A metabolic modeling-based framework for predicting trophic dependencies in native rhizobiomes of crop plants

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Introduction

The rhizosphere serves as a hotspot for a diversity of interactions spanning from the secretion of organic compounds by plant roots to their uptake by the adjacent soil microbial community[1,2]. These interactions form a complex network of metabolic exchanges whose structure and function has considerable impact on plant health[3]. Targeted secretion of exudates from plant roots' into the environment is fundamental to the recruitment of specific microbes and the assembly of a plant-selected community (i.e., the rhizobiome)[4–6]. Each plant has a unique profile of exudates guiding the formation of a specialized rhizobiome that is adapted to support its mineral absorption[7–9], secret plant growth supporting compounds[10–12], and provide protection against soil-borne microorganisms that are detrimental to its health[13–15]. A comprehensive understanding of the dynamics within the rhizosphere, considering both plant-microbe and microbe-microbe interactions can hence guide the support in specific advantageous exchanges within the rhizobiome and consequently the targeted assembly and maintenance of plant-beneficial soil microbial systems[16–19]. The development of such microbiome-based plant-beneficial strategies present ecologically sound alternatives to conventional, chemical-based solutions and help to balance the trade-off between the demand for high yield and the resulting environmental costs[20,21].

`Omics data in general and metagenomics data analyses specifically can potentially provide keys for unraveling the black box of plant-microbe and microbe-microbe interactions in complex ecosystems such as the soil[22–25]. Yet, sequence-based analyses are typically limited in terms of functional interpretation of community dynamics[26]. Constraint based modeling (CBM) is an approach that allows to simulate bacterial-metabolic activity in a given environment based on the constraints imposed by the annotated microbial genomes[22,27]. This approach has long been used for studying the physiology and growth of single cells, represented as Genome Scale Metabolic Models (GSMM), under varying conditions[28,29]. Applying CBM over a GSMM allows for the assessment of a metabolite's uptake and secretion[27]. Accordingly, when CBM is applied over multiple GSMMs, the exchange profiles (secretion and consumption of metabolites to and from the environment, respectively) become interconnected. This sheds light on conditions supporting the growth of different bacterial groups within the community as well as their functional potential in the trophic network formed[16,30].

Advancement of sequencing technologies alongside the development of automatic pipelines for GSMM construction[31,32] has promoted an increased use of CBM for the modeling of communities with growing complexity[22–24]. The relevance of CBM to the study of microbiomes in a number of different ecosystems has been demonstrated in recent works and has shown that CBM-based predictions can guide the development of strategies for microbiome

management[33–36]. An accurate representation of microbial metabolic networks   73

depends on the origin of the genomes analyzed. To date, most studies   74

attempting to model the microbiome of specific ecosystems by GSMM represent   75

native species using corresponding genome sequences from public   76

depositories, a process which is usually referred to as 16S-based genome   77

imputation[26,35,37]. Genome recovery, or genome-resolved metagenomes, often   78

referred to as Metagenomes Assembled Genomes (MAGs) allows one to obtain   79

full genomes directly from metagenomes[38,39]. Constructing GSMMs based on   80

MAGs is fundamentally superior to using 16S based genome imputation, since   81

MAGs derived directly from the sample enable a genuine view of the metabolic   82

activities carried out in authentic native communities. In the rhizosphere, such   83

an *in silico* representation of a native community, with respect to its   84

environment, can be used to decrypt the opaque system of myriad   85

interconnected uptake and secretion exchange fluxes transpiring in the root   86

microbiota, into a network of trophic interactions spanning from root exudates   87

to altered organic forms.   88

The current study describes the recovery of 395 unique MAGs from   89

metagenomes constructed for the native rhizosphere community of apple   90

rootstocks cultivated in orchard soil infected with apple replant disease   91

(ARD)[40,41]. Soils were amended or not amended with *Brassicaceae* seed meal,   92

supporting the emergence of plant-beneficial vs non-beneficial root   93

microbiomes, respectively[40,41]. GSMMs constructed for these MAGs provide an   94

in-silico representation of highly abundant species in the native rhizosphere community. CBM simulations were then conducted in a rhizosphere-like environment, where microbial uptake-secretion fluxes were connected to form a directional trophic network. The aims of this study were twofold: first, to provide a general framework for delineating inter-species interactions occurring in the rhizosphere environment (Fig. 1) and second to characterize the metabolic roles specific groups of bacteria fulfill in seed meal-amended (beneficial) vs non-amended (non-beneficial) apple rhizobiome communities.

Results & Discussion

1. Assembly of a collection of MAGs representing a native microbial community from a soil agroecosystem

Metagenomic sequencing obtained from apple rootstocks grown in orchard soil with a documented history of replant disease resulted in a total of approximately 2 billion quality reads (after filtration) at a length of 150 bp, as described in Berihu et al[41]. Independent metagenomics assemblies of six different treatments yielded 1.4–2 million contigs longer than 2 kbp[41]. Here, assemblies were binned using MetaWRAP[39] into 296-433 high quality MAGs for each of the six treatments (Supp. Data 1; completion and contamination thresholds were set to 90/5, respectively[42]). De-replication (the process of combining highly similar genomes into a single representative genome)

requiring 99% average nucleotide identity (ANI) of the overall 2233 MAGs 118
yielded a collection of 395 unique MAGs (Fig. 2). Across samples, 30-36% of the 119
raw reads were mapped to the MAG collection (Supp. Table 1), in comparison to 120
61–71% mapped to the non-binned contigs[41]. Using GTDB-Tk[43], taxonomic 121
annotations were assigned at the phylum, order, genus and species level for 395, 122
394, 237 and three of the de-replicated MAGs, respectively, reflecting the 123
genuine diversity of the rhizosphere community, which include many 124
uncharacterized species[44]. Estimates of completion and contamination, total bin 125
length and taxonomic affiliation for the MAG collections derived from each of 126
the six assemblies, as well as the de-replicated MAGs, are provided in Supp. Data 127
1. 128

As in previous reports[1,45], Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria 129
and Bacteroidetes were identified as the dominant phyla in the apple 130
rhizosphere (Fig. 2A). Overall, the taxonomic distribution of the MAG collection 131
corresponded with the profile reported for the same samples using alternative 132
taxonomic classification approaches such as 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing and 133
gene-based taxonomic annotations of the non-binned shotgun contigs (Fig. 2B). 134
At the genus level, MAGs were classified into 143 genera in comparison to 135
approximately 3000 genera that were identified for the same data based on 136
gene-centric approaches[41] and approximately 1000 genera based on amplicon 137
sequencing[40] of the same data. 138

The functional capabilities of the bacterial genomes in the apple rhizosphere were initially assessed based on KEGG functional annotations of their gene catalogue (Supp. Data 2, Supp. Fig. 1). The ten most frequent functional categories across the MAG collection were involved in primary metabolism, e.g., carbohydrate metabolism and the biosynthesis of essential cellular building blocks such as amino acids and vitamins. Specialized functional categories included those associated with autotrophic nutrition such as carbon fixation and metabolism of nitrogen, sulfur and methane. Functional diversity was found to exist also when considering ubiquitous functions. For instance, though all bacteria are in need of the full set of amino acids, most genomes lack the full set of relevant biosynthesis pathways. The prevalence of biosynthetic pathways across MAGs (requiring at least a single relevant enzyme) ranges from 99.5% (e.g. glycine; missing in only two genomes) to 21% (e.g. tyrosine; detected in only 83 MAGs). Notably, the diversity of metabolic pathway completeness regarding amino acids and other essential cellular components suggests that the majority of bacterial soil species rely on an external supply of at least some of their obligatory nutritional demands.

