

17

18 **Highlights:**

- 19 ● Sandy sediments have more bacterial species involved in community building.
- 20 ● Different substrates from different stations have their own phylum biomarkers.
- 21 ● Substrates have a greater influence on shaping bacterial function.
- 22 ● Temporal changes have a greater shaping power on bacteria than on gene families.

23

24 **Abstract:** The intertidal sediment environment is dynamic and the biofilm bacterial community
 25 within it must constantly adjust, but an understanding of the differences in the biofilm bacterial
 26 community within sediments of different types is still relatively limited. In this study, the structure
 27 of the bacterial community in Jiaozhou Bay sediment biofilms are described using high-throughput
 28 16S rRNA gene sequencing and the effects of temporal change and different sediment environment
 29 types are discussed. The Shannon index was significantly higher in sandy samples than in muddy
 30 samples. The co-occurrence network was tighter and more species were involved in community
 31 building in sandy samples. The principal coordinates analysis identified a significant separation
 32 between different sediment types and between stations (LiCun estuary, LC and ZhanQiao Pier, ZQ).

33 Proteobacteria, which had a relative abundance of approximately 50% at all phylum levels, was
34 significantly more abundant at ZQ, while Campilobacterota and Firmicutes were significantly more
35 abundant at LC. The relative abundances of Bacteroidetes, Campilobacterota, Firmicutes, and
36 Chloroflexi were significantly higher in the muddy samples, while Actinobacteria and
37 Proteobacteria were higher in the sandy samples. There were different phylum-level biomarkers
38 between sediment types at different stations. There were also different patterns of functional
39 enrichment in biogeochemical cycles between sediment types and stations with the former having
40 more gene families that differed significantly, highlighting their greater role in determining bacterial
41 function. The RDA results, where each month's samples were concentrated individually, showed
42 reduced variation between months when the amplicon sequence variant was replaced by KEGG
43 orthologs, presumably the temporal change had an impact on shaping the intertidal sediment
44 bacterial community, although this was less clear at the gene family level. Random forest prediction
45 yielded a combination of 43 family-level features that responded well to temporal change, reflecting
46 the influence of temporal change on sediment biofilm bacteria.

47 **Keywords: Biofilm; Seasonal variation; Grain size; LEfSe; Gene function**

48

49 **1 Introduction**

50 The intertidal zone is a transition zone between land and sea where the sediment environment
51 is constantly changing under the combined influence of freshwater, tidal and anthropogenic factors.
52 Studies have shown that the sediment surface has high microbial activity, which is sensitive to
53 environmental changes and can be an indicator of ecological health (Duarte et al., 2012; Kallmeyer
54 et al., 2012; Suh et al., 2015; Yi et al., 2020). In addition to microorganisms on the surface of

55 intertidal sediments that adhere and aggregate into marine biofilms, marine biofilms are also
56 widespread on the surface of other biotic or abiotic substrates immersed in seawater and play an
57 important role in biogeochemical cycles (Wahl et al., 2012; Dang and Lovell, 2016; Liang et al.,
58 2019).

59 Bacteria are the pioneer and most abundant taxa in biofilms, and their diversity and aggregation
60 state are significantly influenced by water quality, salinity and hydrodynamics (Rickard et al., 2004;
61 Nocker et al., 2007; Qian et al., 2007; Guo et al., 2017). Rapid fluctuations in intertidal
62 environmental conditions (e.g., pH, salinity, ionic strength, currents and contaminants) result in a
63 metabolically plastic and genetically diverse community of bacteria. Understanding how changes
64 in the distribution and function of these communities and the extent to which anthropogenic and
65 natural factors influence them is essential for assessing ecological impacts (Lv et al., 2016; Wei et
66 al., 2018; Avila-Jimenez et al., 2020; Ge et al., 2021). With the development and maturity of
67 sequencing technology, in particular using high-throughput 16S rRNA gene sequencing technology,
68 it has become possible to study community composition at a lower cost, with greater accuracy and
69 efficiency.

70 Tidal, current and invertebrate disturbance have different effects on the erosion of the surface
71 layer of intertidal sediments with different grain sizes (Grabowski et al., 2011). Sandy sediments
72 have high permeability but low interparticle cohesion, whereas muddy sediments have smaller
73 particle sizes, higher cohesion and increased stability, so surface migration differs between the two
74 sediment types. In addition, sediment mobility is also influenced by the biofilms themselves
75 (Paterson, 1989; Whitehouse, 2000; Wyness et al., 2019). However, an understanding of the
76 structural differences in intertidal biofilm bacterial communities in different substrate types is still

77 relatively limited. Therefore, it is hypothesised that intertidal muddy and sandy sediments shape
78 bacterial communities differently. In this study, Jiaozhou Bay, a temperate bay with different
79 sediment types, was chosen as a study model.

80 Jiaozhou Bay (Shandong, China) is a semi-enclosed bay with a relatively narrow mouth (2.5
81 km) that restricts water exchange to the Yellow Sea and limits its capacity to self-purify (Dai et al.,
82 2007; Sun et al., 2021). It's semi-enclosed configuration results in low wave energy. It has a
83 temperate monsoon climate, semi-diurnal tides (mean tidal range 2.8 m) and high current velocities
84 (up to 201 cm/s) at the mouth of the bay (Lyu et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2014; Shang et al., 2018). The
85 Licun River, which flows into the bay, has a population of more than one million people within its
86 catchment. A large sewage treatment plant discharges into the Licun River (2.46×10^5 t/d). A eddy
87 in the estuary attenuates the movement of material out of the bay (Wang et al., 2022; Zhang et al.,
88 2017). Previous studies have investigated the diversity of culturable bacteria (Wang et al., 2016),
89 the diversity of anaerobic bacteria (Wu et al., 2019), the *nirS*-type denitrifying bacterial community
90 (Liu et al., 2020), the late winter/early spring bacterial community in the estuarine zone (Ge et al.,
91 2021), and the spatial distribution of bacteria in autumn (Sun et al., 2021) in surface sediments of
92 Jiaozhou Bay, but investigations of bacterial community structure between seasons and substrates
93 are need to be complemented.

