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5	
6	Oxidation of iodide to iodate by cultures of marine ammonia-oxidising bacteria
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24 Highlights:

25	•	Oxidation of iodide to iodate by marine nitrifying bacteria demonstrated for first time
26	٠	Laboratory cultures of ammonium oxidising bacteria produced iodate from iodide substrate
27	•	Nitrification used to parameterise iodide sink in global marine iodine cycling model
28	•	Changes in nitrification may increase sea surface iodide, impacting atmospheric chemistry
29		
30		
31		
32		

33 Abstract

Reaction with iodide (I) at the sea surface is an important sink for atmospheric ozone, and causes 34 sea-air emission of reactive iodine which in turn drives further ozone destruction. To incorporate this 35 process into chemical transport models, improved understanding of the factors controlling marine 36 iodine speciation, and especially sea-surface iodide concentrations, is needed. The oxidation of I to 37 iodate (IO₃) is the main sink for oceanic I, but the mechanism for this remains unknown. We 38 demonstrate for the first time that marine nitrifying bacteria mediate I oxidation to IO. A significant 39 40 increase in IO₃ concentrations compared to media-only controls was observed in cultures of the ammonia-oxidising bacteria Nitrosomonas sp. (Nm51) and Nitrosoccocus oceani (Nc10) supplied 41 with 9-10 mM I, indicating I oxidation to IO₃. Cell-normalised production rates were 15.69 (±4.71) 42 fmol IO₃ cell⁺ d⁺ for *Nitrosomonas* sp., and 11.96 (±6.96) fmol IO₃ cell⁺ d⁺ for *Nitrosococcus oceani*, 43 and molar ratios of iodate-to-nitrite production were 9.2±4.1 and 1.88±0.91 respectively. Preliminary 44 experiments on nitrite-oxidising bacteria showed no evidence of I toIO, oxidation. If the link 45 between ammonia and I oxidation observed here is representative, our ocean iodine cycling model 46 47 predicts that future changes in marine nitrification could alter global sea surface I fields with potential implications for atmospheric chemistry and air quality. 48

49

50

52 Introduction

Iodine plays an important role in catalytic ozone destruction and new particle formation in the 53 troposphere, thereby impacting the oxidative capacity of the atmosphere (Sherwen et al., 2016) and 54 the Earth's radiation balance (O'Dowd et al., 2002). Sea-to-air iodine transfer is known to be the 55 main source of iodine to the atmosphere (Carpenter, 2003; Sherwen et al., 2016). Reactive inorganic 56 iodine (I₂, HOI) emissions resulting from the reaction of gas-phase ozone with sea surface iodide (I) 57 is now thought to be the dominant mechanism mediating sea-air iodine emissions (Carpenter et al., 58 59 2013). The strength of the surface reactive iodine flux is related to sea surface I concentrations 60 (Carpenter *et al.*, 2013) so knowledge of ocean I distributions is required in order to estimate the significance of this process. Furthermore, a detailed understanding of the processes controlling 61 inorganic iodine speciation is needed to allow us to develop predictive capacity regarding sea surface 62 I, ozone-deposition rates and sea-air emission of reactive iodine. 63

Total inorganic iodine is found at 400-500 nM in seawater and predominantly exists as iodate (IO₃) 64 and I (Chance et al., 2014) with inter-conversion between these two species alongside physical 65 66 mixing being the main causes of spatial and temporal variability in sea surface I. Iodate is the 67 thermodynamically stable form and the dominant form in the deep ocean. The existence of relatively higher levels of I in the euphotic zone (reviewed by Chance et al., 2014) has led to the suggestion 68 that IO₁ reduction to I is linked to primary productivity. This theory has been supported by 69 observations of I production in cultures of a wide range of marine phytoplankton (e.g. Chance et al., 70 71 2007; Bluhm et al., 2010; Hepach et al., 2020) and some field studies (Chance et al., 2010). The 72 mechanism of biogenic iodate reduction to iodide is not yet known, but may be related to senescence 73 processes (Bluhm et al., 2010; Hepach et al., 2020; Carrano et al., 2020). Reduction of IO₃ to I by 74 phytoplankton nitrate reductase enzymes (Hung et al., 2005), or macroalgal cell surface reductases (Carrano et al., 2020), has also been suggested but neither has been confirmed as a significant route 75 76 of conversion.

