

1 **Effects of landscape modification on coastal sediment nitrogen**
2 **availability, microbial functional gene abundances and N₂O**
3 **production potential across the tropical-subtropical gradient**

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25 **ABSTRACT**

26 Wetland sediment is an important nitrogen pool and a source of the greenhouse gas
27 nitrous oxide (N₂O). Modification of coastal wetland landscape due to plant invasion
28 and aquaculture activities may drastically change this N pool and the related dynamics
29 of N₂O. This study measured the sediment properties, N₂O production and relevant
30 functional gene abundances in 21 coastal wetlands across five provinces along the
31 tropical-subtropical gradient in China, which all had experienced the same sequence of
32 habitat transformation from native mudflats (MFs) to invasive *Spartina alterniflora*
33 marshes (SAs) and subsequently to aquaculture ponds (APs). Our results showed that
34 change from MFs to SAs increased the availability of NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N and the
35 abundance of functional genes related to N₂O production (*amoA*, *nirK*, *nosZ* I, and *nosZ*
36 II), whereas conversion of SAs to APs resulted in the opposite changes. Invasion of
37 MFs by *S. alterniflora* increased N₂O production potential by 127.9%, whereas
38 converting SAs to APs decreased it by 30.4%. Based on structural equation modelling,
39 nitrogen substrate availability and abundance of ammonia oxidizers were the key
40 factors driving the change in sediment N₂O production potential in these wetlands. This
41 study revealed the main effect patterns of habitat modification on sediment
42 biogeochemistry and N₂O production across a broad geographical and climate gradient.
43 These findings will help large-scale mapping and assessing landscape change effects on
44 sediment properties and greenhouse gas emissions along the coast.

45 **Keywords:** Coastal wetland; Habitat change; Nitrogen remineralization; Nitrogen
46 substrates; N₂O production potential; Ammonia oxidation

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The atmospheric concentration of the powerful greenhouse gas nitrous oxide (N₂O)
49 has increased by 123% since the beginning of the industrial era, reaching 333.2 ppbv in
50 2020 ([World Meteorological Organization, 2021](#)). A major source of terrestrial N₂O is
51 microbial transformation of nitrogen ([IPCC, 2019](#)) via both nitrification and
52 denitrification ([Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013](#); [Gao et al., 2021](#); [Toyoda et al., 2011](#); [Wu et](#)
53 [al., 2019](#)). Quantifying the nitrogen substrate pool, the relevant microbial communities
54 and their activities would be key to understanding N₂O dynamics globally.

55 Despite covering just 8% of the global land area, wetlands represent one of the
56 world's largest terrestrial nitrogen inventories ([Batjes et al., 1996](#); [Xu et al., 2020](#)).
57 Coastal wetlands are particularly important for nitrogen storage ([Batjes, 1996](#); [Yang et](#)
58 [al., 2016](#)) owing to their high rates of sedimentation and organic matter burial ([Chmura](#)
59 [et al., 2003](#); [He et al., 2021](#)). Unfortunately, coastal wetlands are increasingly subject to
60 habitat degradation and modification due to land-use change and exotic plant invasion
61 ([Murray et al., 2019](#); [Sun et al., 2015](#); [Walker and Smith, 1997](#)), which would likely
62 alter the sediment properties and related microbial production of greenhouse gases such
63 as N₂O ([Bahram et al., 2022](#); [Tan et al., 2022](#); [Tian et al., 2020](#)).

64 There is a total of 5.79×10^6 ha of coastal wetlands along the southern and eastern
65 seaboard of mainland China, accounting for about 10% of the total natural wetlands in
66 the country ([Sun et al., 2015](#)). There have been small-scale studies on the effects of
67 habitat change (e.g., plant invasion, agroforestry reclamations, aquaculture reclamation,

68 etc.) on nitrogen mineralization and N₂O emissions in these coastal wetlands (Gao et al.,
69 2019a, 2019b; He et al., 2021; Tan et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2017;
70 Zhang et al., 2016). In the recent decades, many coastal areas in China have undergone
71 similar sequence of landscape change, with mudflats transformed by the invasion of the
72 exotic cordgrass *Spartina alterniflora* and subsequent clearing of the marsh to construct
73 aquaculture ponds (Duan et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2019). This provides
74 an opportunity to examine the general pattern of landscape modification effects on
75 sediment properties and N₂O production across the broad geographical range.

76 Ideally, a proper assessment of the landscape change effects would require
77 comparing the habitat characteristics and N₂O production before and after modification.
78 However, such time-lapsed study is not possible because many of the impacted coastal
79 areas in China lack historical information and routine monitoring. Instead, we took
80 samples from 21 coastal wetlands along a 2500-km long transect across the tropical and
81 subtropical zones. Large areas of these wetlands have undergone the same sequence of
82 transformation, from native non-vegetated mudflats to *S. alterniflora* marshes and
83 subsequently to aquaculture ponds. By analyzing the sediments' physicochemical
84 properties, nitrogen-cycling functional gene abundances and N₂O production potentials
85 in all three habitat types, we were able to derive common effect patterns of habitat
86 modifications on sediment N₂O production, regardless of differences in local climate,
87 habitat age, environmental conditions and aquaculture practices. This knowledge will be
88 essential for assessing landscape change effects on greenhouse gas budget at the

89 regional to national scale.

90 This study hypothesized that the conversion of mudflats to *S. alterniflora* marshes
91 would increase the abundances of nitrogen-cycling functional genes and N₂O production
92 potential in the sediment, thanks to an increased supply of nitrogen substrates by the
93 vegetation. Conversely, this study hypothesized that removal of *S. alterniflora* from
94 aquaculture ponds and routine management of pond sediment would decrease nitrogen
95 substrate supply to the sediment, disrupt the sediment microbial community and lower
96 the N₂O production potential.

97 **2. Materials and methods**

98 *2.1. Study area and sample collection*

99 Sediment samples were collected at 21 coastal wetland sites across the tropical and
100 subtropical climate zones in southeastern China (20°42' N to 31°51' N; 109°11' E to
101 122°11' E) (Figure 1). These sites span five provinces, with two sites in Shanghai (SH),
102 six in Zhejiang (ZJ), nine in Fujian (FJ), three in Guangdong (GD) and one in Guangxi
103 (GX) (Figure 1). The annual average temperature varied from 11.0 to 23.0 °C and
104 precipitation from 100 to 220 cm across the five provinces. Coastal wetlands in these
105 five provinces cover an area of 2.58×10^6 ha, accounting for 44.5 % of the total area of
106 coastal wetlands in China (Sun et al., 2015). There was approximately 3.6×10^5 ha of
107 tidal flats along the coastal zone of the five provinces (Jia et al., 2021), representing
108 42.4% of the total areas of tidal flats in China. Many of these coastal wetlands have
109 been impacted by the invasion of *S. alterniflora* and subsequent conversion to

110 aquaculture ponds. Along these coastal zones, *S. alterniflora* marshes cover an area of
111 3.34×10^4 ha which account for 61.2% of the total *Spartina* marsh area in China (Liu et
112 al., 2018), whereas the aquaculture ponds cover an area of 5.31×10^5 ha, equivalent to
113 36.9% of the total aquaculture pond area in the country (Duan et al., 2020).

