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COREMIC: a web-tool to search for a root-zone associated CORE MICrobiome

- 2 Richard R. Rodrigues^{a,b,*}, Nyle C. Rodgers^c, Xiaowei Wu^d, and Mark A. Williams^{a,e}
- ³ ^aInterdisciplinary Ph.D. Program in Genetics, Bioinformatics, and Computational Biology, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg 24061, Virginia,
- 4 United States of America.
- 5 ^bDepartment of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Oregon State University, Corvallis 97331, Oregon, United States of America.
- 6 ^cDepartment of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg 24061, Virginia, United States of America.
- 7 ^dDepartment of Statistics, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg 24061, Virginia, United States of America.
- 8 ^eDepartment of Horticulture, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg 24061, Virginia, United States of America.
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- 10 Richard Rodrigues (<u>richrr@vt.edu</u>)
- 11 Nyle Rodgers (<u>nyle@vt.edu</u>)
- 12 Xiaowei Wu (xwwu@vt.edu)
- 13 Mark Williams (<u>markwill@vt.edu</u>)
- 14 **Contact:** Richard Rodrigues (richrr@vt.edu); 409 Pharmacy Bldg., Oregon State University, Corvallis OR 97331
- 15 *To whom correspondence should be addressed.
- 16

17 Abstract

18 Microbial diversity on earth is extraordinary, and soils alone harbor thousands of species per gram of soil. Understanding 19 how this diversity is sorted and selected into habitat niches is a major focus of ecology and biotechnology, but remains 20 only vaguely understood. A systems-biology approach was used to mine information from databases to show how it can 21 be used to answer questions related to the core microbiome of habitat-microbe relationships. By making use of the bur-22 geoning growth of information from databases, our tool "COREMIC" meets a great need in the search for understanding 23 niche partitioning and habitat-function relationships. The work is unique, furthermore, because it provides a user-friendly statistically robust web-tool (http://coremic2.appspot.com), developed using Google App Engine, to help in the process 24 25 of database mining to identify the "core microbiome" associated with a given habitat. A case study is presented using data from 31 switchgrass rhizosphere community habitats across a diverse set of soil and sampling environments. The 26 27 methodology utilizes an outgroup of 28 non-switchgrass (other grasses and forbs) to identify a core switchgrass 28 microbiome. Even across a diverse set of soils (5 environments), and conservative statistical criteria (presence in more 29 than 90% samples and FDR q-val < 0.05% for Fisher's exact test) a core set of bacteria associated with switchgrass was

30	observed. These included, among others, closely related taxa from Lysobacter spp., Mesorhizobium spp, and
31	Chitinophagaceae. These bacteria have been shown to have functions related to the production of bacterial and fungal
32	antibiotics and plant growth promotion. COREMIC can be used as a hypothesis generating or confirmatory tool that
33	shows great potential for identifying taxa that may be important to the functioning of a habitat (e.g. host plant). The case
34	study, in conclusion, shows that COREMIC can identify key habitat-specific microbes across diverse samples, using cur-
35	rently available databases and a unique freely available software.
36	
37	Keywords: microbiome; root-zone; rhizosphere; web-tool; software; app; meta-analysis; database; data mining
38	
39	1. Introduction
40	Microbial diversity on earth is extraordinary, and soils alone harbor thousands of species per gram (Hughes et al., 2001).
41	Understanding how this diversity is sorted and selected into habitat niches is a major focus of ecology and biotechnology,
42	but remains only vaguely understood. The advent of next-generation sequencing technologies now allow for the potential
43	to make great leaps in the study of microbe-habitat relationships of highly diverse microbial communities and environ-
44	ments. The identity and functions of this overwhelming multitude of microbes are in the beginning stages of being de-
45	scribed, and are already providing insights into microbial impacts on plant and animal health (Berg, 2009; Evans and
46	Schwarz, 2011; Clemente et al., 2012). Making use of the overwhelming amount of information on microbial taxa and
47	habitats has enormous potential for use to further understand microbial-habitat relationships. Thus, the advent of new
48	methods and approaches to utilize this data and describe microbiomes will benefit microbial ecology and biotechnology.
49	Though variations exist, a core microbiome can be defined, conceptually, using Venn diagrams, where over-lapping
50	circles and non-overlapping areas of circles represent shared and non-shared members of a habitat, respectively (Shade
51	and Handelsman, 2012). Typically, microbiomes identified in this manner are not statistically evaluated, or by nature,
52	seek to answer specific hypothesis that are specific to an experiment. For example, studies often identify microbes asso-
53	ciated with different plant growth stages, species, cultivars, and locations but rarely, if at all, mine databases or perform
54	meta-analysis to statistically identify microbiomes across studies and experimental conditions (Chaudhary et al., 2012;
55	Liang et al., 2012; Mao et al., 2013; Mao et al., 2014; Hargreaves et al., 2015; Rodrigues et al., 2015; Jesus et al., 2016;
56	Rodrigues et al., 2017). Describing differences due to treatment or habitat conditions are informative in their own right,
57	however, extending this framework to include an easy to use, and statistically robust tool to help in the mining of data
58	from underutilized and burgeoning databases (e.g. the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI), Riboso-

