

1 **Spatiotemporal dynamics of ammonium monooxygenase (*amoA*) genes in sediments of**
2 **the aquaculture area in the Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass**

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8 **Running Title:** Spatiotemporal dynamics of *amoA* genes

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23 **Abstract**

24 Ammonia oxidation is a fundamental process in the marine nitrogen cycle, driving the transformation of
25 ammonia into nitrate and playing a crucial role in maintaining nitrogen balance in deep-sea ecosystems.
26 Ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) and ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) play crucial roles in the
27 ammonia-oxidizing, yet their dynamics in deep-sea aquaculture environments remain poorly understood. This
28 study investigated the spatiotemporal variations in the diversity, community composition, and abundance of
29 archaeal and bacterial *amoA* genes in the sediments of the aquaculture area in the Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass.
30 Results revealed that AOB exhibited higher OTUs, diversity, and richness than AOA. Most AOA and AOB were
31 clustered into the genera *Nitrosopumilus* and *Nitrosomonas*, respectively. The highest abundance of *amoA* gene
32 copies was observed in December. Although bioindicators for both AOA and AOB communities were detected
33 across all sampling sites and times, none of them could be identified as aquaculture-derived indicators. Neutral
34 community model indicated that assembly of the AOB community was primarily driven by stochastic processes
35 ($R^2 = 88.6\%$), whereas the AOA community was more influenced by environmental factors ($R^2 = 61.3\%$).
36 Bottom water temperature and sediment carbon content were the key parameters influencing archaeal *amoA* gene
37 abundance and AOA indicator abundance. These findings highlight the importance of environmental parameters
38 in shaping AOA and AOB communities in the YSCWM. Understanding these microbial dynamics is essential for
39 assessing the stability of nitrogen cycling in deep-sea aquaculture environments and developing sustainable
40 management strategies for marine aquaculture in YSCWM.

41 **Keywords:** Ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA); Ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB); *amoA* genes; qPCR;
42 Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass; Sediments

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Marine sediments are Earth's largest habitats for microbes to flourish and are particularly important sites for
45 biogeochemical cycles, such as the carbon and nitrogen cycles (Beman et al., 2012; Besaury et al., 2014).
46 Nitrogen is an essential nutrient element for life in the marine ecosystems, influencing primary productivity,
47 organic matter degradation, and trophic dynamics (Luo et al., 2018). However, an excess of inorganic nitrogen,
48 such as ammonia, can trigger eutrophication and pose severe risks to marine biodiversity and sustainability of
49 aquaculture (Shen et al., 2016; Jin et al., 2017). Therefore, understanding nitrification in deep-sea sediments is
50 essential for assessing nitrogen cycling potential, maintaining water quality, and ensuring long-term ecosystem
51 stability (Li et al., 2022).

52 Nitrification, which involves the sequential oxidation of ammonia ($\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$) to nitrite ($\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$) and
53 subsequently to nitrate ($\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$), is a crucial process to regulate nitrogen bioavailability (Isnansetyo et al., 2014).
54 The first and rate-limiting step, ammonia oxidation, is catalyzed by ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) and
55 ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) (He et al., 2018). Both AOA and AOB carry the *amoA* gene, which
56 encodes the first subunit of ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) (Könneke et al., 2005; Treusch et al., 2005; Ming
57 et al., 2020). To date, *amoA* gene has been a widely used molecular marker to access the diversity and abundance
58 of ammonia-oxidizing microbes across aquatic environments, including estuaries (Mosier and Francis, 2008;
59 Zheng et al., 2014; Ming et al., 2020), freshwater aquaculture ponds (Shen et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2022), and
60 lakes (Hou et al., 2013; Vissers et al., 2013). Extensive studies have been conducted focusing on the relative
61 contribution of AOA and AOB to nitrification (Wang et al., 2014). For example, in river and estuary systems,
62 AOA communities exhibited higher diversity and *amoA* gene abundance than AOB communities (He et al., 2018;
63 Liu et al., 2021). In coastal sediments, the relative contribution of AOA to total potential nitrification rate was
64 greater than that of AOB due to the low salinity and ammonia concentrations in the bottom water (Li et al.,

65 2022a). In freshwater aquaculture ponds, AOA and AOB distribution was strongly influenced by farming models
66 and physicochemical parameters (Dai et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2022). Previous studies have
67 shown that seasonal changes in environmental factors, such as pH, temperature, light, dissolved oxygen, salinity,
68 and ammonia concentration, were reflected in the dynamic changes of AOA and AOB community structures and
69 the abundance of functional genes (*amoA*) in diverse aquatic ecosystems (Avrahami et al., 2003; Mosier and
70 Francis, 2008; Jiménez et al., 2011; Merbt et al., 2012; Qin et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2019). These findings highlight
71 the significant influence of environmental conditions on ammonia-oxidizing microbial communities across
72 various aquatic habitats. However, most studies have focused on coastal and freshwater environments, leaving
73 deep-sea aquaculture systems largely unexplored.

