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Bioenergetic mapping of 'healthy microbiomes' via compound processing potential imprinted in gut and soil metagenomes

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Abstract

Microbiomes are critical to the health and functioning of humans and ecosystems. Defining 'healthy

microbiomes', however, remains elusive. More advanced knowledge exists on health associations for the

compounds used or produced by microbes. Because microbes, their feedstocks and micro-environments

interact synchronously, using functional genes to facilitate chemical transformations, this presents an

intriguing opportunity to examine microbiomes through their potential to process compounds associated

with human health. There is also growing interest in environmental microbiota that might be efficient at

processing health-associated compounds because these microbes may readily transfer to humans and

environmental interventions could modulate our exposure to them. Here we propose a bioenergetic

mapping approach to microbiome assessments that examines the compound processing potential

imprinted in human gut and environmental soil metagenomes. From shotgun metagenomics functional

profiling, we derive quantitative measures of compound processing potential for human health-associated

compound classes (e.g., lipids, carbohydrates) and selected biomolecules of interest (e.g., vitamins,

short-chain fatty acids). We mapped microbial functions to compounds using the complexity-reducing van

Krevelen bioenergetic mapping framework, based on carbon-hydrogen-oxygen stoichiometry and

principal axes that explain variation in microbial distribution and chemical speciation. We found

differences in compound processing potential within gut metagenomes comparing health- and disease-

associated samples, including atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, colorectal cancer, type 2 diabetes

and anxious-depressive behaviors. Patterns of compound processing potential in soil metagenomes were

linked with ecosystem maturity. Assessment of compound processing potential offers a new lens to

explore mechanisms of microbiome-mediated human health including connections to health-promoting

environmental microbiomes.

Significance Statement

Despite mounting evidence of their importance, the definition and measurement of 'healthy microbiomes'

remain unclear. Knowledge gaps hinder development of microbiota-oriented approaches in human health,

including potential for environmental interventions. By integrating interdisciplinary knowledge frameworks

including functional genomics and biochemistry, we derive summary measures of potential for human gut

and environmental soil metagenomes to process major compound classes and biomolecules linked to

human health. Measures of compound processing potential were linked with states of human health and

disease; and displayed seemingly predictable shifts along gradients of ecological disturbance in plant-soil

systems. Compound processing potential offers a simplifying approach for applying powerful and

otherwise complex metagenomics in ongoing efforts to understand and quantify the role of microbiota in

human- and environmental-health.

Main Text

Introduction

Microbial communities (microbiota), their feedstocks (substrates, nutrients) and environmental conditions

(e.g., pH, redox potential, temperature, moisture, salinity) work in concert to drive microbially-mediated

reactions essential to fueling life on Earth (1). Microbiomes (i.e., microbiota, genetic material and

metabolites) are intimately linked to human health and disease (2-4), as well as the functioning of

ecosystems (5, 6). Microbial functional capacity supports the transformation and exchange of chemicals,

molecules, and energy, benefiting microbiota members, host organisms, and wider ecological networks

(1, 5, 7, 8). Many microbes are often highly specialized and efficient at performing a particular suite of

reactions. Accordingly, microbiota are shaped by the resources they utilize and the environments they

inhabit (3, 9).

Microbes typically operate as a community (10) where many taxa lack the functional capacity for

stand-alone survival (11). Complex cross-feeding and resource sharing in the extracellular space (7)

suggest that community-scale functional profiles (rather than specific microbial taxa) underpin the health-

supporting capacity of microbiota. However, community-scale complexity has hindered progress towards

clear definitions of a 'healthy microbiome' (12). Nevertheless, researchers want to better understand the

assembly and structure of health-promoting microbiomes to improve the course of microbiome-associated

diseases. Disease-associated microbiota are often characterized by a loss of diversity and dominance by

opportunistic pathogens (4, 13), but it may be unclear whether they represent facilitators or followers of

disease. In contrast to direct microbiota-health links, our knowledge of health associations for various

biomolecules and other chemical compounds (linked to microbiomes) is comparatively well advanced.

Because microbiota-mediated reactions fundamentally involve transformations between different

chemical compounds, this creates the intriguing possibility of examining microbiomes through their

potential to process (i.e., convert or produce) compounds associated with human health.

Additionally, the involvement of environmental microbiomes in processing human health-

associated compounds is of interest. Transfer of environmental microbiota to humans may help

supplement important functional capacity, protective microbiota, and immune-signaling agents,

particularly in infants, but also in adults who have depleted microbiota due to antibiotic use, poor diet,

lifestyle or other health incidents (14, 15). If the functional composition of microbiota varies predictably

along environmental gradients, then through design, management, and behavior we should be able to

modulate our exposure to health-promoting versus disease-associated microbes. Soils, in particular, can

represent a rich source of microbial diversity with potential to support human health (16). Microbiota in

plant-soil systems are shaped by macro-scale factors including climate, soil characteristics, vegetation

composition, diversity, land use and management (9, 17). With the prospect of cost-effectively

encouraging health-promoting microbes, it is frequently asked, "What type of environment is best?" Yet,

the attributes of health-promoting environmental microbiomes, including potential functional overlaps with

human microbiomes, remain understudied.

Many microbiome-associated diseases are linked to bioenergetic mechanisms (7), with oxidation-

reduction (redox) potential recognized as a key factor shaping microbial communities. The healthy

anaerobic gut favours obligate anaerobes, whereas dysbiosis is often accompanied by increased

oxygenation of the colonic epithelium and expansion of oxygen-tolerant facultative anaerobic bacteria (18,

19). Oxygen is a highly electronegative element important in shaping electrochemical gradients,

biochemical reactions, and gene expression (20). Oxygen content varies in different types of organic

matter (i.e., microbial feedstocks). Yet, the interrelationship between bioenergetic drivers, compounds,

microbial environments and microbiota development receives little attention. In soils, redox potential

varies with weather, vegetation, land use, management, drainage, organic-content, vicinity to roots, soil

characteristics, and microbial activity (21, 22). At the molecular level, redox potential shapes what kind of

molecules can be made and how energy is stored. Therefore, a compound-oriented examination of

healthy microbiomes might capitalize on available knowledge linking compounds with human health,

while also considering deterministic influences of bioenergetic (or electrochemical) energy gradients.