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- mal Database Project) can help transform the ecological study of microbes in their natural environment. Using the vast
 and growing databases of organism and habitat metadata will allow for both the testing and development of hypotheses
 associated with habitat-microbe relationships that were not formerly possible.
 To address the challenges described above, we developed COREMIC a novel, easy to use, and freely available web
- tool to identify the "core microbiome", of any well-defined habitat (e.g. plant root-zone) or niche (Shade and
- 64 Handelsman, 2012). This straightforward approach is a novel and powerful way to complement existing analysis (e.g.
- 65 indicator species analysis (ISA) (Dufrene and Legendre, 1997)) by allowing for the use of data that is now overflowing
- among freely available databases. It seeks to determine the core set of microbes (core microbiome) that are explicitly
- 67 associated with a host system or habitat. The ability to identify core microbiomes at this scale has great potential to de-
- 68 scribe host-microbe interactions and habitat preferences of microbes.
- 69 A meta-analysis based case study was performed, combining diverse sequencing datasets derived from NCBI, to test
- 70 for the occurrence of a core microbiome in the rhizosphere (root-zone) of switchgrass. Switchgrass is a US-native, peren-
- 71 nial grass studied by many researchers, and thus has a growing database to mine for genetic information. Its widespread
- study is likely a result of its bioenergy potential, and the capacity of the grass to grow on marginal lands not dedicated to
- rops. Studies have identified different bacteria found in the root-zones of switchgrass (Jesus et al., 2010; Mao et al.,
- 74 2011; Chaudhary et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2012; Mao et al., 2013; Bahulikar et al., 2014; Mao et al., 2014; Werling et al.,
- 75 2014; Hargreaves et al., 2015; Jesus et al., 2016; Rodrigues et al., 2017), however, there has been no integrative study of
- 76 different datasets identifying the core microbiome in switchgrass rhizospheres. It is thus proposed to identify host-habitat
- relationships as a proof of concept for a core microbiome. In this paper we utilize a plant host to define a habitat, but the-
- oretically any habitat and associated organisms could make use of COREMIC and its approach to identify a core
- 79 microbiome.
- 80

81 **2. Material and methods**

82 2.1. Datasets used in the study

A diverse set of data composed of 61 samples from two different published datasets and collected from multiple locations
(Jesus et al., 2016; Rodrigues et al., 2017) were used for this study. Data were obtained from the NCBI and selected

- based on the availability of the raw (16S rRNA) sequence data of root-zone bacteria from switchgrass and that for an out-
- 86 group of reference (native and/or other grasses) plants.

