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Enriched microbial communities for ammonium and nitrite removal from recirculating aquaculture systems

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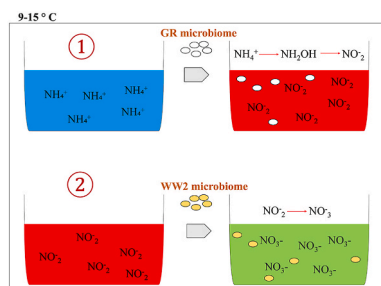
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HIGHLIGHTS

- AOB and NOB bacteria were enriched in selected microbiomes.
- *N. oligotropha* and *N. winogradskyi* were the highest portion of microbiomes.
- The microbiomes removed ammonium and nitrite at different temperatures.
- Microbiomes significantly removed ammonium and nitrite from RAS biofilter.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was the enrichment of high-performance microbial communities in biofilters for removal of ammonium and nitrite from aquaculture water. Ammonium oxidizing bacteria (AOB) and nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) were enriched from different environmental water samples. The microbial communities with higher ammonium and nitrite removal activity were selected and adapted to different temperatures [9 °C, 15 °C, room temperature (25 °C), and 30 °C]. The expression of genes involved in nitrification including ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) and nitrite oxidoreductase (NXR) were measured in temperature-adapted AOB and NOB microbiomes. The microbial species present in the selected microbiomes were identified via 16S rRNA sequencing. The microbial communities containing *Nitrosomonas oligotropha* and *Nitrobacter winogradskyi* showed the highest ammonium and nitrite removal activity at all temperatures used for adaptation. Furthermore, the microbial communities do not contain any pathogenic bacteria. They also exhibited the highest expression of AMO and NXR genes. Using the enriched microbial communities, we achieved a 288% and 181% improvement in ammonium and nitrite removal over the commonly used communities in biofilters at 9 °C, respectively. These

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results suggest that the selected microbiomes allowed for a significant improvement of water quality in a recirculating aquaculture system (RAS).

1. Introduction

Water consumption is very high in aquaculture, thus strategies for reusing aquaculture water have a high priority. The basic prerequisite for reusing aquaculture waters is a nitrification treatment (Malone and Pfeiffer, 2006). This process involves a two-step reaction, often catalyzed by aerobic autotrophic microorganisms using carbon dioxide as an energy source (Foesel et al., 2007; Brown et al., 2012). At first, ammonia-oxidizing microorganisms (AOM) oxidize ammonia to hydroxylamine (NH_2OH), using the enzyme called ammonia monooxygenase (AMO). This process will be completed by the enzyme called hydroxylamine oxidoreductase, which produces nitrite. In the next step, nitrite-oxidizing bacteria (NOB) will oxidize nitrite to nitrate (NO_3^-), using the enzyme called nitrite oxidoreductase (NOR or NXR) (Limpiyakorn et al., 2011; Spieck and Lipski, 2011a).

Continuous removal of ammonium and nitrite is also required in recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS), and this is achieved by biofilters. Biofilters for water quality improvement are separated from the fish breeding part of RAS (Suurnäkki et al., 2020) and their activities critically depends on the microbial community they contain (Schreier et al., 2010). The activity of AOB and NOB in biofilter communities decreases with temperature reduction (Chen et al., 2006; Urakawa et al., 2008; Veraart et al., 2011). The removal of harmful compounds is optimal at 25 °C and can be compromised at lower temperatures (below 15 °C) (Balmelle et al., 1992; Chen et al., 2006; Alawi et al., 2007; Kim and Lee, 2011). In order for ammonium and nitrite removal to function at lower temperatures, the AOB and NOB must adapt their metabolic activity (Berry and Foegeding, 1997; Polissi et al., 2003). Rainbow trout is an example of a species living optimally in cold water (9–15 °C) rearing systems (Urakawa et al., 2008; Neissi et al., 2020). Therefore, microbial adaptation to lower temperatures is necessary in biofilters used in aquatic rearing systems for rainbow trout (Taotao et al., 2015).

Biofilter systems commonly do not operate at maximum efficiency, because the microbial communities present in biofilter systems are natural, and they are rarely supplemented with specific species or engineered (Xing et al., 2020). While the natural microbial communities in biofilters can reduce pollutants such as ammonium or nitrite, they can also be destroyed by chemicals and drugs, such as antibiotics present in RAS (Crawford et al., 2017). Therefore, maintaining the communities of autotrophic AOB and NOB is essential in a RAS system.

Bioaugmentation is a bioremediation strategy related to microorganisms that are supplied to the system and their activities could speed up the elimination of contaminants (Jiao et al., 2009; Salência et al., 2016). Bio-augmentation or microbial enrichment of such microbial communities could be used as an effective strategy for ensuring productive water treatment (Shukla et al., 2020). Microbial enrichment is a procedure for increasing the percentage of a specific microorganism group in the community (Chen et al., 2005). This process is usually performed by providing the nutrients and optimal conditions for the desired microorganisms, thus allowing them to outcompete other species (Kamilova et al., 2005).

The aim of this study was the enrichment of biofilter communities used in rainbow trout RAS with autotrophic AOB and NOB species adapted to low temperatures. Considering the key role of these microorganisms in the nitrification process in biofilter systems, we argue that the adapted and enriched nitrifying microbial community presented in this study could play an important role in the treatment of aquaculture water at low temperatures.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Sampling

For AOB and NOB microbiome enrichment, water samples were collected from different water sources in Gothenburg, Sweden artificial lake [57°41'02.6"N 11°56'50.0"E] (SDL), river [57°41'49.4"N 11°55'04.5"E] (GR), and natural lake [57°40'42.4"N 12°03'25.7"E] (DL). Additionally, two wastewater samples with high concentration of ammonium (WW1) and nitrite (WW2) were also utilized.

