

1 **Modeling trophic dependencies and exchanges among insects' bacterial** 2 **symbionts in a host-simulated environment**

3 Itai Opatovsky,^{ab} Diego Santos-Garcia,^c Tamar Lahav,^a Shani Ofaim,^a Laurence Mouton,^d
4 Valérie Barbe,^e Einat Zchori-Fein,^f Shiri Freilich,^{a#}

5

6 Institute of Plant Sciences, Newe Ya'ar Research Center, The Agricultural Research
7 Organization, Ramat Yishay, Israel^a; Regional Agricultural Research and Development
8 Center, Southern Branch (Besor), Israel^b; Department of Entomology, Hebrew University of
9 Jerusalem, Rehovot, Israel^c; Laboratoire de Biométrie et Biologie Evolutive, Université de
10 Lyon, 69622 Villeurbanne Cedex, France^d; CEA/DSV/IG/Genoscope, Evry, France^e; Newe
11 Ya'ar Research Center, The Agricultural Research Organization, Ramat Yishay, Israel^f

12

13 Running Head: A comparative model for studying symbiont interactions

14

15 # Address correspondence to Shiri Freilich, shiri@volcani.agri.gov.il.

16 I.O. and D.S.G. contributed equally to this work.

17 Abstract word count: 250

18 Text word count: 4707

19

20

21 **Abstract**

22 Individual organisms are linked to their communities and ecosystems via metabolic activities.

23 Metabolic exchanges and co-dependencies have long been suggested to have a pivotal role in

24 determining community structure. Metabolic interactions with bacteria have been key drivers

25 in the evolution of sap-feeding insects, enabling complementation of their deprived nutrition.

26 The sap-feeding whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) harbors an obligatory

27 symbiotic bacterium, as well as varying combinations of facultative symbionts. We took

28 advantage of the well-defined bacterial community in *B. tabaci* as a case study for a

29 comprehensive and systematic survey of metabolic interactions within the bacterial

30 community and their associations with documented frequency of bacterial combinations. We

31 first reconstructed the metabolic networks of five common *B. tabaci* symbionts (*Portiera*,

32 *Rickettsia*, *Hamiltonella*, *Cardinium* and *Wolbachia*), and then used network analysis

33 approaches to predict: (1) species-specific metabolic capacities in a simulated bacteriocyte-

34 like environment; (2) metabolic capacities of the corresponding species' combinations, and

35 (3) dependencies of each species on different media components.

36 The automatic-based predictions for metabolic capacities of the symbionts in the host

37 environment were in general agreement with previously reported genome analyses, each

38 focused on the single-species level. The analysis suggested several previously un-reported

39 routes for complementary interactions. Highly abundant symbiont combinations were found

40 to have the potential to produce a diverse set of complementary metabolites, in comparison to

41 un-detected combinations. No clear association was detected between metabolic co-

42 dependencies and co-occurrence patterns. The findings indicate a potential key role for

43 metabolic exchanges as key determinants shaping community structure in this system.

44

45

46 **Importance**

47 This study harnesses the rapid advances in tools developed within the newly emerging field
 48 of eco-systems biology to study a small, closed, well-defined micro-ecosystem of a bacterial
 49 community, allowing a detailed description of its trophic networks. In addition to indicating
 50 un-reported routes for complementary interactions between co-located symbionts of *Bemisia*
 51 *tabaci*, this study provides a generic tool for creating testable predictions of metabolic
 52 interactions in complex communities. Understanding the overall metabolic interactions in a
 53 given system is of key importance in ecology and evolution and can provide a powerful tool
 54 for expanding knowledge on inter-species bacterial interactions in various ecosystems.

55 **Introduction**

56 Metabolic interactions are one of the main factors shaping communities and ecosystems by
 57 forming complex trophic networks. In bacterial communities, metabolic exchanges are
 58 ubiquitous and play a pivotal role in determining community structure (1–8). Bacteria also
 59 exchange metabolites with multicellular organisms, and such of mutualistic interactions have
 60 been a key driver of evolution, enabling eukaryotic expansion into new ecological niches and
 61 species diversification (9, 10). Among the most studied evolutionary radiations that has
 62 depended on symbiosis are the sap-feeding insects such as whiteflies, aphids, psyllids,
 63 cicadas and spittlebugs. All have intimate associations with maternally transmitted,
 64 intracellular bacteria that provide essential nutrients (mainly essential amino acids) and
 65 thereby enable dietary specialization on phloem or xylem sap of vascular plants (11–13) - a
 66 poor environment composed mainly of simple sugars and non-essential amino acids (14). The
 67 interaction with these inherited partners is obligatory for insect survival, and the bacteria are
 68 thus located inside specialized insect cells termed bacteriocytes. In addition, insects may
 69 harbor a diverse array of facultative, nonessential bacterial associates in the bacteriocytes or
 70 other body tissues (15). Facultative symbionts are suggested to serve as a “horizontal gene
 71 pool”, where variation in their combinations may have functional significance (16–19).
 72 Notably, since the obligatory symbionts are exposed to an irreversible process of genome
 73 reduction that can erode their metabolic potential (20), facultative symbionts can, in some
 74 cases, complement or replace parts of the lost functions (21–23).
 75 In recent years, metabolic approaches, based on genome-driven network constructions, have
 76 been applied to predict the potential metabolic dependencies and metabolic exchanges
 77 between bacterial species (4, 8, 24). Newly developed tools for genome-based metabolic
 78 reconstruction enable predicting sets of interactions formed between species combinations ,
 79 and the specific exchange of fluxes within multi-species systems (25, 26). Crossing such

80 predictions with corresponding co-occurrence patterns allows deciphering the importance and
 81 meaning of variations in such bacterial assemblages (3, 27). To this end, multiple information
 82 layers are required, including symbiont co-occurrence patterns, environmental conditions,
 83 genetic background of both host and symbionts, and genome-driven predictions for
 84 symbionts' potential activities. Here, based on the availability of both distribution patterns
 85 and bacterial genome sequences, we focused on exploring the functional significance of
 86 combinations of facultative symbionts in the sweetpotato whitefly *Bemisia tabaci*
 87 (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) and their potential role in shaping alternative community
 88 structures.

89 *Bemisia tabaci* is a major pest of several key crops worldwide (28) and is referred to as a
 90 complex of species, consisting of at least 28 morphologically indistinguishable, genetically
 91 delimited groups or species (29, 30). All whiteflies, including *B. tabaci*, harbor the primary
 92 symbiont “*Candidatus Portiera aleyrodidarum*” (hereafter *Portiera*) (31), which has undergone
 93 substantial genomic reduction as other obligatory symbionts (20), but is still able to produce
 94 most of the essential amino acids (32, 33). In addition, *B. tabaci* has been reported to harbor
 95 varying combinations of facultative symbionts, from bacterial genera *Rickettsia*,
 96 *Hamiltonella*, *Wolbachia*, *Arsenophonus*, *Cardinium*, *Hemipteriphilus* and *Fritschea* (34).
 97 The occurrence and frequencies of combinations of these bacterial symbionts were
 98 investigated using a dataset of over 2,000 whiteflies, representing both the largest and the
 99 most comprehensive meta-study of insects for which communities of facultative symbionts
 100 have been described (34). MEAM1 and MED-Q1, the two most widespread genetic groups of
 101 *B. tabaci*, were found to typically harbor the facultative symbiont “*Ca. Hamiltonella defensa*”
 102 (hereafter *Hamiltonella*) in addition to the obligatory symbiont *Portiera*. A combination of
 103 *Hamiltonella* and “*Ca. Rickettsia* sp.” (hereafter *Rickettsia*) seemed to be unique to MEAM1
 104 individuals, while combinations of *Hamiltonella* with either “*Ca. Cardinium hertigii*” or “*Ca.*

