Microbial regime changes and indicators of eutrophication on the Mississippi River identified via a human-powered 2900 km transect

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Draining 31 states and roughly 3 million km², the Mississippi River (MSR) and its tributaries constitute an essential resource to millions of people for clean drinking water, transportation, agriculture, and industry. Since the turn of the 20th century, MSR water quality has continually rated poorly due to human activity. Acting as first responders, microorganisms can mitigate, exacerbate, and/or serve as predictors for water quality, yet we know little about their community structure or ecology at the whole river scale for large rivers. We collected both biological (16S and 18S rRNA gene amplicons) and physicochemical samples from 38 MSR sites over nearly 3000 km from Minnesota to the Gulf of Mexico. These data represent the first of their kind for a top ten river in size, volume, and/or drainage and revealed distinct regime changes between upper and lower MSR microbial communities that corresponded to Strahler’s river order and nutrient concentrations. Within these assemblages, we identified subgroups of OTUs from the phyla Acidobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Fungi, and Heterokonts that highly correlated with, and were predictive of, the important eutrophication nutrients nitrate and phosphate. This study offers the most comprehensive view of Mississippi River microbiota to date, establishes the groundwork for future temporal and spatial studies of river perturbations, and provides potential microbial indicators of river health related to eutrophication.
By connecting terrestrial, lotic, and marine systems, rivers perform vital roles in both the transport and processing of compounds in all major global biogeochemical cycles. Within the carbon cycle alone, rivers collectively discharge organic carbon to the oceans at over 0.4 Pg C yr\(^{-1}\). Perhaps more importantly, rivers are generally net heterotrophic, indicating that they not only transport organic matter but host active metabolic processing of it as well. Conservative estimates place heterotrophic output of the world's fluvial networks (streams, rivers, and estuaries) at 0.32 Pg C yr\(^{-1}\). Although rivers contain a small minority of global fresh water at any given moment, the considerable volumes that pass through these systems make them relevant to models attempting to quantify global elemental transformations. However, the fundamental engines of these transformations- microorganisms- have received comparatively little study in rivers relative to other aquatic systems, despite the fact that microbial functions likely play a vital role in ecosystem health for both rivers themselves and their places of discharge.

At 3734 km, the Mississippi River (MSR) is the fourth longest on earth, draining 31 U.S. states and two Canadian provinces- a watershed consisting of 41% of the continental U.S. The MSR is a major source of drinking water for many U.S. cities; a critical thoroughfare for transportation, commerce, industry, agriculture, and recreation; and conveys the vestiges of human activity to the Gulf of Mexico (GOM). In New Orleans, the average flow rate is over 600,000 cubic feet s\(^{-1}\) (cfs), but can exceed 3 million cfs during flood stages, carrying over 150 x 10\(^{9}\) kg of suspended sediment into the northern GOM annually. This massive discharge includes excess nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorus), primarily from agricultural runoff, and fuels one of the largest marine zones of seasonal hypoxia in the world. Understanding microbial relationships to river eutrophication will inform hypotheses regarding their contributions to either mitigating or exacerbating nutrient input.

Far from a homogenous jumble of organisms ferried downriver, microbial community composition changes with distance from the river mouth and/or from the influence of tributaries, attributable to changing nutrient concentrations, differing dissolved organic matter (DOM) sources, and land use changes. Past studies of the Thames, Danube, Yenisei, and Columbia Rivers have found that planktonic river microbiota were dominated by the phyla Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, and Bacteriodetes, specifically, taxa such as hgcI, Polynucleobacter spp., GKS9, and LD28 Betaproteobacteria, CL500-29 Bacteriodetes, LD12 freshwater SAR11 Alphaproteobacteria, and Novosphingobium spp. More recent 16S rRNA gene amplicon and metagenomic studies of the Minnesota portion of the MSR corroborated previous research in other rivers that identified an increased proportion or richness of freshwater taxa with river distance, and an increased abundance of “core” river taxa with cumulative residence time.
Researchers have suggested that these patterns supported application of the River Continuum Concept (RCC)\(^{10}\) to river microbiota. The concept postulates that as a river increases in size, the influences of riparian and other inputs will decrease as the river establishes a dominant core community\(^{36}\), and richness will increase from headwaters to mid-order before decreasing in higher order rivers\(^{36}\). Therefore, as continuous systems with increasing volumes and residence times, river microbiota should transition from experiencing strong influences of mass effects from terrestrial and tributary sources to systems where species sorting plays a more important role\(^{4,37,38}\). Complicating matters, particle-associated communities in rivers (frequently defined as those found on filters of >~3 µm) remain distinct from their free-living counterparts\(^{37–39,53}\), potentially due to increased production rates from readily obtainable carbon\(^{38,53}\). Typical taxa associated with particles include OTUs related to the Bacteroidetes clades *Flavobacteria* and *Cytophaga*, Planctomycetes, *Rhizobium* spp., and *Methylophilaceae* spp\(^{39,42–44}\). However, consistent trends in particle community composition are murky, with recent evidence suggesting organisms may switch between free-living and particle-associated lifestyles depending on substrate availability and chemical queues\(^{42,45}\). Thus, rivers constitute complex and highly dynamic ecosystems from a metacommunity perspective.

However, our knowledge of river microbial assemblages, their ecology, dispersal, and their relationship to chemical constituents remains in comparative infancy to that of lakes and oceans. Although microbes play a central role in the RCC\(^{36}\), microbiologically-oriented transects at the whole-river or catchment scale have only been conducted for a handful of systems\(^{4,28,29,46,47}\), and until this work, none had been attempted for any of the largest rivers in the world. Furthermore, little data exists on microbial eukaryotic communities in rivers. During the fall of 2014, we completed the most extensive microbiological survey of the Mississippi River to date with a continual rowed transect over two months. Rowers from the adventure education non-profit OAR Northwest collected samples from Minneapolis, MN to the Gulf of Mexico (2918 km) (Fig. 1A). They also maintained active blogging and social media content and visited 21 schools along the river that incorporated elements of the journey into their curriculum. Our findings greatly expand the current information available on microbial assemblages in major lotic ecosystems and help further delineate the relationships between microbial structure and stream order, nutrients, and volume.

