1 2 3	Fine scale sampling reveals spatial heterogeneity of rhizosphere microbiome in young <i>Brachypodium</i> plants
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23 Abstract

24 For a deeper and comprehensive understanding of the diversity, composition and function of 25 rhizosphere microbiomes, we need to focus at the scale of individual roots in standardized 26 growth containers. Root exudation patterns are known to vary across distinct parts of the root 27 giving rise to spatially distinct microbial niches. To address this, we analyzed microbial 28 community from two spatially distinct zones of the primary root (the tip vs. the base) in 29 Brachypodium distachyon, grown in natural soil using standardized fabricated ecosystems known as EcoFABs as well as in more conventional pot and tubes. 16S rRNA based community 30 31 analysis showed a stronger rhizosphere effect in the root base vs. bulk soil compared to the root 32 tips vs. bulk soil, resulting in an enrichment of Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes and 33 Proteobacteria, few OTUs belonging to less characterized lineages such as Verrucomicrobia and 34 Acidobacteria. While the microbial community distributions are similar across growth 35 containers, the EcoFAB displayed higher replicate reproducibility. Genome-resolved and bulk 36 metagenomics revealed that genes associated with transcriptional regulation, transport of 37 nutrients and catabolic enzymes indicating active metabolism, biofilm formation and root 38 colonization were enriched in root tips. On the other hand, genes associated with nutrient-39 limitation and environmental stress were prominent in the bulk soil compared to the root tips, 40 implying the presence of easily available, labile carbon and nutrients in the rhizosphere relative 41 to bulk soil. Such insights into the relationships between root structure, exudation and microbial 42 communities are critical for developing understanding of plant-microbe interactions.

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44 Keywords: Rhizosphere, Microbial, Biogeography, Model ecosystem, Metagenomics

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Plants exude 20-40% of their photosynthetically fixed carbon through intact root cells into the 47 surrounding soil [1]. Besides root characteristics, root exudates are a key determinant for 48 development of rhizosphere community. These root exudates containing low-molecular weight 49 organic compounds, and together with mucilage and sloughed off root tissues mainly expelled 50 from root tips, root exudates provide a major source of nutrients for the rhizosphere microbiome 51 [2]. These compounds create a unique environment in the rhizosphere that is physiochemically 52 distinct from the surrounding bulk soil and play a key role in recruiting and selecting relevant 53 beneficial microbes to form a rhizosphere microbiome which is also distinctly differentiated 54 from that of the surrounding bulk soil [3].

55 Root exudation patterns have been shown to vary spatially along the root system, exudates from rapidly dividing root tips differ in composition from exudates released from older sections of the 56 57 root [4]. While the assembly of microbial community along different parts of roots 58 (biogeography) is considered an important parameter in rhizosphere dynamics, systematic and 59 standardized studies probing this deeper are lacking. Most rhizosphere microbiome studies, 60 where plants are grown in soil, do not compartmentalize the roots based on their morphology but 61 rather based on radial distance from the root axis (rhizosphere, rhizoplane and endosphere). As a 62 result, capturing the effect of spatial differences along the roots is much unexplored, causing a 63 gap in understanding how these differences impact microbial assembly in the rhizoplane.

Furthermore, while few studies in the past have demonstrated influence of plant growth container type on plant morphology [5–9], direct impacts of growth containers on the rhizosphere microbiome is relatively unexplored. Complex biochemical processes and interactions occur in microscale dimensions surrounding the root as outlined above. The ability

to interrogate these processes within highly reproduceable and controlled growth containers willpropel our understanding of rhizosphere spatial heterogeneity [10].

70 In this study, we investigated rhizosphere biogeography from two distinct root zones of 71 Brachypodium distachyon grown in natural soil but in three different types of growth containers-72 conventional pots, tubes as well as specially fabricated EcoFABs [11] to assess (a) microbiome 73 structure and function across root tips, root base and bulk soil; and (b) the suitability of 74 standardized growth containers to study plant-microbe interactions at such finer scales. We also 75 tested these different containers under open or closed environments (encased within secondary 76 containment). The EcoFABs had demonstrated to be of high value in standardized investigations 77 of plant traits and microbiome, and have been shown to reproducibly produce plant phenotypic 78 traits and metabolite production [12], but their applicability to study spatially resolved rhizosphere had been hitherto unexplored. We used long read 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing 79 80 and shotgun metagenomic sequencing to delineate differences between these diverse containers 81 and distinct root zones (root tips, root base). Metagenomic functional potential unraveled 82 significant differences between root tips and bulk soil.

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84 **2. Materials and Methods**

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2.1 Soil and plant growth conditions

Soil for plant growth was collected from the south meadow field site at the Angelo Coast Range
Reserve in northern California (39° 44′ 21.4″ N 123° 37′ 51.0″ W) in August 2020. The upper
layer (0-10 cm) was collected in clean collection bags, immediately transported on ice and stored

at 4°C until further processing. The collected soil was passed through a 2 mm sieve to remove
larger particles like dry roots and rocks prior to use.

