

1 **Characterization and visualization of global metabolomic responses** 2 **of *Brachypodium distachyon* to environmental changes**

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44 **Abstract**

45 Plant responses to environmental change are mediated via changes in cellular
46 metabolomes. However, <5% of signals obtained from tandem liquid chromatography
47 mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) can be identified, limiting our understanding of how
48 different metabolite classes change under biotic/abiotic stress. To address this challenge,
49 we performed untargeted LC-MS/MS of leaves, roots and other organs of *Brachypodium*
50 *distachyon*, a model Poaceae species, under 17 different organ-condition combinations,
51 including copper deficiency, heat stress, low phosphate and arbuscular mycorrhizal
52 symbiosis (AMS). We used a combination of information theory-based metrics and
53 machine learning-based identification of metabolite structural classes to assess
54 metabolomic changes. Both leaf and root metabolomes were significantly affected by the
55 growth medium. Leaf metabolomes were more diverse than root metabolomes, but the
56 latter were more specialized and more responsive to environmental change. We also
57 found that one week of copper deficiency shielded the root metabolome, but not the leaf
58 metabolome, from perturbation due to heat stress. Using a recently published deep
59 learning based method for metabolite class predictions, we analyzed the responsiveness
60 of each metabolite class to environmental change, which revealed significant
61 perturbations of various lipid classes and phenylpropanoids such as cinnamic acids and
62 flavonoids. Co-accumulation analysis further identified condition-specific metabolic
63 biomarkers. Finally, to make these results publicly accessible, we developed a novel
64 visualization platform on the Bioanalytical Resource website, where significantly
65 perturbed metabolic classes can be readily visualized. Overall, our study illustrates how
66 emerging chemoinformatic methods can be applied to reveal novel insights into the
67 dynamic plant metabolome and plant stress adaptation.

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69

70 **Introduction**

71

72 The central dogma of molecular biology extends from genes to transcripts to
73 proteins. These proteins, however, exert an effect on the phenotype eventually through
74 altering metabolites. Agronomically important traits such as yield, nutritional quality, flavor
75 characteristics and stress response are all controlled by underlying metabolic pathways.
76 A revolution in sequencing over the past decade has provided unparalleled insights into
77 the transcriptomic and epigenomic perturbations due to genotypic and environmental
78 changes, yet the global metabolome largely remains a black box, primarily due to our
79 inability to identify compounds from metabolomics data (Chaleckis et al., 2019; Salem et
80 al., 2020). It is estimated that over a million compounds are produced across the plant
81 kingdom (Afendi et al., 2012), with individual plants producing thousands of metabolites
82 (Fernie, 2007). However, <5% of these signals can be annotated using spectral matching
83 (da Silva and Dorrestein, 2015). Thus, patterns of global metabolomic changes still
84 remain unknown despite the importance metabolites have to plant fitness and human
85 society.

86 To assess metabolomic changes due to genetic variation, developmental
87 progression and environmental changes, gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC-
88 MS) and liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) remain the workhorse
89 approaches, with LC-MS typically detecting a much broader set of the metabolome.
90 Although diverse algorithmic innovations have aided in metabolome assessments
91 (Brouard et al., 2016; Tsugawa et al., 2016; Schymanski et al., 2017; Dührkop et al.,
92 2019), LC-MS peaks are primarily annotated using MS/MS spectral matching with entries
93 from public databases (Horai et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016; Guijas et al., 2018). While
94 correct predictions are indeed obtained in this manner, plant-derived compounds are
95 underrepresented in public databases (Fukushima and Kusano, 2013; Shahaf et al.,
96 2016), which potentially produces false positives in the limited numbers of compounds
97 identified. Partly due to this limitation, many LC-MS based studies are targeted or semi-
98 targeted, and end up analyzing a small but identifiable portion of the metabolome (Itkin et
99 al., 2013; Okazaki et al., 2013; Bromke et al., 2015; Tohge et al., 2016; Šimura et al.,
100 2018). This strategy produces robust insights, but global shifts in the metabolome and
101 their genetic drivers cannot be assessed via targeted studies. Identifying such patterns
102 can provide novel insights into metabolic plasticity and plant responses to stress
103 conditions, which are important for addressing challenges of agricultural productivity due
104 to climate change, overpopulation and degrading soil quality.

105 In recent years, two important resources have emerged for the analysis of global
106 untargeted tandem LC-MS (LC-MS/MS) data. Firstly, the machine learning (ML) based
107 tool CANOPUS (Dührkop et al., 2021) enables prediction of metabolite structural classes
108 based on the MS/MS spectrum, providing novel insights into the metabolome
109 composition. For example, even if specific compounds are not identified, recognizing that
110 “flavonoids” increase in abundance under UV stress provides significant biological
111 insights into the plant’s stress response. Secondly, independent of compound annotation,
112 approaches adapted from information theory can inform about the gross and/or specific
113 shifts in plant metabolomes (Li et al., 2020; Zu et al., 2020). In this study, we combine
114 these two approaches to illuminate global changes in plant metabolomes under different
115 conditions.

116 Specifically, we assessed the metabolome of *Brachypodium distachyon*
117 (*Brachypodium*) under different conditions (**Fig. 1**). *Brachypodium* is a model C3 grass
118 species in the Poaceae family that shared a common ancestor with rice (*Oryza sativa*)
119 ~50 million years ago and Triticeae (wheat, barley) ~35 million years ago (Charles et al.,
120 2009). The short stature of *Brachypodium* and its fast growth cycle make the species a
121 convenient model for understanding not only Poaceae biology but also for biofuel
122 research (Brkljacic et al., 2011; Douché et al., 2013; Marriott et al., 2014; Le Bris et al.,
123 2019). The main goals of this study were to: (i) assess *Brachypodium* metabolome
124 reconfigurations across different organs and a breadth of environmental conditions, (ii)
125 identify the metabolite classes most perturbed by different stresses, (iii) discover

126 condition-specific metabolites that may serve as stress biomarkers, and (iv) establish a
127 platform for visualization of the global metabolome changes. Towards these goals, we
128 first performed LC-MS/MS from 17 different organ-condition combinations, including
129 agriculturally relevant conditions such as copper deficiency, heat stress, low phosphate,
130 and arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis. We used CANOPUS and information theory
131 derived metrics to compare control vs. test metabolomes across different organs, and
132 characterize additional metabolome changes through co-accumulation modules and
133 biomarker detection. Finally, these changes were visualized using a novel representation
134 on the Bio-Analytic Resource for Plant Biology (BAR) website. Overall, our findings
135 provide new insights on the global and more specific metabolic perturbations in
136 *Brachypodium* under different conditions.

137

138

139 **Results**

140

141 **Experimental design and pre-processing of metabolome data**

142 Brachypodium plants were grown to different ages and under different growth
143 conditions in order to produce significant metabolome perturbations. Roots, leaves
144 (young and mature combined), and in some cases, culms and spikelets were sampled.
145 Overall, 17 organ-condition combinations were sampled, with plants grown across three
146 major regimens: Hydroponics (Hydro), Symbiosis (Sym), and Tissue (Tis) (**Fig. 1, Supp.**
147 **Fig. 1**). Hydro treatments consisted of regular Cu (Control), Cu deficiency (NoCopper),
148 heat stress (Heat), and heat stress under Cu deficiency (HeatNoCopper). The Symbiosis
149 treatments consisted of plants grown with regular amounts of phosphate fertilization
150 (Control), low phosphate treated plants inoculated with a solution of *Rhizophagus*
151 *irregularis* spore growth medium (SporeW, not containing any spores i.e. mock treatment)
152 and low phosphate treated plants inoculated with *R. irregularis* spores (Spore). The
153 Tissue regimen involved growing plants in regular soil until maturity. The effectiveness of
154 the copper deficiency treatment and presence of colonization were verified through semi-
155 quantitative RT-PCR of copper deficiency and fungal symbiosis marker genes,
156 respectively (**Supp. Fig 2**). All samples were analyzed via LC-MS/MS in both positive and
157 negative mode to obtain a comprehensive, quantitative snapshot of their metabolome.

158 After peak deconvolution and alignment, metabolite values were filtered using a
159 sequence of steps (**Supp. Figs. 3,4**). To enable comparisons between different LC-MS
160 runs, we first tested five different data normalization approaches (**Supp. File 1**) and
161 selected Variance Stabilized Normalization (VSN) as the most appropriate based on
162 performance as well as availability of the algorithm (**Supp. Table 1; Supp. File 1**). Data
163 imputation was also performed to fill in values lost due to Orbitrap LC-MS detection limits.
164 To ensure that either step does not alter the overall underlying data structure, we first
165 determined the effect of performing imputation before vs. after normalization using a
166 dummy dataset where actual peak areas were randomly replaced by zeros. The degree
167 of error in normalization-imputation and imputation-normalization was quantified. Overall,
168 both normalization orders had almost identical errors (**Supp. Fig. 5**). Thus, given
169 precedence (Mock et al., 2018; Chong et al., 2019), we first imputed peak areas using k-
170 Nearest Neighbor and normalized the imputed areas using VSN for further downstream
171 analyses.

