

1 **Microbial community structure and microbial networks correspond**
2 **to nutrient gradients within coastal wetlands of the Laurentian**
3 **Great Lakes.**

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47 **ABSTRACT**

48
49 Microbial communities within the soil of Laurentian Great Lakes coastal wetlands drive
50 biogeochemical cycles and provide several other ecosystems services. However, there exists a
51 lack of understanding of how microbial communities respond to nutrient gradients and human
52 activity in these systems. This research sought to address the lack of understanding through
53 exploration of relationships between nutrient gradients, microbial community diversity, and
54 microbial networks. Significant differences in microbial community structure were found among
55 coastal wetlands within the western basin of Lake Erie and all other wetlands studied (three
56 regions within Saginaw Bay and one region in the Beaver Archipelago). These diversity
57 differences coincided with higher nutrient levels within the Lake Erie region. Site-to-site
58 variability also existed within the majority of the regions studied, suggesting site-scale
59 heterogeneity may impact microbial community structure. Several subnetworks of microbial
60 communities and individual community members were related to chemical gradients among
61 wetland regions, revealing several candidate indicator communities and taxa which may be
62 useful for Great Lakes coastal wetland management. This research provides an initial
63 characterization of microbial communities among Great Lakes coastal wetlands and
64 demonstrates that microbial communities could be negatively impacted by anthropogenic
65 activities.

66

67 **INTRODUCTION**

68
69 The Laurentian Great Lakes of North America are one of the largest freshwater systems
70 on Earth, and are critical in supporting biogeochemical cycles, freshwater resources,
71 biodiversity, and economic viability of the surrounding region. Notably, the Great Lakes region
72 has been impacted by anthropogenic pressure, with cumulative stress having a particular impact
73 on the western basin of Lake Erie (Danz *et al.*, 2007; Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). These negative
74 impacts extend to ecological transition zones between upland and aquatic environments in the
75 form of coastal wetlands which border the Great Lakes (Uzarski, 2009). Agricultural runoff,
76 atmospheric deposition, and urbanization influence water chemistry, and thereby reduce water
77 quality and impair these coastal wetlands (Trebitz *et al.*, 2007; Morrice *et al.*, 2008). As
78 consequence, research assessing biodiversity and anthropogenic pressure on coastal wetlands of
79 the Great Lakes has surged since the Great Lakes Water Quality Agreement (GLWQA) was
80 established in 1972 (Hackett *et al.*, 2017). While much research on coastal wetlands has
81 flourished in the wake of this international agreement, microbial communities within Great
82 Lakes coastal wetlands remain almost entirely uncharacterized (Hackett *et al.*, 2017). The few
83 research studies on microbial communities in Great Lakes coastal wetlands have focused on the
84 use of microbial enzymatic assays as a tool to explore decomposition rates and nutrient limitation
85 (Jackson *et al.*, 1995; Hill *et al.*, 2006). Community diversity, structure, and taxonomic
86 composition have been largely overlooked. As the microbial communities within Great Lakes
87 coastal wetlands have yet to be fundamentally described, it is important to gather baseline data
88 on what microbes exist within these systems, to elucidate how these microbes could be
89 interacting, and to determine to what extent microbial diversity may already be impacted by
90 anthropogenic chemical disturbance.

91

92 Microbial communities contribute substantially to the ecological functioning of coastal
93 wetlands (such as carbon and greenhouse gas cycling, and redox-mediated chemical processes),
94 and these wetlands are vital in the retention of chemical pollutants (e.g., heavy metals),
95 sediments, and excess nutrients (e.g., N and P). Coastal wetlands mitigate the effects of these
96 pollutants and reduce pollution impacts on the Great Lakes themselves (Wang & Mitsch, 1998;
97 Sierszen *et al.*, 2012). Coastal wetlands border much of the Great Lakes coastline, where they
98 make up nearly 200,000 ha of habitat between the United States and Canada, despite reduction of
99 this habitat by approximately 50% since European colonization (Dahl, 1990; Hecnar, 2004;
100 Sierszen *et al.*, 2012). Further, the economy of the Great Lakes is contingent on the existence and
101 proper functioning of coastal wetlands. In providing ecosystem services and promoting
102 biodiversity, these wetlands have an estimated annual worth of \$69 billion USD; the value of
103 recreational fishing alone is valued at \$7.4 billion USD per year (Krantzberg & de Boer, 2008;
104 Campbell *et al.*, 2015). As such, negative anthropogenic impacts on microbial communities
105 could influence the economic viability of the Great Lakes region, biodiversity retention, and the
106 functioning of critical elemental cycles which commonly occur within freshwater wetlands.

107
108 Most notably, carbon mineralization occurs within wetland soils via redox processes
109 mediated by microbial communities, and these processes contribute to pollution mitigation and
110 atmospheric greenhouse gas flux (Conrad, 1996; Reddy & DeLaune, 2008). Wetland soils often
111 become chemically structured with increasing depth through sequential reduction of electron
112 acceptors that decrease in metabolic favorability to microbes due to thermodynamic constraints
113 (Conrad, 1996; Reddy & DeLaune, 2008; Kögel-Knabner *et al.*, 2010). As microbial community
114 metabolism changes in concert with soil chemical profiles, microbial community compositional
115 shifts commonly reflect functional changes of the community (Lüdemann *et al.*, 2000; Edlund *et al.*,
116 2008; Lipson *et al.*, 2015). However, while availability of electron acceptors may influence
117 chemical and biological structure within wetland soils, concentration of carbon electron donors
118 can influence the vertical stratification of redox processes (Achnich *et al.*, 1995; Alewell *et al.*,
119 2008), and by extension, vertical microbial community structure (defined as relative proportions
120 of microbial taxa within a community). As an example of how this may apply to natural
121 environments, increased carbon and nutrient influx from anthropogenic activities (such as
122 agricultural pressure) may impact microbial community structure within coastal wetlands.
123 Impacts to microbial community composition may extend to shifts in chemical cycles and redox
124 processes as consequence, as disturbance to microbial community structure can often lead to a
125 shift in community function (Shade *et al.*, 2012). However, while community structure may be
126 indicative of environmental gradients within wetlands, taxonomic identification of microbes
127 which respond to human pressures is necessary to appreciate which fraction of wetland microbial
128 communities are most sensitive to environmental disturbances.

129
130 Networks of microbial taxa exist within microbial communities, and impacts to
131 individual members could affect entire networks (Faust & Raes, 2012). Thus, it is important
132 explore hypothetical microbial networks within natural environments, and their relationships to
133 changing environmental conditions. Understanding how microbial networks respond to
134 physicochemical shifts could aid in predicting how a future change in environmental conditions
135 (perhaps caused by anthropogenic activity) may impact local microbial communities. Further,
136 identifying microbial taxonomic and diversity responses to environmental stressors caused by
137 human activity is the first step in developing biological indicators that can predict levels of

138 anthropogenic stress on natural environments, such as wetlands. Physicochemical and biological
139 indicators have been continuously developed to determine which biological taxa are most
140 sensitive to anthropogenic pressures within freshwater wetlands, and by extension, how these
141 biological responses can inform scientists and managers about the health of coastal wetlands
142 along the Great Lakes (Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). These indices have been established for physical
143 and chemical attributes (such as nutrient levels, urbanization, land use, etc.), as well as several
144 eukaryotic taxonomic groups (e.g., macrophytes, macroinvertebrates, fish, anurans, and birds)
145 (Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). However, as different taxonomic indicators highlight unique pressures on
146 wetland systems, indicators based on different biological groups can often conflict in their
147 assessment of wetland ecosystem health. As such, it is necessary to examine a wide range of
148 biological indicators to assess different aspects of wetland ecosystem health. A biological index
149 for bacteria and archaea has yet to be developed for responses to human impacts within
150 freshwater coastal wetlands (Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). A first step in establishing a microbial index is
151 to uncover specific networks of microbial taxa (Sims *et al.*, 2013; Urakawa & Bernhard, 2017)
152 and diversity patterns found to be related to environmental gradients linked to anthropogenic
153 activity (e.g., soil nutrient levels) among Great Lakes coastal wetlands.