2.2. AOB and NOB enrichment

To obtain enriched AOB and NOB microbial communities from the harvested samples, we have used the optimal medium for growing AOB and NOB bacteria. 3 ml of water samples (SDL, GR, DL, WW1 and WW2) were inoculated in 47 ml of AOB liquid medium with ammonium (pH 7.2) (Verhagen and Laanbroek, 1991; Bollmann et al., 2011) and 47 ml of NOB liquid medium with nitrite (pH 8.4–8.6) (Hankinson and Schmidt, 1988; Spieck and Lipski, 2011b). Samples were grown in 100 ml sterile flasks at room temperature (RT, 21 ± 2 °C) at 170 rpm (all flasks were covered by aluminum foil). To continuously supply the alkalinity for the optimal growth of AOB and NOB bacteria, bromothymol blue was added to the medium (Lipponen et al., 2002) to monitor the color change corresponding to pH. Thus, when the medium color turned to yellow, the pH was adjusted.

Samples were transferred to a fresh culture medium after 80% consumption of ammonium or nitrite (approximately after 2 weeks). We have repeated this procedure three times in a consecutive manner. Next, the cultures were grown in a AOB and NOB fresh culture medium for 2 weeks. Ammonium and nitrite concentration were measured in the samples at the starting point and after 2 weeks, using Hach spectrophotometer DR 3900 (according to the manufacturer's protocol: LCK340 kits for nitrate assay, LCK303 for ammonium assay and LCK339 for nitrite assay). The samples showing significantly reduced level of ammonium and increased level of nitrite compared to starting point (GR, SDL, and WW1) were selected as the communities with the highest ammonium removal activity. The samples showing significantly reduced level of nitrite and increased level of nitrate compared to starting point (DL and WW2) were selected as the communities with the highest nitrite removal activity.

2.3. Microbiome identification by 16 S rRNA sequencing

The genomic DNA of selected microbiomes was extracted using the Ultra clean Qiagen kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. The 16 S rRNA fragments were amplified using a thermocycler (c1000 touch thermal cycler, BioRad, USA) after preparation with primstar PCR kit, using the following primers: 5'-AGA GTT TGA TCC TGG CTC AG-3' and 5'-GGT TAC CTT GTT ACG ACT T-3' (Table 1). The PCR amplified products were purified using GeneJET PCR Purification Kit (Thermo Scientific). The size and quality of 16 S rRNA fragments (expected size 1.5 kb) were checked by agarose gel electrophoresis (Supplemental Fig. 1). The amplified 16 S rRNA fragments of selected microbiomes were sequenced at the Novo Nordisk Foundation Center for Biosustainability, Technical University of Denmark. 2 × 300 bp pooling library samples endured paired-end sequencing production until ≈40,000 paired-end reads. The data were analyzed using the ezbiocloud bioinformatics platform (bacterial and archaeal community analysis, <https://www.ezbiocloud.net/>) (Yoon et al., 2017).

2.4. Temperature adaptation

After screening for samples with the best ammonium and nitrite removal activities, various temperatures of 9, 15, RT and 30 °C were used for temperature adaptation of selected microbial communities. 3 ml of each selected sample was transferred to 250 ml flasks containing 97 ml of either AOB or NOB culture medium. Samples were grown at different temperatures: 9 °C, 15 °C, RT, and 30 °C. The ammonium and nitrite concentrations in the culture samples were determined weekly. When nearly 80% of the ammonium and nitrite were consumed, 3 ml of the culture was transferred to a fresh either AOB or NOB culture medium. It was repeated three times for a period of one and half months (Verhagen and Laanbroek, 1991; Bollmann et al., 2011).

2.5. Quantitative PCR (q-PCR)

Specific q-PCR primers for AMO and NXR genes were designed for AOB (*Nitrosomonas oligotropha*) and NOB (*Nitrobacter winogradskyi*) group strains, respectively. Furthermore, a constitutively expressed gene (16 S rRNA gene) was used for selected strains as an internal reference (Supplementary Table S1).

RNA was extracted from microbial community samples adapted to different temperatures and stored at −80 °C. cDNA was synthesized from the isolated RNA. The expression of AMO and NXR genes was analyzed by q-PCR according to Rahimi et al., (2020) (Rahimi et al., 2020). The relative values of gene expression were assessed using Agilent Technologies Stratagene Mx30005 P and were calculated according to the manufacturer's instructions (Chen et al., 2005).

2.6. SEM microscopy analysis

For SEM analysis, 15 ml of microbial cultures were centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 3 min. The microbial cells were then fixed overnight using 3% of glutaraldehyde. The fixed cells were dehydrated using graded series of ethanol (40%, 50%, 60%, 70%, 80%, 90%, and 100%) for 10 min each. Thin films were prepared by using dehydrated samples on cover glass and dried for 24 h at RT. The dried samples were then sputter coated with gold (5 nm) before imaging. SEM imaging was performed with JEOL JSM 6301 F (Carl Zeiss AG, Jena, Germany).

2.7. Ammonium and nitrite measurements in biofilter water in the presence of AOB-GR and NOB-WW2 microbiomes

Water from a RAS trout biofilter system (nexus 220 filtration system, pH = 7.8; ammonium = 0.5 mg/ml; Nitrite = 0.4 mg/ml and temperature = 11 °C) was obtained from the Department of Environmental Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Sweden. Ammonium and nitrite concentrations were increased by addition of ammonium sulphate and sodium nitrite stock solutions to the biofilter water. 3 ml of the AOB-GR microbiome (9 °C- and 15 °C-adapted) were mixed with 47 ml low ammonium concentration water (biofilter water) (0.5 mg/ml), 47 ml medium ammonium concentration water (5 mg/ml), and 47 ml high ammonium concentration water (35 mg/ml). 3 ml of the NOB-WW2 microbiome (9 °C- and 15 °C-adapted) were mixed with 47 ml low nitrite concentration water (0.4 mg/ml) (biofilter water), 47 ml medium nitrite concentration water (4 mg/ml), and 47 ml high nitrite concentration water (8 mg/ml). In a refrigerated incubator, 3 replicates of each

mixture were grown at 9 °C and 15 °C at 170 rpm. To evaluate the effect of selected microbiomes and comparing their performance in a natural RAS biofilter water, negative control groups was used that include high, medium, and low ammonium/nitrite concentration waters without adding the selected microbiomes.

2.8. Statistical analysis

The normality of data was evaluated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov analysis test. One way ANOVA was used for comparing data means. The significance level among different treatments was determined by the Tukey test, at 5% level. Statistical analysis was performed by SPSS 17 software and the graphs were drawn by Microsoft excel 2019.