172 VSN maximized correlations among replicates while maintaining low correlations
173 between different treatment groups (**Supp. File 2**). The above ground tissues were found
174 to have more peaks as well as a higher total peak abundance than the roots (**Supp. Fig**
175 **6; Supp. File 3**). The largest number of metabolite signals in both organs were observed
176 in Sym samples, indicating that growth media also influenced the Brachypodium
177 metabolome. The high numbers of peaks seen in the Sym Spore root samples may
178 include metabolites of fungal origin. Correlations between leaf vs. root, and between
179 control vs. treatment, were respectively much or slightly lower than among replicates
180 (**Supp. File 2**), putatively identifying two other axes of metabolomic divergence between

181 samples. To investigate these further, we first performed a global assessment of
182 similarities and differences between the metabolomes under different conditions.
183

184 ***The root metabolome is less diverse but more specialized and more stress-*** 185 ***inducible than the leaf metabolome***

186 Using the normalized, imputed datasets, we quantified the impact of each stress
187 on the root and leaf metabolomes. As expected, Principal Components Analysis (PCA)
188 identified the organs and the growth media as stronger drivers of metabolic variation in
189 our samples than the stresses. While PC1, explaining 46.88% and 45.6% of the metabolic
190 variation between samples (in positive and negative mode, respectively) was indicative
191 of organ-wise differences, PC2 (12.97%, 13.77%) revealed a substantial impact of the
192 growth medium (soil type, hydroponics) on the root and leaf metabolomes (**Supp. Fig. 7**).
193 PCA as well hierarchical clustering (**Supp. Figs. 8,9**) validated close clustering of
194 replicate samples as well as highlighted set-wise impact of stresses. For the Hydro set,
195 NoCopper (copper deficiency) was clustered with Control in both leaves and roots, while
196 for the Sym set, SporeW was the more impactful condition for leaves and Spore for the
197 roots. HeatNoCopper clustered closer to Heat than NoCopper in both roots and leaves,
198 indicating that the majority of metabolomic differences in this combined stress was due
199 to Heat. When PCAs were differentiated by organs (**Supp. Fig. 7 B,C,E,F**), the effect of
200 different stresses could be observed. Overall, the leaf metabolomes were less impacted
201 by the stresses than root metabolomes.

202 To further quantify the impact of each stress on the overall sampled metabolome,
203 we used three information-theory based measures – Diversity (H), Specialization (δ ,
204 measuring uniqueness/differentiation) and Relative Distance Plasticity Index (RDPI,
205 measuring overall perturbation including up and down-accumulation). We first assessed
206 the metabolome differences in non-stress conditions. More peaks as well as more
207 uniformity in the peak areas can increase Diversity; thus, given leaves consistently have
208 more peaks than roots, culms, and spikelets (**Supp. Fig. 6**), their Diversity is the highest
209 (**Fig. 2A,B; Supp. Fig. 10A,C**). However, roots and spikelets are more metabolically
210 specialized. The degree of specialization and to some extent, Diversity, were clearly
211 dependent on the growth medium and stress (**Fig. 2A,B; Supp. Fig. 10**). Roots were
212 more specialized in the hydroponic medium (except Sym Spore root) but leaf metabolome
213 was more specialized in soil (**Supp. Fig. 10B,D**). Intriguingly, the observation of spikelets
214 being metabolically specialized is congruent with a similar observation in the *Nicotiana*
215 *attenuata* anthers (Li et al., 2016b), indicating that the metabolic uniqueness of the
216 reproductive tissues may be a conserved trait across monocots and dicots.

217 Although differences in specialization and diversity among leaf metabolomes were
218 low, many stresses elicited statistically significant changes (Kolmogorov Smirnov [KS]
219 test, **Supp. Table 2**). Overall, the stresses appeared to disrupt foliar metabolism far less
220 than that of the roots – especially for leaves from hydroponically grown plants – as
221 indicated by tight clustering of leaf stresses with their controls. In positive mode (**Fig. 2A**),
222 specialization cleanly separated out leaf samples into their growth conditions, but this was

223 not seen in negative mode (**Fig. 2B**), and in both ionization modes, leaf samples had
224 relatively low specialization. Taken together with the relatively low RDPI values observed
225 for leaf samples (**Fig. 2C,D**), these results indicate that the leaf metabolome is more
226 robust/less responsive to temporary environmental changes than the root metabolome.

227 In contrast, the specialization and RDPI of roots were significantly influenced by
228 stress. In both ionization modes, we found that roots had higher RDPI (i.e. greater
229 metabolome perturbation) than leaves (except for SporeW, in which leaves had similar
230 RDPIs to roots in negative mode) (**Fig. 2C,D**). Hydro roots had a higher baseline (Control)
231 specialization than Sym (**Supp. Fig. 10B,D**), indicating the presence of hydroponics-
232 specific peaks. However, in both ionization modes, Heat roots and Spore roots had the
233 highest specialization and RDPI. Specialization is a sum of the “degree of specificity” of
234 each metabolite signal across the different conditions, thus, high specialization in Heat
235 and Spore indicates a greater representation of metabolites that are uniquely changing
236 under these conditions alone. Interestingly, specialization of the HeatNoCopper roots was
237 similar to Control roots (**Fig. 2A,B**), while its RDPI was intermediate between NoCopper
238 and Heat (**Fig. 2C,D**). These observations suggest that the impact of heat stress on the
239 global root metabolome was less drastic under copper deficiency, which is contradictory
240 to our expectation that HeatNoCopper roots would show a greater perturbation than Heat
241 roots given a combination of two stresses.

242 To obtain a more granular understanding of the overall induced metabolites,
243 differentially accumulated peaks (DAPs) were estimated in each condition based on FDR-
244 corrected p-values and fold-change criteria (see **Supplementary Methods; Supp. File**
245 **4**). The pattern of differential accumulation was similar between positive and negative
246 modes (**Fig. 2E,F**). We found that HeatNoCopper and Heat had a high number of DAPs
247 primarily in the roots (**Fig. 2E,F; Supp. Figs. 11,12,13**). Over 200 metabolites were also
248 perturbed under AMS in positive as well as negative mode, however, many of these
249 metabolites could be of fungal origin. Heat and Spore roots had both the highest numbers
250 of DAPs, and unique DAPs, consistent with the finding that they have high RDPI and the
251 highest specialization.

252

253 ***Assessment of the deep learning-based tool CANOPUS for structural annotation of*** 254 ***LC-MS peaks***

255 The above analyses revealed global patterns of change in the *Brachypodium*
256 metabolome under environmental change. We next sought to understand shifts in specific
257 metabolite classes. While untargeted LC-MS is the method of choice for detecting a
258 diverse range of metabolites, identifying these peaks is a major challenge. We employed
259 two different approaches for annotating the peaks: 1) MS/MS spectral matching using
260 public repositories, and 2) database-free prediction of structure-based metabolite classes
261 using the deep-learning based CANOPUS package in the SIRIUS software (Dührkop et
262 al., 2021). CANOPUS classifies compounds into the multilabel and hierarchical ChemOnt
263 ontology (Djoumbou Feunang et al., 2016), which is similar to the Gene Ontology (GO)
264 for genes (The Gene Ontology Consortium, 2019). As ChemOnt is multilabel, peaks may

265 receive multiple annotations at each level, however, the classifications we report are of
266 each peak's largest substructure.

267 Of the 3582 and 2996 singly charged fragmented peaks in positive and negative
268 mode, 2931 (82%) and 2409 (80%) were annotated by CANOPUS at the Superclass level
269 with posterior probability ≥ 0.5 (**Supp. Fig. 14**). Of the 26 Superclasses existing for
270 Organic Compounds, 14 and 12 were represented in the positive and negative mode
271 data, respectively (**Supp. Files 5,6**) with Lipids and lipid-like molecules having the most
272 peaks in both ionization modes. To assess the accuracy of these annotations, we
273 identified peaks via public database searches and compared their ChemOnt classes to
274 CANOPUS' predictions (**Table 1, Supp. File 7**). At each level, we calculated
275 misannotations as the percent of peaks identified using spectral matches that were not
276 given the same annotation by CANOPUS. At the Superclass level, we observed good
277 correspondence between CANOPUS classifications and database identifications in both
278 modes. The median CANOPUS misannotation rates at the Class level, when considering
279 correct Classes as determined by ClassyFire, were 54.4% and 28.2% in positive and
280 negative mode, respectively, indicating that overall CANOPUS predicted Classes well for
281 negative mode only. In positive mode, the most frequently misannotated Classes were
282 Glycerophospholipids (GPs, 65.57% of CANOPUS-predicted GPs were misannotated)
283 and Phenols (73.68% misannotated), although most of the misannotations were within
284 the same Superclass (70% and 50%, respectively). The decrease in agreement between
285 positive mode Superclasses and Classes is largely due to the high misclassification rate
286 of GPs and their high presence (24%) in the identified positive mode compounds.

287 We further observed that when discrepancies occurred, it was often due to
288 CANOPUS labeling compounds based upon substructures that are not representative of
289 the whole compound, e.g. labeling Flavonoids as Benzenoids/Hydroxycinnamic Acid and
290 Derivatives, or 1-Palmitoylglycerol as a Fatty Acyl instead of a Glycerolipid. Most
291 misannotated GPs were classified as Fatty Acyls (subclass: linoleic acid and derivatives),
292 Sphingolipids (subclass: phosphosphingolipids) or Organonitrogen Compounds
293 (subclass: phosphocholines), suggesting that despite misclassification, CANOPUS was
294 identifying common substructures from MS/MS data. It is important to also note, however,
295 that in instances of disagreement, the specific compound identifications based on spectral
296 matching may be incorrect, and despite that, both methods generally agree on the
297 annotations of substructures of the detected peaks.

