

1 **INFORMATIVE TITLE:**

2 **Bacterial diversity along a 2600 km river continuum**

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9 **Running title:** River bacterioplankton diversity

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27 **for submission to Environmental Microbiology**

28 **Summary**

29 The bacterioplankton diversity in large rivers has thus far been undersampled, despite the
 30 importance of streams and rivers as components of continental landscapes. Here, we present a
 31 comprehensive dataset detailing the bacterioplankton diversity along a midstream transect of
 32 the Danube River and its tributaries. Using 16S rRNA-gene amplicon sequencing, our
 33 analysis revealed that bacterial richness and evenness gradually declined downriver in both
 34 the free-living and particle-associated bacterial communities. These shifts were also supported
 35 by the beta diversity analysis, where the effects of tributaries were negligible in regards to the
 36 overall variation. In addition, the river was largely dominated by bacteria that are commonly
 37 observed in freshwater and typical of lakes, whereas only few taxa attributed to lotic systems
 38 were detected. These freshwater taxa, which were composed of members of the acI lineage
 39 and the freshwater SAR11 group (LD12) and the Polynucleobacter, increased in proportion
 40 downriver and were accompanied by a decrease in soil and groundwater bacteria. When
 41 examining our results in a broader ecological context, we elaborate that patterns of
 42 bacterioplankton diversity in large rivers can be explained by the River Continuum Concept
 43 published in 1980, with a modification for planktonic microorganisms.

44 **Introduction**

45 Streams and rivers link terrestrial and lentic systems with their marine counterparts and
 46 provide numerous essential ecosystem services. They supply drinking water, are used for
 47 irrigation, industry, and hydropower, and serve as transport routes or for recreation.□ Of
 48 general importance is the role of lotic systems in biogeochemical nutrient cycling. Until
 49 recently, rivers and streams were mainly considered as pipes shuttling organic material and
 50 nutrients from the land to the ocean. This view has begun to change as lotic and lentic systems
 51 are now considered more akin to “leaky funnels” in regard to the cycling of elements. Indeed,
 52 they play an important role in the temporary storage (sequestration) and transformation of
 53 terrestrial organic matter (Ensign and Doyle, 2006; Cole *et al.*, 2007; Withers and Jarvie,
 54 2008; Battin *et al.*, 2009). As a result of recognising the role of rivers and streams in the
 55 carbon cycle (see for example the report by IPCC in 2013; <http://www.ipcc.ch/>), the study of
 56 the diverse, ongoing processes in the water column and sediments of lotic networks has been
 57 receiving increasing interest (Kronvang *et al.*, 1999; Beaulieu *et al.*, 2010; Seitzinger *et al.*,
 58 2010; Aufdenkampe *et al.*, 2011; Benstead and Leigh, 2012; Raymond *et al.*, 2013).

59 When attempting to model the mechanisms of nutrient processing in freshwater systems,
 60 bacteria are regarded as the main transformers of elemental nutrients and viewed as
 61 substantial contributors to the energy flow (Cotner and Biddanda, 2002; Battin *et al.*, 2009;
 62 Findlay, 2010; Madsen, 2011). However, in the case of open lotic systems such as rivers, there
 63 remains a major lack of knowledge concerning the diversity of bacterial communities and the
 64 link between diversity and ecosystem functioning (Battin *et al.*, 2009). There is currently no
 65 agreement on the distinctness of the river bacterioplankton from that of other freshwater
 66 systems or the variability of its diversity along entire river transects. More generally, the
 67 question of what regulates this diversity remains open.

68 When summarising previous studies, it can be concluded that bacteria affiliated with the phyla
 69 of *Proteobacteria* (particularly *Betaproteobacteria*), *Bacteroidetes*, *Cyanobacteria* and

70 *Verrucomicrobia* have dominated the bacterial communities in rivers (Crump *et al.*, 1999;
71 Zwart *et al.*, 2002; Cottrell *et al.*, 2005; Winter *et al.*, 2007; Lemke *et al.*, 2008; Mueller-Spitz
72 *et al.*, 2009; Newton *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2012). These explorative studies on freshwater
73 bacteria suggest that the abundant taxa comprising the riverine bacterioplankton form a
74 cohesive group and can thus be regarded as “typical” freshwater bacteria (Zwart *et al.*, 2002;
75 Lozupone and Knight, 2007; Newton *et al.*, 2011). Nevertheless, the previous studies were
76 constrained by their low sequencing depth and focus on the dominant members of the
77 communities.

