

1 **The microbiome as a biosensor: functional profiles elucidate hidden stress in hosts**

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10 **Significance Statement**

11 This study examines the potential for microbial communities to provide insight into stresses  
12 experienced by their eukaryotic host organisms, through profiling of metagenomes and  
13 metatranscriptomes. Our study uses plant host-associated microorganisms as an *in vivo* and  
14 *in situ* microsensor to identify environmental stresses experienced by the microbial  
15 community and by the plant. Transcriptionally active host-associated microbial communities  
16 are responsive in a highly specific manner to environmental conditions. Conversely, host  
17 transcriptome sequencing provides only a very general stress response. This study is a proof-  
18 of-concept for the use of microbial communities as microsensors, with a great potential for  
19 interrogation of a wide range of host systems.

20

21 **Abstract:**

22 Microbial communities are highly responsive to environmental cues, and both their  
23 structure and activity can be altered in response to changing conditions. We hypothesized  
24 that host-associated microbial communities, particularly those colonizing host surfaces, can  
25 serve as *in situ* sensors to reveal environmental conditions experienced by both  
26 microorganisms and the host. For a proof-of-concept, we studied a model plant-soil system  
27 and employed a non-deterministic gene-centric approach. A holistic analysis was performed  
28 using plants of two species and irrigation with water of low quality to induce host stress. Our  
29 analyses examined the genetic potential (DNA) and gene expression patterns (RNA) of plant-  
30 associated microbial communities, as well as transcriptional profiling of host plants.  
31 Transcriptional analysis of plants irrigated with treated wastewater revealed significant

32 enrichment of general stress-associated root transcripts relative to plants irrigated with  
33 fresh water. Metagenomic analysis of root-associated microbial communities in treated  
34 wastewater-irrigated plants, however, revealed enrichment of more specific stress-  
35 associated genes relating to high levels of salt, high pH and lower levels of oxygen. Meta-  
36 analysis of these differentially abundant genes obtained from other metagenome studies  
37 provided evidence of the link between environmental factors such as pH and oxygen and  
38 these genes. Analysis of microbial transcriptional response demonstrated that enriched gene  
39 content was actively expressed, which implies contemporary response to elevated levels of  
40 pH and salt. We demonstrate here that microbial profiling can elucidate stress signals that  
41 cannot be observed even through interrogation of host transcriptome, leading to an  
42 alternate mechanism for evaluating *in situ* conditions experienced by host organisms.

43

#### 44 **Introduction**

45 Advances in sequencing have propelled the field of microbiology and shifted focus from  
46 analysis of microbial isolates or low diversity ecosystems to analysis of environments with  
47 highly diverse microbial communities. Global surveys of microbial community structure have  
48 been conducted in a wide range of natural environments (1, 2, 3), also reviewed in (4), and  
49 many of these studies have focused on host-associated microbiomes. Such host-associated  
50 microbial environments include plant-associated communities (5, 6, 7, 8, 9) though the  
51 greatest effort has been placed on the human-associated microbial communities (10, 11, 12,  
52 13). Studies examining plant host-associated microbial communities have focused on soil  
53 microorganisms that are enriched in the rhizosphere- the soil surrounding and affected by  
54 the roots (8). In the rhizosphere, soil type (6, 8, 9) and plant host type (14, 15) have been  
55 identified as the main forces determining rhizosphere and root microbiomes. The selection  
56 of rhizosphere-competent organisms from soil has been well established, with specific plants  
57 and different growth stages of plants each selecting for different microbial communities  
58 from among the high diversity of microorganisms in soil (16, 17). Rhizosphere  
59 microorganisms are further enriched to form sub-populations colonizing root surface (9), as  
60 plants shape the soil-plant continuum in a gradient-dependent manner (6, 8, 9) mainly  
61 through carbon flux to the root environment (18). Functional profiling of microbial  
62 communities associated with different plants has demonstrated that these microbiomes  
63 differ in their metabolic activities and has suggested the presence of niche conditions  
64 associated with a wide range of factors, of which oxygen concentration is one (19).

65 More broadly, factors influencing plant root microbiome include geographic location (5, 9),  
66 plant developmental stage (15, 20, 21), nutrient (*e.g.*, N or P) availability (7, 22) and redox  
67 status (23). Numerous agricultural practices, which modify many of the above, have been  
68 shown to have an impact on root microbiome. These include fertilization (24), compost  
69 amendment (25) and irrigation with water of lower quality (26). Each of these practices  
70 alters a wide range of environmental variables, thus confounding the ability to identify the  
71 most consequential abiotic factor influencing the plant system and modifying the root  
72 microbiome.

73 Microorganisms sense minor changes in environmental conditions and respond rapidly  
74 through transcriptional changes, as well as through microbial amplification- the dynamic  
75 modification of the abundance of microbial taxa; these changes occur on a time-scale that is  
76 much shorter than for the host (27). Thus, interrogation of the microbial community may be  
77 used as a means to understand environmental conditions on short to long time scales, as  
78 well as small to large physical scale. In this study, the root surface is used as a model to test  
79 the hypothesis that microorganisms can be sensitive *in situ* detectors of environmental  
80 conditions. The root zone has a number of favorable features for such interrogation,  
81 including: (a) the presence of a high percentage of microorganisms that are transcriptionally  
82 active; (b) high microbial competition for access to root exudates – and therefore likely rapid  
83 turn-over if environmental conditions change; and (c) access to high microbial diversity in  
84 the soil. Thus, both the composition of the root-associated microbial community and the  
85 transcriptional activity of the microbial community can be informative regarding root  
86 environmental conditions.

87 In this study, we use the root surface microbiome functional response as a micro-sensor to  
88 identify stresses imposed by irrigation with water of lower quality, such as treated  
89 wastewater (TWW). Our study employs the basic assumptions that the microbiome  
90 inhabiting the root surface is exposed to the same environmental conditions as its host, and  
91 that the response of the microbiome (*i.e.*, alteration of community structure, associated  
92 gene abundance and transcriptional profiles) to stress can identify the specific stress or  
93 stresses in the root environment. To examine these assumptions and our general  
94 hypothesis, we performed deep DNA and RNA sequencing of plant roots grown in soil  
95 irrigated with fresh water (FW) or TWW. Plant transcriptional profiling was examined  
96 together with microbial community taxonomic and functional gene content characterization  
97 (shotgun metagenome sequencing) and microbial transcriptional profiling (shotgun  
98 metatranscriptome sequencing). We observed that the host responded to TWW irrigation in

99 a highly general manner, whereas the microbial response was specific to stresses present in  
100 TWW, including elevated salinity and elevated pH.

101

## 102 **Results**

103 Here, we assess the use of root-associated microorganisms as an indicator tool to reveal  
104 environmental conditions and stresses affecting plant hosts at a micro-scale. Our model  
105 system was a long-term anthropogenic disturbance caused by soil irrigation with water of  
106 lower quality (*i.e.*, treated wastewater, TWW) as compared to irrigation with fresh water  
107 (FW). We characterized plant-host response and root microbiome composition and response  
108 using deep sequencing of RNA and DNA extracted from roots. Shotgun metagenomic (DNA-  
109 based) and metatranscriptomic (RNA-based) analyses were performed on root systems from  
110 two host plant types (tomato and lettuce) across two consecutive years and with two  
111 different water treatments (FW or TWW), to describe taxonomic shifts and functional  
112 responses associated with long-term root irrigation with water of differing quality. For  
113 shotgun metagenome analyses, 25-49 million DNA sequences (paired-end) were generated  
114 per sample (**supplementary Table S1**). In tomato roots, 13 to 28% of the reads mapped to  
115 the host genome, with the remaining reads were attributed to the microbiome. In lettuce,  
116 55-69% mapped to the host with the remaining reads attributed to the microbiome. A *de*  
117 *novo* assembly was performed using all non-host data from all root metagenomes. This  
118 assembly yielded 1,760,490 contigs larger than 500bp, and this assembly had an N50 value  
119 greater than 1,600 bases. In total, there were 6,422,376 predicted genes and a non-  
120 redundant gene catalogue (based on 95% similarity) was established with 5,359,885 genes.  
121 These genes were mapped to the SEED (28) and KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and  
122 Genomes) (29) databases for functional predictions, and approximately 22% of the non-  
123 redundant genes were annotated by each database. For shotgun metatranscriptome  
124 analyses, 27-33 million sequences (paired-end) were generated per sample (**Table S1**).  
125 Metatranscriptome reads were mapped to the gene catalogue established from the  
126 metagenomics analysis (microbial transcriptome, with 11-51% of the sequences mapped) or  
127 to the available plant genome (host transcriptome analysis). As the lettuce genome is not  
128 fully annotated, sequence data generated from lettuce plants were screened for orthologs of  
129 known tomato genes, when possible.

130

131 ***Host functions actively associated with TWW irrigation***

132 Plant host physiological response to irrigation with water of lower quality has been  
133 previously reported, with significantly reduced yield of both plants under TWW irrigation  
134 (e.g., (26) **Table S2**). In this study, we performed deep sequencing of plant transcripts to  
135 identify stresses that TWW irrigation imposes on plant roots. Across two growing seasons, a  
136 total of 45 tomato genes and 645 predicted lettuce transcripts were significantly  
137 differentially expressed between irrigation treatments. Of the 645 lettuce transcripts, only  
138 141 could be annotated by comparison with known tomato genes (**Table S3**).