74 Located in the deep sea, the Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass (YSCWM) in China exhibits unique hydrological
75 conditions compared to other ocean environments, such as the costal South Yellow Sea (Dong, 2019; Li et al.,
76 2022b). The formation of thermocline in the area started from May to June, resulting in low bottom seawater
77 temperatures and high dissolved oxygen concentrations in summer, which are suitable for culturing salmonids
78 (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Xin et al., 2015; Li et al., 2022b). In 2017, the first submersible fish cage called “Deep
79 Blue 1” was constructed in the YSCWM to culture Salmonids. Cage farming can significantly impact nitrogen
80 cycling in the sediments through organic matter deposition from residual feed and feces, leading to enhanced
81 nutrients fluxes and microbial nitrogen turnover rates (Rubio-Portillo et al., 2019). Previous studies have shown
82 that aquaculture activities in the YSCWM can alter bacterial community composition and reduce bacterial
83 richness in sediments, with Planctomycetes identified as a biomarker in the aquaculture area (Li et al., 2022b).
84 However, the specific impacts of “Deep Blue 1” on ammonia-oxidizing microbial communities in the YSCWM
85 remain poorly understood.

86 In this study, we investigated the ammonia-oxidizing microbes in the YSCWM by measuring the gene
87 abundance of archaeal and bacterial *amoA* genes and performing high-throughput sequencing of *amoA*-encoding
88 microorganisms at different culture times. This study represents the first exploration of how aquaculture
89 activities and the unique deep-sea conditions in the YSCWM jointly influence the structure and dynamics of
90 AOA and AOB communities. Our findings offer novel insights into the spatiotemporal dynamics and
91 environmental drivers of these microbial communities in aquaculture sediments. We hypothesize that the
92 distinctive environmental conditions of the YSCWM, combined with aquaculture activities, may significantly
93 shape the community structure and functional gene abundance of ammonia-oxidizing microbes in surface
94 sediments. To address these knowledge gaps, our primary objectives were (1) to explore temporal and spatial
95 variations of the AOA and AOB community structure in the YSCWM, (2) to investigate the potential factors
96 influencing *amoA* gene abundance and community distribution, and (3) to detect the bioindicators in both AOA
97 and AOB communities and evaluate the correlation between the bioindicators and environmental factors.

98

99 **2. Materials and Methods**

100 **2.1. Sample collection and physicochemical properties analysis**

101 In November 2020, more than 40,000 Salmonidae juveniles (average weight of about 150 g) were stocked
102 in the cage named “Deep Blue 1” (perimeter: 180 m, height: 35 m), which is located at 35.21785 N, 122.26140
103 E. The water depth in this region is around 55 meters (Xu et al., 2024). The sediment in this area was dominated
104 by clay (69.76 % ~ 71.87 %), followed by silt (20.03 % ~ 23.20 %) and sand (5.99 % ~ 10.21 %) (Pan et al.,
105 2025). Based on our previous research, the thermocline in this area is typically found at a depth of around 15 to
106 22 meters during summer (Nie et al., 2023). The fish were harvested from June 22 to August 06, 2021. On

107 November 25, 2021, over 100,000 Salmonidae juveniles (average weight of about 1,600 g) were stocked in the
108 same cage and then harvested since June 07, 2022.

109 Sampling campaigns based on the different culture cycles were as follows: at the end of the first culture
110 cycle (June 24 to 27, 2021), after the first harvest (August 25 to 28, 2021), at the beginning of the second culture
111 cycle (December 03 to 06, 2021), and before the second harvest (April 27 to 30, 2022). Sediment samples were
112 taken from three sampling sites as follows: site E was around the deep-sea fully submersible fish cage “Deep
113 Blue”, site C located 500m away from the cage towards the main water flow (140°–320°) under the potential
114 influence of cage culture, and site A located 2000 m away from the cage towards the main water flow, with no
115 apparent anthropogenic influence and fish farming effect (Fig. 1).

116 The bottom water temperature and the dissolved oxygen concentration were measured in situ with a YSI
117 650 MDS multi-parameter water quality meter (Yellow springs instruments, USA). Ample surface sediment
118 samples (0–10 cm) in triplicates were collected by a grab sampler at each site, and placed in 50 mL RNase-free
119 centrifuge tubes. All samples were stored and transported at -20 °C. After immediate delivery to the Key
120 Laboratory of Mariculture, Ocean University of China (Qingdao, China), a portion of the sample was separated
121 for measuring the physicochemical properties of pore water and sediments, and the remaining portion was stored
122 at -80 °C for DNA extraction. Concentrations of total ammonia nitrogen (TAN, $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$), nitrite ($\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$, $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)
123 and nitrate ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) in the pore water were determined following Boyd (2019). Briefly, TAN was
124 detected by the indophenol blue spectrophotometric method, $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$ was measured using the ethylenediamine
125 dihydrochloride spectrophotometric method, and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ was analyzed by the zinc-cadmium reduction
126 ultraviolet spectrophotometric method. For analysis of total nitrogen and carbon content in the sediments,
127 approximately 10 g of sediment was dried to a constant weight in a vacuum freeze-dryer (Alpha1-4LDplus,
128 CHRIST, Germany) at -40°C for 48 h. The dried samples were homogenized and sieved through a 200-mesh