78 Yet, a reasonable sequencing depth is a requirement to correctly estimate the community
79 diversity and identify fine-scale changes that occur as responses to the fluctuating
80 environmental conditions. In one study, a minimum sequencing depth of 1 000 and 5 000 16S
81 rRNA gene reads per sample was suggested for a proper analysis of beta and alpha diversity,
82 respectively (Lundin *et al.*, 2012). These methodological constraints have been overcome
83 with the widespread availability of second-generation sequencing technologies (Shokralla *et al.*,
84 2012). By targeting the short hyper-variable regions of the universal 16S rRNA gene and
85 proceeding with ultra-deep sequencing, one not only allows for a proper investigation of the
86 diversity and the richness of a community but also uncovers the ability to detect and
87 investigate rare populations that may bear critical functions (Sogin *et al.*, 2006; Gilbert *et al.*,
88 2012; Sjöstedt *et al.*, 2012).

89 Regarding large rivers, microbial community studies using second-generation sequencing are
90 scarce with only a few available concerning bacterioplankton. These publications include
91 studies of the Amazonas River (Brazil), the Upper Mississippi River (USA), the Columbia
92 River Estuary (USA) and the Yenisey River mainly reveal taxonomic patterns (Ghai *et al.*,
93 2011; Fortunato *et al.*, 2013; Staley *et al.*, 2013; Kolmakova *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, the
94 longitudinal development of the bacterioplankton communities along the rivers could not be
95 addressed comprehensively because only a few sites were analysed in each case. Considering

96 the environmental gradients that develop along such rivers (Sekiguchi *et al.*, 2002; Winter *et*
97 *al.*, 2007; Velimirov *et al.*, 2011), it is expected that the bacterial communities will show a
98 similar variation in their composition and function as one travels from the source to the
99 mouth.

100 This variability has been hypothesised to originate from the import of bacteria through
101 terrestrial illuviation and merging tributaries as well as from anthropogenic contributions such
102 as wastewater treatment plant pollution. More diffuse phenomena such as soil erosion and
103 agriculture should also be considered (Zampella *et al.*, 2007; Tu, 2011; Besemer *et al.*, 2012).
104 In the case of macroorganisms, an attempt to summarise the large-scale diversity patterns
105 observed from headwater streams to large rivers has been undertaken with the publication of
106 the River Continuum Concept (RCC). The RCC proposes that diversity increases from
107 headwaters to medium-sized stream reaches, with a subsequent decrease towards the river
108 mouth. It is suggested that this pattern is due to the gradient of physical factors formed by the
109 drainage network, the dynamics in chemical properties and the resulting biological activity
110 (Vannote *et al.*, 1980).

111 Here, we attempted to extend the RCC to include river bacterioplankton by utilising the
112 results from a second-generation sequencing experiment detailing the bacterial community
113 composition along a large river. Furthermore, we revealed how the variability in
114 bacterioplankton diversity is related to the environmental variables along a continuous river
115 transect spanning 2600 km from medium-sized reaches to the river mouth. We separately
116 investigated the free-living communities and particle-associated communities by extracting
117 two different size fractions (0.2-3.0 μm and $>3.0 \mu\text{m}$) for each sample. These two fractions
118 have been shown to exhibit significant differences in activity and community dynamics in
119 previous studies, justifying this distinction (Crump *et al.*, 1999; Velimirov *et al.*, 2011). The
120 study site was the Danube River, the second largest river in Europe by discharge and length.

The Danube River drains a basin of approximately 801 000 km²; the area is populated with 83 million inhabitants and borders 19 countries (Sommerwerk *et al.*, 2010).

Results

General description of sequences

In total, DNA was extracted and sequenced from 132 filtered water samples originating from the Danube River and its tributaries. In addition, the same procedure was applied to 5 negative control samples. The sequencing yielded 2 030 029 read pairs ranging from 3451 to 24 873 per sample. After quality filtering and mate-pair joining as outlined in Sinclair *et al.* (in review; see Supporting information), 1 572 361 sequence reads (further referred to as “reads”) were obtained.

The OTU clustering resulted in 8697 OTUs after the removal of all Plastid-, Mitochondrion-, *Thaumarchaeota*-, *Crenarchaeota*- and *Euryarchaeota*-assigned OTUs. These undesirable sequences represented 19.1% of the reads and accounted for 625 OTUs. Next, for the alpha diversity analysis, any sample with less than 7000 reads was excluded, resulting in 8241 OTUs in the remaining 88 samples. By contrast, for the beta diversity analysis, all samples were randomly rarefied to the lowest number of reads in any one sample. This brought every sample down to 2347 reads, and any OTU containing less than two reads was discarded, which brought the total OTU count to 5082.