298 **Table 1: Correspondence between peaks identified using spectral matches and**
299 **their class predictions using CANOPUS.**

	Positive		Negative	
	Identified ¹ and Annotated ² Peaks	% Match ³	Identified ¹ and Annotated ² Peaks	% Match ³
Superclass	253	77.87	153	77.78
Class	245	54.69	152	70.39
Subclass	215	53.49	143	71.33
Level 5	123	56.10	120	73.33

300 1 Identified using spectral matches with public repositories

301 2 Annotated using CANOPUS
302 3 Percentage of the Identified and Annotated Peaks with matching annotations

303
304 In order to further assess the general accuracy of identifications and CANOPUS
305 annotations, and the disagreements between them for GPs, we used MS/MS molecular
306 networking as a complementary approach to cluster compounds with similar
307 fragmentation patterns. We then mapped identifications and CANOPUS Superclasses
308 onto this network (**Fig 3, Supp. Files 8, 9**). We found that some CANOPUS Superclasses
309 tended to form tight sub-networks e.g. 236 out of the 240 CANOPUS-annotated GPs in
310 the negative mode network were clustered together (**Supp. File 9**), along with all of the
311 database-identified GPs. In the positive mode network, we observed two clusters for GPs
312 -- one for peaks identified as Glycerophosphocholines/Glycerophosphoserines and
313 another for peaks identified as Glycerophosphoethanolamines (Subnetworks 1 and 2,
314 respectively, in **Fig 3, Supp. File 8**). For other sub-networks (3,4,5 **Fig. 3**), there was
315 good agreement between CANOPUS and identified compound class predictions (**Supp.**
316 **File 7**). These results suggest that while there is some disagreement between spectral
317 matching and CANOPUS, both methods are reflective of actual molecular substructures.
318 While Class level interpretation is appropriate for peaks in negative mode, Superclass
319 level interpretation is appropriate for positive mode. Thus, while we conduct analyses
320 below using the more specific Class-level annotations, we primarily interpret results from
321 negative mode data.

322 323 ***Compound class annotation reveals an important role of lipids in the induced*** 324 ***stress response***

325 After validating CANOPUS annotations, we sought to determine how different
326 chemical classes were perturbed under the applied stresses, and whether the relevance
327 of a class to a stress or organ could be quantified. The RDPI metric summarizes both up
328 and down regulation of all metabolites in a given class, and thus, is a useful metric to
329 assess a class' overall perturbation in a given stress (**Supp. Figs. 15, 16; Supp. File 10**).
330 As expected, RDPI distributions of most Classes (e.g. Organooxygen compounds) were
331 similar to those of the overall metabolome -- with roots appearing more inducible than
332 leaves, and Heat, HeatNoCopper and Spore treatments eliciting the largest metabolome
333 changes. However, some Classes -- primarily lipids such as Fatty Acyls, Glycerolipids,
334 Glycerophospholipids (GPs), sphingolipids and steroids -- deviated from this overall trend.

335 Although the RDPI is a useful metric for quantifying gross metabolomic changes,
336 information on whether peaks are accumulated or depleted under stress conditions is lost.
337 Another issue is that our criteria for calling DAPs is stringent, thus high RDPI does not
338 necessarily translate to more DAPs. Lastly, the RDPI metric for a Class with 1000
339 metabolites vs. 10 metabolites can appear the same, confounding the true extent of a
340 metabolite Class' importance in a condition. To address these issues, we identified
341 Classes that were, on average, highly accumulated or depleted in a stress (see Methods),
342 and plotted the abundance changes of individual peaks in those Classes (**Fig. 4, and**
343 **Supp. Fig. 17A**). Many Classes had expected changes in abundance, which corroborates

344 this methodology. For example, in spore-treated samples, lipid Classes such as
345 glycerolipids and GPs decreased (leaves) while prenol lipids and sphingolipids increased
346 (roots) (**Fig. 4**), consistent with their importance in membrane remodeling and signaling
347 during plant-AMF interactions (Wewer et al., 2014; Macabuhay et al., 2022). Interestingly,
348 more sphingolipids showed a decrease in the leaves, but the pattern was reversed in the
349 roots. Phenolic compounds (Phenols) are known to be induced in the leaves of multiple
350 species under symbiosis (Schweiger and Müller, 2015), which was also observed. In both
351 leaves and roots of Cu-deficient plants, GPs showed both up and down regulation, while
352 sphingolipids were mostly upregulated in the roots. Increase in sphingolipids was also
353 seen in Heat stress. A previous study showed that perturbation of sphingolipid
354 biosynthesis in the roots influences the leaf ionome (Chao et al., 2011), and thus,
355 sphingolipids may play consequential roles in both Cu-deficiency and heat stress. Some
356 lignans were also found to be downregulated in Cu-deficient and heat treated plants in
357 both leaves and roots, consistent with previous observations of lignin biosynthesis
358 affected under copper deficiency (Schulten and Krämer, 2018; Rahmati Ishka and
359 Vatamaniuk, 2020).

360 Other classes showed unexpected changes. Although flavonoids are antioxidants,
361 they were, on average, depleted in the roots under multiple stresses (**Fig. 4**). Multiple
362 classes possess outliers present on both sides of the distribution, e.g. Sphingolipids in
363 Spore leaves, suggesting that peaks within the same structural class are not necessarily
364 co-regulated. Finally, we identified classes that were strongly up- or down- accumulated
365 (multiple peaks with area changes > 5 in magnitude) in response to multiple stresses,
366 most of which were lipids e.g. GPs, Fatty Acyls, Sphingolipids and Prenol lipids (**Fig. 4**).
367 These observations suggest that the lipidome is the most stress-responsive portion of the
368 metabolome, possibly resulting from changes in cellular membranes and signaling
369 pathways.

370

371 ***Co-accumulated peaks have diverse structural classes, and peaks within a class*** 372 ***rarely co-accumulate***

373 As many classes showed broad changes in response to a stress, we next
374 assessed the diversity of structural classes among groups of correlated peaks as
375 determined using Weighted Gene Coexpression Network Analysis (WGCNA) (Langfelder
376 and Horvath, 2008) (**Fig. 5A** and **Supp. Figs. 17,18,19**). WGCNA provides a
377 complimentary approach to assign functional hypotheses to metabolite classes under
378 stresses, as it simultaneously assesses all conditions and classes. We found that most
379 co-accumulation modules contained peaks with high abundance in roots and low in
380 leaves, or vice versa, again highlighting organs as primary drivers for metabolic diversity.
381 One module (“cyan”) identified peaks specifically accumulated in Sym.Spore roots (**Supp.**
382 **Fig. 19**), a quarter of which were annotated as sphingolipids, again suggesting the
383 importance of sphingolipids in AMS. Other modules contained peaks with more varied
384 accumulation patterns. For example, the “turquoise” module identified peaks that were
385 either specifically accumulated in hydroponics roots or excluded from them. The “gray60”
386 module (**Supp. Fig. 19**) grouped peaks abundant in leaves but excluded from all roots

387 except those experiencing AMS. These may represent foliar metabolites that undergo
388 transport to the roots and play a role in symbiosis. A more detailed analysis of these peaks
389 can reveal novel insights into the biochemistry of *Brachypodium* abiotic and biotic
390 responses.

391 A majority of WGCNA modules contained multiple Classes, and 7/18 modules
392 were enriched in ≥ 1 Class (Fisher's exact test, FDR adjusted $p < 0.05$). Some metabolite
393 classes, such as Flavonoids, were enriched in multiple modules with differing abundance
394 patterns (**Supp. Figs. 18, 19**). Cinnamic acids and flavonoids were usually significantly
395 overrepresented in modules with higher accumulation in leaves than roots. Interestingly,
396 cinnamic acids were perturbed substantially in leaves only under heat stress, while they
397 were highly perturbed in roots under all conditions (**Supp. Fig. 16**). Flavonoids, on the
398 other hand, were significantly highly perturbed only in roots but not in leaves (**Supp. Figs.**
399 **16, 17**). These results point to differing regulation of individual metabolite classes in roots
400 vs. leaves. Also, of the ten Classes enriched across all modules, in either positive or
401 negative mode, seven were lipids, further highlighting their functional relevance.

402 To determine if "Class" is too broad a level for co-regulation, and if more evidence
403 for co-regulation is found at the "Subclass" or "Level 5" level, the average pairwise
404 Spearman correlation among peaks in the same Class, Subclass, or Level 5 category
405 (**Fig. 5B** and **Supp. Fig. 17C**), was compared to the average correlation among randomly
406 drawn peaks. At each hierarchy level, only a small number of classes had average
407 correlation ≥ 0.5 , and most classes had correlation close to random. Notably, at each level
408 of the hierarchy, several classes were unusually large, with > 100 members, raising the
409 possibility of low structural similarity within each class. Thus, we sought to determine
410 whether class size and structural similarity within class contribute to average class
411 correlation (see **Supplementary Methods** for calculation). Correlations between average
412 class correlation and average class cosine score were consistently positive (**Supp. Figs.**
413 **20, 21**) suggesting greater structural similarity within a class translates to greater
414 accumulation correlation. Correlations between class size and correlation/cosine score
415 were negative, highlighting the importance of more specific class definitions. We note that
416 overall, these metrics explained only a very low proportion of variance.

417 Taken together, these results indicate that while some classes (e.g. Flavonoids
418 and their subclasses) may represent groups of co-regulated peaks, this is likely not the
419 case for most classes at each level of the ontology. This may reflect the specificity of
420 underlying metabolic and regulatory pathways, which may significantly increase
421 concentrations of specific individual metabolites of a structural class. These results also
422 suggest that utilizing the multi-label nature of the chemical ontology could be a better
423 approach for finding peaks belonging to coordinated routes of metabolism rather than
424 using single classes.

425 426 ***Comparative analysis facilitates analysis of known metabolites and biomarker*** 427 ***detection***

428 Our dataset provides a unique opportunity to analyze the accumulation patterns of
429 known metabolites, as well as find biomarkers, i.e. peaks that accumulate highly (not

430 necessarily specifically; see **Supplementary Methods**) in one condition/organ. We
431 selected salicylic acid (SA), abscisic acid (ABA), and naringenin for analysis as they were
432 identified by GNPS with match scores ≥ 0.89 (ABA and naringenin were additionally
433 correctly annotated by CANOPUS), and may be of relevance in the studied conditions.
434 We further validated these identifications by uncovering their major fragments from the
435 literature, and checking for matching fragments in our queries (**Supp. Table 3**). SA is
436 known to accumulate in roots under AMS (Zhang et al., 2013) and, in some species,
437 under heat (Hara et al., 2012). We found that SA accumulated (but not significantly
438 increased) in AMS roots, and was mildly but significantly increased in Heat roots (t-test,
439 p-value < 0.05) (**Supp. Fig. 22**). In contrast, ABA levels highly increased in AMS roots,
440 and in Heat and HeatNoCopper leaves (t-test, p-values < 0.05). Finally, for naringenin,
441 mean decreases were observed in roots for all conditions (significant decreases seen in
442 Heat and AMS; t-test, p-values < 0.05) corroborating our observations of RDPI of the
443 broader Flavonoid Class.