Wolbachia sp.” (hereafter *Cardinium* and *Wolbachia* respectively) were unique to individuals of the MED-Q1 genetic group. Because the analysis revealed no correlation between specific facultative symbiont complexes and any of the environmental factors tested (34), we hypothesized that metabolic interactions may be involved in shaping the bacterial community structure. The recent release of the genome sequences of *Portiera*, *Rickettsia*, *Hamiltonella*, and *Cardinium* (23, 32, 35–40) has promoted analyses of interactions between the obligatory symbiont *Portiera* and its *B. tabaci* host (23, 33, 39, 41), the facultative symbionts and *B. tabaci* (23, 35, 36, 39), and the obligatory and facultative symbionts (23, 33). At both trophic levels, metabolic exchanges were suggested to be required for the completion of essential metabolic pathways. Branched Chain Amino Acids (BCAAs), for example, are synthesized through *Portiera*–host complementary interaction (33, 39, 41) while lysine biosynthesis can occur via *Portiera*–host or *Portiera*–*Hamiltonella* complementation (23, 39).

As metabolic cross talk is suggested to convey functional capacities associated with specific species combinations, we conducted comparative-interaction analysis considering interactions formed between pairwise combinations of residing symbionts. We first reconstructed the metabolic networks of five symbionts (*Portiera*, *Rickettsia*, *Hamiltonella*, *Cardinium* and *Wolbachia*), and then used network analysis approaches to predict: (1) species-specific metabolic capacities in a simulated host’s bacteriocyte-like environment; (2) metabolic capacities of species' combinations, and (3) the dependencies of each species on the different media components.

Results

Metabolic capacities of individual symbionts in the simulated bacteriocyte environment

The complete genomes of *Portiera*, *Cardinium*, *Hamiltonella*, and *Rickettsia* from *B. tabaci* MEAM1 and MED species were retrieved from public resources (Table 1) and the genome of *Wolbachia* was assembled *de novo* (Supplemental material, Table S1). All genomes were

analyzed using a standard automated procedure followed by manual revision. For each bacterium, a metabolic-network was reconstructed based on the identification of its genome-derived enzyme content.

Beyond the static representation of data as a network, computational simulations allow addressing the influence of environmental inputs (nutritional resources) on the network structure and composition, *i.e.*, the metabolic capacities of a species in a given environment, for example, in terms of its ability to produce essential metabolites. More specifically, expansion algorithms generate the set of all possible metabolites that can be produced given a set of starting compounds (source-metabolites) and a set of feasible reactions (42). We defined the starting compounds as a compilation of nutrients provided by the host whitefly in the bacteriocyte environment based on previous studies (33, 39, 41, 43). Our predicted bacteriocyte environment was composed of 50 compounds including ATP, co-factors and vitamins such as NAD⁺, heme and thiamine, six non-essential amino acids, and sugars (Table S2).

For each of the symbionts we simulated metabolic activity in the bacteriocyte environment and listed a sub-set of essential metabolites predicted to be produced (Table S3). It was found that most of the secondary symbionts are capable of producing nucleic acids (Fig. S1), whereas their ability to produce amino acids and co-factors varied (Fig. 1). *Portiera*, being an obligatory symbiont that has undergone substantial genomic reduction, was the most limited in its metabolic capacities. It was capable of synthesizing alanine and the essential amino acids threonine, methionine, tryptophan and phenylalanine (Fig. 1), in accordance with previous reports regarding its metabolic capacity and interaction with the whitefly host (32, 40). All of the facultative symbionts were capable of synthesizing the non-essential amino acid glycine, which was not produced by *Portiera*. As previously reported alanine is only produced by *Hamiltonella* and *Cardinium* (23, 35, 39). In addition, and in accordance with

previous results, asparagine could be produced by the facultative symbionts *Hamiltonella*, *Wolbachia* and *Cardinium* (23, 39). Overall, the automatic-based predictions for metabolic capacities of the symbionts in the host environment generated by the model were in general agreement with previously reported genome analyses.

Complementary production of amino acids

The genome-specific differences in the production of amino acids (Fig. 1) suggested that complementary metabolic interactions can potentially take place in the bacteriocyte ecosystem, increasing the total number of amino acids that can be synthesized by the residing bacteria. This is supported by some established examples that demonstrate the co-production of amino acids by bacterial combinations through complementation of metabolic pathways in various ecological systems, including insect-symbiont interactions (3, 44–46). To predict complementation patterns, we repeated co-growth simulations for pairwise combinations in the exact same environment as for single-species simulations. A metabolite was defined as "complementary" if its synthesis requires a combination of bacterial species (*i.e.*, individual members of the combination cannot produce it). Overall, complementary interactions for the co-synthesis of four essential amino acids were detected (Fig. 1): lysine production by *Hamiltonella*-*Wolbachia* and *Portiera*-*Hamiltonella* combinations and production of the three BCAs (leucine, valine and isoleucine) by the *Portiera*-*Rickettsia* combination. While the complementation of *Hamiltonella*-*Wolbachia* for lysine production has not been previously reported, our results are in agreement with the possible cooperation of *Portiera* and *Hamiltonella* for its production (23, 39). The production of BCAs in the bacteriocyte environment has been suggested to take place through a complementary interaction between *Portiera* and *B. tabaci*. Our analysis suggested an alternative route for the production of BCAs through an interaction between the obligatory symbiont *Portiera* and the facultative symbiont *Rickettsia*. This previously unreported complementation is in

agreement with identification of the *ilvE* gene in *Rickettsia* from *B. tabaci*, carrying the final reaction in the BCA-synthesis pathway (47).

Profiles of complementary metabolites

Beyond the complementary production of amino acids, we recorded, for each pairwise bacterial combination, a vector describing the set of potential complementary metabolites (Table S4). The interactions formed between the most frequent symbionts - the obligatory symbiont *Portiera* and the partially fixated symbiont *Hamiltonella* - and the other symbionts, produced a high number of complementary metabolites per interaction (average of ~12; Table 2). In comparison, the lowest number of complementary metabolites was predicted for *Cardinium* (average of ~4, Table 2), the symbiont with the lowest number of appearances in the surveyed populations (34). Overall, the interaction matrix included seven occurring combinations (blue, Table 2) versus three non-occurring combinations (red), with an average number of ~12 versus ~3 complementary metabolites.

Principle Component Analysis (PCA) of the complementary-metabolite vectors suggested four key types of interaction-groups (Fig. 2): *Portiera* associated interactions (with *Hamiltonella*, *Rickettsia* and *Wolbachia*), the two divergent *Hamiltonella*-associated interactions (with *Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia*), and the non-occurring combinations *Cardinium-Wolbachia*, and *Rickettsia-Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia-Cardinium* (red combinations in Table 2 and Fig. 2). *Cardinium-Portiera* combination is classified together with *Hamiltonella-Wolbachia* and not with the other *Portiera* associated combinations. Metabolites common to the *Portiera*-associated combinations included amino-acyl transferases and many primary metabolites such as amino acids and co-factors. Complementary metabolites common to the co-clustered *Portiera-Hamiltonella* and *Portiera-Wolbachia* combinations included potential precursors of methionine and purine/thiamine (Table S4); all potential interactions have been previously suggested for *Hamiltonella* (39), but not for *Wolbachia*.

