**High-Throughput Metabolic Network Analysis and Metatranscriptomics of a**

**Cosmopolitan and Streamlined Freshwater Microbial Lineage**

Joshua J. Hamilton[1*], Sarahi L. Garcia[2], Brittany S. Brown[1], Ben O. Oyserman[3],

Francisco Moya-Flores[3], Stefan Bertilsson[2,4], Rex R. Malmstrom[5], Katrina T.

Forest[1], Katherine D. McMahon[1,3]

[1] Department of Bacteriology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA; [2]

Department of Ecology and Genetics, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden; [3]

Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Wisconsin-Madison,

Madison, WI, USA; [4] Science for Life Laboratory, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden;

[5] United States Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute, Walnut Creek, CA, USA

* Correspondence: Joshua J. Hamilton, jjhamilton2@wisc.edu

**Abstract**

An explosion in the number of available genome sequences obtained through

metagenomics and single-cell genomics has enabled a new view of the diversity of

microbial life, yet we know surprisingly little about how microbes interact with each other

or their environment. In fact, the majority of microbial species remain uncultivated, while

our perception of their ecological niches is based on reconstruction of their metabolic

potential. In this work, we demonstrate how the "seed set framework", which computes

the set of compounds that an organism must acquire from its environment (Borenstein

*et al.*, 2008), enables high-throughput, computational analysis of metabolic

reconstructions, while providing new insights into a microbe's metabolic capabilities,

such as nutrient use and auxotrophies. We apply this framework to members of the

ubiquitous freshwater Actinobacterial lineage acl, confirming and extending previous

experimental and genomic observations implying that acl bacteria are heterotrophs

reliant on peptides and saccharides. We also present the first metatranscriptomic study

of the acl lineage, featuring high expression of transport proteins and the light-

harvesting protein actinorhodopsin, and confirming predictions of nutrients and essential

metabolites while providing additional support to the hypothesis that members of the acl

are photoheterotrophs.

**Introduction**

Natural microbial communities have central roles in the biosphere, ranging from

mediators of nutrient cycling to agents of human health and disease (Falkowski *et al.*,

2008; Blaser *et al.*, 2016). However, the majority of microbial species remain

uncultivated, a feature that poses a significant challenge to our understanding of their

physiology and metabolism. Recent advances in sequencing technology and

bioinformatics have enabled assembly and analysis of reference genomes for a wide

range of hitherto uncultured community members from diverse environments (Sangwan

*et al.*, 2016) that can be explored for inferring links between the genome content of an

individual microbe and its metabolic traits, a concept referred to as "reverse ecology"

(Levy and Borenstein, 2012).

Reverse ecological analyses can be performed using metabolic network

reconstructions (Feist *et al.*, 2009; Thiele and Palsson, 2010), which are structured

summaries of the metabolic capabilities of an organism as defined by its enzymes and

their coupled biochemical reactions. These reconstructions can then be analyzed using

metabolic network graphs, mathematical objects in which biochemical reactions are

represented as connections between substrates and products (Levy and Borenstein,

2012). One such graph-based, reverse ecology approach is to compute an organism's

*seed set*, the set of compounds that the organism cannot synthesize on its own and

must exogenously acquire from its environment (Borenstein *et al.*, 2008). These

compounds may represent both *auxotrophies* for essential metabolites for which

biosynthetic routes are missing, and *nutrients* for which degradation but not synthesis

routes are present in the genome. This *seed set framework* offers potential advantages

over other reconstruction-based approaches, as 1) metabolic network graphs can be

rapidly analyzed computationally, 2) a network-centric approach makes no *a priori*

assumptions about which metabolic pathways may be important for an organism's

niche, and 3) identification of seed compounds facilitates a focused analysis by

identifying those compounds that an organism must obtain from its environment.

Freshwater lake microbiomes are ideal systems for applying the seed set

framework, as long-term monitoring has revealed the ecology of dominant bacterial

lineages (Newton *et al.*, 2011), and reference genomes for these key lineages are now

readily available (Martinez-Garcia *et al.*, 2012; Garcia *et al.*, 2013, 2015; Ghai *et al.*,

2014; Ghylin *et al.*, 2014; Tsementzi *et al.*, 2014; Bendall *et al.*, 2016). Among the

freshwater bacteria, uncultivated Actinobacteria of the acI lineage are among the most

abundant (Zwart *et al.*, 1998, 2002; Glöckner *et al.*, 2000). The acI have been

phylogenetically divided into three clades (acI-A, acI-B, and acI-C) and thirteen tribes on

the basis of their 16S rRNA gene sequences (Newton *et al.*, 2011). The abundance and

ubiquitous distribution of these free-living ultramicrobacteria suggests they have central

roles in nutrient cycling in diverse freshwater systems (Glöckner *et al.*, 2000; Newton *et*

*al.*, 2006, 2007; Wu *et al.*, 2006, 2007; De Wever *et al.*, 2008; Humbert *et al.*, 2009;

Ghai *et al.*, 2012).

To identify the metabolic processes that these bacteria mediate, the metabolism

of the acI lineage has been the focus of a number of recent studies. Surveys using

fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) and catalyzed reporter deposition (CARD) or

microautoradiography (MAR) reveal that the acI are capable of consuming amino acids

(Salcher *et al.*, 2010, 2013), glucose (Buck *et al.*, 2009; Salcher *et al.*, 2013), N-

acetylglucosamine (NAG) (Beier and Bertilsson, 2011; Eckert *et al.*, 2012, 2013), the

deoxynucleoside thymidine (Pérez *et al.*, 2010; Salcher *et al.*, 2013), and acetate (Buck

*et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, metabolic reconstructions of single-cell genomes (SAGs) and

metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) have further expanded the view of substrate

uptake capabilities for members of clades acI-A and acI-B. These studies indicate

members of these clades are capable of consuming a wide array of N-containing

compounds, including ammonium, branched-chain amino acids, polyamines, di- and

oligo-peptides, and cyanophycin (Ghylin *et al.*, 2014; Garcia *et al.*, 2015). Members of

these two clades also seem to be capable of consuming numerous mono-, poly-, and

oligo-saccharides (Garcia *et al.*, 2013, 2015; Ghylin *et al.*, 2014). Finally, a recent study

of a metagenome-assembled genome from clade acI-B predicted that some members

of the clade are unable to synthesize a number of essential vitamins and amino acids

(Garcia *et al.*, 2015).

In the present study, we present a computational pipeline to automate the

calculation of an organism's substrate utilization capabilities using the seed set

framework, thereby facilitating high-throughput analysis of genomic data. To do so, we

developed a Python package to predict seed compounds, using metabolic network

reconstructions generated from KBase (Arkin *et al.*, 2016). We expand existing

analyses of the acI lineage by applying the seed set framework to a reference genome

collection of 36 freshwater acI genomes covering all three acI clades. The seed

compounds predicted by our analysis are in agreement with previous experimental and

genomic observations, confirming the ability of our method to predict an organism's

auxotrophies and nutrient sources. To complement these predictions, and to understand

which pathways dominate active metabolism of acI in its natural environment, we

conducted the first *in situ* metatranscriptomic analysis of gene expression in the acI

lineage. Knowledge of seed compounds enhanced interpretation of the

metatranscriptome results by facilitating a focused analysis of acI metabolism.

