1	Diversity metrics of pelagic archaeal and bacterial communities in San Francisco Bay depend on
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12	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.

25 SUMMARY

26 This study uses high throughput sequencing (HTS) to examine bacterioplankton and 27 archaeoplankton communities in 174 samples collected along a 150-km transect in San 28 Francisco Bay over a two-year monthly time-series. To better understand microbial 29 biogeography in San Francisco Bay, we analyzed communities using two different sets of 16S 30 rRNA primer sets at several taxonomic levels to reveal patterns in richness, nestedness, and 31 site-specificity. Our analysis reveals that both updated V4 and V4-V5 primers similarly describe 32 diverse estuarine microbial communities. We find that OTUs (97% identity) show high site-33 specificity, occurring in a small subset of samples either defined by narrow salinity or temporal 34 ranges. At the OTU level, turnover is high along the salinity gradient and distinct brackish 35 communities are observed. At coarser taxonomic levels (e.g. phylum, class) taxa are broadly 36 distributed across salinity zones and communities appear to be a mix of fresh and marine end-37 member communities. However, differential abundance testing shows that, despite high 38 prevalence across salinity zones, most phyla have preferences for a narrower salinity range. 39 While salinity is the dominant force shaping community structure, seasonal variations in 40 communities are observed within salinity zones. In addition, suspended particulate matter 41 concentrations are linked to patterns in alpha and beta diversity.

42 **INTRODUCTION**

43 San Francisco Bay (SFB) is the largest estuary on the west coast of the continental United States 44 and is surrounded by approximately 7.6 million people (US Census Bureau 2017). SFB consists 45 of two arms, generally referred to as North and South Bay, which have differing freshwater 46 sources and water residence times (Walters et al., 1985; Kimmerer, 2004). North Bay is river-47 dominated and includes San Pablo bay, Suisun bay, and the Delta region while South Bay is a 48 weakly mixed marine lagoon. Intense urban development along the shores and other human 49 activities such as damming, diking, dredging, historic mining, and pollution have led SFB to be 50 considered one of the most anthropogenically altered estuaries in the United States (Nichols et 51 al., 1986).

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53 Long term monitoring projects from both federal and state agencies have also made SFB one of 54 the most studied estuaries in the world (Kimmerer, 2004) and, consequently, SFB has served as 55 a model for understanding physical, chemical, and biological estuarine dynamics (Cloern, 1996, 56 2001; Lucas et al., 1998, 2009; Cloern and Jassby, 2012; Raimonet and Cloern, 2017). For over 57 four decades, water quality in SFB has been monitored regularly by the United States Geological 58 Survey (USGS) (Schraga and Cloern, 2017), showing both gradual and abrupt changes in water 59 guality due to human activity (Cloern et al., 2017; Beck et al., 2018; Cloern, 2019) and leading to 60 a thorough characterization of phytoplankton dynamics (Cloern, 1987; Cloern and Dufford, 61 2005; Cloern and Jassby, 2010; Sutula et al., 2017). In contrast to the in-depth monitoring of 62 phytoplankton in SFB, bacterioplankton and archaeoplankton populations are remarkably 63 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.

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70 SFB is an excellent model system for understanding microbial community dynamics because it 71 encompasses both spatial (e.g. salinity) and temporal (e.g. temperature) physicochemical 72 gradients (Cloern et al., 2017). Salinity has been identified as a universal driver of prokaryotic 73 community structure (Lozupone and Knight, 2007; Thompson et al., 2017), as well as a key 74 driver of estuarine bacterial community composition in numerous studies (Crump et al., 1999, 75 1999, 2004, 1999; Fortunato and Crump, 2011; Herlemann et al., 2011; Fortunato et al., 2012; 76 Mason et al., 2016; Doherty et al., 2017). However, studies in estuarine environments have also 77 identified drivers of microbial community structure besides salinity, including temperature, pH, 78 dissolved oxygen, water residence time, organic carbon or nutrient availability (Murrell et al., 79 1999; Hollibaugh et al., 2000; Crump et al., 2004; Herlemann et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2014; 80 Satinsky et al., 2014). To further assess broader scale patterns in microbial biogeography, we 81 investigate diversity metrics at varying taxonomic grain sizes (Thompson et al., 2017; Ladau and 82 Eloe-Fadrosh, 2019).