The relatively divergent clustering pattern recorded for the combinations of facultative symbionts *Hamiltonella-Wolbachia* and *Hamiltonella-Rickettsia* (Fig. 2) might be attributed to the fact that most of these metabolites are not common but rather interaction-specific: interactions between *Hamiltonella* and *Wolbachia* were mostly involved in the synthesis of secondary metabolites, mainly terpenoids; interactions between *Hamiltonella* and *Rickettsia* were mostly involved in butanoate and amino sugar metabolism (Table S4). Finally, non-occurring combinations typically led to a low number of potential complementary metabolites and were clustered.

Co-dependencies of symbionts on specific media components

Under the assumption that highly similar metabolic demands may hint at resource competition and potentially lead to exclusion of the less fit competitor, the extent to which symbiont combinations rely on common resources was assessed. Scores were evaluated using NetCmpt, which provides predictions for the degree of effective metabolic overlap between pairs of bacterial species, ranging between 0 (no overlap) and 1 (complete overlap) (26). Scores are a-symmetrical whereas the effect of interactions on pair members is likely to differ (*i.e.*, one of the species is likely to be more affected than its potential competitor). The score is indicative of the effect of the column species over the row species. For example, *Hamiltonella* was almost unaffected by *Portiera* and *Cardinum* and was more sensitive to the presence of *Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia* (Table 2). Overall, pairwise scores were relatively low, ranging between 0.03 (the effect of *Portiera* on *Hamiltonella*) and ~0.35 (the effect of *Hamiltonella* on *Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia*). The observed average competition score, 0.18 (Table 2), was relatively low compared to an average of 0.36 calculated for other modeled bacterial communities (4). Notably, no significant difference was observed in the level of metabolic overlap between occurring versus non-occurring combinations (Table 2).

Since resource overlap is thought to determine community structure only under limited carrying capacity of the habitat (48), we further simulated species-specific growth in the bacteriocyte-like environment, rather than considering the generic optimal environment assumed by the NetCmpt tool. We estimated the specific qualitative effect of each metabolite on growth capacity following iterative removal of one component at a time. As expected, *Portiera* exhibited the most differentiated dependency profile of all symbionts (Fig. 3). In the specific bacteriocyte simulated environment, *Portiera* relied uniquely on D-ribose 5-phosphate, D-erythrose 4-phosphate and phosphoenolpyruvate for tryptophan production, as well as on L-homocysteine for methionine production. Metabolite dependencies that were common to more than a single symbiont included dependencies on the amino acids L-cysteine (*Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia*) and L-serine (*Cardinium*, *Hamiltonella* and *Wolbachia*). Hence, co-dependency might lead to a mutually exclusive distribution pattern, as suggested for *Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia* (34).

In addition, common dependencies on NAD⁺ (*Hamiltonella*, *Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia*) and ATP (*Cardinium* and *Rickettsia*) reflected the energy production pathways of the corresponding symbionts. NAD⁺ dependent bacteria all have a citrate cycle requiring NAD⁺ as a reducing force. *Rickettsia* and *Cardinium*, both missing glycolytic pathways, rely on the host for ATP production. Though *Rickettsia* possesses a citrate-cycle, capable of producing ATP, its activation requires thiamine diphosphate, which was not present in our bacteriocyte environment. In our simulations, *Wolbachia* was the only symbiont that could produce thiamine diphosphate from the thiamine provided through the activity of thiamine diphosphokinase. Like *Cardinium*, *Portiera* does not possess either a citrate-cycle or glycolysis pathway. However, at least to a minimal amount, ATP production can potentially occur through the activity of ATP phosphoribosyltransferase in the histidine-metabolism

pathway requiring D-ribose 5-phosphate as input. In addition, *Portiera* can also obtain ATP through carotenoid biosynthesis (49).

Discussion

We harnessed the rapidly advancing tools developed within the newly emerging field of ecosystem biology to study a small, closed, well-defined micro ecosystem of a bacterial community. The focus on this unique community allowed exploring metabolic interactions between all relevant pairwise combinations, providing a detailed description of the trophic networks. Using simulation models to predict metabolic exchanges and co-dependencies we aimed to shed light on the role played by symbiotic interactions in shaping host ecology and how the ecology within the host can constrain community structure. The analysis was based on several assumptions and limitations that should be acknowledged: (1) we assumed a free flux of metabolites between the host and the symbionts and among the symbionts themselves. Several descriptions of the frequent exchanges in microbial communities support this assumptions (3, 50, 51). (2) The model is qualitative, only providing binary predictions for the production or absence of a metabolite rather than quantitative estimates for metabolite consumption/production as produced for stoichiometric networks using constraint based modeling. Hence, metabolites that are common resources for several symbionts might not induce competition, as they are not necessarily limiting. Similarly, the coproduction of nutrients might take place in negligible amounts, (3) the model is limited to the identification of metabolic interactions which are not likely to be the only factor affecting community structure. However, despite the inherent limitations of the approach, the analysis successfully captured previous genome-based predictions of metabolic complementations at host-symbiont and symbiont-symbiont levels in the bacteriocyte (23, 32, 39). Such evidence supports the relevance of our tool for the formulation of new, testable predictions of metabolic exchanges in an automated manner. Moreover, our simulations take into account a

specific environment, hence reflecting the common notion that interactions are dynamic and can vary with the addition or depletion of nutrients (4, 6, 44).

This study focused on diet-limited insects that rely on obligatory associations with bacteria for complementation of their nutritional needs. The role of cooperative coevolution in selecting for traits that enable and stabilize such symbioses has been thoroughly discussed in the literature (10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 19, 52, 53). One of the most important negative ramifications of symbiotic alliances is the genome-reduction process in the obligatory symbionts that limits beneficial contributions (54). Consequently, a new symbiont may replace or supplement the capabilities of a previous one. The dynamic acquisition and loss of horizontally transmitted facultative symbionts enable the continuous persistence of many species. Although the facultative symbiont's ability to colonize a new host is strongly influenced by metabolic similarities between the new and old host (35, 55), it also relies, at least to some extent, on the metabolic interactions that it forms with its new environment (56). Accordingly, transient bacterial species are expected to co-occur less frequently than expected by random chance if they are competing for limiting metabolic resources. Similarly, if their metabolic pathways are complementary with respect to the production of a mutually required resource, they are expected to co-occur more frequently than expected by random chance. Such interactions can also suggest a possible gain that compensates for the fitness cost of co-infections (56, 57).

Here, using automated tool rather than relying on genome-specific metabolic mappings (23, 33, 35, 39), we predicted four previously un-reported routes for transient complementary interactions. These interactions can potentially increase the amount of the resulting amino acids in the bacteriocyte by providing alternative synthesis routes. Examples include complementation of the synthesis of BCAs is possible through the insect host (*B. tabaci*) obligatory symbiont (*Portiera*) interaction but also, by a previously un-reported interaction

between *Portiera* and the facultative symbiont *Rickettsia*. Similarly, production of lysine as well as of the co-factor 5-methyl- tetrahydrofolate, the predominant form of dietary folate (58), occurs through the complementary *Portiera-Hamiltonella* interaction. The reported *Portiera-Hamiltonella* complementation of lysine could indicate a more intimate relationship between these symbionts, compromising the evolution of *Hamiltonella* toward a co-obligatory symbiont in some *B. tabaci* species (23, 36, 39). Though some of the complementary metabolites are redundant between co-existing interactions, they might suggest alternative production routes, possibly compensating for the limited transcriptional regulation of symbionts (59). Such complementation can be mutualistic, increasing the total amount of essential nutritional sources for all community members. Alternatively, it might only be beneficial for specific species and reflect a parasitic life style. For example, complementary production of BCAs is possible through *Portiera-Rickettsia* interactions. The *Rickettsia* from *B. tabaci* is part of the *R. bellii* group that includes many pathogenic members (60, 61). The complementation might reflect the dependency of *Rickettsia* on the BCA intermediates that it scavenges from the host-environment, bypassing the host's control of BCA biosynthesis (47).

