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2 **Title:** Microbial community composition is affected by press, but not pulse, seawater intrusion.

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4 **Authors:** Courtney Mobilian (cmobilia@iu.edu)¹, Nathan I. Wisnoski (wisnoski@indiana.edu)²,

5 Jay T. Lennon (lennonj@indiana.edu)², Meryll Alber (malber@uga.edu)³, Sarah Widney

6 (sewidney@gmail.com)¹ and Christopher B. Craft (ccraft@indiana.edu)¹

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8 **Author Affiliations:**

9 ¹ School of Public and Environmental Affairs, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, USA

10 ² Department of Biology, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, USA

11 ³ Department of Marine Sciences, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA

12

13 **Corresponding Author:**

14 Christopher Craft (ccraft@indiana.edu)

15

16 **Author Contribution Statement:**

17 CC and MA designed the study. MA supported lab analysis (DNA extraction). SW conducted

18 field work. JL and NW conducted statistical analyses. CM, NW, JL, and CC wrote the paper.

19 **Scientific Significance Statement:**

20 Sea level rise and seawater intrusion threaten tidal freshwater marshes (TFMs) and the important
21 ecosystem services they provide. Intrusion of seawater in TFMs can occur across a range of
22 timescales, such as episodic events, like storm surges or drought, or continuous intrusion as a
23 result of rising sea level. The effects of these stressors on TFM microbial communities are not
24 well understood. Our multi-year field manipulation of brackish water inputs revealed that
25 microbial communities were resilient to short-term pulses of salinity whereas continuous
26 seawater intrusion led to reduced microbial diversity along with changes in relative abundance of
27 key functional groups. Such alterations may diminish the ability of TFMs to sequester carbon
28 and cycle nutrients.

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32 **Data Availability Statement:**

33 Sequence data is available on the NCBI SRA (BioProject PRJNA611801). Data, metadata, and
34 code used to generate results will be made publicly available on a Zenodo archive (Accession #
35 and doi pending) of the GitHub repository <https://github.com/LennonLab/MicroMarsh>.

36

37 **Abstract:**

38 Tidal freshwater marshes (TFMs) are threatened by seawater intrusion, which can affect
39 microbial communities and alter biogeochemical processes. Here, we report on Seawater
40 Addition Long Term Experiment (SALTEX), a manipulative field experiment that investigated
41 continuous (press) and episodic (pulse, 2 months/yr) inputs of brackish water on microbial
42 communities in a TFM. After 2.5 years, microbial diversity was lower in press treatments than in
43 control (untreated) plots. Sulfate reducers increased in response to both press and pulse
44 treatments whereas methanogens did not differ among treatments. Our results suggest that
45 microbial communities in TFMs are resilient to episodic events, but that continuous seawater
46 intrusion may alter bacterial diversity in ways that affect ecosystem functioning.

47

48 **Keywords:** Microbial diversity, community composition, seawater intrusion, disturbance, pulse,
49 press, tidal freshwater marsh, climate change

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52 **INTRODUCTION**

53 Tidal freshwater marshes (TFMs) provide important ecosystem services such as carbon (C)
54 sequestration (Loomis and Craft 2010), water quality improvement through the removal of
55 nutrients such as nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) (Gribsholt et al. 2005; Neubauer et al. 2005),
56 and protection from storm surges (Barbier et al. 2013), while also supporting high biodiversity of
57 plants, animals, and microbial communities (Odum 1988). However, TFMs are threatened by

58 climate change and rising seas, which are predicted to increase an additional 0.4-1.2 meters by
59 the end of the century (Horton et al. 2014). Sea level rise is expected to lead to seawater intrusion
60 into TFMs and tidal freshwater forests, converting them to brackish marshes, mud flats, or open
61 water (DeLaune et al. 1994; Herbert et al. 2015). TFMs will also experience episodic (pulse)
62 seawater intrusion owing to more frequent and longer periods of drought, increased occurrence
63 of storm surges, and decreased freshwater inputs from rivers (van Vliet et al. 2013). It is unclear
64 how these at-risk ecosystems will respond to increased salinity from such continuous and
65 episodic incursions of seawater.

66 Salinity alters biogeochemical processes in tidal marshes, due in part to changes in both the
67 activity and composition of microbial communities (Reed and Martiny 2013). Seawater intrusion
68 modifies the composition and availability of electron acceptors, such as sulfate (Capone and
69 Kiene 1988). Higher sulfate levels could lead to major shifts in the dominant microbial
70 functional groups in TFMs, such as an increased abundance of sulfate reducers and a decrease in
71 methanogens in response to altered redox conditions (Weston et al. 2006). While some microbial
72 communities are thought to be resistant and resilient to environmental change (Shade et al.
73 2012), it is unclear how TFM microbial communities will respond to seawater inputs in the
74 coming decades.