78	Oxidation of I back to IO ₃ is the dominant sink for I-, but is a relatively slow reaction with rate
79	estimates ranging from ~4 to 670 nM yr ¹ (Chance et al., 2014; Hardisty et al., 2020). The rates and
80	processes involved in I to IO, oxidation are associated with large uncertainty (Truesdale et al., 2001;
81	Amachi et al., 2008), and the mechanisms involved remain undefined. This uncertainty has been
82	suggested to be one of the factors hindering the development of mathematical models of iodine
83	transformations in the global oceans (Truesdale et al., 2001). Abiotic oxidation of I back to IO ₃ in
84	the ocean (e.g. by oxygen, hydroxyl radicals, hydrogen peroxide and ozone) is thought to occur so
85	slowly as to be insignificant (e.g. Wong, 1991), and so I oxidation to IO, is also thought to be
86	associated with marine microbiological activity. I oxidation to I_2 has been observed in bacterial
87	isolates obtained from a range of environments including seawater aquaria (Gozlan et al., 1968),
88	natural gas brines (Iino et al., 2016) and seawater/marine mud (Fuse et al., 2003). Additionally,
89	based on field observations, a number of studies (Truesdale et al., 2001; Žic et al., 2013) have
90	proposed that I oxidation to IO, is linked to nitrification in marine systems. Nitrification is the two-
91	stage biological transformation of ammonia (NH ₃) to nitrate (NO ₃) (Equations 1 and 2; Koops &
92	Pommerening-Röser, 2001) mediated by chemoautotrophic ammonia-oxidising bacteria (AOB), and
93	nitrite-oxidising bacteria (NOB). Previously thought to only occur outside of the euphotic zone,
94	nitrification is now known to occur throughout the oceanic water-column (reviewed by Yool et al.,
95	2007).

96

 $2\mathrm{NH}_{4^{+}} + 3\mathrm{O}_{2} \rightarrow 2\mathrm{NO}_{2^{+}} + 4\mathrm{H}^{+} + 2\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O} \tag{1}$

97

 $2NO_{2} + O_{2} \rightarrow 2NO_{3}$ (2)

A link between I oxidation/ IO₃ production and nitrification is yet to be confirmed but, if established,
would suggest that I oxidation to IO₃ is widespread throughout the world's oceans (Yool *et al.*,
2007).

101

The primary aim of this study was to establish whether I oxidation to IO₃ is associated with marine nitrification. Our objectives were to determine if IO₃ production occurs in cultures of marine ammonia- and nitrite-oxidising bacteria supplied with I, determine the relative rates of IO₃ production and nitrification and explore the possible implications of the findings.

106

107 Methods

108 *Cultures*

Stock bacterial cultures were taken from the existing culture collections of the authors. Two marine 109 110 AOB cultures, Nitrosomonas sp. Nm51 (C-15) and Nitrosococcus oceani Nc10 (C-107, ATCC 19707) were investigated for IO₃ production in the presence of I as the only iodine source. These 111 strains were originally isolated from seawater in the south Pacific and the north Atlantic respectively 112 (Watson and Mandel, 1971). Cultures were grown in the dark in a water bath at 25 °C in autoclaved 113 ESAW artificial seawater mixture (Berges et al., 2001) made up using distilled water. The ESAW 114 115 media was supplemented with 7-8 mM ammonium chloride and potassium phosphate. We also 116 conducted preliminary tests on three active marine NOB: Nitrospira marina Nb-295 (isolated from Gulf of Maine, Watson et al., 1986); Nitrospina gracilis 3/211 (isolated from the south Atlantic, 117 118 Watson and Waterbury, 1971); Nitrococcus mobilis Nb-231 (ATCC 25380, isolated from Galapagos seawater, Watson and Waterbury, 1971). However we saw no evidence of IO₃ production in any of 119 120 the NOB cultures studied and these results are not discussed further. Handling of cultures was done 121 at all times in a biosafety cabinet using sterile equipment.

122

123 Experimental Set Up

124	For the AOB experiments triplicate cultures were incubated alongside triplicate media-only controls
125	for periods of 8-12 days. The experiments were kept as short as possible to avoid significant changes
126	in pH in the bulk media which would impact inorganic iodine speciation. Hence experiments were
127	only run until an increase in nitrite across two time-points was observed. Samples were taken at
128	regular intervals of between 1 to 6 days for pH measurement, cell counts and determination of NO_2 ,
129	IO_{3} , I and NH_4/NH_3 concentrations. In all cases, I (Aristar) was added to be at similar concentrations
130	with the NH ₄ required in the growth media. The levels of I are much higher than those encountered
131	in the oceans (global ocean median=77 nM I [interquartile range 28-140 nM], Chance et al., 2014)
132	but were chosen to be similar to the levels of NH This is because in the marine environment
133	nitrifiers would be exposed to similar ratio of NH4 and I. For example, Rees et al. (2006) show that
134	NH_4 , NH ₃ occurs at concentrations ranging from 60-300 nM in the Atlantic between 60 N to 50 S.
135	
136	рН

A spectrophotometric method using a Lambda 25 UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Perkin-Elmer) and mcresol purple dye (Dickson *et al.*, 2007) with measurements at 730, 578 and 434 nm was used to
determine pH in the cultures and media-only controls. Salinity, needed for the pH calculation, was
calculated from conductivity measured using a calibrated Hanna Instruments hand-held probe.