2. Construction of a simulation system for exploring environment-dependent metabolic performances and growth of rhizosphere bacteria

Categorical classifications of discrete gene-entities, such as pathway 161
completeness analyses, have several inherent limitations as an approach for the 162
contextualization and functional interpretation of genomic information. First, 163
categorical classifications may underestimate the completeness of robust 164
pathways with multiple redundant routes resulting in low pathway completeness. 165
Second, pathway completeness analyses do not take into consideration the 166
directionality and continuity of a biosynthetic process whose full conductance 167
requires the availability of a specific environmental resource together with the 168
required successive series of genes/reactions. Although functional potential can 169
be inferred based on the static set of genes and enzymes present, actual 170
metabolic performances of bacterial species in soil are dynamic and reflect 171
multiple factors, including the availability of different nutritional sources. Such 172
sources can be environmental inputs like root exudates or downstream 173
exchange metabolites secreted by cohabiting bacteria. 174

To better understand environment-dependent metabolic activity occurring 175
in a native rhizosphere, a set of 395 GSMMs was constructed for the entire 176
collection of the rhizosphere-bacterial community MAGs. All models were 177
systematically subjected to validity and quality tests using MEMOTE[47], leaving a 178
total of 243 GSMMs whose stoichiometric consistency was confirmed (Supp. 179
Data 3). On average, GSMMs included 1924 reactions, from which 203 were 180
exchange reactions (specific reactions carrying out extracellular import and 181
secretion of metabolites) and 1312 metabolites (Supp. Data 4). Altogether, the 182

GSMM set held 5152 unique metabolic reactions, 597 exchange reactions, and 2671 different compounds. The distribution of key model attributes (reactions, metabolites and exchanges) across phyla is shown in Supp. Fig. 2. Model features were scalable with those reported by Basile et al[26] and Heinken et al[33]. Comparison of GSMM scales indicated that the metabolic coverage (i.e., the number of reactions, which denote the potential of executing a metabolic function) of our data is within the same order of magnitude as described in recent large-scale automatic reconstructions[26,33].

Next, species-specific rich (optimal) and poor (suboptimal) media were defined for each model in order to broadly assess GSMM growth capacity. A rich environment was defined as a medium containing all metabolites for which the model encodes an exchange reaction. A poor environment was defined as the minimal set of compounds enabling growth (see Methods). Essentially, poor environments contained a species-specific carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous sources together with other trace elements. In addition to the two automatic media, we aimed to design a realistic simulating environment allowing to explore the impact of the root exudates on the native community. To this end, metabolomics data from a set of studies which characterized root exudates secreted from the roots of Geneva 935 (G935) or Malling 26 (M26) rootstock cultivars[48,49] - related to the G210 and M26 rootstocks whose rhizobiome was characterized here, were used to specify an array of apple root-derived

compounds (Table 1). The list of secreted compounds was consistent with other   204

reported profiles of plant root-exudates[1,50].   205

The growth of each of the 243 GSMMs was simulated in each of the three   206

species-specific environments (rich, poor, poor + exudates; exudates were   207

added to corresponding poor media to ensure the exudates have a feasible   208

effect). As expected, growth performances were higher on the poor medium   209

supplemented with exudates in comparison to growth on the poor medium   210

alone but lower than the growth in rich medium (Supp. Fig. 3). Notably, GSMM   211

growth patterns were not phylogenetically conserved and were inconsistent   212

between related taxa. Moreover, ranking of models' growth rate were   213

inconsistent in the three different media (i.e., some models' growth rates were   214

markedly affected by the simulated media whereas others did not; Supp. Fig. 3).   215

This inconsistency indicates that the effect of exudates on community members   216

is selective and differs between species (i.e., exudates increase the growth rates   217

of some species more than others), as was previously reported[1,5,51]. Overall,   218

Simulations confirmed the feasiblity of all the 243 models and their capacity to   219

grow in the respective environemnt (Supp. Data 5).   220

As a next step towards conducting simulations in a genuine natural-like   221

environment, we aimed to define a single rhizosphere environment in which   222

growth simulations for all models would take place. Unlike the species-specific   223

root media (poor medium + exudates) which support growth of all models by   224

artificially including multiple carbon sources that are derived from the automatic   225

specifications of the poor medium, including such that are not provided by the 226
root, this simulation environment is based on the root exudates (Table. 1) as the 227
sole carbon sources. By avoiding the inclusion of non-exudate organic 228
metabolites, the true-to-source rhizosphere environment reveals the 229
hierarchical directionality of the trophic exchanges in soil[52]. Additionally, the 230
rhizosphere environment also included an array of inorganic compounds used 231
by the 243 GSMMs, which includes trace metals, ferric, phosphoric, and sulfuric 232
compounds. Overall, the rhizosphere environment was composed of 60 233
inorganic compounds together with the 33 root exudates (Supp. Table 2). The 234
rhizosphere environment supported the growth of only a subset of the GSMMs 235
that were capable of using plant exudates (Supp. Fig. 3). 236

3. Simulating growth succession and hierarchical trophic exchanges 238
   in the rhizosphere community 239
240
241

To reflect the non-direct effect of the root on the native community, (i.e., 242
to capture the effect of root-supported bacteria on the growth of further 243
community members), we constructed the Microbial Community Succession 244
Module (MCSM), a CBM-based algorithm aimed at predicting community-level 245
trophic successions. The module iteratively grows the GSMMs in a defined 246
environment, sums up their individual secretion profiles, and updates the initial 247
simulation environment with those secreted compounds (Fig. 3A). Applying this 248

algorithm to the rhizobiome in its community-specific rhizosphere environment   249

allows delineating the potential metabolic dependencies and interactions   250

between bacterial species in a native community.   251

The "rhizosphere environment" (i.e., 1st iteration, Root exudates and   252

"inorganic compounds", Supp. Table 2) supported the growth of 27 GSMMs   253

(Supp. Fig 3). Applying MCSM, the initial environment was then updated with   254

145 additional compounds predicted to be secreted by the growing community   255

members. The 2nd iteration supported the growth of 33 additional species whose   256

growth was supported by compounds predicted to be secreted by bacteria that   257

grew in the 1st iteration. Following the 2nd iteration, 25 new secreted compounds   258

were added to the rhizosphere environment. The 3rd iteration supported the   259

growth of 11 additional GSMMs, with one additional compound secreted. After   260

the 3rd iteration, the updated environment did not support the growth of any   261

new species. Overall, iterative growth simulations resulted in the successive   262

growth of 71 species (Figure 3B, iterations 1-3).   263

To enlarge the array of growing species, we tested the effect of the   264

addition of organic phosphorous sources. Organic phosphorous is typically a   265

limiting factor in soil[53] and its utilization varies greatly between microbial species   266

