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Molecular adaptation of ammonia monooxygenase during independent pH specialization in Thaumarchaeota

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Abstract
Microbes are abundant in nature and often highly adapted to local conditions. While great progress has been made in understanding the ecological factors driving their distribution in complex environments, the underpinning molecular-evolutionary mechanisms are rarely dissected. Therefore, we scrutinized the coupling of environmental and molecular adaptation in Thaumarchaeota, an abundant archaeal phylum with a key role in ammonia oxidation. These microbes are adapted to a diverse spectrum of environmental conditions, with pH being a key factor shaping their contemporary distribution and evolutionary diversification. We integrated high-throughput sequencing data spanning a broad representation of ammonia-oxidizing terrestrial lineages with codon modelling analyses, testing the hypothesis that ammonia monooxygenase subunit A (AmoA) – a highly conserved membrane protein crucial for ammonia oxidation and classical marker in microbial ecology – underwent adaptation during specialization to extreme pH environments. While purifying selection has been an important factor limiting AmoA evolution, we identified episodic shifts in selective pressure at the base of two phylogenetically distant lineages that independently adapted to acidic conditions and subsequently gained lasting ecological success. This involved nonconvergent selective mechanisms (positive selection vs. selection acting on variants fixed during an episode of relaxed selection) leading to unique sets of amino acid substitutions that remained fixed across the radiation of both acidophilic lineages, highlighting persistent adaptive value in acidic environments. Our data demonstrates distinct trajectories of AmoA evolution despite convergent phenotypic adaptation, suggesting that microbial environmental specialization can be associated with diverse signals of molecular adaptation, even for marker genes employed routinely by microbial ecologists.

Keywords: ammonia oxidation, archaea, environmental adaptation, evolutionary ecology, microbial evolution, natural selection

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Introduction
Molecular evolutionary analyses are widely used in ecology and evolution to understand the genetic diversity of organisms. Such studies have been enormously valuable in describing adaptive processes in cultivated model microorganisms such as Escherichia coli (e.g. Barrick et al. 2009), Pseudomonas fluorescens (e.g. McDonald et al. 2009) and Burkholderia cenocepacia (e.g. Traverse et al. 2013), as well as pathogens isolated during disease outbreaks (e.g. Kennemann et al. 2011; Snitkin et al. 2011; He et al. 2013). However, this field remains in its infancy for non-pathogenic prokaryotes that abound in natural environments, especially uncultivated microbes. Adaptation to environmental change occurs through evolutionary processes (i.e. mutation, natural selection, genetic drift,
recombination and lateral gene transfer) that modify phenotypes via changes at the molecular level, especially protein functions and/or regulation of gene expression. Therefore, to understand the origins of adaptation in noncultivated and nonpathogenic microbes, including the phenotypic specializations that ultimately determine natural distributions and crucial ecosystem functions, it becomes crucial to infer the underpinning molecular evolutionary processes. Several studies have used such approaches, for example to study marine microbes (Tai & al. 2011; Luo et al. 2015), the gut microbiome (Schloissnig et al. 2013) and microbes from acid mine drainage systems (Allen et al. 2007), but generally, detailed molecular evolutionary analysis of prokaryotes in complex environments, e.g. agricultural and grassland soils, are rare (e.g. Thakur et al. 2013; Li et al. 2014).

Among the widely distributed nonpathogenic prokaryotes, Thaumarchaeota have been highly studied over the last decade, owing largely to their key nitrification function (which is central to the global nitrogen cycle) and massive abundance in marine and terrestrial ecosystems. This microbial phylum is phylogenetically diverse (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2011, 2015; Pester et al. 2012; Vico Oton et al. 2015) and specialized to a number of environmental conditions (Hatzenpichler 2012). Most work on Thaumarchaeota has focused on a conserved gene application of amoA as a marker gene in diverse environments (Rotthauwe et al. 1997; Pester et al. 2011; Vico Oton et al. 2015), but generally, detailed molecular evolutionary analysis of prokaryotes in complex environments, e.g. agricultural and grassland soils, are rare (e.g. Thakur et al. 2013; Li et al. 2014).

Most studies analysing the environmental distribution of Thaumarchaeota have focused on a conserved gene coding the ammonia monooxygenase subunit A (amoA). Its protein product (AmoA) forms part of the ammonia monooxygenase protein complex required for ammonia oxidation and energy production in archaea and bacteria (Bédard & Knowles 1989; Hyman & Arp 1992; McTavish et al. 1993). Despite the huge contemporary application of amoA as a marker gene in diverse environments (Rotthauwe et al. 1997; Pester et al. 2011; Vico Oton et al. 2015) – evidenced by >750 papers in PubMed with the terms ‘amoA’ in the title/abstract (along with >120 000 microbial amoA sequences within the NCBI nucleotide database) – it remains unknown whether AmoA undergoes adaptation to the broad range of environments inhabited by ammonia-oxidizing bacteria and archaea. In this respect, it is critical to note that the evolution of proteins located within the lipid cytoplasmic membrane, including AmoA (Walker et al. 2010), is expected to be strongly influenced by extracellular pH. In archaea, the lipid membrane plays a crucial role in maintaining cellular homeostasis and acts as the main barrier between the environment and cellular cytoplasm (see López de Saro et al. 2015). The main membrane lipids are glycerol dibiphytanyl glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) and archaea alter the conformation of these molecules, particularly the number of cyclopentane rings, in response to the environment. This modifies lipid packing density, influencing membrane thermal stability and ionic permeability (López de Saro et al. 2015). The number of GDGT cyclopentane rings correlates inversely with pH (e.g. Macalady et al. 2004; Pearson et al. 2008; Boyd et al. 2011, 2013; Xie et al. 2015), which is thought to reduce the influx of protons in acidic environments (López de Saro et al. 2015). Therefore, as a study premise, we postulate that modifications to lipid membrane conformation required under different pH conditions necessitates adaptations in membrane localized proteins, including ammonia monooxygenase, to maintain essential protein functions and protein–protein interactions, along with normal protein folding. In the case of AmoA, while much of this protein comprises helices within the lipid membrane, a large region is further localized within the pseudo-periplasm (Lieberman & Rosenzweig 2005; Walker et al. 2010), which is likely even more directly influenced by environmental pH, given that the only barrier to the external environment, the S-layer cell wall, is unlikely to markedly buffer external pH (Sára & Sleytr 2000).

