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# Links between seawater flooding, soil ammonia oxidiser communities and their response to changes in salinity

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Complete List of Authors:	Nacke, Heiko; Institute of Microbiology and Genetics (Georg-August- University Göttingen), Department of Genomic and Applied Microbiology and Göttingen Genomics Laboratory Schöning, Ingo; Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry, Department of Biogeochemical Processes Schindler, Malte; Georg-August-Universitat Gottingen Geowissenschaftliches Zentrum, Department of Sedimentology and Environmental Geology Schrumpf, Marion; Max-Planck-Institut fur Biogeochemie, Department of Biogeochemical Processes and Department of Biogeochemical Integration Daniel, Rolf; Georg-August Unviversity Goettingen, Department of Genomic and Applied Microbiology and Göttingen Genomics Laboratory Nicol, Graeme; Université de Lyon, Laboratoire Ampère, École Centrale de Lyon Prosser, Jim; University of Aberdeen, Institute of Biological and Environmental Sciences
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1 Links between seawater flooding, soil ammonia oxidiser communities and

2 their response to changes in salinity

3 Heiko Nacke<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Ingo Schöning<sup>3</sup>, Malte Schindler<sup>4</sup>, Marion Schrumpf<sup>3</sup>, Rolf Daniel<sup>2</sup>, Graeme

4 W. Nicol<sup>1‡</sup> and James I. Prosser<sup>1</sup>

5 Institute of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Aberdeen, Cruickshank

6 Building, Aberdeen AB24 3UU, United Kingdom<sup>1</sup>

7 Department of Genomic and Applied Microbiology and Göttingen Genomics Laboratory,

8 Institute of Microbiology and Genetics, Georg-August-University Göttingen, Grisebachstr. 8,

9 D-37077 Göttingen, Germany<sup>2</sup>

10 Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry, Hans-Knöll-Str. 10, D-07745 Jena, Germany<sup>3</sup>

11 Department of Sedimentology and Environmental Geology, Geoscience Center, Georg-

12 August-University Göttingen, Goldschmidtstr. 3, D-37077 Göttingen, Germany<sup>4</sup>

<sup>13</sup> <sup>‡</sup>Current address: Environmental Microbial Genomics Group, Laboratoire Ampere, École
 14 Centrale de Lyon, Université de Lyon, 69134 Ecully cedex, France.

Keywords: ammonia-oxidising archaea; ammonia-oxidising bacteria; nitrification; flooding;
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# **\*To whom correspondence should be addressed:**

Heiko Nacke, Department of Genomic and Applied Microbiology, Institute of Microbiology
and Genetics, Georg-August-University Göttingen, Grisebachstr. 8, D-37077 Göttingen,
Germany. Phone: 0049-551-3933833, Fax: 0049-551-3912181, hnacke@gwdg.de

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#### Abstract

Coastal areas worldwide are challenged by climate change-associated increases in sea level and storm surge quantities that potentially lead to more frequent flooding of soil ecosystems. Currently, little is known of the effects of inundation events on microorganisms controlling nitrification in these ecosystems. The goal of this study was to investigate the impact of seawater flooding on the abundance, community composition and salinity tolerance of soil ammonia oxidisers. Topsoil was sampled from three islands flooded at different frequencies by the Wadden Sea. Archaeal ammonia oxidiser amoA genes were more abundant than their betaproteobacterial counterparts and the distribution of archaeal and bacterial ammonia oxidiser amoA and 16S rRNA gene sequences significantly differed between the islands. The findings indicate selection of ammonia oxidiser phylotypes with greater tolerance to high salinity and slightly alkaline pH (e.g., Nitrosopumilus representatives) in frequently flooded soils. A cluster phylogenetically related to gammaproteobacterial ammonia oxidisers was detected in all samples analysed in this survey. Nevertheless, no gammaprotebacterial amoA genes could be amplified via PCR and only betaproteobacterial ammonia oxidisers were detected in enrichment cultures. A slurry-based experiment demonstrated tolerance of both bacterial and archaeal ammonia oxidisers to a wide range of salinities (e.g., Wadden Sea water salinity) in soil naturally exposed to seawater at a high frequency.

## 48 Introduction

 Flooding of the Earth's low-lying coastal land is expected to increase as a result of recent and predicted future increases in sea levels (Nicholls and Cazenave 2010; Haigh et al. 2014; Wong et al., 2014) and estimated higher number and intensification of storm surge events (Dasgupta et al. 2009; Mousavi et al. 2011; Grinsted et al. 2013). Soil ecosystems that are directly exposed to seawater during inundation are particularly susceptible to the effects of flooding, such as osmotic stress. It has been reported that tsunami-induced seawater inundation significantly alters soil bacterial community structure (Asano et al. 2013). In addition, soil salinity, which can be affected by flooding events, was found to be strongly related to bacterial community structure in tidal wetlands (Morrissey et al. 2014). Currently, the impacts of temporal seawater inundation on specific functional microbial groups, essential for soil fertility and globally important biogeochemical cycles are poorly understood. 

The initial step of nitrification, a key process within the nitrogen cycle, is mediated by ammonia oxidisers (AO) (Prosser and Nicol 2008), which comprise ammonia oxidising archaea (AOA) and bacteria (AOB). AOA outnumber their bacterial counterparts in various marine environments such as North Sea or Atlantic Ocean water (Wuchter et al. 2006). Furthermore, AOA and AOB cohabit most terrestrial ecosystems (Prosser 2011), but their relative abundances in soil show significant variations (Prosser and Nicol 2012). Previous studies indicate that soil pH represents a major driver of these variations, with AOA typically dominating acidic niches (Nicol et al. 2008; Gubry-Rangin et al. 2010; Yao et al. 2013). There is also limited evidence for greater sensitivity of AOA toward high ammonia concentration and their preference of soils with low ammonia supply (Prosser and Nicol 2012). Oxygen availability represents another parameter affecting AO communities and few studies indicate that AOA have a higher affinity for oxygen than AOB (Chen et al. 2008; Jung et al. 2011; Pitcher et al. 2011; Kim et al. 2012). In wet tropical soil, which experiences fluctuating oxygen availability. AOA tolerant of extended periods of anoxia were detected (Pett-Ridge et al. 2013). Moreover, relationships between salinity and sediment AOA or AOB

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distribution were reported (Coci *et al.* 2005; Sahan and Muyzer 2008; Bernhard *et al.* 2010;
Zheng *et al.* 2014; Zhang et al. 2015). For instance, it has been shown that salinity is a
steering factor in selecting *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrosopumilus* representatives (Coci *et al.*2005; Zhang *et al.* 2015).