91 In this study, we used three types of containers, EcoFAB, test tubes and plastic pots to grow B. 92 distachyon (Bd21-3 plant line). EcoFABs (n = 11) were fabricated as reported earlier [13] with 93 slight modifications. Briefly, the oval-shaped polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) cast measuring 7.7 94 cm x 5.7 cm x 0.5 cm (height x width x depth) providing a container volume of 10 mL was held 95 together by metal clamps and screws. Sterile plastic test tubes (n = 14) used to grow plants were 96 10 cm long with a diameter of 1.5 cm, and had a hole drilled at the bottom to drain excess water. 97 The pots (n = 14) used were 10 cm x 10 cm squares with a depth of 10.5 cm, tapered from top to 98 bottom. The volume of soil in test tube and EcoFAB was kept at 15 g each while the pot 99 contained 600 g. The vertical distance between the sown seed to the bottom of the container was 100 8 cm for EcoFAB and 9 cm for both pot and test tube. Except for soil, all components were sterilized by UV sterilization or autoclaving. In addition, approximately half of all containers 101 102 were kept sterile in closed Microbox containers (Sac O2, Belgium) while others were kept open 103 to the environment.

104 Cold-treated *Brachypodium distachyon* seeds were de-husked, surface-sterilized in 70% ethanol 105 followed by 50% household bleach for 5 minutes each and rinsed thoroughly in sterile water. 106 They were germinated on sterile 0.8% noble agar plates under sunlight at room temperature for 107 two days. Germinated seedlings were transferred into the containers taking care to place it 0.5 108 cm below the soil surface, watered once at 100% capacity with sterile water. Subsequent 109 watering was done at 15% holding capacity, every 2 and 4 days for the open and closed 100 containers respectively. The plants were placed in a greenhouse with a 16-hour photoperiod, 111 87.5% relative humidity, and average day and nighttime temperatures of 19.9 °C and 17.9 °C
112 respectively.

113 *2.2 Plant phenotypic measurements*

Plants were harvested from all containers 14 days after sowing when the primary root had reached bottom of EcoFAB, and key plant phenotypic characteristics were measured. After excising the roots from the base of plant shoot, dry shoot weight was obtained by oven drying the shoots at 80 °C for 24 h followed by cooling to room temperature and measuring dry weight [14– 16]. Shoot length was measured from end of the longest leaf to the point where root starts [17]. Root length was measured from root base to tip of the primary root.

120

2.3 Rhizosphere and bulk soil sample collection

121 At the time of harvest, roots were excised carefully from soil under aseptic conditions and lightly 122 shaken to remove loosely attached bulk soil. Root tip and root base samples were harvested as 2 123 cm cuttings, measured from tip of the root, and from base of the plant shoot respectively. Due to 124 complications during sampling resulting in physical damage to the roots, some samples were 125 discarded reducing the number of root samples to n = 8, n = 11, and n = 7 originating from 126 EcoFAB, test tube, and pot respectively. The loosely-bound rhizosphere soil was obtained by 127 vortexing the root in 5 mM sodium pyrophosphate for 15 seconds, three times. The root was then 128 placed in fresh pyrophosphate buffer and sonicated for 5 mins to extract tightly-bound fraction. 129 To ensure the complete representation of the rhizosphere microbiome, both the loosely- and 130 tightly-bound fractions were pooled for subsequent DNA extraction. Bulk soil (0.5 g) was 131 collected from containers at least 1 cm away from the roots and kept frozen before DNA 132 extraction.

133 2.4 DNA extraction and sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted using DNeasy PowerLyzer Powersoil kit (Qiagen, US) following
 the manufacturer's instructions and the eluted genomic DNA was quantified using QubitTM
 dsDNA High Sensitivity assay kit (Thermofisher, US).

137 For bacterial full-length 16S rRNA amplication and sequencing, genomic DNA from all the 138 available different root locations and bulk soil were sent to Loop Genomics (US). Briefly, the 139 DNA was amplified with indexed forward (5' CTGCCTAGAACA F] [Index, 140 AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG 3') and reverse primers (5' TGCCTAGAACAG [Index, R] 141 TACCTTGTTACGACTT 3') and sequenced using the Illumina sequencing platform via paired 142 end (150bp X 2) mode followed by the standard Loop Genomics informatics pipeline that uses 143 short reads to construct synthetic long reads [18].

For metagenomic sequencing, replicates of each sample type (root tip, root base or bulk soil from each type of container) was pooled to accommodate the 200 ng DNA concentration requirement, resulting in a total of 9 samples. These samples were sent to QB3-Berkeley Functional Genomics Laboratory (University of California, Berkeley, US) (http://qb3.berkeley.edu/fgl/) for library prep and subsequent sequencing using Illumina 150 bp X 2 paired end reads with a depth of 20 Gb per sample.