(i.e., different P sources were shown to have a selective effect on different   267

microbial groups[54]). The initial rhizosphere environment contained only   268

inorganic phosphorous. During 1st -3rd MCSM simulations, nine organic P   269

compounds were secreted to the simulation medium, which was updated   270

accordingly. At the beginning of the 4th iteration, 31 additional organic P   271

compounds were identified by screening the species-specific poor medium and   272

were added to the medium (Supp. Table 2; organic Phosphorous compounds).   273

The additional organic P compounds supported the growth of nine additional   274

GSMMs (Fig. 3B) and led to the secretion of 13 new compounds, which were   275

added to the environment. The 5th iteration supported the growth of four   276

additional GSMMs and two new compounds were secreted. Final simulations in   277

the cumulative rhizosphere environment were composed of all secreted   278

compounds and led to the same secretion and growth profile as the previous   279

iteration. Therefore, no further growth iterations were conducted.   280

Overall, the successive iterations connected 84 out of 243 native   281

members of the apple rhizosphere GSMM community via trophic exchanges.   282

The inability of the remaining bacteria to grow, despite being part of the native   283

root microbiome, possibly reflects the selectiveness of the root environment,   284

which fully supports the nutritional demands of only part of the soil species,   285

whereas specific compounds that might be essential to other species are less   286

abundant[44]. It is important to note that the specific exudate profile used here   287

represent a snapshot of the root metabolome as root secretion-profiles are   288

highly dynamic, reflecting both environmental and plant developmental   289

conditions. A possible complementary explanation to the observed selective   290

growth might be the partiality of our simulation platform, which examined only   291

plant-bacteria and bacteria-bacteria interactions while ignoring other critical   292

components of the rhizosphere system such as fungi, archaea, protists and   293

mesofauna, as well as less abundant bacterial species, components all known to   294

metabolically interact[55]. Finally, the MAG collection, while relatively substantial,   295

represents only part of the microbial community. Accordingly, the iterative   296

growth simulations represent a subset of the overall hierarchical-trophic   297

exchanges in the root environment, necessarily reflecting the partiality the   298

dataset.   299

    In terms of the phylogenetic distribution of the models, 27 bacterial   300

species grew on the 1st iteration (in which root exudates served as the sole   301

organic sources). These bacteria represented 14 of the 17 phyla included in the   302

initial model collection (consisting of 243 GSMMs) and maintained a distribution   303

frequency similar to the original community. As in the full GSMM data set   304

(Community bar, Fig. 3C), most of the species which grew in the 1st iteration   305

belonged to the phyla *Acidobacteriota*, *Proteobacteria,* and *Bacteroidota*. This   306

result concurred with findings from the work of Zhalnina et al, which reported   307

that bacteria assigned to these phyla are the primary beneficiaries of root   308

exudates[1]. Species from three out of the 17 phyla that did not grow in the first   309

iteration - *Elusimicrobiota, Chlamydiota*, and *Fibrobacterota,* did grow on the   310

2nd iteration (Fig. 3C). Members of these phyla are known for their specialized   311

metabolic dependencies. Such is the case for example with members of the   312

Elusimicrobiota phylum, which include mostly uncultured species whose   313

nutritional preferences are likely to be selective[56].   314

At the order level, bacteria classified as *Sphingomonadales* (class   315

Alphaproteobacteria), a group known to include typical inhabitants of the root   316

environment[57], grew in the initial Root environment. In comparison, other root-   317

inhabiting groups including the orders *Rhizobiales* and *Burkholderiales*[57], did not   318

grow in the first iteration. *Rhizobiales* and *Burkholderiales* did, however, grow in   319

the second and third iterations, respectively, indicating that in the simulations,   320

the growth of these groups was dependent on exchange metabolites secreted   321

by other community members (Supp. Fig. 4).   322

Overall, 158 organic compounds were secreted throughout the MCSM   323

simulation (from which 12 compounds overlapped with the original exudate   324

medium). These compounds varied in their distribution and were mapped into   325

12 biochemical categories (Fig. 3D). Whereas plant secretions are a source of   326

various organic compounds, microbial secretions provide a source of multiple   327

vitamins and co-factors not secreted by the plant. Microbial-secreted   328

compounds included siderophores (staphyloferrin, salmochelin, pyoverdine, and   329

enterochelin), vitamins (pyridoxine, pantothenate, and thiamin), and coenzymes   330

(coenzyme A, flavin adenine dinucleotide, and flavin mononucleotide) – all   331

known to be exchange compounds in microbial communities[58,59]. In addition,   332

microbial secretions included 11 amino acids (arginine, lysine, threonine, alanine,   333

serine, phenylalanine, tyrosine, leucine, glutamate, isoleucine, and methionine),   334

also known as a common exchange currency in microbial communities[60]. Some   335

microbial-secreted compounds, such as phenols and alkaloids, were reported to   336

be produced by plants as secondary metabolites[61,62]. Additional information   337

regarding mean uptake and secretion degrees of compounds classified to   338

biochemical groups is found in Supp. Fig. 5.   339

Conceptually, the rhizosphere microbiota can be classified into two   340

trophic groups: primary exudate consumers, comprising microbial species that   341

are direct beneficiaries from the root exudates, and secondary consumers,   342

comprising microbial species whose growth may be provided directly via the   343

uptake of metabolites secreted by other members of the soil microbial   344

community. In the iterative MCSM simulations, compounds secreted by some of   345

the primary consumers largely sustained the growth of secondary consumers,   346

which were not able to grow otherwise. The full information on the secretion   347

profiles and models' growths is provided in Supp. Data 6.   348

4. Associating trophic exchanges with soil health   350

The MAG collection analyzed in this study was constructed from shotgun   352

libraries associated with apple rootstocks cultivated in orchard soil with a   353

documented history of apple replant disease (ARD) and recovered (seed meal-   354

amended) soils, providing a model system for disease conductive vs disease   355

suppressive rhizosphere communities[40]. Briefly, rhizobiome communities   356

obtained from apple rootstocks grown in replant orchard soil leading to   357

symptomatic growth (no-treatment/control samples) were termed 'sick',   358

whereas samples in which disease symptoms were ameliorated following an   359

established soil amendment treatment[63], were termed 'healthy'. Both sick and   360

healthy plants were characterized by distinct differences in the structure and   361

function of their rhizosphere microbial communities in the respective soil   362

samples[15,40,41,63]. In order to correlate microbial metabolic interactions with soil   363

performance, GSMMs were classified into one of three functional categories   364

based on differential abundance (DA) patterns of their respective MAGs: 365

predominantly associated with "healthy" soil (H), predominantly associated with   366