139 To identify the most robust effects of TWW treatment, tomato and lettuce differentially  
140 abundant transcripts were analyzed together. A network analysis of enriched transcripts was  
141 performed to predict interactions and highlight clusters of associated genes (**Figure 1**). The  
142 FW-enriched gene network consisted of 97 nodes, indicating the number of enriched genes  
143 that were identified by the STRING protein-protein interaction network database. Similarly,  
144 the TWW-enriched gene network consisted of 86 nodes. The FW-enriched gene network,  
145 however, was linked by only seven edges representing predicted protein interactions (direct  
146 physical interactions, as well as predicted functional association). In contrast, the TWW-  
147 enriched gene network was linked by 69 edges, with a significantly higher number of  
148 interactions than expected ( $p$  value < 0.0001, by Random Graph with Given Degree Sequence  
149 (RGGDS)) (**Figure 1a, b**). The TWW gene network of both plants was enriched (Aggregate  
150 Fold Change, permutation-based, non-parametric test) primarily with various heat-shock  
151 transcripts, including Hsp20, Hsp70, and DnaJ. Heat shock proteins are prevalent in plants  
152 and are active during normal growth (30) Such genes also show a stress response, and can  
153 also be activated in response to many stress cues, including heat, cold, water stress, salinity,  
154 osmotic stress, and oxidative stress (30, 31). In addition, tubulin and 'FKBP-type peptidyl-  
155 prolyl cis-trans isomerase' genes were also significantly enriched under TWW exposure  
156 (**Figure 1b,c**). Tubulin reorganization has been shown under salt stress, cold shock,  
157 aluminum exposure, interaction with pathogens and more (32, 33, 34, 35). Overall, the plant  
158 response to irrigation with TWW, as detected by transcriptome analysis, was largely  
159 restricted to highly general stress response genes that are expressed under a wide range of  
160 environmental conditions.

161

162 ***Shifts in microbiome associated with TWW irrigation (DNA-based metagenomics)***

163 *Functional profiling demonstrates the extent to which root microbiomes respond to*  
164 *environmental factors.*

165 The taxonomic affiliation of root-associated microbial communities was determined by  
166 analysis of annotated genes from the metagenomes (**Fig. 2f; Table S4, S5**). The vast majority  
167 of annotated genes were derived from bacteria (96.7% of all mapped reads), while the  
168 percentage of reads derived from Fungi (1.2%), Archaea (0.5%), and viruses (0.13%) was  
169 much lower. Despite a prior mapping step to remove host reads, 1.2% of annotated gene  
170 counts could still be mapped to plant genomes. The root microbiome was primarily  
171 composed of bacteria from the phyla Proteobacteria (44% of all mapped reads) and  
172 Actinobacteria (33%).

173 The relative abundance of taxa was compared across experimental conditions of plant host  
174 type (tomato vs. lettuce) and irrigation water quality (FW vs. TWW) using DESeq2 method  
175 for comparing differential abundant count data (36)(**Figure 2f**). Broadly, 34% of all  
176 taxonomic groups (with highest available taxonomic resolution, based on MEGAN6 least  
177 common ancestor) were significantly (Wald test ,FDR corrected p value<0.05) more  
178 abundant in tomato roots, as compared to 31%, significantly associated with lettuce roots.  
179 Many taxa from the phyla Actinobacteria and Bacteroidetes/Chloroflexi were significantly  
180 more abundant in tomato roots relative to lettuce, while Betaproteobacteria and  
181 Planctomycetes were strongly and significantly associated with lettuce roots. Irrigation  
182 water quality mostly affected Proteobacterial taxa (10% of microbial taxa were significantly  
183 more abundant in TWW-irrigated roots, as compared to 11% of microbial taxa enriched in  
184 FW-irrigated roots. 60% of all significantly abundant taxonomic group were identified as  
185 Proteobacteria). Acidobacteria and Betaproteobacteria were significantly more abundant in  
186 FW-irrigated roots and Gammaproteobacteria significantly more abundant in TWW-irrigated  
187 roots (all data available at supplementary **Table S4**).

188 Root microbial metagenomes from lettuce and tomato were annotated and mapped to the  
189 SEED database to identify functional genes significantly associated with plant host type  
190 (tomato and lettuce) and irrigation water quality (FW and TWW). A comparison of  
191 differentially abundant functional genes between tomato and lettuce root microbiomes,  
192 demonstrated strong host specificity in microbiome gene content (**Figure 2a**), consistent  
193 with our prior analyses of root microbiomes of different plant species grown in identical soils  
194 (19). In this study, greater than 50% of SEED annotated genes (from a total of 2625  
195 "functional role"(28)) were significantly (based on Wald test, adjusted p-value<0.05) more

196 abundant in either tomato or lettuce roots (26% in tomato relative to lettuce and 27% in  
197 lettuce relative to tomato; **Figure 2a**).

198 Irrigation water quality also affected root-associated microbiome functional profile (**Figure**  
199 **2b, c, d**). Initially, the effect of irrigation type was examined in tomato and lettuce systems  
200 independently by comparing SEED-annotated gene abundance using DESeq2 method.  
201 Irrigation type determined 36% of the tomato root metagenome (15% of all annotated gene  
202 list in tomatoes were significantly more abundant in FW irrigated plants compare to 21%  
203 more abundant in TWW irrigated plants, Wald test, **Figure 2b**) similarly to 34% of the lettuce  
204 root metagenome (FW- 16%, TWW- 18%, **Figure. 2c**). To identify commonalities in response  
205 to irrigation, irrigation effects were examined in a dataset of both plant hosts combined. This  
206 combined analysis identified microbiome genes that were positively associated with FW  
207 irrigation (11% of all SEED annotated genes) or with TWW irrigation (15% of all SEED  
208 annotated genes) (**Figure 2d**). Overall, the combined root microbiome functional profiles  
209 were significantly associated with plant host (tomato vs. lettuce,  $F=10.1$ ,  $p$  value=0.001) and  
210 irrigation treatment (FW vs. TWW,  $F=6.6$ ,  $p$  value=0.004) as determined by a PERMANOVA  
211 test based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index of the SEED annotated gene counts (**Figure**  
212 **S1**). For further analyses, unless otherwise indicated, ecosystem comparisons of plants  
213 grown in FW and TWW were performed on data combined from both plant hosts.

214 We previously measured significant increases in pH, dissolved organic matter (DOC) and  
215 electrical conductivity (EC) in TWW-irrigated soils relative to FW-irrigated soils (26)(also at  
216 **Table S6**). Similar patterns were observed in this study through canonical correspondence  
217 analysis (CCA) (**Figure 2e**). The CCA presents the relationship of the measured soil  
218 parameters and root microbiome functional gene profile (all SEED-annotated gene counts).  
219 An ANOVA permutation test was significant ( $F= 3.2$ ,  $p$  value=0.001 for the full model), and  
220 the constrained variables (i.e., pH, DOC, EC) accounted for 54.8% of the variance. DOC  
221 ( $F=2.4$ ,  $p$  value=0.038) and pH ( $F=5.7$ ,  $p$  value=0.002) were found to significantly explain  
222 portions of the variance associated with the observed microbiome functional profile, while  
223 EC was not significant ( $F=1.57$ ,  $p$  value=0.163). The microbial community functional gene  
224 profiles of FW- and TWW-irrigated root samples were separated along the CCA2 axis, with  
225 DOC loading primarily on the CCA2 axis. Conversely, the microbial community functional  
226 gene profiles of samples from different plant hosts were separated primarily along CCA1  
227 axis, with pH loading primarily on the CCA1 axis.

228

229 SEED & KEGG functional categories enriched or depleted in metagenomes of TWW-irrigated  
230 roots relative to FW-irrigated roots.

231 SEED- annotated genes highly significantly ( $p < 0.01$ ) associated with irrigation water quality  
232 across both plants were examined, and in total 438 genes were identified (**Figure 3**). Of  
233 these genes, 286 were enriched in TWW-irrigated roots and 152 enriched in FW-irrigated  
234 roots. These genes were clustered into general categories (SEED level 1, based on the  
235 hierarchical clustering available on MEGAN6): *e.g.*, carbohydrates, amino acid derivatives,  
236 membrane transports, respiration and regulation of cell signaling (**Figure 3a**). Rare  
237 categories (represented by fewer than 5 genes) were removed from the analysis. To  
238 compare category enrichment, we examined the proportion of genes enriched for each  
239 category (**Figure 3b**). For some gene categories (*e.g.*, cell division, cell cycle or  
240 carbohydrates), a similar number of genes were enriched in both TWW- or FW-irrigated  
241 roots (*i.e.*, no specific effect of irrigation treatment), while others were more strongly  
242 skewed to either FW or TWW. For example, membrane transport and transposable element  
243 genes were substantially enriched in TWW-irrigated roots. Conversely, the gene categories  
244 of nucleosides and nucleotides and sulfur metabolism, were substantially enriched in FW-  
245 irrigated roots.

246 An enrichment analysis was also conducted for gene subsystem enrichment and depletion  
247 by irrigation method (level 2, based on the SEED hierarchical clustering, tested using  
248 Wallenius non-central hypergeometric distribution) (**Figure 4a, Table S7**). One of the most  
249 strongly enriched categories ( $\log_2FC=1.4$ ; relative abundance=0.07%,  $p$  value $<0.0001$ ) was  
250 the Na(+)-translocating NADH-quinone reductase (NQR), a membrane complex that utilizes  
251 the respiratory chain to generate a sodium gradient in place of a proton gradient in high pH  
252 and sodium conditions (37). In addition, enrichment of multiple membrane-associated  
253 subsystems in TWW-irrigated roots was observed, including: (i) sodium-hydrogen antiporter,  
254 a common membrane transporter that supports sodium balance in exchange for proton  
255 motive force ( $\log_2FC=1.67$ ;  $p$  value=0.002) , (ii) pH adaptation potassium efflux system  
256 ( $\log_2FC=1.87$ ;  $p$  value=0.007), (iii) mannose-sensitive hemagglutinin, type 4 pilus (MSHA4)  
257 ( $\log_2FC=1.03$ ;  $p$  value=0.0009), (iv) alginate metabolism membrane complex ( $\log_2FC=0.23$ ;  $p$   
258 value=0.01). In addition to membrane-associated subsystems, other subsystems were  
259 enriched in TWW-irrigated roots, including arginine degradation ( $\log_2FC=0.56$ ;  $p$  value=0.04).  
260 Five genes enriched within this subsystem catalyze the complete arginine to glutamate  
261 pathway (**Table S7**). Soil Na<sup>+</sup> concentration, K<sup>+</sup> concentration and pH were correlated with  
262 observed gene abundance patterns (**Figure S2, Table S8**). The relative abundance of TRAP