150 *2.5 16S*

2.5 16S rRNA community analysis

151 16S amplicon samples which contained less than 1000 reads after demultiplexing were discarded 152 before analysis. We ensured that there were at least 3 replicate samples for every type of sample 153 under the three variables tested; 1. Container (EcoFAB, pot or test tube), 2. Location (root tip, 154 root base or bulk soil) and 3. Condition (Closed or Open). The demultiplexed data from loop 155 genomics was then clustered into OTUs using usearch (version 11.0.667) for comparative 156 analyses as follows [19]. Briefly, FASTQ files were 1st trimmed (1400 bps) and quality filtered 157 (maximum expected error cutoff 1.0) before initial clustering and chimera filtering using Unoise 158 3 command. The resulting OTUs were further clustered to 97% identity before generating the 159 OTU table, taxonomic assignments and comparative analyses.

160 From the OTUs generated through usearch, DECIPHER v2.0 (r studio package) was used to 161 obtain taxonomic information based on the SILVA SSU version 138 [20, 21] following default 162 parameters. The generated OTU samples were subjected to Hellinger transformation using 163 decostand method in vegan R package version 2.5-7 [22] to standardize differences in 164 sequencing depth prior to diversity analysis. Differential abundance of microbial OTUs across 165 different containers and sample locations were determined using the DESeq2 package (version 166 1.14.1) in R [23]. Pairwise comparison between sample locations coupled to each container was 167 carried out using a full DESeq2 model (design = ~Container_Location + Condition). OTUs 168 showing significant log-fold changes (p_{adj} < 0.05) in at least one of these comparisons was further 169 selected and visualized on a phylogenetic tree in iToL [24]. The log fold-change values were 170 tested for correlation using Spearman's test through custom python script. Afterwards, pairwise 171 comparisons were repeated with a reduced model (design = \sim Location + Container + Condition) 172 to study the effect on sample location while controlling container and condition variations. Using 173 the transformed data, homogeneity of multivariate dispersions was analyzed for each sample 174 location in each container using betadisper from vegan R package.

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2.6 Metagenome assembly, annotation, and binning

Shotgun metagenomic sequence for the 9 samples (3 containers * 3 locations) were individually
assembled using IDBA-UD v1.1.3 [25] with the parameters: -pre_correction -mink 20 -maxk 150

-step 10. Following metagenome assembly, all samples were filtered to remove contigs smaller
than 1 kb using pullseq (https://github.com/bcthomas/pullseq). Open reading frames were then
predicted on all contigs using Prodigal v2.6.3 [26] with the parameters: -m -p meta. KEGG KO
annotations were predicted using KofamScan [27] using HMM models from release
r02_18_2020 using default options. In cases where multiple HMMs matched a protein above
threshold, the HMM with the lowest E-value had its annotation transferred to the protein.

184 Metagenome assemblies were binned into draft genomes using a combination of 4 automated 185 binning methods. Briefly, reads from all 9 samples were mapped to assembled contigs \geq 186 $2.5 \square$ kbp using Bowtie2, and a differential coverage profile for each contig across all samples 187 was used as input for the following differential coverage binners: MaxBin2, CONCOCT, vamb, 188 and MetaBAT [28–31]. The algorithm DasTool [32], was then used to select the highest quality 189 bins across the 4 binning outputs for each metagenome assembly. Finally, the full genome set 190 across all samples (n = 146 genomes) was de-replicated at the species level (Average Nucleotide 191 Identity $\geq 95\%$) using dRep [33] with the following parameters: -p 16 -comp 10 -ms 10000 -sa 192 0.95, resulting in a total of 42 species representative genomes. Species representatives were 193 further selected to have $\geq 60\%$ completeness and $\leq 10\%$ contamination as estimated by checkM 194 [34], this resulted in a final set of 32 species representative genomes meeting the criteria. 16S 195 rRNA sequences were extracted from genomes with ContEst16S tool available online 196 (https://www.ezbiocloud.net/tools/contest16s, last accessed on August 17, 2022) [35]. These 16S 197 rRNA sequences were compared with the OTUs obtained from amplicon sequencing using 198 BLAST+ [36] to check for taxonomic consistency.

199 2.7 Phylogenetic and abundance analysis of genome bins

200 Phylum level taxonomic assignments of 32 de-replicated genome bins and 1 genome (P. 201 calidifontis - GCA000015805) included as an outgroup were inferred using GTDB-Tk v1.5.1 202 [37] with reference data version r202; phylogenetic relationships between de-replicated genome 203 bins were inferred using GToTree v1.5.22 based on a set of 25 marker genes, and a phylogenetic 204 tree was produced using FastTree2 [38]. The tree was displayed and rooted in Geneious Prime 205 v2020.2.4. The relative abundance of the 32 genome bins in all samples was assessed by cross 206 mapping reads from each of the 9 samples back to the genome bins using Bowtie2, followed by 207 in quantification of coverage of genomes each sample using coverM 208 (https://github.com/wwood/CoverM). Differential abundance of genomes between rhizosphere 209 spatial locations was assessed using the DESeq2 package in R [23]. Detailed version of this 210 section can be found in Supplementary material.

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2.8 Bulk Metagenome Analysis

Phylum level taxonomic composition of bulk metagenomes was assessed directly from raw sample reads using graftM [39] run with a custom ribosomal protein L6 (rpL6) marker database constructed from the r202 release of the GTDB database. Differentially abundant KO genes across the different sample locations were determined using the DESeq2 package (version 1.14.1) in R [23]. Pairwise comparison between sample locations was carried out using a reduced DESeq2 model (design = ~Location). Heatmap of differentially abundant genes were plotted in R using the variance stabilized abundance values.