"sick" soil (S) and none-associated (NA) (Supp. Data 7).   367

The functionally classified GSMMs (H, S, NA) were consolidated into a   368

community network of metabolic interactions by linking their potential uptake   369

and secretion exchange profiles (as predicted along growth iterations in Fig. 3).   370

The network was built as a directed bipartite graph, in which the 84 feasible   371

GSMM nodes and the 203 metabolite nodes (27 root exudates, 146 microbial-   372

secreted compounds, and 30 additional organic-P compounds) were connected   373

by 9773 directed edges, representing the metabolic exchanges and organic   374

compounds in the native apple rhizosphere community (Fig. 4A). Further   375

information regarding node degrees is found in Supp. Data 8.   376

The directionality of the network enabled its untangling into sub-network   377

motifs stemming from a root exudate to exchange interactions, and ending with   378

an unconsumed end-metabolite. Two types of sub-networks were detected (Fig.   379

4C): 3-component (PM; Plant-Microbe) plant exudate – microbe – microbial   380

secreted metabolite; and 5-component (PMM; Plant-Microbe-Microbe) plant   381

exudate – microbe – intermediate microbial secreted metabolite – microbe –   382

microbial secreted metabolite. Overall, the network included 45,972 unique PM   383

paths and 571,605 unique PMM paths. Participation of GSMMs in PM paths   384

ranged from 272 to 896 occurrences (Supp. Fig. 6A). GSSM participation in PMM   385

paths ranged from 398 to 50,628 in the first position and 1,388 to 19,738   386

occurrences in the second position. Frequency of GSMMs in the first position in   387

PMM sub-network motifs (being primary exudate consumer) was negatively   388

correlated with the frequency of presence in second positions (secondary   389

consumer), possibly indicating species-specific preferences for a specific   390

position/trophic level in the defined environment (Pearson = -0.279; p-   391

value=0.009, Supp. Fig. 6B).   392

In order to explore the trophic preferences of bacteria associated with the   393

different rhizosphere soil systems, the frequency of healthy (H), sick (S) or non-   394

associated (NA) GSMMs in the PM and PMM sub-networks was compared   395

(Supp. Data 9). GSMMs classified as S initiated a significantly higher number of   396

PMM sub-networks (located in the first position) than GSMMs classified as NA   397

and H (Fig. 5A). H classified PMM paths (first position) initiated a significantly   398

higher number of sub-networks with GSMMs classified as NA comparing to S-   399

classified GSMMs, but no more than H-classified GSMMs (second position).   400

Other PMM types did not show a significant effect at the second position. The   401

higher number of trophic interactions formed by the S-classified primary   402

exudate consumers in the PMM sub-network motifs suggests that non-beneficial 403

bacteria may have a broader spectrum in terms of their utilization potential of 404

root-secreted carbon sources compared to plant-beneficial bacteria. This might 405

shed light on the dynamics of ARD, in which S-classified bacteria are becoming 406

increasingly dominant following long-term utilization of apple-root exudates, 407

which result in diminished capacity of the rhizosphere microbiome to suppress 408

soil-borne pathogens[63,64]. 409

In order to predict exchanges with potential to support/suppress 410

dysbiosis, the frequency of DA GSMM types (i.e., H or S) associated with 411

metabolites (either consumed or secreted) in the PM paths was assessed (Supp. 412

Data 10). Considering consumed metabolites (root exudates), three and six 413

compounds were found to be significantly more prevalent in H and S-classified 414

PM paths, respectively (Fig. 5B). Notably, the S-classified root exudates included 415

compounds reported to support dysbiosis and ARD progression. For example, 416

the S-classified compounds gallic acid and caffeic acid (3,4-dihidroxy-trans- 417

cinnamate) are phenylpropanoids – phenylalanine intermediate phenolic 418

compounds secreted from plant roots following exposure to replant 419

pathogens[65]. Though secretion of these compounds is considered a defense 420

response, it is hypothesized that high levels of phenolic compounds can have 421

autotoxic effects, potentially exacerbating ARD. Additionally, it was shown that 422

genes associated with the production of caffeic acid were upregulated in ARD- 423

infected apple roots, relative to those grown in γ-irradiated ARD soil[66,67], and 424

that root and soil extracts from replant-diseased trees inhibited apple seedling growth and resulted in increased seedling root production of caffeic acid[68]. 425

As to the microbial-secreted compounds, a total of 79 unique compounds were found to be significantly overrepresented in either S (42 compounds) or H (41 compounds) classified PM paths (Fig. 5C). Several secreted compounds classified as healthy exchanges (H) were reported to be potentially associated with beneficial functions. For instance, the compounds L-Sorbose (EX_srb__L_e) and Phenylacetaladehyde (EX_pacald_e), both over-represented in H paths (Fig. 5C), have been shown to inhibit the growth of fungal pathogens associated with replant disease[69,70]. Phenylacetaladehyde has also been reported to have nematicidal qualities[71].

Combining both exudates uptake data and metabolites secretion data, the full H-classified PM path 4-Hydroxybenzoate; GSMM_091; catechol (Fig. 4C; the consumed exudate, the GSMM, and the secreted compound, respectively) provides an exemplary model for how the proposed framework can be used to guide the design of strategies which support specific, advantageous exchanges within the rhizobiome. The root exudate 4-Hydroxybenzoate is metabolized by GSMM_091 (class *Verrucomicrobiae*, order *Pedosphaerales*) to catechol. Catechol is a precursor of a number of catecholamines, a group of compounds which was recently shown to increase apple tolerance to ARD symptoms when added to orchard[41,72]. This analysis (PM; Fig 4C), leads to formulating the testable prediction that 4-Hydroxybenzoate can serve as a selective enhancer of

catecholamine synthesizing bacteria associated with reduced ARD symptoms, and therefore serve as a potential source for indigenously produced beneficial compounds.

Conclusions

In this study, we present a framework combining metagenomics analyses with CBM, which can be used to gain a deeper understanding of the functionality, dynamics and division of labor among rhizosphere bacteria, and link their environment-dependent metabolism to biological significance. This exploratory framework aims to illuminate the black box of interactions occurring in the rhizospheres of crop plants and is based on the work of Berihu et al. 2022, in which a gene-centric analysis of metagenomics data from apple rhizoshpheres was conducted[41].

