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Diversity metrics of pelagic archaeal and bacterial communities in San Francisco Bay depend on
scale

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Running Title: Pelagic bacteria and archaea of San Francisco Bay

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15 **Originality-Significance Statement**

16 This is the first assessment of the biogeography of pelagic bacteria and archaea in San Francisco
17 Bay using high throughput sequencing. We amplified the V4 and V4-V5 regions of the 16S rRNA
18 gene in 174 samples collected during a two-year monthly time series along a 150-km transect of
19 San Francisco Bay using two different 'universal' primer pairs. We analyze diversity metrics at
20 several taxonomic levels and different physicochemical extents to reveal patterns in richness,
21 nestedness, turnover, and site-specificity and gain further insight into estuarine microbial
22 community structure. At the 97% OTU level, site-specificity and turnover are high while at the
23 phylum level organisms are more broadly distributed and the community is more nested.

24

SUMMARY

This study uses high throughput sequencing (HTS) to examine bacterioplankton and archaeoplankton communities in 174 samples collected along a 150-km transect in San Francisco Bay over a two-year monthly time-series. To better understand microbial biogeography in San Francisco Bay, we analyzed communities using two different sets of 16S rRNA primer sets at several taxonomic levels to reveal patterns in richness, nestedness, and site-specificity. Our analysis reveals that both updated V4 and V4-V5 primers similarly describe diverse estuarine microbial communities. We find that OTUs (97% identity) show high site-specificity, occurring in a small subset of samples either defined by narrow salinity or temporal ranges. At the OTU level, turnover is high along the salinity gradient and distinct brackish communities are observed. At coarser taxonomic levels (e.g. phylum, class) taxa are broadly distributed across salinity zones and communities appear to be a mix of fresh and marine end-member communities. However, differential abundance testing shows that, despite high prevalence across salinity zones, most phyla have preferences for a narrower salinity range. While salinity is the dominant force shaping community structure, seasonal variations in communities are observed within salinity zones. In addition, suspended particulate matter concentrations are linked to patterns in alpha and beta diversity.

INTRODUCTION

San Francisco Bay (SFB) is the largest estuary on the west coast of the continental United States and is surrounded by approximately 7.6 million people (US Census Bureau 2017). SFB consists of two arms, generally referred to as North and South Bay, which have differing freshwater sources and water residence times (Walters *et al.*, 1985; Kimmerer, 2004). North Bay is river-dominated and includes San Pablo bay, Suisun bay, and the Delta region while South Bay is a weakly mixed marine lagoon. Intense urban development along the shores and other human activities such as damming, diking, dredging, historic mining, and pollution have led SFB to be considered one of the most anthropogenically altered estuaries in the United States (Nichols *et al.*, 1986).

Long term monitoring projects from both federal and state agencies have also made SFB one of the most studied estuaries in the world (Kimmerer, 2004) and, consequently, SFB has served as a model for understanding physical, chemical, and biological estuarine dynamics (Cloern, 1996, 2001; Lucas *et al.*, 1998, 2009; Cloern and Jassby, 2012; Raimonet and Cloern, 2017). For over four decades, water quality in SFB has been monitored regularly by the United States Geological Survey (USGS) (Schrage and Cloern, 2017), showing both gradual and abrupt changes in water quality due to human activity (Cloern *et al.*, 2017; Beck *et al.*, 2018; Cloern, 2019) and leading to a thorough characterization of phytoplankton dynamics (Cloern, 1987; Cloern and Dufford, 2005; Cloern and Jassby, 2010; Sutula *et al.*, 2017). In contrast to the in-depth monitoring of phytoplankton in SFB, bacterioplankton and archaeoplankton populations are remarkably understudied in this system. In fact, only three studies to date have examined pelagic microbial

community structure in SFB (Murray *et al.*, 1996; Hollibaugh *et al.*, 2000; Stepanauskas *et al.*, 2003), all of which used molecular approaches with limited phylogenetic resolution (i.e. DGGE, T-RFLP) or sequencing depth. Here, we build considerably on this literature, using deep 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing at a large spatial and temporal scale to understand bacterial and archaeal ecology in the turbid estuarine waters of SFB.

SFB is an excellent model system for understanding microbial community dynamics because it encompasses both spatial (e.g. salinity) and temporal (e.g. temperature) physicochemical gradients (Cloern *et al.*, 2017). Salinity has been identified as a universal driver of prokaryotic community structure (Lozupone and Knight, 2007; Thompson *et al.*, 2017), as well as a key driver of estuarine bacterial community composition in numerous studies (Crump *et al.*, 1999, 1999, 2004, 1999; Fortunato and Crump, 2011; Herlemann *et al.*, 2011; Fortunato *et al.*, 2012; Mason *et al.*, 2016; Doherty *et al.*, 2017). However, studies in estuarine environments have also identified drivers of microbial community structure besides salinity, including temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen, water residence time, organic carbon or nutrient availability (Murrell *et al.*, 1999; Hollibaugh *et al.*, 2000; Crump *et al.*, 2004; Herlemann *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Satinsky *et al.*, 2014). To further assess broader scale patterns in microbial biogeography, we investigate diversity metrics at varying taxonomic grain sizes (Thompson *et al.*, 2017; Ladau and Elloe-Fadrosh, 2019).

While we expect salinity to be the main driver of community structure in SFB, we address the following questions: What other environmental variables influence alpha and beta diversity

metrics throughout the bay and within different salinity zones? Are samples nested along the salinity gradient? How does taxonomic grain size impact diversity metrics? Do most organisms have broad or narrow distributions? How does primer choice impact the characterization of microbial community composition and structure? We sampled 12 stations ranging from fresh riverine inputs to brackish mixing zones to highly marine-influenced regions along a ~150-km transect of the SFB channel. We sequenced bottom water samples collected monthly over two years, capturing microbial communities across several seasonal gradients (e.g. temperature, freshwater flow rate) as well. Amplicon libraries were generated using two updated 16S rRNA primer sets, which amplify variable region 4 (Apprill *et al.*, 2015; Parada *et al.*, 2016) and regions 4 and 5 (Parada *et al.*, 2016), respectively. Both primer sets were designed to remedy known biases against SAR11 and Thaumarchaeota—two of the most abundant microbial taxa on Earth and important organisms in marine and estuarine environments, including San Francisco Bay.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Environmental Data. Water column samples within this dataset correspond to salinities ranging from fresh (minimum 0.07) to euhaline (maximum 32.42) and temperatures from 6.8 to 22.7 °C (Fig.1). Examples of stations typically falling into the Venice salinity zones (Battaglia, 1959) are as follows: station 657 is fresh (<0.5), 649 is oligohaline (.05 to <5), 6 is mesohaline (5 to <18), 13 is polyhaline (18 to <30), and 18 is euhaline (30 to <40) (Fig. 1). Chlorophyll a concentrations were typically low (~3µg/L) with peaks concentrations occurring in late winter/spring and in South Bay (Fig. S1). Ammonium concentrations were highest in riverine samples due to inputs

