

New insights into microbial community coalescence in the land-sea continuum

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1	New insights into microbial community coalescence in the land-sea								
2	continuum								
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15 Abstract

The land-sea continuum constitutes a mixing zone where soil microbial communities encounter, 16 17 via runoff, those inhabiting marine coastal sediment resulting in community coalescence. Here, we propose an experimental approach, mimicking the land-sea continuum, to study the 18 microbial community coalescence events in different situations, by 16S and 18S rRNA genes 19 metabarcoding. The microbial community structure of sediment diverged with the soil inputs. 20 For prokaryotes, phylogenetic enrichment and amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) 21 replacements characterized the community changes in sediment receiving soil inputs. For fungi, 22 despite phylogenetic enrichment was not observed, the fungal ASVs richness was maintained 23 by soil inputs. Comparison of microbial communities revealed ASVs specific to sediment 24 25 receiving soil inputs, and also ASVs shared with soil and/or runoff. Among these specific 26 ASVs, four bacterial and one fungal ASVs were identified as indicators of coalescence. Our 27 study provides evidences that coalescence involves the mixing of microorganisms and of the 28 environment.

29

30 Keywords

microcosm, community coalescence, soil runoff, marine coastal sediment, indicator value,microbial indicator

33 Introduction

34 The land-sea continuum is a transition zone mixing terrestrial and marine coastal ecosystems, through diverse forms of connections, including direct inputs via rivers and flows from soil 35 36 runoff. Inputs from the riverine network into marine environment have been shown to significantly change environmental parameters (e.g. nutrients and suspended particulate matter, 37 salinity, pH) (Brannock et al., 2016; Jeffries et al., 2016) and also transport microorganisms 38 (Halliday et al., 2014; Yakirevich et al., 2013), resulting in community coalescence. Thus, 39 community coalescence corresponds not only to the blending of previously separated 40 41 communities but also includes the mixing of their respective environments (Bandelj et al., 2012; Rillig et al., 2015). Studies of coalescence in marine environment have only considered the 42 direct inputs via rivers in estuaries (Campbell and Kirchman, 2013; Crump et al., 2004, 1999; 43 44 Fortunato and Crump, 2015; Mansour et al., 2018; Webster et al., 2015) while the inputs from 45 soil runoff have been neglected within land-sea continuum. However, soil runoff, generated by rainfall, is widespread among coastal areas representing an important upload of terrigenous 46 47 materials (plant debris, organic matter, mineral particles material and pollutants (Duran and Cravo-Laureau, 2016; Hoffman et al., 1984; Montgomery et al., 2000)) that reaches directly the 48 sea without dilution in river. It is likely that microbial communities transported by these 49 terrigenous materials coalesce with marine microbial communities, which remains to be 50 51 demonstrated. The content of terrigenous materials depends on the vegetation cover that modify 52 water flow (Nagase and Dunnett, 2012; Wenzel, 2009) and control the soil microbial communities. Therefore, it is worth considering the contribution of soil runoff to microbial 53 community structure in marine coastal sediment. Additionally, land-based activities 54 55 dramatically alter microbial processes (Fredston-Hermann et al., 2016) by disrupting microbial communities influenced by biotic and abiotic factors (Cravo-Laureau and Duran, 2014; Duran 56 et al., 2015a; Pischedda et al., 2008), probably affected by terrigenous inputs from soil runoff. 57

Several studies have shown the influence of terrigenous inputs in the organization of microbial 58 communities in water column (Crump et al., 2004, 1999; Logares et al., 2009; Paver et al., 59 2018; Wisnoski et al., 2020), but information is missing for marine sediment. Microbial 60 communities play a pivotal role in the biogeochemical processes influencing ecosystem 61 services (Falkowski et al., 2008; Graham et al., 2016; Nelson et al., 2016). For instance, the 62 activity of microbial communities has been shown to be crucial in mitigating the effect of 63 pollutants (Grizzetti et al., 2019), particularly hydrocarbons (HC) (McGenity et al., 2012) that 64 accumulate in marine coastal sediment (Tolosa et al., 2004). 65

We hypothesize that soil runoff contributes to shape microbial communities inhabiting HC 66 contaminated marine coastal sediment by the concomitant transfer of microorganisms and their 67 68 environment (community coalescence), despite an asymmetric contribution due to dilution of 69 soil runoff into marine habitat. In addition, the contribution of soil runoff depends on the soil vegetation cover and the presence of HC. In order to test this hypothesis, an experimental 70 71 ecology approach was set up to mimic soil runoff within land-sea continuum in microcosm. This experiment was specifically designed to consider the effect of plant and HC influencing 72 potentially the runoff, and in turn modulate the coalescence events. 73

74 Changes in marine sediment microbial community across experimental conditions were 75 revealed by quantifying shifts in community diversity and composition for both prokaryotic and 76 fungal assemblages. Microbial communities were characterized by Illumina sequencing of the 77 16S and 18S rRNA genes allowing their comparison in the different situations.

78 Material and Methods

79 Soil and sediment samples

Soil (10 kg) and sediment (2 kg) were collected in the same geographical area, in southeast of
France, in October 2017. Soil came from the surroundings of the Berre Pond (43°29'6.9"N

5°11'18.53"E, France) and sediment from the Canal Vieil Cove (43°23'20.3"N 4°59'31.8"E, 82 83 France). Both sites are close to petroleum refinery and constitute a model of a realistic HC contaminated land-sea continuum. Prior to microcosms setup, soil and sediment were sieved to 84 <4 mm and <1 mm, respectively, to homogenize, remove coarse gravels, plant debris and 85 macroorganisms. The whole soil sample and a part of the sediment sample were air dried under 86 a cupboard. The rest of the sediment was stored at 4 °C in a 5 L bottle completely covered with 87 in situ seawater and with continuous aeration through an aquarium pump. Soil and sediment 88 characteristics were determined on dry samples at the Laboratoire d'Analyses des Sols - LAS 89 (INRAe, Arras, France). The soil had a loamy and sediment a sandy texture (23.4% and 4.7% 90 91 clay, 38.5% and 4.5% silt, 38.1% and 90.8% sand, for soil and sediment, respectively). Both soil and sediment showed basic pH (8.4 and 9.1 for soil and sediment, respectively). The C/N 92 ratio was about 30.0 and 46.6 for soil and sediment, respectively. The organic carbon content 93 and the total nitrogen were higher in soil than in sediment (35.4 and 18.6 g C/kg, 1.2 and 0.4 g 94 N/kg). The cation-exchange capacity estimated by cobaltihexamine method is higher in soil 95 than in sediment (15.9 and 1.4 cmol+/kg). 96