263 transporters (Pearson's  $R_{\text{DOM}}=0.81$ ,  $P\text{-value}_{\text{DOM}}=0.001$ ;  $R_{\text{Na}}=0.78$ ,  $P_{\text{Na}}=0.003$ ;  $R_{\text{K}^+}=0.81$ ,  
264  $P_{\text{K}^+}=0.001$ ) and sodium hydrogen antiporters ( $R_{\text{DOM}}=0.86$ ,  $P_{\text{DOM}}=0.0003$ ;  $R_{\text{Na}}=0.78$ ,  $P_{\text{Na}}=0.003$ ;  
265  $R_{\text{K}^+}=0.8$ ,  $P_{\text{K}^+}=0.001$ ) correlated to organic matter and  $\text{Na}^+$  /  $\text{K}^+$  concentrations. The relative  
266 abundance of potassium antiporter genes was correlated with  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$  concentrations  
267 ( $R_{\text{Na}}=0.9$ ,  $P_{\text{Na}}<0.0001$ ;  $R_{\text{K}^+}=0.86$ ,  $P_{\text{K}^+}=0.0003$ ), and MSHA4 gene relative abundance was  
268 correlated with pH ( $R_{\text{pH}}=0.88$ ,  $P_{\text{pH}}=0.0001$ ). NQR gene abundance was significantly correlated  
269 with salt concentration ( $R_{\text{Na}}=0.8$ ,  $P_{\text{Na}}=0.002$ ;  $R_{\text{K}^+}=0.81$ ,  $P_{\text{K}^+}=0.001$ ) and pH ( $R_{\text{pH}}=0.79$ ,  
270  $P_{\text{pH}}=0.002$ ).

271 Analysis of enriched KEGG pathways (**Figure 4b, c, Table S9**) and modules (**Figure S3**)  
272 revealed additional biological processes enriched in TWW-irrigated root microbiomes  
273 relative to FW-irrigated root microbiomes. Two-component systems were significantly  
274 enriched (40 KEGG genes were enriched,  $p\text{ value}<0.0001$ ) in TWW-irrigated root  
275 microbiomes relative to FW-irrigated root microbiomes, including pathways involved in  
276 misfolded proteins, flagellar assembly, iron acquisition, and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  starvation (**Figure 4c**). In  
277 addition, the denitrification gene module was significantly (4 genes,  $p\text{ value}=0.006$ ) enriched  
278 in TWW irrigated roots (**Figure S3**). Conversely, ABC transporter gene pathways associated  
279 with sugar (maltose, galactose and oligogalacturonide), peptide (dipeptide and glutamate/  
280 aspartate) and nutrient (cobalt or nickel) transport were enriched (43 genes,  $p$   
281  $\text{value}<0.0001$ ) in FW-irrigated root microbiomes relative to TWW-irrigated roots. A Type 3  
282 secretion system (T3SS) gene module was also enriched (12 genes,  $p\text{ value}<0.0001$ ) in FW-  
283 irrigated root communities.

284

285 *Meta-analysis of selected gene counts relative to environmental variables from publicly*  
286 *available metagenomes.*

287 A meta-analysis was conducted to establish a global link between metagenome functional  
288 gene content and measured environmental variables. We focused on subset of prominent  
289 genes from this study that were strongly positively correlated with pH (NQR,  $\text{Na}^+\text{-H}^+$   
290 antiporter) or negatively correlated with oxygen levels (periplasmic nitrate reductase,  
291 *napAB*, nitric oxide reductase- *norBC*, nitrous oxide reductase *Z*, *nosZ*). Metagenomes  
292 available at the Joint Genome Institute's (JGI) Integrated Microbial Genomes and  
293 Microbiomes repository ( $n=14,596$ ) were screened. Environmental pH measurements were  
294 available for a subset of these metagenomes ( $n=1,588$ ), and of this subset, 160

295 metagenomes had a total number of predicted genes greater than 100,000 (**Table S10**).  
296 Within these 160 metagenomes, the relative abundance of genes annotated as NQR  
297 (pairwise Wilcoxon rank test, Bonferroni correction-  $p_{\text{pH}<7:\text{pH}7-8}=0.02$ ;  $p_{\text{pH}7-8:\text{pH}>8}<0.0001$ ;  $p_{\text{pH}<7:\text{pH}>8}=0.002$ ) and  $\text{Na}^+-\text{H}^+$  antiporter ( $p_{\text{pH}<7:\text{pH}7-8}<0.0001$ ;  $p_{\text{pH}<7:\text{pH}>8}<0.0001$ ) were strongly correlated with measured pH values (**Figure 5a, b**).  
300 Using the same filtering criteria, 257 metagenomes were identified with oxygen  
301 measurements and greater than 100,000 predicted genes. In these metagenomes, the  
302 abundance of *napAB*, *norBC* and *nosZ*, in the denitrification pathway, were enriched in  
303 samples with lower measured oxygen (**Figure 5d, e, f, g**). No such trend was observed for  
304 housekeeping genes such as gyrase B (*gyrB*, **Figure 5h**). Salinity or  $\text{Na}^+$  concentrations were  
305 measured only in small subset of available metagenomes and were not analyzed further.

306

### 307 ***Microbial gene expression patterns associated with TWW irrigation (RNA-based*** 308 ***metatranscriptomics)***

309 An enrichment analysis of the root-associated microbial metatranscriptomes was performed  
310 to identify SEED-annotated genes and subsystems that were significantly differentially  
311 transcribed between plants irrigated with TWW relative to those irrigated with FW (**Figure 6**,  
312 **Table S11**). In total, 10.1% of SEED-annotated genes were significantly differentially  
313 expressed in roots of TWW-irrigated plants relative to FW-irrigated plants (Wald test ,FDR  
314 corrected  $p_{\text{value}}<0.05$ ). Specifically, 7.2% of such genes had higher expression and 2.9%  
315 lower expression in TWW-irrigated roots relative to FW-irrigated roots. SEED-annotated  
316 genes were clustered into 761 SEED subsystems (level 2, based on SEED hierarchical  
317 clustering), and of these, 8 were over-represented in TWW-irrigated root microbial  
318 communities while only a single subsystem was significantly over-represented in the FW-  
319 irrigated root transcriptomes. The most highly and significantly over expressed gene sub-  
320 systems in TWW-irrigated roots were NQR, TRAP transporters, sodium-hydrogen antiporters,  
321 alginate metabolism genes and MSHA4 (**Figure 6a**). All of these genes were also significantly  
322 enriched in metagenomic analysis of TWW-irrigated roots relative to FW-irrigated roots.  
323 Genes involved in alginate metabolism were only slightly enriched in metagenomes of TWW-  
324 irrigated roots ( $\log_2\text{FC}=0.23$ ,  $p_{\text{value}}=0.01$ ) but were strongly over-expressed in TWW-  
325 irrigated metatranscriptomes relative to FW-irrigated roots ( $\log_2\text{FC}=1.7$ ,  $p_{\text{value}}=0.0004$ ).  
326 Conversely, the overall expression level of hydrogenase subsystem genes was significantly  
327 higher in FW-irrigated roots relative to TWW-irrigated roots ( $\log_2\text{FC}=1.6$ ,  $p_{\text{value}}>0.0001$ ),

328 though their relative abundance at the DNA level was not substantially affected by irrigation  
329 treatment (**Figure 6b**).

330 Enrichment analysis of KEGG pathways (**Figure 6c**) and modules (**Figure S4**) was performed  
331 (**Table S12**). The transcriptome of the microbial community of TWW-irrigated roots was  
332 significantly enriched in 2.75% of all KEGG-annotated genes. In addition, 8 KEGG pathways  
333 and 2 KEGG modules were significantly enriched in TWW-irrigated root metatranscriptomes  
334 relative to FW-irrigated root metatranscriptomes. In contrast, the transcriptome of the  
335 microbial community of FW-irrigated roots was significantly enriched in 1.8% of all KEGG-  
336 annotated genes. In addition, 3 KEGG pathways and 3 KEGG modules were significantly  
337 enriched in FW-irrigated root metatranscriptomes relative to TWW-irrigated root  
338 metatranscriptomes. This analysis revealed higher microbial relative expression of two-  
339 component systems, including the C4 dicarboxylate gene cluster, in TWW-irrigated roots  
340 relative to FW-irrigated roots (**Figure 6c**). Moreover, in TWW-irrigated roots, higher relative  
341 expression of arginine and proline metabolism genes, particularly those in the arginine-to-  
342 spermidine pathway, was observed (**Figure S5**). The relative expression level of ABC  
343 transporter genes, including glutamate and galactose transporters, were higher in the  
344 metatranscriptomes of FW-irrigated roots relative to TWW-irrigated roots (10 enriched  
345 genes,  $p$  value=0.0004). The abundance of type 3 secretion system (T3SS) genes was  
346 significantly higher in the metagenomes of TWW-irrigated root microbial communities  
347 relative to those of the FW-irrigated root metagenomes. However, the level of expression of  
348 type 6 secretion system (T6SS) genes was most highly expressed under FW-irrigation  
349 conditions (7 enriched genes,  $p$  value<0.0001).

350

## 351 **Discussion**

352 We previously studied the effect of TWW irrigation on soil and root microbial community  
353 structure and composition (26). In that study, irrigation water quality and soil type were  
354 major explanatory variables for the observed soil microbial community structure and were  
355 of a similar magnitude. Similarly, the effect of irrigation water quality on root microbial  
356 community structure was of a similar magnitude to the plant host effect (26), demonstrating  
357 the responsiveness of the microbial community to both host and environmental factors. In  
358 the current study, we have attempted to harness the rhizoplane microbiome – existing at  
359 the interface between the plant and the surrounding soil – as a sensor for detecting *in situ*  
360 environmental conditions at the plant-soil interface, including factors leading to host stress.

