise, and the nature
94 and location of the site of O₂ activation and methane oxidation remains uncertain. To date, a
95 diiron site located on the PmoC subunit (29), and multiple copper sites of different nuclearities
96 located on separate subunits (PmoA, PmoB and PmoC) have all been suggested as potential
97 active sites (27, 30-34).

98 Insights regarding the structure and function of the AMO have largely come from whole
99 cell studies investigating its interaction with both reversible and irreversible inhibitors. For
100 example, the bacterial AMO is inhibited by the copper chelator allylthiourea (ATU) which
101 strongly indicates that it is a copper-dependent enzyme (18, 35-38). Acetylene is a well
102 characterised inhibitor of both the AMO and pMMO (39-41). With *N. europaea*, acetylene acts
103 as a suicide substrate and cells require *de novo* protein synthesis of new AMO to re-establish
104 NH₃ oxidising activity (42). Incubations with ¹⁴[C]-acetylene resulted in the covalent
105 radiolabelling of *N. europaea* AMO, enabling identification of the genes coding for AMO (41,
106 43). A subsequent study found that the ketene product of acetylene activation bound covalently
107 to a histidine residue (H191) in the AmoA subunit of *N. europaea*, a residue thought to be in the
108 proximity of the AMO active site (44). While acetylene is also an irreversible inhibitor of the
109 archaeal AMO, the AMO from archaea lack the histidine residue responsible for binding in *N.*
110 *europaea*, suggesting that the product of acetylene oxidation must bind at a different position on
111 the enzyme. AMO from *N. europaea* is also irreversibly inhibited by other terminal and sub-

112 terminal alkynes including C₃-C₁₀ 1-alkynes (21), 3-hexyne (45) and 1,7-octadiyne (46).
113 Interestingly, in *N. europaea*, the degree of inhibition by 1-alkynes, as a function of chain length,
114 inversely mirrors the activity with the corresponding 1-alkanes (21).

115 Virtually nothing is known about the substrate range of the archaeal AMO. Previously,
116 Taylor *et al.*, (47, 48) showed that, in whole cell studies, aliphatic *n*-alkynes (C₂-C₉)
117 differentially inhibited bacterial and archaeal AMOs, with the AOA being less sensitive to \geq C₅ 1-
118 alkynes. Inhibition of AMO by 1-octyne (C₈) has since been used in environmental and
119 mesocosm studies to discriminate between the contributions of AOA and AOB to soil
120 nitrification (49-52). A field study by Im *et al.*, (53) showed that the abundance of archaeal *amoA*
121 genes decreased when the soil was treated with the aromatic alkyne phenylacetylene, although
122 the effects of phenylacetylene on pure cultures of AOA were not investigated. Phenylacetylene
123 was shown to be a strong inhibitor of the AMO from *N. europaea* (41), with complete inhibition
124 at <1 μ M (54) and the AMO from *N. europaea* is capable of oxidising aromatic compounds
125 including the alkane analogue of phenylacetylene, ethylbenzene (24, 55). Interestingly, the
126 oxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons has not been observed for the pMMO (17, 21, 40, and 56).

127 The initial aim of this study was to undertake a comprehensive assessment of the
128 inhibition of archaeal AMO activity by C₂-C₈ linear 1-alkynes using two terrestrial AOA strains
129 from distinct thaumarchaeal lineages, “*Candidatus Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” C13 and
130 “*Candidatus Nitrosotalea sinensis*” Nd2. 1-alkyne inhibition profiles of *N. europaea* AMO and
131 the pMMO from *Methylococcus capsulatus* (Bath) were also investigated for comparison. For
132 consistency and to provide a direct comparison with the AMO, the inhibition of NH₃-oxidising
133 activity by the pMMO from *M. capsulatus* (Bath) was investigated. NH₃ is a co-metabolic

134 substrate of the pMMO from *M. capsulatus* (Bath) and is oxidised to hydroxylamine, which is
135 further oxidised to produce NO_2^- (14, 57).

136 Next, phenylacetylene inhibition profiles of NH_3 oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
137 *franklandus*” and *N. europaea* cells were compared. The kinetic mechanism of inhibition of
138 intact cells of “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* by phenylacetylene was
139 investigated to explore differences in the biochemistry of the archaeal and bacterial AMO.
140 Evidence from previous studies suggests that NH_3 , rather than ammonium (NH_4^+), is the growth
141 substrate oxidised by the bacterial AMO (58), but the preferred substrate ($\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$) oxidised by
142 the archaeal AMO has not been determined. However, it is highly likely to also be NH_3 based on
143 archaeal and bacterial AMO sequence comparisons (59). At the pH of the systems used here, the
144 majority of the NH_3 (pK_a of 9.25) would be protonated. Therefore, calculations of kinetic
145 parameters presented in this study are based on total reduced inorganic nitrogen ($\text{NH}_3 + \text{NH}_4^+$) as
146 the substrate.

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148 **Materials and Methods**

149 **Materials.** Phenylacetylene (98%), propyne, 1-pentyne, 1-hexyne, 1-heptyne and 1-
150 octyne (C_3 , C_5 , C_6 , C_7 and C_8 linear 1-alkynes, $\geq 97\%$) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (now
151 Merck). 1-Butyne was supplied by Apollo Gases Ltd. Acetylene was obtained from BOC, a
152 member of the Linde Group. Protein concentrations were determined using a Pierce BCA protein
153 assay kit (Thermo Scientific) as described by the manufacturer.

154 **Growth of cultures.** “*Candidatus Nitrosotalea sinensis*” Nd2 and “*Candidatus*
155 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” C13 (60, 61) were grown as follows: “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*

156 franklandus” was cultivated in freshwater medium (FWM) buffered with 10 mM HEPES (pH
157 7.5) and supplemented with 4 mM NH₄Cl as previously described (61). The acidophilic AOA
158 “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” was cultivated in FWM buffered with 2.5 mM MES (pH 5.3) and
159 supplemented with 400 μM NH₄Cl as previously described (60). Both “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
160 franklandus” and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” were grown in 800 mL volumes in 1 L Duran
161 bottles incubated statically in the dark at 37°C. *Nitrosomonas europaea* ATCC19718 was
162 obtained from the University of Aberdeen culture collection and cultivated in 200 mL volumes,
163 in 500 mL conical flasks, shaking (160 rpm) at 30°C in modified Skinner and Walker (62)
164 medium (pH~7.5) containing (NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.235 g L⁻¹; KH₂PO₄, 0.2 g L⁻¹; CaCl₂·2H₂O, 0.04 g L⁻¹;
165 MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.04 g L⁻¹, FeNaEDTA, 0.3 mg L⁻¹, buffered with 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.5) and
166 5% (w/v) Na₂CO₃. *Methylococcus capsulatus* (Bath) was grown in 50 mL volumes in 250 mL
167 Quickfit conical flasks, shaking (180 rpm) at 37°C in nitrate mineral salts (NMS) supplemented
168 with 20 μM copper to promote pMMO expression and under a CH₄ atmosphere of 40%. To
169 confirm that *M. capsulatus* cells were only expressing pMMO and not sMMO, the naphthalene
170 assay, which is specific for sMMO activity, was used (63) with sMMO-expressing *Methylocella*
171 *silvestris* cells as positive controls.

