

In review

RUNNING TITLE: Community assembly and ecosystem function

Coupling spatiotemporal community assembly processes to ecosystem function

Emily B. Graham¹, Alex R. Crump¹, Charles T. Resch¹, Sarah Fansler¹, Evan Arntzen¹, David W. Kennedy¹, Jim K. Fredrickson¹, James C. Stegen¹

¹Biological Sciences Division, Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, Richland, WA USA

Correspondence: Emily B. Graham, Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, PO Box 999, Richland, WA 99352, 509-372-6049, emily.graham@pnnl.gov

Keywords: niche, selection, dispersal, microbial community structure, aerobic respiration, ammonia oxidation, heterotrophy, hyporheic, riverbed, Hanford

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Upon acceptance for publication, all data will be made publically available, and the DOI will be provided in-text.



Abstract

Community assembly processes govern shifts in species abundances in response to environmental change, yet our understanding of assembly remains largely decoupled from ecosystem function. Here, we test hypotheses regarding assembly and function across space and time using hyporheic microbial communities as a model system. We pair sampling of two habitat types (e.g., attached and unattached) through seasonal and sub-hourly hydrologic fluctuation with null modeling and temporally-explicit multivariate statistics. We demonstrate that dual selective pressures assimilate to generate compositional changes at distinct timescales among habitat types, resulting in contrasting associations of Betaproteobacteria and Thaumarchaeota with selection and with seasonal changes in aerobic metabolism. Our results culminate in a conceptual model in which selection from contrasting environments regulates taxon abundance and ecosystem function through time, with increases in function when oscillating selection opposes stable selective pressures. Our model is applicable within both macrobial and microbial ecology and presents an avenue for assimilating community assembly processes into predictions of ecosystem function.



Introduction

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

Ecosystem function is strongly influenced by community membership at a given point in time and space, but links between assembly processes that govern community composition and ecosystem metabolism remain unclear. The extent to which community assembly processes regulate ecosystem function is contingent on myriad spatiotemporal factors (Foster et al. 2004, Graham et al. 2014, Graham et al. 2016, Kardol et al. 2013, Nemergut et al. 2014), and assembly processes themselves vary through space and time. A plethora of research has demonstrated the influence of historical community assembly processes and abiotic conditions on ecosystem function (Evans and Wallenstein 2012, Fukami et al. 2010, Hawkes and Keitt 2015, Kardol et al. 2013, Ulrich et al. 2015). Selection can enhance ecosystem function via species sorting mechanisms that optimize community composition for a given environment (Lindström and Langenheder 2012, Van der Gucht et al. 2007), whereas dispersal limitation can lead to a dominance of species that are poorly adapted to prevailing environmental conditions with resultant decreases in productivity (Hanson et al. 2012, Lindström and Östman 2011, Peres et al. 2016, Telford et al. 2006). As such, selection and dispersal aggregate across various spatiotemporal intervals to impact species composition, yet we lack a conceptual basis for how these processes collectively influence ecosystem function (Gonzalez et al. 2012, Prosser et al. 2007, Shade et al. 2013). Community assembly processes intrinsically interact with disturbance history and biogeography to effect changes in community composition and ecosystem metabolism. For example, communities experiencing a history of strong, homogeneous selective pressures may contain taxa that are optimized for environmental conditions and maintain high rates of ecosystem function (Grime 1998, Knelman and Nemergut 2014). In contrast, such a history may



40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

exclude taxa that are able to utilize alternative resource pools relative to communities experiencing higher rates of dispersal or more variable selection (Cardinale 2011, Hooper et al. 2012, Loreau and Hector 2001). Spatial assembly processes (e.g., dispersal) can result in an influx of diverse organisms that mediate ecosystem functioning, including species that are suboptimal in present environmental conditions, and/or limit the ability of organisms with high fitness to reach an environment. Thus, we hypothesize that community assembly processes act through long timescales across a history of abiotic conditions and impose short-term controls over community composition at a given point in time and space. These assembly dynamics culminate in distinct community membership at every point in a spatiotemporal domain, impacting the efficiency of ecosystem function via changes in species distributions. Environmental transition zones present a unique opportunity for examining interactions between ecosystem function and both long- and short-term assembly processes, as they experience extreme spatiotemporal variation in physicochemical characteristics and microbial community turnover across tractable spatial and temporal scales. In particular, hyporheic zones, with dynamic groundwater-surface water mixing, exhibit elevated rates of microbially-mediated biogeochemical cycling and strongly influence watershed-scale biogeochemistry (Hedin et al. 1998, McClain et al. 2003). The hyporheic zone of the Columbia River experiences geographic variation in groundwater-surface water mixing, porewater geochemistry, and microbial community composition on sub-hourly to annual timescales (Arntzen et al. 2006, Lin et al. 2012, Peterson and Connelly 2004, Slater et al. 2010, Stegen et al. 2012, Stegen et al. 2016, Zachara et al. 2013). Accordingly, the Hanford Reach of the Columbia River embodies a model system to facilitate the integration of community ecology and ecosystem function.



Here, we leverage inherent variation in hydrology, habitat heterogeneity, and aerobic respiration to examine the interplay of community assembly processes and systemic changes in ecosystem function. We employ null modeling in conjunction with temporally-explicit multivariate statistics to characterize assembly processes driving functional shifts in microbial communities and the efficiency of ecosystem function in the Columbia River hyporheic zone. Our results culminate in a broadly-applicable conceptual model coupling changes in selective environments, trait abundance, and ecosystem function through time.

Materials and Methods

Study Design

This study was conducted in Hanford Reach of the Columbia River adjacent to the Hanford 300A (approximately 46° 22' 15.80"N, 119° 16' 31.52"W) in eastern Washington, as described elsewhere (Slater *et al.* 2010, Stegen *et al.* 2016, Zachara *et al.* 2013). We monitored physicochemical conditions for three hydrologically connected geographic zones (nearshore, inland, river) via aqueous sampling (Table S1). The inland environment is characterized by an unconfined aquifer within the Hanford formation and more recent illuvial deposits and maintains a distinct hydrologic environment with stable temperatures (~15°C) and high concentrations of anions and inorganic carbon relative to the river. River water contains high concentrations of organic material and low concentrations of ions with seasonally variable temperatures. The waters from these discrete hydrologic environments experience dynamic mixing in a nearshore zone that is regulated by fluctuations in river stage across sub-hourly (dam controlled) to seasonal (winter snowpack melt) variation in river stage; we focus on ecological dynamics within this zone. To monitor groundwater-surface water mixing across space and time, we utilize



Cl⁻ as a conservative tracer for groundwater contributions to hyporheic porewater chemistry as employed by Stegen *et al.* (2016).

Detailed sampling and analytical methods are in the Supplemental Material. Attached and unattached communities were obtained from deployed colonization substrate and aqueous samples. These samples were collected at three-week intervals from March through November 2014, with the first unattached samples collected in March and the first attached samples collected after a six-week incubation period, from piezometers installed to 1.2m depth near the riverbed. Aqueous samples were obtained via pumping water from piezometers adjacent to colonization substrates and used to derive physicochemical conditions as well as to sample unattached communities. Attached microbial communities were sampled by deploying mesh stainless steel incubators of locally-sourced colonization substrate in piezometers within one meter of piezometers from which aqueous samples were obtained. All incubators were deployed six weeks prior to removal. Samples to construct the regional species pool for null models were simultaneously obtained at three inland wells and at one location in the Columbia River.

Null Modeling Approach.