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84 While we expect salinity to be the main driver of community structure in SFB, we address the 85 following questions: What other environmental variables influence alpha and beta diversity

86 metrics throughout the bay and within different salinity zones? Are samples nested along the 87 salinity gradient? How does taxonomic grain size impact diversity metrics? Do most organisms 88 have broad or narrow distributions? How does primer choice impact the characterization of 89 microbial community composition and structure? We sampled 12 stations ranging from fresh 90 riverine inputs to brackish mixing zones to highly marine-influenced regions along a ~150-km 91 transect of the SFB channel. We sequenced bottom water samples collected monthly over two-92 years, capturing microbial communities across several seasonal gradients (e.g. temperature, 93 freshwater flow rate) as well. Amplicon libraries were generated using two updated 16S rRNA 94 primer sets, which amplify variable region 4 (Apprill et al., 2015; Parada et al., 2016) and 95 regions 4 and 5 (Parada et al., 2016), respectively. Both primer sets were designed to remedy 96 known biases against SAR11 and Thaumarchaeota—two of the most abundant microbial taxa 97 on Earth and important organisms in marine and estuarine environments, including San 98 Francisco Bay.

99 **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 107 from the Sacramento Regional WWTP, while nitrate concentrations were highest in Lower 108 South Bay (Fig. S1). Nitrite concentrations occasionally reached high concentrations (>9 μ M) in 109 South Bay. High nitrite concentrations in this region of the bay have been reported previously 110 (Wankel *et al.*, 2006; Damashek *et al.*, 2016). The wet season generally has lower temperatures, 111 higher suspended particulate matter (SPM) concentrations, higher delta outflow, and lower 112 salinities in each region of SFB when compared to the dry season (Fig S2).

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114 Updated 16S rRNA V4 and V4-V5 primers similarly describe estuarine microbial communities. 115 For the remainder of this text, 16S rRNA libraries amplified by the 515F-Y (Parada et al., 2016) 116 and 806RB (Apprill et al., 2015) primers will be referred to as the 'V4 dataset' and libraries 117 amplified by 515F-Y and 926R (Parada et al., 2016) will be referred to as the 'V4-V5' dataset, 118 based on which variable regions they amplify. While library sizes vary between sequencing runs 119 and primer pairs, the general description of microbial communities is strikingly similar. Despite 120 some differences in taxonomy between datasets (Table S1), large-scale interpretation of alpha 121 and beta diversity is essentially the same for both primer pairs (Fig. S3). The relative abundance 122 of phyla that occur in both primer sets is strongly correlated (Fig. S3A; $r^2 = 0.99$, p < 0.001), as is 123 the richness within phyla (Fig. S3B; $r^2 = 0.99$, p < 0.001). There is also a correlation between the 124 relative abundance of top genera (Fig. S3C; $r^2 = 0.74$, p < 0.0001). Sample richness is correlated 125 between primer pairs ($r^2 = 0.83$, p < 0.001) and mostly strongly correlated to SPM for both 126 primer pairs (Table S2). Procrustes analyses of PCoA ordinations reveal very similar patterns 127 (Fig. S3D; $m^2 = 0.007$, $r^2 = 0.996$) and relationships between PCoA axes and environmental 128 variables are also consistent (Table S2).

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Since updated primers were paired and tested with mock communities lacking both SAR11 and *Thaumarchaeota* (Walters *et al.*, 2016) and the updated V4 primer pair has subsequently been
adopted by the Earth Microbiome Project (EMP), we are particularly interested in comparing

diversity metrics of these environmentally-relevant groups. In this study, SAR11 and *Thaumarchaeota* are abundant in amplicon libraries constructed with both primer pairs, and display similar distribution patterns (Fig. S4-S5).

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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.