172 **Nitrite assay.** NO₂⁻ concentrations were determined colorimetrically in a 96-well format
173 using Griess reagent as previously described (60). Absorbance measurements were performed at
174 540 nm wavelength using a VersaMax Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices).

175 **Inhibition of whole cells by alkynes.** “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and “*Ca.*
176 *Nitrosotalea sinensis*” were cultivated to mid-exponential phase (~600 – 700 μM and ~80 – 90
177 μM NO₂⁻ accumulated, respectively) and 1600 mL harvested by filtration onto nucleopore 0.2
178 μm membrane filters (PALL). “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” cells were washed and

179 resuspended in 200 mL 10 mM HEPES (pH 7) buffered FWM salts to $\sim 2 \times 10^7$ cells/mL. “*Ca.*
180 *Nitrosotalea sinensis*” cells were washed and resuspended in 100 mL 2.5 mM MES (pH 5.3)
181 buffered FWM salts to $\sim 3 \times 10^7$ cells/mL. *N. europaea* was grown to mid-exponential phase and
182 400 mL culture was harvested by filtration, washed and resuspended to $\sim 3 \times 10^7$ cells/mL in 200
183 mL 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.7), containing 2 mM MgCl_2 (12). *M. capsulatus* were
184 grown to an OD_{540} of 0.8 and 100 mL was harvested by centrifugation (14,000 $\times g$, 10 min).
185 Cells were washed and resuspended in 50 mL 10 mM PIPES buffer (pH 7) to $\sim 2 \times 10^8$ cells/mL.
186 Cells were rested for 1 hour at their respective growth temperatures to achieve a baseline for
187 enzyme activity assays. Aliquots of 5 mL “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”, *N. europaea* and
188 *M. capsulatus* and 4 mL “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” cell suspension were added to acid-washed
189 23 mL glass vials which were then sealed with grey butyl rubber stoppers, which had been
190 autoclaved two times to remove contaminating substances. $\text{C}_2\text{-C}_8$ linear 1-alkynes were added to
191 the headspace as vapour to achieve 10 μM aqueous concentration (C_{aq}), calculated using the
192 Henry’s Law coefficients obtained from Sander (64). Phenylacetylene was dissolved in 100 %
193 dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to achieve various stock solutions. A final volume of 5 μL stock
194 solution was added to cell suspensions resulting in 0.1% (v/v) DMSO plus the desired
195 concentration of phenylacetylene. Preliminary experiments determined the addition of 0.1% (v/v)
196 DMSO did not affect NH_4^+ oxidising activity (data not shown) and control treatments containing
197 0.1% (v/v) DMSO without phenylacetylene or acetylene were included. Cells were pre-incubated
198 with inhibitors for 30 minutes, to allow for the gas-liquid phase partitioning of the alkynes, at
199 37°C for “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”, “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” and *M. capsulatus* and
200 at 30°C for *N. europaea*. Total inorganic ammonium ($\text{NH}_3 + \text{NH}_4^+$), referred to as NH_4^+ , was
201 then added as NH_4Cl or $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (reflecting the growth medium) to initiate NH_3 oxidising
202 activity and vials were incubated at the respective growth temperatures of the microorganisms.

203 *M. capsulatus* was incubated with shaking (150 rpm). AMO and pMMO activity was determined
204 by assaying NO_2^- production from NH_3 oxidation in whole cells. NO_2^- production was measured
205 and quantified as described above by withdrawing a sample of culture through the septum every
206 15 minutes for 2 hours unless otherwise stated. All treatments were carried out in triplicate and
207 experiments were performed at least three times with similar results.

208 **Sensitivity of isolates to C₂ to C₈ 1-alkynes.** C₂-C₈ linear 1-alkynes were added to vials
209 using a gas tight syringe. To initiate NH_3 oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”, *N.*
210 *europaea* and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*”, NH_4^+ was added to a concentration of 1 mM by
211 injection through the septum. For *M. capsulatus* (Bath), sodium formate was added first, as a
212 source of reductant, immediately followed by NH_4^+ , both at a final concentration of 20 mM.

213 **Sensitivity of “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* to**
214 **phenylacetylene.** Phenylacetylene was added to achieve concentrations ranging from 2.5 – 20
215 μM for “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and 0.5 – 10 μM for *N. europaea*. To initiate
216 ammonia oxidation, NH_4^+ was added to a final concentration of 0.5 mM and 5 mM to “*Ca.*
217 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea*, respectively. NO_2^- production was measured for
218 60 minutes.

219 **Kinetic relationship between NH_4^+ and phenylacetylene inhibition of “*Ca.***
220 ***Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea*.** To determine NH_3 oxidation kinetics in the
221 presence of phenylacetylene, “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* cells were
222 harvested and resuspended as described above, but to a final concentration of 1×10^7 and 8×10^6
223 cells/mL, respectively. “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” cell suspensions were pre-incubated
224 with phenylacetylene (0, 4 or 8 μM) or acetylene (0 or 3 μM) for 30 minutes before the addition
225 of various concentrations of NH_4^+ (0.005 - 1 mM). *N. europaea* cell suspensions were pre-

226 incubated with phenylacetylene (0, 0.2 or 0.4 μM) before the addition of 0.05 - 10 mM NH_4^+ .
227 Additional experiments were carried out to test the effect of 0.1% (v/v) DMSO on NH_3 oxidation
228 kinetics by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* (Supplementary information
229 Table S1).

230 **Phenylacetylene inhibition of hydroxylamine oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus***
231 ***franklandus*”.** “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” cell suspensions were incubated with 0 or
232 100 μM phenylacetylene. Hydroxylamine was added at a concentration of 200 μM and
233 hydroxylamine-dependent NO_2^- production was measured over 60 minutes as described above.

234 **Recovery of AMO activity from “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” following**
235 **phenylacetylene inhibition.** “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” cells were grown to mid-
236 exponential phase and 3200 mL was harvested by filtration as described above and concentrated
237 into 70 mL FWM containing 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.5). Aliquots of 5 mL cell suspension were
238 added to glass vials and sealed with butyl rubber seals. Phenylacetylene (100 μM) and 1-octyne
239 (200 μM) were added from DMSO stock solutions (as described above) and acetylene (20 μM)
240 was added from a 1% (v/v in air) gaseous stock. Both control and acetylene treatments also
241 contained 0.1% (v/v) DMSO. The addition of NH_4^+ (1 mM) initiated NH_3 -oxidising activity and
242 vials were incubated at 37°C overnight (16 hours). NO_2^- production was monitored for 1 hour to
243 assess baseline activity. To remove inhibitors and test AMO recovery, samples were pooled into
244 50 mL Falcon tubes and the cells were washed three times in FWM containing 10 mM HEPES
245 (pH 7.5) by centrifugation (12, 000 \times g for 10 minutes at 5°C). The pellet was resuspended in 700
246 μL FWM containing 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.5). Aliquots (200 μL) of cell suspension were added
247 to 4.8 mL FWM containing 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.5) + 1 mM NH_4^+ , resulting in a final cell

248 concentration of $\sim 1.3 \times 10^7$ cells/mL. Vials were incubated in a water-bath (37°C) and NO_2^-
249 production was monitored over 24 h.