We implemented null modeling methodology developed by Stegen et al. (2013, 2015) using R software (http://cran.r-project.org/) to disentangle community assembly processes (Supplemental Material). The approach uses turnover pairwise phylogenetic turnover between communities, calculated using the mean-nearest-taxon-distance (β MNTD) metric (Fine and Kembel 2011, Webb *et al.* 2008), to infer the strength of selection. Communities were evaluated for significantly less turnover than expected (β NTI < -2, homogeneous selection) or more turnover than expected (β NTI > 2, variable selection) by comparing observed β MNTD values to



the mean of a null distribution of β MNTD values—and normalizing by its standard deviation—to yield β NTI (Stegen *et al.* 2012). Pairwise community comparisons that did not deviate from the null β MNTD distribution were evaluated for the influences of dispersal limitation and homogenizing dispersal by calculating the Raup-Crick metric extended to account for species relative abundances (RC_{bray}), as per Stegen *et al.* (2013, 2015). Observed Bray-Curtis dissimilarities were compared to the null distribution to derive RC_{bray}. RC_{bray} values > 0.95, > -0.95 and < 0.95, or < -0.95 were assumed to indicate dispersal limitation, no dominant assembly process, or homogenizing dispersal, respectively. Inferences derived from both β NTI and RC_{bray} have previously been shown to be robust (Dini-Andreote *et al.* 2015, Stegen *et al.* 2015).

Statistical Methods

Regressions and one-sided Mann Whitney *U* tests were conducted using the base statistics package in *R*. Variation in community composition was assessed with PERMANOVA in QIIME (Caporaso *et al.* 2010). The contribution of nestedness versus turnover to community differences was determined using the 'betapart' package in *R* (Baselga and Orme 2012). We conducted variance partitioning (ADONIS) and fit porewater characteristics to NMDS plots of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities with and without stratifying by time within attached and unattached communities using the 'vegan' package in *R* (999 permutations, Oksanen *et al.* 2013). Further details are available in the Supplemental Material.

Because we observed large seasonal differences in species richness in both attached and unattached communities, we performed similarity percentage (SIMPER) analysis to identify individual species driving community dissimilarity between time periods of high and low richness in each environment (Clarke 1993). SIMPER was conducted across all attached and



unattached communities and within attached and unattached communities across time periods of high and low species richness, defined by time rather than species numbers to control for seasonal effects (Supplemental Material). We extracted taxonomic groups of organisms at the class-level containing at least one species identified as having a significant impact on community composition by SIMPER (P < 0.05) for subsequent analyses. Organisms were grouped at the class-level to provide sufficient statistical power for analysis. Mantel tests were used to compare the average relative abundance of taxonomic groups identified by SIMPER across samples to associated β NTI and RC_{bray} values ('vegan', 999 permutations). Finally, we compared dissimilarity in species richness between samples within and across attached and unattached communities to β NTI and further, if -2 < β NTI < 2, to RC_{bray} using Mantel tests to infer community assembly processes generating species turnover between samples.

Results

Hydrologic shifts through time

We observed distinct temporal trends in groundwater-surface water mixing, characterized by an abrupt increase in Cl⁻ concentration (Figure 1A) and decrease in NPOC (Figure 1B) associated with a seasonal shift in water stage (Figure S1, Table S1). Temperature peaked during August and followed a smooth temporal trend (Figure 1C). Species richness in both attached and unattached communities mirrored the trend in temperature, with the highest number of species observed during the warmest summer months (Figure 1D). Further, species richness was more tightly correlated with temperature (Figure S2, regression, attached: $R^2 = 0.25$, P = 0.001, unattached: $R^2 = 0.25$, $R^2 = 0.002$) than Cl⁻ (regression, attached: $R^2 = 0.01$, unattached: $R^2 = 0.005$) and NPOC (regression, attached: $R^2 = 0.005$). Finally,



average species richness between two samples was positively associated with Bray-Curtis dissimilarity within attached and unattached communities, even when constraining analysis by sampling time to remove confounding effects from temperature, suggesting richness as a driver of community divergences in our system (Figure 2A).

Spatiotemporal assembly processes

Attached and unattached communities remained taxonomically distinct through time (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.19$, P = 0.001), driven by species turnover rather than nestedness (avg. dissimilarity due to turnover, 96.4%). The composition of both attached (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.44$, P = 0.001) and unattached (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.44$, P = 0.001) communities changed across our sampling period. Assembly processes governing variation in community composition varied by environment type (Figure 2B and C). β NTI was positively correlated with differences in species richness in unattached samples (Mantel, P = 0.001, P = 0.001, P = 0.001, with weaker correlations in attached communities (Mantel, P = 0.002, P = 0.001, Figure 2B) and between attached and unattached communities (Mantel, P = 0.006, P = 0.001, Figure 2D).

When examining selective processes at discrete timescales, unattached communities were correlated to more environmental variables than attached communities at a sub-hourly timescale (stratified NMDS, Figure 3A and B, Table S2). Conversely, attached communities correlated more tightly with physicochemical attributes over a seasonal timescale (unstratified NMDS, Figure 3A and B). Temperature and dissolved oxygen were significant predictors of community composition over a seasonal but not sub-hourly timescale in both unattached and attached communities.



177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

Phylogenetic variability in assembly and functional outcomes

SIMPER analysis revealed species driving differences among attached and unattached communities during periods of high versus low species richness (Table S3). In separate analyses of attached and unattached communities, 231 species were identified as significant drivers of community composition, while 863 species were identified as drivers of community composition across unattached versus attached environments. We extracted phylogenetic classes of organisms containing species identified by SIMPER and examined them for relationships with BNTI and RC_{bray} All significant correlations with r values greater than +/- 0.30 are listed in Table S4. In particular, taxa within unattached communities exhibited no relationships with βNTI, but the mean relative abundance (across two samples) of many taxa, including *Thaumarchaeota* (positive, Figure 4A), a class of *Acidobacteria* (positive, Figure 4B), *Actinobacteria* (negative, Figure 4C), and Alphaproteobacteria (negative, Figure 4D), displayed correlations with RC_{brav}. The mean relative abundance of *Parvarcheota* and a class of candidate phyla OP3 (koll11) were positively correlated with βNTI derived from comparisons across attached and unattached communities (Figure 4E and F). Finally, within attached communities, BNTI was correlated with the mean relative abundance of *Thaumarchaeota* (positive, Figure 4G) and *Betaproteobacteria* (negative, Figure 4H).

We also observed a seasonal increase in the abundance of *Thaumarchaeota* in attached communities with a decrease in *Betaproteobacteria* (Figure 5A) that corresponded with shifts in hydrology (Figure 5B). Oxygenated conditions persisted throughout our sampling period, and aerobic metabolic activity normalized to active biomass (Raz:ATP) also increased seasonally within attached communities, an effect that correlated with day of year (Figure 5C) but not temperature, NPOC concentration, or hydrology (regression: temperature P = 0.10, NPOC P =



0.21, log(Cl⁻) P = 0.15). The relative abundance of *Thaumarchaeota* and *Betaproteobacteria* in attached communities also correlated positively and negatively, respectively, with Raz:ATP (Figure 5D) and exhibited contrasting responses to porewater physicochemical properties (Table S5).

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

202

199

200

201

Discussion

Microbial responses to hydrologic change

Hydrology, organic carbon concentration, and temperature each explained some variation in community dissimilarity within attached and unattached communities, potentially indicating the influence of selection and dispersal on microbial community composition (Table S6). Indeed, both selection by the geochemical environment and/or dispersal from local sediment communities have been demonstrated within the groundwater aquifer in our system (Stegen et al. 2012). While dispersal potential within hyporheic zones remains unclear (Bärlocher et al. 2006, Cornut et al. 2014), physical filtering of particulates can inhibit microbial dispersal at relatively small spatial scales zone (Brunke 1999, Hartwig and Borchardt 2014). Further, variation in selective environments and/or dispersal limitation should enhance rates of turnover relative to nestedness, and species turnover governed almost all dissimilarity between community types. Other studies have demonstrated little overlap between porewater and sediment microbial community composition in hyporheic zones (Febria et al. 2012), as well as the importance of organic carbon concentration and temperature within aquatic systems (Docherty et al. 2006, Findlay et al. 2003, Hullar et al. 2006), effects that may be prevalent within our system. To assess the extent to which selection versus dispersal governed the addition of new

species to communities, we employed null modeling to infer the importance of these processes



across differences in richness between samples. Our results indicate stronger selection imposed by the physical environment than by aqueous chemistry, an inference supported by lower absolute βNTI values in unattached communities relative to attached communities.