97 Microcosms Setup

98 An original microcosm system was set up under controlled conditions at the laboratory (

99 Figure *I*). The experimental design was drawn with the aim to test the hypothesis that the soil
100 runoff influences the structure and the composition of microbial communities in downstream
101 sediment depending on the presence of plants and/or on HC. For this purpose, two kinds of
102 microcosms were set up (

Figure 1A): the land-sea continuum microcosms (R) that simulated the soil runoff to marine 103 coastal sediment connecting soil and sediment compartments; and the control microcosms (NR) 104 without runoff of soil consisting of single sediment compartment. Briefly, the microcosms were 105 composed of glass devices (1 L beaker equipped with an inlet and outlet) containing the 106 equivalent of 100 g of dry sediment covered with seawater (Salt Instant Ocean, Aquarium 107 systems, concentration 35 g/L). For the land-sea continuum microcosm, these devices were 108 connected through Teflon pipes to stainless steel devices containing 600 g of dry soil moistened 109 at 60% water holding capacity. Different conditions were applied in triplicate combining the 110 presence of plant (P) or not (NP) in soil with the spiking of deuterated HC (C) or not (NC) in 111 soil and sediment (112

Figure 1B and C). Thus, six different experimental conditions were compared. In the HC spiked 113 conditions, soil and sediment (1/10 of the soil and sediment as dry weight) received a mix 1:1 114 (W:W) of deuterated n-hexadecane (D34, 98%, Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc, USA) 115 and phenanthrene (D10, 98%, Euriso-top, France), dissolved in hexane solvent. A stock 116 solution was prepared in order to add each HC at a concentration of 1000 mg/kg dry soil or 117 sediment. For the unspiked conditions, the same volume of hexane was added alone without 118 119 addition of HC stock solution. After total solvent evaporation, 9:10 of crude soil and sediment were mixed with spiked fractions to have a contamination at 100 mg/kg. Soils were watered to 120 reach 60% of their water holding capacity. Catapodium marinum, a grass identified in situ, was 121 122 sown in soil with 25 seeds (seed bank of the Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, 123 France) per microcosm. For the sediment compartment, 200 mL of seawater was added on the top of the sediment. After an aging period of 4 days at 4 °C, allowing the sorption of the HC 124 into soil and sediment matrices, microcosms were installed in a phytotronic chamber with 125 controlled conditions (22 °C/18 °C day/night, 80% relative humidity, c.a. 250 µmol photons 126 m⁻² s⁻¹, 16 h photoperiod). Microcosms were incubated for 39 days, the estimated time 127 necessary for plant growth and HC degradation (Ben Said et al., 2015; Bourceret et al., 2017; 128 129 Duran et al., 2015b). Soil compartments were watered five consecutive days per week by means 130 of a syringe dispensing 73 mL mineral water (Volvic®) to mimic rainfall and produce soil runoff and in turn terrigenous inputs. After seed germination, 16 plants were kept per device. 131

Both in land-sea continuum and in control microcosms, peristaltic pumps helped to simulate a 12 h tidal cycle. In this way, the seawater was renewed twice a day maintaining sediment covered by 3 cm of seawater during the low tide ensuring conditions close to those prevailing in natural environment.

136 Sampling

Samples of the different compartments (soil, runoff, sediment) and of seawater were collected 137 at different times: at the beginning, at the end, and during the incubation for subsequent 138 biomolecular analysis. Soil and sediment samples (ca. 10-12 g) were collected in triplicates at 139 the beginning and end of the experiment (t0 and tf, respectively) for the DNA extraction. Soil 140 samples were collected using a little stainless steel corer (diameter: 14 mm; height: 40 mm, 31) 141 and sediment samples using a spatula. At t0, three soil samples (each being the mixture of 3) 142 143 cores) were collected from two additional soil devices, one with HC spiking and one without HC spiking, so as not to alter soil structure or disturb plant germination in devices that continued 144 the incubation. Three sediment samples (each being the mix of 3 subsamples) were collected 145 146 from the sediment batch prepared for sediment devices with HC spiking (NPC, PC, NRC conditions) and from the one prepared for sediment devices without HC spiking (NPNC, PNC, 147 NRNC conditions). Runoff samples were collected from each land-sea microcosms, by mixing 148 runoff from three consecutive days, at t1 (days 16, 17 and 18 of incubation) and at t2 (days 31, 149 32 and 33 of incubation). Runoff samples (45 mL) and 45 mL of Volvic water (rainwater) as 150 control were filtered at 0.22 µm (Millex). At tf (after 39 days of incubation), Catapodium 151 marinum were cut at the collar before soil sampling. Soil samples were collected in triplicate 152 from each land-sea continuum microcosm using a template (three notches per row and three per 153 154 column) as a guide for the corer. The cores from the same column were mixed and formed one sample. Sediment samples were collected from each microcosm after mixing of sediment. Soil, 155 runoff (filters) and sediment samples were stored at -80°C. 156