114 Field sampling campaigns were carried out in the three habitat types at each of the
115 21 coastal wetland sites, namely native mudflats (MFs), *S. alterniflora* marshes (SAs)
116 and aquaculture ponds (APs), between December 2019 and January 2020. One surface
117 (top 20 cm) sediment sample from each of the triplicate plots established in each habitat
118 was collected with a steel corer (5 cm internal diameter), for a total of 189 surface
119 sediment samples. All sediment samples were kept at 4 °C until use (Hellman et al.,
120 2019).

121 2.2. Determination of sediment physicochemical properties

122 In the laboratory, each sediment sample was sifted through a 2-mm sieve before the
123 analysis of various physicochemical parameters. Sediment pH and salinity were
124 measured with a pH meter (Orion 868, USA; a 1:2.5 v/v sediment-deionized water
125 mixture) and a salinity meter (Salt6, Eutech Instruments, USA; a 1:5 v/v
126 sediment-deionized water mixture), respectively. Sediment particle size was measured
127 with a laser particle size analyzer (Master Sizer 2000, Malvern Scientific Instruments,
128 Suffolk, UK). Sediment NO_3^- -N and NH_4^+ -N were extracted with 2 M KCl solution
129 (Gao et al., 2019b; Yin et al., 2017) and the concentrations of NO_3^- -N and NH_4^+ -N in the
130 extracts were measured with a flow injection analyzer (Skalar Analytical SAN⁺⁺,

131 Netherlands). Sediment microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) content was determined by
132 the fumigation-extraction method (Templer et al., 2003). The concentrations of SO_4^{2-}
133 and Cl^- in sediments were measured with an ion chromatograph (Dionex 2100, USA)
134 following the methods of Chen and Sun (2020).

135 2.3. DNA extraction and real-time quantitative PCR

136 Genomic DNA was extracted from each 0.5 g of freeze-dried sediment using
137 FastDNA Spin Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's
138 protocol. The quality and quantity of extracted DNA was verified by gel electrophoresis
139 and spectrophotometry (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA).

140 Quantification of nitrogen-cycling functional genes was performed using a real-time
141 polymerase chain reaction (PCR) detection system (CFX384, Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc.,
142 Hercules, CA, USA). Each reaction mixture (10 μL) contained 5 μL SYBR mix, an
143 optimized concentration of forward and reverse primers, 1 μL of template (containing
144 approximately 1–10 ng of DNA) and sterilized distilled water. Three negative controls
145 with sterilized distilled water instead of DNA templates were included in the analysis.
146 Nitrogen-cycling functional genes involved in ammonia oxidation (ammonia-oxidizing
147 archaea (AOA) *amoA* and ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) *amoA*) and denitrification
148 (*nirK*, *nirS*, *nosZ* I, and *nosZ* II) were determined and the details of primers and thermal
149 cycling conditions for PCR are shown in Table S1. The specificity of PCR amplification
150 was assessed by gel electrophoresis and melt curves. Standard curves were generated
151 from a tenfold serial dilution of plasmid DNA containing the target genes. The reaction

152 efficiency ranged from 88 to 99% with an R^2 value of 0.991 to 0.998.

153 2.4. Determination of sediment N_2O production potential

154 The sediment N_2O production potential was measured by anaerobic slurry
155 incubation (Liu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017). While sediment N_2O production
156 involves both oxic (e.g. nitrification) and anoxic processes (e.g. denitrification), the
157 terminal step of the process often occurs in anoxic condition (Hu et al., 2015); therefore,
158 we used anaerobic slurry incubation to estimate the *in situ* N_2O production potential.
159 Approximately 30 g of each wet sediment sample and 30 mL of deoxygenated *in situ*
160 overlying water were added to a 200 mL glass bottle and then flushed with N_2 gas
161 (>99.9999% purity) for 5–8 min to create an anoxic condition. All bottles were then
162 incubated for 48 h at the *in situ* temperature, and headspace gas samples were taken at 0,
163 24, and 48 h. Prior to gas sampling, each glass bottle was shaken on a rotary shaker at
164 200 rpm for 0.5 h to drive all the N_2O produced in sediment into the headspace.
165 Subsequently, 5 mL of the headspace gas samples were taken with a syringe and 5 mL
166 of pure N_2 gas was added back to each bottle to maintain the atmospheric pressure. The
167 N_2O concentrations in the collected gas samples were measured on a gas chromatograph
168 (GC-2014, Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with an electron capture detector. N_2O
169 production potential [$ng N_2O g^{-1}$ (dry weight) day^{-1}] was then determined based on the
170 change in cumulative N_2O produced per gram of dry sediment over time (Liu et al.,
171 2019; Wang et al., 2017).

172 2.5. Statistical analysis

173 Significant differences in sediment physicochemical properties, nitrogen-cycling
174 functional gene abundances, and N₂O production potential among the three habitats
175 were tested by analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the SPSS version 25.0 (IBM,
176 Armonk, NY, USA). Statistical plots were generated using OriginPro 2021 (OriginLab
177 Corp. USA). Pearson correlation analysis was used to examine the relationships between
178 sediment physicochemical properties, nitrogen-cycling functional genes abundances,
179 and N₂O production potential using the vegan package in R software (Version 4.1.0).
180 Structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed using AMOS 21.0 (Amos
181 Development Corporation, Chicago, IL, USA) to evaluate the direct or indirect
182 relationships between habitat change, sediment physicochemical properties,
183 nitrogen-cycling functional gene abundances and N₂O production potential. *A priori*
184 model was established based on our hypotheses and adjusted to achieve an optimal
185 model fit based on the modification indices in the AMOS software (Bahram et al., 2022).
186 Three commonly used indices were selected to assess the goodness of fit of the model,
187 namely Chi-square test (χ^2), goodness of fit index (GFI) and root mean square error of
188 approximation (RMSEA).