We recovered high-quality sets of environment-specific MAGs, constructed the corresponding GSMMs, and simulated community-level metabolic interactions. By including authentic apple root exudates in the models, we were able to begin untangling the highly complex plant-bacterial and bacterial-bacterial interactions occurring in the rhizosphere environment. More specifically, we used the framework to investigate a microbial community via examining its hierarchical secretion-uptake exchanges along multiple iterations

(Fig. 3). These analyses, which linked community-derived secretion profiles with 470
the growth of other community members, demonstrated the successive, trophic- 471
dependent nature of microbial communities. These interactions were elucidated 472
via construction of a community-exchange network (Fig. 4). Possible connections 473
between root exudates, differentially abundant bacteria, their secreted end- 474
products, and soil health were explored using the data derived from this 475
network. From these analyses, we were able to associate different metabolic 476
functionalities with diseased or healthy systems, and formulate new hypotheses 477
regarding the general function of differentially abundant bacteria in the 478
community. 479

The framework we present is currently conceptual. Dealing with a highly 480
complex system such as the rhizobiome inevitably comes with limitations. These 481
limitations include the inherent caveats of CBM and the use of single-species 482
GSMMs, the lack of transcriptomic and spatial-chemo-physical data, and the 483
exclusion of competition over all its forms. Furthermore, a portion of the 484
metabolomics data used in this framework was taken from a different source 485
(different rootstock genotype), possibly introducing further bias to the analyses. 486
This potential factor is due to the inherent discrepancy between the conditions 487
from which genomics and metabolomics data were collected[1,4]. Also, not 488
considered in this framework is the role of eukaryotes in the microbial-metabolic 489
interplay. Finally, the use of an automatic GSMM reconstruction tool (CarveMe[31]), 490
though increasingly used for depicting phenotypic landscapes, is typically less 491

accurate than manual curation of metabolic models[32]. This approach typically 492

neglects specialized functions involving secondary metabolism[16]. 493

For these reasons, among others, the framework presented here is not 494

intended to be used as a stand-alone tool for determining microbial function. 495

The framework presented is designed to be used as a platform to generate 496

educated hypotheses regarding bacterial function in a specific environment in 497

conjunction with actual carbon substrates available in the particular ecosystem 498

under study. The hypotheses generated provide a point of reference for the 499

experimental testing required to gain actual, targeted and feasibly applicable 500

insights[37,41]. While recognizing the limitations, this framework is in fact highly 501

versatile and can be used for the characterization of a variety of microbial 502

communities and environments. Given a set of MAGs derived from a specific 503

environment, environmental metabolomics data, and a set of known functions 504

to be further characterized, this computational framework provides a generic 505

simulation platform for a wide and diverse range of future applications. 506

To summarize, we have constructed a framework enabling the analysis of 507

interactions between microbes and between microbes and their hosts in their 508

natural environment. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt to 509

generate GSMMs en masse based on high-quality MAGs derived from a specific 510

ecosystem, incorporating the use of CBM for the inspection of their complex 511

network of interactions. The application of this framework to the apple 512

rhizobiome yielded a wealth of preliminary knowledge about the metabolic 513

interactions occurring within it, including novel information on putative functions 514

performed by bacteria in healthy vs. replant-diseased soil systems, and potential 515

metabolic routes to control these functions. Overall, this framework aims to 516

contribute to efforts seeking to unravel the intricate world of microbial 517

interactions in complex environments including the plant rhizosphere. The 518

framework is provided as a three stage-detailed pipeline in 519

https://github.com/FreilichLab/Trophic_interactions_predicting_framework. 520

Methods 522

Recovery of Metagenomics Assembled Genomes MAGs from 524
metagenomics data constructed for apple rhizosphere microbiomes 525

High coverage shotgun metagenomics sequence data were obtained 527

from microbial DNA extracted from the rhizosphere of apple rootstocks 528

cultivated in soil from a replant diseased orchard[41]. The experimental design 529

included sampling of six different soil/apple rootstock treatments with five 530

biological replicates each, as described in Somera et al. 2021[40]. Two different 531

apple rootstocks (M26, ARD susceptible; G210, ARD tolerant) were grown in 532

three different treatments: 1) orchard soil amended with *Brassica napus* seed 533

meal, 2) orchard soil amended with *Brassica juncea /Sinapis alba* seed meal 534

(BjSa) and 3) no-treatment control soil (NTC) (see Supp. Table 1). Microbial DNA 535

was extracted from rhizosphere soil and metagenomics data were assembled as 536

described in[41]. In each assembly contigs were binned to recover MAGs using 537
MetaWRAP pipeline (v1.3.1), which utilizes several independent binners[39]. The 538
MAGs recovered by the different binners were collectively processed with the 539
Bin_refinement module of metaWRAP, producing an output of a refined bin 540
collection. A count table was constructed by mapping raw reads data of each 541
assembly (e.g., BjSa; G210) to the bins, using BWA-MEM mapping software 542
(version 0.7.17) with default parameters. Differential abundance (DA) of the reads 543
associated with the respective bins in each assembly across the respective 544
replicates was determined using the edgeR function implemented in R, requiring 545
FDR adapted p value< 0.05. Reads mapping information is shown in Supp. Table 546
1. Based on DA, MAGs were classified either as associated with healthy soil (H; 547
BjSa differentially abundant), symptomized soil (S; NTC differentially abundant), 548
or not-associated with either soil type (NA; not differentially abundant at any 549
treatment site). 550

Gene calling and annotation was performed with the Annotate_bins 551
module of MetaWRAP. Pathway completeness was determined with KEGG 552
Decoder v 1.0.8.2[73] based on the KO annotations extracted from Annotate_bins 553
assignments. The quality of the genomes was determined with CheckM[74]. For 554
phylogenomic analyses and taxonomic classification of each bacterial and 555
archaeal genome, we searched for and aligned 120 bacterial marker genes of 556
the MAGs using the identity and align commands of GTDB-Tk v1.5.0[43]. MAGs 557
were dereplicated using dRep v2.3.2[46] using the default settings and MAGs from 558

the six assemblies were clustered into a single non-redundant set. Phylogenomic trees were rooted by randomly selecting a genome from the sister lineage to the genus as determined from the topology of the bacterial and archaeal GTDB R06-RS202 reference trees. We filtered closely related GTDB taxa identified with the "classify_wf" workflow with the taxa-filter option during the alignment step. Overall, a set of 395 high-quality genomes (≥90% completeness, <5% contamination) was used for downstream analyses.

Genome Scale Metabolic Model (GSMM) reconstruction, analysis and characterization of the MAG collection

GSMMs were constructed for the 395 MAGs using CarveMe v 1.5.1 [31], a python-based tool for GSMM reconstruction. Installation and usage of CarveMe was done as suggested in the original CarveMe webpage (https://carveme.readthedocs.io/en/latest/). The solver used for GSMM reconstruction is Cplex (v. 12.8.0.0). All GSMMs were drafted without gap filling as it might mask metabolic co-dependencies[52]. Stoichiometric consistency of all GSMMs was systematically assessed via the standardized MEMOTE test suite, a tool for GSMM quality and completion assessment[47]. GSMMs not stoichiometrically balanced were filtered out, as they might produce infeasible simulation results.