from the Sacramento Regional WWTP, while nitrate concentrations were highest in Lower South Bay (Fig. S1). Nitrite concentrations occasionally reached high concentrations ($>9 \mu\text{M}$) in South Bay. High nitrite concentrations in this region of the bay have been reported previously (Wankel *et al.*, 2006; Damashek *et al.*, 2016). The wet season generally has lower temperatures, higher suspended particulate matter (SPM) concentrations, higher delta outflow, and lower salinities in each region of SFB when compared to the dry season (Fig S2).

Updated 16S rRNA V4 and V4-V5 primers similarly describe estuarine microbial communities.

For the remainder of this text, 16S rRNA libraries amplified by the 515F-Y (Parada *et al.*, 2016) and 806RB (Apprill *et al.*, 2015) primers will be referred to as the 'V4 dataset' and libraries amplified by 515F-Y and 926R (Parada *et al.*, 2016) will be referred to as the 'V4-V5' dataset, based on which variable regions they amplify. While library sizes vary between sequencing runs and primer pairs, the general description of microbial communities is strikingly similar. Despite some differences in taxonomy between datasets (Table S1), large-scale interpretation of alpha and beta diversity is essentially the same for both primer pairs (Fig. S3). The relative abundance of phyla that occur in both primer sets is strongly correlated (Fig. S3A; $r^2 = 0.99$, $p < 0.001$), as is the richness within phyla (Fig. S3B; $r^2 = 0.99$, $p < 0.001$). There is also a correlation between the relative abundance of top genera (Fig. S3C; $r^2 = 0.74$, $p < 0.0001$). Sample richness is correlated between primer pairs ($r^2 = 0.83$, $p < 0.001$) and mostly strongly correlated to SPM for both primer pairs (Table S2). Procrustes analyses of PCoA ordinations reveal very similar patterns (Fig. S3D; $m^2 = 0.007$, $r^2 = 0.996$) and relationships between PCoA axes and environmental variables are also consistent (Table S2).

129

130 Since updated primers were paired and tested with mock communities lacking both SAR11 and
131 *Thaumarchaeota* (Walters *et al.*, 2016) and the updated V4 primer pair has subsequently been
132 adopted by the Earth Microbiome Project (EMP), we are particularly interested in comparing
133 diversity metrics of these environmentally-relevant groups. In this study, SAR11 and
134 *Thaumarchaeota* are abundant in amplicon libraries constructed with both primer pairs, and
135 display similar distribution patterns (Fig. S4-S5).

136

137 While communities are generally similar in both datasets, there were some minor differences.
138 We note that the V4-V5 dataset contains more phyla but fewer OTUs (Table S1) and there are
139 differences in the relative abundances of certain groups of organisms (Fig. S3A,C). For example,
140 some archaea are more relatively abundant in the V4-V5 dataset (*Thaumarchaeota* and
141 *Bathyarchaeota*) while others are more relatively abundant in the V4 (*Woesarchaeota* and
142 *Euryarchaeota*) (Fig. S6). Despite these differences in relative abundance, beta diversity metrics
143 are very similar for each dataset including the whole community (Fig. S3D) or just archaeal
144 OTUs (Fig. S6). Thus, depending on the target organisms or analyses of interest, one primer pair
145 may be better than the other, but for overall community diversity analysis of estuarine samples
146 both primer pairs work similarly. Most diversity metrics are similar regardless of primer pair
147 (Fig. S3, Table S2) and differences occurring in classification of OTUs could in part be due to
148 differing amplicon lengths.

149

Salinity, SPM, seasonality, and region influence community structure in SFB. We used a variety of analyses to assess beta diversity. We expected salinity to be a key factor in shaping communities, as observed in a wide variety of estuaries (Crump *et al.*, 2004; Hewson and Fuhrman, 2004; Herlemann *et al.*, 2011; Fortunato *et al.*, 2012; Aguirre *et al.*, 2017), and the findings in our study agree with this body of literature. First we used ordination analyses to assess beta diversity based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between communities. The first two axes explain 54.3% of total variation in PCoA plots (Fig. 2). Salinity is strongly correlated to Axis 1 in PCoA plots ($r^2 = 0.94$, $p < 0.001$; Table S2). Based on a “goodness of clusters” gap statistic, PCoA ordination forms 4 clusters that generally correspond with salinity zone [fresh (<0.5), oligohaline (.05 to <5), mesohaline (5 to <18), polyhaline (18 to <30), and euhaline (30 to <40)], with polyhaline and euhaline samples forming less distinct groupings (Fig. S7). Using the *betapart* function, we confirm that turnover is a much larger component than nestedness in community dissimilarity metrics (Table S3). A heatmap based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and hierarchical clustering based on Jaccard dissimilarity both show that samples generally group by salinity zone (Fig. S8). Graph-based testing using Friedman-Rafsky tests on a minimum spanning tree, a distance-threshold graph, and a k-nearest neighbor graph all show that samples within salinity zones contain more pure edges than the null distribution ($p < 0.001$, Fig. S9), indicating samples within a salinity zone are more similar to one another than expected by chance. Taken together, ordination, hierarchical clustering, and graph-based tests all support that salinity zone definitions are ecologically relevant.

Spatial/salinity gradients have overwhelmed seasonal variation in other estuarine communities (Fortunato *et al.*, 2012) so we examined diversity metrics within salinity zones. PCoA ordinations within a given salinity zone reveal stronger seasonal groupings. In fresh, oligohaline, and mesohaline ordination plots, there is a separation between samples from the wet versus the dry season (Fig. S10). Axes correlate strongly with variables that vary seasonally, including temperature and SPM (Table S4).