94 In a monthly sampling program for almost a year, the bacterial community structure of the
95 intertidal sediments in the bay and at the mouth of the bay is described using high-throughput 16S
96 rRNA gene sequencing methods. The aim is to identify potential patterns in the composition of
97 bacterial communities in the sediment biofilms, and the effects of temporal changes and sediment
98 environment on them. The results will improve our understanding of the endemic structure of

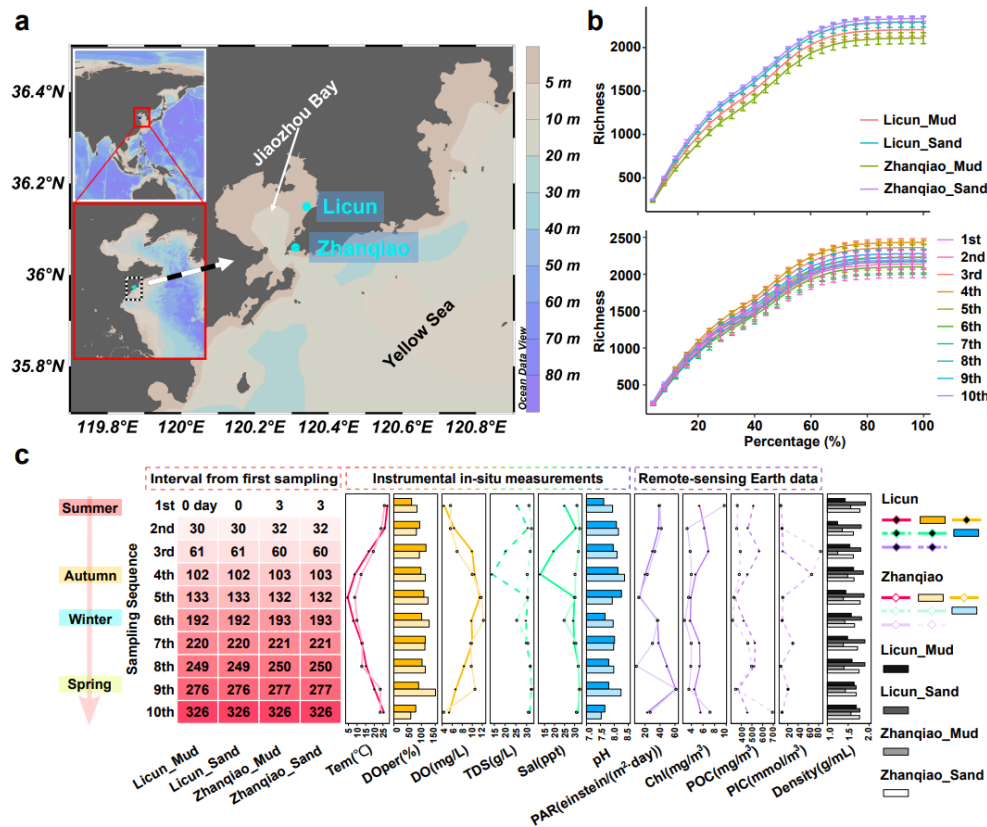
99 bacterial communities shaped by different substrate sediments in the intertidal zone and provide the
100 empirical support necessary for ecological conservation.

101

102 **2 Materials and Methods**

103 2.1 Sampling design

104 The sampling sites were at two locations in Jiaozhou Bay - the south side of the LiCun estuary
105 (LC, 36.15 N 120.34 E) and a beach on the east side of the ZhanQiao Pier (ZQ, 36.06 N 120.31 E),
106 inside and outside the mouth of the bay respectively, a linear separation of approximately 10.5 km.
107 Samples were collected monthly over a period of 326 days (Fig. 1). Sampling preferentially took
108 place when low tides (<90 cm) occurred close to midday. Surface samples (0.5 cm) were collected
109 from different sediment types (muddy samples, sandy samples). The samples from each site were
110 collected close to the water's edge (where the samples were only exposed to air for a short time,
111 resulting in less water loss and less additional stress), divided into collection tubes for cold storage
112 at -80 °C in the laboratory. Water temperature (Tem), dissolved oxygen air saturation (DO%),
113 dissolved oxygen (DO), total dissolved solids (TDS), salinity (Sal), pH of the seawater adjacent to
114 the sediment were measured *in situ* using a YSI water quality analyzer. Photosynthetically active
115 radiation (PAR), chlorophyll (Chl), particulate inorganic carbon (calcite concentration, PIC),
116 particulate organic carbon (POC) were extracted from MODIS-Aqua remote sensing data, and if the
117 extracted values were NA, then extracted from 8-day average, monthly average, etc.



118

119 Fig. 1 Sampling design. a) Geographical information on the stations b) Richness dilution curve

120 c) Sampling time and variation of environmental factors (Tem: water temperature Doper: dissolved

121 oxygen air saturation DO: dissolved oxygen TDS: total dissolved solids Sal: salinity PAR:

122 photosynthetically active radiation PIC: particulate inorganic carbon POC: particulate organic

123 carbon).

124

125 2.2 High throughput sequencing

126 Samples for sequencing were collected each month, with the August (1st sample month),

127 November (4th), February (6th) and May (9th) being characteristic months of each local season; an

128 additional parallel sample was also sequenced. DNA was extracted from the genomic DNA of the

129 microbial community according to the instructions of the E.Z.N.A.® Soil DNA Kit (Omega Bio-

130 tek, Norcross, GA, USA). 1% agarose gel electrophoresis was used to check DNA quality and

131 NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo Scientific, USA) was used to determine DNA concentration and purity.
132 PCR amplification of the V3-V4 variable region of the 16S rRNA gene was performed using
133 upstream primer 338F (5'-ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG-3') and downstream primer 806R (5'-
134 GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') with barcode sequences (Liu et al., 2016), the PCR reaction
135 system was: 5×FastPfu buffer 4 µL, 2.5 mM dNTPs 2 µL, each primer (5 µM) 0.8 µL, Fast Pfu
136 polymerase 0.4 µL, bovine serum albumin (BSA) 0.2 µL, template DNA 10 ng, and ddH₂O to a
137 final volume of 20 µL. Amplification procedure: initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min, 27 cycles
138 (denaturation at 95°C for 30 s, annealing at 55°C for 30 s, extension at 72°C for 45 s), followed by
139 a single extension at 72°C for 10 min (ABI GeneAmp® 9700). Three replicates of each sample were
140 run. PCR products from the same sample were mixed and recovered on a 2% agarose gel, purified
141 using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, CA, USA), quantified
142 using a Quantus™ Fluorometer (Promega, USA) and libraries constructed. Sequencing was
143 performed on the Illumina Miseq PE300 platform (Illumina, San Diego, USA) according to the
144 standard protocol of Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China).

145

146 2.3 Sequencing data processing

147 Quality control of the double-ended raw sequencing data was performed using fastp v0.19.6
148 (Chen et al., 2018). Splicing was performed using FLASH v1.2.11 (Magoč and Salzberg, 2011): 1)
149 truncate window bases for reads with an average quality score <20 within the 50 bp window of the
150 tail, filter reads below 50 bp, and reads containing N bases were removed; 2) splice pairs of reads
151 with a minimum overlap of 10 bp; 3) filter sequences with an overlap mismatch rate >0.2. Barcode
152 and front-end primer sequences were removed. The data have been deposited in the Genome

153 Sequence Archive (Tingting Chen et al., 2021) in National Genomics Data Center, China National
154 Center (CNCB-NGDC Members and Partners, 2022) for Bioinformation / Beijing Institute of
155 Genomics, Chinese Academy of Sciences (GSA: CRA010554) that are publicly accessible at
156 <https://ngdc.cnbc.ac.cn/gsa>.