150 Salinity, SPM, seasonality, and region influence community structure in SFB. We used a 151 variety of analyses to assess beta diversity. We expected salinity to be a key factor in shaping 152 communities, as observed in a wide variety of estuaries (Crump et al., 2004; Hewson and 153 Fuhrman, 2004; Herlemann et al., 2011; Fortunato et al., 2012; Aguirre et al., 2017), and the 154 findings in our study agree with this body of literature. First we used ordination analyses to 155 assess beta diversity based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between communities. The first two 156 axes explain 54.3% of total variation in PCoA plots (Fig. 2). Salinity is strongly correlated to Axis 157 1 in PCoA plots (r^2 = 0.94, p < 0.001; Table S2). Based on a "goodness of clusters" gap statistic, 158 PCoA ordination forms 4 clusters that generally correspond with salinity zone [fresh (<0.5), 159 oligonaline (.05 to <5), mesonaline (5 to <18), polyhaline (18 to <30), and euhaline (30 to <40)], 160 with polyhaline and euhaline samples forming less distinct groupings (Fig. S7). Using the 161 betapart function, we confirm that turnover is a much larger component than nestedness in 162 community dissimilarity metrics (Table S3). A heatmap based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and 163 hierarchical clustering based on Jaccard dissimilarity both show that samples generally group by 164 salinity zone (Fig. S8). Graph-based testing using Friedman-Rafsky tests on a minimum spanning 165 tree, a distance-threshold graph, and a k-nearest neighbor graph all show that samples within 166 salinity zones contain more pure edges than the null distribution (p < 0.001, Fig. S9), indicating 167 samples within a salinity zone are more similar to one another than expected by chance. Taken 168 together, ordination, hierarchical clustering, and graph-based tests all support that salinity zone 169 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).

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178 Inspection of ordinations, networks, and heatmaps shows that polyhaline and euhaline samples 179 may cluster together more than other zones (Figs. 2, S7-S9), but also indicates that South and 180 North Bay samples are more distinct from one another even when samples have similar 181 salinities. This may be unsurprising given the differences in residence times and hydrology in 182 the two arms of the bay (Walters et al., 1985; Kimmerer, 2004), leading them to often be 183 classified as two separate ecosystems. We investigated South Bay and North Bay samples 184 separately. While beta diversity in the North Bay is predominantly influenced by salinity, 185 ordinations of South Bay samples show a strong influence of SPM and temperature on axes 1 186 and 2, respectively (Fig. 2, Table S4).

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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).

193 SPM varies over space and time, which can make other spatial and temporal patterns in 194 richness difficult to observe (Fig. 3). In PCoA ordinations of all SFB samples, axis 2 most strongly 195 correlates to SPM (Fig. 2, Table S2). NODF-based nestedness analyses support that less-196 rich/low-SPM communities are a nested subset of richer, high-SPM associated communities at 197 the phylum through genus level but not the OTU level (Fig. 4). Thus, at the finest taxonomic 198 scale (OTU 97%), less-rich/low-SPM communities do not appear to be a nested subset of more-199 rich/high-SPM communities (Fig. 4). Our findings that communities are nested at coarser 200 taxonomic levels is in agreement with a previous study that found free-living and particle-201 associated communities were very similar using DGGE (Hollibaugh et al., 2000), a technique 202 that may have identified organisms at a coarser taxonomic scale than the 97% identity OTU 203 level.

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205 SPM could be important for microbial community composition because it provides nutrients for 206 organisms and/or has a long residence time that allows unique, particle-associated 207 communities to form on and around particles (Hollibaugh et al., 2000). Indeed, phytoplankton 208 dynamics and bacterioplankton activity have been linked to SPM dynamics in SFB (Cloern, 1987; 209 Hollibaugh and Wong, 1999; Murrell et al., 1999; Hollibaugh et al., 2000, 200). Microbes 210 associated with resuspended sediments could also explain the potential distinction between 211 low- and high-SPM associated communities. This idea is supported by the negative correlation 212 between richness and the ratio of active chlorophyll a to degraded phaeopigments (Table S2). A 213 low ratio of active chlorophyll a to phaeopigments indicates strong resuspension of bottom 214 sediments, which are rich in degraded algal material. Our study does not differentiate between 215 'free-living' and 'particle-associated' organisms using the same size fractions as in Hollibaugh *et* 216 *al.* (2000) and includes all organisms small enough to pass through a 10 µm filter but captured 217 by a 0.22 µm filter. While our findings indicate that particle-associated communities could be 218 more diverse and distinct from free-living communities, further studies are necessary to directly 219 address differences between various size fractions of particle-associated versus free-living 220 communities at the OTU level as well as tease apart the relationships between microbial 221 community composition and SPM quantity, quality, and source.