141

142 Cell counts

Immediately after sampling, 4 mL of the culture was fixed with 15 μ L of 50% glutaraldehyde (Alfa Aesar), flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and placed in a -80 °C freezer for later determination of cell density. Cell counts were made using a Beckman Coulter Cytoflex S flow cytometer (flow rate of 10 μ L min⁻¹) within 2 months of collection. DAPI (Sigma; 2 μ g mL⁻¹) stained samples were excited by a laser at 405 nm and the emitted fluorescence detected using an avalanche photodiode detector with a
reflective band pass filter 450/45. The flow cytometer thresholds were set using the 405 nm laser
side scatter and the DAPI fluorescence signals.

150

151 Nitrite concentration

NO₂ was measured in 0.45 μ m (Millex) filtered samples using a spectrophotometric method (Lambda 25 UV/Vis spectrophotometer, Perkin-Elmer) developed by Norwitz & Keliher (1984). The method involves diazotizing nitrite with sulfanilamide (Fisher, analytical reagent grade) and coupling with N-1-naphthylethylenediamine dihydrochloride (Fisher, analytical reagent grade) to form a coloured azo dye which is measured spectrophotometrically at 540 nm. The method was calibrated using NaNO₂ standards (Fisher, analytical reagent grade) prepared in the ESAW-based media.

158

159 Iodate Concentration

160 IO₃ concentrations were measured in 0.45 μ m (Millex) filtered samples using a manual version of the

161 spectrophotometric (Lambda 25 UV/Vis spectrophotometer) method detailed in Truesdale &

162 Spencer, 1974 and Jickells *et al.*, 1988. Absorbance was measured at 350 nm. Strictly, this method

163 determines all oxidised (0 to +5 oxidation state) forms of inorganic iodine, but in seawater derived

media this is predominantly IO_3 , and so will be referred to as IO_3 iodate hereafter. The method was

165 calibrated using potassium iodate (Aristar) standard solutions made up in ESAW.

166 Some validation and modification to the method was required due to the nature of our experimental

set-up. Chapman & Liss (1977) show that NO_2 can interfere with spectrophotometric IO_3

- 168 measurements (using sulfamic acid) at ambient seawater concentrations with a 15% error. Clearly
- significant interference would be an issue for our experiments where NO_2 was being produced so we
- 170 ran tests. We found that the presence of NO₂ up to 10 μ M had negligible impact on IO₃ measurements

171 (between 0.1-50 μ M). We did however identify that the high starting concentration of I (~10 μ M) in 172 the culture media was problematic. The iodate analysis method comprises two steps: the first 173 involves an initial absorbance reading after the addition of sulfamic acid; the second involves the 174 addition of excess I. Under acidic conditions I reacts with IO₃ to form I₂ (equation 3a) which reacts 175 with excess I to form the coloured ion I₃ (equation 3b) that can be measured spectrophotometrically.

176
$$IO_3 + 5I + 6H^+ \rightarrow 3I_2 + 3H_20$$
 (3a)

$$177 I_2 + I \to I_3 (3b)$$

The difference between the first and second absorbance readings is then used to calibrate the method. In the case of our experiments the media already contained excess I so the formation of I_2 and I_3 was initiated as soon as the acid was added in the first step. Hence we calibrated the method based on a single absorbance reading obtained after acid and then additional I was added. Calibrations and standard checks revealed this approach did not have any impact on the quality of the data.

183

184 Ammonium Concentration

NH.⁺ concentrations were measured in 0.45 µm (Millex) filtered samples with a Seal Analytical
Autoanalyser 3 according to method G-109-93 rev. 10 (Seal Analytical) using sodium salicylate,
dichloro-isocyanuric acid and citrate buffer. The method was calibrated using standards ranging from
0-2 mg/L prepared from dilutions of a 1000 mg/L ammonium standard solution (Merck).

189

190 *Iodide Concentration*

191 I concentrations were determined using a Dionex ICS-2000 ion chromatograph equipped with an

192 EGC III KOH elugen cartridge, AG18 (2 x 50 mm) guard column, AS18 (2 x 250 mm) analytical

193 column, ASRS 300 (2 mm) suppressor, DS6 heated conductivity cell and AS40 autosampler.

Samples were diluted 100-fold with 18 M Ω deionised water for analysis and 5 μ L was injected onto the ion chromatograph. Aqueous potassium hydroxide was used as the eluent at a flow rate of 0.25 mL min⁺ with a gradient program starting from an initial concentration of 2 mM hydroxide (hold 1 min) to 20 mM at 18 min then to 41 mM at 19 min (hold 2 min) before returning to 2 mM. The I retention time was 19 min. The instrument was calibrated with matrix-matched standards ranging from 0-100 nM (I), prepared from dilutions of a 1000 mg/L iodide standard solution (Fisher Scientific) with 18 M Ω deionised water and containing a final concentration of 1% ESAW.

201

202 Data Analysis

As in Guerrero and Jones (1996), the NH₄ oxidation rate is defined here as the rate of increase in NO₂. Similarly, we define the rate of I oxidation as the rate of increase in IO₃. This is appropriate as no other iodine species were supplied to the cultures and conversion between I and IO₃ is known to be the main cause of variability in inorganic iodine speciation (Bluhm *et al.*, 2010; Chance *et al.*, 2014). Average NO₂ and IO₃ production rates were calculated for each replicate culture using Equation 4.