Core microbial community

The majority of bacteria-assigned OTUs (4402 out of 8697) were only represented by less than ten reads in the entire dataset. As a consequence, 3243 of 8697 OTUs (~37%) were present in only one to four samples, and an additional 2219 OTUs (~26%) were present in as few as five to nine samples. In addition to these rare OTUs, the core community of the Danube River, defined by all OTUs that appeared in at least 90% of all samples, was

comprised of 89 OTUs for the free-living bacterioplankton (0.2-3.0 μm) and 141 OTUs for the particle-associated microbes ($>3.0 \mu\text{m}$). The cumulative contribution of OTUs based on their occurrence along the entire river transect is shown in Fig. 1A. for both analysed size fractions. On average, 81% of all reads of the free-living river community and 63% of all reads of the particle-associated river community were part of their respective core community. A significant increase in the relative contribution of the core communities could be observed towards the river mouth for both fractions (see Fig. 1B.).

Variability of diversity along the river

The Chao1 richness estimator and Pielou's evenness index were calculated for both size fractions after adjusting all samples down to 7000 reads and discarding those that did not obtain enough reads (n=44). The estimated richness was persistently higher in the particle-associated fraction when compared to the free-living fraction with averages of 2025 OTUs and 1248 OTUs, respectively. We observed the highest diversity of all samples in the medium-sized stretches of the upstream parts of the Danube River. The richness and evenness gradually decreased downstream in both size fractions, as confirmed by the regression analysis (Table 1). The gradual development of the communities can be visualised by applying non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) to the beta diversity distance matrix (Fig. 3.). In both size fractions, a significant relationship between community composition and river kilometre was observed (Table 2). The additional environmental variables that corresponded with the compositional dynamics are given in Table 2, excluding tributaries. As shown in the NMDS, the tributaries did not follow the general patterns and often formed outliers in the ordination plot.

Moreover, based on their bacterial composition, a clear separation was formed between the two filter fractions, as confirmed by PERMANOVA analysis ($R^2=0.156$, $p\text{-value}<0.01$). The apparent synchrony in the gradual development of the two size fractions along the river's

course could also be demonstrated using a Procrustes test ($R=0.96$, $p<0.001$). Nevertheless, the application of a permutation test to the beta dispersion values of each size fraction revealed a significantly higher variability in the $>3.0\ \mu\text{m}$ fraction when compared to the $0.2\text{--}3.0\ \mu\text{m}$ fraction ($p\text{-value}=0.002$) (see Fig. S2.).

Typical river bacterioplankton

We used the 9322 total OTUs to perform a similarity search against the database of freshwater bacteria 16S rRNA sequences developed by Newton and colleagues (2011). The analysis revealed that a large proportion of the bacterial population inhabiting the Danube could be assigned to previously described freshwater taxa (Fig. 4.). In particular, these included representatives of the LD12-tribe belonging to the subphylum of *Alphaproteobacteria*, as well as the acI-B1-, acI-A7- and acI-C2-tribes belonging to the phylum *Actinobacteria*.

Interestingly, in the free-living size fraction, an increase in the relative abundance of the four previously mentioned tribes was clearly observed towards the river mouth (Fig. 4A.), contributing up to 35% of the community. Correspondingly, it is possible to observe a clear decrease in the proportion of atypical freshwater taxa in the free-living fraction (labelled “Everything else”) with an increasing number of OTUs assigned to the tribe-level as one goes down the river (Fig. 4B.). In the particle-associated fraction, these typical freshwater taxa are much less abundant (Fig. 4B.). Nevertheless, the OTUs that could be assigned to typical freshwater taxa increased downriver.

In a similar manner, the 8697 bacterial OTUs were BLASTed against the NCBI-NT database; next, any environmental descriptive terms occurring in the search results were retrieved and classified according to the Environmental Ontology (EnvO) terminology. By running a PERMANOVA analysis, we confirmed that the bacterial communities of the different size fractions have distinct habitat preferences (PERMANOVA; $R^2=0.42$, $p<0.0001$). Restricting the analysis to only 'groundwater' and 'soil' terms indicated that the proportion of bacteria

potentially originating from these two sources decreased towards the river mouth (Fig. 5A. and B.). By using only the contribution of 'river' and 'sediment' terms, contrary to our expectations, we could not demonstrate any trend along the river transect. It is worth noting that by applying this procedure, most OTUs were not dominated by the 'river' environmental term and only a total of four OTUs received an ontology comprising 50% or more of the 'river' keyword.

Discussion

The tremendous diversity within the microbial communities inhabiting all types of aquatic environments is being revealed by a rapidly increasing number of studies applying high-throughput sequencing technologies to environmental samples (e.g. Sogin *et al.*, 2006; Andersson *et al.*, 2009; Galand *et al.*, 2009; Eiler *et al.*, 2012; Peura *et al.*, 2012). At the same time, the factors modulating this diversity are also being described (Besemer *et al.*, 2012; Hanson *et al.*, 2012; Lindström and Langenheder, 2012; Szekely *et al.*, 2013). However, very few studies investigating river bacterioplankton are available, and all the studies are based on either relatively small sample sets (Ghai *et al.*, 2011; Fortunato *et al.*, 2013; Staley *et al.*, 2013; Kolmakova *et al.*, 2014) or are of low resolution (Sekiguchi *et al.*, 2002; Winter *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2011, 2012). Here, we describe the diversity of lotic bacterioplankton along a 2600 kilometre transect using high spatial and taxonomic resolution and explain the observed patterns in the context of the River Continuum Concept (RCC; Vannote *et al.*, 1980).