75 Microbial responses may depend on the amount, timing, and duration of seawater intrusions.
76 For example, reciprocal transplants of salt marsh soils into a freshwater habitat revealed that,
77 after 40 days, abundance of methanogens (*mcrA*) increased, but the abundance of sulfate
78 reducers (*dsrA*) was unaffected (Morrissey and Franklin 2015). However, after 40 days,
79 communities remained more phylogenetically related to their "home" environment compared to
80 the "away" environment, suggesting that microorganisms are resilient to short-term perturbations

81 (Morrissey and Franklin 2015). In a one-year study, transplanting TFM soils into a mesohaline
82 environment led to an increased abundance of sulfate reducing bacteria (Dang et al. 2019).
83 Together, these studies demonstrate that microorganisms can be sensitive to changes in salinity,
84 but that the responses may depend on the duration of the perturbation.

85 In this study, we evaluated changes in the microbial community in response to episodic
86 (pulse) and continuous (press) seawater intrusions by conducting a field-scale manipulation. In
87 our experiment, replicated TFM plots (n=6) received press or pulse additions of brackish water,
88 freshwater, or were left untreated (control). We hypothesized that microbial diversity would
89 differ between plots receiving continuous and episodic seawater intrusion. We also hypothesized
90 there would be increased abundance of sulfate reducers and decreased abundance of
91 methanogens in plots receiving seawater additions relative to plots not receiving seawater
92 additions.

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94

METHODS

Site Description and Experimental Design

96 The experiment, Seawater Addition Long-Term Experiment (SALTE_x), was conducted in a
97 TFM on the Altamaha River Georgia, USA, as part of the Georgia Coastal Ecosystems Long
98 Term Ecological Research (GCE-LTER) project (<http://gce-lter.marsci.uga.edu/>) (Figure S1).
99 The site is dominated by giant cutgrass, *Zizaniopsis miliacea* Michx, and experiences twice-daily
100 tidal inundations of freshwater with an average flooding depth of 25 cm at high tide (Widney et
101 al. 2019). Details of the long-term experiment can be found elsewhere (Herbert et al. 2018,
102 Widney et al. 2019), but briefly, we established 2.5 x 2.5 m replicated (n = 6 per treatment) plots
103 at the site, which were randomly assigned to one of the following treatment groups: Control,

104 Fresh, Pulse salinity, and Press salinity. Beginning in April 2014, Press plots were dosed four
105 times per week with approximately 265 L of treatment water (~15 ppt salinity), consisting of an
106 equal mixture of seawater and fresh river water. Pulse plots were dosed four times per week with
107 treatment water in September and October, during natural low river flow and dosed with fresh
108 river water the remaining 10 months of the year. Fresh plots were dosed with fresh river water
109 four times per week. Control (untreated) plots did not receive brackish water but, like the other
110 treatments, were regularly inundated by the tides.

111

112 *Sample Collection and Environmental Variables*

113 After treatment additions for 2.5 years, we collected soil samples (0-10 cm) from each of the four
114 replicate plots from each treatment group in October 2016. Soils were placed in a cooler and
115 shipped frozen to Indiana University where they were stored in a -80°C freezer until ready for
116 DNA extraction.

117 We also measured porewater ammonium (NH_4^+), nitrate (NO_3^-), dissolved reactive
118 phosphorus (DRP), and soil surface temperature quarterly, including October 2016, to identify
119 potential drivers of community structure in each treatment. Porewater results and details on
120 methods are described in more detail elsewhere (Herbert et al. 2018; Widney et al. 2019).

121

122 *Microbial Characterization*

123 We characterized bacterial and archaeal composition using 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing.

124 After extracting DNA from each sample using a MoBio PowerSoil DNA extraction kit

125 (Carlsbad, CA), we amplified the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene using 5PRIME

126 HotMasterMix and 515F and 806R primers with customized Illumina sequencing adapters and

127 unique sample barcodes following conditions described in detail elsewhere (Daum 2017).
128 Amplicons were then pooled at approximately equal molar concentrations after quantification
129 using a Roche LightCycler 480 real-time PCR instrument. The pooled sample was then
130 sequenced on the MiSeq sequencing platform with a v3 600 Reagent kit following a 2x300
131 indexed run recipe at the at the Joint Genome Institute in Walnut Creek, California. Raw
132 sequences were processed using the iTagger v. 2.2 pipeline
133 (https://bitbucket.org/berkeleylab/jgi_itagger/src/itagger2/) and USEARCH (v. 9.2). Briefly,
134 paired end reads were merged and quality filtered using expected error filtering. The resulting
135 sequences were then incrementally clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) starting at
136 99% identity and sequentially increasing the clustering radius by 1%. Finally, OTUs were
137 classified using the Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) reference. The final OTU table and
138 metadata can be found in the Zenodo archive (Craft et al. 2020), and raw sequence data are
139 available at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (BioProject PRJNA611801).