**Results**

Using rowboats and simple syringe-based filtration protocol, we measured 12 biological, chemical, and physical parameters (e.g. 16S and 18S rRNA gene communities, NH\(_4^+\), river speed, etc.) from 38 sites along a 2918 km transect of the MSR (Fig. 1A). River order increases dramatically at the Missouri confluence (eighth to tenth Strahler order\(^{48}\)), which corresponded to overall discharge (Fig. 1A) and beta diversity changes discussed below, and thus we used this juncture to separate the upper MSR (0 km – 1042 km, Sites A-S) and lower MSR (1075-
2914 km, Sites T-Al). Within the upper MSR, NO$_3^-$, PO$_4^{3-}$, and NO$_2^-$ were variable but generally increased downriver until peak concentrations near the confluences of the Illinois and Missouri Rivers. This gave way to lower and more consistent concentrations along the lower MSR (Fig. 1B). Ammonium showed much greater variability along the transect. Turbidity (inversely related to secchi disk visibility) increased steadily downriver to a maximum near the Illinois and Missouri River confluences (1042 km, Site S) (Fig. 1B), then trended downwards for the rest of the transect. Planktonic (< 2.7 µm) cell counts varied between 1 and 3x10$^6$ cells/mL in the upper MSR, and decreased to high 10$^5$ cells/mL in the lower MSR (Fig. 1B). Water temperature ranged from 19°C (133 km, Site E) to 11.7°C (2552 km, Site Ag), and river speed, excluding three sites sampled from shore, was between 5.5 mph at Site Y and 0.4 mph (597 km, Site L) (Table S1). Spearman rank correlations of the measured environmental parameters showed strong positive correlations between nitrate, phosphate, distance, and increased turbidity; while nitrate and phosphate both strongly correlated negatively to water temperature and river speed (Table S1).

**Bacterial and archaeal communities**

We observed a clear distinction between the 0.2-2.7 µm and > 2.7 µm 16S rRNA gene communities (ANOSIM R = 0.65, P = 0.001) (Fig. S1A). Both size fractions had comparable species richness and evenness values that trended upwards downriver (Figs. S3A-B), although an earlier peak occurred for both at sites O-Q (761-999 km) below the Des Moines River and above the Illinois River (Figs. S3A-B). Both size fractions (stress = 0.14 for each) also showed a significant separation between sites above and below the Missouri River confluence (ANOSIM, > 2.7 µm: R = 0.44, P=0.001; 0.2-2.7 µm: R = 0.48, P = 0.001) (Figs. 2A and B), that the Eukaryotic fractions mirrored (below). The environmental variables phosphate and turbidity had the highest correlation with the separation between upper and lower > 2.7 µm communities (r = 0.57, r= 0.54, respectively), with water temperature and distance (r > 0.40) also contributing (Fig. 2A). At an OTU level, taxa related to the hgcI/cal clade (Actinobacteria) and unclassified *Bacillaceae* (r > 0.77, P =0.001) contributed most to the separation between the upper and lower > 2.7 communities, with OTUs related to the *Bacillales*, *Gemmatimonadaceae*, *Peptococcaceae*, and *Micromonosporaceae* clades also a factor (r > 0.70, P = 0.001) (Figure 2A, Table S1). For the 0.2-2.7 µm fraction, distance and nitrate most strongly correlated with the distinction between upper and lower communities among environmental factors (r = 0.59 and r = 0.47, respectively), although phosphate, turbidity, and water temperature (r > 0.40 for each) also contributed (Fig. 2B). OTUs related to *Flavobacterium* and a unclassified Bacterium (closest NCBI BLAST hit *Acidovorax* sp., KM047473), most strongly contributed to the separation between the 0.2-2.7 µm communities (r > 0.52, P = 0.001). Other important OTUs belonged to the clades Bacteroidetes, *Microbacteriaceae*, *Clostridiales*, and *Holophagaceae* (r > 0.49, P = 0.001) (Figure 2B, Table S1).
At the phylum level, Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Bacteroidetes dominated bacterial communities in both fractions (Figs. 3A and B) (Table S1). Proteobacteria in the > 2.7 µm fraction showed wide fluctuations in abundance (Fig. 3A), whereas their 0.2-2.7 µm counterparts generally increased in relative abundance downriver (Fig. 3B). 0.2-2.7 µm Bacteroidetes and Actinobacteria generally decreased in the upper river and stabilized in the lower river, but showed considerable variation in abundance in the larger fraction. Cyanobacteria in the > 2.7 µm fraction strongly and negatively correlated with increased turbidity (Spearman rank = 0.67). Both > 2.7 µm and 0.2-2.7 µm Acidobacteria had a strong positive correlation with river distance (Wilcoxon single ranked test, \( P < 0.01 \)) (Fig. 3A and B). Within the 0.2-2.7 µm fraction, the five most abundant OTUs were classified as LD12 (OTU11), two hgcl clade OTUs (OTU4, OTU7), *Limnokohabitan* sp. (OTU2), and LD28 (OTU8) (Table S1). Comparatively, an unclassified *Methylphilaceae* (OTU1), *Planktothrix* sp. (OTU12), NS11-12 marine group (OTU21), *Aquirestis* sp. (OTU17), and unclassified *Sphingobacteriales* (OTU25) were the most abundant OTUs in the > 2.7 µm fraction (Table S1). Archaea occurred at much lower relative abundances: we found only eight OTUs belonging to the Euryarchaeota and Thaumarchaeota. 0.2-2.7 µm Thaumarchaeota increased in abundance along the transect (Fig. 3B), but at less so than those in the > 2.7 µm fraction (Fig. 3A). In both fractions, we only detected Euryarchaeota at very low abundances.

We defined the core microbiome as those OTUs detectable after normalization in greater than 90% of the samples. The > 2.7 µm and 0.2-2.7 µm core microbiomes consisted of 95 and 106 OTUs, respectively, classified into eight different phyla: Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, Verrucomicrobia, Chloroflexi, Chlorobi, Gemmatimonadetes- and some remained unclassified (Table S1). Core microbiome relative abundance in both fractions decreased along the upper river but stabilized in the lower river (Fig. 4A). We confirmed this effect by analyzing the upper and lower core microbiomes separately. Although the total OTU numbers changed (81 and 116 OTUs in the upper MSR and 160 and 144 OTUs in the lower MSR for the > 2.7 µm and 0.2-2.7 µm fractions, respectively), the trends remained the same (Fig. S4).