Production Rate (nM day⁻¹) =
$$\frac{(C_{end} - C_0)}{t}$$
 (4)

where C_0 and C_{est} are the NO₂ or IO₃ concentrations observed at the start and end of the experiment and t is the experimental duration in days. Cell-normalised rates were calculated by dividing these rates by the final cell density observed in each AOB culture and are hence likely to be minimum values.

- 214
- 215
- 216 **Results**

217 Cell counts and pH

Increases in cell density were observed in all replicates of *Nitrosomonas* sp. and *Nitrosococcus*

- *oceani* between the start and end of the experiment indicating growth (Figure 1). Average initial cell
- density in the *Nitrosomonas* sp. cultures was $21,767 (\pm 4,046)$ cells mL⁺ and this increased to 150,983
- $(\pm 7,585)$ cells mL¹ by the end of the experiment (8 days). For *Nitrosococcus oceani* start and end (12
- days) cell densities were 16,947 (\pm 3,098) and 71,430 (\pm 9,062) cells mL⁻¹, respectively. Average pH
- levels in the culture experiments calculated from measurements at each time point (data not shown)
- were 7.69 (± 0.07) for *Nitrosomonas* sp. and 7.41 (± 0.12) for *Nitrosococcus* sp. These pH levels are
- consistent with those found in the media-only controls (7.64±0.07 for *Nitrosomonas* sp; 7.64±0.15
- 226 for *Nitrosococcus oceani*).
- 227
- 228
- 229

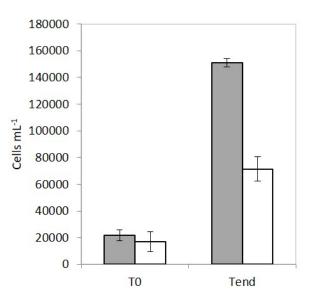


Figure 1. Average cell number in the *Nitrosomonas* sp. (grey bars) and *Nitrosococcus oceani* (white bars) cultures used in this study at the start (T_0) and end (T_{ext} ; 8 days for *Nitrosomonas* sp. and 12 days for *Nitrosococcus oceani*) of each experiment. Error bars are standard deviations from three replicate cultures.

- 235
- 236 Iodine and nitrogen speciation

237	Figure 2 shows that significant increases in the concentrations of IO ₃ (compared to media-only
238	controls) were observed alongside NO ₂ production in both AOB cultures studied. In <i>Nitrosomonas</i>
239	sp. (Figure 2ai and 2bi) there was a steady increase in IO ₃ concentrations throughout the experiment
240	reaching a maximum of 19,921 (\pm 4,754) nM by the end of the experiment (day 8). In contrast NO ₂
241	concentrations reached a maximum of 2,360 (±386) nM by day 6 and remained at around that level
242	until the end of the experiment. In Nitrosococcus oceani (Figure 2aii and 2bii) IO ₃ concentrations
243	increased rapidly during the initial stages of the experiment reaching 23, 943 (\pm 8,568) nM by day 6.
244	IO_3 concentrations at the end of the experiment (day 12) were 16,365 (±7,603) nM. NO ₂
245	concentrations increased gradually throughout the experiment reaching 5,547 (\pm 1,251) nM by day
246	12. There was larger variability in IO ₃ concentrations between replicates for <i>Nitrosococcus oceani</i>
247	but despite this a clear increase in all replicates was observed.

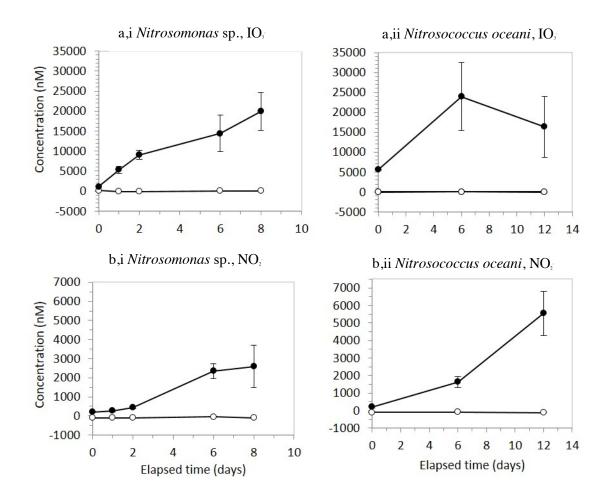


Figure 2. Changes in iodate (a) and nitrite (b) concentrations in cultures (closed symbols) and
media-only controls (open symbols) for two cultures of ammonia-oxidising bacteria: i) *Nitrosomonas*sp.; and, ii) *Nitrosococcus oceani* supplied with 9-10 mM iodide and 7-8 mM NH₄. Error bars show
the standard deviation of three replicate cultures.