Homogeneous selection (*e.g.*, selection for consistent traits) appears to be the dominant assembly process in attached communities, while unattached communities are influenced by a combination of homogeneous selection, variable selection (*e.g.*, selective pressures for a of mixture traits), and spatial processes (*e.g.*, dispersal). Homogeneous selection remained dominant in attached communities as differences in species richness increased (Figure 2B), indicating strong and consistent selective pressures imposed by a relatively stable environment.

As such, the physical substrate may inherently contain a limited number of ecological niches—potentially related to mineralogy or physical structure—with slow changes in available niche space through time, whereby species added with increases in richness were ecologically similar to existing taxa. Conversely, relative to attached communities, we observed greater seasonal changes richness in unattached communities (Figure 1D) and differences in richness that were positively correlated with β NTI (Figure 2C), as would be expected if differences in richness were due to expansion of available niche space.

Variation in assembly processes between attached and unattached communities may be due to inherent differences among these environments, such as influences of mineralogy (Carson *et al.* 2007, Jorgensen *et al.* 2012), physical matrix composition (Breulmann *et al.* 2014, Vos *et al.* 2013), and/or relative rates of change in environment characteristics (discussed below).

Deviations in assembly processes and niche dynamics between environments may furthermore induce differential responses to both sub-hourly and seasonal fluctuations in environmental conditions.



Timescales of selection

The timescales at which selection imposes constraints on microbial community composition are poorly understood (Nemergut *et al.* 2013, Shade *et al.* 2012). Here, we provide new insights into these timescales, showing that selection on unattached communities operates at the timescales of shifting porewater conditions (sub-hourly to seasonal), while selection on attached communities operates primarily at seasonal timescales. Rapid microbial turnover in unattached communities may be the result of oscillating selective pressures in the aqueous environment and enhanced rates of dispersal relative to attached communities. Further, our results indicated that temperature and dissolved oxygen impacted community composition only at seasonal timescales. These factors are less variable over sub-hourly periods relative to seasonal changes and may exert cumulative effects on community composition only when large changes are sustained over seasonal timescales.

Selection on attached communities operated at the seasonal timescale, and these communities were therefore resistant to short-term hydrologic variation. Short-term stability could be facilitated by a number of mechanisms. Attached microbial communities can have adhesion mechanisms (Hori and Matsumoto 2010) that confer stability in concert with priority effects that slow rates of turnover in these communities relative to unattached communities (Fukami 2004, Fukami *et al.* 2010). Biofilms, whereby microbial cells are imbedded within a matrix of extracellular polymeric substances, are prevalent in aquatic systems and buffer communities against fluctuations in the hydrologic environment (Battin *et al.* 2016). Temporal stability may also be conferred by high species richness, in which the propensity for a community to contain a range of organisms with complementary traits/metabolisms as well as



physiologically plastic organisms is enhanced and turnover is diminished by metabolic flexibility (Evans and Hofmann 2012), niche construction (Kylafis and Loreau 2011), and/or reduced susceptibility to invasion (Stachowicz *et al.* 2002). Indeed, in our system, attached communities contained more species on average than unattached communities (Figure 1D).

Conceptual basis for taxon-specific assembly processes

Community assembly processes, by definition, describe community-level dynamics, but taxa may respond differentially to prevailing environmental conditions. For instance, only some taxa contain traits that are under selection in given conditions (Knelman and Nemergut 2014, Krause *et al.* 2014, Lebrija-Trejos *et al.* 2010, Poff 1997), and traits that facilitate dispersal (*e.g.*, winged or waterproof seeds, spore formation) are preferentially contained within certain taxa (Martiny *et al.* 2006, Tremlová and Münzbergová 2007). These taxon-specific effects are obscured when examining βNTI and RC_{bray} values that reflect community-level processes. To address this issue, we compared the relative abundance of key microbial taxa to βNTI values.

An increase in the abundance of a particular taxon as β NTI increases implies that a reduction in selection enhances successful colonization of that taxon, and hence, that predominate selective pressures target traits outside of that taxon. This effect is more probable for organisms occupying narrow niche spaces, as wider niche breadths are characterized by a greater variety of environmental attributes. In contrast, β NTI decreasing with increases in the relative abundance of a taxon should indicate that the primary selective pressure is for traits contained within that taxon. In both cases, changes in β NTI may be induced either by a change in the magnitude and/or direction of a single selective pressure (*e.g.*, sediment chemistry) or by an



291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

introduction of a secondary source of selection (*e.g.*, a shift in a hydrology overlaying selection that is consistently imposed by physical habitat features).

Relationships between RC_{brav}, after removing selection, and taxon abundance also suggest taxa-specific assembly dynamics, indicating the role of spatial processes. A given taxon's dispersal ability can, however, manifest in differing relationships with RC_{bray}. For instance, a positive relationship between RC_{brav} and taxon abundance (i.e., high abundance under dispersal limitation) may provide evidence for traits that diminish dispersal ability such as nonmotility or a lack of appendages in macroinvertebrates, large propagule size in vascular plants, or substrate attachment in microorganisms; or for traits that are governed by a combination of ecological drift and selection in the environment (Nemergut et al. 2013), as they are able to persist despite community-level dispersal limitation. Alternatively, these organisms may possess traits that facilitate dispersal, allowing for immigration and conveying a competitive advantage despite community-level dispersal limitation. Likewise, negative relationships with RC_{bray} (i.e., high abundance under homogenizing dispersal) may indicate the propensity for a taxon to disperse, thereby enhancing their probability of successful immigration relative to other organisms. Such organisms may be at a competitive disadvantage when lower dispersal rates require organisms to persist locally over longer periods of time. Conversely, these organisms may have poorer dispersal abilities relative to other community members, and therefore, may increase in abundance when the abiotic environment facilitates dispersal (e.g., advective hydrologic transport).

310

311

Taxon-specific dispersal between unattached communities



313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

in our dataset provide evidence for a role of taxa-specific dispersal mechanisms in regulating microbial community composition over short timescales (Table S4). In particular, positive relationships of *Thaumarchaeota* (Figure 3A) and a class of *Acidobacteria* (Figure 3B) with RC_{brav} and negative relationships of *Actinobacteria* (Figure 3C) and *Alphaproteobacteria* (Figure 3D) with RC_{bray} were among the strongest correlations (Table S4). Although we cannot be certain of the mechanisms responsible for the relationships in our study system, the trends we observed may aid in elucidating the ecological dynamics that govern the abundance of key microbial taxa within hyporheic zones. For example, Acidobacteria (Fierer and Jackson 2006, Jones et al. 2009) and Thaumarchaeota (Francis et al. 2005, Pester et al. 2011) are widely distributed globally, suggesting that positive relationships between RC_{bray} and these taxa in our dataset may denote the ability for these organisms to disperse under community-level dispersal limitation. Conversely, Alphaproteobacteria can produce filaments that aid in attachment (Jones et al. 2007, Kragelund et al. 2006), and dispersal limitation has been demonstrated in soil Actinobacteria (Eisenlord et al. 2012). Thus, negative relationships between these taxa and RC_{bray} may reflect an enhanced ability of these organisms to persist locally relative to other community members. Selective environment of attached versus unattached communities Examining assembly processes governing differences between attached and unattached