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87	The dataset "Jesus 2016" (Jesus et al., 2016), PRJEB6704, compared the rhizosphere soil microbial communities asso-
88	ciated with restored prairie with three grass crops, namely corn, switchgrass, and mixed prairie grasses. The grasses were
89	grown in fields of Michigan and Wisconsin and were harvested after two and ten years. The V6-V8 region of the 16S
90	rRNA gene was amplified and sequenced using the Roche 454 pyrosequencing. In our study, we used a total of 43 sam-
91	ples (3 each from corn, switchgrass, mixed grasses (2 yrs. only), and restored prairie grasses grown in Wisconsin and
92	Michigan, and sampled after 2 and 10 years. Switchgrass grown in Michigan, composed of 4 samples, were collected
93	following 10 years of plant growth.
94	The dataset "Rodrigues 2017" (Rodrigues et al., 2017), PRJNA320123, compared the root-zone soil microbial commu-
95	nities associated with switchgrass cultivars: "Alamo" and "Dacotah". The switchgrass were grown in the greenhouse us-
96	ing soil derived from plots growing Switchgrass (>7 years) near Blacksburg, VA. Switchgrass rhizosphere bacteria were
97	sampled at three different growth stages. The V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified and sequenced using
98	Illumina MiSeq sequencing. In our study, we used a total of 18 switchgrass samples for Alamo (A) and Dacotah (D) from
99	stages V2 and E3 (4 AV2, 4 DV2, 5 AE3, 5 DE3 = 18).
100	Overall, these datasets served as a diverse resource (relevant differences are summarized in Figure 1) to compare the
101	root-zone bacteria and identify core-bacteria associated with switchgrass.
102	
103	2.2. Sequence data analysis and picking of Operational Taxonomic Units (OTU)
104	For the Rodrigues 2017 dataset, the OTU table was obtained from previously performed analysis (Rodrigues et al., 2017).
105	For the Jesus 2016 dataset, quality score (25) and read lengths (150) thresholds were enforced using cutadapt (1.8.1)
106	(Martin, 2011) and an open reference OTU picking (enable_rev_strand_match True) was performed in QIIME v1.8.0

107 (Caporaso et al., 2010), as previously described (Rodrigues et al., 2015; Rodrigues et al., 2017), to allow comparison with

108 the other dataset. Briefly, uclust (Edgar, 2010) was used to cluster reads into OTUs (97% sequence similarity) and assign

109 taxonomy against the Greengenes reference database version 13.8 (DeSantis et al., 2006; McDonald et al., 2012). Two

samples from the Jesus 2016 dataset were removed from downstream analysis due to very few sequences assigned to

111 OTUs.

112

113 2.3. Combining two datasets

114 Within each OTU table, sequences assigned to identical OTUs in a sample were summed to retain unique taxa. The

115 common (678) OTUs from the two datasets were selected, converted to biom format and used for further analyses (Figure

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116	1). The data table was filtered and rarefied using a sequence threshold of 1150, and the beta diversity was calculated us-
117	ing Bray-Curtis (Beals, 1984) distance and visualized using Principal Coordinate Analysis (Gower, 2005). Multivariate
118	data analysis methods of MRPP (Mielke, 1984), Permanova (Anderson, 2001) and ANOSIM (Clarke, 1993) were used to
119	identify whether the plant type (switchgrass versus non-switchgrass) were associated with different bacterial communi-
120	ties.
121	
122	2.4. Core microbiome analysis
123	To find the set of core OTUs, the samples in the combined OTU table (original data) were first divided into the interest
124	group samples (switchgrass) and out-group samples. The abundance values for each OTU in each sample are then con-
125	verted to binary (present/absent) values based on whether they are zero or nonzero. For each OTU a one-tailed Fisher's
126	Exact Test was used to calculate a <i>p</i> -value testing whether an OTU was present in a significantly higher portion in the
127	interest in-group (Switchgrass) compared to the out-group samples (numerous other grass species).
128	These <i>p</i> -values were corrected for multiple-testing using Benjamini Hochberg. The OTUs with a q -value < 0.05 were
129	then selected to only the OTUs that are present in at least 90% of the interest group samples. Uninformative OTUs (e.g.,
130	k_Bacteria;p_;c_;o_;f_;g_;s_) were filtered out and the remaining OTUs were candidates for the core microbiome.
131	
132	2.5. Implementation of COREMIC
133	COREMIC and the datasets are available at <u>http://coremic2.appspot.com</u> . Its code is available on github
134	(https://github.com/richrr/coremicro). The web-tool was developed in Python 2.7, and is hosted on Google App Engine.
135	Other requirements include GoogleAppEnginePipeline 1.9.22.1, pyqi 0.3.1, requests 2.10.0, requests-toolbelt 0.6.2,
136	mailjet-rest 1.2.2, biom-format 1.1.2, ete3 3.0.0 (for tree generation-see below for details), webapp2 2.5.2, numpy 1.6.1
137	matplotlib 1.2.0, jinja2 2.6, ssl 2.7. COREMIC is accessible via any internet connected browser and emails the results to
138	the user. The processing times with the default settings after uploading the data are provided in Table S1.
139	A custom python script generates a phylogenetic tree using the taxonomic labels for each OTU displaying the relation-
140	ship between the core OTUs obtained from the group of interest and the out-group. This tree is generated using the ete3
141	3.0.0 library.
142	