253

255	
254	Average production rates of IO ₃ and NO ₂ are presented in Table 1. In <i>Nitrosomonas</i> sp. average
255	rates (±standard deviation) were 2,348 (±593) nM IO ₃ day ⁴ and 298 (±141) nM NO ₂ day ⁴ . In
256	<i>Nitrosococcus oceani</i> averages rates were 897 (\pm 640) nM IO ₃ ⁻ day ⁻¹ and 445 (\pm 99) nM NO ₂ ⁻ day ⁻¹ .
257	Minimum cell-normalised rates (based on the final cell density observed in each culture) were 15.69
258	(±4.71) fmol IO ₃ ⁻ cell ⁺ day ⁺ and 1.96 (±0.88) fmol NO ₂ ⁻ cell ⁺ day ⁺ for <i>Nitrosomonas</i> sp., and 11.96
259	(±6.96) fmol IO ₃ ⁻ cell ⁻¹ day ⁻¹ and 6.19 (±0.56) fmol NO ₂ ⁻ cell ⁻¹ day ⁻¹ for <i>Nitrosococcus oceani</i> . Molar
260	ratios of iodate-to-nitrite production were 9.2±4.0 for Nitrosomonas sp. and 1.88±0.91 for
261	Nitrosococcus oceani.

262

Table 1. Nitrite and iodate production rates (± standard deviations) observed in cultures of the
 ammonia-oxidising bacteria *Nitrosomonas* sp. and *Nitrosococcus oceani*. Cell-normalised values are
 a minimum as they are calculated using maximum cell densities.

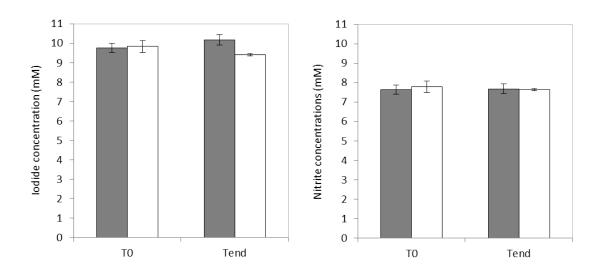
266

	Ν	itrite	Ιο	late
Culture	nM day-1	fmol cell ¹ day ¹	nM day₁	fmol cell ¹ day ¹
Nitrosomonas sp.	298 (±141)	1.96 (±0.88)	2,348 (±593)	15.69 (±4.71)
Nitrosococcus oceani	445 (±99)	6.19 (±0.56)	897 (±640)	11.96 (±6.96)

²⁶⁷ 268

Figure 3 shows that, within error, a decline in I or $NH_{4^{+}}$ concentrations was not observed during either of the AOB experiments. Average starting I or $NH_{4^{+}}$ concentrations in *Nitrosomonas* sp. were 9.8 (±0.2) mM and 7.6 (±0.1) mM respectively. At the end of the experiment these values were 10.2 (±0.3) mM I and 7.7 (±0.1) mM $NH_{4^{+}}$. For *Nitrosococcus oceani* the start and end concentrations were 9.8 (±0.3) and 9.4 (±0.1) mM for I and 7.8 (±0.1) and 7.7 (±0.1) mM for $NH_{4^{+}}$. This result was expected as the average standard deviations associated with the observed concentrations of I or $NH_{4^{+}}$ (i.e. 0.1 to 0.3 mM) are at least an order of magnitude higher than the maximum levels of IO₅ and

- 276 NO_2 observed in the culture experiments, i.e. very little of the initial stock of NO_2 or NH_4 was
- 277 oxidised during the experiments.
- 278



279

Figure 3. Start and end concentrations of a) iodide and b) ammonia in cultures of *Nitrosomonas* sp.
 (grey bars) and *Nitrosococcus oceani* (white bars). Error bars show the standard deviation of three
 replicate cultures.

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- 284
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- 286

287 Discussion

- 288 Iodate production by ammonia-oxidising bacteria
- 289 Our results confirm that IO₃ production occurs in cultures of the ammonia-oxidising bacteria
- 290 *Nitrosomonas* sp. and *Nitrosococcus oceani* supplied with I, but not in cultures of nitrite oxidising
- bacteria. Coincident increases in NO₂ (Figure 2) show that both cultures were actively oxidising
- ammonia throughout the experiments at rates of $1.96\pm0.0.88$ fmol NO₂ cell⁴ day⁴ for *Nitrosomonas*
- sp. and 6.19 ± 0.56 fmol NO₂ cell⁴ day⁴ for *Nitrosococcus oceani*. Whilst these cell-normalised
- oxidation rates are of the same order as those reported in the literature (e.g. 6-20 fmol NO_2^{-1} cell⁴ day⁴;
- Ward *et al.*, 1987; 1989) they are at the lower end. This is consistent with the approach taken here to
- calculate the rates by normalising to the final (highest) cell densities. It is also worth noting that the

cultures were at an early stage of growth and had relatively low cell densities during the experiment.
This was done to avoid significant changes in pH in the bulk media which would impact inorganic
iodine speciation (*Section 3.2*). The observation of an increase in IO₃ concentrations alongside active
biological ammonia oxidation supports previous studies (e.g. Truesdale *et al.*, 2001; Zic *et al.*, 2013)
which have shown that high aqueous concentrations of IO₃ are found in regions of enhanced
nitrification, and provides the first direct confirmation of a biological basis for at least one
mechanism of iodide oxidation