In light of rapid hydrologic-induced changes in the porewater environment, relationships

329

330

331

332

333

334

Examining assembly processes governing differences between attached and unattached communities revealed selection for microbial taxa with unique ecological properties in the porewater environment (Table S4). We identified linear positive relationships between β NTI and the average relative abundance of two classes of organisms—a candidate class of archaea



(*Parvarchaeota*, Figure 3D) and a class of the candidate phyla *OP3* (*koll11*, Figure 3E). Here, *Parvarchaeota* and *koll11* were almost exclusively found in unattached communities. Although the specific selective pressures regulating the abundance of these organisms are unknown, archaea and members of the PVC superphyla to which *OP3* belongs have a cell membrane lacking peptidoglycan that conveys resistance to common antibiotics and have the genetic potential to metabolize C1 compounds such as methane (Fuerst and Sagulenko 2011). The distinctive features of these organisms and abundance within our system merits future investigating into their role in carbon cycling in hyporheic environments.

Selection in attached communities and functional effects through time

Within attached communities, we observed changes in the abundance of two major taxa—*Betaproteobacteria and Thaumarchaeota*—that correlated with changes in βNTI, porewater conditions, and aerobic metabolism; potentially indicating the emergence of a secondary fitness peak introduced by a change in selective pressures levied by porewater conditions. Members of *Betaproteobacteria* increased in relative abundance in concert with increases in the strength of homogeneous selection (Figure 4H), while members of *Thaumarchaeota* (Figure 4G) increased as homogeneous selection waned.

Betaproteobacteria is a metabolically diverse taxon, exhibiting a range of aerobic and facultative metabolisms including methylotrophy (Kalyuzhnaya et al. 2006), ammonia-oxidation (Freitag et al. 2006), nitrogen fixation (Rees et al. 2009), phototrophy (Gifford et al. 2013), and a variety of heterotrophic metabolisms (Amakata et al. 2005, Sato et al. 2009, Yang et al. 2005). Although we cannot be certain of the primary metabolic role(s) of these organisms, a positive correlation between their abundance and NPOC concentration coincident with negative



359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

correlations with nitrate, sulfate, and inorganic carbon supports their important contribution to heterotrophy in this system. Evidence for preferential selection of *Betaproteobacteria* in attached communities that are stable across short timescales may also suggest niche overlap, trait complementarity, functional redundancy, and/or generalist life strategies within this group, all of which have been demonstrated to enhance community stability (Gonzalez and Bell 2013, Hawkes and Keitt 2015, Needham *et al.* 2013, Shade *et al.* 2012).

In contrast, metabolic activity of *Thaumarchaeota* is primarily constrained to ammoniaoxidation (Beam et al. 2014, Pester et al. 2011, Weber et al. 2015). These ammonia-oxidizing organisms increased as homogeneous selection decreased, suggesting an important role for a second set of selective pressures that effectively add a viable niche dimension. Our results are consistent with recent work investigating timescales of environmental variability and specieslevel physiological plasticity across globally-distributed macroecological systems (Chan et al. 2016) and provide evidence for universal ecological principles across microbial and microbial systems. Chan et al. (2016) demonstrated that specialist organisms thrive under variable conditions at sub-daily timescales, while long-term variability in the environment selects for organisms with broad tolerances. Correspondingly, we observed overarching selective pressures favoring more generalist Betaproteobacteria, while more specialized Thaumarchaeota increased in abundance during periods with pronounced variation in the physicochemical environment (Figure 1A-B, Figure 5A). Thus, we propose that community composition in dynamic environments is often the product of multiple selective pressures that operate across different timescales, resulting an increase of specialist organisms during periods in which selection by an oscillating environment opposes that of a temporally-stable environment. In our system, we infer that consistent selective pressures for heterotrophs—putatively imposed by stable sediment



382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

features, such as mineralogy— in particular those within *Betaproteobacteria*, work alongside seasonally fluctuating porewater selective pressures that select for autotrophs during groundwater discharge conditions.

Importantly, we also observed seasonal increases in aerobic activity that positively correlated with the relative abundance of *Thaumarchaeota* (Figure 5D) and negatively correlated with the relative abundance of Betaproteobacteria (Figure 5D). Thaumarchaeota abundance also positively correlated with nitrate concentration and particulate organic nitrogen and negatively correlated with NPOC (Table S5), suggesting a heightened importance of *Thaumarchaeota*mediated nitrification when organic carbon concentrations are limiting (Taylor and Townsend 2010). Thus, temporally consistent selective pressures may favor heterotrophs within Betaproteobacteria that are outcompeted by nitrifiers as NPOC concentrations drop with groundwater intrusion into the nearshore environment. As a whole, our results suggest that the realized niche space of ammonia-oxidizing archaea widens when with a shift to groundwater discharging conditions causes a decrease in carbon availability that, in turn, decreases homogeneous selection. These dynamics contribute to an observable functional response at the community level and are consistent with work in both micro- and macroecology demonstrating that productivity increases with niche diversification (Cardinale et al. 2007, Cardinale 2011, Gravel et al. 2011, Hooper et al. 2005, Hunting et al. 2015).

399

400

401

402

403

Ecological Implications

Our findings suggest a conceptual model describing relationships between trait selection, organismal fitness, and ecosystem function for communities experiencing dual selective pressures that result from a combination of stable and oscillating environments (Figure 6). Our



model furthers ecology theory by providing a mechanistic basis for changes in species composition in response to environmental variability and provides support for the applicability of Connell's intermediate disturbance hypothesis both within and beyond microbial systems (Connell 1978, Griffiths and Philippot 2013, Hawkes and Keitt 2015), as most terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems experience dual selection at system-relevant timescales. For example, in terrestrial ecosystems, physical soil properties and soil water content are relatively stable and oscillating, respectively, from the perspective of associated plant communities. Likewise in subsurface systems (such as the example presented here), sediment geochemistry is relatively stable over monthly timescales and hydrologic conditions are continuously fluctuating generating dual selective pressures for benthic organisms. Furthermore, across most ecosystems physical habitat structure and prey abundance are relatively stable and oscillating, respectively, from the perspective of predator communities.

In this context, selection imposed by a stable feature of the environment can favor organisms possessing traits that oppose traits selected for by the oscillating environment (Figure 6A). Because the stable environment applies consistent selective pressures, shifts in the strength of homogeneous selection are driven by changes in the oscillating environment. Provided selection in the stable environment is sufficiently large, stable selection nonetheless dictates the overarching direction of selection. For example, given a stable environment represented by the black dot in Figure 6A, the strength of homogeneous selection in Figure 6B is determined by selection imparted by the oscillating environment, denoted as a gradient from blue to red. In this scenario, selection from the oscillating environment causes a decrease in homogeneous selection that results in niche diversification and enhanced efficiency of ecosystem function (Figure 6B-C).



In our system, this model manifests in observed relationships with βNTI, which represents the summation of selective processes generating dissimilarity across samples. βNTI was consistently negative (homogeneous selection) across attached communities but oscillated from -7 to +10 (Figure 2B) across unattached communities. Indeed, unattached communities appeared to be influenced by selection from porewater conditions at shorter timescales than attached communities (Figure 4). We also observed seasonal shifts in the composition of attached communities as well as relationships between taxa putatively involved in aerobic respiration and changes in the magnitude of homogeneous selection. These results suggest that unattached microbial communities in our system are primarily affected by an oscillating selective pressure, and thus are able to rapidly respond to changes in the porewater environment, while dual selective pressures on attached communities generate shifts in community composition at longer timescales. Consequently, we find that community assembly processes assimilate through time to impact ecosystem function, an effect that generates distinct timescales of compositional shifts among habitat types.