361 The main incentive in using the host-associated microbiome as a biosensor lies in the fact  
362 that high resolution is desired for accurate definition of the factors contributing to host  
363 physiological status (38). Comparing the differences in the relative abundance of microbial  
364 genetic features (*i.e.*, metagenome analysis) or expression of microbiome genes (*i.e.*,  
365 metatranscriptome analysis) can aid in the identification of long-term stressors imposed on  
366 the host under these conditions as well as short-term stressors revealed by expression of  
367 genes processing environmental cues at time of sampling. Analyses can be performed at  
368 different levels of hierarchical gene annotation and can be performed using gene level  
369 annotation (*e.g.*, SEED database) and enriched pathways or modules (*e.g.*, KEGG  
370 annotation).

371 Most commonly used methods for studying root- soil interface employs microelectrodes  
372 (39), or specific dyed root imaging in "rhizoboxes" (40, 41). Both methods measure only pre-  
373 defined variables, eliminating the possibility of discovering novel or unsuspected stressors.  
374 Moreover, experimental design forces manipulating natural environment by growing plants  
375 in designed cells or by removing plants from soil for further experimental procedure.  
376 Furthermore, in studies where transcriptional response is examined, plant host response is  
377 often tested under severe stress in unnatural short term experimental design (42). We  
378 sought to be able to assess environmental factors leading to plant physiological status under  
379 more natural agricultural conditions.

380 A secondary motivating factor for the use of the microbiome as a biosensor lies in the  
381 observed low-resolution response of the host organism. In this study, upregulation of stress  
382 response genes was identified in the transcriptome of host roots irrigated with TWW relative  
383 to those roots irrigated with FW. However, the specific nature of the stresses remained  
384 unresolved, with transcriptome analysis revealing only the differential expression of genes  
385 involved in a highly general stress response associated with heat shock proteins (43, 44). In  
386 fields, plants are expose to myriad fluctuating biotic and abiotic environmental conditions,  
387 which force plants to tailor their gene transcriptional profiles. Therefore, individual abiotic  
388 stress response cannot be extrapolated to plant experiencing multiple stress conditions. The  
389 nature of the stress cannot be predicted based on experimental profiling of individual stress  
390 response under regulated conditions (45, 46). Moreover, other types of stress regulation can  
391 also mediate plant response, including post-transcriptional regulation of RNA by micro RNAs  
392 (miRNAs) or other small noncoding RNAs (47), and through protein modification (48). Such  
393 regulation is not as easily measured as gene expression.

394 In contrast to the host, the genetic diversity of the host-associated microbiome is much  
395 greater (27), and the extraordinarily high microbial diversity in soils provides the plant with a  
396 wide selection of organisms competing for access to root exudates (18). While the plant host  
397 can alter gene expression profiles in response to changing environmental conditions, both  
398 the membership of the root-associated microbial community and the expression patterns of  
399 the root-associated microbial community can be altered. Thus, the microbiome provides us  
400 with a highly dynamic and sensitive target with the potential for both short-term  
401 responsiveness (*i.e.*, metatranscriptome) and long-term responsiveness (*i.e.*, metagenome).  
402 In this study, we observed that in response to long-term irrigation with TWW, both the  
403 metagenome and metatranscriptome were significantly altered. Statistical analysis of  
404 microbial features lead to the identification of significantly differently abundant genes, gene  
405 transcripts and pathways. Some gene of interest, being most significantly enriched, or with  
406 known and informative supported data, are presented in **Figure 7**. Critically, the  
407 identification of the differentially abundant or expressed microbial features was consistent  
408 with the known key stresses imposed by TWW irrigation on the microbial community and  
409 the host.

410

#### 411 *Level of pH and salinity:*

412 Cytoplasmic pH in microorganisms must be at a range suitable for maintaining protein  
413 integrity. Bacterial cytoplasmic pH lies at a pH range of 7.4–7.8 (49). In alkaline  
414 environments, organisms deploy various mechanisms to maintain intracellular pH and  
415 preserve electrochemical gradient in the presence of low proton concentration. To prevent  
416 proton loss in alkaline environments, an increase in cytoplasmic pH is achieved by reducing  
417 the activity of the proton pumping machinery of the cell respiratory chain. An increase in  
418 intercellular proton concentration is attained by an increase in the activity of proton-cation  
419 antiporters, reducing the pH gradient along the cell membrane, but increasing the  
420 transmembrane electrical potential (50). Under such conditions, some bacteria form a  
421 transmembrane sodium gradient, alternatively or concomitantly with a proton gradient. In  
422 our plant system, the abundance and expression of Na<sup>+</sup>-transporting NADH:ubiquinone  
423 oxidoreductase (*nqr*) genes was significantly enriched under TWW irrigation relative to FW  
424 irrigation. In many alkaline environments, NQR constructs the primary sodium efflux system  
425 through oxidation of NADH and reduction of quinone. This process creates an  
426 electrochemical gradient of net negative charge in the cytosol (51), and the gradient is used

427 by cation/proton antiporters (*e.g.*, Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup>, and K<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup>) to exchange non-balanced movement  
428 of positive charge (H<sup>+</sup>) to the cell (more protons enter the cytoplasm as compared to the  
429 efflux of sodium or potassium ions (49, 51, 52, 53). In a global mapping of soil bacterial  
430 communities, cation/proton antiporters were observed to be key genes overrepresented in  
431 dryland soil, presumably due to the high levels of salt and pH in arid soils (54). Additionally,  
432 we measured an increase in the relative abundance and expression of Tripartite ATP-  
433 Independent Periplasmic (TRAP) transporters in TWW roots. TRAP transporters have been  
434 recently demonstrated to use a membrane-associated sodium gradient to facilitate  
435 transport of ligands (55, 56, 57). Similarly, the increase in abundance in flagella assembly  
436 genes under TWW irrigation conditions may also suggest the use of sodium motive force for  
437 flagella performance (58, 59). This is further consistent with cell motility as a critical feature  
438 of rhizosphere competence (19). The signs for high pH stress obtained by the metagenome  
439 and metatranscriptome analysis are consistent with soil chemical analysis, as elevated pH  
440 conditions can result from long-term TWW irrigation.

441 Bacterial adaptation to alkaline conditions is frequently dependent on salt concentration,  
442 and elevated salt levels are also found in TWW and TWW-irrigated soils (60). Elevated soil  
443 salinity can develop through long-term TWW irrigation, and can adversely affect protein and  
444 cell membrane stability. Commonly, microorganisms adapt to high levels of salts through  
445 osmoregulation by synthesizing organic solutes, thereby avoid salt imbalance and the influx  
446 of toxic salts. More rarely, in stable saline environments, some halophiles mitigate salinity  
447 levels through adapting the cell enzymatic activity to the high ionic strength. Both strategies  
448 require stabilizing salt concentration in the cell, mostly by regulating cation proton antiporter  
449 activity (61). Efflux of sodium ions by NQR activity and the activation of cation/proton  
450 transporters demonstrate that the TWW-irrigated root microbiome and the plant roots are  
451 indeed exposed to elevated salinity as compared to the FW-irrigated roots. This finding is  
452 consistent with the measurement in this study of higher levels of Na<sup>+</sup> in the leaves of TWW-  
453 irrigated tomato and lettuce plants relative to FW-irrigated plants (**Table S2**) and in other  
454 plants (62).

455 To the best of our knowledge, no prior study has linked environmental microbiome functions  
456 to pH level or salinity. However, the association between our significantly differentiated  
457 genes to processing specific environmental conditions is established *in vitro* in numerous  
458 studies (51, 63). Here, we hypothesized that differentially abundant genes could be used as  
459 predictive markers of environmental cue, and this hypothesis is supported by meta-analyses  
460 demonstrating a link between single isolate studies and microbial communities *in vivo*. A

461 greater effort in collecting, publishing and making metadata more accessible for  
462 metagenomics surveys, will better aid the interpretation and modeling of microbiomes  
463 processing environmental conditions.

464

465 *Oxygen levels:*

466 Microbial gene content and expression patterns have great potential for identifying oxygen  
467 conditions *in situ*. We previously demonstrated that different plants, even when grown in  
468 the same soil, may produce highly different rhizoplane oxygen conditions, and that shotgun  
469 metagenome and metatranscriptome analysis revealed differential expression of  
470 denitrification genes and catalase genes (19). In this study, we observed an enrichment in  
471 denitrification genes in TWW-irrigated root metagenomes relative to FW-irrigated  
472 metagenomes, possibly suggesting a lower oxygen concentration under TWW-irrigation (63).  
473 However, the expression level of denitrification genes was not significantly higher in TWW-  
474 irrigated roots relative to FW-irrigated roots. This difference in enrichment between  
475 metagenome and metatranscriptome could be due to enrichment in the TWW-irrigated  
476 rhizoplane of facultative denitrifying microorganisms, with rhizosphere selection based on  
477 other physiological capabilities (*e.g.*, motility). Conversely, the lack of enrichment in  
478 denitrification genes in TWW-irrigated metatranscriptomes could be a result of time of  
479 sampling. The root microbiome functional profile is expected to fluctuate by diurnal or  
480 hydration-dehydration cycles (64, 65, 66). Therefore, gene abundance is indicative of the  
481 chronic, long term exposure to stress imposed by TWW, while expression levels may  
482 represent transient conditions. Plants in this study were subject to twice-daily irrigation and  
483 irrigation conditions in TWW deliver higher levels of organic matter and this may lead to  
484 localized oxygen depletion (67). However, at the time of sampling, oxygen levels may have  
485 increased. Further short-term longitudinal analysis will be required to demonstrate diel- and  
486 irrigation-derived shifts in denitrification gene expression patterns.