Additional analyses show that the acI express a diverse array of transporters that we

hypothesize may contribute to their observed dominance and widespread distribution in

a variety of aquatic systems.

**Materials and Methods**

*A Freshwater Reference Genome Collection*

This study relies on an extensive collection of freshwater bacterial genomes,

containing MAGs obtained from two metagenomic time-series from two Wisconsin lakes

(Bendall *et al.*, 2016; Garcia *et al.*, 2016), as well as SAGs from three lakes in the

United States (Martinez-Garcia *et al.*, 2012). Additional information about this genome

collection can be found in the Supplemental Online Material.

*Metatranscriptome Sampling and Sequencing*

This study used four metatranscriptomes obtained as part of a 24-hour sampling

experiment designed to identify diel trends in freshwater microbial communities.

Additional information about these samples can be found in the Supplemental Online

Material. All protocols and scripts for sample collection, RNA extraction, rRNA depletion,

sequencing,    and    bioinformatic    analysis    can    be    found    on    Github

(https://github.com/McMahonLab/OMD-TOILv2,  DOI:######). Metadata for the four

samples used in this study can be found in Table S1, and the raw RNA sequences can

be found on the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website under

BioProject PRJNA362825.

*Identification of acI SAGs and Actinobacterial MAGs*

acI SAGs were identified within a previously-published genome collection

(Martinez-Garcia *et al.*, 2012) and classified to the tribe level using partial 16S rRNA

genes and a reference taxonomy for freshwater bacteria, as described in the

Supplemental Online Material. Actinobacterial MAGs were identified within two

metagenomic time-series (Bendall *et al.*, 2016; Garcia *et al.*, 2016) using taxonomic

assignments from a subset of conserved marker genes, as described in the

Supplemental Online Material. Phylogenetic analysis of acI SAGs and Actinobacterial

MAGs was performed using a concatenated alignment of single-copy marker genes

obtained via Phylosift (Darling *et al.*, 2014). Maximum likelihood trees were generated

using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) using the automatic protein model assignment option

(PROTGAMMAAUTO) and 100 bootstraps.

*Genome Annotation, Metabolic Network Reconstruction, and Computation and*

*Evaluation of Seed Compounds*

In the seed set framework, an organism's metabolism is represented via a

metabolic network graph, in which nodes denote compounds and edges denote

enzymatically-encoded biochemical reactions linking substrates and products (Jeong *et*

*al.*, 2000). Allowable biochemical transformations can be identified by drawing paths

along the network, in which a sequence of edges connects a sequence of distinct

vertices. In our implementation of the seed set framework, metabolic network graphs

were generated as follows.

Genome annotations were performed and metabolic network reconstructions

were built using KBase. Contigs for each genome were uploaded to KBase and

annotated using the "Annotate Microbial Contigs" method with default options, which

uses components of the RAST toolkit for genome annotation (Brettin *et al.*, 2015;

Overbeek *et al.*, 2014). Metabolic network reconstructions were obtained using the

"Build Metabolic Model" app with default parameters, which relies on the Model SEED

framework (Henry *et al.*, 2010) to build a draft metabolic model. These reconstructions

were then pruned (currency metabolites and highly-connected compounds) and

converted to metabolic network graphs (Figure S1 and Supplemental Online Material).

Many of the individual acI genomes are incomplete (see Results). Therefore, composite

metabolic network graphs were constructed for each tribe and clade, to increase the

accuracy of seed identification by means of a more complete metabolic network (Figure

S2 and Supplemental Online Material).

Formally, the seed set of the network is defined as the minimal set of compounds

that cannot be synthesized from other compounds in the network, and whose presence

enables the synthesis of all other compounds in the network (Borenstein *et al.*, 2008).

Seed compounds for each composite metabolic network graph were calculated using a

new Python implementation of the seed set framework (Borenstein *et al.*, 2008) (Figure

S3 and the Supplemental Online Material). Because seed compounds are computed

from a metabolic network, it is important to manually evaluate all predicted seed

compounds to identify those that may be biologically meaningful, and do not arise from

errors in the metabolic network reconstruction. Examples of this process are given in

the Supplemental Online Material.

All computational steps were implemented using Python scripts, freely available

as part of the reverseEcology Python package developed for this project

(https://pypi.python.org/pypi/reverseEcology/, DOI:######).

*Identification of Transported Compounds*

For each genome, we identified all transport reactions present in its metabolic

network reconstruction. Gene-protein-reaction associations (GPRs) for these reactions

were manually curated to remove unannotated proteins, group genes into operons (if

applicable), and to identify missing subunits for multi-subunit transporters. These genes

were then mapped to their corresponding COGs, and grouped accordingly. Finally, the

most common annotation for each COG was used to identify likely substrates for each

of these groups.

*Protein Clustering, Metatranscriptomic Mapping, and Clade-Level Gene Expression*

OrthoMCL (Li *et al.*, 2003) was used to identify clusters of orthologous groups

(COGs) in the set of acI genomes. Both OrthoMCL and BLAST were run using default

options (Fischer *et al.*, 2011). Annotations were assigned to protein clusters by

choosing the most common annotation among all genes assigned to the respective

cluster. Trimmed and merged metatranscriptomic reads from each of the four biological

samples were then mapped to a single reference fasta file containing all acI genomes

using BBMap (https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/) with the *ambig=random* and

*minid=0.95* options. The 95% identity cutoff was chosen as this represents a well-

established criterion for identifying microbial species using average nucleotide identity

(ANI) (Konstantinidis and Tiedje, 2005), while combining the *ambig* option with

competitive mapping using pooled acI genomes as the reference ensures that reads

map only to a single genome. These results were then used to compute the expression

of each COG in each clade.

Next, HTSeq-Count (Anders *et al.*, 2014) was used to count the total number of

reads that map to each gene in our acI genome collection. After mapping, the list of

counts was filtered to remove those genes that did not recruit at least one read in all

four samples. Using the COGs identified by OrthoMCL, the genes that correspond to

each COG were then identified.

Within each clade, gene expression for each COG was computed on a Reads

Per Kilobase Million (RPKM) basis (Mortazavi *et al.*, 2008), while also accounting for

different gene lengths within a COG and numbers of mapped reads for each genome

within a clade. That is, the RPKM value for a single COG represents the sum of RPKM

values for each gene within that COG, normalized to the appropriate gene length and

total number of mapped reads. RPKM counts were then averaged across the four

metatranscriptomes and normalized to the median level of gene expression within that

clade.

*Availability of Data and Materials*

All genomic and metatranscriptomic sequences are available through IMG and

NCBI, respectively. A reproducible version of this manuscript is available at

https://github.com/joshamilton/Hamilton_acI_2016 (DOI:######).

**Results**

*Phylogenetic Affiliation of acI Genomes*

From a reference collection of freshwater bacterial genomes, we identified 17

SAGs and 19 MAGs from members of the acI lineage. A phylogenetic tree of these

genomes is shown in Figure 1. Previous phylogenetic analysis using 16S rRNA gene

sequences have revealed that the acI lineage can be grouped into three distinct

monophyletic clades (Newton *et al.*, 2011). In this study, the phylogenetic tree built from

37 concatenated marker genes also identified three monophyletic branches, enabling

MAGs to be classified as clade acI-A or acI-B based on the taxonomy of SAGs within

each branch. Note that three MAGs formed a monophyletic group separate from clades

acI-A and acI-B; we assume these genomes belong to clade acI-C as no other acI

clades have been identified to date.