Our work represents a key step forward in spatiotemporal ecological research by assimilating shifts in community composition, assembly processes, and ecosystem function across two spatially connected habitat types experiencing pronounced temporal variation in environmental conditions. We postulate that ecosystem function is enhanced when the direction of selection imposed by an oscillating environment opposes that of the stable environment, allowing for niche diversification and for specialist organisms to increase the efficiency of ecosystem function. Our model represents an advancement in the integration of individual and community-level ecology theory with ecosystem functioning and develops a conceptual



449	framework for coordinating assembly processes, changes in species abundance, and predictions
450	of ecosystem function in response environmental change.
451	
452	Acknowledgements
453	This research was supported by the US Department of Energy (DOE), Office of
454	Biological and Environmental Research (BER), as part of Subsurface Biogeochemical
455	Research Program's Scientific Focus Area (SFA) at the Pacific Northwest National
456	Laboratory (PNNL). PNNL is operated for DOE by Battelle under contract
457	DE-AC06-76RLO 1830. A portion of the research was performed using Institutional
458	Computing at PNNL.
459	



References

- Amakata D, Matsuo Y, Shimono K, Park JK, Yun CS, Matsuda H *et al* (2005). Mitsuaria chitosanitabida gen. nov., sp. nov., an aerobic, chitosanase-producing member of the 'Betaproteobacteria'. *International journal of systematic and evolutionary microbiology* **55:** 1927-1932.
- Arntzen EV, Geist DR, Dresel PE (2006). Effects of fluctuating river flow on groundwater/surface water mixing in the hyporheic zone of a regulated, large cobble bed river. *River Research and Applications* **22:** 937-946.
- Bärlocher F, Nikolcheva LG, Wilson KP, Williams DD (2006). Fungi in the hyporheic zone of a springbrook. *Microbial ecology* **52:** 708-715.
- Baselga A, Orme CDL (2012). betapart: an R package for the study of beta diversity. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **3:** 808-812.
- Battin TJ, Besemer K, Bengtsson MM, Romani AM, Packmann AI (2016). The ecology and biogeochemistry of stream biofilms. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* **14:** 251-263.
 - Beam JP, Jay ZJ, Kozubal MA, Inskeep WP (2014). Niche specialization of novel Thaumarchaeota to oxic and hypoxic acidic geothermal springs of Yellowstone National Park. *ISME Journal: Multidisciplinary Journal of Microbial Ecology* **8**.
 - Breulmann M, Masyutenko NP, Kogut BM, Schroll R, Dörfler U, Buscot F *et al* (2014). Short-term bioavailability of carbon in soil organic matter fractions of different particle sizes and densities in grassland ecosystems. *Science of The Total Environment* **497:** 29-37.
 - Brunke M (1999). Colmation and depth filtration within streambeds: retention of particles in hyporheic interstices. *International Review of Hydrobiology* **84:** 99-117.
 - Caporaso JG, Kuczynski J, Stombaugh J, Bittinger K, Bushman FD, Costello EK *et al* (2010). QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community sequencing data. *Nature methods* **7:** 335-336.
 - Cardinale BJ, Wright JP, Cadotte MW, Carroll IT, Hector A, Srivastava DS *et al* (2007). Impacts of plant diversity on biomass production increase through time because of species complementarity. *Proceedings of the national academy of sciences* **104:** 18123-18128.
 - Cardinale BJ (2011). Biodiversity improves water quality through niche partitioning. *Nature* **472:** 86-89.
- Carson JK, Rooney D, Gleeson DB, Clipson N (2007). Altering the mineral composition of soil causes a shift in microbial community structure. *FEMS microbiology ecology* **61:** 414-423.



- Chan W-P, Chen I-C, Colwell RK, Liu W-C, Huang C-y, Shen S-F (2016). Seasonal and daily climate variation have opposite effects on species elevational range size. *Science* **351**: 1437-1439.
- 508
- Clarke KR (1993). Non parametric multivariate analyses of changes in community structure.

 Australian journal of ecology 18: 117-143.

512 Connell JH (1978). Diversity in tropical rain forests and coral reefs. *Science* **199:** 1302-1310.

513514

515

Cornut J, Chauvet E, Mermillod-Blondin F, Assemat F, Elger A (2014). Aquatic Hyphomycete Species Are Screened by the Hyporheic Zone of Woodland Streams. *Applied and environmental microbiology* **80:** 1949-1960.

516517518

Dini-Andreote F, Stegen JC, van Elsas JD, Salles JF (2015). Disentangling mechanisms that mediate the balance between stochastic and deterministic processes in microbial succession. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **112:** E1326-E1332.

520521522

523

519

Docherty KM, Young KC, Maurice PA, Bridgham SD (2006). Dissolved organic matter concentration and quality influences upon structure and function of freshwater microbial communities. *Microbial Ecology* **52:** 378-388.

524525526

Eisenlord SD, Zak DR, Upchurch RA (2012). Dispersal limitation and the assembly of soil Actinobacteria communities in a long - term chronosequence. *Ecology and evolution* **2:** 538-549.

528529530

527

Evans SE, Wallenstein MD (2012). Soil microbial community response to drying and rewetting stress: does historical precipitation regime matter? *Biogeochemistry* **109:** 101-116.

531532533

534

Evans TG, Hofmann GE (2012). Defining the limits of physiological plasticity: how gene expression can assess and predict the consequences of ocean change. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **367:** 1733-1745.

535536537

Febria CM, Beddoes P, Fulthorpe RR, Williams DD (2012). Bacterial community dynamics in the hyporheic zone of an intermittent stream. *The ISME journal* **6:** 1078-1088.

538539540

541

Fierer N, Jackson RB (2006). The diversity and biogeography of soil bacterial communities. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 103: 626-631.

542543544

Findlay SEG, Sinsabaugh RL, Sobczak WV, Hoostal M (2003). Metabolic and structural response of hyporheic microbial communities to variations in supply of dissolved organic matter. *Limnology and oceanography* **48:** 1608-1617.

546547

545

Fine PVA, Kembel SW (2011). Phylogenetic community structure and phylogenetic turnover across space and edaphic gradients in western Amazonian tree communities. *Ecography* 34: 552-565.

Foster BL, Dickson TL, Murphy CA, Karel IS, Smith VH (2004). Propagule pools mediate community assembly and diversity - ecosystem regulation along a grassland productivity gradient. *Journal of Ecology* **92:** 435-449.

Francis CA, Roberts KJ, Beman JM, Santoro AE, Oakley BB (2005). Ubiquity and diversity of ammonia-oxidizing archaea in water columns and sediments of the ocean. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **102**: 14683-14688.