222

223 Salinity tolerance varies at different taxonomic grain sizes. To further understand how 224 communities change along the salinity gradient, we looked more deeply at community diversity 225 nestedness and taxa entropy. We used the NODF statistic to calculate if less rich communities 226 were a subset of richer communities. We find that communities are highly nested at coarser 227 taxonomic levels (e.g. phylum, class) and become gradually less nested at finer taxonomic 228 levels, before becoming substantially less nested at the OTU level (Fig. 4). All NODF statistics are 229 significantly greater than the null model values except at the OTU level, indicating that at most 230 taxonomic scales less diverse communities are to some extent a nested subset of more diverse 231 communities (Fig. 4). The lack of significance and low NODF values indicate that OTUs are not 232 nested.

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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).

242

243 Nestedness and taxa entropy are both greater at coarse taxonomic levels and gradually 244 decrease from the phylum to genus level, then decrease substantially at the OTU level (Fig. 4). 245 These findings support that at the phylum level, organisms have broader salinity tolerance but 246 organisms at the 97% identity level are adapted to a specific salinity range and turnover is high 247 along the salinity gradient, potentially with closely related organisms replacing their more or 248 less salt-tolerant relatives along the gradient. Bar plots reveal clear patterns in each salinity 249 zone, with a gradual distinction between freshwater and saline sites at the class and order level, 250 followed by more specific mesohaline communities emerging at the genus and OTU level (Figs. 251 S11-16). Because richness is not correlated strongly with salinity at any taxonomic level, 252 communities are not necessarily nested along the salinity gradient. Rather, the low nestedness 253 of OTUs and partitioning of beta diversity metrics indicate that turnover dominates along the 254 salinity gradient (Fig. 2, Fig. 4, Table S3). The high nestedness of samples at the phylum level 255 and low nestedness at the OTU level agrees with recent findings from the EMP dataset 256 (Thompson et al., 2017) and support similar findings in the brackish Baltic Sea (Herlemann et 257 al., 2011). Interestingly, differential abundance testing shows most phyla (33/46) vary 258 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.

264

265 Abundant microbial taxa in SFB

The top 10 phyla in the V4 and V4-V5 datasets are Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, 266 267 Actinobacteria, Verrucomicrobia, Cyanobacteria, Thaumarchaeota, Planctomycetes, 268 Euryarchaeota, Marinimicrobia, and Acidobacteria (Fig. S11). OTUs in these 10 phyla account 269 for over 90% of reads in each sample (Fig. S11). These abundant phyla have broad distributions 270 across samples, though differential abundance testing shows that only Bacteroidetes, 271 Thaumarchaeota, and Cyanobacteria do not have significant changes in abundance between 272 salinity zones (Figs. S17). Of these abundant phyla, Actinobacteria, Verrucomicrobia, and 273 Acidobacteria are more abundant near fresh end-member sites while Marinimicrobia, 274 Euryarchaeota, Planctomycetes, and Proteobacteria are more abundant closer to marine end-275 member sites.

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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)

281 were also observed in our study (Fig. S11,). At the order level, Oceanospiralles and 282 Rhodobacterales are more abundant in marine-influenced samples and Burkholderales 283 dominates in freshwater end-member stations (S13). In general, OTUs have lower entropy 284 (higher site-specificity) and abundant OTUs have narrower salinity ranges than observed at 285 coarser taxonomic levels within the Proteobacteria (e.g. class, order, family) (Fig. S11). Richness 286 of *Proteobaceteria* OTUs is most strongly correlated with SPM concentrations ($r^2 = 0.42$) and 287 ordinations highlight the prominent role of salinity in shaping the *Proteobacteria* community 288 (Fig. S11).