**16S rRNA gene environmental ontology**

We successfully classified 313 of the 945 OTUs with EnvO terminology (Table S1). Of those, freshwater organisms dominated, although their relative abundance in both the > 2.7 µm and 0.2-2.7 µm fractions decreased with river distance before stabilizing in the lower MSR (Fig. S5A-B). However LD12, the most abundant OTU in our dataset and a well-established freshwater organism, did not receive an EnvO classification at all, indicating the limitations of this technique with current database annotations. Terrestrial organisms from the > 2.7 µm fraction decreased along the transect (Fig. S5A), while the 0.2-2.7 µm fraction remained stable (Fig. S5B). Although representing a minor fraction of
Microbial eukaryotic communities
Eukaryotic communities, observed via the 18S rRNA gene, also showed a significant separation between >2.7 µm and 0.2-2.7 µm fractions (R = 0.689, P = 0.001) (Fig. S1B). As expected due to generally larger cell sizes in microbial eukaryotes compared to prokaryotes, species richness remained higher in the >2.7 µm fraction, the top two environmental factors influencing this distinction (r =0.75, r =0.48; r =0.70, r =0.54, respectively) (Fig. 2C, D; Table S1). No other factors had correlations >0.40 (Table S1). At the OTU level, taxa related to an unclassified Ochrophyta (OTU63) and unclassified Eukaryote (OTU1) separated the MSR communities in the 0.2-2.7 µm (r >0.63, P= 0.001), while the same unclassified Eukaryote OTU (OTU1) and a second unclassified Eukaryote (OTU222) contributed most to separating the >2.7 µm communities (r >0.80, P = 0.001) (Figure 2C and D, Table S1).

Stramenopiles (or Heterokonts), encompassing diatoms and many other forms of algae, and OTUs that could not be classified at the phylum level, dominated both the >2.7 µm and 0.2-2.7 µm communities (Fig. 5). Stramenopiles accounted for over 25% of both communities, with higher abundances in the upper vs. lower river. We observed a similar trend of disparate abundances between the upper and lower river for >2.7 µm Cryptomonadales and 0.2-2.7 µm Nucletmycea, which include fungi (Fig. 5A; Table S1). Within the 0.2-2.7 µm fraction, we classified the five most abundant OTUs as three unclassified *Bacillariophyta* (OTU7, OTU14, OTU9), a *Pythium* sp. (OTU170), and a unclassified *Cryptomonas* (OTU11) (Table S1). Comparatively, two unclassified *Eukaryotes* (OTU2 and OTU1), a unclassified *Stramenopiles* (OTU3), a unclassified *Perkinsidae* (OTU13), and an unclassified *Chrysophyceae* (OTU6) had the highest abundance in the >2.7 µm (Table S1).

Eighty OTUs comprised the >2.7 µm core microbiome, averaging 28% of aggregate community relative abundance (Fig. 4B). We classified these as *Alveolata, Cryptophyceae, Nucletmycea, Stramenopiles*, or unclassified Eukaryota (Table S1). Again, consistent with larger organism sizes, and thus fewer OTUs overall, the 0.2-2.7 µm Eukaryotic core microbiome comprised only 21 OTUs that, in aggregate, averaged 20% of the community relative abundance across all samples (Fig. 4B). These OTUs consisted of *Alveolata, Nucletmycea, Stramenopiles*, or unclassified Eukaryota (Table S1). While the 0.2-2.7 µm core
microbiome remained relatively stable along the river, the > 2.7 µm core
decreased along the upper MSR before stabilizing in the lower river, similarly to
that of the prokaryotes (Fig. 4B).

Network analyses identify indicator taxa associated with eutrophication
Since increased nitrogen and phosphorous is of interest for stakeholders both
along the river and in the GOM, we evaluated relationships between individual
OTUs and these nutrients to identify taxa indicative of eutrophication. Among 0.2-
2.7 µm prokaryotes, a co-correlation network (submodule) strongly associated
with nitrate (r = 0.6, P = 7e-08) (Fig. S6A) comprised 77 OTUs, mostly from the
Proteobacteria. OTU relative abundances explained 42% of the variance in
nitrate (LOOCV, R²=0.65; corr = 0.65, P =1e-09), and the top four OTUs by VIP
score belonged to the Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes (Fig. 6B; FigS6A; Table
S1). Of these, three were highly correlated to nitrate (r > 0.50) (Table S1):
unclassified Comamonadaceae, Muclaginibacter, and Pseudospirillum spp..
OTUs that had more than 8 node connections, indicating taxa co-correlating with
numerous others, included a Mucilaginibacter sp., a Novosphingobium sp., and a
Caulobacter sp. (Fig. 6B, Table S1).

The submodule best correlated with phosphate (r = 0.53, P = 2e-06) (Fig.
S6) comprised 151 OTUs that explained 80% of the variance (LOOCV, R²=0.80;
corr = 0.89, P = < 2.3e-16) (Fig. S6D). OTUs with VIP scores > 1 belonged to
seven different phyla (Table S1), with the top four identified as an unclassified
Holophagaceae, an unclassified Gemmatimonadaceae, an unclassified
Burkholderiaceae, and a Pseudospirillum sp. (Table S1). Three of these four
OTUs had Pearson correlations with phosphate greater than 0.62 (Fig. 6B). The
most highly interconnected OTU within the submodule was an unclassified
Acidobacteria (Table S1).

In the > 2.7 µm fraction, the prokaryotic submodule with the highest
correlation to nitrate (r = 0.56, P = 3e-07) (Fig. S7A) had 133 OTUs and
explained 69% of the variation in nitrate (LOOCV, R² = 0.69; corr = 0.83, P = <
2.2e-16). The four highest VIP scoring OTUs, an Anabaena sp., a
Flavobacterium sp., an unclassified bacterium, and a member of the
Sphingobacteriales NS11-12 marine group, anticorrelated with nitrate (Fig. 7A,
Table S1). A NCBI BLAST of the unclassified bacterium returned no significant
hits > 90% identity to named organisms. OTUs with the highest node centrality
(> 20) belonged to two clades of bacteria, Sphingomonadales
(Alphaproteobacteria) and Sphingobacteriales (Bacteroidetes), and all correlated
positively to nitrate (r > 0.48, Table S1).

When considering phosphate, the most significant submodule showed a
modest correlation (r = 0.53, P = 1e-06, Fig. S7A), but OTU abundances could
only explain 48% of the variation of measured phosphate (LOOCV, R² = 0.48;
corr= 0.77, P = 4.88e-15). Proteobacteria constituted the majority of the 80 OTUs
from the submodule, and the top four scoring VIP OTUs were an unclassified
Gammaproteobacteria, an Arcicella sp., an unclassified Cytophagaceae, and a
Nitrosospira sp. (Fig. 7B, Table S1); the latter two had moderate correlations to phosphate \(r = 0.55\). The OTUs with the highest number of node connections were a Woodsholea sp. from the Caulobacterales family and the same Nitrosospira OTU (Table S1).