Towards a typical freshwater bacteria community along the river

In addition to an obvious gradual change in beta diversity, we recorded a significant decrease in bacterial richness and evenness in the free-living and particle-associated communities along the river. The gradual change in beta diversity not only significantly correlated with river kilometre but also correlated with alkalinity, dissolved silicates, and nitrate. In addition, the

225 particle-associated community composition correlated significantly with phytoplankton
226 biomass, total suspended solids and total bacterial production. As particles derived from
227 autochthonous matter increased downriver, these correlations, together with the accompanied
228 change in the particle-associated communities, point towards a distinction between
229 communities inhabiting autochthonous and allochthonous particles.

230 Another distinction was the remarkably higher richness found in particle-attached
231 communities when compared to the free-living bacterioplankton fraction. We ascribe this
232 phenomenon to the higher availability of distinct ecological niches inside and directly on the
233 particles. The suspended particles not only included detritus derived from terrestrial and
234 aquatic sources or mobilised sediments but also included living organisms such as planktonic
235 algae or zooplankton. Therefore, the high diversity of particles in combination with the
236 resulting spectrum of microenvironments (including anoxic habitats) provides an explanation
237 for the higher richness observed in the particle-associated fraction. Furthermore, differences
238 in diversity between the two size fractions were apparent in the results of the EnvO term
239 analysis, indicating the distinct habitat preferences of bacteria. Taking a closer look at these
240 results, we found that the proportion of bacteria originating from soils and groundwater
241 sources was constantly higher in the particle-associated communities, which is likely due to
242 the quantity of suspended particles from soils.

243 In addition to the riparian zones, merging tributaries or microbial pollution sources could be
244 providing allochthonous particles and bacteria to the river. However, we argue that the gradual
245 exchange of soil and groundwater bacteria with typical freshwater bacterioplankton along the
246 midstream of the river is mostly unaffected by the merging tributaries. This can be explained
247 by estimating the mixing behaviour of the most important tributaries, as conducted by
248 Velimirov and colleagues (2011). In this publication, the authors proposed that the tributaries
249 and other point sources have a negligible effect on the composition of the midstream
250 communities due to the long mixing times of the incoming water and the restrained dilution

that this entails. This hypothesis was based on their prior observation of a gradual change in bacterial counts, cell volumes and morphotype composition, which were all significantly correlated with several physicochemical parameters. A few years later, Kolmakova and colleagues (2014) also reported that in the case of the Yenisei river, large incoming tributaries could conserve a parallel flow and only merge into the main stream over several kilometres.

Focusing on the taxonomic composition, our data shows that “typical” freshwater bacteria, including members of the acI lineage (c.f. Newton *et al.*, 2011), the freshwater SAR11 group (LD12) and the *Polynucleobacter* genus, formed to a major part the bacterial “core community”, particularly in the free-living fraction. The close resemblance between riverine bacterial communities and those of lakes strongly corroborates the existence of a so-called “typical freshwater bacteria” group (Zwart *et al.*, 2002; Lozupone and Knight, 2007; Newton *et al.*, 2011).

Explaining patterns in river bacterioplankton

The observed shift towards a more typical freshwater bacteria-dominated community is most likely driven by decreasing inputs of allochthonous bacteria to the midstream from soils and groundwaters on the one hand and by competitive advantages of these taxa on the other hand. The first explanation is supported by previous observations where bacterial communities were similar to or at least heavily impacted by soil communities (Besemer *et al.*, 2012; Crump *et al.*, 2012). In this regard, it was stated that the inputs of allochthonous organisms outweigh the rate of local extinction (e.g. Leibold *et al.*, 2004). The second argument, a downstream rise in competitiveness of downstream-specific OTUs, is suggested by the observed simultaneous decrease in evenness together with bacterial richness in both size fractions along the river transect. Such a rise of few OTUs with a competitive advantage downriver was already predicted by the RCC (Vannote *et al.*, 1980).