A study based on high-throughput sequencing of amoA genes (encoding subunit A of ammonia monooxygenase) indicates that AOA are dominated by the *Nitrososphaera* cluster in numerous soil ecosystems, with the exception of acidic niches (Pester et al. 2012). In contrast, members of the Nitrosopumilus cluster (also called thaumarchaeal group I.1a or marine group) represent the dominant AOA in oligotrophic seawater, which is probably due to high affinity for ammonia (Martens-Habbena et al. 2009). AOB comprise the betaproteobacterial genera Nitrosomonas and Nitrosospira, collectively forming the family Nitrosomonadaceae, as well as the gammaproteobacterial genera Nitrosococcus and Nitrosoglobus. Different Nitrosomonas lineages, such as the Nitrosomonas marina lineage and the Nitrosomonas europaea/Nitrosomonas mobilis lineage, are predominantly detected in marine or non-marine environments (Prosser 2014). Nitrosococcus has been poorly studied with molecular techniques but cultured representatives were exclusively derived from salty environments (Campbell et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2017). Furthermore, the gammaproteobacterial AOB Nitrosoglobus terrae TAO100 was recently isolated from an acidic agricultural soil (Hayatsu et al. 2017).

Both, AOA and AOB, have been detected in coastal soil and sediment (Moin et al. 2009; Marton et al. 2015; Bernhard et al. 2016). In New England salt marsh sites, up to approximately 10<sup>9</sup> AOA amoA genes g<sup>-1</sup> dry sediment were reported (Moin et al. 2009) and higher abundances of AOA than AOB amoA genes were found in soil and sediment samples from salt marshes (Moin et al. 2009; Marton et al. 2015). Nevertheless, information about effects of different seawater flooding frequencies on ammonia oxidisers inhabiting coastal soil is lacking. As representatives of AOA and AOB show salinity preferences (Koops et al. 1991; Campbell et al. 2011; Qin et al. 2014), it can be assumed that both groups are

affected by inundation events. The German Halligen can be considered a model system for extensive analysis of flooding effects. These islands are surrounded by the Wadden Sea and are inundated at different frequencies during the year. Approximately 100 years ago, dykes were established for the Halligen Hooge and Langeness (Schindler *et al.* 2014a). Due to the dykes and closing tidal gates with rising tides, Hooge and Langeness need much higher gauge levels to be flooded than Hallig Nordstrandischmoor. Therefore, Nordstrandischmoor shows higher seawater inundation frequencies than the Halligen Hooge and Langeness.

In this study, the impacts of seawater flooding on abundance, diversity and community composition of soil AO were investigated. Flooding significantly affects physicochemical parameters such as salinity or oxygen level in soil. Here, we focused on salinity, which can show strong fluctuations in temporarily flooded soil over time. In order to explore the response of ammonia oxidisers to changes in sea salt concentration, a soil slurry experiment was performed. All analyses were carried out using topsoil samples derived from Hooge, Langeness and Nordstrandischmoor. The study was based on the following hypotheses: (1) flooding of soil ecosystems evokes changes in AOA and AOB abundance due to changes in salinity and/or invasion of AO in surrounding seawater, (2) representatives of AO inhabiting soil frequently inundated with seawater exhibit halotolerance and tolerance toward changing salt concentrations, (3) the abundance of thaumarchaeal group I.1a (marine group) is positively correlated with seawater flooding frequency and (4) within AOB, phylogenetic lineages typically encountered in marine habitats show higher abundance in frequently flooded soil than in soil rarely inundated with seawater.

123 Materials and Methods

 124 Study sites and soil sampling

125 The German Halligen, ten small islands with a total area of 23 km<sup>2</sup>, are surrounded by the 126 North Frisian Wadden Sea. They represent relics of former mainland or larger islands. At the 127 beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, dykes were established to strengthen the marshland of Hooge

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and Langeness against storm surges. The dykes show an average height of 1.5 m (Hooge) and 1.0 m (Langeness) above the present 10-year (2001-2010) mean high water (Schindler et al. 2014b). Inundation of Hooge and Langeness marshland only occurs during heavy, westerly storm conditions (Schindler et al. 2014b). In contrast, the marshland of Nordstrandischmoor is not enclosed by a dyke and therefore exhibits a high inundation frequency, with an average of 15 events year-1 between 2001 and 2010 (Schindler et al. 2014b), while the ten-year average (2001-2010) for Hooge is two events year<sup>1</sup> (Schindler *et* al. 2014b). The flooding frequency of Langeness (10 events year<sup>-1</sup>) is intermediate. 

Topsoil was sampled from Hooge (Ho), Langeness (La) and Nordstrandischmoor (No) (Figure 1), with coordinates of sampling sites (Ho1, Ho2, Ho3, La1, La2, La3, La4, No1, No2, and No3) provided in Table S1. Triplicate samples at each sampling site (designated, e.g., Ho1a, Ho1b, and Ho1c) were removed at 1-m distances from each other. The upper 10 cm of the mineral soil was separated from adjacent soil material, homogenised and sieved to <3.5 mm. Soil samples for slurry-based analyses were stored at 4°C and all other samples were kept frozen (-80°C).

#### **Basic soil analyses and DNA extraction**

Subsamples (2 g) of field-moist soils were used to determine gravimetric water content by drying to constant weight at 105°C. Another subsample (5 g) was extracted in 25 ml 1 M KCl for analysis of ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) using a flow injection analyser "Quikchem QC85S5" (Lachat Instruments, Loveland, CO, USA). Air-dried soil was used to determine soil pH, electrical conductivity and C and N concentrations. Soil pH was measured in a 1:2.5 suspension of soil in distilled water. Electrical conductivity was measured in the same extract using a "Tetra Con 325" electrode (WTW, Weilheim, Germany). Ground subsamples were analysed for total carbon (TC) and nitrogen (TN) concentrations by dry combustion with a CN analyser "Vario Max" (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau, Germany). Inorganic carbon (IC) was determined after

154 combustion of organic carbon in a muffle furnace (450°C for 16 h) and soil organic carbon
155 (SOC) was calculated as the difference between TC and IC.

Genomic DNA was extracted from 0.5 g soil using the PowerSoil DNA isolation kit (MoBio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instruction. The concentration of extracted DNA was estimated using a NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK).

## 160 Soil slurry incubations

Slurries containing soil derived from Hooge, Langeness, or Nordstrandischmoor and artificial seawater were prepared in 500-ml Duran bottles and consisted of 20 g soil (moisture content adjusted to 45% with sterile distilled water) in 100 ml artificial seawater. A wide range of salinity conditions were covered using artificial seawater (Subow 1931) with different salt concentrations (5 ‰, 10 ‰, 20 ‰, or 30 ‰). Ammonia was not added to prevent inhibition of ammonia-sensitive ammonia oxidizers by unnaturally high concentrations of ammonia. Triplicate slurries were incubated in the dark for 30 days at 26°C. Every third day, slurries were shaken and seals were removed for 5 min. Samples (8 ml) were collected following shaking, using a pipette with a 3-mm diameter tip, directly after establishing slurries and after incubation for 15 and 30 days. Samples were centrifuged in Falcon tubes at 18,500 × g and 4°C for 5 min and pellets were stored frozen until DNA extraction and supernatants were used for analysis of  $NH_4^+$ ,  $NO_2^-$  and  $NO_3^-$ . Duran bottles containing soil slurries were weighed several times during incubation to calculate evaporation, which was found to be negligible.