154
155 This study sought to provide an initial characterization of microbial communities within
156 soils of Great Lakes coastal wetlands bordering the western basin of Lake Erie, Saginaw Bay of
157 Lake Huron, and northern Lake Michigan. Wetland sites explored in this study have been
158 extensively researched over multiple years and vary widely in the degree to which they are
159 impacted by human activity (Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). This study explored how environmental
160 gradients among these coastal wetlands were related to microbial community structure among
161 wetlands. Additionally, relationships among microbial communities and changing environmental
162 conditions with increasing soil depth were also explored within each wetland site. It was
163 predicted that microbial community structure would be related to environmental gradients among
164 and within coastal wetland regions of the Great Lakes, and elevated nutrient levels within
165 wetlands would decouple the relationship between microbial community structure and soil depth
166 with respect to coastal wetlands lower in nutrient levels, as has been suggested in previous
167 studies (Achnich *et al.*, 1995; Alewell *et al.*, 2008). Through high-throughput sequencing of the
168 16S rRNA gene and microbial network analyses, variations in key microbial taxa and
169 subcommunities related to environmental gradients established by wetlands were identified.

170

171 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

172

173 **Study site and field sampling**

174

175 In the summer of 2014, wetland soil cores were collected within Laurentian Great Lakes
176 coastal wetland ecosystems. Specifically, soil cores were collected from ten sites across five
177 regions, including two sites in the western basin of Lake Erie (LE), three sites in eastern Saginaw
178 Bay (ESBT), two sites in northern Saginaw Bay (NSB), two sites in western Saginaw Bay
179 (WSB) in Lake Huron, and one site in the Beaver Island archipelago (BA) in Lake Michigan
180 (Fig. 1). These sites were selected as they corresponded to environmental gradients, as well as
181 human impact gradients based upon SumRank scores (an index assessing land use and water
182 quality) as described in Uzarski *et al.* (2017) (Supplemental Fig. 1). Soil cores were collected by
183 hand-driving plastic core tubes (~ 5 cm diameter) vertically into the soil. Among wetlands,

184 samples were collected within the same vegetation zone across sites (either dominated by
185 cattails, genus *Typhus*, or bulrush, genus *Shoenoplectus*) as an attempt to control for collection
186 bias, as different vegetation zones can harbor microbial communities distinct from other
187 vegetation zones (Tang *et al.*, 2011). Cores were sampled to a depth of at least 6 cm (except for
188 one core which was sampled to a depth of 4 cm) and were immediately flash frozen in a dry ice
189 ethanol bath. Samples were transported on dry ice to Central Michigan University wherein they
190 were stored at -80 °C.

191
192 Triplicate cores were taken at five wetland sites while duplicate cores were taken at five
193 other wetland sites. Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates were recorded at each
194 sampling location. For sample extraction and sectioning, cores were extruded while still frozen
195 via a custom-built core extruder. The edge of the core was warmed with a heat gun to allow the
196 soil core to pass efficiently through the plastic container, however, the inner-core did not thaw
197 during extrusion. Ice was applied to the plastic core liner to prevent accelerated thawing.
198 Beginning from the top surface of soil, 2 cm sections were cut via an ethanol and flame-sterilized
199 hacksaw blade and the sectioned core samples were placed into Whirl-Pak bags and stored at -80
200 °C. The extruder face plate was sterilized between cuts of the same core with ethanol. The
201 extruder device was fully cleaned and sterilized between cores with physical scrubbing and
202 ethanol sterilization.

203

204 **Microbial community analysis**

205

206 Each soil sample was analyzed independently for microbial community analyses. DNA
207 was extracted from ~ 0.25 g of soil using a MoBio PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (Mo Bio,
208 Carlsbad, CA) following the standard manufacturer's protocol. Concentrations of extracted DNA
209 were assessed using a Qubit[®] 2.0 fluorometer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) to ensure
210 successful DNA extraction and quantification for sequence library preparation. DNA samples
211 were sent to Michigan State University (East Lansing, MI) for library preparation and sequence
212 analysis at the Research Technology Support Facility. The V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was
213 amplified for downstream sequencing with the commonly used primers 16Sf-V4 (515f) and
214 16Sr-V4 (806r) and a previously developed protocol (Caporaso *et al.*, 2012; Kozich *et al.*, 2013).
215 Paired-end 250 bp sequencing was accomplished via a MiSeq high-throughput sequencer
216 (Illumina, San Diego, CA). Acquired DNA sequences were filtered for quality and analyzed
217 using MOTHUR v 1.35.1 (Schloss *et al.*, 2009) following the MiSeq SOP (available at
218 <https://www.mothur.org/>) with modifications. Scripts used for sequence processing can be found
219 at the GitHub repository associated with this study (<https://github.com/horto2dj/GLCW/>).
220 Briefly, paired end sequences were combined into single contigs. Sequences that contained
221 homopolymers > 8 bases, and those less than 251 or greater than 254 bp were removed.
222 Sequences were aligned against the Silva (v 119) rRNA gene reference database (Quast *et al.*,
223 2012). Sequences which did not align with the V4 region were also subsequently removed from
224 analysis. Chimeric DNA was searched for and removed via UCHIME (Edgar *et al.*, 2011).
225 Sequences were classified via the Ribosomal Database Project (training set v 9; Cole *et al.*,
226 2013) with a confidence threshold of 80. Sequences classified as chloroplast, mitochondria,
227 eukaryotic, or unknown were removed. Remaining sequences were clustered into Operational
228 Taxonomic Units (OTUs) at 0.03 sequence dissimilarity using the opticlust clustering algorithm.

229 Sequence data associated with this research have been submitted to the GenBank database under
230 accession numbers SRR6261304 – SRR6261377 (Horton et al., 2017).

231

232 **Chemical analysis**

233

234 Each soil layer (top, middle, and bottom) was analyzed separately for local chemistry at
235 each site. Within each site, soil samples of the same depth (i.e., top, middle, and bottom soil
236 samples) among duplicate/triplicate cores were combined and homogenized to obtain enough
237 soil for chemical analyses. For chemical analysis, soil samples were sent to Michigan State
238 University Soil & Plant Nutrient Lab (East Lansing, MI) to analyze for percent total N (“TN”),
239 total P (“TP”, ppm), total S (“TS”, ppm), NO_3^- (ppm), NH_4^+ (ppm), percent organic matter
240 (“OM”), percent organic carbon (“OC”), and C:N. In the field, a YSI multiprobe (YSI Inc.,
241 Yellow Springs, OH) was used to measure pH of the water residing directly above each collected
242 soil core. Other data generated for this study, along with R code for replication of statistical
243 methodology, can be found in the GitHub repository at <https://github.com/horto2dj/GLCW/>.

244

245 **Statistical analyses**

246

247 Statistical analyses were completed using R statistical software version 3.2.2 (R Core
248 Team, 2015) unless otherwise stated. Code used for statistical analyses (and bioinformatic
249 workflow) in this study can be found in the associated GitHub repository
250 (<https://github.com/horto2dj/GLCW/>).