140

141 *Diversity Analysis*

142 To assess microbial responses to seawater intrusion, we compared patterns of α - and β -diversity
143 among treatments. We performed rarefaction on the community data, subsampling communities
144 to 143,105 reads, and then relativized operational taxonomic unit (OTU) abundances to the total
145 number of reads per sample. We characterized within-sample (α) diversity as the effective
146 number of OTUs by taking the exponential of Shannon's index (i.e., Hill number with degree =
147 1), which improves comparisons among groups (Jost 2006). We used ANOVA to compare
148 differences in α -diversity among treatments, followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference
149 method to generate confidence intervals for group differences. To explain differences in

150 community structure among treatments (i.e., β -diversity), we first transformed OTU relative
151 abundances with the Hellinger transformation, and then used permutational multivariate
152 ANOVA (PERMANOVA) to determine the significance of the treatment effects. We used
153 redundancy analysis (RDA) to quantify the importance of individual environmental variables
154 (porewater salinity, sulfides, NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and DRP) for explaining community differences
155 among treatments.

156 We also analyzed the responses of two key functional groups to the experimental
157 manipulations. First, we classified potential sulfate reducers as a subset of 16S rRNA sequences
158 belonging to the following orders in the δ -Proteobacteria: Desulfuromonadales, Desulfarculales,
159 Desulfobacterales, Desulfovibrionales, Desulfurellales, while recognizing that this may be an
160 incomplete estimate of sulfate reducers. Second, we classified potential methanogens based on
161 the summed relative abundances of archaeal sequences belonging to the following orders:
162 Methanobacteriales, Methanomicrobiales, Methanosarcinales, and Methanocellales. We used
163 ANOVA and Tukey's method to determine the significance and effects of experimental
164 treatments on the relative abundances of these taxonomic groups in the communities. All
165 analyses were completed using the R environment (v. 3.6.0) and the vegan R package (Oksanen
166 et al. 2019).

167

168

RESULTS

169 *Microbial Composition*

170 Although Pulse additions had no effect on α -diversity relative to the Control treatment (Tukey
171 HSD, $p = 0.441$), Press inputs of seawater reduced α -diversity by 25% (ANOVA, $F_{3,11} = 4.98$, p
172 $= 0.017$, Figure 1). Seawater additions also affected microbial community composition

173 (PERMANOVA, $F_{3,11} = 4.43$, $p = 0.001$, $r^2 = 0.55$). Based on the ordination plot from our RDA,
174 community composition in Press treatments diverged from the composition of other treatments,
175 while composition in the Pulse treatments was more similar to the Control and Fresh treatments
176 (Figure 2). Microbial composition in the Pulse treatment was associated with higher porewater
177 salinity, sulfides, and inorganic nitrogen (NO_3^-) than control and freshwater treatments (Table 1,
178 Figure 2). Porewater in the Pulse treatments experienced transient changes during dosing, such
179 as increased salinity and sulfides, that returned to background levels after dosing ceased (Figure
180 3) (Widney et al. 2019). Our RDA also revealed that, while also having increased salinity, the
181 Press treatment was distinguished from Pulse and other treatments by higher porewater NH_4^+ ,
182 dissolved reactive phosphorus (DRP), and soil surface temperature (Table 1, Figure 2).
183 Continuous (press) salinity also led to more persistent changes in porewater chemistry, including
184 increased salinity, ammonium, and sulfides for the duration of the experiment (Figure 3)
185 (Widney et al. 2019).

186 Seawater manipulations also had an effect on some microbial functional groups. For
187 example, the relative abundance of sulfate reducers was nearly double in the Press plots (6.5%,
188 Tukey HSD, $p = 0.0004$) than in Control treatments (3.5%) (ANOVA, $F_{3,11} = 15.34$, $p = 0.003$,
189 Figure 4a). In addition, sulfate reducers were enriched in the Pulse treatment (6%) compared to
190 the Control treatment (3.5%) (Tukey HSD, $p = 0.0078$) (Figure 4a). The relative abundance of
191 sulfate reducers was also greater in the Press (Tukey, HSD, $p = 0.0019$) compared to the Fresh
192 treatment and marginally greater in the Pulse compared to the Fresh treatment (Tukey HSD, $p =$
193 0.054) (Figure 4a). Relative abundance of sulfate reducers did not differ between Press and Pulse
194 treatments (Tukey HSD, $p = 0.23$). Contrary to our prediction, the relative abundance of

195 methanogens, which ranged from 0.5 to 1.5%, did not differ among treatments (ANOVA, $F_{3,11} =$
196 0.494, $p = 0.694$) (Figure 4b).