*Estimated Completeness of Tribe- and Clade-Level Composite Genomes*

Metabolic network reconstructions created from acI SAGs and MAGs will likely be missing reactions, as the underlying genomes are incomplete (Table 1). Previous studies have examined the effect of genome incompleteness on the predicted seed set (Borenstein *et al.*, 2008). Using the formal (mathematical) definition of a seed compound, this showed that the percentage of correct seed compounds (true positives) is approximately equal to the completeness of the reaction network, and the number of false positives is approximately equal to the incompleteness of the network. Thus, we constructed composite genomes at higher taxonomic levels (e.g., tribe and clade) to increase genome completeness for more accurate seed identification at that taxonomic level.

Using 204 conserved single-copy marker genes (Parks *et al.*, 2015), we estimated the completeness of tribe- and clade-level composite genomes to determine the finest level of taxonomic resolution at which we could confidently compute seed compounds, using genome completeness as a proxy for metabolic reaction network completeness (Figure 2). Because CheckM relies on lineage-specific marker genes, the completeness of genomes without representation in the CheckM database can be underestimated (Garcia *et al.*, 2015). As a result, we deemed genomes to be complete if they contained 95% of the lineage-specific marker genes. With the exception of tribe acI-B1, tribe-level composite genomes are estimated to be incomplete (Figure 2A). At the clade level, clades acI-A and acI-B are estimated to be complete, while the acI-C composite genome remains incomplete, as it only contains 75% of the 204 marker genes (Figure 2B). As a result, seed compounds were calculated for composite clade-

level genomes, with the understanding that some true seed compounds for the acl-C

clade will not be predicted.

*Computation and Evaluation of Potential Seed Compounds*

Seed compounds were computed for each clade, using the composite metabolic

network graph for that clade (Figure 3, and Figures S1 to S3). A total of 125 unique

seed compounds were identified across the three clades (Table S2). Additional details

are available in the Supplemental Online Material.

Seed compounds were predicted using the results of an automated annotation

pipeline, and as such are likely to contain inaccuracies (e.g., due to missing or incorrect

annotations). As a result, we screened the set of predicted seed compounds to identify

those that represented biologically plausible auxotrophies and nutrients, and manually

curated this subset to obtain a final set of auxotrophies and nutrient sources.

Compounds involved in fatty acid and phospholipid biosynthesis pathways were

removed during curation, as these pathways are often organism-specific and unlikely to

be properly annotated by automatic metabolic reconstruction pipelines. Seed

compounds related to currency metabolites were also removed, as reactions for the

synthesis of these compounds may have been removed during network pruning. Of 125

unique compounds, 39 (31%) passed this screening and were deemed biologically

plausible.

The Supplemental Online Material contains a series of brief vignettes explaining

why select compounds were discarded based on the afore-mentioned considerations,

and provides examples of additional curation efforts applied to biologically plausible

compounds. For a plausible auxotrophy, we screened the genomes for the canonical

biosynthetic pathway(s) for that compound, and retained those compounds for which

the biosynthetic pathway was incomplete. For a plausible nutrient source, we screened

the genomes for the canonical degradation pathway(s) for that compound, and retained

those compounds for which the degradation pathway was complete. Of the 39

compounds deemed biologically plausible auxotrophies and nutrients, 31 (79%) were

retained in the final set of proposed auxotrophies and nutrients. Tables S6 and S7

contain this final set of compounds for clades acl-A, acl-B, and acl-C, and Figure 4

shows the auxotrophies and nutrients these compounds represent.

*Making Sense of Seed Compounds via Protein Clustering and Metatranscriptomic*

*Mapping*

With regards to seed compounds representing nutrient sources, genes

associated with the consumption of these compounds should be expressed. However,

because seed compounds were computed from each clade's composite metabolic

network graph, genes associated with the consumption of seed compounds may be

present in multiple genomes within the clade. To facilitate the linkage of

metatranscriptome measurements to seed compounds, we decided to map

metatranscriptome samples to clusters of orthologous groups (COGs) within each

clade. We used OrthoMCL (Li *et al.*, 2003) to identify COGs in the set of acl genomes,

and counted each COG as present in a clade if that COG was present in at least one

genome belonging to that clade. We then used BBMap to map metatranscriptome reads

to our reference genome collection, and counted the unique reads which map to each

Actinobacterial COG.

Sequencing of cDNA from all four rRNA-depleted metatranscriptome samples

yielded approximately 160 billion paired-end reads. After merging, filtering, and further

*in-silico* rRNA removal, approximately 81 billion, or 51% of the reads remained (Table

S1). OrthoMCL identified a total of 5013 protein clusters across the three clades (Table

S3). The COGs were unequally distributed across the three clades, with clade acI-A

genomes containing 3175 COGs (63%), clade acI-B genomes containing 3459 COGs

(69%), and clade acI-C genomes containing 1365 COGs (27%). After mapping the

metatranscriptomes to our acI genomes (Table S4), we identified 650 COGs expressed

in clade acI-A, 785 in clade acI-B, and 849 in clade acI-C (Table S5). Among expressed

genes, the median log2 average RPKM value was 10.3 in clade acI-A, 10.2 in clade acI-

B, and 9.0 in clade acI-C. Thus, despite differential abundance of each clade within the

lake, median gene expression within each clade was similar.

*Auxotrophies and Nutrient Sources of the acI Lineage*

Seed set analysis yielded seven auxotrophies that could be readily mapped to

ecophysiological attributes of the acI lineage (Figure 4a). In all three clades, beta-

alanine was identified as a seed compound, suggesting an auxotrophy for pantothenic

acid (Vitamin B5), a precursor to coenzyme A formed from beta-alanine and pantoate.

In bacteria, beta-alanine is typically synthesized via aspartate decarboxylation, and we

were unable to identify a candidate gene for this enzyme (aspartate 1-decarboxylase,

E.C. 4.1.1.11) in any acI genome. Pyridoxine 5'-phosphate and 5'-pyridoxamine

phosphate (forms of the enzyme cofactor pyridoxal 5'-phosphate, Vitamin B6) were also

predicted to be seed compounds, and numerous enzymes in the biosynthesis of these

compounds were not found in the genomes.

Clades within the acI lineage also exhibited distinct auxotrophies. Clade acI-A

was predicted to be auxotrophic for the cofactor tetrahydrofolate (THF or Vitamin B9),

and numerous enzymes for its biosynthesis were missing. This cofactor plays an

important role in the metabolism of amino acids and vitamins. In turn, clade acI-B was

predicted to be auxotrophic for adenosylcobalamin (Vitamin B12), containing only a

single reaction from its biosynthetic pathway. Finally, acI-C was predicted to be

auxotrophic for the nucleotide uridine monophosphate (UMP, used as a monomer in

RNA synthesis) and the amino acids lysine and homoserine. In all cases multiple

enzymes for the biosynthesis of these compounds were not found in the acI-C

genomes. However, with the exception of adenosylcobalamin, we did not identify

transporters for any of these compounds. Furthermore, because the acI-C composite

genome was estimated to be around 75% complete, we cannot rule out the possibility

that the missing genes might be found in when additional genomes are recovered.