157 Amplicon sequence variant (ASV) selection and feature table construction were performed
158 using EasyAmplicon v1.14 (Liu et al., 2021): in the quality filter, a default value of 0.01 was used
159 for “-fastq_maxee_rate”; in dereplication, a default value of 8 was used for “-miniuniquisize”; in
160 denoising, “- minsize” was set to 20; in the feature table construction, the default statement was
161 used; when removing plastids and non-bacteria, “- db” was set to rdp_16s_v18.fa, “- syntax_cutoff”
162 was set to 0.6; normalization by subsample was set to the minimum value by default.

163 Alpha diversity was analyzed using EasyAmplicon: box plots and dilution curves were plotted
164 using the default statements; filtering by abundance used a default value of 0 for “-thre”, true for “-
165 scale” and 100 for “-zoom”; the default statement was used to filter the results above an abundance
166 threshold (0.1%). The Venn network was plotted using EVenn (Tong Chen et al., 2021).

167 Beta diversity and relative abundance at the phylum and class level were analyzed using
168 EasyAmplicon: default statements generated bray_curtis distance matrices, PCoA, CPCoA, and
169 stackplot were plotted; in the treemap, “- topN” was set to 200; in the extended histogram, “-
170 threshold” was set to the default value of 0.1, a default value of “t.test” was used for “--method”, a
171 default value of 0.05 was used for the “--pvalue”, and “BH” was used for “--fdr”.

172 LEfSe analysis was performed using OECloud tools (<https://cloud.oebiotech.cn>), with 0.1%
173 abundance screening, unassigned categories were not included in the analysis, for the interclass
174 Kruskal-Wallis test, alpha = 0.05, LDA score threshold was 2.0.

175 FAPROTAX v1.2.4 (Louca et al., 2016) in ImageGP (Chen et al., 2022)
176 (<http://www.ehbio.com/ImageGP/index.php/Home/Index/FAPROTAX.html>) was used to predict
177 biogeochemical cycle functional genes and STAMP v2.1.3 (Parks et al., 2014) was used to analyse
178 for significant differences between the two groups: Welch's t-test was used with a Storey FDR test
179 correction. PICRUSt2 (Douglas et al., 2019) in the OECloud tools (<https://cloud.oebiotech.cn>) was
180 used to predict the abundance of gene families. The volcano plot between the two groups was
181 performed using EasyAmplicon and OmicStudio (Lyu et al., 2023) with "--threshold" set to 0, "--
182 method" set to Wilcox, "--pvalue" set to the default value of 0.05 and "--fdr" set to 0.05. The top 25
183 enriched/depleted relative abundances in the volcano plot were plotted on a heatmap (R package
184 ComplexHeatmap v2.15.1) (Gu et al., 2016; Gu, 2022).

185 The R package igraph v1.3.2 (Csardi and Nepusz, 2006) was used to analyze the network
186 modules, calculate the Pearson correlation coefficient between two ASVs (occurrence >80%),
187 maintain a threshold of $r > 0.7$ and $p < 0.01$ and calculate the layout based on layout_with_fr. The 18
188 modules with the highest number of nodes were colored.

189 Environmental factor analysis: ASVs (or KEGG orthologs) with station-wide frequencies ≥ 100
190 were screened for Hellinger transformation to attenuate the effect of zero values. Environmental
191 factor data were +1 and then natural log transformed to make the data more homogeneous. Using
192 the R package vegan v2.6-2 (Oksanen, 2010) decorana() operations for axis lengths and vif.cca()
193 for covariance analysis, 999 permutation tests were carried out on the constraint axis as a whole and
194 on each axis separately (Bonferroni for p-value correction). ordistep()/ordiR2step() was used for
195 forward selection and 999 permutation tests, varpart() was used for variance decomposition
196 followed by 999 permutation tests to explain variance. bioenv() was used to calculate the most

197 relevant combination of environmental factors.

198 Random forest modelling was performed using the R package randomForest v4.7-1.1 with a
199 default statement and with cross-validation to filter the number of features associated with temporal
200 change (Liaw and Wiener, 2002; J. Zhang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021). The monthly affiliation of
201 sediment samples was predicted based on the feature model, and a time-series prediction fit was
202 plotted.

203

204 **3 Results**

205 3.1 Sequence screening and ASV characterization table

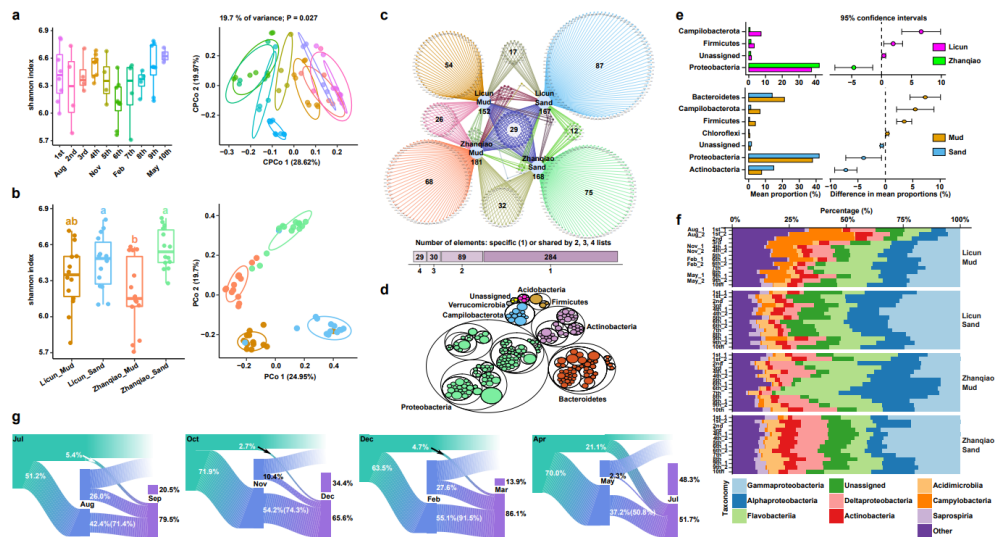
206 After quality control of 56 amplicon samples, 2,606,341 sequences were retained and 296,193
207 sequences were discarded. 6,723 good amplicons were obtained after redundancy and denoising.
208 6,497 ASVs were obtained after removal of plasmids and non-bacteria ($1,754,033/2,606,341 = 67.3\%$
209 sequences mapped). Sample size was 15,325 after equal sampling and normalization.