Among 0.2-2.7 µm Eukaryotic size fraction, a submodule strongly associated with nitrate \(r = 0.39, P = 6e-04\) (Fig. S8A) comprised 39 OTUs, mostly from the phylum Stramenopiles. OTU relative abundances explained 38% of the variance in nitrate (LOOCV, \(R^2=0.38\); corr = 0.62, \(P = 2.97e-9\)), and the top four OTUs by VIP score classified as an unclassified Chrysophyceae, an unclassified Ochrophyta, and an unclassified Chromulinales (Fig. 8B; FigS8A; Table S1). Of these, two highly correlated to nitrate \(r > 0.49\) (Table S1): the Chrysophyceae, and Chromulinales OTUs.

The submodule best correlated with phosphate \(r = 0.56, P = 2e-07\) (Fig. 8A) comprised 56 OTUs that explained 80% of the variance (LOOCV, \(R^2=0.80\); corr = 0.89, \(P = <2e-16\)). OTUs with VIP scores > 1 belonged to four different phyla (Table S1), with the top four identified as an unclassified Peronosporomycetes, an unclassified Ochrophyta, an unclassified Eukaryote, and an unclassified Stramenopiles. (Table S1). All four OTUs had Pearson correlations with phosphate greater than 0.60, two were negative (Fig. 8B). The most highly interconnected OTU within the submodule was an unclassified Eukaryote (Table S1).

Among the > 2.7 µm Eukaryote taxa, submodules with strongest correlations to nitrate and phosphate \((\text{NO}_3^-: r = 0.52, P = 2e-06; \text{PO}_4^{3-}: r = 0.60, P = 2e-08\), Fig. S9A) had smaller membership than those for prokaryotes, comprising 59 and 39 OTUs, respectively. The OTUs in the submodule most strongly correlated with nitrate could predict 57% of observed variation in nitrate (LOOCV, \(R^2=0.572\); corr = 0.759, \(P = 6.7e-15\)). OTUs with top VIP scores were two unclassified Chrysophyceae, an unclassified Ochrophyta, and an unclassified Diatom (Fig. 8B; Table S1). When considering phosphate, submodule OTU abundances predicted 62% of measured concentrations (LOOCV, \(R^2 = 0.618\); corr = 0.799, \(P = <2e-16\)). An unclassified Eukaryote and an unclassified Peronosporomycetes occupied top two phosphate-associated positions according to VIP score (Fig. 9B; Table S1).

**Discussion**

Our 2914 km transect of the MSR has supplied the longest microbiologically oriented transect of a top ten river based on volume, length, or drainage. Water samples illustrated a river continually inundated with nutrients and sediment in its upper portion that gave way to more consistent levels in the lower river (Fig. 1B). These distinct scenarios mirrored the different microbial regimes separated by the Missouri river confluence (Fig. 2), which differed from the historical distinction of the upper and lower MSR at the Ohio River confluence in Cairo, IL, but matched the separation based on changes in Strahler order from eight to ten\(^48\). In general, both prokaryotic fractions and the > 2.7 µm fraction of
eukaryotic communities increased in richness downriver while the percent of core community taxa decreased in the upper MSR before settling in the lower river (Figs. 4, S3), concomitant with increased stability of environmental factors (Fig. 1B). Co-occurrence network analyses identified important potential indicator taxa for the eutrophication nutrients nitrate and phosphate that may help future efforts to detect and quantify imminent changes in river water quality.

In general, the most abundant OTUs throughout the MSR corresponded to typical freshwater taxa observed in other important riverine/aquatic studies\textsuperscript{4,25,29,35,49,50}, such as LD12 (\textit{Alphaproteobacteria}), \textit{hcgI}-cal clade of Actinobacteria, \textit{Polynucleobacter} (\textit{Betaproteobacteria}), LD28 (\textit{Betaproteobacteria}), and \textit{Limnohabitans} (\textit{Betaproteobacteria}) (Table S1).

Though our nutrient measurements mirrored conditions found in previous studies of the Danube, Thames, and upper Mississippi rivers\textsuperscript{4,27,34}, the relative abundances of important phyla differed. Specifically, in our study Proteobacteria remained the most abundant phylum, while Bacteroidetes and Actinobacteria decreased (Fig. 3), whereas in the Minnesota portion of the MSR\textsuperscript{35}, Thames\textsuperscript{29}, Danube\textsuperscript{4}, and Columbia Rivers\textsuperscript{40}, Bacteroidetes dominated headwaters while Actinobacteria dominated further downriver. General increases in MSR species richness with distance and decreases in the percent core community along the upper river contrasted predictions by the RCC\textsuperscript{36} and observations in previous studies\textsuperscript{4,27} where these trends were reversed. Importantly, we did not sample the true headwaters of the MSR (Lake Itasca to above St. Cloud), and therefore at the point of first sampling, the MSR already constituted an eighth order river.

Ultimately, some of these variant observations may result from different sampling methodologies, but also from biological signal related to unique environmental conditions and human impacts, changes in the level of river engineering with distance, and the magnitude of the MSR (in terms of volume and catchment complexity) and its tributaries relative to previously sampled systems. However, perhaps some differences lie in the proportion and scale at which the varied influences of dispersal and environmental filtering occur.

Many of our results suggest similar underlying ecological mechanisms with other river systems, even though the specific microbial community patterns differ. Multiple studies have shown evidence for the importance of mass effects in headwaters, while species sorting dominates with increased residence time as rivers grow in size\textsuperscript{44,52}. Our data suggests that mass effects indeed play a role in the upper MSR, although instead of only in the headwaters, this process continues for almost a third of the length of the river. Increased turbidity correlated with decreases in freshwater bacteria (Spearman rank correlation, >\mbox{2.7 µm R = 0.55; 0.2-2.7 µm R = 0.51}) and the core microbiome (Spearman rank correlation, >\mbox{2.7 µm R = 0.53; 0.2-2.7 µm R = 0.63}) during the first ~1000 km- the upper MSR- whereas these variables and some nutrient concentrations (Fig. 1) stabilized in the lower MSR. These patterns are consistent with communities under the influence of mass effects from tributaries in the upper MSR. Once the MSR grew to a tenth order river, the large volume and size potentially buffered it...
from allochthonous influences, allowing species sorting effects to dominate. The lower river represents a more stable environment (e.g. nutrient concentrations) with its increased size and volume, contrasting the more variant upper MSR.