For example, in gut microbiome bioenergetics and chronic metabolic diseases, Daisley, *et al.* (7;

their Figs. 3-4) highlight key human health-associated biomolecules found within extracellular resources

shared by microbes. Short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) acetate, propionate, and butyrate benefit host

metabolism, intestinal barrier function, systemic anti-inflammatory effects, and contribute up to 10% of

daily energy requirements (23). B group vitamins: riboflavin (B2), cobalamin (B12), pyridoxal 5'-phosphate

(B6), and folate (B9) are critical in electron transport and represent precursors to a variety of enzyme

cofactors essential to the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, fatty acid oxidation, and other metabolic

pathways (7). Menaquinone (Vitamin K2) is a critical electron carrier in bacteria and considered essential

in humans for calcium regulation (7). Other keystone health-linked biomolecules include glutamate and

pyruvate. Glutamate is the major excitatory neurotransmitter of the healthy mammalian brain, and an

abundant free amino acid important in multiple metabolic pathways, which requires regulation at optimal

levels in extracellular fluids (24). Glutamate is sensed luminally in the intestinal mucosa, triggering vagus

nerve (gut-brain axis) activity (25). Pyruvate is a critical intermediate involved in human energy

metabolism, where dysregulation is associated with cancer, heart failure, and neurodegeneration (26).

Here, we examine the functional potential of gut and soil microbiota from a compound processing

potential (CPP) viewpoint, to assess patterns in human health and disease, and with gradients of

ecosystem maturity. Such an approach might discern health- versus disease-promoting microbiotas from

the types of biochemical compounds they are attuned to consuming or producing (reflecting microbial

feedstocks and metabolites respectively). Previous metabolome prediction frameworks (e.g., 27, 28-30)

rely variously on supplementary metabolome training datasets, microorganism-specific genome-scale

metabolic models, taxonomic abundance estimates, and modeled or assumed environmental conditions

(e.g., human gut). In this work, we wanted to exploit community-scale compound-oriented information that

might be embedded within metagenomes (regardless of taxa present). As functional potential profiling

from whole genome sequencing (or shotgun metagenomics) does not directly measure functions

performed, we characterized microbiota-linked CPP from DNA sequencing, without direct measurement

of compounds. We premised that the ease of transformation between health-associated compounds and

other compounds that closely resemble them will depend on stoichiometric and energetic similarities,

microbiota functional diversity, and environmental conditions.

We utilized a framework that integrates information about compounds, bioenergetics, and

environmental conditions. The complexity-reducing van Krevelen (vK) coordinate space offers a simplified

and intuitive bioenergetic framework for approximate mapping of compounds based on their carbon (C),

oxygen (O) and hydrogen (H) content, while also reflecting energy density and principal axes that explain

microbial distribution and chemical speciation (Fig. 1; SI Appendix, Fig. S1) (31, 32). Compounds are

mapped into vK space using their O:C and H:C molar ratios (x- and y-axis respectively). We surmised this

framework could offer an exhaustive and intuitive mapping space to summarize the nature of microbiota-

mediated functional reactions in a way that reflects mean or dominant compound properties, reaction

stoichiometries, and potential overlaps between dietary or environmental substrates, and key health-

associated biomolecules.

Specifically, we combined SUPER-FOCUS functional profiling (33), the comprehensive

ModelSEED (34) functional-biochemistry database system and vK coordinate mapping to assign

functional potential relative abundances from human gut and soil sample metagenomes to overall mean

reaction-level vK coordinates. This approach effectively mapped every SUPER-FOCUS function (where

feasible via available corresponding database information) to an abundance-weighted mean proxy

chemical compound (or reaction-level 'meta-compound') represented in the two-dimensional vK space (SI

Appendix, Fig. S2). Limitations to this simplified representation of functional profiles are discussed below.

We aimed to: 1) investigate measures of microbiota CPP imprinted in human gut and soil metagenomes;

and 2) test for differences in human health and disease, and in disturbed, restored and natural

ecosystems. We hypothesized this bioenergetic mapping approach might identify CPP profiles, and

overlaps in human and environmental datasets, that could inform the definition and future shaping of

'healthy microbiomes'. We were also keen to explore whether CPP measures might enhance the

interpretability and accessibility of metagenomics data to aid hypothesis building and prioritizing future

research.

Fig. 1. Van Krevelen (vK) coordinate space (adapted from 31), displaying major compound classes

(purple zones and text), key gradients (grey axes and text), focus biomolecules examined in this study

(large dots), and additional example health-associated biomolecules, dietary or environmental substrates

(legend). vK zones were adapted from (32) (see SI Appendix, Tables S1, S2). Key gradients include

oxidation-reduction (x-axis), hydrogenation-dehydrogenation (y-axis), hydration-condensation (top-right to

bottom-left), methylation-demethylation (top-left to bottom-right) and increasing energy content (towards

top-left).

Results

We developed compound processing potential metrics to assess four human health and disease

datasets, comprising atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ACVD)(35), colorectal cancer (36), type 2

diabetes (T2D)(37) and problem (anxious-depressive) behaviors in children (38); and three environmental

soil datasets from ecological restoration and disturbed versus natural plant-soil systems (39-41) (Table 1).

Four CPP metrics were evaluated (Fig. 2; detailed in Methods): 1) CPP_{class} values summed functional

relative abundances mapping to major compound classes (Fig. 1); 2) CPP_{ASALR}: noting high variability in

CPP_{class} values across case studies, we implemented a first-pass normalization aiming to account for

microbial activity levels, based on CPP_{class} abundances assigned to amino sugars (42), here termed

amino sugar adjusted log ratio (ASALR) data; 3) $CPP_{density}$ captured the density of functional relative

abundances in close radial proximity to focus biomolecules (Fig. 1); and 4) compound-associated vK

coordinates: these data underpin the above measures (i.e., aggregated within major classes, or within

close radii of biomolecules) but were also used to consolidate functions with shared vK coordinates for

supplementary analyses in selected case studies described below (i.e., differential abundance, correlation

networks, and calculating weighted mean vK coordinates within major compound classes). We

successfully mapped most SUPER-FOCUS functional relative abundances to vK coordinates (sample

ranges 52-84%, means 55-67%; Table 1; SI Appendix Table S3).