197

198

DISCUSSION

199 Salinity is an important driver of microbial community composition (Lozupone and Knight 2007;
200 Morrissey et al. 2014), which can in turn affect biogeochemical processes including carbon
201 sequestration (Weston et al. 2011; Neubauer et al. 2013; Morrissey et al. 2014). In this study, we
202 observed reduced microbial diversity, altered microbial composition, and an increase in the
203 relative abundance of sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB) in response to continuous (press) seawater
204 intrusion for 2.5 years. In contrast, our results suggest that microbial communities in TFMs are
205 less affected by episodic (pulse) seawater intrusion. Taken together, our study indicates that
206 modified salinization regimes in TFMs may have implications for sulfur cycling, in particular
207 increased potential for sulfate reduction, that emerge over longer time scales of seawater
208 intrusion.

209 Microbial community composition in the Pulse plots was different from both the Control and
210 the Press treatments (Figure 2). Relative to Control treatments, Pulse plots had a greater
211 abundance of sulfate reducers (Figure 4a) but no difference in diversity (Figure 1). Other short-
212 term studies have also reported no change in diversity in response to increased salinity (e.g.,
213 Edmonds et al. 2009 after 3 weeks of dosing, and Dang et al. 2019 after 1 year), similar to the
214 response we observed in our Pulse plots. In response to Press seawater additions, SRB became
215 even more common in the community (Figure 4a), and we were able to detect overall declines in
216 microbial diversity (Figure 1) and more extreme shifts in community composition (Figure 2).

217 Thus, our study suggests that the frequency and duration of seawater intrusion affect the
218 diversity and structure of TFM microbial communities.

219 Changes in the abundances of SRB could affect community diversity. Consistent with our
220 hypothesis, we found greater abundance of SRB in Press plots (Figure 4a), which had higher
221 concentrations of porewater sulfide compared to other treatments (Figure 3) (Widney et al.
222 2019). Our results are also consistent with other studies (Weston et al. 2006, 2011; Dang et al.
223 2019), including a transplant study of freshwater marsh soils into a brackish marsh that found a
224 slight increase in abundance of sulfate reducers (*dsrA*) (Dang et al. 2019). A shift in the
225 microbial community towards SRB has the potential to negatively affect other members of the
226 community because sulfate reduction can generate hydrogen sulfide that is toxic to more
227 sensitive members of the community. Thus, long-term, chronic inputs of seawater that maintain
228 elevated concentrations of porewater sulfide could favor SRB and the production of hydrogen
229 sulfide, which contribute to the reduction in overall microbial diversity.

230 Sulfate is an electron acceptor that can support sulfate reduction and this reaction is more
231 thermodynamically favorable than methanogenesis. Therefore, we predicted that increases in
232 SRB would be accompanied by a decrease in the relative abundance of methanogens. We did not
233 observe this pattern in our data. As methanogenesis relies on decomposition of organic matter,
234 other studies have indicated that methanogen abundances may be influenced by carbon
235 availability (DOC and soil organic carbon) (Yuan et al. 2016; Dang et al. 2019). Although
236 previous work from our experiment observed lower methane emissions in the Press treatment,
237 there was little variation in methane production or DOC concentration across treatments during
238 the month of October 2016 when the samples from the current study were collected (Herbert et
239 al. 2018) suggesting that C limitation constrained the abundances of methanogens across all

240 treatments. Sulfate-mediated anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM), where sulfate is used as an
241 electron acceptor for AOM, has been shown to be important in tidal freshwater sediments of the
242 Altamaha River (Segarra et al. 2015) and could account for reduced CH₄ emissions from our
243 Press plots.