157 DNA extraction and rRNA gene sequencing

DNA was extracted from 250 mg of soil or sediment sample and from the filter of runoffs using
the PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Laboratories) according to the manufacturer's
recommendations. PCR amplification of the V4-V5 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene

was performed using the Archaea/Bacteria primers 515F (5'-GTG-YCA-GCM-GCC-GCG-161 GTA-3') and 928R (5'-CCC-CGY-CAA-TTC-MTT-TRA-GT-3') (Parada et al., 2016; Wang 162 and Qian, 2009). Likewise, 18S rRNA gene was also amplified using the eukaryotic primers 163 FF390 (5'-CGA-TAA-CGA-ACG-AGA-CCT-3') and FR1 (5'-AIC-CAT-TCA-ATC-GGT-164 AIT-3') targeting the V7-V8 region (Chemidlin Prévost-Bouré et al., 2011; Vainio and Hantula, 165 2000). The reverse and forward primers included Illumina adapters. Before amplification, the 166 167 concentration of DNA was determined with a Quant-It kit in microplate in order to normalize the following amplification. Amplifications were performed in triplicate in a total volume of 25 168 µL reaction mixture containing 0.8 µM or 0.4 µM of each primer for Archaea/Bacteria and 169 170 Eukaryote respectively, 2 ng or 4 ng of DNA for Archaea/Bacteria and Eukaryote respectively, 12.5 µL of AmpliTaq Gold 360 Master Mix (Applied Biosystems). The final volume was 171 adjusted with distilled water. Cycling conditions were: an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 172 10 minutes, followed by 35 cycles with denaturation step at 95 °C for 30 s, hybridization step 173 at 60 °C for 30 s or at 50 °C for 45 s (for Archaea/Bacteria primers and Fungi primers, 174 respectively), and elongation step at 72 °C for 40 s or 30 s (for Archaea/Bacteria primers and 175 Fungi primers, respectively), after which a final elongation step at 72 °C for 10 minutes was 176 177 performed. The 2×250 paired-end sequencing was carried out at the Genotoul platform 178 (Toulouse, France) with Illumina-MiSeq. Raw sequence data for the amplicon data were deposited in the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) of the National Center for Biotechnology 179 Information (NCBI) and is available under the assigned Bioproject PRJNA803214 180 181 (https://dataview.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/object/PRJNA803214).

182

183 Sequence processing and ASV delimitation

184 The open source software Qiime2 (Bolyen et al., 2019) was used for 16S and 18S rRNA gene 185 read analysis. Sequencing resulted in 3 735 622 and 3 716 691 raw reads for prokaryotic and

eukaryotic datasets, respectively (Table S1). The rarefaction curves (Fig. S1) showed that most 186 187 of the diversity was captured during the sequencing. The two datasets were first demultiplexed and dada2 (Callahan et al., 2016) was used to control reads quality and infer amplicon sequence 188 variants (ASVs) (Callahan et al., 2017). Default settings were used except that reverse reads 189 were truncated to 230 base pairs before merging. This denoising step resulted in 6 988 and 2 190 488 ASVs for prokaryotic and eukaryotic datasets, respectively (Table S1). The taxonomy was 191 192 assigned to the ASVs with a fixed sequence similarity threshold of 97 % using the SILVA database release 132 for 16S and 18S rRNA gene sequences (Quast et al., 2013). Then, ASVs 193 assigned to mitochondria and chloroplasts and ASVs unassigned at the domain level were 194 195 further removed from the datasets resulting in 6 748 prokaryotic ASVs (Table S1). For Eukaryotes, only ASVs affiliated to Fungi were retained resulting in 705 fungal ASVs (Table 196 S1). Phylogenetic trees were constructed using FastTree (Price et al., 2010) in the Qiime2 197 198 phylogeny plugin. The phylogenetic tree was made ultrametric (i.e. all tips equidistant from the root) for the following analyses using the "chronos" function in the R package ape (Paradis and 199 Schliep, 2019) with branch lengths representing relative time (root at 1 and tips at 0). The 200 number of reads for each sample was rarefied to the same number corresponding to the 201 202 minimum read number per sample (7 578 sequences) for prokaryotic dataset (Fig. S1). The 203 same procedure was carried out for the fungal dataset (i.e. with a minimum read number per sample of 1 027 sequences), after having removed two samples with too low read number 204 (Runoff PC t2-3 and SedR PNC tf-1) (Fig. S1). The rarefaction was performed with R software 205 206 using phyloseq package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). These thresholds are trade-offs reflecting the need to maximize sampling effort while preserving most of the samples according 207 208 to the rarefaction curves (Fig. S1). The prokaryotic dataset encompassed 66 samples whereas fungal datasets 64 samples. The following statistical analyses were implemented within the R 209 210 programming environment (R Core Team, 2021).

Metabolic and ecological functions of prokaryotic and fungal communities were predicted
using FAPROTAX (Louca et al., 2016) and FUNGuild (Nguyen et al., 2016) respectively.

213 Alpha and beta-diversity of the core microbial communities

Prior to the diversity analyses, the ASVs were partitioned into core (abundant and widely 214 215 distributed) and satellite (low abundant and limited distribution) groups. It has been shown that the interpretation of biodiversity patterns reacting to environmental change was improved by 216 combining abundance and occurrence of taxa (Jeanbille et al., 2016; Lindh et al., 2017). The 217 218 core community has been demonstrated to be high sensitive to environmental changes and the presence of contaminants while the distribution of the satellite group has been shown to be 219 mostly random (Jeanbille et al., 2016). The core and satellite groups were identified as follow: 220 first, the correlation between the relative abundance and the occurrence of each ASV was 221 calculated throughout the dataset. Then, the index of dispersion of each ASV was calculated as 222 223 the ratio of the variance to the mean abundance multiplied by the occurrence (Jeanbille et al., 2016). The ASVs were partitioned into core (abundant and widely distributed) and satellite (low 224 abundant and limited distribution) groups (Hanski, 1982; Hu et al., 2017; Magurran and 225 226 Henderson, 2003; Ulrich and Zalewski, 2006). The ASVs were considered as core if their index of dispersion deviated from a random Poisson distribution fall outside the 95% confidence 227 interval of the χ^2 distribution (Jeanbille et al., 2016; Unterscher et al., 2011; van der Gast et al., 228 229 2011). In order to characterize the core and the satellite groups according to the level of the 230 habitat specialization, the Levins' niche breadth index (Levins, 1968) was calculated using 231 levins.Bn function in the R package MicroNiche (Finn et al., 2020). A Wilcoxon rank sum test was performed to compared the niche breadth index of the core and the satellite groups. 232 233 Therefore, the subsequent analyses were focused on the core group. Alpha and beta-diversity were quantified at both taxonomic and phylogenetic level. For alpha-diversity, the indices ASV 234 richness and Inverse Simpson index (i.e. the Hill number of order 2, ²D) were selected as well 235