Human health and disease. In overview, gut metagenome CPP_{class} (SI Appendix, Figs. S4, S7, S11,

S17, Table S3) and $CPP_{density}$ (SI Appendix, Figs. S5-S6, S8-S9, S12-S13, S18-S19, Table S4) data

produced strong associations in ACVD and colorectal cancer compared to normal subjects (detailed

below). Many patterns observed in CPP_{class} data were reinforced in the putative activity-normalized

CPP_{ASALR} measures (Fig. 3; SI Appendix Table S5), and this transformed data format showed stabilized

variance across case study datasets. Interestingly, across all CPP_{class}, $CPP_{density}$, and CPP_{ASALR}

measurements, when associations were found in both sexes they were always in the same direction (SI

Appendix Tables S3-5). In the T2D (female only) and problem behavior case studies, we observed far

fewer relationships in the coarse CPP_{class}, CPP_{ASALR} or biomolecule-focused $CPP_{density}$ data. Therefore,

we pursued network analyses and differential abundance analyses respectively in these case studies, as

illustrative examples of more detailed supplementary analyses. Weighted mean vK-coordinate analyses

produced striking associations in ACVD (Fig. 4; SI Appendix, Tables S6-S7), but weaker effects in other

case studies (SI Appendix, Figs. S10, S14, S20, Tables S8-S12). The statistical test results described

below are detailed in the SI Appendix Tables.

Fig. 2. Flow chart of compound processing potential (CPP) analyses.

Table 1. Description of case study metagenome datasets (further detail in SI Appendix, Supporting
Information).

Case study focus	Main comparison variable or diagnosis groups (and sample/subject numbers*)	Metagenome functional profile characteristics (sample mean ± s.d.)[†]	Source data reference; Country of origin
Human gut			
Atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ACVD)	ACVD (n_F = 53, n_M = 157) or normal healthy (n_F 101, n_M = 69). Total n = 380.	Functions[0] n = 21,117 (9301 ± 3523) Functions[1] n = 10,829 (5051 ± 1843) Total fxn rel abun[1] = 63.2 ± 3.5 % vK coordinates n = 2535 (1509 ± 502)	(35, SRA accession PRJEB21528); China
Colorectal cancer	Colorectal cancer (n_F = 24, n_M = 29) or normal healthy (n_F = 33, n_M = 27). Total n = 113.	Functions[0] n = 12,896 (2809 ± 1924) Functions[1] n = 6932 (1750 ± 1117) Total fxn rel abun[1] = 66.7 ± 2.7 % vK coordinates n = 1954 (711 ± 362)	(36, SRA accession PRJEB6070); France
Type 2 diabetes (T2D) and impaired glucose tolerance (IGT)	T2D with no Metformin treatment (T2D Met-, n = 33), T2D with Metformin (T2D Met+, n = 20), IGT (n = 49), or normal healthy (n = 43). Subjects are females only. Total n = 145.	Functions[0] n = 19,099 (9916 ± 2393) Functions[1] n = 9916 (4490 ± 874) Total fxn rel abun[1] = 64.4 ± 2.2 % vK coordinates n = 2393 (1431 ± 202)	(37, SRA accession PRJEB1786); Sweden
Problem behaviors in children	First principal component (PC1) of anxious-depressive problem behaviors, examined as either numeric scores (n_F = 20, n_M = 17); or high/low PC1 groups[‡] (high PC1 n_F = 10, n_M = 8; Low PC1 n_F = 10, n_M = 9). Total n = 37.	Functions[0] n = 20,599 (10282 ± 2481) Functions[1] n = 10,322 (5507 ± 1224) Total fxn rel abun[1] = 54.9 ± 1.3 % vK coordinates n = 2459 (1645 ± 281)	(38, SRA accession PRJNA496479); United States
Soils			
People Cities and Nature (PCaN) forest ecosystem restoration	Soil samples spanned young to old revegetation age, and remnant sites (treated as ordinal variables). Data were separated into pH-based groups: strongly acidic (pH < 4.5, 10-40 yr old, remnant, n = 8); and acidic-neutral soils (4.5 < pH < 7, 11-48 yr old, n = 10). Total n = 18.	Functions[0] n = 36,324 (27,969 ± 1011) Functions[1] n = 18,197 (14,690 ± 396) Total fxn rel abun[1] = 61.7 ± 0.3 % vK coordinates n = 3302 (2965 ± 49)	(39, Aotearoa Genomic Data Repository project AGDR00045); Aotearoa New Zealand
Post-mining forest ecosystem restoration	Soil samples spanned revegetation ages of 6, 12, 22, 31 years, and unmined (UM) samples (treated as ordinal variables). Comprising five age-based groups, each with three replicates. Total n = 15.	Functions[0] n = 30,125 (20,328 ± 767) Functions[1] n = 15,576 (11,051 ± 334) Total fxn rel abun[1] = 61.9 ± 0.3 % vK coordinates n = 3076 (2537 ± 54)	(40, MG-RAST project mgp16379); United States
Australian Microbiome Initiative (AMI) disturbed versus natural	Disturbed (n = 29) or natural (n = 55) soils, comprising temperate climate zone, surface (0-10cm) with 7.5–45% clay content (i.e., avoiding very sandy and very clayey soils). Total n = 84.	Functions[0] n = 37,335 (22,959 ± 1172) Functions[1] n = 18,551 (12,212 ± 553) Total fxn rel abun[1] = 60.8 ± 1.0 % vK coordinates n = 3326 (2700 ± 69)	(41, AMI Data Portal [Data accessed Sep 2022])[§]; Australia

187 *F = females, M = males. [†]Number of functions[0] from initial SUPER-FOCUS profiling, versus functions[1]

188 (fxn) with available compound information for mapping to vK coordinates. [‡]PC1 of problem behaviors

189 were analyzed as numeric values for visualizing and assessing CPP_{class} and $CPP_{density}$ data; and high vs.

190 low PC1 groups for CPP_{ASALR} data. High PC1 values represent more problematic behavior. [§]AMI Data

191 portal URL: https://data.bioplatforms.com/organization/australian-microbiome.

Fig. 3. Amino sugar-adjusted log ratio compound processing potential (CPP$_{ASALR}$), representing putative
microbiota activity-normalized values, in normal healthy and diseased female (F) and male (M) subjects
for atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ACVD), colorectal cancer, type 2 diabetes (T2D) with and
without Metformin treatment (met +/-), impaired glucose tolerance (IGT), and high and low first principal
component (PC1) problem behavior values. For visualization purposes outlying values are not shown.
However, statistical tests were based on all data (SI Appendix Table S5). Sample sizes are detailed in
Table 1. Tests for differences are performed within a single sex. In T2D data, groups not sharing a letter
are different.

Fig. 4. Weighted mean vK coordinates within compound classes in ACVD and normal subjects in (a)

females (ACVD n = 53, normal n = 101), and (b) males (ACVD n = 157, normal n = 69). PERMANOVA

and beta-dispersion results are in SI Appendix Tables S6-7. Contour lines indicate the probability density

of data points (SI Appendix Supporting Information).