Therefore, our study objective was to test the hypothesis that AmoA undergoes molecular adaptation during pH specialization – particularly to low pH environments – in terrestrial Thaumarchaeota. This was achieved using an extensive representation of amoA sequence diversity generated by high-throughput 454-sequencing of contemporary soil environments covering a large pH spectrum. This data set was used in comprehensive probabilistic codon analyses within a phylogenetic framework, allowing a detailed dissection of evolutionary changes in AmoA during major independent adaptation events leading to highly successful pH-adapted thaumarchaeotal lineages.

Material and methods

Data used in evolutionary analyses

Sampling of thaumarchaeotal amoA sequences and generation of phylogenetic trees used in this study have
been described elsewhere (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2011, 2015). Briefly, high-throughput sequencing was performed on 47 UK soils targeting the archaeal amoA gene (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2011) and a resultant set of 370 sequences, broadly representative of phylum-scale diversity, was used to perform a joint Bayesian phylogenetic and relaxed molecular clock analysis after exclusion of confounding effects linked to recombination and mutational saturation (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2015). An associated 370-sequence in-frame alignment representing 89% of the amoA coding sequence (missing 8 and 14 codons from the respective 5′ and 3′ of the alignment) was used for evolutionary analyses, along with an associated phylogenetic tree employed in evolutionary analyses. Both the alignment and tree are provided in Data S1 (Supporting information).

Codon analyses and tests of selective pressures

All analyses of selective pressures acting on the amoA coding sequence were performed using models and packages available within HyPhy (Pond et al. 2005) and the associated web-server DATAMONKEY (Delport et al. 2010). We used HyPhy to build likelihood functions for two models where $d_S$ and $d_S$ was either free or fixed across branches of the phylogeny, which was done under the MG94 codon model (Muse & Gaut 1994) crossed with the standard general time reversible (GTR) nucleotide substitution model. The fit of the data under the two likelihood functions was compared using a likelihood ratio test. We separately estimated $d_S$ and $d_S$ for every branch/node in the 370-sequence amoA phylogeny by crossing MG94 with the best-fitting of all possible GTR models, using parametric bootstrapping with 200 replicates to establish variance around parameter estimates. The BUSTED test (Murrell et al. 2015) was run using the full 370-sequence alignment, setting foreground lineages as described in the main text. The BS-REL and RELAX tests (Kosakovsky Pond et al. 2011; Wertheim et al. 2015) were run using a subset of 73 sequences from the 370-sequence codon alignment. This was done by manually pruning tips within the phylogenetic tree using the editor within the MEGA 5.0 package (Tamura et al. 2013) and therefore without removing any major thaumarchaeotal groups or modifying the backbone structure of the tree. The 73-sequence alignment and associated phylogenetic tree is provided as supporting information (Data S2, Supporting information). Finally, AmoA amino acid sequences were reconstructed for every node in the thaumarchaeotal phylogeny using the 370-sequence in-frame alignment and associated tree topology. This was done by translating codon sequences reconstructed within HyPhy using a joint maximum-likelihood approach (Pupko et al. 2000) after a local fitting (i.e. to every branch) of the MG94 codon model crossed with the GTR model, implementing the CF3 × 4 option to estimate codon frequencies. This model was selected to ensure that ancestral sequence reconstructions were exactly congruent with the BS-REL analysis, which implements the same (i.e. MG94xGTR-CF3 × 4) model during calculation.

Modelling of AmoA protein structure

There is no published 3-dimensional structure for the χ-subunit ammonia monooxygenase encoded by amoA. Therefore, the functional implications of residues of interest were inferred with respect to a predicted AmoA secondary structure, modelled using the TMHMM algorithm (Krogh et al. 2001) and rendered in TMRPreS2D (Spyropoulos et al. 2004).