as their phylogenetic equivalents namely the Faith's phylogenetic diversity index (Faith's PD) 236 and the Hill2 phylogenetic diversity index (²PD) respectively. In order to identify changes in 237 alpha-diversity among conditions, two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed 238 using two factors, HC spiking (NC, C), and a factor grouping the other conditions (t0, NP tf 239 and P tf for soil; t0, NR tf, R NP tf and R P tf for sediment), and their two-ways interactions. 240 When factors were significant, post hoc tests (Tukey's HSD test) were performed to identify 241 242 conditions that were significantly different from each other. Beta-diversity between all pairs of samples were quantified using the weighted Jaccard dissimilarity index for ASV and weighted 243 UniFrac for phylogenetic (branches) beta-diversity (Lozupone and Knight, 2005). Prior to the 244 245 analyses, the abundances were square root transformed. Following Cardoso et al. (2015), the total beta-diversity (ßtot) for both Jaccard and UniFrac was partitioned into its replacement 246 (βrepl) and richness difference (βrich) components in order to decipher the different process 247 248 underlying the change in community assembly; Brepl reflects true turn-over and Brich quantifies the loss and gain of ASV between communities. Beta partitioning was implemented with R 249 package BAT (Cardoso et al., 2015). Patterns of beta-diversity were visualized using a non-250 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS). PerMANOVA (permutational multivariate analysis 251 of variance) based on 9 999 permutations were implemented using adonis2 function from vegan 252 253 R package (Oksanen et al., 2013) to test the effect of the different conditions in each compartment (soil, runoff, sediment). Post-hoc tests were conducted using pairwise 254 comparisons to identify conditions that were significantly different from each other. 255

256 Venn diagram, microbial source tracking and indicator species analyses

The web-based tool InteractiVenn (Heberle et al., 2015) was used to analyse and visualize the shared presence of prokaryotic and fungal ASVs among soil, runoff and sediment according to runoff treatment. An indicator analysis was performed to identify ASVs that were associated with a specific condition or a combination of conditions using the Dufrene and Legendre indicator value (ie. IndVal) (Dufrêne and Legendre, 1997) in the R package indicspecies (Caceres and Legendre, 2009). IndVal index quantifies the strength of the association by combining information on ecological specificity and fidelity for each ASV. IndVal value range from 0 (no association) to 1 (perfect association). Significance of IndVal values were assessed using permutation tests (N = 9 999) under the null hypothesis of no association.

Microbial source tracking analysis was conducted using SourceTracker2 (version 2.0.1; Knights et al., 2011) to identify the contribution of soil and runoff microbial communities as source for those of sediment with runoff.

270 Results and discussion

271 Partitioning the microbial community into core and satellite groups

The experiment was specifically designed to investigate the microbial coalescence in a land-272 sea continuum i.e. the contribution of soil and soil microbial community inputs (via soil runoff) 273 in shaping the marine coastal sediment microbial community. For this purpose, the microbial 274 community composition of the different compartments (soil, runoff, and sediment), collected 275 at the beginning and at the end of the experimental incubation, was determined by high 276 277 throughout sequencing. For the prokaryotic and eukaryotic communities, 3 735 622 and 3 716 691 raw reads were respectively obtained (Table S1). The observed richness rarefaction curves 278 279 (Fig. S2) reached a plateau suggesting the sampling depth was sufficient to capture the diversity. After trimming and rarefaction, 7 578 and 1 027 sequences were respectively affiliated to 6 064 280 281 prokaryotic and 638 fungal ASVs (Table S1). The ASVs abundance distribution showed that the microbial communities were distributed into core and satellite ASVs groups, the mean 282 ASVs abundance being positively linked to the occurrence (Fig. S2A), as already evidenced 283

(Hu et al., 2017; Jeanbille et al., 2016; Lindh et al., 2017). The core and satellite ASVs were 284 285 identified by examining the relationship between the index of dispersion and occurrence of each ASV (Fig. S2B). Most of the microbial ASVs (4 462 prokaryotic and 465 fungal ASVs; Table 286 S1) fitted a random distribution (Poisson model) defining the satellite ASVs. In contrast, 1 602 287 prokaryotic and 173 fungal ASVs formed the non-randomly distributed core ASVs (Table S1). 288 This core microbial community contained less than 30 % of the total ASVs, accounting for 289 290 more than 80 % of the total reads. The core microbial community had a significantly wider (Wilcoxon test: W = 68363 p < 0.001, Fig. S3) niche breath than the satellite community. This 291 feature suggests that the microbial core community includes generalists able to use widespread 292 293 resources (Brown, 1984). In addition, studies showed that the core microbial community brings 294 information reporting the effect of the environmental factors (Jeanbille et al., 2016; Magurran and Henderson, 2003; Ulrich and Zalewski, 2006) which allow us to focus on the core microbial 295 296 community in order to characterize the microbial communities inhabiting mixing zone influenced by soil runoff. 297

298 Diversity of the core microbial community

299 Using ASV and phylogenetic alpha-diversity indices, the effects of plant, HC spiking and soil runoff were investigated in the core microbial communities inhabiting soil and sediment (Fig. 300 2). Prokaryotic and fungal soil richness (R) and the inverse Simpson (²D) indices remained 301 stable along the course of the experiment while the Faith's PD increased (ANOVA 16S: F =302 5.07, p < 0.05; ANOVA 18 S: F = 12.65, p < 0.05), irrespective of the presence of plants (NP, 303 304 P), with a significant additional increase (Tukey's test: Soil C t0 – Soil C tf, p < 0.05) in HC spiking samples (Fig. 2A and B). It was surprising to observe that the presence of plants was 305 not affecting the soil microbial diversity although plant roots exudates have been shown to 306 provide nutrients (Van Hecke et al., 2005) and promote the development of microorganisms 307 carrying HC degrading genes (Cébron et al., 2011; Toyama et al., 2011). Regarding the 308