Though the river speed increases, the effective residence time also increases since taxa no longer experience rapidly changing environmental variables.

That we still observed variation between microbial communities along the lower MSR concurs with environmental filtering attributable to unmeasured bottom-up factors, such as the quality and quantity of DOM, or top-down influences such as predation or viral lysis. An overall community shift from a mixture of allochthonous members to a “native” population requires growth rates that allow taxa to overcome mass effects over a given distance. The lower river also provides ample opportunities for microbial community differentiation based on average prokaryotic growth rates, especially among particle-associated (> 2.7 µm) taxa. Thus, while the aggregate patterns in particular phyla and taxonomic richness may differ from other systems, similar ecological processes may still occur, but the relative proportion of distance whereby mass effects vs. species sorting dominate fosters unique community dynamics.

Within microbial communities lie taxa with unique roles as potential mitigators of human impact. MSR water quality has continually been rated low, suffers from significant eutrophication, and causes one of the largest worldwide zones of seasonal hypoxia in the northern GOM. Identification of microorganisms with relationships to nitrogen and phosphorous will inform efforts to model nutrient remediation and provide important targets for future study.

However, such microbial indicators of biological integrity (IBIs - metrics to quantify the health of an aquatic system), require better development – phosphate and nitrate increased along the upper MSR and generally stabilized in the lower river (Fig. 1). Using co-correlation networks and partial least squares modeling (PLS), we identified submodules with containing taxa with significant predictive power for phosphate and nitrate concentrations (Figs. 6-9). Individual OTUs within these submodules with strong correlations to nitrate or phosphate, and VIP scores > 1 within the PLS models, represent potential indicator taxa for these nutrients.

Taxa in a 0.2-2.7 µm fraction submoule could predict 80% of the variance in phosphate concentrations, with much weaker correlations to nitrate. A *Holophagaceae* OTU (OTU33) was the top 0.2-2.7 µm taxon for predicting phosphate concentrations based on VIP scores (Fig. 6B). It also occupied an important role in separating communities at a beta-diversity level (Fig. 2B), and resided in the core microbiome. A 2014 study on the tributaries of the MSR found that the Ohio River had much higher abundance of Acidobacteria relative to other tributaries, which corroborates our finding of increasing Acidobacteria downriver. Although the *Holophagaceae* comprises diverse and abundant taxa, many environmentally relevant taxa remain elusive to cultivation efforts. One of the few cultivated representatives from the *Holophagaceae* family, *Holophaga foetida*, has the genomic capacity to accumulate phosphorous and synthesize...
polyphosphate via a polyphosphate kinase\textsuperscript{60}. While this organism has an 
obligately anaerobic lifestyle\textsuperscript{*} that makes it an unlikely match for the OTU, it 
indicates genomic potential that may span the clade. An unclassified 
*Gemmatimonadaceae* (OTU60) from the 0.2-2.7 \(\mu\)m fraction correlated strongly 
with phosphate and also played a strong role in driving beta-diversity changes 
between the upper and lower river (Fig. 2)

Contrasting the 0.2-2.7 \(\mu\)m taxa, a submodule in the > 2.7 \(\mu\)m fraction 
could predict 69\% of nitrate concentration variance. Within the prokaryotic > 2.7 
\(\mu\)m taxa, an *Anabaena* sp. (OTU40) had the top VIP score among submodule 
taxa predicting nitrate, correlated negatively (Fig. 7A), and had membership in 
the core microbiome. The nitrogen-fixing *Anabaena*\textsuperscript{61} typically bloom in low 
dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) conditions, making the absence of these 
consistent with high DIN. Organisms in the *Sphingomonadaceae* (e.g., 
*Novosphingobium* spp.) also contributed strongly to the PLS models predicting 
nitrate with both > 2.7 \(\mu\)m (Fig. 7A) and 0.2-2.7 \(\mu\)m (Fig. 6A) taxa (Table S1).

*Novosphingobium* isolates have previously been associated with eutrophic 
environments\textsuperscript{34,64–66} and some can reduce nitrate\textsuperscript{64,65}, making these OTUs good 
candidate IBIs within the MSR basin.

Notably, a *Nitrospira* sp. (OTU96) significantly correlated with phosphate 
\((R^2=0.60, P<0.001)\) and and was the second most important taxa for predicting 
phosphate concentrations in the > 2.7 \(\mu\)m fraction (VIP = 1.8). *Nitrospira* occupy 
a key role as nitrite oxidizers, and have been found in various environments 
including the “Dead Zone” in the GoM\textsuperscript{22} and in correlation with wastewater 
treatment effluent\textsuperscript{67}. This OTU makes an intriguing IBI candidate in a watershed 
impacted by wastewater\textsuperscript{68} and that directly influences the Dead Zone.

Additionally, as an organism that creates nitrate, this might represent a taxon that 
exacerbates, rather than mitigates, the effects of eutrophication.

Within Eukaryotes, multiple algae and diatoms strongly correlated with 
nitrate and phosphate (Fig. 8 and 9; Table S1), and specifically *Chrysophyceae* 
taxa from both fractions correlated strongly with nitrate (Fig. 8A). *Chrysophyceae* 
(golden algae) commonly occupy river systems\textsuperscript{69} including the MSR\textsuperscript{68}, can be 
autotrophic and mixotrophic\textsuperscript{70}, and may serve as predators of prokaryotes\textsuperscript{71}.

While we also identified many other eukaryotes as important predictors of 
nutrients, poor taxonomic resolution hindered our ability to discuss them further. 
Improved cultivation and systematics of key microbial eukaryotes will be vital to 
understanding river nutrient dynamics.

While the most geographically comprehensive to date, this study only 
encompasses a snapshot in time for the MSR. Seasonal changes that have been 
oberved in the Minnesota portion of the upper MSR\textsuperscript{52} and the Columbia 
River\textsuperscript{52,72,73} undoubtedly influence this dynamic system. Future studies should 
incorporate microbial responses, at a full river scale, to seasonal pulse events 
(e.g. rain, snow melt) and how river size and volume may buffer local microbial 
communities from allochthonous inputs. Our current research highlights the 
uniqueness and complexities of the MSR ecosystem. The observed association
between changes in Strahler’s river order, nutrient dynamics, and community composition indicates the importance of hydrology on the spatial dynamics structuring microbial communities and provides baseline information for future MSR studies that incorporate greater temporal and spatial resolution. With water quality and river health of growing local and global importance, the determination of candidate microbial IBIs also provides impetus for targeted research on their functions and further investigation of these organisms as sentinels of river health.