**Qı** 

## Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of amoA genes

Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) was carried out using a BioRad MyIQ Single-Color RealTime PCR Detection System (BioRad, Hertfordshire, UK) and SybrGreen as fluorescent dye.
Primer sets CrenamoA23f/CrenamoA616r (Tourna *et al.* 2008) and amoA-1F/amoA-2R
(Rotthauwe *et al.* 1997) were used for AOA and betaproteobacterial AOB *amoA*

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quantification, respectively. The PCR mixture (final volume, 25 µL per reaction) contained 25 µg bovine serum albumin (BSA), 400 nM of each AOA or AOB amoA-specific primer, 12.5 µL of QuantiFastTM qPCR master mix (Qiagen, Crawley, UK), and 25 ng of DNA. The following cycling conditions were used: 15 min at 95°C. 40 cycles of 15 s at 94°C. 1 min 30 s for AOA *amoA* and 1 min for AOB *amoA* at 60°C and plate fluorescence measurement after 8 s at 80°C. Melting curve analysis and agarose gel electrophoresis were performed to assess specificity of amplification during PCR. Amplification efficiency ranged from 87.6% to 102.5% and from 80.3% to 89.7% for AOA and betaproteobacterial AOB amoA, respectively, with  $r^2$  values >0.98. 

## 189 Pyrosequencing of bar-coded amoA and 16S rRNA gene amplicons

AOA amoA genes and the V3-V5 region of bacterial 16S rRNA genes were amplified by PCR using DNA extracts from the collected soil samples as template (samples derived from soil slurry incubations were not considered). Primer CrenamoA23f (Tourna et al. 2008), containing a sample-specific MID (extended multiplex identifier) and Roche 454 pyrosequencing adaptor A, as well as primer CrenamoA616r (Tourna et al. 2008), containing Roche 454 pyrosequencing adaptor B, were used for amplification of AOA amoA. The forward and reverse primers V3for 5'-CCATCTCATCCCTGCGTGTCTCCGACTCAG-MID-5'-TACGGRAGGCAGCAG-3' V5rev and CCTATCCCCTGTGTGCCTTGGCAGTCTCAGCCGTCAATTCMTTTGAGT-3' (Roche 454 pyrosequencing adaptors are underlined) (Liu et al. 2007; Wang and Qian 2009; Nacke et al. 2016) were used to amplify the V3-V5 region of bacterial 16S rRNA genes. The PCR reaction mixture (50 µL) contained 10 µL 5-fold reaction buffer (Phusion GC buffer; Thermo Fisher Scientific), 200 µM of each of the four deoxynucleoside triphosphates, 5% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), 0.2 µM of each of the primers, 1 U Phusion high-fidelity DNA polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 50 ng of DNA. The following PCR cycling conditions were used for amplification of AOA amoA: initial denaturation at 98°C for 30 s, 30 cycles of denaturation at 98°C for 10 s, annealing at 55°C for 30 s and extension at 72°C for 30 s. 

followed by a final extension step at 72°C for 5 min. PCR reactions for amplification of bacterial 16S rRNA genes were initiated at 98°C (30 s), followed by 25 cycles of 98°C (10 s), 65°C (30 s) and 72°C (30 s), and ended with incubation at 72°C for 5 min. All samples were amplified in triplicate, purified using the peqGold gel extraction kit (Peqlab Biotechnologie GmbH, Erlangen, Germany) and pooled in equal amounts. Sequences of *amoA* and 16S rRNA gene amplicons were determined using a Roche GS-FLX 454 pyrosequencer and titanium chemistry as recommended by the manufacturer.

## 214 Pyrosequencing data processing and analysis

 AOA amoA sequences exhibiting an average guality value of <30, primer mismatches or long homopolymers (>8 bp) were removed using QIIME (version 1.7) (Caporaso et al. 2010). In addition, reads were truncated at the first ambiguous base encountered. After truncation of remaining primer sequences, noise resulting from amplicon pyrosequencing was removed using the Acacia error-correction tool (version 1.5) (Bragg et al. 2012). Chimeras were removed using Uchime (version 7.0) (Edgar et al. 2011) and using 735 amoA sequences comprising the currently known five major clusters of archaeal amoA as a reference database, obtained from the ARB (Ludwig et al. 2004) database created by Pester et al. (2012). Putative chimeras identified by Uchime were compared with the NCBI non-redundant database using BLASTn. Clear breaks in the local alignments affiliating gueried amoA amplicons to two very distinct sequence entries in the NCBI database confirmed Uchime-based chimera detection. Sequences classified as chimeras by Uchime and manual inspection of local alignments were discarded completely. Subsequently, all sequences shorter than 592 bp were removed. Determination of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 85% genetic similarity was performed using Uclust (Edgar 2010). Singleton OTUs containing only one *amoA* sequence were removed using QIIME. A representative sequence for each OTU was added to the consensus tree for archaeal *amoA* phylogeny constructed by Pester et al. (2012) using the parsonomy tool in ARB (Ludwig et al. 2004). Furthermore, amoA sequences of Nitrosocosmicus franklandus (Lehtovirta-Morley et al. 2016), Nitrosoarchaeum 

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koreensis MY1 (Jung et al. 2011), and Nitrosotalea devanaterra Nd1 (Lehtovirta-Morley et al.
2011) were added to this tree. OTU-based analyses were performed at the same level of
surveying effort (1,200 randomly selected sequences per sample). Calculation of the Chao1
index (Chao and Bunge 2002) and the Shannon index (Shannon 1948) was conducted using
QIIME.

Bacterial 16S rRNA gene sequences were pre-processed as described by Broszat et al. (2014), except that sequences shorter than 300 bp were removed using QIIME. OTUs were determined at a genetic distance of 3% using Uclust (Edgar 2010), implemented in QIIME (Caporaso et al. 2010), and were classified by comparison of partial 16S rRNA gene sequences using the SILVA SSU database (Pruesse et al. 2007) release 119. OTUs classified as chloroplast or mitochondrion as well as unclassified OTUs were removed from 16S rRNA gene sequence datasets and rarefaction curves were generated using QIIME. A Neighbor Joining phylogenetic tree was constructed in MEGA (version 7.0) (Kumar et al. 2016) using the Maximum Composite Likelihood model based on a ClustalW alignment of sequences (truncated to a length of 457 bp) affiliated to selected OTUs, uncultured Gammaproteobacteria closely related to these OTUs, Chromatiaceae, and Acidithiobacillus. A total number of 500 bootstrap resamplings were carried out to test the tree topology.