The RCC proposes that more refractory and relatively high molecular weight compounds are exported downstream and accumulate along the river, whereas labile allochthonous organic compounds are rapidly used by heterotrophic organisms or physically absorbed in the headwaters. In this case, the highest diversity of soluble organic compounds was proposed to be due to a maximum interface with the landscape (Vannote *et al.*, 1980). Our assumption that downstream-specific OTUs possess a competitive advantage in utilising nutrient-poor organic compounds is also supported by the increasing relative abundance of typical freshwater taxa such as LD12 and acI, which represent small cells with an oligotrophic lifestyle (Salcher *et al.*, 2011; Garcia *et al.*, 2013). A general trend towards smaller cells along the Danube River was previously described by Velimirov *et al.* (2011), which potentially highlights the decreasing availability of nutrients (larger surface-to-volume-ratio). In addition to the selection for smaller cells based on competitive advantages of oligotrophic bacteria, the starvation of copiotrophic cells originating from terrestrial sources, which are better adapted to higher quality and nutrient-rich compounds (Barcina *et al.*, 1997), could contribute to the trend towards smaller cell volumes.

To demonstrate the role of organic matter sources in the apparent decline of richness towards the river mouth, an assessment of the organic matter composition and bioavailability should be included in future studies. Furthermore, loss factors such as sedimentation and (selective) top-down control such as grazing and viral lysis have been shown to vary over environmental gradients and can substantially influence microbial diversity (Ayo *et al.*, 2001; Langenheder and Jürgens, 2001; Weinbauer, 2004; Pernthaler, 2005; Bouvier and Del Giorgio, 2007).

Necessary adjustments to the RCC for the application to river bacterioplankton

When combining ours and previous results (Besemer *et al.*, 2012, 2013; Crump *et al.*, 2012; Staley *et al.*, 2013), we propose that the RCC – although developed for macroorganisms – can be transferred to river bacterioplankton. For macroorganisms, the RCC proposes the highest

diversity in medium-sized streams, which is mainly based on their model parameter of diel temperature variability. However, for bacterioplankton, we observed a continuous decrease from headwaters to river mouth, which could be interpreted to be in conflict with the RCC. Since Vannote and colleagues did not consider bacterioplankton, we argue that the RCC is open for interpretation in this respect. Nevertheless, this requires the careful illumination of the following important points: (i) The primarily passive transport of bacterioplankton contrasts the motility and sessility of macroorganisms, such as aquatic invertebrates, fish or macrophytes; (ii) the large contact zone of small rivers and the surrounding environment (soil and groundwater) is constantly contributing allochthonous microbes to the river bacterioplankton community (Besemer *et al.*, 2012; Crump *et al.*, 2012); (iii) soil communities harbour a much higher diversity when compared to planktonic communities (e.g., Crump *et al.*, 2012); (iv) these allochthonous bacteria should be at least temporarily capable of proliferating in their new lotic environment when compared to, e.g., terrestrial insects that fall or are washed into streams or rivers.

The elevated contribution of allochthonous bacteria to the upstream river bacterioplankton is corroborated by our results of the SEQenv analysis (Fig. 5A and B), where an increased impact from soil and groundwater bacteria to the communities was detected. The importance of the impact from the riparian zone on suspended microbial communities was also reported in previous studies on headwater stream networks and the runoff-process from hill slopes via headwaters to a lake, suggesting terrestrial environments as critical reservoirs of microbial diversity for downstream surface waters (Besemer *et al.*, 2012, 2013; Crump *et al.*, 2012). Crump and colleagues found that the dominant bacteria in an arctic lake were all first observed in soil waters and other upslope environments draining into the system. Additional support for a steady decrease in diversity from headwaters to river mouths was provided by a similar decreasing trend in microbial diversity of benthic microbial biofilms from headwaters

to mid-sized streams, which are proposed to be settled by the suspended bacterial community (Besemer *et al.*, 2012, 2013).

Taking these features into account, we propose that patterns in bacterioplankton diversity can indeed be incorporated into the RCC. By highlighting the riparian zone, substrate availability and flow as important determinants of community structure, Vannote and colleagues already provided a conceptual framework to explain the patterns of bacterioplankton diversity in both size fractions along the Danube River. In addition, an increase in the competitiveness of several freshwater taxa attributable to an increase in stability and uniformity of the system along the river continuum is in accordance with the RCC. Furthermore, our study shows that the influence of dispersal from soil, groundwaters and other allochthonous sources in determining the patterns of diversity decreased downriver, whereas internal processes, such as the impact of environmental conditions in rivers, increased in importance. Although we were able to show that the contribution of dispersal and environmental conditions in determining community composition was linked to hydrology, the link between the patterns of diversity and ecosystem function remains to be determined.

Experimental Procedures

Supporting data

Within the frame of the Joint Danube Survey 2, a wide range of chemical and biological parameters was collected (Liska *et al.*, 2008). All data, sampling methods as well as analytical methods are made publicly available via the official website of the International Commission for the Protection of the Danube River (ICPDR; <http://www.icpdr.org/wq-db/>). Selected data from JDS 1 & 2 were published previously in several studies (Kirschner *et al.*, 2009; Janauer *et al.*, 2010; Velimirov *et al.*, 2011; von der Ohe *et al.*, 2011).