444 We also found that the numbers of biomarkers detected in each condition
445 resembled the overall RDPI distribution -- roots typically have more biomarkers than their
446 foliar counterparts, and Spore roots and Heat roots have the highest numbers of
447 biomarkers (**Fig. 5C** and **Supp. Fig. 17D; Supp. File 11**). We found 11-carboxyblumenol
448 C glucoside to be a foliar biomarker for AMS, corroborating previously published data
449 (Wang et al., 2018a) (**Supp. Fig. 23A**). We discovered other peaks that either share
450 fragment peaks with the Blumenol C or exhibit fragment peaks of a Blumenol C core
451 lacking a carboxyl group (**Supp. Fig. 23B, D**). We also detected a peak specific to Spore
452 leaf and not present in AMS roots, which shares no fragment peaks with the Blumenol C
453 and was classified by CANOPUS as a 5'-deoxyribonucleoside (**Supp. Fig. 23C**) --
454 suggesting that AMS induces other foliar-specific routes of metabolism.

455

456 ***Visualizing metabolite class importance using the BAR platform***

457 In order to make the data described herein more easily accessible to the scientific
458 community, these data were integrated into the Bio-Analytic Resource for Plant Biology
459 (BAR) website as a novel electronic Fluorescent Pictograph (eFP) browser (available for
460 testing at: https://bar.utoronto.ca/efp_brachypodium_metabolites/cgi-bin/efpWeb.cgi).
461 CANOPUS Classes with at least five members in both positive *and* negative modes were
462 included in this eFP browser. This eFP browser has two viewing options: with the Relative
463 viewing option, the changes of metabolite Class levels across conditions can be readily
464 observed (**Fig. 6**) as the average change in normalized peak area under a condition. With
465 the Absolute viewing option, the average normalized peak areas are plotted per organ
466 and condition. Besides showing how the Class changes in abundance across conditions,
467 the Absolute view option also provides information about which ionization mode best
468 illustrates changes experienced in that Class. Notably, for some Classes (e.g. Furanoid
469 lignans, Purine nucleotides) we observe different changes in abundance across ionization
470 modes. While this may be due to CANOPUS peak misannotations, especially for Positive
471 mode, it may also reflect different subclasses being detected in different ionization modes.
472 This finding has implications for targeted comparative metabolomics studies, as results

473 obtained in one ionization mode may not necessarily hold in the other. By establishing
474 our eFP browser, we seek to enable the community to draw further conclusions from our
475 existing results, and facilitate the design of future comparative metabolomics and
476 downstream validation studies.

477

478 **Discussion**

479

480 While recent improvements in LC-MS hardware have generated impressive
481 advancements in metabolite detection, associating the thousands of metabolites detected
482 in each species with biological processes remains an open challenge (Chaleckis et al.,
483 2019). In this study, using three complementary approaches – information theory, ML-
484 based analysis and co-accumulation clustering – of LC-MS data, we performed a more
485 comprehensive analysis of metabolome perturbations of *B. distachyon* under different
486 environmental conditions.

487 When applying information theoretic measures to the global metabolome, we
488 found that roots are, on the whole, more stress-responsive than leaves, despite leaves
489 having a more expansive and complex metabolome. The finding that leaves have
490 consistently more peaks than roots may be due to biological or technical/processing
491 reasons, as root harvesting required a washing/drying step to remove the attached soil
492 particles, which may have also removed epidermal metabolites. While the increased
493 number of peaks in foliar samples directly contributes to their increased diversity, the
494 finding that leaf metabolomes are less perturbed under stress than roots is intriguing.
495 Previous studies have also found roots to be more impacted than leaves under a variety
496 of stresses, including heat (Giri et al., 2017), and salinity (López-Cristoffanini et al., 2021).
497 Notably, drought stress -- not included in our study -- appears to be an exception in which
498 leaves are more impacted than roots (Gargallo-Garriga et al., 2014), indicating that the
499 greater metabolic plasticity of the roots is not universal. These results may again be due
500 to technical considerations, as peaks with $m/z > 800$ were not detected, thereby excluding
501 cuticular waxes, which are stress-responsive (Baker, 1974; Wang et al., 2018b; Kan et
502 al., 2022). Additionally, highly polar and highly non-polar compounds were excluded from
503 our data. Both roots and leaves contain such compounds, and therefore it is unclear how
504 results would differ with these compounds included.

505 Our analyses revealed that the combined HeatNoCopper stress was less
506 disruptive to the root metabolome than the Heat stress alone -- suggesting that one week
507 of Cu deficiency primed the roots for subsequent protection against heat stress response.
508 Another interpretation is that critical heat response mechanisms were not activated in the
509 roots after a week of Cu deficiency, which could therefore lead to decreased reproduction
510 or long-term survival after heat. Since the recovery of these plants were not studied, it is
511 not possible to ascertain which interpretation is correct. However, these results reveal an
512 intriguing interplay between heat stress and Cu deficiency. In *Arabidopsis*, such an
513 interplay is suggested through shared aspects of heat and Cu deficiency responses. For
514 example, Cu deficiency triggers accumulation of ferric superoxide dismutase 1 to account
515 for reduced activity of Cu/Zn superoxide dismutases (Abdel-Ghany and Pilon, 2008). This

516 shift may help protect the roots against reactive oxygen species produced during later
517 heat shock. Recent evidence has also suggested that SPL7, a master regulator of Cu
518 deficiency (Yamasaki et al., 2009), may upregulate miR156 under Cu deficiency (Perea-
519 García et al., 2021). In Arabidopsis, miR156 is induced after an initial heat stress event
520 and provides heat shock memory, as plants lacking miR156 showed decreased growth
521 and survival after subsequent heat events (Stief et al., 2014). As miR156 is also induced
522 in wheat after heat stress (Xin et al., 2010), and as several miRNAs are known to have
523 different induction patterns in different tissues (Sunkar et al., 2012), we hypothesize that
524 miR156 upregulation under Cu deficiency helps prime Brachypodium roots for heat
525 stress. Future molecular studies can help test these hypotheses.

526 In this study, we combined CANOPUS -- a tool for structurally annotating peaks --
527 with information theoretic and related measures to analyze more specific metabolome
528 perturbations. Our study captured a multi-pronged, organ-differentiated metabolomic
529 response of Brachypodium to environmental change comprising lipidomic perturbations
530 and alterations of phenylpropanoid pathway products such as lignans, cinnamic acids,
531 and flavonoids. Lipids, on the whole, are highly stress-responsive, with glycerolipids, GPs,
532 sphingolipids and fatty acyls having high perturbations under several conditions. These
533 perturbations may be a result of changes in membrane composition (known to occur
534 under heat (Higashi and Saito, 2019) and low P stress (Nakamura, 2013)), and/or
535 production of lipid signaling molecules, such as oxylipins (Ali and Baek, 2020) and
536 sphingolipids (Berkey et al., 2012). Under AMS specifically, certain fatty acyls and GPs
537 are known to be produced (Wewer et al., 2014; Bravo et al., 2017), and while this is indeed
538 reflected in our data (**Supp. File 10**) we also found that other lipid Classes, such as
539 Sphingolipids and Prenol lipids, were highly altered under AMS, suggesting that AMS has
540 wide-reaching effects on the Brachypodium lipidome. We unexpectedly found that
541 flavonoids are, on average, decreased in the roots in response to all conditions except
542 low P – a finding corroborated by a focused assessment of naringenin. The training data
543 for CANOPUS for flavonoids was also large (Dührkop et al., 2021) – given their high
544 representation in public databases – thus, flavonoid class predictions are likely to be
545 correct. This inference was also previously confirmed in sweet potato flavonoids and
546 anthocyanins via comparison with MS/MS networking (Bennett et al., 2021). In general,
547 flavonoids are known to be accumulated under several stresses (Ferdinando et al., 2012),
548 yet the wholesale labelling of all flavonoids as antioxidants has been questioned (Agati
549 et al., 2020). Several studies have additionally found disordered regulation of flavonoid
550 biosynthesis, either at the level of individual flavonoids/flavonoid biosynthetic genes (Wu
551 et al., 2020) or post-transcriptional regulation of flavonoid biosynthesis (Cui et al., 2019).
552 These observations reveal a need for a deeper investigation of flavonoid roles and/or
553 metabolic reprogramming under stress. We further found that WGCNA, a tool commonly
554 used in RNA-seq studies, is effective at uncovering peaks with similar abundance
555 patterns, which are potentially in the same routes of metabolism. Our study was also able
556 to detect biomarkers, which can reveal novel insights into condition-specific activations of
557 metabolic pathways.

558 In conclusion, we found that information theory metrics and chemical class
559 predictions are effective tools to analyze comparative metabolomics data. Our results
560 reveal a very dynamic plant metabolome influenced by multiple environmental and
561 developmental factors. As more untargeted LC-MS/MS studies are performed,
562 comparative analyses of these datasets may reveal common patterns and the core stress
563 response across groups of plant species. The overall workflow described here can enable
564 a more streamlined analyses of such untargeted datasets. Particularly, visualizing
565 metabolomic data using the eFP browser may reveal hidden spatial differences in
566 metabolome perturbations not easily discernible otherwise, and guide the design of
567 targeted studies. For example, this visualization can be a useful tool to identify a better
568 mode of ionization for molecules of interest as well as reveal metabolite classes to be
569 assessed via targeted analyses. Our study shows that data-intensive analytical methods
570 are useful for gleaning novel biological insights from untargeted metabolomics studies.