Results

Linking pH adaptation to molecular evolution of AmoA

Phylogenetic reconstruction of amoA thaumarchaeotal sequences representing extensive mesophilic terrestrial diversity and diverse pH conditions has been recently used to demonstrate that pH adaptation occurred during thaumarchaeotal evolution, leading to several pH-adapted lineages (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2011, 2015). Three pH-adapted lineages are particularly important in terms of their high abundance in contemporary terrestrial ecosystems, i.e. the phylogenetically-distant acidophilic lineages called C11 (within Nitrososphaera) and C14/C15 (within Nitrosoala) and the alkaliphilic lineage called C1/2 (within Nitrososphaera) (see Fig. 1). In this study, we focus on these three major pH-adapted lineages and hypothesize that important adaptations involved in pH specialization arose in their common ancestors. Therefore, in a phylogenetic framework, we place a priori significance on the ancestral branches where pH adaptation first occurred and make the following predictions: (i) because AmoA function is essential for energy production, it is therefore highly conserved and a predominant signal of purifying selection should exist across the thaumarchaeotal phylogeny, (ii) but despite this, AmoA underwent episodic periods of adaptation concurrent to major pH specialization events, and (iii) amino acid changes fixed along branches where pH adaptation first occurred and have then subsequently remained invariant in pH-adapted lineages are particularly strong candidates to represent substitutions of persistent adaptive value in pH-specialized lineages.

These predictions were tested using codon-based modelling analyses employing 370 near full-length
amoA protein-coding sequences (591 bp, 197 codons) broadly representative of mesophilic ammonia-oxidizing thaumarchaeotal diversity at the phylum level and devoid of detectable recombination events (after Gubry-Rangin et al. 2015). These analyses were done using maximum likelihood (ML) within the HYPHY package (Pond et al. 2005) along a robust Bayesian phylogeny derived from amoA sequences (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2015), which shows high congruence with an independent marker gene, 16S rRNA (Vico Oton et al. 2015).

General description of selective constraints operating on AmoA

As predicted, purifying selection has been a predominant selective force operating on AmoA during thaumarchaeotal evolution. By enforcing a single evolutionary model to estimate the overall rate of nonsynonymous ($d_N$) and synonymous ($d_S$) substitutions across the thaumarchaeotal phylogeny, we observed $d_N/d_S$ ($\omega$) = 0.050 [95% confidence interval (C.I.): 0.047, 0.053], indicative of strong purifying selection to remove coding variants that are presumably deleterious. Nevertheless, marked amino acid variation was still observed within the amoA codon alignment. Moreover, an unconstrained model allowing separate $d_N$ and $d_S$ estimates for each branch of the tree had massively better fit to the data vs. a model where $d_N$ and $d_S$ were constrained to be equal across branches (unconstrained model: LogL = −65 357, AIC value = 135 138; vs. constrained model: LogL = −74 155, AIC value = 148 316; likelihood ratio test [LRT] statistic: 17.6, P < 0.00001). Therefore, despite the strong background of purifying selection, there is clear evidence of heterogeneity in the historical pattern of selective pressure acting on the amoA coding region, likely representing variation both among lineages and/or sites of the AmoA protein.

Tests for episodic positive selection linked to pH adaptation

As a step towards understanding the heterogeneity of AmoA evolution across different regions of the thaumarchaeotal phylogeny, two related branch-site tests...
were performed in a random effects likelihood framework to identify episodic periods of positive selection (Kosakovsky Pond et al. 2011; Murrell et al. 2015). The first approach (‘BS-REL’: Kosakovsky Pond et al. 2011) tests every branch in the tree for positive selection, using a subsequent Holm-Bonferroni correction to control for multiple comparisons (Kosakovsky Pond et al. 2011). Due to computing constraints, this approach had to be done on a subrepresentation of the 370-sequence codon alignment (n = 73 sequences), still fully covering the diversity of all major thaumarchaeotal groups – in particular, the ‘tip-pruning’ approach used (see methods) did not affect the topology associated with nodes leading into the major pH-apted lineages. The second approach (‘BUSTED’: Murrell et al. 2015) allows branches of interest to be assigned a priori then tested for positive selection and can accommodate larger alignments – hence, it was ran on the full 370-sequence codon alignment. Four nodes leading into the abundant pH specialized-lineages (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2015) were defined as a priori candidates for positive selection, allowing significance to be assigned without need for multiple comparison correction in the BS-REL test. These were the reconstructed branches leading to C1/2, C11, C14/C15 and C14 alone (Fig. 1). The ratio-
tion of sites fitting the \( \omega^* \) class; LRT is the result of a likelihood ratio test of a null hypothesis where \( \omega^* \approx 1 \) (purifying selection); \( \Pr[\omega = \omega^*] \) is a ML estimate of the proportion of sites fitting the \( \omega^* \) class; \( \omega^N \) is a ML estimate of a second rate class where \( \omega^N \approx 0 \); \( \Pr[\omega = \omega^N] \) is a ML estimate of the proportion of sites fitting the \( \omega^N \) class; \( \omega_i \) is a ML estimate of a rate class where \( \omega_i \approx 0 \) and otherwise unconstrained; \( \Pr[\omega = \omega_i] \) is a ML estimate of the proportion of sites fitting the \( \omega_i \) class; LRT is the result of a likelihood ratio test of a null hypothesis where \( \omega^* = 1 \) (null) vs. \( \omega^* \) unrestricted (alternative).

Underlined nodes/data were set as a priori candidates for positive selection and hence not subjected to multiple comparison correction. After systematic testing of all remaining nodes, the remaining (i.e. not underlined) shown nodes were inferred to be under positive selection after application of Holm-Bonferroni correction.