250 **Statistics.** Linear 1-alkyne data were plotted as average activity as a fraction of the
251 control treatments (no inhibitor). To analyse phenylacetylene inhibition kinetics, the initial rates
252 of NO_2^- production were plotted against NH_4^+ concentration. A nonlinear regression was used to
253 estimate the $K_{m(\text{app})}$ and $V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$ for NH_4^+ using the Hyper32 kinetics package. Significant
254 differences between treatments were identified by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett (2-sided)
255 post-hoc test (IBM SPSS version 25).

256 **Data Availability.** The authors declare that the data supporting the findings of this study
257 are available within the article [and its supplementary information file]. The AOA strains “*Ca.*
258 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” are available from the
259 corresponding author upon request.

260

261 **Results**

262 **Sensitivity of “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”, “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*”, *N. europaea* 263 **and pMMO-expressing *M. capsulatus* (Bath) to C₂ to C₈ 1-alkynes****

264 The sensitivity of intact “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea*
265 *sinensis*” cells to 10 μM $C_{(\text{aq})}$ C₂-C₈ 1-alkynes was compared with the *N. europaea* and the
266 pMMO-expressing methanotroph, *M. capsulatus* (Fig. 1). NH_3 -dependent NO_2^- production by
267 both “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” was inhibited by C₂-C₅
268 1-alkynes ($p < 0.001$) but not by C₇ and C₈ (Fig. 1 A and B). “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” was
269 strongly inhibited by C₄ and C₅ alkynes (degree of inhibition $54\% \pm 5\%$ and $70\% \pm 1\%$,

270 respectively, compared with controls), however, these alkynes effected only partial inhibition of
271 NH₃ oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” (24% ± 2% and 14% ± 1%, respectively),
272 indicating differences in the alkyne sensitivities of different AOA strains. Additionally, C₆ had a
273 significant inhibitory effect on “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” ($p = 0.004$) but not on “*Ca.*
274 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” ($p = 0.47$). NO₂⁻ production by *N. europaea* was strongly
275 inhibited by all 1-alkynes tested (C₂-C₈). 1-pentyne resulted in 98% ± 1% inhibition and AMO
276 activity was completely inhibited by C₆-C₈ 1-alkynes (Fig. 1C). In the presence of C₃ and C₄ 1-
277 alkynes, inhibition decreased to 78% ± 1% and 54% ± 1%, respectively. pMMO-expressing *M.*
278 *capsulatus* cells oxidised NH₄⁺ to NO₂⁻ and NO₂⁻ production was significantly inhibited by C₂-C₇
279 1-alkynes ($p \leq 0.001$), but C₆ and C₇ 1-alkynes resulted in only approximately 10% inhibition
280 compared with the control (Fig. 1D). NO₂⁻ production from NH₃ by the pMMO from *M.*
281 *capsulatus* is shown in the supplementary information (Supplementary information Fig. S1).
282 The rate of NO₂⁻ production decreased after 1 hour of incubation, likely due to the toxic build-up
283 of NO₂⁻ and hydroxylamine in the culture.

284 Notably, “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*”, *N. europaea* and *M. capsulatus* (Bath) were very
285 sensitive to 10 μM acetylene (C₂) with NO₂⁻ production inhibited by >95 %, however, “*Ca.*
286 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” appeared less sensitive to acetylene (degree of inhibition, 82% ±
287 3%).

288 **Inhibition of NO₂⁻ production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* in** 289 **response to phenylacetylene**

290 Given the contrasting responses of ammonia oxidising archaea and bacteria to linear
291 alkynes, AMO activity in the presence of the aromatic alkyne phenylacetylene was examined in
292 “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* cells (Fig. 2). After 1-hour of incubation,

293 the rate of NH_3 -dependent NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” was inhibited
294 by $55.4\% \pm 1.4\%$ in the presence of $5 \mu\text{M}$ phenylacetylene compared to the DMSO control.
295 Incubations in the presence of 10 and $20 \mu\text{M}$ phenylacetylene increased the inhibition to $74.7\% \pm$
296 0.5% and $86.0\% \pm 0.4\%$, respectively (Fig. 2A). NO_2^- production by *N. europaea* was inhibited
297 by $52.5\% \pm 1.7\%$ in the presence of $0.5 \mu\text{M}$ phenylacetylene and, unlike the results from Lontoh
298 *et al.*, (54), who showed full inhibition at $0.6 \mu\text{M}$, there was still partial NH_3 -oxidising activity in
299 the presence of $1 \mu\text{M}$ phenylacetylene ($75.1\% \pm 1.6\%$ inhibition on the rate of NO_2^- production)
300 (Fig. 2B). Together, the results show that “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” is approximately
301 $10 \times$ more resistant to phenylacetylene inhibition compared to *N. europaea*. Both “*Ca.*
302 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* cells treated with 0.1% DMSO produced NO_2^- at
303 a similar rate to untreated controls.

304 **Kinetic analysis of phenylacetylene inhibition of NH_4^+ -dependent NO_2^- production by “*Ca.***
305 ***Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea***

306 To investigate the mode of inhibition of phenylacetylene on AMO, the initial reaction
307 velocity of NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea* were
308 determined over a range of substrate (total NH_4^+) concentrations. The concentrations of
309 phenylacetylene used in the kinetic analysis were selected to achieve partial inhibition of NO_2^-
310 production (Fig. 2). NH_3 -dependent kinetics of initial NO_2^- production followed Michaelis-
311 Menten-type saturation kinetics for both “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea*
312 (Fig. 3A & B), where the velocity (v) of the AMO-catalysed reactions was hyperbolically related
313 to total NH_4^+ concentration ($[\text{S}]$) (Eq. 1):