#### 251 Statistical analysis

Data were tested for normal distribution before performance of ANOVA. One-way ANOVA and Tukey pair-wise comparisons were conducted to determine differences in basic soil properties, amoA abundance and Shannon diversity between Hooge, Langeness, and Nordstrandischmoor. The effect of salinity on *amoA* abundance was determined by ANOVA of data from triplicate slurries followed by Tukey post hoc tests. The PAST statistical package (Hammer et al. 2001) was used to perform Mann-Whitney U tests to identify taxa showing significant differences in relative abundance between Hallig soils. Non-metric multidimensional scaling was performed based on weighted Unifrac (Lozupone et al. 2011)

260 distance matrices (genetic distance: 3%) using the vegan package (Oksanen *et al.* 2016) in
261 R (R Development Core Team, 2015).

262 Enrichment of AO and analysis of cultivates

In order to enrich gammaproteobacterial AOB, potentially inhabiting temporarily flooded soil, sea salts-containing medium has been inoculated with sample material derived from the Halligen. Incubation was carried out in 100-mL Duran bottles containing 50 mL enrichment medium without shaking at 28°C in the dark. Per bottle, 1 g of topsoil was used as inoculum. After autoclaving of 30% or 50% artificial seawater described by Stephen et al. (1996), the following components were added aseptically (per liter) to obtain cultivation medium: 2 ml 1 M NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 1 ml 7.5 mM EDTA-Na<sub>2</sub>, 1 ml non-chelated trace element mixture (Widdel and Bak, 1992), 1 ml selenite-tungstate solution (Widdel and Bak, 1992), 1 ml vitamin solution (Balch et al. 1979), and 0.2 g KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>. Furthermore, 500 µM or 12.5 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl was added. The pH of the medium was adjusted to 7.8 by the addition of 5% (wt/vol) Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> before filter-sterilization through a 0.22 µM pore size bottle-top filter. Subculturing was carried out by transferring 5% culture into fresh enrichment medium. The pH was monitored and if necessary adjusted. Growth of ammonia oxidizers was assessed by analysis of inorganic nitrogen. Colorimetric ammonia and nitrite measurement was performed as described by Lehtovirta-Morley et al. (2014). Enrichment cultures were continuously subcultured in the laboratory for approximately two years.

To analyse enriched bacteria, DNA was extracted and the V3-V4 region of 16S rRNA genes amplified by PCR. Primers S-D-Bact-0341-b-S-17 and S-D-Bact-0785-a-A-21 (Klindworth *et al.* 2013) containing modifications for Illumina MiSeq sequencing were employed. The PCR reaction mixture was prepared as described above for amplification of the V3-V5 region of bacterial 16S rRNA genes but it contained 3% instead of 5% DMSO. PCR reactions were initiated at 98°C (1 min), followed by 29 cycles of 98°C (45 s), 60°C (45 s) and 72°C (30 s), and ended with incubation at 72°C for 5 min. PCR products were purified using the

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NucleoMag 96 PCR kit (Macherey and Nagel, Düren, Germany) and sequences determined using an Illumina MiSeq instrument. Demultiplexing and clipping of sequence adapters from raw sequences was performed by employing CASAVA data analysis software (Illumina). Paired-end sequences were merged using PEAR v0.9.10 (Zhang et al. 2014) with default parameters. Subsequently, sequences with an average quality score lower than 20 and containing unresolved bases were removed with the split libraries fastg.py script from QIIME (Caporaso et al. 2010). Remaining primer sequences were truncated using the cutadapt program (Martin, 2011) and we employed Usearch (Edgar, 2010) to sort out sequences shorter than 400 bp. Chimeric sequences were removed using Uchime (Edgar et al. 2011) in reference mode against the Greengenes Gold data set gold strains gg16S aligned.fasta (DeSantis et al. 2006). OTUs were determined at a genetic distance of 3% using Uclust (Edgar 2010) and classified by comparison of partial 16S rRNA gene sequences with the SILVA SSU database (Pruesse et al. 2007).

## 299 Sequence data deposition

Sequence data were deposited in the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) of the National Center
 for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under the accession numbers SRP083741 and
 SRP114677.

**Results** 

### 304 Soil characteristics and ammonia oxidiser abundance

Salinity, measured as electrical conductivity, and pH were significantly higher in soils from Nordstrandischmoor than in soils from Langeness or Hooge (Table 1). This is likely due to the high frequency of flooding of Nordstrandischmoor soil with seawater with a pH of approximately 8.1, increasing the soil pH to 7.1 - 7.9. Total N, organic C and total C did not differ significantly between the three soils, but ammonium and nitrate concentrations were significantly different (Table 1). Furthermore, ammonium concentrations were higher than nitrate concentrations at each site (Table 1).

> AOA and betaproteobacterial AOB were detected in all Hallig soil samples by gPCR amplification of amoA genes (Figure 2), with AOA and AOB amoA abundances, respectively, ranging from 2.85 × 10<sup>6</sup> to 1.37 × 10<sup>8</sup> genes  $q^{-1}$  dry soil and 1.86 × 10<sup>5</sup> to 6.11 × 10<sup>7</sup> genes a<sup>-1</sup> dry soil. AOA *amoA* genes were significantly more abundant than betaproteobacterial AOB amoA genes (P<0.05) but there was no obvious difference between the three Halligen (Figure 2), although abundances of both genes were higher in the Nordstrandischmoor soil than in soil from Hooge (P<0.001). No significant relationships between nitrate data and AOA or AOB *amoA* gene abundance were detected.

## **Response of ammonia oxidisers to salt concentration**

A soil slurry experiment was performed to assess whether soil AO inhabiting Hooge, Langeness and Nordstrandischmoor, flooded by seawater at different frequencies, respond differentially to salinity. AOA amoA abundance in Nordstrandischmoor soil slurries significantly increased during incubation at 5‰ and 10‰ salinity (P<0.05, Figure 3a). In addition, average AOA amoA abundance increased at the two highest salinities tested (Figure 3a). In contrast, AOA amoA abundance in slurries containing Hooge or Langeness soil significantly decreased after incubation with 30% salinity for 30 days (P<0.05, Figure 3a). There were no significant effects of time or salinity on betaproteobacterial AOB amoA abundance in Nordstrandischmoor soil slurries, but there was evidence of decreases in abundance in Langeness soil slurries, which were significant at 5‰ and 30‰ salinity (Figure 3b). In Hooge soil slurries, the only significant change was an increase in abundance at 20‰ after incubation for 30 days.