Materials and Methods

Sampling and Cell Counts

We used rowboats and a simple filtration protocol (Supplementary Information) to collect water from 39 sites along a continually rowed transect of the MSR, starting in Lake Itasca and ending in the GOM, over 70 days from September 18th to November 26th, 2014. Sites were chosen to be near major cities and above and below large tributaries. After some samples were removed due to insufficient sequence data, contamination, or incomplete metadata (see below), the final usable set of samples included 38 sites starting at Minneapolis (Fig. 1A, Table S1). Most sampling occurred within the body of the river, although due to safety issues, three samples were collected from shore (Table S1). We collected duplicate samples at each site, but because separate rowboat teams frequently collected these sometimes several dozen meters apart, they cannot be considered true biological replicates and we have treated them as independent samples. At each site, we filtered 120 mL of water sequentially through a 2.7 µm GF/D filter (Whatman GE, New Jersey, USA) housed in a 25mm polycarbonate holder (TISCH, Ohio, USA) followed by a 0.2 µm Sterivex filter (EMD Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) with a sterile 60 mL syringe (BD, New Jersey, USA). We refer to fractions collected on the 2.7 µm and 0.22 µm filters as > 2.7 µm and 0.2-2.7 µm, respectively. Flow-through water from the first 60 mL was collected in autoclaved acid-washed 60 mL polycarbonate bottles. Both filters were wrapped in parafilm, and together with the filtrate, placed on ice in Yeti Roadie 20 coolers (Yeti, Austin, TX) until shipment to LSU. Further, 9 mL of whole water for cell counts was added to sterile 15 mL Falcon tubes containing 1 mL of formaldehyde and placed into the cooler. We monitored cooler temperature with HOBO loggers (Onset, Bourne, MA) to ensure samples stayed at ≤ 4°C. The final cooler containing samples from sites P-Al had substantial ice-melt. Though our filters were wrapped in parafilm, we processed melted cooler water alongside our other samples to control for potential contamination in these filters. Given that some of our samples were expected to contain low biomass, we also included duplicate process controls for kit contamination with unused sterile filters. Flow-through 0.2 µm filtered water from each collection was analyzed for SiO$_4$, PO$_4^{3-}$, NH$_4^+$, NO$_3^-$, and NO$_2^-$ (µg/L) at the University of Washington Marine Chemistry
Laboratory
(http://www.ocean.washington.edu/story/Marine+Chemistry+Laboratory). Aboard-
rowboat measurements were taken for temperature and turbidity. We determined
turbidity by deploying a secchi disk (Wildco, Yulee, FL), while drifting with the
current so the line hung vertically. It was lowered until no longer visible, then
raised until just visible, and measured for its distance below the waterline. We
then calculated secchi depth from the average of two measurements.
Temperature was measured with probes from US Water Systems (Indianapolis,
IN), rinsed with distilled water between samples. Samples for cell counts were
filtered through a 2.7 µm GF/D filter, stained with 1x Sybr Green (Lonza), and
enumerated using the Guava EasyCyte (Millipore) flow cytometer as previously
described.77

DNA extraction and Sequencing
DNA was extracted from both filter fractions and controls using a MoBio
PowerWater DNA kit (MoBio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA) following the
manufacturer’s protocol with one minor modification: in a biosafety cabinet (The
Baker Company, Stanford, ME), sterivex filter housings were cracked open using
sterilized pliers and filters were then removed by cutting along the edge of the
plastic holder with a sterile razor blade before being placed into bead-beating
tubes. DNA was eluted with sterile MilliQ water, quantified using the Qubit2.0
Fluorometer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA), and stored at -20° C. Bacterial
and archaeal sequences were amplified at the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene
using the 515f and 806r primer set78, and eukaryotic sequences from the V9
region of the 18S rRNA gene using the 1391r and EukBR primer set79. Amplicons
were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq as paired-end 250 bp reads at Argonne
National Laboratory. Sequencing of the 16S and 18S rRNA gene amplicons
resulted in 13253140 and 13240531 sequences, respectively.

Sequence Analysis
We analyzed amplicon data with Mothur v.1.33.380 using the Silva v.119
database.81,82 Briefly, 16S and 18S rRNA gene sequences were assembled into
contigs and discarded if the contig had any ambiguous base pairs, possessed
repeats greater than 8 bp, or were greater than 253 or 184 bp in length,
respectively. Contigs were aligned using the Silva rRNA v.119 database,
checked for chimeras using UCHIME83, and classified also using the Silva rRNA
v.119 database. Contigs classified as chloroplast, eukaryotes, mitochondria, or
“unknown”; or as chloroplast, bacteria, archaea, mitochondria, or “unknown;”
were removed from 16S or 18S rRNA gene data, respectively. The remaining
contigs were clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using a 0.03
dissimilarity threshold (OTU0.03). After these steps, 146725 and 131352 OTUs
remained for the 16S and 18S rRNA gene communities, respectively.

Sample quality control
To evaluate the potential for contamination from extraction kits, cooler water in
the last set of samples, or leaking/bursting of pre-filters, all samples were
evaluated with hierarchical clustering and NMDS analysis. Hierarchical clustering
was preformed in R using the hclust function with methods set to “average”, from
the vegan package. Samples were removed from our analysis if they were
observed to be outliers in both the NMDS and hierarchical clustering such that
they grouped with our process controls. The process and cooler water controls
were extreme outliers in both, as was sample L2 (Fig. S1, S2). Sterivex and
prefilter samples generally showed strong separation with the exception of three
16S rRNA gene samples - STER X2, W2, S2 (Fig. S1, S2). The only other
samples that were removed were due to missing chemical data (Lake Itasca1-2,
A1-2) or failed sequencing (16S STER Af1; 16S PRE S2, X2; 18S PRE O1). Not
including process or cooler water controls, 152 samples were sequenced each
for prokaryotic and eukaryotic communities. After these QC measures, 144 and
149 samples remained in the analyses from the 16S and 18S rRNA gene
amplicons, respectively. Further, to control for potential contaminants, any OTU
with greater 20 reads in the process or cooler controls was removed from the
data set. 146725 and 131327 OTUs remained after these steps for 16S and 18S
rRNA gene communities, respectively.