251

252 *Physicochemical analysis*

253

254 Differences in chemical profiles between samples within and among wetland regions
255 were visualized using Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Prior to PCA, percentages were
256 arcsin square root transformed and ratios were log transformed. Additionally, Pearson correlation
257 analyses were performed to search for significant correlations between chemical variables.
258 Collinearity in the dataset was addressed by combining highly correlated environmental
259 variables ($r > 0.7$, $p \leq 0.001$). Only one of the correlated variables was included in PCA to
260 remove exaggeration of correlated variables in PCA structure. Permutational Multivariate
261 Analysis of Variance (perMANOVA; Anderson, 2001) was used to determine the influences of
262 region and soil depth on physicochemical composition of samples, and 95% confidence intervals
263 were established to compare differences among groups. Chemical depth profiles were also
264 visualized for each wetland site to understand shifts in measured environmental variables with
265 increasing soil depth.

266

267 *Alpha diversity analysis*

268

269 Alpha diversity analyses were performed to explore variation in OTU richness and
270 evenness among wetland sites, regions, and soil depths, as well as to determine whether observed
271 trends were driven by environmental variables. Prior to alpha diversity analyses, sequence
272 abundance for each sample was subsampled to the lowest sequence abundance for any one
273 sample ($n = 48,226$ sequences). Singletons were maintained within the sequence dataset for
274 alpha diversity analyses, as alpha diversity indices can be reliant on the presence of singletons

275 for proper estimation. Alpha diversity was calculated for each site using MOTHUR, including
276 Chao1 richness and non-parametric Shannon diversity. Linear mixed-effect models and
277 ANOVAs were used to test influences of wetland site, region, and soil depth on alpha diversity,
278 controlling for wetland site as a random effect. Linear models and ANOVAs were used to test
279 for variation in alpha diversity among wetland sites. If significant variation was found within an
280 ANOVA result, post-hoc comparisons were implemented between sample groups using Tukey's
281 Honest Significant Differences (HSD) tests with Bonferroni adjustments (p-values obtained by
282 number of comparisons) for pairwise comparisons.

283

284 ***Beta diversity analysis***

285

286 Beta diversity analyses were used to evaluate variation in microbial community structure
287 among wetland sites, regions, and soil depths, and to assess the extent to which observed
288 variation was explained by environmental conditions. Singletons and doubletons were removed
289 from the dataset for beta diversity analyses. All sequence data were maintained for beta diversity
290 analyses and transformed using the *DeSeq2* (Love *et al.*, 2014) package, which normalized OTU
291 abundances among samples using a variance stabilizing transformation (VST) (McMurdie &
292 Holmes, 2014). The *phyloseq* (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013) and *Vegan* (Oksanen *et al.*, 2007)
293 packages were used to compare beta diversity among samples. Dissimilarity in microbial
294 community structure among samples within and among sites was visualized using Non-metric
295 Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) plots based on pairwise Bray-Curtis dissimilarity estimates.
296 The function *envfit* of the *Vegan* package was used to evaluate correlation between chemical
297 parameters and microbial community structure among samples according to NMDS. "Depth"
298 was also implemented as a dummy variable to test correlation between depth and microbial
299 community structure.

300

301 To test for significant differences in beta diversity among wetland sites, regions, and soil
302 depth, perMANOVA were implemented. Specifically, these tests evaluate significant variation
303 among within group and between group means (Clarke, 1993; Anderson, 2001; Anderson &
304 Walsh, 2013). If perMANOVA found significant differences among groups at the global level,
305 pairwise perMANOVA tests between groups were implemented with Bonferroni significance
306 adjustments to control for multiple pairwise comparisons. Anderson's permutation of dispersions
307 test (PERMDISP; Anderson, 2006; Anderson *et al.*, 2006) was used to test for differences in
308 variance of community structure among sample groups (i.e. sites, regions, soil depths). Tukey's
309 Honest Significant Difference (HSD) tests were implemented with adjusted p-values for multiple
310 pairwise comparisons if significant differences in dispersion were found among groups.

311

312 To explore relationships between regional microbial community structure and
313 environmental variables, NMDS plots were generated for each individual region. Applying
314 NMDS to each region also allowed for the assessment of the correlational relationship between
315 community structure and soil depth (as a dummy variable) and other environmental variables
316 (using the *envfit* function) within individual regions. To test for differences in microbial
317 community structure between/among sites within a region, as well as among depths within a
318 region, perMANOVA was implemented individually for each region.

319

320 ***Taxonomic analyses***

321
322 Dominant microbial taxa were explored in order to characterize microbial communities
323 within Great Lakes coastal wetlands. Differential abundance analysis was performed for
324 microbial OTUs between significantly different wetland regions and soil depths (according to
325 perMANOVA results with all microbial samples included) using the *DESeq2* package. OTUs
326 which did not appear at least twice within 10% of samples explored and were not significantly
327 differentially abundant at $p < 0.001$ were omitted from differential analyses to minimize spurious
328 relationships.

329
330

331 *Network analyses*

332

333 To explore relationships between microbial sub-communities and individual OTUs to
334 environmental variables, Weighted Correlation Network Analysis (WGCNA) was implemented
335 on OTU relative abundances using the *WGCNA* package (Langfelder & Horvath, 2008;
336 Langfelder & Horvath, 2012), executed as previously described (Guidi *et al.*, 2016; Henson *et al.*,
337 2018) with modifications. OTUs which did not possess at least 2 sequences across 10% of
338 samples were removed from network analyses. These OTUs were removed to eliminate OTUs
339 with potentially spurious correlations to environmental variables or other OTUs, as well as to
340 reduce computational stress of analyses. Remaining OTU abundances across samples were
341 normalized using variance stabilizing transformation (VST) performed as described previously
342 for beta diversity analyses. To ensure scale-free topology of the network, the dissimilarity matrix
343 generated through VST was transformed to an adjacency matrix by raising this dissimilarity
344 matrix to a soft threshold power. A threshold power of $p = 4$ was chosen to meet scale-free
345 topology assumptions based upon criterion established by Zhang & Horvath (2005). Scale-free
346 topology of network relationships was further ensured through regression of the frequency
347 distribution of node connectivity against node connectivity; a network is scale-free if an
348 approximate linear fit of this regression is evident (see Zhang & Horvath, [2005] for more in-
349 depth explanation). A topological overlap matrix (TOM) was generated using the adjacency
350 matrix, and subnetworks of highly connected and correlated OTUs were delineated with the
351 TOM and hierarchical clustering. Representative eigenvalues of each subnetwork (i.e., the first
352 principal component) were correlated (Pearson) with values of measured environmental variables
353 to identify the subnetworks most related to said environmental variables. The subnetworks with
354 the highest positive correlations to environmental variables of interest (e.g., NO_3^- , C:N, etc.)
355 were selected for further analyses of relationships among subnetwork structure, individual
356 OTUs, and environmental variables. Partial Least Square regression (PLS) was used to test
357 predictive ability of subnetworks in estimating variability of environmental parameters, which
358 allowed for delineation of potential indicator subnetworks and OTUs. Pearson correlations were
359 calculated between response variables and leave-one-out cross-validation (LOOCV) predicted
360 values. If PLS found that regression between actual and predicted values was below minimum
361 threshold of $R^2 = 0.3$, WGCNA analysis was halted for that network, as the network was deemed
362 to lack predictive ability of that environmental variable. Variable Importance in Projection (VIP)
363 (Chong & Jun, 2005) analysis was used to determine the influence of individual OTUs in PLS. A
364 high VIP value for an OTU indicates high importance in prediction of the environmental
365 response variable for that OTU. For network construction and visualization purposes, the
366 minimum correlation value required between two OTUs to constitute an “edge” between them

367 was delineated at different r values for each network related to an individual environmental
368 variable (ranging between 0.1 – 0.25), as co-correlations between OTUs within some networks
369 were stronger than others. The number of co-correlations an OTU has with other OTUs within a
370 network defines its “node centrality” (as described by Henson *et al.*, 2018).