244 Microbial community responses to seawater intrusion may also depend on the concentrations
245 of other nutrients. For example, in a lab microcosm experiment, where wetland sediments were
246 exposed to both increasing salinity and nutrients (N, P), salinity alone increased bacterial
247 diversity, whereas N additions (nitrate, ammonium) and the combination of increased salinity,
248 nitrogen and phosphorus decreased diversity (Jackson and Vallaire 2009). In our long-term field
249 experiment, Press additions of brackish water resulted in not only elevated salinity but also
250 higher porewater inorganic nitrogen (ammonium, nitrate) concentrations compared to the other
251 treatments (Figure 3) (Herbert et al. 2018; Widney et al. 2019) which could explain the reduced
252 α -diversity in the Press plots. α -diversity did not differ between Pulse and Control treatments
253 and, while the Pulse plots experienced transient increases in salinity, porewater N did not
254 increase as it did in the Press plots (Herbert et al. 2018; Widney et al. 2019).

255 Shifts in microbial community structure may also be facilitated by the immigration of taxa
256 that accompanied the intrusion water. That is, seawater additions not only cause the mixing of
257 freshwater and brackish environments, they also lead to the mixing of brackish and freshwater
258 microorganisms, a phenomenon referred to as “community coalescence” (Rillig et al. 2015). The
259 resulting community composition may depend on many factors, including (1) differences in
260 environmental conditions, where seawater was added to a freshwater environment and (2) the
261 temporal dynamics of mixing (Rillig et al. 2015). For example, Pulse seawater additions
262 temporarily modified the environment (for ~2 months, Figure 3), but this treatment may have

263 been insufficient to overcome the larger and more frequent additions of fresh river water and
264 freshwater microorganisms during the natural tidal cycle. As a result, microbial communities in
265 Pulse plots were only slightly different from the Control and Fresh treatments (Figure 2).

266 In conclusion, continuous seawater intrusion can reduce microbial diversity and alter
267 community composition, which may be due to increases in porewater sulfate that favor an
268 increase in abundance of sulfate reducers. Episodic seawater additions did not affect α -diversity
269 but increased sulfate reducer abundance, suggesting that microbial communities of the Pulse
270 treatment retain environmental and microbial characteristics of freshwater tidal marshes. The
271 increase in sulfate reducers (and sulfate reduction) we observed in the Press plots may have
272 implications for C and nutrient (P) cycles, such as increased C mineralization and phosphorus
273 release. Furthermore, the decline in microbial diversity in Press plots may reduce the functional
274 redundancy of these and other microbial processes.

275

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382 **List of Tables and Figures**

383 **Table 1.** Redundancy Analysis of microbial composition vs. environmental variables.

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385 RDA2 columns. R^2 values and p-values were determined by permutation ($n = 999$) using the
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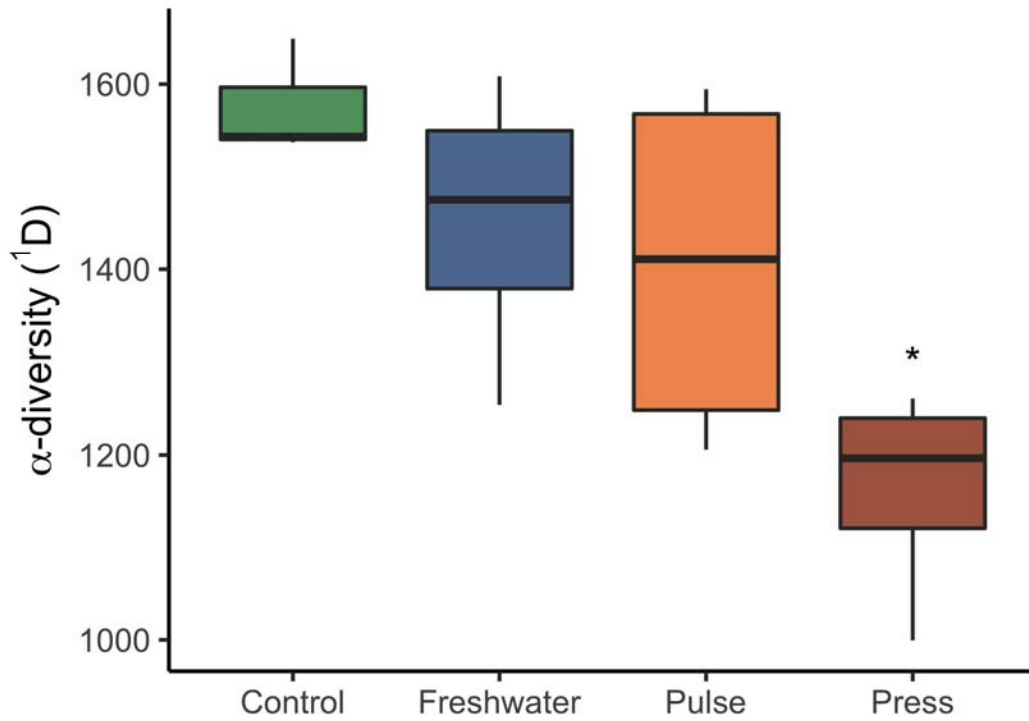
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	RDA1	RDA2	r^2	<i>p</i>
DRP	0.96	0.27	0.54	0.008
NH ₄ ⁺	0.93	0.37	0.80	0.001
NO ₃ ⁻	0.66	-0.75	0.10	0.537
Sulfide	0.63	-0.78	0.33	0.062
Salinity	0.55	-0.83	0.67	0.001
Soil Surface Temperature	0.99	0.16	0.87	0.001