*\( \omega \) values highlighted as either 10.00 or 0.00 are unrealistic \( \omega \) estimates that have been capped and are associated with a lack of synonymous substitutions on the tested branches, leading to negligible estimates of synonymous substitution rate (i.e. \( d_s = 0 \)) during the HyPhy calculation. Despite being unreliable indicators of \( \omega \), such values have no impact on the statistical inference of positive selection with the BS-REL test.

Table 1 Results of the branch-site test (BS-REL) for positive selection on AmoA during Thaumarchaeota evolution and pH adapta-

| Node/branch  | Mean \( \omega \) | \( \omega^* \) | \( \Pr[\omega = \omega^*] \) | \( \omega^N \) | \( \Pr[\omega = \omega^N] \) | \( \omega^+ \) | \( \Pr[\omega = \omega^+] \) | LRT | P-value | Corrected P-value | Comment |
|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----|----------|------------------|--------|
| Node111      | 0.08            | 0.00            | 0.96                        | 0.00            | 0.01                        | 10000.00*       | 0.03                        | 8.66 | 0.0010   | N/A               | Ancestor C11 |
| Node11       | 0.07            | 0.00            | 0.87                        | 0.80            | 0.13                        | 0.65            | 0.00                        | 0.00 | 1.0000   | N/A               | Ancestor C14/C15 |
| Node12       | 0.51            | 0.50            | 0.13                        | 0.50            | 0.73                        | 0.53            | 0.14                        | 0.00 | 1.0000   | N/A               | Ancestor C14 |
| Node70       | 0.00            | 0.00            | 0.00                        | 0.00            | 0.00                        | 0.00            | 1.00                        | 0.00 | 1.0000   | N/A               | Ancestor C11/C2 |
| Node130      | 0.22            | 0.00            | 0.96                        | 0.00            | 0.03                        | 10000.00*       | 0.01                        | 14.50 | 0.0000   | 0.01              | Within C11 |
| Node24       | 10.00*          | 0.00            | 0.99                        | 0.00            | 0.00                        | 10000.00*       | 0.01                        | 13.40 | 0.0010   | 0.02              | Within C14 |
| C9_S14_116_2 | 0.06            | 0.00            | 0.96                        | 0.00            | 0.02                        | 1188.10         | 0.02                        | 13.30 | 0.0010   | 0.02              | Within C9 |
| Node54       | 0.18            | 0.90            | 0.00                        | 0.00            | 0.00                        | 73.01           | 0.09                        | 13.20 | 0.0010   | 0.02              | Basal node in tree |
| C11_S0_2_59  | 0.04            | 0.00            | 0.99                        | 0.00            | 0.00                        | 279.49          | 0.01                        | 11.90 | 0.0010   | 0.04              | Within C11 |
| Node78       | 10.00*          | 0.00            | 0.98                        | 0.00            | 0.00                        | 10000.00*       | 0.01                        | 11.50 | 0.0010   | 0.05              | Within C11/C2 |

Mean \( \omega \) is the average \( \omega \) inferred under the MG94 codon x REV nucleotide substitution model allowing variation among lineages, but not sites; \( \omega^* \) is a ML estimate of a first rate class where \( \omega^* \leq 1 \) (purifying selection); \( \Pr[\omega = \omega^*] \) is a ML estimate of the proportion of sites fitting the \( \omega^* \) class; \( \omega^N \) is a ML estimate of a second rate class where \( \omega^N \leq \omega \leq 1 \); \( \Pr[\omega = \omega^N] \) is a ML estimate of the proportion of sites fitting the \( \omega^N \) class; \( \omega_i \) is a ML estimate of a rate class where \( \omega_i \leq \omega \) and otherwise unconstrained; \( \Pr[\omega = \omega_i] \) is a ML estimate of the proportion of sites fitting the \( \omega_i \) class; LRT is the result of a likelihood ratio test of a null hypothesis where \( \omega^* = 1 \) (null) vs. \( \omega^* \) unrestricted (alternative).

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tion was not detected for the ancestral branch leading into the alkalinophilic C1/2 lineage by either BS-REL or BUSTED (P = 1 and 1) (Tables 1 and 2).

To add to the above hypothesis tests, and for exploratory analysis, we considered all remaining branches with corrected P-values < 0.05 in the BS-REL (uncorrected P < 0.001) as additional candidates for positive selection (Fig. 1, Table 1). This led to the inference of positive selection at six further nodes in the phylogeny (Fig. 1). Interestingly, represented among these was the deepest branch in the tree (corrected P = 0.02), which separates *Nitrososphaera* lineages from the ancestor to *Nitrosotalea* and *Nitrosopumilus* lineages and roughly correlates with the earliest pH adaptation events in thaumarchaeotal evolution and the onset of lineage diversification (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2015). At this node, a notable fraction of *amoA* codons were inferred to have experienced positive selection (proportion: 9%, mean \( \omega = 0.73 \)), with all others being subject to strong purifying selection (Fig. 1, Table 1). Among the remaining five nodes inferred to have evolved under positive selection, four are from pH-adapted lineages, including three each from C11 and C14/15 and one from C1/C2. Despite this predominance of pH-adapted lineages, this finding does not deviate from random expectations as approximately half the lineages in the analysis come from the three abundant pH-adapted lineages (\( P > 0.05 \), Fishers exact test).