371

372 **RESULTS**

373

374 **Chemical analyses**

375

376 Significant correlations ($r > 0.7$, $p \leq 0.001$) were found among NH_4^+ , OM, OC, TN, and
377 latitude. Thus, downstream analyses combined these values into one parameter, “NUTR”,
378 represented by OM values as this variable was the most strongly correlated with each of the other
379 variables. Environmental data were analyzed with a PCA and PC1 and PC2 explained 56.2% and
380 20.6% of the variation among samples, respectively (Fig. 2). perMANOVA found significant
381 differences in physicochemical profiles based on region ($R^2 = 0.570$, $p \leq 0.001$) and depth ($R^2 =$
382 0.058 , $p \leq 0.01$). Lake Erie coastal wetlands were chemically distinct from other wetland regions
383 (ESBT and NSB; adjusted $p = 0.01$) according to perMANOVA and pairwise perMANOVA
384 based on Euclidean distance. Ninety-five percent confidence intervals demonstrated no overlap
385 between Lake Erie coastal wetlands and other coastal wetlands (Fig. 2). This separation was
386 related to increased NUTR, NO_3^- , and S.

387 Increasing depth within cores showed a consistent shift in environmental variables,
388 except in those sites located in the western basin of Lake Erie (Supplemental Fig. 2).
389 Specifically, OM, OC, and TN consistently decreased with increasing depth within each region
390 except Lake Erie. Similarly, C:N increased with depth in each region except Lake Erie, wherein
391 the C:N ratio remained relatively low (~ 12) and stable with increasing soil depth. Within the
392 Lake Erie wetland region, pH was more acidic in the overlying water with respect to all other
393 wetland regions (Supplemental Table 1). However, pH was still relatively neutral within Lake
394 Erie (average $\text{pH} = 7.26 \pm 0.24$), whereas other wetland regions (regions within Saginaw Bay and
395 Beaver Archipelago) experienced slightly more basic pH, with average pH among these regions
396 ranging between 7.72 – 8.39.

397

398 **Alpha diversity**

399

400 Sufficient depth of sampling was reinforced by rarefaction curve analysis (Supplemental
401 Fig. 3). Good’s coverage values ranged between 89.3 – 93.5% for each region at the subsampled
402 value of 48,226 sequences. Chao1 richness estimates varied significantly among wetland regions
403 ($F = 8.38$, $p \leq 0.05$), as well as wetland sites ($F = 16.78$, $p \leq 0.001$). Pairwise comparisons found
404 that the LE region had significantly higher ($p \leq 0.01$) Chao1 estimates than NSB and WSB
405 regions (Fig. 3; Supplemental Table 2). Additionally, pairwise comparisons found a high degree
406 of significant variability ($p \leq 0.01$) in Chao1 estimates among wetland sites (Supplemental Table
407 2). Further, Shannon diversity levels also significantly varied among wetland sites ($F = 4.57$, $p \leq$
408 0.001), with site LE_D having significantly higher ($p \leq 0.01$) Shannon diversity levels than sites
409 ESBT_A and WSB_B (Supplemental Table 2). Soil depth did not influence alpha diversity
410 levels.

411

412 Shannon diversity and Chao1 were both positively correlated with measured
413 environmental variables (Table 1). Specifically, Chao1 estimates increased with NO_3^- , P, and S
414 concentrations ($p \leq 0.01$), and were weakly positively correlated ($p \leq 0.05$) with NUTR.
415 Additionally, Shannon diversity levels increased alongside NUTR and S ($p \leq 0.001$), and were
416 weakly positively correlated with NO_3^- ($p \leq 0.05$). There were no significant relationships
417 between alpha diversity and C:N, and alpha diversity was not negatively correlated with any of
418 the measured environmental variables.

419

420 **Beta diversity**

421

422 *Beta diversity among regions*

423

424 Multivariate analyses were implemented to explore relationships between microbial
425 communities and environmental gradients among wetland regions. NMDS demonstrated
426 separation of microbial communities based on wetland site, region, and soil depth (Fig. 4).
427 Substantiating this result, perMANOVA confirmed that differences in microbial community
428 structure were significantly related to wetland region ($R^2 = 0.220$, $p \leq 0.001$), site ($R^2 = 0.119$, p
429 ≤ 0.001), and soil depth ($R^2 = 0.070$; $p \leq 0.001$). Post-hoc pairwise perMANOVA found that
430 community structure within the LE region was significantly distinct ($p \leq 0.01$) from all other
431 wetland regions (Table 2). No significant differences in community structure were found
432 between any other wetland regions compared. Additionally, microbial community beta diversity
433 was distinct ($p \leq 0.003$) between the top soil depth and the middle and bottom soil depths.
434 However, no significant differences in microbial community structure were found between the
435 middle and bottom soil depths (Table 2). Variation in microbial community structure was
436 significantly correlated ($p \leq 0.001$) to depth ($r = 0.41$), NO_3^- ($r = 0.20$), NUTR ($r = 0.60$), and S
437 ($r = 0.41$), and also correlated ($p \leq 0.016$) with C:N ($r = 0.11$) and P ($r = 0.14$) (Supplemental
438 Table 3).

439

440 Beta dispersion tests suggested significant variation in structural variance among regions
441 ($p \leq 0.05$), however, Tukey's HSD test using adjusted p-values for multiple comparisons did not
442 find any significance ($p > 0.05$) between pairwise comparisons of regional groups. There were no
443 differences in community structural dispersion among soil depths.

444

445 *Beta diversity within regions*

446

447 Microbial community associations with environmental variables were also explored
448 within regions to examine variation among wetland sites. Individual NMDS plots of each region
449 identified relationships between microbial community structure and several environmental
450 variables using vector-fitting regression, and strengths of these relationships were dependent
451 upon the wetland region explored (Fig. 5; Supplemental Table 3). Depth was significantly related
452 ($p \leq 0.05$) to microbial community structure in all wetland regions except NSB and LE.
453 However, microbial community structure may have been more strongly related to depth in NSB
454 ($r = 0.35$, $p = 0.071$) than LE ($r = 0.19$, $p = 0.40$). NUTR was significantly related ($p \leq 0.01$) to
455 community structure within regions BA ($r = 0.82$), ESBT ($r = 0.51$), and LE ($r = 0.66$). C:N was
456 related ($p \leq 0.01$) to community structure within regions of Saginaw Bay (i.e., ESBT [$r = 0.65$],

457 NSB [$r = 0.58$], and WSB [$r = 0.58$]). Beta diversity was not significantly associated with
458 concentrations of NO_3^- in any region.

459

460 To test for significant differences in microbial beta diversity within regions,
461 perMANOVA was used to evaluate differences in microbial community structure among soil
462 depths and sites within wetland regions (Supplemental Table 3). Depth did not significantly
463 explain microbial community structure within the region LE ($p = 0.65$), however, it did explain
464 differences in microbial community structure within the other wetland regions, specifically BA
465 ($R^2 = 0.414$; $p = 0.006$), ESBT ($R^2 = 0.154$; $p = 0.001$), NSB ($R^2 = 0.161$; $p = 0.093$), and WSB
466 ($R^2 = 0.259$; $p = 0.014$). Significant differences in microbial community structure were found
467 among different wetland sites within regions ESBT ($R^2 = 0.192$; $p = 0.001$), LE ($R^2 = 0.236$; $p =$
468 0.004), and NSB ($R^2 = 0.140$; $p = 0.003$). As only one site was sampled within the BA region,
469 testing for differences among wetland sites within the BA region could not be accomplished.