210

211 3.2 Alpha diversity

212 Dilution curves by time series and by station and substrate type each reached a plateau (Fig.
213 1b). There were no significant differences in the Shannon indices between the monthly samples.
214 The Shannon index for ZQ mud samples was significantly lower than that for ZQ sand samples
215 (TukeyHSD, $p = 0.001$) and significantly lower than that for LC sand samples ($p = 0.036$) (Fig. 2b).
216 There were 432 ASVs with a relative abundance $>0.1\%$ by station and substrate type, with 152-181
217 ASVs in each group. There were 284 ASVs that were unique to each group. There were 1,652 ASVs
218 with abundances $>0.1\%$ when counted by temporal variation, with the least variation between

219 samples collected from 5-7th (December, February and March) and the most variation within
 220 samples collected from 8-10th (April, May and July).



221
 222 Fig. 2 Alpha/Beta diversity and relative abundance at major phylum and class levels. a)
 223 Shannon index (TukeyHSD test) and CCoA of samples by month b) Shannon index (TukeyHSD
 224 test) and PCoA (Bray_Curtis) of samples from different stations and substrates c) Venn network
 225 plots of bacterial ASVs (abundance >0.1%) between stations and substrate types d) Treemap of
 226 relative abundance top200 ASVs e) Comparison of differences in phylum levels (abundance >0.1%)
 227 between stations and between substrates (>0.5%, t.test, p <0.05) f) Relative abundance at major
 228 class levels g) Sankey plots of changes in bacterial ASVs (>0.1%) by season, with transmission
 229 rates of common ASVs in brackets.

230

231 3.3 Beta diversity and relative abundance at major phylum and class levels

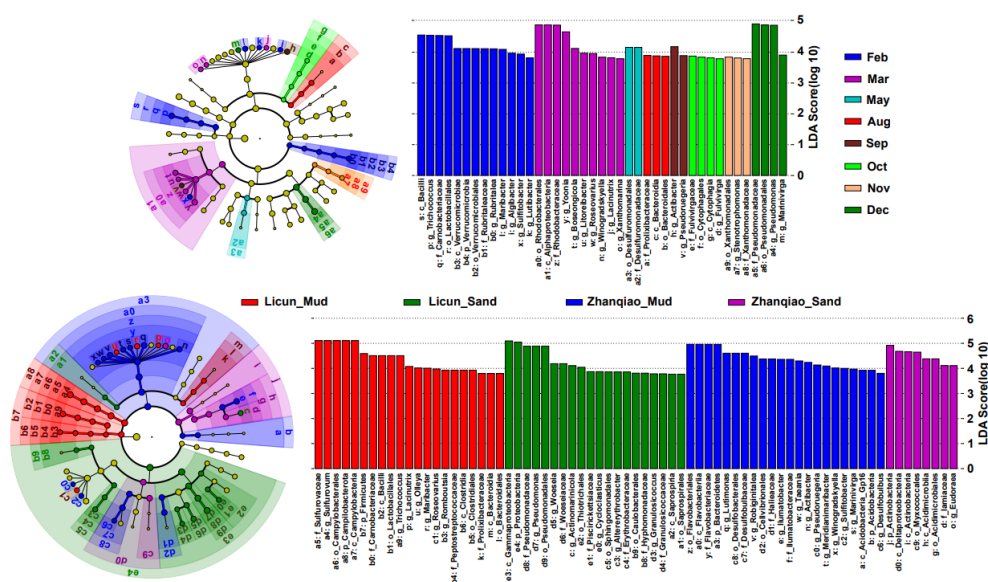
232 CCoA analysis of samples from each month was significant at 19.7% resolution (p <0.05)
 233 and was best separated on CCoA axis 1. PCoA analyses separated samples from different stations
 234 and substrates (p <0.05). Most of the top200 ASVs by relative abundance belonged to
 235 Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes and Actinobacteria. The relative abundance of Campilobacterota and

236 Firmicutes was significantly higher at LC, while Proteobacteria was significantly higher at ZQ.
 237 Bacteroidetes, Campilobacterota, Firmicutes and Chloroflexi were significantly more abundant in
 238 the muddy samples, while Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria were significantly more abundant in
 239 the sandy samples. The composition at the class level varied between stations and substrates,
 240 although Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria, Flavobacteriia were most abundant with the
 241 sum of their relative abundances accounting for about 50% (Fig. 2).

242

243 3.4 Linear Discriminant Analysis Effect Size (LEfSe) analysis

244 In the LEfSe of the monthly samples, Verrucomicrobia was the biomarker for the February
 245 sample, Bacilli and Verrucomicrobiae for February, Alphaproteobacteria for March, Bacteroidia
 246 for August and Cytophagia for October. Among the different stations and substrates, Acidobacteria
 247 and Bacteroidetes were biomarkers for the ZQ mud samples, Actinobacteria for ZQ sand,
 248 Campilobacterota and Firmicutes for LC mud, and Proteobacteria for LC sand (Fig. 3).



249

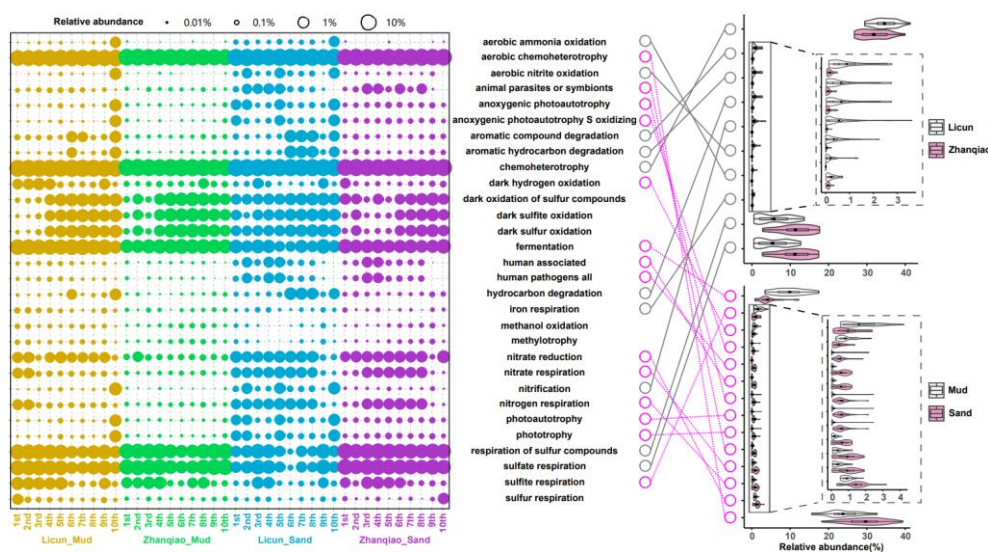
250 Fig. 3 Time series and station/substrate LEfSe analysis. Dot diameters represent relative
 251 abundance (>0.1%, unassigned categories are not included in the analysis), no significant

252 differences are yellow, Kruskal-Wallis tests for significant differences between classes ($p < 0.05$) are
 253 assigned colors, LDA score threshold 2.0.