3. Results

3.1. The environmental water samples enriched with AOB and NOB microbial communities effectively remove ammonium and nitrite

Different water sources have different limnological conditions (from eutrophic to oligotrophic) that support growth of different bacterial species (Biddanda et al., 2001; Karydis et al., 2009). Therefore, to achieve microbial communities with the highest ammonium and nitrite removal activity, different water sources in Gothenburg, Sweden, were selected. These included an artificial lake (SDL), a river (GR), a natural lake (DL), and two different types of wastewater (WW1 and WW2). The ammonium, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations, pH and temperature indices were measured in the samples collected from these water sources (Fig. 1a).

When anaerobically treated sewage sludge is dewatered, reject water is generated that contains high concentrations of ammonium (Meyer and Wilderer, 2004). The concentration of ammonium and nitrate was highest in raw reject water sample which we refer to as WW1. We also used the reject water treated with nitrification (ammonia oxidation to nitrite) and anammox (Du et al., 2015), which contains high concentration of nitrite and is referred to as WW2 (Fig. 1a). By contrast, the lowest concentrations of ammonium and nitrate were related to DL, and the lowest concentration of nitrite was related to SDL.

Our results indicated that the ammonium removal and nitrite production activities were high in GR, WW1, and SDL samples (Fig. 1b), whereas the WW2 and DL exhibited higher nitrite removal and nitrate production (Fig. 1c). Considering that the selected microbial communities were related to the municipal sewage, river, and lakes, the possibility of enriching autotrophic AOB and NOB bacteria from the selected sources seemed logical (Watson, 1965; Suwa et al., 1994; Utåker et al., 1995). Therefore, GR, WW1, and SDL with the highest ammonium removal performance were selected for further experiments as AOB-enriched microbial communities, and WW2 and DL samples with the highest nitrite removal performance were selected as NOB-enriched microbial communities. To increase the efficiency of these communities at various temperatures (9, 15, RT and 30 °C), temperature adaptation was performed at the next stage.

3.2. Temperature-adapted AOB and NOB microbiomes are able to remove ammonium and nitrite at different temperatures

Given wide range of temperatures used in aquaculture (cold and

Table 1
Primers and PCR conditions for amplification of 16 S rRNA in enriched microbiomes.

Primer	Sequence	PCR conditions						
		Denaturation		Annealing		Extension		Number of cycles
27 F	5'-AGAGTTTGATCC TGG CTC AG-3'	Temperature (°C)	Time (s)	Temperature (°C)	Time (s)	Temperature (°C)	Time (s)	
1492 R	5'-GGTTACCTTGTT ACG ACT T-3'	95	30	50	30	72	60	

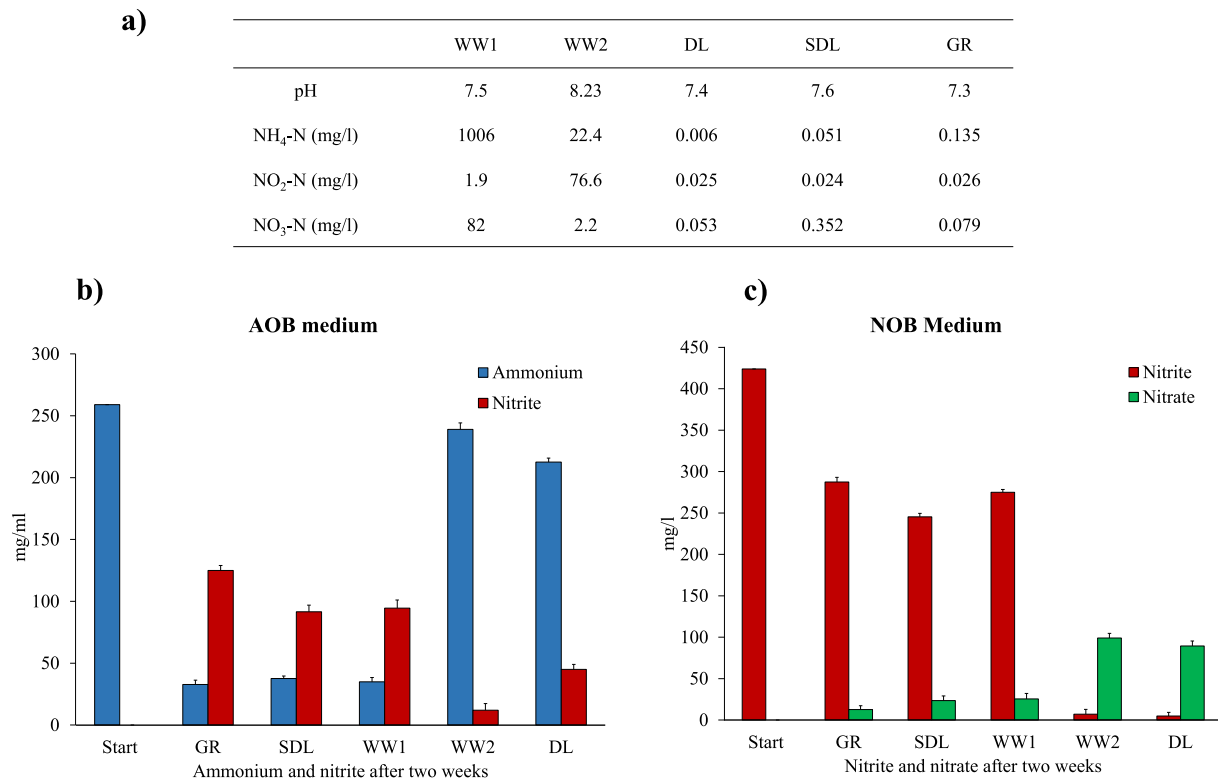


Fig. 1. The characteristics of microbiomes collected from different water sources. a Water quality indicators in collected samples from different sources. b Ammonium removal and nitrite production in the AOB enriched microbiomes after two weeks. c Nitrite removal and nitrate production in the NOB enriched microbiomes after two weeks.