sediment microbial diversity, similar trends were observed for the prokaryotic communities 309 with a significant temporal increase of ²PD (ANOVA 16S: F = 6.79, p < 0.05) irrespective of 310 the condition, while the fungal diversity was not affected (Fig. 2C and D). Sediment receiving 311 terrigenous inputs and with HC spiking had the highest prokaryotic ²PD, showing increased 312 phylogenetic enrichment due to both runoff and HC spiking (Tukey's test: Sed t0 - SedR C tf, 313 p <0.05; Fig. 2C). Such HC effect on prokaryotic community was consistent with previous 314 315 studies showing i/ modification of microbial communities after petroleum addition (Bordenave et al., 2004; Chronopoulou et al., 2013; Stauffert et al., 2014), and ii/ an increase of microbial 316 diversity, especially in historically HC contaminated sediments (Duran et al., 2015b; Jeanbille 317 318 et al., 2016; Paissé et al., 2008). The diversity increase was explained by the legacy effect of 319 previously exposed microbial communities to pollutants (Ben Salem et al., 2019) and environmental disturbances (Jurburg et al., 2017; Nunes et al., 2018). In our study, the observed 320 321 increase of phylogenetic enrichment due to both runoff and HC spiking suggested that runoff transferred microorganisms from soil to sediment, which probably resulted in microbial 322 community coalescence as reported for river sediment (Mansour et al., 2018), relating 323 modifications in the microbial community composition. 324

325 Microbial composition within the land-sea continuum compartments

326 In order to have an overview of the composition of the microbial community within the landsea continuum, the relative abundance of the phyla in the different compartments (soil, runoff, 327 sediment) was examined. Overall, most ASVs were affiliated to twelve bacterial and eight 328 fungal phyla (Fig. 3). ASVs affiliated to Archaea belonged to Nanoarchaeota and 329 Thaumarchaeota phyla with relative abundance less than 1% of prokaryotes. Proteobacteria 330 331 dominated the prokaryotic communities $(21\pm7\%, 60\pm14\%)$ and $60\pm22\%$ in soil, runoff and sediment, respectively; Fig. 3A and Table S2) while the Ascomycota dominated the fungal 332 communities, except in runoff in which most fungi were unassigned ($65\pm7\%$ and $80\pm17\%$ of 333

Ascomycota in soil and sediment, respectively, and 47±12% of unassigned fungi in runoff; Fig. 334 335 3B and Table S3). As expected, the compartments along the continuum (soil, runoff, and sediment) exhibited different microbial community composition. Soil was characterized by the 336 presence of Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria and Betaproteobacteria (23 %, 21 % and 8 %, 337 respectively). In runoff and sediment, Proteobacteria (60%) and Bacteroidetes (~20%) 338 predominated (Fig. 3A). As in soil, the runoff was dominated by Betaproteobacteria (23%), 339 340 whereas in sediment Gammaproteobacteria and Deltaproteobacteria (32 and 19%, respectively) prevailed, which is in accordance with previous studies showing that Gammaproteobacteria and 341 Deltaproteobacteria are abundant in HC contaminated coastal sediments (Acosta-González and 342 343 Marqués, 2016; Stauffert et al., 2015). Regarding the fungal community (Fig. 3B), Ascomycota was the dominant phylum in soil and sediment (65 and 80 %, respectively), followed by 344 Basidiomycota (15%) in soil and Chytridiomycota (14%) in sediment, which is consistent with 345 346 the fact that these phyla have been found in diverse ecosystems (Amend et al., 2019; Bahram et al., 2018; Comeau et al., 2016; Kohlmeyer and Kohlmeyer, 1979). In runoff, most fungi were 347 unassigned (almost 50 %), showing that a large part of soil fungal diversity transported by soil 348 runoff remains unknown and corresponds to the low abundant soil fungal taxa. Thus, simulated 349 350 soil runoff represents a way to reveal undescribed soil fungal diversity. The difference between 351 compartments was also observed at the functional level using predictive FAPROTAX (Figure S4) and FUNGuild (Figure S5) tools. A total of 478 functional assignments for 1602 352 prokaryotic ASVs were obtained, revealing that sediment is characterized by the presence of 353 metabolisms involved in the sulfur cycle. Only 13.9% of the fungal ASVs (24 out of the 173) 354 were assigned to guilds, mostly represented in soil by plant parasite-saprotroph fungi, runoff 355 356 dominated by endophyte- saprotroph fungi while the sediment was characterized by unassigned guilds highlighting the lack of data about marine fungi. The use of more powerful techniques 357 as metagenomic or functional DNA arrays is required to reveal similarities and differences 358

between the three compartments and under the different conditions. Nevertheless, overall, distinct microbial communities were identified in each compartment consistent with the alphadiversity analysis. Thus, the experimental design allows the study of coalescence by mixing different microbial communities.

363 Comparison of microbial communities

In order to characterize the coalescence, further comparisons between microbial communities 364 were performed, particularly the detection of shift in microbial community composition (ASV 365 366 and phylogenetic) due to terrigenous inputs using betadiversity partitioning. Overall, the comparison of the microbial community composition between samples by NMDS based on the 367 weighted UniFrac metric showed three clusters corresponding to the three compartments (soil, 368 runoff and sediment) for both prokaryotes and fungi (Figure 4A and B respectively). Significant 369 differences in the ASV and phylogenetic microbial composition between the compartments 370 371 (Figure 4) were observed (ASV and phylogenetic β tot, PerMANOVAs: all p-values < 0.001 Table S2). Such observations highlighted that each compartment contained specific ASVs and 372 lineages, in accordance with the presence of habitat filtering mechanisms (Lozupone and 373 374 Knight, 2007). The fact that runoff microbial communities (prokaryotic and fungal) were distinct from those of soil (ASV and phylogenetic β tot, Post-hoc tests: all p-values < 0.001, 375 376 Table S2, Figure 4) showed that the microbial component of the terrigenous inputs represented only part of the soil diversity. This result suggests that only a subset of soil microorganisms and 377 378 soil aggregates was able to flow in runoff, which depends on the microbial lifestyle and the soil 379 properties allowing more or less their detachment from the matrix (Holmsgaard et al., 2011). In both soil and runoff (Fig. 4), the microbial ASV composition changed with time and with 380 the HC spiking (ASV βtot, PerMANOVAs: time: all p-values < 0.001, HC spiking: all p-values 381 < 0.05, Tables S3, S4), irrespective of the presence of plant (ASV ßtot, PerMANOVAs: all p-382 value > 0.05, Tables S3, S4). In sediment, the prokaryotic community behaviour was different 383