The model suggests several complementary pathways for metabolic co-production of additional metabolites, typical of *Portiera* interactions with the facultative symbionts. All of these interactions are involved in the production of metabolites compensating for the loss of aminoacyl-tRNAs in the *Portiera* lineage (L-tryptophanyl, N-formylmethionyl, L-methionyl and L-alanyl-tRNAs, Table S4) (33). Although these losses are assumed to reflect the dependency of *Portiera* on its host (30,31,58), the analysis suggests alternative routes for such complementation.

Complementary interactions also lead to the potential synthesis of secondary metabolites regulating host-parasitoid interactions(62, 63). For example, dimethylallyl diphosphate, a

terpenoid, is involved in the metabolism of aphid's alarm pheromones(64); sialic acids have diverse functions in host-bacteria interactions, including as signaling molecules and nutritional sources (65) (Table S4).

Specific combinations of co-occurring symbionts have been shown to correlate with delimited genetic groups of *B. tabaci* (34). Combinations of *Hamiltonella* with *Rickettsia* are unique to individuals from MEAM1, whereas combinations of *Hamiltonella* with *Wolbachia* are commonly found in individuals from MED-Q1. Notably, both combinations, which are highly dominant in their corresponding genetic group (34), have the potential to co-produce a diverse set of primary and secondary metabolites (14 and 18, respectively), which can increase host fitness, favoring their maintenance on this species. Unlike the relatively conserved profile of complementary metabolites produced through interactions between the obligatory and facultative symbionts, the complementary profiles formed by *Hamiltonella-Rickettsia* and *Hamiltonella-Wolbachia* are relatively diverse (Fig. 2), suggesting a biotype-specific functional adaptation. *Hamiltonella-Cardinum* combination is mainly found in the MED-Q1 group. This combination is less frequent (34), which could possibly be explained by their low complementation potential (zero metabolites). Consistent with these specific examples, we observed an overall trend of low complementary potential in non-occurring combinations in comparison to occurring ones. However, the limited sample size precludes significance of these observations.

While the analysis suggested an association between high-complementation and frequent co-occurrence no such indication was detected for competitive interactions (Table 2). One possible interpretation is that metabolic exchanges are more dominant in shaping bacterial communities (66). Indeed, whereas according to classical ecology theory, inter-species competition over common resources should lead to mutual-exclusion distribution patterns (48), relevant examples are rarely identified based on potential metabolic screens (3, 4, 67). A

possibly explanation can be that only a narrow set of factors are quantitatively limited and therefore relevant for competition and determining community structure. To identify such potential limiting factors, we characterized metabolic co-dependencies between bacterial pairs. Predicted co-shared metabolites included the amino-acids L-cysteine (*Wolbachia* and *Rickettsia*) and L-serine (*Cardinium*, *Hamiltonella* and *Wolbachia*). Whereas *Hamiltonella-Cardinium* and *Hamiltonella-Wolbachia* combinations are frequent, *Wolbachia-Rickettsia* combinations are rare (34), indicating at cysteine as a potential limiting factor. Although cysteine is a non-essential amino acid that can be supplied by the host and is found in the phloem, it is the main sulfur source required for Fe-S protein biogenesis (68). In addition, common dependencies in NAD⁺ and ATP which reflect the energy-production pathways of the corresponding symbionts can have a strong influence on symbiont co-occurrences. For example, *Rickettsia* and *Cardinium*, both missing the glycolytic pathways and relying on their host for ATP production, are not found together in the host (34). In the *Rickettsia* genus, and other intracellular parasites, ADP/ATP translocases are known to play a crucial role in the exploitation of host ATP (60, 69). Interestingly, in *Cardinium* and related bacteria, ADP/ATP translocases are also present, indicating to a parasitic past (33, 70, 71). In contrast, it seems that *Wolbachia*, independent of its parasitic status, does not present (or has not acquired) the ADP/ATP translocases, relying on its own machinery to produce ATP (72).

Despite its obvious limitations, this model provides a tool for generating predictions for testable hypotheses of metabolic interactions in bacterial communities. Understanding the overall metabolic interactions in a given system is of key importance in ecology and evolution and can provide a powerful tool for expanding knowledge on inter-specific bacterial interactions in various ecosystems. With respect to applied aspects, symbiotic microorganisms have been shown to influence the success rates of various biological control programs of agricultural pests (73, 74). Attempts to establish more efficient pest-management

strategies involve the removal of specific symbionts or the introduction of others, and our proposed model is expected to contribute to the efficiency and productivity of such efforts. The presented simple model system offers a level of tractability that is crucial for paving the way to the simulation, prediction and management of microbial communities that can expanded to more complex ecosystems, such as the guts of humans and livestock, water resources and soils.

Materials and Methods

Genome assembly and annotation

Relevant genomes were collected from multiple public sources (Table 1), with the exception of the *Wolbachia* genome which was assembled *de novo* using sequence data produced by a Genoscope-funded project (<http://www.genoscope.cns.fr>). The sequence was deposited in the European Nuclear Archive (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/>) under project number PRJEB15492. The procedure is fully described in the supplemental data.

A standard protocol for annotation retrieval was applied for all genomes. Annotations were carried out using several genome-annotation pipelines: IMG/M (75), Kbase (<http://kbase.us/>), Rast (76), MG-rast (76). To estimate the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the predictions, we benchmarked the EC (enzyme commission) predictions for the *Cardinium* genome, retrieved from the four pipelines, with annotations derived from a detailed manual curation. The IMG/G predictions were the most comprehensive and in highest agreement with the manual curation (Fig. S2). Hence, for consistency, annotations for all genomes were retrieved using the JGI platform. For *Portiera*, out of four published genomes (Table 1), annotations for CP003835.1 were considered in the analysis, based on cross-genome comparative analysis of the enzymatic sets and the annotation status (manually curated, Fig. S2).

Following annotation retrieval from JGI, reciprocal BLAST searches were carried out to

eliminate contaminated sequences between co-occurring symbionts. The phylogenetic origin of highly similar sequences was determined according to BLAST best hits.

Putative pseudogenes for all re-annotated genomes were predicted using GenePrimp (77).

Manual inspection was performed for all candidate pseudogenes that had an assigned metabolic function (EC number). In addition, previous annotations of *Cardinium* and *Portiera* (32, 35) were used as supportive information for pseudogene cleaning in these species. Finally, predicted pseudogenes with valid EC accessions were removed from the predicted EC list before conducting follow-up analyses. The number of ECs annotated for each genome is indicated in Table 1. The final EC lists are provided in Table S5.