A number of seed compounds were predicted to be nutrients, compounds which

can be degraded by members of the acI lineage (Figure 4B). Both clades acI-A and acI-

B were predicted to use D-altronate and trans-4-hydroxy proline as nutrients, and acI-B

was additionally predicted to use glycine betaine. These compounds indicate that the

acI may participate in the turnover of plant- and animal-derived organic material in

freshwater systems: glycine betaine is an important osmolyte in plants (Ashraf and

Foolad, 2007), D-altronate is produced during degradation of galacturonate, a

component of plant pectin (Mohnen, 2008), and trans-4-hydroxy-L-proline is a major

component of animal collagen (Eastoe, 1955).

Finally, all three clades were predicted to use di-peptides and the sugar maltose

as nutrients. Clades acI-A and acI-C were also predicted to consume the

polysaccharides stachyose, manninotriose, and cellobiose. In all cases, these

compounds were associated with reactions catalyzed by peptidases or glycoside

hydrolases (Table S8 and S9), which may be capable of acting on compounds beyond

the predicted seed compounds. Thus, we used these annotations to define nutrient

sources, rather than using the predicted seed compounds themselves. Among these

nutrient sources were di- and polypeptides, predicted to be released from both

cytosolic- and membrane-bound aminopeptidases. As discussed below, we identified a

number of transport proteins capable of transporting these released residues. In Lake

Mendota, these aminopeptidases were expressed in clades acI-A and acI-B at around

70% of the median gene expression levels, while they were expressed at up to twice the

median in clade acI-C (Table S8). These findings agrees with MAR-FISH and CARD-

FISH studies that confirm the ability of acI bacteria to consume a variety of amino acids

(Salcher *et al.*, 2010, 2013).

All three clades were predicted to encode an alpha-glucosidase, which in Lake

Mendota was expressed most strongly in clade acI-C, at approximately 116% of the

median (Table S9). Clades acI-A and acI-C also encode a beta-glucosidase, but it was

not expressed, at least under prevailing environmental conditions. Both of these

enzymes release glucose monomers, which acI is known to consume (Buck *et al.*, 2009;

Salcher *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, these two clades encode an alpha-galactosidase

and multiple maltodextrin glucosidases (which free maltose from maltotriose), but these

were only expressed in clade acI-C during our sampling period. The alpha-

galactosidase had a log2 average RPKM expression value of 2.5 times the median,

while the maltodextrin glucosidases were expressed at approximately 20% of the

median (Table S9).

*Compounds Transported by the acI Lineage*

Microbes may be capable of transporting compounds that are not strictly required

for growth, and comparing such compounds to predicted seed compounds can provide

additional information about an organism's ecology. Thus, we used the metabolic

network reconstructions for the acI genomes to systematically characterize the transport

capabilities of the acI lineage.

All acI clades encode for and expressed a diverse array of transporters (Figure 5,

Tables S10 and S11, and the Supplemental Online Material). Consistent with the

presence of peptidases, all clades contain numerous genes for the transport of peptides

and amino acids, including multiple oligopeptide and branched-chain amino acid

transporters, as well as two distinct transporters for the polyamines spermidine and

putrescine. All clades also contain a transporter for ammonium. As averaged over the

24-hour sampling period, the ammonium, branched-chain amino acid, and oligopeptide

transporters had expression values above the median, with expression values for the

substrate-binding protein (of the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters) ranging from

2 to 325 times the median (Table S10). In contrast, while all clades expressed some

genes from the polyamine transporters, only clade acl-B expressed the

spermidime/putrescine binding protein, at approximately 75 times the median (Table

S10). Additionally, clade acl-A contains a third distinct branched-chain amino acid

transporter, composed of COGs not found in clades acl-B or acl-C. This transporter was

not as highly expressed as the shared transporters, with the substrate-binding protein

not expressed at all (Table S10). Finally, clades acI-A and acI-B also contain a

transporter for glycine betaine, which was only expressed in clade acI-A, at

approximately 35 times the median (Table S10). However, because these observations

were made at a single site at a single point in time, we cannot rule out the possibility

that the expression of these transporters changes with space and time.

All clades also strongly expressed transporters consistent with the presence of

glycoside hydrolases, including transporters for the sugars maltose (a dimer of glucose)

and xylose, with expression values for the substrate-binding protein ranging from 3 to

144 times the median (Table S10). Clades acI-A and acI-B also contain four distinct

transporters for ribose, although the substrate-binding subunit was not expressed at the

time of sampling (Table S10).

Representatives from the acI lineage also encode and expressed a number of

transporters that do not have corresponding seed compounds, including a uracil

permease, and a xanthine/uracil/thiamine/ascorbate family permease, both of which are

expressed at levels ranging from 11 to 127 times the median (Table S10) during the

sampling    period.    Clades    acI-A    and    acI-B    also    contain    a

cytosine/purine/uracil/thiamine/allantoin family permease, even if it was only expressed

in clade acI-B at the time of sampling (Table S10). Though not strictly annotated as

such, all three of these transporters may be responsible for the uptake of the seed

compound UMP. In addition, clade acI-A contains but did not express a transporter for

cobalamin (Vitamin B12), and both clades acI-A and acI-B contain but did not express

transporters for thiamin (Vitamin B1) and biotin (Vitamin B7) (Table S10). Despite

predicted auxotrophies for Vitamins B5 and B6, we were unable to find transporters for

these two compounds. However, as identification and annotation of transport proteins is

an active area of research (Saier *et al.*, 2014), transporters for these vitamins may yet

be present in the genomes.

Finally, all three clades expressed actinorhodopsin, a light-sensitive protein that

functions as an proton efflux pump (Sharma *et al.*, 2008). In all clades, actinorhodopsin

was among the top seven most highly-expressed genes at the time of sampling (Table

S4), with expression values in excess of 300 times the median in all three clades (Table

S4). Given that many of the transport proteins are ABC transporters, we speculate that

actinorhodopsin may facilitate maintenance of the proton gradient necessary for ATP

synthesis. Above-median expression of the ATP synthase genes is consistent with this

hypothesis. Coupled with high expression levels of diverse transporters, this result

strongly suggests that acI functioned as a photoheterotroph and was actively pumping

protons during our sampling period. However, it remains to be seen if this behavior is a

general feature of acI ecology or restricted to the specific conditions of the lake and our

sampling period.

**Discussion**

This study introduces the use of high-throughput metabolic network

reconstruction and the seed set framework to predict auxotrophies and nutrient sources

of uncultivated microorganisms from incomplete genome sequences. By leveraging

multiple genomes from closely related populations, we were able to construct composite

genomes for individual acI clades. Obviously this masks differences among tribes as

well as smaller populations and individual cells, and may sometimes overestimate the

metabolic capabilities of a clade or group. However, it provides a framework that can be

used to generate new hypotheses about the substrates used by members of a defined

phylogenetic group, provided multiple closely related genomes are available. As

metagenomic assembly and binning techniques and single cell sequencing methods

improve and complete genomes become available, we anticipate our approach being

applied to individual microbial genomes.