129 grid before analysis. Total nitrogen and carbon content were quantified using an elemental analyzer (WarsoEL III,
130 ELEMENT, Germany), which operated with two reaction chambers set at 750°C and 500°C, respectively. Data
131 were calibrated against Acetanilide (C: 71.09%, N: 10.36%), with calibration performed twice for every 19
132 samples.

133 **2.2. DNA extraction and amplicon sequencing**

134 Total genomic DNA was extracted from approximately 0.5g of sediment samples by using MO-BIO
135 PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (Carlsbad, CA USA) according to the instructions of the manufacturer. The
136 extracted DNA concentration and purity were measured using a spectrophotometer (ND-2000, Nanodrop, USA),
137 and the integrity of DNA was determined by 1.2% agarose gel.

138 The archaeal *amoA* gene fragments (256 bp) and bacterial *amoA* gene fragments (491 bp) were amplified
139 using the specific primer pairs as follows: Arch *amoA*-F (5'-STAATGGTCTGGCTTAGACG-3') and Arch
140 *amoA*-R (5'-GCGGCCATCCATCTGTATGT-3') for archaeal *amoA* gene and *amoA*-1F
141 (5'-GGGGTTTCTACTGGTGGT-3') and *amoA*-2R (5'-CCCCTCKGSAAAGCCTTCTTC-3') for bacterial
142 *amoA* gene (Ming et al., 2020). A two-step PCR amplification was used to create a gene library. All PCR
143 reactions were carried out with 15 µL of Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs), 2
144 µM of forward and reverse primers, and around 10 ng of template DNA. For AOA *amoA* gene sequencing, the
145 PCR protocol involved an initial denaturation at 98°C for 1 min, followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 98 °C
146 for 10 s, annealing at 56 °C for 30 s, and elongation at 72 °C for 30 s, with a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min.
147 For AOB *amoA* gene sequencing, the PCR conditions were the same, except the annealing temperature was set to
148 58°C instead of 56°C. The PCR products were run on 2% agarose gel electrophoresis and then purified with
149 AxyPrepDNA Gel Extraction Kit (AXYGEN, USA). Subsequently, amplified PCR products were pooled into a

150 single tube for sequencing on the Illumina NextSeq 2000 platform (TinyGene Bio-Tech Co., LTD, Shanghai,
151 China).

152 **2.3. Sequence analysis**

153 Raw sequence read were analyzed under specific filtering conditions to obtain the high-quality clean tags
154 using QIIME (V1.9.1, http://qiime.org/scripts/split_libraries_fastq.html). Ambiguous, homologous, and chimera
155 sequences were identified and removed using Mothur (version: 1.39.5, <https://mothur.org/wiki/>). The clean tags
156 were then clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at a 97% sequence similarity level using Uparse
157 (Uparse v7.0.1001, <http://drive5.com/uparse/>). OTUs were aligned to determine the closest reference sequence
158 based on the BLASTn tool (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST>) in the latest NCBI database. Raw sequence
159 reads in this study are deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive database with numbers PRJNA1013470
160 and PRJNA1013414.

161 **2.4. Quantitative PCR**

162 The abundance of archaeal and bacterial *amoA* genes was detected by qPCR using the specific primer pairs
163 that were identical to those used for high-throughput sequencing. All qPCR assays were performed in triplicate
164 on a QuantStudio5 real-time PCR (Applied Biosystems, US) using the SYBR Green I method. The 20 μL
165 reaction volume contained 10 μL of $2 \times$ ChamQ SYBR color qPCR Mater Mix (Vazyme, Nanjing, China), 0.2
166 μL of each primer (10 mM), 7.6 μL of nuclease-free water, and 10 ng of template DNA. The qPCR amplification
167 started with an initial activation at 95°C for 30s, followed by 40 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 1 min at 56°C and 1 min
168 at 72°C for AOA, or 40 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 1 min at 58°C and 1 min at 72°C for AOB. After the amplification
169 cycles, a melting stage was added to obtain a melting curve. Standard curves using seven concentrations
170 (10^4 - 10^{10} copies· μL^{-1} for AOA and 10^3 - 10^9 copies· μL^{-1} for AOB) of standard plasmids were established. The
171 plasmid was constructed using the pTOPO-TA cloning kit (SparkJade Biotech, China) in chemically competent

172 *E. coli* cells (Sangon Biotech, China), following the manufacturer's guidelines. Plasmid DNA was extracted
173 using the SPARKeasy Mini Plasmid Ultra-Fast Kit (SparkJade Biotech, China) following the manufacturer's
174 instructions. The reliability of the qPCR assay with both primers was confirmed by the strong linear inverse
175 relationship between the threshold cycle value (Ct) and the logarithmic value of the gene copy numbers ($R^2 >$
176 0.99). Only one observable peak at the melting temperature (77.4°C for AOA and 79.0°C for AOB) was found. In
177 addition, no primer-dimer artifacts or other nonspecific PCR products were observed.