Tests for relaxed selection linked to pH adaptation

The BS-REL or BUSTED tests are not designed to identify instances where adaptive functions evolve by purifying selection acting on genetic variation arising during episodes of relaxed selection, often termed the Dykhuizen–Hartl effect (Kimura 1983; Hughes 2008; e.g. Macqueen et al. 2010). Therefore, to further disentangle the evolutionary signal in our data, we modelled \( d_N \) and \( d_S \) separately for each branch along the 73-sequence phylogeny using parametric bootstrapping (200 iterations) to establish variation in parameter estimates (Fig. 2). Instances of *amoA* evolution involving the Dykhuizen–Hartl effect should be accompanied by elevated \( \omega \) values in ancestral branches leading to pH-adapted lineages, with low \( \omega \) values in subsequent daughter branches, indicative of purifying selection on associated functional changes. Unsurprisingly, while most branches had very low \( \omega \) estimates, significant heterogeneity in \( \omega \) was observed (Fig. 2). These branches were located across the tree without obvious bias towards pH-adapted lineages, with low \( \omega \) values observed for the ancestral branches leading to C11, C14/15 and C1/2. However, we observed \( \omega = 1.36 \) (Clad: 1.04, 1.94) for the ancestral branch leading to C14, consistent with a scenario involving either relaxed or positive selection or a combination of both.

As branch estimates of \( \omega \) cannot easily distinguish between such possibilities, the 73-sequence *amoA* codon alignment was employed in another BS-REL framework called ‘RELAX’ that aims to detect relaxed selection for *a priori* defined branches and can reliably distinguish relaxation in selective pressure from intensification of purifying or positive selection (Wertheim et al. 2015). RELAX examines whether selection intensity increases relative to a defined background state, recaptured by a modelled parameter K (Wertheim et al. 2015). When K is >1 and <1 respectively, selection is inferred to have been intensified (through purifying or positive selection) or relaxed in the defined test branch. A LRT is then done comparing models where K is fixed to be

| Test branch | Model | logL | Parameters | AICc | \( \omega^3 \) | \( \omega^2 \) | \( \omega^3 \) | LRT statistic | P-value |
|-------------|-------|------|------------|------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|--------|
| C11 ancestor | Alternative | –31995.0 | 761 | 65528.3 | 0.028 (90%) | 0.028 (7.6%) | 779.00 (2.4%) | 7.04 | 0.029 |
| Null | –31998.5 | 760 | 65533.3 | 0.000 (92%) | 0.00 (0.39%) | 1.00 (7.9%) |
| C14 ancestor | Alternative | –30037.7 | 761 | 61613.7 | 0.048 (79%) | 0.022 (15%) | 2.65 (6.0%) | 0.18 | 0.91 |
| Null | –30037.8 | 760 | 61611.8 | 0.00 (63%) | 0.00 (22%) | 1.00 (15%) |
| C14/C15 ancestor | Alternative | –31987.2 | 761 | 65512.7 | 1.0 (84%) | 1.00 (15%) | 100.00 (1.5%) | 3.60 | 0.16 |
| Null | –31989.0 | 760 | 65514.2 | 1.00 (7.7%) | 0.90 (0.0%) | 1.00 (92%) |
| C1/2 ancestor | Alternative | –31993.8 | 761 | 65526.0 | 0.0017 (100%) | 0.036 (0.0%) | 1.04 (0.0%) | N/A | 1.00 |

In each analysis, all other branches in the phylogeny were set as the background to the test branch. The alternative model allows the test and background branches to each have three modelled classes of \( \omega \): \( \omega^3 \), \( \omega^2 \) and \( \omega^3 \); the estimated proportion of sites within each class is shown in parentheses. The null model forces \( \omega^3 \) to be equal to 1 (i.e. neutral evolution). Rejection of the null model in favour of the alternative model provides evidence of positive selection on the test branch. The AICc (corrected Akaike information criterion) is shown for comparison of model fit. See (Murrell et al. 2015) for more details on the BUSTED approach. For the C1/2 ancestor there were no sites in \( \omega^3 \) under the alternative model, so there is no evidence for positive selection.
equal across the tree (null model), or allowed to differ between test and background branches (alternative model). For the ancestral branch leading into C14, there was strong evidence in favour of a major relaxation in selective pressure \((K < 0.001, P < 0.00001; \text{Table 3}; \text{branch shown on Fig. 2})\) relative to the background rate across the tree. The RELAX test also indicated a relaxation in selective pressure in the ancestral branch leading into C14/15 \((K = 0.33, P = 0.0008, \text{Table 3, Fig. 2})\), again relative to the tree-wide background. The Dykhuizen–Hartl effect should lead to a scenario where purifying selection was then intensified in descendent C14 lineages, after the initial relaxation of selection in their ancestor. This prediction was scrutinized using RELAX by setting the two ancestral nodes to C14/15 and C14 as background branches and all internal C14 branches as test branches. This led to a highly significant result suggesting a strong intensification in selective pressure in C14 descendent lineages compared to their direct ancestors \((K = 4.57, P = 0.0001; \text{Fig. 2})\). When interpreting this result it is informative to consider a RELAX model where three \(\omega\) rate classes were separately estimated for the C14/15 ancestor nodes and the C14 descendant branches (see Table 3). In this respect, 99.8% of codons from the C14 descendant branches belong to rate classes where \(\omega = 0.027\) indicative of strong purifying selection, whereas 15% of codons from the C14/15 ancestor nodes belong to a class where \(\omega = 1.09\), approximating neutral evolution, while no codons fit to a rate class suggesting positive selection. Thus, our hypothesis for the Dykhuizen–Hartl effect is strongly supported.