Metabolic activity simulations

Metabolic activity simulations were carried using the Expansion algorithm (42) which allows predicting the active metabolic network (expanded) given a pre-defined set of substrates and reactions. The full expansion of the network reflects both the reaction repertoire of each species/species-combination and the primary set of compounds, termed here "source-metabolites". Briefly, the algorithm starts with a set of one or more biochemical compounds acting as source metabolites for a feasible reaction, i.e., a reaction for which all required substrates are available. This reaction is selected out of the reaction pool and added to the network. In an iterative process, the products of the chosen reaction are turned into the new substrates, and so on. Processing of the starting-point compounds by relevant reactions increases the number of available compounds that can act as substrates for other, previously in-activated reactions. The network stops expanding when there are no more feasible reactions. Although, the closest organisms with a well-known and defined bacteriocyte environment are aphids, we decided not to use the information generated for this organisms, based on the long divergence time between aphids and whiteflies (more than 250 Mya) and differences in their symbiotic communities and their mode of transmission (53, 78–80). Here,

we described the resources available in the whitefly bacteriocyte by compiling several such pre-published lists that are based on genomic-driven analyses of the whitefly genome (23, 32, 39, 41). The list is composed of metabolites produced by the host only, though each symbiont changes the environment by consuming/secreting unique set of metabolites. The limitation of the environment to host secreted metabolites allows predicting potential pairwise interactions that would otherwise be masked by alternative host-symbiont routes. These compounds were termed "source metabolites" (detailed in Table S2) and were used as starting points for unfolding a meta-network formed when considering all enzymes detected across all bacterial genomes, leading to the construction of niche-specific networks.

Prediction of complementary interactions

Complementation was predicted through a three-stage model (1) constructing a combined set of metabolic reactions (EC accessions) for each pairwise combination; (2) simulating co-growth of both individual and combined bacterial genera in the predicted environment; (3) comparing the set of metabolites produced by the combined genomes to those formed by the individual genomes. Complementary/Synergistic metabolites were those formed by species combinations but not by the individual species. A list of the complementary metabolites produced in each interaction and their mapping to KEGG pathways is provided in Table S4. PCA for the vectors of synergistic metabolites was carried out using R software (81).

Prediction of co-dependencies in source metabolites

The competition scores for each pair of symbionts were calculated by the network-based tool NetCmpt (26). Beyond the quantitative estimates, NetCmpt was further extended to identify dependencies on specific source metabolites. To this end, growth simulations were carried in the bacteriocyte-like environment used throughout the analysis, rather than in the optimal environment used for the generic NetCmpt calculations. Within each simulation, the number

451 of essential metabolites was determined (e.g., amino acids, nucleic acid and co-factors, Table
452 S3) (26). Iterative simulations were carried out while removing one source metabolite at a time. For
453 each iteration, the number of essential metabolites that could not be produced following the
454 removal of a source metabolite was recorded. The procedure is illustrated in Fig. S3.
455

456

457 **Funding information**

458 The study was supported by the Israel Science Foundation, grant no. 1481/13.

459 **Acknowledgments**

460 We thank Genoscope (<http://www.genoscope.cns.fr>) for providing the RAW data for
461 assembly of the *Wolbachia* genome.

462

463 **Tables**

464 **Table 1:** Genomes list of obligatory and facultative symbionts of *Bemisia tabaci*.

Symbiont	Host	Resource {GeneBank ID} (publication)	Number of ECs ^a
<i>Portiera</i>	MEAM1	NCBI {CP003708.1} (40)	103
<i>Portiera</i>	MEAM1	NCBI {CP003868.1}	101
<i>Portiera</i>	MED-Q1	NCBI {CP003835.1}	101
<i>Portiera</i>	MED-Q2	NCBI {CP003867.1}	104
<i>Cardinium</i>	MED-Q1	NCBI {GCA_000689375.1}	112
<i>Hamiltonella</i>	MED-Q1	NCBI {GCA_000258345.1}	398
<i>Rickettsia</i> sp.	MEAM1	NCBI {GCA_000429565.1}	247
<i>Wolbachia</i> sp.	MED-Q2	ENA {PRJEB15492}	253

465 ^a Following annotation, filtering and manual curation. EC = enzyme commission.

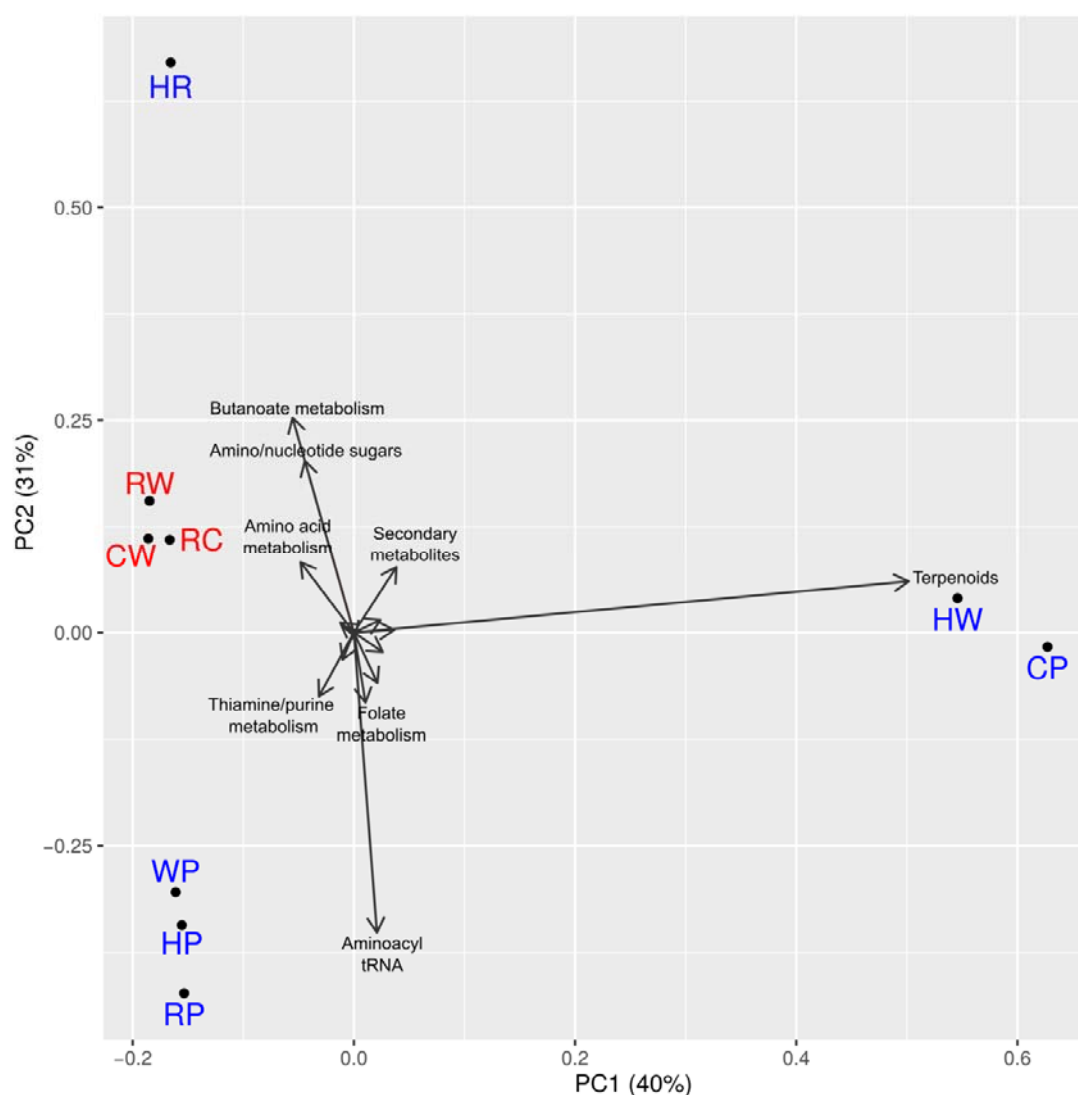
466

467 **Table 2:** Predictions of pairwise interactions in the bacteriocyte system between occurring
 468 (blue) and non-occurring (red) pairwise combinations of symbionts. Occurrence versus non-
 469 occurrence was determined according to a detailed survey of symbiont occurrence from 2030
 470 whitefly individuals (34). The first value in each cell represents the number of
 471 complementary metabolites produced in each combination; the second value (in parentheses)
 472 represents the predictions of the competition values (Effective Metabolic Overlap); the third
 473 value (in square brackets) represents the number of source metabolites that induce co-
 474 dependency of both pair members. The primary endosymbiont is denoted in bold face.