314 (1)

$$v = \frac{V_{max} \cdot [S]}{(K_m + [S])}$$

315 Apparent half-saturation constants for total NH_4^+ ($K_{m(\text{app})}$) and maximum velocities ($V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$) in
316 the presence/absence of phenylacetylene were calculated using hyperbolic regression analysis.
317 The hyperbolic plots show that increasing the NH_4^+ concentration did not alleviate the inhibitory
318 effect of phenylacetylene on NO_2^- production in “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” or *N.*
319 *europaea* (Fig. 3A & B). This suggests that phenylacetylene is not a simple competitive inhibitor
320 of either the archaeal or the bacterial AMO with respect to NH_3 oxidation. Interestingly, the
321 mechanism of inhibition by phenylacetylene appears to be different between “*Ca.*
322 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and *N. europaea*. With “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”, the
323 presence of 4 and 8 μM phenylacetylene decreased the $V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$ of NO_2^- production from $64.1 \pm$
324 $2.6 \text{ nmol mg prot}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ to 33.8 ± 2.2 and $20.1 \pm 0.5 \text{ nmol mg prot}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$, respectively (Table
325 1). There was no significant change in the $K_{m(\text{app})}$ for cells inhibited by phenylacetylene
326 compared to the control ($p = 0.503$ and $p = 0.526$, for 4 and 8 μM phenylacetylene, respectively),
327 indicating that phenylacetylene and NH_3 do not compete for the same binding site. Inhibition of
328 *N. europaea* by 0.2 and 0.4 μM phenylacetylene reduced both the $K_{m(\text{app})}$ and the $V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$ by
329 approximately 30 and 40%, respectively (Table 1). This is indicative of uncompetitive inhibition
330 and suggests that phenylacetylene binds to the AMO subsequent to NH_3 binding and at a
331 different binding site.

332 Previously, acetylene was shown to be a competitive inhibitor of the archaeal AMO from
333 *Nitrososphaera viennensis* (48). To examine if acetylene interacts competitively with “*Ca.*
334 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” AMO, the kinetic response of NH_3 -dependent NO_2^- production by
335 “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” to 3 μM acetylene was tested using the same experimental

336 design used to investigate phenylacetylene inhibition. In contrast to phenylacetylene, increasing
337 the total NH_4^+ availability reduced acetylene inhibition, demonstrating that acetylene and NH_3
338 compete for the same AMO binding site (Supplementary information Fig. S2). Additionally, the
339 $K_{m(\text{app})}$ increased dramatically from $18.5 \pm 2.9 \mu\text{M}$ to $691.3 \pm 158.1 \mu\text{M}$ NH_4^+ in the presence of 3
340 μM acetylene, but there was no change in the $V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$ (Supplementary information Table S2),
341 also demonstrating that acetylene interacts with the NH_3 -binding site and decreases the affinity
342 of the AMO for NH_3 .

343 Phenylacetylene was dissolved in 100% DMSO and all cell suspensions used in both the
344 phenylacetylene and acetylene experiments contained 0.1% (v/v) DMSO. Therefore the addition
345 of 0.1% (v/v) DMSO on NH_3 oxidation kinetics was tested separately. DMSO had no effect on
346 kinetics parameters for NH_3 oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”. For *N. europaea*,
347 the presence of 0.1% (v/v) DMSO reduced the $K_{m(\text{app})}$ and $V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$ by approximately 10%
348 (Supplementary information Table S1).

349 **The effect of phenylacetylene on hydroxylamine oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus* 350 *franklandus*”**

351 Hydroxylamine is the product of NH_3 oxidation by both the archaeal and bacterial AMO
352 and is subsequently oxidised to other intermediates in the NO_2^- production pathway (65, 66). In
353 order to verify that the reduction in the rate of NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
354 *franklandus*” was due to inhibition of NH_3 oxidation, rather than the effects of downstream
355 enzymatic reactions, we investigated hydroxylamine oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
356 *franklandus*” in the presence of phenylacetylene. NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
357 *franklandus*” was unaffected by 100 μM phenylacetylene relative to the DMSO control
358 treatment, demonstrating that phenylacetylene is likely a specific inhibitor of the AMO from

359 “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” (Fig. 4). Hydroxylamine-dependent NO_2^- production
360 proceeded rapidly but ceased after 30 minutes when approximately $27 \mu\text{M NO}_2^-$ had
361 accumulated. A similar response was previously observed for the marine AOA *Nitrosopumilus*
362 *maritimus* SCM1 (65).

363 **Recovery of AMO activity in “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” following phenylacetylene** 364 **inhibition**

365 In order to establish whether phenylacetylene is a reversible or irreversible inhibitor of
366 AMO of “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”, the recovery of NH_3 -oxidising activity after
367 exposure to phenylacetylene was investigated. Previous work has shown that in order to restore
368 AMO activity following inhibition by an irreversible inhibitor, for example acetylene, cells need
369 to synthesize new AMO enzyme which results in a lag phase before activity resumes (42). “*Ca.*
370 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” cells were inhibited overnight by $100 \mu\text{M}$ phenylacetylene in the
371 presence of 1 mM NH_4^+ . Since it was previously shown that inhibition by 1-octyne was
372 reversible in the AOA *N. viennensis*, in contrast to the irreversible action of acetylene (48),
373 treatments with both 1-octyne and acetylene were included as controls. To ensure that the
374 inability of cells to respond to substrate addition (NH_4^+) was not due to the effects of starvation,
375 controls incubated for a similar amount of time without either inhibitor or NH_4^+ were included
376 (starved cells). After the removal of the inhibitors by washing, cells were resuspended in NH_4^+ -
377 replete medium. NO_2^- production, the proxy for NH_3 oxidation, by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
378 *franklandus*” recovered immediately following removal of 1-octyne. Cells inhibited by either
379 acetylene or phenylacetylene had a 3 to 5-hour lag time before NO_2^- production began,
380 suggesting that cells required *de novo* synthesis of new AMO in order to oxidise NH_3 (Fig. 5).
381 The starved cells recovered at the same rate as the controls (data not shown).

382 Cycloheximide is a potent inhibitor of protein synthesis in eukaryotes (67) and might be
383 expected to have a similar effect in archaea. Previously, Vajrala *et al.*, (68) demonstrated that it
384 inhibited protein synthesis in the marine AOA, *N. maritimus* SCM1, preventing the recovery of
385 NH₃-oxidising activity following inactivation of the AMO by acetylene. However, the same
386 concentration range of cycloheximide did not prevent the recovery of NH₃-oxidising activity in
387 *N. viennensis* following AMO inactivation with acetylene (48). Here, we observed that after
388 complete inhibition by 20 µM acetylene, cycloheximide slowed, although it did not completely
389 prevent, recovery of NH₃-oxidising activity by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”
390 (Supplementary information Fig. S3).

391 Discussion

392 The inhibition of AMO and pMMO by linear alkynes

393 Linear terminal alkynes have previously been shown to differentially inhibit archaeal and
394 bacterial AMO activity (47, 48). In agreement with this, NH₃-dependent NO₂⁻ production by the
395 AOA strains “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” was
396 considerably less sensitive to inhibition by longer-chain-length 1-alkynes ($\geq C_6$) compared to *N.*
397 *europaea* (Fig. 1). The linear 1-alkyne inhibition profile appears to be conserved across AOA
398 lineages with the overall trend of increased sensitivity to short-chain alkynes and reduced
399 sensitivity to longer-chain-length alkynes. This could indicate that, unlike the AMO from *N.*
400 *europaea*, the binding cavity of the archaeal AMO cannot orientate and activate larger linear
401 hydrocarbons such as 1-octyne, potentially due to steric hindrance caused by the bulkiness of
402 these substrates or inhibitors. Interestingly, inhibition of the AMO from “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
403 *franklandus*” by 1-octyne, when used at 200 µM, was reversible and recovery of NH₃-oxidising

404 activity began immediately after removal of the inhibitor (Fig. 5). Similarly, Taylor *et al.*, (48)
405 showed the inhibition of AMO from *N. viennensis* by 1-octyne was also reversible.