470

471 Taxonomic analyses

472

473 At the level of Phylum, wetland sites were dominated by similar consortia of bacteria and
474 archaea. Soils had a high relative abundance of *Proteobacteria*, with *Deltaproteobacteria* and
475 *Betaproteobacteria* comprising the largest fraction of *Proteobacteria* (ranging between 7 – 15%
476 of tall taxa; Supplemental Fig. 4). Other relatively abundant bacteria included the phyla
477 *Bacteroidetes*, *Chloroflexi*, *Verrucomicrobia*, *Firmicutes*, *Acidobacteria*, *Chlorobi*,
478 *Actinobacteria*, and *Planctomycetes*, and the classes *Gammaproteobacteria* and
479 *Alphaproteobacteria* within the phylum *Proteobacteria*. One archaeal phyla, *Euryarchaea*, was
480 abundant within wetland soils, ranging between 2 – 5% relative abundance within each wetland
481 site. Between 21 – 32% of bacterial and archaeal taxa among sites were unclassified.

482

483 Differential analysis comparing the LE region to all other wetland regions (i.e., BA,
484 ESBT, NSB, and NSB) identified 1,182 OTUs which were differentially abundant across 44
485 Classes within 15 Phyla (Fig. 6). Differential analysis comparing the top section of wetland soil
486 to the bottom section of wetland soil found 516 OTUs which were differentially abundant
487 between the two zones across 33 Classes within 15 Phyla (Fig. 7).

488

489 Network analyses

490

491 Weighted Correlation Network Analysis (WGCNA) was used to explore strong
492 relationships between subcommunities and individual OTUs with environmental parameters
493 within Great Lakes coastal wetlands. After removal of OTUs that did not have at least two
494 representative sequences in at least 10% of samples, a total of 7,562 OTUs remained for
495 WGCNA. In determining scale-free topology of the OTU network, a soft power threshold of 4
496 was reached, and an R^2 of 0.87 was established as linear fit from the regression of the frequency
497 distribution of node connectivity against node connectivity (Supplemental Fig. 5). Of the 33
498 constructed subnetworks, the same one (subnetwork “orange”) was found to be most strongly
499 correlated to both NUTR ($r = 0.94$) and NO_3^- ($r = 0.55$) (Supplemental Fig. 6). A separate
500 subnetwork (“pink”) was strongly correlated ($r = 0.74$) to C:N. All correlations of subnetworks to
501 environmental variables were significant ($p \leq 0.001$). OTU VIP values ≤ 1 were removed due to
502 the large amount of OTUs within subnetworks correlated with C:N for visualization purposes.

503

504 For subnetwork relationships to NUTR (including OM, OC, NH_4^+ , and TN), partial least
505 squares analysis (PLS) found that 69 OTUs were 93.8% predictive of variance in NUTR
506 (Supplemental Fig. 7). OTU co-correlation networks were constructed using an OTU co-
507 correlation threshold of 0.25, with strong correlations ($r > 0.59$) between all OTUs and NUTR
508 (Fig. 8). Of the top 15 OTUs contributing to PLS regression by VIP score, seven were related to
509 *Betaproteobacteria*, five were related to *Anaerolineaceae* (within *Chloroflexi*), and one
510 representative OTU was related to each of *Bellilinea* (*Chloroflexi*), *Desulfobacterales*
511 (*Deltaproteobacteria*), and *Rhizobiales* (*Alphaproteobacteria*).

512

513 For subnetwork relationships to C:N, PLS found that 144 OTUs were 59.0% predictive of
514 variance in C:N (Supplemental Fig. 8). Networks were constructed using an OTU co-correlation
515 threshold of 0.1, within positive or negative correlations ($r > +/- 0.2$) between OTUs (VIP > 1)
516 and C:N (Fig. 9). Of the top 15 OTUs by VIP score within the network, two OTUs related to
517 *Bacteroidetes* were negatively correlated with C:N. Other top OTUs were positively related to
518 C:N, including seven OTUs related to *Anaerolineaceae*, four OTUs which were unclassified
519 *Bacteria*, and one representative OTU related to each of *Bacillus* (*Firmicutes*) and *Chloroflexi*.

520

521 DISCUSSION

522

523 Microbial diversity driven by chemistry within Great Lakes coastal wetlands

524

525 This study is the first to suggest that anthropogenic disturbance patterns correspond to
526 microbial community differences in Great Lakes coastal wetlands as consistent with other
527 taxonomic groups such as plants, birds, fish, and invertebrates (Howe *et al.*, 2007; Tulbure *et al.*,
528 2007; Uzarski *et al.*, 2009; Cooper *et al.*, 2012; Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). Microbial communities
529 appear to respond uniquely to potential anthropogenic influence, as diversity increased with
530 increasing nutrient levels in the coastal wetlands explored in this study. However, microbial
531 community structure was significantly dissimilar between LE and all other wetland regions, and
532 these differences were related to physicochemical differences among coastal wetlands (Fig. 2,
533 Fig. 4, Table 2). As the wetlands within the Lake Erie region maintained the highest nutrient
534 concentrations within the soil, it is possible that anthropogenic stressors related to nutrient
535 loading (and potentially other pollutants) could be driving structural differences in microbial
536 communities among Great Lakes coastal wetlands. Further, network analysis found several
537 taxa/sub communities that were highly correlated to nutrient levels across wetlands explored in
538 this study. Previous research has found that nutrient levels (e.g., C, N, P, etc.), to varying
539 degrees, can influence microbial community composition and structure (Hartman *et al.*, 2008;
540 Peralta *et al.*, 2013; Ligi *et al.*, 2014; Arroyo *et al.*, 2015). Lake Erie coastal wetlands (and the
541 watershed which drains into them) have been historically impacted by anthropogenic pollution
542 and agricultural practices, particularly in comparison to other coastal wetlands within the
543 Laurentian Great Lakes region. This has been demonstrated by multiple ecological indices (e.g.,
544 Cvetkovic & Chow-Fraser, 2011; Uzarski *et al.*, 2017) and physicochemical uniqueness
545 (increased levels of nutrients and particulate matter) within the western basin of Lake Erie (Danz
546 *et al.*, 2007; Trebitz *et al.*, 2007; Cvetkovic & Chow-Fraser, 2011; Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). Data
547 presented in this study corroborate this historical evidence of human impact and nutrient loading

548 in the western basin of Lake Erie (Fig. 2., Supplemental Fig. 1), which may be influencing the
549 Lake Erie wetlands explored in this study.