189 **3. Results**

190 *3.1. Sediment physico-chemical properties.*

191 Across all 21 wetland sites, sediment NH₄⁺-N concentration (mean \pm SE) in SAs
192 (24.0 \pm 1.3 mg kg⁻¹) was significantly higher than that in APs (16.9 \pm 1.0 mg kg⁻¹),
193 which was in turn higher than that in MFs (13.3 \pm 0.8 mg kg⁻¹) ($p < 0.01$, Figure 2a).

194 NO_3^- -N concentration in SAs ($1.8 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) was higher than that in MFs (1.3 ± 0.1
195 mg kg^{-1}) and APs ($1.5 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) ($p < 0.01$; [Figure 2b](#)). MBN concentration was the
196 highest in SAs ($26.6 \pm 1.9 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$), followed by APs ($16.8 \pm 0.8 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) and MFs
197 ($12.7 \pm 0.7 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) ($p < 0.01$; [Figure 2c](#)). No significant differences were found in
198 sediment pH, salinity, bulk density and percent clay particles among the three habitat
199 types ([Table S2](#)). Mean sediment Cl^- concentration was significantly higher in SAs (40.9
200 mg kg^{-1}) than in MFs (36.8 mg kg^{-1}) and APs (37.8 mg kg^{-1}), while mean sediment SO_4^{2-}
201 concentration was significantly higher in APs (17.5 mg kg^{-1}) than in MFs (8.9 mg kg^{-1})
202 and SAs (9.1 mg kg^{-1}) ([Table S2](#)).

203 3.2. Functional gene abundances

204 The copy numbers of genes for ammonia oxidation (ammonia-oxidizing archaea
205 (AOA) *amoA* and ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) *amoA*) and denitrification (*nirK*,
206 *nirS*, *nosZ* I, and *nosZ* II) in the different habitat types are shown in [Figure 3](#). Overall,
207 the mean copy numbers of the AOA *amoA*, AOB *amoA* and *nirK* genes were
208 significantly higher in SAs (5.46×10^6 , 2.28×10^7 and 9.89×10^7 copies g^{-1} , respectively)
209 than in both APs (2.96×10^6 , 1.49×10^7 and 6.77×10^7 copies g^{-1} , respectively) and MFs
210 (2.74×10^6 , 1.34×10^7 and 5.83×10^7 copies g^{-1} , respectively) ($p < 0.01$; [Figures 3a-3c](#)). The
211 mean copy number of the *nirS* genes was significantly higher in APs (13.38×10^7 copies
212 g^{-1}) than in both SAs (9.45×10^7 copies g^{-1}) and MFs (6.99×10^7 copies g^{-1}) ($p < 0.01$;
213 [Figures 3d](#)). MFs tended to have fewer copies of both *nosZ* I and *nosZ* II genes
214 (6.57×10^7 and 9.72×10^7 copies g^{-1} , respectively) than the other habitat types ($p < 0.005$;

215 [Figures 3e-3f](#)).

216 3.3. Sediment N₂O production potential

217 The mean sediment N₂O production potential varied considerably between sites,
218 ranging 30.8–176.4 ng g⁻¹ d⁻¹ in MFs, 30.8–388.4 ng g⁻¹ d⁻¹ in SAs, and 64.1–327.7 ng
219 g⁻¹ d⁻¹ in APs ([Figure 4a](#)). Across all 21 wetland sites, the mean (± SE) sediment N₂O
220 production potential was the highest in SAs (217.1 ± 13.7 ng g⁻¹ d⁻¹), followed by APs
221 (151.1 ± 9.3 ng g⁻¹ d⁻¹) and MFs (95.3 ± 9.3 ng g⁻¹ d⁻¹) ($p < 0.01$; [Figure 4b](#)). Therefore,
222 the conversion of MFs to SAs increased sediment N₂O production potential by 127.9%,
223 while the conversion of SAs to APs decreased N₂O production potential by 30.4%.

224 3.4. Environmental control of sediment N₂O production potential

225 The results of Pearson correlation analysis between sediment N₂O production
226 potential and various biotic and abiotic variables are shown in [Figure 5](#). For the
227 conversion of MFs to SAs, sediment N₂O production potential was positively correlated
228 to the abundances of AOA *amoA*, AOB *amoA*, *nirK*, *nirS* and *nosZ I* ($p < 0.05$), as well as
229 the concentrations of NO₃⁻-N, NH₄⁺-N and MBN ($p < 0.001$), but negatively correlated
230 with sediment pH ($p < 0.05$; [Figure 5a](#)). For the conversion of SAs to APs, sediment N₂O
231 production potential was positively correlated to the abundances of AOA *amoA*, AOB
232 *amoA* and *nirK* ($p < 0.05$) and the concentrations of NO₃⁻-N, NH₄⁺-N and MBN
233 ($p < 0.001$), but negatively correlated with sediment pH ($p < 0.001$) and *nosZ II* ($p < 0.05$;
234 [Figure 5b](#)). The results of SEM analysis revealed that changes in sediment N₂O
235 production potential were mediated mainly through changes in the concentrations of

236 $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and MBN in both habitat modification scenarios (Figure 6a, b). Overall, the
237 concentrations of nitrogen substrates ($\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ and $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$) and microbial biomass
238 (MBN) had the largest standardized positive effects on sediment N_2O production
239 potential (Figures 6c, d). In addition, AOA *amoA* was the most important among all
240 functional genes in affecting sediment N_2O production potential during habitat change.

241 **4. Discussion**

242 Large swaths of coastal mudflat in China have been transformed into marshes by
243 the invasive *S. alterniflora* (Mao et al., 2019). To control the spread of *S. alterniflora* and
244 boost food production, many of these marshes have been subsequently cleared and
245 converted into aquaculture ponds (Duan et al., 2021). These drastic landscape
246 transformations have been shown to alter the sediment organic carbon content, carbon
247 remineralization and carbon GHG production (Yang et al., 2022). The rapid expansion
248 of coastal aquaculture in China also raises the alarm of potential increase in N_2O
249 production and emission, thanks to the increasing use of nitrogenous fertilizer and feeds
250 in the farming process (Hu et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2021).

251 Previous studies have shown that non-native plant species could increase N_2O
252 emissions from coastal wetlands (Gao et al., 2019a; Gao et al., 2019c), likely by
253 increasing organic input into the sediment (Wang et al., 2019a; Xia et al., 2021), which
254 would promote microbial abundance and nitrogen remineralization. This is supported by
255 our observation of significantly higher sediment MBN, $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$
256 concentrations in SAs relative to MFs (Figure 2). An earlier meta-analysis has shown

257 that increasing NH_4^+ -N availability can promote the growth of both AOA and AOB
258 (Ouyang et al., 2018), which would lead to a higher N_2O production. Our correlation
259 and SEM analyses indeed showed that both AOA *amoA* and AOB *amoA* abundances
260 were positively correlated with sediment NH_4^+ -N concentrations (Figure 6), and our
261 incubation experiments also showed a significantly higher N_2O production potential in
262 SAs than MFs (Figure 4). These findings support our first hypothesis that conversion of
263 MFs to SAs enhanced sediment N_2O production potential by increasing the supply of
264 nitrogen substrates for microbial-mediated ammonia oxidation.