219

220 3. **Results**

221

3.1 Container type has minimal impact on plant phenotypic growth

We investigated the spatial biogeography of rhizosphere microbiome of *B. distachyon* grown in model fabricated ecosystems (EcoFABs) in comparison with conventional containers. *B. distachyon*, a model grass species for wheat family, was chosen as it produces only one fine primary axile root from the base of the embryo [40] on which the microbial spatial analysis was performed.

We measured three major phenotypes of plant growth, i.e., dry shoot weight, shoot length, root length, to determine container impacts on general plant growth. The only significant difference was between plants grown in pots in open vs. closed conditions (**Fig. S1**). The microbox used to maintain sterile condition (closed) was observed to trap a visibly higher amount of moisture inside the box and likely created higher water retention promoting plant growth. Regardless, no other significant difference was detected within or among containers despite differences in container architecture.

234 3.2 Location on root is the highest driver of microbial community dissimilarity

We analyzed the rhizosphere microbial community from two different root locations of a 14-day 235 236 old B. distachyon and the bulk soil using full length 16S rRNA obtained using synthetic long 237 read technology. Among the 3674 OTUs obtained after quality filtering, 25 different phyla were 238 identified which corresponded to approximately 80% - 87.5% of all reads among the samples. 239 Microbial relative abundance showed on average a dominance of the bacterial phyla 240 Proteobacteria (22.3%-29.3%), Actinobacteriota (14.2%-23.5%), Acidobacteriota(12.2%-241 16.5%), Chloroflexi(6.3%-10.1%), Planctomycetota (3.7%-4.7%), Verrucomicrobiota (4.2%-242 7.4%), Bacteriodota (1.6-4.5%) and Myxococcota (1.9-2.6%) in all samples (Fig. 1a). 243 Interestingly, phyla Firmicutes had lower relative abundance in bulk (average -0.4%) compared 244 to root tip and root base samples (average - 2.6%). Microbial diversity was lower in root tip

compared to bulk soil (p<0.005, Anova and Tukey) or root base (p<0.05, Anova and Tukey) in
all three alpha diversity metrics analyzed (species number, Shannon and inverse Simpson) (Fig.
S2). On the other hand, no significant difference in diversity was observed between root base and
bulk soil. When compared between the containers for each sample location, for instance, root tip
samples between the three containers, there was no significant difference in microbial diversity
(p>0.05, Anova and Tukey) indicating negligible container impact. The same was observed for
root base and bulk soil sample locations.

252 Comparative analysis of OTUs between different samples was then carried out to investigate the influence of three parameters tested, i.e., container type, location on root and open or closed 253 254 condition. Principal Components Analysis (PCA) of the samples showed no clear separation 255 among the two conditions or among the three container types whereas a distinct separation was 256 observed between bulk soil samples compared to root base or root tip (Fig. 1b). However, no 257 distinction was seen when comparing root base and root tip based on ordination analysis. This 258 was supported statistically using MANOVA/adonis which showed the highest dissimilarity contributed by sample location ($R^2=0.10934$, p=9.99e-05) followed by container type 259 $(R^2=0.06336, p=0.00069)$ but no significant dissimilarity caused by either open or closed 260 conditions (R²=0.02149, p=0.8119). Next, we examined whether the homogeneity within 261 262 samples could be influenced by container type. Overall, the EcoFAB samples exhibited a 263 comparable homogeneity among replicates of the same sample locations compared to the other 264 two conventional containers such as pots and test tubes (Fig. 1c).

3.3 Pairwise comparison between sample locations showed the same differentially abundant OTUs regardless of container type

267 The OTUs which showed a statistically significant change in any of the pairwise comparisons, 268 regardless of the containers, were selected and visualized using a neighbor-joining tree (Fig. 2). 269 Distinct log-fold changes could be observed for comparisons looking at rhizosphere (root base or 270 root tip) vs bulk soil. Further, analysis with Spearman's correlation coefficient showed that the 271 overall log-fold changes of each OTU were statistically positively correlated in most 272 comparisons regardless of container (**Table S1**), with the only exception being the root tip vs 273 root base changes observed in pot vs test tube (rho = -0.02, p = 0.78). In all three comparisons, 274 results from EcoFAB samples were consistent with the others.

275 Using comparisons solely based on sample location, the OTUs could be grouped into three 276 distinct clusters (Fig. 2b). The first and smallest cluster showed the OTUs exhibiting significant 277 increase in the rhizosphere (root base or root tip) compared to the bulk soil. Among them are 278 multiple OTUs belonging to Mucilaginibacter (Bacteriodota), Bacillus (Firmicutes), 279 Paenibacillus (Firmicutes), and unclassified Oxalobacteraceae (Gammaproteobacteria). The 280 biggest cluster was for OTUs with a large decrease in the rhizosphere which included the phyla 281 Acidobacteriota, Gemmatimonadota and Chloroflexi. The third cluster contained OTUs with 282 minimal increase or decrease compared within sample locations and contained a mix of phyla.