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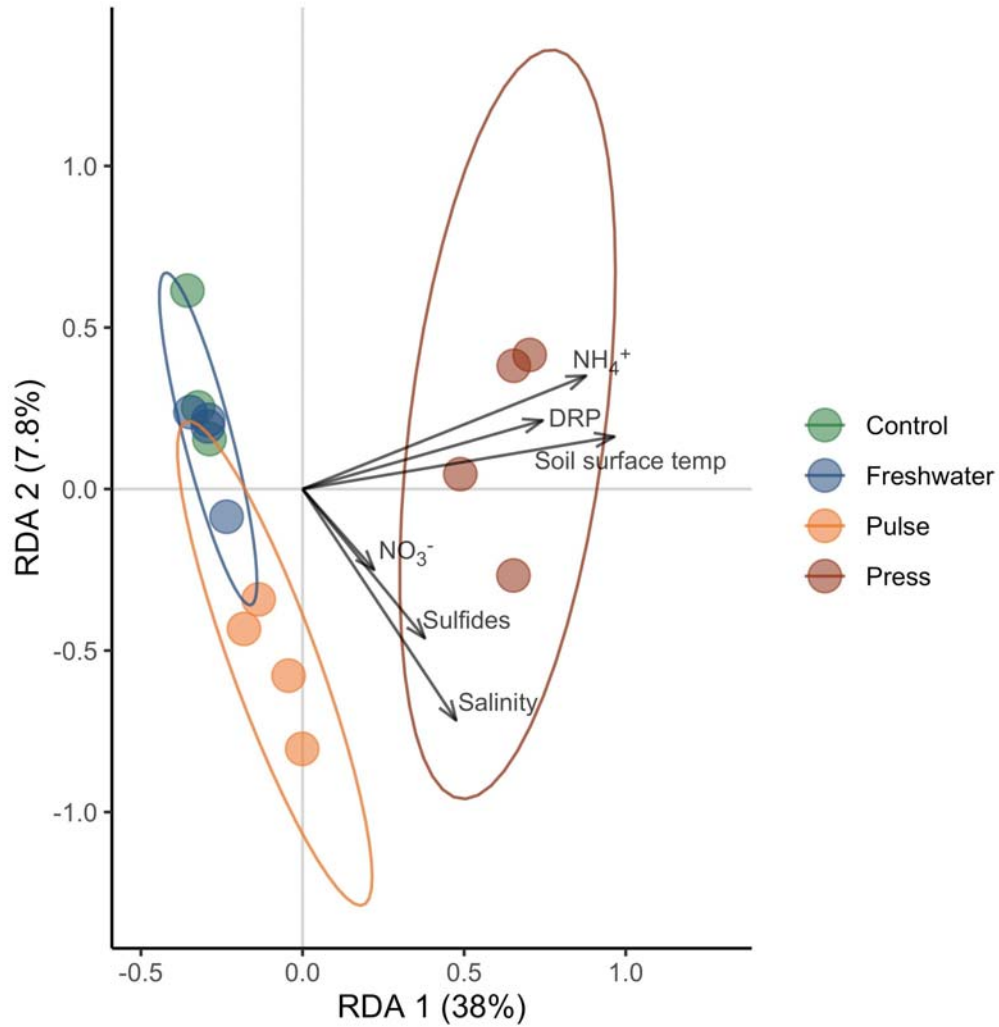
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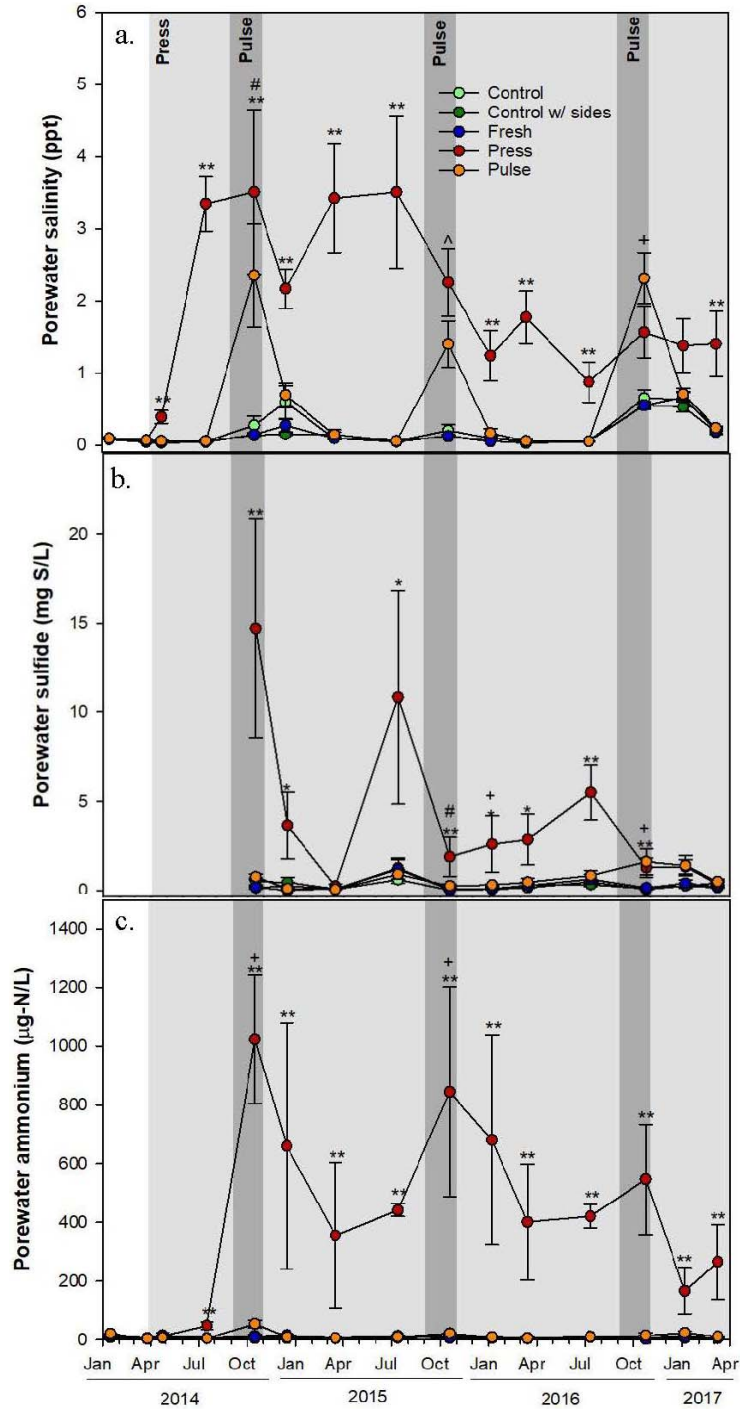