178 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

179 The sequences were initially rarefied to the same sampling-depth. Venn diagrams and petal pictures were
180 generated using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, Inc.) to analyze overlapping and OTUs distribution
181 across different sites and sampling times. The α -diversity indices (observed species, Chao1, Shannon, and
182 Good-coverage) were calculated and analyzed using QIIME software (version 1.7.0). Normality of data and
183 homogeneity of variances were checked using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Levene's test, respectively. A
184 two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test the difference in physicochemical properties,
185 alpha diversity and beta diversity of sediments, and *amoA* gene abundance in different sampling sites over four
186 sampling times. If significant differences were detected, spatial and temporal differences in those parameters
187 were further analyzed using one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test (for homogeneous
188 variances) or Tamhane's T2 multiple comparison test (for inhomogeneous variances). Statistical significance was
189 considered at $P < 0.05$. All statistical analyses were performed by Statistica software (version 6.0, Stat. Soft Inc.,
190 USA) and SPSS software (version 19.0, IBM SPSS Statistics, Armonk, NY, USA).

191 To investigate the changes in community composition, multivariate analyses were performed by R software
192 (version 3.5.1). The OTUs that serve as bioindicators were investigated by a three-step approach described by
193 Rosado et al. (2019) and Lian et al. (2020), which contains the identification of OTUs with significant

194 spatiotemporal difference using least-squares means (LS means) by the “*lsmeans*” package, selection of OTUs
195 according to the mean decrease in Gini index using random forests by the “*randomForest*” package, and finally
196 intersecting the top 10 dominant species with highest relative abundance. Neutral community model (NCM) was
197 performed with the “*minpack.lm*” package to reveal the relationship between the relative abundance variations
198 of OTUs and their occurrence frequency. Correlation heatmaps, which were adopted to analyze the relationship
199 between relative abundance of bioindicators, gene abundance, and environmental factors, were created with the
200 “*corrplot*” package.

201

202 **3. Results**

203 **3.1. Alpha diversity of ammonia-oxidizing microbial community**

204 A total of 366 and 510 OTUs were obtained for AOA and AOB, respectively. The unique and shared OTUs
205 of the AOA and AOB across each sampling site and time were compared (Fig. 2). The Venn diagram (Fig. 2a &
206 2c) showed that the highest number of AOA OTUs was observed in April (217), while the largest number of
207 AOB OTUs was found in August (284). Both AOA and AOB had the fewest OTUs in June (AOA: 142, AOB:
208 253). The number of AOA OTUs shared across four months was 82, accounting for 22.40% of the total, while
209 the number of AOB OTUs shared across four sampling months was 128, representing 25.10% of the total AOB
210 OTUs. Across all sites, 34 core AOA OTUs, which are consistently present across all samples, were identified
211 and accounted for 3.74% of the total (Fig. 2b). For AOB, 81 core OTUs were noted, comprising 6.99% (Fig. 2d).

212 The Good’s coverage values were above 99.90%, indicating that the current sequencing data were sufficient
213 to cover most of the AOA and AOB communities in the marine sediments. Although AOB had more OTUs than
214 AOA, significant temporal and spatial differences were only observed in the number of AOA OTUs (Tab. 1),
215 which was significantly lower at sites C and E than those at site A in August and April (Fig. 3a). The Shannon

216 indices for both AOA and AOB communities were significantly affected by the sampling site ($P < 0.001$) (Tab.
217 1). The diversity of both AOA and AOB was significantly lower at site E in August and December, and increased
218 from site A to site E in April (Fig. 3c &d). The Chao1 indices for both AOA and AOB communities were
219 significantly affected by sampling time ($P < 0.05$) (Tab. 1).

220 **3.2. AOA and AOB community composition**

221 A total of six genera were observed in AOA communities and were shown in Fig. 4a. The dominant genera
222 with the highest relative abundance ($> 10\%$) in the sediments were *Nitrosarchaeum* (81.45%) and
223 *Nitrosopumilus* (10.48%). No significant difference was observed in the relative abundance of individual AOA
224 genera among four sampling times ($P < 0.05$). Significant spatial difference was only observed in August and
225 April ($P < 0.05$). In August, the relative abundance of *Nitrosarchaeum* was significantly different among all
226 sampling sites as follows: site E $>$ site A $>$ site C ($P < 0.05$), and the relative abundance of *Nitrosopumilus* and
227 *Candidatus_Nitrosopelagicus* showed the opposite trend. In April, the relative abundance of *Nitrosopumilus* was
228 significantly higher at site E than those at the other sites, and *Candidatus_Nitrosomarinus* was significantly more
229 abundant at site C than those at the other sites ($P < 0.05$).