3.4 Taxonomic analysis from metagenomics shows similar community composition to 16S rRNA based amplicon data

Read data from shotgun metagenome samples was directly assessed for bulk taxonomic composition using the ribosomal protein L6 (rpL6) marker gene. The phylum-level relative abundance in all samples showed dominance by the Proteobacteria, Actinobacteriota, Actinobacteriota, Planctomycetota and Verrucomicrobiota (Fig. S3a), similar to the 16S rRNA based community composition (Fig. 1a). A PCA plot also illustrated a clustering of the bulk soil

samples distinctly from the rhizosphere samples as seen earlier in the corresponding 16S
amplicon data (Fig. S3b). Overall, the metagenomic taxonomy was in correspondence with the
16S amplicon data and both types of analysis revealed minimal changes contributed by container
differences.

294 3.5 Metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) represent a small fraction of the total reads

295 Out of the 32 representative MAGs generated from 9 metagenomes after dereplication and 296 quality filtering (Fig. 3), 11 MAGs belonged to Actinobacteriota; 6 MAGs from 297 Gammaproteobacteria; 4 MAGs from Acidobacteriota and Alphaproteobacteriota; 3 MAGs each 298 from Chloroflexota; 2 MAGs from Myxococcota and 1 MAG each from Gemmatimonadota and 299 Elusimicrobiota (**Table S6**). As expected in systems with higher diversity, the total coverage of 300 these genomes was rather low, representing $\sim 3\%$ of the read data. 10 MAGs were identified to be 301 differentially abundant across sample locations (Fig. 3). It is interesting to note that one 302 Acidobacterial MAG (*Edaphobacter sp.*) had increased abundance in root tip compared to both 303 bulk and base. Members of Edaphobacter genus are reported to be associated with 304 ectomycorrhizal fungi and are important in their root colonization [41]. Only 6 MAGs had 16S 305 rRNA and all these sequences had a 97-100% match with OTUs obtained from amplicon 306 sequencing and similar phylogenetic classification.

307

3.6 Metagenome analysis reveals metabolic differences between root tip and bulk

308 5783 unique KEGG orthology groups (KOs) were annotated in the metagenomes, accounting for 309 ~30% of the total proteins predicted in each metagenome. PCA plot of KEGG Orthology (KO) 310 composition of samples indicated that samples cluster by location irrespective of the container 311 type (**Fig. S4**) and hence container parameter was excluded from further DESeq analysis. There 312 were no differentially abundant KOs when root tip was compared to base, in congruence with observations from PCA analysis of OTUs (Section 3.2). Among the 55 differentially abundant
KOs identified (Fig. 4, Table S7), 27 were enriched in root tip compared to bulk, while other 27
were decreased in tip vs. bulk and 2 KOs (one KO shared with decreased tip vs. bulk
comparison) increased in bulk over base.

317 KOs involved in different metabolic pathways were over-represented in tip compared to the bulk 318 suggesting an active microbial population utilizing plant-derived compounds. These KOs, which 319 could be broadly categorized as either enzymes, transcriptional regulators or transporters, play a 320 critical role in substrate utilization as well as root colonization. Enzymes encoded were 321 peptidases (*ampS*, *cwlO*), nucleases (*nucS*), kinases (*rsbW*, *fakA*), and other enzymes involved in 322 fatty acid degradation (acd), lipid storage (tgs/wax-dgat), cell wall synthesis (tagTUV), and 323 redox regulation (gshA, fqr). Transcriptional factors/regulator genes enriched in root tips were 324 involved in regulation of purine catabolism (*pucR*), arabinogalactan biosynthesis (*embR*), biofilm 325 formation (sigB) [42], sulfur utilization (sutR) and other functions (tetR). The enzyme, 326 peptidoglycan DL-endopeptidase encoded by *cwlO*, has been shown to regulate biofilm 327 formation and consequently root colonization in plant-beneficial rhizobacterium Bacillus 328 velezensis SQR9 [43]. Interestingly, the anti-sigma factor rsbW and sigma factor sigB were 329 identified as adjacent genes of sigB gene cluster and play important roles in stress resistance, 330 biofilm formation and root colonization in Bacillus cereus 905 [42]. Transporters involved in 331 acquisition of copper (ycnJ), amino acid translocation (rhtA), ion transport (nhaA), and other 332 nutrients (MFS (*mmr*) and ABC transporters (*mlaD/linD*)) were elevated in root tips. 4 other 333 poorly characterized genes and gene involved in oxidative phosphorylation (qcrC) were also 334 increased in the root tips over bulk metagenomes.