	<i>Hamiltonella</i>	<i>Rickettsia</i>	<i>Cardinium</i>	<i>Wolbachia</i>	<i>Portiera</i>
<i>Hamiltonella</i>		14 (0.2) [2]	0 (0.05) [0]	18 (0.2) [3]	15 (0.03) [0]
<i>Rickettsia</i>	14 (0.21) [2]		1 (0.12) [1]	8 (0.14) [3]	13 (0.07) [0]
<i>Cardinium</i>	0 (0.14) [0]	1 (0.12) [1]		1 (0.12) [0]	14 (0.14) [0]
<i>Wolbachia</i>	18 (0.36) [3]	8 (0.34) [3]	1 (0.14) [0]		8 (0.12) [0]
<i>Portiera</i>	15 (0.25) [0]	13 (0.25) [0]	14 (0.25) [0]	8 (0.25) [0]	

475

Figure 2: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) diagram of the synergistic metabolite profiles produced through pairwise interactions (Table S4). Synergistic metabolites are those whose synthesis requires the coexistence of both pair members and cannot be produced by either member alone in the predefined environment in which the simulations were carried out. Blue, co-occurring combinations; red, non-occurring combinations. P, C, H, R and W represent *Portiera*, *Cardinium*, *Hamiltonella*, *Rickettsia* and *Wolbachia*, respectively. HC combination has no synergistic metabolites and consequently is not represented. Vectors names represent the metabolic pathway of each synergistic metabolite in Table S4. For plotting reasons, only names of the most important vectors are displayed.



495 **Figure 3:** Reduction in symbiont's ability to produce essential metabolites following removal
 496 of specific source metabolites (metabolites predicted to be available to the endosymbionts in
 497 the bacteriocyte). Only source metabolites whose removal affected at least one species are
 498 shown. P, C, H, R and W represent *Portiera*, *Cardinium*, *Hamiltonella*, *Rickettsia* and
 499 *Wolbachia*, respectively.



500

501

References

1. **Marx CJ.** 2009. Microbiology. Getting in touch with your friends. *Science* **324**:1150–1151.
2. **Fuhrman JA.** 2009. Microbial community structure and its functional implications. *Nature* **459**:193–199.
3. **Freilich S, Zarecki R, Eilam O, Segal ES, Henry CS, Kupiec M, Gophna U, Sharan R, Ruppín E.** 2011. Competitive and cooperative metabolic interactions in bacterial communities. *Nat Commun* **2**:589–595.
4. **Freilich S, Kreimer A, Meilijson I, Gophna U, Sharan R, Ruppín E.** 2010. The large-scale organization of the bacterial network of ecological co-occurrence interactions. *Nucleic Acids Res* **38**:3857–3868.
5. **Klitgord N, Segrè D.** 2011. Ecosystems biology of microbial metabolism. *Curr Opin Biotechnol* **22**:541-546.
6. **Klitgord N, Segrè D.** 2010. Environments that induce synthetic microbial ecosystems. *PLoS Comput Biol* **6**:1–17.
7. **Großkopf T, Soyer OS.** 2014. Synthetic microbial communities. *Curr Opin Microbiol* **18**:72-77.
8. **Levy R, Borenstein E.** 2013. Metabolic modeling of species interaction in the human microbiome elucidates community-level assembly rules. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* **110**:12804–12809.
9. **Zilber-Rosenberg I, Rosenberg E.** 2008. Role of microorganisms in the evolution of animals and plants: The hologenome theory of evolution. *FEMS Microbiol Rev* **32**:723-735.
10. **Moya A, Peretó J, Gil R, Latorre A.** 2008. Learning how to live together: genomic insights into prokaryote–animal symbioses. *Nat Rev Genet* **9**:218–229.

- 527 11. **Buchner P.** 1965. Endosymbiosis of animals with plant microorganisms. New York,
528 John Wiley.
- 529 12. **Baumann P.** 2005. Biology bacteriocyte-associated endosymbionts of plant sap-
530 sucking insects. Annu Rev Microbiol **59**:155–189.
- 531 13. **Moran NA, McCutcheon JP, Nakabachi A.** 2008. Genomics and evolution of
532 heritable bacterial symbionts. Ann Rev Genet **42**:165–190.
- 533 14. **Douglas AE.** 2006. Phloem-sap feeding by animals: Problems and solutions. J Exp Bot
534 **57**:747–754.
- 535 15. **Zchori-Fein E, Kostas B.** 2011. Manipulative Tenants: Bacteria associated with
536 arthropods. CRC press.
- 537 16. **Moran NA.** 2007. Symbiosis as an adaptive process and source of phenotypic
538 complexity. Proc Natl Acad Sci **104**:8627–8633.
- 539 17. **Gueguen G, Vavre F, Gnankine O, Peterschmitt M, Charif D, Chiel E, Gottlieb Y,**
540 **Ghanim M, Zchori-Fein E, Fleury F.** 2010. Endosymbiont metacommunities,
541 mtDNA diversity and the evolution of the *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae)
542 species complex. Mol Ecol **19**:4365–4378.
- 543 18. **Jaenike J.** 2012. Population genetics of beneficial heritable symbionts. Trends Ecol
544 Evol **4**:226-232.
- 545 19. **Henry LM, Peccoud J, Simon JC, Hadfield JD, Maiden MJC, Ferrari J, Godfray**
546 **HCJ.** 2013. Horizontally transmitted symbionts and host colonization of ecological
547 niches. Curr Biol **23**:1713–1717.
- 548 20. **Bennett GM, Moran NA.** 2015. Heritable symbiosis: The advantages and perils of an
549 evolutionary rabbit hole. Proc Natl Acad Sci **112**:10169–10176.
- 550 21. **MacDonald SJ, Thomas GH, Douglas AE.** 2011. Genetic and metabolic
551 determinants of nutritional phenotype in an insect-bacterial symbiosis. Mol Ecol