Inspection of ordinations, networks, and heatmaps shows that polyhaline and euhaline samples may cluster together more than other zones (Figs. 2, S7-S9), but also indicates that South and North Bay samples are more distinct from one another even when samples have similar salinities. This may be unsurprising given the differences in residence times and hydrology in the two arms of the bay (Walters *et al.*, 1985; Kimmerer, 2004), leading them to often be classified as two separate ecosystems. We investigated South Bay and North Bay samples separately. While beta diversity in the North Bay is predominantly influenced by salinity, ordinations of South Bay samples show a strong influence of SPM and temperature on axes 1 and 2, respectively (Fig. 2, Table S4).

SPM concentration influences both alpha diversity measures of richness (Fig. 3) and beta diversity (Fig. 2) of pelagic bacteria and archaea in SFB. Community richness most strongly correlates with SPM concentrations at all taxonomic levels (i.e. phylum through OTU) and does not appear to strongly correspond to salinity (Table S2). Richness of samples within each salinity zone and in either North or South Bay is most strongly correlated to SPM (Fig. S10, Table S4).

SPM varies over space and time, which can make other spatial and temporal patterns in richness difficult to observe (Fig. 3). In PCoA ordinations of all SFB samples, axis 2 most strongly correlates to SPM (Fig. 2, Table S2). NODF-based nestedness analyses support that less-rich/low-SPM communities are a nested subset of richer, high-SPM associated communities at the phylum through genus level but not the OTU level (Fig. 4). Thus, at the finest taxonomic scale (OTU 97%), less-rich/low-SPM communities do not appear to be a nested subset of more-rich/high-SPM communities (Fig. 4). Our findings that communities are nested at coarser taxonomic levels is in agreement with a previous study that found free-living and particle-associated communities were very similar using DGGE (Hollibaugh *et al.*, 2000), a technique that may have identified organisms at a coarser taxonomic scale than the 97% identity OTU level.

SPM could be important for microbial community composition because it provides nutrients for organisms and/or has a long residence time that allows unique, particle-associated communities to form on and around particles (Hollibaugh *et al.*, 2000). Indeed, phytoplankton dynamics and bacterioplankton activity have been linked to SPM dynamics in SFB (Cloern, 1987; Hollibaugh and Wong, 1999; Murrell *et al.*, 1999; Hollibaugh *et al.*, 2000, 200). Microbes associated with resuspended sediments could also explain the potential distinction between low- and high-SPM associated communities. This idea is supported by the negative correlation between richness and the ratio of active chlorophyll *a* to degraded phaeopigments (Table S2). A low ratio of active chlorophyll *a* to phaeopigments indicates strong resuspension of bottom sediments, which are rich in degraded algal material. Our study does not differentiate between

‘free-living’ and ‘particle-associated’ organisms using the same size fractions as in Hollibaugh *et al.* (2000) and includes all organisms small enough to pass through a 10 μm filter but captured by a 0.22 μm filter. While our findings indicate that particle-associated communities could be more diverse and distinct from free-living communities, further studies are necessary to directly address differences between various size fractions of particle-associated versus free-living communities at the OTU level as well as tease apart the relationships between microbial community composition and SPM quantity, quality, and source.

Salinity tolerance varies at different taxonomic grain sizes. To further understand how communities change along the salinity gradient, we looked more deeply at community diversity nestedness and taxa entropy. We used the NODF statistic to calculate if less rich communities were a subset of richer communities. We find that communities are highly nested at coarser taxonomic levels (e.g. phylum, class) and become gradually less nested at finer taxonomic levels, before becoming substantially less nested at the OTU level (Fig. 4). All NODF statistics are significantly greater than the null model values except at the OTU level, indicating that at most taxonomic scales less diverse communities are to some extent a nested subset of more diverse communities (Fig. 4). The lack of significance and low NODF values indicate that OTUs are not nested.

We also calculated entropy using the Shannon index as a measure of site-specificity (i.e. how many different samples a given taxa occurs in) of a given taxa. Entropy of taxa decreases from coarse to finer taxonomic scales (Fig. 4), indicating that the site-specificity of taxa increases at

finer scales such as at the OTU level. Higher entropy values at the phylum level indicate less site-specificity, while lower entropy values at the OTU level indicate greater site-specificity. This can also be observed visually in relative abundance bar plots, with most abundant phyla occurring across a broad range of samples while abundant genera or OTUs occur in a smaller subset of samples (Fig. 5, Fig. S11-S16).

Nestedness and taxa entropy are both greater at coarse taxonomic levels and gradually decrease from the phylum to genus level, then decrease substantially at the OTU level (Fig. 4). These findings support that at the phylum level, organisms have broader salinity tolerance but organisms at the 97% identity level are adapted to a specific salinity range and turnover is high along the salinity gradient, potentially with closely related organisms replacing their more or less salt-tolerant relatives along the gradient. Bar plots reveal clear patterns in each salinity zone, with a gradual distinction between freshwater and saline sites at the class and order level, followed by more specific mesohaline communities emerging at the genus and OTU level (Figs. S11-16). Because richness is not correlated strongly with salinity at any taxonomic level, communities are not necessarily nested along the salinity gradient. Rather, the low nestedness of OTUs and partitioning of beta diversity metrics indicate that turnover dominates along the salinity gradient (Fig. 2, Fig. 4, Table S3). The high nestedness of samples at the phylum level and low nestedness at the OTU level agrees with recent findings from the EMP dataset (Thompson *et al.*, 2017) and support similar findings in the brackish Baltic Sea (Herlemann *et al.*, 2011). Interestingly, differential abundance testing shows most phyla (33/46) vary significantly in abundance across salinity zones (Fig. 4, S17). At all taxonomic levels, many taxa

(between 40 and 75%) show significant variation in abundance between the five salinity zones (Fig. 4). OTUs show the greatest magnitude of abundance change (Fig. 4). Thus, while phyla have broader distributions along the salinity gradient in terms of presence/absence there are significant variations in abundance between salinity zones, supporting that even at the phylum level there are ecologically meaningful adaptations based on salinity.