warm water fishies), we have selected various temperatures of 9, 15, RT and 30 °C for temperature adaptation of selected microbial communities. We have also evaluated the ammonium and nitrite removal activity of selected microbiomes based on reducing the concentration of ammonium (Fig. 2a–g) and nitrite (Fig. 3a–g) at different temperatures: 9 °C, 15 °C, RT, and 30 °C. RT was overall the optimal temperature for ammonium removal. At this temperature, the GR sample was able to completely remove ammonium after 216 h (Fig. 2b). SDL and WW1 microbiomes where somewhat slower, reaching complete ammonium removal after 288 h and 480 h, respectively. The ammonium removal activity was reduced in all microbiomes at 30 °C compared to RT, but the highest ammonium removal rate was still found in the GR sample, completely removing ammonium after 288 h (Fig. 2a). At 15 °C, the ammonium removal was further reduced. The GR sample was still the best performer, requiring 384 h for complete removal (Fig. 2c). Decreasing the temperature to 9 °C dramatically decreased ammonium removal of all sample, but the GR was still the best performer (Fig. 2d). Due to the poor performance of the WW1 microbiome in ammonium removal at all tested temperatures, it was excluded from further experiments (Fig. 2a–d).

The NOB-enriched microbiomes (WW2 and DL) exhibited the best nitrite removal rate at 30 °C (Fig. 3a–d). At this temperature, nitrite was completely removed by the WW2 sample after 144 h (Fig. 3a). Nitrite removal decreased in both samples with decreasing temperatures (Fig. 3b–d). The WW2 sample consistently showed a higher rate of nitrite removal at all temperatures (Fig. 3a–d).

In order to correlate metabolic activity of ammonium and nitrite removal with expression of key genes at population level, we investigated the expression of key genes AMO and NXR, involved these respective processes. Highest expression levels of AMO and NXR were observed in GR and WW2 samples, respectively (Figs. 2e and 3e). The expression of both AMO and NXR was highest in the temperature range of 25–30 °C. This result was consistent with the highest ammonium and

nitrite removal activity of GR and WW2 at RT and 30 °C, respectively.

3.3. Key nitrifying bacteria are present in selected AOB and NOB microbiomes

Although a biofilter system is separate module of the RAS during fish farming, it is nevertheless important to ensure that there are no pathogenic bacteria (especially primary pathogens) in the microbial community before its addition to the biofilter section (Menanteau-Ledouble et al., 2020). Therefore, our GR and WW2 microbiomes underwent identification of bacterial strains. The results showed that *Nitrosomonas oligotropha* (21.6% of all DNA reads in the metagenome) and *Nitrobacter winogradskyi* (6.1% of all DNA reads in the metagenome) were the dominant species in the GR and WW2 microbiomes, respectively (Figs. 2f and 3f). These species are known to be involved in the nitrification process (Vanparys et al., 2007; Sayavedra-Soto et al., 2015). With such high prevalence of *N. oligotropha* and *N. winogradskyi*, it should be possible to visualize these species using the SEM microscopic observation of the bacterial communities. In the GR sample, we were able to identify many rod-shaped bacteria. It is plausible to presume that these bacteria with rod-shaped morphology might be *Nitrosomonas oligotropha* based on the morphology described by Watson and Mandel (1971) (Fig. 2g). Similarly, in the WW2 sample, we were able to identify cells corresponding to the general description of the genus *Nitrobacter* (Fig. 3g). The bacteria pathogens of aquatic animals and humans that are commonly encountered in RAS was previously listed (Timpe and Runyon, 1954; Von Graevenitz, 1977; Vine et al., 2004; Noga, 2010; Defoirdt et al., 2011; Blandford et al., 2018; Ina-Salwany et al., 2019). Presence of these bacteria was investigated in the microbial communities of GR and WW2 samples. According to our results, there were no pathogenic bacteria in the GR and WW2 communities.