571

572 **Materials and Methods**

573

574 ***Plant Growth Conditions and Harvesting***

575 *Brachypodium distachyon* Bd-21 seeds for plants used in the Symbiosis (Sym) and
576 Tissue (Tis) experiments were sterilized in 10% (v/v) household bleach containing
577 0.005% (v/v) Tween-20 for seven minutes, thoroughly washed 5x in sterile water and
578 germinated in petri dishes on moist Whatman filter paper in dark at 4 °C for seven days
579 and three additional days at room temperature (RT). Germinated seedlings were
580 incubated for additional 3-5 days under constant light while maintaining constant humidity.
581 The germination protocol for plants used in the Hydro experiment was performed as
582 outlined previously (Sheng et al., 2021). Additional details about plant growth conditions
583 are described in **Supplementary Methods**. After the growth period, harvesting of all plant
584 material took place between noon and 3pm to maintain circadian profiles of genes and
585 metabolites. All samples were stored at -80 °C until further processing. We verified that
586 the Cu-deficiency and AMS conditions worked as expected using RT-PCR of previously
587 known condition-specific genes (Rahmati Ishka and Vatamaniuk, 2020) (**Supplementary**
588 **Methods**).

589

590 ***Metabolite Extraction and Sample Preparation***

591 All plant material was rough ground over liquid nitrogen using scissors to enable
592 equal and homogenous separation for RNA and metabolite extraction. All samples were
593 further subjected to bead homogenization using a mixer mill (Retsch, Haan, Germany) at
594 30 bpm with 1-minute intervals in 2 mL reaction tubes containing four 2.3 mm chrome
595 steel beads. Ground samples were lyophilized overnight. Sample fresh weights (200 mg
596 leaves, 550 mg roots, 150 mg spikelets and culms) were determined to ensure 50 mg of
597 dry weight for all tissues. Samples were ground again in the bead homogenizer for 10
598 minutes, and centrifuged at 14000 g for 10 minutes in order to collect all powdered sample

599 at the bottom of the tube. Metabolites were extracted using a mixture of acetonitrile,
600 isopropanol, and water (ratio of 2:2:1) containing 0.1% (v/v) formic acid, and 30 uM of
601 three internal standards (Telmisartan, Propyl-4-hydroxy-benzoate, and Kanamycin). After
602 solvent addition, samples were vortexed several times over a period of 15 minutes to
603 facilitate extraction. After centrifugation for 10 minutes at 16000 g to remove particulates,
604 the samples were transferred into amber HPLC vials and stored at -80 °C until LC-MS
605 analysis. Sample vials were shipped to the Joint Genome Institute on dry ice for LC-MS
606 analysis, where LC-MS was performed using an Agilent 1290 Infinity LC system (Agilent,
607 Santa Clara, CA) coupled to a Thermo QExactive HF orbitrap mass spectrometer
608 (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA). Additional details are provided in the **Supplementary**
609 **Methods**.

610

611 ***Metabolomic data filtering, normalization, and imputation***

612 All RAW files were converted to mzML format using ProteoWizard v 3.0.7230. TICs
613 were made for all files of a given polarity using XCMS (Mahieu et al., 2016) (**Supp. Fig.**
614 **3**). All files of a given mode (positive or negative) were then imported into MS-DIAL v4.48
615 (Tsubawa et al., 2020) for peak deconvolution and alignment. Parameters files for positive
616 and negative mode usage are supplied (**Supp. File 12**). The peak areas of the internal
617 standards Telmisartan and Propyl-4-hydroxy-benzoate were manually checked to
618 determine consistency across samples. For each polarity, MS-DIAL outputs a quantitative
619 alignment file, displaying the peak areas of all metabolites in all samples, and a Mascot
620 Generic Format (mgf) file of all fragmented metabolites. Detected metabolites were
621 filtered, imputed, and normalized using a custom R script (developed in R v4.0.4) (R Core
622 Team, 2020), available on GitHub (https://github.com/lizmahood/brachy_metabolomics)
623 as described in **Supp. Fig. 4**. Metabolites eluting out at 90 seconds or earlier were
624 removed as the Total Ion Current observed at the beginning of runs was high enough that
625 accurate quantification of metabolite values could not be assured (**Supp. Fig. 3**).
626 Imputation was performed with the R package impute and VSN was performed with the
627 R package vsn (Huber et al., 2002). Normalization was performed using NOREVA (Li et
628 al., 2016a), followed by identification of differentially accumulated metabolites, both of
629 which are described in more detail in **Supplementary Methods**.

630

631 ***Peak annotation with CANOPUS***

632 The mgf format MS-DIAL output files were filtered to remove adducts and peaks
633 detected in Blank samples using an in-house python script
634 (https://github.com/lizmahood/brachy_metabolomics). The CANOPUS module (Dührkop
635 et al., 2021), included in the SIRIUS4 v4.9.8 software suite (Dührkop et al., 2019) was
636 used to annotate singly charged peaks with their probable structural classes, as defined
637 in the multilabel ChemOnt ontology (Djoumbou Feunang et al., 2016). The Zodiac module
638 (Ludwig et al., 2020) was additionally used to improve each peak's predicted molecular

639 formula (which CANOPUS uses for annotation). For each compound, CANOPUS predicts
640 the “Parent Class” – the class of the largest substructure in the molecule – and outputs
641 the probability that the predicted Parent Class is correct, based upon its training data.
642 Other predictions are made at different hierarchies of the ontology (Superclass, Subclass,
643 etc). Any annotation with prediction probability < 0.5 was not considered in downstream
644 analyses. Additionally, if a classification was discarded for not meeting this probability
645 threshold, each subsequent prediction (at more specific hierarchies) was removed as
646 well, regardless of their prediction probabilities.

647

648 ***Peak Identification with GNPS and MSDIAL***

649 The “All Public MS/MS” msp files provided by MSDIAL
650 (<http://prime.psc.riken.jp/comps/msdial/main.html#MSP>) were used for identification.
651 To remove false positive identifications, we imposed a threshold of >0.8 for both the Dot
652 Product and Reverse Dot Product scores between the query and database match.
653 Feature based molecular networking through GNPS (Nothias et al., 2020) workflow v28.2
654 was additionally used for peak identification. Spectral database libraries included those
655 publicly available in GNPS, as well as the NIST 17 library, which was kindly provided by
656 JGI. All parameters for molecular networking were kept at default values excepting:
657 Precursor ion mass tolerance - 0.01 Da, Library search min matched peaks - 3, Top
658 results to report per query - 20, Score threshold - 0.4, Maximum analog search mass
659 difference - 200. We again imposed a threshold of >0.8 for the match score between the
660 query and database match, and only considered the top 1 match per query.

661 To compare annotations between peak identifications and CANOPUS, InChIs of
662 identified compounds were converted to InChI-Keys through the chembl_ikey python
663 module, and structural classifications were obtained with ClassyFire Batch
664 (<https://cfb.fiehnlab.ucdavis.edu/>).

665

666 ***MS/MS molecular networking***

667 MS-FINDER v3.44 (Tsugawa et al., 2016) was used to perform molecular
668 networking using the filtered mgf files, with the following parameters: Mass tolerance 0.01,
669 Relative abundance cutoff 5%, MS/MS similarity cutoff 70%, RT tolerance 100. The
670 Superclass of each peak, as well as the conditions each peak was identified as
671 Differentially Abundant in, were added to the node file. The edge file and this augmented
672 node file were imported into Cytoscape v.3.8.0 (Su et al., 2014) for figure generation using
673 the Prefuse Force Directed Layout.

674

675 ***Estimating information theoretic measures***

676 The following information theoretic metrics were calculated for our dataset as
677 described previously (Li et al., 2020): H_j (the Shannon entropy/Metabolomic profile
678 diversity), S_i (Metabolomic specificity), and δ_j (Metabolome specialization index). The

679 Relative Distance Plasticity Index (RDPI), as calculated for all peaks in each stress
680 condition, was also determined as described previously (Valladares et al., 2006). The
681 RDPI calculation was applied to the entire metabolome, and then applied separately to
682 each compound class (for compound classes with at least five peaks classified into them).

683 The RDPI formula was amended in order to determine if a class is up- or down-
684 accumulating under a stress. Briefly, for each condition-control pair of samples, a
685 distribution of the abundance changes of all peaks was made, and the mean change in
686 peak abundance was calculated per class. Let $d_{ij \rightarrow i'j'}$ represent the peak area changes to
687 all peaks i common to a condition-control pair ($j \rightarrow j'$). The mean value of the peak area
688 change for each compound class was computed as $\sum(d_{ij \rightarrow i'j'}) / n$, where n is the
689 number of peaks per class. For each condition, these per-class mean values were
690 compared to the overall distribution of $d_{ij \rightarrow i'j'}$ across all metabolite peaks to determine the
691 percentile of the per-class value with respect to the peak area changes of all compared
692 metabolites. For the purposes of plotting in Fig. 4, the classes with percentiles >70 (large
693 average increase in abundance) or <30 (large average decrease in abundance) and at
694 least five members were identified, and up to five classes with the highest/lowest
695 percentiles were plotted.

696

697 **Weighted Correlation Network Analysis Construction and Module Analysis**

698 Using the Weighted Correlation Network Analysis (WGCNA) R package
699 (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008), an unsigned adjacency network was made from the
700 normalized area of all fragmented peaks. The soft powers were 129 and 131 in positive
701 mode and negative mode, as these were the lowest values achieving a R^2 of at least 0.8.
702 Hierarchical clustering via the `hclust` function was performed using method = "average".
703 The minimum module size was 10. All peaks that failed to be assigned to a module were
704 discarded, and the remaining peaks were re-clustered into a dendrogram, and visualized
705 alongside their Topography Overlap Matrix. The CANOPUS class of all peaks in each
706 significant module was determined. Each class (except "None") was analyzed for
707 enrichment in a particular module if there were at least 5 members in the module.
708 Enrichment was calculated using a Fisher's exact test with all fragmented peaks as the
709 background population.