Abundant microbial taxa in SFB

The top 10 phyla in the V4 and V4-V5 datasets are *Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Actinobacteria*, *Verrucomicrobia*, *Cyanobacteria*, *Thaumarchaeota*, *Planctomycetes*, *Euryarchaeota*, *Marinimicrobia*, and *Acidobacteria* (Fig. S11). OTUs in these 10 phyla account for over 90% of reads in each sample (Fig. S11). These abundant phyla have broad distributions across samples, though differential abundance testing shows that only *Bacteroidetes*, *Thaumarchaeota*, and *Cyanobacteria* do not have significant changes in abundance between salinity zones (Figs. S17). Of these abundant phyla, *Actinobacteria*, *Verrucomicrobia*, and *Acidobacteria* are more abundant near fresh end-member sites while *Marinimicrobia*, *Euryarchaeota*, *Planctomycetes*, and *Proteobacteria* are more abundant closer to marine end-member sites.

Proteobacteria is the most abundant and richest phylum in the SFB dataset (Fig. S2). Common patterns observed in estuaries such as decreasing *Betaproteobacteria* and increasing *Alpha-* and *Gammaproteobacteria* with increasing salinity (Murray *et al.*, 1996; Crump *et al.*, 1999, 1999; Bouvier and Giorgio, 2002; Zhang *et al.*, 2006; Kan *et al.*, 2008; Herlemann *et al.*, 2011)

were also observed in our study (Fig. S11). At the order level, *Oceanospiralles* and *Rhodobacterales* are more abundant in marine-influenced samples and *Burkholderales* dominates in freshwater end-member stations (S13). In general, OTUs have lower entropy (higher site-specificity) and abundant OTUs have narrower salinity ranges than observed at coarser taxonomic levels within the *Proteobacteria* (e.g. class, order, family) (Fig. S11). Richness of *Proteobacteria* OTUs is most strongly correlated with SPM concentrations ($r^2 = 0.42$) and ordinations highlight the prominent role of salinity in shaping the *Proteobacteria* community (Fig. S11).

Unlike other orders of *Proteobacteria*, SAR11 clade bacteria (*Alphaproteobacteria*) are abundant along the entire salinity gradient. SAR11 are the most abundant organisms at the order level (generally ~10-30% of reads in a sample), constitute one of the most abundant genera (*Pelagibacter*), and correspond to many of the top OTUs in our dataset (Figs. 5, S5, S11). SAR11 are highly structured along the salinity gradient in SFB, a pattern observed in other estuaries (Kan *et al.*, 2008; Campbell and Kirchman, 2013; Herlemann *et al.*, 2014). The abundance of SAR11 in our dataset bolsters previous findings in SFB indicating that SAR11 clade bacteria are ubiquitous (Murray *et al.*, 1996) and LD12 organisms are abundant in fresh sites (Stepanauskas *et al.*, 2003). The distribution of 'LD12 clade' organisms in our study aligns with findings from recent cultured isolates (Henson *et al.*, 2018), with peak LD12 abundances occurring in primarily fresh and oligohaline sites (salinity < 5; Fig. S11). LD12 are proposed to be specialized to freshwater environments through the loss of key compatible solute genes (Henson *et al.*, 2018), highlighting one way this group may have differentiated itself from its

relatives and adapted to a specific niche. A family identified as the 'Chesapeake Delaware Bay clade' [SAR11 IIIa (Kan *et al.*, 2008)] is most abundant at mesohaline and oligohaline sites, while 'Surface 1' [SAR11 Ia (Vergin *et al.*, 2013)] OTUs dominate at poly- and euhaline sites. This partitioning of groups along the salinity gradient can also be observed from the family to the OTU level (Figs. 5 & S5). Seasonal variations in SAR11 communities are also observed in ordination plots (Figs. S5).

Bacteroidetes, and particularly *Flavobacteriia*, which are important for the breakdown of organic matter in estuaries and coasts (Williams *et al.*, 2013; Smith *et al.*, 2017, 201), are also abundant in SFB waters (Fig. S11). *Bacteroidetes* is the second most abundant and second richest phylum in the dataset (Fig. S3), in agreement with previous findings that marine *Flavobacteria* have high global and local diversity (Alonso *et al.*, 2007). *Flavobacteriales* is one of the most abundant orders in the dataset. The NS5 marine clade genus of *Flavobacteriaceae* is among the top genera (Figs. S3 & S11). In fresh end-member stations the families *Chitinophagaceae*, *Cytophagaceae*, and 'NS11-12 marine group' (Alonso *et al.*, 2007) dominate (Fig. S14). Brackish stations are dominated by the family *Cryomorphaceae* while marine end-member stations are dominated by *Flavobacteraceae*. *Bacteroidetes* OTUs are more site-specific and have narrower salinity tolerance than at coarser taxonomic levels and richness is most strongly correlated to SPM concentrations (Fig. S14, $r^2 = 0.49$).

Actinobacteria is the third most abundant phylum in SFB. *Candidatus Actinomarina* and 'hgcl clade' (Glöckner *et al.*, 2000) are among the top genera (Figs. S3 & S11), with diverse 'hgcl

clade' organisms dominating freshwater end member stations and *Ca. Actinomarina*-like OTUs dominating in more saline samples (Fig. S12 & S15). Other estuarine studies have found high diversity and specialization of *Actinobacteria* with differing environmental gradients (Kirchman *et al.*, 2005; Holmfeldt *et al.*, 2009; Campbell and Kirchman, 2013), which we observe as well. *Actinobacteria* richness is most strongly correlated with salinity and ordination plots show strong separation of communities based on wet versus dry season (Fig. S15). While there appears to be more OTU-level diversity in the freshwater stations, only one *Ca. Actinomarina*-like OTU (OTU 0) dominates the most marine-influenced station (18). Poly/Euhaline stations 13 and 27 are dominated by OTUs 0 and 8, indicating microdiversity may exist below the 97% OTU definition (Fig S12 & S16). Metagenomes of *Ca. Actinomarina* organisms suggest they are very small, free-living photoheterotrophic organisms co-occurring with *Synechococcus* in marine photic zones and containing streamlined and low-GC genomes with novel rhodopsins (Ghai *et al.*, 2013; Mizuno *et al.*, 2015). *Ca. Actinomarina*-like OTU 8 can reach over 10% relative abundance in late summer in South Bay station 27 and shows smaller but noticeable peaks in station 13 as well (Fig. S12 & S16). Both fresh and marine planktonic *Actinobacteria* have been described as photoheterotrophs, and some are capable of degradation of recalcitrant organic matter (Ghai *et al.*, 2014), highlighting their potential functional role in SFB.