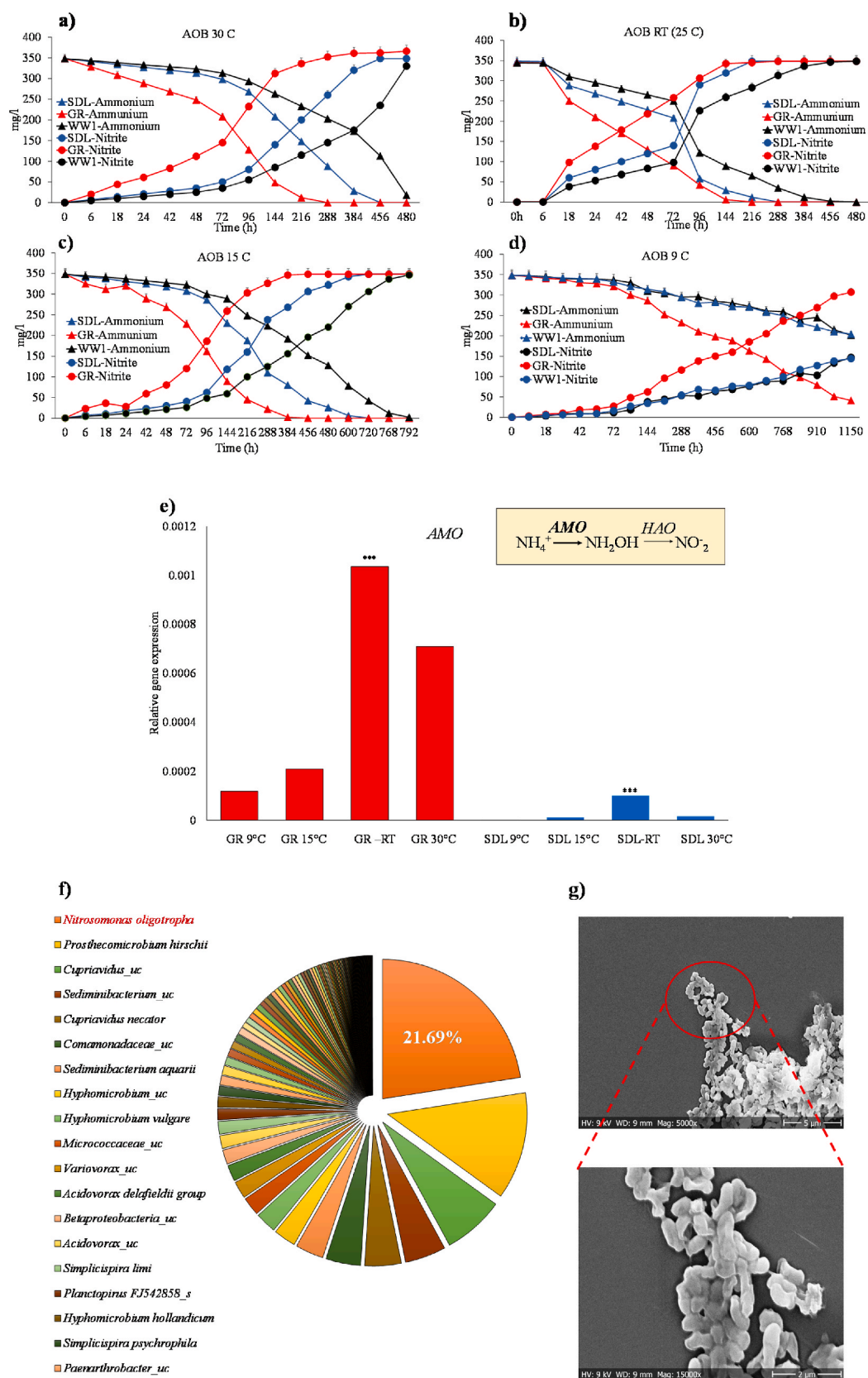


Fig. 2. Ammonium removal and nitrite production using: a 30 °C-adapted AOB microbiomes, b temperature-adapted AOB microbiomes, c 15 °C-adapted AOB microbiomes, and d 9 °C-adapted AOB microbiomes. e *Ammonia monoxygenase* (*AMO*) gene expression in the different temperature-adapted AOB microbiomes. f Bacterial population (species) in GR microbiome g Microscopic observation of *Nitrosomonas oligotropha* in GR microbiome.

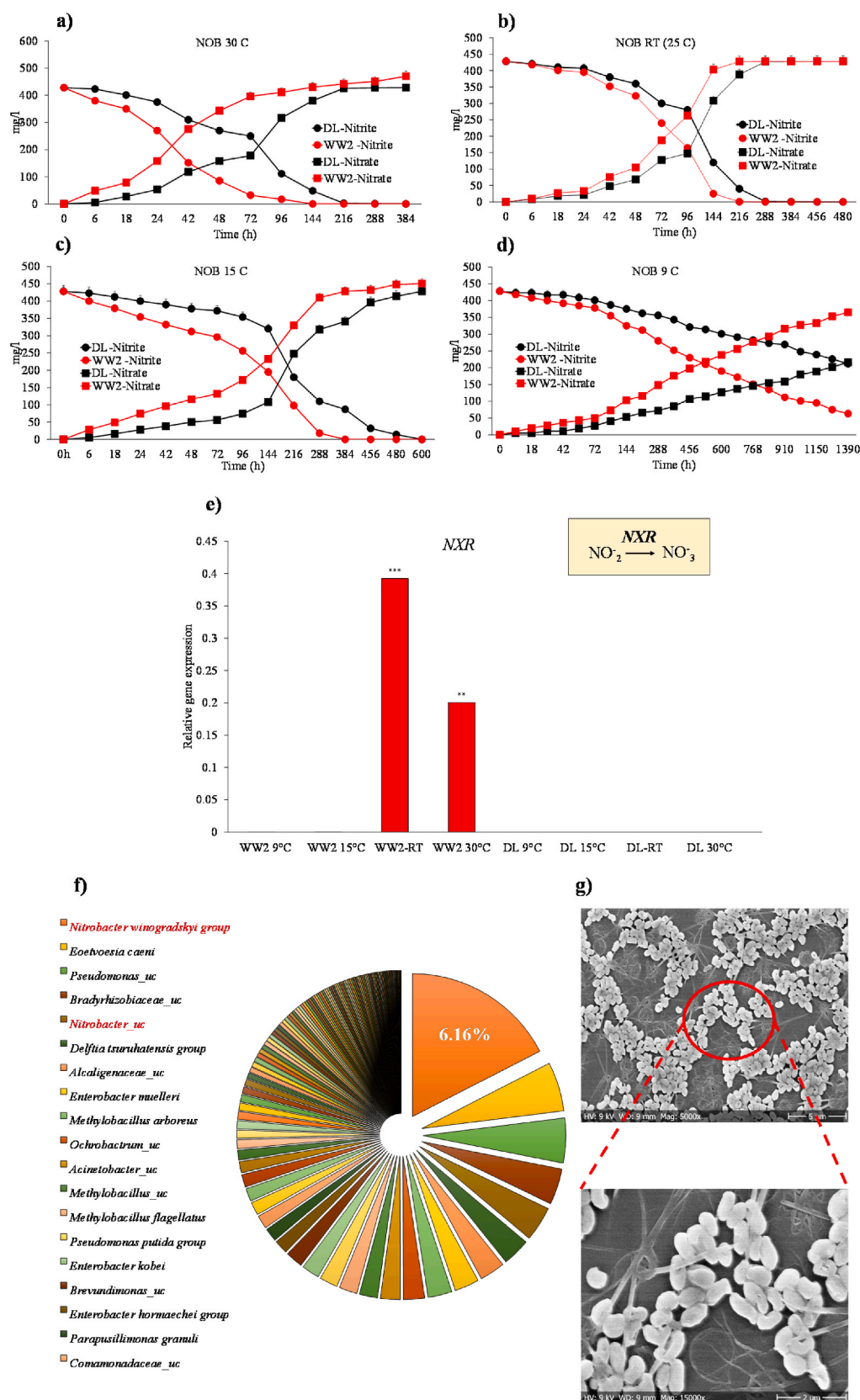


Fig. 3. Nitrite removal and nitrate production using a 30 °C-adapted NOB microbiomes, b temperature-adapted NOB microbiomes, c 15 °C-adapted NOB microbiomes, and d 9 °C-adapted NOB microbiomes. e *Nitrite oxidoreductase* (NXR) gene expression in the different temperature-adapted AOB microbiomes. f Bacterial population (species) in WW2 microbiome g Microscopic observation of WW2 microbiome.