265 On the other hand, our data showed that the conversion of SAs to APs decreased
266 sediment N_2O production potential (Figure 4), which supported our second hypothesis.
267 Some previous studies have also shown that conversion of coastal marshes to
268 aquaculture ponds could reduce net N_2O emissions (Yang et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2019;
269 Tan et al., 2020). This at first glance is counter-intuitive, as the use of fertilizer and feeds
270 in aquaculture is widely expected to increase N_2O production and emission (Hu et al.,
271 2012; Williams and Crutzen, 2010). However, it is necessary to consider that some of
272 the added nitrogen (as fertilizer or feeds) would have been sequestered into the sediment
273 or harvested as biomass. Many of the coastal aquaculture ponds in China are for farming
274 shrimp, which has a relatively high nutrient utilization efficiency and consequently, only
275 a small percentage of the added nitrogen would be lost as N_2O emission (Yang et al.,
276 2021). Meanwhile, the removal of *S. alterniflora* during the construction of aquaculture
277 ponds would have eliminated plant-mediated supply of labile organics to the sediment,

278 which may partly explain the lower NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N concentrations in AP sediment
279 (Figure 2). Furthermore, a common aquaculture management practice is to dry out the
280 pond sediment and condition it by adding lime between farming seasons (Yang et al.,
281 2021), which would have disrupted the sediment microbial community and its activity.
282 These likely contributed to the lower sediment MBN and N_2O production potential
283 relative to SAs (Figures 2, 5).

284 Denitrification is a key process in N_2O dynamics in coastal and estuarine
285 environments (Hou et al., 2015; Su et al., 2021; Su et al., 2022). However, the functional
286 genes for denitrification (i.e., *nirK*, *nirS*, *nosZ* I and *nosZ* II) were found to have limited
287 influence on sediment N_2O production potential in this study (Figure 6), which might be
288 due to the overall low NO_3^- -N concentrations across our study sites (Figure 2) and that
289 complete denitrification may produce N_2 instead of N_2O as the end-product (Ciarlo et al.,
290 2008; Wilcock and Sorrell, 2008; Peralta et al., 2010). In contrast, N_2O production
291 potential was most strongly correlated with the functional genes AOA *amoA* and AOB
292 *amoA* (Figures 5, 6), suggesting that ammonia oxidation was the overall rate-limiting
293 step in N_2O production in these wetland ecosystems. This aligns with the findings of
294 Bahram et al. (2022) that the abundance of AOA is a key factor determining the rate of
295 N_2O emissions from global wetlands. Indeed, ammonia oxidizers can drive N_2O
296 production (Hu et al., 2015) especially when NH_4^+ -N is the dominant form of available
297 nitrogen (Lin et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019b), such as the case in our study where
298 sediment NH_4^+ -N concentration was an order of magnitude higher than NO_3^- -N across

299 all sampling sites (Figure 2). It was also not surprising to find that AOA *amoA* was more
300 abundant than AOB *amoA* (Figures 3a, b), since AOA can better cope with stresses,
301 giving them a competitive edge over AOB in hypoxic and hypersaline environment
302 (Valentine, 2007; Sun et al., 2022), including wetlands (Sims et al., 2012; Wang et al.,
303 2020; Lin et al., 2021).

304 **5. Conclusions**

305 This study investigated the effects of coastal habitat modification on sediment N₂O
306 production potential across a broad geographical range in China. Our results suggest that
307 conversion of mudflats to *S. alterniflora* marshes enhanced sediment N₂O production
308 potential by increasing the supply of nitrogen substrates and the functional gene
309 abundance for ammonia oxidation, whereas, contrary to common expectation, the
310 subsequent conversion of *S. alterniflora* marshes to aquaculture ponds reduced sediment
311 N₂O production potential owing to a decrease in nitrogen substrate availability and AOA
312 *amoA* gene abundance. These findings highlight that converting *S. alterniflora* marshes
313 to aquaculture ponds could be an effective strategy to achieve multiple benefits of
314 controlling an invasive species, boosting food production and decreasing sediment GHG
315 emission. More importantly, using data from widely distributed sampling sites, we were
316 able to derive common effect patterns of landscape transformation as the results of plant
317 invasion and aquaculture reclamation across the broad geographical and climate range,
318 from tropical to subtropical zones, regardless of local differences in hydrography,
319 biodiversity, management practices or other variables. These findings will facilitate

320 follow-on large-scale mapping and assessing landscape change effects on coastal
321 ecosystems and N₂O emissions, for example, by incorporating GIS and remote sensing
322 data. While we measured N₂O production in sediment, the actual emissions to the
323 atmosphere could be further modulated by *in-situ* biological/abiotic factors.
324 Measurements of *in-situ* N₂O emissions from the different habitats in future study, using
325 methods such as flux chambers, will be valuable.