Cyanobacteria are generally low abundance in non-summer months in SFB and are dominated by *Synechococcus*-like organisms (Fig. 5). Ordination plot shows strong seasonal variation in *Cyanobacteria* communities (Fig. S18). While salinity most strongly impacts community structure for most taxa, we do observe seasonal variation within groups such as *Cyanobacteria*,

Actinobacteria, and SAR11. Stronger temporal variations within specific taxonomic groups as compared to the whole community have been observed in other estuaries (Fortunato *et al.*, 2013, 2; Li *et al.*, 2017).

Bacteria are relatively more abundant than archaea, which make up only ~2% of the overall reads in our dataset. In freshwater sites, archaea generally have a low relative abundance (0.02 – 0.2%) and are predominantly *Woesearchaeota* and *Thaumarchaeota* (Fig. S6). However, in poly- and euhaline sites *Thaumarchaeota* and *Euryarchaeota* can become abundant, comprising over 20% and roughly 6% of reads, respectively (Fig. S6).

Thaumarchaeota genera and OTUs are distinct at the fresh and marine end-member sites, with organisms generally considered fresh (*Nitrosoarchaeum*-like) (Blainey *et al.*, 2011; Mosier *et al.*, 2012) populating station 657 and marine (*Nitrosopelagicus*) (Santoro *et al.*, 2015) populating station 18 (Fig. 5). The apparent ‘bloom’ of *Thaumarchaeota* in South Bay, with putative *Nitrospumilus*-like sequences comprising as much as 25% of the total reads, has not been previously described for this system. Blooms of *Thaumarchaeota* have been reported in other estuaries in summer (Hollibaugh *et al.*, 2014; Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017), but also in coastal areas in fall (Hu *et al.*, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2019) or winter (Wuchter *et al.*, 2006; Pitcher *et al.*, 2011). Interestingly, this bloom is associated with nitrite accumulation (Fig. 5, $r^2 = 0.79$), a phenomenon observed in other coastal and estuarine sites (Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017; Kim *et al.*, 2019). Warmer temperatures between 20°C and 30°C have been proposed to explain the decoupling of ammonia and nitrite oxidation in other systems; however, this SFB bloom occurs

in fall when temperatures are generally at or below 20°C and decreasing (Fig. 1). This apparent decoupling of ammonia and nitrite oxidation in South San Francisco Bay is intriguing and in need of further investigation. The high abundance of these *Thaumarchaeota* could also have implications for nitrogen cycling; indeed, nitrification rate measurements for this area of the bay are limited but could potentially be high (Damashek *et al.*, 2016).

Brackish communities are distinct at the OTU (97% similarity) level. While at the class and family level microbial communities appear to be a mix of freshwater and marine end-members (Figs. S11), at the OTU level communities display distinct fresh, brackish, and marine communities along the salinity gradient (Fig. S11-S16). Classes such as *Sphingobacteriia*, *Cytophagia*, *Actinobacteria*, and *Betaproteobacteria* are abundant at fresh end-member sites but decrease along the salinity gradient, as classes such as *Alphaproteobacteria*, *Gammaproteobacteria*, *Flavobacteriia*, and *Acidimicrobiia* become more abundant towards marine end-member sites (Fig. S11). At fresh and oligohaline sites, families such as *Comamonadaceae*, *Chitinophagaceae*, *Sporichthyaceae*, and ‘LD freshwater clade’ (SAR11) are abundant, while at polyhaline and euhaline sites *Rhodobacteraceae* and OM1 (*Actinobacteria*) are abundant (Fig. S11). At mesohaline sites, families such as ‘Chesapeake Delaware Bay clade’ [SAR11 IIIa (Kan *et al.*, 2008)] dominate. More distinct brackish communities start to emerge at the genus and OTU levels (Fig. S11). Some of the OTUs with highest abundance in brackish sites belong to taxa such as the SAR11 ‘Chesapeake Delaware Bay clade’ (OTU 2), *Oceanospirillaceae* (OTU 13), *Hydrogenophilaceae* (OTU 55), *Ca. Actinomarina* (OTU 8), *Owenweeksia* (OTU 25), AEGEAN-169 clade of the *Rhodospirillaceae* family (OTU 14), and the NS5 marine group of the

Flavobacteriaceae family (OTU 13) (Figs. S12, S17). The uncultivated groups NS5 and AEGEAN-169 have been associated with phytoplankton blooms or the breakdown of dissolved organic matter (Gómez-Pereira *et al.*, 2010; Yang *et al.*, 2015; Bennke *et al.*, 2016; Seo *et al.*, 2017; Ngugi and Stingl, 2018).

Regardless of variations in season, estuary type (North Bay is river-dominated versus South Bay, which is more of a marine lagoon), or taxonomic group (e.g. *Proteobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, SAR11), a distinct brackish community emerges at the OTU level. Previous studies have posited that distinct brackish microbial communities arise in systems where bacterial doubling rates are faster than water residence times (Crump *et al.*, 2004; Herlemann *et al.*, 2011). Given the variety of seasons and systems sampled, the findings of our study suggest that defined brackish communities may also arise over shorter time scales and survive in waters with a variety of water residence times. A recent, high-resolution daily time series found that coastal microbial communities are constantly and quickly changing, with rapid transitions between distinct but transient communities as coastal conditions change (Martin-Platero *et al.*, 2018). The apparently robust and defined estuarine communities along the salinity gradient observed in our dataset suggest that communities have adapted to a specific salinity regime and may be capable of quickly transitioning with changing salinity gradient structures. Our study strongly supports previous findings that distinct brackish bacterial communities exist and that closely related organisms specialize/adapt to distinct salinity regimes (Herlemann *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2015; Mehrshad *et al.*, 2016). Despite the unprecedented spatiotemporal sampling (and sequencing) of SFB pelagic communities in this study, more fine-scale temporal sampling is