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290 Unlike other orders of Proteobacteria, SAR11 clade bacteria (Alphaproteobacteria) are 291 abundant along the entire salinity gradient. SAR11 are the most abundant organisms at the 292 order level (generally ~10-30% of reads in a sample), constitute one of the most abundant 293 genera (*Pelagibacter*), and correspond to many of the top OTUs in our dataset (Figs. 5, S5, S11). 294 SAR11 are highly structured along the salinity gradient in SFB, a pattern observed in other 295 estuaries (Kan et al., 2008; Campbell and Kirchman, 2013; Herlemann et al., 2014). The 296 abundance of SAR11 in our dataset bolsters previous findings in SFB indicating that SAR11 clade 297 bacteria are ubiquitous (Murray et al., 1996) and LD12 organisms are abundant in fresh sites 298 (Stepanauskas et al., 2003). The distribution of 'LD12 clade' organisms in our study aligns with 299 findings from recent cultured isolates (Henson et al., 2018), with peak LD12 abundances 300 occurring in primarily fresh and oligohaline sites (salinity < 5; Fig. S11). LD12 are proposed to be 301 specialized to freshwater environments through the loss of key compatible solute genes 302 (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).

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310 Bacteroidetes, and particularly Flavobacteriia, which are important for the breakdown of 311 organic matter in estuaries and coasts (Williams et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2017, 201), are also 312 abundant in SFB waters (Fig. S11). Bacteroidetes is the second most abundant and second 313 richest phylum in the dataset (Fig. S3), in agreement with previous findings that marine 314 Flavobacteria have high global and local diversity (Alonso et al., 2007). Flavobacteriales is one 315 of the most abundant orders in the dataset. The NS5 marine clade genus of *Flavobacteriaceae* 316 is among the top genera (Figs. S3 & S11). In fresh end-member stations the families 317 Chitinophagaceae, Cytophagaceae, and 'NS11-12 marine group' (Alonso et al., 2007) dominate 318 (Fig. S14). Brackish stations are dominated by the family Cryomorphaceae while marine end-319 member stations are dominated by Flavobacteraceae. Bacteroidetes OTUs are more site-320 specific and have narrower salinity tolerance than at coarser taxonomic levels and richness is 321 most strongly correlated to SPM concentrations (Fig. S14, $r^2 = 0.49$).

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323 *Actinobacteria* is the third most abundant phylum in SFB. *Candidatus Actinomarina* and 'hgcl 324 clade' (Glöckner *et al.*, 2000) are among the top genera (Figs. S3 & S11), with diverse 'hgcl

325 clade' organisms dominating freshwater end member stations and Ca. Actinomarina-like OTUs 326 dominating in more saline samples (Fig. S12 & S15). Other estuarine studies have found high 327 diversity and specialization of Actinobacteria with differing environmental gradients (Kirchman 328 et al., 2005; Holmfeldt et al., 2009; Campbell and Kirchman, 2013), which we observe as well. 329 Actinobacteria richness is most strongly correlated with salinity and ordination plots show 330 strong separation of communities based on wet versus dry season (Fig. S15). While there 331 appears to be more OTU-level diversity in the freshwater stations, only one Ca. Actinomarina-332 *like* OTU (OTU 0) dominates the most marine-influenced station (18). Poly/Euhaline stations 13 333 and 27 are dominated by OTUs 0 and 8, indicating microdiversity may exist below the 97% OTU 334 definition (Fig S12 & S16). Metagenomes of *Ca. Actinomarina* organisms suggest they are very 335 small, free-living photoheterotrophic organisms co-occuring with Synechococcus in marine 336 photic zones and containing streamlined and low-GC genomes with novel rhodopsins (Ghai et 337 al., 2013; Mizuno et al., 2015). Ca. Actinomarina-like OTU 8 can reach over 10% relative 338 abundance in late summer in South Bay station 27 and shows smaller but noticeable peaks in 339 station 13 as well (Fig. S12 & S16). Both fresh and marine planktonic Actinobacteria have been 340 described as photoheterotrophs, and some are capable of degradation of recalcitrant organic 341 matter (Ghai et al., 2014), highlighting their potential functional role in SFB.

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343 *Cyanobacteria* are generally low abundance in non-summer months in SFB and are dominated 344 by *Synecchococcus*-like organisms (Fig. 5). Ordination plot shows strong seasonal variation in 345 *Cyanobacteria* communities (Fig. S18). While salinity most strongly impacts community 346 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).

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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).