335 Microbes in the bulk soil do not have ready access to the labile carbon and nitrogen compounds 336 in the exudate and hence may have to invest more in the biosynthesis of machinery for 337 degradation of recalcitrant substrates and nutrient acquisition. Specifically, this involves KOs 338 corresponding to transfer RNA biogenesis (mnmE/trmE, gidA/mnmG), transcriptional regulation 339 (rho, ada), ribosome biogenesis (rlmI), and sulfur metabolism (dmsBC). Genes involved in heme 340 uptake (exbBD and tonB) [44], nitrogen assimilation/quorum sensing (rpoN) [45] 341 lipopolysaccharide export (lptF) were also increased in bulk soil. In addition, KOs involved in 342 glycogen synthesis (glgA), polysaccharide biosynthesis/export ($w_{za}/gfcE$), maintenance of 343 cellular integrity under acidic stress (ompA-ompF porin), production of coenzymes (paqL) 344 involved in free-radical scavenging, regulation of exopolysaccharide production (hprK), 345 periplasmic divalent cation tolerance (cutA) and osmotic stress genes (osmY) may confer 346 resistance to environmental stressors like osmotic stress and desiccation [46, 47] present in bulk 347 soil.

348

349 **4. Discussion**

350 We investigated the utility of EcoFABs as a possible alternative to conventional containers such 351 as pots and tubes in studying the spatial microbial biogeography of the rhizosphere. Although, 352 studies have shown that container design parameters such as size, density, depth can affect root 353 growth and basic plant physiological traits during early developmental stages [5–9], our study in 354 stark contrast, showed that EcoFABs had no significant impact on phenotypic plant growth. While most of these studies looked at container sizes around 50cm³, these studies were 355 356 performed using woody tree seedlings such as *Pinus sp.* (Pine tree species) and *Ouercus sp.* (Oak 357 tree species). Container impacts may not apply to softer wheat plants such as *B. distachyon* to a discernible extent. This emphasizes the importance of using the correct standardized containersto perform accurate study comparisons for the system under investigation.

360 Next, we investigated the impact of microbial community assembly on the root impacted by 361 container differences using both 16S amplicon sequencing and metagenomics. Based on 16S 362 amplicon sequencing results, the microbial community of each location with respect to root 363 showed relatively similar composition across all containers. Differences were observed mostly in 364 root tip or base locations compared to the bulk soil. At root tips, a decrease of bacterial OTU 365 richness and alpha diversity when compared to bulk soil has been previously reported [3, 48]. 366 This reduction in microbial diversity in the rhizosphere is commonly observed [49] as the root 367 exudates create a selective environment, recruiting selected microbes from bulk soil. We further 368 observed that even within the rhizosphere, root tips had lower bacterial diversity (richness and 369 eveness) than root base, which concurs with the other studies conducted on *Brachypodium* roots 370 [50, 51]. Root tip environment appears to be more stochastic compared to the root base as the 371 assembly patterns appear to be more deterministic in older parts of the root [49]. This is true in 372 our study as well, there were a higher number of significant OTUs in the comparison of base vs 373 bulk than comparing tip vs bulk (Fig. 2a). Nonetheless, overall correlations show a significantly 374 positive correlation which meant that the rhizosphere effect is already developing at the tip even 375 for 2 week old seedlings of *Brachypodium*. Usually, microbial composition studies tend to occur 376 at later stages of *Brachypodium* growth [50-52] because the plant often takes 30 - 35 days to 377 reach maturity [40]. Our study, however, shows that a rhizosphere effect may be occurring as 378 early as 14 days into the plant growth albeit a weaker impact at the root tips.

Only some of the dominant rhizosphere community members such as Gammaproteobacteria and
Bacteriodota matched the observations in a previous study with *Brachypodium* rhizosphere [50].

381 Phyla such as *Betaproteobacteria*, which were highly enriched in a previous study with mature 382 plants [50], were neither abundant nor showed enrichment in the rhizosphere. Nonetheless, other 383 rhizosphere enriched groups in this study include Actinobacteria, Acidobacteria and 384 Verrucomicrobia which seems to be more of an effect of the low pH soil characteristic of our 385 field site [53]. Additionally, in that study [50] Brachypodium was grown in sand amended soil 386 which could explain the differences. Actinobacteria, for instance, is associated with rhizosphere 387 in soils with high organic content [54, 55]. In another study where fine scale sampling of 4-388 week-old *Brachypodium* roots was performed, Firmicutes were more abundant in root tips 389 compared to root base, whereas opposite trend was observed for Verrucomicrobia [51]. Phyla 390 such as Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria and Bacteriodota were reported to be enriched in wheat 391 rhizosphere [56]. Thus, in line with prior studies, our data also suggests that a combination of 392 root exudates and edaphic factors are working in tandem to enrich a specific rhizosphere 393 community.

394 Among 150 OTUs which were differentially abundant between different sampling locations, all 395 OTUs belonging to phylum Firmicutes and Bacteriodota were enriched in rhizosphere over bulk 396 soil. These included genera Bacillus and Paenibacillus (Firmicutes) and Mucilaginibacter 397 (Bacteriodota). Members of *Paenibacillus* have been isolated from rhizosphere of wide variety are capable of fixing-nitrogen [57-59]. Similarly, several 398 of plants; several of these 399 *Mucilaginibacter* strains have been isolated from rhizosphere, and a comparative analysis of 400 various strains in this genus highlighted the presence of diverse carbohydrate active enzymes 401 including cellulose-degrading enzymes [60]. Impacts of different Bacillus isolates on 402 Brachypodium plants have been characterized previously; Bacillus isolates can accelerate 403 growth, provide drought protection [61], influence root architecture [61] and can modulate plant

404 hormone homeostasis. Some *Bacillus*, could be classified as r-strategists, which can quickly
405 grow in response to nutrient availability in rhizosphere [51].