to that of the fungal community. Two clusters separated the prokaryotic community according 384 385 to time (Figure 4A) while the fungal community was separated into two clusters according to runoff treatment (Figure 4B). For prokaryotes, the replacement of ASVs explained the 386 differences between clusters observed at the beginning and at the end of the experiment (ASV 387 βrepl, PerMANOVA and Post-hoc tests: all p-values<0.001, Table S5). The effect of the 388 terrigenous inputs was not observed, despite that alpha diversity showed an enrichment, 389 390 probably hidden by the effect of time. For fungi, the clusters contained different ASVs corresponding to lineage richness modifications, explained by the loss of richness in sediment 391 without terrigenous inputs (SedNR tf) (phylogenetic βrich, PerMANOVA and Post-hoc tests: 392 393 all p-values < 0.01, Table S5) reflecting that the compartments were not connected. In contrast, the fungal phylogenetic richness was maintained by terrigenous inputs, suggesting that the lack 394 of runoff affect the fungal community. It is likely that the terrigenous inputs simulated in our 395 396 experiment mimicking *in situ* coalescent event explained the resilience of the fungal community in sediment observed only with runoff. 397

The microbial communities from the three compartments were further compared by Venn 398 diagrams in order to identify the shared and specific microbial ASVs (Figure 5). No ASVs 399 shared by the compartments was identified for the prokaryotic communities (Figure 5A), while 400 401 five shared ASVs were identified for the fungal communities (Figure 5 B). This result 402 corroborates the structuration of the microbial communities in different compartments. Soil and runoff shared the highest number of prokaryotic and fungal ASVs (336 ASVs and 27 ASVs 403 respectively; Figure 5A and B), as expected since beta-diversity analysis showed that runoff is 404 405 a subset of soil. Interestingly, runoff was mostly constituted of specific prokaryotic ASVs (408 ASVs, Figure 5A), supporting the hypothesis that a large part of soil microbial diversity 406 transported by soil runoff corresponded to the low abundant soil taxa. The sediment receiving 407 terrigenous inputs exhibited 48 prokaryotic (Figure 5A) and three fungal specific ASVs (Figure 408

5B), which indicates that these ASVs were below the detection threshold in both soil and 409 410 sediment at the beginning of the experiment (Soil t0 and Sed t0), they emerged in the sediment receiving terrigenous inputs during the experiment (SedR tf). We hypothesize that these specific 411 ASVs correspond to i/ sediment taxa benefiting from the terrigenous inputs, and ii/ soil taxa 412 transferred to sediment. It is likely that terrigenous inputs favoured the development of specific 413 ASVs because sediment without terrigenous inputs (Sed NR tf) exhibited only eight specific 414 415 ASVs. These results are in accordance with previous studies showing the loss of specialists and the emergence of taxa during coalescence event (Logares et al., 2009; Paver et al., 2018; Rocca 416 et al., 2020; Wisnoski et al., 2020). Focusing on the ASVs shared by soil, runoff and sediment 417 418 receiving terrigenous inputs, 4 prokaryotic (Figure 5A) and 13 fungal (Figure 5B) ASVs were identified, indicating the potential transfer of ASVs within the soil and marine coastal sediment 419 the microbial source tracking analysis conducted with 420 continuum. Consistently, 421 SourceTracker2 identified terrigenous inputs as minor sources for fungal communities in sediment at the end of the experiment, irrespective of the runoff treatment (soil or runoff 422 estimated fungal contributions ranged between 0.01% and 3.18% except for two sediment 423 without runoff samples for which these contributions were null; Table S8). Soil and runoff 424 fungal contributions were especially increased in sediment with runoff (Wilcoxcon tests: 425 426 W=57, p-value<0.01 for soil; W=66, p-value<0.001 for runoff) compared to sediment without runoff. In contrast, soil and runoff were not reported by the analysis as sources for prokaryotic 427 communities in sediment at the end of the experiment except for three samples out of 18 428 429 (exclusively sediment with runoff samples) for which soil or runoff prokaryotic contributions were less than 1% (Table S8). The low number of shared microbial ASVs and the low 430 contributions of soil and runoff as source show that many microbial taxa present in runoff did 431 not persist in the sediment they entered. They probably do not have the capacity to deal with 432 the new conditions (salinity, pH, oxygen) and niche competition, prevalent in sediment. They 433

may have been diluted or washed away during the renewal of seawater. Among the 4 shared 434 435 prokaryotic ASVs, two were affiliated to Gammaproteobacteria (Legionella and Massilia), one to Bacteroidia (Terrimonas) and one to Actinobacteria (Williamsia). The fungal ASVs were 436 affiliated to Dikarya (Ascomycota), LKM15 group, Chytridiomycota (Chytridiomycetes), 437 Mucoromycota (Mucoromycotina, Mucorales) and Cryptomycota. It is likely that these 438 transferred microorganisms characterized the microbial community coalescence event. The 439 440 distribution of the prokaryotic transferred ASVs in the land-sea continuum showed that Legionella (ASV1184) and Massilia (ASV1436) were found at low abundance in soils, 441 enriched in runoff, and detected only in HC spiked sediment receiving terrigenous inputs from 442 443 unplanted soil (SedR NPC tf; Figure 5C). Microorganisms affiliated to these taxa are found in various ecosystems (Engleberg, 2009; Ofek et al., 2012), including HC contaminated 444 environments (Gu et al., 2016), and characterized by motile capacity (Engleberg, 2009; Ofek et 445 446 al., 2012) explaining their enrichment in the runoff. Terrimonas (ASV4242) was present in soil compartment in the different microcosms and poorly represented in runoff and sediment 447 receiving terrigenous inputs, which is consistent with the fact that it is a non-motile soil 448 microorganism (Board, 2015). Williamsia (ASV6220) was not specific to a compartment 449 450 (Figure 5C). Environmental members from this genus have been isolated from oil-contaminated 451 soil and deep-sea sediments (Pathom-Aree et al., 2006; Stach et al., 2004; Yassin et al., 2007). 452 Among the 14 fungal transferred ASVs, four ASVs were the most abundant, showing a particular distribution (Figure 5D). Noteworthy, Cryptomycota (ASV234) and LKM15 (ASV4 453 and ASV15) were enriched in runoff. Recent studies revealed the importance of these early 454 455 diverging lineages in freshwater lakes and marine environments (Rojas-Jimenez et al., 2017). In particular, they produce motile aquatic spores (Money, 2016) and are able to parasitize the 456 457 phytoplankton, which are advantages for inhabiting aquatic ecosystems (Rojas-Jimenez et al., 2017), supporting their enrichment in runoff. Hypocreales (ASV525) was present in soil, runoff 458