**Alpha and Beta Diversity**

OTU$_{0.03}$ analyses were completed with the R statistical environment v.3.2.1. Using the package PhyloSeq, alpha-diversity was first calculated on the unfiltered OTUs using the “estimate richness” command within PhyloSeq, which calculates Chao1. After estimating chao1, potentially erroneous rare OTUs, defined here as those without at least two sequences in 20% of the data, were discarded. After this filter, the dataset contained 950 and 724 16S and 18S rRNA gene OTUs, respectively. For site-specific community comparisons, OTU counts were normalized using the package DESeq2 with a variance stabilizing transformation. Beta-diversity between samples was examined using Bray-Curtis distances via ordination with non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS). Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) was used to test for significant differences between groups of samples of the NMDS analyses using the anosim function in the vegan package. The influence of environmental parameters on beta-diversity was calculated in R with the envfit function.

**Network analyses and modeling**

To identify specific OTUs with strong relationships to environmental parameters (e.g. turbidity, NO$_3$), we employed weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) as previously described for OTU relative abundances. First, a similarity matrix of nodes (OTUs) was created based on pairwise Pearson correlations across samples. This was transformed into an adjacency matrix by raising the similarity matrix to a soft threshold power ($p$; $p = 6$ for 16S and 18S > 2.7 µm, $p = 4$ for 16S 0.2-2.7 µm) that ensured scale-free topology. Submodules
of highly co-correlating OTUs were defined with a topological overlap matrix and hierarchical clustering. Each submodule, represented by an eigenvalue, was pairwise Pearson correlated to individual environmental parameters (Figs. S6-8 A). To explore the relationship of submodule structure to these parameters, submodule OTUs were plotted using their individual correlation to said parameter (here nitrate or phosphate) and their submodule membership, defined as the number of connections within the module (Figs. S6-8 B, D). Strong correlations between submodule structure and an environmental parameter facilitate identification of OTUs that are highly correlated to that parameter. To evaluate the predictive relationship between a submodule and a parameter, we employed partial least square regression (PLS) regression analysis. PLS maximizes the covariance between two parameters (e.g. OTU abundance and nitrate concentration) to define the degree to which the measured value (OTU abundance) can predict the response variable (nutrient concentration). The PLS model was permuted a 1000 times and Pearson correlations were calculated between the response variable and leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) predicted values. Modeled values were then compared with measured values to determine the explanatory power of the relationships (Figs. S6-8 C, E). Relative contributions of individual OTUs to the PLS regression were calculated using value of importance in the projection (VIP) determination. PLS was run using the R package *pls*, while VIP was run using an additional code found here: [http://mevik.net/work/software/VIP.R](http://mevik.net/work/software/VIP.R).

### Environmental Ontology

Environmental ontology of individual 16S rRNA gene OTUs was determined using the SEQenv (v1.2.4) pipeline ([https://github.com/xapple/seqenv](https://github.com/xapple/seqenv)) as previously described. Briefly, representative sequences of our OTUs were searched against the NCBI nt database (updated on 07/01/2016) using BLAST and filtered for hits with a minimum of 99% identity. From each hit, a text query of the metadata was performed to identify terms representing the sequence’s environmental source. The text was mined for EnvO terms ([http://environmentontology.org/](http://environmentontology.org/)) and the frequency in which the terms appeared for each OTU was recorded. Using the seq_to_names output provided by SEQenv, EnvO terms were formed into eight groups: Freshwater, Aquatic Undetermined, Salt Water, Anthropogenic, Other, Terrestrial, Sediment, and Unclassified (Table S1). To be assigned a group, an OTU had to have the majority (> 50%) of its hits classified to that term, while equal distribution between two or more groups were classified as Unclassified. OTUs that returned no significant hits to an EnvO term were assigned to a ninth category, NA. OTUs and their corresponding relative abundances were merged based on the assigned group and plotted.

### Accession numbers
Community 16S and 18S rRNA gene community sequence fastq files are available at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under the accession numbers: SRR3485674-SRR3485971 and SRR3488881-SRR3489315.

Code Availability
All code used for Mothur, SeqENV, PhyloSeq, WGCNA, and PLS regression analyses can be found on the Thrash lab website (http://thethrashlab.com/publications) with the reference to this manuscript linked to “Supplementary Data”.

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Author Contributions
M.W.H., J.H., F.S., and J.C.T. designed the study, J.H., G.S., P.F., and M.P. collected the data, M.W.H. processed the samples, M.W.H. and J.C.T. analyzed the data, M.W.H. and J.C.T. wrote the manuscript, and all authors contributed to the editing of the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest
The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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**Figure Legends**

**Figure 1.** Sampling map (A) with graph inserts that represent the measured discharge rate (cubic feet second\(^{-1}\) [CFS]) as recorded on the USGS gauges, and six environmental parameters measured along the transect, according to concentration or visible depth of Secchi disk by distance (B). Throughout the figure and text, blue and red dots represent sampling locations above and below the Missouri River confluence, respectively, and are designated throughout as “Upper” and “Lower.” Cell Counts only represent the <2.7 µm fraction. C) An OAR Northwest rowboat dwarfed by a paddleboat.
Figure 2. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) results for whole community correlations with environmental parameters (phosphate, nitrate, nitrite, ammonia, distance (km), water temperature, turbidity (cm), river speed (mph)) and the top ten OTUs based on significance (P) and strength of correlation (r). The four plots represent > 2.7 µm (A, C) and 0.2-2.7 µm (B, D) fractions for the 16S (A, B) and 18S (C, D) rRNA gene communities. Vector length is proportional to the strength of the correlation.

Figure 3. Relative abundance, by phylum, according to transect distance, for phyla accounting for > 0.1% of the total reads for the 16S rRNA gene > 2.7 µm (A) and 0.2-2.7 µm (B) communities. Non-linear regressions with 95% CI (gray shading) are provided for reference.

Figure 4. Core microbiome aggregate abundance for the 16S (A) and 18S (B) rRNA gene. In each, triangles and circles points represent 0.2-2.7 µm and > 2.7 µm fractions, respectively. Non-linear regressions with 95% confidence intervals (CI) (gray shading) are provided for reference.

Figure 5. Relative abundance, by phylum, according to transect distance, for phyla accounting for > 0.1% of the total reads for the 18S rRNA gene > 2.7 µm (A) and 0.2-2.7 µm (B) communities. Non-linear regressions with 95% CI (gray shading) are provided for reference.