304

Whilst we did not set out to establish the mechanism for I to IO, oxidation by marine nitrifiers, some 305 speculations can be made. As I oxidation to IO, requires the transfer of six electrons, it may occur in 306 a series of one- or two- electron transfer steps. Initially, I may be oxidised to molecular iodine (I \rightarrow 307 I_2), a reaction which is thermodynamically unfavourable at the pH of seawater (Luther *et al.*, 1995). 308 Further oxidation to IO₃ by disproportionation ($I_2 \rightarrow HOI \rightarrow IO_3$) can occur spontaneously, but in 309 seawater is subject to competition with reduction of I₂by organic matter (Truesdale & Moore, 1992; 310 311 Truesdale et al., 1995). It is not known whether the ammonia-oxidisers mediate just the first stage of 312 I oxidation, with the observed IO_i production due to subsequent spontaneous reactions in the culture 313 media, or if they are involved in driving the complete conversion of I to IO_4 . However, bacteria which just oxidise I to I₂ have been isolated from seawater aquaria (Gozlan, 1968), I-rich natural gas 314 brine waters (Amachi et al., 2005) and marine environmental samples (Fuse et al., 2003; Amachi et 315 316 al., 2005).

317

The observed IO_3 production is either linked to the nitrification process itself or associated with other metabolic activities of the AOB studied. Truesdale *et al.* (2001) has proposed that I oxidation to IO_3 would be energetically advantageous for chemoautotrophic AOB. In that case the key enzymes used to obtain energy during the oxidation of NH_4 to NO_2 (ammonia monooxygenase [AMO] and

322	hydroxylamine oxidoreductase [HAO]) could also have the potential to use I as a substrate. The
323	observed IO ₃ -to-NO ₂ molar production rates (9.2±4.0 for <i>Nitrosomonas</i> sp. and 2.3±1.1 for
324	Nitrosococcus oceani) are intriguing. If AMO/HAO are involved, this suggests that the enzymes
325	have higher affinities for I than NH4/NH2OH given the similar concentrations of I and NH4 used in
326	the experiments. Other enzymes that have been implicated in I oxidation include the
327	chloroperoxidases (Thomas & Hager, 1968) but we do not know if they occur in AOB. The exact
328	metabolic pathway driving the observed IO _s production and its controls (i.e. substrate concentrations,
329	light intensity) will need to be determined in future work. To establish if such further
330	experimentation is warranted we need to explore whether the link between nitrification and I
331	oxidation is likely to be an important part of inorganic iodine cycling in seawater.
222	
332	
332 333	Implications for inorganic iodine speciation in the oceans
	<i>Implications for inorganic iodine speciation in the oceans</i> Our culture studies suggest that the molar rate of I oxidation (IO ₃ production) is ~2-9 times higher
333	
333 334	Our culture studies suggest that the molar rate of I oxidation (IO ₃ production) is \sim 2-9 times higher
333 334 335	Our culture studies suggest that the molar rate of I oxidation (IO ₃ production) is \sim 2-9 times higher than that for ammonia oxidation (nitrification). Note that although ammonium and iodide
333 334 335 336	Our culture studies suggest that the molar rate of I oxidation (IO ₅ production) is ~2-9 times higher than that for ammonia oxidation (nitrification). Note that although ammonium and iodide concentrations were much higher in the experimental media than in the oceans, the concentration
333 334 335 336 337	Our culture studies suggest that the molar rate of I oxidation (IO ₅ production) is ~2-9 times higher than that for ammonia oxidation (nitrification). Note that although ammonium and iodide concentrations were much higher in the experimental media than in the oceans, the concentration ratio of these species was comparable to that found naturally. Ammonia oxidation rates in seawater
 333 334 335 336 337 338 	Our culture studies suggest that the molar rate of I oxidation (IO ₃ ⁻ production) is ~2-9 times higher than that for ammonia oxidation (nitrification). Note that although ammonium and iodide concentrations were much higher in the experimental media than in the oceans, the concentration ratio of these species was comparable to that found naturally. Ammonia oxidation rates in seawater range from below detection to 10 ^a nM day ⁴ (Table 2). Literature estimates of the rate of I oxidation
 333 334 335 336 337 338 339 	Our culture studies suggest that the molar rate of I oxidation (IO ₅ production) is ~2-9 times higher than that for ammonia oxidation (nitrification). Note that although ammonium and iodide concentrations were much higher in the experimental media than in the oceans, the concentration ratio of these species was comparable to that found naturally. Ammonia oxidation rates in seawater range from below detection to 10 ^a nM day ^a (Table 2). Literature estimates of the rate of I oxidation in the marine environment range from ~4 to 670 nM year ^a or 0.01 to 1.84 nM day ^a (reviewed in

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Table 2. Ammonia-oxidation rates measured in a range of ocean regions.