Our predictions of substrate use capabilities of the acI lineage are largely

congruent with previous genome-based studies based on smaller but manually curated

genome collections, indicating that the use of automatic metabolic network

reconstructions yields similar predictions to manual metabolic reconstruction efforts,

while being both high-throughput and focused on an organism's substrate utilization

capabilities. In particular, this study predicts that the consumption of N-rich compounds

is a universal feature of the acI lineage, with all three clades predicted to consume

ammonium, branched-chain amino acids, and di- and oligopeptides. We provide new

evidence for further specialization within each clade, identifying unique substate binding

proteins for some of their amino acid and peptide transporters (see Supplemental

Online Material), and the expression of a transporter for the polyamines spermidine and

putrescine in clade acI-B. Furthermore, we confirm the ability of all three clades to

consume xylose and maltose, and of clades acI-A and acI-B to consume ribose.

However, despite the presence and expression of alpha-glucosidases in all three

clades, and beta-glucosidases in clades acI-A and acI-B, no obvious glucose transport

system was found in the genomes. Our analysis also made novel predictions, including

the presence of beta-glucosidases, as well as alpha- and beta-galactosidases, in clades

acI-A and acI-C.

This study also suggests that auxotrophies for some vitamins may be universal

features of the acI lineage, as we predict all clades to be auxotrophic for pantothenic

acid and pyridoxal 5'-phosphate (Vitamins B5 and B6). We also predict new

auxotrophies within the acI lineage, including THF (clade acI-A), and lysine,

homoserine, and UMP (clade acI-C). While our acI-C composite genome remains

incomplete, these results nonetheless provide additional support to the hypothesis that

distributed metabolic pathways and metabolic complementarity may be common

features of freshwater bacterial communities (Garcia *et al.*, 2015; Garcia, 2016).

Combined, these results indicate that acI are photoheterotrophs, making a living

on a diverse array of N-rich compounds, sugars, oligo- and poly-saccharides, and light.

We hypothesize that the acI obtain peptides from the products of cell lysis, and may

participate in the turnover of high molecular weight dissolved organic compounds, such

as starch, glycogen, and cellulose. The acI lineage does not appear to be metabolically

self-sufficient, relying on other organisms for the production of essential nutrients.

This study also presents the first combined genomic and metatranscriptomic

analysis of a freshwater microbial lineage. Transport proteins were among the most

highly expressed in the acI genomes, and the expression of multiple amino acid

transporters may facilitate uptake of these labile compounds. We also observed

differences in the relative expression of these transporters, which may point to clade-

specific differences in the affinity for these substrates. Finally, the actinorhodopsin

protein was highly expressed, and may facilitate synthesis of the ATP needed to drive

acl's many ABC-type transporters.

A close comparison of our predictions to previous studies of the acl lineage

reveals some important limitations of the seed set framework and automatic metabolic

reconstructions. First, the seed set framework only identifies compounds that the

metabolic network **must** obtain from its environment, and will fail to identify compounds

that the organism can acquire from its environment but can also synthesize itself. For

example, members of clades acl-A and acl-B are capable of consuming branched-chain

amino acids (Ghylin *et al.*, 2014; Garcia *et al.*, 2015), but can also synthesize them.

Thus, these compounds were not identified as seed compounds. However, transport

reactions for branched-chain amino acids were identified in the genomes, and our

metatranscriptomic found them to be highly expressed.

Second, automatic metabolic network reconstructions may not fully capture an

organism's metabolic network (e.g., due to missing or incorrect genome annotations).

For example, previous genome-based studies have suggested that members of the acl

lineage harbor cyanophycinase, an enzyme that allows them to hydrolyze the

cyanobacterial peptide cyanophycin (Garcia *et al.*, 2013; Ghylin *et al.*, 2014). Manual

inspection revealed that KBase annotated this putative enzyme as a hypothetical

protein, and we could not identify transporters for cyanophycin in the metabolic network

reconstruction. As biochemical characterization of hypothetical proteins and automatic

gene and protein annotation are active areas of research, we anticipate that advances

in these fields will continue to improve the accuracy of automatic metabolic network

reconstructions.

## Conclusions

In this study, we examined the ecological niche of uncultivated acI bacteria using automatic metabolic network reconstructions and the seed set framework combined with metatranscriptomics. Predicted seed compounds include peptides and saccharides, many of which acI have been observed to consume *in situ*, as well as newly predicted auxotrophies for vitamins and amino acids. Metatranscriptomic analysis in a lake with abundant acI members suggests many of these compounds are consumed by acI bacteria in their natural environment. Our high-throughput approach easily scales to 100s of genomes, and enables a focused metabolic analysis by identifying those compounds through which an organism interacts with its environment. Finally, the seed set framework enables additional reverse ecological analyses, which promise to predict the interactions among microbial species in complex environments (Levy and Borenstein, 2012).

## Acknowledgements

We thank past members of the McMahon lab for collecting water samples for single-cell sequencing and metagenomic sequencing. This work was supported through the JGI Community Science Program. The work conducted by the JGI, a DOE Office of Science User Facility, is supported by the Office of Science of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. This material is based upon work that is supported by the National Institute of Food and Agriculture, U.S. Department of Agriculture, under award number 2016-67012-24709 to JJH and WIS01789 to KDM. KDM also acknowledges funding from the United States National Science Foundation (NSF) Microbial Observatories program (MCB-0702395), the NSF Long Term

Ecological Research program (NTL-LTER DEB-1440297), an NSF INSPIRE award

(DEB-1344254), and the University of Wisconsin System. KDM and KTF acknowledge

National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) grant #NA10OAR4170070,

Wisconsin Sea Grant College Program Project #HCE-25, through NOAA'S National Sea

Grant College Program, U.S. Department of Commerce.

**Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

**References**

Anders S, Pyl PT, Huber W. (2014). HTSeq A Python framework to work with high-

throughput sequencing data. *Bioinformatics* **31**: 166–169.

Arkin AP, Stevens RL, Cottingham RW, Maslov S, Henry CS, Dehal P *et al.* (2016). The

DOE Systems Biology Knowledgebase (KBase). *bioRxiv*. e-pub ahead of print,

doi: 10.1101/096354.

Ashraf M, Foolad MR. (2007). Roles of glycine betaine and proline in improving plant

abiotic stress resistance. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* **59**: 206–216.

Beier S, Bertilsson S. (2011). Uncoupling of chitinase activity and uptake of hydrolysis

products in freshwater bacterioplankton. *Limnology and Oceanography* **56**:

1179–1188.

Bendall ML, Stevens SLR, Chan L-K, Malfatti S, Schwientek P, Tremblay J *et al.* (2016).

Genome-wide selective sweeps and gene-specific sweeps in natural bacterial

populations. *The ISME Journal* **10**: 1589–1601.

Blaser MJ, Cardon ZG, Cho MK, Dangl JL, Donohue TJ, Green JL *et al.* (2016). Toward

a Predictive Understanding of Earth's Microbiomes to Address 21st Century

Challenges. *mBio* **7**: e00074–16.

Borenstein E, Kupiec M, Feldman MW, Ruppin E. (2008). Large-scale reconstruction

and phylogenetic analysis of metabolic environments. *Proceedings of the*

*National Academy of Sciences* **105**: 14482–14487.