354 *Study sites and sample collection*

355 Samples were collected within the frame of the second Joint Danube Survey project (JDS 2)
 356 in 2007. The overall purpose of the Joint Danube Surveys is to produce a comprehensive
 357 evaluation of the chemical and ecological status of the entire Danube River on the basis of the
 358 European Union Water Framework Directive (WFD) (Liska *et al.*, 2008). During sampling
 359 from Aug 15th to Sept 26th 2007, 75 sites were sampled along the mainstream of the Danube
 360 River along its shippable way from river kilometre (rkm) 2600 to the river mouth at rkm 0
 361 (Kirschner *et al.*, 2009; Fig. S1.). In addition, 21 samples from the Danube's major tributaries
 362 and branches were included. At the most upstream sites, the Danube River is representative of
 363 a typical stream of the rithron and characterised by its tributaries Iller, Lech and Isar (Kavka
 364 and Poetsch, 2002). The trip took 43 days and is equivalent to the average retention time of a
 365 water body in this part of the Danube River (for discussion of this issue, see Velimirov *et al.*,
 366 2011). Samples were collected with sterile 1 L glass flasks from a water depth of
 367 approximately 30 cm. Glass flasks were sterilised by rinsing with 0.5% HNO₃ and
 368 autoclaving them. For DNA extraction of the particle-associated bacterioplankton depending
 369 on the biomass concentration, 120-300 mL river water was filtered through 3.0 µm pore-sized
 370 polycarbonate filters (Cyclopore, Whatman, Germany) by vacuum filtration. The filtrate,
 371 which represented the bacterioplankton fraction smaller than 3.0 µm (later referred to as
 372 “free-living” bacterioplankton), was collected in a sterile glass bottle and subsequently
 373 filtered through 0.2 µm pore-sized polycarbonate filters (Cyclopore, Whatman, Germany).
 374 The filters were stored at -80 °C until DNA extraction.

375

376 *DNA extraction and quantification of bacterial DNA using quantitative PCR (qPCR)*

377 Genomic DNA was extracted using a slightly modified protocol of a previously published
 378 phenol-chloroform, bead-beating procedure (Griffiths *et al.*, 2000) using isopropanol instead
 379 of polyethylene glycol for DNA precipitation. Total DNA concentration was assessed

380 applying the Quant-iT™ PicoGreen® dsDNA Assay Kit (Life Technologies Corporation,
381 USA), and 16S rRNA genes were quantified using domain-specific quantitative PCR.
382 Quantitative PCR reactions contained 2.5 µL of 1:4 and 1:16 diluted DNA extract as the
383 template, 0.2 µM of primers 8F and 338 (Frank *et al.*, 2007; Fierer *et al.*, 2008) targeting the
384 V1-V2 region of most bacterial 16S rRNA genes and iQ™ SYBR® Green Supermix (Bio-
385 Rad Laboratories, Hercules, USA). All primer information is available in Table S1. The ratios
386 of measured 16S rRNA gene copy numbers in the different sample dilutions that deviated
387 markedly from 1 after multiplication with the respective dilution factor were interpreted as an
388 indicator for PCR-inhibition.

389

390 *Preparation of 16S rRNA gene amplicon libraries*

391 For the preparation of amplicon libraries, 16S rRNA genes were amplified and barcoded in a
392 two-step procedure to reduce PCR bias that is introduced by long primers and sequencing
393 adaptor-overhangs (Berry *et al.*, 2011). We followed the protocol as described by Sinclair *et al.*
394 (unpublished, see Supporting information). In short, 16S rRNA gene fragments of most
395 bacteria were amplified by applying primers Bakt_341F and Bakt_805R (Herlemann *et al.*,
396 2011; Table S1) targeting the V3-V4 variable regions. In 25 µL reactions containing 0.5 µM
397 primer Bakt_341F and Bakt_805R, 0.2 µM dNTPs (Invitrogen), 0.5 U Q5 HF DNA
398 polymerase and the provided buffer (New England Biolabs, USA), genomic DNA was
399 amplified in duplicate in 20 cycles. To use equal amounts of bacterial template DNA to
400 increase the comparability and reduction of PCR bias, the final volume of environmental
401 DNA extract used for each sample was calculated based on 16S rRNA gene copy
402 concentration in the respective sample determined earlier by quantitative PCR (see above).
403 For 105 samples, the self-defined optimum volume of environmental DNA extract
404 corresponding to 6.4×10^5 16S rRNA genes was spiked into the first step PCR reactions;
405 however, for 27 samples, lower concentrations were used due to limited amounts of bacterial