Changes in inorganic nitrogen in soil slurries are presented in Figure 4. Ammonium concentration in Hooge and Langeness soil slurries was significantly greater after incubation for 15 days than at 0 days. This increase is potentially due to mineralisation of existing organic nitrogen. The smallest increase was detected in Hooge and Langeness soil slurries containing artificial seawater with a salt concentration of 20 ‰, indicating again a preference

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for this salinity. Furthermore, combined nitrite plus nitrate concentrations significantly increased between day 15 and day 30 of incubation in Hooge slurries with an artificial seawater salinity of 20 ‰ (Figure 4). In contrast, ammonium concentration in Nordstrandischmoor slurries was significantly lower after incubation for 15 days than at 0 days at artificial seawater salinities of 10 ‰, 20 ‰ and 30 ‰.

## Flooding effects on ammonia oxidiser diversity and community composition

Pyrosequencing of AOA amoA gene amplicons yielded 76,427 raw sequences, of which 54,122 sequences were used following quality control. These sequences contained eight OTUs, defined at 85% AOA amoA gene sequence identity, which has been suggested as a 'species' threshold for AOA based on phylogenetic analysis of a comprehensive set of publicly available amoA sequences (Pester et al. 2012). Comparison of rarefaction analyses with the number of OTUs calculated by the Chao1 richness estimator indicate that estimated richness was covered by the sequencing effort in 27 of the 30 analysed samples, with approximately 80% coverage in the remaining three samples, and individual samples contained 3 - 5 OTUs (Table S2). Shannon diversities for OTUs in the soils from the different Halligen were not significantly different (P=0.93, Table S2).

The dominant AOA OTUs were affiliated to Nitrosopumilus subcluster 1, Nitrososphaera subcluster 4 and Nitrososphaera subcluster 8. These subclusters were described previously by Pester et al. (2012). Strong variations in Nitrosopumilus subcluster 1 and Nitrososphaera subcluster 8 relative abundances were found between soils from the three Halligen (Figure 5). Relative abundances of *Nitrosopumilus amoA* genes were higher in Nordstrandischmoor than in Hooge soil samples (P<0.05). Nitrososphaera subcluster 8 relative abundances were lower in Nordstrandischmoor than in Hooge or Langeness samples (P < 0.05). Nitrososphaera subcluster 4 relative abundance did not vary significantly between soils (Figure 5). Besides the dominant subclusters, the Nitrosopumilus subcluster 2, the Nitrososphaera subclusters 5 and 6 as well as the Nitrososphaera sister cluster were

detected in low relative abundance (Figure S1 and S2). The overall AOA community
composition differed most strongly between Hooge and Nordstrandischmoor soil samples
(Figure 6).

AOB were characterised by pyrosequencing of 16S rRNA gene amplicons using primers allowing amplification of both betaproteobacterial and gammaproteobacterial AOB genes. A total of 302,395 raw sequences was obtained, 260,868 sequences of which were of suitable quality, providing 6,400 high-quality sequences per sample after normalisation (Table S3). Rarefaction curves were not saturated (Figure S3), but taxonomic analysis of OTUs revealed that the dominant bacterial phyla typically occurring in soil (Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Verrucomicrobia, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, Chloroflexi, Planctomycetes, and Gemmatimonadetes) (Janssen, 2006) were detected. The 16S rRNA gene sequences comprised representatives of the betaproteobacterial genera Nitrosospira and Nitrosomonas (Figure 5). At some Hooge and Langeness sites no sequences belonging to these general were found as *Nitrosospira* and *Nitrosomonas* were presumably below the detection limit. OTUs belonging to a cluster, which only comprises sequences of so far uncultured Gammaproteobacteria were detected (Figure 7). This cluster is phylogenetically closely related to known gammaproteobacterial AOB (Figure 7). For instance, "OTU BacUnc 7", which was detected in soil derived from all Halligen, showed the highest similarity to Nitrosococcus halophilus strain Nc 4 (93% identity) (Koops et al. 1990) with respect to cultured bacteria. It is possible that some representatives of the mentioned cluster represent gammaproteobacterial AOB. Relative abundances of OTUs affiliated to this cluster were significantly greater in Nordstrandischmoor soil than Hooge or Langeness soils (P<0.05). We performed PCR using primers amoA-3F and amoB-4R as described by Purkhold et al. (2000) to detect gammaproteobacterial AOB but no products were obtained. Attempts were made to culture gammaproteobacterial AOB but after several subculturing steps only Nitrosomonadales 16S rRNA gene sequences were detected in enrichment cultures (Figure S4). The relative abundances of *Nitrosospira* and *Nitrosomonas* were significantly greater in

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Nordstrandischmoor soil (*P*<0.05). *Nitrosomonas* sequences derived from Hallig soils were closely related to representatives of the *Nitrosomonadaceae* cluster 6b, cluster 9, and the *Nitrosomonas cryotolerans* lineage. In contrast, *Nitrosospira* clusters were not consistently recovered with treeing methods using 16S rRNA gene sequences to infer relationships (Prosser *et al.* 2014), but *Nitrosospira* sequences detected were closely related to those found in salt marsh sediment. Similar to AOA, the composition of bacterial communities differed most strongly between Hooge and Nordstrandischmoor soil samples (Figure 6).

## 398 Discussion

## 399 AOA outnumber betaproteobacterial AOB in temporarily flooded soil

Estimated amoA gene abundances are in the range of those determined for soil or sediment derived from other coastal environments (Moin et al. 2009; Marton et al. 2015), except that maximum AOA amoA gene abundances were approximately one order of magnitude higher in some New England salt marsh sites (Moin et al. 2009). Similar to our study, Moin et al. (2009) and Marton et al. (2015) also reported greater abundance of AOA than betaproteobacterial AOB amoA genes in New England and Louisiana salt marsh samples. High abundances of AOA in coastal soil and sediment suggest that these habitats represent an important niche for archaeal nitrifiers. Nevertheless, AOA do not always outnumber AOB in marine sediment, salt marshes or river mouths (Bernhard and Bollmann 2010; Li et al. 2015; Dini-Andreote et al. 2016). Besides AOA and betaproteobacterial AOB, a cluster phylogenetically closely related to gammaproteobacterial AOB was detected in temporarily flooded soil based on high-throughput amplicon sequencing of bacterial 16S rRNA genes. The number of known complete *amoA* sequences from gammaproteobacterial AOB is very limited (Junier et al. 2008), restricting the design of primers targeting total communities of these microbes in environmental samples. Therefore, we did not perform amoA-specific quantitative PCR to analyse the abundance of gammaproteobacterial AOB, potentially existing in Hallig soil.