143 **3. Results**

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144	After quality filtering, a total of 319,821 reads were obtained from the Jesus 2016 dataset (mean 461.45 and std. dev.
145	69.34). Two samples with very few (48 and 75) counts were removed; each of the remaining samples had more than 1150
146	sequences assigned to OTUs. The number of OTUs in the Jesus 2016 and Rodrigues 2017 datasets was 771 and 1118,
147	respectively. The combined dataset had 678 OTUs, 31 switchgrass and 28 non-switchgrass (other grasses) samples.
148	The bacterial communities in switchgrass and grasses from the combined dataset were significantly different
149	(Permanova, MRPP, and ANOSIM p -values < 0.01) and as can be observed using the PCoA plot using the Bray-Curtis
150	dissimilarity metric (Figure 2). These differences were apparent despite significant difference across datasets
151	(Permanova, MRPP, and ANOSIM p -values < 0.01); which could be the result, for example, of the heterogeneity of the
152	data set related to climate, soil type-condition, growth conditions, and plant age. In this regard, at the phylum level, Mann
153	Whitney test identified Bacteroidetes and Verrucomicrobia had significantly greater (p -value < 0.05) relative abundance
154	in switchgrass, whereas, Gemmatimonadetes were more abundant in other grasses (Figure S1).
155	We used a very conservative criterion of >90% threshold i.e., an OTU has to be present in at least 90% of switchgrass
156	samples and observed five OTUs with FDR q -values < 0.05 (Table 1). The relative abundance and a phylogenetic tree
157	exhibiting their relationship with the core-OTUs from the non-switchgrass samples is shown in Figure S2 and Figure S3,
158	respectively. Despite the enormous variability across the many different sampling locations, there is support for the oc-
159	currence of a core microbiome in the root-zone of switchgrass.
160	
161	Table 1: Bacterial OTUs associated with switchgrass.

OTU	present(%)
$p_Proteobacteria; c_Gamma proteobacteria; o_Xanthomonadales; f_Xanthomonadaceae; g_Lysobacter; s_Santhomonadales; f_Xanthomonadaceae; g_Lysobacter; s_Santhomonadaceae; g_Lysobacter; s_Lysobacter; s_Lysobacter$	100
p_Planctomycetes;c_Planctomycetia;o_B97;f_;g_;s_	96.8
p_Bacteroidetes;c_[Saprospirae];o_[Saprospirales];f_Chitinophagaceae	96.8
$p_Proteobacteria; c_Alphaproteobacteria; o_Rhizobiales; f_Phyllobacteriaceae; g_Mesorhizobium; s_restriction and the second structure of the second $	90.3
p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Legionellales;f_;g_;s_	90.3

162 The core bacterial OTUs those were significantly (q-value < 0.05) associated with switch grass, calculated using pres-

163 ence/absence data and present in >90% switchgrass samples.

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165 **4. Discussion**

The case study showed how COREMIC can identify key habitat-specific microbes across diverse samples, using current-166 167 ly available databases and a unique freely available software. The core set of bacteria associated with switchgrass includ-168 ed, among others, closely related taxa from Lysobacter spp., Mesorhizobium spp, and Chitinophagaceae. The functional 169 relevance of these bacteria related to switchgrass is unknown, but it is notable that these bacteria have been shown to 170 produce bacterial and fungal antibiotics and promote the growth of plants (Kaneko et al., 2000; Kilic-Ekici and Yuen, 171 2004; Weir et al., 2004; Islam et al., 2005; Jochum et al., 2006; Ji et al., 2008; Park et al., 2008; Nandasena et al., 2009; 172 Yin, 2010; Bailey et al., 2013; Degefu et al., 2013; Guerrouj et al., 2013; Madhaiyan et al., 2015). The analyses from the 173 highly diverse data sets thus provided information that helps to greatly narrow down possibilities and thus set the stage 174 for testing, using controlled studies, how the core microbiota potentially support or antagonize the function of a native 175 grass. This novel toolkit is simple to use and supports use by a broad range of biological scientists, and is particularly 176 relevant to those with expertise in their field but with limited bioinformatics background. Overall, in a dataset derived 177 from a complex and diverse set of habitats and ecosystems, this tool was shown to pinpoint microbiota of the microbiome 178 that might have important functional implications within their habitat or host.