- 552 **20:2073–2084.**
- 553 22. **McCutcheon JP, Von Dohlen CD.** 2011. An interdependent metabolic patchwork in
554 the nested symbiosis of mealybugs. *Curr Biol* **21**:1366–1372.
- 555 23. **Rao Q, Rollat-Farnier PA, Zhu DT, Santos-Garcia D, Silva FJ, Moya A, Latorre**
556 **A, Klein C, Vavre F, Sagot MF, Liu SS, Mouton L, Wang XW.** 2015. Genome
557 reduction and potential metabolic complementation of the dual endosymbionts in the
558 whitefly *Bemisia tabaci*. *BMC Genomics* **16**:226–238.
- 559 24. **Stolyar S, Van Dien S, Hillesland KL, Pinel N, Lie TJ, Leigh JA, Stahl DA.** 2007.
560 Metabolic modeling of a mutualistic microbial community. *Mol Syst Biol* **3**:92–104.
- 561 25. **Ebenhöh O, Handorf T, Heinrich R.** 2004. Structural analysis of expanding
562 metabolic networks. *Genome Inform* **15**:35–45.
- 563 26. **Kreimer A, Doron-Faigenboim A, Borenstein E, Freilich S.** 2012. NetCmpt: a
564 network-based tool for calculating the metabolic competition between bacterial
565 species. *Bioinformatics* **28**:2195–2197.
- 566 27. **Zelezniak A, Andrejev S, Ponomarova O, Mende DR, Bork P, Patil KR.** 2015.
567 Metabolic dependencies drive species co-occurrence in diverse microbial communities
568 **112**:6449-6454.
- 569 28. **Stansly PA, Naranjo SE.** 2010. *Bemisia*: Bionomics and management of a global pest.
570 Springer Netherlands.
- 571 29. **De Barro PJ, Liu S, Boykin L, Dinsdale AB.** 2011. *Bemisia tabaci*□: A statement of
572 species status. *Annu Rev Entomol* **56**:1–19.
- 573 30. **Hu J, Jiang Z, Nardi F, Liu Y, Luo X, Li H, Zhang Z.** 2014. Members of *Bemisia*
574 *tabaci* (Hemiptera□: Aleyrodidae) Cryptic Species and the Status of Two Invasive
575 Alien Species in the Yunnan Province (China). *J Insect Sci* **6**:1–8.
- 576 31. **Thao ML, Baumann P.** 2004. Evolutionary relationships of primary prokaryotic

- 577 endosymbionts of whiteflies and their hosts. Appl Environ Microbiol **70**:3401–3406.
- 578 32. **Santos-Garcia D, Farnier P-A, Beitia F, Zchori-Fein E, Vavre F, Mouton L, Moya**
579 **A, Latorre A, Silva FJ.** 2012. Complete genome sequence of “*Candidatus Portiera*
580 *aleyrodidarum*” BT-QVLC, an obligate symbiont that supplies amino acids and
581 carotenoids to *Bemisia tabaci*. J Bacteriol **194**:6654–6655.
- 582 33. **Santos-Garcia D, Vargas-Chavez C, Moya A, Latorre A, Silva FJ.** 2015. Genome
583 evolution in the primary endosymbiont of whiteflies sheds light on their divergence.
584 Genome Biol Evol **7**:873–888.
- 585 34. **Zchori-Fein E, Lahav T, Freilich S.** 2014. Variations in the identity and complexity
586 of endosymbiont combinations in whitefly hosts. Front Ecol Environ **5**:1–8.
- 587 35. **Santos-Garcia D, Rollat-Farnier PA, Beitia F, Zchori-Fein E, Vavre F, Mouton L,**
588 **Moya A, Latorre A, Silva FJ.** 2014. The genome of *Cardinium* cBtQ1 provides
589 insights into genome reduction, symbiont motility, and its settlement in *Bemisia tabaci*.
590 Genome Biol Evol **6**:1013–1030.
- 591 36. **Rollat-Farnier PA, Santos-Garcia D, Rao Q, Sagot MF, Silva FJ, Henri H, Zchori-**
592 **Fein E, Latorre A, Moya A, Barbe V, Liu SS, Wang XW, Vavre F, Mouton L.**
593 2015. Two host clades, two bacterial arsenals: Evolution through gene losses in
594 facultative endosymbionts. Genome Biol Evol **7**:839–855.
- 595 37. **Rao Q, Wang S, Su YL, Bing XL, Liu SS, Wang XW.** 2012. Draft genome sequence
596 of “*Candidatus Hamiltonella defensa*,” an endosymbiont of the whitefly *Bemisia*
597 *tabaci*. J Bacteriol **194**:3558-3558.
- 598 38. **Rao Q, Wang S, Zhu DT, Wang XW, Liu SS.** 2012. Draft genome sequence of
599 Rickettsia sp. strain MEAM1, isolated from the whitefly *Bemisia tabaci*. J Bacteriol
600 **194**:4741-4742.
- 601 39. **Luan JB, Chen W, Hasegawa DK, Simmons AM, Wintermantel WM, Ling KS,**

- 602 **Fei Z, Liu SS, Douglas AE.** 2015. Metabolic coevolution in the bacterial symbiosis of
603 whiteflies and related plant sap-feeding insects. *Genome Biol Evol* **7**:2635–2647.
- 604 40. **Sloan DB, Moran NA.** 2012. Endosymbiotic bacteria as a source of carotenoids in
605 whiteflies. *Biol Lett* **8**:986–989.
- 606 41. **Upadhyay SK, Sharma S, Singh H, Dixit S, Kumar J, Verma PC, Chandrashekar**
607 **K.** 2015. Whitefly genome expression reveals host-symbiont interaction in amino acid
608 biosynthesis. *PLoS One* **10**:1–16.
- 609 42. **Ebenhöh O, Handorf T, Heinrich R.** 2004. Structural analysis of expanding
610 metabolic networks. *Genome Inform* **15**:35–45.
- 611 43. **Rao Q, Rollat-Farnier PA, Zhu DT, Santos-Garcia D, Silva FJ, Moya A, Latorre**
612 **A, Klein CC, Vavre F, Sagot MF, Liu SS, Mouton L, Wang XW.** 2015. Genome
613 reduction and potential metabolic complementation of the dual endosymbionts in the
614 whitefly *Bemisia tabaci*. *BMC Genomics* **16**:226.
- 615 44. **Wintermute EH, Silver PA.** 2010. Emergent cooperation in microbial metabolism.
616 *Mol Syst Biol* **6**:407–413.
- 617 45. **Osterman A, Overbeek R.** 2003. Missing genes in metabolic pathways: A
618 comparative genomics approach. *Curr Opin Chem Biol* **7**:238-251.
- 619 46. **Gosalbes MJ, Lamelas A, Moya A, Latorre A.** 2008. The striking case of tryptophan
620 provision in the cedar aphid *Cinara cedri*. *J Bacteriol* **190**:6026–6029.
- 621 47. **Zhu DT, Xia WQ, Rao Q, Liu SS, Ghanim M, Wang XW.** 2016. Sequencing and
622 comparison of the *Rickettsia* genomes from the whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* Middle East
623 Asia Minor I. *Insect Sci* **23**:531–542.
- 624 48. **den Boer PJ.** 1986. The present status of the competitive exclusion principle. *Trends*
625 *Ecol Evol* **1**:25–28.
- 626 49. **Calle-Espinosa J, Ponce-de-Leon M, Santos-Garcia D, Silva FJ, Montero F,**