- Freitag TE, Chang L, Prosser JI (2006). Changes in the community structure and activity of betaproteobacterial ammonia oxidizing sediment bacteria along a freshwater-marine gradient. *Environmental Microbiology* **8:** 684-696.
- Fuerst JA, Sagulenko E (2011). Beyond the bacterium: planctomycetes challenge our concepts of microbial structure and function. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* **9:** 403-413.
- Fukami T (2004). Assembly history interacts with ecosystem size to influence species diversity. *Ecology* **85:** 3234-3242.
 - Fukami T, Dickie IA, Paula Wilkie J, Paulus BC, Park D, Roberts A *et al* (2010). Assembly history dictates ecosystem functioning: evidence from wood decomposer communities. *Ecology Letters* **13**: 675-684.
 - Gifford SM, Sharma S, Booth M, Moran MA (2013). Expression patterns reveal niche diversification in a marine microbial assemblage. *The ISME journal* **7:** 281-298.
 - Gonzalez A, King A, Robeson II MS, Song S, Shade A, Metcalf JL *et al* (2012). Characterizing microbial communities through space and time. *Current opinion in biotechnology* **23:** 431-436.
 - Gonzalez A, Bell G (2013). Evolutionary rescue and adaptation to abrupt environmental change depends upon the history of stress. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* **368:** 20120079.
 - Graham EB, Wieder WR, Leff JW, Weintraub SR, Townsend AR, Cleveland CC *et al* (2014). Do we need to understand microbial communities to predict ecosystem function? A comparison of statistical models of nitrogen cycling processes. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* **68:** 279-282.
 - Graham EB, Knelman JE, Schindlbacher A, Siciliano S, Breulmann M, Yannarell A *et al* (2016). Microbes as engines of ecosystem function: when does community structure enhance predictions of ecosystem processes? *Frontiers in Microbiology* 7.
 - Gravel D, Bell T, Barbera C, Bouvier T, Pommier T, Venail P *et al* (2011). Experimental niche evolution alters the strength of the diversity-productivity relationship. *Nature* **469:** 89-92.



606

609

612

616

620

624625

626

627 628

629

630

634635

636

637

- Griffiths BS, Philippot L (2013). Insights into the resistance and resilience of the soil microbial
 community. *FEMS microbiology reviews* 37: 112-129.
- 600 Grime J (1998). Benefits of plant diversity to ecosystems: immediate, filter and founder effects.
 601 *Journal of Ecology* **86:** 902-910.
- Hanson CA, Fuhrman JA, Horner-Devine MC, Martiny JBH (2012). Beyond biogeographic patterns: processes shaping the microbial landscape. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* **10**: 497-506.
- Hartwig M, Borchardt D (2014). Alteration of key hyporheic functions through biological and physical clogging along a nutrient and fine sediment gradient. *Ecohydrology*.
- Hawkes CV, Keitt TH (2015). Resilience vs. historical contingency in microbial responses to environmental change. *Ecology letters*.
- Hedin LO, von Fischer JC, Ostrom NE, Kennedy BP, Brown MG, Robertson GP (1998).
 Thermodynamic constraints on nitrogen transformations and other biogeochemical processes at soil-stream interfaces. *Ecology* 79: 684-703.
- Hooper DU, Chapin Iii F, Ewel J, Hector A, Inchausti P, Lavorel S *et al* (2005). Effects of
 biodiversity on ecosystem functioning: a consensus of current knowledge. *Ecological monographs* 75: 3-35.
- Hooper DU, Adair EC, Cardinale BJ, Byrnes JE, Hungate BA, Matulich KL *et al* (2012). A global synthesis reveals biodiversity loss as a major driver of ecosystem change. *Nature* **486:** 105-108.
 - Hori K, Matsumoto S (2010). Bacterial adhesion: from mechanism to control. *Biochemical Engineering Journal* **48:** 424-434.
 - Hullar MAJ, Kaplan LA, Stahl DA (2006). Recurring seasonal dynamics of microbial communities in stream habitats. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **72:** 713-722.
- Hunting ER, Vijver MG, van der Geest HG, Mulder C, Kraak MHS, Breure AM *et al* (2015).
 Resource niche overlap promotes stability of bacterial community metabolism in experimental microcosms. *Frontiers in microbiology* **6**.
 - Jones PR, Cottrell MT, Kirchman DL, Dexter SC (2007). Bacterial community structure of biofilms on artificial surfaces in an estuary. *Microbial Ecology* **53:** 153-162.
- Jones RT, Robeson MS, Lauber CL, Hamady M, Knight R, Fierer N (2009). A comprehensive survey of soil acidobacterial diversity using pyrosequencing and clone library analyses. *The ISME journal* **3:** 442-453.



Jorgensen SL, Hannisdal B, Lanzén A, Baumberger T, Flesland K, Fonseca R *et al* (2012).

Correlating microbial community profiles with geochemical data in highly stratified sediments from the Arctic Mid-Ocean Ridge. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **109**: E2846-E2855.

Kalyuzhnaya MG, De Marco P, Bowerman S, Pacheco CC, Lara JC, Lidstrom ME *et al* (2006). Methyloversatilis universalis gen. nov., sp. nov., a novel taxon within the Betaproteobacteria represented by three methylotrophic isolates. *International journal of systematic and evolutionary microbiology* **56:** 2517-2522.

Kardol P, Souza L, Classen AT (2013). Resource availability mediates the importance of priority effects in plant community assembly and ecosystem function. *Oikos* **122:** 84-94.

Knelman JE, Nemergut DR (2014). Changes in community assembly may shift the relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem function. *Frontiers in microbiology* **5**.

Kragelund C, Kong Y, Van der Waarde J, Thelen K, Eikelboom D, Tandoi V *et al* (2006). Ecophysiology of different filamentous Alphaproteobacteria in industrial wastewater treatment plants. *Microbiology* **152**: 3003-3012.

Krause S, Le Roux X, Niklaus PA, Van Bodegom PM, Lennon JT, Bertilsson S *et al* (2014). Trait-based approaches for understanding microbial biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. *Front Microbiol* **5:** 251.

Kylafis G, Loreau M (2011). Niche construction in the light of niche theory. *Ecology Letters* **14:** 82-90.

Lebrija-Trejos E, Pérez-García EA, Meave JA, Bongers F, Poorter L (2010). Functional traits and environmental filtering drive community assembly in a species-rich tropical system. *Ecology* **91:** 386-398.

Lin X, McKinley J, Resch CT, Kaluzny R, Lauber CL, Fredrickson J *et al* (2012). Spatial and temporal dynamics of the microbial community in the Hanford unconfined aquifer. *The ISME journal* **6:** 1665-1676.

Lindström ES, Östman Ö (2011). The importance of dispersal for bacterial community composition and functioning. *PloS one* **6:** e25883.

Lindström ES, Langenheder S (2012). Local and regional factors influencing bacterial community assembly. *Environmental Microbiology Reports* **4:** 1-9.

Loreau M, Hector A (2001). Partitioning selection and complementarity in biodiversity experiments. *Nature* **412:** 72-76.



686 Martiny JBH, Bohannan BJM, Brown JH, Colwell RK, Fuhrman JA, Green JL *et al* (2006).
687 Microbial biogeography: putting microorganisms on the map. *Nature Reviews*688 *Microbiology* **4:** 102-112.

McClain ME, Boyer EW, Dent CL, Gergel SE, Grimm NB, Groffman PM *et al* (2003). Biogeochemical hot spots and hot moments at the interface of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems. *Ecosystems* **6:** 301-312.

Needham DM, Chow C-ET, Cram JA, Sachdeva R, Parada A, Fuhrman JA (2013). Short-term observations of marine bacterial and viral communities: patterns, connections and resilience. *The ISME journal* 7: 1274-1285.

Nemergut DR, Schmidt SK, Fukami T, O'Neill SP, Bilinski TM, Stanish LF *et al* (2013). Patterns and processes of microbial community assembly. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* **77:** 342-356.

Nemergut DR, Shade A, Violle C (2014). When, where and how does microbial community composition matter? *Frontiers in microbiology* **5**.

Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Kindt R, Legendre P, Minchin PR, O'Hara RB et al (2013). Package 'vegan'. Community ecology package, version 2.

Peres CA, Emilio T, Schietti J, Desmoulière SJ, Levi T (2016). Dispersal limitation induces long-term biomass collapse in overhunted Amazonian forests. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **113:** 892-897.

Pester M, Schleper C, Wagner M (2011). The Thaumarchaeota: an emerging view of their phylogeny and ecophysiology. *Current opinion in microbiology* **14:** 300-306.