710

711 **Visualizing CANOPUS Class Abundance on the BAR Platform**

712 Briefly, an input image was generated representing the experiments described in this
713 paper. The eFP Browser code (Winter et al., 2007) was then modified in several ways to
714 be able to display CANOPUS data. First, the color scheme was modified from the default
715 yellow-red color scheme of the original eFP Browser, to make a visual distinction between
716 the metabolite data being displayed in the modified version and transcript data displayed
717 in the original browser. Second, because CANOPUS data have a lower dispersion, we
718 introduced a possibility of setting a minimum value for the color scale other than zero.
719 Last, CANOPUS classes with at least five members in both Positive *and* Negative

720 ionization modes were included in this eFP browser, and were databased in such a way
721 that the data from the two modes could be retrieved separately. CANOPUS data may be
722 freely explored at [https://bar.utoronto.ca/efp_brachypodium_metabolites/cgi-](https://bar.utoronto.ca/efp_brachypodium_metabolites/cgi-bin/efpWeb.cgi)
723 [bin/efpWeb.cgi](https://bar.utoronto.ca/efp_brachypodium_metabolites/cgi-bin/efpWeb.cgi).

724

725 **Data availability**

726 The LC-MS/MS data is deposited on the GNPS website with the accession ID
727 MSV000089340. All code developed for analyses is available on the GitHub repository
728 (https://github.com/lizmahood/brachy_metabolomics) also forked on the moghelab
729 GitHub page.

730

731 **Author contributions:**

732 Conceived the study: GDM, MJH, OKV, NJP

733 Planned experiments: Authors that conceived the study plus EHM, AAB, LHK, AB, MRI,
734 YJ, VL

735 Performed experiments: EHM, AAB, KK, LHK, BPB, KBL, AB, MRI, YJ, VL

736 Wrote the manuscript: EHM, NJP, GDM

737 Reviewed the manuscript: All authors

738

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757

758 **Conflicts of Interest**

759 No conflicts of interest exist.

760

761

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Figure 1

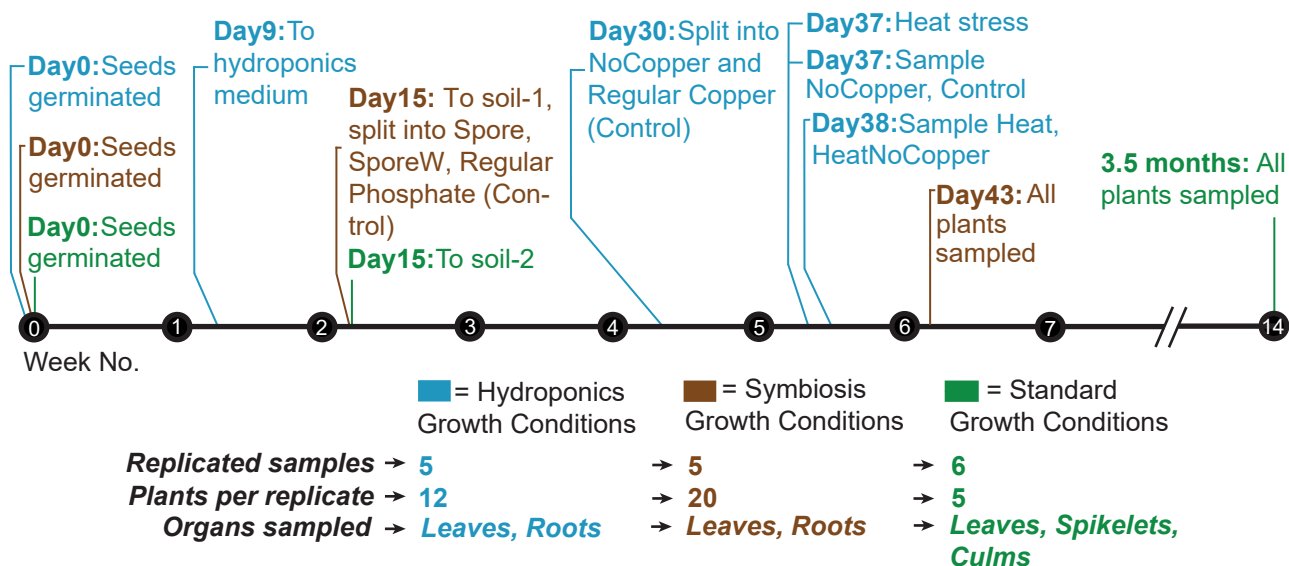


Figure 1: Timeline and Schematic of the Experimental Design. The number of samples, plants per replicate, and organs sampled for each set of growth conditions is shown, along with the timeline of important events such as treatment induction and harvesting. Divergent growth and stress conditions were chosen to induce variability in metabolic profiles. Days are counted post germination. Soil-1 and soil-2 refer to different soil mixes. The germination protocol for Hydroponics seeds was distinct from the germination protocol for the other growth conditions (see Supplemental Methods).

Figure 2

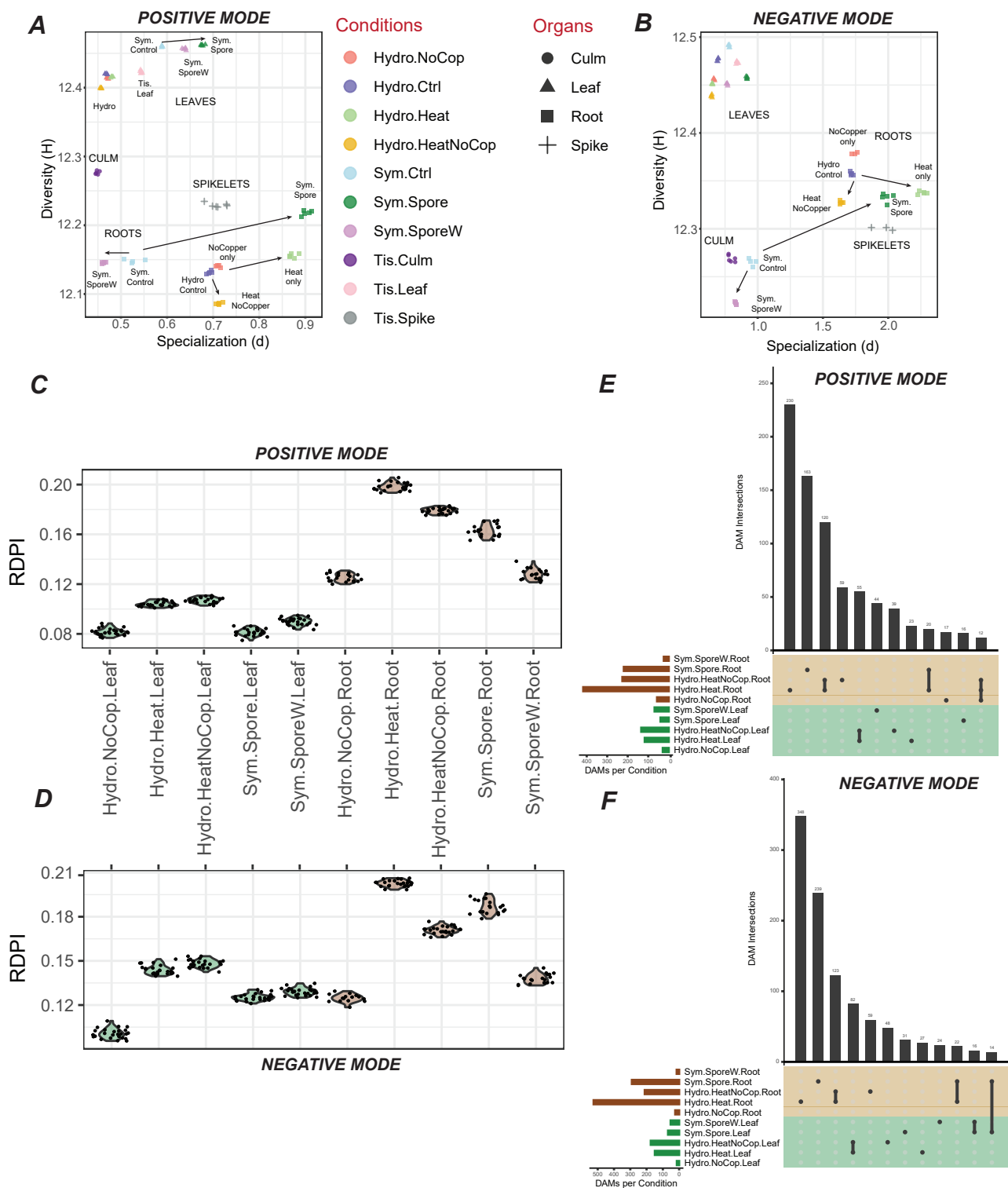


Figure 2: Comparison of metabolomic perturbations among conditions. (A), (B) Diversity vs. Specialization per condition, with organs depicted as different shapes and conditions as different colors. Annotations are added onto these plots for ease of interpretation. (C), (D) RDPI per stress condition. (E), (F) Upset plots of Differentially Abundant Peaks (DAP) per stress condition, inclusive of up- and down-accumulated peaks. Intersections (vertical bars) depict the number of DAPs in common to sets of conditions. Only sets with at least 10 peaks are shown. (A), (C), (E) positive mode (B), (D), (F) negative mode.