254

255 3.5 Comparison of gene function

256 Chemoheterotrophy function was high at both stations ($>30\%$ in all), with significantly higher
 257 abundance at LC (34.6%, Welch's t-test, $p = 0.024$). Respiration of sulfur compounds (11.4%) and
 258 sulfate respiration (11.2%) were also significantly higher at ZQ ($p < 0.001$). The relative abundance
 259 of aerobic chemoheterotrophy was different between substrates, with sandy samples being highly
 260 significantly higher (29.7%, $p = 0.0002$). Fermentation abundance was significantly higher in mud
 261 samples (9.9%, $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 4).



262

263 Fig. 4 Relative abundance of elemental cycling functions (abundance $>0.1\%$) and comparison

264 of differences between stations and between substrates (abundance $>0.2\%$, Welch's t-test, $p <$

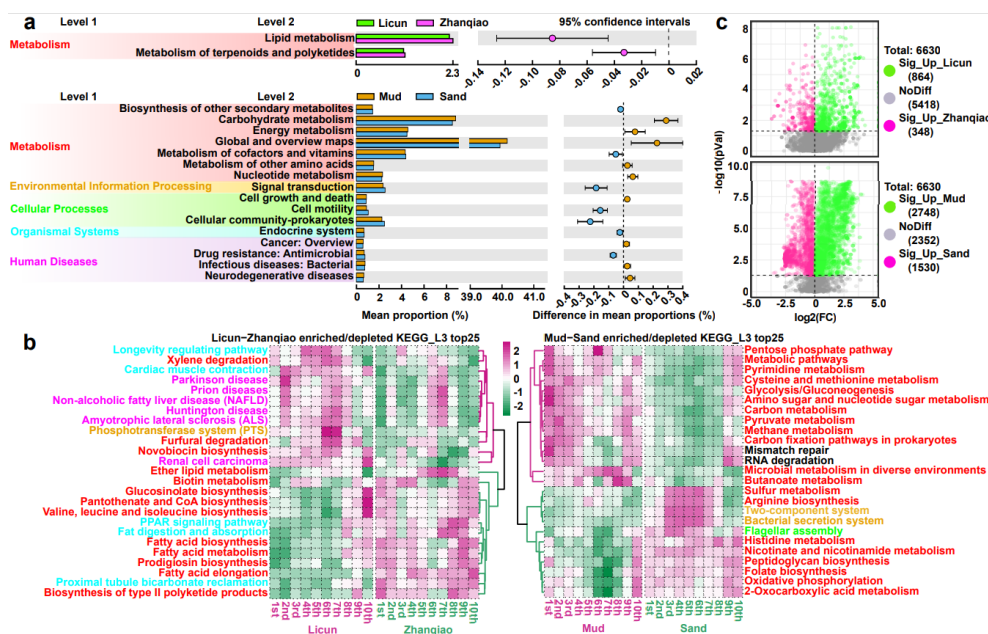
265 0.05).

266

267 Among gene families, the relative abundance of those associated with lipid metabolism,

268 terpenoid metabolism and polyketides was $>0.5\%$ and significantly higher at ZQ than at LC.

269 Between substrates, there were more significantly different KEGG_L2 (Kyoto Encyclopedia of
 270 Genes and Genomes, 16 categories with abundance >0.5%) involving metabolism, environmental
 271 information processing, cellular processes, organismal systems and human diseases. Most
 272 KEGG_L3 (90.2%) were not significantly different between stations, whereas 56.1% were
 273 significantly different between substrates (Fig. S3). KEGG orthologs (KO) was also mostly (81.7%)
 274 not significantly different between stations, although 64.5% were significantly different between
 275 substrates (Fig. 5).



276
 277 Fig. 5 Gene family prediction. a) Comparison of KEGG differences between stations and
 278 substrates (abundance >0.5%, Welch's t.test, adj <0.05) b) Relative abundance of major
 279 enriched/depleted KEGG_L3 between stations and substrates (top25, category names colored as in
 280 Fig. 5a KEGG_L1) c) KO volcano analysis across stations and substrates.

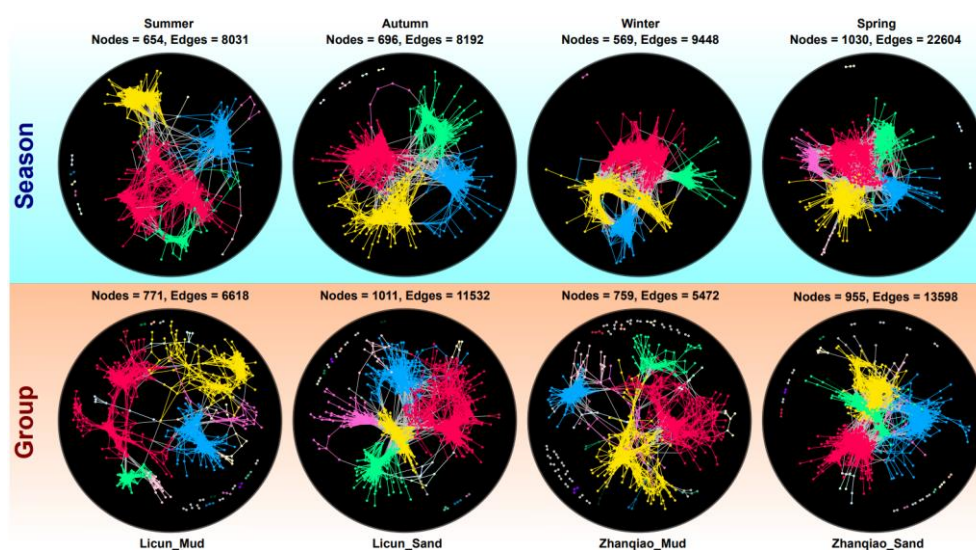
281

282 3.6 Comparison of network modularity

283 The average edge number of nodes with significant correlations in summer, autumn, winter

284 and spring were 12.3, 11.8, 16.6 and 21.9. Within stations, sandy samples have a higher number of

285 nodes and a higher average connectivity degree than muddy samples (LC - muddy 8.6, sandy 11.4,
286 ZQ - muddy 7.2, sandy 14.2) (Fig. 6).



287
288 Fig. 6 Network module analysis. The top row shows the network modules of different seasons;
289 the bottom row shows the network modules of different stations and substrates. The Pearson
290 correlation coefficient ($r > 0.7$ and $p < 0.01$) was calculated between two ASVs with an occurrence
291 rate $> 80\%$. The layout was calculated based on layout_with_fr. In each network diagram, the top 18
292 modules are given a different color.