ACVD associated with CPP_{class} values, compared to normal subjects, in the form of increased

potential metabolism of lipids (in females – F, and in males – M), proteins (M), condensed aromatics (F,

M) lignin (F, M), tannins (M), other hydrated compounds (F, M), other demethylated compounds (M), and

near vitamin K2-vitamin B12 compounds (F); contrasting with decreased potential metabolism of

carbohydrates (F, M) and other condensed compounds (M). Despite all samples initially summing to

100% total functional relative abundances, there was less complete conversion to identifiable reactions

and total sum CPP_{class} data in females only for ACVD compared to normal cases. Many of these patterns

were reinforced in the CPP_{ASALR} data, with ACVD notably associated in both sexes with increased

potential metabolism of lipids, condensed aromatics, lignin, and other hydrated compounds; but

decreased potential metabolism of carbohydrates. For $CPP_{density}$ measures within 0.05 vK unit radii,

ACVD associated with increased potential metabolism of propionate (F), vitamin B12 (F), vitamin B6 (M),

vitamin B9 (F, M), vitamin K2 (F, M) and pyruvate (M); but decreased potential metabolism of acetate (M)

and glutamate (F, M).

Colorectal cancer also associated prominently with CPP_{class} values, specifically increased

potential metabolism of lipids (M), amino sugars (F, M), condensed aromatics (M), lignin (M), other

condensed compounds (F, M) and near vitamin K2-vitamin B12 compounds (M); but decreased potential

metabolism of proteins (F, M) and tannins (F, M). Total sum CPP_{class} data were reduced in male colorectal

cancer cases compared to normal. CPP_{ASALR} values in colorectal cancer subjects of both sexes were

associated with decreased potential metabolism of proteins, lignin, tannins, and other demethylated

compounds. For $CPP_{density}$ measures within 0.05 vK unit radii, colorectal cancer associated with increased

potential metabolism of vitamin B2 (M), vitamin B12 (F, M), vitamin B9 (F, M), and pyruvate (M). Weighted

mean vK-coordinates varied between colorectal cancer and normal subjects with different centroids in

condensed aromatics (F), lignin (M), and tannins (M); and different beta-dispersion or spread in proteins

(F, M) and condensed aromatics (F, M).

In the female-only T2D case study results, we found CPP_{class} values decreased for other

methylated compounds in IGT compared to normal subjects and decreased for near vitamin K2-vitamin

B12 compounds in IGT compared to normal, with a reduced total sum CPP_{class} in normal compared to

other subjects. No associations were found with $CPP_{density}$ values. CPP_{ASALR} values were decreased for

near vitamin K2-vitamin B12 compounds in IGT compared to normal and T2D Met+ subjects. From

analysis of weighted mean vK-coordinates among diagnosis groups, a difference in centroids was found

only in the compound class of proteins. With such weak results, further investigation was performed via

network analysis (SI Appendix Supporting Information) on 20 subjects in each diagnosis group based on

inferred correlations between functional relative abundances mapped to unique vK-coordinates. Network

analyses were based on commonly observed vK coordinates (present in at least 60% of samples and

minimum 2% sum functional relative abundance across samples). Network diagrams (Fig. 5) and

structure dendograms (SI Appendix, Fig. S15) display a transition in their complexity, number of nodes

and fraction of negative edges (interactions) from simplest in normal and IGT subjects to most complex in

T2D Met+ and T2D Met- subjects. Comparing network characteristics for the four groups (normal, IGT,

T2D Met-, T2D Met+; n = groups of 20) to a bootstrapped (B = 1000) density distribution of randomly

resampled networks (n = 20, drawn from the same pool of 80 subjects) (SI Appendix, Fig. S16, Table

S17) we found normal healthy subjects had the lowest fraction of negative edges and the highest degree

centralization. Untreated disease, T2D Met-, had the lowest closeness centralization (graph-level inverse

of average geodesic distance between nodes); and borderline significant results for the highest fraction of

negative edges (negative correlations between vK-coordinates), lowest betweenness centralization

(graph-level centrality based on broker positions connecting others), and lowest mean distance (average

path length between nodes). In short, normal subjects appear to have far less correlations between vK-

coordinates (fewer nodes / vertices), and for the nodes and links that are present they are largely

positively correlated and highly interlinked. Whereas T2D Met- (untreated disease) is characterized by a

much larger number of negatively correlated vK-coordinate nodes, which on average have shorter links,

and are less well connected-up across the whole network.

Fig. 5. Network diagrams based on commonly observed vK coordinates for female subjects (n = groups of 20) with diagnoses: (a) normal, (b) impaired glucose tolerance (IGT), (c) type 2 diabetes without Metformin (T2D Met-), and (d) type 2 diabetes with Metformin (T2D Met+). Nodes are located according to unique compound-associated vK coordinates, with size reflecting node degree (number of linked significant correlations). Links between nodes display positive (aqua color) and negative (red color) correlations (p ≤ 0.05).

Problem behaviors displayed few significant associations in CPP$_{class}$ values: increasing PC1 of

problem behaviors associated with increased potential metabolism of lipids (M), amino sugars (F), other

demethylated compounds (M), and near vitamin K2-vitamin B12 compounds (F); but decreased potential

metabolism of carbohydrates (M). For CPP$_{density}$ values, patterns were found in males only: increasing

PC1 of problem behaviors associated with increased potential metabolism of vitamin B6 (M) and vitamin

B9 (M); but decreased potential metabolism of acetate (M), vitamin B12 (M) and glutamate (M). For

CPP$_{ASALR}$ values, the comparison was made between groups of high PC1 versus low PC1 of problem

behaviors (for consistent display with other case studies in Fig. 3). High PC1 values associated with

increased potential metabolism of other methylated compounds (F); and decreased potential metabolism

of carbohydrates (M). Weighted mean vK-coordinates between high PC1 and low PC1 of problem

behaviors showed a difference in beta-dispersion within condensed aromatics for females only. To

explore this dataset in more detail, we identified differentially abundant functions and vK-coordinates (i.e.,

aggregated functional relative abundances via bioenergetic mapping) in high PC1 versus low PC1

subjects, separately within each sex. In females, 22 differentially abundant functions, compared to only 2-

vK coordinates (with 3 corresponding functions), were identified (SI Appendix, Figs. S21, S23, Table S18,

S20). In males, 6 functions compared to 2 vK-coordinates (with 8 corresponding functions) were identified

(SI Appendix, Figs. S22, S24, Table S19, S21). Not all functions could be mapped into vK coordinate

space. Interestingly, there was no overlap in functions identified directly versus indirectly (from

aggregation into vK-coordinates). This means that differential abundance analysis using vK-coordinates

can provide entirely different foci for investigation compared to the standard function-level analysis. From

the vK-coordinate level analysis, high PC1 (compared to low PC1) females exhibited increased potential

metabolism of Uridine phosphorylase (EC 2.4.2.3) (fxn_14491) involved in pyrimidine conversions; and

decreased aldehyde lyases dihydroneopterin phosphate phosphatase and dihydroneopterin aldolase (EC

4.1.2.25) (fxn_12938; fxn_12942). High PC1 males exhibited increased phosphoenolpyruvate

carboxykinase (GTP) (EC 4.1.1.32) (fxn_2926) associated with pyruvate metabolism; and also increases

in multiple functions (fxn_821; fxn_2958; fxn_2973; fxn_12703; fxn_12705; fxn_12786; fxn_12788) all

involving alcohol dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.1) and acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (EC 1.2.1.10), with or

without pyruvate-formate-lyase deactivase – involved in degradation of aromatic compounds, biphenyl,

tryptophan, and pyruvate metabolism. Results and visualizations for the standard function-level analysis

are included for comparison but are not discussed further.