3.4. GR and WW2 microbiomes efficiently remove ammonium and nitrite from biofilter water at 9 and 15 °C

To test the activity of the selected microbiomes (GR and WW2) for use on RAS biofilters, they were further tested in biofilter water samples with different concentrations of ammonium (0.5, 5, and 35 mg/ml) and nitrite (0.4, 4, and 8 mg/ml). The ammonium and nitrite removal activities of GR and WW2 were investigated in these water samples at 9 and 15 °C (Fig. 4a–f, Fig. 5a–f). The results showed that the respective ammonium and nitrite removal activity of the GR and WW2 samples was higher than the negative control groups (natural biofilter water) at all tested doses of ammonium and nitrite at the selected temperatures (9 and 15 °C) (Figs. 4g and 5g). The ammonium and nitrite removal activity of our microbial communities was expectedly slower at 9 °C than at 15 °C. The slow removal activities at 9 °C was not specific to our microbial communities, as it was also observed in the negative control

group (Fig. 4b, d, Fig. 4f, Fig. 5b, Fig. 5d, f). In spite of slow removal activities at 9 °C, the removal rate of GR and WW2 was much higher than that of the negative control sample, that is commonly found in RAS systems. The ammonium removal by GR was improved by 288% over the control (Fig. 4g), and nitrite removal by WW2 was improved by 181% over the control microbial community (Fig. 5g). The effect of ammonium and nitrite concentrations in biofilter water on ammonium and nitrite removal activity was shown in Fig. 6. The optimum ammonium concentration for ammonium removal activity of AOB microbial community (GR) was 5 mg/ml in cold conditions (9 and 15 °C) and even the activity was more pronounced at 9 °C. However in case of nitrite removal activity, the optimum nitrite concentration for nitrite removal activity of NOB microbial community (WW2) was 8 mg/ml in cold conditions (9 and 15 °C) and similar to AOB community, the nitrite removal activity was highly significant at 9 °C.

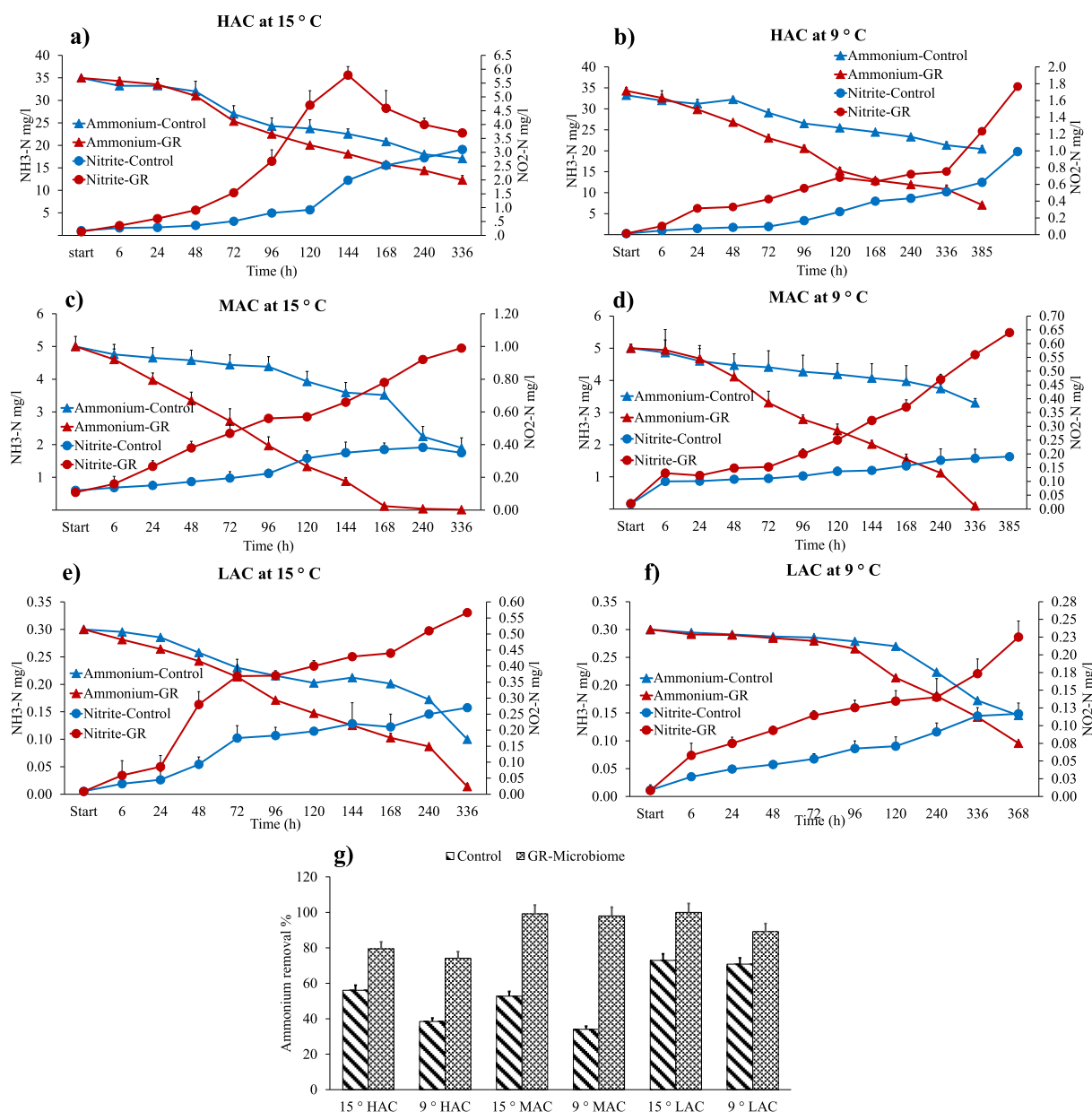


Fig. 4. Ammonium removal activity using GR microbiome at different concentrations of ammonium and cold temperatures. a At high ammonium concentration (HAC, 35 mg/ml) and 15 °C, b at HAC and 9 °C, c at medium ammonium concentration (MAC, 5 mg/ml) and 15 °C, d at MAC and 9 °C, e at low ammonium concentration (LAC, 0.5 mg/ml) and 15 °C, f at LAC and 9 °C. g Ammonium removal percentage at different ammonium concentrations (HAC, MAC, and LAC) and temperatures (9 and 15 °C) using GR microbiome.