## 417 AO inhabiting frequently flooded soil tolerate a wide salinity range

The salinity of the Wadden Sea, surrounding the German Halligen, is similar to that of artificial seawater with a salt concentration of 30%. Due to frequent flooding, microorganisms inhabiting Nordstrandischmoor topsoil are often exposed to high salinities. Accordingly, in contrast to Hooge and Langeness soil slurries, no decrease in AOA and AOB amoA abundance was determined for Nordstrandischmoor soil slurries at the highest salinity tested (30%). Salt concentration in Nordstrandischmoor soil changes over time and can be affected by environmental factors other than seawater inundation (e.g., rain events). Thus, microorganisms colonising this dynamic habitat must tolerate a wide range of salinities. This might explain why AO amoA abundances in Nordstrandischmoor soil slurries increased or did not decrease at any of the tested salinities. Due to differences in Hallig-surrounding protection constructions, Hooge and Langeness are less frequently flooded than Nordstrandischmoor (Schindler et al. 2014a; Schindler et al. 2014b). This could be a major reason why Nordstrandischmoor soil AO show better adaptation toward Wadden Sea water salinity than those inhabiting Hooge or Langeness soil.

Similar to amoA abundances, measured ammonia and nitrite/nitrate concentrations indicated a preference by Hooge and Langeness soil AO for an artificial seawater salinity of 20%. Ammonium concentration did not increase in Nordstrandischmoor soil slurries at any of the salinities investigated. Considering previous studies focusing on coastal soil or sediment, an inconsistency in relationships between AO abundance and ammonium or nitrite/nitrate concentration and nitrification potential rate is evident (Dollhopf et al 2005, Marton et al 2015, Moin et al 2009). For instance, no significant correlations were identified at different New England salt marsh sites between ammonium or nitrate concentrations and potential nitrification rates, AOA amoA abundance, or betaproteobacterial AOB amoA abundance (Moin et al. 2009). In contrast, Marton et al. (2015) found a significant correlation between nitrification and betaproteobacterial AOB and AOA abundances when analysing Louisiana salt marsh samples. Most previous studies of coastal soil or sediment do not assess or

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report the presence of gammaproteobacterial AOB. Here, we detected OTUs belonging to a cluster, comprising so far only uncultured bacteria, which is phylogenetically closely related to known gammaproteobacterial AOB. We could identify this cluster also in the phylogenetic tree included in the SILVA (Quast et al. 2013) dataset "SSURef\_NR99\_128\_SILVA\_07\_09\_16\_opt.arb". It is possible that representatives of this cluster contribute to nitrification in Hallig soil and other coastal soils or sediments, potentially partly explaining the absence of consistent correlations between activity measurements and AO abundance. Nevertheless, as we could not identify gammaproteobacterial AOB in enrichment cultures and detected no gammaproteobacterial amoA genes, it is also possible that the cluster comprises no AO.

## 454 Selective association of study site and AO phylotype relative abundance

Previous studies reported the absence or low abundance of Nitrosopumilus amoA genes at a number of sites, including woodland, arable, spruce forest, and tundra soil (Nicol et al. 2008; Wessén et al. 2011; Pester et al. 2012), whereas all samples derived from the German Halligen harboured Nitrosopumilus amoA. Different cultured Nitrosopumilus representatives tolerate seawater salinities and preferably grow at near neutral or slightly alkaline pH (Qin et al. 2014). In addition, genes encoding a mechanosensitive channel protein and ectoine biosynthesis clusters were identified in microbes affiliated to Nitrosopumilus (Walker et al. 2010; Blainey et al. 2011; Mosier et al. 2012). Mechanosensitive channels protect cells from hypo-osmotic shock when conditions change from e.g., high osmolarity to low osmolarity, and ectoine, a compatible solute, can be produced when salinity is high to prevent influx of sea salt into the cell. Frequent flooding of Nordstrandischmoor soil leads to temporarily high salinity and strong temporal fluctuations, which potentially explain increased relative abundance of *Nitrosopumilus* in Nordstrandischmoor samples compared to soil derived from Hooge and Langeness. Nitrososphaera subcluster 8 has been detected in terrestrial environments such as upland agricultural, pristine forest or meadow soil, and also in estuarine sediment (see consensus

tree provided by Pester et al. (2012)), but information about ecophysiology of this subcluster is very limited and no cultured representatives are currently available. High relative abundances of Nitrososphaera subcluster 8 in Hooge and Langeness samples might be due to soil salinity and pH preferences. Sequences affiliated to Nitrososphaera subcluster 4 were found in various terrestrial and marine habitats such as sandy ecosystem soil, hot springs, and lake, deep sea or marsh sediment (see consensus tree provided by Pester et al. (2012)). Thus, Nitrososphaera subcluster 4 thrives in ecosystems covering a wide range of environmental conditions, which might explain similar relative abundances of this subcluster in Hooge, Langeness and Nordstrandischmoor soil.

Nitrosomonadaceae cluster 6b, cluster 9, and the Nitrosomonas cryotolerans lineage comprise microbes derived from marine habitats and cultured representatives with obligate salt requirements (optimal NaCl concentration: 300-400 mM) such as Nitrosomonas marina (Koops et al. 1991; Prosser et al. 2014). It can be assumed that increased abundances of the identified Nitrosomonas and Nitrosospira representatives in Nordstrandischmoor samples are associated with high soil salinities. Increased relative abundances of bacteria belonging to a cluster, which is phylogenetically closely related to known gammaproteobacterial AOB were detected in Nordstrandischmoor soil. This might be due to a preference for high salt concentration and pH values. Nevertheless, currently information on metabolic or physiological features of representatives affiliated to the mentioned cluster is lacking and no cultures are available. It is possible that isolation of the so far uncultured Gammaproteobacteria might require very specific culturing conditions.

#### **Conclusions**

493 AOA outnumbered their betaproteobacterial counterparts in rarely and rather frequently 494 flooded soil but in contrast to our first hypothesis obvious differences in *amoA* gene 495 abundance between the three islands were not detected. Nevertheless, apart from these 496 microbial groups gammaproteobacterial AOB might contribute to nitrification in soil Page 21 of 47