406 genomic DNA or PCR inhibition detected by quantitative PCR (see above). These 132
407 samples included eight biological replicates. Prior to the analysis, we removed four samples
408 due to their extremely low genomic DNA concentrations and 16S rRNA gene copy numbers.
409 Duplicates of PCR products were pooled, diluted to 1:100 and used as templates in the
410 subsequent barcoding PCR. In this PCR, diluted 16S rRNA gene amplicons were amplified
411 using 50 primer pairs with unique barcode pairs (Sinclair *et al.*, in review; Table S1). The
412 barcoding PCRs for most samples were conducted in triplicates analogous to the first PCR
413 (n=100). The remaining 32 samples that had weak bands in first step PCR due to low genomic
414 template DNA concentrations or high sample dilution were amplified in 6-9 replicates to
415 increase amplicon DNA yield. Barcoded PCR amplicons were pooled in an equimolar fashion
416 after purification using the Agencourt AMPure XP purification system (Beckman Coulter,
417 Danvers, MA, USA) and quantification of amplicon-concentration using the Quant-iT™
418 PicoGreen® dsDNA Assay Kit (Life Technologies Corporation, USA). Finally, a total of 137
419 samples including 5 negative controls resulted in four pools for sequencing.

420

421 *Illumina® sequencing*

422 The sequencing was performed on an Illumina® MiSeq at the SciLife Lab Uppsala. For each
423 pool, the library preparation was performed separately following the TruSeq protocol with the
424 exception of the initial fragmentation and size selection procedures. This involves the binding
425 of the standard sequencing adapters in combination with separate Illumina®-specific MID
426 barcodes that enables the combination of different pools on the same sequencing run (Sinclair
427 *et al.*, unpublished). After pooling, random PhiX DNA was added to provide calibration and
428 help with the cluster generation on the MiSeq's flow cell.

429

430 *16S rRNA gene amplicon data analysis*

431 The sequence data were processed as outlined in Sinclair *et al.* (in review). In short, after
 432 sequencing the libraries of 16S rRNA amplicons, the read pairs were demultiplexed and
 433 joined using the PANDAseq software (Masella *et al.*, 2012). Next, reads that did not bear the
 434 correct primer sequences at the start and end of their sequences were discarded. Reads were
 435 then filtered based on their PHRED scores. Chimera removal and OTU (operational
 436 taxonomic unit) clustering at 3% sequence dissimilarity was performed by pooling all reads
 437 from all samples together and applying the UPARSE algorithm (Edgar, 2013). Here, any OTU
 438 containing less than two reads was discarded. Each OTU was subsequently taxonomically
 439 classified by operating a similarity search against the SILVAmod database and employing the
 440 CREST assignment algorithm (Lanzén *et al.*, 2012). Plastid, mitochondrial and archaeal
 441 OTUs were removed. In addition, OTUs were also taxonomically annotated against the
 442 freshwater database (Newton *et al.*, 2011) using the same method. If necessary, OTU
 443 rarefying for the purpose of standardising sequence numbers was performed using the
 444 'rarefy'-function implemented in the R-package vegan (Oksanen *et al.*, 2013). Biodiversity
 445 measure calculation, statistical analyses and plot-generation were conducted in R (R Core
 446 Team, 2013) using python scripts. The habitat index for the top 5000 OTUs was determined
 447 using the SEQenv pipeline (<http://environments.hcmr.gr/seqenv.html>). The SEQenv pipeline
 448 retrieves hits to highly similar sequences from public repositories (NCBI Genbank) and uses a
 449 text mining module to identify Environmental Ontology (EnvO) (Ref:
 450 <http://environmentontology.org/>) terms mentioned in the associated contextual information
 451 records ("Isolation Source" field entry for genomes in Genbank or associated PubMed
 452 abstracts). At the time of running SEQenv on our dataset (version 0.8), there were
 453 approximately 1200 EnvO terms organised into three main branches (namely, *environmental*
 454 *material*, *environmental feature*, and *biome*). However, we used SEQenv to retrieve a subset
 455 of these terms, i.e., those that contain "Habitat" (ENVO:00002036). Raw sequence data were
 456 submitted to the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under accession number SRP045083.

457

458 **Acknowledgements**

459 This study was supported by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF) as part of the DKplus “Vienna
460 Doctoral Program on Water Resource Systems” (W1219-N22) and the FWF project P25817-
461 B22, as well as the research project “Groundwater Resource Systems Vienna” in cooperation
462 with Vienna Water (MA31). AE and LS are funded by the Swedish Foundation for Strategic
463 Research (ICA10-0015). Infrastructure (cruise ships, floating laboratory) and logistics for
464 collecting, storing and transporting samples were provided by the International Commission
465 for the Protection of the Danube River (ICPDR). The analyses were performed using
466 resources provided by the SNIC through the Uppsala Multidisciplinary Center for Advanced
467 Computational Science (UPPMAX) under project “b2011035”.