356

357 Thaumarchaeota genera and OTUs are distinct at the fresh and marine end-member sites, with 358 organisms generally considered fresh (Nitrosoarchaeum-like) (Blainey et al., 2011; Mosier et al., 359 2012) populating station 657 and marine (Nitrosopelagicus) (Santoro et al., 2015) populating 360 station 18 (Fig. 5). The apparent 'bloom' of Thaumarchaeota in South Bay, with putative 361 Nitrospumilus-like sequences comprising as much as 25% of the total reads, has not been 362 previously described for this system. Blooms of Thaumarchaeota have been reported in other 363 estuaries in summer (Hollibaugh et al., 2014; Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017), but also in coastal 364 areas in fall (Hu et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2019) or winter (Wuchter et al., 2006; Pitcher et al., 365 2011). Interestingly, this bloom is associated with nitrite accumulation (Fig. 5, $r^2 = 0.79$), a 366 phenomenon observed in other coastal and estuarine sites (Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017; Kim 367 et al., 2019). Warmer temperatures between 20°C and 30°C have been proposed to explain the 368 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).

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375 Brackish communities are distinct at the OTU (97% similarity) level. While at the class and 376 family level microbial communities appear to be a mix of freshwater and marine end-members 377 (Figs. S11), at the OTU level communities display distinct fresh, brackish, and marine 378 communities along the salinity gradient (Fig. S11-S16). Classes such as Sphingobacteriia, 379 Cytophagia, Actinobacteria, and Betaproteobacteria are abundant at fresh end-member sites 380 but decrease along the salinity gradient, as classes such as Alphaproteobacteria, 381 Gammaproteobacteria, Flavobacteriia, and Acidimicrobiia become more abundant towards 382 marine end-member sites (Fig. S11). At fresh and oligohaline sites, families such as 383 Comamonadaceae, Chitinophagaceae, Sporichthyaceae, and 'LD freshwater clade' (SAR11) are 384 abundant, while at polyhaline and euhaline sites *Rhodobacteraceae* and OM1 (Actinobacteria) 385 are abundant (Fig. S11). At mesohaline sites, families such as 'Chesapeake Delaware Bay clade' 386 [SAR11 IIIa (Kan et al., 2008)] dominate. More distinct brackish communities start to emerge at 387 the genus and OTU levels (Fig. S11). Some of the OTUs with highest abundance in brackish sites 388 belong to taxa such as the SAR11 'Chesapeake Delaware Bay clade' (OTU 2), Oceanospirillaceae 389 (OTU 13), Hydrogenophilaceae (OTU 55), Ca. Actinomarina (OTU 8), Owenweeksia (OTU 25), 390 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 AEGEAN169 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).

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396 Regardless of variations in season, estuary type (North Bay is river-dominated versus South Bay, 397 which is more of a marine lagoon), or taxonomic group (e.g. Proteobacteria, Actinobaceria, 398 SAR11), a distinct brackish community emerges at the OTU level. Previous studies have posited 399 that distinct brackish microbial communities arise in systems where bacterial doubling rates are 400 faster than water residence times (Crump et al., 2004; Herlemann et al., 2011). Given the 401 variety of seasons and systems sampled, the findings of our study suggest that defined brackish 402 communities may also arise over shorter time scales and survive in waters with a variety of 403 water residence times. A recent, high-resolution daily time series found that coastal microbial 404 communities are constantly and quickly changing, with rapid transitions between distinct but 405 transient communities as coastal conditions change (Martin-Platero et al., 2018). The 406 apparently robust and defined estuarine communities along the salinity gradient observed in 407 our dataset suggest that communities have adapted to a specific salinity regime and may be 408 capable of quickly transitioning with changing salinity gradient structures. Our study strongly 409 supports previous findings that distinct brackish bacterial communities exist and that closely 410 related organisms specialize/adapt to distinct salinity regimes (Herlemann et al., 2011; Liu et 411 al., 2015; Mehrshad et al., 2016). Despite the unprecedented spatiotemporal sampling (and 412 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.