Analyses and simulations of GSMMs, as well as retrieval of model attributes (reactions, metabolites and exchanges, etc.), were conducted via the

vast array of methods found in COBRApy[75], a python coding language package   582

for analyzing constraint-based reconstructions. For each GSMM, initial growth   583

simulations took place in three different model-specific environments: rich   584

medium, poor medium and poor medium + exudates. The rich medium was   585

composed of all the exchange reactions a model holds, gathered by the   586

"exchanges" attribute found in each model. The poor medium was composed of   587

the minimal set of compounds required for a specific GSMM/species to grow at   588

a fixed rate. This set of compounds was identified using the minimal_medium   589

module from COBRApy (minimize components=True, growth rate of 0.1 biomass   590

increase hour^{-1}). Poor medium + exudates was defined as the poor medium with   591

the addition of an array of apple root exudates. These compounds were   592

retrieved from two metabolomics studies characterizing the exudates of apple   593

rootstocks. Rootstocks were obtained from Willow Drive Nursery, Ephrata, WA,   594

and grown in Lane Mountain Sand (Valley, WA)[48,49]. Exudate compounds were   595

aligned with the BIGG database[76] in order to format them for use in COBRApy.   596

For each media type, GSMM growth rates were calculated by solving each model   597

using the summary method in COBRApy, which utilizes Flux Balance Analysis   598

(FBA) for maximizing biomass.   599

Construction of a common root environment medium and application of   601
the Microbial Community Succession Module (MCSM)   602

In order to simulate the dynamics of the rhizosphere community in the root   604
environment, a fourth growth medium representing a natural-like environment   605
was defined and termed the "rhizosphere environment". The rhizosphere   606
environment was composed of two arrays of compounds: 1) the exudates (as   607
described above) and 2) inorganic compounds essential for sustaining bacterial   608
growth. This array was determined according to the minimal set of compounds   609
identified for each GSMM (also described above). Rhizosphere environment   610
components are provided in Supp. Table 2. Both sets of compounds were then   611
consolidated into one array in which further simulations were conducted.   612

The MCSM (which is the first module out of three comprising this   613
computational framework) simulates the growth of a microbial community by   614
iteratively growing the GSMMs in the community and adding compounds   615
"secreted" by the growing species to the simulation-environment (i.e. the   616
medium), thus enriching the medium/environment and supporting further   617
growth. Unlike Flux Balance Analysis (FBA), which is used for gathering an   618
arbitrary solution regarding non-optimized fluxes, the MCSM uses Flux   619
Variability Analysis (FVA) to determine exchange fluxes[77]. FVA gathers the full   620
range of exchange fluxes (including both secretion and uptake) that satisfy the   621
objective function of a GSMM (i.e., biomass increase). The FVA fraction of   622
optimum was set to 0.9 (sustaining the objective function at 90% optimality,   623
allowing a less restricted secretion profile). Secretion compounds added to the   624
updated medium in each iteration were set to be given in optimal fluxes in next   625

iteration, to ensure a metabolic effect based on the presence of specific 626
metabolites in the environment, rather than their quantity. Flux boundaries of 627
updated medium components were set to 1000 mmol/ gDW hour (for a specific 628
exchange compound; gDW gram Dry Weight). 629

MCSM was initially simulated in the rhizosphere environment medium. 630
After each growth iteration, GSMM growth-values and the compounds secreted 631
by the species growing were collected, where the latter were added to the 632
medium for the next iteration as described above. Growth iterations continued 633
until no new compounds were secreted and no additional GSMMs had grown. 634
After the 3rd iteration, a set of organic phosphorous compounds (containing 635
both carbon and phosphorous) was added to the environment. These 636
compounds were gathered from the pool of model-specific minimal compounds 637
selected for use in the poor medium. Information regarding the chemical 638
formula of these compounds was gathered with the formula attribute of each 639
compound object in COBRApy. Along MCSM iterations, secreted metabolites 640
were classified into biochemical categories based on BRITE annotations[78] or, in 641
the absence of classification, manually. Tutorial for the MCSM stage of the 642
framework workflow is found at the GitHub page, along with the GSMMs and 643
media files. Instructions for conducting the analysis are in the README.md file 644
https://github.com/FreilichLab/Trophic_interactions_predicting_framework. 645

Construction of the exchange network and its untangling for screening sub-network motifs

A directed bipartite network representing all potential metabolic exchanges occurring within the rhizosphere community was constructed based on uptake and secretion data derived from MCSM iterations for each GSMM. Edges in the network were connected between GSMM nodes and metabolite nodes, with edge directionality indicating either secretion or uptake of a metabolite by a specific GSMM. The network was constructed with the networkx package, a python language package for the exploration and analysis of networks and network algorithms. Network-specific topography was obtained using the Kamada-kawai layout[79]. Information regarding the degree and connectivity of the different node types was acquired from the graph object (G). Code for the network construction module in the framework is found at the project's GitHub page under the name NETWORK.py.

Untangling the exchanges network into individual paths (i.e. sub-network motifs) was done using the all_shortest_paths function in networkx[79], applied over the exchanges network. Briefly, the algorithm screens for all possible shortest paths within the network, specifically screening for paths starting with an exudate node and ending secreted metabolite nodes (secreted by bacterial species but not consumed). This algorithm yielded two types of paths: 1) plant-microbe paths (PM) in which node positions one, two, and three represented exudate, microbe and secreted metabolite, respectively, and 2) plant-microbe-

microbe paths (PMM). PMM paths (length of five nodes) were constructed based on PM paths (length of three nodes), in which positions four and five displayed unique (i.e. not found in PM paths) microbe and metabolite nodes, respectively. Code for the network untangling module in the framework is found at the project's GitHub page under the name PATHS.py.

Associating PM and PMM sub-network motifs features with soil health

Sub-network motifs (PM and PMM) were functionally classified as associated with healthy soil (H), symptomized soil (S), or not-associated with either soil type (NA) based on differential abundance of the corresponding MAGs (PM) or MAGs combination (PMM) in the sub-network. Next, functional classifications of GSMMs in both PM and PMM sub-networks were characterized. For PMMs, distribution at the different positions was compared with the ANOVA test, followed by a Tukey test to significantly distinguish the groups.

GSMM classifications were further projected on uptake and secreted metabolites in the pathway motifs. For simplification, the analysis focused only on PM paths because PMM paths incorporate PM paths, and exchanges within a PMM path do not directly reflect the effect of an exudate on the secreted end-product (but over the intermediate compound). On that account, start/end metabolites in PM paths were associated with H/S/NA paths based on one-sided

hypergeometric test, comparing the frequency of each compound in a 693

functionally characterized path type (either H or S) vs. its frequency in NA 694

classified paths and the reciprocal data set. 695

Data availability 697

A reproducible workflow for central computational analyses was deposited in 698

https://github.com/FreilichLab/Trophic_interactions_predicting_framework, also 699

providing all GSMMs. Raw metagenome sequences used in this study are 700

deposited in NCBI under BioProject accession number PRJNA779554 701

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA779554). MAGs FASTA 702

sequences generated and used in this work are deposited in 703

https://github.com/FreilichLab/Ginatt_MAGs. 704

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Fig. 1 | A framework for interpreting and characterizing the network of metabolic interactions of root associated bacteria. Going from obscure rhizosphere (upper circle) to the elucidated rhizosphere (lower circle): Microbial genomic DNA extracted from rhizosphere soil serves the construction of a rhizosphere-derived metagenome and the recovery of rhizosphere community Metagenome Assembled Genomes (MAGs). For each MAG, a Genome Scale Metabolic Model (GSMM) is built, representing a specific species in the microbial community. Apple-root exudate profiles based on metabolomics data are used for the construction of a simulation environment. Via Constraint Based Modelling (CBM), applied on GSMMs, interactions are characterized in the simulated root environment, yielding predictive information regarding potential trophic exchanges within the native rhizosphere microbial community.