230 Only two genera were found in AOB communities, *Nitrosomonas* is the dominant genus with the highest
231 relative abundance ($> 0.2\%$) (Fig. 4b). Sampling time had no significant effect on the relative abundance of AOB
232 genera ($P > 0.05$). Only *Nitrosomonas* showed significant differences among different sampling sites ($P < 0.05$).
233 The relative abundance of *Nitrosomonas* was significantly higher at site E than those at sites A and C in
234 December and was significantly higher at site A than those at sites E and C in April ($P < 0.05$).

235 **3.3. The *amoA* gene abundance**

236 Two-way ANOVA showed that both spatial and temporal factors had significant effects on the abundance of
237 archaeal and bacterial *amoA* genes ($P < 0.05$). The abundance of archaeal *amoA* genes (ranging from 9.03×10^2

238 to 2.30×10^5 copies·g⁻¹) was always lower than that of bacterial *amoA* genes (ranging from 4.52×10^4 to $2.53 \times$
239 10^5 copies·g⁻¹) in June, August, and April (Fig. 5). Both archaeal and bacterial *amoA* genes showed significant
240 spatial difference in August, December and April ($P < 0.05$). Archaeal *amoA* genes was significantly higher in
241 December than those in the other months, and was lowest in August ($P < 0.05$). Bacterial *amoA* genes was
242 significantly lower in August than those in the other sampling times ($P < 0.05$).

243 **3.4. Bioindicators**

244 In total, we identified nine bioindicators for AOA and seven bioindicators for AOB communities. All AOA
245 bioindicators belonged to the genera *Nitrosarchaeum*, *Nitrosopumilus*, and *Candidatus_Nitrosopelagicus*. OTU1
246 (average relative abundance: 40.57%) and OTU2 (average relative abundance: 31.74%) which were affiliated
247 with species *Nitrosarchaeum_koreense* were the most abundant (Fig. 6). Only three AOA bioindicators
248 (OTU313, OTU8, and OTU203) showed significant temporal differences, and they were all more abundant in
249 December than those in the other sampling times ($P < 0.05$). Relative abundance of OTU203, OTU275, OTU4,
250 OTU2, and OTU1 differed significantly among sampling sites. OTU1 was significantly more abundant at site E
251 than that at sites C and A, while OTU275, OTU4, and OTU2 had significantly higher relative abundances at site
252 C than that at sites A and E ($P < 0.05$).

253 Four AOB bioindicators (OTU386, OTU7, OTU202, and OTU5) were significantly different among four
254 sampling times, and the relative abundance of OTU5 and OTU7 was significantly higher in December ($P < 0.05$).
255 Only OTU324 showed significant spatial differences and its relative abundance was significantly higher at site C
256 ($P < 0.05$).

257 **3.5. Neutral community model**

258 In the neutral community model (NCM) (Fig. 7), R squared (Rsqr) indicated the fit to this model,
259 explaining 61.3% and 88.6% of community variance for AOA and AOB communities, respectively. This

260 suggests that stochastic processes play a more important role in shaping AOB community assembly compared to
261 AOA. In the model, N represents the size of the metacommunity, m quantifies the migration rate within the
262 community, and Nm ($Nm=N \times m$) integrates these two factors to estimate the level of dispersal within the
263 communities (Sloan et al., 2006). The Nm value was higher for the AOB community ($Nm = 5,501$) than that for
264 the AOA community ($Nm = 164$). Since the number of sequences in AOA samples was 54,198, and in AOB
265 samples was 52,281, the m value was estimated to be 0.003 in the AOA community and 0.105 in the AOB
266 community, respectively.

267 **3.6. Pearson relationship between bioindicators, gene abundance and environmental factors**

268 Among all physicochemical parameters, the average bottom water temperature was significantly higher in
269 December, followed by August, June, and April ($P < 0.05$). The average DO in different sampling months
270 followed: April > June > December > August, while TAN concentration in the pore water followed: April >
271 December > August > June. The average carbon content in the sediment was significantly higher in June and
272 August than that in the other two sampling times, whereas the average nitrogen content in the sediment showed
273 the opposite trend (Table S1). Moreover, bottom water temperature, DO, and the concentrations of TAN, NO_2^- -N
274 and NO_3^- -N in sediment pore water were significantly affected by sample site ($P < 0.05$). Based on Pearson
275 correlation analysis (Fig. 8), temperature of the bottom water had a highly significant positive correlation with
276 the abundance of archaeal *amoA* gene ($P < 0.001$) and significant positive correlation with the relative
277 abundance of an AOA bioindicator (OTU8) ($P < 0.05$). TAN concentration in the pore water was significantly
278 positive correlated with the relative abundance of an AOB bioindicator (OTU5) ($P < 0.05$). Archaeal *amoA* gene
279 abundance was negatively and positively correlated with NO_2^- -N and NO_3^- -N concentration in the pore water,
280 respectively ($P < 0.05$). The carbon content in the sediment only showed significant correlations with three AOA
281 indicators (OTU203, OTU8, and OTU313) and abundance of the archaeal *amoA* gene, and the correlations were

282 both positive ($P < 0.05$). Dissolved oxygen concentration of the bottom water and nitrogen content in the
283 sediment showed no significant correlations with the relative abundance of bioindicators and *amoA* gene
284 abundances ($P > 0.05$).