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temporarily inundated with seawater. AO indigenous to soil naturally exposed to seawater at a high frequency tolerated a wide range of salinities (e.g., Wadden Sea water salinity), supporting our second hypothesis. Furthermore, the community composition of both AOA and AOB differed significantly between the islands. In addition to flooding, other factors such as specific site differences might have evoked the changes in community composition. In line with our third and fourth hypotheses, increased abundances of archaeal and bacterial ammonia oxidisers typically occurring in marine environments were detected in soil derived from the most frequently flooded island. Seawater flooding significantly affects soil salinity and pH which probably strongly contributed to selection of detected AO in the analysed samples. Besides salinity and pH other parameters such as oxygen availability, which were not determined in this study, are influenced by seawater flooding. Based on our data, we cannot analyse the proportional importance of these parameters with respect to the distribution of AO in temporarily flooded soil. Nevertheless, our results indicate that potential future sea level rise and an associated increase in flooding of coastal soils will enrich nitrifiers affiliated to e.g., Nitrosopumilus, comprising many representatives tolerating seawater salinity and slightly alkaline pH. To test if the changes in AO communities reported here also occur in other soils temporarily inundated with seawater, further sites representing gradients of flooding frequency in different geographic regions should be analysed in future surveys. A cluster comprising uncultured bacteria closely related to gammaproteobacterial AOB detected in this study has to be studied in more detail. For instance, single cell sequencing could be used to gain information on the metabolic potential of this cluster. Currently, no cultured representative from different microbial groups such as Nitrososphaera subcluster 4 inhabiting temporarily flooded soil are available. AO cultures from soil temporarily flooded by seawater allow investigation of mechanisms enabling tolerance to e.g., changes in salinity. Genomic analyses of such cultures are required for identification of genes potentially involved in responses to osmotic stress. In addition, physiological studies are necessary to analyse e.g., tolerance of single ammonia oxidizer species toward changes in salinity.

# 526 Supplementary Material

**Table S1.** Coordinates of the sampling sites.

Table S2. Number of amplicon pyrosequencing-derived AOA *amoA* gene sequences and
OTU-based analyses at 85% genetic similarity.

Table S3. Number of amplicon pyrosequencing-derived 16S rRNA gene sequences and
bacterial diversity as assessed by the Shannon index at 97% genetic similarity.

Figure S1. Consensus tree of AOA amoA including representative sequences of OTUs affiliated to the Nitrosopumilus cluster. The following OTUs determined in this study represent the Nitrosopumilus cluster: OTU1 (Ho,  $14.0 \pm 3.8\%$ ; La:  $54.0 \pm 9.7\%$ ; No:  $69.3 \pm$ 6.8%) and OTU8 (Ho, 0.00000%; La: 0.00004 ± 0.00004%; No: 0.00025 ± 0.00010%). Sequences were added to the consensus tree for AOA amoA phylogeny constructed by Pester et al. (2012) as described in the Materials and Methods section. This tree was then pruned. Accession numbers and environmental sources are given in square brackets. Abbreviations: Ho, Hooge; La, Langeness; No, Nordstrandischmoor. For more details with respect to the different subclusters see Pester et al. (2012).

Figure S2. Consensus tree of AOA amoA including representative sequences of OTUs affiliated to the Nitrososphaera and Nitrososphaera sister cluster. The following OTUs determined in this study represent the *Nitrososphaera* cluster: OTU2 (Ho, 52.4 ± 14.1%; La: 25.3 ± 10.6%; No: 0.03 ± 0.02%), OTU3 (Ho: 32.8 ± 11.2%; La: 20.6 ± 6.5%; No: 29.8 ± 6.7%), OTU4 (Ho, 0.00116 ± 0.00063%; La: 0.00000%; No: 0.00000%), OTU5 (Ho, 0.00699 ± 0.00361%; La: 0.00052 ± 0.00042%; No: 0.00801 ± 0.00244%) and OTU6 (Ho, 0.00022 ± 0.00011%; La: 0.00000%; No: 0.00006 ± 0.00006%). In addition, the *Nitrososphaera* sister cluster is represented by OTU7 (Ho, 0.00000%; La: 0.00009 ± 0.00006%; No: 0.00000%). Sequences were added to the consensus tree for AOA amoA phylogeny constructed by

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Pester *et al.* (2012) as described in the Materials and Methods section. This tree was then
pruned. Accession numbers and environmental sources are given in square brackets.
Abbreviations: Ho, Hooge; La, Langeness; No, Nordstrandischmoor. For more details with
respect to the different subclusters see Pester *et al.* (2012).

Figure S3. Rarefaction analyses of bacterial OTUs at 97% genetic similarity in Hooge,
Langeness and Nordstrandischmoor soil.

Figure S4. Relative abundances of dominant bacterial genera in enrichment cultures. Soil derived from sampling sites Ho1, No1, No2 and No3 was used as inoculum. The values 30% and 50% indicate the dilution of artificial seawater used for enrichment (see Materials and Methods section). Enrichment medium exhibited a concentration of 500  $\mu$ M or 12.5 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl.

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# Tables

Table 1. Characteristics of soil samples from Hooge, Langeness and Nordstrandischmoor.

Soil property	Study sites			ANOVA
	Hooge	Langeness	Nordstrandischmoor	Р
Electrical conductivity (mS cm <sup>-1</sup> )	3.6 ± 0.4 a	4.0 ± 0.3 a	7.6 ± 0.8 b	<0.001
рН	6.5 ± 0.4 a	6.5 ± 0.0 a	7.6 ± 0.1 b	0.009
Total C (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	50.0 ± 8.3 a	48.0 ± 3.0 a	46.5 ± 2.6 a	0.632
Organic C (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	49.8 ± 8.3 a	48.0 ± 3.0 a	45.1 ± 2.7 a	0.547
Total N (g kg⁻¹)	4.3 ± 0.7 a	3.9 ± 0.2 a	4.1 ± 0.3 a	0.589
NH₄⁺-N (mg kg⁻¹)	12.1 ± 2.5 a	5.2 ± 0.3 b	8.2 ± 1.0 ab	<0.001
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.6 ± 0.1 ab	0.4 ± 0.0 a	1.1 ± 0.6 b	0.022

Data are presented as mean and standard errors. Thirty soil samples, described in the Materials and Methods section, were considered. Significant ANOVA *P* values are shown in bold (P < 0.05). Figures followed by different letters indicate differences among Halligen. NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration was negligible and NO<sub>x</sub> is therefore equivalent to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N mg kg<sup>-1</sup>.

**Figure 1.** Maps depicting the German Halligen Hooge (Ho), Langeness (La), and Nordstrandischmoor (No). The locations of the three Halligen and the ten sampling sites are highlighted by black arrows and coloured crosses, respectively. Triplicate samples, 1 m apart, were taken from each site. The large scale map was generated using the Ocean Data View software version 4.7.10 (Schlitzer 2017) (http://odv.awi.de/).

**Figure 2.** Abundance of AOA and betaproteobacterial AOB *amoA* genes in Hooge, Langeness, and Nordstrandischmoor soils samples. Data are presented as mean and standard error of triplicate samples for each site. Abbreviations: Ho, Hooge; La, Langeness; No, Nordstrandischmoor. A total of 30 soil samples was analysed.