550

551 High nutrient influx could also be influencing the chemical and microbial vertical
552 structure within coastal wetland soils. Microbial community and chemical (e.g., C, N, P) vertical
553 structure was not evident within the first 6 cm of soil of coastal wetlands with elevated nutrient
554 levels (e.g. Lake Erie sites). The lack of vertical chemical gradients is unlikely to exclusively
555 explain a corresponding lack of vertical microbial community structure, as some wetland sites
556 lower in nutrient levels also did not experience vertical chemical gradients in this study (e.g.
557 West Saginaw Bay). One possibility is that a lack of vertical chemical structure in conjunction
558 with high nutrient levels in wetland soils could reduce vertical microbial community structure. It
559 has been previously demonstrated that concentrations of carbon electron donors may influence
560 redox gradients within wetland soils (Achnich *et al.*, 1995), and wetland microbial communities
561 have been demonstrated to correspond with soil redox gradients (Lüdemann *et al.*, 2000; Edlund
562 *et al.*, 2008; Lipson *et al.*, 2015). However, connections between microbial community metabolic
563 shifts with soil depth and levels of dissolved organic carbon *in situ* remain unresolved in
564 freshwater wetlands (Alewell *et al.*, 2008). Alternatively, another explanation for lack of vertical
565 community structure could be microsite heterogeneity throughout the soil matrix. Previous
566 research in freshwater wetland soils has suggested that microsite heterogeneity may explain
567 coexistence of microbial functional guilds (Alewell *et al.*, 2008; Angle *et al.*, 2017), which could
568 substantially reduce vertical microbial community structural gradients. However, it is necessary
569 to better link microbial community diversity, microbial activity, chemical structure, and
570 microsite heterogeneity to establish relationships between microbial communities and freshwater
571 soil structure. As a caveat, it is possible that chemical and microbial structuring still exists within
572 wetlands with high nutrient levels, yet is not evident within the first 6 cm of soil or at the spatial
573 scale measured in this study. Nevertheless, microbial communities within coastal wetlands with
574 high nutrient levels did not follow the same pattern of vertical structure evident in other
575 comparable coastal wetlands, either chemically or biologically, further suggesting that the
576 integrity of microbial communities within coastal wetland systems may be susceptible to
577 negative anthropogenic pressure.

578

579 While relationships between microbial diversity and nutrient levels among coastal
580 wetlands are strong, other unexplored variables unique to Lake Erie (such as geologic history)
581 could also be influencing uniqueness of chemical and microbial profiles in Lake Erie coastal
582 wetlands. The Lake Erie coastal wetland sites explored here were barrier (protected) wetlands,
583 while other wetland sites explored in this study are all classified as lacustrine (open water)
584 wetlands (www.greatlakeswetlands.org). As such, wave action from the Great Lakes impacted
585 wetlands within the western basin of Lake Erie to a lesser degree than other wetlands, thereby
586 reducing sediment export rates into the Great Lakes themselves. Hydrologic energy was found to
587 impact wetland primary productivity and respiration in Lake Huron coastal wetlands, suggesting
588 Great Lakes ecosystems may exert unique environmental forces on wetland microbial
589 communities (Cooper *et al.*, 2013). Low carbon export rates or elevated sedimentation rates may
590 exist in the western basin of Lake Erie as consequence of low wave action in these wetlands,
591 which may influence the chemical and biological structure (such as vertical microbial
592 community structure) within wetland soils of this region. Nevertheless, previous research at the
593 same wetland locations explored in this study have demonstrated that wetlands within the

594 western basin of Lake Erie are highly degraded with respect to other wetlands (Uzarski *et al.*,
595 2017), particularly with respect to physicochemical conditions. Additionally, the same vegetation
596 zone (dominated by cattails or bulrush) was sampled among all wetlands explored in this study
597 as an attempt to reduce bias in distinct environmental conditions which may exist in other
598 vegetation zones among wetland sites. Burton *et al.* (2002) suggested that soil organic content
599 was related to plant zonation in Great Lakes coastal wetlands. Further research would be
600 necessary to fully tease apart the effects of anthropogenic stress and other natural contributions
601 to differences in microbial communities among coastal wetlands.

602

603 **Taxonomic patterns among wetland regions and soil depths**

604

605 At the level of phylum, Great Lakes coastal wetlands shared many similarities regardless
606 of environmental conditions (Supplemental Fig. 4), and shared dominant groups such as
607 *Deltaproteobacteria*, *Betaproteobacteria*, *Gammaproteobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, and
608 *Chloroflexi*. These bacterial groups have been commonly found within other wetland soils
609 (Hartman *et al.*, 2008; Ansola *et al.*, 2014; Arroyo *et al.*, 2015). However, there were distinct
610 differences in community composition among wetland regions as demonstrated by
611 perMANOVA and NMDS, particularly between LE and all other regions. More specifically,
612 several *Planctomycetes* OTUs were less abundant within LE than within other wetland regions
613 (Fig. 6), suggesting this taxonomic group may thrive in less impacted wetland soils. This pattern
614 was similar for other groups of bacterial taxa, including *Spartobacteria*, *Sphingobacteria*,
615 *Clostridia*, and *Caldilineae*, as well as archaeal taxa including methanogenic *Methanomicrobia*
616 such as *Methanocella*, *Methanoregula*, *Methanosaeta* and *Methanosarcina*. It is important to
617 recognize that, while unique patterns in archaeal diversity were found among wetland regions,
618 primers employed in this study were not designed to explore archaeal diversity, and thus this
619 representation of archaeal diversity is likely incomplete. Several Acidobacteria OTUs were
620 uniquely abundant in LE wetlands (e.g. Acidobacteria Groups 6, 17, and 18). Acidobacterial
621 abundance has been shown to increase with decreasing pH within soil environments (Jones *et al.*,
622 2009), and as such, the relatively lower pH of LE soils with respect to other wetland regions may
623 be driving this trend within freshwater coastal wetlands.

624

625 Several other taxonomic groups of microbes were differentially abundant among wetland
626 soil habitats, often dependent on soil depth. Perhaps most interestingly, archaeal OTUs within
627 *Chrenarchaeota* and *Euryarchaeota* were more relatively abundant in soils between 4 – 6 cm in
628 depth, particularly within Classes *Thermoprotei*, *Methanomicrobia*, and *Methanobacteria*. Many
629 of these OTUs were identified to the genus level, including the methanogenic *Methanosaeta*,
630 *Methanoregula*, and *Methanobacterium*. Recent research has suggested that methanogenic
631 activity can often be highest within oxygenated soils, which can occur within the top 10 cm of
632 freshwater wetland soils (Angle *et al.*, 2017). As soils within our study were sampled to a
633 maximum depth of 6 cm, it is possible that methanogens within Great Lakes coastal wetlands
634 may be active in the oxygenated layer of soils, particularly between 4 – 6 cm where oxygen,
635 while possibly present, is lower than layers of soil directly above. However, oxygen was not
636 measured within the soil of this study, and thus further research would be necessary to
637 understand whether oxygen is permeating to 4 cm depth in wetland soils explored herein. Within
638 the top 0 – 2 cm of soil, several bacterial OTUs were differentially abundant, most notably

639 within taxonomic groups such as *Alpha-*, *Beta-*, and *Gammaproteobacteria*, several groups of
640 *Acidobacteria*, *Spartobacteria*, *Verrucomicrobiae*, *Planctomycetes*, and *Sphingobacteria*.