406 Majority of differentially abundant OTUs belonging to Gemmatimonodota, Acidobacteria and 407 Verrucomicrobia had reduced abundance in the rhizosphere compared to bulk. These bacterial 408 groups are slow-growing and oligotrophic [62–64], thus more suited to survive in bulk soil away 409 from the nutrient-rich rhizosphere. On the contrary, the OTUs belonging to Actinobacteria, 410 Gammaproteobacteria and Alphaproteobacteria showed no clear trends—OTUs could be either 411 enriched or depleted in the rhizosphere.

412 We observed congruence between taxonomic results obtained by 16S rRNA gene sequencing 413 and metagenomics (rpL6 marker gene), demonstrating reliability of different sequencing 414 methodologies for bacterial profiling (short read Illumina vs. long-read technology). 415 Comparative analysis of metagenomic functional potential between various sampling locations 416 revealed significant differences between root tips and bulk soil. KO genes involved in different 417 metabolic pathways and root colonization were over-represented in tip compared to bulk 418 suggesting an active microbial population capable of utilizing plant-derived exudates and 419 occupying the rhizosphere. KO genes associated with biosynthesis of machinery for degradation 420 of recalcitrant substrates, nutrient acquisition and stress-tolerance were prominent in bulk soil 421 where readily available substrates are scarce in comparison to the vicinity of roots. These 422 findings are consistent with other metagenomic studies comparing rhizosphere vs. bulk soil [65] 423 and also in agreement with the results from 16S amplicon sequencing, where rhizosphere is 424 abundant in fast-growing groups and bacterial assembly in root tips is stochastic, while bulk soil 425 is enriched with groups that are more oligotrophic and adapted to survive in nutrient-limited 426 conditions.

427 We would also like to highlight a few shortcomings of this study. As a result of low DNA yields, 428 samples were pooled for metagenomics which led to low sample numbers. In addition to this, 429 genome-resolved metagenomics yielded fewer genomes making statistical analysis of genome 430 relative abundance and metabolic enrichment analysis difficult. Differences in gene abundance 431 were observed only between root tips and bulk soil, thus differences within rhizosphere 432 compartments (tip vs. base) are unclear which is probably due to sampling of young plants. This 433 is inturn associated with EcoFAB size which limits how long plants could be grown, but can be 434 easily addressed with bigger molds.

435

Thus, we have demonstrated the influence of root exudation patterns in shaping microbial 436 437 communities on different sections of the root in comparison with bulk soil in as young as 14-day 438 old Brachypodium plants through 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing and metagenomic analyses. 439 To further probe into the physiology of root-enriched microbes, we will perform high-throughput 440 enrichment of this rhizobiome on known root exudate compounds to create reduced complexity 441 communities. This biogeography study serves as proof of concept for further investigation into 442 high-resolution sampling of rhizosphere to understand biological interactions occurring at finer 443 scales. We are currently working on engineering materials that can be integrated into EcoFABs 444 to enable localized, sub-millimeter scale sampling at different timepoints.

445

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- 451

452 6. Competing Interests

- 453 The authors declare no competing financial interests
- 454 7. Data Availability Statement
- 455 The 16S rRNA amplicon sequences and metagenome-assembled genomes generated during the
- 456 current study are available in the NCBI SRA repository, under the BioProject ID PRJNA902408.
- 457 The full assemblies for each metagenome sample are publicly available at our in-house analysis
- 458 platform, ggKbase (https://ggkbase.berkeley.edu).
- 459
- 460 8. References
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649 9. Figures

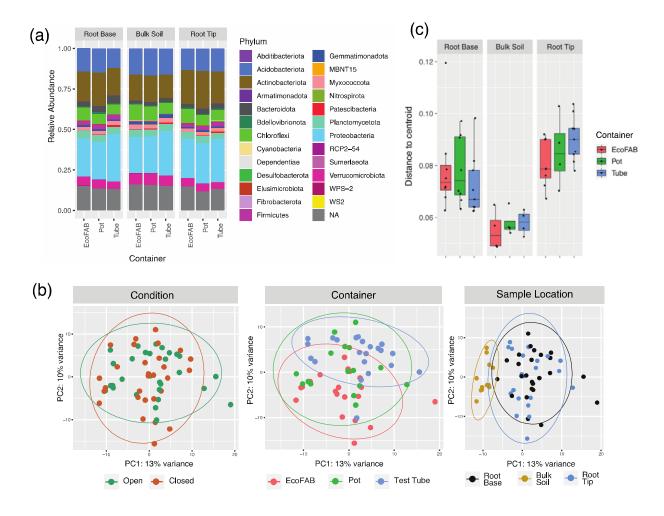
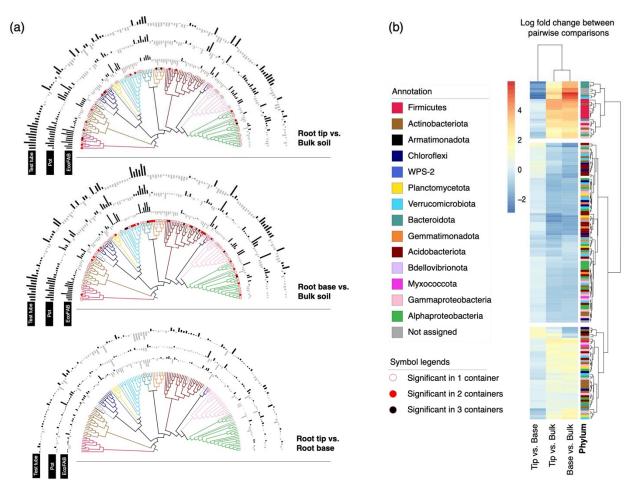