416 **EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

417 Sampling and DNA extraction. Bacterioplankton and archaeoplankton biomass was collected 418 for DNA extraction approximately monthly between April 2012 and March 2014 during USGS 419 Water quality monitoring cruises (https://sfbay.wr.usgs.gov/access/wqdata/index.html) in the 420 channel of the San Francisco Bay estuary. Microbial cells were collected from bottom waters 421 (1m above estuary floor) by pressure-filtering 150-1000mL of water from CTD casts through a 422 10-µm pore size polycarbonate Isopore membrane filter (47-mm diameter; EMD Millipore, 423 Darmstadt, Germany) in line with a 0.22 µm polyethersulfone Supor-200 membrane filter (47-424 mm diameter; Pall, Port Washington, NY), followed by flash freezing on liquid nitrogen prior to 425 storage at -80°C. Only 0.22 μm filters were frozen at -80°C and saved for extraction. DNA was 426 extracted with the FastDNA SPIN Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA), following the 427 manufacturer's instructions, with the following modifications: bead tubes were homogenized 428 for 40 seconds at speed 6.0 in a FastPrep bead beater, and final DNA was eluted into 75 µL 55°C 429 sterile DNase-free water. DNA was quantified using the Qubit dsDNA Broad Range assay (Life 430 Technologies, Grand Island, NY). DNA was stored at -80°C.

431

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

434 (https://sfbay.wr.usgs.gov/access/wqdata/query/index.html the following links: and 435 http://www.water.ca.gov/dayflow/). Additional ammonium, nitrate, and nitrite measurements 436 were made using filtered (0.2 µm pore size) water that was frozen on dry ice prior to storage at 437 -20°C. Ammonium was measured using the salicylate-hypochlorite method (Bower and Holm-438 Hansen, 1980). Nitrate and nitrite were measured using a SmartChem200 Discrete Analyzer 439 (Unity Scientific, Brookfield, CT) following standard procedures. Nutrients were measured 440 within one week of sample collection.

441

442 Sequencing. Through a DOE Joint Genome Institute (JGI) Community Science Program (CSP) 443 project, we have assembled 348 16S rRNA Illumina amplicon libraries from bottom water 444 samples (collected 1m above the estuary floor) on 20 approximately monthly cruises at 12 445 USGS monitoring stations spanning a 150 km transect (Fig. 1). In total, 174 samples were 446 sequenced with both new 16S V4 primers (Apprill et al., 2015; Walters et al., 2016) (515F-Y 447 GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA and 806RB GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT) and 16S V4-V5 primers 448 (Parada et al., 2016) (515F-Y and 926R CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT) and were included in the 449 following analyses. Samples were pooled and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq. Sequences are 450 available on NCBI SRA under the BioProject PRJNA577706.

451

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

456 to cluster and were later mapped back to cluster centroids. Cluster centroid sequences were457 evaluated with the reference database SILVA 128.

458

459 In general, amplicon library processing followed established protocols for filtering low 460 abundance reads, transforming read counts, and normalizing library sizes (McMurdie and 461 Holmes, 2014; Callahan et al., 2016). To prevent high-variance-low-abundance OTUs from 462 strongly influencing downstream analyses, OTUs with less than 16 reads occurring in less than 3 463 samples were removed from libraries. Libraries were normalized in two ways depending on the 464 analysis, either through transforming counts to relative abundances or using the DESeq2 465 method, which uses a variance stabilizing transformation to adjust counts based on variation in 466 library size, and transformed using a geometric mean to account for large variation in OTU 467 counts (McMurdie and Holmes, 2014). Similar results were yielded with rarefied data (data not 468 shown). All analyses were conducted with R using primarily phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes, 469 2013, 2014; Callahan et al., 2016) and vegan (Oksanen et al., 2018). Richness was calculated for 470 unfiltered amplicon libraries and libraries with OTUs filtered at a cutoff of greater than 15 reads 471 in greater than 2 samples, yielding similar results [data not shown]. Beta diversity metrics using 472 Bray-Curtis dissimilarity were calculated for VST or relative abundance transformed libraries.