406 In contrast with AOA, NH₃ oxidation by *N. europaea* was fully or partially inhibited by
407 all C₂-C₈ 1-alkynes, with full inhibition occurring in the presence of longer-chain-length alkynes
408 (\geq C₆). This is consistent with previous results published by Hyman *et al.*, (21) and Taylor *et al.*,
409 (47) who found that long-chain-length 1-alkynes inhibited AMO of *N. europaea* more effectively
410 than short-chain 1-alkynes. Additionally, it was observed by Hyman *et al.*, (21) that the
411 effectiveness of *n*-alkynes as inhibitors of AMO from *N. europaea* inversely reflects the
412 oxidation rate of *n*-alkanes of increasing chain length. For example, 1-octyne inactivates *N.*
413 *europaea* AMO more rapidly and effectively than shorter-chain-length 1-alkynes, however, the
414 corresponding alkane, 1-octane, is oxidised more slowly and yields less product compared to
415 short-chain alkanes (21).

416 The pMMO has a narrower hydrocarbon substrate range compared to the AMO of *N.*
417 *europaea* but is capable of oxidising short-chain *n*-alkanes (\leq C₅) and alkenes (\leq C₃) to their
418 respective alcohols and epoxides (17). The specific site where hydrocarbon oxidation takes place
419 within the pMMO is unclear. Intriguingly, a hydrophobic cavity identified in proximity to the
420 predicted tricopper site in the PmoA from *M. capsulatus* (Bath) was shown to be of sufficient
421 size to accommodate hydrocarbons of up to five carbons in length (30, 69, 70). Correspondingly,
422 here we found that C₂-C₅ alkynes inhibited the NH₃-oxidising activity of pMMO from *M.*
423 *capsulatus* (Bath) by more than 20%, reflecting the predicted size of this pMMO binding cavity
424 (Fig. 1D). The inhibition of the pMMO by longer-chain alkynes (C₆-C₈) has not previously been
425 tested and we found that NH₃ oxidation by *M. capsulatus* (Bath) was marginally inhibited by C₆

426 and C₇ alkynes, indicating that the pMMO can interact with longer-chain-length hydrocarbons
427 than those already known to be substrates.

428 The effectiveness of C₂-C₈ linear 1-alkynes as inhibitors of NH₃ oxidation by the AOA
429 strains used in this study and in previous studies (47, 48) indicates that the archaeal AMO has a
430 narrower hydrocarbon substrate range compared to the AMO of *N. europaea*. Furthermore, in
431 terms of the 1-alkyne inhibition profile, the AMO of “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and
432 “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” more closely resembles the pMMO from *M. capsulatus* (Bath) than
433 the AMO of *N. europaea*. It could therefore be anticipated that the archaeal AMO oxidises a
434 similar range of linear *n*-alkanes and alkenes to that oxidised by the pMMO (Fig. 1).

435 Based on the diversity of archaeal AMO sequences (7), it is very likely that variation
436 exists between the structure and stereoselectivity of the AMO active site from different AOA
437 strains. Previously, Taylor *et al.*, (47, 48) observed differences in the sensitivity of *N. maritimus*,
438 *N. viennensis* and *Nitrososphaera gargensis* to inhibition by 1-hexyne (C₆) and 1-heptyne (C₇).
439 In this study, we did not observe significant inhibition of archaeal AMO activity by 1-heptyne,
440 although the AMO from “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” was notably more sensitive to inhibition by
441 C₂-C₅ 1-alkynes compared to AMO from “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”. Additionally, 1-
442 hexyne had a significant inhibitory effect on NO₂⁻ production by “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” but
443 not by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” (Fig. 1A and B).

444 A considerable amount of research has focused on determining the environmental drivers
445 influencing AOA and AOB ecology and their relative contribution to nitrification.
446 Environmental factors, including substrate availability, pH, O₂ availability and temperature, have
447 been suggested to influence the ecological niche differentiation of ammonia oxidisers and to
448 control ammonia oxidation rates in distinct ecosystems. The resistance of “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*

449 franklandus” and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea sinensis*” to inhibition by 1-octyne (C_8) further justifies the
450 use of 1-octyne to distinguish between AOA and AOB nitrifying activity in soils and to reveal
451 the environmental factors influencing niche differentiation (49-51). Determining patterns in the
452 distribution of AOA and AOB in the environment could improve land and water management to
453 mitigate negative impacts associated with nitrification.

454

455 **The inhibition of AMO by phenylacetylene**

456 Evidence from field studies indicated that phenylacetylene inhibited nitrification activity
457 by AOA (53). Here, we examined phenylacetylene inhibition in pure culture with the terrestrial
458 AOA strain “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”. Our data show that in “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
459 *franklandus*”, phenylacetylene is a specific inhibitor of AMO, as it had no effect on
460 hydroxylamine-dependent NO_2^- production (Fig. 4). Kinetic analysis suggested that
461 phenylacetylene does not compete with NH_3 for the same AMO binding site, since increasing the
462 native substrate (NH_4^+) concentration did not protect against inhibition (Fig. 3A). In contrast,
463 higher concentrations of NH_4^+ did provide a protective effect when “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
464 *franklandus*” was incubated with acetylene, indicating acetylene and NH_3 compete for the same
465 binding site (Supplementary information Fig. S2). The recovery of AMO activity following
466 complete inhibition by phenylacetylene incorporated a significant lag phase, similar to that
467 observed for acetylene, suggesting that inhibition by these alkynes was irreversible, and that cells
468 required *de novo* protein synthesis of new AMO to re-establish NH_4^+ -oxidising activity (Fig. 5).
469 Irreversible inhibition could indicate that the binding cavity of the AMO from “*Ca.*
470 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” is large enough to enable the orientation and subsequent activation
471 of phenylacetylene, and that phenylacetylene and acetylene essentially both act as suicide

472 substrates. Curiously though, our data suggest that phenylacetylene does not interact with the
473 same binding site on the AMO as NH_3 and acetylene.