179

180 *4.1. Methodological considerations in the use of COREMIC*

COREMIC performs a complementary analysis different from that of existing methods by using presence/absence data. For two groups (A and B) it checks whether (pre-determined percentage of) samples from group A have a non-zero value for the OTU. This allows scientists to operate without making assumptions about the PCR-based OTU relative abundances. This is considered a potential advantage of the method because it is unknown whether relative abundance of sequence data is representative of true relative differences between communities. Further research, in this regard, will be aimed towards investigating other measures of OTU "presence", namely the extent of exclusivity, consistency, or abundance of the group that is eventually determined to be a core microbiome.

Sampling plots used in this study were located across a range of diverse environments to help create a backdrop of heterogeneity. While this diversity of habitat conditions ignores the potential for microbe-environment interactions that might be important for the plant-microbial relationship, it has the advantage of being a conservative approach with high veracity for defining a core microbiome regardless of habitat heterogeneity. The locations from which samples were

192 grown (Michigan, Wisconsin, Virginia) were treated as independent to help isolate the overall habitat effect of

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193	switchgrass (Werling et al.	, 2014; Jesus	et al., 2016)). When the	effects of habita	t are thought to	be habitat spec	cific, re-
			, . ,						

194 searchers can take this into account during the design and analysis using COREMIC.

195 It is notable that the representation of an outgroup (multiple non-switchgrass species) is an important criteria and

196 choice made by researchers, and is an approach that has both advantages and caveats. By definition, a habitat is defined

197 by its differences from that of other habitats, and therefore the use of the outgroup is an important choice. A counter-

198 argument for the current dataset might argue for exclusion of breeding lines of a cultivated grass (maize) as being unrep-

199 resentative of the grass outgroup. In our case, it was thought, a priori, that a diverse set of grasses would provide the best

200 comparison; and no compelling argument was found that supported the exclusion of maize from the analysis. An implicit

201 assumption was also made that the taxonomy of plant species (root-zone habitats) play an important role in determining

202 root-zone microbial communities, an approach supported by extensive findings that different grass species associate with

203 different microbial communities (Kuske et al., 2002; Kennedy et al., 2004; Berendsen et al., 2012; Chaudhary et al.,

204 2012; Turner et al., 2013). So although there is a need for careful consideration of the experimental questions of interest

205 when using COREMIC, this is a common, if not ubiquitous foundation of all experimentation and hypothesis testing. The

206 results provide a statistically valid approach using freely available software to describe and define a core microbiome of 207

switchgrass.

208 The choice of the outgroup, furthermore, for determining a core microbiome is amenable to choice using deductive rea-209 soning but ultimately limited by available data. This issue almost certainly limits inclusion of many functionally im-210 portant rhizosphere microbes that could affect the growth of switchgrass. In this study, the proof of concept utilized a 211 conservative approach to highlight the methodology across a diversity of geographies, soil types, and plant ages. The 212 COREMIC tool as well as the multiple methods for defining a core microbiome (e.g., QIIME (Caporaso et al., 2010), 213 ISA (Dufrene and Legendre, 1997)) will always be defined by the expertise, and the nature of the hypotheses defined and 214 defended by individual researchers.

215

216 4.2. Core Microbes

217 The individual datasets described in this study had previously focused on identifying abundant microbes and differences 218 due to experimental conditions. The current meta-analysis goes a step further to find common microbiota that are associ-219 ated with switchgrass across the diverse experimental conditions. The members of the Lysobacter genus, an identified 220 core microbe of switchgrass, are known to live in soil and have been shown to be ecologically important due to their abil-221 ity to produce exo-enzymes and antibiotics (Reichenbach, 2006). Their antimicrobial activities against bacteria, fungi,