necessary to confirm how rapidly communities shift with changing salinity gradient structure and to tease apart if communities are ephemeral (quickly turning over) or if residence times are generally long enough to allow for distinct estuarine communities to develop regularly in SFB.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Sampling and DNA extraction. Bacterioplankton and archaeoplankton biomass was collected for DNA extraction approximately monthly between April 2012 and March 2014 during USGS Water quality monitoring cruises (<https://sfbay.wr.usgs.gov/access/wqdata/index.html>) in the channel of the San Francisco Bay estuary. Microbial cells were collected from bottom waters (1m above estuary floor) by pressure-filtering 150-1000mL of water from CTD casts through a 10- μ m pore size polycarbonate Isopore membrane filter (47-mm diameter; EMD Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) in line with a 0.22 μ m polyethersulfone Supor-200 membrane filter (47-mm diameter; Pall, Port Washington, NY), followed by flash freezing on liquid nitrogen prior to storage at -80°C. Only 0.22 μ m filters were frozen at -80°C and saved for extraction. DNA was extracted with the FastDNA SPIN Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA), following the manufacturer's instructions, with the following modifications: bead tubes were homogenized for 40 seconds at speed 6.0 in a FastPrep bead beater, and final DNA was eluted into 75 μ L 55°C sterile DNase-free water. DNA was quantified using the Qubit dsDNA Broad Range assay (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY). DNA was stored at -80°C.

Environmental Data. Corresponding water quality data from sampling cruises was downloaded from the USGS San Francisco Bay Water Quality and California Day Flow websites, available at

the following links: (<https://sfbay.wr.usgs.gov/access/wqdata/query/index.html> and <http://www.water.ca.gov/dayflow/>). Additional ammonium, nitrate, and nitrite measurements were made using filtered (0.2 µm pore size) water that was frozen on dry ice prior to storage at -20°C. Ammonium was measured using the salicylate-hypochlorite method (Bower and Holm-Hansen, 1980). Nitrate and nitrite were measured using a SmartChem200 Discrete Analyzer (Unity Scientific, Brookfield, CT) following standard procedures. Nutrients were measured within one week of sample collection.

Sequencing. Through a DOE Joint Genome Institute (JGI) Community Science Program (CSP) project, we have assembled 348 16S rRNA Illumina amplicon libraries from bottom water samples (collected 1m above the estuary floor) on 20 approximately monthly cruises at 12 USGS monitoring stations spanning a 150 km transect (Fig. 1). In total, 174 samples were sequenced with both new 16S V4 primers (Apprill *et al.*, 2015; Walters *et al.*, 2016) (515F-Y GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA and 806RB GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT) and 16S V4-V5 primers (Parada *et al.*, 2016) (515F-Y and 926R CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT) and were included in the following analyses. Samples were pooled and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq. Sequences are available on NCBI SRA under the BioProject PRJNA577706.

Data Processing. Raw reads were processed by JGI using the iTagger v2.2 method (https://bitbucket.org/berkeleylab/jgi_itagger), which uses Usearch (Edgar, 2010), MAFFT (Katoh *et al.*, 2002) and QIIME (Caporaso *et al.*, 2010). Reads were clustered at decreasing levels of identity until the 97% cutoff to create OTUs. Low abundance sequences were not used

to cluster and were later mapped back to cluster centroids. Cluster centroid sequences were evaluated with the reference database SILVA 128.

In general, amplicon library processing followed established protocols for filtering low abundance reads, transforming read counts, and normalizing library sizes (McMurdie and Holmes, 2014; Callahan *et al.*, 2016). To prevent high-variance-low-abundance OTUs from strongly influencing downstream analyses, OTUs with less than 16 reads occurring in less than 3 samples were removed from libraries. Libraries were normalized in two ways depending on the analysis, either through transforming counts to relative abundances or using the DESeq2 method, which uses a variance stabilizing transformation to adjust counts based on variation in library size, and transformed using a geometric mean to account for large variation in OTU counts (McMurdie and Holmes, 2014). Similar results were yielded with rarefied data (data not shown). All analyses were conducted with R using primarily *phyloseq* (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013, 2014; Callahan *et al.*, 2016) and *vegan* (Oksanen *et al.*, 2018). Richness was calculated for unfiltered amplicon libraries and libraries with OTUs filtered at a cutoff of greater than 15 reads in greater than 2 samples, yielding similar results [data not shown]. Beta diversity metrics using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity were calculated for VST or relative abundance transformed libraries.

Environmental data was centered and scaled prior to correlation testing (*scale*, *cor.test*, and *ggpairs* functions). The natural log was used to transform variables where values ranged several orders of magnitude (e.g. suspended particulate matter, chlorophyll). Samples were assigned into salinity zones defined as fresh, oligohaline, mesohaline, polyhaline, and euhaline (Venice

system, (Battaglia, 1959)). The wet season was defined as December through May and the dry season as June through November.

Community Diversity Analysis. Alpha and beta diversity measures were performed using *phyloseq* and *vegan*. Heatmaps were made using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and the *pheatmap* function. Friedman-Rafsky tests were used to test for graph-based sample segregation between samples factored by salinity regime (fresh, oligohaline, mesohaline, polyhaline, or euhaline) and based on Jaccard distance and Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between samples. Pure edges were defined for samples within the same level (fresh, oligohaline, mesohaline, etc.). Edges were defined using skeleton graphs including a minimum spanning tree (MST), distance threshold (max jaccard distance = 0.4), and k-nearest neighbors (k=1.) Graphs were made using *igraph*, *ggnetwork* and *phyloseqGraph* Test libraries. Differential abundance was analyzed through DESeq2 using VST libraries. Principal coordinates analyses (PCoAs) use Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and the V4 dataset unless otherwise noted. The *clusGap* function was used to calculate the gap statistic for “goodness of clusters”. Analysis of variance of ordinations was calculated using the *adonis* function. Procrustes tests were used to compare ordinations quantitatively using the *protest* function [*vegan*], which rotates and stretches ordinations until the distance between corresponding points is minimized. M^2 represents one minus the squared correlation coefficient (R) between the coordinates of corresponding points between the two ordinations being tested. Differential abundance was analyzed through DESeq2 using VST libraries. Nestedness versus turnover components of beta diversity analyses were calculated using the *betapart* function and Bray-Curtis dissimilarity.