Figure 1. (a) Microbial relative abundance based on 16s rRNA amplicon sequencing of rhizosphere (root
tip and root base) and bulk soil samples 14-day old *Brachypodium distachyon* grown in three different

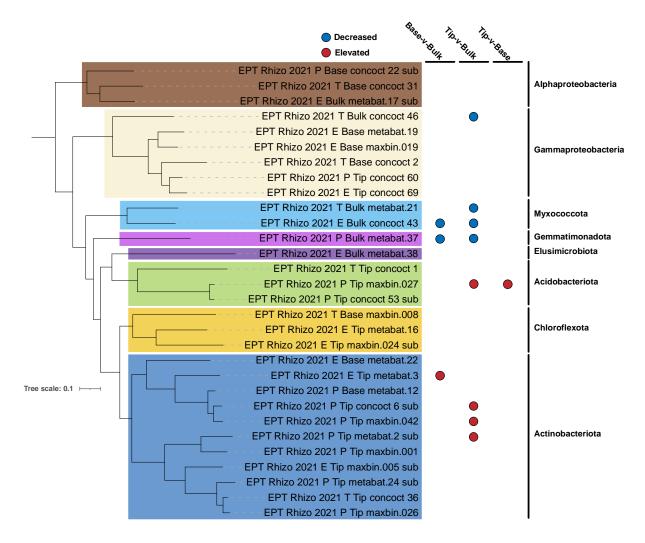
- 653 containers: EcoFAB, pot and test tubes, (b) PCA plot of variance stabilized 16S amplicon data, the
- samples are then visualized according to the three different variables examined: condition, container or
- 655 sample location, (c) Boxplot showing multivariate homogeneity of group dispersions grouped according
- to sample location and container.



657

Figure 2. (a) Neighbor joining tree of selected OTUs which showed significant log fold changes during pairwise analysis of sample locations. The top tree depicts a pairwise comparison between root tip and root base and the bottom tree depicts the comparison between root base and bulk soil. The bar chart around the tree corresponds to log fold changes for each OTU in each of the different containers - test tube, pot or EcoFAB. An outward bar away from the tree represents a positive log fold change in the and an inward bar towards the tree represents a negative fold change in the respective OTU. The significant changes are indicated at the bottom of each node with a symbol. No symbol at the bottom of the node

- 665 means the fold change is not statistically significant. (b) Clustering of selected OTUs based on pairwise
- 666 comparison between sampling locations (ignoring containers) reveals three different clusters. Each OTU
- 667 is colored by the phylum it belongs to.
- 668



670Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree of 30 of 32 dereplicated MAGs passing tree building criteria (P. calidifontis -671GCA000015805 included as outgroup for rooting; not displayed) along with their differential abundance672(significantly elevated or decreased; Wald Test - FDR ≤ 0.05) based on sample location. MAG names are673colored based on their phylum-level classification and phyla names displayed on the right. Tree was674inferred using a set of 25 phylogenetically informative marker genes conserved between Archaea and675Bacteria.

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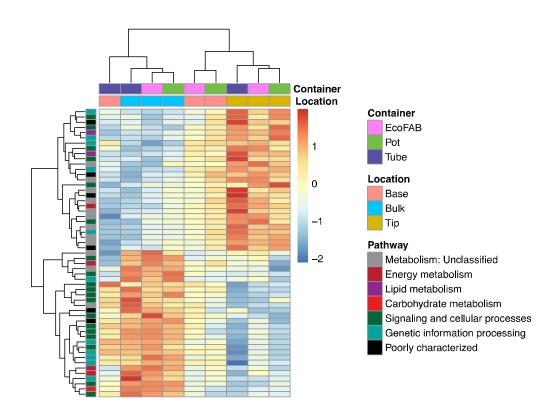




Figure 4. Heatmap of abundance of 55 differentially abundant KEGG Orthology genes across different
locations in the 9 metagenome samples based on DESeq analysis (corrected p-value <0.1), normalized by
z-score across all datasets. Each row represents a gene, colored by its KEGG level I classification. 27
KOs were enriched in root tip compared to bulk, 27 KOs were enriched in bulk compared to tip and 2
KOs in bulk over base.