487

488 *Bacterial life style:*

489 We observed a significant enrichment of genes associated with surface attachment,  
490 colonization and biofilm formation in TWW-irrigated root microbiome. These enriched  
491 microbial features included genes encoding for flagella and MSHA type 4 pili; both features  
492 have been previously demonstrated to facilitate near-surface motility and bacterial

493 attachment (68). Furthermore, an increase in the relative abundance and expression of  
494 alginate producing genes, which catalyze the formation of extracellular polysaccharide  
495 matrix in biofilms of many bacterial clades (69), was observed. These results further point to  
496 the critical importance of both motility and attachment for rhizoplane microorganisms, as  
497 has been previously indicated (70). The reason for significant enrichment of these genes in  
498 TWW-irrigated roots relative to FW-irrigated roots is not entirely clear but may be due to  
499 overall elevated organic matter in TWW (71). While the focus in this study has been largely  
500 on genes enriched in TWW-irrigated systems, several key ABC transporters were depleted in  
501 the metagenomes of roots of both plant types irrigated with TWW relative to those irrigated  
502 with FW. These genes include transporters for oligogalacturonide, maltose, general sugar  
503 and glutamate. The change in relative abundance of these transporters may indicate  
504 differential pattern of root deposits, as was observed in roots from cucumber and wheat  
505 (19). Plant glutamate secretion patterns have been shown to be mediated by external cues  
506 such as salinity, oxidative stress and availability of nutrients (72). Glutamate ABC  
507 transporters were depleted, while glutamine were enriched in TWW irrigated roots.

508

#### 509 **Conclusions:**

510 We hypothesized that the microbial functional gene profiles and expression patterns can  
511 serve as *in vivo* sensors of environmental factors affecting hosts and host-associated  
512 microbial communities. Environmental surveys or host-associated microbiome analyses  
513 frequently yield contradictory or context-dependent results, making the predictive power of  
514 such observations inconclusive. Studying the microbiome as a functional unit reacting to a  
515 specific environment, however, constitutes a non-deterministic approach, thereby  
516 eliminating the need for marker features (*e.g.*, genes, pathways or specific taxa) associated  
517 with specific conditions. As the host and its microbiome are similarly exposed to  
518 environmental conditions, genetic profiling and expression analysis of the microbiome may  
519 be used as a predictive tool to identify stresses affecting hosts. In this study, we employ a  
520 well-defined plant host-microbiome system under experimental treatment with FW- or  
521 TWW-irrigation, but this approach may be used to define microscale conditions in other host  
522 systems.

523

524



525 **Materials and methods:**

526 ***Experimental design; Mesocosm scale experiment:***

527 Tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*-Heinz 4107) and lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*-Romaine-Assaph)  
528 were grown in lysimeters (0.5 m<sup>3</sup>) for 98 and 42 days, respectively, at Kiryat-Gat-Lachish  
529 agricultural research station, northern Negev, Israel (31.605760, 34.791179). The lysimeters  
530 were filled with loamy sand soil collected from western Negev, Israel (31.351722,  
531 34.403471). Plants were drip irrigated for 8 summers with fresh water (FW) or tertiary  
532 treated wastewater (TWW), derived from the Kiryat Gat wastewater treatment plant (WTP).  
533 At harvest, roots were collected, vigorously washed, dried, and frozen on site for further  
534 procedures. All samples were composites, consisting of 2-4 plants collected from separate  
535 lysimeters, except for FW irrigated lettuce plants which were collected from two lysimeters  
536 and were composites of 2 plants each. Detailed procedures, including soil and plant  
537 measurements, were described previously (26).

538 ***DNA and RNA extraction***

539 Standard phenol-chloroform nucleic acid extraction protocol was employed for DNA and  
540 RNA isolation (26, 73). In brief, 0.2 gr of roots were moderately bead beaten for 45 s at low  
541 speed (4.5 m/s) by Fast Prep FP120 (Savant Instruments Inc., Holbrook, NY, USA) with  
542 phenol, phosphate buffer pH 8 (with additional 10 µl ml<sup>-1</sup> β-mercaptoethanol -Sigma-  
543 Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) and 1.25% CTAB (Hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide, Sigma  
544 Aldrich). Following phenol-chloroform wash, nucleic acids were precipitated with  
545 polyethylene glycol (PEG) and ethanol. Nucleic acids were split for DNA and RNA isolation.  
546 RNA samples were treated with RQ1- DNase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and complete  
547 DNA removal from RNA samples was validated by real time reverse transcription PCR. RNA  
548 integrity was evaluated with Agilent TapeStation (Santa Clara, CA, US). Ribosomal RNAs were  
549 removed using the Ribo-Zero rRNA Removal Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA), combining bacteria  
550 and plant probes. Double- strand complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis was conducted by  
551 Maxima H Minus Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA USA).

552 ***Library prep and sequencing***

553 Shotgun metagenome libraries were generated using a Nextera XT library preparation kit  
554 according to the manufacturer's instructions (Illumina). Complementary DNA for  
555 transcriptome analysis was sheared using a Covaris S2 acoustic device, and libraries were  
556 generated using a Accel-NGS 1S Plus DNA Library Kit (Swift Biosciences, Ann Arbor, MI)

557 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Libraries were pooled sequenced using high-  
558 output flow cells with paired-end 2x150 base reads on an Illumina NextSeq500 sequencer.  
559 Library preparation and sequencing was performed at the University of Illinois at Chicago  
560 Sequencing Core (UICSQC) .

561 ***Bioinformatic analysis:***

562 Quality control of raw double-strand FASTQ sequences was evaluated by FASTQC software  
563 (74), and adjusted by Trimmomatic (75) with customized parameters set to:  
564 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:100 CROP:145 HEADCROP:15 .

565 ***Metagenome analysis:*** Host sequences were removed by comparing quality checked reads  
566 to host genome (tomato or lettuce) with bowtie2 (76), and subsequently removing the reads  
567 with SAMtools (77). Metagenomics reads from all three replicates were de novo assembled  
568 together with metaSPAdes (78). Gene prediction was performed on scaffolds using the  
569 software package Prodigal (79). Predicted genes from all samples were combined, and a  
570 non-redundant gene catalog was established based on 95% similarity, using CD-HIT (80). The  
571 gene catalog was aligned to the NCBI non-redundant protein database using the software  
572 package DIAMOND in sensitive mode (81). Sequence annotation (SEED- (28) and Kyoto  
573 Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes- KEGG- (29)) and predicted taxonomy were achieved  
574 with MEGAN V6 (82). To attain count data (number of mapped read for each gene), quality  
575 checked reads (after host read removal) were aligned to the annotated gene catalog by  
576 bowtie2, while analogous read annotated terms were summed using a custom python  
577 script .

578 ***Metatranscriptome analysis:*** Quality checked RNA reads were aligned to the gene catalog  
579 established from the metagenomics analysis, in a similar fashion to metagenomics count  
580 data .

581 ***Host RNAseq:*** An estimation of transcript abundance for tomato root samples was obtained  
582 by aligning quality checked sequences (prior to host reads removal) to the predicted  
583 *Solanum lycopersicum* transcripts with Trinity RSEM transcript quantification method (83).  
584 Lettuce transcripts first predicted by Tophat and cufflinks for transcript prediction (84), than  
585 inferred to ortholog tomato genes by OrthoFinder. Transcript quantification was done  
586 following similar analysis as for tomato samples.

587 ***Statistical analysis:***

588 Metagenome and metatranscriptome statistical enriched gene list (SEED or KEGG  
589 annotated) or taxonomic groups were obtained by DESeq2 (36) and compared using the  
590 VennDiagram R package (85). Taxonomic trees were visualized using the interactive tree of  
591 life (86) and applying the least common ancestor MEGAN algorithm. SEED subsystems  
592 enrichment analysis was conducted with the 'R' goseq package (87), normalizing to SEED  
593 counts. KEGG pathway and module enrichment were analyzed by clusterProfiler package in  
594 R (88). Statistical test (MANOVA, ANOSIM) were conducted in R package 'vegan' (89), and  
595 figures were plotted with R 'ggplot2' (90) or 'pheatmap' (91). Differentially expressed host  
596 transcripts were obtained using the EdgeR 'R' package (92), followed by annotation and  
597 visualization using the STRING network (93, 94) Cytoscape integrated application (95) for  
598 both plant hosts combined. The minimum required interaction score was customized to  
599 medium confidence (0.4), and PFAM protein domain enrichment was set to a false discovery  
600 rate p value of 0.05.

601

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609 research grant no. M34-011.