474 Phenylacetylene is an irreversible inhibitor of AMO from *N. europaea* (41, 46). Here we
475 demonstrate that phenylacetylene does not compete with NH_3 for the same binding site (Fig. 3B).
476 It has been proposed that the AMO from *N. europaea* may contain two distinct binding sites, one
477 that specifically binds NH_3 and hydrocarbons $\leq \text{C}_3$ and a second that binds larger hydrocarbons,
478 with oxidation occurring at either site (23, 45). Alternatively, different hydrocarbons might be
479 able to access the active site of the AMO from two different directions (45). pMMO-expressing
480 methanotrophs also exhibit complicated inhibition patterns when exposed to multiple
481 hydrocarbon substrates. For example, dichloromethane acted as a competitive inhibitor of
482 methane oxidation by *Methylosinus trichosporium* OB3b, but trichloromethane was best
483 described as a noncompetitive inhibitor, suggesting the existence of at least two substrate binding
484 sites (20). Although the location and nuclearity of the active site for methane oxidation is still
485 under debate, it is generally accepted that the pMMO contains multiple metal-binding sites, or
486 potential active sites, and therefore it is possible that different hydrocarbons are oxidised at
487 distinct sites on the pMMO. The non-competitive nature of phenylacetylene inhibition, with
488 respect to NH_3 , of the AMO from “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” provides early indications
489 that distinct binding sites may be present on the archaeal AMO, or that there are two separate
490 routes by which substrates can access the archaeal AMO active site.

491 Kinetic analysis of phenylacetylene inhibition of AMO of “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus*
492 *franklandus*” and *N. europaea* revealed that phenylacetylene most likely interacts with the AMOs
493 via distinct mechanisms. Specifically, phenylacetylene inhibition of AMO from *N. europaea* had
494 characteristics of uncompetitive inhibition, where both the $K_{m(\text{app})}$ and $V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$ decreased with

495 increasing concentrations of phenylacetylene, indicating that the inhibitor only has affinity for
496 the enzyme-substrate complex. Potentially, the binding of NH₃ induces a structural change in the
497 AMO binding cavity, enabling phenylacetylene to bind at a putative secondary (non-NH₃) site.
498 Phenylacetylene inhibition of the AMO from “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” did not show
499 the same characteristics as in *N. europaea* (Table 1), demonstrating that the interaction between
500 phenylacetylene and the active site differed between the distinct AMO types.

501 Both AMO- and pMMO-expressing microorganisms have received interest for their
502 potential use in bioremediation due to their capability to co-oxidize persistent organic pollutants
503 such as halogenated alkanes and alkenes and chlorinated hydrocarbons (71, 72). Unlike the
504 bacterial AMO, the oxidation of aromatic compounds has not been observed by the pMMO (17,
505 21, 45, and 56). Lontoh *et al.*, (54) showed that pMMO from *M. capsulatus* (Bath) and several
506 other strains of methanotrophs were relatively resistant to phenylacetylene inhibition, with
507 whole-cell pMMO activity still present at 1 mM phenylacetylene. It is possible that aromatic
508 compounds are simply too bulky to gain access to or be orientated at the pMMO active site (69).
509 Although *N. europaea* appears to lack the ability to completely mineralise aromatic pollutants, it
510 may initiate degradation of aromatic compounds and provide oxidation products that can be
511 transformed by other microorganisms (24). There is evidence that the archaeal AMO, unlike the
512 pMMO, is capable of transforming aromatic compounds. Recently, Men *et al.*, (73) demonstrated
513 that the AOA strain *N. gargensis* was capable of co-metabolising two tertiary amines, mianserin
514 and ranitidine, with the initial oxidative reaction most likely carried out by the AMO. Given that
515 AOA have a significantly higher substrate affinity than AOB (74), AOA might be more effective
516 in the biotransformation of some organic pollutants.

517 This research offers new insights into the structure and substrate range of AMO from
518 archaea using alkyne inhibitors, in comparison with other members of the CuMMO family.
519 Future studies should investigate the inhibition and subsequent co-oxidation of potential archaeal
520 AMO substrates. Examining alternative substrate reactions and products could provide
521 information about archaeal AMO stereoselectivity, advance our understanding of the enzyme
522 structure and improve predicted structural models for archaeal AMO.

523

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530

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- 747

748 **Table 1.** Kinetics of NH_3 -dependent NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and
749 *N. europaea* in the presence of phenylacetylene. SE of three replicates are in parentheses (n=3).
750 For 0 μM phenylacetylene, SE is from two independent experiments (n=6).

| Strain | Phenylacetylene (μM) | $K_{m(\text{app})}$ (μM) | $V_{\text{max}(\text{app})}$ ($\text{nmol mg prot}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$) |
|--|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| “ <i>Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus</i> ” | 0 | 26.7 (4.7) | 64.1 (2.6) |
| | 4 | 30.3 (8.3) | 33.8 (2.2) |
| | 8 | 22.9 (3.2) | 20.1 (0.5) |
| <i>N. europaea</i> | 0 | 520.3 (19.6) | 324.4 (3.7) |
| | 0.2 | 375.3 (17.4) | 240.7 (2.7) |
| | 0.4 | 318.4 (13.8) | 188.7 (2.0) |

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760 **FIG 1** Inhibition of NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” (A), “*Ca.*
761 *Nitrosotalea sinensis*” (B), *N. europaea* (C) and *M. capsulatus* (Bath) (D) in response to 10 μM
762 (C_{aq}) C_2 - C_8 1-alkynes. *N. europaea*, “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” and “*Ca. Nitrosotalea*
763 *sinensis*” were incubated with 1 mM NH_4^+ and *M. capsulatus* (Bath) with 20 mM NH_4^+ . Error
764 bars represent standard error (SE) of the mean ($n = 3$). * Indicates 1-alkyne treatments that
765 significantly inhibited NO_2^- production relative to the control treatment ($p < 0.01$).

766 **FIG 2** NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” (A) and *N. europaea* (B) in
767 response to different concentrations of phenylacetylene (PA) dissolved in DMSO. Error bars
768 representing SE are included but usually smaller than markers ($n = 3$).

769 **FIG 3** Michaelis-Menten hyperbolic plot showing the initial rate of NO_2^- production by “*Ca.*
770 *Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” (A) and *N. europaea* (B) to phenylacetylene (PA) dissolved in
771 DMSO as a function of NH_4^+ concentration. The x-axis is the substrate (NH_4^+) concentration and
772 the y-axis is the initial rate of NO_2^- production. Inhibition was not overcome by increasing
773 concentration of NH_4^+ , indicating that phenylacetylene and NH_3 do not compete for the same
774 binding site. Error bars represent SE ($n = 3$).

775 **FIG 4** NO_2^- production from hydroxylamine oxidation by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*” in
776 the presence or absence of 100 μM phenylacetylene (PA) dissolved in DMSO. Error bars
777 represent SE ($n = 3$).

778 **FIG 5** Time course recovery of NO_2^- production by “*Ca. Nitrosocosmicus franklandus*”
779 following overnight inhibition of NH_3 oxidation by phenylacetylene (100 μM), acetylene (20
780 μM) and 1-octyne (200 μM). Error bars represent SE ($n = 3$).