A

Phyla

- ● Acidobacteriota
- ● Actinobacteriota
- ● Armatimonadota
- ● Bacteriodota
- ● Chlamydiota
- ● Chloroflexota
- ● Desulfobacterota_B
- ● Eisenbacteria
- ● Elusimicrobiota
- ● Fibrobacterota
- ● Gemmatimonadota
- ● Myxococcota
- ● Nitrospirota
- ● Omnitrophota
- ● Planctomycetota
- ● Proteobacteria
- ● Verrucomicrobiota
- ● N/A
- ● Others

B

Binned-SG   **Non-binned SG**   **16S rRNA amplicon**

% Relative Abundance

Sample

Fig. 2 | Phylogenomic surveys of the genomic collection assembled from sequence data derived from apple rhizosphere samples. **A.** A phylogenomic tree constructed from 395 de-replicated[46] MAGs extracted from the metagenomes. The tree is based on concatenated marker proteins according to GTDB-Tk[43]. **B.** Relative abundance of bacterial taxa at the phylum level as inferred from different phylogenomic classification approaches applied for the same samples: Binned-SG (MAGs derived from shotgun metagenomics); Non-binned SG (contigs derived from shotgun metagenomics); 16S rRNA amplicon derived from the same samples. Taxonomic classifications of rRNA amplicon data and non-binned-SG sequences are taken from Somera et al[40] and Berihu et. al[41], respectively. Shotgun metagenomics data from Berihu et. al was used here for construction of MAGs catalogue. "Treatments 1 – 6" relate to six specific combinations of rootstock and soil amendment as detailed in Supp. Table 1. Relative abundance was calculated as the average value in five replicates conducted for each treatment

Fig. 3 | Microbial Community Succession Module (MCSM), and characterization of trophic dynamics in the community along iterations. **A.** An illustration of the iterative microbial community growth module, representing the growth of community members along iterations starting in the "Rhizosphere environment" and updated with microbial secretion outputs. **B.** Growth rate characterization of GSMMs in the community along iterations. Each column in the heat-map represents a different GSMM (only models which have grown in the rhizosphere environment are presented); growth rate is indicated by the color bar. Iterations are represented by rows. Blank spaces indicate models not growing at that specific iteration. N is the total number of species that grew after each iteration. **C.** Distribution of GSMMs growing along iterations at the phylum level. **D.** Distribution of organic compounds secreted along iterations, classified into biochemical groups. Root exudates bar (far left) represents the classification of organic compounds in the initial "Rhizosphere environment". Numbers on top of bars in both C, and D (designated by N) denotes the number of new entries in a specific iteration, with respect to the previous iteration.

A

Legend:
- S (red)
- H (green)
- NA (yellow)
- Metabolite (grey)

B

N = 84

- S: 31%
- H: 19%
- NA: 50%

C

4-Hydroxybenzoate → GSMM_091 → Catechol

(PM)

D

3,4-dihidroxy trans-cinnemate → GSMM_306 → Ornithine → GSMM_380 → glycero-phospho-glycerol

(PMM)

Fig. 4 | Trophic interactions based on community exchange fluxes predicted along iterations in the simulated rhizosphere environment. **A.** Network representation of potential metabolite exchanges between rhizosphere community members. Edges in the network are directional; arrowhead from a grey node (metabolite) pointing towards a colorful node (GSMM) indicates uptake; arrowhead from a colorful node (GSMM) pointing towards a grey node (metabolite) indicates secretion. Metabolites found in the center of the network are of a higher connectivity degree (i.e., are involved in more exchanges). Only organic compounds are included in the network. Different colors indicate DA classification of GSMM nodes. **B.** Pie chart distribution of GSMMs classified according to differential abundance of reads mapped to the respective MAGs; N is the total number of GSMMs in the network. **C, D.** Examples of specific sub-network motifs derived from the community network; PM (a three component sub-network motif, upper); PMM (a five component sub-network motif, lower), respectively.

Fig. 5 | Characterization of PM and PMM sub-network motifs' features associated with differentially abundant (DA) GSMMs. A. Box plots showing the count of PMM sub-networks generated by GSMMs in the first microbial position classified as either healthy (H), sick (S), or non-associated (NA). Boxes extend from first quantile to the third quantile, middle line represents the median; dots outside whiskers indicate outliers. Distinction of groups was determined using ANOVA followed by the Tukey post-hoc test. Asterisks indicate significance of test (*** <= 0.005 ** <= 0.01 * <= 0.05) B. Bar plot showing the prevalence of exudates significantly associated with H or S-classified PM sub-networks (Hypergeometric test; FDR <= 0.05; green: healthy-H, red: sick-S). C. Bar plots showing the prevalence of secreted compounds in PM sub-networks, which are significantly associated with H-classified (upper, colored green), or S-classified (lower, colored red) (Hypergeometric test; FDR <= 0.05). Compound name identifiers were taken from the BIGG database (X-axes). Venn diagram on the right represents the intersection of secreted compounds derived from both S and H classified PM sub-networks.

Table. 1	Apple root exudates adopted from the works of Leisso et al.[48,49], included in the rhizosphere environment.	
Amino acids	L-asparagine
	L-aspartate
	L-cysteine
	L-valine
	Beta-Alanine
Monosaccharides	Rhamnose
	Glycerate
	Ribose
	Galactose
	Xylose
	Erythrose
Sugar-alcohols	Sorbitol
	Galactitol
	Glycerol
Other carbohydrates	3,4-Dihydroxybenzoate
	3,4-Dihydroxy-trans-cinnamate
	4-Hydroxybenzoate
	Benzoate
	Esculin
	Ferulate
	Gallic acid
	Quinate
	Salicin
	Trans-Cinnamate
Organic acids	D-Galacturonate
	D-Lactate
	D-Malate
	Malonate
	Oxalate
	Pyruvate
	Succinate
Carbamides	Urea
Fatty acyls	Octadecanoic acid

Supplementary information

A metabolic modeling-based framework for predicting trophic dependencies in native rhizobiomes of crop plants

.Ginatt et al

List of Content

Supplementary Figure 1. Metabolic pathway completion analysis of community de-replicated MAGs. The presented cluster map links the MAGs with different metabolic pathways based on completion values of a specific metabolic pathway. Values are concluded based on the ratio between the count of EC numbers present in a MAG, which correspond to a specific pathway (derived from annotated genes), and the total EC numbers in that specific KEGG pathway. Left axis represent the KEGG KO of a set of specific functions, which are indicated on the right axis. Top and bottom color bars on the upper axis represent the taxonomic annotation of the MAGs (phylum and class, respectively), which are indicated on the bottom axis

Supplementary Figure 2. Distribution of GSMM attributes at the phylum level. Subplots of reactions, metabolites and exchanges presenting the distribution of the respective attributes for each .group of bacteria, affiliated with a specific phylum

Supplementary Figure 3. Bacterial growth rates in different environments. Each row represents the growth rate (biomass increase hour-1) of species in a specialized medium; from top to bottom: poor medium, poor medium supplemented with root exudates, root environment medium and rich medium. Each column represents a GSMM. Models are sorted by their growth score in the root environment medium. Poor, Rich, and Poor + exudates media are model specific, thus sustain growth of all models. The horizontal color bar on top of the plot represents the phyla of the corresponding GSMM. Actual growth values are provided in Supp. Data 5

Supplementary Figure 4. Phylogenetic distribution of models growing along iterations at the order level. Bars represent the taxonomic distribution of the community (i.e., overall models that grew along iteration, with respect to the corresponding iteration). Colors are indicative of different orders. Orders with insufficient nomenclature were classified as "Others".