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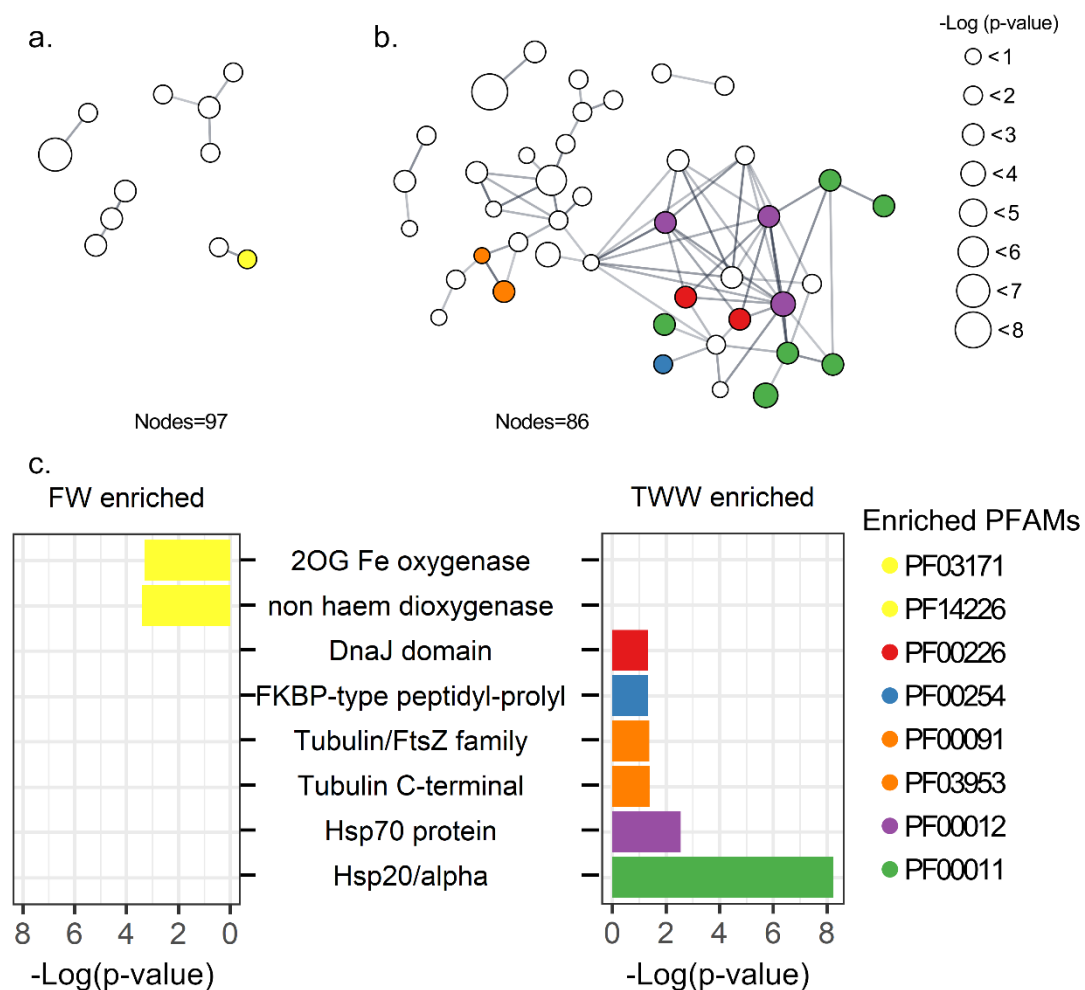
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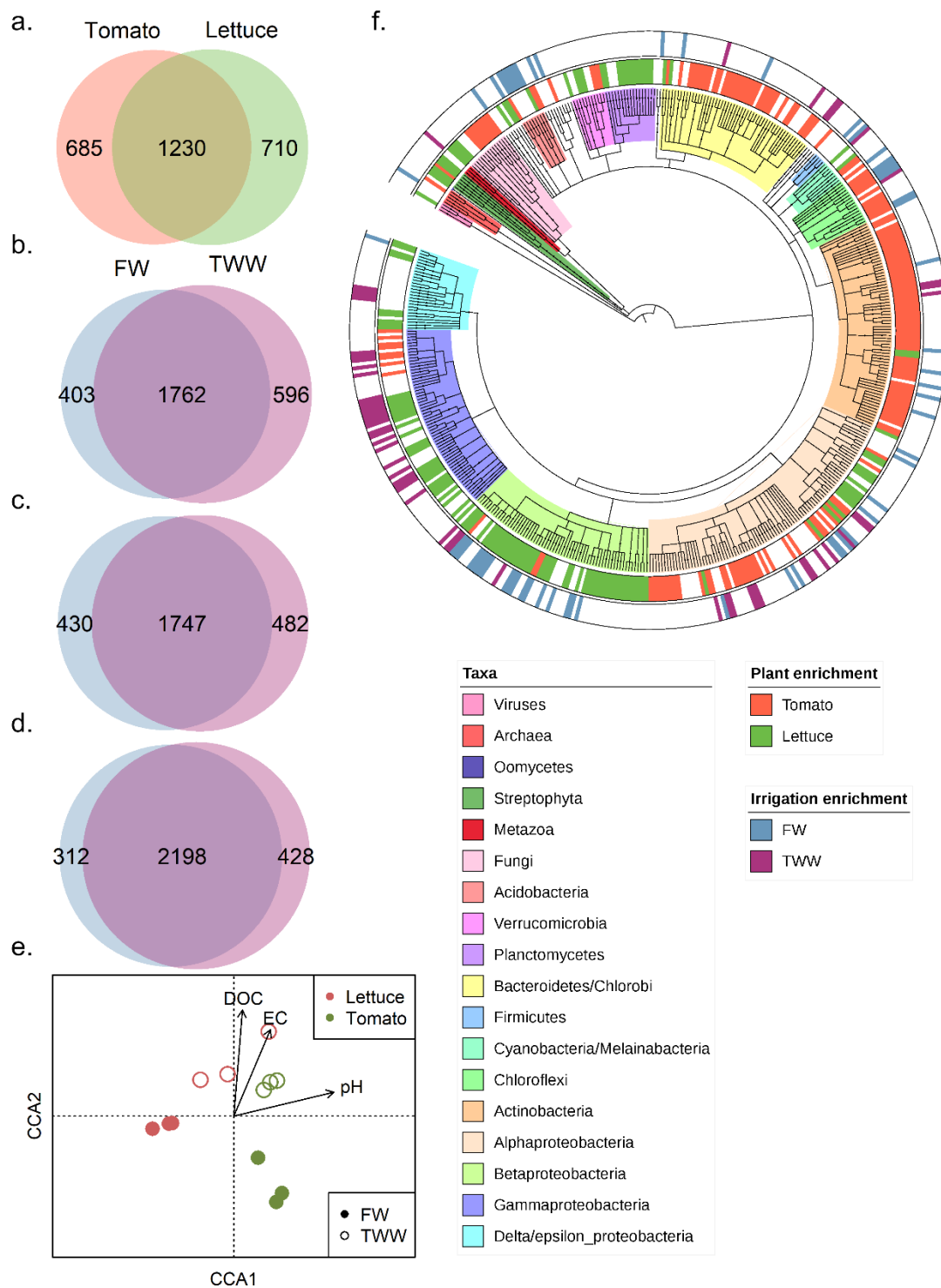
619 **Figures:**



620

621 **Figure 1:** Plant host functional response to TWW irrigation revealed by tomato and lettuce  
 622 transcriptome analysis. Differentially expressed plant genes between FW or TWW irrigation  
 623 were determined using the software package EdgeR, with significance set at FDR  $P < 0.05$ .  
 624 Lettuce transcripts were annotated by comparison to the tomato genome. STRING protein  
 625 interaction networks are presented for (a) FW and (b) TWW irrigation enriched gene list.  
 626 Only nodes linked by edges are shown. The size of each node is proportional to the  $\log_{10}$  (p-  
 627 value) of the enriched gene. Colored are PFAM protein domains significantly enriched within  
 628 the network landscape. The  $\log_{10}$  (p value) of the enriched PFAM domains are presented in  
 629 (c) FW and (d) TWW enrichment analyses.

630



631

632 **Figure 2:** Effect of plant host type and irrigation treatment on root-associated metagenome.

633 (a) VENN diagram of differentially-abundant genes between FW-irrigated tomato and lettuce

634 (DESeq2 FDR  $P < 0.05$ ). VENN diagrams of differentially-abundant genes by irrigation type in

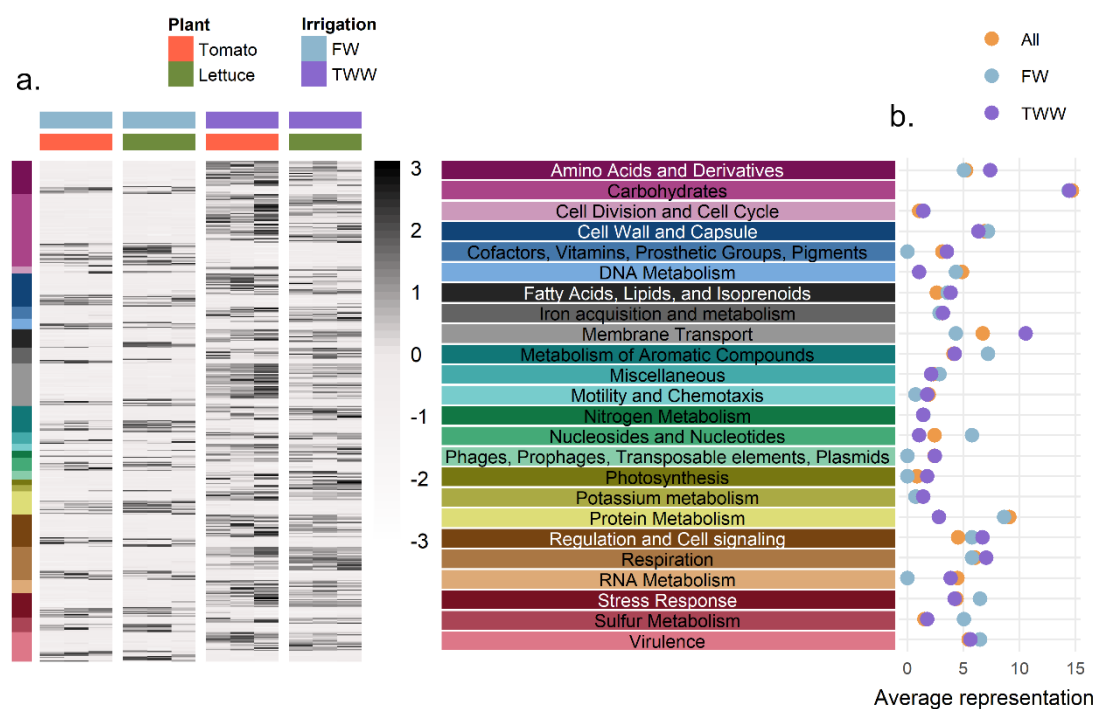
635 (b) tomato or (c) lettuce, and (d) in both hosts combined. (e) Conical correspondence

636 analysis (CCA) of all SEED-annotated genes with DOC, EC and pH as constrained variables. (f)

637 Microbial composition predicted by a least common ancestor (LCA) pipeline (MEGAN6) of

638 the predicted gene catalogue. Taxonomic groups are displayed in the inner ring, and  
639 differentially-abundant taxonomic groups between the two tested plant types are  
640 highlighted in the middle ring. The outer ring highlights the taxonomic groups that are  
641 significantly differentially abundant between irrigation treatments.