Figure 1

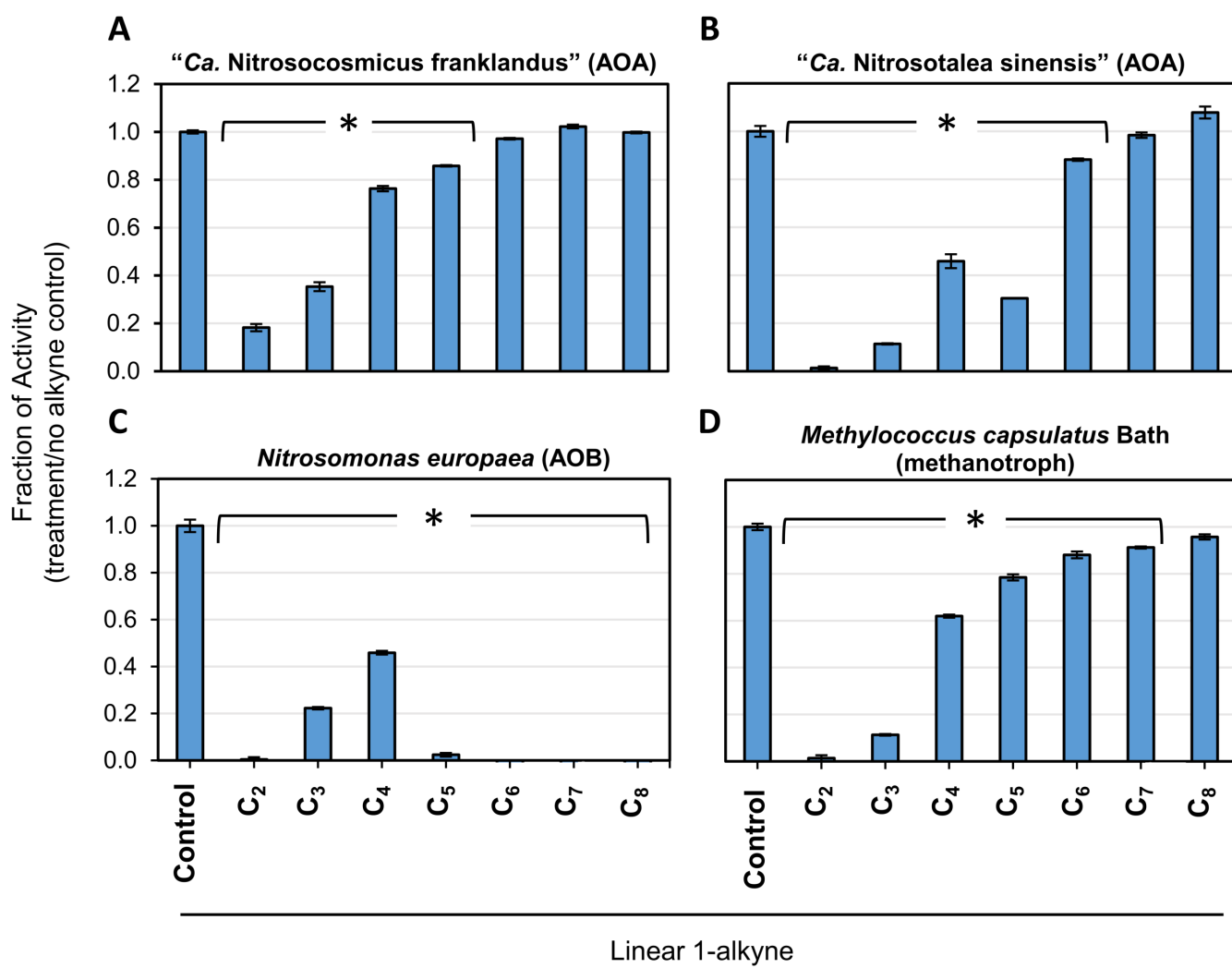


Figure 2

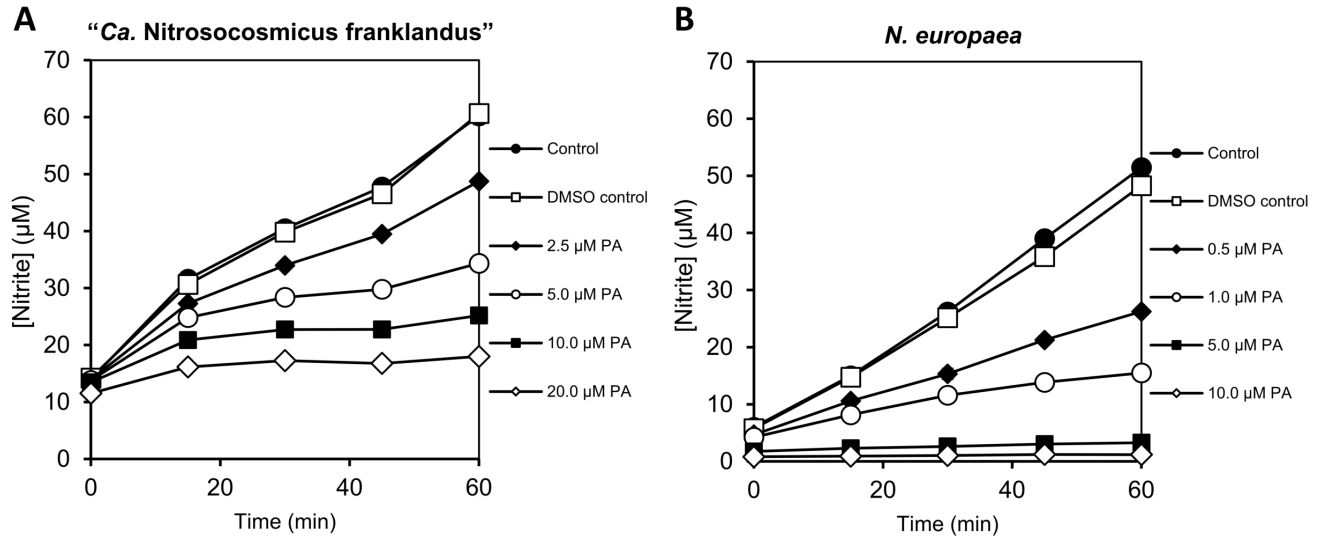