Plant-soil systems. We found remarkable consistency in many observed patterns across the

environmental soil case studies. Results reported here are for relative trends with increasing ecosystem

maturity (i.e., older revegetation and natural samples) in CPP_{class} (SI Appendix, Figs. S25, S29, S32,

Table S3), $CPP_{density}$ (SI Appendix, Figs. S26-S27, S30-S31, S33-34, Table S4), and CPP_{ASALR} (Fig. 6; SI

Appendix Table S5). Below, we highlight trends found in at least two of three case studies.

In CPP_{class} data we observed: increased potential metabolism of lipids (post-mining, AMI) and

condensed aromatics (post-mining, AMI); but decreased potential metabolism of proteins (post-mining,

AMI), carbohydrates (post-mining, AMI, with marginal indications in both PCaN soil groups), lignin (post-

mining, AMI), other methylated compounds (post-mining, AMI), and other hydrated compounds (AMI,

PCaN acidic-neutral soils). Mixed or isolated results included potential metabolism: either decreased

(AMI) or increased (PCaN strongly acidic soils) for tannins; decreased for other demethylated compounds

(AMI); increased for other condensed compounds (AMI); and decreased (post-mining, PCaN acidic-

neutral soils) or increased (PCaN strongly acidic soils) for near vitamin K2-vitamin B12 compounds. Total

CPP_{class} compounds appeared to be less well characterized and mapped to functional reactions in AMI

natural compared to disturbed samples, but more well characterized in older revegetation (compared to

younger revegetation) within the PCaN strongly acidic soils.

CPP_{ASALR} results reinforced many patterns observed in the CPP_{class} data: we observed increased

potential metabolism of lipids (post-mining, AMI, marginal in PCaN strongly acidic soils) and condensed

aromatics (post-mining, AMI); but decreased potential metabolism of proteins (AMI, marginal in post-

mining), carbohydrates (post-mining, AMI, PCaN acidic-neutral soils), and other methylated compounds

(post-mining, AMI). Isolated results included, potential metabolism: increased for other condensed

compounds (AMI); but decreased for lignin (AMI), tannins (AMI), other hydrated compounds (AMI), and

other demethylated compounds (AMI). Differing from CPP_{class} results, for CPP_{ASALR} potential metabolism

of near vitamin K2-vitamin B12 compounds increased (post-mining).

$CPP_{density}$ results were also quite consistent across case studies: we observed increased potential

metabolism of vitamin B9 (AMI, marginal in post-mining and PCaN strongly acidic soils) and vitamin K2

(post-mining, AMI, marginal in PCaN strongly acidic); but decreased potential metabolism of acetate

(post-mining, AMI, PCaN acidic-neutral soils), propionate (AMI), vitamin B2 (post-mining, marginal in

PCaN strongly acidic soils), vitamin B12 (post-mining, AMI, PCaN strongly acidic soils), vitamin B6 (post-

mining, AMI), glutamate (post-mining, AMI, PCaN acidic-neutral soils), and pyruvate (AMI). While butyrate

$CPP_{density}$ values were low and indistinguishable across all samples using 0.05 vK unit radial buffers, for

an example comparison we tested near butyrate $CPP_{density}$ using a larger 0.1 vK unit buffer in the AMI

soils and found increased levels in natural compared to disturbed soils (SI Appendix, Fig. S35).

Post-mining and AMI samples displayed significant and mostly consistent directional shifts in

weighted mean vK-coordinate centroids across all compound classes (vK mapping zones) considered,

while PCaN acidic to neutral soils also displayed shifts within carbohydrates and condensed aromatics

(Fig. 7; SI Appendix, Fig. S28, Tables S13-S16). Ecosystem maturity explained 60–92% of the variation

in weighted mean vK-coordinates in post-mining soils (Fig. 7a, SI Appendix Table S15). The following

general patterns emerged with increasing ecosystem maturity: lipids became more reduced (lower

oxygen content), proteins became more hydrated, amino sugars became more dehydrogenated or

condensed, carbohydrates became more condensed (post-mining, PCaN acidic-neutral) or reduced

(AMI), condensed aromatics became more condensed, lignin showed mixed trends (dehydrogenation in

post-mining, reduction in AMI), and tannins became more demethylated. Except for carbohydrates and

amino sugars, these trends largely represented an outward extension of sample profile mapping into vK

coordinate space with older ecosystems.

Fig. 6. Amino sugar-adjusted log ratio compound processing potential (CPP$_{ASALR}$), representing putative

microbiota activity-normalized values, from People Cities and Nature (PCaN), post-mining restoration

soils, and Australian Microbiome Initiative (AMI) disturbed versus natural soils. Linear trends were used

for visualization purposes. However, Kendall's tau correlation tests (suited to ordinal data) were applied.

Sample sizes are detailed in Table 1.

Fig. 7. Weighted-mean van Krevelen coordinates within select compound classes display significant

shifts with maturity of plant-soil ecosystems. Patterns are from (a) post-mining forest ecosystem

restoration soil samples (n = age-based groups of 3), and (b) AMI disturbed (n = 29) vs natural (n = 55)

soil samples (b). PERMANOVA and beta-dispersion results are in SI Appendix, Table S15-S16.

Consistency in bioenergetic 'topography' mapping. $CPP_{density}$ plots visualizing local polynomial

regression fitting ('loess') smoothed vK mapping profiles for increasing radii buffer areas displayed striking

consistency of form within each compound class, with alternative expressions in either gut (SI Appendix,

Figs. S5, S8, S12, S18) or soils (SI Appendix, Figs. S26, S30, S33).