473

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

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

480

481 **Community Diversity Analysis.** Alpha and beta diversity measures were performed using 482 phyloseq and vegan. Heatmaps were made using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and the pheatmaps 483 function. Friedman-Rafsky tests were used to test for graph-based sample segregation between 484 samples factored by salinity regime (fresh, oligonaline, mesonaline, polyhaline, or euhaline) and 485 based on Jaccard distance and Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between samples. Pure edges were 486 defined for samples within the same level (fresh, oligohaline, mesohaline, etc.). Edges were 487 defined using skeleton graphs including a minimum spanning tree (MST), distance threshold 488 (max jaccard distance = 0.4), and k-nearest neighbors (k=1.) Graphs were made using *igraph*, 489 *agnetwork* and *phyloseqGraph Test* libraries. Differential abundance was analyzed through 490 DESeq2 using VST libraries. Principal coordinates analyses (PCoAs) use Bray-Curtis dissimilarity 491 and the V4 dataset unless otherwise noted. The *clusGap* function was used to calculate the gap 492 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 493 494 protest function [vegan], which rotates and stretches ordinations until the distance between 495 corresponding points is minimized. M² represents one minus the squared correlation 496 coefficient (R) between the coordinates of corresponding points between the two ordinations 497 being tested. Differential abundance was analyzed through DESeq2 using VST libraries. 498 Nestedness versus turnover components of beta diversity analyses were calculated using the 499 *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.



Date









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. S2 Environmental variables shown in different regions of San Francisco Bay for wet and dry seasons. * indicate p-value < .05, ** p-value < .01, *** p-value < .001 and NS is not significant.



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.



Fig. S6 V4 relative abundance of Archaea (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.



Fig. S7 (A) PCoA ordination with Adonis test of difference between centroids for each salinity zone and (B) gap statistic for goodness of clusters for V4 PCoA ordination based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity.



Fig. S8 (A) Heatmap based on Bray Curtis dissimilarity between samples and (B) hierarchical clustering based on Jaccard distance. In (B) tip labels are colored by salinity zone according to the legend in (A).

Graph knn = 1

Minimum Spanning Tree

В.

Α.

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 distancebased 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 pure edges (samples are in the same salinity zone) and 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.

Axis.1 [39.9%]

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	
	Bow	>15 reads in	Raw	>15 reads in
	NdW	>2 samples		>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

		١	V4	V4-	V5
Linear Regression test		r	r²	r	r²
OTU					
	PCoA Axis 1 ~ Salinity	-0.97**	0.94	-0.97**	0.94
	PCoA Axis 2 ~ In(SPM)	0.60**	0.36	0.57**	0.32
	Richness ~ In(SPM)	0.74**	0.55	0.70**	0.49
	Richness ~ chla/(chla+phaeo)	-0.59**	0.35	-0.52**	0.27
	Richness ~ Salinity	0.056	0.003	-0.11	0.012
Genera					
	Richness ~ In(SPM)	0.59**	0.35		
	Richness ~ chla/(chla+phaeo)	-0.53**	0.28		
	Richness ~ Salinity	-0.24*	0.06		
Phyla					
	Richness ~ In(SPM)	0.44**	0.19		
	Richness ~ chla/(chla+phaeo)	-0.31**	0.10		
	Richness ~ Salinity	0.40**	0.16		

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.

**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
Whole community	0.972	0.007	0.979
North Bay	0.981	0.005	0.986
South Bay	0.915	0.031	0.946
Fresh	0.840	0.050	0.890
Oligohaline	0.881	0.027	0.908
Mesohaline	0.898	0.036	0.934
Polyhaline	0.944	0.018	0.962
Euhaline	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.			
	r	r ²	
North Bay			
OTU Richness ~ In(SPM)	0.71	0.50	
PCoA Axis 1 ~ Salinity	-0.96	0.92	
PCoA Axis 2 ~ InSPM	0.37	0.14	
South Bay			
OTU Richness ~ In(SPM)	0.88	0.77	
PCoA Axis 1 ~ In(SPM)	-0.89	0.79	
PCoA Axis 2 ~ Temperature	-0.70	0.49	
Fresh			
PCoA Axis 1 ~ Temperature	0.85	0.72	
PCoA Axis 2 ~ Salinity	0.73	0.53	
Oligohaline			
PCoA Axis 1 ~ Temperature	0.80	0.64	
PCoA Axis 2 ~ Salinity	-0.65	0.42	
Mesohaline			
PCoA Axis 1 ~ Temperature	0.76	0.58	
PCoA Axis 2 ~ Salinity	0.93	0.86	
Polyhaline			
PCoA Axis 1 ~ In (SPM)	-0.86	0.74	
PCoA Axis 2 ~ Distance from 36	0.74		
Euhaline			
PCoA Axis 1 ~ Distance from 36	0.93	0.86	
PCoA Axis 2 ~ Nitrite	-0.57	0.32	

all p < 0.0001