293

294 3.7 Analysis of environmental factors

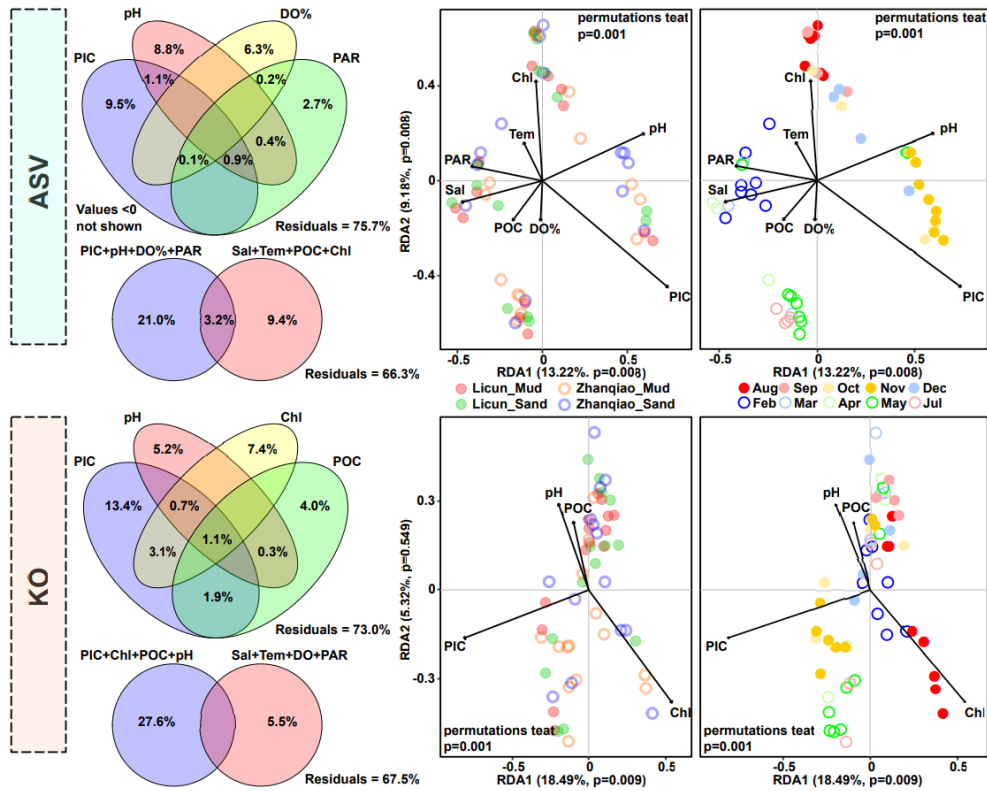
295 PIC + pH + DO% + PAR + Sal + Tem + POC + Chl were forward selected in this order. The
296 total variance explained by PIC/pH/PAR was significant ($p < 0.05$). The most relevant combination
297 of environmental factors was PIC for size 1 (correlation 0.3154). On the RDA1 axis, there was a
298 tendency for samples to be separated by season (Fig. 7).

299 PIC + pH + Chl + POC passed forward selection in order and the total variance explained by
300 PIC/Chl was significant ($p < 0.01$). The most relevant environmental factor combination was Chl +
301 PIC for size 2 (correlation 0.3103), followed by Chl + PIC + POC for size 3 (0.2870) and Chl for

302 size 1 (0.2694). There was less variation between samples compared to the results of the ASV

303 redundancy analysis (Fig. 7).

304



305

306 Fig. 7 Environmental factor analysis. Individual and combined variance decomposition of the

307 best four factors in forward selection, parsimonious model after forward selection showing the first

308 two axes of the RDA (type II scale, double ordinate plot, sample coordinates calculated using species

309 weights). Tem: water temperature DO%: dissolved oxygen air saturation Sal: salinity PAR:

310 photosynthetically active radiation PIC: particulate inorganic carbon POC: particulate organic

311 carbon.

312

313 3.8 Random forest prediction

314 Cross-validation yielded 43 family-level features that were the better combinations, with the

315 Proteobacteria of spongiibacteraceae, porticoccaceae, granulococcaceae, alcaligenaceae,

316 nannocystaceae and methylophilaceae having the highest importance (%IncMSE) (Fig. S5).

317

318 **4 Discussion**

319 4.1 Relationship between intertidal sediment biofilms by station and substrate factors

320 The Shannon index did not differ significantly between stations, but was less variable and
321 significantly higher in sandy samples than in muddy samples (Fig. S1). A comparison of network
322 modularity also showed that the correlations between the ASVs were tighter and that there were
323 more ASVs involved in community assembly in sandy samples than in mud (Fig. 6). Network
324 complexity and connectivity are often positively correlated with environmental heterogeneity and
325 microbial communities in heterogeneous environments are more likely to aggregate and form
326 cooperative networks to share resources and transfer information (Mougi and Kondoh, 2012;
327 Morriën et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2022). It is hypothesized here that differences in current strength and
328 runoff within and outside the bay may have had a stronger effect on permeable sandy sediments,
329 with increased heterogeneity promoting bacterial aggregation to adapt to the environment.

330 Of the highly abundant bacteria in each station/substrate type, ASVs unique to each group
331 accounted for 35.5-52.1% of the groups, indicating variability in the composition of high abundance
332 bacteria in each sample group, even between samples of different substrates sampled in close
333 proximity within stations. Bacterial diversity has been found to differ between fine- and coarse-
334 grained sediments (Lai et al., 2023). Differences in sediment grain structure can also lead to changes
335 in bacterial community structure (van de Kamp et al., 2019). The abundance of nitrification-
336 associated bacteria fluctuates more in intertidal sandy sediments than in mud (Fernandes et al.,
337 2016). Sediment grain size has a significant effect on the community structure of *nirS*-type

338 denitrifying bacteria (Chen et al., 2020). Therefore, sediments of different grain sizes have the
339 ability to shape their own specific bacterial communities.