468

469 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

470 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

471

472 References

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474

475

476 **Table and Figure legends**

477

478 **Fig. 1A.** Cumulative graph of the quantitative contribution of OTUs based on their presence
 479 in the respective sample fraction. The X-axis displays the fraction of samples, and the Y-axis
 480 shows the cumulative number of reads corresponding to the OTUs that appear in the
 481 respective sample fraction. The blue line represents the particle-associated bacterial fraction
 482 ($>3.0\ \mu\text{m}$); the red line shows the free-living bacterial fraction ($0.2\text{--}3.0\ \mu\text{m}$).

483 **B.** Gradual development of the read proportion assigned to the operationally defined “core
 484 community” of the free-living and particle-associated fraction along the Danube River. Core
 485 communities were defined by including all OTUs that are present in at least 90% of all
 486 samples of the respective size fraction. Red symbols indicate samples from the free-living
 487 fraction ($0.2\text{--}3.0\ \mu\text{m}$); blue symbols indicate the particle-associated fraction ($>3.0\ \mu\text{m}$). Dark
 488 blue lines represent fitted linear models with confidence intervals of 0.95 in red and blue for
 489 the respective fractions. Detailed regression statistics are shown in Table 1.

490

491 **Fig. 2.** The gradual development of the bacterial richness (Chao1; **A**) and Pielou's evenness
 492 (J ; **B**) along the Danube River in the two size fractions, representing the bacterioplankton
 493 communities of $0.2\text{--}3.0\ \mu\text{m}$ and $>3.0\ \mu\text{m}$ (corresponding to free-living and particle-associated
 494 bacterioplankton, respectively). Red symbols indicate samples from the free-living fraction
 495 ($n=27$); blue symbols samples from the particle-associated fraction ($n=40$). Dark blue lines
 496 represent fitted linear models with confidence intervals of 0.95 in red and blue for the
 497 respective fractions. Detailed regression statistics are shown in Table 1.

498

499 **Fig. 3.** The visualisation of the beta diversity analysis based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity
 500 index shows the compositional dissimilarity between sites along the Danube River and its
 501 tributaries. The stress value of the non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was 0.17.

Circles represent free-living bacterial communities (0.2-3.0 μm); triangles represent particle-associated bacterial communities (>3.0 μm). Open symbols display tributary samples, whereas full symbols indicate Danube River communities. The gradient from blue-black to light blue indicates the position of the sampling site upstream from the river mouth. The official assignment of river kilometres (rkm) for the Danube River is defined in a reverse fashion starting from the mouth at rkm 0 and progressing towards the source with our most upstream site at rkm 2600.

Fig. 4. A heatmap (A) revealing the dynamics of the eleven most abundant typical freshwater tribes along the Danube River transect according to Newton *et al.*, 2011. The gradient from light blue to black-blue indicates the relative quantitative contribution to all sequences in any one sample with a maximum of 16%. The overall contribution of typical freshwater tribes, clades and lineages (Newton *et al.*, 2011) to the river bacterioplankton amplicon sequences is depicted in panel (B) Free-living Danube River samples are arranged on the left side of the panel including “F” in the sample ID; Particle-associated samples are displayed in the middle including “A” in the sample ID; both fractions of tributary samples are arranged at the right side with “F” for free-living and “A” for particle-associated samples in the sample ID.

Fig. 5. Results from the SEQenv analyses scoring sequences according to their environmental context. The Y-axis represents the proportion of groundwater (A) and soil (B) terms associated with sequence reads per sample along the Danube River transect (X-axis). Red symbols indicate samples from the 0.2-3.0 μm fraction (n=27), and blue symbols indicate samples from the >3.0 μm fraction (n=40). Dark blue lines represent fitted linear models with confidence intervals of 0.95 in red and blue for the respective fractions. Detailed regression statistics are given in the figure.

Table 1. Summary of regression statistics (multiple R-squared and p-value) for fitted linear models between Chao1 richness (Fig. 2A), Pielou's evenness (J; Fig. 2B), and the core community proportions and river kilometre (Fig. 1B) for both size fractions (0.2-3.0 µm and >3.0 µm) in the investigated Danube River samples.

Table 2. Summary statistics of correspondence between environmental variables and the projections of bacterioplankton community samples in the NMDS ordination based on either free-living or particle-associated fractions from the Danube River. The results were obtained using the function 'envfit' included in the R-package 'vegan' (Oksanen *et al.*, 2013).

Supporting information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site:

Fig S1. Map showing all sampling sites along the Danube River that were sampled during the Joint Danube Survey 2 according to Liska *et al.* (2008)

Table S1. List of used primers and barcodes for Illumina®-Sequencing.

Sinclair et al. (in review). Manuscript under revision containing information about experimental procedures regarding Illumina®-Sequencing and bioinformatical data-analysis.

Table S2. Results of all measured environmental and chemical parameters during the Joint Danube Survey 2. Copy of JDS2-database-content.