459 and sediment receiving terrigenous inputs, irrespective of the condition (Figure 5D).
460 *Hypocreales* are common in terrestrial and marine (seawater and sediment) environments
461 (Jones et al., 2015; Torres and White, 2009). Their particle associated lifestyle (Pang et al.,
462 2019; Torres and White, 2009) may explain their persistence along the land-sea continuum.
463 These results, based on the presence/absence of ASVs, indicate that sediment with runoff
464 owned specific microbial population, either coming from or favoured by terrigenous inputs,
465 supporting the microbial community coalescence between compartments.

466 Identification of community coalescence microbial indicators

In order to deeper characterize the ASVs participating in the coalescence, the identification of 467 indicators, based on ASV relative abundances, was performed in sediment receiving terrigenous 468 inputs by runoff (SedR). The ASV indicator value analysis, comparing the distribution of 469 microbial population in the sediment compartment under the different conditions, revealed three 470 471 bacterial ASVs and one fungal ASV significantly associated (p value<0.05) to the sediment 472 with runoff (SedR) (Table 1). Interestingly, the distribution of these bacterial and fungal ASV SedR indicators among all compartments showed that the three bacterial ASVs were associated 473 474 with sediment, in particular at the end of the experiment (Sed tf) while the fungal ASV was associated with soil (Table 1), which was in accordance with the Venn analysis (Figure 5). 475 476 These results further support that specific bacterial ASVs correspond to sediment taxa benefiting from the terrigenous inputs while the specific fungal ASV corresponds to soil taxa 477 478 transferred to sediment, showing the biotic and abiotic transfers resulting in community 479 coalescence. Although the community coalescence, involving biotic and abiotic transfers, showed by Rocca et al. (2020) in laboratory experiment, have been suspected in field 480 investigations (Crump et al., 2004, 1999; Logares et al., 2009; Paver et al., 2018; Wisnoski et 481 al., 2020), our experimental ecology approach provide a set of evidences that coalescence in 482 land-sea continuum involves the mixing of both microorganisms and the environment. 483

484 Conclusion

Our experimental ecology approach mimicking the land-sea continuum revealed that soil runoff 485 486 modified the microbial communities inhabiting HC contaminated marine coastal sediment. The comparison of microbial communities, based on high throughput sequencing, identified 487 bacteria and fungi taxa specific to sediment receiving soil inputs via soil runoff. The in-depth 488 analysis of these specific taxa distinguished two ways of community coalescence: i/ the transfer 489 of soil microorganisms, and ii/ the development of sediment taxa favoured by soil inputs. The 490 491 community coalescence may result in the modification of the ecological niches constraining the functional organization of microbial communities and their role in biogeochemical cycles. In 492 order to obtain a comprehensive view of microbial communities in coastal marine sediment, we 493 494 advocate considering coalescence events, particularly for the monitoring and management of 495 HC contaminated areas.

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506

507 Declaration of Competing Interest

- 508 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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Table 1. ASV indicators of coalescence identified by the indicator value index (IndVal). ASV indicators specifically associated to sediment with runoff (SedR tf) were identified by an indicator analysis performed among conditions in the sediment compartment. In a second step, the IndVal of each ASV indicator was calculated among soil, runoff and sediment compartments. IndVal value range from 0 (no association) to 1 (perfect association). Only ASVs indicators with significant IndVal index are presented (p for p-value).

Indicator analysis					Sediment compartment's conditions			Soil, runoff and sediment compartments		
ASV	Taxonomi	c affiliation		IndVal	p	association	IndVal	р	association	
525	Fungi	Pezizomycotina	Hypocreales	0.850	0.015	SedR tf	0.779	0.005	Soil	
2716	Bacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodobacteraceae	0.764	0.045	SedR tf	0.540	0.005	Sed	
635	Bacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	NA	0.844	0.025	SedR tf	0.707	0.005	Sed	
3543	Bacteria	Bacteroidia	Cyclobacteriaceae	0.857	0.01	SedR tf	0.707	0.005	Sed	

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Figure 1. Experimental design. Schema of the land-sea continuum microcosm (A) mimicking the terrigenous inputs to marine coastal sediment by soil runoff (left). Control microcosm (right) corresponds to sediment without soil runoff. Photo of the experiment (B). Schematic representation of the microcosms (C) with the different conditions applied to the soil and sediment compartments: Soil: soil; Runoff: runoff water (with terrigenous inputs); Sed: sediment; SedR: sediment receiving runoff; SedNR: Sed without runoff; NP: non-planted; P: planted; NC: without HC spiking; C: HC spiking. Each condition was performed in triplicate.

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Figure 2. Microbial alpha-diversity in soil and in sediment. Taxonomic (left) and phylogenetic 882 (right) alpha-diversity indices for the prokaryotic (A) and the fungal (B) communities in soil, 883 and for the prokaryotic (C) and the fungal (D) communities in sediment, in the different 884 experimental conditions. Error bars represent standard deviation of three replicates for each 885 condition. Letters represent pairwise contrasts (p < 0.05) of sample conditions. R: richness; ²D: 886 Inverse Simpson index; Faith's PD: Faith's phylogenetic diversity index; Hill ²PD: 887 phylogenetic diversity index based on Hill 2 number; Soil: soil; Sed: sediment; R: with runoff; 888 889 NR: without runoff; NC: without HC spiking; C: with HC spiking; P: planted; NP: non-planted; t0: beginning of the experiment; tf: end of the experiment (after 39 days of incubation). 890