285

286 **4. Discussion**

287 **4.1. Composition of AOA and AOB communities and abundance of *amoA* genes in sediments**

288 In the present study, the number of AOA OTUs shared across different sampling months and sites was
289 consistently lower than that of AOB OTUs, indicating that AOA communities exhibited more pronounced
290 temporal and spatial variability than AOB communities (Chen et al., 2020). Geographical factors significantly
291 contribute to the structures of AOA and AOB communities (Dang et al., 2008; He et al., 2018). In our study, the
292 shared and distinct AOA and AOB OTUs were associated with different sampling sites, consistent with previous
293 reports. In addition, significant temporal and spatial differences were only observed in the number of AOA
294 OTUs, suggesting a more heterogeneous distribution of AOA in the sediments of YSCWM compared to AOB.
295 Contrary to previous studies, the OTUs number of AOB exceeded that of AOA in all YSCWM sediment samples
296 (Shen et al., 2008; He et al., 2018). AOA generally predominated and exhibited more OTUs in various
297 sedimentary environments, such as lakes (Hou et al., 2013) and estuaries (Jin et al., 2011). However, AOB has
298 been found to have more OTUs than AOA in two freshwater aquaculture ponds with moderate ammonia
299 concentrations (Dai et al., 2018). This aligned with our findings, where ammonia concentrations in the YSCWM
300 sediments (30.23–202.94 $\mu\text{g/L}$) were elevated compared to oligotrophic marine environments. Such moderate
301 ammonia levels may preferentially favor AOB over AOA (Cao et al., 2011; Hou et al., 2014). Additionally,
302 previous studies suggest that AOB may respond more rapidly to nitrogen addition from aquaculture activities,
303 particularly in environments with fluctuating ammonia availability and organic matter deposition. In contrast,

304 AOA tends to dominate in more stable, low-ammonia conditions (Carey et al., 2016).

305 Thaumarchaeota, the dominant phylum in the AOA community, played a crucial role in nitrification in
306 marine waters and was frequently identified as the dominant phylum in many aquaculture areas (Veuger et al.,
307 2013). In this study, the AOA community was primarily composed of two genera: *Nitrosarchaeum* and
308 *Nitrosopumilus*. While *Nitrosopumilus* is widely recognized as the dominant genus and demonstrated the
309 potential contribution to nitrification in the marine nitrogen cycle (Krümmel and Harms, 1982; Könneke et al.,
310 2005; He et al., 2018; Pettersen et al., 2022), *Nitrosarchaeum* was rarely identified as the dominant genus in
311 marine sediments. Instead, *Nitrosarchaeum* has been found to dominate in the freshwater systems, such as
312 sediments of the Ganges River, deep lakes, and rivers (Ren and Wang, 2022; Samson et al., 2023). The
313 dominance of *Nitrosarchaeum* in the YSCWM may be attributed to the presence of *Nitrosarchaeum koreensis*, a
314 mesophilic, chemolithoautotrophic, neutrophilic, and aerobic ammonia-oxidizing archaeon, which is
315 well-adapted to the unique environmental conditions of the YSCWM, including relatively oxygenated surface
316 sediments and moderate ammonia concentrations (Kim et al., 2011; Jung et al., 2018)

317 In the AOB community, Proteobacteria was the dominant phylum, and *Nitrosomonas* was the dominant
318 genus with the highest relative abundance. Previous studies have shown that most ammonia oxidizers in marine
319 sediments were affiliated with Proteobacteria, with the majority of AOB belonging to the genera *Nitrosomonas*
320 and *Nitrospira* (Kong et al., 2017; Pelikan et al., 2021). For example, in the surface sediments of a grass carp
321 pond, 76.92% and 23.08% of the AOB community were clustered into *Nitrosomonas-like* and *Nitrospira-like*
322 bacteria, respectively (Lu et al., 2019). In freshwater aquaculture systems, *Nitrosomonas* always dominated the
323 AOB community, whereas *Nitrospira* might be more adaptable in estuarine areas owing to the increase in
324 salinity of estuarine and coastal environments (Dang et al., 2010). However, studies in deep-sea environments
325 indicate that *Nitrosomonas-like* clusters always predominate in AOB communities and have a high tolerance to