Figure 3

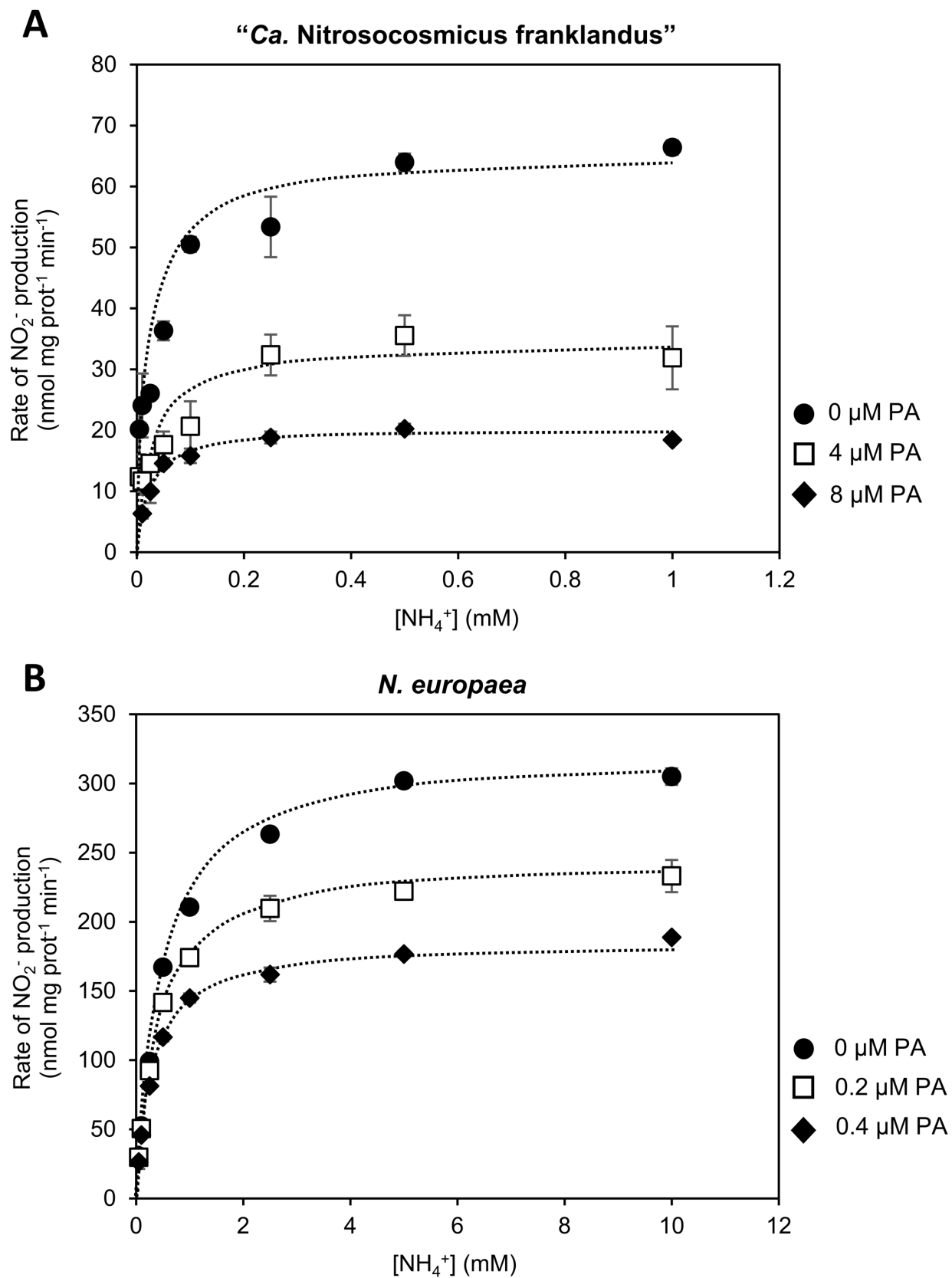


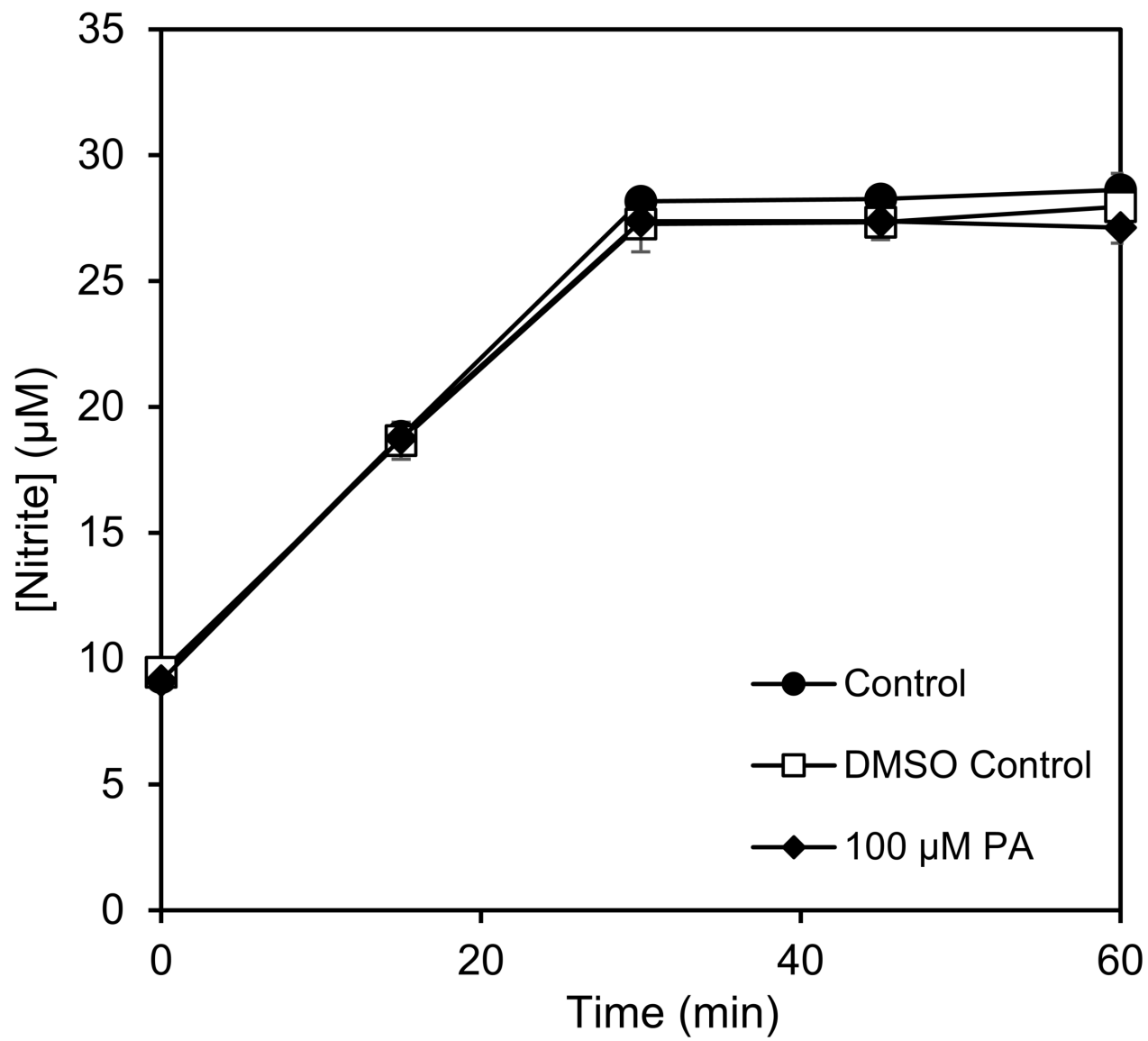
Figure 4

Figure 5