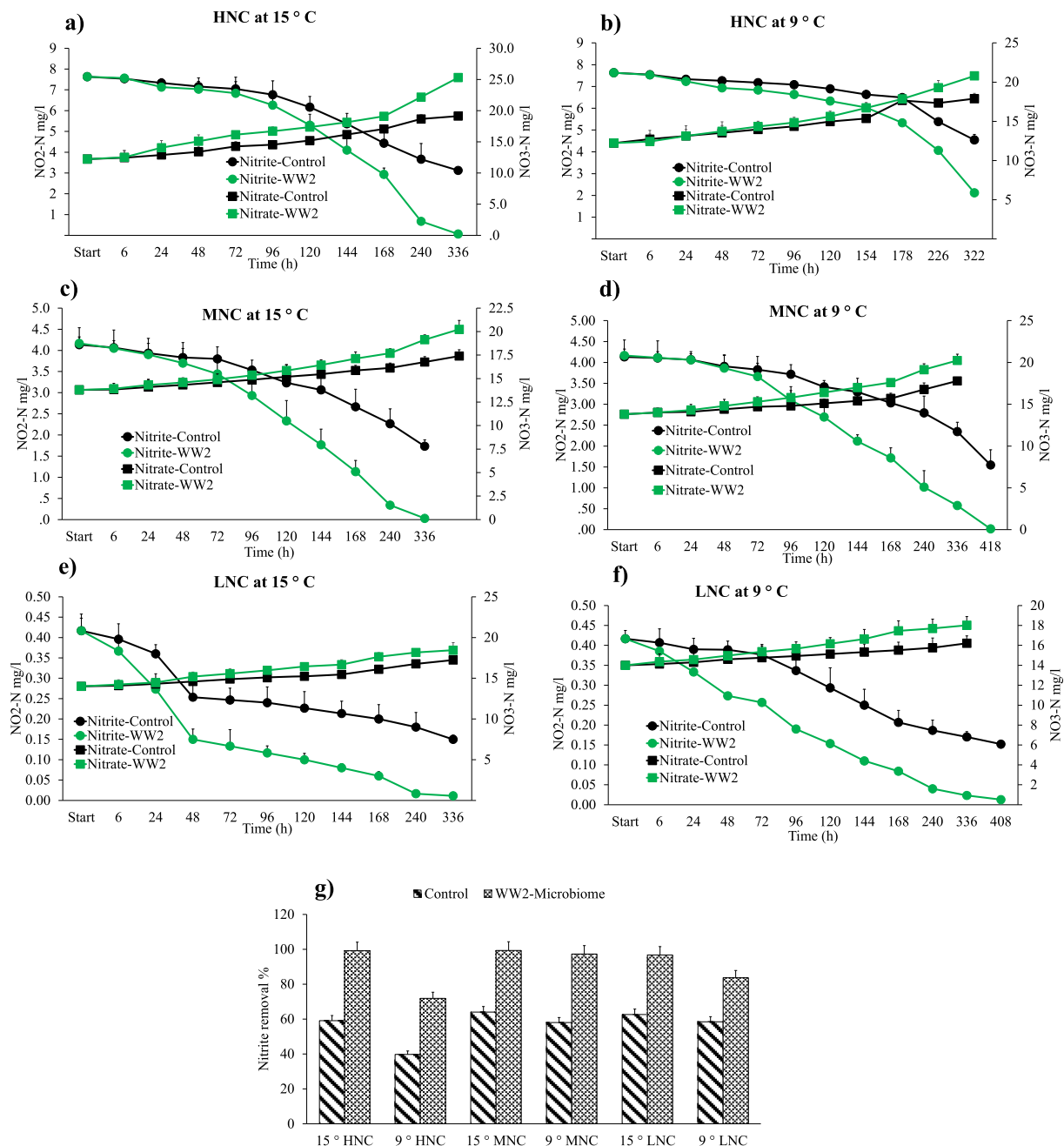


Fig. 5. Nitrite removal activity using WW2 microbiome at different concentrations of nitrite and cold temperatures. a At high nitrite concentration (HNC, 8 mg/ml) and 15 °C, b at HNC and 9 °C, c at medium nitrite concentration (MNC, 4 mg/ml) and 15 °C, d at MNC and 9 °C, e at low nitrite concentration (LNC 0.4 mg/ml) and 15 °C, f at LNC and 9 °C. g Nitrite removal percentage at different concentrations (HNC, MNC, and LNC) and temperatures (9 and 15 °C) using WW2 microbiome.

4. Discussion

Bioremediation has emerged as a sustainable strategy to improve the water quality of aquaculture effluents and reduce potential environmental pollution. In this regard, a set of microorganisms can be beneficial to increase the rate of pollutant removal. There are several recent studies showing the effectiveness of aquatic wastewater treatment by using microbial assemblies (John et al., 2020; hui Liang et al., 2021; Patil et al., 2021). However, most of these studies used the heterotrophic bacteria as the bioaugmentation agent. Given high efficiency of autotrophic bacteria to remove ammonium and nitrite, the application of enriched microbiome containing a significant percentage of autotrophic AOB and NOB bacteria can be beneficial.

In this study, we focused on removal of ammonium and nitrite in RAS

wastewater using microbial communities dominated by autotrophic AOB and NOB bacteria collected from different water sources.