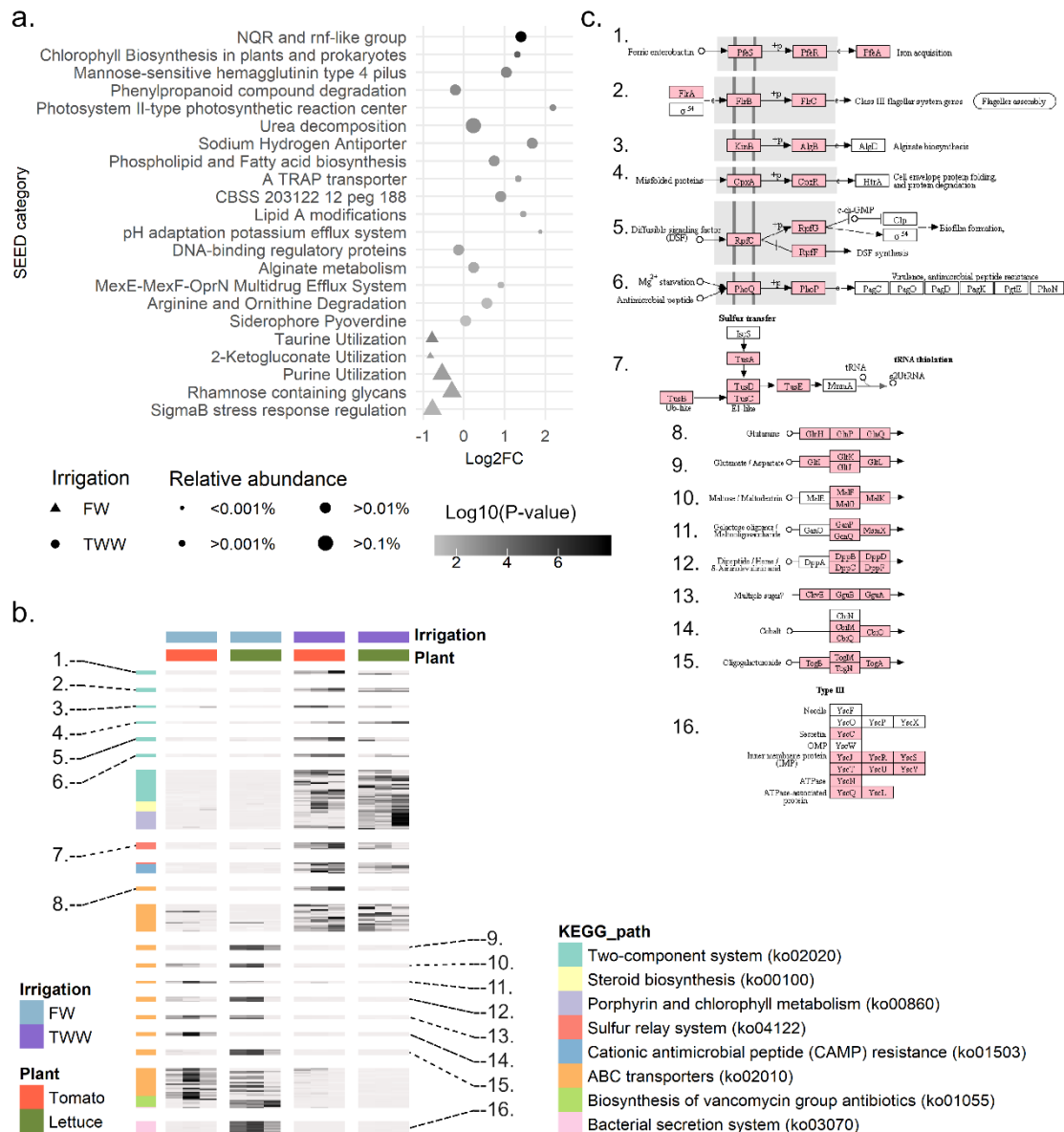
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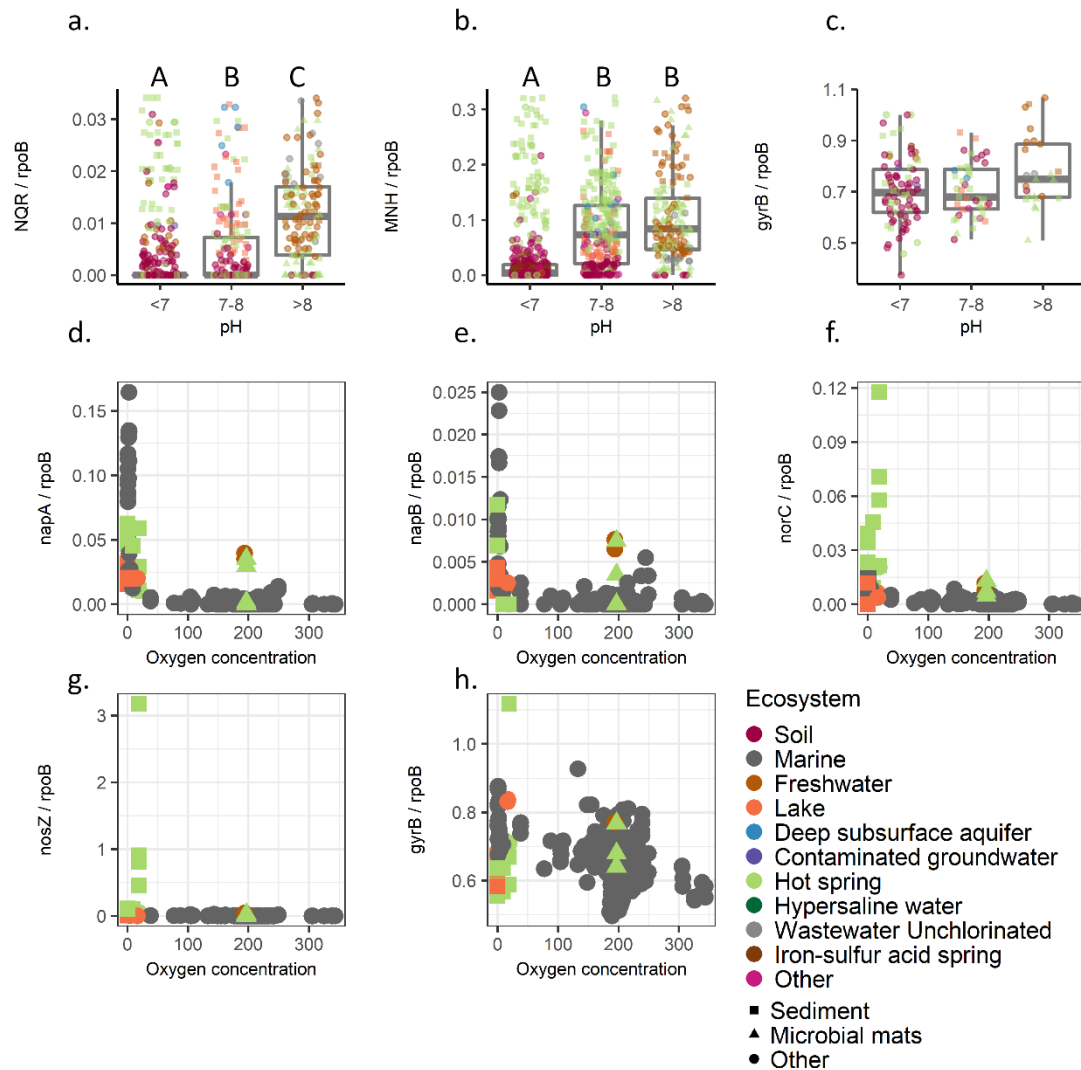
644 **Figure 3:** Genetic profile of the 438 significantly differentially abundant genes between  
645 irrigation treatments. (a) Heatmap of genes enriched or depleted (FDR  $P < 0.01$ ) in the  
646 metagenomes of TWW-irrigated roots (displaying trimmed mean of M values- TMM). Gene  
647 abundance was normalized by scaling each row separately. The gene list was clustered to  
648 high hierarchy SEED categories. (b) The proportion of genes enriched or depleted in TWW-  
649 irrigated root metagenomes compared to the total abundance of that category in all  
650 metagenome analysis. Enriched category (TWW, magenta), deprived (FW, light blue), or the  
651 proportion within the full gene catalogue (marked as "All", colored by orange), are  
652 highlighted. The proportion was calculated based on the number of gene assigned to the  
653 different categories with-in each data set.

654



655

656 **Figure 4:** Analyses of SEED subsystems and KEGG pathway significantly enriched or depleted  
 657 in metagenome of TWW irrigated roots. (a) Dot plot of log<sub>2</sub>(fold-change) relative abundance  
 658 of enriched or depleted SEED subsystem. Significantly (FDR  $P < 0.05$ , represented by more  
 659 than two gene families) enriched or depleted gene abundance was computed using the  
 660 goseq software package, with correction for read counts. Symbols are proportional to the  
 661 sub-system relative abundance and colored based on the enrichment/depletion log<sub>10</sub>(p-  
 662 value). Circles indicate TWW-enrichment while triangles indicated TWW-depleted  
 663 categories. (b) Heatmap of TWW-enriched or depleted ( $p$ -value  $< 0.05$ ) KEGG pathways (  
 664 characterized by keggProfiler). Genes of interest, significantly enriched or depleted in TWW-  
 665 irrigated root metagenomes, are highlighted and colored in pink (c).