Peterson RE, Connelly MP (2004). Water movement in the zone of interaction between groundwater and the Columbia River, Hanford site, Washington. *Journal of Hydraulic Research* **42:** 53-58.

Poff NL (1997). Landscape filters and species traits: towards mechanistic understanding and prediction in stream ecology. *Journal of the north american Benthological society*: 391-409.

Prosser JI, Bohannan BJ, Curtis TP, Ellis RJ, Firestone MK, Freckleton RP *et al* (2007). The role of ecological theory in microbial ecology. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* **5:** 384-392.

Rees AP, Gilbert JA, Kelly-Gerreyn BA (2009). Nitrogen fixation in the western English Channel (NE Atlantic ocean). *Marine Ecology Progress Series* **374:** 7-12.

Sato K, Kato Y, Taguchi G, Nogawa M, Yokota A, Shimosaka M (2009). Chitiniphilus
 shinanonensis gen. nov., sp. nov., a novel chitin-degrading bacterium belonging to
 Betaproteobacteria. *The Journal of general and applied microbiology* 55: 147-153.

Shade A, Peter H, Allison SD, Baho DL, Berga M, Bürgmann H *et al* (2012). Fundamentals of microbial community resistance and resilience. *Frontiers in microbiology* **3**.

Shade A, Caporaso JG, Handelsman J, Knight R, Fierer N (2013). A meta-analysis of changes in bacterial and archaeal communities with time. *The ISME journal* **7:** 1493-1506.

Slater LD, Ntarlagiannis D, Day - Lewis FD, Mwakanyamale K, Versteeg RJ, Ward A *et al* (2010). Use of electrical imaging and distributed temperature sensing methods to characterize surface water–groundwater exchange regulating uranium transport at the Hanford 300 Area, Washington. *Water Resources Research* **46**.

Stachowicz JJ, Fried H, Osman RW, Whitlatch RB (2002). Biodiversity, invasion resistance, and marine ecosystem function: reconciling pattern and process. *Ecology* **83:** 2575-2590.

Stegen JC, Lin X, Konopka AE, Fredrickson JK (2012). Stochastic and deterministic assembly processes in subsurface microbial communities. *The ISME journal* **6:** 1653-1664.

Stegen JC, Lin X, Fredrickson JK, Chen X, Kennedy DW, Murray CJ *et al* (2013). Quantifying community assembly processes and identifying features that impose them. *The ISME journal* **7:** 2069-2079.

Stegen JC, Lin X, Fredrickson JK, Konopka AE (2015). Estimating and mapping ecological processes influencing microbial community assembly. *Frontiers in microbiology* **6**.

Stegen JC, Fredrickson JK, Wilkins MJ, Konopka AE, Nelson WC, Arntzen EV *et al* (2016). Groundwater-surface water mixing shifts ecological assembly processes and stimulates organic carbon turnover. *Nature Communications* 7.

Taylor PG, Townsend AR (2010). Stoichiometric control of organic carbon–nitrate relationships from soils to the sea. *Nature* **464:** 1178-1181.

Telford RJ, Vandvik V, Birks HJB (2006). Dispersal limitations matter for microbial morphospecies. *Science* **312**: 1015-1015.

Tremlová Ki, Münzbergová Z (2007). Importance of species traits for species distribution in fragmented landscapes. *Ecology* **88:** 965-977.

Ulrich W, Zaplata MK, Winter S, Schaaf W, Fischer A, Soliveres S *et al* (2015). Species interactions and random dispersal rather than habitat filtering drive community assembly during early plant succession. *Oikos*.

Van der Gucht K, Cottenie K, Muylaert K, Vloemans N, Cousin S, Declerck S *et al* (2007). The
 power of species sorting: local factors drive bacterial community composition over a
 wide range of spatial scales. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 104:
 20404-20409.



778	
779	Vos M, Wolf AB, Jennings SJ, Kowalchuk GA (2013). Micro-scale determinants of bacterial
780	diversity in soil. FEMS microbiology reviews 37: 936-954.
781	
782	Webb CO, Ackerly DD, Kembel SW (2008). Phylocom: software for the analysis of
783	phylogenetic community structure and trait evolution. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 24: 2098-2100.
784	
785	Weber EB, Lehtovirta-Morley LE, Prosser JI, Gubry-Rangin C (2015). Ammonia oxidation is
786	not required for growth of Group 1.1 c soil Thaumarchaeota. FEMS microbiology
787	<i>ecology</i> 91: fiv001.
788	
789	Yang H-C, Im W-T, An D-S, Park W-s, Kim IS, Lee S-T (2005). Silvimonas terrae gen. nov., sp.
790	nov., a novel chitin-degrading facultative anaerobe belonging to the 'Betaproteobacteria'.
791	International journal of systematic and evolutionary microbiology 55: 2329-2332.
792	
793	Zachara JM, Long PE, Bargar J, Davis JA, Fox P, Fredrickson JK et al (2013). Persistence of
794	uranium groundwater plumes: Contrasting mechanisms at two DOE sites in the
795	groundwater-river interaction zone. <i>Journal of contaminant hydrology</i> 147: 45-72.
796	
797	
798	



FIGURES

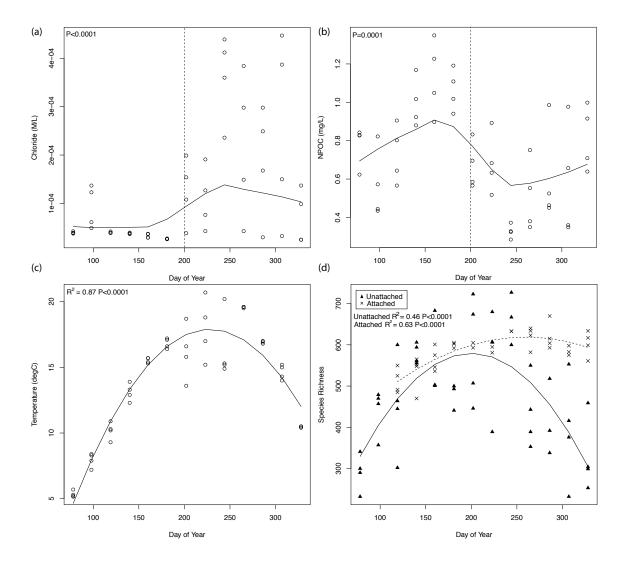


Figure 1 Changes in (A) chloride concentration, (B) NPOC concentration, (C) temperature, and (D) species richness across our sampling period are depicted in Figure 1. Chloride and NPOC concentration show abrupt shifts beginning at our July 22 sampling point (vertical dashed lines). P-values in (A) and (B) denote one-sided Mann-Whitney *U* test results of samples taken before versus on or after July 22, while trends through time in (A) and (B) are displayed using locally weighted scatterplot smoothing (LOWESS). Quadratic polynomials were fit to temperature and



807	species richness data and plotted in (C) and (D). Triangles in (D) represent unattached
808	communities; X's represent attached communities.
809	
810	