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Figure 3. Composition of the prokaryotic (A) and the fungal (B) communities in soil, runoff water and sediment, in the different conditions (NC: without HC spiking; C: with HC spiking; NP: non-planted; P: planted; NR: without runoff; R: with runoff; t0: beginning of the experiment; t1 and t2: 16 and 30 days of incubation; tf: end of the experiment, after 39 days incubation). The analysis was performed at the phylum level with Proteobacteria split into classes. Phyla <1% abund.: phyla with total relative abundance less than 1% ranked by

decreasing relative abundance, including 898 unassigned, Thaumarchaeota, Firmicutes, 899 Fibrobacteres, Fusobacteria, Nitrospirae, Omnitrophicaeota, Latescibacteria, 900 Armatimonadetes, Patescibacteria, Spirochaetes, Calditrichaeota, Rokubacteria, Marinimicrobia (SAR406 clade), Tenericutes, Dadabacteria, Dependentiae, Elusimicrobia, 901 Zixibacteria, Nanoarchaeaeota, unassigned Proteobacteria, Epsilonproteobacteria, candidate 902 phylum WPS-2 (or Eremiobacterota), Deinococcus-Thermus, Cloacimonetes, Abditibacteriota 903 904 (previously known as FBP candidatus).

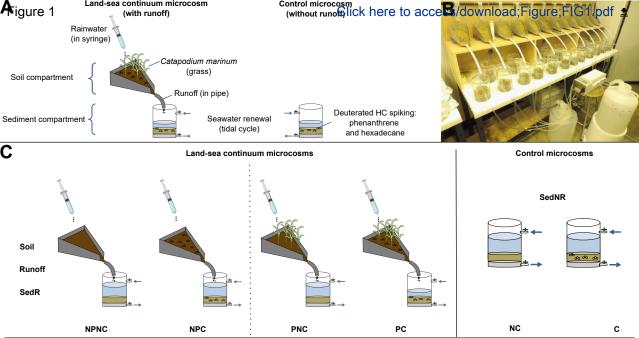
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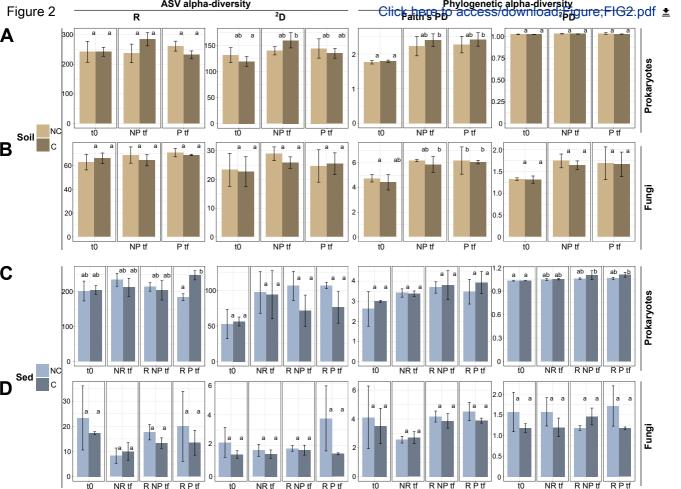
Figure 4. NMDS analysis based on the weighted UniFrac metrics presenting the differences
observed in the prokaryotic (A) and in the fungal (B) community composition of soil, runoff
and sediment compartments. Coloured segments connect samples with the same plant condition
and sampling date to their average point while shapes indicate if samples were HC spiked
(circle) or not (triangle). NR: without runoff (control); R: with runoff; NP: non-planted; P:
planted; NC: without HC spiking; C: with HC spiking; t0: beginning of the experiment; t1: 16
days of incubation; t2: 30 days of incubation; tf: end of the experiment.

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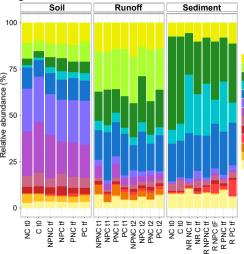
Figure 5. Venn diagrams of prokaryotic (A) and fungal (B) core communities from the different 914 compartments and the distribution of transferred prokaryotic (C) and fungal (D) ASVs in soil, 915 runoff and sediment. Soil (t0&tf): ASVs present in soil at the beginning (t0) and at the end of 916 the experiment (tf); Runoff (t1&t2): ASVs present in runoff after 16 (t1) and 30 (t2) days of 917 incubation; Sed t0: ASVs in sediment at the beginning of the experiment (t0); SedR tf: ASVs 918 919 in sediment with runoff at the end of the experiment (tf); SedNR tf, ASVs present in sediment without runoff at the end of the experiment (tf). The total number of ASVs in each compartment 920 is indicated in parenthesis. The microbial ASVs exclusively shared between soil, runoff and 921 922 sediment with runoff was coloured in red and were probably transferred from soil to sediment

- 923 by runoff. In C and D, the data represent the mean of three biological replicates (n = 3). R:
- sediment with runoff; NR: sediment without runoff; NP: non-planted; P: planted; NC: without
- 925 HC spiking; C: with HC spiking.









Bacteroidetes

Acidobacteria

Actinobacteria

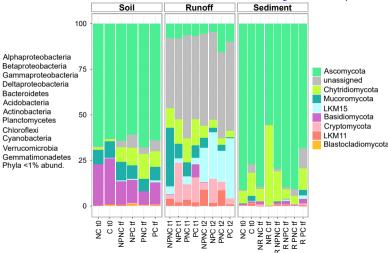
Planctomycetes

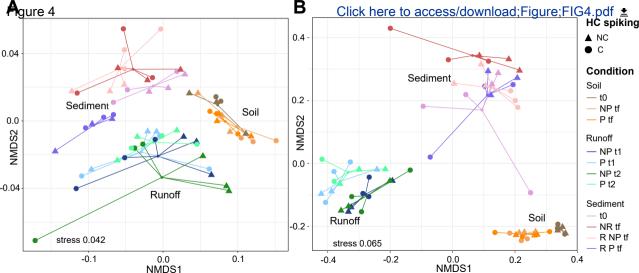
Cyanobacteria

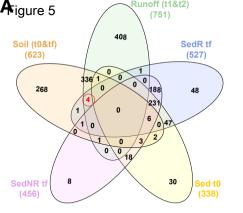
Verrucomicrobia

Chloroflexi

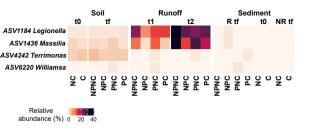
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