340 Proteobacteria were the most abundant group in this study, accounting for about 50% (Fig. S2).
341 They were slightly less abundant in LC mud samples (especially in summer, when Campilobacterota
342 appeared in high abundance, increasing from an average of 1.2% to 14.6-34.1%). Proteobacteria are
343 widely distributed, have high metabolic, cooperative and biofilm-forming capacities, and are also
344 adapted to high metal loads (Regnell and Watras, 2019; Zhuang et al., 2019; Hillyer et al., 2023).
345 Proteobacteria have been detected in high abundance in estuarine intertidal sediments (37.5%) (Yi
346 et al., 2020), coral reef sediments (65%) (Alvarez-Yela et al., 2019), mangrove surface sediments
347 (>40%) (Huergo et al., 2018; Fiard et al., 2022), polar surface sediments (44-68%) (Thomas et al.,
348 2020; Chaudhary et al., 2022), and marine sediments exposed to oil transport activities (45-77%)
349 (Oyetibo et al., 2021). Campilobacterota has been observed at higher abundances (>5%) in
350 thermogenic hydrocarbon seep sediments (Li et al., 2023) and is involved in mediating oxidation of
351 sulfur, sulfide or sulphate in intertidal sediments (7.90-22.15%) (Carrier et al., 2020; Fang et al.,
352 2022). The genus *Arcobacter* has been found to increase in abundance in anoxic surface sediments,
353 and in addition, is highly responsive to oxygenation events (Broman et al., 2017; Mori et al., 2021).
354 Therefore, it is likely that hydrocarbon, sulfide and oxygen (low summer oxygen, low mud
355 permeability and low circulation rates within the bay) are responsible for the increased abundance
356 of Campilobacterota in summer mud samples at LC.

357 There are corresponding phylum-level biomarkers in different stations and substrates. All
358 taxonomic levels of Firmicutes and Campilobacterotas were biomarkers in LC mud samples,
359 Firmicutes is one of the major groups in natural biofilms (Guo et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2019) and

360 is abundant in polyethylene microplastic biofilms, and may provide potential hosts for antibiotic
361 resistance genes (Wu et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2020). Firmicutes is also highly abundant in
362 environments under severe stress, such as in deep-sea sediments (9.5%) (Goffredi and Orphan, 2010;
363 Franco et al., 2020), shallow hypoxic zone sediments (Bhattacharya et al., 2021), and anaerobic
364 bioreactors (involved in hydrolysis and fermentation) (Narihiro et al., 2015; Fontana et al., 2016;
365 Luo et al., 2016). The abundance of all taxonomic levels of Acidobacteria increased in ZQ mud
366 samples and most were also increased in ZQ sand samples. Acidobacteria are low-nutrient bacteria
367 (Fierer et al., 2007) that have been found to be adapted to polar environments (Pearce et al., 2013;
368 Gugliandolo et al., 2016) and are key microorganisms (~8%) in mangrove sediments (Huergo et al.,
369 2018; Tavares et al., 2021; Fiard et al., 2022). Actinobacteria is one of the major bacterial groups in
370 estuarine surface sediments and is significantly and positively correlated with denitrification rates
371 (Wei et al., 2015; Li et al., 2022). Uncultured Actinobacteria OPB41 has been shown to be adapted
372 to deep-sea sediment environments, where it can catabolize sugars and be metabolically active
373 (Zinke et al., 2017; Bird et al., 2019). In summary, there were significant differences in the
374 abundance patterns of the more diverse bacterial taxa and functions between the different stations
375 and substrates, shaping their own specific bacterial communities.

376 Chemoheterotrophy function occurred in 77.8% (900 of 1,157 ASVs) and aerobic
377 chemoheterotrophy function occurred in 58.5%. One study has found that the abundance of
378 chemoheterotrophy and aerobic chemoheterotrophy in surface sediments may account for up to
379 half of the total abundance, giving bacteria a strong ability to degrade organic matter and obtain
380 energy from the oxidation of organic compounds (X. Zhang et al., 2018; Hou et al., 2021).
381 Chemoheterotrophy and aerobic chemoheterotrophy account for more than 50% of the bacteria

382 and probably point to a stronger tendency for organic matter degradation in LC or sandy
383 sediments. Sulfur compounds respiration function occurred in 26.4% (306 of 1,157 ASVs) and
384 sulfate respiration function occurred in 24.4% (282 of 1,157 ASVs). Sulfur compounds respiration
385 may be associated with adaptation to hypoxia by promoting respiration using sulfides as electron
386 acceptors (Deng et al., 2019). Sulfate respiration may play a major role in the biodegradation of
387 sulfate-dependent aromatic compounds (Zhuang et al., 2019). Fermentation function occurred in
388 22.0% (255 of 1,157 ASVs). It has been found that microorganisms in intertidal and subtidal
389 sandy sediments often switch between oxic and anoxic states, favouring facultative anaerobic
390 fermenters where fermentation is dominated by anoxic carbon mineralization (which also
391 promotes H₂ production), in contrast to muddy sediments where it is largely unrelated to anaerobic
392 respiration (Precht et al., 2004; Kessler et al., 2013; Saad et al., 2017; Kessler et al., 2019).
393 Fermentation also promotes the cycling of other material, such as in organic matter-rich and
394 sulfate-rich environments, where enhanced fermentation may lead to increased microbial
395 reduction of sulfate (Sun et al., 2020). The abundant biogeochemical cycling functions differ
396 significantly between stations and substrates, with stations mostly differing significantly in
397 chemoheterotrophy, sulphur, nitrogen, iron, aromatics and hydrocarbon metabolism, whereas
398 substrates differ in aerobic chemoheterotrophy, fermentation, dark hydrogen oxidation, animal-
399 related, photosynthesis-related and sulphite metabolism, suggesting that both station and substrate
400 factors are likely to be differentially involved in biogeochemical cycling processes between
401 samples.

402 There were significantly fewer categories of significant differences between stations than
403 between substrates in KEGG_L2, suggesting that differences in gene functions were more due to

404 substrate differences than to differences in location within and outside the bay. Between stations,
405 the enriched/depleted KEGG_L3 top25 involved more organismal systems and human diseases (Fig.
406 5b), with all human disease categories enriched at LC, suggesting that the poor circulation in the
407 bay was not conducive to effective dispersal of land-based sources of domestic sewage, etc. Between
408 the substrates, the top 25 gene functions were mostly related to metabolism. Significant differences
409 in KO PCoA were found between LC substrates and between muddy samples (Fig. S4). ZQ current
410 velocities subjected the sediments to strong scouring, which promoted similar bacterial gene family
411 succession for both muddy and sandy samples. The low current velocities in the bay may have been
412 sufficient to influence bacterial succession in the more permeable sandy sediments, so that there
413 were no gene family differences between stations for the sandy samples. In contrast, the sediment
414 environment had less influence on gene families than on ASVs, possibly indicating that the bacterial
415 community was evolving but the core gene functions adapted to the environment were relatively
416 stable.