Discussion

This work reveals a meaningful bioenergetic basis to the development and differentiation of community-

scale microbiomes. Our CPP metrics quantified putative shifts in a microbial community's relative

proficiency to process different types of compounds across gradients of human- and environmental-

health. Across the case studies we found significant patterns of CPP association at varying resolutions:

within major classes of compounds, near focus biomolecules, and for unique vK coordinates. In the

environmental soil metagenomes, surprising consistency in CPP profiles suggests they may link to plant-

soil system conditions in coherent and predictable ways. Our findings align with the notion that microbiota

are shaped by the bioenergetic status of prevailing substrates and micro-environments, and this

information is simultaneously recorded in their metagenomes. From a methodological perspective, our

compound-focused bioenergetic mapping approach demonstrates new pathways for assessing and

interpreting microbial systems, capable of supporting ongoing efforts to define healthy microbiomes. For

example, aggregating functions via vK-coordinates can provide entirely different foci for investigation

compared to standard function-level analyses.

Patterns found in human health. We found strong links in both sexes between ACVD and increased

potential metabolism of lipids, condensed aromatics, lignin, other hydrated compounds, vitamin B9 and

vitamin K2; and decreased potential metabolism of carbohydrates and glutamate. Links between high-fat

diets and ACVD are well established (43). Gut microbiota can contribute to ACVD by metabolizing the

dietary lipid phosphatidylcholine, with subsequent production of harmful trimethylamine oxide (44).

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are known risk factors in ACVD (45, 46). Lignin (different to lignan) is a

complex and ubiquitous structural plant polymer, considered predominantly insoluble fiber, with content

ranging from 1-2 g/100g in vegetables, fruits and cereals, up to 30-40 g/100g in nut shells and stone fruit

kernels (47). Lignin inhibits the enzymatic activity of α-glucosidase, delaying carbohydrate digestion and

absorption, with potential for low post-meal blood sugar levels (48). Acute hypoglycemia (low blood

sugar) can trigger cardiac events (49), with greater adverse risks in subjects with significant comorbidities

(e.g., T2D, ACVD). Our finding for decreased carbohydrates in ACVD might align with these impacts on

blood sugar. Alternatively, we speculate that result might be symptomatic of a more Westernized diet

(high in animal protein, sugar, starch, and fat – and lower in carbohydrate content than a plant-rich diet;

44). Excessive vitamin B9 (folate) is associated with ACVD risk via a non-linear u-shaped dose-response

relationship (50). Non-linear u-shaped dose-response relationships are common in biological systems

(i.e., hormesis, deficiency-sufficiency-toxicity) (51). Similarly, our results linking increased vitamin K2 with

ACVD appear contrary to recent opinion (52), although non-linear u-shaped dose-responses have also

been observed (53). Vitamin K2 is commonly found in fermented foods which are less common in

Western diets (54). Here, the ACVD case study was based on Chinese subjects whose diets potentially

contained higher quantities of fermented foods including vitamin K2. Possibly, these subjects were more

susceptible to adverse effects if excessive levels of vitamin K2 were reached. Our results linking reduced

glutamate with ACVD appear contrary to findings from large US cohort studies which found higher

glutamate levels, and lower glutamine:glutamate ratios, correlated with increased ACVD risk (55, 56).

Dietary proteins are a major source of glutamate (57). However, some ethnic populations may have

inadequate protein in their diets (58). Interestingly, in female adults from rural western China with

inadequate (and largely plant-derived) protein intake, increasing animal protein associated with reduced

risk of hypertension (58). Together, these observations suggest that a u-shaped dose-response may also

operate for animal-based proteins, glutamate, and ACVD risk.

In the colorectal cancer subjects (from France) we found consistent associations across CPP

metrics in both sexes with increased potential metabolism of amino sugars, vitamin B12 and B9; and

decreased potential metabolism of proteins and tannins. Colon cancer has been associated with low

dietary fiber, low fruit and vegetable consumption, and high red meat consumption (43). Our results were

consistent with reports for anticancer activity, including protective effects against colorectal cancer, from

some tannins or polyphenols (e.g., components in green and black tea, resveratrol in red wine and

grapes) (59). Unfortunately, our data did not distinguish between animal- and plant-based protein.

However, red meat is widely consumed in France, with 41% of males and 24% of females consuming

above guideline levels (60). Amino sugars are sugar molecules with at least one hydroxyl group

substituted by an amino group. In biological systems, they are formed by catalytic activity acting on amino

acids (glutamate, glutamine – building blocks of protein) to transfer an amino functionality to a sugar

phosphate or sugar nucleotide (61). Therefore, both glucose (sugar) and amino acids contribute to amino

sugar formation. Meanwhile, metabolism of both glucose and amino acids plays a key role in colorectal

cancer development (62). Possibly, our finding of increased potential metabolism of amino sugars with

colorectal cancer may reflect dysregulated activity of glucose and amino acids with the product of their

interaction (amino sugars) recorded by the gut microbiome. Consistent with our findings, vitamin B9

(folate or folic acid) and vitamin B12 supplementation have been associated with increased risk of

colorectal cancer (63).

In the T2D case study, our lack of clear findings linked to major compound classes or focus

biomolecules seems consistent with reports that T2D is a complex, multifaceted, highly heterogeneous

polygenic disease with uncertain etiology (64). We found untreated (Met-) T2D exhibited an anomalous

and complex CPP network, including a high number of negative correlations (indicating negative

feedbacks) ranging widely across vK coordinate space (i.e., covering a spectrum of compounds and

bioenergetic status). Diagnosis of T2D is based on elevated blood glucose, primarily arising from insulin

resistance and inadequate insulin secretion (37). However, a clear diagnostic test for T2D is lacking,

except by exclusion of other causes (64). A range of factors including genetics, dietary habits, sedentary

lifestyle, and gut microbiota are involved in disease development (37). Possibly, with more detailed

examination, diagnostic relationships (e.g., correlations, ratios) might be uncovered in relative abundance

patterns of compound-associated vK-coordinates underpinning the anomalous T2D Met- network.