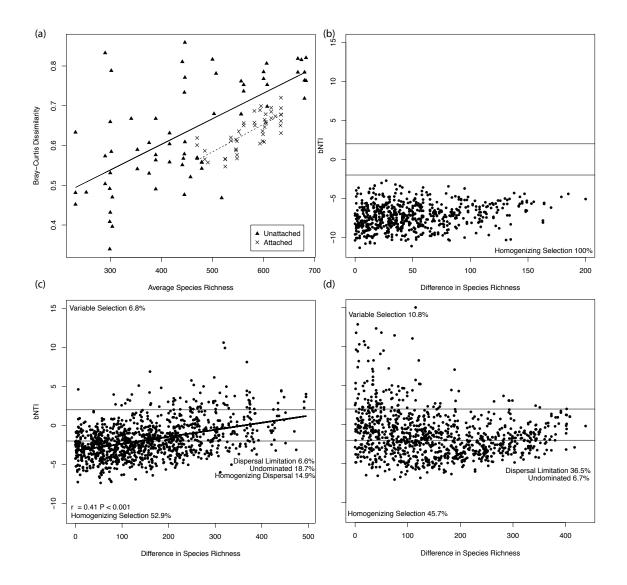


Figure 2 (A) Bray-Curtis dissimilarity within each sampling time point increased as mean species richness increased in attached (X's) and unattached (triangles) communities. In addition, βNTI values across differences in species richness are shown for (B) attached, (C) unattached, and (D) attached vs. unattached communities. Horizontal lines at β NTI = -2 and β NTI = 2 denote thresholds for assembly processes. β NTI values less than -2 suggest assembly is governed by homogeneous selection, while values greater than 2 suggest assembly is governed by variable selection. Stochastic assembly processes (dispersal limitation, homogenizing dispersal) and





undominated assembly processes lie between βNTI -2 and 2. The proportion of βNTI values
within each category are listed as text in (B), (C), and (D). A linear regression trend line is
depicted in (C) with significance assessed via Mantel test.



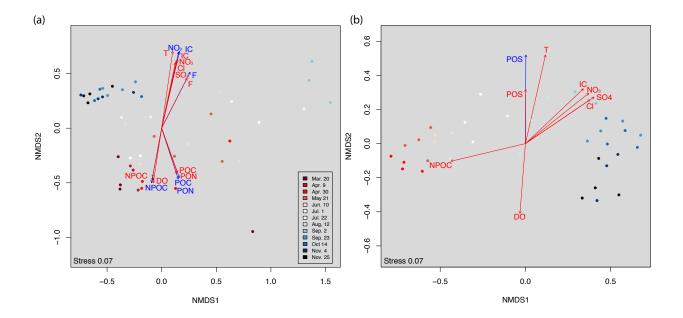


Figure 3 Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis was conducted on Bray-Curtis distances within (A) unattached and (B) attached communities. Colors denote seasonal shifts in community structure along a gradient from March (red) to November (blue). Physicochemical characteristics were fit to each plot with (blue arrows) and without (red arrows) stratifying permutations by sampling time to assess short- and long-term community responses, respectively, to the aqueous environment.



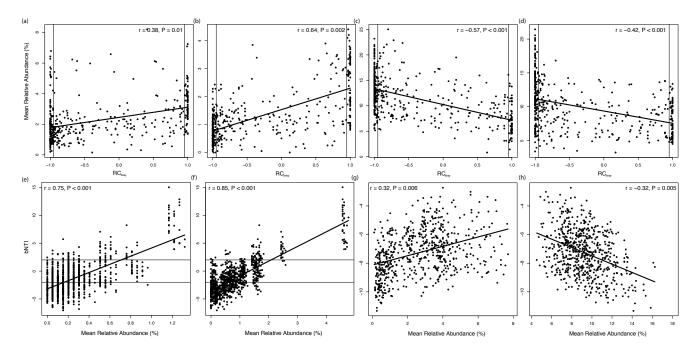


Figure 4 Relationships between βNTI or RC_{bray} and the mean abundance (across samples) of selected taxa identified by SIMPER analysis are depicted in Figure 4. (A-D) demonstrate relationships of *Thaumarchaeota*, *Acidobacteria-6*, *Actinobacteria*, and *Alphaproteobacteria*, respectively, versus RC_{bray} in unattached communities. Horizontal lines at βNTI = -2 (homogeneous selection) and βNTI = 2 (variable selection) and vertical lines at RC_{bray} = -0.95 (homogenizing dispersal) and 0.95 (dispersal limitation) denote thresholds for assembly processes. Trend lines in all panels were derived from linear regressions and significance was assessed via Mantel test. (E) and (F) show relationships of βNTI with *Parvarchaeota* and *koll11* in attached vs. unattached communities; while (G) and (H) denote relationships of βNTI with *Thaumarchaeota* and *Betaproteobacteria* within attached communities, respectively.



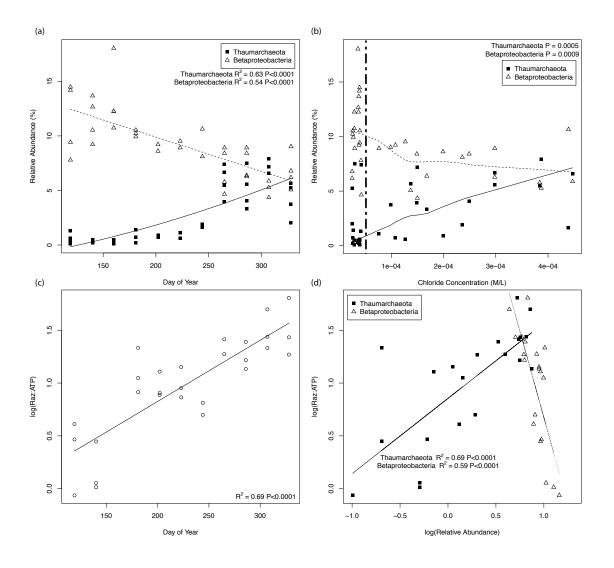


Figure 5 Figure 5 (A) and (B) show changes in *Thaumarchaeota* and *Betaproteobacteria* across changes in time (A) and chloride concentration (B). Trend lines in (A) denote linear (*Betaproteobacteria*) and quadratic (*Thaumarchaeota*) regressions. The vertical line and statistics in (B) denote one-sided Mann-Whitney *U* test results of *Betaproteobacteria* and *Thaumarchaeota* when chloride concentrations are above or below the maximum Cl⁻ concentration in the Columbia River (5.16e-05 M/L). Panel (C) shows increases in aerobic



851	respiration normalized to active biomass (Raz:ATP) through time. Finally, (D) shows
852	relationships of Betaproteobacteria and Thaumarchaeota with Raz:ATP. Trend lines and
853	associated statistics in (C) and (D) were derived with linear regressions. Thaumarchaeota and
854	Betaproteobacteria are shown as closed squares and open triangles, respectively, in (A), (B), and
855	(D) with trends for each group shown with a solid (Thaumarchaeota) or dashed
856	(Betaproteobacteria) line.
857	



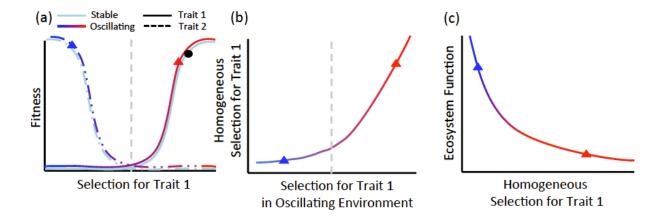


Figure 6 Figure 6 depicts a conceptual model describing relationships between trait selection, organismal fitness, and ecosystem function for communities experiencing dual selective pressures. (A) Selection for a trait follows a continuous gradient within a stable environment (light blue) and oscillating environment (blue to red gradient). Organisms that contain opposing traits (dashed vs. solid lines) are favored at each end of the spectrum, delineated here as to the left (selection against trait 1 and for trait 2) or right (selection for trait 1 and against trait 2) of the vertical gray line. Given selection in a stable environment denoted by the black dot in (A), variation in homogeneous selection (B) is driven by the magnitude and direction of selection in the oscillating environment. When selection in the oscillating environment opposes selection in the stable environment, homogeneous selection decreases (B) and ecosystem function increases (C) due to an increase in realized niche space and biodiversity. Blue and red triangles in (B) and (C) correspond to oscillating selection locations on the fitness landscape in (A).