Supplementary Figure 5. Uptake and secretion degrees of biochemically-classified metabolite nodes, as inferred from the communal interaction network. Values indicate mean amount of links between community GSMMs and nodes classified to the corresponding category. .Biochemical classification was conducted both based on BRITE database and manually.

Supplementary Figure 6. Community GSMM-centric characterization of plant-microbe (PM) and plant- microbe-microbe (PMM) motifs. A, B, C. Frequency of community GSMMs in PM, PMM (first/second position) in subnetwork motifs, respectively. **D.** correlation of GSMMs position frequency in PMM subnetworks; Pearson, P value=0.009.

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Summary table of the mapping of reads to MAGs across treatments. Treatment types are fully descriebd in .Berihu *et al*

Treatment	Sample	#reads	#mapped reads vs. Bins	mapping rates
1	BjSa_G210_1	318,022,594	112,624,412	35.41
1	BjSa_G210_2	281,761,476	99,921,545	35.46
1	BjSa_G210_3	416,038,372	145,599,092	35
1	BjSa_G210_4	282,301,036	95,304,805	33.76
1	BjSa_G210_5	447,141,566	160,309,647	35.85
2	BjSa_M26_1	376,878,959	135,763,911	36.02
2	BjSa_M26_2	347,182,908	122,895,292	35.4
2	BjSa_M26_3	416,564,165	144,390,674	34.66
2	BjSa_M26_4	665,109,915	236,939,650	35.62
2	BjSa_M26_5	467,544,898	162,091,275	34.67
3	Can_G210_1	337,813,971	109,814,240	32.51
3	Can_G210_2	326,790,059	105,115,075	32.17
3	Can_G210_3	290,305,045	94,566,244	32.57
3	Can_G210_4	467,206,263	153,295,356	32.81
3	Can_G210_5	317,179,883	98,665,507	31.11
4	Can_M26_1	346,489,491	116,381,526	33.59
4	Can_M26_2	332,022,731	107,875,006	32.49
4	Can_M26_3	281,669,999	93,377,935	33.15
4	Can_M26_4	352,892,914	114,191,672	32.36
4	Can_M26_5	423,521,175	142,376,677	33.62
5	NTC_G210_1	322,470,447	101,793,678	31.57
5	NTC_G210_2	381,163,976	116,560,703	30.58
5	NTC_G210_3	394,506,571	128,257,851	32.51
5	NTC_G210_4	289,809,167	88,881,030	30.67
5	NTC_G210_5	440,239,346	132,706,841	30.14
6	NTC_M26_1	359,395,622	106,970,231	29.76
6	NTC_M26_2	567,592,079	177,868,308	31.34
6	NTC_M26_3	619,940,510	189,976,498	30.64
6	NTC_M26_4	371,318,086	108,134,325	29.12
6	NTC_M26_5	340,890,336	102,616,038	30.1

Supplementray Table 2. Table of compounds used throughout iterations in the MCSM

Inorganic compounds	Root exudates	Organic phosphoroic compounds
Sodium	Pyruvate	AMP C10H12N5O7P
Hydrogen peroxide	Benzoate	CMP C9H12N3O8P
Inorganic triphosphate	L-Cysteine	DTMP C10H13N2O8P
Chromate	Urea	D-Glucose 1-phosphate
Iron (Fe3+)	Gallic acid	Glycerophosphoserine
Diphosphate	D-Galacturonate	UDPglucose
Cadmium	L-Asparagine	Coenzyme A
2 Hydroxylamino 4 6 dinitrotoluene	Quinate	D-Mannose 1-phosphate
Copper	L-Valine	2(alpha-D-Mannosyl-6-phosphate)-D-glycerate
Nitrite	L-Aspartate	UDP-N-acetyl-3-O-(1-carboxyvinyl)-D-glucosamine
Copper	Succinate	2',3'-Cyclic AMP
Arsenite	Galactitol	2',3'-Cyclic CMP
Nickel	4-Hydroxybenzoate	2',3'-Cyclic GMP
Mercury	Beta-Alanine	Guanosine 3 phosphate C10H12N5O8P
Hydrogen	D-Galactose	D-Fructose 6-phosphate
Ammonia	Trans-Cinnamate	Glycerophosphoglycerol
Ammonium	Ferulate	NMN C11H14N2O8P
Potassium	D-Sorbitol	Phosphate
Silver	D-Malate	Diphosphate
Reduced ferredoxin	D-Ribose	Alpha,alpha'-Trehalose 6-phosphate
Oxidized ferredoxin	D-Lactate	3 AMP C10H12N5O7P
Polyphosphate 50	3,4-Dihydroxy-trans-cinnamate	Sn-Glycero-3-phosphocholine
Hydrogen sulfide	D-Xylose	Sn-Glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine
Zinc	Glycerate	Sn-Glycero-3-phospho-1-inositol
Arsenate	Malonate	D-Glucuronate 1-phosphate
Phosphonate	Oxalate	Glycerol 2-phosphate
Magnesium	D-Erythrose	O-Phospho-L-serine
Manganese	Glycerol	Alpha-D-Ribose 5-phosphate
Nitrous oxide	Octadecanoic acid	UMP C9H11N2O9P
Sulfur	Salicin	Undecaprenyl diphosphate
Fe2+ mitochondria	Esculin	2-Phosphoglycolate
H2O	Rhamnose	Propanoyl phosphate
3Fe-4S] damaged iron-sulfur cluster	3,4-Dihydroxybenzoate	Beta D glucose 6 phosphate C6H11O9P
Molybdate		3 CMP C9H12N3O8P
4Fe-4S] iron-sulfur cluster		3 UMP C9H11N2O9P
Chloride		Glycerol 3-phosphate
Superoxide anion		GMP C10H12N5O8P
Sulfate		UDP-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine
Nitrogen		2-Aminoethylphosphonate
Cobalt		Undecaprenyl phosphate
Tetrathionate		
2 Hydroxylamino 4 6 dinitrotoluene		
4 Hydroxylamino 2 6 dinitrotoluene		
Trithionate		
Selenate		
Calcium		
Nitric oxide		
Phosphate		
Thiosulfate		

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