326 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

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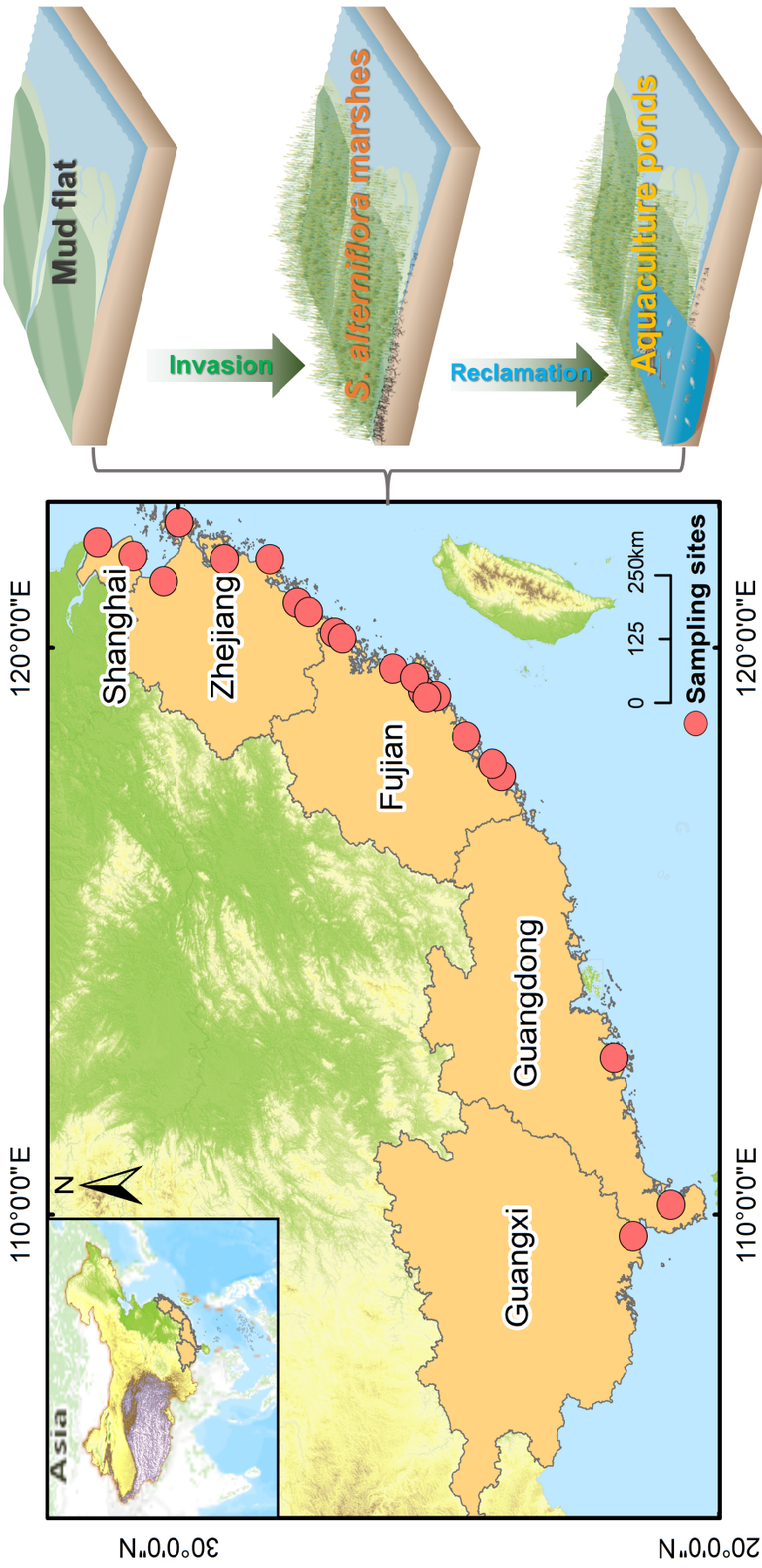
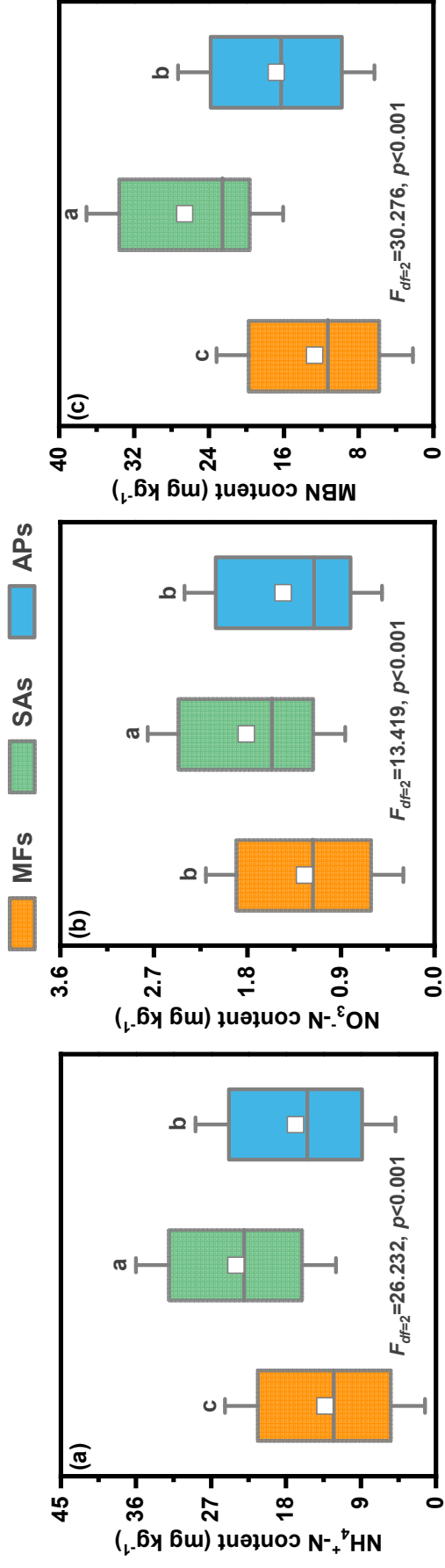


Figure 1. Locations of the 21 coastal wetland sites in southeastern China. At each site, three habitat types were sampled, including mudflats, *Spartina alterniflora* marshes and aquaculture ponds.