- 627 **Pereto J.** 2016. Nature lessons: The whitefly bacterial endosymbiont is a minimal
628 amino acid factory with unusual energetics. *J Theor Biol* **407**:303-317.
- 629 50. **Seth EC, Taga ME.** 2014. Nutrient cross-feeding in the microbial world. *Front*
630 *Microbiol* **5**:1–6.
- 631 51. **Paczia N, Nilgen A, Lehmann T, Gätgens J, Wiechert W, Noack S.** 2012. Extensive
632 exometabolome analysis reveals extended overflow metabolism in various
633 microorganisms. *Microb Cell Fact* **11**:122–135.
- 634 52. **Mccutcheon JP, Moran NA.** 2011. Extreme genome reduction in symbiotic bacteria.
635 *Nat Rev Microbiol* **10**:13–26.
- 636 53. **Hansen AK, Moran NA.** 2014. The impact of microbial symbionts on host plant
637 utilization by herbivorous insects. *Mol Ecol* **23**:1473–1496.
- 638 54. **Bennett GM, Moran NA.** 2013. Small , Smaller , Smallest□: The origins and
639 evolution of ancient dual symbioses in a phloem-feeding insect. *Genome Biol Evol*
640 **5**:1675–1688.
- 641 55. **Lukasik P, Guo H, van Asch M, Henry LM, Godfray HCJ, Ferrari J.** 2015.
642 Horizontal transfer of facultative endosymbionts is limited by host relatedness.
643 *Evolution* **69**:2757–2766.
- 644 56. **Ferrari J, Vavre F.** 2011. Bacterial symbionts in insects or the story of communities
645 affecting communities. *Philos Trans R Soc B-Biological Sci* **366**:1389–1400.
- 646 57. **Oliver KM, Moran NA, Hunter MS.** 2006. Costs and benefits of a superinfection of
647 facultative symbionts in aphids. *Proc Biol Sci* **273**:1273–80.
- 648 58. **Pietrzik K, Bailey L, Shane B.** 2010. Folic acid and l-5-methyltetrahydrofolate:
649 Comparison of clinical pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. *Clin Pharmacokinet*
650 **49**:535-548.
- 651 59. **Russell CW, Poliakov A, Haribal M, Jander G, van Wijk KJ, Douglas AE.** 2014.

- 652 Matching the supply of bacterial nutrients to the nutritional demand of the animal host.
- 653 Proc R Soc B Biol Sci **281**:20141163–20141163.
- 654 60. **Blanc G, Ogata H, Robert C, Audic S, Suhre K, Vestris G, Claverie JM, Raoult D.**
- 655 2007. Reductive genome evolution from the mother of *Rickettsia*. PLoS Genet **3**:0103–
- 656 0114.
- 657 61. **Weinert LA, Werren JH, Aebi A, Stone GN, Jiggins FM.** 2009. Evolution and
- 658 diversity of Rickettsia bacteria. BMC Biol **7**:6.
- 659 62. **Leroy PD, Sabri A, Heuskin S, Thonart P, Lognay G, Verheggen FJ, Francis F,**
- 660 **Brostaux Y, Felton GW, Haubruge E.** 2011. Microorganisms from aphid honeydew
- 661 attract and enhance the efficacy of natural enemies. Nat Commun **2**:348.
- 662 63. **Oliver KM, Noge K, Huang EM, Campos JM, Becerra JX, Hunter MS.** 2012.
- 663 Parasitic wasp responses to symbiont-based defense in aphids. BMC Biol **10**:11–21.
- 664 64. **Vandermoten S, Mescher MC, Francis F, Haubruge E, Verheggen FJ.** 2012. Aphid
- 665 alarm pheromone: An overview of current knowledge on biosynthesis and functions.
- 666 Insect Biochem Mol Biol **42**:155-163.
- 667 65. **Vimr ER, Kalivoda KA, Deszo EL, Steenbergen SM.** 2004. Diversity of microbial
- 668 sialic acid metabolism. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev **68**:132–153.
- 669 66. **Tilman D.** 1982. Resource competition and community structure. Princeton University
- 670 Press.
- 671 67. **Chaffron S, Rehrauer H, Pernthaler J, von Mering C.** 2010. A global network of
- 672 coexisting microbes from environmental and whole-genome sequence data. Genome
- 673 Res **20**:947–959.
- 674 68. **Py B, Barras F.** 2010. Building Fe-S proteins: bacterial strategies. Nat Rev Microbiol
- 675 **8**:436–446.
- 676 69. **Schmitz-Esser S, Haferkamp I, Knab S, Penz T, Ast M, Kohl C, Wagner M, Horn**

- 677 **M.** 2008. *Lawsonia intracellularis* contains a gene encoding a functional rickettsia-like
678 ATP/ADP translocase for host exploitation. *J Bacteriol* **190**:5746–5752.
- 679 70. **Bertelli C, Greub G.** 2012. Lateral gene exchanges shape the genomes of amoeba-
680 resisting microorganisms. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol* **2**:110.
- 681 71. **Schmitz-Esser S, Tischler P, Arnold R, Montanaro J, Wagner M, Rattei T, Horn**
682 **M.** 2010. The genome of the amoeba symbiont “*Candidatus Amoebophilus asiaticus*”
683 reveals common mechanisms for host cell interaction among amoeba-associated
684 bacteria. *J Bacteriol* **192**:1045–1057.
- 685 72. **Wu M, Sun L V, Vamathevan J, Riegler M, Deboy R, Brownlie JC, McGraw EA,**
686 **Martin W, Esser C, Ahmadinejad N, Wiegand C, Madupu R, Beanan MJ,**
687 **Brinkac LM, Daugherty SC, Durkin AS, Kolonay JF, Nelson WC, Mohamoud Y,**
688 **Lee P, Berry K, Young MB, Utterback T, Weidman J, Nierman WC, Paulsen IT,**
689 **Nelson KE, Tettelin H, O ’neill SL, Eisen JA.** Phylogenomics of the Reproductive
690 Parasite *Wolbachia pipientis* wMel: A Streamlined Genome Overrun by Mobile
691 Genetic Elements. *PLoS Biol* **2**:327-341.
- 692 73. **Zindl R, Gottlieb Y, Aebi A.** 2011. Arthropod symbioses: A neglected parameter in
693 pest- and disease-control programmes. *J Appl Ecol* **48**:864-872.
- 694 74. **Gebiola M, White JA, Cass BN, Kozuch A, Harris LR, Kelly SE, Karimi J,**
695 **Giorgini M, Perlman SJ, Hunter MS.** 2016. Cryptic diversity, reproductive isolation
696 and cytoplasmic incompatibility in a classic biological control success story. *Linn Soc*
697 London **117**:217–230.
- 698 75. **Markowitz VM, Chen I-MA, Palaniappan K, Chu K, Szeto E, Pillay M, Ratner A,**
699 **Huang J, Woyke T, Huntemann M, Anderson I, Billis K, Varghese N, Mavromatis**
700 **K, Pati A, Ivanova NN, Kyrpides NC.** 2014. IMG 4 version of the integrated
701 microbial genomes comparative analysis system. *Nucleic Acids Res* **42**:D560–7.

702 76. **Meyer F, Paarmann D, D'souza M, Olson R, Glass E, Kubal M, Paczian T,**
703 **Rodriguez A, Stevens R, Wilke A, Wilkening J, Edwards R.** 2008. The
704 metagenomics RAST server – a public resource for the automatic phylogenetic and
705 functional analysis of metagenomes. *BMC Bioinformatics* **9**:386–384.

706 77. **Pati A, Ivanova NN, Mikhailova N, Ovchinnikova G, Hooper SD, Lykidis A,**
707 **Kyrpides NC.** 2010. GenePRIMP: a gene prediction improvement pipeline for
708 prokaryotic genomes. *Nat Methods* **7**:455–457.

709 78. **Moran NA, Bennett GM.** 2014. The Tiniest Tiny Genomes. *Annu Rev Microbiol*
710 **68**:195–215.

711 79. **Misof B, Liu S, Meusemann K, Peters RS, Al. E.** 2014. Phylogenomics resolves the
712 timing and pattern of insect evolution. *Science* **346**:763–767.

713 80. **Szklarczyk T, Moskal A.** 2001. Ultrastructure, distribution, and transmission of
714 endosymbionts in the whitefly *Aleurochiton aceris* Modeer (Insecta, Hemiptera,
715 Aleyrodinea). *Protoplasma* **218**:45–53.

716 81. **R Core Team.** 2012. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R
717 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

718

719