Figure 3

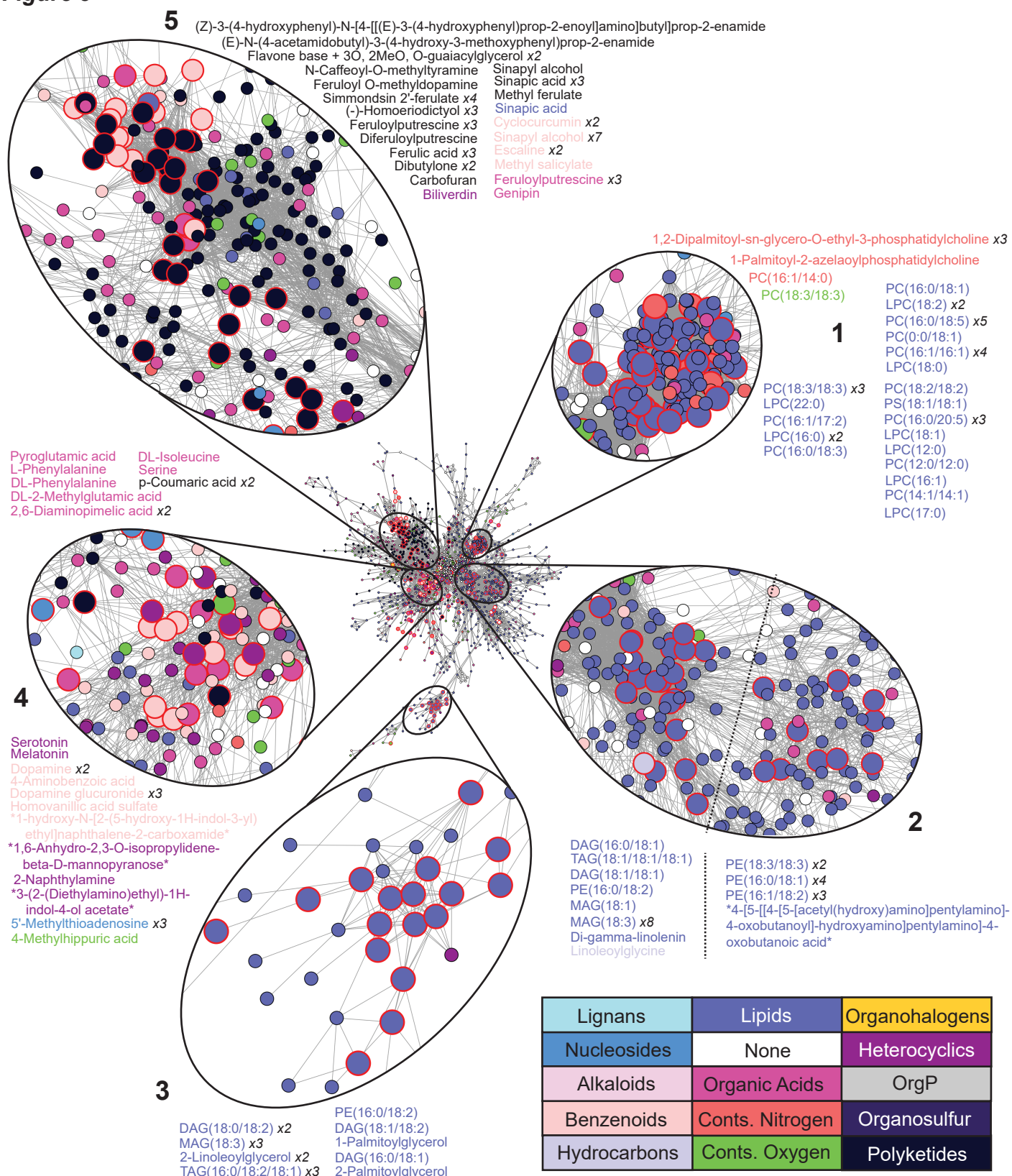


Figure 3: Molecular Networking of peaks in positive mode. Network nodes represent peaks detected in positive mode (in any condition/organ), and edges connect nodes that have a pairwise cosine score of >70. Large nodes with a red border signify identified peaks. Nodes and identifications (text) are colored with their CANOPUS-annotated Superclass. The number of times each identification occurs in a sub-network is indicated in italics. Asterisks (*) denote an identification spanning multiple lines. The dashed line in subnetwork 2 separates the majority-Glycerolipid section of the subnetwork from the majority-Phosphoethanolamine section. PC = Phosphocholine, L = Lyso, DAG = Diacylglycerol, TAG = Triacylglycerol, PE = Phosphoethanolamine, MAG = Monoacylglycerol.

Figure 4

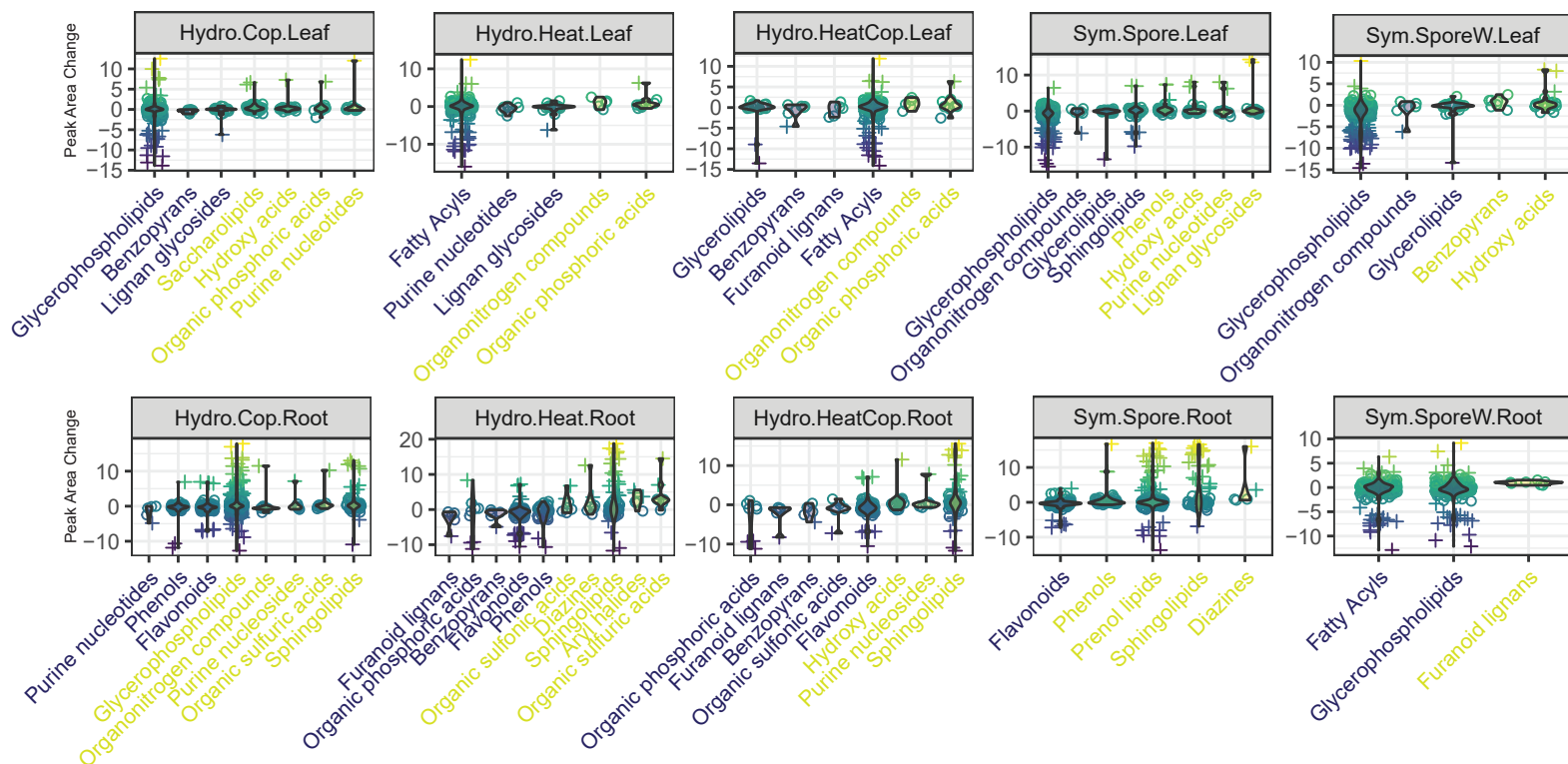
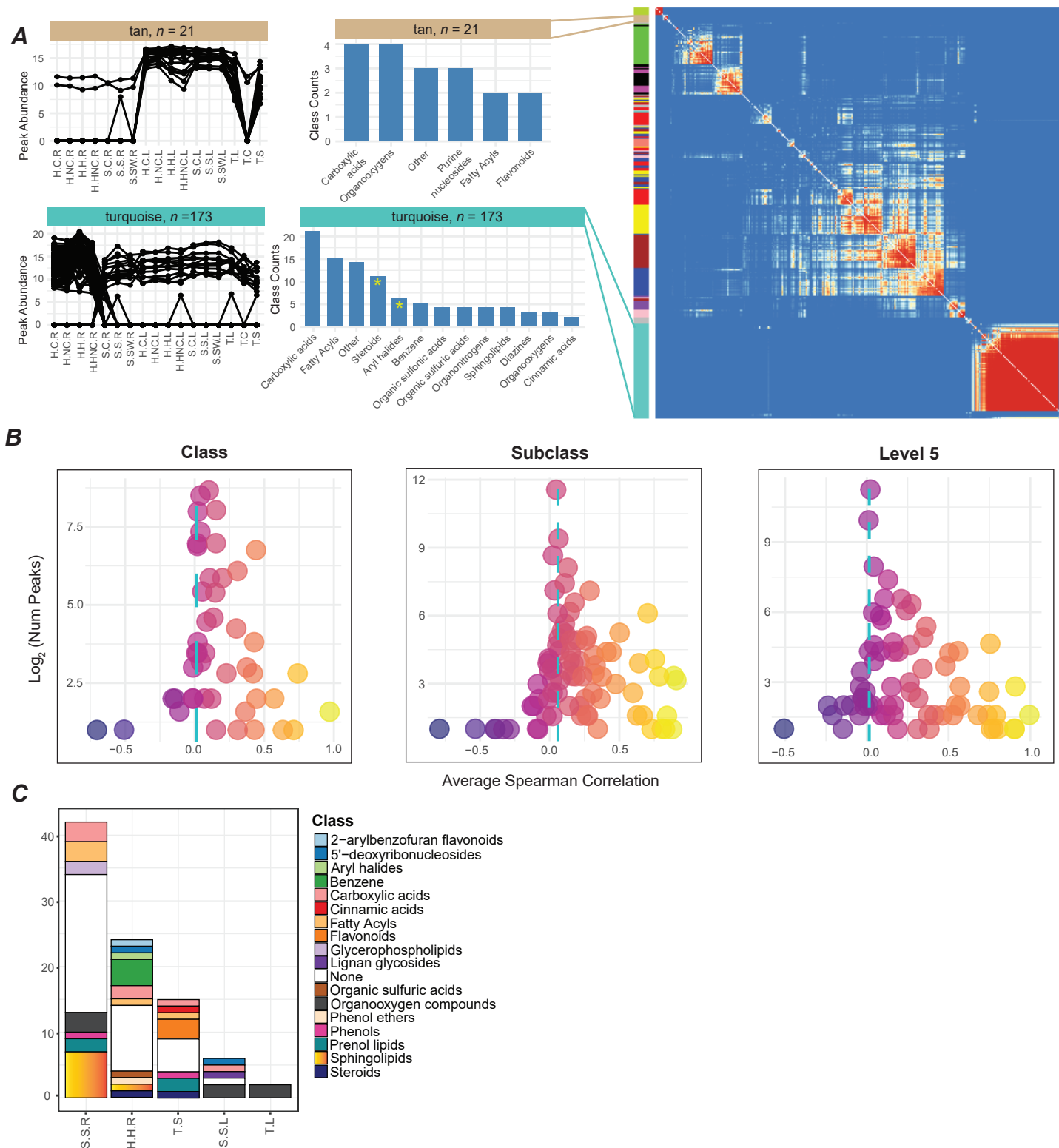