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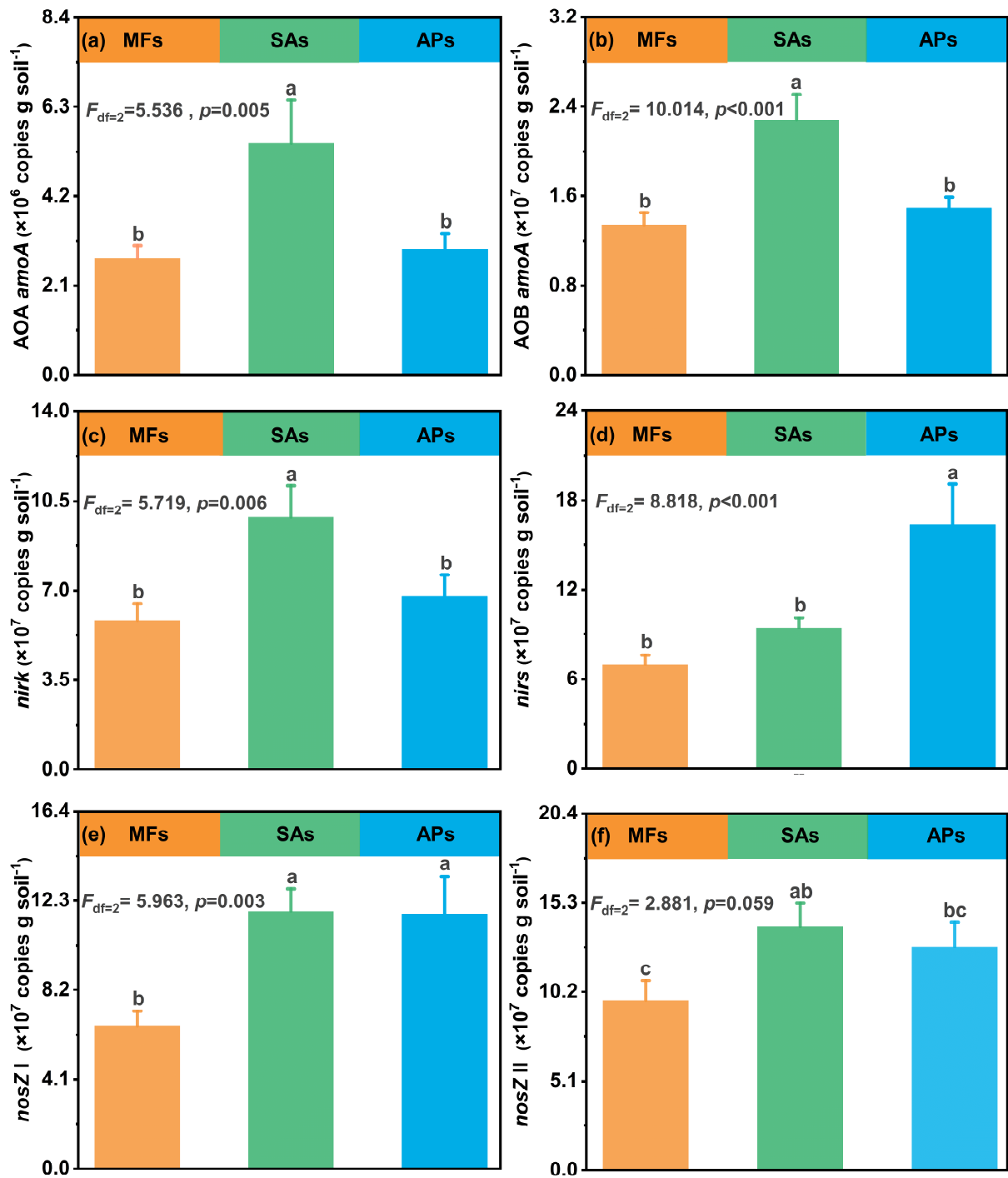
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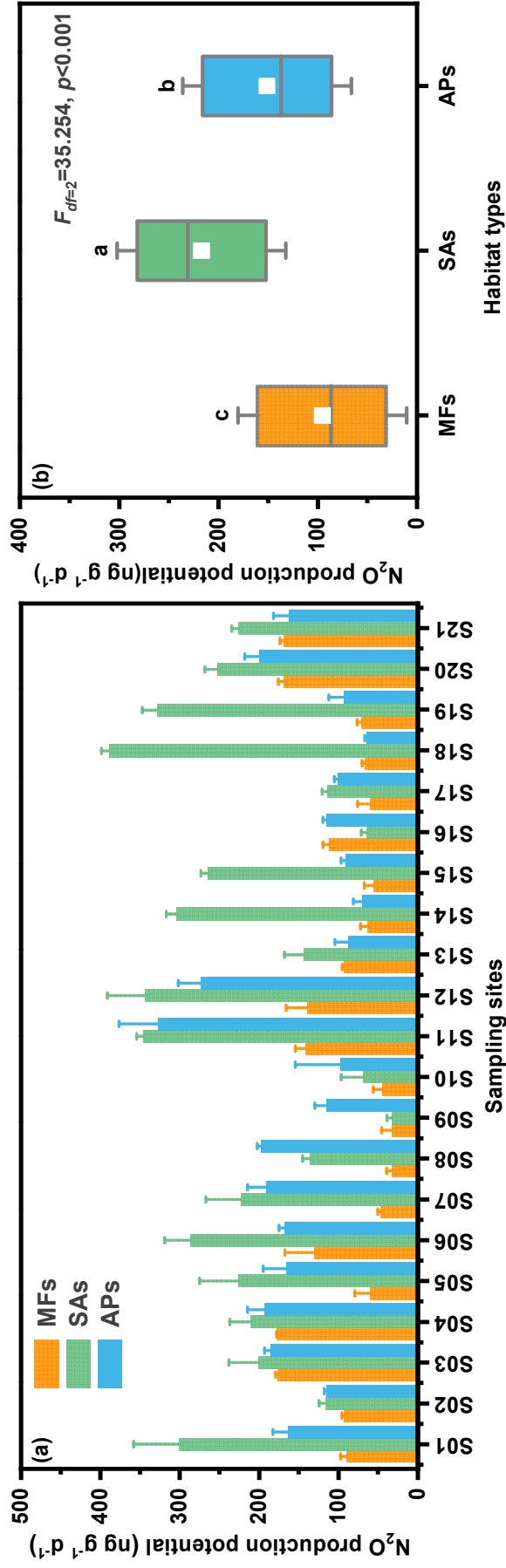
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5 **Figure 2.** Box plots of nitrogen substrates (NH₄⁺-N, NO₃⁻-N) and microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) in surface sediment of the three
6 wetland habitat types: mudflats (MFs), *S. alterniflora* marshes (SAs) and aquaculture ponds (APs). [The boxes, center line, and whiskers
7 represent the 25th – 75th percentiles, median value, and 5th and 95th percentiles, respectively.] Different letters above the boxes indicate
8 significant differences between habitat types ($p < 0.05$).