Study	Location	Rate (nM day-1)
Newell <i>et al</i> . (2011)	Arabian Sea, Indian Ocean	undetected to 21.6
Smith <i>et al</i> . (2015)	Northeast Pacific	< 0.01 to 90
Peng et al. (2015)	Eastern tropical north Pacific	< 1 to 8.6

Newell et al. (2013)Subtropical Atlantic, Sargasso Sea (BATS)< 2</th>Lam et al. (2007)Black Sea7-24Beman et al. (2012)Gulf of California, eastern tropical north Pacific0-348

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Truesdale et al. (2001) derive likely I oxidation (or IO, production) rates for the near surface Black 348 Sea using an iodine budget and this allows us to examine the potential importance of the link 349 350 between nitrification and I oxidation on a local scale. They predict a minimum I oxidation flux of 3.89 x 10⁴ mol I m² year⁴ which is an average of 0.02 nM day⁴ at a mixed-layer depth (MLD) of 50 m 351 or 0.11 nM day⁴ at an MLD of 10 m. Lam *et al.* (2007) report an AOB abundance of $\leq 1,400$ cells 352 353 mL⁻¹ in the Black Sea. If we apply a cell density of 1,400 AOB cells mL⁻¹ to the average cellnormalised rates of IO₃ production observed in this study (Table 1) we derive I oxidation rates of 354 \sim 20 nM d⁴. This is clearly much higher than the rates suggested in Truesdale *et al.* (2001). This 355 356 discrepancy could be explained in a number of ways. Firstly, Lam et al. (2007) state that net 357 nitrification only takes place within a narrow depth range of the Black Sea water column (i.e. 358 between 71 and 81 m) and, the I oxidation values derived in Truesdale et al. (2001) are minimum 359 values. It is also possible that the AOB studied here have a higher capacity for I oxidation (per unit ammonia-oxidised) than other ammonia-oxidisers or that our culture conditions (e.g. substrate 360 availability) promoted higher I oxidation rates than would be observed in marine systems. For 361 example, ammonia-oxidising Archaea (AOA), which can outnumber known bacterial ammonia 362 363 oxidisers by orders of magnitudes in environments such as the marine water-column (reviewed by Schleper & Nicol, 2010), may have a very different capacity for I oxidation compared to the AOB 364 365 studied here. Further studies are needed to establish the relationship between ammonia- and I oxidation in the marine environment. 366

367

368 Potential implications for future oceanic inorganic iodine distributions

Environmental factors which are known to be currently undergoing change in the oceans (e.g. 369 370 oxygen, light, pH, temperature) have all been found to impact rates and patterns of marine 371 nitrification (reviewed by Pajores and Ramos, 2019). Whilst there remains some uncertainty about the future magnitude and, in some cases, sign of the response, some of the expected future changes in 372 373 marine nitrification are large. For example, whilst some studies have seen no impact on specific marine nitrifiers (e.g. Qin et al., 2014), Beman et al. (2011) suggest that expected rates of 374 acidification could cause a decline in ammonia oxidation by up to 44% within the next few decades. 375 376 It is hence worth exploring how possible future changes in marine nitrification could impact ocean iodine cycling. 377

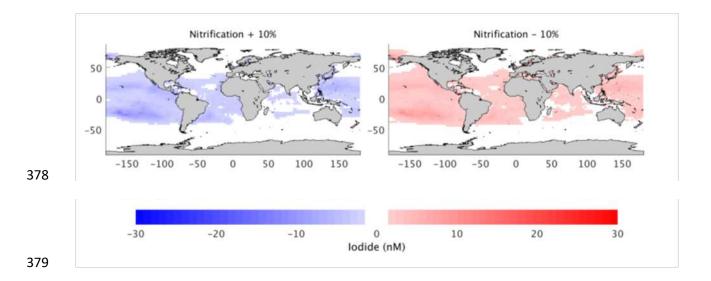


Figure 4. Modelled changes in surface I concentration (nM) resulting from a) +10%, b) -10%,
 changes in the rates of nitrification. Negative percent values indicate a decline in the rate of
 nitrification and *vice-versa*. Negative values on the scale bar indicate a decrease in I concentrations
 and *vice versa*.

In order to explore the possible impact of future changes in marine nitrification rates on sea surface iodine fields we used the ocean cycling model described in Wadley et al. (2020). Within the model iodide production is driven by primary productivity, and I oxidation to IO₃ linked to nitrification in the mixed layer. Nitrogen fluxes and the spatial distribution of mixed layer ammonia oxidation are derived from a global biogeochemical cycling model (Yool *et al.*, 2007). I is oxidised to IO₃ in