417

418 4.2 Temporal changes in intertidal sediment biofilms

419 Temporal changes in bacterial community structure varies between intertidal and supratidal
420 environments in different areas, with some showing no significant changes and others showing
421 significant shifts (Taylor and Kurtz, 2020). Seasonal changes in bacterial communities are
422 sometimes not as large as spatial changes, when seasonal changes are only apparent in individual
423 taxa (Dini-Andreote et al., 2014; Tebbe et al., 2022). In contrast, bacterioplankton in the Chesapeake
424 Bay have a repeating annual pattern, with strong temporal variation in bacterial communities even
425 overwhelming spatial patterns (Wang et al., 2020). In other estuarine and coastal waters, temporal

426 variation also strongly influences changes in bacterial abundance (Lindh et al., 2015; Bunse and
427 Pinhassi, 2017; Thomson et al., 2022). Bacterioplankton in estuarine wetlands have a high diversity
428 index in summer, and DO and pH strongly influence these communities (Li et al., 2020). In another
429 study of mangrove and tidal wetland sediments, bacterial diversity indices were also higher in
430 summer (Zhou et al., 2017). Dry-rainy season variation was the dominant factor influencing these
431 communities, with temporal and spatial patterns more pronounced in water column bacterial
432 communities than in sediments (Kaestli et al., 2017). In another study, intertidal sediment bacteria
433 were significantly separated in PCoA when grouped by wet and dry seasons (Yi et al., 2020). There
434 is also indirect evidence for the influence of temporal variation on bacterial communities: acyl-
435 homoserine lactones (AHLs), which are key bacterial signals within biofilms that are degraded by
436 pH- and temperature-dependent hydrolysis, vary seasonally in concentration, being higher in winter
437 and lower in summer (Roggatz and Parsons, 2022). The intertidal filter-feeding clam (*Ruditapes*
438 *philippinarum*) is closely related to the microorganisms in its environment, and its extrapallial fluids
439 show strong temporal variation in bacterial alpha-diversity between months (Offret et al., 2023).

440 Of the most abundant bacteria, the least variation over time was seen in winter and the greatest
441 variation in spring (Fig. 2g). Samples collected from April to July were also the most distinct from
442 each other in the CPCoA. In the network modularity comparison, winter and spring samples were
443 more closely correlated than summer and autumn ASVs, with the lowest number of nodes in winter
444 (569) and the highest in spring (1,030) (Fig. 6). Based on the projection of samples on environmental
445 factors by month in the RDA, it is clear that spring samples (April to July samples) were most
446 positively influenced by POC, DO%, PIC and Sal (and most negatively influenced by Tem/Chl/PH),
447 summer samples (August and September samples) were positively influenced by Chl/Tem (and

448 negatively influenced by PIC/DO%/POC), autumn samples (October to December samples) were
449 positively influenced by pH/PIC (and negatively influenced by Sal/PAR) and winter samples
450 (February and March samples) were positively influenced by PAR/Sal (and negatively influenced
451 by pH) (Fig. 7). The spring season was affected by a combination of more environmental factors
452 and the abundant bacteria correlated with each environmental factor varied. The network diagram
453 suggests that the most species were involved in community building in spring, so there was a
454 tendency for greater species variation with environmental changes, whereas in winter the bacteria
455 were more closely related, but had the least number of community building species, so the tendency
456 for variation might be minimal.

457 Monthly samples generally had their own biomarkers at the order level: August - Bacteroidales,
458 October - Cytophagales, November - Xanthomonadales, December - Pseudomonadales, February -
459 Verrucomicrobiales and Lactobacillales, March - Rhodobacterales, and May - Desulfuromonadales.
460 It can be seen that the temporal change had a strong influence in shaping the intertidal bacterial
461 community in the temperate Jiaozhou Bay, and there was a tendency for taxonomic abundance at
462 the order level to change from month to month. The pattern of change in abundance of the better
463 combination in the random forest prediction responded better to changes in temporal change ($\rho >$
464 0.7 , $p < 0.001$, $R^2 > 0.6$), reflecting the effect of temporal change on bacterial communities from the
465 other side.

466 The trend of seasonal separation of ASV in the RDA analysis was reduced in the KO analysis.
467 Similar results were also found for CPCoA (Fig. S4). It has previously been reported that when there
468 were seasonal changes in the bacterial community structure in the Monterey Bay upwelling zone,
469 there was a consistent seasonal trend in the gene abundance of key metabolic pathways (Reji et al.,

470 2020). Bacterial communities in surface waters of Kuwait Bay and nearby coastal waters showed
471 significant seasonal separation, while PICRUSt functional predictions showed partial seasonality
472 (Ismail and Almutairi, 2022). Thus, temporal change had a major influence in the Qingdao intertidal
473 bacterial community, but seems to have had less influence in shaping the gene family of the
474 community.

475

476 **5 Conclusion**

477 The analyses presented here show that sandy intertidal sediments have more bacterial species
478 involved in community building than muddy sediments. Greater current strengths over the
479 permeable sandy sediments and high environmental stress increased heterogeneity, which in turn
480 promoted bacterial community aggregation and their ability to adapt to the environment. There was
481 a significant separation between substrate types in the PCo 1 axis and between stations in the PCo
482 2 axis. Different substrate types at the different stations had their own phylum-level biomarkers and
483 bacterial functional enrichment status, with substrate factors having a greater influence. Notably,
484 many gene families associated with human disease were enriched at LC, suggesting that the low
485 circulation rates in the bay were unable to remove contamination from the sources of domestic
486 wastewater. The sediment environment had less influence on KO than on ASV, and it is possible
487 that bacterial species are constantly evolving, but the function of genes adapted to the environment
488 is relatively stable. Temporal changes had a stronger shaping effect on the composition of bacterial
489 species than on gene families. These results will provide the necessary empirical support for
490 ecological conservation in temperate intertidal sediments.

491

492 **Author contributions**

493 **Xuechao Chen, Xinran Zhang, Hao Yu:** Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal
494 analysis, Investigation, Project administration, Visualization, Writing - original draft.

495 **Meiaoxue Han, Jianhua Sun , Gang Liu:** Software, Investigation, Writing - review
496 and editing. **Yan Ji , Chuan Zhai , Liyan Zhu:** Writing - review and editing. **Hongbing**

497 **Shao:** Resources, Supervision. **Min Wang, Andrew McMinn, Yantao Liang:**
498 Conceptualization, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review and
499 editing.

500

501 **Declaration of interests**

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

504

505 **Acknowledgements**

506 We are grateful for the use of the high-performance server at the Center for High Performance
507 Computing and System Simulation, Pilot National Laboratory for Marine Science and Technology
508 (Qingdao, China). We appreciate the computational resources provided by IEMB-1, a high-
509 performance computing cluster operated by the Institute of Evolution and Marine Biodiversity, and
510 the Marine Big Data Center of the Institute for Advanced Ocean Study of Ocean University of China.
511 The data were also analyzed on the free online platform of Majorbio I-Sanger Cloud Platform
512 (www.i-sanger.com) and OECloud tools (<https://cloud.oebiotech.cn>).

513 This work was supported by the Laoshan Laboratory (No. LSKJ202203201), National Key

514 Research and Development Program of China (2022YFC2807500), Natural Science Foundation of
515 China (No. 42120104006, 41976117 and 42176111) and the Fundamental Research Funds for the
516 Central Universities (202172002, 201812002, 202072001 and Andrew McMinn).

517

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