Figure 4: Charting Stress-Induced Shifts of Molecular Classes, Negative Mode. (A)

Abundance changes of peaks in response to stress. Each stress depicts Classes that were the most accumulated (Class name in yellow) or diminished (Class name in purple), on average. For a Class to be plotted, its average value must be greater than the 70th percentile or lower than the 30th percentile of all stress-induced peak area changes. Individual metabolites are plotted as circles, outliers are shown as +.

Figure 5

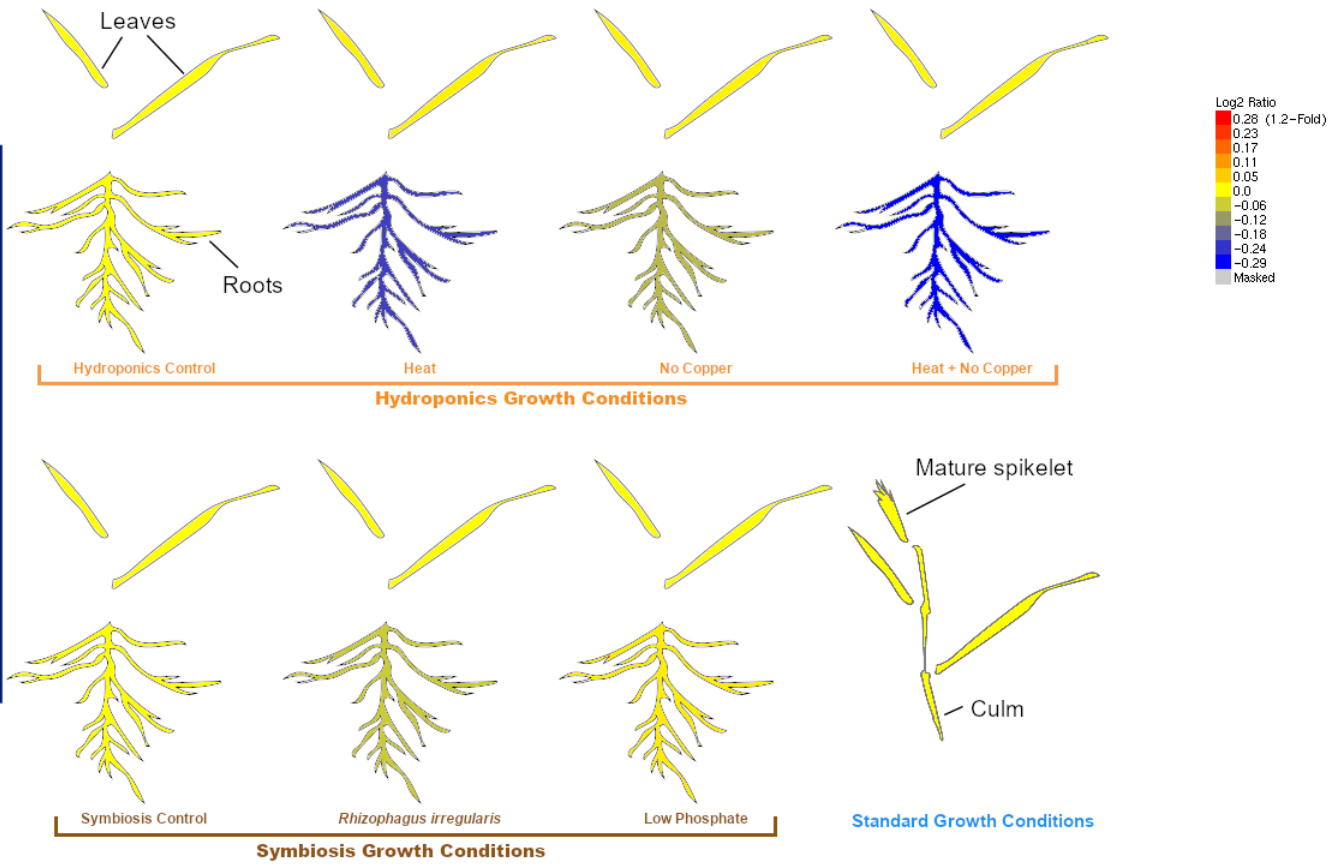


Flavonoids

Brachypodium Metabolite eFP Browser

Figure 6

Positive Mode



Negative Mode

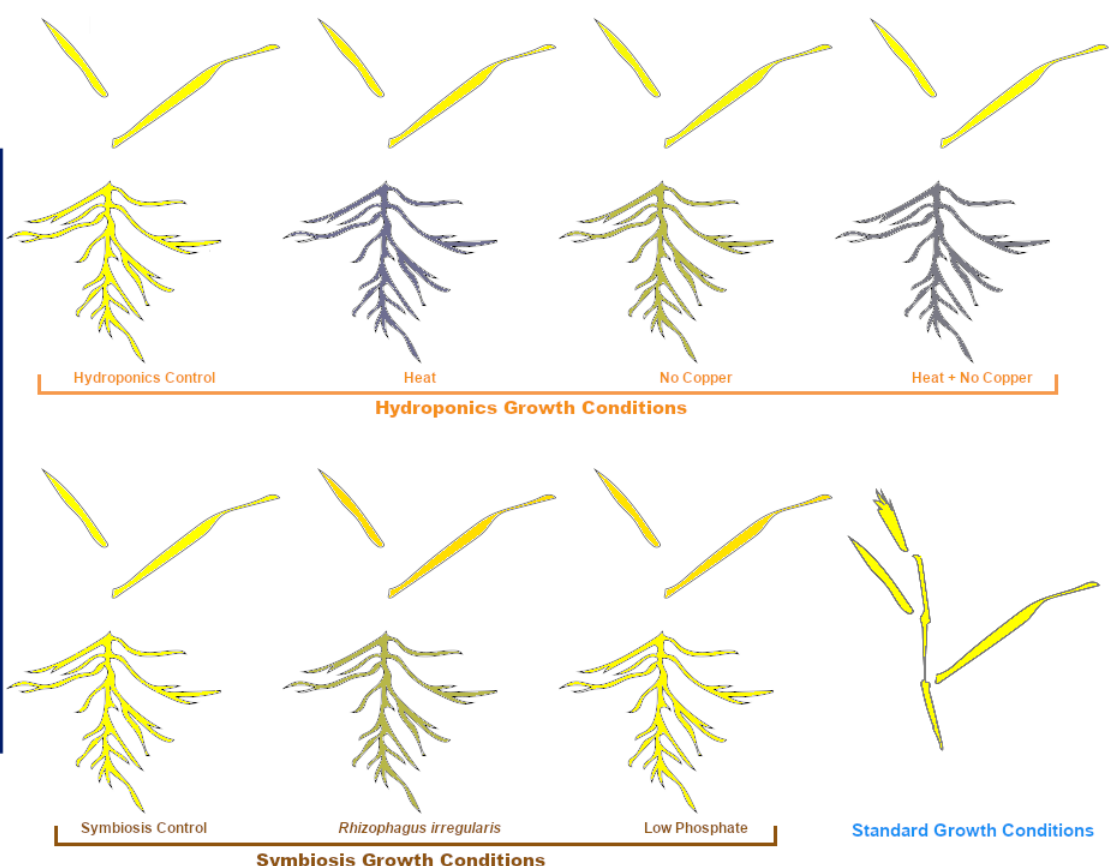


Figure 6: Visualizing Stress-induced Changes in Class Abundance. In Relative mode of the eFP browser (shown here for Flavonoids), the Log₂ Fold Changes in average Class abundance are plotted between a condition and its control. The consistent decreases among stressed roots are again seen.