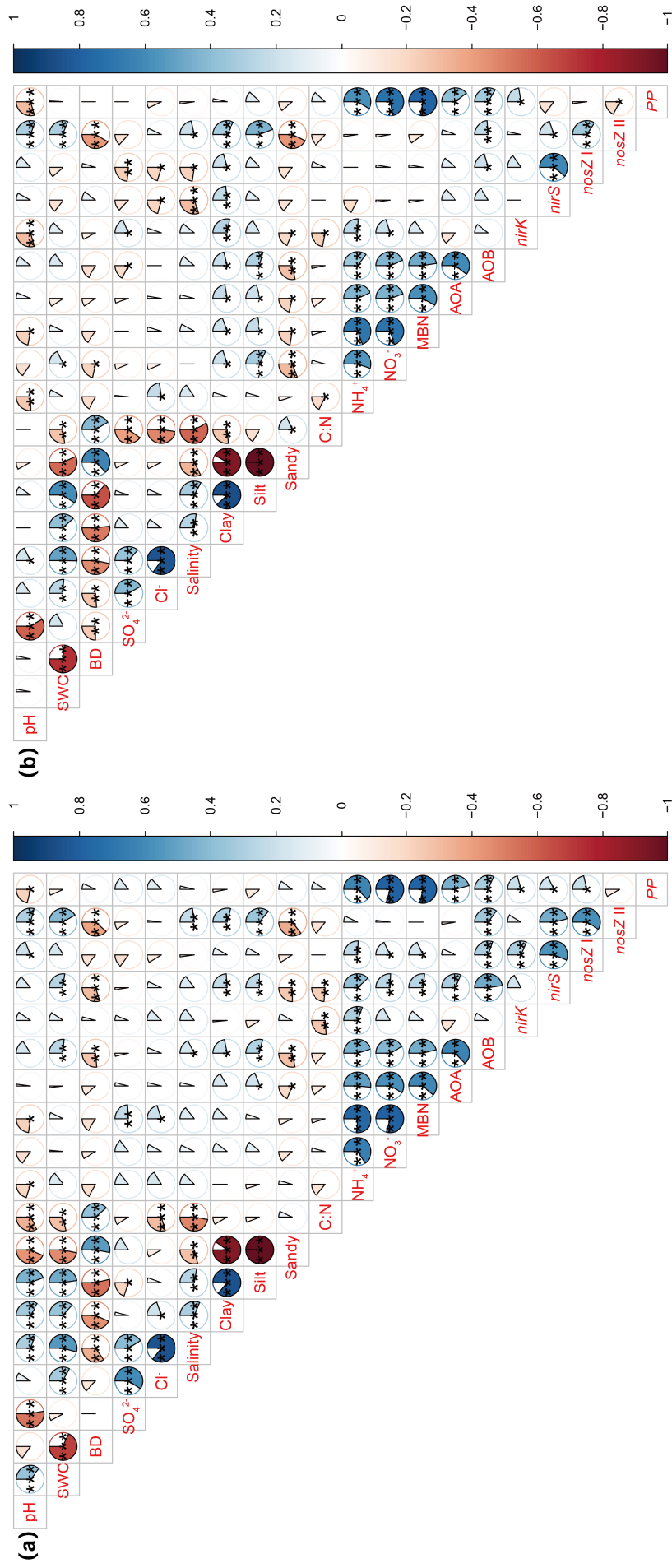
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10 **Figure 3.** Sediment gene abundances (AOA *amoA*, AOB *amoA*, *nirK*, *nirS*, *nosZ* I and *nosZ*
 11 II) in the three habitat types: mudflats (MFs), *S. alterniflora* marshes (SAs) and aquaculture
 12 ponds (APs). Bars represent mean \pm 1SE ($n = 63$). Different letters above the bars indicate
 13 significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the habitat types.



14

15 **Figure 4.** (a) Sediment N₂O production potential in the three habitat types: mudflats (MFs), *S. alterniflora* marshes (SAs) and aquaculture
 16 ponds (APs) at each of the wetland sites. (b) Data from all 21 wetland sites combined in box plots to compare sediment N₂O production
 17 potentials between habitat types; different letters above the boxes indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$).



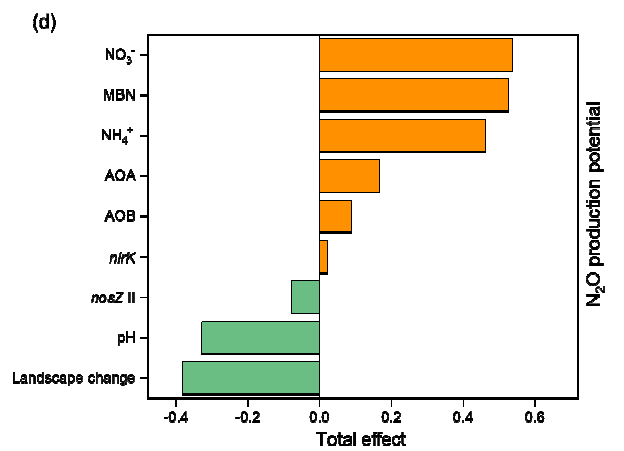
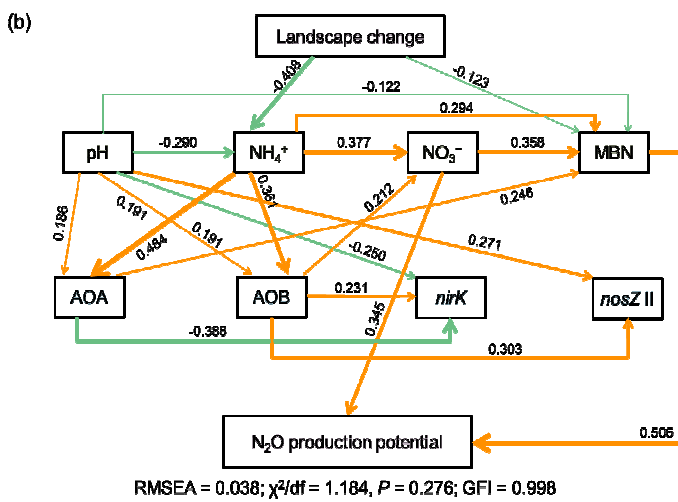
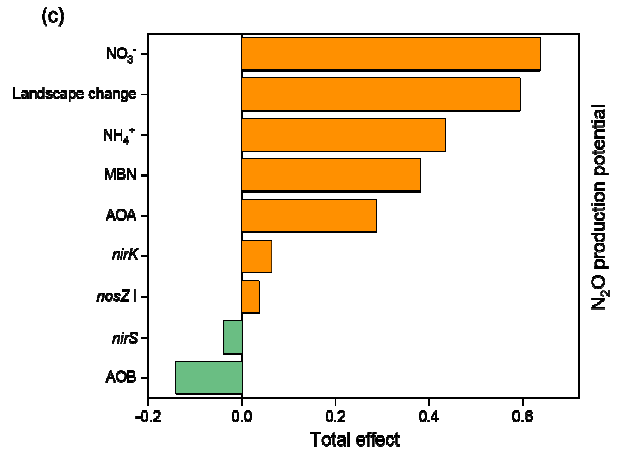
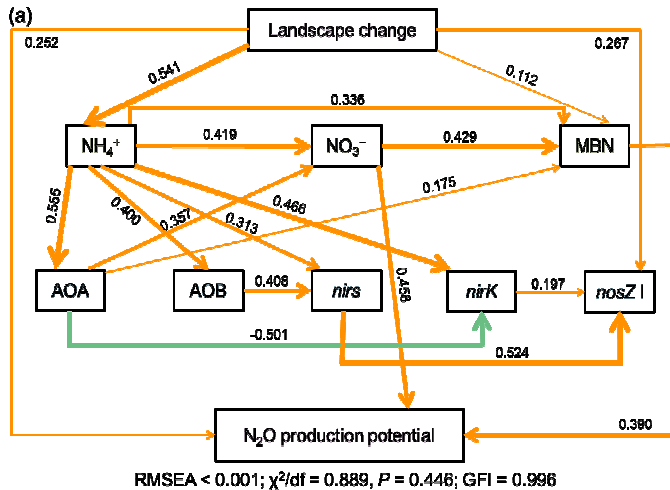
18

19 **Figure 5.** Correlations among environmental variables, abundances of nitrogen-cycling functional genes and sediment N₂O production potential

20 (*PP*) ($n = 216$) for the different habitat modification scenarios: (a) conversion of mudflats to *S. alterniflora* marshes; (b) conversion of *S.*

21 *alterniflora* marshes to aquaculture ponds. Color of the pie indicates the direction of correlation (blue = positive; red = negative). Size of the pie

22 is proportional to the r^2 value. Asterisks indicate levels of significance ($*p < 0.05$; $**p < 0.01$; $***p < 0.001$).