500
501 Nestedness of samples was calculated using the NODF statistic (Nestedness metric based on
502 Overlap and Decreasing Fill), which describes combined column and row nestedness based on
503 decreasing fill and paired overlap of presence data in a matrix (Almeida-Neto *et al.*, 2008). To
504 calculate NODF, count tables were converted to a presence absence matrix and ordered by
505 decreasing row sums, then decreasing column sums (decreasing prevalence and decreasing
506 richness, respectively). The *oecosimu* function [*vegan*] was used to calculate the NODF statistic,
507 which approximates the average percent of taxa from less diverse samples that occur in more
508 diverse samples. The null model used was the “c0” model, which holds constant the column
509 sums (sample richness) but allows row sums to vary (phyla prevalence) from the original data.
510 Significance testing was based on default for *oecosimu* package and set to test if data values
511 were greater than the null model. Entropy was calculated using the *diversity* function [*vegan*]
512 and defined as the Shannon index of specific taxa (instead of by sample). Entropy, nestedness,
513 and ordinations analyses were conducted using the full dataset and also using a random
514 subsampling of samples evenly distributed across the five salinity zones (fresh, oligohaline,
515 mesohaline, polyhaline, and euhaline), yielding similar results.

516

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527

528 **Conflict of Interest**

529 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figures Captions

Fig. 1 Map of San Francisco Bay and USGS water quality stations sampled in this study (A) and tile plots of environmental variables, including salinity (B), temperature in °C (C), and suspended particulate matter (SPM) in mg/L (D). For (B-D) the x-axis corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014 and y-axis to USGS station sampled going from Lower South Bay (36) to the Sacramento River (657).

Fig. 2 Beta diversity of the V4 dataset shown through PCoA plots based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity for the V4 dataset. Whole bay ordinations include all 174 samples (A, B). North Bay ordinations only include samples from Stations 657 to 18 (C, D). And South Bay ordinations include samples from stations 24 through 36 (E, F). Point color is based on the environmental variable with the highest correlation (r value) with axis 1 (A, C, E) or axis 2 (B, D, F), respectively.

Fig. 3 Richness (# of OTUs) of microbial communities shown for all samples (A) with the x-axis corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014 and the y-axis corresponding to station number going from Lower South Bay (36) to the Sacramento River (657). (B) shows the correlation of richness and SPM ($r^2 = 0.55$).

Fig. 4 Diversity metrics at different taxonomic levels. (A) The NODF statistic was used to measure nestedness of each sample and compared to a null model with constant column sums (sample richness) but changing rows (taxa prevalence). * indicate a value is greater than null NODF with a $p < 0.05$. (B) Entropy calculated as the Shannon index of taxa. Violin plots are scaled to have the same width and horizontal lines indicate the 50th quartile based on point distribution. (C) DESeq2 was used to calculate log2-fold change in taxa abundance across salinity zones. Only taxa with significant variation ($p < .001$) across salinity zones are included in plots.

Fig. 5 The % relative abundance of SAR11 families (A) and Cyanobacteria genera (B) at 6 stations representative for the five salinity zones and South Bay. High Thaumarchaeota abundance (C) corresponds with high nitrite concentrations in South Bay (D) ($r^2 = 0.79$). The y-axis shows the relative abundance of taxa in the whole community (A-C). The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014 and station is indicated at the top of the panel.

Figure 1

A

B

C

D

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A SAR11

B Cyanobacteria

C Thaumarchaeota

D Nitrite

Supplemental Information

Diversity metrics of pelagic archaeal and bacterial communities in San Francisco Bay
depend on scale

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Running Title: Pelagic bacteria and archaea of San Francisco Bay

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Fig. S3 Comparison of taxonomic and beta diversity between 16S rRNA V4 and V4-V5 primer sets. (A) Comparison between primer sets of relative abundances of phyla. Empty circles indicate phyla found in only one dataset. (B) Of the top 100 genera, the relative abundance of shared genera is shown (excludes “unknown” genera). Point color indicates class. (C) Comparison of richness within each phylum for both primer sets. (D) A procrustes plot of the first 2 axes of PCoA ordinations for both primer sets based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. Points indicate sample coordinates for V4 ordination and blue arrows indicate minimized distance to the corresponding V4-V5 ordination coordinates. In A-C the 1:1 line is indicated by the dashed black line.

Fig. S4 V4 relative abundance of Thaumarchaeota (A) and beta diversity shown by PCoA based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (B) and V4-V5 relative abundance of Thaumarchaeota (C) and beta diversity shown by PCoA based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (D). For (A) and (C), panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance. Note difference in scale on y-axis between each panel. In (B) and (D), point color corresponds to environmental variable with strongest correlation to axis 1.

Fig. S5 V4 relative abundance of SAR11 (A) and beta diversity shown by PCoA based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (B) and V4-V5 relative abundance (C) and beta diversity shown by PCoA based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (D). For (A) and (C), panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance. In (B) and (D), point color corresponds to environmental variable with strongest correlation to axis 1 and point shape highlights separation of wet versus dry season samples.

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A. Minimum Spanning Tree

B. Graph knn = 1

C. Graph maximum distance (bray = 0.25)

Fig. S9 Graph based on (A) a minimum spanning tree, which connects all samples and minimizes edge lengths based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. (B) Graph based on distance-based threshold, making connections between samples with a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity less than 0.25. Solid lines indicate pure edges (samples are in the same salinity zone) and dashed lines indicate mixed edges (connection is between samples of neighboring salinity zone). (C) Graph based on a knn =1, makes connections between nearest neighbor. Solid lines indicate pure edges (samples are in the same salinity zone) and dashed lines indicate mixed edges (connection is between samples of neighboring salinity zone).

Fig. S10 (A-E) PCoA ordinations based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity for each salinity zone. Points are colored by strongest environmental correlate with axis 1. Point shape in corresponds to season in (A-C) and bay in (D-E). (F) Shows correlation between SPM concentration and richness within each salinity zone.