**Figure 3.** Abundance of (a) AOA and (b) betaproteobacterial *amoA* genes in soil slurries incubated for 30 days. Slurries contained soil from Hooge (Ho), Langeness (La), or Nordstrandischmoor (No) and artificial seawater at salinities of 5‰, 10‰, 20‰ or 30‰. Data are presented as mean and standard error of triplicate samples for each site. Asterisks indicate a significant increase (green asterisks) or decrease (red asterisks) in *amoA* abundance after incubation for 15 or 30 days (P<0.05) (the asterisks indicate changes from the initial abundance determined at day 0). A total of 108 soil slurry samples was analysed.

**Figure 4.** Changes in ammonium and combined nitrite plus nitrate concentrations during incubation of soil slurries for 30 days.

**Figure 5.** Relative abundances of dominant AOA *amoA* OTUs determined at 85% genetic similarity and *Nitrosospira* and *Nitrosomonas* 16S rRNA gene sequences. Data are presented as mean and standard error. Different letters above the bars represent significant differences in relative abundance of ammonia oxidiser subclusters or genera (*P*<0.05). Abundances of *Nitrosospira* and *Nitrosomonas* relative to all bacterial sequences are depited. Abbreviations: Ho, Hooge; La, Langeness; No, Nordstrandischmoor; subcl., subcluster. A total of 30 soil samples were analysed.

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**Figure 6**. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of AOA and bacterial community composition based on weighted Unifrac. Abbreviations: Ho, Hooge; La, Langeness; No, Nordstrandischmoor.

**Figure 7**. Phylogenetic tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequences affiliated to selected OTUs identified in this study, uncultured *Gammaproteobacteria* closely related to these OTUs, *Chromatiaceae*, and *Acidithiobacillus*. Bootstrap values  $\geq$ 50% are indicated at the corresponding notes. The bar represents 0.02 changes per nucleotide position. Abundances of OTUs relative to all bacterial sequences are depicted for Hooge (Ho), Langeness (La) and Nordstrandischmoor (No) soil. Some of the considered OTUs could only be detected in soil derived from one or two Halligen. Accession numbers and environmental sources are given in square brackets. The 16S rRNA gene sequence of *Nitrosococcus wardiae* D1FHS (Wang *et al.* 2017) has been provided by Drs. Lin Wang and Martin G. Klotz, UNC Charlotte.



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Table S1. Coordinates of the sampling sites.

Hallig	Sampling site	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	
Heese	II. 1	54 57017	0.51445	
Hooge	H01	54.5/81/	8.31443	
Hooge	Ho2	54.56572	8.54817	
Hooge	Ho3	54.56888	8.54468	
Langeness	La1	54.62908	8.53368	
Langeness	La2	54.63002	8.57032	
Langeness	La3	54.63443	8.60470	
Langeness	La4	54.63967	8.63360	
Nordstrandischmoor	No1	54.54867	8.82168	
Nordstrandischmoor	No2	54.54857	8.80983	
Nordstrandischmoor	No3	54.55162	8.79447	

Table S2. Number of amplicon pyrosequencing-derived AOA *amoA* gene sequences and OTU-based analyses at 85% genetic similarity.

Sample	Number of raw sequences	Number of pre- processed	Number of observed	Chao1-based OTU number	Shannon index
		sequences	OTUs	prediction	
Ho1a	2,795	1,760	4	4	0.72
Ho1b	2,429	1,512	5	5	0.56
Ho1c	2,598	1,428	5	5	0.64
Ho2a	2,550	1,945	4	4	0.07
Ho2b	2,437	1,788	4	4	0.20
Ho2c	2,125	1,646	3	3	0.03
Ho3a	2,374	1,728	5	5	0.98
Ho3b	2,326	1,777	5	6	0.97
Ho3c	2,261	1,729	5	6	0.98
La1a	2,886	2,023	5	5	0.60
La1b	2,282	1,540	3	3	0.78
La1c	2,458	1,781	3	3	0.80
La2a	2,686	1,953	5	5	0.56
La2b	2,550	1,766	4	4	0.32
La2c	2,493	1,863	3	3	0.93
La3a	2,627	2,055	3	3	0.47
La3b	2,748	2,053	3	3	0.65
La3c	1,697	1,218	3	3	0.33
La4a	2,594	1,704	4	4	0.24
La4b	2,775	1,847	3	3	0.40
La4c	2,706	1,890	3	3	0.78
No1a	2,269	1,588	5	6	0.51
No1b	2,497	1,868	3	3	0.64
No1c	2,775	1,766	4	4	0.56
No2a	2,801	2,055	4	4	0.46
No2b	2,572	1,864	3	3	0.61
No2c	2,789	2,015	5	5	0.58
No3a	2,847	2,011	3	3	0.68
No3b	3,107	2,131	3	3	0.75
No3c	2,373	1,818	4	4	0.31
All samples	76,427	54,122	8	8	1.08

OTU analysis of single samples was performed with the same number of sequences (1,200 randomly selected high-quality sequences per sample).

Table S3. Number of amplicon pyrosequencing-derived 16S rRNA gene sequences and bacterial diversity as assessed by the Shannon index at 97% genetic similarity.

Sample	Number of raw sequences	Number of preprocessed	Shannon index
		sequences	
Ho1a	9,628	8,418	6.39
Ho1b	12,062	10,285	6.54
Ho1c	7,310	6,408	6.56
Ho2a	10,104	8,797	5.65
Ho2b	10,402	9,155	5.62
Ho2c	10,015	8,329	5.50
Ho3a	12,550	11,057	5.57
Ho3b	10,805	9,386	5.40
Ho3c	9,788	8,732	5.45
La1a	12,400	10,483	6.15
La1b	8,347	6,977	6.31
La1c	9,104	7,526	6.42
La2a	10,793	9,383	6.09
La2b	9,386	8,285	6.31
La2c	9,752	8,577	6.10
La3a	8,926	7,623	5.92
La3b	7,457	6,526	5.90
La3c	8,771	7,384	6.07
La4a	9,748	8,300	6.16
La4b	10,668	9,246	6.00
La4c	8,248	7,303	6.03
No1a	11,541	10,092	6.24
No1b	11,021	9,173	6.12
No1c	10,797	9,078	6.15
No2a	10,836	9,474	6.26
No2b	10,386	8,704	6.40
No2c	9,963	8,698	6.30
No3a	10,472	9,082	6.30
No3b	9,984	8,701	6.37
No3c	11,131	9,686	6.32

Calculation of the Shannon index was performed with the same number of sequences (6,400 randomly selected high-quality sequences per sample).

![](_page_44_Figure_2.jpeg)

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![](_page_45_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_46_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_46_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_46_Figure_4.jpeg)

Nitrosomonas

Sediminibacter

Nitrosospira

Arenibacter

Kordiimonas Oceanibacterium

Marinobacter

Pseudomonas

Marinobacterium

![](_page_47_Figure_2.jpeg)