Figure 6. PLS results for the 0.2-2.7 µm 16S rRNA gene community for selected submodules with nitrate and phosphate and a VIP score > 1. Correlation of submodule OTUs to nitrate (A) and phosphate (B), according to the number of co-correlations (node centrality). Circle size is proportional to VIP scores, with top 10 VIP scoring and top node centrality OTUs labeled with their highest-resolution taxonomic classification and OTU number. Colors represent the taxonomic classification the phylum level.

Figure 7. PLS results for the > 2.7 µm 16S rRNA gene community for selected submodules with nitrate and phosphate and a VIP score of > 1. Correlation of submodule OTUs to nitrate (A) and phosphate (B), according to the number of co-correlations (node centrality). Circle size is proportional to VIP scores, with top 10 VIP scoring and top node centrality OTUs labeled with their highest-resolution taxonomic classification and OTU number. Colors represent the taxonomic classification the phylum level.

Figure 8. PLS results for the 0.2-2.7 µm 16S rRNA gene community for selected submodules with nitrate and phosphate and a VIP score of > 1. Correlation of submodule OTUs to nitrate (A) and phosphate (B), according to the number of co-correlations (node centrality). Circle size is proportional to VIP scores, with top 10 VIP scoring and top node centrality OTUs labeled with their highest-resolution taxonomic classification and OTU number. Colors represent the taxonomic classification the phylum level.

Figure 9. PLS results for the > 2.7 µm 18S rRNA gene community for selected submodules with nitrate and phosphate and a VIP score of > 1. Correlation of submodule OTUs to nitrate (A) and phosphate (B), according to the number of co-correlations (node centrality). Circle size is proportional to
VIP scores, with top 10 VIP scoring and top node centrality OTUs labeled with their highest-resolution taxonomic classification and OTU number. Colors represent the taxonomic classification the phylum level.
### Relative Abundance

| Phylum                  | Proteobacteria | Bacteroidetes | Firmicutes | Actinobacteria | Cyanobacteria | unclassified | Verrucomicrobia | Planctomycetes | Chloroflexi | Chlorobi | Acidobacteria | Gemmatimonadetes | Thaumarchaeota | Euryarchaeota |
|-------------------------|----------------|---------------|------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|----------|------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|
| Relative Abundance (%)  | 0.36           | 0.40          | 0.44       | 0.10           | 0.20          |              |                | 0.04           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.00                    | 0.10           | 0.20          | 0.30       | 0.25           |              |              |                | 0.02           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.01                    | 0.15           | 0.30          | 0.40       | 0.25           |              |              |                | 0.03           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.02                    | 0.20           | 0.40          | 0.50       | 0.30           |              |              |                | 0.05           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.03                    | 0.25           | 0.50          | 0.60       | 0.35           |              |              |                | 0.07           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.04                    | 0.30           | 0.60          | 0.70       | 0.40           |              |              |                | 0.09           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.05                    | 0.35           | 0.70          | 0.80       | 0.45           |              |              |                | 0.11           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.06                    | 0.40           | 0.80          | 0.90       | 0.50           |              |              |                | 0.13           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.07                    | 0.45           | 0.90          | 1.00       | 0.55           |              |              |                | 0.15           |              |          |            |                |                 |               |
| 0.08                    | 0.50           |              |            |                |              |              |                |                |              |          |            |                |                 |               |

**Note:** The charts in the diagram illustrate the relative abundance of each phylum over time.
| Relative Abundance | Unclassified Eukaryotes | Stramenopiles | Cryptomonadales | Alveolata |
|--------------------|-------------------------|---------------|-----------------|----------|
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.45     |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.50     |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.55     |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.60     |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.65     |
|                    | 0.000                  | 0.25          | 0.30            | 0.35     |
|                    | 0.001                  | 0.40          | 0.45            | 0.52     |
|                    | 0.002                  | 0.50          | 0.55            | 0.58     |
|                    | 0.003                  | 0.60          | 0.65            | 0.70     |
|                    | 0.004                  | 0.70          | 0.75            | 0.80     |

|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.04     |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.05     |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.06     |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.07     |

| Relative Abundance | Unclassified Eukaryotes | Stramenopiles | Cryptomonadales | Alveolata |
|--------------------|-------------------------|---------------|-----------------|----------|
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.0000   |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.0025   |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.0050   |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.0075   |
|                    |                         |               |                 | 0.0100   |
|                    | 0.0000                  | 0.0050        | 0.0100          | 0.0150   |
|                    | 0.0025                  | 0.0100        | 0.0150          | 0.0200   |
|                    | 0.0050                  | 0.0150        | 0.0200          | 0.0250   |
|                    | 0.0075                  | 0.0200        | 0.0250          | 0.0300   |
|                    | 0.0100                  | 0.0250        | 0.0300          | 0.0350   |

Diagram showing trends of different taxa (Unclassified Eukaryotes, Stramenopiles, Cryptomonadales, Alveolata, Nucletmycea, Prymnesiophyceae, Rhizaria, Holozoa) across different distance ranges (0-3000 km).
A

- Pseudospirillum sp. (OTU483)
- Lacibacter sp. (OTU583)
- Caulobacter sp. (OTU387)
- Novospingobium sp. (OTU117)
- Mucilaginibacter sp. (OTU129)
- Unc. Myxococcales (OTU290)
- Arcicella sp. (OTU258)
- Fluviicola sp. (OTU138)
- Acinetobacter sp. (OTU171)
- Caulobacter sp. (OTU387)
- Lacibacter sp. (OTU583)
- Unc. Microbacteriaceae (OTU150)
- Unc. Sphingobacteriaceae (OTU139)

Correlation to Nitrate

B

- Unc. Gemmatimonadaceae (OTU60)
- Opitutus sp. (OTU286)
- Unc. Holophagaceae (OTU33)
- Unc. Planctomyetes (OTU1187)
- Mucilaginibacter sp. (OTU129)
- Novosphingobium sp. (OTU117)
- Acidimicrobiaceae CL500-29 (OTU186)
- Unc. OPB56 (OTU197)
- Unc. Verrucomicrobia (OTU336)
- Unc. Verrucomicrobia Subgroup 6 (OTU322)
- Unc. Gammaproteobacteria (OTU94)
- Unc. Burkholderiaceae (OTU153)
- Unc. Proteobacteria (OTU132)

Correlation to Phosphate