Brettin T, Davis JJ, Disz T, Edwards RA, Gerdes S, Olsen GJ *et al.* (2015). RASTtk: a

modular and extensible implementation of the RAST algorithm for building

custom annotation pipelines and annotating batches of genomes. *Scientific*

*Reports* **5**: 8365.

Buck U, Grossart H-P, Amann RI, Pernthaler J. (2009). Substrate incorporation patterns

of bacterioplankton populations in stratified and mixed waters of a humic lake.

*Environmental Microbiology* **11**: 1854–1865.

Darling AE, Jospin G, Lowe E, Matsen FA, Bik HM, Eisen JA. (2014). PhyloSift:

phylogenetic analysis of genomes and metagenomes. *PeerJ* **2**: e243.

De Wever A, Van Der Gucht K, Muylaert K, Cousin S, Vyverman W. (2008). Clone

library analysis reveals an unusual composition and strong habitat partitioning of

pelagic bacterial communities in Lake Tanganyika. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* **50**:

113–122.

Eastoe JE. (1955). The amino acid composition of mammalian collagen and gelatin.

*The Biochemical Journal* **61**: 589–600.

Eckert EM, Baumgartner M, Huber IM, Pernthaler J. (2013). Grazing resistant

freshwater bacteria profit from chitin and cell-wall-derived organic carbon.

*Environmental Microbiology* **15**: 2019–2030.

Eckert EM, Salcher MM, Posch T, Eugster B, Pernthaler J. (2012). Rapid successions

affect microbial N-acetyl-glucosamine uptake patterns during a lacustrine spring

phytoplankton bloom. *Environmental Microbiology* **14**: 794–806.

Falkowski PG, Fenchel T, Delong EF. (2008). The microbial engines that drive Earth's

biogeochemical cycles. *Science* **320**: 1034–1039.

Feist AM, Herrgård MJ, Thiele I, Reed JL, Palsson BØ. (2009). Reconstruction of

biochemical networks in microorganisms. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* **7**: 129–

143.

Fischer S, Brunk BP, Chen F, Gao X, Harb OS, Iodice JB *et al.* (2011). Using OrthoMCL

to assign proteins to OrthoMCL-DB groups or to cluster proteomes into new

ortholog groups. *Current Protocols in Bioinformatics* **Supplement**: 6.12.1.6–

12.19.

Gao B, Gupta RS. (2012). Phylogenetic Framework and Molecular Signatures for the

Main Clades of the Phylum Actinobacteria. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology*

*Reviews* **76**: 66–112.

Garcia SL. (2016). Mixed cultures as model communities: hunting for ubiquitous

microorganisms, their partners, and interactions. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* **77**:

79–85.

Garcia SL, Buck M, McMahon KD, Grossart H-P, Eiler A, Warnecke F. (2015).

Auxotrophy and intra-population complementary in the 'interactome' of a

cultivated freshwater model community. *Molecular Ecology* **24**: 4449–4459.

Garcia SL, McMahon KD, Martinez-Garcia M, Srivastava A, Sczyrba A, Stepanauskas

R *et al.* (2013). Metabolic potential of a single cell belonging to one of the most

abundant lineages in freshwater bacterioplankton. *The ISME Journal* **7**: 137–147.

Garcia SL, Stevens SLR, Crary B, Martinez-Garcia M, Stepanauskas R, Woyke T *et al.*

(2016). Contrasting patterns of genome-level diversity across distinct co-

occurring bacterial populations. *bioRxiv*. e-pub ahead of print, doi:

http://dx.doi.org/10.1101/080168.

Ghai R, McMahon KD, Rodriguez-Valera F. (2012). Breaking a paradigm: cosmopolitan

and abundant freshwater actinobacteria are low GC. *Environmental Microbiology*

*Reports* **4**: 29–35.

Ghai R, Mizuno CM, Picazo A, Camacho A, Rodriguez-Valera F. (2014). Key roles for

freshwater Actinobacteria revealed by deep metagenomic sequencing. *Molecular*

*Ecology* **23**: 6073–6090.

Ghylin TW, Garcia SL, Moya F, Oyserman BO, Schwientek P, Forest KT *et al.* (2014).

Comparative single-cell genomics reveals potential ecological niches for the

freshwater acI Actinobacteria lineage. *The ISME Journal* **8**: 2503–2516.

Glöckner FO, Zaichikov E, Belkova N, Denissova L, Pernthaler J, Pernthaler A *et al.*

(2000). Comparative 16S rRNA analysis of lake bacterioplankton reveals globally

distributed phylogenetic clusters including an abundant group of actinobacteria.

*Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **66**: 5053–5065.

Henry CS, DeJongh M, Best AA, Frybarger PM, Linsay B, Stevens RL. (2010). High-

throughput generation, optimization and analysis of genome-scale metabolic

models. *Nature Biotechnology* **28**: 977–982.

Humbert JF, Dorigo U, Cecchi P, Le Berre B, Debroas D, Bouvy M. (2009). Comparison

of the structure and composition of bacterial communities from temperate and

tropical freshwater ecosystems. *Environmental Microbiology* **11**: 2339–2350.

Jeong H, Tombor B, Albert R, Oltvai ZN, Barabási A-L, Database I. (2000). The large-

scale organization of metabolic networks. *Nature* **407**: 651–654.

Konstantinidis KT, Tiedje JM. (2005). Genomic insights that advance the species

definition for prokaryotes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **102**:

2567–2572.

Levy R, Borenstein E. (2012). Reverse Ecology: From Systems to Environments and

Back. Soyer OS (ed). *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology* **751**: 329–

345.

Li L, Stoeckert CJ, Roos DS. (2003). OrthoMCL: identification of ortholog groups for

eukaryotic genomes. *Genome Research* **13**: 2178–89.

Ma H, Zeng A-P. (2003). Reconstruction of metabolic networks from genome data and

analysis of their global structure for various organisms. *Bioinformatics* **19**: 270–

277.

Martinez-Garcia M, Swan BK, Poulton NJ, Gomez ML, Masland D, Sieracki ME *et al.*

(2012). High-throughput single-cell sequencing identifies photoheterotrophs and

chemoautotrophs in freshwater bacterioplankton. *The ISME Journal* **6**: 113–123.

Mohnen D. (2008). Pectin structure and biosynthesis. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*

**11**: 266–277.

Mortazavi A, Williams BA, McCue K, Schaeffer L, Wold B. (2008). Mapping and

quantifying mammalian transcriptomes by RNA-Seq. *Nature Methods* **5**: 621–

628.

Newton RJ, Jones SE, Eiler A, McMahon KD, Bertilsson S. (2011). A guide to the

natural history of freshwater lake bacteria. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology*

*Reviews* **75**: 14–49.

Newton RJ, Jones SE, Helmus MR, McMahon KD. (2007). Phylogenetic ecology of the

freshwater Actinobacteria acI lineage. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*

**73**: 7169–7176.

Newton RJ, Kent AD, Triplett EW, McMahon KD. (2006). Microbial community dynamics

in a humic lake: differential persistence of common freshwater phylotypes.

*Environmental Microbiology* **8**: 956–970.

Overbeek RA, Olson R, Pusch GD, Olsen GJ, Davis JJ, Disz T *et al.* (2014). The SEED

and the Rapid Annotation of microbial genomes using Subsystems Technology

(RAST). *Nucleic Acids Research* **42**: 206–214.