Fig. S11 Relative abundance of the most abundant 10 phyla (A), 12 classes (B), 15 orders (C), 18 families (D), and top 24 genera (E). Panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance.

Fig. S12 Relative abundance of the 40 most abundant OTUs in SFB. Panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance.

Fig. S13 Proteobacteria diversity metrics. Relative abundance of (A) 10 most abundant Proteobacteria orders. Panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance. (B) PCoA ordination based on bray-curtis dissimilarity shows beta diversity is heavily influenced by salinity. (C) Entropy of taxa decreases at finer taxonomic levels, indicating high site-specificity of OTUs.

Fig. S14 Bacteroidetes diversity metrics. Relative abundance of (A) 10 most abundant Bacteroidetes families. Panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance. (B) PCoA ordination based on bray-curtis dissimilarity shows beta diversity is heavily influenced by salinity. (C) Entropy of taxa decreases at finer taxonomic levels, indicating high site-specificity of OTUs.

Fig. S15 Actinobacteria diversity metrics Relative abundance of (A) 10 most abundant Bacteroidetes families. Panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance. (B) PCoA ordination based on bray-curtis dissimilarity shows beta diversity is heavily influenced by salinity and season (wet versus dry). (C) Entropy of taxa decreases at finer taxonomic levels, indicating high site-specificity of OTUs.

Fig. S16 OTUs in poly and euhaline sites. Panels correspond to 3 generally poly- and euhaline stations, 13 in North Bay, 18 at the mouth of the Golden Gate Bridge, and 27 in South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance of OTUs.

Fig. S17 Differential abundance plots show the log₂ fold change of a taxa across salinity zones. Size of points is based on the mean abundance of the taxa.

Fig. S18 Cyanobacteria diversity metrics. Relative abundance of (A) the two most abundant genera (*Synechococcus* and an Unknown *Sericytochromatia*) and (B) PCoA ordination showing beta diversity is most strongly influenced by salinity on axis 1 and season on axis 2. Cyanobacteria show strong summer peaks in abundance and are dominated by *Synechococcus*. Panels correspond to 6 representative stations for the five salinity zones and South Bay. The x-axis of each panel corresponds to date of 20 approximately monthly cruises from April 2012 to March 2014. The y-axis is the % relative abundance. Note the difference in y-axis scale in each row of panels.

Table S1 Taxonomic and read count data for libraries processed through the itagger method and after various filtering stages. Data includes two combined 16S rRNA amplicon (iTag) plates for each primer set.

	V4		V4-V5	
	Raw	>15 reads in >2 samples	Raw	>15 reads in >2 samples
Phyla	54	46	63	50
Class	143	123	169	124
Order	292	227	293	207
Family	549	400	510	342
Genera	1064	718	951	610
OTUs	21703	7006	15097	4913
Reads	155,573,985	154,724,570	107,986,733	107,350,210

Table S2 Correlations between environmental variables and diversity metrics for V4 and V4-V5 datasets with the highest and most significant coefficients or of most interest. Referring to PCoAs that include all samples.

		V4		V4-V5	
Linear Regression test		<i>r</i>	<i>r</i> ²	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i> ²
<i>OTU</i>	<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ Salinity</i>	-0.97**	0.94	-0.97**	0.94
	<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ ln(SPM)</i>	0.60**	0.36	0.57**	0.32
	<i>Richness ~ ln(SPM)</i>	0.74**	0.55	0.70**	0.49
	<i>Richness ~ chl_a/(chl_a+phaeo)</i>	-0.59**	0.35	-0.52**	0.27
	<i>Richness ~ Salinity</i>	0.056	0.003	-0.11	0.012
<i>Genera</i>	<i>Richness ~ ln(SPM)</i>	0.59**	0.35		
	<i>Richness ~ chl_a/(chl_a+phaeo)</i>	-0.53**	0.28		
	<i>Richness ~ Salinity</i>	-0.24*	0.06		
<i>Phyla</i>	<i>Richness ~ ln(SPM)</i>	0.44**	0.19		
	<i>Richness ~ chl_a/(chl_a+phaeo)</i>	-0.31**	0.10		
	<i>Richness ~ Salinity</i>	0.40**	0.16		

**p-value < 0.0001

*p-value < 0.001

values without * have p-value > 0.05

Table S3 Nestedness and turnover components of PCoA ordinations based on Jaccard Dissimilarity. Values were calculated using the beta.core and beta.multi functions which compute multiple-site dissimilarities for spatial turnover and nestedness components of beta diversity, and the sum of both values

Ordination	Turnover fraction	Nestedness-resultant fraction	Overall beta diversity
<i>Whole community</i>	0.972	0.007	0.979
<i>North Bay</i>	0.981	0.005	0.986
<i>South Bay</i>	0.915	0.031	0.946
<i>Fresh</i>	0.840	0.050	0.890
<i>Oligohaline</i>	0.881	0.027	0.908
<i>Mesohaline</i>	0.898	0.036	0.934
<i>Polyhaline</i>	0.944	0.018	0.962
<i>Euhaline</i>	0.917	0.023	0.940

Table S4 Strongest correlation coefficients between environmental variables and diversity metrics for samples in North or South bay or various salinity zones.

	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i> ²
North Bay		
<i>OTU Richness ~ ln(SPM)</i>	0.71	0.50
<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ Salinity</i>	-0.96	0.92
<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ lnSPM</i>	0.37	0.14
South Bay		
<i>OTU Richness ~ ln(SPM)</i>	0.88	0.77
<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ ln(SPM)</i>	-0.89	0.79
<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ Temperature</i>	-0.70	0.49
Fresh		
<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ Temperature</i>	0.85	0.72
<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ Salinity</i>	0.73	0.53
Oligohaline		
<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ Temperature</i>	0.80	0.64
<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ Salinity</i>	-0.65	0.42
Mesohaline		
<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ Temperature</i>	0.76	0.58
<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ Salinity</i>	0.93	0.86
Polyhaline		
<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ ln (SPM)</i>	-0.86	0.74
<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ Distance from 36</i>	-0.86	0.74
Euhaline		
<i>PCoA Axis 1 ~ Distance from 36</i>	0.93	0.86
<i>PCoA Axis 2 ~ Nitrite</i>	-0.57	0.32

all p < 0.0001