In the problem behavior case study, different compound associations were observed in female

and male children. Increased problem behavior (higher PC1) in females associated with increased

potential metabolism of amino sugars, other methylated compounds, and near vitamin K2-vitamin B12

compounds. From differential abundance analysis, high PC1 females exhibited decreased

dihydroneopterin aldolase—an enzyme involved in converting dihydroneopterin (a molecule involved in

folate biosynthesis) into other compounds (65). Excessive serum levels of dihydroneopterin have been

associated with major depression (66). Possibly, in case study subjects, reduced levels of

dihydroneopterin-degrading enzyme have promoted accumulation of dihydroneopterin in association with

problem behaviors. High PC1 females also exhibited increased uridine phosphorylase, an enzyme

involved in pyrimidine metabolism that converts uridine to uracil (67), therefore possibly degrading uridine

levels in those subjects. Uridine is linked to energy metabolism and glutamate-mediated excitatory

neurotransmission in the brain, and supplemental uridine treatments have been used to reduce

depressive symptoms in adolescents (68). In males, increased PC1 associated with increased potential

metabolism of lipids, vitamins B6 and B9; and decreased potential metabolism of carbohydrates, acetate,

vitamin B12, and glutamate. Vitamins B12 (cobalamin) and B9 (folate) are recognized precursors involved

in forming key neurotransmitters dopamine, noradrenaline (norepinephrine), and serotonin (69). These

three neurotransmitters occur in the vicinity of vitamin B12 and K2 in vK coordinate space. Vitamin B12

deficiency has been associated with depressive disorders in older subjects (70). Glutamate's role as a

key neurotransmitter is described in earlier text. High PC1 males also exhibited increased

phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase—an enzyme involved in cataplerosis, or removal of intermediate 4-

and 5-carbon compounds from the TCA cycle (71, 72). These intermediates are removed because they

cannot be fully oxidized for energy metabolism within the TCA cycle, but are converted elsewhere to

glucose, fatty acids or amino acids (72). High PC1 males also exhibited increases in alcohol

dehydrogenase, acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, and pyruvate-formate-lyase deactivase, variously

involved in pyruvate metabolism, degradation of aromatics and biphenyl, and tryptophan catabolism. Key

processes of energy metabolism involving glucose, lipids, protein and the TCA cycle (via keystone

molecules pyruvate, acetyl-CoA, and glutamate) have been implicated in major depressive disorder,

although precise pathways of pathogenesis are still unclear (73).

Patterns found in plant-soil systems. Our findings point to generalizable patterns with older

ecosystems for increasing CPP associated with lipids, condensed aromatics, vitamin B9, and vitamin K2;

and decreasing CPP associated with proteins, carbohydrates, lignin, other methylated compounds, other

hydrated compounds, acetate, vitamin B12, vitamin B6, and glutamate. Drivers of shifting CPP in soils are

expected to include changing: 1) composition of biota and biotic materials including plants, organic debris,

and re-assembly of invertebrate and microbial communities, and 2) soil abiotic conditions due to plant-soil

feedbacks (e.g., pH, nutrients, organic carbon content, temperature, moisture regime) (74, 75). This

includes macro-environmental influences with development of vegetation structure and canopy cover

(e.g., shading, rainfall interception, altered drainage). CPP values also likely reflect a dynamic balance

between resource availability and use by microbiota. For example, we might expect greater accumulation

of lignin in soils of older ecosystems due to plant inputs such as dead roots, bark, leaf litter, and other

structural plant residues. However, we observed reduced CPP for lignin in these sample types. Fungi are

major lignin degraders (76) and fungal communities vary with ecosystem disturbance and abiotic

conditions (77). Interestingly, our results were counter to expectations for elevated fungal decomposition

of lignin in older ecosystems. Reforestation with native mixed-species can produce higher levels of

recalcitrant soil organic matter (78) (e.g., humic acid which is hard to decompose and maps to lignin in vK

space). Our CPP metrics are relative and compositional (based on functional relative abundances

summing to a maximum of 100%), so it may be that in relative terms, the metabolic foci of microbiota are

shifted to processing other materials. Or possibly, structural plant materials may be more accessible for

degradation in disturbed (e.g., agricultural) soil environments, depending on plant residue management,

nutrient availability and other factors.

We expect some CPP quantities are driven primarily by plant material inputs. For example, soils

from more mature ecosystems in temperate climates, represented in samples from AMI and post-mining

(in the Appalachian Plateau, southwestern Virginia USA; 40, 79), displayed a positive relationship with

CPP for lipids and condensed aromatics. These two compound classes are represented in plant-based

essential oils and volatile, aromatic organic compounds. Oils are found in high densities in much of the

fire-adapted Australian flora (unlike New Zealand flora) (80). Increased CPP for lipids might also arise

due to increased density of energy storage linked to primary production, or more active plant signaling in

response to abiotic stress (81). High levels of lipids and condensed aromatics in mature ecosystem soils

could also be a result of increasing plant investment into defensive mechanisms via antimicrobial

essential oils (82), and volatile and aromatic secondary defense compounds induced by herbivory

(typically by invertebrates) (83).

Shifting weighted mean vK coordinates across many compound classes (in AMI and post-mining)

suggests broad changes in the composition of microbial substrates with more mature ecosystems. The

changing composition of the microbiota itself may contribute to this. Carbohydrates are of interest due to

the potential contribution of plant-based material to human diet, and CPP$_{class}$ values for carbohydrates

were consistently assigned the largest sum of functional relative abundances in the human gut samples.

With more mature ecosystems, CPP for carbohydrates decreased in relative terms, but weighted vK

coordinates suggest carbohydrate CPP shifts towards favoring processing materials with reduced oxygen

content per unit of carbon. There is likely to be global variation in environmental soil CPP driven by soil

abiotic factors and changing biota (vegetation and animals), previously outlined.

Potential environment-human health links. This work opens new avenues for investigating

environment-human health connections because environments will vary in their production of human

health-associated compounds. Moreover, varying environmental microbiota exposures may supply

modulating CPP profiles for colonizing or transient impacts to human microbiomes (e.g., skin, airway,

gut), which are intimately linked to our health. We show CPP patterns imprinted in environmental soil

metagenomes are linked with the maturity of plant-soil systems and abiotic factors such as soil pH. We

also show that CPP measures are significantly linked to human health and disease. However, we urge

caution in attempting to directly translate CPP trends in plant-soil environments (e.g., vitamins B12, B6,

B9, K2, glutamate) to infer possible implications for gut-associated human health. We stress that non-

linear, u-shaped dose-response relationships (51) are common and relevant in the context of

environmental exposure-human health links. Also, the gut represents a more tightly controlled micro-

environment (redox, pH, etc.) unsuited to many environmental microbes. Example evidence for potential

environment-human transfer of microbial CPP comes from Endomicrobia species found in oral microbiota

of indigenous peoples from central Australia (84). Endomicrobia species provide energetic advantage for

cellulose digestion in the guts of termites and wood-eating insects—and transfer to humans has occurred

likely through use of termites and termite mounds in traditional food and medicine (84). Speculatively, our

results suggest that if broad supplementation of human microbiota CPP capacity is required (spanning a

range of health-supporting biomolecules), this may require exposure to multiple types of environments.