326 high nutrient and extreme environments, such as wastewater treatment plants and deep-sea hydrothermal plumes
327 (Lam et al., 2004; Geets et al., 2006). In offshore systems, *Nitrosomonas* has also been reported as the
328 predominant AOB, likely due to the substantial amounts of ammonium input from agricultural runoff, which
329 enhances ammonia availability and supports its proliferation (Beman and Francis, 2006). Given the seasonal
330 hydrodynamic changes in the YSCWM, including thermocline formation and organic matter deposition from
331 aquaculture activities, *Nitrosomonas* may have a competitive advantage in ammonia oxidation. In addition, its
332 dominance may be attributed to its adaptability to fluctuating oxygen levels and nutrient inputs, which were
333 affected by seasonal stratification and organic matter mineralization (Urakawa et al., 2008). This adaptability
334 enables *Nitrosomonas-like* bacteria to outperform other AOBs under the environmental conditions in the
335 YSCWM.

336 The abundance of ammonia oxidizers may indicate the potential nitrification rates in the studied area
337 (Zheng et al., 2014). In this study, the copies of the *amoA* gene in the sediments were most abundant in
338 December, demonstrating that the ammonia oxidation process might be more active during this period. This is
339 aligned with previous studies that AOA and AOB *amoA* gene copy numbers were greater in summer than those
340 in winter due to the higher temperature, and *amoA* gene copy numbers could be consistent with the temperature
341 dynamics within a long term (Beman et al., 2012; Vissers et al., 2013). The elevated bottom water temperature
342 (13.30°C) and carbon content in December likely drove the increased abundance of archaeal *amoA* genes,
343 highlighting the importance of temperature and carbon availability in regulating ammonia-oxidizing
344 communities (Dai et al., 2018; Li et al., 2022a). The abundance of archaeal *amoA* genes in our study was similar
345 to that in grass carp pond sediments in central China and deep-sea sediments in the west Philippine basin, but
346 lower than in lakes, bays, and rivers (Liu et al., 2011; Hou et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2015; He et al., 2018; Lin et al.,
347 2021). Some previous studies reported that the archaeal *amoA* gene was always two to three orders of magnitude

348 more abundant than the bacterial *amoA* gene in the open ocean (Caffrey et al., 2007; He et al., 2018). In contrast,
349 our results showed a different trend, and this was consistent with the results in the Yangtze Estuary, where the
350 AOB *amoA* copy numbers were also greater than AOA *amoA* copy numbers at most of the sampling sites and
351 times (Zheng et al., 2014), aligning with our finding that AOB tended to dominate in the sedimentary
352 environment of the YSCWM.

353 The distinct ecological roles and community structures of AOA and AOB suggest that they may
354 differentially influence nitrogen cycling and ecosystem functioning in the YSCWM. *Nitrosomonas*, the dominant
355 genus of AOB, likely plays a key role in ammonia oxidation and nitrogen turnover under relatively elevated
356 ammonia concentrations and eutrophic conditions (Beman and Francis, 2006; Geets et al., 2006). In contrast, the
357 coexistence of AOA genera such as *Nitrosopumilus* and *Nitrosarchaeum* may reflect an ecological buffering
358 capacity, enabling functional stability under fluctuating environmental conditions (Stahl and de la Torre, 2012).

359 Although we initially expected to observe a significant impact of aquaculture intensity across sampling sites,
360 one-way ANOVA revealed no clear trend in its influence on archaeal and bacterial *amoA* gene abundance.
361 However, environmental factors such as bottom water temperature—known to be influenced by aquaculture
362 practices—showed significant correlations with *amoA* gene abundance. This observation can be explained from
363 two perspectives. First, “Deep Blue 1” is the first and only submersible cage in the studied area, and its impact
364 on the sediment environment is relatively minor compared to the effects of seasonal effects. Second, it suggests
365 that aquaculture activities may indirectly shape the abundance and distribution of ammonia-oxidizing microbes
366 by altering the sedimentary and bottom water environment. Thus, the influence of aquaculture on microbial gene
367 abundance patterns may be indirectly mediated, owing to the complex interactions among environmental factors
368 and sedimentary biogeochemical dynamics. However, this study only qualitatively and quantitatively assessed
369 *amoA* gene abundance without measuring nitrification rates, which limits the mechanistic understanding of

370 nitrogen turnover in YSCWM. Therefore, future research should focus on correlating *amoA* gene abundance with
371 nitrification rates, and evaluating how shifts in AOA and AOB community structures impact nitrogen cycling,
372 sediment biogeochemistry, and the functional resilience of YSCWM ecosystem under dynamic hydrological
373 conditions.