Unsurprisingly (considering the BS-REL results), there was no evidence for relaxed selection along the ancestral branch leading into the acidophilic C11 clade \((K = 0.63, P = 0.21, \text{Table 3})\), while in the alkaliphilic C1/2 cluster, there was evidence of an intensification in selective pressure relative to the background (rest of the tree) \((K = 49.1, P = 0.006)\), which is likely to have resulted from an increase in purifying selection (Table 3).
Table 3	Results of the RELAX test for relaxed selective pressure associated with major pH adaptation events during Thaumas-
chaeota evolution

| Test branch          | Background branches | Model                  | Parameters | logL       | AICc          | K    | LRT statistic | P-value |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------|------------|------------|---------------|------|---------------|---------|
| C14 ancestor         | Rest of tree        | Alternative            | 164        | −12947.6   | 26227.0       | 0.001* | 25.6          | 0.00001 |
|                      |                     | Null                   | 163        | −12960.4   | 26250.5       |      |               |         |
| C14/15 ancestor      | Rest of tree        | Alternative            | 164        | −12954.7   | 26241.3       | 0.330† | 11.3          | 0.00080 |
|                      |                     | Null                   | 163        | −12960.4   | 26250.5       |      |               |         |
| C14 descendent lineages | C14 ancestor and | Alternative            | 164        | −12832.3   | 26221.3       | 4.570‡ | 16.4          | 0.00001 |
|                      |                     | Null                   | 163        | −12840.5   | 26235.6       |      |               |         |
| C11 ancestor         | Rest of tree        | Alternative            | 164        | −12959.9   | 26251.6       | 0.630 | 1.6           | 0.21000 |
|                      |                     | Null                   | 163        | −12960.6   | 26251.2       |      |               |         |
| C1/2 ancestor        | Rest of tree        | Alternative            | 164        | −12957.0   | 26245.9       | 49.060§ | 7.3           | 0.00700 |
|                      |                     | Null                   | 163        | −12960.6   | 26251.1       |      |               |         |

*§ (shown below) provides data from a RELAX model (the ‘partitioned descriptive model’, see Wertheim et al. 2015) where three α distributions were estimated separately for the test and background branches. The data are an estimate of α in three rate classes, α1, α2 and α3. The estimated proportion of sites fitting each class is given in parentheses.

*Background branches: α1 = 0.000726 (pr. 96.0%); α2 = 0.899 (pr. 3.4%); α3 = 1190 (pr. 0.29%).
Test branches: α1 = 1.00 (pr. 17.0%); α2 = 1.00 (pr. 24.0%); α3 = 1.00 (pr. 59.0%).

†Background branches: α1 = 0.000107 (pr. 96.0%); α2 = 1.00 (pr. 3.4%); α3 = 1090 (pr. 0.28%).
Test branches: α1 = 0.0182 (pr. 89.0%); α2 = 0.741 (pr. 1.0%); α3 = 1.70 (pr. 9.9%).

‡Background branches: α1 = 0.00 (pr. 85.0%); α2 = 0.854 (pr. 0.0%); α3 = 1.09 (pr. 15.0%).
Test branches: α1 = 0.00182 (pr. 89.0%); α2 = 0.741 (pr. 1.0%); α3 = 1.70 (pr. 9.9%).

§Background branches: α1 = 0.000839 (pr. 96.0%); α2 = 0.966 (pr. 3.6%); α3 = 746 (pr. 0.28%).
Test branches: α1 = 0.00290 (pr. 100.0%); α2 = 0.00358 (pr. 0.0%); α3 = 10.00 (pr. 0.0%).

AmoA protein evolution during ancestral pH adaptation events

Ancestral reconstruction of all nodes in the 370-sequence amoA phylogeny was used to explore protein-level evolution associated with pH adaptation, focusing on amino acid changes arising during the distinct selective regimes at the stem of the three major pH-adapted lineages, with notable changes for the two major acidophilic lineages (Figs 3 and 4). The reconstructions were done at the codon level using a model fully congruent with the BS-REL test (see methods). According to this approach, eight amino-acid replacements were fixed along the ancestral Nitrososphaera C11 branch which subsequently remained invariant throughout the radiation of C11 lineage (Fig. 3a, b), which has spanned hundreds of millions of years (Gubry-Rangin et al. 2015). According to models predicting AmoA structure within the lipid membrane, these sites are invariably localized within the transmembrane region, often clustered near the membrane boundary (Fig. 3d). While seven replacements led to a functionally similar hydrophobic amino acid, one change within the last transmembrane region, Gly to Ser, modified the residue property radically (Fig. 3c). Among the conservative changes, it is notable that three independent replacements of isoleucine to valine occurred in the C11 ancestor.