Intensive rearing of aquatic animals includes fish, crustaceans and bivalves that grow densely in the systems with recirculating water. Increase of animal density in water results in the higher concentration of pollutants (ammonium and nitrite). The biofilters of these systems, whose microorganisms are colonized, have a certain capacity for water treatment, pollutants removal and water reuse, and it is still challenging to maintain the hygienic conditions suitable for breeding (Khater, 2012; De Prisco, 2020). If a solution is found to more efficiently eliminate the pollutants, then the capacity of the system can be increased, which would make the process more economical and more sustainable (Tomasso, 1994; Van Wyk and Scarpa, 1999; Fotedar, 2016). Nitrification in RAS biofilters is driven mostly by the nitrifying bacteria (Losordo et al.,

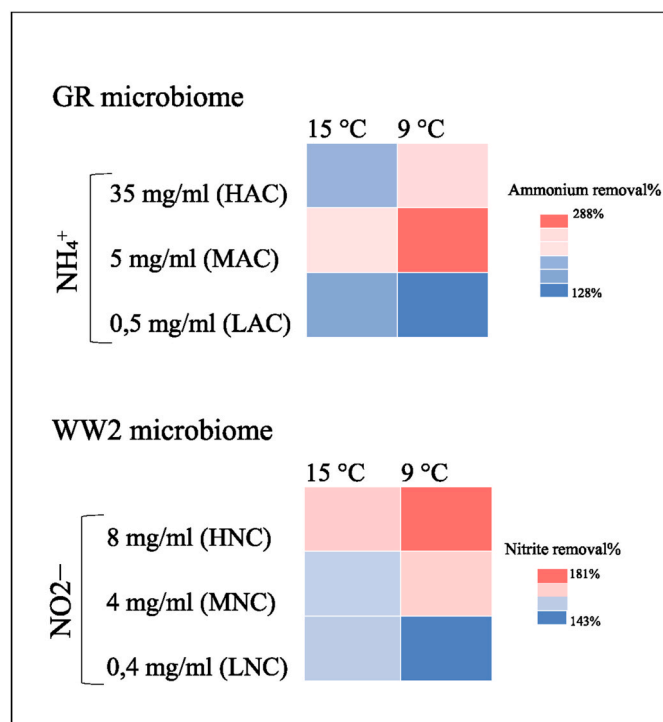


Fig. 6. Heatmap of improvement of ammonium and nitrite removal percentage by GR and WW2 microbiomes compared with the negative control group at different concentrations of ammonium (HAC, MAC, and LAC) and nitrite (HNC, MNC, and LNC) in cold conditions (9 and 15 °C).

1998; Ebeling and Timmons, 2010). These bacteria mostly comprise slow-growing species of the genera *Nitrospira*, *Nitrobacter*, *Nitrosomonas*, *Nitrococcus*, and *Nitrosococcus* (Grady and Lim, 1980; Prosser, 1990). When a RAS system is getting started, it is possible to add a slow growing microbial community to the system without fish (Ebeling and Timmons, 2010; Wongkiew et al., 2017). Thus, a community enriched with suitable nitrifying bacteria could be added to a starting RAS to ensure optimal operation of the biofilter (Urakawa et al., 2008). Metagenomic and metatranscriptomic techniques are helpful for investigating microbial communities and enable taxonomic analysis and classification of bacterial varieties (Godde et al., 2019). In this study, we showed that the GR microbial community, selected for its AOB activity and enriched with *N. oligotropha*, could be used for effective ammonium removal at both high and low temperatures in a trout aquaculture biofilter water system. *N. oligotropha* is a Gram-negative, rod-shaped species with aerobic metabolism (Wahman et al., 2011). In our selected NOB-enriched community, the WW2 sample, *N. winogradskyi* was found as the dominant denitrifier. *N. winogradskyi* is a Gram-negative bacterium that plays a key role in the nitrogen cycle by converting nitrite to nitrate as the end product of ammonium oxidation in nitrification process (Starkenbourg et al., 2006).

During fish farming, RAS system moves towards the nitrificant bacteria that have adapted to the system. Biofilters play an essential role in these systems. Proteobacteria sp, Bacteroidetes sp, Nitrospirae sp, Planctomycetes sp, Rhizobiaceae, and Chloroflexi sp that Nitrosomonas sp, Nitrospira sp. and Nitrobacter sp. are the most common microbial communities in biofilter systems (Bartelme et al., 2017; Brailo et al., 2019; Hüpeden et al., 2020). In order to compare the performance of our selected microbiomes with the natural colonized AOB and NOB bacteria, the temperature-adapted GR and WW2 microbiomes were added to the RAS biofilter water. The results demonstrated the positive effect of selected microbiomes containing *N. oligotropha* and *N. winogradskyi* on nitrite and nitrate production in biofilter water at low temperatures (9 and 15 °C), respectively.

It has been shown that *N. oligotropha* isolated from Austin Lake used mainly the AMO enzyme for ammonium removal (Wahman et al., 2011). Hence, we confirmed that the AMO gene was highly expressed in the GR microbiome, corresponding to peak ammonium removal activity (Fig. 2e). The negative effect of lower temperatures on ammonium removal was accompanied by lower expression of the AMO gene (Fig. 2e). Nitrite gets reduced to nitrate by NXR enzyme, whose differential expression was detected in the WW2 microbiome (Fig. 3e). NXR expression correlated very well with the nitrite removal activity of the WW2 community (Fig. 3).

5. Conclusions

In this study we report a strategy for bio-augmentation of RAS biofilters enriched with autotrophic AOB and NOB bacteria. Using the enriched microbial community GR, we achieved a 288% improvement in ammonium removal over the commonly used communities in biofilters at 9 °C (Fig. 6). Similarly, the enriched community WW2 improved nitrite removal by 181% compared to the commonly used communities in biofilters at 9 °C (Fig. 6). It is important to emphasize that no pathogenic bacteria were identified in the GR and WW2 microbiomes, making them eminently suitable for application in low temperature RAS for trout breeding. We would therefore propose bio-augmentation with GR and WW2 as a safe and effective improvement to the standard procedures in RAS for trout breeding. However, the performance and stability of these microbiomes need to be studied for long time operation in the fish farming system in the future. Furthermore, the surface colonization of these microbiomes needs to be studied using different biofilters, in order to optimize colonization and maximize their effectiveness.

Authors' contributions

Alireza Neissi, Shadi Rahimi, Gholamreza Rafiee, Hamid Farahmand and Ivan Mijakovic designed the project. Alireza Neissi and Shadi Rahimi performed the laboratory works. Alireza Neissi and Shadi Rahimi and Ivan Mijakovic performed library preparation, sequencing, and metagenomics analysis. Alireza Neissi and Shadi Rahimi prepared microbiome samples and photographed with SEM. All authors contributed to the preparation of the manuscript.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.133811>.

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