association with the ammonia oxidation, with the same I:N:C ratio as associated with iodide 390 391 production (Truesdale et al., 2001; Long et al., 2015). The model does not use any of the rates 392 derived in the current study as these are based on results from only 2 AOB species cultured at high substrate concentrations. Model outputs (Figure 4) show that even with small (+/-10%) changes in 393 394 ammonia oxidation there is a clear alteration to sea surface I fields. Sea surface I concentrations increase as ammonium oxidation rates decrease and *vice-versa*. For example, the ocean cycling 395 model suggests there could be an average global increase of 0.13 nM I per 1% decrease in 396 397 nitrification. The outputs suggest that the change in the iodine fields is spatially variable and will increase as the perturbation to ammonia oxidation increases. For example, at the 44% decline in 398 nitrification predicted by Beman et al. (2011) the model predicts there will be a 25% increase (+30 399 400 nM) in sea surface I in the sub-tropical gyres. Carpenter *et al.* (2013) show that I emissions due to ozone deposition increase near linearly with I concentration. Hence, the predicted changes to sea 401 surface I fields under future ocean acidification could have a major impact on ozone deposition to 402 the sea surface, atmospheric chemistry and resulting sea-air iodine emissions. 403

404

405

406 **5.3.Conclusions**

This study has shown that I oxidation to IO₃ occurs in cultures of ammonia oxidising (nitrifying)
bacteria, but not nitrite oxidising bacteria. Our calculations suggest that I oxidation by AOB could be
an important control on inorganic iodine speciation in seawater, but to confirm this further study is
needed on a wider range of ammonia-oxidisers including ammonia oxidising archaea (AOA).
Simulations from our iodine cycling model suggest that changes in nitrification rate, such as those
predicted to occur under acidification (Beman *et al.*, 2011), could have an important impact on sea
surface I fields. A future change in marine nitrification could alter sea surface I fields. In turn, this

414 could lead to a change in ozone deposition to the sea surface and sea-air iodine emissions with

415 potentially major implications for atmospheric chemistry and air quality.

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423

424 Author contributions

425 Claire Hughes: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualisation, Supervision, Project Administration, Funding 426 Acquisition. Eleanor Barton: Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. Helmke 427 Hepach: Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Resources. Rosie Chance: Conceptualisation, 428 Methodology, Resources, Data Curation, Writing - Review & Editing, Project Administration, 429 Matt Pickering: Methodology, Validation, Resources. Karen Hogg: 430 Funding Acquisition. Methodology, Resources. Andreas Pommerening-Röser: Methodology, Resources. Martin R. 431 Wadley: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, 432 Writing - Original Draft, Visualisation. David P. Stevens: Conceptualisation, Methodology, 433 Resources, Supervision, Funding Acquisition. Tim D. Jickells: Conceptualisation, Methodology, 434 435 Supervision, Funding Acquisition.

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Supplementary Data

Iodate production in cultures of marine ammonia-oxidising bacteria: implications for future inorganic iodine distributions in the oceans Claire Hughes, Eleanor Barton, Helmke Hepach, Rosie Chance, Matt Pickering, Karen Hogg, Andreas Pommerening-Röser, Martin R. Wadley, David P. Stevens & Tim D. Jickells

Table S1: Concentrations of iodine and nitrogen species, cell counts and pH in bacterial cultures and media-only controls over time

			[lodate] and [Nitrite], nmol L-1								Cell count, cells/mL			[Ammonium], mmol L-1			[lodide], mmol L-1			pH						
			Media-only control			Bacteria			Bacteria			Bacteria			Bacteria			Media-only control			Bacteria					
Bacterial strain	Day	Analyte	Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	С	Α	В	С			
Nitrosomonas sp	0	Nitrite:	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0	0	18140	26130	21030	7.64	7.64	7.61	9.94	9.49	9.84	7.69	7.7	7.71	7.75	7.77	7.78			
	1		-0.7	-2.3	-3.2	31	63	71										7.58	7.65	7.64	7.67	7.63	7.7			
	2		2.5	2.3	-2.3	257	210	238																		
	6		45.1	44.5	37.5	2175	1790	2488																		
	8		2.1	-4.6	-7.2	3485	2430	1228	158610	143440	150900	7.75	7.61	7.68	10.4	10.2	9.9	7.54	7.61	7.61	7.62	7.61	7.65			
nicrosomonus sp.	0	lodate:	0	0	0	0	0	0																		
	1		-98	-98	-212	4047	3529	5022																		
	2		-125	-125	-202	8741	6582	8490																		
	6		19	19	-58	18112	8764	12893																		
	8		35	35	-85	16403	24243	15702																		
	0	Nitrite:	0	0	0	0	0	0	19870	17270	13700	7.83	7.72	7.78	9.5	10.0	10.0	7.61	7.60	7.59	7.54	7.50	7.52			
Nitrosococcus oceani	6		30.3	21.3	23.4	1675	1428	1194										7.68	7.69	7.64	7.45	7.44	7.49			
	12		-12.9	-12.6	-10	6705	4718	4604	81830	67230	65230	7.69	7.58	7.68	9.5	9.4	9.4	7.66	7.67	7.63	7.21	7.30	7.27			
	0	lodate:	0	0	0	0	0	0																		
	6		72	59	61	15000	28036	11970																		
	12		25	28	46	19569	7185	5519																		