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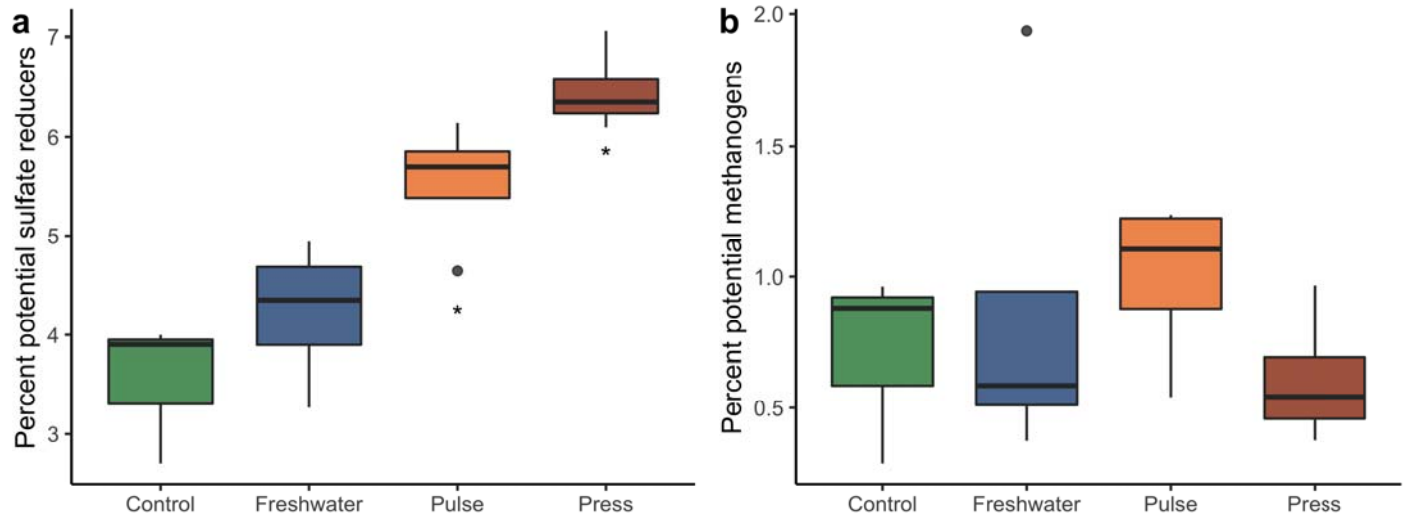
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