More extreme evolution of the AmoA protein was associated with acidophilic specialization in Nitroso-
talae, including 10 amino acid replacements in the ancestor to C14/C15 and nine along the ancestral branch to C14 that have remained fixed in these lineages (Fig. 4a, b). In contrast with C11, many involved a radical amino acid change. However, as observed in the C11 ancestor, several conservative changes occurred involving a range of nonpolar/hydrophobic residues (with no obvious drive towards a specific amino acid) likewise within the predicted membrane region (Fig. 4a, c). Interestingly, four amino acid substitutions in the C14/C15 ancestor were within the pseudo-periplasmic region, with two radical changes away from residues with nonpolar side chains to Asp, which has an acidic side chain (Fig. 4a, c). It is also notable that changes both in C14/15 ancestor and C14 ancestor involved repeated substitutions that replaced residues that cannot undergo phosphorylation with Ser, Thr or Tyr (i.e. all of which can undergo phosphorylation) (Fig. 4a, c). These changes were predicted to be located within the membrane, pseudo-periplasmic and cytoplasmic regions. Reciprocally, there were no substitutions away from Ser, Thr and Tyr leading into C14/15 or C14 (Fig. 4c). All the amino acid replacements arising in the C14 ancestor were localized within the lipid membrane, including a cluster at the boundary between the first transmembrane domain and the pseudo-periplasm.

Therefore, in addition to the nature of selection associated with AmoA evolution in the two abundant aci-
dophilic lineages, the position and implications of amino acid changes are evidently quite distinct. In contrast with C11 and C14/15, ancestral reconstruction suggested that no changes in the AmoA protein occurred during the evolutionary transition to alkalinophily along the ancestral branch leading to C1/2 (not shown).

Discussion

There is currently a dearth of information on the mechanisms underlying environmental adaptation in Thaumarchaeota, which are hugely abundant on Earth and have vital ecosystem functions (Leininger et al. 2006; Wuchter et al. 2006). The same is true generally, in that there exists a large gap in understanding about the processes linking ecology to molecular evolution in environmental microbes. Accordingly, our study has exploited approaches commonly used to infer patterns of molecular evolution to reveal mechanisms of past adaptation in Thaumarchaeota, testing the hypothesis that ancestral phenotypic adaptation was coupled to adaptive changes in a gene crucial for ammonia oxidation.

While our findings are consistent with the single past study that considered codon-level evolution of AmoA in Thaumarchaeota, which revealed persistent purifying selection across a broad habitat range at the whole gene level (Biller et al. 2012), our study markedly extends this work. Specifically, we aimed to identify variation in the rates and types of evolution operating across different thaumarchaeotal lineages and in different regions of the AmoA protein. Moreover, we directly tested if phenotypic adaptation to environmental pH was recaptured in AmoA molecular evolution. As far as we are aware, such detailed attempts to test for an association between ecological adaptation and molecular evolution is unique in Thaumarchaeota and rare for environmental prokaryotes generally.

Our main hypothesis was supported by evidence of episodic shifts in AmoA evolution during independent adaptation events leading to radiations into acidic environments. Considering the function of AmoA, which is to catalyse the aerobic oxidation of ammonia into hydroxylamine (Vajrala et al. 2013), it would be speculative to assume that changes in this protein were essential for initial evolutionary entrance to acidic environments. However, considering its vital role for energy production, the protein can be assumed to have been required for the cell to function properly, hence allowing long-term persistence at low pH. By extrapolation...
from other extremophilic archaea (see references within the introduction), the C11 and C14/15 ancestors likely had to increase the number of GDGT cyclopentane rings within their lipid membranes to reduce proton influx at low pH and maintain cell homeostasis. In addition, if we assume that the ancestors of these major acidophilic lineages predominantly catalysed ammonia (NH₃) and not ammonium (NH₄⁺) (Lehtovirta-Morley et al. 2016), AmoA function would have been further challenged by a reduction in the availability of its substrate at low pH (NH₃ is 1000 times less available at pH 4 than at pH 8). Therefore, our results probably recapture evolutionary changes necessary to maintain AmoA function under radically altered (both intracellular and extracellular) conditions moving from neutral to acidic pH. Such changes in membrane conformation and substrate availability would not be expected under the increased alkaline conditions faced by the C1/2 ancestor, which is consistent with the evident lack of AmoA evolution during this major pH adaptation event. However, our findings are currently limited, as the importance of residue changes in the ancestral C11 and C14/C15 lineages will remain elusive until experimental functional tests can be performed on ancestrally reconstructed AmoA proteins (e.g. Dean & Thornton 2007), which is yet to be achieved in Thaumarchaeota.

Nonetheless, our data suggest that two independent evolutionary transitions leading to abundant acidophilic Thaumarchaeota lineages were associated with nonconvergent modes of AmoA evolution. In the branch leading to C14/C15, extensive AmoA evolution occurred during a period where selective pressure was relaxed. While it is impossible to determine what underlies this relaxation in selection, a plausible possibility is a population bottleneck that reduced effective population size and hence the efficiency of natural selection (e.g. Lynch 2007). One mechanism by which population size could have been reduced is the existence of an initial period where a small pool of poorly adapted C14/15 ancestors survived at moderately low pH. Under this scenario, neutral or mild deleterious genetic changes fixed under inefficient purifying selection, such as those observed in AmoA, gained adaptive value at low pH, a scenario akin to the so-called Dykhuizen–Hartl effect (Kimura 1983; Hughes 2008). Consistent with this hypothesis, it has been previously suggested that episodes of relaxed
selection might be an important route by which microbes increase metabolic versatility in extreme environments and are ultimately able to adapt (e.g. Konstantinidis et al. 2009; Li et al. 2014; further considered later in this discussion). In any case, this hypothesis predicts that other protein-coding genes would have experienced a similar relaxation along the same ancestral C14/15 branches, which can be tested in the future. By contrast, positive selection acting in a background of very strong purifying selection was evidently the driving force behind a more limited episode of AmoA evolution in the ancestral C11 node. This indicates that the C11 ancestors likely had a large effective population size, allowing efficient fixation of adaptive mutations by natural selection during pH adaptation.