Parks DH, Imelfort M, Skennerton CT, Hugenholtz P, Tyson GW. (2015). CheckM:

assessing the quality of microbial genomes recovered from isolates, single cells,

and metagenomes. *Genome Research* **25**: 1043–1055.

Pérez MT, Hörtnagl P, Sommaruga R. (2010). Contrasting ability to take up leucine and

thymidine among freshwater bacterial groups: Implications for bacterial

production measurements. *Environmental Microbiology* **12**: 74–82.

Saier MH, Reddy VS, Tamang DG, Västermark Å. (2014). The transporter classification

database. *Nucleic Acids Research* **42**: D251–D258.

Salcher MM, Pernthaler J, Posch T. (2010). Spatiotemporal distribution and activity

patterns of bacteria from three phylogenetic groups in an oligomesotrophic lake.

*Limnology and Oceanography* **55**: 846–856.

Salcher MM, Posch T, Pernthaler J. (2013). In situ substrate preferences of abundant

bacterioplankton populations in a prealpine freshwater lake. *The ISME Journal* **7**:

896–907.

Sangwan N, Xia F, Gilbert JA. (2016). Recovering complete and draft population

genomes from metagenome datasets. *Microbiome* **4**: 8.

Sharma AK, Zhaxybayeva O, Papke RT, Doolittle WF. (2008). Actinorhodopsins:

Proteorhodopsin-like gene sequences found predominantly in non-marine

environments. *Environmental Microbiology* **10**: 1039–1056.

Stamatakis A. (2014). RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-

analysis of large phylogenies. *Bioinformatics* **30**: 1312–1313.

Thiele I, Palsson BØ. (2010). A protocol for generating a high-quality genome-scale

metabolic reconstruction. *Nature Protocols* **5**: 93–121.

Tsementzi D, Poretsky RS, Rodriguez-R LM, Luo C, Konstantinidis KT. (2014).

Evaluation of metatranscriptomic protocols and application to the study of

freshwater microbial communities. *Environmental Microbiology Reports* **6**: 640–

655.

Wu QL, Zwart G, Schauer M, Kamst-Van Agterveld MP, Hahn MW. (2006).

Bacterioplankton community composition along a salinity gradient of sixteen

670   high-mountain lakes located on the Tibetan Plateau, China. *Applied and*

671   *Environmental Microbiology* **72**: 5478–5485.

672 Wu X, Xi W, Ye W, Yang H. (2007). Bacterial community composition of a shallow

673   hypertrophic freshwater lake in China, revealed by 16S rRNA gene sequences.

674   *FEMS Microbiology Ecology* **61**: 85–96.

675 Zwart G, Crump BC, Kamst-Van Agterveld MP, Hagen F, Han S-K. (2002). Typical

676   freshwater bacteria: an analysis of available 16S rRNA gene sequences from

677   plankton of lakes and rivers. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* **28**: 141–155.

678 Zwart G, Hiorns WD, Methé BA, Agterveld MP van, Huismans R, Nold SC *et al.* (1998).

679   Nearly identical 16S rRNA sequences recovered from lakes in North America

680   and Europe indicate the existence of clades of globally distributed freshwater

681   bacteria. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* **21**: 546–556.

**Figure Captions**

*Figure 1*

Phylogenetic placement of the genomes used in this study within the acI lineage.

The tree was built using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) from a concatenated alignment of

protein sequences from 37 single-copy marker genes (Darling *et al.*, 2014). The order

Actinomycetales forms the outgroup. Vertical black bars indicate groups of genomes

belonging to defined tribes/clades within the acI lineage, as determined using 16S rRNA

gene sequences (for SAGs and bin FNEF8-2 bin_7 acI-B only) and a defined taxonomy

(Newton *et al.*, 2011). SAGs are indicated with italic text. Supplemental Figure S5

shows the position of the acI lineage relative to other orders within the class

Actinobacteria.

*Figure 2*

Mean estimated completeness of tribe-level (clade-level) population genomes as

a function of the number of sampled genomes. For each tribe (clade), genomes were

randomly sampled (with replacement) from the set of all genomes belonging to that tribe

(clade). Completeness was estimated using 204 single-copy marker genes from the

phylum Actinobacteria (Parks *et al.*, 2015). Error bars represent the 95% confidence

interval estimated from 1000 iterations.

*Figure 3*

Overview of the seed set framework and metatranscriptomic mapping, using

three genomes from the acl-C clade as an example. **(A)** Metabolic network graphs are

created for each genome belonging to clade acl-C. In these graphs, metabolites are

represented as nodes (circles) and reactions by arcs (arrows). Grey nodes and edges

indicate components of the composite graph missing from that genome graph.

Additional information on this step of the workflow is available in Figure S1. **(B)** A

composite network graph is created for each clade by joining graphs for all genomes

from that clade, and seed compounds (red) are computed for the composite graph.

Additional information on this step of the workflow is available in Figures S2, S3, and

S4. **(Inset)** Three seed compounds which indicate an auxotrophy for L-homoserine, a

methionine precursor. **(C)** Metatranscriptomic reads are mapped to each individual

genome using BBMap. Orthologous gene clusters are identified using OrthoMCL (Li *et*

*al.*, 2003). For each cluster, unique reads which map to any gene within that cluster are

counted using HTSeq (Anders *et al.,* 2014). The relative gene expression is computed

using RPKM (Mortazavi *et al.*, 2008).

*Figure 4*

Seed compounds of members of the acl lineage. **(A)** Auxotrophies and nutrient

sources, not including peptides and glycosides. **(B)** Peptides and glycosides. These

compounds represent those inferred from genome annotations, rather than the seed

compounds themselves. In panel (B), the intensity of the color indicates the average

log2 RPKM of the encoding gene cluster. For compounds acted upon by multiple gene

clusters, the percentile of the most highly-expressed cluster was chosen.

*Figure 5*

Transporters that are actively expressed by members of the acI lineage, as

inferred from consensus annotations of genes associated with transport reactions

present in metabolic network reconstructions. The intensity of the color indicates the

average log2 RPKM of the encoding gene cluster. For multi-subunit transporters, the

RPKM of the substrate-binding subunit was chosen.

*Supplementary Figure 1*

Converting an unannotated genome to a metabolic network graph, for a

simplified genome containing only glycolysis. **(A)** Microbial contigs are annotated using

KBase, and a metabolic network reconstruction is built from the annotations. The

reconstruction provides links between protein-encoding genes in the genome and the

enzymatic reactions catalyzed by those proteins. **(B)** The metabolic network

reconstruction represents metabolism as a hypergraph, in which metabolites are

represented as nodes and reactions as hyperedges. In this representation, an edge can

connect more than two nodes. For example, a single hyperedge (denoted by a heavy

black line) connects the metabolites glucose and ATP to glucose-6P, ADP, and Pi. For

clarity, protons are not shown. **(C)** However, the algorithm used by the seed set

framework requires metabolism to be represented as a metabolic network graph, in

which an edge can connect only two nodes. In this representation, a reaction is

represented by a set of edges connecting all substrates to all products. For example,

the heavy hyperedge in (B) is now denoted by six separate edges connecting glucose to

ADP, glucose to Pi, glucose to glucose-6P, ATP to ADP, ATP to Pi, and ATP to

glucose-6P (again denoted by heavy black lines). Of these, only one (glucose to

glucose-6P) is biologically meaningful. The dotted line surrounds the currency

metabolites. **(D)** The metabolic network graph is then pruned, a process which removes

all currency metabolites and any edges in which those metabolites participate. Of the

six heavy edges in (C), only the biologically meaningful one is retained, connecting

glucose to glucose-6P (again denoted by a heavy black line). The images in (B) and (C)

are modified from (Ma and Zeng, 2003).