641

642 **Relationships between microbial subnetworks and environmental gradients**

643

644 Through network analyses, multiple subcommunities were delineated which were
645 significantly related to environmental gradients (such as nutrients C, N, and P) among coastal
646 wetlands sampled in this study. Specifically, a subnetwork of 69 microbial taxa was 93.8%
647 predictive of nutrient level variation among coastal wetland soils. Several microbial taxa within
648 this subcommunity were individually predictive of nutrient levels to a high degree, including
649 several OTUs within *Anaerolineaceae*, one OTU within genus *Anaerolinea*, and another within
650 genus *Bellilinea*. From the genus *Anaerolinea*, two thermophilic chemoorganotrophs
651 (*Anaerolinea thermophila* and *Anaerolinea thermolimosa*) have been isolated (Sekiguchi *et al.*,
652 2003; Yamada *et al.*, 2006). Only one isolated member has been established within the genus
653 *Bellilinea* (*Bellilinea caldifistulae*); it has been described as a thermophilic, fermentative,
654 obligate anaerobe which thrives in co-culture with methanogens (Yamada *et al.*, 2007). It is
655 unlikely that the OTUs found in our study are the same species as the isolated *Anaerolinea* and
656 *Bellilinea* species, as coastal wetland soils are not high-temperature environments necessary for
657 thermophilic species. Additionally, no OTUs related to methanogenic archaea were found within
658 this subnetwork, suggesting that *Anaerolineaceae* OTUs within coastal wetland soils may
659 fluctuate independently of any specific methanogenic OTUs. It is possible that the *Bellilinea*
660 OTU found within the subnetwork is related to nutrient level concentrations. This would support
661 fermentative metabolism as noted within *Bellilinea caldifistulae*. It is important to note that
662 several other studies have discovered OTUs related to *Anaerolineaceae* within wetland soils,
663 with upwards of 90% relative abundance among *Chloroflexi* OTUs within these systems (Ansola
664 *et al.*, 2014; Deng *et al.*, 2014; Hu *et al.*, 2016). This suggests that there are probable mesophilic
665 species yet to be isolated within this ubiquitous family of bacteria, which may be of high
666 importance within wetland soils. Interestingly, the majority of OTUs (61 out of 69 OTUs) within
667 the subnetwork most related to NUTR shifts were also differentially abundant between LE and
668 all other regions (Fig. 6). The parallels drawn between these two analyses highlights the potential
669 importance of NUTR (NH₄⁺, OM, OC, TN) in driving differences in microbial OTU abundances
670 between LE and other coastal wetland regions.

671

672 *Betaproteobacteria* were also found to significantly predict nutrient levels among coastal
673 wetlands. Hu *et al.* (2016) found that both *Betaproteobacteria* and *Anaerolineae* were positively
674 related to TN levels, which is consistent with the data presented here, and these two taxa were
675 suggested to contribute to higher levels of heterotrophic activity. Further, *Anaerolineaceae*
676 OTUs were consistently related to increasing C:N, suggesting that many taxa within this family
677 have preference for recalcitrant carbon sources. As C:N also tends to increase with soil depth, it
678 is also probable that the putatively obligate anaerobic *Anaerolineaceae* are coinciding with
679 decreasing oxygen levels and/or changing metabolism requirements with increasing soil depth.

680

681 Development of biological indices and establishment of indicator taxa have been
682 suggested as necessary for microbial communities within wetlands (Uzarski *et al.*, 2017),
683 particularly through the use of high-throughput sequencing technologies which now allow for
684 deep assessment of microbial community composition and structure within environmental

685 samples (Sims *et al.*, 2013; Urakawa & Bernhard, 2017). Specifically within Great Lakes coastal
686 wetlands, it is integral to develop ecosystem health indicators based upon multiple different
687 groups of taxonomy, as separate biological indices can present contrasting assessments of
688 wetland health (Uzarski *et al.*, 2017). As microbial indicators have yet to be established in Great
689 Lakes coastal wetlands, this research begins the first steps in exploring how microbial
690 communities can be used as an additional and potentially important ecosystem health indicator.
691 In addition to their importance as biological signals for environmental health, microbial indicator
692 taxa may play prominent roles in bioremediation of excess nutrients and pollutants found within
693 anthropogenically impacted coastal wetlands. Network analyses in this study have allowed for
694 the generation of hypothetical subcommunities of diverse microbial taxa related to nutrient levels
695 among Great Lakes coastal wetlands, and could assist in further understanding of which
696 microbial taxa may be responding to anthropogenic stress in these ecosystems.

697

698 CONCLUSIONS

699

700 This study marks the first characterization of microbial communities within Great Lakes
701 coastal wetlands. Coastal wetlands are integral in the proper functioning of biogeochemical
702 cycles and environmental sustainability of the Great Lakes. While it has long been known that
703 anthropogenic pressure can impact animal and plant communities within these coastal wetlands,
704 this is the first evidence that these pressures may also be influencing microbial communities and
705 may be influencing biogeochemical cycles by extension. Alpha and beta diversity were both
706 related to nutrient gradients among and within regions, suggesting that variability in microbial
707 community structure is highly coupled to geochemistry within wetland soils. We propose that
708 wetland microbial community structure can also potentially be used to assess a wetland for
709 monitoring purposes. As illustrated within this study, wetland microbial community structure
710 and depth are decoupled within the wetlands experiencing the highest nutrient levels, likely
711 originating from terrestrial inputs due to human activity. As such, multivariate statistics (as used
712 in the methods of this study) may prove useful in examining relationships between wetland soil
713 depth and microbial community structure alongside microbial network analyses, which could
714 provide biological indicators of nutrient loading stress on coastal wetland habitats. We propose
715 that wetland microbial community structure can also potentially be used to assess a wetland for
716 monitoring purposes.

717

718 Further, this study provides insight on microbial community subnetworks and individual
719 OTUs, which were predictive of chemical concentrations, and may be useful for future
720 management of Great Lakes coastal wetland systems. Within subnetworks existed multiple taxa
721 with strong individual relationships to environmental gradients among coastal wetlands
722 throughout the Great Lakes. Even further, several community members within these subnetworks
723 were taxonomically related (such as OTUs related to *Anaerolineaceae* within *Chloroflexi*),
724 suggesting that specific taxonomic groups of microbes may be useful to explore further as
725 potential biological indicator groups. This study highlights the strength of network analyses
726 (such as WGCNA) in delineating hypothetical networks of interacting microbes, and whether
727 these networks are predictive of physical or chemical gradients measured within an environment.

728

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737

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749

750 **Conflict of Interest.** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

751

752

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1009
 1010

1011 **Tables**

1012

1013 Table 1. Correlations between alpha diversity metrics and measured environmental variables.
 1014 Asterisks represent significance values where $p \leq 0.001$ (***), $p \leq 0.01$ (**), and $p \leq 0.05$ (*).

1015

	Chao1	Shannon
P	0.31**	-0.09
S	0.42***	0.45***
NO ₃ ⁻	0.42***	0.24*
C:N	-0.03	-0.2
NUTR	0.24*	0.41***

1016

1017 Table 2. Pairwise perMANOVA results comparing pairwise differences between wetland regions
 1018 and differences between wetland soil depths. Values represent significant ($p \leq 0.01$) R² results,
 1019 and *n.s.* represents lack of significance ($p > 0.01$).

1020

Region	BA	ESBT	LE	NSB	WSB
BA	-				
ESBT	<i>n.s.</i>	-			
LE	0.507	0.401	-		
NSB	<i>n.s.</i>	<i>n.s.</i>	0.524	-	
WSB	<i>n.s.</i>	<i>n.s.</i>	0.435	<i>n.s.</i>	-
Depth	Top	Middle	Bottom		
Top	-				
Middle	**	-			
Bottom	**	<i>n.s.</i>	-		

1021

1022

1023 **Figure Legends**

1024

1025 Figure 1. Geographic map displaying locations of sites sampled within this study. Colors of
1026 points correspond to region sampled.

1027

1028 Figure 2. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) illustrating separation of samples based upon soil
1029 geochemistry. Shapes and colors correspond to different wetland depths and regions,
1030 respectively, as listed in the legend. Percentages on axes represent explained variance of that
1031 principal component. Vectors represent impact of specific environmental variables on sample
1032 distribution. NUTR represents OM values, which correlated significantly ($p \leq .01$, $r > 0.56$) to
1033 NO_3^- , OC, OM, S, and TN. Ellipses represent 95% confidence intervals of regional groupings.