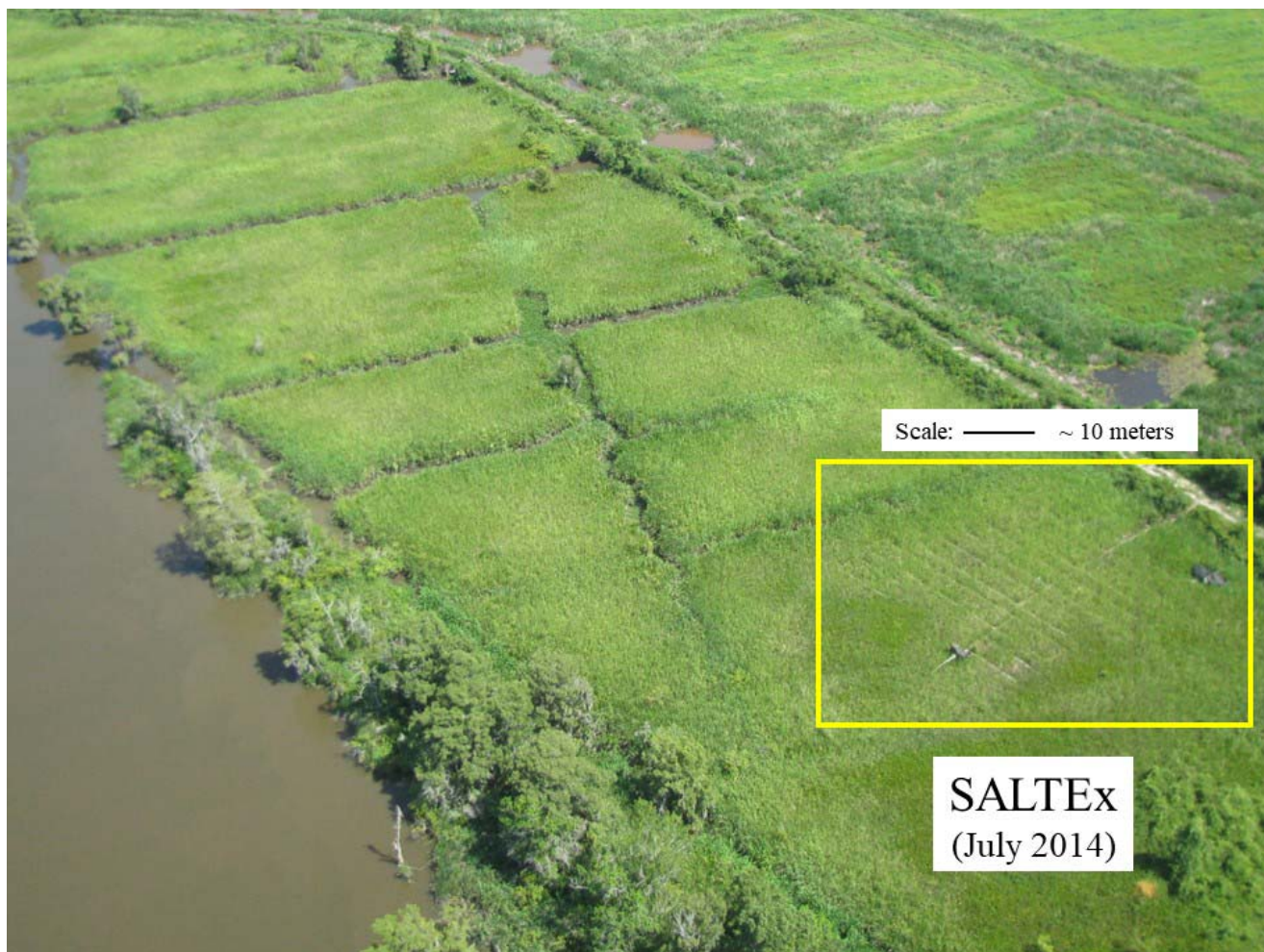
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Supplemental Information



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