*Supplementary Figure 2*

Construction of composite metabolic network graph for clade acI-C. Beginning

with metabolic network graphs for genomes Actinobacterium_10 and ME00885, nodes

and edges unique to ME00885 are identified (in blue). These nodes and edges are

added to the Actinobacterium_10 graph, giving the composite metabolic network graph

for these two genomes (Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885). Then, this graph is compared

to the graph for ME03864, and nodes and edges unique to ME03864 are identified (in

blue). These nodes and edges are added to the Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885

metabolic network graph, giving the composite metabolic network graph for clade acI-C.

*Supplementary Figure 3*

Identifying seed compounds in metabolic networks, using the same metabolic

network as in Supplemental Figure S1. **(A)** To identify seed compounds, the metabolic

network graph is first decomposed into its strongly connected components (SCCs), sets

of nodes such that each node in the set is reachable from every other node. Here, each

set of circled nodes corresponds to a unique SCC. **(B)** SCC decomposition enables

seed sets to be identified from source components (components with no incoming

edges) on the condensation of the original graph. In the condensation of the original

graph shown here, each node corresponds to a unique SCC. This network has a single

seed set, SCC_1, enclosed in a dotted circle. **(C)** Seed compounds can be found from

the mapping between SCCs and their constituent metabolites. In this example, glucose

is the sole seed compound. While this particular result is probably intuitive, real

metabolic networks are considerably more complex. Note: The visual representations

shown here are intended to illustrate the metabolic network reconstruction process, and

are not indicative of the data structures used by our pipeline.

*Supplementary Figure 4*

Complete composite metabolic network graph for clade acI-C, showing

disconnected components (gray) and the single largest component (green and black).

Disconnected components are dropped prior to computing the network's seed sets

because these groups of nodes are not connected to the bulk of the network. Within the

single largest component, the giant strong component contains a substantial fraction of

the compounds (green nodes), giving rise to a bow-tie structure in the metabolic

network graph.

*Supplementary Figure 5*

Phylogenetic placement of the genomes used in this study within the acI lineage,

relative to other sequenced actinobacterial genomes in the class Actinobacteria (Gao

and Gupta, 2012) (Table S17). The tree was built using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) from

a concatenated alignment of protein sequences from 37 single-copy marker genes

(Darling *et al.*, 2014). The class Acidimicrobiia forms the outgroup. Vertical black bars

indicate groups of genomes belonging to defined tribes/clades within the acI lineage, as

determined using 16S rRNA gene sequences (for SAGs and bin FNEF8-2 bin_7 acI-B

only) and a defined taxonomy (Newton *et al.*, 2011). SAGs are indicated with italic text.

A)

Actinobacterium_10    ME00885    ME03864

B)

acl-C

Homocysteine

O-Acetyl-L-homoserine

L-methionine

L-homoserine

O-Phospho-L-homoserine    L-Aspartate 4-semialdehyde

C)

BIN_10 (inner ring)

ME00885

ME03864 (outer ring)

Log2 Average RPKM

**A)**

>TE02754.contig.1
TCACCAAGTGAATAC
CAGCAGCACGGGCG
AGCTGAGTGATGCGA
ACGATGGACTCTTCTA
CTTCGCGAGCCGCAA
CCATCATTAGATCTGC
TAATTCATCGATGATC
ACAAGTAGGTAGGGA
TATGGTTCGAGAATTC
GCTCGCTGCCTT...

| Reaction | Genes | Equation |
|---|---|---|
| rxn00216 | TE02754.1703 | glucose + ATP -> gluose-6-P + ADP + Pi |
| rxn00558 | TE02754.1688 | glucose-6-P <--> fructose-6-P |
| rxn00545 | TE02754.2419 | fructose-6-P + ATP --> fructose-1,6-P + ADP |
| rxn00786 | TE02754.1795 OR TE02754.2367 | fructose-1,6-P <--> glyceraldehyde-3-P +glycerone-P |
| rxn00747 | TE02754.1685 | glycerone-P <--> glyceraldehyde-3-P |
| rxn00781 | TE02754.1683 | glyceraldehyde-3-P + NAD + Pi <--> 1,3-P-glycerate + NADH |
| rxn01100 | TE02754.1684 | 1,3-P-glycerate + ADP + Pi <--> 3-P-glycerate + ATP |
| rxn01106 | TE02754.1899 | 3-P-glycerate <--> 2-P-glycerate |
| rxn00459 | TE02754.1568 OR TE02754.1842 | 2-P-glycerate <--> phosphoenolpyruvate + H2O |
| rxn00148 | TE02754.1665 | phosphoenolpyruvate + ADP --> pyruvate + ATP |

**B)**

glucose
  ATP
  ADP + Pi
glucose-6-P
fructose-6-P
  ATP
  ADP
fructose-1,6-P
glyceraldehyde-3-p ⟷ glycerone-P
  NAD, Pi
  NADH
1,3-P-glycerate
  ADP + Pi
  ATP
3-P-glycerate
2-P-glycerate
  H$_2$O
phosphoenolpyruvate
  ADP
  ATP
pyruvate

**C)**

glc
g6p
f6p
ATP
f16bp
H$_2$O
dhap
gadp
NADH
1,3bpg
NAD
3pg
Pi
2pg
pep
ADP
pyr

**D)**

glc
g6p
f6p
f16bp
dhap
gadp
1,3bpg
3pg
2pg
pep
pyr

Actinobacterium_10

ME00885

ME03864

Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885

Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885 + ME03864
acl-C composite network graph

A)

glc

g6p

f6p

f16bp

dhap ⟷ gadp

1,3bpg

3pg

2pg

pep

pyr

B)

SCC_1

SCC_2

SCC_3

SCC_4

| SCC | In | Out | Seed |
|---|---|---|---|
| SCC_1 | 0 | 1 | Y |
| SCC_2 | 1 | 1 | N |
| SCC_3 | 1 | 1 | N |
| SCC_4 | 1 | 0 | N |

C)

| SCC | Metabolites |
|---|---|
| SCC_1 | glc |
| SCC_2 | g6p, f6p |
| SCC_3 | f16bp, gadp, dhap, 1,3bpg,3pg, 2pg, pep |
| SCC_4 | pyr |

*Acidimicrobium ferrooxidans* — Acidimicrobiia

Acidothermales

Corynebacteriales

Streptomycetales

Bifidobacteriales

Actinomycetales

Micrococcales I

Micrococcales II

3 — acl-C

ME01363

ME02297

2 — acl-A1

4 — acl-A7 — acl-A

2 — acl-A6

2 — acl-A5

TE03475

TH02152

TH03463

TE03207

1 — acl-B2

TE02754

TH00680

TH03838 — acl-B

TE02057

TE04208

2 — acl-B4

9 — acl-B1

0.48

◀ # genomes

● >90% support

○ >70% support

Tribe        Clade