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222 unicellular algae, and nematodes have been described (Islam et al., 2005; Jochum et al., 2006; Park et al., 2008; Yin, 223 2010). Strains of this genus, for example, have been used for control of diseases caused by bacteria in rice (Ji et al., 2008) 224 and tall fescue (Kilic-Ekici and Yuen, 2004). Reports of their function thus support the idea that they may play an im-225 portant role in switchgrass growth and survival. The core microbiome results thus support further research into the role 226 played by this bacterium in the switchgrass rhizosphere. 227 Similarly, members of the *Mesorhizobium* genus are well-known diazotrophs (Kaneko et al., 2000) and previously 228 shown to be symbiotically associated with switchgrass (DeAngelis et al., 2010; Bahulikar et al., 2014) and legumes (Weir 229 et al., 2004; Nandasena et al., 2009; Degefu et al., 2013; Guerrouj et al., 2013). Another identified core microbiome taxa, 230 soil-dwelling members of the *Chitinophagaceae* family are known to have β -glucosidase (Bailey et al., 2013) and 231 Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) deaminase activities and ability to produce indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) 232 (Madhaiyan et al., 2015). These molecules and enzymes are well known for their effects on plant growth (Zhao, 2010; 233 Van de Poel and Van Der Straeten, 2014). The capacity to degrade cellulose might provide additional and readily availa-234 ble options to aid survival of these bacteria near switchgrass root zones during times of environmental stress. ACC 235 deaminase and IAA production, in contrast, are potent plant growth modulators (Glick, 2014) that could play a role in 236 plant productivity and survival, especially under conditions of plant physiological stress. Though these examples above 237 would need further study, they provide consistent examples describing how a core microorganism could play a role in 238 determining plant function and growth. The power of the approach stems from the ability to identify the core microbes 239 associated with a plant (or other habitat), and that can, with veracity, narrow down potentially important core microbes 240 from otherwise hyperdiverse samples.

241 From a technological standpoint, it is important to put the current approach into context with research before the 242 metagenomics era. The search and identification of antagonistic plant growth promoting microbes has previously been 243 tedious and labor intensive. Screenings of hundreds of microbes were used to cultivate and identify candidate microbes 244 that might support (or deter) plant growth. In the case of beneficial microbes, even when identified under greenhouse 245 conditions, the beneficial effects rarely translated into plant supportive growth under field growth conditions (Babalola, 246 2010; Hayat et al., 2010). With the aid of hindsight and new knowledge suggesting the importance of the soil habitat and 247 root-soil interactions in the development of growth promoting plant-microbial relationships, the approach used in this 248 study reverses the focus (from top-down to bottom-up) to search for microbes that appear to already be naturally well-249 adapted to the root-soil habitats of interest (Trabelsi and Mhamdi, 2013; Souza et al., 2015). This process streamlines the 250 search for suitable microbes from a daunting pool of thousands of bacterial taxa. Bacteria and fungi with well-known

51	partnerships with members of the core microbiome, it would be expected, to be more readily adaptable to their native
.52	environment. Indeed, the concept of adaptability to an environment has been shown to be true for many types of microbes
253	across the environmental spectrum, and has given rise to the concept of the niche (Lennon et al., 2012). The COREMIC
254	tool provides an alternative and logical approach to help mine available datasets, in the search for core microbiomes as-
255	sociated with habitats that are ecologically and agriculturally important.
256	
257	4.3. Conclusions
258	The COREMIC tool, by helping to mine multiple datasets fills a major gap in the search for the core microbiome associ-
259	ated with a host or habitat. It allows for the development of a working hypothesis in the search for microbes well suited
260	for a habitat or host-microbe interaction. It can also be used to confirm laboratory studies that have identified target mi-
261	crobes that might be important symbionts or thought to be associated with a specific habitat. In the case of plants, but not
262	limited to them, the COREMIC approach can identify microbial targets that might be useful for plant growth promotion.
263	An example of this would be the identification of diazotrophic bacteria that aid the growth of bioenergy grasses and help
264	to serve the development of sustainable agricultural systems. This combined with the ongoing efforts of plant breeding
265	and genetic modification would help to catalyze microbe-driven crop yield improvement while practicing environmental
266	stewardship through reduced fertilizer use. Here we show the applicability of COREMIC in rhizosphere-associated mi-
267	crobes, but the overall concepts are translational across disciplines with interests in host-microbe and microbe-habitat
268	relationships. The applicability of COREMIC for the identification of core genes and microbes has excellent potential to
269	help understand the roles of microorganisms in complex and diverse microbial communities.
270	
271	Declarations
272	Ethics approval and consent to participate
273	Not applicable.
274	
275	Consent for publication
276	Not applicable.
277	
278	Availability of data and materials