23

24 **Figure 6.** Structural equation models (SEM) to evaluate the direct and indirect effects of landscape
 25 change, sediment properties and the abundance of functional genes on N₂O production potential
 26 under different habitat modification scenarios: (a) conversion of mudflats to *S. alterniflora* marshes;
 27 (b) conversion of *S. alterniflora* marshes to aquaculture ponds. Total standardized effects of
 28 multiple factors on N₂O production potential for the respective habitat modification scenarios are
 29 shown in panel (c) and (d).

1 **Supporting Information**

2 **Effects of landscape modification on coastal sediment nitrogen** 3 **availability, microbial functional gene abundances and N₂O** 4 **production potential across the tropical-subtropical gradient**

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25 **Supporting Information Summary**

26 **No. of pages: 4 No. of figures: 0 No. of tables: 2**

27 **Page S3:** TABLE S1 PCR primers and thermal cycling conditions used for gene
28 quantification.

29 **Page S4:** TABLE S2 Surface soil physico-chemical properties across the three wetland
30 habitat types. MFs, SAs and APs represent mud flats, *S. alterniflora* marshes and
31 aquaculture ponds, respectively.

32 **Table S1**

33 PCR primers and thermal cycling conditions used for gene quantification.

| Gene | Primer | Sequence | Thermal conditions | Reference |
|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|---|--|
| AOA <i>amoA</i> | Arch- <i>amoA</i> F | STAATGGTCTGGCTTAGACG | 95°C, 3min; 35× (95°C for 10 s, 55°C for 30 s, 72°C for 45 s+ plate read) ; Melt curve: 65.0°C to 95.0°C, increment 0.5°C, 0:05+ plate read | Francis et al., 2005 |
| | Arch- <i>amoA</i> R | GCGGCCATCCATCTGTAT GT | | |
| AOB <i>amoA</i> | amoA-1F | GGGGTTTCTACTGGTGGT | 95°C, 3min; 35× (95°C for 10 s, 55°C for 30 s, 72°C for 45 s+ plate read) ; Melt curve: 65.0°C to 95.0°C, increment 0.5°C, 0:05+ plate read | Rotthauwe et al., 1997 |
| | amoA-2R | CCC CTC KGS AAA GCCTTCTTC | | |
| <i>nirS</i> | nirSCd3aF | GTSAACGTSAAAGGARACSGG | 95°C, 3 min; 35× (95°C for 10 s, 56 °C for 30 s, 72°C for 20 s+ plate read) ; Melt curve: 65.0°C to 95.0°C, increment 0.5°C, 0:05+ plate read | Throback et al., 2004 |
| | nirSR3cd | GASTTCGGRTGSGTCTTGA | | |
| <i>nirK</i> | nirKF1aCu | ATCATGGTSTGCCC GCG | 95°C, 3 min; 35× (95°C for 10 s, 56 °C for 30 s, 72°C for 20 s+ plate read) ; Melt curve: 65.0°C to 95.0°C, increment 0.5°C, 0:05+ plate read | Throback et al., 2004 |
| | nirKR3Cu | GCCTCGATCAGRTTGTGGTT | | |
| <i>nosZ I</i> | nosZ1840F | CGCRACGGCAASAAGGTSMSSTGT | 95°C, 3 min; 35× (95°C for 10 s, 58 °C for 25 s, 72°C for 20 s+ plate read) ; Melt curve: 65.0°C to 95.0°C, increment 0.5°C, 0:05+ plate read | Henry et al., 2006 |
| | nosZ2090R | CAKRTGCAKSGCRTGGCAGAA | | |
| <i>nosZ II</i> | nosZ-II-F | CTIGGICCIYTKAYAC | 95°C, 3 min; 35× (95°C for 10 s, 54 °C for 30 s, 72°C for 40 s+ plate read) ; Melt curve: 65.0°C to 95.0°C, increment 0.5°C, 0:05+ plate read | Jones et al., 2013 |
| | nosZ-II-R | GCIGARCARAAITCBGTRC | | |

34 **Table S2**

35 Surface soil physico-chemical properties across the three wetland habitat types. MFs, SAs and APs represent mud flats, *S. alterniflora*
 36 marshes and aquaculture ponds, respectively.

| Habitat | pH | Salinity (%) | SWC (%) | SBD (g cm ⁻³) | Cl ⁻ (mg L ⁻¹) | SO ₄ ²⁻ (mg L ⁻¹) | Soil particle size composition | | |
|------------|------------|--------------|-------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|--------------|-------------|
| | | | | | | | Clay (%) | Silt (%) | Sandy (%) |
| MFs | 7.99±0.06a | 3.96±0.20a | 43.05±1.33b | 1.29±0.02a | 36.84±2.15b | 8.90±0.63b | 10.41±0.47a | 54.07±2.29a | 35.53±2.69b |
| SAs | 7.95±0.06a | 4.54±0.23a | 47.12±1.38a | 1.26±0.02a | 40.94±2.23a | 9.13±0.50b | 10.94±0.49a | 52.67±2.41bc | 36.38±2.86b |
| APs | 7.82±0.06a | 4.21±0.31a | 47.78±1.70a | 1.25±0.03a | 37.75±3.43b | 17.48±1.40a | 10.50±0.57a | 50.14±2.56c | 39.35±3.06a |

37 Lowercase letters within the same column indicate significant differences at $p < 0.05$ between three wetland habitat types. Data are after [Yang et al. \(2022\)](#) for
 38 reference and review only.

39 **Reference**

- 40 Yang, P., Zhang, L. H., Lai, D. Y. F., Yang, H., Tan, L. S., Luo, L. J., Tong, C.,
41 Hong, Y., Zhu, W. Y., Tang, K. W., 2022. Landscape change affects soil
42 organic carbon mineralization and greenhouse gas production in coastal
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