However, certain environment types may provide more targeted microbiota CPP supplementation.

Limitations. There are important limitations in this study in addition to those already stated. CPP metrics

do not measure actual compounds; rather, they quantify conceptual 'meta-compounds' or assemblies of

elements based on functional reaction-level summary weighted mean O:C and H:C ratios consistent with

compounds of interest. Quantification occurred via mapping into vK space and aggregating functional

relative abundances into major compound classes, near focus biomolecules, or at unique vK coordinates,

to assess CPP structural profiles of metagenomes. Conceptually, mean reaction-level attributes (O:C and

H:C ratios) represent a mid-point of chemical transformation mediated by microbiota (i.e., interpreted as

'X% of functions were involved in processing compound/biomolecule type Y'). Stoichiometry rules

determine that reaction inputs and products will have balanced O, H, and C atomic counts. However,

different mean O:C and H:C ratios can arise due to uncounted O and H atoms in non-C containing

species (O:C, H:C values become undefined). For future work, the CPP mapping algorithm could be

readily adjusted to separately target reaction inputs, or products, or individual chemical species. Our

coarse compound classes did not distinguish (for example) plant versus animal proteins or high-fiber

versus low-fiber carbohydrates. Finer-resolution vK mapping zones would increase the precision of

results. We could not discern CPP differences for butyrate between sample types using 0.05 vK radii.

Butyrate is often present at low concentrations in the gut compared to other SCFAs, with rapid

consumption by colonocytes (23). The volatility of butyrate (85) may make it susceptible to loss from soils.

Our butyrate $CPP_{density}$ profiles spanning large to small vK radii may depict source-sink dynamics.

Compound mapping using O, H, and C content enable exhaustive and compartmented mapping within vK

coordinate space, however this represents a simplified, imperfect approach. Multi-element compound

mapping would offer increased precision (86) and may be developed to provide exhaustive and

compartmented mapping across a range of compound types. Mapping of SUPER-FOCUS functions was

incomplete (sample functional relative abundances ranged from 52-84%, with means 55-67%). This may

be improved with future algorithm refinement. CPP measures used here were relative, not absolute.

Further work is required to refine our first-pass ASALR normalization, examine CPP-disease links in wider

ethnic populations, and explore other potential explanatory variables not considered in our analyses. Like

many microbiome studies, our analyses do not permit causal insight to interpret whether increased or

decreased CPP may facilitate or follow disease. For example, excessive CPP may produce metabolites at

toxic levels, or degrade substrates leading to deficiency. Reduced CPP measures might correspond to

dietary deficiencies or suppression of functional pathways due to dysregulated environmental conditions.

Nonetheless, observed CPP trends may assist hypothesis-building and prioritizing mechanistic research.

We suggest that future work might address these limitations.

Materials and Methods

Case study datasets. Metagenomics samples used are summarized in Table 1 and further described in SI Appendix Supporting Information.

CPP mapping approach. CPP values were derived via the following steps (Fig. 2; further details are in SI Appendix Supporting Information)

1. Shotgun metagenomics raw sequences were accessed, and bioinformatic steps were run on Flinders University DeepThought high-performance computing facility (87).

2. Raw sequence data were inspected using FastQC (v0.11.9; 88) and quality control trimming performed using Fastp (v0.23.2; 89).

3. Functional potential profiles were derived from good quality read 1 sequences using SUPER-FOCUS (33) software, linked to the Diamond sequence aligner (v0.9.19; 90) and version 2 100% identity-clustered reference database (100_v2; https://github.com/metageni/SUPER-FOCUS/issues/66). Where subjects/samples were represented by multiple sequence files, the combined SUPER-FOCUS outputs were normalized so that the total functional relative abundances summed to 100% in each subject/sample.

4. Every SUPER-FOCUS function (output row) was translated to one or more corresponding chemical reaction(s) using a purpose-built R-script algorithm based on ModelSEED database lookup tables (from https://github.com/ModelSEED/ModelSEEDDatabase; accessed 10 Aug 2022). The algorithm sought matches based on either: full matching of functional hierarchies (using subsystem-class, -subclass, -name and -role); detection of EC number; or matching of SUPER-FOCUS function name within ModelSEED lookup tables for reactions (reaction name or alias), subsystems (role), or reaction-pathways (external reaction name).

5. Every chemical reaction was converted to reaction-level mean vK coordinates (O:C and H:C molar ratios), considering all C-containing reaction input and product compounds and weighted according to

reaction stoichiometry. Compounds not containing C were ignored due to undefined O:C and H:C

ratios. Data for compounds were based on Hill system chemical formulae in protonated form.

6. Overall mean vK coordinates were calculated for each functional output row of the SUPER-FOCUS

functional relative abundance table via averaging one or more associated chemical reactions. From

samples initially summing to 100% functional relative abundances, typically between 50–80% of

SUPER-FOCUS functions were identified and translated to weighted mean compound-associated vK

coordinates.

7. In vK coordinate space, we analyzed the spatial assignment of functional relative abundances to

derive the following CPP data types:

a. CPP_{class}: represented major compound classes based on pre-defined zones from (32) (see

Fig. 1; SI Appendix, Tables S1).

b. CPP_{ASALR}: to address large variation in CPP_{class} values (that impeded comparisons across

study groups) we considered normalization for microbial activity may be needed. Amino

sugars have previously been used as a biomarker of microbial residue turnover as they are

major components of bacterial and fungal cell walls (peptidoglycan and chitin) (28).

Therefore, we implemented preliminary putative 'activity-normalization' by dividing CPP_{class}

values for all other compound classes by the CPP_{class} value for amino sugars, followed by a

variance-stabilising log10-transformation. These data were denoted amino sugar-adjusted log

ratio (CPP_{ASALR}) values.

c. $CPP_{density}$: captured functional capacity within radial buffers of varying proximity (radii of 0.05,

0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25 vK units) to focus biomolecules (Fig. 1; SI Appendix, Tables S2).

Functional relative abundances within radial buffers were summed then divided by the

respective area in vK units^2.

d. Unique compound-associated vK coordinates: Each SUPER-FOCUS functional row was

translated to corresponding vK coordinates (as used for the above spatial assignments).

Further supplementary analyses were undertaken at the vK coordinate level, including

network analyses (in the T2D case study), differential abundance analysis (in the problem

behavior case study), and weighted-mean vK coordinate analysis within major compound

zones.

Data visualization and statistical analyses. Further detail of visualization and statistical testing using

standard approaches are provided in SI Appendix Supporting Information.

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