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- 279 The datasets and results supporting the conclusions of this article are included within the article and supplementary files.
- 280 COREMIC and the datasets are available at <u>http://coremic2.appspot.com</u>. An archived version of its code is available on
- github (https://github.com/richrr/coremicro). COREMIC and its code are freely available under the GPL license.
- 282

283 Competing interests

- 284 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 285

286 Authors' contributions

- 287 Conceived and designed the experiments: RRR MAW. Implemented software tools: RRR NCR. Performed the experi-
- 288 ments: RRR NCR. Analyzed the data: RRR NCR XW MAW. Wrote the paper: RRR NCR XW MAW. All authors read
- and approved the final manuscript.
- 290

291 Acknowledgements

- 292 The authors thank Dr. Roderick Jensen and James Wrenn for their suggestions in improving the manuscript. We thank
- 293 Dr. James McClure for his help in the web-tool development. We also acknowledge BIOM, Google App Engine and their
- developers. The authors acknowledge Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University's Open Access Subvention
- 295 Fund. We thank Virginia Tech's Genetics, Bioinformatics, and Computational Biology, Department of Horticulture for
- 296 providing personnel funding. Research was also partially funded by grants from USDA-NIFA (2011-03815).
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427	
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429	
430	Figure 1: The COREMIC approach. The workflow indicating the Jesus 2016 and Rodrigues 2017 datasets and differ-
431	ences between them, and the methodology used to identify core microbiome. Switchgrass and other grasses are indicated
432	by "Swg" and "Non-Swg," respectively.
433	
434	Figure 2: Beta-diversity of the combined dataset. PCoA plot showing Bray-Curtis dissimilarities for bacterial commu-
435	nities at the OTU level in switchgrass (blue colored) and other grasses (red colored).
436	
437	Figure S1: Taxonomic summary of the relative abundance of bacterial phyla in the combined dataset. The taxa and
438	the labels are arranged as per total relative abundance across all samples, with the most abundant phyla at the bottom and
439	the least abundant phyla at the top of the y-axis. Mann Whitney test was used to identify phyla with significantly different
440	(p value < 0.05) relative abundance.
441	
442	Figure S2: Abundance of core microbiome of switchgrass. The bar plot compares the relative abundance of
443	switchgrass (red colored) core OTUs (90% threshold and q -value < 0.05) and non-switchgrass (yellow colored) samples.
444	
445	Figure S3: Core microbiome of switchgrass. Phylogenetic tree showing relationships between core OTUs (90% thresh-
446	old and q -value < 0.05) identified from switchgrass (blue colored) and non-switchgrass samples.
447	
448	
449	Table S1: Processing times for COREMIC.

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Rows =	Cols =				T 1 1 4				Std. Er-
678*numb	59*numb	Trial 1	Trial 2	rial 2 Trial 3	Trial 4	Trial 5	Trial 6	Mean	ror
1	1	13.102	12.017	12.015	12.314	11.924	11.603	12.163	0.210
2	1	28.426	26.511	27.832	28.623	25.742	30.245	27.896	0.655
10	1	37.913	84.115	41.965	70.986	43.540	46.456	54.163	7.671
1	2	12.924	13.924	12.914	14.639	16.016	17.961	14.730	0.802
1	10	30.127	41.331	24.405	32.020	34.582	48.253	35.120	3.467
2	2	29.118	29.512	29.586	34.621	36.447	35.057	32.390	1.359

450 The run times (in seconds) for different sized inputs with a 678 OTUs (rows) and 59 samples (columns) dataset using

451 default settings for COREMIC.

452

453



	Jesus 2016	Rodrigues 2017		
ons	V6-V8	V3-V4		
atform	Pyroseq	Illumina		
	Single	Paired		
	~500 bp	~250 bp		
Wi	sconsin, Michigan	Virginia		
	2 yrs, 10 yrs	1.5 months, 3.5 months		
	Field	Greenhouse		
Coı Switch	m, Mixed grasses, grass, Praire grasses	Switchgrass		

Core microbiome

OTUy OTUx

OTU is significant if q-value < 5%