In addition to nonconvergent evolutionary mechanisms, the functional nature of protein evolution during pH adaptation was distinct comparing the C14/15 and C11 radiations. While conservative substitutions of hydrophobic amino acids are a feature in both cases, pH adaptation in C14/15 was more strongly coupled to a directional drive towards an increase in Ser, Thr and Tyr. While no role for phosphorylation has yet been ascribed to AmoA, the importance of this post-translational modification is well-established in prokaryotes (Cozzone 1988). Reversible protein phosphorylation occurs through conserved protein kinases that transfer phosphate groups from ATP onto acceptor amino acids – this modification serves to regulate protein structure and protein–protein interactions and has particularly important roles in conserved signalling pathways. Several Ser/Thr/Tyr kinases are conserved in archaeal genomes, including transmembrane kinases (Krupa & Srinivasan 2005) and Ser/Thr are known to undergo phosphorylation in these microbes (e.g. Skorko 1984). Therefore, we speculate that the increased fixation of residues involved in phosphorylation during initial pH adaptation in the C14/C15 lineage acted to modify the interaction of AmoA with other proteins, perhaps under different conditions regulated by protein kinases. The reason why such changes were required more in C14/15 than C11 remains a mystery, but might be explained by differences in genetic background or AmoA function comparing the distantly related acidophilic lineages.

It is also important to note that adaptive mechanisms associated with microbial adaptation are likely coded within multiple genes and may be driven by lateral gene transfer. Hence, future genome and transcriptome-wide analyses of environmental samples will be required to fully understand the molecular-evolutionary mechanisms underlying pH specialization in Thaumarchaeota. Such approaches are currently difficult considering the limited cultivation of these organisms. In this sense, it is important to note that two strains within Nitrosalae C14 lineage have recently been successfully isolated (Lehtovirta-Morley et al. 2014); thus, there now exists an urgent need to cultivate a C11 strain, allowing the physiological and genomic characteristics of each pH-adapted group to be compared at depth.

Finally, when considering how our findings fit within the broader field of microbial ecology and evolution, past research has similarly shown that the environment can shape patterns of natural selection and evolution in microorganisms. However, the approaches used and their overall goals have been distinct to our attempts to reconstruct the selective regimes underlying the evolution of an important functional protein during environmental adaptation. For example, using the powerful approach of studying microbial evolution over experimental generations (e.g. Barrick et al. 2009; McDonald et al. 2009), Tenailleon et al. 2012 gained genome-wide insights into processes allowing E. coli to adapt to temperature, revealing importance for convergent mutations at the level of genes and gene functions, but not specific amino acids. This is partly consistent with our conclusions of convergent adaptation of AmoA to low pH in distant thaumarchaeotal lineages, which involved distinct amino acid changes. Nonetheless, it is difficult to directly compare such contrasting approaches, particularly as C11 and C14 are separated by hundreds of millions of years, where extensive convergence would be more surprising. Moreover, past studies identifying mutations over hundreds/thousands of generations are not easy to compare with phylogenetic reconstructions of environmentally adaptive substitutions that have been fixed over hundreds of millions of years. In terms of past studies that have explored the link between environmental and molecular adaptation in microbes over large evolutionary timescales, most have aimed to understand broad evolutionary trends, for example: how temperature drives evolutionary rate in archaea (Groussin & Gouy 2011), how salinity is linked to the evolution of base composition (e.g. Luo et al. 2015), which evolutionary processes are linked to adaptation to the deep ocean at the metagenomic scale (Konstantinidis et al. 2009) and how evolutionary rate differs across microbial communities comparing extreme and more normal habitats (Li et al. 2014). A common theme of such studies consistent with our data is frequent evidence for the role of relaxed selection in microbial evolution, especially during evolutionary transitions to different environments (e.g. Konstantinidis et al. 2009; Li et al. 2014; Luo et al. 2015). While these past studies are extremely valuable, we feel there is an ongoing need to complement understanding of broad evolutionary trends with in depth reconstructions of gene evolution and environmental adaptation, as performed here.
In conclusion, we hope our study will stimulate further work integrating approaches and data sets produced by microbial ecologists with the latest computational models in molecular evolution. Such an approach has offered insights into mechanisms of physiological adaptation in environmental Thaumarcheota. It is highly likely that similar opportunities exist to define the molecular-evolutionary underpinnings of ecological success and ecosystem functions in numerous other microbe lineages.

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Both authors designed and performed the research, analysed data and equally contributed to the writing of the manuscript.
Data accessibility
Codon sequence alignments and phylogenetic trees used in evolutionary analyses of selective pressure including tests for positive or relaxed selection: provided as Supporting Information on the Molecular Ecology Website (Data S1 and S2, Supporting information).

Supporting information
Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Data S1. AmoA 370-sequence codon alignment and phylogenetic tree.

Data S2. AmoA_73-sequence codon alignment and phylogenetic tree.