374 **4.2. Bioindicators and environmental drivers of AOA and AOB communities**

375 Soil microorganisms are the key drivers of nutrient cycling and are widely regarded as strategic
376 bioindicators of soil quality (Vallejos et al., 2022). Genetic profiling of the AOB community has been proposed
377 as a bioindicator method, the presence-absence pattern of which could reflect the changes in community
378 composition (Ritz et al., 2009; Metze et al., 2021). In this study, the bioindicators of AOA communities were
379 affiliated with genera *Nitrosarchaeum*, *Nitrosopumilus*, and *Candidatus_Nitrosopelagicus*. The first two genera
380 were the dominant genera of the AOA community in this study, and *Candidatus_Nitrosopelagicus* was reported
381 to be an important model when assessing the adaptation of archaea to the open ocean (Santoro et al., 2015).

382 *Spirochaeta 2* is reported to be a bioindicator in the highly aquaculture-impacted sediments in the salmon
383 aquaculture area (Kolda et al., 2020). Some OTUs affiliated with class Anaerolineae also have the potential to be
384 bioindicators in the eutrophicated sediment affected by aquaculture (Moncada et al., 2019). However, in the
385 present study, no taxa of AOA and AOB has been reported as an aquaculture-affected bioindicator in the
386 aquaculture area, likely because aquaculture activities in this area have just started with low intensity (Dong,
387 2019; Li et al., 2022b). Apparent temporal differences in the abundance of *amoA* genes and bioindicators were
388 observed, suggesting that seasonal environmental fluctuations played a greater role than aquaculture in shaping
389 ammonia-oxidizing microbial communities.

390 Among the key environmental factors, temperature and carbon content were the strongest predictors of AOA
391 *amoA* gene abundance and bioindicator presence. The higher bottom water temperature in December (13.30°C)

392 was significantly correlated with increased AOA *amoA* gene abundance and the relative abundance of specific
393 AOA bioindicators. This finding aligns with previous studies showing that temperature is a major driver of AOA
394 distribution and metabolic activity (Lee et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2014; Ming et al., 2020; He et al., 2018).
395 Carbon content has been also identified as a key parameter affecting archaeal *aomA* abundance and AOA
396 indicators. Increasing organic carbon availability can promote AOA community development in aquaculture
397 sediments (Dai et al., 2018; Limpiyakorn et al., 2013). Carbon content was found to be positively correlated with
398 AOA OTUs distribution and the relative abundance of the community based on canonical correlation analysis or
399 correlation analysis in many studies, further supporting our findings (Dai et al., 2018; Ming et al., 2020).

400 AOB community assembly was largely driven by stochastic processes. A neutral community model (NCM)
401 was used to explain the distribution patterns of bacteria and archaea communities and the relative abundance and
402 occurrence frequency of different taxa (Sloan et al., 2006). The NCM suggested that a stochastic balance
403 between loss and gain (such as stochastic births, deaths, and immigration) was critical in shaping the AOB
404 community assembly, indicating that species dispersal of the AOB community was higher than that of the AOA
405 community. Many studies have also observed importance of stochastic processes in shaping microbial
406 community. For instance, Roguet et al. (2015) found that stochastic processes accounted for a major proportion
407 of variation ($R^2 = 76\%$) in lake bacterial communities. Similarly, Mao et al. (2025) reported that the turnover of
408 unique OTUs across different aquaculture pond types was predominantly driven by stochastic
409 processes—including weak selection, limited dispersal, and ecological drift. These findings underscore the
410 widespread influence of stochastic assembly processes in diverse aquatic microbial communities.

411

412 **5. Conclusion**

413 This study investigated the spatiotemporal dynamics of ammonia-oxidizing archaeal (AOA) and bacterial

414 (AOB) communities in the aquaculture area of the Yellow Sea Cold Water Mass. AOB exhibited higher OTU
415 richness and stability, while AOA showed greater temporal and spatial variability, suggesting a higher sensitivity
416 to environmental conditions. AOB community assembly was driven more by stochastic processes, whereas AOA
417 distribution was strongly influenced by environmental factors. Temporal variations were particularly significant
418 in December, with higher bottom water temperatures and sediment carbon content correlating with an increased
419 abundance of archaeal *amoA* genes and AOA bioindicators. This suggests that temperature and carbon content,
420 were the direct key drivers shaping ammonia-oxidizing microbial communities. Despite observing significant
421 spatial variations in *amoA* gene abundance at certain sampling times, no clear trend emerged regarding the
422 influence of aquaculture activities on this abundance. These findings highlight the intricate nature of the
423 interactions among aquaculture, the environment, and microbial communities. This study enhanced our
424 understanding of the ecological roles of AOA and AOB in marine nitrogen cycles and their responses to
425 environmental changes.

426

427 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

428 **Shuting Li:** Investigation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing-original draft. **Li Li:** Conceptualization,
429 Validation, Writing-review & editing. **Xiangli Tian:** Methodology, Writing-review & editing. **Qinfeng Gao:**
430 Resources, Writing-review & editing. **Shuanglin Dong:** Project administration, Supervision, Writing-review &
431 editing.

432

433 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

436

437 **Data availability**

438 All the data generated and analyzed during this study are included in the article.

439

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443

444 **Reference**

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