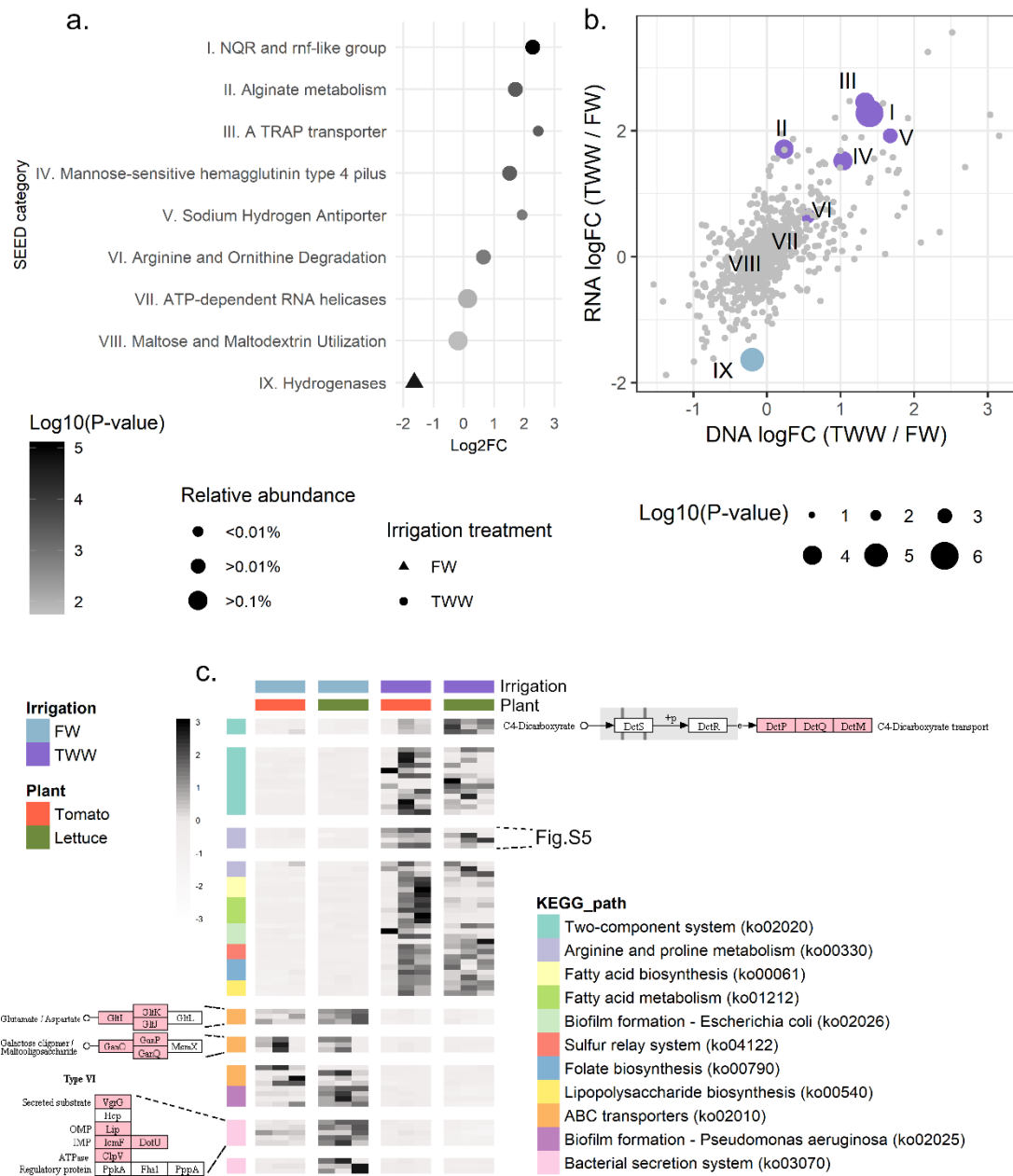
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667 **Figure 5:** Meta- analysis of selected pH and oxygen responsive genes. Publicly available (by  
 668 JGI) subset of 160 environmental metagenomes with pH measurements, were screened. Box  
 669 plot of gene counts in acidic pH (<7), neutral (7-8), or alkaline (>8) pH for (a) NQR operon (6  
 670 subunits), (b) Na- H antiporter operon (7 subunits), and (c) *gyrB* as control. Detailed pattern  
 671 for each subunit is available in Figure S6, S7. Outliers are not displayed (1.5x 0.25-0.75  
 672 quantiles). Significant differences in gene counts, by Wilcoxon rank sum test (Bonfferoni  
 673 correction,  $P < 0.05$ ), are marked in letter report (A, B and C).

674 Oxygen measurements were available for subset of 257 environmental metagenomes. In  
 675 these metagenomes, the abundance of *napA* (d), *napB* (e) *norBC* (f) and *nosZ* (g)  
 676 was compared to oxygen levels. (h) *gyrB* was used as control. All gene counts are in proportion  
 677 to *rpoB* gene.

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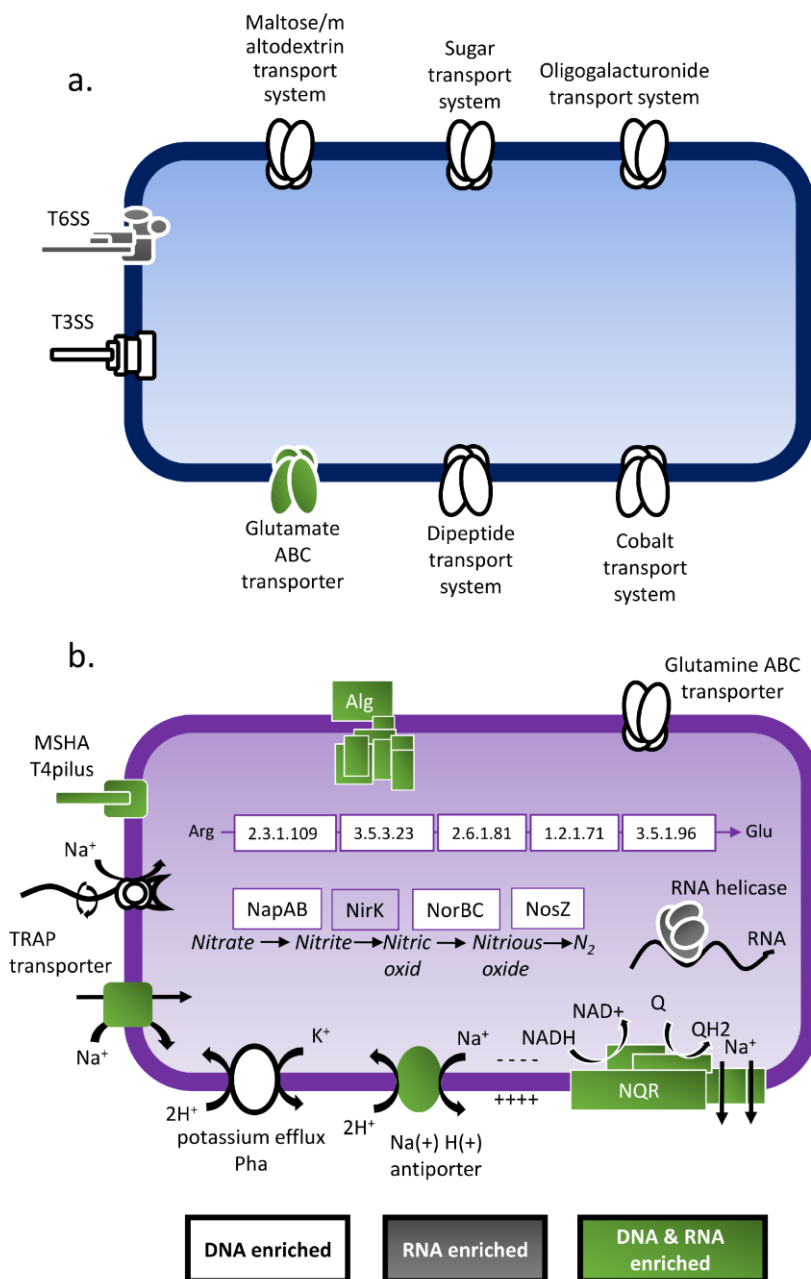




679

680 **Figure 6:** Expressed functions associated with irrigation treatment. (a) Dot plot of Log<sub>2</sub>(fold-  
 681 change) SEED subsystems enriched or depleted in TWW irrigated root metatranscriptomes.  
 682 Significantly (FDR  $p < 0.05$ , represented by more than two gene families) enriched or  
 683 depleted transcript abundance was computed using the goseq software package, with  
 684 corrections for read abundance. Symbols are proportional to the sub-system relative  
 685 abundance and colored based on the enrichment or depletion log<sub>10</sub>(p-value). Circles  
 686 indicate TWW-enriched categories and triangles indicate TWW-depleted categories. (b)  
 687 Differential metagenome enrichment (TWW/FW fold change) compared to differential

688 metatranscriptome expression level. Highlighted (colored) categories significantly enriched  
 689 or depleted in the metatranscriptome analysis. 'ns'='not significant'. Symbols are  
 690 proportional to the log<sub>10</sub>(p-value) enrichment in the metatranscriptome analysis. Numbers  
 691 label the enriched category, as marked in (a). (c) KEGG pathway-level enrichment or  
 692 depletion in TWW-irrigation root metatranscriptomes (p-value < 0.05), based on keggProfiler  
 693 enrichment analysis. Significantly enriched or depleted gene clusters in TWW-irrigated roots  
 694 are highlighted and colored in pink.



696 **Figure 7:** Conceptual model of hypothetical bacteria harboring physiological features (i.e.,  
697 genes, pathways and modules) enriched in (a) TWW- or (b) FW-irrigated root microbiomes.  
698 White symbols indicate features that are significantly enriched at the DNA level  
699 (metagenomes), grey features are highly expressed (metatranscriptomes), and green  
700 features are significantly abundant and expressed in one treatment relative to the other.

701

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