1034

1035 Figure 3. Boxplot diagram comparing Chao1 diversity among wetland regions. Boxes with the
1036 same letter are not significantly different, while those with no common letters are significantly
1037 different ($p \leq 0.01$). Lines within boxes represent the median, hinges represent $\pm 25\%$ quartiles,
1038 whiskers represent up to 1.5x the interquartile range. Colors represent wetland region.

1039

1040 Figure 4. Nonmetric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) plot illustrating separation of samples
1041 based upon differences in microbial community structure. Shapes and colors correspond to
1042 different depths and wetland regions, respectively, as listed in the legend. Vectors represent
1043 correlations of environmental variables to the distribution of the microbial communities
1044 represented in the plot.

1045

1046 Figure 5. NMDS plots of each wetland region demonstrating separation of samples based upon
1047 differences in microbial community structure, including (A) BA, (B) ESBT, (C) LE, (D) NSB,
1048 and (E) WSB. Shapes and colors correspond to different depths and wetland sites, respectively,
1049 as listed in the legends. Vectors represent correlations of environmental variables to the
1050 distribution of microbial communities represented in the plots.

1051

1052 Figure 6. Differential analysis results comparing differentially abundant OTUs between the LE
1053 region and all other wetland regions (i.e., BA, ESBT, NSB, WSB). Points represent individual
1054 OTUs, and OTU placement above or below the “0” line represents an OTU’s corresponding
1055 logarithmic fold change at \log_2 . OTUs below the “0” line represent OTUs which were more
1056 relatively abundant within the LE region, and OTUs above the “0” line represent OTUs which
1057 were more relatively abundant within other wetland regions. Color of point represents phylum
1058 identity, and columns represent the Class to which an OTU was confidently assigned (bootstrap
1059 value of 100).

1060

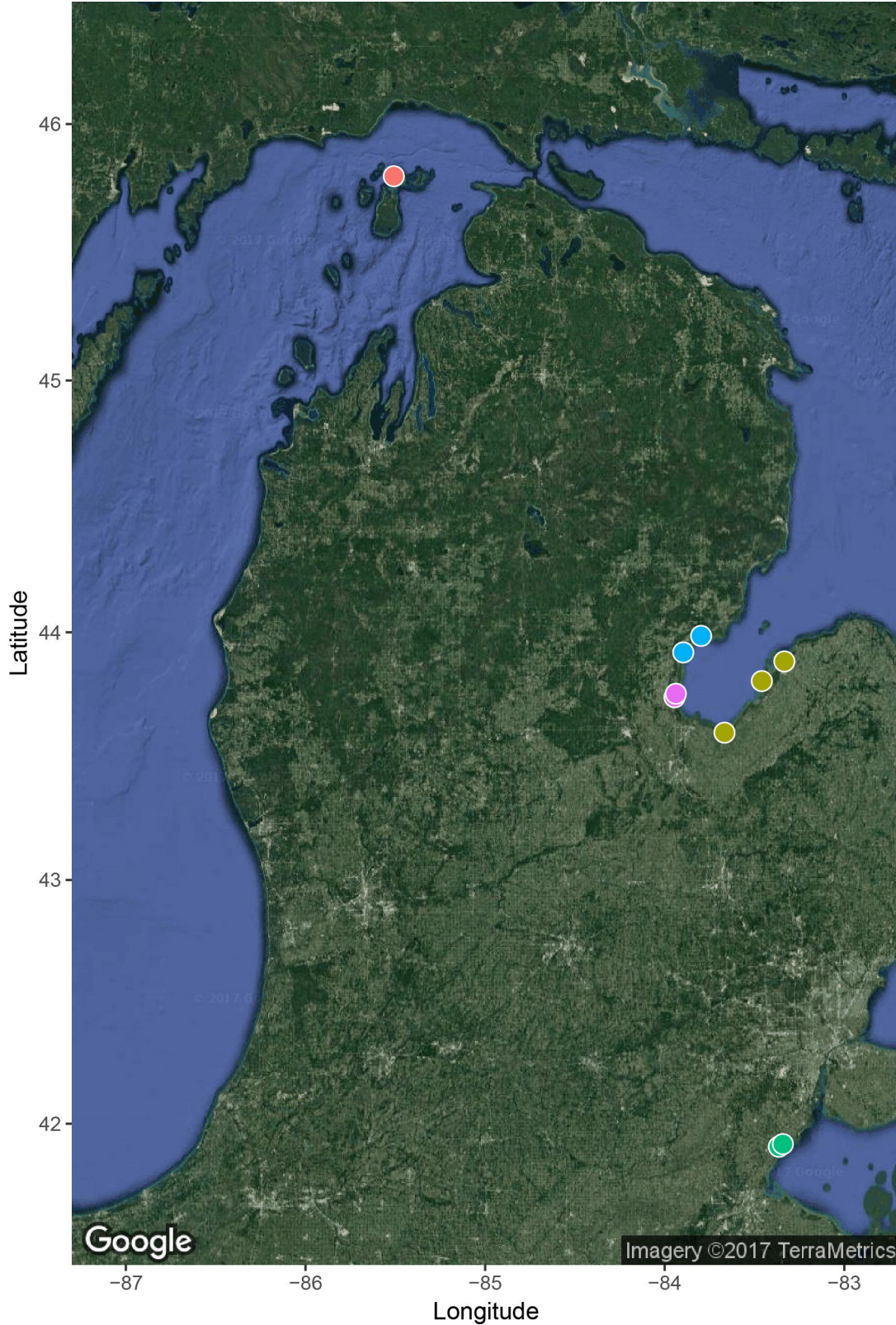
1061 Figure 7. Differential analysis results comparing differentially abundant OTUs between the top
1062 and bottom wetland soil zones. Points represent individual OTUs, and OTU placement above or
1063 below the “0” line represents an OTU’s corresponding logarithmic fold change at \log_2 . OTUs
1064 below the “0” line represent OTUs which were more relatively abundant within the top soil layer
1065 (0 – 2 cm), and OTUs above the “0” line represent OTUs which were more relatively abundant
1066 within the bottom soil layer (4 – 6 cm). Color of point represents phylum identity, and columns
1067 represent the Class to which an OTU was confidently assigned (bootstrap value of 100).

1068

1069 Figure 8. Network visualization and results of partial least squares analysis on the subnetwork
1070 most correlated with NUTR. The y-axis represents correlation of OTU to OC values, whereas the
1071 x-axis represents the node centrality. Points represent OTUs, and the color of points corresponds
1072 to the phylum to which an OTU belongs. Point size corresponds to VIP score of that OTU. The
1073 top 15 OTUs are labeled within the graph with corresponding lowest taxonomic identification
1074 possible, and the level of that classification. D = Domain; P = Phylum, C = Class, O = Order, F =
1075 Family, G = Genus.
1076

1077 Figure 9. Network visualization and results of partial least squares analysis on the subnetwork
1078 most correlated with C:N. The y-axis represents correlation of OTU to C:N, whereas the x-axis
1079 represents the node centrality. Points represent OTUs, and the color of points corresponds to the
1080 phylum to which an OTU belongs. Point size corresponds to VIP score of that OTU. Only OTUs
1081 with a VIP score > 1 were displayed for visualization purposes. The top 15 OTUs are labeled
1082 within the graph with corresponding lowest taxonomic identification possible, and the level of
1083 that classification. D = Domain; P = Phylum, C = Class, O = Order, F = Family, G = Genus.
1084

1085



Region

- BA
- ESBT
- LE
- NSB
- WSB

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